

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI

MASTER'S PROJECT

Character Tables for Representations of Finite Groups

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Chapter 1

Basic Notions of Representation Theory

1.1 Introduction

Groups arise naturally as sets of symmetries of some object which are closed under composition and taking inverses. For example,

1. The **symmetric group** of degree n , S_n , is the group of all symmetries of the set $\{1, \dots, n\}$.
2. The **dihedral group** of order $2n$, D_{2n} , is the group of all symmetries of the regular n -gon in the plane.

In these two examples, S_n acts on the set $\{1, \dots, n\}$ and D_{2n} acts on the regular n -gon in a natural manner. One may wonder more generally: Given an abstract group G , which objects X does G act on? This is the basic question of representation theory, which attempts to classify all such X up to isomorphism.

1.2 Group Actions

Definition 1.1. A (*left*) **group action** of a group G on a set X is a map $\rho: G \times X \rightarrow X$ (written as $g \cdot a$, for all $g \in G$ and $a \in A$) that satisfies the following two axioms:

$$1 \cdot x = x \quad \forall x \in X \quad (1.1.1)$$

$$(gh) \cdot x = g \cdot (h \cdot x) \quad \forall g, h \in G, x \in X \quad (1.1.2)$$

Note. We could likewise define the concept of a *right* group action, where the set elements would be multiplied by group elements on the right instead of on the left. Throughout we shall use the term *group action* to mean a *left* group action.

Proposition 1.2. Let G act on the set X . For any fixed $g \in G$, the map σ_g from X into X defined by $\sigma_g(x) = g \cdot x$ is a permutation of the set X . That is, $\sigma_g \in S_X$.

Proof. We show that σ_g is a permutation of X by finding a two-sided inverse map, namely $\sigma_{g^{-1}}$. Observe that for any $x \in X$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (\sigma_{g^{-1}} \circ \sigma_g)(x) &= \sigma_{g^{-1}}(\sigma_g(x)) \\ &= g^{-1} \cdot (g \cdot x) && \text{(by definition of } \sigma_g \text{ and } \sigma_{g^{-1}}) \\ &= (g^{-1}g) \cdot x && \text{(by axiom 1.1.1 of an action)} \\ &= 1 \cdot x \\ &= x && \text{(by axiom 1.1.2 of an action).} \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\sigma_{g^{-1}} \circ \sigma_g$ is the identity map on X . We can reverse the roles of g and g^{-1} to see that $\sigma_g \circ \sigma_{g^{-1}}$ is also the identity map on X . Having a two-sided inverse, we conclude that σ_g is a permutation of X . \square

Proposition 1.3. *Let G act on the set X . The map from G into the symmetric group S_X defined by $g \mapsto \sigma_g(x) = g \cdot x$ is a group homomorphism.*

Proof. Define the map $\rho: G \rightarrow S_X$ by $\rho(g) = \sigma_g$. We have seen from Proposition 1.2 that σ_g is indeed an element of S_X . It remains to show that $\rho(g_1g_2) = \rho(g_1) \circ \rho(g_2)$ for any $g_1, g_2 \in G$. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \rho(g_1g_2)(x) &= \sigma_{g_1g_2}(x) && \text{(by definition of } \rho) \\
 &= (g_1g_2) \cdot x && \text{(by definition of } \sigma_{g_1g_2}) \\
 &= g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot x) && \text{(by axiom 1.1.1 of an action)} \\
 &= \sigma_{g_1}(\sigma_{g_2}(x)) && \text{(by definition of } \sigma_{g_1} \text{ and } \sigma_{g_2}) \\
 &= \rho(g_1)(\rho(g_2)(x)) && \text{(by definition of } \rho) \\
 &= (\rho(g_1) \circ \rho(g_2))(x) && \text{(by definition of function composition).}
 \end{aligned}$$

Since the values of $\rho(g_1g_2)$ and $\rho(g_1) \circ \rho(g_2)$ agree on every element $x \in X$, these two permutations are equal. We conclude that ρ is a homomorphism, since g_1 and g_2 were arbitrary elements of G . \square

Proposition 1.4. *Any homomorphism ψ from the group G into the symmetric group S_X on a set X gives rise to an action of G on X , defined by taking $g \cdot x = \psi(g)(x)$.*

Proof. Suppose that we have a homomorphism ψ from G into S_X . We can define a map from $G \times X$ to X by $g \cdot x = \psi(g)(x)$. We verify that this map satisfies the definition of a group action of G on X :

$$\text{(axiom 1.1.1)} \quad 1 \cdot x = \psi(1)(x) = \text{id}_X(x) = x$$

$$\text{(axiom 1.1.2)} \quad (gh) \cdot x = \psi(gh)(x) = (\psi(g)\psi(h))(x) = \psi(g)(\psi(h)(x)) = g \cdot (h \cdot x) \quad \square$$

Corollary 1.5. *The actions of G on the set X are in bijective correspondence with the homomorphisms from G into the symmetric group S_X .*

Proof. By Proposition 1.3, any action of G on X yields a homomorphism from G into S_X . Conversely, any homomorphism from G into S_X establishes an action of G on X by Proposition 1.4. \square

1.3 The Definition of a Representation

Definition 1.6. Let G be a group, let F be a field, and let V be a vector space over F . A **linear representation** of G is any group homomorphism $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(V)$. If we fix a basis for V , we get a representation in the previous sense.

Definition 1.7 (Alternative definition). Let G be a group, let F be a field, and let V be a vector space over F . A **linear representation** of G is an action of G on V which preserves the linear structure of V , i.e. an action of G on V such that

$$g \cdot (v_1 + v_2) = g \cdot v_1 + g \cdot v_2 \quad \forall g \in G, v_1, v_2 \in V \quad (1.7.1)$$

$$g \cdot (kv) = k(g \cdot v) \quad \forall g \in G, v \in V, k \in F \quad (1.7.2)$$

Note. Unless otherwise specified, we will restrict our discussion to *finite-dimensional* representations over \mathbb{C} .

Proposition 1.8. *The definitions of a linear representation given in 1.6 and 1.7 above are equivalent.*

Proof. (\rightarrow) Suppose that we have a homomorphism $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(V)$. Note that $GL(V)$ is a subgroup of the symmetric group S_V on V , so we can apply Proposition 1.4 to obtain an action of G on V by $g \cdot v = \rho(g)(v)$. We check that this action preserves the linear structure of V .

1.7.1 For any $g \in G, v_1, v_2 \in V$ we have $g \cdot (v_1 + v_2) = \rho(g)(v_1 + v_2) = \rho(g)(v_1) + \rho(g)(v_2) = g \cdot v_1 + g \cdot v_2$.

1.7.2 For any $g \in G, v \in V, k \in F$ we have $g \cdot (kv) = \rho(g)(kv) = k(\rho(g)(v)) = k(g \cdot v)$.

(\leftarrow) Suppose that we have an action of G on V which preserves the linear structure of V in the sense of Definition 1.7. We can apply Proposition 1.3 to obtain a homomorphism $\rho: G \rightarrow S_V$ given by $\rho(g) = \sigma_g$ where $\sigma_g(v) = g \cdot v$. It remains to show that the image $\rho(G)$ of G under ρ is actually contained in $GL(V)$, i.e. that for each $g \in G$ the map σ_g is linear. Fix an element $g \in G$. For any $k \in F$ and $v \in V$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_g(kv) &= g \cdot (kv) && \text{(by definition of } \sigma_g) \\ &= k(g \cdot v) && \text{(by property 1.7.1)} \\ &= k(\sigma_g(v)) && \text{(by definition of } \sigma_g). \end{aligned}$$

Also, for any $v_1, v_2 \in V$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_g(v_1 + v_2) &= g \cdot (v_1 + v_2) && \text{(by definition of } \sigma_g) \\ &= g \cdot v_1 + g \cdot v_2 && \text{(by property 1.7.2)} \\ &= \sigma_g(v_1) + \sigma_g(v_2) && \text{(by definition of } \sigma_g). \end{aligned}$$

Thus σ_g is linear, and $\rho(G) \subset GL(V)$ proves that we have a homomorphism $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(V)$. □

Definition 1.9. Let G be a group, let F be a field, let V be a vector space over F , and let $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ be a representation of G . The **dimension** of the representation is the dimension of V over F .

Example 1.10. 1. Let V be a 1-dimensional vector space over the field F . The map $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ defined by $\rho(g) = 1$ for all $g \in G$ is a representation called the *trivial representation* of G . The trivial representation has dimension 1.

2. If G is a finite group that acts on a finite set X , and F is any field, then there is an associated *permutation representation* on the vector space V over F with basis $\{e_x: x \in X\}$. We let G act on the basis elements by the permutation $g \cdot e_x = e_{gx}$ for all $x \in X$ and $g \in G$. This representation has dimension $|X|$.

3. A fundamental special case of a permutation representation that we shall return to later on is that when a finite group acts on itself by left multiplication. We take the vector space V_{reg} which has a basis given by the formal symbols $\{e_g | g \in G\}$,

and let G act by $\rho_{\text{reg}}(h)(e_g) = e_{hg}$. This representation is called the *regular representation* of G , and has dimension $|G|$. We shall see later that this representation encodes information about all other representations of G .

4. For any symmetric group S_n , the *alternating representation* on $V = \mathbb{C}$ is given by the map $\rho: S_n \rightarrow GL(\mathbb{C}) = \mathbb{C}^\times$ defined by $\rho(\sigma) = \text{sgn}(\sigma)$. More generally, for any group G with a subgroup H of index 2, we can define an *alternating representation* $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(\mathbb{C})$ by letting $\rho(g) = 1$ if $g \in H$ and $\rho(g) = -1$ if $g \notin H$. (We recover our original example by taking $G = S_n$ and $H = A_n$.)

Definition 1.11. A **homomorphism** between two representations $\rho_1: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ and $\rho_2: G \rightarrow GL(W)$ is a linear map $\psi: V \rightarrow W$ that intertwines with (respects) the G -action, i.e.

$$\psi \circ \rho_1(g) = \rho_2(g) \circ \psi \quad \forall g \in G.$$

An **isomorphism** of representations is a homomorphism of representations that is also an invertible map.

Note. If we have representations (ρ_1, V) and (ρ_2, W) and an isomorphism of vector spaces $\psi: V \rightarrow W$ then we can rewrite the compatibility requirement above as $\rho_2(g) = \psi \circ \rho_1(g) \circ \psi^{-1}$ for all $g \in G$.

Given any representation (ρ, V) of a group G on a vector space V over a field F of dimension n , we can fix a basis for V to obtain an isomorphism of vector spaces $\psi: V \rightarrow F^n$. This yields a representation ϕ of G on F^n by defining $\phi(g) = \psi \circ \rho(g) \circ \psi^{-1}$ for all $g \in G$. Clearly, this representation is isomorphic to our original representation (ρ, V) . In particular, this means we can always choose to view n -dimensional complex representations as representations on \mathbb{C}^n where each $\phi(g)$ is given by an $n \times n$ matrix with entries in \mathbb{C} .

Suppose that we have two representations $\rho_1: G \rightarrow GL_n(F)$ and $\rho_2: G \rightarrow GL_m(F)$ given by $\rho_1(g) = X_g$ and $\rho_2(g) = Y_g$. A homomorphism between these representations is then an $m \times n$ matrix A such that $AX_g = Y_gA$ for all $g \in G$. An isomorphism is given precisely when such A is square and invertible. Thus, two representations $\rho_1: G \rightarrow GL_n(F)$ and $\rho_2: G \rightarrow GL_n(F)$ are isomorphic if and only if there exists $A \in GL_n(F)$ such that $\rho_1(g) = A\rho_2(g)A^{-1}$ for all $g \in G$. This establishes the following proposition:

Proposition 1.12. *The isomorphism classes of n -dimensional representations of G on \mathbb{C} are in bijection with the quotient $\text{Hom}(G; GL_n(\mathbb{C}))/GL_n(\mathbb{C})$ of group homomorphisms $G \rightarrow GL_n(\mathbb{C})$ modulo the conjugation action of $GL_n(\mathbb{C})$.*

Note. In other words,

Definition 1.13. A **subrepresentation** of V is a G -invariant subspace $W \subseteq V$; that is, a subspace $W \subseteq V$ with the property that $\rho(g)(w) \in W$ for all $g \in G$ and $w \in W$. Note that W itself is a representation of G under the action $\rho(g)|_W$.

Example 1.14. Let $G = \{(1), (123), (132)\} \subset S_3$. Note that G is a subgroup of S_3 , and is isomorphic to the cyclic group of order 3. Let $V = \mathbb{C}^3$. Then G acts on the standard basis by $g \cdot e_i = e_{gi}$. Thus, the permutation representation of G (with respect to the

standard basis) is given by:

$$\begin{aligned}\rho((1)) &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \rho((123)) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ \rho((132)) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.\end{aligned}$$

Example 1.15. Let $G = C_2 \times C_2$ be the Klein four-group, i.e. the group generated by σ, τ such that $\sigma^2 = \tau^2 = e$ and $\sigma\tau = \tau\sigma$. Let V be the vector space with basis $\{b_e, b_\sigma, b_\tau, b_{\sigma\tau}\}$. Left multiplication by σ gives a permutation

$$\begin{aligned}b_e &\mapsto b_\sigma \\ b_\sigma &\mapsto b_e \\ b_\tau &\mapsto b_{\sigma\tau} \\ b_{\sigma\tau} &\mapsto b_\tau\end{aligned}$$

Thus, with respect to our given basis of V , the regular representation $\rho_{\text{reg}}: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ evaluated at σ is given by the matrix

$$\rho_{\text{reg}}(\sigma) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

We similarly calculate

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_{\text{reg}}(\tau) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ \rho_{\text{reg}}(\sigma) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

Example 1.16. Let $G = D_8 = \langle \sigma, \tau \mid \sigma^4 = \tau^2 = e, \tau\sigma\tau^{-1} = \sigma^{-1} \rangle$ be the symmetry group of the square. We can use geometry to construct a representation of G . Consider a square in the plane with vertices at $(1, 1)$, $(1, -1)$, $(-1, -1)$, and $(-1, 1)$. We let σ act on the square as a rotation by $\frac{\pi}{2}$, and let τ act by reflecting over the x -axis. This naturally gives rise to a linear action of G on all of \mathbb{C}^2 . Under the standard basis, we get the

matrices:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \rho(e) &= \text{Id}_2 \\
 \rho(\sigma) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
 \rho(\sigma^2) &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \\
 \rho(\sigma^3) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
 \rho(\tau) &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \\
 \rho(\sigma\tau) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
 \rho(\sigma^2\tau) &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\
 \rho(\sigma^3\tau) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 1.17. Let $G = C_2 = \langle \tau | \tau^2 = e \rangle$ be the cyclic group of order 2. The regular representation of G , written in the standard basis, is

$$\rho_{\text{reg}}(\tau) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\rho_{\text{reg}}(e) = \text{Id}_2$. Let ρ_1 be the alternating representation of G on \mathbb{C} , i.e.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \rho_1: G &\rightarrow GL_1(\mathbb{C}) = \mathbb{C}^\times (= \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}) \\
 \tau &\mapsto -1 \\
 e &\mapsto 1
 \end{aligned}$$

Let $f: \mathbb{C}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the linear map represented by the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ in the standard basis. Then for any vector $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^2$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 f \circ \rho_{\text{reg}}(\tau)(x) &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \rho_1(\tau) \circ f(x).
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, f is a G -linear map from ρ_{reg} to ρ_1 (i.e. a homomorphism of representations).

Now, let W be the subspace of \mathbb{C}^2 spanned by the vector $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Then

$$\rho_{\text{reg}}(\tau) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\rho_{\text{reg}}(e) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, so W is a subrepresentation of ρ_{reg} . (In fact, W is isomorphic to the 1-dimensional trivial representation of G .)

Example 1.18. We can generalize G -invariant subspace from the previous example. Suppose we have a representation $\rho: G \rightarrow GL_n(\mathbb{C})$. If we can find a vector $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ which is an eigenvector for every matrix $\rho(g)$, $g \in G$, i.e. an $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ such that

$$\rho(g)(x) = \lambda_g(x) \quad \forall g \in G$$

for some eigenvalues $\lambda_g \in \mathbb{C}$, then the span of x is a 1-dimensional G -invariant subspace of \mathbb{C}^n . It is isomorphic to the 1-dimensional representation

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_2: G &\rightarrow GL_1(\mathbb{C}) \\ g &\mapsto \lambda_g. \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 1.19. Let $f: V \rightarrow W$ be a homomorphism of representations of G . Then $\text{Ker}(f)$ is a subrepresentation of V and $\text{Im}(f)$ is a subrepresentation of W .

Proof. Let $x \in \text{Ker}(f)$. Then $0 = g0 = gf(x) = f(gx)$ for every $g \in G$, so $gx \in \text{Ker}(f)$ and $\text{Ker}(f)$ is G -invariant.

Now let $w \in \text{Im}(f)$. There exists $v \in V$ such that $w = f(v)$, so $gw = gf(v) = f(gv)$ for every $g \in G$. Thus $gw \in \text{Im}(f)$, and $\text{Im}(f)$ is G -invariant. \square

Note. Recall the subrepresentation W that we constructed in Example 1.17. This subrepresentation is precisely equal to the kernel of the map f from that example.

1.4 Representations of Cyclic Groups

Example 1.20 (Representations of \mathbb{Z}). Let's try to classify all representations of the group \mathbb{Z} under addition. Consider an n -dimensional representation $\rho: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow GL_n(\mathbb{C})$. For ρ to be a group homomorphism requires that $\rho(0) = \text{Id}$. Observe that for any $0 \neq n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have $\rho(n) = \rho(1 + \dots + 1) = \rho(1)^n$. Then ρ is completely determined by the matrix $\rho(1) \in GL_n(\mathbb{C})$, and any such matrix determines a representation of \mathbb{Z} . It follows that the n -dimensional isomorphism classes of representations of \mathbb{Z} are in bijection with the conjugacy classes in $GL_n(\mathbb{C})$. These conjugacy classes can be parameterized by the *Jordan canonical form*.

Example 1.21 (Representations of the cyclic group of order n). We shall classify all representations of the cyclic group $G = \{g, g^2, \dots, g^{n-1}, g^n = 1\}$ of order n . Consider a representation $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(V)$. As in the previous example, we know that $\rho(1) = \text{Id}$ and $\rho(g^k) = \rho(g)^k$. Thus our representation ρ is determined completely by the linear transformation $\rho(g)$. It will be helpful to fix a basis of V so that we may view $\rho(g)$ as a matrix. Recall from linear algebra that there exists a basis in which $\rho(g)$ takes the *Jordan canonical form*

$$\rho(g) = \begin{bmatrix} J_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & J_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & J_m \end{bmatrix}$$

where each *Jordan block* J_k is of the form

$$J_k = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 & \ddots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda & \ddots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \ddots & 1 & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}.$$

Now $I = \rho(g)^n$ is a block-diagonal matrix with diagonal blocks J_k^n , so we must have that each block $J_k^n = \text{Id}$. Observe that we can write each block J_k as $J_k = \lambda \text{Id} + N$ where N is the Jordan block with $\lambda = 0$. Thus we have

$$\text{Id} = J_k^n = (\lambda \text{Id} + N)^n = \lambda^n \text{Id} + \binom{n}{1} \lambda^{n-1} N + \binom{n}{2} \lambda^{n-2} N^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1} \lambda N^{n-1} + N^n.$$

The following lemma will show that in fact $N = 0$.

Lemma 1.22. *Let N be the Jordan block with $\lambda = 0$ of size $n \times n$. For any integer p with $1 \leq p \leq n-1$, then N^p is the matrix with ones in the positions (i, j) where $j = i + p$ and zeroes everywhere else. (The ones lie along a line parallel to the diagonal, p steps above it.)*

Proof. (By induction.)

Base case: This is simply the definition of N .

Inductive step: Suppose that the lemma holds for N^p . We compute the (i, j) entry of N^{p+1} :

$$(N^{p+1})_{i,j} = \sum_{k=1}^n (N^p)_{i,k} N_{k,j} = (N^p)_{i,i+p} N_{i+p,j} = N_{i+p,j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j = i + (p+1) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

□

Now, if $N \neq 0$ then each term $\binom{n}{k} \lambda^{n-k} N^k$ for $k > 0$ would yield some non-zero non-diagonal entries (in the positions (i, j) where $j = i + k$) and hence our sum could not equal the identity matrix. We must conclude that $N = 0$, $J_k = \lambda \text{Id}$ is a 1×1 block, and $J_k^n = \lambda^n \text{Id}$. Thus $\rho(g)$ is a diagonal matrix with n th roots of unity as diagonal entries.

To summarize, every m -dimensional representation ρ of the cyclic group $G = \langle g \rangle$ of order n can be seen to act (with the right choice of basis) as $m \times m$ diagonal matrices all with n th roots of unity along the diagonal. In particular, these representations are determined completely by the value of $\rho(g)$ and are classified up to isomorphism by unordered m -tuples of n th roots of unity.

1.5 Constructing New Representations from Old

We know from linear algebra that given two vector spaces V and W , we can form the **direct sum** $V \oplus W$ consisting of ordered pairs (v, w) where $v \in V, w \in W$.

Definition 1.23. Let V and W be representations of G . Then $V \oplus W$ admits a natural representation of G , called the **direct sum representation** of V and W , which we define

by

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_{V \oplus W}: G &\rightarrow GL(V \oplus W) \\ \rho_{V \oplus W}(g): (x, y) &\mapsto (\rho_V(g)(x), \rho_W(g)(y)).\end{aligned}$$

Recall from linear algebra that given a subspace $W \subseteq V$, we can form the **quotient space** V/W consisting of cosets $v + W$ in V . If W is a subrepresentation of V , we would like to define an action of G on V/W by the natural choice of $g(v + W) = \rho(g)(v) + W$. It remains to verify that this action is well defined. If we choose another $v' \in v + W$, then $v - v' \in W$, so that $\rho(g)(v - v') \in W$ since W is G -invariant. Thus, the cosets $\rho(g)(v) + W$ and $\rho(g)(v') + W$ agree and this action is indeed well defined. This justifies the following definition:

Definition 1.24. Let W be a G -subrepresentation of V . Then V/W forms a representation of G called the **quotient representation** of V under W with the action $g(v + W) = \rho(g)(v) + W$.

1.6 Complete Reducibility

Definition 1.25. A representation is said to be **irreducible** if it contains no proper invariant subspaces. It is called **completely reducible** if it decomposes into a direct sum of irreducible subrepresentations.

Example 1.26. 1. Any irreducible representation is, in particular, completely reducible.
2. Any 1-dimensional representations has no proper subspaces, and is thus irreducible.

Theorem 1.27. If A_1, A_2, \dots, A_r are linear operators on V and each A_i is diagonalizable, they are simultaneously diagonalizable if and only if they commute.

Proof. See Conrad [3, Theorem 5.1]. □

Theorem 1.28. Every complex representation of a finite abelian group is completely reducible into irreducible representations of dimension 1.

Proof. Take an arbitrary element $g \in G$. Since G is finite, we can find an integer n such that $g^n = 1$ and $\rho(g)^n = Id$. Hence the minimal polynomial of $\rho(g)$ divides $x^n - 1$. Recall that $x^n - 1$ has n distinct roots over \mathbb{C} , which are generated by taking powers of $\xi = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{n}}$. This means that the minimal polynomial $\rho(g)$ factors into linear factors only over \mathbb{C} so that $\rho(g)$ is diagonalizable. We conclude that each $\rho(g)$ is (separately) diagonalizable since $g \in G$ was arbitrary.

Now, given any two elements $g_1, g_2 \in G$ we have

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(g_1)\rho(g_2) &= \rho(g_1g_2) && \text{(since } \rho \text{ is a homomorphism)} \\ &= \rho(g_2g_1) && \text{(since } G \text{ is abelian)} \\ &= \rho(g_2)\rho(g_1) && \text{(since } \rho \text{ is a homomorphism).}\end{aligned}$$

Thus the matrices $\{\rho(g)\}$ commute, so we may apply Theorem 1.27 to conclude that $\{\rho(g)\}$ are simultaneously diagonalizable, say with basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_k\}$. Then we have $V = \mathbb{C}e_1 \oplus \mathbb{C}e_2 \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{C}e_n$, with each subspace $\mathbb{C}e_i$ invariant under the action of G . □

Definition 1.29. Let W be a subspace of V . A **linear projection** V onto W is a linear map $f: V \rightarrow W$ such that $f|_W = \text{Id}_W$. If W is a subrepresentation of V and the map f is G -invariant, then we say that f is a **G -linear projection**.

Lemma 1.30. Let $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ be a representation, and $W \subset V$ be a subrepresentation. Suppose we have a G -linear projection

$$f: V \rightarrow W.$$

Then $\text{Ker}(f)$ is a complementary subrepresentation to W , i.e. $\text{Ker}(f)$ is a G -invariant subspace of V such that

$$V = \text{Ker}(f) \oplus W$$

Proof. We have seen that $\text{Ker}(f)$ is a subrepresentation of V in Proposition 1.19. Now if $y \in \text{Ker}(f) \cap W$ then $y = f(y) = 0$, so $\text{Ker}(f) \cap W = 0$. Finally $\text{Im}(f) = W$, so by the Rank-Nullity theorem

$$\dim \text{Ker}(f) + \dim W = \dim V.$$

Thus $V = \text{Ker}(f) \oplus W$. □

Theorem 1.31 (Maschke's Theorem). Let G be a finite group and let F be a field such that $\text{char}(F) \nmid |G|$. If V is any finite-dimensional representation of G over F , and $W \subset V$ is a subrepresentation of V , then there exists a complementary subrepresentation $U \subset V$, i.e. there is a G -invariant subspace $U \subset V$ such that

$$V = W \oplus U.$$

Proof. By the previous Lemma 1.30 it will suffice to find a G -linear projection from V onto W . Fix a basis $\{b_1, \dots, b_m\}$ for W and extend it to a basis $\{b_1, \dots, b_m, b_{m+1}, \dots, b_n\}$ for V . Let $U = \langle b_{m+1}, \dots, b_n \rangle$. Then U is certainly a complementary subspace to W , and we have a natural projection $f: W \oplus U \rightarrow W$ of V onto W with kernel U . There is no reason to think that f should be G -linear, but we can fix this by averaging over G . Define $\tilde{f}: V \rightarrow V$ by

$$\tilde{f}(x) = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} (\rho(g) \circ f \circ \rho(g^{-1}))(x).$$

We claim that \tilde{f} is a G -linear projection from V onto W . First we check that $\text{Im}(\tilde{f}) \subset W$. If $x \in V$ and $g \in G$, then

$$f(\rho(g^{-1})(x)) \in W$$

and so

$$\rho(g)(f(\rho(g^{-1})(x))) \in W$$

since W is G -invariant. Thus $\tilde{f}(x) \in W$. Next we check that $\tilde{f}|_W = \text{Id}_W$. Let $y \in W$. For any $g \in G$, we know that $\rho(g^{-1})(y)$ is also in W , so

$$f(\rho(g^{-1})(y)) = \rho(g^{-1})(y).$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \tilde{f}(y) &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho(g)(f(\rho(g^{-1})(y))) \\
 &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho(g)(\rho(g^{-1})(y)) \\
 &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho(gg^{-1})(y) \\
 &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} (y) \\
 &= \frac{|G|y}{|G|}
 \end{aligned}$$

so indeed \tilde{f} is a linear projection of V onto W . Finally, we check that \tilde{f} is G -linear. If $x \in V$ and $h \in G$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\tilde{f} \circ \rho(h))(x) &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} (\rho(g) \circ f \circ \rho(g^{-1}) \circ \rho(h))(x) \\
 &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} (\rho(g) \circ f \circ \rho(g^{-1}h))(x) \\
 &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} (\rho(hg) \circ f \circ \rho(g^{-1}))(x) \quad (\text{relabelling } g \mapsto hg) \\
 &= (\rho(h) \circ \tilde{f})(x).
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Corollary 1.32. *Let G be a finite group and let F be a field such that $\text{char}(F) \nmid |G|$. then any finite-dimensional representation of G over F is completely reducible.*

Proof. Let V be a representation of G over F of dimension n . If V is irreducible, then V is, in particular, completely reducible. If not, then V contains a proper subrepresentation $W \subset V$. From Maschke's Theorem (1.31), we know there exists a subrepresentation $U \subset V$ such that

$$V = W \oplus U. \quad (1.32.1)$$

Both W and U have dimension less than n , so by induction we know that W and U are completely reducible. We deduce from 1.32.1 that V is completely reducible. □

Example 1.33. Let us once again return to Example 1.17. We had $G = C_2$, and found a 1-dimensional subrepresentation

$$W = \left\langle \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\rangle \subset V_{\text{reg}} = \mathbb{C}^2.$$

We know a complementary subrepresentation to W exists by Maschke's Theorem, so let's try to find one. Consider

$$U = \left\langle \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\rangle \subset V_{\text{reg}}.$$

Then

$$\rho_{\text{reg}}(\tau) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = - \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

so U is G -invariant. (In fact U is isomorphic to the alternating representation ρ_1 from the earlier example.) Finally we see that $V = W \oplus U$, since $W \cap U = \{0\}$ and $\dim U + \dim W = 2 = \dim V$.

1.7 Vector Spaces of Linear Maps

Definition 1.34. Let V and W be vector spaces. Recall that the set $\mathbf{Hom}(V, W)$ of linear maps from V to W is itself a vector space. If f_1, f_2 are two linear maps from V to W , then we define their sum by

$$(f_1 + f_2): V \rightarrow W \\ x \mapsto f_1(x) + f_2(x)$$

and we define scalar multiplication of $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ by

$$(\lambda f_1): V \rightarrow W \\ x \mapsto \lambda f_1(x).$$

Now suppose we have representations $\rho_V: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ and $\rho_W: G \rightarrow GL(W)$ of G . Then there is a natural representation of G on the vector space $\mathbf{Hom}(V, W)$ given by

$$\rho_{\mathbf{Hom}(V, W)}(g): \mathbf{Hom}(V, W) \rightarrow \mathbf{Hom}(V, W) \\ f \mapsto \rho_W(g) \circ f \circ \rho_V(g^{-1})$$

for all $g \in G$. Note that $\rho_{\mathbf{Hom}(V, W)}(g)(f)$ is certainly a linear map from V to W since the composition of linear maps is linear.

Proposition 1.35. $\rho_{\mathbf{Hom}(V, W)}$ is a representation of G . That is, the map

$$\rho_{\mathbf{Hom}(V, W)}: G \rightarrow GL(\mathbf{Hom}(V, W)) \\ g \mapsto \rho_{\mathbf{Hom}(V, W)}(g).$$

is a homomorphism.

Proof. We must check two things:

1. For every $g \in G$, $\rho_{\mathbf{Hom}(V, W)}(g)$ is invertible.
2. The map $g \mapsto \rho_{\mathbf{Hom}(V, W)}(g)$ is a homomorphism.

First, we check that

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_{\mathbf{Hom}(V, W)}(g) \circ \rho_{\mathbf{Hom}(V, W)}(h): f &\mapsto \rho_{\mathbf{Hom}(V, W)}(g)(\rho_W(h) \circ f \circ \rho_V(h^{-1})) \\ &= \rho_W(g) \circ \rho_W(h) \circ f \circ \rho_V(h^{-1}) \circ \rho_V(g^{-1}) \\ &= \rho_W(gh) \circ f \circ \rho_V(g^{-1}h^{-1}) \\ &= \rho_{\mathbf{Hom}(V, W)}(gh)(f) \end{aligned}$$

so indeed $\rho_{\text{Hom}(V,W)}$ is a homomorphism. We can use this fact to see that $\rho_{\text{Hom}(V,W)}(g^{-1})$ is inverse to $\rho_{\text{Hom}(V,W)}(g)$ as

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_{\text{Hom}(V,W)}(g) \circ \rho_{\text{Hom}(V,W)}(g^{-1}) &= \rho_{\text{Hom}(V,W)}(e) \\ &= \text{Id}_{\text{Hom}(V,W)} \\ &= \rho_{\text{Hom}(V,W)}(g^{-1}) \circ \rho_{\text{Hom}(V,W)}(g).\end{aligned}$$

Thus $\rho_{\text{Hom}(V,W)}(g)$ is invertible for every $g \in G$, and $\rho_{\text{Hom}(V,W)}$ is a representation of G . \square

Definition 1.36. Let V and W be two representations of G . The set of G -linear maps from V to W forms a subspace of $\text{Hom}(V, W)$, which we denote by $\mathbf{Hom}_G(\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{W})$. In other words, $\text{Hom}_G(V, W)$ is the vector space consisting of all *homomorphisms of representations* between V and W .

Definition 1.37. Let $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ be a representation. We define the **invariant subrepresentation** $V^G \subset V$ to be the set

$$\{v \in V \mid \rho(g)(v) = v, \quad \forall g \in G\}.$$

Note that V^G is a subspace of V , and is also clearly a subrepresentation. It is isomorphic to a trivial representation of some dimension.

Proposition 1.38. Let $\rho_V: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ and $\rho_W: G \rightarrow GL(W)$ be representations of G . Then the subrepresentation

$$\text{Hom}_G(V, W) \subset \text{Hom}(V, W)$$

is precisely the invariant subrepresentation $\text{Hom}(V, W)^G$ of $\text{Hom}(V, W)$.

Proof. Let $f \in \text{Hom}(V, W)$. Then f is an element of the invariant subrepresentation $\text{Hom}(V, W)^G$ iff we have

$$\begin{aligned}f &= \rho_{\text{Hom}(V,W)}(g)(f) \quad \forall g \in G \\ \iff f &= \rho_W(g) \circ f \circ \rho_V(g^{-1}) \quad \forall g \in G \\ \iff f \circ \rho_V(g) &= \rho_W(g) \circ f \quad \forall g \in G\end{aligned}$$

which is exactly the condition that f is G -linear, i.e. that $f \in \text{Hom}_G(V, W)$. \square

Lemma 1.39. Let A and B be two representations of G . Then

$$(A \oplus B)^G = A^G \oplus B^G.$$

Proof. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned}(a, b) \in (A \oplus B)^G &\iff \rho_{A \oplus B}(g)(a, b) = (a, b) && \forall g \in G \\ &\iff (\rho_A(g)(a), \rho_B(g)(b)) = (a, b) && \forall g \in G \\ &\iff (a, b) \in A^G \oplus B^G.\end{aligned}$$

\square

Lemma 1.40. Let $\psi: A \rightarrow B$ be an isomorphism between representations of G . Then ψ induces an isomorphism between their invariant subrepresentations

$$\psi|_{A^G}: A^G \rightarrow B^G.$$

Proof. Clearly the restriction of ψ to $A^G \subset A$ induces an isomorphism to some subrepresentation of B , but we must check that the image of this restriction actually equals B^G . We verify that

$$\begin{aligned} a \in A^G &\iff \rho_A(g)(a) = a && \forall g \in G \\ &\iff \psi(\rho_A(g)(a)) = \psi(a) && \forall g \in G \\ &\iff \rho_B(g)\psi(a) = \psi(a) && \forall g \in G \\ &\iff \psi(a) \in B^G. \end{aligned}$$

□

1.8 Schur's Lemma

Theorem 1.41. [Schur's Lemma over \mathbb{C} .] *If V is an irreducible representation of G over \mathbb{C} , then every linear operator $\phi: V \rightarrow V$ commuting with G is a scalar.*

Proof. Let $\phi: V \rightarrow V$ be a linear operator commuting with G , and let λ be an eigenvalue of ϕ . Observe that the eigenspace E_λ is G -invariant: If $v \in E_\lambda$, then $\phi(v) = \lambda v$. This implies that $\phi(gv) = g\phi(v) = g(\lambda v) = \lambda(gv)$, i.e. $gv \in E_\lambda$. Since g was arbitrary, E_λ is indeed G -invariant. Now $E_\lambda \neq 0$, so since V is irreducible, $E_\lambda = V$. Thus $\phi = \lambda \text{Id}$. □

Corollary 1.42. *If V and W are irreducible, the space $\text{Hom}_G(V, W)$ is 1-dimensional if the representations are isomorphic, and in this case any non-zero map is an isomorphism. Otherwise, $\text{Hom}_G(V, W) = \{0\}$.*

Proof. We claim $\ker(\phi)$ and $\text{im}\phi$ are both G -invariant. Let $0 \neq \phi \in \text{Hom}_G(V, W)$. If $v \in \ker(\phi)$, then $\phi(v) = 0$ implies that $\phi(gv) = g\phi(v) = g0 = 0$, i.e. $gv \in \ker(\phi)$. Similarly, if $v \in \text{im}(\phi)$, then $v = \phi(w)$ implies that $\phi(gw) = g\phi(w) = gv$, i.e. $gv \in \text{im}(\phi)$. Irreducibility yields $\ker(\phi) = 0$ or V and $\text{im}(\phi) = 0$ or W as the only possibilities. If $\phi \neq 0$, then $\ker(\phi) = 0$, $\text{im}(\phi) = W$, and ϕ is an isomorphism. Let ψ be another nonzero intertwining operator from V to W . Then $\phi^{-1} \circ \psi \in \text{Hom}_G(V, V)$. We can apply Schur's Lemma over \mathbb{C} to see that $\phi^{-1} \circ \psi = \lambda \text{Id}$, hence $\psi = \lambda\phi$. So ϕ spans $\text{Hom}_G(V, W)$. □

More definitions are required before we can state a more general Schur's Lemma (not restricted to just \mathbb{C}).

Definition 1.43. An **algebra** over a field K is a ring with unit, containing a distinguished copy of K that commutes with every algebra element, and with $1 \in K$ being the algebra unit. A **division ring** is a ring where every non-zero element is invertible, and a **division algebra** is a division ring which is also a K -algebra.

Definition 1.44. Let V be a representation of G over K . The **endomorphism algebra** $\text{End}_G(V)$ is the space of linear self-maps $\phi: V \rightarrow V$ which commute with the group action, that is, $\rho(g) \circ \phi = \phi \circ \rho(g) \quad \forall g \in G$. The addition is the usual addition of linear maps (pointwise), and the multiplication is function composition. The distinguished copy of K is given by $K\text{Id}$.

Note. You may notice that $\text{End}_G(V)$ is precisely the space $\text{Hom}_G(V, V)$ we have already seen. However, $\text{Hom}_G(V, W)$ is in general only a vector space over the base field, not an algebra.

Theorem 1.45. [Schur's Lemma] *If V is an irreducible finite-dimensional representation of G over K , then $\text{End}_G(V)$ is a finite-dimensional division algebra over K .*

Proof. Let $0 \neq f \in \text{End}_G(V)$. Then $\ker(f)$ and $\text{im}(f)$ are both G -invariant subspaces of V . Since V is irreducible and $f \neq 0$, we must have $\ker(f) = \{0\}$ and $\text{im}(f) = V$, i.e. f is bijective. \square

Note. We recover Schur's Lemma over \mathbb{C} by the fact that \mathbb{C} is the only finite-dimensional division algebra over \mathbb{C} .

1.9 Isotypical Decomposition

Lemma 1.46. *Let U, V, W be three vector spaces. Then we have natural isomorphisms*

1. $\text{Hom}(V, U \oplus W) = \text{Hom}(V, U) \oplus \text{Hom}(V, W)$
2. $\text{Hom}(U \oplus W, V) = \text{Hom}(U, V) \oplus \text{Hom}(W, V)$.

Additionally, if U, V, W carry representations of G , then (1) and (2) are isomorphisms of representations.

Proof. We have inclusion and projection maps

$$U \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{\iota_U} \\ \xleftarrow{\pi_U} \end{array} U \oplus W \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{\pi_W} \\ \xleftarrow{\iota_W} \end{array} W$$

given by

$$\begin{aligned} \iota_U &: x \mapsto (x, 0) \\ \pi_U &: (x, y) \mapsto x \end{aligned}$$

and similarly for ι_W and π_W . It is clear that

$$\text{Id}_{U \oplus W} = \iota_U \circ \pi_U + \iota_W \circ \pi_W.$$

We also note that the four spaces under consideration all have dimension $(\dim V)(\dim W + \dim U)$.

(1) We define a map

$$\begin{aligned} \psi &: \text{Hom}(V, U \oplus W) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(V, U) \oplus \text{Hom}(V, W) \\ f &\mapsto (\pi_U \circ f, \pi_W \circ f). \end{aligned}$$

We claim that this map has an inverse given by

$$\begin{aligned} \psi^{-1} &: \text{Hom}(V, U) \oplus \text{Hom}(V, W) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(V, U \oplus W) \\ (f_U, f_W) &\mapsto \iota_U \circ f_U + \iota_W \circ f_W. \end{aligned}$$

Check that

$$\begin{aligned} \psi^{-1} \circ \psi &: f \mapsto \iota_U \circ \pi_U \circ f + \iota_W \circ \pi_W \circ f \\ &= (\iota_U \circ \pi_U + \iota_W \circ \pi_W) \circ f \\ &= \text{Id}_{\text{Hom}(V, W)} \circ f = f. \end{aligned}$$

Since both vector spaces have the same dimension, $\psi \circ \psi^{-1}$ must be the identity map as well, and ψ is an isomorphism of vector spaces. Now suppose we have representations

ρ_V, ρ_W, ρ_U of G on V, W and U . Then we claim ψ is G -linear. Recall that by definition,

$$\rho_{\text{Hom}(V, U \oplus W)}(g)(f) = \rho_{U \oplus W}(g) \circ f \circ \rho_V(g^{-1}).$$

Observe that for any $g \in G$ and $f \in \text{Hom}(V, U \oplus W)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_U \circ (\rho_{\text{Hom}(V, U \oplus W)}(g)(f)) &= \pi_U \circ \rho_{U \oplus W}(g) \circ f \circ \rho_V(g^{-1}) \\ &= \rho_U(g) \circ \pi_U \circ f \circ \rho_V(g^{-1}) \quad (\text{since } \pi_U \text{ is } G\text{-linear}) \\ &= \rho_{\text{Hom}(U, V)}(g)(f) \end{aligned}$$

and similarly for W , so that

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(\rho_{\text{Hom}(V, U \oplus W)}(g)(f)) &= (\pi_U \circ \rho_{\text{Hom}(V, U \oplus W)}(g)(f), \pi_W \circ \rho_{\text{Hom}(V, U \oplus W)}(g)(f)) \\ &= (\rho_{\text{Hom}(V, U)}(g)(\pi_U \circ f), \rho_{\text{Hom}(V, W)}(g)(\pi_W \circ f)) \\ &= \rho_{\text{Hom}(V, U) \oplus \text{Hom}(V, W)}(g)(\pi_U \circ f, \pi_W \circ f). \end{aligned}$$

Thus ψ is G -linear, and we've proved (1).

(2) Define a map

$$\begin{aligned} \phi: \text{Hom}(U \oplus W, V) &\rightarrow \text{Hom}(U, V) \oplus \text{Hom}(W, V) \\ &= (f \circ \iota_U, f \circ \iota_W). \end{aligned}$$

The proof is similar to (1). □

Corollary 1.47. *If U, V, W are representations of G , then there are natural isomorphisms*

1. $\text{Hom}_G(V, U \oplus W) = \text{Hom}_G(V, U) \oplus \text{Hom}_G(V, W)$
2. $\text{Hom}_G(U \oplus W, V) = \text{Hom}_G(U, V) \oplus \text{Hom}_G(W, V)$

Proof. (1). By Lemma (1.46), we have an isomorphism of representations

$$\psi: \text{Hom}(V, U \oplus W) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(V, U) \oplus \text{Hom}(V, W).$$

We can apply Lemma (1.40) to obtain an isomorphism on the invariant subrepresentations

$$\text{Hom}(V, U \oplus W)^G \cong (\text{Hom}(V, U) \oplus \text{Hom}(V, W))^G.$$

Then Lemma (1.39) implies that

$$\text{Hom}(V, U \oplus W)^G \cong \text{Hom}(V, U)^G \oplus \text{Hom}(V, W)^G.$$

The statement now follows from Proposition (1.38).

(2). The argument is similar to the one above. □

Proposition 1.48. *Let V and W be irreducible representations of G . Then*

$$\dim \text{Hom}_G(V, W) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } V \text{ and } W \text{ are isomorphic} \\ 0 & \text{if } V \text{ and } W \text{ are not isomorphic} \end{cases}$$

Proof. Suppose V and W are not isomorphic. Then Schur's Lemma Corollary 1.42 states that the only G -linear map from V to W is the zero map, hence $\text{Hom}_G(V, W) = \{0\}$.

On the other hand, suppose that $f: V \rightarrow W$ is an isomorphism. Then for any $h \in \text{Hom}_G(V, W)$, we have $f^{-1} \circ h \in \text{Hom}_G(V, V)$. By Schur's Lemma, $f^{-1} \circ h = \lambda \text{Id}_V$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, i.e. $h = \lambda f$. Thus f spans $\text{Hom}_G(V, W)$. \square

Proposition 1.49. Let $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ be a representation, and let

$$V = U_1 \oplus \dots \oplus U_s$$

be a decomposition of V into irreducibles. Let W be any irreducible representation of G . Then the number of irreducible representations in the set $\{U_1, \dots, U_s\}$ which are isomorphic to W is equal to the dimension of $\text{Hom}_G(V, W)$, and also equal to the dimension of $\text{Hom}_G(W, V)$.

Proof. We know from Proposition (1.48) that the number of irreducible representations in the set $\{U_1, \dots, U_s\}$ which are isomorphic to W is equal to

$$\sum_{i=1}^s \dim \text{Hom}_G(U_i, W).$$

By Corollary (1.47),

$$\text{Hom}_G(V, W) = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s \text{Hom}_G(U_i, W)$$

so that

$$\dim \text{Hom}_G(V, W) = \sum_{i=1}^s \dim \text{Hom}_G(U_i, W).$$

The same argument works if we consider $\text{Hom}_G(W, V)$ and $\text{Hom}_G(W, U_i)$ in place of $\text{Hom}_G(V, W)$ and $\text{Hom}_G(U_i, W)$. \square

Theorem 1.50. Let $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ be a representation, and let

$$\begin{aligned} V &= U_1 \oplus \dots \oplus U_s \\ V &= \widetilde{U}_1 \oplus \dots \oplus \widetilde{U}_r \end{aligned}$$

be two decompositions of V into irreducible subrepresentations. Then $s = r$, and (after reordering if necessary) U_i and \widetilde{U}_i are isomorphic for every $i \in \{1, \dots, s\}$.

Proof. Let W be any irreducible representation of G . By Proposition (1.49), the number of irreducible subrepresentations in the first decomposition that are isomorphic to W is equal to $\dim \text{Hom}_G(V, W)$. On the other hand, the number of irreducible subrepresentations in the second decomposition that are isomorphic to W is also equal to $\dim \text{Hom}_G(V, W)$. So for any irreducible representation W , the two decompositions contain the same number of factors isomorphic to W . \square

Definition 1.51. Let V be a finite-dimensional representation of G . Decompose V into a direct sum

$$V = (V_{11} \oplus \dots \oplus V_{1n_1}) \oplus (V_{21} \oplus \dots \oplus V_{2n_2}) \oplus \dots \oplus (V_{k1} \oplus \dots \oplus V_{kn_k})$$

where

1. $V_{11}, V_{21}, \dots, V_{k1}$ are pairwise non-isomorphic irreducible representations of G .
2. $V_{i1} \cong \dots \cong V_{in_i} \quad \forall 1 \leq i \leq k$.

Now, for any irreducible representation S of G , we use the decomposition of V above to define

$$V_S = \bigoplus_{\{(i,j)|V_{ij} \cong S\}} V_{ij}.$$

Then we have

$$V_S \cong \begin{cases} S^{n_i} & \text{if } S \cong V_{1i} \text{ for some } 1 \leq i \leq k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This leaves us with the canonical decomposition

$$V = \bigoplus_S V_S$$

where S ranges over a set of representatives of the isomorphism classes of the irreducible representations of G . We call this the **canonical decomposition of V into isotypical components**. It follows from Theorem 1.50 that such a decomposition is unique, i.e. it does not depend on our initial decomposition of V into irreducibles.

1.10 Duals and Tensor Products

Definition 1.52. Let V be a vector space. Recall that we define the **dual vector space** to be

$$V^* = \text{Hom}(V, \mathbb{C}).$$

This is a special case of $\text{Hom}(V, W)$ where $W = \mathbb{C}$. We know that if $\{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ is a basis for V , then there is a **dual basis** $\{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$ for V defined by

$$f_i(b_j) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

Let $\rho_V: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ be a representation of G , and let \mathbb{C} be the 1-dimensional trivial representation of G . Then we have seen that V^* carries a representation of G defined by

$$\rho_{\text{Hom}(V, \mathbb{C})}(g)(f) = f \circ \rho_V(g^{-1})$$

We call this the **dual representation** to ρ_V and denote it by ρ_V^* .

Proposition 1.53. *If we fix a basis for V , then $\rho_V^*(g)$ is given by the matrix*

$$(\rho_V(g^{-1}))^T$$

with respect to the dual basis.

Proof. Fix a basis $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ for V . Let $\rho_V(g^{-1})$ be described by the matrix M , so that

$$\rho_V(g^{-1})(a_j) = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} M_{ij} a_i.$$

Let $\rho_V^*(g)$ be described by the matrix N with respect to the dual basis $\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\}$, so that

$$\rho_V^*(g)(\alpha_j) = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} N_{ij} \alpha_i.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}
N_{ji} &= \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} N_{ki} \delta_{kj} \\
&= \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} N_{ki} (\alpha_k a_j) \\
&= \left(\sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} N_{ki} \alpha_k \right) a_j \\
&= (\rho_V^*(g)(\alpha_i))(a_j) \\
&= (\alpha_i \circ \rho_V(g^{-1}))(a_j) \quad (\text{by definition of the dual representation}) \\
&= \alpha_i(\rho_V(g^{-1})(a_j)) \\
&= \alpha_i \left(\sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} M_{kj} a_k \right) \\
&= \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} M_{kj} \alpha_i a_k \\
&= \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} M_{kj} \delta_{ik} \\
&= M_{ij}.
\end{aligned}$$

That is, $N = M^T$. □

Definition 1.54. Suppose V and W are two vector spaces over a field K . Then we define a new vector space called the **tensor product** of V and W , denoted by $V \otimes_K W$. This space is the quotient of the free vector space on $V \times W$ (with basis given by formal symbols $v \otimes w, v \in V, w \in W$), by the subspace D spanned by all elements of the form

$$\begin{aligned}
&(v_1 + v_2, w) - (v_1, w) - (v_2, w) \\
&(v, w_1 + w_2) - (v, w_1) - (v, w_2) \\
&(k \cdot v, w) - (v, k \cdot w)
\end{aligned}$$

for $v, v_1, v_2 \in V, w, w_1, w_2 \in W$, and $k \in K$. When the ground field K is clear it can be omitted from the notation. The elements of $V \otimes W$ are called **tensors**, and the coset $v \otimes w$ of (v, w) in $V \otimes W$ is called a **simple tensor**. We have the relations

$$\begin{aligned}
(v_1 + v_2) \otimes w &= v_1 \otimes w + v_2 \otimes w \\
v \otimes (w_1 + w_2) &= v \otimes w_1 + v \otimes w_2 \\
(k \cdot v) \otimes w &= v \otimes (k \cdot w) = k \cdot (v \otimes w).
\end{aligned}$$

Definition 1.55. Let V and W be vector spaces over K . A map $\phi: V \times W \rightarrow K$ is called **K-balanced** if

$$\begin{aligned}
\phi(v_1 + v_2, w) &= \phi(v_1, w) + \phi(v_2, w) \\
\phi(v, w_1 + w_2) &= \phi(v, w_1) + \phi(v, w_2) \\
\phi(v, kw) &= \phi(kv, w)
\end{aligned}$$

for all $v \in V, w \in W, k \in K$.

Example 1.56. Mapping $V \times W$ to the free K -vector space on $V \times W$, and then passing to the quotient defines a map $\iota: V \times W \rightarrow V \otimes W$ with $\iota(v, w) = v \otimes w$. From the relations satisfied by the tensor product, we see that the map ι is K -balanced.

Theorem 1.57. [Universal property of the tensor product] Suppose V, W , and U are vector spaces over the field K . Let $\varphi: V \times W \rightarrow U$ be a K -balanced map, and let ι be the map above. Then there is a unique linear map $\tilde{\varphi}: V \otimes W \rightarrow U$ such that φ factors through ι , i.e., $\varphi = \tilde{\varphi} \circ \iota$.

Proof. The map φ extends by linearity to a linear transformation $\tilde{\varphi}$ from the free vector space on $V \times W$ to U such that $\tilde{\varphi}(v, w) = \varphi(v, w)$ for all $v \in V, w \in W$. Since φ is K -balanced, $\tilde{\varphi}$ maps each of the elements which span the subspace D from the definition of the tensor product to 0. For example,

$$\tilde{\varphi}((kv, w) - (v, kw)) = \varphi(kv, w) - \varphi(v, kw) = 0.$$

Thus the kernel of $\tilde{\varphi}$ contains D , and so $\tilde{\varphi}$ induces a linear map $\varphi: V \otimes W \rightarrow U$. Then

$$\varphi(v \otimes w) = \tilde{\varphi}(v, w) = \varphi(v, w)$$

i.e., $\varphi = \varphi \circ \iota$. Note that φ is completely determined by this equation since the elements $v \otimes w$ span $V \otimes W$. \square

Proposition 1.58. Let $\{e_i\}_{i \in I}$ and $\{f_j\}_{j \in J}$ be bases for V and W . Then $\{e_i \otimes f_j \mid i \in I, j \in J\}$ is a basis for $V \otimes W$.

Proof. An elementary tensor in $V \otimes W$ has the form $v \otimes w$. Write $v = \sum_i a_i e_i$ and $w = \sum_j b_j f_j$, where all but finitely many of a_i and b_j are 0. Then

$$v \otimes w = \sum_i a_i e_i \otimes \sum_j b_j f_j = \sum_{i,j} a_i b_j e_i \otimes f_j$$

is a linear combination of the tensors $e_i \otimes f_j$. Since every tensor can be written as a sum of elementary tensors, the elements $e_i \otimes f_j$ span $V \otimes W$.

Now, we must show that this spanning set is linearly independent. Suppose that $\sum_{i,j} c_{ij} e_i \otimes f_j = 0$, where all but finitely many c_{ij} are 0. We want to show that $c_{ij} = 0$ for every $i \in I, j \in J$. Fix two elements $i_0 \in I$ and $j_0 \in J$. To show that $c_{i_0 j_0} = 0$, consider the K -balanced map

$$\begin{aligned} V \times W &\rightarrow K \\ (v, w) &\mapsto a_{i_0} b_{j_0} \end{aligned}$$

where $v = \sum_i a_i e_i$ and $w = \sum_j b_j f_j$. By the universal property of tensor products, there is a linear map $f_0: V \otimes W \rightarrow K$ such that $f_0(v \otimes w) = a_{i_0} b_{j_0}$ on any elementary tensor $v \otimes w$. In particular, $f_0(e_{i_0} \otimes f_{j_0}) = 1$ and $f_0(e_i \otimes f_j) = 0$ for $(i, j) \neq (i_0, j_0)$. Applying f_0 to our assumption that $\sum_{i,j} c_{ij} e_i \otimes f_j = 0$ in $V \otimes W$ tells us that $c_{i_0 j_0} = 0$ in K . \square

Proposition 1.59. There are natural isomorphisms

1. $(U \otimes V) \otimes W \cong U \otimes (V \otimes W)$
2. $(U \oplus V) \otimes W \cong (U \otimes W) \oplus (V \otimes W)$.

Proof. (1.) For each fixed $w \in W$, the mapping $(u, v) \mapsto u \otimes (v \otimes w)$ is K -balanced, so by Theorem 1.57 there is a unique linear map from $U \otimes V$ to $U \otimes (V \otimes W)$ with $u \otimes v \mapsto u \otimes (v \otimes w)$. This shows that the map from $(U \otimes V) \times W$ to $U \otimes (V \otimes W)$ given by $(u \otimes v, w) \mapsto u \otimes (v \otimes w)$ is well defined. This map is also K -balanced, and thus another application of Theorem 1.57 shows that it induces a linear map $(U \otimes V) \otimes W \rightarrow U \otimes (V \otimes W)$ such that $(u \otimes v) \otimes w \mapsto u \otimes (v \otimes w)$. In a similar manner, we can construct a map $U \otimes (V \otimes W) \rightarrow (U \otimes V) \otimes W$ with $u \otimes (v \otimes w) \mapsto (u \otimes v) \otimes w$ which is inverse to our first map. This proves the isomorphism.

(2.) The map $(U \oplus V) \times W \rightarrow (U \oplus W) \otimes (V \oplus W)$ defined by $((u, v), w) \mapsto (u \otimes w, v \otimes w)$ is clearly K -balanced. Thus it induces a linear map $f: (U \oplus V) \otimes W \rightarrow (U \otimes W) \oplus (V \otimes W)$ with

$$f((u, v) \otimes w) = (u \otimes w, v \otimes w).$$

In the other direction, we use the K -balanced maps $U \times W \rightarrow (U \oplus V) \otimes W$ and $V \times W \rightarrow (U \oplus V) \otimes W$ given by $(u, w) \mapsto (u, 0) \otimes w$ and $(v, w) \mapsto (0, v) \otimes w$ to obtain linear maps from $U \otimes W$ and $V \otimes W$ to $(U \oplus V) \otimes W$. Together these maps give a linear transformation g from the direct sum $(U \otimes W) \oplus (V \otimes W)$ to $(U \oplus V) \otimes W$ with

$$g(u \otimes w_1, v \otimes w_2) = (u, 0) \otimes w_1 + (0, v) \otimes w_2.$$

It is straightforward to see that f and g are inverse linear transformations, and the isomorphism holds. \square

Now let V and W be two representations of G .

Definition 1.60. We can define a representation of G on $V \otimes W$ called the **tensor product representation**. We let

$$\rho_{V \otimes W}(g): V \otimes W \rightarrow V \otimes W$$

be the linear map given by

$$\rho_{V \otimes W}(g): a_i \otimes b_j \mapsto \rho_V(g)(a_i) \otimes \rho_W(g)(b_j).$$

Suppose $\rho_V(g)$ is described by the matrix M and $\rho_W(g)$ is described by the matrix N in the given bases $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ for V and $\{b_1, \dots, b_m\}$ for W . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_{V \otimes W}(g): a_i \otimes b_t &\mapsto \left(\sum_{j=1}^n M_{ji} a_j \right) \otimes \left(\sum_{s=1}^m N_{st} b_s \right) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{j \in [1, n] \\ s \in [1, m]}} M_{ji} N_{st} a_j \otimes b_s. \end{aligned}$$

So $\rho_{V \otimes W}$ is described by the $nm \times nm$ matrix $M \otimes N$ whose entries are

$$[M \otimes N]_{js, it} = M_{ji} N_{st}.$$

This matrix has nm rows, and to specify a row we need a pair of numbers (j, s) where $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ and $s \in \{1, \dots, m\}$.

Proposition 1.61. Let V and W be representations of G . Then $V \otimes W$ is isomorphic to $\text{Hom}(V^*, W)$.

Proof. Let $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ be a basis for V , let $\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\}$ be the corresponding dual basis for V^* , and let $\{b_1, \dots, b_m\}$ be a basis for W . Then $\text{Hom}(V^*, W)$ has a basis $\{f_{it} | 1 \leq i \leq$

$n, 1 \leq t \leq m\}$ where

$$f_{it}(\alpha_j) = \begin{cases} b_t & \text{if } j = i \\ 0 & \text{if } j \neq i \end{cases}$$

We obtain an isomorphism of vector spaces between $\text{Hom}(V^*, W)$ and $V \otimes W$ by the map

$$\psi(f_{it}) = a_i \otimes b_t$$

extended to all of $\text{Hom}(V^*, W)$ by linearity. It remains to show that this isomorphism of vector spaces yields an isomorphism of representations, i.e. we need to check that

$$\psi \circ \rho_{\text{Hom}(V^*, W)}(g) = \rho_{V \otimes W}(g) \circ \psi$$

for all $g \in G$. Fix $g \in G$, and let M and N denote the matrices which describe $\rho_V(g)$ and $\rho_W(g)$ in the given bases. By definition,

$$\rho_{\text{Hom}(V^*, W)}(g)(f_{it}) = \rho_W(g) \circ f_{it} \circ \rho_{V^*}(g^{-1}).$$

Now $\rho_{V^*}(g^{-1})$ is given by the matrix M^T in the dual basis by Proposition 1.53, so

$$\rho_{V^*}(g^{-1})(\alpha_k) = \sum_{j=1}^n M_{kj} \alpha_j.$$

Then

$$f_{it} \circ \rho_{V^*}(g^{-1})(\alpha_k) = M_{ki} b_t$$

which means that

$$\rho_W(g) \circ f_{it} \circ \rho_{V^*}(g^{-1})(\alpha_k) = M_{ki} \left(\sum_{s=1}^m N_{st} b_s \right).$$

Thus, if we write $\rho_W(g) \circ f_{it} \circ \rho_{V^*}(g^{-1})$ in terms of the basis $\{f_{js}\}$, we have

$$\rho_W(g) \circ f_{it} \circ \rho_{V^*}(g^{-1}) = \sum_{\substack{j \in [1, n] \\ s \in [1, m]}} M_{ji} N_{st} f_{js}$$

(since both sides agree on every basis vector α_k). Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \psi \circ \rho_{\text{Hom}(V^*, W)}(g)(f_{it}) &= \psi \left(\rho_W(g) \circ f_{it} \circ \rho_{V^*}(g^{-1}) \right) \\ &= \psi \left(\sum_{\substack{j \in [1, n] \\ s \in [1, m]}} M_{ji} N_{st} f_{js} \right) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{j \in [1, n] \\ s \in [1, m]}} M_{ji} N_{st} a_j \otimes b_s \\ &= \rho_{V \otimes W}(g)(a_i \otimes b_t) \quad (\text{by definition of the tensor product representation}) \\ &= \rho_{V \otimes W}(g) \circ \psi(f_{it}) \end{aligned}$$

□

1.11 Character Theory

Definition 1.62. The **character** of a representation $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ is the function $\chi_V: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ defined by $\chi_V(g) = \text{Tr}(\rho(g))$.

Note. The character of a representation is not a homomorphism in general, since $\text{Tr}(MN) \neq \text{Tr}(M)\text{Tr}(N)$ in general.

Proposition 1.63. (*Basic Properties*)

1. χ_V is conjugation invariant: $\chi_V(hgh^{-1}) = \chi_V(g)$ for all $g, h \in G$.
2. $\chi_V(1) = \dim V$.
3. $\chi_V(g^{-1}) = \overline{\chi_V(g)}$ for all $g \in G$.
4. $\chi_{V^*}(g) = \overline{\chi_V(g)}$ for all $g \in G$.

Proof. 1. $\chi_V(hgh^{-1}) = \text{Tr}(hgh^{-1}) = \text{Tr}(ghh^{-1}) = \text{Tr}(g) = \chi_V(g)$ for any $g, h \in G$.

2. $\chi_V(1) = \text{Tr}(\text{Id}_V) = \dim V$.

3. Since G is finite, we have seen that $\rho(g)$ is a diagonal matrix with roots of unity along the diagonal with the right choice of basis. The inverse of a root of unity is given by its complex conjugate, so under this same basis, $\rho(g)^{-1}$ is clearly given by $\overline{\rho(g)}$. Thus, $\chi_V(g^{-1}) = \text{Tr}(\rho(g^{-1})) = \text{Tr}(\rho(g)^{-1}) = \text{Tr}(\overline{\rho(g)}) = \overline{\text{Tr}(\rho(g))} = \overline{\chi_V(g)}$.

4.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \chi_{V^*}(g) &= \text{Tr}(\rho_{V^*}(g)) \\
 &= \text{Tr}(\rho_V(g^{-1})^T) \quad (\text{by Proposition 1.53}) \\
 &= \text{Tr}(\rho_V(g^{-1})) \\
 &= \overline{\chi_V(g)} \quad (\text{by 3})
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Proposition 1.64. *Isomorphic representations have the same character.*

Proof. We have seen in Proposition 1.12 that isomorphic representations can be described by the same set of matrices with the right choice of bases. Thus they have the same trace. □

We will see later that the converse is true - if two representations have the same character, then they are isomorphic.

Proposition 1.65. *Let $\rho_V: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ and $\rho_W: G \rightarrow GL(W)$ be representations of G with characters χ_V and χ_W .*

1. $\chi_{V \oplus W} = \chi_V + \chi_W$.
2. $\chi_{V \otimes W} = \chi_V \cdot \chi_W$.

Proof. Pick bases for V and W , so that $\rho_V(g)$ and $\rho_W(g)$ are described by matrices M and N .

1. $\rho_{V \oplus W}(g)$ is described by the block-diagonal matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} M & 0 \\ 0 & N \end{bmatrix}$$

So we have $\text{Tr}(\rho_{V \oplus W}(g)) = \text{Tr}(M) + \text{Tr}(N) = \text{Tr}(\rho_V(g)) + \text{Tr}(\rho_W(g))$.

2. $\rho_{V \otimes W}(g)$ is given by the matrix

$$[M \otimes N]_{js,it} = M_{ji}N_{st}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}(M \otimes N) &= \sum_{i,t} [M \otimes N]_{ii,tt} \\ &= \sum_{i,t} (M_{ii}N_{tt}) \\ &= \text{Tr}(M)\text{Tr}(N). \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\chi_{V \otimes W}(g) = \chi_V(g)\chi_W(g)$.

□

Definition 1.66. Let \mathbb{C}^G denote the set of all functions from G to \mathbb{C} . Then \mathbb{C}^G is a vector space with the sum of two functions defined pointwise and with scalar multiplication defined for $f \in \mathbb{C}^G, \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ by

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda f &: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \\ g &\mapsto \lambda f(g). \end{aligned}$$

A basis for \mathbb{C}^G is clearly given by the set of functions

$$\{\delta_g | g \in G\}$$

defined by

$$\delta_g: h \mapsto \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } h = g \\ 0 & \text{if } h \neq g \end{cases}$$

Definition 1.67. Let $\varphi, \psi \in \mathbb{C}^G$. We define an **inner product** on \mathbb{C}^G by

$$\langle \varphi | \psi \rangle = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \varphi(g) \overline{\psi(g)}.$$

It is easy to see that $\langle \varphi | \psi \rangle$ is linear in the first variable, conjugate-linear in the second variable (i.e., $\langle \varphi | \lambda \psi \rangle = \overline{\lambda} \langle \varphi | \psi \rangle$), and that $\langle \varphi | \psi \rangle = \overline{\langle \psi | \varphi \rangle}$. These three properties are the definition of a Hermitian inner product. Note that our basis elements δ_g are orthogonal with respect to this inner product, but not orthonormal since

$$\langle \delta_g | \delta_g \rangle = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{|G|} & \text{if } h = g \\ 0 & \text{if } h \neq g \end{cases}.$$

The characters of G are elements of \mathbb{C}^G , so we can evaluate this inner product on pairs of characters. The answer turns out to be very useful, but before we can begin the proof we require two quick lemmas:

Lemma 1.68. *Let $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ be any representation. Consider the linear map*

$$\begin{aligned}\Psi: V &\rightarrow V \\ x &\mapsto \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho(g)(x).\end{aligned}$$

Then Ψ is a projection from V onto the invariant subspace V^G .

Proof. We need to check that $\Psi(x) \in V^G$ for all $x \in V$. For any $h \in G$,

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(h)(\Psi(x)) &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho(h)\rho(g)(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho(hg)(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho(g)(x) \quad (\text{by relabelling } g \mapsto h^{-1}g) \\ &= \Psi(x).\end{aligned}$$

Thus Ψ is a linear map $V \rightarrow V^G$. Finally we need to check that $\Psi|_{V^G} = \text{Id}_{V^G}$. Let $x \in V^G$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\Psi(x) &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho(g)(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} (x) \\ &= \frac{|G|}{|G|} x = x.\end{aligned}$$

□

Lemma 1.69. *Let V be a vector space with subspace $U \subset V$, and let $\pi: V \rightarrow V$ be a projection onto U . Then*

$$\text{Tr}(\pi) = \dim U.$$

Proof. Recall that $V = U \oplus \text{Ker}(\pi)$ from Lemma 1.30. If we fix bases for U and $\text{Ker}(\pi)$, which together give a basis for V , then π is given by the block-diagonal matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\dim U$ is the size of the upper left block and $\dim \text{Ker}(\pi)$ is the size of the bottom right block. So $\text{Tr}(\pi) = \text{Tr}(\mathbf{1}_U) = \dim U$. □

Theorem 1.70. *Let $\rho_V: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ and $\rho_W: G \rightarrow GL(W)$ be representations of G , and let χ_V, χ_W be their characters. Then*

$$\langle \chi_W | \chi_V \rangle = \dim \text{Hom}_G(V, W).$$

In particular, the inner product of two characters is always a non-negative integer. (Whereas in general, the inner product of two arbitrary functions can be any complex number.)

Proof. We have seen in Proposition 1.38 that

$$\mathrm{Hom}_G(V, W) \subset \mathrm{Hom}(V, W)$$

as the invariant subrepresentation, and by the previous lemma we have a projection

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi: \mathrm{Hom}(V, W) &\rightarrow \mathrm{Hom}(V, W) \\ f &\mapsto \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho_{\mathrm{Hom}(V, W)}(g)(f). \end{aligned}$$

We claim that

$$\mathrm{Tr}(\Psi) = \langle \chi_W | \chi_V \rangle.$$

Once this claim is established, then Lemma 1.69 will prove the theorem. We proceed by calculating $\mathrm{Tr}(\Psi)$. Fix bases $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ for V and $\{b_1, \dots, b_m\}$ for W . Then $\mathrm{Hom}(V, W)$ has an associated basis

$$\{f_{ji} | 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m\}$$

where

$$f_{ji}(a_i) = \begin{cases} b_j & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

We may calculate $\mathrm{Tr}(\Psi)$ as follows: For each i, j , compute the expression of $\Psi(f_{ji})$ in this basis, and take the coefficient of the basis element f_{ji} . This is a diagonal entry in the matrix for Ψ . Summing these values over all i and j will give us $\mathrm{Tr}(\Psi)$.

Let $\widetilde{\rho}_V, \widetilde{\rho}_W$ be the matrix representations obtained by writing ρ_V and ρ_W in the given bases. We know that

$$\mathrm{Hom}(V, W) = V^* \otimes W$$

so if we write $\rho_{\mathrm{Hom}(V, W)}$ in the basis $\{f_{ji}\}$ then we get the tensor product of $\widetilde{\rho}_{V^*}$ and $\widetilde{\rho}_W$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_{\mathrm{Hom}(V, W)}(g)(f_{ji}) &= \rho_W(g) \circ f_{ji} \circ \rho_V(g^{-1}) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{k \in [1, n] \\ t \in [1, m]}} \widetilde{\rho}_V(g^{-1})_{ik} \widetilde{\rho}_W(g)_{tj} f_{kt}. \quad \text{Show another step?} \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi(f_{ji}) &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho_{\mathrm{Hom}(V, W)}(g)(f) \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \sum_{\substack{k \in [1, n] \\ t \in [1, m]}} \widetilde{\rho}_V(g^{-1})_{ik} \widetilde{\rho}_W(g)_{tj} f_{kt}. \end{aligned}$$

The coefficient of f_{ji} in this expression is

$$\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \widetilde{\rho}_V(g^{-1})_{ii} \widetilde{\rho}_W(g)_{jj}.$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}(\Psi) &= \sum_{\substack{k \in [1, n] \\ t \in [1, m]}} \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \widetilde{\rho}_V(g^{-1})_{ii} \widetilde{\rho}_W(g)_{jj} \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \widetilde{\rho}_V(g^{-1})_{ii} \right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^m \widetilde{\rho}_W(g)_{jj} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_V(g^{-1}) \chi_W(g) \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_W(g) \overline{\chi_V}(g) \quad (\text{by Proposition 1.63.3}) \\ &= \langle \chi_W | \chi_V \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

□

Corollary 1.71 (Row orthogonality relations). *Let χ_1, \dots, χ_r be characters of pairwise non-isomorphic irreducible representations of G . Then*

$$\langle \chi_i | \chi_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Proof. Let χ_i and χ_j be the characters of the irreducible representations U_i, U_j . Then by Proposition 1.48,

$$\langle \chi_i | \chi_j \rangle = \dim \text{Hom}_G(U_i, U_j) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } U_i, U_j \text{ are isomorphic} \\ 0 & \text{if } U_i, U_j \text{ are not isomorphic.} \end{cases}$$

□

Corollary 1.72. *Let χ be any character of G . Then χ is irreducible if and only if*

$$\langle \chi | \chi \rangle = 1$$

Proof. Write χ as a linear combination of irreducible characters

$$\chi = m_1 \chi_1 + \dots + m_k \chi_k$$

where each m_i is a non-negative integer. Then by Corollary 1.71,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \chi | \chi \rangle &= \sum_{i, j \in [1, k]} m_i m_j \langle \chi_i | \chi_j \rangle \\ &= m_1^2 + \dots + m_k^2. \end{aligned}$$

So $\langle \chi | \chi \rangle = 1$ if and only if exactly one of the $m_i = 1$ and the rest are 0.

□

Corollary 1.73. *Let $\rho_V: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ and $\rho_W: G \rightarrow GL(W)$ be representations of G . Then V and W are isomorphic if and only if $\chi_V = \chi_W$.*

Proof. We have already seen that isomorphic representations have the same character by Proposition . On the other hand, suppose $\chi_V = \chi_W$. Let U_1, \dots, U_r be the irreducible representations of G , and let χ_1, \dots, χ_r be their characters. We can write

$$V = U_1^{m_1} \oplus \dots \oplus U_r^{m_r}$$

for some non-negative integers m_1, \dots, m_r , and

$$W = U_1^{l_1} \oplus \dots \oplus U_r^{l_r}$$

for some non-negative integers l_1, \dots, l_r . So

$$\chi_V = m_1\chi_1 + \dots + m_r\chi_r$$

and

$$\chi_W = l_1\chi_1 + \dots + l_r\chi_r.$$

Thus we have

$$m_i = \langle \chi_V | \chi_i \rangle = \langle \chi_W | \chi_i \rangle = l_i$$

for all $i \in \{1, \dots, r\}$ since $\chi_V = \chi_W$. This proves V and W are isomorphic. \square

Lemma 1.74. $\chi_{\text{reg}}(g) = \begin{cases} |G| & \text{if } g = 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } g \neq 1 \end{cases}$

Proof. For each $g \in G$, we have $\rho_{\text{reg}}(g)(e_h) = e_{gh}$. So ρ_{reg} maps any basis element to another basis element. Thus

$$\text{Tr}(\rho_{\text{reg}}(g)) = |\{g \in G | h = gh\}| = \begin{cases} |G| & \text{if } g = 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } g \neq 1 \end{cases}.$$

\square

Proposition 1.75. *The multiplicity of any irreducible representation in the regular representation equals its dimension.*

Proof. Let V be an irreducible representation of G . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \chi_{\text{reg}}, \chi_V \rangle &= \frac{1}{|G|} \chi_{\text{reg}}(1) \overline{\chi_V(1)} \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} |G| (\dim V) \\ &= \dim V. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the multiplicity of V in the regular representation is $\dim V$. \square

Corollary 1.76. *There are finitely many irreducible representations of G , up to isomorphism.*

Proof. Since $\dim FG = |G|$, there can be at most $|G|$ irreducible representations of G up to isomorphism. \square

Corollary 1.77. Let χ_1, \dots, χ_r be the irreducible characters of G with degrees d_1, \dots, d_r . Then

$$|G| = \sum_{i=1}^n d_i^2$$

Proof. Let U_1, \dots, U_r be distinct representatives of the isomorphism classes of irreducible representations of G . Then

$$V_{\text{reg}} = U_1^{d_1} \oplus \dots \oplus U_r^{d_r}$$

by Proposition 1.75. The claim follows from taking dimensions of each side of this equation. \square

Definition 1.78. A **class function** on G is a function on G whose values are invariant by conjugation of elements in G . The value of a class function at an element $g \in G$ depends only on the conjugacy class of g . We may therefore view class functions as functions on the set of conjugacy classes of G .

Note. The character χ_V of a representation V of G is a class function on G .

[8] [5] [1] [3] [6] [4] [2] [7]

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