

Introduction to Representation Theory - Week 8 - Algebraic Integers and Burnside's Theorem

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1 Algebraic Integers

1.1 Definition: Algebraic Numbers and Algebraic Integers

Let $z \in \mathbb{C}$. Then:

1. z is an **algebraic number** if:

$$\exists f \in \mathbb{Q}[t] : f(z) = 0$$

The set of all **algebraic numbers** is $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$.

2. z is an **algebraic integer** if:

$$\exists f \in \mathbb{Z}[t] : f(z) = 0$$

and f is **monic** (its **leading coefficient** is 1).

The set of all **algebraic integers** is \mathbb{A}

(Definition 7.1)

1.1.1 Examples: Algebraic Integers

- every **integer** $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ is an **algebraic integer**, as it satisfies $t - a = 0$
- every n th **root of unity** ω is an **algebraic integer**, as it satisfies $t^n - 1 = 0$
- if $z \in \mathbb{C}$ is an **algebraic number**, there exists some $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that mz is an **algebraic integer**. In particular, suppose that:

$$\sum_{i=1}^d \alpha_i z^i = 0$$

Then, if:

$$\alpha_i = \frac{a_i}{b_i}$$

(where $a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ are **coprime**), then if we let:

$$m = \text{lcm}(b_1, \dots, b_d)$$

we have that:

$$0 = m^{d+1} \sum_{i=0}^d \alpha_i z^i = \sum_{i=1}^d \alpha_i m^{d-i} (mz)^i$$

and:

$$\alpha_i m^{d-i} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

since $\forall i \in [0, d]$ b_i will divide m^{d-i}

- we have that:

$$\alpha \in \mathbb{Z} \iff \alpha \in \mathbb{Q} \text{ is an **algebraic integer**}$$

In other words:

$$\mathbb{Q} \cap \mathbb{A} = \mathbb{Z}$$

If $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}$, then it is trivially a rational algebraic integer. On the other hand, if α is a rational algebraic integer, there exist **coprime** $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that:

$$\alpha = \frac{r}{s} \in \mathbb{Q}$$

and:

$$\exists a_i \in \mathbb{Z} : 0 = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i \left(\frac{r}{s}\right)^i \implies -r^n = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i r^i s^{n-i}$$

Since s divides the LHS, it must divide the RHS; but r, s being coprime implies that $s = \pm 1$ (since their only common divisor will be 1), so $\alpha = r/s = r \in \mathbb{Z}$

1.2 Algebraic Integers as a Ring

1.2.1 Proposition: Preserving Subgroups Leads to Algebraic Integers

*Let M be a **finitely generated subgroup** of $(\mathbb{C}, +)$. Then:*

$$\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid zM \subseteq M\} \subset \mathbb{A}$$

(Proposition 7.4)

Proof. Let $z \in \mathbb{C}$ be such that for any finitely generated additive subgroup of \mathbb{C} M we have that:

$$zM \subseteq M$$

Let

$$V = \{v_1, \dots, v_d\}$$

be a generating set for M . Then, since $zM \subseteq M$, we have that:

$$\forall v_i \in V, \exists u_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z} : zv_i = \sum_{j=1}^d u_{ij} v_j$$

(without loss of generality we can always assume that the v_i have been picked so that the u_{ij} are integers).

Now, we can define a matrix $d \times d$ matrix in the integers, whose i, j th entry is:

$$U_{ij} = u_{ij}$$

Then, the equation above can be written in matrix form if we define:

$$\underline{v} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{Z}^d$$

such that:

$$U\underline{v} = z\underline{v}$$

This then tells us that z is in fact an eigenvalue of U . Define $g(t)$ to be the characteristic polynomial U :

$$g(t) = \det(tI - U)$$

Now, [the characteristic polynomial is monic](#), and since the u_{ij} are integers, g will have integer coefficients. By definition, the eigenvalues of U will be roots of g , so in particular:

$$g(z) = 0$$

which implies that z is an algebraic integer, as required. □

1.2.2 Theorem: Algebraic Integers are a Subring of \mathbb{C}

*The **algebraic integers** \mathbb{A} form a **subring** of \mathbb{C} .
(Theorem 7.3)*

Proof. Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{A}$. To show that \mathbb{A} is a subring of \mathbb{C} we must show it is closed under addition and multiplication:

$$\alpha + \beta \in \mathbb{A} \quad \alpha\beta \in \mathbb{A}$$

Since α, β are algebraic integers, there exist integers

$$\{a_i\}_{i \in [0, m-1]} \quad \{b_i\}_{i \in [0, n-1]}$$

such that:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i \alpha^i = 0 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i \beta^i$$

Now, let M be the additive subgroup of \mathbb{C} generated by the set:

$$\{\alpha^i \beta^j \mid i \in [0, m-1], j \in [0, n-1]\}$$

In particular, M contains words/polynomials in the variables α, β (as by definition it is a subring of \mathbb{C} too), so:

$$\alpha + \beta \in M \quad \alpha\beta \in M$$

Thus

$$(\alpha + \beta)M \subseteq M \quad (\alpha\beta)M \subseteq M$$

so by Proposition 7.4 above:

$$\alpha + \beta \in \mathbb{A} \quad \alpha\beta \in \mathbb{A}$$

□

1.3 Algebraic Integers and Character Theory

1.3.1 Lemma: Characters are Algebraic Integers

Let χ be a **character** of the **finite group** G . Then:

$$\forall g \in G, \quad \chi(g) \in \mathbb{A}$$

(Lemma 7.5)

Proof. Since $\chi(g)$ is the trace of the morphism $\rho(g)$, it is a sum of eigenvalues of $\rho(g)$. Now, since G is a finite group:

$$\exists k \in \mathbb{N} : g^k = e_G \implies (\rho(g))^k = I$$

Thus, if λ is an eigenvalue:

$$(\rho(g))v = \lambda v \implies v = Iv = (\rho(g))^k v = \lambda^k v$$

so $\lambda^k = 1$, and thus, each λ is a root of unity.

In other words, $\chi(g)$ is a sum of roots of unity. But each root of unity is an algebraic integer, and since these form a subring of \mathbb{C} (Theorem 7.3 above), it follows that $\chi(g)$ is an algebraic integer. □

1.3.2 Lemma: Subring of Group Ring Centre from Conjugacy Class Sums

Recall the definition of conjugacy class sums

Let G be a **finite group** with **conjugacy classes**:

$$C_1, \dots, C_2$$

Define the **conjugacy class sum** of C_i via:

$$\hat{C}_i = \sum_{x \in C_i} x \in kG$$

That is, \hat{C}_i is the **formal sum** in kG containing all elements of the conjugacy class C_i .
(Proposition 3.15)

Let:

- G be a **finite group**
- C_1, \dots, C_r be **conjugacy classes** in G

Let S be the **additive subgroup** of $\mathbb{C}G$ generated by the **conjugacy class sums**:

$$S = \langle \widehat{C_1}, \dots, \widehat{C_r} \rangle_{\mathbb{C}G}$$

Then, S is a **subring** of the **centre** $Z(\mathbb{C}G)$.
(Lemma 7.6)

Proof. To show that S is a subring, it is sufficient to show that the generators $\widehat{C_i}$ satisfy:

$$\forall i, j, \quad \widehat{C_i} + \widehat{C_j} \in S \quad \widehat{C_i} \widehat{C_j} \in S$$

Firstly, note that by:

Let G be a **finite group** with **conjugacy classes**:

$$C_1, \dots, C_r$$

Then,

$$\{\widehat{C_1}, \dots, \widehat{C_r}\}$$

is a **basis** for $Z(kG)$ as a **vector space**, and thus:

$$\dim(Z(kG)) = r$$

(Proposition 3.15)

so in particular each $\widehat{C_i}$ is central in $\mathbb{C}G$.

By definition of S (as an additive subgroup), we must have that

$$\widehat{C_i} + \widehat{C_j} \in S$$

For the second condition, we can write:

$$\widehat{C_i} \widehat{C_j} = \left(\sum_{x \in C_i} x \right) \left(\sum_{y \in C_j} y \right) = \sum_{i=1}^r \sum_{z \in C_k} a_{ijk}(z) z$$

where we've used the fact that conjugacy classes partition G , so in particular:

$$\forall z = xy \in G, \quad \exists C_k : z \in C_k$$

What are the coefficients $a_{ijk}(z)$? They count the number of ways in which z can be made as a product of $x \in C_i, y \in C_j$. In other words:

$$a_{ijk}(z) = |\{(x, y) \in C_i \times C_j \mid xy = z\}|$$

But notice, these a_{ijk} are invariant under conjugation:

$$\forall g \in G, \quad a_{ijk}(g^{-1}zg) = |\{(x, y) \in C_i \times C_j \mid xy = gzg^{-1}\}|$$

since for each (x, y) such that $xy = z$ we have that:

$$(g^{-1}xg)(g^{-1}yg) = g^{-1}xyg = g^{-1}zg$$

and $(g^{-1}xg, g^{-1}yg) \in C_i \times C_j$. Thus:

$$\forall z \in C_k, \quad a_{ijk}(z) = a_{ijk}(g^{-1}zg)$$

so in particular the a_{ijk} don't depend on the choice of representative, so:

$$\widehat{C_i C_j} = \sum_{i=1}^r a_{ijk} \sum_{z \in C_k} z = \sum_{k=1}^a a_{ijk} \widehat{C_k} \in S$$

□

1.3.3 Theorem: Conjugacy Class Sums Act Through Algebraic Integers

Let

- G be a **finite group**
- V be a **simple $\mathbb{C}G$ -module**

Then, for any $g \in G$:

1. The **conjugacy class sum** $\widehat{g^G}$ acts on V by a **scalar**:

$$\forall v \in V, \quad \widehat{g^G} \cdot v = \frac{|g^G| \chi_V(g)}{\chi_V(1)} \cdot v$$

where

$$\frac{|g^G| \chi_V(g)}{\chi_V(1)} \in \mathbb{C}$$

2. The scalar is an **algebraic integer**

$$\frac{|g^G| \chi_V(g)}{\chi_V(1)} \in \mathbb{A}$$

(Theorem 7.7)

Proof.

①

Recall Schur's Lemma:

*Suppose k is **algebraically closed**. Let V be a **simple module** over a **finite dimensional k -algebra A** .
Then, every **A -module endomorphism** of V is given by the action of some **scalar** $\lambda \in K$, such that:*

$$\text{End}_A(V) = k1_V$$

(Theorem 3.6)

Schur's Lemma applies, since by assumption V is simple. Moreover, recall that central elements induce an endomorphism action:

*Take any $z \in Z(A)$, and define an **endomorphism**:*

$$z_V : V \rightarrow V$$

via:

$$v \mapsto z \cdot v$$

*We can check that z_V is indeed an **endomorphism**:*

$$\begin{aligned} z_V(a \cdot v) &= z \cdot (a \cdot v) \\ &= (za) \cdot v \\ &= (az) \cdot v \\ &= a \cdot z_V(v) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, since conjugacy class sums are central in $\mathbb{C}G$, it follows that $z = \widehat{g^G}$ acts by a scalar $z_V \in \mathbb{C}$ on every simple $\mathbb{C}G$ -module. Thus, we have that:

$$\widehat{g^G} \cdot v = z_V v \implies \sum_{x \in g^G} x \cdot v = z_V v$$

Now, taking the trace of both sides:

$$\text{tr} \left(\sum_{x \in g^G} x \cdot v \right) = \sum_{x \in g^G} \chi_V(x) = |g^G| \chi_V(g)$$

since χ_V is a class function. Similarly:

$$\text{tr}(z_V v) = z_V \dim(V)$$

since the matrix corresponding to a scalar z_V is a diagonal matrix with $\dim(V)$ rows. Hence:

$$|g^G| \chi_V(g) = z_V \dim(V)$$

Using the fact that:

$$\chi_V(1) = \dim(V)$$

we obtain the desired result.

(2)

Let

$$\rho : G \rightarrow GL(V)$$

be the representation of G afforded by V . We can extend ρ to a \mathbb{C} -algebra homomorphism:

$$\tilde{\rho} : \mathbb{C}G \rightarrow \text{End}(V)$$

by defining:

$$\sum_{g \in G} a_g g \mapsto \sum_{g \in G} a_g \rho(g)$$

If we restrict $\tilde{\rho}$ to the centre $Z(\mathbb{C}G)$, then each $\tilde{\rho}(g)$ corresponds to a scalar in \mathbb{C} ; this defines a homomorphism:

$$Z(\mathbb{C}G) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

which is nothing but the central character of V :

Let A be a k -algebra, and V be an A -module where:

$$\text{End}_A(V) = k1_V$$

*By **Schur's Lemma**, every $z \in Z(A)$ acts on V by **scalar multiplication**. Denote this action/endomorphism via z_V .*

*The **central character** of V is the **ring homomorphism**:*

$$\begin{aligned} Z(A) &\rightarrow k \\ z &\mapsto z_V \end{aligned}$$

In particular, it thus follows that:

$$\tilde{\rho}(Z(\mathbb{C}G)) \subseteq \mathbb{C}$$

Using Lemma 7.6:

Let:

- G be a **finite group**
- C_1, \dots, C_r be **conjugacy classes** in G

*Let S be the **additive subgroup** of $\mathbb{C}G$ generated by the **conjugacy class sums**:*

$$S = \langle \widehat{C_1}, \dots, \widehat{C_r} \rangle_{\mathbb{C}G}$$

*Then, S is a **subring** of the **centre** $Z(\mathbb{C}G)$.
(Lemma 7.6)*

since S is a subring of $Z(\mathbb{C}G)$, we must have that:

$$\tilde{\rho}(S) \leq \mathbb{C}$$

is a subring of \mathbb{C} , since $\tilde{\rho}$ is a ring homomorphism. In particular:

$$z_V \cdot \tilde{\rho}(S) \subseteq \tilde{\rho}(S)$$

since $z_V \in \tilde{\rho}(S)$. Thus, by Proposition 7.4

*Let M be a **finitely generated subgroup** of $(\mathbb{C}, +)$. Then:*

$$\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid zM \subseteq M\} \subset \mathbb{A}$$

(Proposition 7.4)

z_V is an algebraic integer, as required. □

1.3.4 Corollary: Dimension of Group Ring Module Divides Group Order

*If V is a **simple** $\mathbb{C}G$ -module, then $\dim(V)$ **divides** $|G|$.
(Corollary 7.8)*

Proof. By row orthogonality of the character table, we have that:

$$\langle \chi_V, \chi_V \rangle = 1$$

Define a complete set of representatives for the conjugacy classes of G to be:

$$g_1, \dots, g_r$$

Then, we have that:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \langle \chi_V, \chi_V \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \overline{\chi_V(g)} \chi_V(g) \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{i=1}^r |g_i^G| \chi_V(g_i^{-1}) \chi_V(g_i) \\ \implies \frac{|G|}{\chi_V(1)} &= \sum_{i=1}^r \chi_V(g_i^{-1}) \frac{|g_i^G| \chi_V(g_i)}{\chi_V(1)} \end{aligned}$$

Here we've used the fact that:

$$\chi_V(g^{-1}) = \overline{\chi_V(g)}$$

This follows from the fact that if ρ is the representation afforded by V , then the **eigenvalues** of $\rho(g^{-1})$ are the inverses of the **eigenvalues** of $\rho(g)$. In particular, if $\rho(g)$ has **eigenvalues** λ_i , then using the fact that these eigenvalues are roots of unity:

$$\chi_V(g^{-1}) = \text{tr}(\rho(g^{-1})) = \sum \frac{1}{\lambda_i} = \sum \overline{\lambda_i} = \overline{\chi_V(g)}$$

Now, note that for any $i \in [1, r]$:

- $\chi_V(g_i^{-1}) \in \mathbb{A}$, since characters are roots of unity, and roots of unity are algebraic integers
- $\frac{|g_i^G| \chi_V(g_i)}{\chi_V(1)} \in \mathbb{A}$, by Theorem 7.7, part 2

Since \mathbb{A} is a ring (Theorem 7.3), it is closed under addition and multiplication, which in particular implies that:

$$\frac{|G|}{\chi_V(1)} = \frac{|G|}{\dim(V)} \in \mathbb{A}$$

This is a rational number, and since $\mathbb{Q} \cap \mathbb{A} = \mathbb{Z}$, in particular:

$$\frac{|G|}{\dim(V)} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

so as required $\dim(V)$ must divide $|G|$. □

2 Burnside's Theorem

2.1 Sylow's Theorems

2.1.1 Definition: Sylow p-Subgroup

Let G be a **finite** group, and let p be a **prime** such that:

$$|G| = p^\alpha m$$

where $p \nmid m$.

A **Sylow p-subgroup** of G is a **subgroup** $P \leq G$ such that:

$$|P| = p^\alpha$$

(Definition 7.10)

2.1.2 Theorem: Sylow Theorems

Let G be a **finite group**, and let p be a **prime** such that:

$$|G| = p^\alpha m$$

where $p \nmid m$.

Then:

1. G contains **at least one Sylow p -subgroup**
2. If P_1, P_2 are **Sylow p -subgroups** of G :

$$\forall g \in G, \quad gP_1g^{-1} = P_2$$

3. Let n_p be the number of **Sylow p -subgroups** of G . Then:

(a)

$$n_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

(b)

$$n_p \mid m = \frac{|G|}{p^\alpha}$$

2.2 Towards Burnside's Theorem

2.2.1 Lemma: Order of Conjugacy Classes from Central Sylow Subgroup Elements

Let G be a **finite group** such that:

$$|G| = p^\alpha q^\beta$$

where:

- p, q are **distinct primes**
- $\alpha, \beta \geq 1$

If $P \leq G$ is a **Sylow p -subgroup**, and $g \in Z(P)$, then:

$$\exists m \in \mathbb{N} : |g^G| = q^m$$

(Lemma 7.12)

Proof. Since $g \in Z(P)$, in particular the centraliser (set of all elements of G which commute with g) must contain P as a subgroup:

$$P \leq C_G(g)$$

In particular, by Lagrange's Theorem, it follows that $|P|$ divides $|C_G(g)|$:

$$|C_G(g)/P| = \frac{|C_G(g)|}{|P|}$$

Moreover, by the Orbit-Stabilizer Theorem, we know that:

$$\frac{|G|}{|C_G(g)|} = |g^G|$$

Lastly, again by Lagrange's Theorem:

$$|G/P| = \frac{|G|}{|P|} = q^\beta$$

In particular:

$$\frac{|G/P|}{|G/C_G(g)|} = \frac{q^\beta}{|g^G|} = \frac{|C_G(g)||G|}{|G||P|} = \frac{|C_G(g)|}{|P|} \in \mathbb{N}$$

In particular, this implies that $|g^G|$ divides q^β , and since q is prime, this is true if and only if $|g^G|$ is itself a power of q . □

2.2.2 Lemma: Algebraic Integer from Roots of Unity

This makes me so happy: we get to combine Representation Theory with Galois Theory. As a recap, consider my notes on Galois Theory.

Let

$$\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n$$

*be **roots of unity**, and define:*

$$\alpha = \frac{\xi_1 + \dots + \xi_n}{n}$$

*Now, suppose that α is an **algebraic integer** ($\alpha \in \mathbb{A}$). Then either:*

$$\alpha = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \alpha = \xi_1 = \dots = \xi_n$$

(Lemma 7.14)

Proof. Without loss of generality, we may assume that there exists some primitive k th root of unity ω , such that:

$$\forall i \in [1, n], \quad \xi_i \in \mathbb{Q}(\omega)$$

Let:

$$\mathcal{G} = \text{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\omega) : \mathbb{Q})$$

Define the *norm* of α as the value:

$$a = \prod_{\sigma \in \mathcal{G}} \sigma(\alpha)$$

By definition of the Galois Group, any $\sigma \in \mathcal{G}$ will permute the roots of unity, so:

$$\forall j \in [1, n], \sigma \in \mathcal{G} \quad |\sigma(\xi_j)| = 1$$

Moreover, as an automorphism over \mathbb{Q} :

$$|\sigma(\alpha)| = \frac{1}{n} \left| \sum_{j=1}^n \sigma(\xi_j) \right| \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n |\sigma(\xi_j)| = 1$$

by the Triangle Inequality. Hence:

$$|a| = \prod_{\sigma \in \mathcal{G}} |\sigma(\alpha)| \leq 1$$

On the other hand, again by definition of the Galois Group as a an automorphism, any action of \mathcal{G} on a fixes a (since applying autmorphisms repeatedly sends each ξ_j to a distinct root, and the norm is symmetric with respect to these roots). But then:

$$a \in \text{Fix}(\mathcal{G}) \iff a \in \mathbb{Q}$$

by definition of the fixed set.

By hypothesis, $\alpha \in \mathbb{A}$, so $\sigma(\alpha) \in \mathbb{A}$ for any $\sigma \in \mathcal{G}$ and since algebraic integers form a ring (Theorem 7.3), it follows that $a \in \mathbb{A}$ too. This then forces:

$$a \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Alongside the restriction $|a| \leq 1$, this implies that:

$$a \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$$

If $a = 0$, then at least one of the $\sigma(\alpha)$ is 0; but σ is an automorphism over \mathbb{Q} , which forces $\alpha = 0$.

Otherwise, $|a| = 1$, which forces:

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^n \sigma(\xi_j) \right| = n \iff \left| \sum_{j=1}^n \xi_j \right| = n$$

Now, we proceed by induction. If $n = 1$, the result is clear. Assume that for $n = k$, we have:

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^k \xi_j \right| = k$$

implies that all the ξ_j are equal. Now consider $k + 1$ roots of unity such that:

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^{k+1} \xi_j \right| = k + 1$$

Then:

$$|k + \xi_{k+1}| = k + 1$$

By the Triangle Inequality:

$$|k\xi_1 + \xi_{k+1}| \leq k + 1$$

Thus, if $\xi_{k+1} \neq \xi_1$, we must have:

$$|k\xi_1 + \xi_{k+1}| < k + 1$$

which contradicts the initial assumption. Thus, $\xi_{k+1} = \xi_1$, and all the roots of unity are equal. In other words:

$$|a| = 1 \implies \alpha = \xi_1 = \dots = \xi_n$$

□

2.2.3 Theorem: Simple Groups from Conjugacy Class Size

*Let G be a **finite group**. Suppose that $g \in G$ is a **non-central** group element, such that $|g^G|$ is **not a prime power**. Then, G is **not simple** (if has a **non-trivial** normal subgroup).
That is, if for any non-central $g \in G$ we have that $|g^G|$ is a **prime power**, then G contains a **non-trivial** normal subgroup.
(Theorem 7.13)*

Proof. Let G have r conjugacy classes, and let

$$\mathbb{1}, \rho_2, \dots, \rho_r$$

be the irreducible (\mathbb{C} -linear) representations of G (i.e the simple $\mathbb{C}G$ modules).

Assume that the Theorem is false, and that for some non-central element g with $|g^G|$ a prime power, G is simple. Then, since the kernel of a representation is always a normal subgroup, we must have that:

$$\ker(\rho_i) = \{e_G\} \quad \text{or} \quad \ker(\rho_i) = G$$

But since these are all irreducible, non-isomorphic representations, and $\mathbb{1}$ is the unique representation with kernel G , it must be the case that:

$$\forall i \in [2, r], \quad \ker(\rho_i) = \{e_G\}$$

In particular, each representation ρ_i is injective, so by the First Isomorphism Theorem (or simple logic):

$$G/\ker(\rho_i) \cong \text{im}(\rho_i) \implies G \cong \rho_i(G)$$

Moreover, the image of a representation is a subgroup:

$$\rho_i(G) \leq \text{GL}_{n_i}(\mathbb{C})$$

Now, $\text{GL}_{n_i}(\mathbb{C})$ is not simple: it has a non-trivial centre C , given by the diagonal matrices with entries in \mathbb{C}^\times . In particular, this implies that:

$$\rho_i(G) \cap C$$

is a central subgroup of $\rho_i(G)$. But then, since $\rho_i(G) \cong G$, and G is simple, this forces:

$$\rho_i(G) \cap C = \{\rho_i(e_G)\}$$

so it must be trivial (since clearly $\rho_i(G) \cap C \neq \rho_i(G)$, as otherwise we'd have that G is a central subgroup of itself, and thus, G is abelian, which contradicts the fact that G is simple).

Hence, the proof reduces to finding some $g_j \in G$ such that $\rho_i(g_j)$ acts a scalar multiple of the identity:

$$\rho_i(g_j)(g_j) = \alpha I, \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{C}^\times$$

as this then implies a contradiction of the fact that

$$\rho_i(G) \cap C = \{\rho_i(e_G)\}$$

Now, consider the non-central element g , such that $|g|^G$ is some power of a prime q . Using column orthogonality:

Let G be a **finite group**, and let

$$\chi_1, \dots, \chi_R$$

be **irreducible characters** of G .

If $g, h \in G$, then:

$$\sum_{i=1}^R \overline{\chi_i(g)} \chi_i(h) = \begin{cases} |C_G(g)|, & g^G = h^G \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In other words, taking the **dot product of columns** in the **character table** will always be 0.
(Theorem 5.23)

with the first column and the column associated to g^G (and letting χ_i be the character associated to representation ρ_i):

$$0 = 1 + \sum_{i=2}^r \chi_i(1) \chi_i(g)$$

Now, does q divide all of the $\chi_i(1)$? If it did, then:

$$-\frac{1}{q} = \sum_{i=2}^r \left(\frac{\chi_i(1)}{q} \right) \chi_i(g)$$

Under the assumption that q divides each $\chi_i(1)$, the RHS is a linear combination of algebraic integers, so it must be an algebraic integer. But since $q \geq 2$, $-\frac{1}{q} \notin \mathbb{A}$ (the only rational algebraic integers are the integers themselves). This implies that:

•

$$\exists i \in [2, r] : q \nmid \chi_i(1)$$

- for said i , $\chi_i(g) \neq 0$ (since otherwise whether q divides $\chi_i(1)$ or not wouldn't matter)

Finally, we bring it all together. Let:

$$|g^G| = q^\beta, \quad \beta > 0$$

Since $q \nmid \chi_i(1)$, in particular:

$$\gcd(|g^G|, \chi_i(1)) = 1$$

since only q divides $|g^G|$. Hence, by Bezout's Lemma:

$$\exists a, b \in \mathbb{Z} : a\chi_i(i) + b|g^G| = 1$$

This implies that:

$$a \frac{|g^G| \chi_i(g)}{\chi_i(1)} + b \chi_i(g) = \frac{\chi_i(g)}{\chi_i(1)}$$

The LHS is again a linear combination of algebraic integers (using Theorem 7.7, part 2 and Lemma 7.5), and since algebraic integers form a ring, this implies that:

$$\frac{\chi_i(g)}{\chi_i(1)} \in \mathbb{A}$$

Now, $\chi_i(1)$ gives the dimension n_i of the $\mathbb{C}G$ -module represented by ρ_i . Moreover, $\chi_i(g)$ is a sum of n_i eigenvalues of $\rho_i(g)$, and these eigenvalues are all roots of unity, say ξ_j^i . Since by assumption $\chi_i(g) \neq 0$, we thus have that:

$$\frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \xi_j^i \neq 0$$

Hence, using

Let

$$\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n$$

*be **roots of unity**, and define:*

$$\alpha = \frac{\xi_1 + \dots + \xi_n}{n}$$

*Now, suppose that α is an **algebraic integer** ($\alpha \in \mathbb{A}$). Then either:*

$$\alpha = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \alpha = \xi_1 = \dots = \xi_n$$

(Lemma 7.14)

it follows that each of the eigenvalues of ρ_i are all the same, say χ . In particular, this then means that:

$$\rho_i(g) = \xi I$$

But this contradicts the fact that:

$$\rho_i(G) \cap C = \{\rho_i(e_G)\}$$

since $\xi I \in C$ is clearly a central element. Hence, it follows by contradiction that if g is a non-central element of G , with $|g^G| = q^\beta$ for some prime p , that G can't be simple, as required.

□

2.2.4 Theorem: Burnside's Theorem

Let G be a **finite, non-abelian group** of order $p^\alpha q^\beta$, where p, q are **primes**. Then, G is **not simple**.
(Theorem 7.9)

We may assume that $\alpha, \beta \geq 1$.
Otherwise, $|G| = p^n$ implies that G has a **non-trivial centre**, by the previous [Group Theory course](#).
If $|G|$ is **prime**, then it will be **cyclic**, and so, **abelian** so Burnside's Theorem doesn't apply to them).

Proof. _____

By Sylow I, G has a Sylow p -subgroup, call it P . Since $\alpha \geq 1$, P is a non-trivial p -group, so it has a non-trivial centre, $Z(P)$ (again, by [this](#) theorem). Hence, we can always find a non-trivial central element $g \in Z(P)$.

If $g \in Z(G)$ as well, then $\langle g \rangle$ defines a non-trivial, proper normal subgroup of G , in which case we are done.

Otherwise, g isn't central in G , in which case by

Let G be a **finite group** such that:

$$|G| = p^\alpha q^\beta$$

where:

- p, q are **distinct primes**
- $\alpha, \beta \geq 1$

If $P \leq G$ is a **Sylow p -subgroup**, and $g \in Z(P)$, then:

$$\exists m \in \mathbb{N} : |g^G| = q^m$$

(Lemma 7.12)

we have that $|g^G|$ is a prime power, which by:

Let G be a **finite group**. Suppose that $g \in G$ is a **non-central** group element, such that $|g^G|$ is **not a prime power**. Then, G is **not simple** (if has a **non-trivial** normal subgroup).
That is, if for any non-central $g \in G$ we have that $|g^G|$ is a **prime power**, then G contains a **non-trivial** normal subgroup.
(Theorem 7.13)

implies that G isn't simple.

□