

This property transforms into a property of the matrix M associated to f . Namely M is unitary, i.e. $MM^T = M^TM = E$

Proof:

We use the scalar product given by $\{\hat{e}_i, \hat{e}_j\} = \delta_{ij}$. The scalar product is a bilinear form \Rightarrow we have is automatically defined on the whole vectorial space.

$$\begin{aligned} (f(v), f(w)) &= \left(f\left(\sum_i \alpha_i \hat{e}_i\right), f\left(\sum_j \beta_j \hat{e}_j\right) \right) = \\ &= \sum_{ij} \alpha_i^* \beta_j \left(f(\hat{e}_i), f(\hat{e}_j) \right) = \\ &= \sum_{ij} \alpha_i^* \beta_j \left(\sum_k M_{ki} \hat{e}_k, \sum_k M_{kj} \hat{e}_k \right) \\ &= \sum_{ij} \alpha_i^* \beta_j \sum_{lk} M_{ki}^* M_{kj} \delta_{lk} = \sum_{ijk} \alpha_i^* \beta_j (M^+)^{ik} M_{kj} \\ (v, w) &= \sum_{ij} (\alpha_i \hat{e}_i, \beta_j \hat{e}_j) = \sum_i \alpha_i^* \beta_i \\ &\Rightarrow \sum_k (M^+)^{ik} M_{kj} = \delta_{ij} \end{aligned}$$

If the transformation is real $\Rightarrow M^T M = E$ and M is orthogonal.

Theorem: Let $\{A, B, \dots\}$ form a group $G \Rightarrow$ the set of matrix representation $\{\Gamma(A), \Gamma(B), \dots\}$ form a group isomorphic to G .

Proof: it is enough to prove the homomorphism.

$$\Gamma(AB) = \Gamma(A)\Gamma(B)$$

$$AB = C \Rightarrow C(\hat{v}) = \sum_i \alpha_i M_{li}^C \hat{e}_l$$

$$\begin{aligned} A(B(v)) &= A\left(\sum_i \alpha_i M_{li}^B \hat{e}_l\right) = \sum_i \alpha_i M_{li}^B A(\hat{e}_l) \\ &= \sum_i \alpha_i M_{li}^B M_{kl}^A \hat{e}_k \end{aligned}$$

$$\sum_{ikl} \alpha_i M_{kl}^A M_{li}^B \hat{e}_k = \sum_{il} \alpha_i M_{li}^C \hat{e}_l \quad \forall \{\alpha_i\}.$$

$$\sum_{lk} M_{lk}^A M_{ki}^B \hat{e}_l = \sum_l M_{li}^C \hat{e}_l \quad \text{project on the 3 components}$$

$$\sum_k M_{lk}^A M_{ki}^B = M_{li}^C \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad M^A M^B = M^C$$

example

$$C_4 : E, C_4^+, C_4^-, C_2$$

$$E = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad C_4^+ = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \bar{1} & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad C_4^- = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \bar{1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$C_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \bar{1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\bar{1} \equiv -1$$

These matrices
act on the
COEFFICIENTS!

TRANSFORMATION OF FUNCTIONS

Let's take a point P in the space identified by the coordinates xyz . $R(P) = P'$ where P' is represented by the coordinates $x'y'z'$. If R is a symmetry operation then there must be a representation of R in the space of the functions f such that

$$\hat{R}f(R(P)) = f(P) \quad P = R^{-1}(P')$$

$$\hat{R}f(P') = f(R^{-1}(P')) \quad \text{but this is applicable to any point}$$

$$\hat{R}f(P) = f(R^{-1}(P)) \quad \text{as this represents a definition of the function transformation induced from the point symmetry operation } R.$$

example

$$d_{xy} = e^{-q(r)} xy \quad R = C_4^+$$

$$C_4^+ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{x} \\ \bar{y} \\ \bar{z} \end{pmatrix} \quad (C_4^+)^{-1} = C_4^- = (C_4^+)^T \Rightarrow (C_4^+)^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{y} \\ \bar{x} \\ \bar{z} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\hat{C}_4^+ d_{xy} = e^{-q(r)} \bar{y}\bar{x} = -d_{xy}.$$

N.B. • In quantum mechanics the relation $\hat{R} f(R(p)) = f(p)$ should be softened if f is a wave function since physical properties do not depend on the overall phase. $\hat{R} \psi(R(p)) = e^{ip} \psi(p)$

Question : If $\{R, T, S, \dots\}$ is a group, can we say the same for $\{\hat{R}, \hat{T}, \hat{S}, \dots\}$?

We define the product as $\hat{S} = \hat{R}\hat{T}$ $\hat{S}f = \hat{R}[\hat{T}f(p)]$. Once again it is crucial to prove that $\hat{S} \leftrightarrow S$ and all other relations follow immediately. On the top we prove in such a way that the

2 groups are isomorphic.

$$\hat{R}[\hat{T}f(p)] = \hat{R}f(T^{-1}(p)) = f(T^{-1}(R^{-1}(p))) = f((RT)^{-1}p) \quad (*)$$

$$\hat{S}[f(p)] = f(S^{-1}(p)) = f((RT)^{-1}(p)) =$$

\Rightarrow the relation is $RT \rightarrow \hat{R}\hat{T}$.

The operators \hat{T} are linear acting on the Hilbert space for our system and for this reason they are also represented by matrices.

The group of matrices that represent the transformations \hat{T} is also isomorphic to the original point symmetry group.

It is also possible to prove that every representation with matrices having non-vanishing determinant is similar to a representation made of

unitary matrices.

proof

$A_1 \dots A_h$ are the matrices of a representation.

$$H = \sum_{x=1}^h A_x A_x^+ \text{ is hermitian}$$

$$d = U^{-1} H U = \sum_x U^{-1} A_x A_x^+ U = \sum_x U^{-1} A_x U U^{-1} A_x^+ U = \sum_x \hat{A}_x \hat{A}_x^+$$

$$\text{and } A_x \approx \hat{A}_x$$

$$d_{kk} = \sum_x \sum_j (\hat{A}_x)_{kj} (\hat{A}_x^+)^{jk} = \sum_j (\hat{A}_x)_{kj} (\hat{A}_x^+)^{*jk} = \sum_j |(\hat{A}_x)_{kj}|^2$$

$d^{1/2}$ and $d^{-1/2}$ by taking the square root of the diagonal elements

$$d = d^{1/2} d^{1/2} = \sum_x \hat{A}_x \hat{A}_x^+$$

$$\hat{A}_x = d^{-1/2} \hat{A}_x d^{1/2} \quad \hat{A}_x^+ = d^{1/2} \hat{A}_x^+ d^{-1/2} = d^{1/2} \hat{A}_x^+ d^{-1/2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{A}_x \hat{A}_x^+ &= d^{-1/2} \hat{A}_x d^{1/2} d^{1/2} \hat{A}_x^+ d^{-1/2} = d^{-1/2} \hat{A}_x \sum_y \hat{A}_y \hat{A}_y^+ \hat{A}_x^+ d^{-1/2} \\ &= d^{-1/2} U \sum_y A_x A_y A_y^+ A_x^+ U d^{-1/2} = d^{-1/2} U \sum_y (A_x A_y) (A_x A_y)^+ U d^{-1/2} \quad] \text{reciprocity theorem} \\ &= d^{-1/2} U^{-1} \sum_z A_z A_z^+ U d^{-1/2} = d^{-1/2} \sum_z \hat{A}_z \hat{A}_z^+ d^{-1/2} = E \end{aligned}$$

Theorem: The function operators associated to the symmetry operations are unitary.

proof

$$\hat{R} \hat{R}^+ \psi(P) = \hat{R} \psi'(P) = \psi'(R^{-1}(P)) = \hat{R}^+ \psi(R^{-1}(P))$$

$$= \psi((R^+)^{-1}(R^{-1})(P)) = \psi((RR^+)^{-1}(P)) = \psi(E^{-1}(P)).$$

$$= \hat{E} \psi(P).$$

This expression make sense only if \hat{R}^+ belongs to the group. Its action is by definition given starting from $R^+!$

Another quantum mechanical consideration

$$\hat{H}|\psi\rangle = E|\psi\rangle$$



$$\hat{H}|\psi_i\rangle = E_i|\psi_i\rangle$$

$\hat{R}|\psi_i\rangle$ must be still an eigenstate of H with the same eigenvalue

$\langle x_1 \hat{R}|\psi_i\rangle = \hat{R}\psi_i(x) := \psi_i(R^{-1}(x))$ and the system is invariant under the transformation R (and thus R^{-1} in the coordinates)

$$\hat{H}(\hat{R}|\psi_i\rangle) = E_i\hat{R}|\psi_i\rangle = \hat{R}E_i|\psi_i\rangle = \hat{R}\hat{H}|\psi_i\rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow [\hat{H}, \hat{R}] = 0$$

The set of operators that commute with \hat{H} is called group of the Hamiltonian.

Def If by one and the same equivalence transformation, all the matrices in the representation of a group can be made to acquire the same block form, then the representation is said to be reducible. Otherwise it is irreducible. Thus an irreducible representation can not be expressed in terms of representations of lower dimensionality.

$$T \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \Gamma_1(T) & 0 \\ 0 & \Gamma_2(T) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$T = RS \quad \left(\begin{array}{cc|cc} \Gamma_1(R) & 0 & \Gamma_1(S) & 0 \\ 0 & \Gamma_2(R) & 0 & \Gamma_2(S) \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc|cc} \Gamma_1(R)\Gamma_1(S) & 0 & 0 & \Gamma_1(R)\Gamma_2(S) \\ 0 & \Gamma_2(R)\Gamma_2(S) & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

There are a few fundamental theorems in group theory that are of great importance for its application:

SCHUR'S LEMMA (part 1) 1905

A matrix which commutes with all matrices of an irreducible representation is a constant matrix, i.e. a constant times the unit matrix. Therefore, if a non-constant commuting matrix exists, the representation is reducible; if none exists, the representation is irreducible.

proof

$$M A_x = A_x M \quad (*)$$

||

$$A_x^+ M^+ = M^+ A_x^+$$

A_x can be taken without lossing generality as unitary by multiplying from left by A_x and from the right with A_x

$$M^+ A_x = A_x M^+$$

$$\Rightarrow [A_x, M + M^+] = 0 \quad i[A_x, M - M^+] = 0 \quad \begin{aligned} H_1 &= M + M^+ \\ H_2 &= i(M - M^+) \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Hermitian} \end{array} \right\}$$

If $[A_x, H_j] = 0$ Where H_j is a generic hermitian matrix $\Rightarrow H_j = \lambda \mathbb{1}$.

$$d = U^{-1} H_j U \quad \hat{A}_x = U^{-1} A_x U \quad \Rightarrow [d, \hat{A}_x] = 0$$

$$d_{ii} (\hat{A}_x)_{ij} = (\hat{A}_x)_{ij} d_{jj} \quad \Rightarrow \quad (\hat{A}_x)_{ij} (d_{ii} - d_{jj}) = 0 \quad \forall A_x$$

if $d_{ii} \neq d_{jj} \Rightarrow (\hat{A}_x)_{ij} = 0 \quad \forall x \Rightarrow \hat{A}_x$ are in the same block form.

But A_x and \hat{A}_x cannot be brought all together in the same block form since they are an irreducible representation.

$$\Rightarrow d_{ii} = d_{jj} \quad \forall i, j \quad \Rightarrow M = \frac{1}{2}(H_1 - iH_2) = \lambda \mathbb{1}.$$

SCHUR'S LEMMA (part 2)

If the matrix representations $\Gamma^1(A_1), \Gamma^2(A_2), \dots, \Gamma^k(A_k)$ and $\Pi^1(A_1), \dots, \Pi^k(A_k)$ of a given group G are irreducible representations of dimensionality l_1 and l_2 respectively, then, if there is a matrix of l_1 columns and l_2 rows M such that

$$(*) \quad M \Pi^1(A_x) = \Gamma^2(A_x) M \quad \forall A_x \in G$$

$\Rightarrow l_1 \neq l_2 \quad M = 0$ the null matrix

$l_1 = l_2 \quad M = 0 \text{ or } \Gamma^1 \text{ and } \Pi^2 \text{ are similar. (equivalent)}$

proof:

We can assume without loss of generality that $l_1 \leq l_2$. We start by taking the adjoint of (*). Namely

$$[\Gamma^1(A_x)]^T M^+ = M^+ [\Gamma^2(A_x)]^+$$

We can always take the representations to be unitary $\Rightarrow [\Gamma^1(A_x)]^T = \Gamma^1(A_x)^{-1} = \Pi^1(A_x^{-1})$.

$$\Gamma^1(A_x^{-1}) M^+ = M^+ \Gamma^2(A_x^{-1}) \quad (**)$$

$$\text{Since } A_x^{-1} \in G \quad M \Pi^1(A_x^{-1}) = \Gamma^2(A_x^{-1}) M \quad (***)$$

$$\Rightarrow M \Gamma^1(A_x^{-1}) M^+ \stackrel{(**)}{=} M M^+ \Gamma^2(A_x^{-1}) \stackrel{(***)}{=} \Gamma^2(A_x^{-1}) M M^+ \stackrel{SL1}{\Rightarrow} M M^+ = c_2 \mathbb{1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma^1(A_x^{-1}) M^+ M \stackrel{(**)}{=} M^+ \Gamma^2(A_x^{-1}) M \stackrel{(***)}{=} M^+ M \Gamma^1(A_x^{-1}) \stackrel{SL2}{\Rightarrow} M^+ M = c_1 \mathbb{1}$$

$$\bullet l_1 = l_2 \quad \text{and } c_1 \neq 0 \Rightarrow M \text{ is regular and } M^{-1} = \frac{M^+}{c_1} \Rightarrow c_1 = c_2$$

$\Gamma^1(A_x) = M^{-1} \Gamma^2(A_x) M \Rightarrow$ the 2 representations are equivalent.

$$\text{B- } c_1 = 0 \Rightarrow \forall i, j \leq l_1 \quad 0 = \sum_k (M^+)^{ik} M_{kj} = \sum_k M_{nj} M_{ki}^* \\ i=j \quad 0 = \sum_k |M_{ki}|^2 \Rightarrow M = 0.$$

$$\bullet l_1 < l_2$$

$$N = l_2 \begin{pmatrix} \overbrace{\quad \quad}^{l_1 \text{ col}} \overbrace{\quad \quad}^{l_2 - l_1} \\ M \\ \vdots \\ 0000 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$NN^+ = MM^+ = c_2 \mathbb{1} \quad (\text{dimension } l_2 \times l_2)$$

$$\text{But } \det N = \det N^+ = 0 \Rightarrow 0 = c_2^{l_2}. \quad c_2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = \sum_k |M_{ki}|^2 \Rightarrow \forall k, i \quad M_{ki} = 0.$$

There is an orthogonality theorem that is so central to the application of group theory to quantum mechanics that it was named the "Wonderful Orthogonality Theorem" by Von Neumann.

Theorem. The orthonormality relation

$$\sum_R \sqrt{\frac{e_j}{h}} \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^j(R) \sqrt{\frac{e_{j'}}{h}} \Gamma_{\nu\mu'}^{j'}(R^{-1}) = \delta_{jj'} \delta_{\mu\mu'} \delta_{\nu\nu'}$$

is obeyed for all the (inequivalent) irreducible representations of a group, where the summation is over all h group elements A_1, A_2, \dots, A_h and $e_j, e_{j'}$ are, respectively the dimensionalities of the representations Γ^j and $\Gamma^{j'}$.

If the representations are unitary, the orthonormality relation becomes

$$\sum_R \sqrt{\frac{e_j}{h}} \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^j(R) \sqrt{\frac{e_{j'}}{h}} \Gamma_{\nu\mu'}^{j'}(R)^T = \delta_{jj'} \delta_{\mu\mu'} \delta_{\nu\nu'}$$

proof: Consider an arbitrary matrix X with e_j rows and $e_{j'}$ columns and construct from it the matrix M :

$$M = \sum_R \Gamma^j(R) X \Gamma^{j'}(R^{-1}) \quad \dim(M) = e_{j'} \times e_j$$

Multiply M by $\Gamma^{j'}(S)$ to the left

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma^{j'}(S) M &= \Gamma^{j'}(S) \sum_R \Gamma^j(R) X \Gamma^{j'}(R^{-1}) = \\ &= \sum_R \Gamma^j(SR) X \Gamma^{j'}(R^{-1} S^{-1}) \Gamma^{j'}(S) = \text{by rearrangement theorem} \\ &= \sum_R \Gamma^j(R) X \Gamma^{j'}(R^{-1}) \Gamma^{j'}(S) = M \Gamma^{j'}(S) \end{aligned}$$

Case 1 $\ell_j \neq \ell_{j'}$ or $\ell_j = \ell_{j'}$ but Γ^j is inequivalent to $\Gamma^{j'}$

It follows from SCHUR's LEMMA (part 2) that $M = 0$. If we take $X = X_{\lambda\mu\nu} = \delta_{\lambda\mu}\delta_{\nu\nu}$

$$0 = M_{\mu\mu'} = \sum_R \sum_{\lambda\gamma} \Gamma_{\mu\gamma}^{j'}(R) \delta_{\gamma\nu} \delta_{\lambda\nu} \Gamma_{\lambda\mu}^j(R^{-1}) = \\ = \sum_R \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{j'}(R) \Gamma_{\nu\mu}^j(R^{-1}) \quad \forall \mu, \mu' \quad \nu, \nu'$$

Case 2 $\ell_j = \ell_{j'}$ and the two representations are equivalent \Rightarrow Schur's lemma (part 2) tells us that $M = c\mathbb{1}$

$$M_{\mu\mu'} = c \delta_{\mu\mu'} = \sum_R \sum_{\lambda\gamma} \Gamma_{\mu\gamma}^{j'}(R) X_{\gamma\lambda} \Gamma_{\lambda\mu}^{j'}(R^{-1})$$

$$X_{\gamma\lambda} = \delta_{\gamma\nu} \delta_{\lambda\nu}$$

$$\Rightarrow C_{\nu\nu} \delta_{\mu\mu'} = \sum_R \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{j'}(R) \Gamma_{\nu\mu'}^{j'}(R^{-1}) \quad (*) \quad C_{\nu\nu} \text{ since } c \text{ depends on the particular choice of } X.$$

$\mu = \mu'$ and sum over μ

$$\ell_j C_{\nu\nu} = \sum_{\mu} \sum_R \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{j'}(R) \Gamma_{\nu\mu}^{j'}(R^{-1}) = \sum_R \Gamma_{\nu\nu}^{j'}(\epsilon) = h \delta_{\nu\nu}$$

$$C_{\nu\nu} = \frac{h}{\ell_j} \delta_{\nu\nu}$$

$$(*) \text{ That is } \sum_R \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{j'}(R) \Gamma_{\nu\mu'}^{j'}(R^{-1}) = \frac{h}{\ell_{j'}} \delta_{\mu\mu'} \delta_{\nu\nu}$$

Putting all together:

$$\sum_R \sqrt{\frac{\ell_j}{h}} \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{j'}(R) \sqrt{\frac{\ell_{j'}}{h}} \Gamma_{\nu\mu'}^{j'}(R^{-1}) = \delta_{jj'} \delta_{\mu\mu'} \delta_{\nu\nu}$$

CHARACTER

Def: The character of the matrix representation $\chi_j^i(R)$ for a symmetry operation R in a representation $\Gamma_j(R)$ is the trace of the matrix of the representation.

$$\chi_j^i(R) = \text{trace } \Gamma_j(R) = \sum_{\mu=1}^{b_j} \Gamma_j(R)$$

Notice that the trace of a matrix is invariant under similarity transformation \Rightarrow the character does not distinguish between equivalent representations. Also, with in one representation, all elements of a class will have the same character. (exercise) This property was defined by von Vleck as "the great beauty of character".

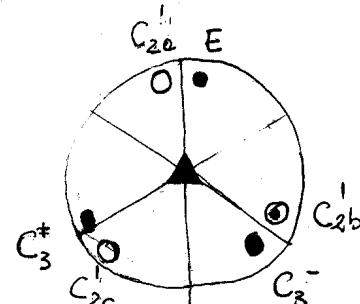
Now we are ready to combine the concept of irreducible representations and the one of character in the celebrated

CHARACTER TABLEfor D_3

number of elements in the class

| | E | $3C_2$ | $2C_3$ | ← classes |
|-------------|---|--------|--------|-----------|
| Γ_1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | |
| Γ_1' | 1 | -1 | 1 | |
| Γ_2 | 2 | 0 | -1 | |

↑
irreducible
representation



$$C_{2a}^1 = C_3^+ C_{2b}^1 C_3^- = C_3^- C_{2c}^1 C_3^+ \quad \text{remembering } C_3^+ = (C_3^-)^{-1}$$

$$C_3^+ = C_{2b}^{1-1} C_3^- C_{2b}^1$$

A few fundamental properties of the characters:

- i) The sum of the squares of the characters is equal to the order of the group

proof:

$$\sum_R \sqrt{\frac{e_j}{h}} \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^j(R) \sqrt{\frac{e_{j'}}{h}} \Gamma_{\mu'\nu'}^{j'}(R)^* = \delta_{jj'} \delta_{\mu\mu'} \delta_{\nu\nu'}$$

$$j=j' \quad \mu=\nu \quad \mu'=\nu' \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{\mu\mu'}$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{e_j}{h}} \sum_{R\mu\nu} \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^j(R) \Gamma_{\mu'\nu'}^{j'}(R) = \sum_{\mu\mu'} \delta_{\mu\mu'} = \sqrt{e_j}$$

$$\sum_R |\chi_j(R)|^2 = h$$

- ii) First orthogonality theorem for characters:

$$\frac{1}{h} \sum_{k=1}^{N_c} c_k \chi_j^k(c_k) \chi_{j'}^k(c_k) = \delta_{jj'}$$

proof

$$\sum_R \sqrt{\frac{e_j}{h}} \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^j(R) \sqrt{\frac{e_{j'}}{h}} \Gamma_{\mu'\nu'}^{j'}(R)^* = \delta_{jj'} \delta_{\mu\mu'} \delta_{\nu\nu'}$$

$$\mu=\nu \quad \mu'=\nu' \quad \sum_{\mu\mu'}$$

$$\frac{1}{h} \sum_R \chi_j(R) \chi_{j'}^*(R) = \delta_{jj'}$$

$$\frac{1}{h} \sum_{k=1}^{N_c} c_k \chi_j^k(c_k) \chi_{j'}^k(c_k) = \delta_{jj'}$$

but the characters
are all the same
for elements of the
same class.

this equation describes the orthogonality of the rows
of the character table (if the normalization Γ_{ck} is introduced)

iii) The number of irreducible representations is equal to the number of classes.

WOT

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N_k} c_k \chi^i(G_k) \chi^j(G_k)^* = h \delta_{ij}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N_k} \underbrace{\left[\sqrt{\frac{c_k}{h}} \chi^i(G_k) \right]^*}_{(\nu_i)_k} \underbrace{\left[\sqrt{\frac{c_k}{h}} \chi^j(G_k) \right]}_{(\nu_j)_k} = \delta_{ij}$$

$$i = 1, \dots, N_{irr}$$

$$k = 1, \dots, N_k$$

$\vec{v}_i \perp \vec{v}_j \quad \forall i, j$ But since \vec{v}_i is in a vector space

of dimension at most N_k one cannot find more than N_k vectors all orthogonal to each others. $\Rightarrow N_{irr} \leq N_k$. On the other hand if $N_{irr} < N_k$ it means that in principle it is possible to construct a reducible representation that is NOT a linear combination of irreducible ones since the characters of a linear combination of representations are the same combination of the irreducible characters. This is absurd.

It can be proven that if a square complex matrix is composed of a set of orthonormal vectors \Rightarrow the matrix is unitary. The character table with normalized coefficients is thus unitary.