

Witt vectors. Part 1
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Witt#1: The Burnside Theorem
[completed, not proofread]

Theorem 1, the Burnside theorem ([1], 19.10). Let G be a finite group, and let X and Y be finite G -sets. Then, the following two assertions \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} are equivalent:

Assertion \mathcal{A} : We have $X \cong Y$, where \cong means isomorphism of G -sets.

Assertion \mathcal{B} : Every subgroup H of G satisfies $|X^H| = |Y^H|$.

Remark. Here and in the following, the sign \cong means isomorphism of G -sets.

Remark on notation. Whenever G is a group, and U is a G -set, we use the following notations:

- If $u \in U$ is an element, then we let N_u denote the subgroup $\{g \in G \mid gu = u\}$ of G .
- If $u \in U$ is an element, then we let Gu denote the subset $\{gu \mid g \in G\}$ of U . Both Gu and $U \setminus Gu$ are G -sets (with the G -action inherited from U), and the G -set U is the disjoint union of these G -sets Gu and $U \setminus Gu$.
- If H is a subgroup of G , then we denote by U^H the subset $\{u \in U \mid Hu = \{u\}\} = \{u \in U \mid H \subseteq N_u\}$ of U (where Hu denotes the subset $\{hu \mid h \in H\}$ of U), and we denote by $U^{!H}$ the subset $\{u \in U \mid H = N_u\}$ of U . Obviously,

$$U^H = \{u \in U \mid H \subseteq N_u\} = \bigcup_{\substack{L \text{ subgroup of } G; \\ H \subseteq L}} \underbrace{\{u \in U \mid L = N_u\}}_{=U^{!L}} = \bigcup_{\substack{L \text{ subgroup of } G; \\ H \subseteq L}} U^{!L}.$$

Besides, the sets $U^{!L}$ for all subgroups L of G satisfying $H \subseteq L$ are pairwise disjoint (because for any two distinct subgroups L_1 and L_2 of G , the sets $U^{!L_1} = \{u \in U \mid L_1 = N_u\}$ and $U^{!L_2} = \{u \in U \mid L_2 = N_u\}$ are disjoint¹). Thus,

$$|U^H| = \sum_{\substack{L \text{ subgroup of } G; \\ H \subseteq L}} |U^{!L}| = |U^{!H}| + \sum_{\substack{L \text{ subgroup of } G; \\ H \subseteq L; L \neq H}} |U^{!L}|. \quad (1)$$

Proof of Theorem 1. The implication $\mathcal{A} \implies \mathcal{B}$ is completely obvious, so all it remains to verify is the implication $\mathcal{B} \implies \mathcal{A}$. In other words, it remains to prove that if two finite G -sets X and Y are such that every subgroup H of G satisfies $|X^H| = |Y^H|$, then $X \cong Y$.

¹since any element $u \in U^{!L_1} \cap U^{!L_2}$ would satisfy $L_1 = N_u$ and $L_2 = N_u$ in contradiction to $L_1 \neq L_2$

We will now prove this claim by strong induction over $|X|$. So, let X and Y be finite G -sets such that every subgroup H of G satisfies $|X^H| = |Y^H|$. We must show that $X \cong Y$. Our induction assumption states that

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{if } \tilde{X} \text{ and } \tilde{Y} \text{ are two finite } G\text{-sets such that } |\tilde{X}| < |X| \text{ and such that} \\ &\text{every subgroup } H \text{ of } G \text{ satisfies } |\tilde{X}^H| = |\tilde{Y}^H|, \text{ then } \tilde{X} = \tilde{Y}. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

First, let us prove that

$$|X^{!H}| = |Y^{!H}| \quad \text{for every subgroup } H \text{ of } G. \quad (3)$$

In fact, let us verify (3) by strong induction over $|G| - |H|$ (note that $|G| - |H|$ is always a nonnegative integer, since $H \subseteq G$). So we choose a subgroup H of G , and we want to prove that $|X^{!H}| = |Y^{!H}|$, assuming that

$$|X^{!L}| = |Y^{!L}| \text{ holds for every subgroup } L \text{ of } G \text{ which satisfies } |L| > |H|. \quad (4)$$

In fact, (1) yields

$$|X^H| = |X^{!H}| + \sum_{\substack{L \text{ subgroup of } G; \\ H \subseteq L; L \neq H}} |X^{!L}| \quad \text{and} \quad |Y^H| = |Y^{!H}| + \sum_{\substack{L \text{ subgroup of } G; \\ H \subseteq L; L \neq H}} |Y^{!L}|,$$

which yields $|X^{!H}| = |Y^{!H}|$, because $\sum_{\substack{L \text{ subgroup of } G; \\ H \subseteq L; L \neq H}} |X^{!L}| = \sum_{\substack{L \text{ subgroup of } G; \\ H \subseteq L; L \neq H}} |Y^{!L}|$ (since

every subgroup L of G such that $H \subseteq L$ and $L \neq H$ must satisfy $|L| > |H|$, and thus $|X^{!L}| = |Y^{!L}|$ due to (4)) and $|X^H| = |Y^H|$. Hence, (3) is proven.

We will now prove that

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{for any two elements } x \in X \text{ and } y \in Y \text{ satisfying } N_x = N_y, \\ &\text{we have } Gx \cong Gy. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

In fact, define a map $f : Gx \rightarrow Gy$ as follows: For every element $\alpha \in Gx$, choose some $g \in G$ such that $\alpha = gx$, and define $f(\alpha)$ as gy . This definition is correct, because for every element $\alpha \in Gx$, there exists some $g \in G$ such that $\alpha = gx$ (by the definition of Gx), and even if different choices of $g \in G$ (for one fixed α) are possible, they all lead to one and the same value of gy (in fact, if two elements $g_1 \in G$ and $g_2 \in G$ both satisfy $\alpha = g_1x$ and $\alpha = g_2x$ for one and the same $\alpha \in Gx$, then $g_1y = g_2y$ ²). Hence, for every element $\alpha \in Gx$ and for every $g \in G$ such that $\alpha = gx$, we have $f(\alpha) = gy$. In other words, we have $f(gx) = gy$ for every $g \in G$ (by applying the preceding sentence to $\alpha = gx$). This map f is a morphism of G -sets (since for every $\alpha \in Gx$ and every $h \in G$, we have $f(h\alpha) = hf(\alpha)$ ³).

²In fact, $g_1x = \alpha = g_2x$ yields $g_2^{-1}g_1x = x$, thus $g_2^{-1}g_1 \in N_x$, hence $g_2^{-1}g_1 \in N_y$ (since $N_x = N_y$) and thus $g_2^{-1}g_1y = y$ and therefore $g_1y = g_2y$.

³In fact, let $g \in G$ be such that $\alpha = gx$ (such g exists, since $\alpha \in Gx$); then, the definition of f yields $f(\alpha) = gy$, and thus $f(h\alpha) = f(hgx) = h \underbrace{gy}_{=f(\alpha)} = hf(\alpha)$.

By interchanging x and y in the above, we can similarly define a map $f' : Gy \rightarrow Gx$ which satisfies $f'(gy) = gx$ for every $g \in G$ and which turns out to be a morphism of G -sets as well.

The two maps f and f' are mutually inverse (because $f' \circ f = \text{id}_{Gx}$ ⁴ and similarly $f \circ f' = \text{id}_{Gy}$). Hence, $f : Gx \rightarrow Gy$ is an isomorphism of G -sets. This proves (5).

Now, choose any $x \in X$ ⁵. Then, $x \in \{u \in X \mid N_x = N_u\} = X^{!N_x}$. Thus, $X^{!N_x} \neq \emptyset$, so that $Y^{!N_x} \neq \emptyset$ (since $|X^{!N_x}| = |Y^{!N_x}|$ by (3)). So choose some $y \in Y^{!N_x}$. Then, $y \in Y^{!N_x} = \{u \in Y \mid N_x = N_u\}$, so that $N_x = N_y$. Hence, (5) yields that the G -sets Gx and Gy are isomorphic. Now, let us introduce the two G -sets $\tilde{X} = X \setminus (Gx)$ and $\tilde{Y} = Y \setminus (Gy)$. Clearly, $|\tilde{X}| < |X|$. Besides, every subgroup H of G satisfies

$$|\tilde{X}^H| = \left| \underbrace{(X \setminus (Gx))^H}_{=X^H \setminus (Gx)^H} \right| = |X^H \setminus (Gx)^H| = |X^H| - |(Gx)^H| \quad \left(\text{since } (Gx)^H \subseteq X^H \right)$$

and similarly

$$|\tilde{Y}^H| = |Y^H| - |(Gy)^H|$$

and thus $|\tilde{X}^H| = |\tilde{Y}^H|$ (because $|X^H| = |Y^H|$ by our assumption, and $|(Gx)^H| = |(Gy)^H|$ because of the isomorphy of the G -sets Gx and Gy). Hence, (2) yields $\tilde{X} \cong \tilde{Y}$.

Now, the G -set X is the disjoint union of the G -sets Gx and \tilde{X} (since $\tilde{X} = X \setminus (Gx)$), and the G -set Y is the disjoint union of the G -sets Gy and \tilde{Y} (since $\tilde{Y} = Y \setminus (Gy)$). Hence, $Gx \cong Gy$ and $\tilde{X} \cong \tilde{Y}$ yield $X \cong Y$. This proves the implication $\mathcal{B} \implies \mathcal{A}$, and thus, the proof of Theorem 1 is complete.

Remark: It is known that G -sets are, in a certain way, analogous to representations of the group G : Every G -set U canonically defines a permutation representation of G on the vector space k^G (the vector space of all functions from G to k) for every field k . Actually, it seems to me that G -sets can be considered as representations of G over the field \mathbb{F}_1 , whatever this means. From this point of view, Theorem 1 appears as a kind of \mathbb{F}_1 -analogue of the known fact that, over \mathbb{C} , any representation of a finite group is uniquely determined by its character. (Remember that the character of a representation over \mathbb{C} , evaluated at some element g of the group G , is the dimension of the invariant space of g . Over \mathbb{C} , the set $X^{(g)}$ becomes a replacement for the invariant space of g . However, the analogy stops here because Theorem 1 needs all subgroups H and not just the cyclic ones. In fact, if we would replace "Every subgroup H " by "Every cyclic subgroup H " in Theorem 1, we would already have counterexamples for $G = (\mathbb{Z}/(2\mathbb{Z}))^2$.)

References

- [1] Michiel Hazewinkel, *Witt vectors. Part 1*, revised version: 20 April 2008.

⁴In fact, for every $\alpha \in Gx$, there exists some $g \in G$ such that $\alpha = gx$ (by the definition of Gx), and thus

$$(f' \circ f)(\alpha) = f'(f(\alpha)) = f' \left(\underbrace{f(gx)}_{=gy} \right) = f'(gy) = gx = \alpha.$$

⁵If this is not possible (i. e., if $X = \emptyset$), then we are done anyway (since $X = \emptyset$ yields $|X| = 0$, thus $|Y| = 0$ since $|X| = |X^{\{1\}}| = |Y^{\{1\}}| = |Y|$ and therefore $Y = \emptyset$, yielding $X \cong Y$).