

MATH-314: Representation Theory of Finite Groups

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Chapter 1

An Introduction to the Theory of Representations of Groups

As I understand it, the fundamental idea behind Representation Theory is to study the actions of groups on vector spaces. While arbitrary vector spaces over arbitrary fields might not have naturally visualisable geometric properties, representations of groups in the ones that do can greatly illustrate the nature of these groups, especially to individuals like myself who delight in (somewhat literally) *seeing* mathematics come alive.

A key motivating example in the study of representation theory would be the representations of Dihedral groups over \mathbb{R}^2 . It is very natural to (at least informally) view the Dihedral group D_n of order $2n$ as the group of symmetries of the regular n -gon; in other words, elements of D_n have natural actions on a regular n -gon that preserve its structure. For instance, D_4 contains an element that rotates a square clockwise by 90° , an action under which the square is, of course, invariant.



If one were to now plot this square in \mathbb{R}^2 , then action of the same element on the square can

be extended to an orthogonal transformation of \mathbb{R}^2 that maps the x -axis to the y -axis and vice-versa, but in a manner preserving orientation (ie, that *rotates the plane clockwise by 90°*). In a similar fashion, one can extend the actions of all dihedral groups D_n to actions on the entirety of \mathbb{R}^2 . More precisely, to every element of a dihedral group, one can ascribe a specific *matrix* that transforms \mathbb{R}^2 in a manner preserving the regular n -gon.

This motivates the formal definition of a representation.

1.1 Important Definitions

1.1.1 What is a Representation?

It turns out that representations can be defined quite broadly, sidestepping the geometric niceties (or are they constraints?) of Euclidean spaces.

Definition 1.1.1 (Group Representation). Let G be a group. A representation of G is a pair (V, ρ) of a vector space V and a group homomorphism $\rho : G \rightarrow \text{GL}(V)$.

Here, $\text{GL}(V)$ refers to the **General Linear** group over V , consisting of all vector space automorphisms of V equipped with the binary operation of composition.

Definition 1.1.2 (Degree of a Representation). Let G be a group and let (V, ρ) be a representation of G . We define the degree of V to be the dimension of V over its base field.

There exist innumerable examples of representations throughout mathematics. Below, we give some important ones.

Example 1.1.3 (Important Classes of Representations).

1. The trivial representation. Let G be a group and V be any vector space. The map $\rho : G \rightarrow \text{GL}(V) : g \mapsto \text{id}_V$ is a representation.
2. The zero representation. Let G be a group and let $V = \{0\}$ be the zero vector space over an arbitrary field K . The trivial representation over V is known as the zero representation.

3. The sign representation. Let $G = S_n$, the symmetric group on n elements, and let $V = K$, a field. Then, $\text{GL}(V) = K^\times$, the multiplicative group of K . Denoting by ξ the canonical map from \mathbb{Z} to K , the map

$$\rho : G \rightarrow \text{GL}(V) : \sigma \mapsto \xi(\text{sgn}(\sigma))$$

is a representation, where $\text{sgn} : G \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$ denotes the sign homomorphism.

4. Permutation representations. Let G be a group acting on a finite set X , and let $V = K[X]$, the free vector space (over some field K) generated by X . Consider a K -basis $\{e_x \in V : x \in X\}$ of V . Then, the map $\rho : G \rightarrow \text{GL}(V)$ given by

$$\rho(g)(e_x) = e_{g(x)}$$

is a representation.

5. The regular representation. Let G be a *finite* group. The permutation representation corresponding to the canonical action of G on itself by left-multiplication gives a representation of G over $K[G]$, the free vector space generated by G (as a set) over any field K .

Non-Example 1.1.4. Let G be a group and let V be a nonzero vector space over an arbitrary field. The map $g \mapsto 0 : G \rightarrow (V \rightarrow V)$ is not a representation because the zero map $0 : V \rightarrow V$ is not invertible.

As it turns out, we also have a notion of morphisms of representations.

1.1.2 Morphisms of Representations

Definition 1.1.5 (Homomorphism of Representations). Let G be a group and let (V, ρ) and (V', ρ') be two representations of G . A homomorphism of representations $T : V \rightarrow V'$ is a linear map $T : V \rightarrow V'$ such that $\forall g \in G$,

$$T \circ \rho(g) = \rho'(g) \circ T$$

or equivalently, the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} V & \xrightarrow{\rho(g)} & V \\ T \downarrow & & \downarrow T \\ V' & \xrightarrow{\rho'(g)} & V' \end{array} \quad (1.1.1)$$

Such a map T is said to be G -linear.

Remark. The term G -linear comes from the fact that a homomorphism of representations satisfies the property that $T(g(v)) = g(T(v))$, where the notation $g(\cdot)$ represents the action of some $g \in G$, encoded by a representation. In this sense, T is somehow “linear over G ”.

A natural way to define two representations to be equal, or ‘isomorphic,’ is as follows.

Definition 1.1.6 (Equivalence of Representations). Let G be a group and let (V, ρ) and (V', ρ') be two representations of G . We say that (V, ρ) and (V', ρ') are equivalent, denoted $(V, \rho) \sim (V', \rho')$, if there exists a homomorphism $T : (V, \rho) \rightarrow (V', \rho')$ that is invertible as a linear map—ie, that gives a linear isomorphism between V and V' .

The point of morphisms of representations is to be able to move from one vector space to another without losing the structural information captured by the representation. This is precisely illustrated in (1.1.1).

Example 1.1.7 (Representations of Cyclic Groups over \mathbb{R}^2 and \mathbb{R}^3). Consider the cyclic group $C_n = \langle g \rangle$ of order n . Let $V = \mathbb{R}^2$, $V' = \mathbb{R}^3$. Together with the respective maps

$$\begin{aligned} \rho : G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(\mathbb{R}^2) : g^m &\mapsto \begin{bmatrix} \cos(2\pi/m) & -\sin(2\pi/m) \\ \sin(2\pi/m) & \cos(2\pi/m) \end{bmatrix} \\ \rho' : G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(\mathbb{R}^3) : g^m &\mapsto \begin{bmatrix} \cos(2\pi/m) & -\sin(2\pi/m) & 0 \\ \sin(2\pi/m) & \cos(2\pi/m) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

they give representations of C_n . Consider now the inclusion $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ whose

matrix with respect to the standard bases of \mathbb{R}^2 and \mathbb{R}^3 is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. One can see that T gives a map from (V, ρ) to (V', ρ') . Indeed, the corestriction of T to its image is a linear isomorphism, which gives an equivalence between (V, ρ) and $(T(V), \rho)$, where we restrict the domains of each $\rho(g^m)$ to $T(V)$.

The above example leads to an interesting question. Can we think of one representation as being “contained” in another?

It turns out that we can.

1.1.3 Subrepresentations

We have the objects; we have the morphisms. It is only natural to think about what the subobjects would be in the context of group representations. And if Example 1.1.7 is any indication, they involve something more than just an inclusion. There is some structural property of a sub-vector space of a representation that makes it *compatible* with the representation structure. In the case of Example 1.1.7, for instance, this is the fact that the representation ρ' acted only “horizontally”—ie, “parallel” to the subspace $T(V)$.

More generally, it turns out that the property we really require a subspace to have in order to be ‘compatible’ with the representation structure is the following.

Definition 1.1.8 (G -Invariance). Let G be a group and let (V, ρ) be a representation of G . We say that a sub-vector space $W \leq V$ is G -invariant if for all $w \in W$ and $g \in G$,

$$\rho(g)(w) \in W$$

In other words, W is G -invariant if W is $\rho(g)$ -invariant for every $g \in G$.

One can make the following observation. Let G be a group, (V, ρ) a representation of G , and $W \leq V$ a G -invariant subspace. Then, $\forall g \in G$, $\rho(g) \in \text{GL}(W)$. That is, $\rho(g)$ is a linear automorphism of W whose inverse, $\rho(g^{-1})$, is *also* a linear automorphism of W . This then

leads to the following definition of a subrepresentation.

Definition 1.1.9 (Subrepresentation). Let G be a group and let (V, ρ) be a representation of G . A subrepresentation of V is a pair $(W, \rho|_W)$ consisting of a G -invariant subspace $W \leq V$ and the map

$$\rho|_W : G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(W) : g \mapsto \rho(g)|_W$$

It is very important to note that the map $\rho|_W$ is *not actually a restriction of ρ to a specific domain*. Rather, it is a map that restricts the domain of $\rho(g)$ for every $g \in G$.

One can also observe easily that a subrepresentation is given uniquely by a G -invariant subspace. Hence, we will often abuse notation and not distinguish between the pair $(W, \rho|_W)$ (which is actually a representation) and simply W (which is merely a subspace).

Example 1.1.10. Let G be a finite group and K a field. Consider the regular representation $\rho : G \rightarrow K[G]$. Let $\{e_g : g \in G\}$ denote a basis of $K[G]$. Then, the subspace $W := \mathrm{Span}\left(\sum_{g \in G} e_g\right)$ is G -invariant.

It turns out that morphisms of representations also give us subrepresentations.

Proposition 1.1.11. Let G be a group and let (V, ρ) be a representation of G . Let $T : (V, \rho) \rightarrow (V, \rho)$ be a homomorphism of representations. Then, the subspaces $\ker(T)$ and $\mathrm{im}(T)$ of V are G -invariant.

Proof. Fix $g \in G$ and $v \in \ker(T)$. We know $T(\rho(g)(v)) = \rho(g)(T(v))$. Since $T(v) = 0$, $T(\rho(g)(v)) = 0$. Hence, $\rho(g)(v) \in \ker(T)$, proving that $\ker(T)$ is G -invariant.

Now, fix $w \in \mathrm{im}(T)$. Then, $w = T(u)$ for some $u \in V$. Clearly, $\rho(g)(w) = \rho(g)(T(u)) = T(\rho(g)(u)) \in \mathrm{im}(T)$, proving that $\mathrm{im}(T)$ is G -invariant as well. \square

1.1.4 Irreducibility

Having discussed the subobjects of representations (namely, subrepresentation), it is only natural to wish to describe whether a representation ever contains a nontrivial subrepresentation. I say “nontrivial” because any representation naturally admits two (uninteresting) subrepresentations: the trivial representation and itself.

Akin to the definition of simple groups, where we answer a similar question, we have the following definition that captures this idea.

Definition 1.1.12 (Irreducibility). Let G be a group and (V, ρ) a nonzero representation of G . We say (V, ρ) is irreducible if V contains no proper, nonzero G -invariant subspaces.

In similar fashion, we say a nonzero representation is reducible if it is not irreducible.

Given that MATH-314 focuses on *finite* groups, the following result is quite useful.

Proposition 1.1.13. *Let G be a group and let (V, ρ) be a representation of G . If G is finite and (V, ρ) is irreducible, then V is finite-dimensional.*

Proof. Since (V, ρ) is irreducible, in particular, $V \supsetneq \{0\}$ —ie, $\exists v \in V$ such that $v \neq 0$. Let $W := \text{Span}(\{\rho(g)(v) : g \in G\})$. Since $0 \neq v \in W$, W is a nonzero subspace of V . Furthermore, since G is finite, W is finite-dimensional. We show that W is, in fact, G -invariant. Then, since V is irreducible, W could not possibly be a proper subspace of V , meaning that $W = V$, making V finite-dimensional as well.

Fix $h \in G$, and consider an arbitrary element $w = \sum_{g \in G} \lambda_g \rho(g)(v) \in W$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(h)(w) &= \sum_{g \in G} \lambda_g \rho(h)(\rho(g)(v)) \\ &= \sum_{g \in G} \lambda_g (\rho(h) \circ \rho(g))(v) \\ &= \sum_{g \in G} \lambda_g \rho(hg)(v) \in W \end{aligned}$$

proving that W is $\rho(h)$ -invariant for every $h \in G$, making it a G -invariant subspace of V . Therefore, as argued above, $W = V$, proving that V is finite-dimensional. \square

Example 1.1.14 (Simple Examples of Irreducible Representations).

1. Any representation of degree 1 is irreducible.
2. Let K be a field. The trivial embedding $\mathrm{SL}(n, K) \hookrightarrow \mathrm{GL}(n, K)$ gives an irreducible representation of $\mathrm{SL}(n, K)$ over K^n .

Proof. Assume $n > 1$ (else, the result follows from the previous point). For the sake of contradiction, suppose there exists a nonzero, $\mathrm{SL}(n, K)$ -invariant subspace W of K^n having dimension $m < n$. Let $\mathcal{B} = \{e_1, \dots, e_m\}$ be a basis of W , extending to a basis $\bar{\mathcal{B}} = \{e_1, \dots, e_m, e_{m+1}, \dots, e_n\}$ of V . Consider the linear map $T \in \mathrm{SL}(n, K)$ having matrix

$$[T]_{\bar{\mathcal{B}}} = \begin{bmatrix} & & & & (-1)^{n+1} \\ & & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & -1 & \\ 1 & & & & \end{bmatrix}$$

with respect to $\bar{\mathcal{B}}$. Clearly, $T(e_1) = e_n$, even though $e_1 \in W$ and $e_n \notin W$, contradicting the $\mathrm{SL}(n, K)$ -invariance of W . \square

Non-Example 1.1.15. Let G be a finite group and K a field. Consider the regular representation $(K[G], \rho)$. In the notation of Example 1.1.10, we know that $W := \mathrm{Span}\left(\sum_{g \in G} e_g\right)$ is G -invariant. If $|G| > 1$, then W is a proper subspace of $K[G]$, as it has dimension 1 (whereas $K[G]$ has dimension $|G|$). Furthermore, W is nonzero. Hence, $(K[G], \rho)$ is not irreducible (unless $|G| = 1$, in which case it follows from the first point of Example 1.1.14 that $(K[G], \rho)$ is irreducible).

1.2 Invariant Constructions

In this section, we briefly examine how ordinary linear algebraic constructions can interact with representations. We are particularly interested in the notion of *invariance*, wherein a construction respects the structure of the representation(s) involved.

1.2.1 Direct Sums of Representations

The most elementary operation we can think about when we have two objects is *putting them together*. One of the most meaningful ways of doing so in the context of linear algebra is the direct sum of two vector spaces. It turns out that this extends rather naturally to representations.

Definition 1.2.1 (The Direct Sum of Two Representations). Let G be a group and let (V, ρ) and (V', ρ') be representations of G . We define the direct sum of (V, ρ) and (V', ρ') to be the pair $(V \oplus V', \rho \oplus \rho')$, where $V \oplus V'$ is the direct sum of V and V' as vector spaces and $\rho \oplus \rho' : G \rightarrow \text{GL}(V \oplus V')$ maps every $g \in G$ to the map

$$(\rho \oplus \rho')(g)(v \oplus v') = \rho(g)(v) \oplus \rho'(g)(v') \in \text{GL}(V)$$

Proposition 1.2.2. *Let G be a group and let (V, ρ) and (V', ρ') be representations of G .*

1. *The direct sum $(V \oplus V', \rho \oplus \rho')$ of (V, ρ) and (V', ρ') is, indeed, a representation of G .*
2. *V and V' are G -invariant subspaces¹ of $V \oplus V'$.*

Proof.

1. Fix $g, h \in G$. For all $v \oplus v' \in V \oplus V'$,

$$\begin{aligned} (\rho \oplus \rho')(gh)(v \oplus v') &= \rho(gh)(v) \oplus \rho'(gh)(v') \\ &= \rho(g)(\rho(h)(v)) \oplus \rho'(g)(\rho'(h)(v')) \\ &= (\rho \oplus \rho')(g)((\rho \oplus \rho')(h)(v \oplus v')) \end{aligned}$$

proving that $\rho \oplus \rho'$ is multiplicative. Then, for any $g \in G$, $(\rho \oplus \rho')(g)$ has inverse $(\rho \oplus \rho')(g^{-1})$. Hence, $\rho \oplus \rho'$ is a homomorphism from G to $\text{GL}(V \oplus V')$.

2. Fix $g \in G$ and $v \in V$. Clearly, $(\rho \oplus \rho')(g)(v) = \rho(g)(v)$. Since $\rho(g) \in \text{GL}(V)$, it follows that $\rho(g)(v) \in V$. The proof that V' is G -invariant is identical.

□

¹Technically, isomorphic to the subspaces $V \oplus \{0\}$ and $\{0\} \oplus V'$, but we overlook such distinctions.

The above proposition gives us another reason to consider the direct sum to be an “invariant” construction: while it enriches both the vector space structure and the representation structure of a summand by adding another representation into the mix, it does not take anything away from the constructions that already exist.

With direct sums, we also have similar notions to reducibility. These are given by the following.

Definition 1.2.3 (Complete Reducibility). A representation is said to be completely reducible if it is expressible as a direct sum of irreducible representations.

Definition 1.2.4 (Indecomposability). A nonzero representation is said to be indecomposable if it is inexpressible as a direct sum of two proper, nonzero subrepresentations.

Nonzero representations that are not indecomposable are said to be decomposable.

1.2.2 Complementary Subrepresentations

It is a well-known fact from Linear Algebra that for any finite-dimensional vector space V , for any subspace $W \leq V$, there exists a *complementary* subspace $W' \leq V$ such that $W \oplus W' = V$. Over Euclidean spaces, for example, we have the very important notion of *orthogonal* complements.

We can define a similar notion for representations, too.

Definition 1.2.5 (Complementary Subrepresentation). Let G be a group and let (V, ρ) be a representation of G . Let $(W, \rho|_W)$ be a subrepresentation of (V, ρ) . A complementary subrepresentation of $(W, \rho|_W)$ is a subrepresentation $(U, \rho|_U)$ such that $V = U \oplus W$.

This notion of complementarity is, indeed, compatible with the notion of direct sums of representations.

Proposition 1.2.6. Let G be a group and let (V, ρ) be a representation of G . Let $(W, \rho|_W)$ and $(U, \rho|_U)$ be complementary subrepresentations. Then, their direct sum $(V, \rho|_W \oplus \rho|_U)$ is equivalent to (V, ρ) as a representation of G .

Proof. It suffices to show that $\rho = \rho|_W \oplus \rho|_U$. Then, the identity map would give an equivalence of representations. Indeed, every $v \in V$ is expressible uniquely as a direct sum $w \oplus u$ for some $w \in W$ and $u \in U$. So, for all $g \in G$,

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(g)(v) &= \rho(g)(w \oplus u) \\ &= \rho(g)(w) \oplus \rho(g)(u) \\ &= \rho|_W(g)(w) \oplus \rho|_U(g)(u) \\ &= (\rho|_W \oplus \rho|_U)(g)(w \oplus u)\end{aligned}$$

where the sum in the second equality is direct because W and U are $\rho(g)$ -invariant. \square

We now recall an important result from Linear Algebra.

Definition 1.2.7 (Projection). Let V be a vector space and let $T : V \rightarrow V$ be linear. Observe that we have the following equivalence:

$$T^2 = T \iff \forall w \in \text{im}(T), T(w) = w \quad (1.2.1)$$

If T satisfies either one of the above conditions, T is said to be a projection.

We do not prove (1.2.1), but we do prove the following lemma, which will prove to be useful.

Lemma 1.2.8. *Let V be a vector space. For all projections $T : V \rightarrow V$, $V = \ker(T) \oplus \text{im}(T)$.*

Proof. Let $T : V \rightarrow V$ be a projection. We then have the following.

$\text{im}(T) \cap \ker(T) = \{0\}$: Fix $w \in \text{im}(T) \cap \ker(T)$. Since $w \in \text{im}(T)$, $\exists v \in V$ such that $w = T(v)$.

Furthermore, since $w \in \ker(T)$, $T(w) = 0$. Since $w = T(v)$, this is equivalent to saying that $T(T(v)) = 0$. But, by (1.2.1), $T(T(v)) = T(v)$. Hence, $T(v) = 0$. Then, since $T(v) = w$, it follows that $w = 0$.

$V = \ker(T) + \text{im}(T)$: Fix $v \in V$. We write $v = T(v) + (v - T(v))$. Clearly, $T(v) \in \text{im}(T)$.

Further, $T(v - T(v)) = T(v) - T(v) = 0$. Hence, $v - T(v) \in \ker(T)$.

Therefore, we do, indeed, have $V = \ker(T) \oplus \text{im}(T)$. \square

It turns out that this gives us an important criterion for decomposability.

Corollary 1.2.9. *Let G be a group and let (V, ρ) be a representation of G . If $T : (V, \rho) \rightarrow (V, \rho)$ is a G -linear projection, then $V = \ker(T) \oplus \operatorname{im}(T)$ is a direct sum of subrepresentations.*

Proof. The result follows immediately from Lemma 1.2.8 and Proposition 1.1.11. \square

One also has a converse criterion for G -linearity.

Proposition 1.2.10. *Let G be a group and let (V, ρ) be a representation of G , and let $T : V \rightarrow V$ be a projection. If $\ker(T)$ and $\operatorname{im}(T)$ are both G -invariant, then T is G -linear.*

Proof. Since T is a projection, we know that $V = \ker(T) \oplus \operatorname{im}(T)$. Now, fix $g \in G$ and $v \in V$. We know v can uniquely be expressed as $u + w$, where $u \in \ker(T)$ and $w \in \operatorname{im}(T)$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} T(\rho(g)(v)) &= T\left(\underbrace{\rho(g)(u)}_{\in \ker(T)} + \underbrace{\rho(g)(w)}_{\in \operatorname{im}(T)}\right) \\ &= \rho(g)(w) \\ &= \rho(g)(T(v)) \end{aligned}$$

proving that T is, indeed, G -linear. \square

Example 1.2.11. Consider the situation in Example 1.1.7. As we discussed briefly at the beginning of Subsection 1.1.3, we can view (V, ρ) as a subrepresentation of (V', ρ') . Now, consider the linear map $S : V' \rightarrow V' : (x, y, z) \mapsto (x, y, 0)$, where (x, y, z) are coordinates with respect to the standard basis. This is clearly a projection operator with image V , the (x, y) plane, and kernel the z -axis. These are both clearly G -invariant, making S a G -linear projection.

1.2.3 Maschke's Theorem

Given the theme of this section—namely, understanding the compatibility of ordinary linear-algebraic constructions with representation structures—one might wonder under what condi-

tions (if any) we have the existence of a complementary subrepresentations. The answer lies in Maschke's Theorem, which is the first major result of the course.

Theorem 1.2.12 (Maschke's Theorem). *Let G be a finite group, K a field such that $\text{char}(K) \nmid |G|$, and (V, ρ) a representation of G over K . Then, any subrepresentation of V admits a complementary subrepresentation.*

Proof. Let $W \leq V$ be G -invariant. The idea is to construct a G -linear map from V to V with image W . Then, by Corollary 1.2.9, its kernel would give a complementary subrepresentation.

From Linear Algebra, we know that W admits a complementary (but not necessarily G -invariant) subspace $U \leq V$. Then, every $v \in V$ can uniquely be expressed as a sum $u + w$, where $u \in U$ and $w \in W$. Define $T : V \rightarrow V : u + w \mapsto w$. Clearly, T is a projection operator with image W and kernel U .

If T were G -linear, we would be done with the proof; unfortunately, T does not have to be G -linear. We therefore “convert” T into a G -linear projection $S : V \rightarrow V$ by *averaging over* G . Specifically, define

$$S := \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho(g) \circ T \circ \rho(g)^{-1} \quad (1.2.2)$$

which is well-defined because $|G| \neq 0$ in K . We then show the following.

S is a projection with image W . Fix $v \in V$ and express it as $u + w$ for a unique $u \in U$ and $w \in W$. Then, for all $g \in G$,

- $T(\rho(g)^{-1}(v)) \in W$ because T is a projection with image W .
- $\rho(g)(T(\rho(g)^{-1}(v))) \in W$ because $T(\rho(g)^{-1}(v)) \in W$ and W is G -invariant.

Combined with the fact that W is closed under addition, this proves that $\text{im}(S) \subseteq W$.

Conversely, for all $w \in W$ and $g \in G$,

- $(\rho(g)^{-1})(w) = \rho(g^{-1})(w) \in W$ because W is G -invariant.
- $T(\rho(g^{-1})(w)) \in W$ because $\rho(g^{-1})(w) \in W$ and W is T -invariant.
- $\rho(g)(T(\rho(g^{-1})(w))) \in W$ because W is G -invariant.

Combined, again, with the fact that W is closed under addition, this proves that $W \subseteq \text{im}(S)$. Therefore, we have that $W = \text{im}(S)$.

Finally, since $T|_W = \text{id}_W$, we have that $\forall w \in \text{im}(S) = W$,

$$\begin{aligned} S(w) &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \rho(g) \left(T \left(\underbrace{\rho(g)^{-1}(w)}_{\in W} \right) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} (\rho(g) \circ \rho(g)^{-1})(w) \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} w = w \end{aligned}$$

proving that S is, indeed, a projection.

S is G -linear. Fix $v \in V$ and $h \in G$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} S(\rho(h)(v)) &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} (\rho(g) \circ T \circ \rho(g)^{-1})(\rho(h)(v)) \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} (\rho(g) \circ T \circ \rho(g^{-1}h))(v) \end{aligned}$$

We now perform a change of variables. Observe that the map $g \mapsto h^{-1}g : G \rightarrow G$ is an automorphism. Hence, writing $g' = h^{-1}g$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} S(\rho(h)(v)) &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g' \in G} (\rho(hg') \circ T \circ \rho((g')^{-1}))(v) \\ &= \rho(h) \left(\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g' \in G} (\rho(g') \circ T \circ \rho(g')^{-1}) \right) (v) \\ &= \rho(h)(S(v)) \end{aligned}$$

proving that S is, indeed, G -linear.

Therefore, by Corollary 1.2.9, $\ker(S)$ is a complementary subrepresentation of W . \square

We also have the following important corollary.

Corollary 1.2.13. *Let G be a finite group, K a field such that $\text{char}(K) \nmid |G|$. Then, every representation of G over K is completely reducible.*

Proof. Let (V, ρ) be a representation of G over K . If (V, ρ) is irreducible, we are done; else, it admits a nonzero, proper subrepresentation, which, by Maschke's Theorem, admits a complementary subrepresentation that is also proper and nonzero. If both of these are irreducible, then we are done; else, repeat this process. \square

Remark. Nowhere in Definition 1.2.3 do we specify that the decomposition must be finite.

We note that both hypotheses of Maschke's Theorem—namely, that G is a finite group and that $\text{char}(K) \nmid |G|$ —are essential for Theorem 1.2.12 (and hence Corollary 1.2.13) to hold.

Non-Example 1.2.14 (Failure of Maschke's Theorem when $\text{char}(K) \mid |G|$). Let $G = \langle a \rangle$ be a cyclic group of prime order p . Let $V = \mathbb{F}_p^2$, and define $\rho : G \rightarrow \text{GL}(2, \mathbb{F}_p)$ by

$$\rho(a^r) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & r \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for } 0 \leq r \leq p-1.$$

1. (V, ρ) is a representation of G over \mathbb{F}_p .
2. (V, ρ) is not irreducible.
3. (V, ρ) is not completely reducible.

1.2.4 The G -Invariant Inner-Product