

Proof: Define $F: \begin{cases} A/K \rightarrow \text{Im}(f) \\ \langle gk \rangle \rightarrow F(gk) = f(g) \end{cases}$, $K = \text{Ker } f$

• F is well defined:

let $gk = g'k \Rightarrow F(gk) = f(g)$, e_a as $a \in k$

now $g \cdot a = g'a$ with $a \in k \Rightarrow F(gk) = f(g) \cdot f(a) = f(g') = F(g'k)$

• F is injective: If $F(gk) = F(g'k) \Rightarrow f(g) = f(g')$
 $\Rightarrow f(\underbrace{g^{-1}g'}_a) = e \Rightarrow g^{-1}g' \in k \Rightarrow$
 $gk = \underbrace{g'g^{-1}gk}_{\in k} = g'k$

• F is surjective:

we can choose any $g \in A$, consider $F(gk)$ to get any element $f(g)$ in $\text{Im}(f)$

• F is a homomorphism (group mult. preserving)

$$F(gk) F(g'k) = f(g) f(g') = f(gg') = F(\underline{gg'k})$$

(non-trivial)

group mult. as gk
p. 29 \square

Example: D_3 has only 1 normal subgroup,

$$C_3 = \{e, c, c^2\} \Leftrightarrow \text{a candidate for Ker } f$$

Given a homomorphism $f: D_3 \rightarrow G$ for G some group,

we can have

• $\ker f = \{e\}$ (is a normal subgroup: the trivial one)

$$\Rightarrow \text{Im}(f) \cong D_3 / \{e\} = D_3$$

• $\ker f = C_3$. We know that $D_3 / C_3 = C_2$

\Rightarrow the isomorphism then tells us that $\text{Im}(f) \cong C_2$

This illustrates the restrictiveness of the concept of group homomorphisms!

Motivation Representations of Groups:

Consider the hydrogen atom in QM, with Hamiltonian

$$H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(r). \quad \text{It acts on a Hilbert space with states}$$

labelled by quantum numbers n, l, m .

$$H |n, l, m\rangle = \frac{1}{2} |n, l, m\rangle, \quad L^2 |n, l, m\rangle = l(l+1) |n, l, m\rangle$$

$$L_z |n, l, m\rangle = m |n, l, m\rangle, \quad m = -l, \dots, +l$$

• a rotation R_1 in 3 dim will change m , but not l :

\Rightarrow the rotated state $|n, l, m'\rangle = D_{m'm}^{(l)}(R_1) |n, l, m\rangle$ is a linear superposition,

because of the possible values of m . $D(R_1)$ is a matrix of dim $2l+1$

• we do a further rotation R_2 we can write

$$|n, l, m''\rangle = D_{m''m'}^{(l)}(R_2) |n, l, m'\rangle = \underline{D_{m''m'}^{(l)}(R_2) D_{m'm}^{(l)}(R_1)} |n, l, m\rangle$$

but also directly for the rotation $R = R_2 R_1$

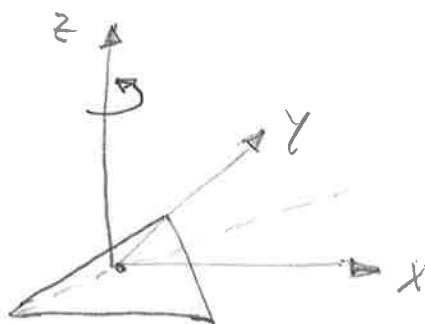
$$= \underline{D_{m''m}^{(l)}(R = R_2 R_1)} |n, l, m\rangle$$

(they form a representation)

\Rightarrow the matrices $D(R)$ fill a group mult. table of the underlying group. \neq

Group representations

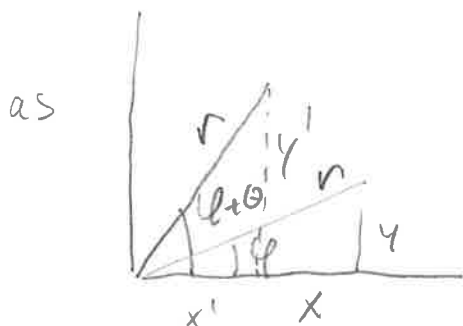
- the groups we have studied so far were defined on an abstract level by their multiplication table (Latin square): they satisfy the rules G0-G3 that define a group.
- However, we sometimes had explicit realisations, e.g. for the groups C_3 or D_3 in terms of rotations of a given triangle in \mathbb{R}^3 .



→ these rotations are a typical example of a representation of a group. In detail

- The elements of $C_3 = \{e, c, c^2\}$ can be represented by rotations around the z-axis by an angle of $\theta = 0, \frac{2\pi}{3}, \frac{4\pi}{3}$. Side rotations in the xy-plane by an arbitrary angle θ enjoy a 3x3 matrix rep on \mathbb{R}^3 :

$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \cos \theta - y \sin \theta \\ x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \equiv R(\theta) \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$$



$$x' = r \cos(\phi + \theta) = r(\cos \phi \cos \theta - \sin \phi \sin \theta) \\ \downarrow \\ = x \cos \theta - y \sin \theta$$

$$y' = r \sin(\phi + \theta) = r(\sin \phi \cos \theta + \cos \phi \sin \theta) \\ \downarrow \\ = y \cos \theta + x \sin \theta$$

using $\sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}$

$$\cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) = -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$\sin\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right) = -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}$$

$$\cos\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right) = -\frac{1}{2}$$

we have

The following representation of C_3 in terms of 3×3 rotation matrices:

$$D(e) = R(0) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, D(c) = R\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & 0 \\ \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, D(c^2) = R\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & 0 \\ -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

• it is easy to check that indeed

$$D(c^2) = (D(c))^2, D(c)D(c^2) = D(c^3) = D(e) \text{ etc.}$$

as in the multiplication table for C_3

• choosing angles $\Theta = \frac{2\pi}{n}k, k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$

we obtain a matrix rep. of C_n by 3×3 rotation matrices

• for D_n we would ^{have} matrices rotating around other axes by π (reflections) _{in 2dim}

Definition A matrix representation ^(short: rep.) of dimension n of the abstract

group G is defined as a homomorphism $D: G \rightarrow GL(n, \mathbb{C})$.

Here $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$: (general linear group) is the group of non-singular (= invertible) $n \times n$ matrices with complex entries.

(recall that $f: G \rightarrow G'$ is a group homomorphism if it preserves the group structure: $\forall g_1, g_2 \in G \quad f(g_1 g_2) = f(g_1) f(g_2)$)

Consequently D preserves the group structure, and it holds

$$D(g^{-1}) = (D(g))^{-1} \quad (\text{hence } D(g) \text{ must be invertible})$$

In our example C_3 belongs to a more restrictive group:

$C_3: D\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}k\right) \in \underline{SL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ (special linear group) the group of

non-singular $n \times n$ matrices with real elements and determinant 1.

• because $R(\theta)$ is a rotation matrix it preserves the norm of any vector, in fact the scalar product of any 2 vectors $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}$:

$$\vec{x}'^2 = \vec{x}'^T \vec{x}' = (R\vec{x})^T R\vec{x} = \vec{x}^T R^T R \vec{x} = \vec{x}^T \vec{x} \Rightarrow \boxed{R^T R = \mathbb{1}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \det(R^T R) = \det R^T \det R = (\det R)^2 = 1 \Rightarrow \det R = \pm 1$$

• Because $R(\theta)$ is a proper rotation (and not a reflection) $\det R(\theta) = +1$

Also R is orthogonal as $R^{-1} = R^T$

Hence the $D(\theta)$ representing C_n are a discrete subset of the group of special orthogonal 3×3 matrices: $SO(3)$
($\det=1$)

• Def A representation is called faithful if the group homomorphism $D: G \rightarrow GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ is an isomorphism $\Leftrightarrow \text{Ker}(D) = e \in G$

examples: * the rep. $R(0), R(\frac{2\pi}{3}), R(\frac{4\pi}{3})$ of C_3 is faithful.

* In the case of C_3 we only needed rotations in 2 dimensions.

Hence by dropping the last row and column of $R(\theta)$ we also have

a rep $D: C_3 \rightarrow SL(2, \mathbb{R})$ in $SO(2)$:

$$R_2(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \text{ with } R_2(0), R_2\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right), R_2\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right) \text{ which is again faithful}$$

* If we were to drop the 1st and 2nd row and column we would have

$$D: C_3 \rightarrow SL(1, \mathbb{R}) \text{ with } D(e) = 1, D(c) = 1, D(c^2) = 1, \text{ this rep is not faithful}$$

* note that for D_3 we either need rotations and reflections in 2dim

that is $D_3 \rightarrow GL(2, \mathbb{R})$ or only — but in 3dim: $D_3 \rightarrow SL(3, \mathbb{R})$

Equivalence of representations

Definition: Two representations $D^{(1)}$ and $D^{(2)}$ of the same group, with the same dimension n are called equivalent, if for any $g \in G$ the two matrices $D^{(1)}(g)$ and $D^{(2)}(g)$ are related by the same similarity transformation $S \in GL(n, \mathbb{C})$:

$$\forall g \in G : D^{(1)}(g) = S D^{(2)}(g) S^{-1} \quad (\text{so } S \text{ is indep of } g)$$

* it is easy to check that this similarity trafo indeed provides an equivalence relation

* the similarity trafo S is compatible with the group structure of the two reps:

$$D^{(i)}(gg') = D^{(i)}(g) D^{(i)}(g') \quad \text{for } g, g' \in G \quad (i=1,2)$$

$$S D^{(1)}(gg') S^{-1} = S D^{(2)}(g) D^{(2)}(g') S^{-1} = D^{(1)}(g) D^{(1)}(g') = D^{(1)}(gg')$$

\uparrow
 $S^{-1}S = 1$

* later when we classify representations we will count each such equiv. class only once!

ex. 6: consider $T(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ 0 & \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$, then $\{T(0), T(\frac{2\pi}{3}), T(\frac{4\pi}{3})\}$ is

also a matrix rep. of C_3 . It is equivalent to $\{R(0), R(\frac{2\pi}{3}), R(\frac{4\pi}{3})\}$ via $S = ?$

In general equivalent reps will be given by matrices that provide the same linear trafo of the vector space \mathbb{R}^n , but in different bases. ||

• the concept of a character of a rep. of G provides a way of counting equiv. classes just once.

Def The character of a matrix rep D of a group G is the set of

$$\chi = \{\chi(g) \mid g \in G\}, \text{ where } \chi(g) \text{ is the trace of the rep. matrix in } D: \chi(g) = \text{Tr}(D(g))$$

- the cyclicity of the trace, $\text{Tr}(ABC) = \text{Tr}(CAB) = \text{Tr}(BCA)$ immediately implies, that the character of two equivalent reps. is the same:

$$\text{Tr}(D^{(2)}(g)) = \text{Tr}(S D^{(1)}(g) S^{-1}) = \text{Tr}(D^{(1)}(g)) \quad \forall g \in G$$

so $\chi = \chi^1 = \chi^2$, e.g. for $\{R(\omega), R(\frac{2\pi}{3}), R(\frac{4\pi}{3})\}$ of C_3 we have $\chi = \{3, 0\}$

- * A main result in rep. theory is that the reverse is also true, i.e. if $\chi^1 = \chi^2$ for 2 reps of the same dim n , then $D^{(1)}$ and $D^{(2)}$ have to be equivalent.

- in the example of the 3×3 matrix rep. of C_3 we saw, that we could "reduce" it in 2 different ways to a (faithful) 2×2 matrix rep and a 1×1 "matrix" rep. In fact our rep decomposes in these 2 reps which are completely indep. in the following sense:

$$RR^T = \begin{pmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0^T & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A^T & 0 \\ 0^T & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} AA^T & 0 \\ 0^T & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{where } A, A^T \text{ are } 2 \times 2 \text{ matrices, and } 0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- We denote such a block diag. decomposition by \oplus

$$R(\omega) = D^{(1)}(\omega) \oplus D^{(2)}(\omega)$$

Definition A matrix rep.^D of dimension $n+m$ is called reducible,

if $\forall g \in G \quad D(g) = \begin{pmatrix} A(g) & C(g) \\ 0 & B(g) \end{pmatrix}$ where A and B are of dim $n \times n$ and $m \times m$ respectively,

and $C(g) \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ are rectangular matrices of dim $n \times m$, with 0 containing only zeros.

- multiplying upper triangular matrices remains upper triangular (e.g.g')

$$D(g) D(g') = \begin{pmatrix} A(g) & C(g) \\ 0 & B(g) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A(g') & C(g') \\ 0 & B(g') \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A(g)A(g') & A(g)C(g') + C(g)B(g') \\ 0 & B(g)B(g') \end{pmatrix}$$