# Conjugacy Classes in Finite Groups, Commuting Graphs and Character Degrees 

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## Abstract

In the first half of this thesis we determine the connectivity of commuting graphs of conjugacy classes of semisimple and some unipotent elements in $G L(n, q)$. In the second half we prove that the degree of an irreducible character of a finite simple group divides the size of some conjugacy class of the group.

To Tom

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## Chapter 1

## Introduction

In this thesis we consider two problems relating to conjugacy classes in finite groups. In this short introduction we state our main theorems. Fuller introductions will be provided for each part.

In the first half we consider commuting graphs of conjugacy classes in $G L(n, q)$. Let $G=G L(n, q), x \in G$ and let $\Gamma$ be the commuting graph for the conjugacy class of $x$. We use $c l_{G}(x)$ to denote the conjugacy class of $x$ in $G$.

In Chapter 3, we assume $x$ is a semisimple element in $G$, with characteristic polynomial $f_{x}=f_{1}^{z_{1}} \ldots f_{r}^{z_{r}}$, where each $f_{i}$ is irreducible over $G F(q), \operatorname{deg} f_{i}=d_{i}$ and $f_{i} \neq f_{j}$ for $i \neq j$. Let $\Delta_{x}$ be the graph with vertex set $\left\{f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}\right\}$ and edge set

$$
\left\{\left\{f_{i}, f_{j}\right\} \mid i \neq j, d_{i} a=d_{j} b \quad \text { for some } \quad 1 \leqslant a \leqslant z_{i}, 1 \leqslant b \leqslant z_{j}\right\} .
$$

We say an edge $\left\{f_{i}, f_{j}\right\}$ is exact if and only if $d_{i} z_{i}=d_{j} z_{j}$ and $d_{i} a \neq d_{j} b$ for all $1 \leqslant a<z_{i}$, $1 \leqslant b<z_{j}$. Note $\Delta_{x}$ is a much smaller graph than $\Gamma$. The result is as follows.

Theorem 1.0.1 Let $x \in G$ be semisimple with characteristic polynomial $f=f_{1}^{z_{1}} \ldots f_{r}^{z_{r}}$, where $f_{i}$ is irreducible for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$ and $f_{i} \neq f_{j}$ for $i \neq j$.
(i) If $r=1$ and $z_{1}=1$, then $\Gamma$ is disconnected.
(ii) If $r=1$ and $z_{1} \geqslant 2$, then $\Gamma$ is connected.
(iii) If $r>1$ then $\Gamma$ is connected if and only if $\Delta_{x}$ is connected, with at least one nonexact edge.

In Chapter 4, we consider various unipotent elements of $G$. As we will see, this turns into a very complicated problem. If $S L(n, q)$ is contained in the stabilizer of a connected component in $\Gamma$ we say $\Gamma$ is $S$-connected. Let $\varepsilon$ be the exponent of $\operatorname{PGL}(2, q)$. We prove the following.

Theorem 1.0.2 Suppose $x \in G$ is unipotent.
(i) If $x$ is of Jordan block type ( $n$ ), then $\Gamma$ is disconnected.
(ii) If $x$ is of Jordan block type type $\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}\right)$, with $m_{i} \geqslant m_{i+1}+2$ for $1 \leqslant i<k$, then $\Gamma$ is disconnected.
(iii) If $x$ is of Jordan block type $(m, m-1)$, then $\Gamma$ is connected if and only if $m \leqslant \varepsilon$.
(iv) If $x$ is of Jordan block type $(m, m)$, then $\Gamma$ is $S$-connected if and only if $(m, \varepsilon)=m$. Further, if $(m, q-1)=1$ then $\Gamma$ is connected.

In the second half of the thesis we consider a conjecture from [26] which states that if $G$ is a finite group and $\chi$ is a primitive irreducible character of $G$, then there exists $g \in G$ such that $\chi(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{G}(g)\right|$. Our contribution is the following theorem.

Theorem 1.0.3 In a finite simple group the degree of any irreducible character divides the size of some conjugacy class of the group.

## Chapter 2

## Commuting Graphs

Definition 2.0.1 Let $G$ be a group and $X$ a subset of the elements in $G$. The commuting graph $\Gamma(G, X)=\Gamma$ for $X$ is the graph with vertex set $V(\Gamma)=X$ and edge set $E(\Gamma)=$ $\{x, y \mid x, y \in X, x \neq y,[x, y]=1\}$.

Given a group $G$, there are various possibilities for the set $X$ and a number of questions that can be asked about $\Gamma$. We mention some here.

In [6], $G$ is taken to be a finite simple group and $X$ to be the set of elements of odd prime order and the authors discuss the connectivity of $\Gamma$. In [37], $G$ is a finite minimal nonsolvable group and $X=G \backslash\{1\}$, and it is shown that the diameter of $\Gamma$ is at least 3. In [25], $G$ is taken to be either $\operatorname{Sym}(n)$ or $\operatorname{Alt}(n)$ and $X=G \backslash\{1\}$. It is shown that either $\Gamma$ is disconnected, or has diameter at most 5 .

In [4], [3] and [5], $X$ is taken to be a conjugacy class of involutions and $G$ is the symmetric group, a finite Coxeter group or the special linear group respectively. Questions are answered about the connectivity, disc size and diameter of $\Gamma$.

A result which is particularly relevant for us is [8], where $G=\operatorname{Sym}(n)$ and $X$ is any conjugacy class. In order to state the result we need some definitions and notation.

Let $x \in \operatorname{Sym}(n)$ have cycle type $e_{1}^{f_{1}} \ldots e_{m}^{f_{m}}$. Define $\Delta$ to be a graph with vertex set
$V(\Delta)=\{1, \ldots, m\}$ and edge set

$$
E(\Delta)=\left\{\{i, j\} \mid i \neq j, e_{i} h_{i}=e_{j} h_{j} \text { for some } 1 \leqslant h_{i} \leqslant f_{i}, 1 \leqslant h_{j} \leqslant f_{j}\right\}
$$

An edge $\{i, j\} \in E(\Delta)$ is exact if $e_{i} h_{i} \neq e_{j} h_{j}$ for $1 \leqslant h_{i}<f_{i}, 1 \leqslant h_{j}<f_{j}$, and $e_{i} f_{i}=e_{j} f_{j}$. Further, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant m$, let

$$
b(i)=\frac{e_{i}}{\operatorname{lcm}\left\{d \mid d \text { divides } e_{i}, d \leqslant f_{i}\right\}},
$$

and say an edge $\{i, j\} \in E(\Delta)$ is special with source $i$ if $e_{j} f_{j}=e_{i}$ and $b(i)=e_{i}$. The following two theorems are proved.

Theorem 2.0.2 (Bundy) Let $G=\operatorname{Sym}(n), x \in G$ have cycle type $e^{f}$ and set $X=$ $c l_{G}(x)$. Then $\Gamma(G, X)$ is connected if and only if $b(1)=1$ or $e \leqslant 3$ and $f=1$.

Theorem 2.0.3 (Bundy) Let $G=\operatorname{Sym}(n), x \in G$ have cycle type $e_{1}^{f_{1}} \ldots e_{m}^{f_{m}}$ for $m \geqslant 2$, and set $X=c l_{G}(x)$. Then $\Gamma(G, X)$ is connected if and only if
(i) $\Delta$ is connected with at least one edge non-exact;
(ii) $\operatorname{gcd}\{b(i) \mid 1 \leqslant i \leqslant m\}=1$;
(iii) the vertex set of $\Delta$ is not of the form $E \cup Y$, with $E \cap Y=\emptyset$ and $E, Y \neq \emptyset$ such that
(a) for all $i, j \in E$ with $i \neq j,\{i, j\}$ is an exact edge,
(b) there exists a vertex $y \in Y$ such that for all $i \in E,\{i, y\}$ is a special edge with source $y$,
(c) no vertex of $E$ is joined to a vertex of $Y \backslash\{y\}$,
(d) $\operatorname{gcd}\{b(i) \mid i \in Y\}=e_{y}$.

We note that these theorems are similar to our result for semisimple conjugacy classes in $G L(n, q)$ in Chapter 3 and indeed our results were inspired by his work. Since conjugacy classes in $\operatorname{Sym}(n)$ and semisimple conjugacy classes in $G L(n, q)$ are both determined by partitions, perhaps this is not surprising. Further, in [2], the diameter and disc structure of commuting graphs for conjugacy classes of $\operatorname{Sym}(n)$ is considered.

A related problem is considered in [7]. There the authors let $C$ and $D$ be similarity classes of matrices in $M_{n}(q)$ and say $C$ and $D$ commute if there exist $X \in C, Y \in D$ such that $X$ and $Y$ commute. They reduce the problem to the nilpotent classes and provide a solution when the Jordan form corresponding to the similarity classes has two blocks. In Chapter 4 we use some similar techniques when we are considering conjugacy classes of unipotent elements. The difficulties that they encounter in the general case are similar to the difficulties that we uncover.

We now include some general results which will be useful in our study of commuting graphs. Let $G$ be a finite group, $x \in G, \Gamma=\Gamma\left(G, c l_{G}(x)\right)$ and let $\Gamma_{x}$ be the connected component of $\Gamma$ containing $x$.

Lemma 2.0.4 Let $x \in G$ and suppose $g, h \in G$ with $x^{g}=x^{h}$. Then $g=k h$ for some $k \in C_{G}(x)$.

Proof. Since $x^{g}=x^{h}$, we have $x^{g h^{-1}}=x$ and hence $g h^{-1} \in C_{G}(x)$. Then $g \in C_{G}(x) h$ and the result follows.

Lemma 2.0.5 Let $G$ be a group, $x \in G$ and set $H=C_{G}(x)$. Then $C_{G}(H)=Z(H)$.

Proof. As $x \in H$, we have $C_{G}(H) \leqslant C_{G}(x)=H$. Therefore $C_{G}(H)=H \cap C_{G}(H)=$ $Z(H)$.

We see $G$ acts transitively on the vertices of $\Gamma$ by conjugation, and so the connected components of $\Gamma$ are conjugate.

Lemma 2.0.6 Let $x, g \in G$. Then $\Gamma_{x^{g}}=\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)^{g}$.
Proof. We have $x \in \Gamma_{x}$ and so $x^{g} \in\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)^{g}$. Therefore $\Gamma_{x^{g}}=\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)^{g}$.
Lemma 2.0.7 Let $x \in G$. Then $C_{G}(x) \leqslant \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$.
Proof. Let $g \in C_{G}(x)$. Then $\Gamma_{x}=\Gamma_{x^{g}}=\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)^{g}$ by Lemma 2.0.6, and so $g \in \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$.

Lemma 2.0.8 Let $x, g \in G$. Then $x$ and $x^{g}$ are connected in $\Gamma$ if and only if $g \in$ $\operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$.

Proof. Suppose $g \in \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$. Then $x^{g} \in \Gamma_{x}$ and so, since $x \in \Gamma_{x}$ and $\Gamma_{x}$ is connected, $x$ and $x^{g}$ are connected in $\Gamma$.

Now suppose $x$ and $x^{g}$ are connected in $\Gamma$. Then $\Gamma_{x}=\Gamma_{x^{g}}=\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)^{g}$ by Lemma 2.0.6, and hence $g \in \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$.

Lemma 2.0.9 Let $x \in G$ and suppose $C_{G}(x)$ is abelian. Then $\Gamma_{x}$ has diameter 1 .

Proof. If $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap c l_{G}(x)$ we have $C_{G}(x) \subseteq C_{G}(y)$ as $C_{G}(x)$ is abelian. Also, since $C_{G}(y)$ is conjugate to $C_{G}(x), C_{G}(y)$ is abelian and hence $x \in C_{G}(y)$ implies $C_{G}(y) \subseteq C_{G}(x)$. Thus $C_{G}(x)=C_{G}(y)$.

Now if $y \in \Gamma_{x}$, there is a sequence of elements $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{r} \in \Gamma_{x}$ such that $y_{1} \in C_{G}(x)$, $y_{i} \in C_{G}\left(y_{i-1}\right)$, for $1<i \leqslant r$, and $y \in C_{G}\left(y_{r}\right)$. Then $C_{G}(x)=C_{G}\left(y_{1}\right)=\ldots=C_{G}\left(y_{r}\right)=$ $C_{G}(y)$. Therefore we have $y \in C_{G}(x)$ for all $y \in \Gamma_{x}$, and so, as $C_{G}(x)$ is abelian, the result follows.

We finish this chapter with a result which gives some justification for our strategy of considering semisimple and unipotent elements separately.

Let $G=G L(n, q)$, where $q$ is a power of the prime $p$. Recall an element in $G$ is semisimple if it is a $p^{\prime}$-element and unipotent if it is a $p$-element. Suppose $g \in G$. Then $g$ can be written uniquely as $g=x y$ where $x$ is semisimple, $y$ is unipotent and $[x, y]=1$. This is known as the Jordan decomposition, [9, p.11].

Lemma 2.0.10 Let $g \in G$ have Jordan decomposition $x y$ where $x$ is semisimple and $y$ is unipotent. Suppose $h \in G$ is such that $\left[g, g^{h}\right]=1$. Then $\left[x, x^{h}\right]=\left[y, y^{h}\right]=1$.

Proof. Suppose $o(x)=m$ and $o(y)=p^{a}$. Then as $\left(m, p^{a}\right)=1$, we have $\left\langle x^{p^{a}}\right\rangle=\langle x\rangle$ and $\left\langle y^{m}\right\rangle=\langle y\rangle$. Since $\left\langle g, g^{h}\right\rangle$ is an abelian group, $\left[g, g^{h}\right]=1$ implies $\left[g^{p^{a}},\left(g^{h}\right)^{p^{a}}\right]=$ $\left[g^{m},\left(g^{h}\right)^{m}\right]=1$ and hence $\left[x^{p^{a}},\left(x^{h}\right)^{p^{a}}\right]=\left[y^{m},\left(y^{h}\right)^{m}\right]=1$. Therefore $\left\langle x^{p^{a}},\left(x^{h}\right)^{p^{a}}\right\rangle=$ $\left\langle x, x^{h}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle y^{m},\left(y^{h}\right)^{m}\right\rangle=\left\langle y, y^{h}\right\rangle$ are abelian groups and so $\left[x, x^{h}\right]=\left[y, y^{h}\right]=1$ as claimed.

Theorem 2.0.11 Suppose $g \in G$ has Jordan decomposition $x y$ with $x$ semisimple and $y$ unipotent. If $\Gamma\left(G, c l_{G}(g)\right)$ is connected, then $\Gamma\left(G, c l_{G}(x)\right)$ and $\Gamma\left(G, c l_{G}(y)\right)$ are connected.

Proof. Let $z \in \operatorname{cl}_{G}(x)$. Then $z=x^{h}$ for some $h \in G$. We have $g^{h} \in c l_{G}(g)$ and so, since $\Gamma\left(G, c l_{G}(g)\right)$ is connected, there exists a path $g^{h_{1}}, g^{h_{2}}, \ldots, g^{h_{r}}$ in $\Gamma\left(G, c l_{G}(g)\right)$, where $h_{1}=1, h_{r}=h$ and $g^{h_{i}} \in C_{G}\left(g^{h_{i-1}}\right)$ for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant r$. We note $g^{h_{i}}=x^{h_{i}} y^{h_{i}}$ and $\left[g^{h_{i-1}}, g^{h_{i}}\right]=1$ for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant r$. Therefore by Lemma 2.0 .10 we have $\left[x^{h_{i-1}}, x^{h_{i}}\right]=1$ for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant r$ and hence $x, x^{h_{2}}, \ldots, x^{h_{r}}=z$ is a path between $x$ and $z$ in $\Gamma\left(G, c l_{G}(x)\right)$. Therefore $\Gamma\left(G, c l_{G}(x)\right)$ is connected. The proof for $\Gamma\left(G, c l_{G}(y)\right)$ is similar.

Sadly the converse of this result is not true as the following example shows.

Example 2.0.12 Let $G=G L(4,2)$ and let $x, y \in G$ with

$$
x=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right) \text { and } y=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

We see $x$ has order 3 so is semisimple and $y$ has order 2 so is unipotent. The characteristic polynomial of $x$ is $f_{x}(t)=\left(t^{2}+t+1\right)^{2}$ hence, by Theorem 1.0.1(ii), $\Gamma\left(G, c l_{G}(x)\right)$ is
connected. The type of $y$ is $(2,2)$ and so $\Gamma\left(G, c l_{G}(y)\right)$ is connected by Theorem 1.0.2(iv). Now

$$
x y=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right),
$$

and the centralizer of $x y$ in $G$ is abelian. Therefore $\Gamma_{x y}$ has diameter 1 by 2.0.9, and hence every element of $\Gamma_{x y}$ commutes with $x y$. Finally note

$$
\left(\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)^{-1}\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right),
$$

which does not commute with $x y$ and therefore $\Gamma\left(G, c l_{G}(x y)\right)$ is disconnected.

## Chapter 3

## Commuting Graphs of Semisimple <br> Elements in $G L(n, q)$

In this chapter we determine the connectedness of commuting graphs for conjugacy classes of semisimple elements in $G L(n, q)$.

Let $\mathbb{F}$ be any field and $V$ a finite dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{F}$.

Definition 3.0.1 An element $X \in G L(n, \mathbb{F})$ is semisimple if there exists a field extension $\mathbb{E}$ of $\mathbb{F}$ over which $X$ is diagonalizable.

### 3.1 Preliminary Results

Lemma 3.1.1 Suppose $X, Y \in G L(n, \mathbb{F})$ are conjugate. Then $X$ and $Y$ have the same characteristic polynomial.

Proof. Suppose $Y=T^{-1} X T$ for some $T \in G L(n, \mathbb{F})$. Then the characteristic polynomial
of $Y$ is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{det}\left(Y-t I_{n}\right) & =\operatorname{det}\left(T^{-1} X T-t I_{n}\right) \\
& =\operatorname{det}\left(T^{-1} X T-T^{-1}\left(t I_{n}\right) T\right) \\
& =\operatorname{det}\left(T^{-1}\left(X-t I_{n}\right) T\right) \\
& =\operatorname{det}\left(T^{-1}\right) \operatorname{det}\left(X-t I_{n}\right) \operatorname{det} T \\
& =\operatorname{det}\left(X-t I_{n}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

So $X$ and $Y$ have the same characteristic polynomial.

Definition 3.1.2 Let $f(t)=\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} t^{i}$ be a monic polynomial in $\mathbb{F}[t]$. Then the companion matrix of $f$ is

$$
C(f)=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
\vdots & & \ddots & & \\
\vdots & & & \ddots & \\
0 & & & & 1 \\
-a_{0} & -a_{1} & \ldots & \ldots & -a_{d-1}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Note $f$ is the characteristic polynomial of $C(f)$.

We write $\operatorname{diag}\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}\right)$ for the matrix in $G L(n, \mathbb{F})$ with diagonal entries $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n} \in$ $\mathbb{F}$, and write $\operatorname{diag}\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{r}\right)$ for the block diagonal matrix with blocks $A_{i} \in G L\left(m_{i}, \mathbb{F}\right)$, $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$, where $\sum_{i=1}^{r} m_{i}=n$. We also use this notation to describe subgroups of $G L(n, \mathbb{F})$ consisting of block diagonal matrices e.g. $\operatorname{diag}\left(G L\left(m_{1}, \mathbb{F}\right), \ldots, G L\left(m_{r}, \mathbb{F}\right)\right)$, $\sum_{i=1}^{r} m_{i}=n$, is the subgroup of $G L(n, \mathbb{F})$ consisting of all matrices of the form $\operatorname{diag}\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{r}\right)$ with $A_{i} \in G L\left(m_{i}, \mathbb{F}\right), 1 \leqslant i \leqslant r . \operatorname{Sodiag}\left(G L\left(m_{1}, \mathbb{F}\right), \ldots, G L\left(m_{r}, \mathbb{F}\right)\right)$ is a subgroup of $G L(n, \mathbb{F})$ which preserves a decomposition of $V$ into a direct sum
$V=V_{1} \oplus \ldots \oplus V_{r}$ with $\operatorname{dim} V_{i}=m_{i}$ and an element $\operatorname{diag}\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{r}\right) \operatorname{maps}\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{r}\right)$ to $\left(v_{1} A_{1}, \ldots, v_{r} A_{r}\right)$ where $v_{i} \in V_{i}$.

Suppose $X \in G L(n, \mathbb{F})$ is semisimple with characteristic polynomial

$$
f_{X}(t)=f_{1}(t)^{z_{1}} \ldots f_{r}(t)^{z_{r}}
$$

where the $f_{i}(t)$ are distinct irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[t]$ of degree $d_{i}$, for $i \in\{1, \ldots, r\}$. Then $X$ is conjugate to a matrix

$$
\operatorname{diag}(\underbrace{C\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{1}\right)}_{z_{1} \text { times }}, \ldots, \underbrace{C\left(f_{r}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{r}\right)}_{z_{r} \text { times }})
$$

where $C\left(f_{i}\right)$ occurs $z_{i}$ times. See [21, p.262-270] for details. Note the minimal polynomial $m_{X}$ of $X$ is $f_{1} \ldots f_{r}$. Together with Lemma 3.1.1 we have the following lemma.

Lemma 3.1.3 Assume $X, Y \in G L(n, \mathbb{F})$ are semisimple. Then $X$ and $Y$ are conjugate if and only if they have the same characteristic polynomial.

We finish this section with a collection of results which will be used in Section 3.3.
Lemma 3.1.4 Let $f(t)=\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} t^{i}$ be a monic irreducible polynomial over $G F(q)$ and suppose $\varepsilon$ is a root of $f$. Then the set of roots of $f$ is $\left\{\varepsilon, \varepsilon^{q}, \ldots, \varepsilon^{q^{d-1}}\right\}$ and $f(t)=$ $\prod_{i=0}^{d-1}\left(t-\varepsilon^{q^{i}}\right)$.

Proof. Let $\alpha$ be any root of $f$ so $f(\alpha)=0$. Since $a^{q}=a$ for all $a \in G F(q)$, we have

$$
f(t)^{q}=\left(\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} t^{i}\right)^{q}=\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i}^{q}\left(t^{i}\right)^{q}=\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i}\left(t^{q}\right)^{i},
$$

as $a_{i} \in G F(q)$ for $0 \leqslant i \leqslant d-1$. Then

$$
f\left(\alpha^{q}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i}\left(\alpha^{q}\right)^{i}=f(\alpha)^{q}=0
$$

and thus $\alpha^{q}$ is also a root of $f$. Therefore $\varepsilon, \varepsilon^{q}, \ldots, \varepsilon^{q^{d-1}}$ are roots of $f$. Note $\varepsilon \in G F\left(q^{d}\right)$, and no proper subfield, so these roots are distinct.

Now let $g(t)=\prod_{i=0}^{d-1}\left(t-\varepsilon^{q^{i}}\right)$. Then $g(t)$ is a polynomial of degree $d$ which is a factor of $f(t)$. Therefore since both $f(t)$ and $g(t)$ are monic, $f(t)=g(t)$ as claimed.

Lemma 3.1.5 Suppose $k, m \in \mathbb{N}$ with $k, m \leqslant n$ and $k+m>n$. Let

$$
H=\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{c|c}
A & 0 \\
\hline 0 & I_{n-m}
\end{array}\right) \right\rvert\, A \in G L(m, q)\right\}
$$

and

$$
K=\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{c|c}
I_{n-k} & 0 \\
\hline 0 & B
\end{array}\right) \right\rvert\, B \in G L(k, q)\right\} .
$$

Then $\langle H, K\rangle=G L(n, q)$.

Proof. Let $E_{i, j}$ be the elementary matrix that is the same as the identity, but has a 1 in the $i, j$ th position. For $1 \leqslant a \leqslant m$ and $b=m+j$ with $1 \leqslant j \leqslant n-m$, let $X=E_{m, b}$ and $Y=E_{a, m}$. Then $X \in K, Y \in H$ and $E_{a, b}=X^{-1} Y X Y^{-1}$. Likewise we can write any $E_{a b}$ with $a=m+i$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant n-m, 1 \leqslant b \leqslant m$, as a product of matrices from $H$ and $K$. Therefore any elementary matrix in $G L(n, q)$ can be written as a product of matrices from $H$ and $K$ and so from [31, p.541], we have $S L(n, q) \subseteq\langle H, K\rangle$. Now note, for any $a \in G F(q)^{*}$,

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
a & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & 1 & & \vdots \\
\vdots & & \ddots & 0 \\
0 & \ldots & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \in H
$$

and hence $G L(n, q) \subseteq\langle H, K\rangle$.
Definition 3.1.6 $A$ Singer cycle is an element of $G L(n, q)$ of order $q^{n}-1$.

Theorem 3.1.7 (Kantor) Assume $G$ is a subgroup of $G L(n, q)$ that contains a Singer cycle. Then $G L\left(n / s, q^{s}\right) \unlhd G$ for some $s \in \mathbb{Z}$, and embeds naturally into $G L(n, q)$.

Proof. See [29].

Lemma 3.1.8 Let $\Delta$ be a finite connected graph with $|V(\Delta)| \geqslant 2$, and fix an edge $E$ in $E(\Delta)$. Then $\Delta$ contains a spanning tree with edge set containing $E$.

Proof. Let $\Delta$ be a counterexample with $|E(\Delta)|$ minimal. Since $\Delta$ is not a tree, it contains a circuit. Let $E^{\prime}$ be an edge in the circuit such that $E^{\prime} \neq E$. Then $\Delta \backslash E^{\prime}$ is a connected graph with $E \in \Delta \backslash E^{\prime}$. As $\Delta$ does not contain a spanning tree with edge set containing $E, \Delta \backslash E^{\prime}$ is a counterexample with $\left|E\left(\Delta \backslash E^{\prime}\right)\right|<|E(\Delta)|$, contradicting the minimality of $|E(\Delta)|$.

Corollary 3.1.9 Let $\Delta$ be a finite connected graph, with at least three vertices, and fix an edge $E$ in $E(\Delta)$. Then there exists a vertex $v \in V(\Delta)$ such that $\Delta \backslash\{v\}$ is a connected graph with edge set containing $E$.

Proof. By Lemma 3.1.8, $\Delta$ contains a spanning tree with edge set containing $E$. A finite tree has at least two vertices with valency 1 , so as $\Delta$ has at least three vertices, there exists $v \in V(\Delta)$ which is not incident to $E$. Then $\Delta \backslash\{v\}$ is a connected graph with edge set containing $E$.

### 3.2 Centralizers

In this section we discuss the centralizers of semisimple elements in $G L(V)$ and $G L(n, \mathbb{F})$.

Lemma 3.2.1 Let $X \in G L(V)$ be semisimple with minimal polynomial $m_{X}$. Assume that $m_{X}$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{F}$. Then $\mathbb{F}\langle X\rangle \cong \mathbb{F}[t] /\left(m_{X}\right)$ is a field, where $\left(m_{X}\right)$ is the ideal of $\mathbb{F}[t]$ generated by $m_{X}$.

Proof. We can define an algebra homomorphism $\phi: \mathbb{F}[t] \rightarrow \mathbb{F}\langle X\rangle$ by setting $t \phi=X$ and extending linearly. Clearly $\phi$ is onto and has kernel $\left(m_{X}\right)$. Then $\mathbb{F}[t] /\left(m_{X}\right) \cong \mathbb{F}\langle X\rangle$. Now, by hypothesis, $m_{X}$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{F}$ so $\mathbb{F}[t] /\left(m_{X}\right)$ is a field [17, Th.29.4, Th.31.6], and hence $\mathbb{F}\langle X\rangle$ is a field.

Keeping the conditions in Lemma 3.2.1, we let $\mathbb{E}=\mathbb{F}\langle X\rangle$ and $\operatorname{deg} m_{X}=d$. Note $\left\{1, X, \ldots, X^{d-1}\right\}$ is a basis for $\mathbb{E}$ over $\mathbb{F}$ and so $|\mathbb{E}: \mathbb{F}|=d$. We can make $V$ into a vector space $\tilde{V}$ over $\mathbb{E}$ by defining $g \cdot v=v g$ for $g \in \mathbb{E}, v \in V$. Then we see $\operatorname{dim} \tilde{V}=n / d$. Note $X$ acts as a scalar matrix on $\tilde{V}$.

Lemma 3.2.2 Let $X \in G L(V)$ be semisimple with minimal polynomial $m_{X}$, and assume $m_{X}$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{F}$. Then $C_{G L(V)}(X) \cong G L(\tilde{V})$.

Proof. For any $h \in C_{G L(V)}(X), g \in \mathbb{E}, v, w \in V$, we have

$$
(g \cdot v+w) h=(v g+w) h=(v g) h+w h=(v h) g+w h=g \cdot(v h)+w h .
$$

So $h$ is a $\mathbb{E}$-linear map on $\tilde{V}$ and hence $h \in G L(\tilde{V})$. Thus we can define a map

$$
\psi: C_{G L(V)}(X) \rightarrow G L(\tilde{V}), h \psi=h
$$

for all $h \in C_{G L(V)}(X)$.
Now suppose $h \in G L(\tilde{V})$. Then for $v \in V$,

$$
v(X h)=(v X) h=(X \cdot v) h=X \cdot(v h)=(v h) X=v(h X),
$$

as $h$ is an $\mathbb{E}$-linear map. Therefore $X h=h X$ so $h \in C_{G L(V)}(X)$ and hence $\psi$ is onto. So we have $C_{G L(V)}(X) \cong G L(\tilde{V})$.

Corollary 3.2.3 Let $X \in G L(n, q)$ be semisimple with characteristic polynomial $f_{X}=$ $f^{z}$, where $f$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{F}$ and $\operatorname{deg} f=d$. Then $C_{G L(n, q)}(X) \cong G L\left(z, q^{d}\right)$

Proof. The minimal polynomial of $X$ is $m_{X}=f$, so by Lemma 3.2.2, $C_{G L(V)}(X) \cong$ $G L(\tilde{V})$, where $\tilde{V}$ is a vector space of dimension $z$ over $G F(q)\langle X\rangle$. Now $G F(q)\langle X\rangle=$ $G F\left(q^{d}\right)$ and so the result is clear.

Corollary 3.2.4 Suppose $X \in G L(n, q)$ is semisimple and has characteristic polynomial $f_{X}=f_{1}^{z_{1}} \ldots f_{r}^{z_{r}}$, with $f_{i}$ irreducible, $f_{i} \neq f_{j}$ for $i \neq j$, and $\operatorname{deg} f_{i}=d_{i}$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$. Then $C_{G L(n, q)}(X) \cong \operatorname{diag}\left(G L\left(z_{1}, q^{d_{1}}\right), \ldots, G L\left(z_{r}, q^{d_{r}}\right)\right)$.

Proof. Let $V$ be an $n$-dimensional vector space over $G F(q)$. Then $\left.V\right|_{X}=W_{1} \oplus \ldots \oplus$ $W_{r}$ where each $W_{i}$ is a direct sum of isomorphic irreducible $\langle X\rangle$-modules and $\left.X\right|_{W_{i}}$ has characteristic polynomial $f_{i}^{z_{i}}$. Let $T \in C_{G L(V)}(X)$. It is clear that $T$ preserves the decomposition $V=W_{1} \oplus \ldots \oplus W_{r}$ and so $\left.T\right|_{W_{i}} \in G L\left(W_{i}\right)$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$. Therefore $\left.T\right|_{W_{i}} \in C_{G L\left(W_{i}\right)}\left(\left.X\right|_{W_{i}}\right)$, so $T \in \operatorname{diag}\left(C_{G L\left(W_{1}\right)}\left(\left.X\right|_{W_{1}}\right), \ldots, C_{G L\left(W_{r}\right)}\left(\left.X\right|_{W_{r}}\right)\right)$.

Now, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r,\left.X\right|_{W_{i}}$ has characteristic polynomial $f_{\left.X\right|_{W_{i}}}=f_{i}^{z_{i}}$ and by Corollary 3.2.3, $C_{G L\left(W_{i}\right)}\left(\left.X\right|_{W_{i}}\right) \cong G L\left(z_{i}, q^{d_{i}}\right)$. Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
C_{G L(n, q)}(X) & \cong C_{G L(V)}(X) \\
& \cong \operatorname{diag}\left(C_{G L\left(W_{1}\right)}\left(\left.X\right|_{W_{1}}\right), \ldots, C_{G L\left(W_{r}\right)}\left(\left.X\right|_{W_{r}}\right)\right) \\
& \cong \operatorname{diag}\left(G L\left(z_{1}, q^{d_{1}}\right), \ldots, G L\left(z_{r}, q^{d_{r}}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Corollary 3.2.5 Let $X=\operatorname{diag}\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{r}\right) \in G L(n, \mathbb{F})$ be semisimple, where for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant$ $r, A_{i} \in G L\left(d_{i} z_{i}, \mathbb{F}\right)$ has characteristic polynomial $f_{A_{i}}=f_{i}^{z_{i}}$, with $f_{i}$ irreducible. Then

$$
C_{G}(X)=\operatorname{diag}\left(C_{G L\left(d_{1} z_{1}, \mathbb{F}\right)}\left(A_{1}\right), \ldots, C_{G L\left(d_{r} z_{r}, \mathbb{F}\right)}\left(A_{r}\right)\right) .
$$

Proof. This follows directly from Corollary 3.2.4.

Lemma 3.2.6 Suppose $A, B \in G L(n, q)$ are semisimple, commute and have characteristic polynomials $f_{A}=f^{z}$ and $f_{B}=g_{1}^{h_{1}} \ldots g_{r}^{h_{r}}$ respectively, where $f$ and $g_{i}$ are irreducible over $G F(q)$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$. Then for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r, \operatorname{deg} f$ divides $h_{i} \operatorname{deg} g_{i}$.

Proof. There exists $D \in G L(n, q)$ such that

$$
B^{D}=\operatorname{diag}(\underbrace{C\left(g_{1}\right), \ldots, C\left(g_{1}\right)}_{h_{1} \text { times }}, \ldots, \underbrace{C\left(g_{r}\right), \ldots, C\left(g_{r}\right)}_{h_{r} \text { times }}) .
$$

Then $A^{D}$ and $B^{D}$ commute, and $f_{A^{D}}=f_{A}, f_{B^{D}}=f_{B}$, so it is no loss to assume $B=$ $\operatorname{diag}\left(B_{1}, \ldots, B_{r}\right)$ with $B_{i}=\operatorname{diag}(\underbrace{C\left(g_{i}\right), \ldots, C\left(g_{i}\right)}_{h_{i} \text { times }})$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$.

Now $A \in C_{G L(n, q)}(B)$ and so by Corollary 3.2.5, $A=\operatorname{diag}\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{r}\right)$ where $A_{i} \in$ $C_{G L\left(h_{i} \operatorname{deg} g_{i}, q\right)}\left(B_{i}\right)$. Now note for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r, f_{A_{i}}=f^{w_{i}}$ for some $1 \leqslant w_{i} \leqslant z$, as $f$ is irreducible. Then $w_{i} \operatorname{deg} f=h_{i} \operatorname{deg} g_{i}$ and hence $\operatorname{deg} f$ divides $h_{i} \operatorname{deg} g_{i}$ as claimed.

Lemma 3.2.7 Assume $A, B \in G L(n, q)$ are semisimple, commute and have characteristic polynomials $f_{A}=f_{1}^{z_{1}} \ldots f_{r}^{z_{r}}, f_{B}=g_{1}^{h_{1}} \ldots g_{s}^{h_{s}}$ respectively. Then for each $i \in\{1, \ldots, s\}$, there exists $k \in\{1, \ldots, r\}$ such that $a \operatorname{deg} g_{i}=b \operatorname{deg} f_{k}$ for some $1 \leqslant a \leqslant h_{i}, 1 \leqslant b \leqslant z_{k}$.

Proof. As in Lemma 3.2.6 we may assume $B=\operatorname{diag}\left(B_{1}, \ldots, B_{s}\right)$ with $B_{i}=\operatorname{diag}(\underbrace{C\left(g_{i}\right), \ldots, C\left(g_{i}\right)}_{h_{i} \text { times }})$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant s$. We have $A \in C_{G L(n, q)}(B)$ and so by Corollary 3.2.5, $A=\operatorname{diag}\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{s}\right)$ where $A_{i} \in C_{G L\left(h_{i} \operatorname{deg} g_{i}, q\right)}\left(B_{i}\right)$. Now for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant s, A_{i}$ and $B_{i}$ commute, $f_{A_{i}}=f_{1}^{w_{i 1}} \ldots f_{r}^{w_{i r}}$ for some $0 \leqslant w_{i j} \leqslant z_{j}$, and $f_{B_{i}}=g_{i}^{h_{i}}$. Therefore by Lemma 3.2.6, $\operatorname{deg} g_{i}$ divides $w_{i j} \operatorname{deg} f_{j}$ for $1 \leqslant j \leqslant r$, so there exists $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a_{i} \operatorname{deg} g_{i}=w_{i j} \operatorname{deg} f_{j}$. Also $h_{i} \operatorname{deg} g_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{r} w_{i j} \operatorname{deg} f_{j}$, so there exists $k \in\{1, \ldots, r\}$ such that $w_{i k} \neq 0$. Hence $a_{i} \operatorname{deg} g_{i}=w_{i k} \operatorname{deg} f_{k}$, with $1 \leqslant a_{i} \leqslant h_{i}$ and $1 \leqslant w_{i k} \leqslant z_{k}$ as claimed.

### 3.3 Commuting Class Graphs

In this section we assume $\mathbb{F}=G F(q)$ and set $G=G L(n, q)$. We denote the class graph we are considering by $\Gamma$ and let $\Gamma_{X}$ be the connected component of $\Gamma$ containing $X$.

First suppose $n=1$. As $G L(1, q)$ is an abelian group, all conjugacy classes have size one and therefore the commuting class graph for each conjugacy class is trivially connected.

Next we consider $G L(2,2)$. The only conjugacy class of semisimple elements contains two elements of order 3. These commute and hence the class graph is connected.

From now on we assume $n \geqslant 2$ and $G L(n, q) \neq G L(2,2)$.

Lemma 3.3.1 Suppose $X \in G L(n, q)$ is semisimple with characteristic polynomial $f_{X}=$ $f$, where $f$ is irreducible over $G F(q)$. Then the class graph of $X$ is disconnected.

Proof. By Corollary 3.2.3, $C_{G}(X) \cong G L\left(1, q^{n}\right)$, so is a cyclic group of order $q^{n}-1$. Suppose $Y \in C_{G}(X) \cap c l_{G}(X)$. Then $C_{G}(X) \subseteq C_{G}(Y)$, as $C_{G}(X)$ is abelian, and hence $C_{G}(X)=C_{G}(Y)$. Suppose $\Gamma$ is connected. Let $A \in G L(n, q)$. Then $X^{A} \in \operatorname{cl}_{G}(X)$ and there exist $Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{k} \in \operatorname{cl}_{G}(X)$ such that $Y_{1} \in C_{G}(X), Y_{i} \in C_{G}\left(Y_{i-1}\right)$ for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant k$, and $X^{A} \in C_{G}\left(Y_{k}\right)$. By above we have $C_{G}(X)=C_{G}\left(Y_{1}\right)=\cdots=C_{G}\left(Y_{k}\right)=C_{G}\left(X^{A}\right)$ and so $C_{G}(X)^{A}=C_{G}\left(X^{A}\right)=C_{G}(X)$. Therefore $C_{G}(X) \unlhd G L(n, q)$.

Next we note $C_{G}(X)$ contains a Singer cycle, so $N_{G}\left(C_{G}(X)\right) / C_{G}(X)=G / C_{G}(X)$ is a cyclic group of order $n[23, \mathrm{p} .187]$, and hence $\left|c l_{G}(X)\right|=n$. Suppose $n>2$ or $q>3$. Then $C_{G}(X) \unlhd G L(n, q)$ implies either $C_{G}(X)$ is central or $S L(n, q) \subseteq C_{G}(X)[23$, p.185]. We have $\left|C_{G}(X)\right|=q^{n}-1>q-1=|Z(G L(n, q))|$, so $C_{G}(X) \neq Z(G L(n, q))$. Therefore $S L(n, q) \subseteq C_{G}(X)$ and hence, as $Z(G L(n, q)) \subseteq C_{G}(X), C_{G}(X)=G L(n, q)$, a contradiction. Now suppose $n=2, q=3$. Then $\left|C_{G}(X)\right|=3^{2}-1$ and so $\left|c l_{G}(X)\right|=6$, contradicting $\left|c l_{G}(X)\right|=n$. Therefore the class graph is disconnected.

Lemma 3.3.2 Assume $X \in G L(n, q)$ is semisimple with characteristic polynomial $f_{X}=$ $f^{z}$, where $f$ is irreducible of degree d. Then $C_{M(n, q)}\left(C_{G L(n, q)}(X)\right) \cong G F\left(q^{d}\right)$ and hence $C_{M(n, q)}\left(C_{G L(n, q)}(X)\right)=G F(q)\langle X\rangle$.

Proof. By Corollary 3.2.3, $C_{G L(n, q)}(X) \cong G L\left(z, q^{d}\right)$, and so acts irreducibly on $V$. Therefore by Schur's Lemma [27, p.4], $C_{M(n, q)}\left(C_{G L(n, q)}(X)\right)$ is a division algebra and hence, as it is finite, a field [21, p.319]. It is sufficient to determine the multiplicative group of $C_{M(n, q)}\left(C_{G L(n, q)}(X)\right)$. By Lemma 2.0.5,

$$
C_{G L(n, q)}\left(C_{G L(n, q)}(X)\right)=Z\left(C_{G L(n, q)}(X)\right) \cong Z\left(G L\left(z, q^{d}\right)\right) \cong G F\left(q^{d}\right)^{*} .
$$

Also, by Lemma 3.2.1, $G F(q)\langle X\rangle$ is a field isomorphic to $G F\left(q^{d}\right)$ and so since $G F(q)\langle X\rangle \leqslant C_{M(n, q)}\left(C_{G L(n, q)}(X)\right)$ we have the result.

Lemma 3.3.3 Assume $A \in G L(n, q)$ is semisimple with characteristic polynomial $f_{A}=$ $f^{2}$, where $f$ is irreducible of degree $d$. Then the class graph of $A$ is connected.

Proof. Let $C$ be the companion matrix for $f$ and let

$$
X=\left(\begin{array}{c|c}
C & 0 \\
\hline 0 & C
\end{array}\right), \quad Y=\left(\begin{array}{c|c}
C & 0 \\
\hline 0 & C^{q}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Note if $\varepsilon$ is an eigenvalue of $C, \varepsilon^{q}$ is an eigenvalue of $C^{q}$. Therefore the characteristic polynomial of $C^{q}$ is the same as the characteristic polynomial of $C$ by Lemma 3.1.4. Then $X$ and $Y$ commute and are in the same conjugacy class as $A$ by Lemma 3.1.3.

From Lemma 3.2.1, $G F(q)\langle X\rangle$ and $G F(q)\langle Y\rangle$ are fields isomorphic to $G F\left(q^{d}\right)$. Suppose $w \in G F(q)\langle X\rangle \cap G F(q)\langle Y\rangle$. Then $w=\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} X^{i}=\sum_{i=0}^{d} b_{i} Y^{i}$, for some $a_{i}, b_{i} \in$
$G F(q)$, and so

$$
\left(\begin{array}{c|c}
\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} C^{i} & 0 \\
\hline 0 & \sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} C^{i}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{c|c}
\sum_{i=0}^{d} b_{i} C^{i} & 0 \\
\hline 0 & \sum_{i=0}^{d} b_{i}\left(C^{q}\right)^{i}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

We have $\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} C^{i}=\sum_{i=0}^{d} b_{i} C^{i}$, which implies $a_{i}=b_{i}$ for $0 \leqslant i \leqslant d$, as $\left\{1, X, \ldots, X^{d-1}\right\}$ is a linearly independent set and hence so is $\left\{1, C, \ldots, C^{d-1}\right\}$. Then

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} C^{i}=\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} C^{q i}=\left(\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} C^{i}\right)^{q},
$$

as $a_{i} \in G F(q)$, which means $\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} C^{i} \in G F(q)$ and hence $w \in G F(q)$. Therefore $G F(q)\langle X\rangle \cap G F(q)\langle Y\rangle \cong G F(q)$ and is the subalgebra of scalar matrices.

Let $H=\left\langle C_{G}(X), C_{G}(Y)\right\rangle$. Then

$$
C_{M(n, q)}(H)=C_{M(n, q)}\left(C_{G}(X)\right) \cap C_{M(n, q)}\left(C_{G}(Y)\right)=G F(q)\langle X\rangle \cap G F(q)\langle Y\rangle,
$$

by Lemma 3.3.2, and so $C_{M(n, q)}(H) \cong G F(q)$.
Since $C_{G}(X)$ contains a Singer cycle we have, by Theorem 3.1.7, $G L\left(n / s, q^{s}\right) \unlhd H$ for some $s \in \mathbb{Z}$. First suppose $H=G L\left(n / s, q^{s}\right)$. Then

$$
G F\left(q^{s}\right)^{*} \cong Z(H) \leqslant C_{G L(n, q)}(H) \cong G F(q)^{*},
$$

so $s=1$ and hence $H=G L(n, q)$.
Now suppose $G L\left(n / s, q^{s}\right) \triangleleft H$ for some $s>1$. The normalizer of $G L\left(n / s, q^{s}\right)$ in $G L(n, q)$ is $\Gamma L\left(n / s, q^{s}\right)$ and $\Gamma L\left(n / s, q^{s}\right) / G L\left(n / s, q^{s}\right)$ is cyclic. So $[H, H] \leqslant G L\left(n / s, q^{s}\right)$. As $G L\left(2, q^{d}\right) \cong C_{G}(X)$ we have $S L\left(2, q^{d}\right) \cong\left[C_{G}(X), C_{G}(X)\right]$. So $\left[C_{G}(X), C_{G}(X)\right]$ acts irreducibly on $V$ and hence by Schur's Lemma, $C_{M(n, q)}\left(C_{G}(X)\right)=C_{M(n, q)}\left(\left[C_{G}(X), C_{G}(X)\right]\right)$.

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
G F\left(q^{s}\right) & \leqslant C_{M(n, q)}([H, H]) \\
& \leqslant C_{M(n, q)}\left(\left\langle\left[C_{G}(X), C_{G}(X)\right],\left[C_{G}(Y), C_{G}(Y)\right]\right\rangle\right) \\
& =C_{M(n, q)}\left(\left[C_{G}(X), C_{G}(X)\right]\right) \cap C_{M(n, q)}\left(\left[C_{G}(Y), C_{G}(Y)\right]\right) \\
& =C_{M(n, q)}\left(C_{G}(X)\right) \cap C_{M(n, q)}\left(C_{G}(Y)\right) \\
& =G F(q)\langle X\rangle \cap G F(q)\langle Y\rangle \\
& \cong G F(q),
\end{aligned}
$$

a contradiction.
Therefore we have $H=G L(n, q)$, so $G L(n, q)$ stabilizes $\Gamma_{X}$ and hence the class graph is connected.

Corollary 3.3.4 Suppose $A$ has characteristic polynomial $f_{A}=f^{z}$, where $f$ is irreducible and $z \geqslant 2$. Then the class graph of $A$ is connected.

Proof. We proceed by induction on $z$. The initial case is Lemma 3.3.3, so now suppose $z>2$. Let $X_{z}=\operatorname{diag}(\underbrace{C, \ldots, C}_{z \text { times }})$, where $C=C(f)$, so $X_{z}$ is conjugate to $A$. Now note

$$
X_{z}=\operatorname{diag}\left(C, X_{z-1}\right)=\operatorname{diag}\left(X_{z-1}, C\right)
$$

So by induction, the stabilizer of $\Gamma_{X_{z}}$ contains $\operatorname{diag}(C, G L(d(z-1), q))$ and $\operatorname{diag}(G L(d(z-1), q), C)$, and so by Lemma 3.1.5 the stabilizer of $\Gamma_{X_{z}}$ is $G L(n, q)$. Therefore the class graph is connected.

Let $X \in G L(n, q)$ be semisimple with characteristic polynomial $f_{X}=f_{1}^{z_{1}} \ldots f_{r}^{z_{r}}$, with each $f_{i}$ irreducible over $G F(q), \operatorname{deg} f_{i}=d_{i}$ and $f_{i} \neq f_{j}$ for $i \neq j$. Following [8] we let $\Delta_{X}$
be the graph with vertex set $\left\{f_{1}, \ldots, f_{r}\right\}$ and edge set

$$
\left\{\left\{f_{i}, f_{j}\right\} \mid i \neq j, d_{i} a=d_{j} b \text { for some } \quad 1 \leqslant a \leqslant z_{i}, 1 \leqslant b \leqslant z_{j}\right\}
$$

We say an edge $\left\{f_{i}, f_{j}\right\}$ is exact if and only if $d_{i} z_{i}=d_{j} z_{j}$ and $d_{i} a \neq d_{j} b$ for all $1 \leqslant a<z_{i}$, $1 \leqslant b<z_{j}$.

We have the following theorem, whose proof will follow by a sequence of lemmas.

Theorem 3.3.5 Suppose $T \in G L(n, q)$ is semisimple with characteristic polynomial $f_{T}=$ $f_{1}^{z_{1}} \ldots f_{r}^{z_{r}}$ for $r \geqslant 2$, where $f_{i}$ is irreducible over $G F(q)$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$ and $f_{i} \neq f_{j}$ for $i \neq j$. Then the class graph of $T$ is connected if and only if $\Delta_{T}$ is connected with at least one edge non-exact.

Example 3.3.6 Let $X \in G L(36, q)$ be semisimple.
(i) Suppose $f_{X}=f_{1}^{4} f_{2}^{3} f_{3}^{2}$ where $\operatorname{deg} f_{1}=3$, $\operatorname{deg} f_{2}=4$ and $\operatorname{deg} f_{3}=6$. Then $E\left(\Delta_{X}\right)=$ $\left\{\left\{f_{1}, f_{2}\right\},\left\{f_{1}, f_{3}\right\},\left\{f_{2}, f_{3}\right\}\right\}$, where $\left\{f_{1}, f_{2}\right\}$ and $\left\{f_{2}, f_{3}\right\}$ are exact edges and $\left\{f_{1}, f_{3}\right\}$ is non-exact. Therefore by Theorem 3.3.5, $\Gamma$ is connected.
(ii) Suppose $f_{X}=f_{1}^{3} f_{2}^{2} f_{3}$ where $\operatorname{deg} f_{1}=4, \operatorname{deg} f_{2}=6$ and $\operatorname{deg} f_{3}=12$. Then $E\left(\Delta_{X}\right)=\left\{\left\{f_{1}, f_{2}\right\},\left\{f_{1}, f_{3}\right\},\left\{f_{2}, f_{3}\right\}\right\}$ where all edges are exact. By Theorem 3.3.5, $\Gamma$ is disconnected.
(iii) Suppose $f_{X}=f_{1}^{4} f_{2}^{2} f_{3}^{2} f_{4}^{2}$ where $\operatorname{deg} f_{1}=2$, $\operatorname{deg} f_{2}=3$, $\operatorname{deg} f_{3}=5$ and $\operatorname{deg} f_{4}=6$. Then $E\left(\Delta_{X}\right)=\left\{\left\{f_{1}, f_{2}\right\},\left\{f_{1}, f_{4}\right\},\left\{f_{2}, f_{4}\right\}\right\}$. So by Theorem 3.3.5, $\Gamma$ is disconnected.

We now describe a technique for producing conjugates of certain matrices. Let $f_{1}$ be a monic irreducible polynomial over $G F(q)$ of degree $d$, and let $f=f_{1}^{z}$. Set $m=d z$ and fix a generator $\varepsilon$ of $G F\left(q^{m}\right)^{*}$. Let $g_{\varepsilon}(t)=\prod_{i=0}^{m-1}\left(t-\varepsilon^{q^{i}}\right)$. The coefficient of $t^{i}$ for
$0 \leqslant i \leqslant m-1$ is a symmetric polynomial in $\left\{\varepsilon, \varepsilon^{q}, \ldots, \varepsilon^{q^{m-1}}\right\}$ and hence is fixed under the map $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha^{q}$. Therefore each coefficient of $g_{\varepsilon}$ is in $G F(q)$, so $g_{\varepsilon}(t) \in G F(q)[t]$ and $C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right) \in G L(n, q)$.

Note the roots of $f_{1}$ lie in $G F\left(q^{d}\right)$, and $G F\left(q^{d}\right)$ is a subfield of $G F\left(q^{m}\right)$, so we can find $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\varepsilon^{k}$ is a root of $f_{1}$. The eigenvalues of $C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)$ are $\varepsilon, \varepsilon^{q}, \ldots \varepsilon^{q^{m-1}}$, and so the eigenvalues of $C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k}$ are $\varepsilon^{k}, \varepsilon^{k q}, \ldots \varepsilon^{k q^{m-1}}$. Since $\varepsilon^{k} \in G F\left(q^{d}\right), \varepsilon^{k q^{d}}=\varepsilon^{k}$ and hence the eigenvalues of $C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k}$ are $\varepsilon^{k}, \varepsilon^{k q}, \ldots \varepsilon^{k q^{d-1}}$, with each eigenvalue having multiplicity $z$. Therefore $C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k}$ has characteristic polynomial $\left(\prod_{i=0}^{d-1}\left(t-\varepsilon^{k q^{i}}\right)\right)^{z}=f_{1}^{z}$, by Lemma 3.1.4, and hence $C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k}$ is conjugate to

$$
\operatorname{diag}(\underbrace{C\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{1}\right)}_{z \text { times }})
$$

by Lemma 3.1.3.

Lemma 3.3.7 Assume $A \in G L(n, q)$ is semisimple and has characteristic polynomial $f_{A}=f_{1}^{z_{1}} f_{2}^{z_{2}}$, where $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ are irreducible and $f_{1} \neq f_{2}$. Assume $\Delta_{A}$ is connected with a non-exact edge. Then the class graph of $A$ is connected.

Proof. Set $d_{1}=\operatorname{deg} f_{1}, d_{2}=\operatorname{deg} f_{2}$ and let $m=\operatorname{lcm}\left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right)$. The edge $\left\{f_{1}, f_{2}\right\}$ is nonexact so either $d_{1} z_{1}>m$ or $d_{2} z_{2}>m$. We may assume without loss of generality that $d_{1} z_{1}>m$. Let $\varepsilon$ be a generator for $G F\left(q^{m}\right)^{*}$ and let $g_{\varepsilon}(t)=(t-\varepsilon)\left(t-\varepsilon^{q}\right) \ldots\left(t-\varepsilon^{q^{m-1}}\right)$ with companion matrix $C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)$. Choose $k_{1}, k_{2}$ such that $\varepsilon^{k_{1}}$ and $\varepsilon^{k_{2}}$ are roots of $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ respectively.

First suppose $d_{2} z_{2}=m$. Let

$$
X=\operatorname{diag}(C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{1}}, \underbrace{C\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{1}\right)}_{z_{1}-\frac{m}{d_{1}} \text { times }}, C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{2}})
$$

and

$$
Y=\operatorname{diag}(C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{2}}, \underbrace{C\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{1}\right)}_{z_{1}-\frac{m}{d_{1}} \text { times }}, C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{1}}) .
$$

Then $X$ and $Y$ commute and are in the conjugacy class of $A$ by the discussion before the lemma. By Corollary 3.3.4, the stabilizer of $\Gamma_{X}$ contains $\operatorname{diag}\left(G L\left(d_{1} z_{1}, q\right),\left\langle C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)\right\rangle\right)$ and the stabilizer of $\Gamma_{Y}$ contains $\operatorname{diag}\left(\left\langle C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)\right\rangle, G L\left(d_{1} z_{1}, q\right)\right)$. Therefore by Lemma 3.1.5 the stabilizer of the connected component containing $X$ and $Y$ is $G L(n, q)$. So the class graph is connected in this case.

Now suppose $d_{2} z_{2}>m$. This time let

$$
X=\operatorname{diag}(C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{1}}, \underbrace{C\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{1}\right)}_{z_{1}-\frac{m}{d_{1}} \text { times }}, C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{2}}, \underbrace{C\left(f_{2}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{2}\right)}_{z_{2}-\frac{m}{d_{2}} \text { times }}),
$$

so the stabilizer of $\Gamma_{X}$ contains $\operatorname{diag}\left(G L\left(d_{1} z_{1}, q\right), G L\left(d_{2} z_{2}, q\right)\right)$, and let

$$
Y=\operatorname{diag}(C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{2}}, \underbrace{C\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{1}\right)}_{z_{1}-\frac{m}{d_{1}} \text { times }}, C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{1}}, \underbrace{C\left(f_{2}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{2}\right)}_{z_{2}-\frac{m}{d_{2}} \text { times }}),
$$

so the stabilizer of $\Gamma_{Y}$ contains

$$
\operatorname{diag}\left(\left\langle C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)\right\rangle, G L\left(d_{1} z_{1}, q\right),\left\langle C\left(f_{2}\right)\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle C\left(f_{2}\right)\right\rangle\right)
$$

Again $X$ and $Y$ commute and are in the conjugacy class of $A$ so $\Gamma_{X}=\Gamma_{Y}$. Therefore the stabilizer of $\Gamma_{X}$ is $G L(n, q)$ by two applications of Lemma 3.1.5.

Lemma 3.3.8 Assume $A \in G L(n, q)$ is semisimple with characteristic polynomial $f_{A}=$ $f_{1}^{z_{1}} \ldots f_{r}^{z_{r}}$, where $f_{i}$ is irreducible for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$, and $f_{i} \neq f_{j}$ for $i \neq j$. Assume $\Delta_{A}$ is connected with at least one non-exact edge. Then the class graph of $A$ is connected.

Proof. Set $d_{i}=\operatorname{deg} f_{i}$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$. We proceed by induction on $r$. The case $r=2$ is

Lemma 3.3.7, so assume $r>2$.
By Corollary 3.1.9, we can choose a vertex $e$ in $\Delta_{A}$ such that the graph $\Delta_{A} \backslash\{e\}$ is connected with at least one non-exact edge. Without lose of generality suppose $e=$ $f_{r}$. Then $\Delta_{A} \backslash\left\{f_{r}\right\}$ is connected with at least one non-exact edge and so the class in $G L\left(n-d_{r} z_{r}, q\right)$ corresponding to $f^{*}=f_{1}^{z_{1}} \ldots f_{r-1}^{z_{r-1}}$ is connected by induction.

In $\Delta_{A}, f_{r}$ is connected to another vertex, say $f_{1}$. Let $m=\operatorname{lcm}\left(d_{1}, d_{r}\right)$ and let $\varepsilon$ be a generator of $G F\left(q^{m}\right)^{*}$. Choose $k_{1}, k_{r}$ such that $\varepsilon^{k_{1}}$ and $\varepsilon^{k_{r}}$ are roots of $f_{1}$ and $f_{r}$ respectively. Set

$$
C_{i}=(\underbrace{C\left(f_{i}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{i}\right)}_{z_{i} \text { times }}),
$$

for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant r-1$. There are three cases to consider.
First suppose the edge $\left\{f_{1}, f_{r}\right\}$ is exact. Then let

$$
X=\operatorname{diag}\left(C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{1}}, C_{2}, \ldots, C_{r-1}, C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{r}}\right)
$$

and

$$
Y=\operatorname{diag}\left(C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{r}}, C_{2}, \ldots, C_{r-1}, C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{1}}\right)
$$

Then by induction $\Gamma_{X}$ is stabilized by $\operatorname{diag}\left(G L\left(n-d_{r} z_{r}, q\right),\left\langle C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)\right\rangle\right)$ and $\Gamma_{Y}$ is stabilized by $\operatorname{diag}\left(\left\langle C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)\right\rangle, G L\left(n-d_{r} z_{r}, q\right)\right)$. Since $X$ and $Y$ commute we have $\Gamma_{X}=\Gamma_{Y}$ so $\Gamma_{X}$ is stabilized by $G L(n, q)$ by Lemma 3.1.5, and hence the class graph is connected.

Next suppose $\left\{f_{1}, f_{r}\right\}$ is non-exact and $d_{r} z_{r}=m$. We let

$$
X=\operatorname{diag}(C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{1}}, \underbrace{C\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{1}\right)}_{z_{1}-\frac{m}{d_{1}} \text { times }}, C_{2}, \ldots, C_{r-1}, C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{r}}),
$$

and

$$
Y=\operatorname{diag}(C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{r}}, \underbrace{C\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{1}\right)}_{z_{1}-\frac{m}{d_{1}} \text { times }}, C_{2}, \ldots, C_{r-1}, C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right))^{k_{1}}) .
$$

Then $\Gamma_{X}$ is stabilized by

$$
\operatorname{diag}\left(G L\left(n-d_{r} z_{r}, q\right),\left\langle C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)\right\rangle\right)
$$

and $\Gamma_{Y}$ is stabilized by

$$
\operatorname{diag}\left(\left\langle C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)\right\rangle, G L\left(n-d_{r} z_{r}, q\right)\right)
$$

So again by Lemma 3.1.5 we see $G L(n, q)$ stabilizes $\Gamma_{X}=\Gamma_{Y}$ and so the class graph is connected.

Finally suppose $\left\{f_{1}, f_{r}\right\}$ is non-exact and $d_{r} z_{r}>m$. This time we let

$$
X=\operatorname{diag}(C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{1}}, \underbrace{C\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{1}\right)}_{z_{1}-\frac{m}{d_{1}} \text { times }}, C_{2}, \ldots, C_{r-1}, C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{r}}, \underbrace{C\left(f_{r}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{r}\right)}_{z_{r}-\frac{m}{d_{r}} \text { times }}),
$$

and

$$
Y=\operatorname{diag}(C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{r}}, \underbrace{C\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{1}\right)}_{z_{1}-\frac{m}{d_{1}} \text { times }}, C_{2}, \ldots, C_{r-1}, C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)^{k_{1}}, \underbrace{C\left(f_{r}\right), \ldots, C\left(f_{r}\right)}_{z_{r}-\frac{m}{d_{r}} \text { times }}) .
$$

Then by Lemma 3.3.4, the stabilizer of $\Gamma_{X}$ contains $\operatorname{diag}\left(G L\left(n-d_{r} z_{r}, q\right), G L\left(d_{r} z_{r}, q\right)\right)$ and the stabilizer of $\Gamma_{Y}$ contains

$$
\operatorname{diag}\left(\left\langle C\left(g_{\varepsilon}\right)\right\rangle, G L\left(n-d_{r} z_{r}, q\right),\left\langle C\left(f_{r}\right)\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle C\left(f_{r}\right)\right\rangle\right)
$$

So by Lemma 3.1.5, $\Gamma_{X}=\Gamma_{Y}$ is stabilized by $G L(n, q)$ and hence the class graph is connected.

We now consider when the class graph $\Gamma$ is disconnected.

Lemma 3.3.9 Suppose $T \in G L(n, q)$ is semisimple with characteristic polynomial $f_{T}=$ $f_{1}^{z_{1}} \ldots f_{r}^{z_{r}}$, where $f_{i}$ is irreducible for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$, and $f_{i} \neq f_{j}$ for $i \neq j$. Suppose also that $\Delta_{T}$ is connected, but all edges are exact. Then the class graph of $T$ is disconnected.

Proof. For $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$, set $d_{i}=\operatorname{deg} f_{i}$. Since all the edges of $\Delta_{T}$ are exact, we have $d_{1} z_{1}=$ $\ldots=d_{r} z_{r}=m$. Let $X=\operatorname{diag}\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{r}\right)$, where $A_{i} \in G L(m, q)$ has characteristic polynomial $f_{i}^{z_{i}}$. Then $X$ is conjugate to $T$. Suppose $Y \in C_{G L(n, q)}(X) \cap c l_{G L(n, q)}(X)$. By Corollary 3.2.5, $Y=\operatorname{diag}\left(B_{1}, \ldots, B_{r}\right)$, where $B_{i} \in G L(m, q)$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$. Since $Y \in$ $c l_{G}(X), Y$ also has characteristic polynomial $f_{T}$ and so for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r, f_{B_{i}}=f_{1}^{w_{i 1}} \ldots f_{r}^{w_{i r}}$ with $0 \leqslant w_{i j} \leqslant z_{j}$.

Suppose there exists $i \in\{1, \ldots, r\}$ such that $w_{i k}, w_{i l} \neq 0$ for $1 \leqslant k, l \leqslant r$ with $k \neq l$. We may assume without loss of generality that $k \neq i$. Then as $A_{i}$ and $B_{i}$ commute, $d_{i}$ divides $d_{k} w_{i k}$ by Lemma 3.2.6. Then $a d_{i}=d_{k} w_{i k}$ for some $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and since $w_{i k}<z_{k}$, the vertices $f_{i}, f_{k}$ in $\Delta_{T}$ are connected with a non-exact edge, a contradiction. Therefore for each $i \in\{1, \ldots, r\}$, there exists $j \in\{1, \ldots, r\}$ such that $f_{B_{i}}=f_{j}^{z_{j}}$.

Now suppose $Z \in \Gamma_{X}$. Then there exist $Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{t} \in \Gamma_{X}$ such that $Y_{1} \in C_{G}(X)$, $Y_{i} \in C_{G}\left(Y_{i-1}\right)$ for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant t$, and $Z \in C_{G}\left(Y_{t}\right)$. By using the above result on each of the pairs $\left(X, Y_{1}\right),\left(Y_{i-1}, Y_{i}\right)$ for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant t$ and $\left(Y_{t}, Z\right)$, we see $Z$ has the form $\operatorname{diag}\left(B_{1}, \ldots, B_{r}\right)$ with $B_{i} \in G L(m, q)$ and $f_{B_{i}}=f_{j}^{z_{j}}$ for some $j$.

Suppose $\Gamma$ is connected. Then $\left\langle c l_{G}(X)\right\rangle \subseteq \operatorname{diag}(G L(m, q), \ldots, G L(m, q))$ and so $S L(n, q) \nless\left\langle c l_{G}(X)\right\rangle$. Therefore as $\left\langle c l_{G}(X)\right\rangle \unlhd G L(n, q),\left\langle c l_{G}(X)\right\rangle$ is central [Huppert p.185], a contradiction. Thus the class graph is disconnected.

Lemma 3.3.10 Suppose $T \in G L(n, q)$ is semisimple and $\Delta_{T}$ is disconnected. Then the class graph of $T$ is disconnected.

Proof. Let $f_{T}=f_{1}^{z_{1}} \ldots f_{r}^{z_{r}}$ be the characteristic polynomial of $T$, where each $f_{i}$ is irreducible over $G F(q)$ and $f_{i} \neq f_{j}$ for $i \neq j$. Since $\Delta_{T}$ is disconnected, we may choose $\delta_{1}$, $\delta_{2}$ such that $\left\{f_{i}, f_{j}\right\}$ is not an edge of $\Delta_{T}$ for all $f_{i} \in \delta_{1}, f_{j} \in \delta_{2}$. Relabelling if necessary, suppose $\delta_{1}=\left\{f_{1}, \ldots, f_{s}\right\}$ and $\delta_{2}=\left\{f_{s+1}, \ldots, f_{r}\right\}$.

Let $X=\left(\begin{array}{c|c}A & 0 \\ \hline 0 & B\end{array}\right)$, where $A$ and $B$ have characteristic polynomials $f_{A}=f_{1}^{z_{1}} \ldots f_{s}^{z_{s}}$ and $f_{B}=f_{s+1}^{z_{s+1}} \ldots f_{r}^{z_{r}}$ respectively. We have $X$ and $T$ are conjugate. Suppose $Y \in$ $C_{G L(n, q)}(X) \cap c l_{G L(n, q)}(X)$. By Corollary 3.2.5, $Y=\left(\begin{array}{c|c}C & 0 \\ \hline 0 & D\end{array}\right)$, where $C \in G L\left(d_{1} z_{1}+\right.$ $\ldots+d_{s} z_{s}, q$ ). Now $C$ has characteristic polynomial $f_{C}=f_{1}^{w_{1}} \ldots f_{r}^{w_{r}}$ for $0 \leqslant w_{i} \leqslant z_{i}$ with $\sum_{i=1}^{s} z_{i} \operatorname{deg} f_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{r} w_{i} \operatorname{deg} f_{i}$. Suppose $w_{i} \neq 0$ for some $s+1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$, then by Lemma 3.2.7, there exists $k \in\{1, \ldots, s\}$ such that $a \operatorname{deg} f_{i}=b \operatorname{deg} f_{k}$ with $1 \leqslant a \leqslant w_{i}, 1 \leqslant b \leqslant z_{k}$. Therefore there is an edge between $f_{i}$ and $f_{j}$ in $\Delta_{T}$, a contradiction.

So we have $w_{i}=0$ for $s+1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$ and hence $f_{C}=f_{A}$. Therefore the only elements in the connected component of the class graph containing $X$ have the same shape as $Y$ and $f_{C}=f_{A}, f_{D}=f_{B}$. Let $Z=\left(\begin{array}{c|c}B & 0 \\ \hline 0 & A\end{array}\right)$ and note $Z$ is conjugate to $X$, but $f_{B} \neq f_{A}$. Therefore $Z$ is not connected to $X$ and hence $\Gamma$ is disconnected.

We can now prove Theorem 3.3.5.

Proof (of Theorem 3.3.5). By Lemma 3.3.8, we have the class graph of $T$ is connected if $\Delta_{T}$ is connected with at least one edge non-exact, and in Lemmas 3.3.9 and 3.3.10, we showed the class graph of $T$ is disconnected otherwise.

## CHAPTER 4

## Commuting Graphs of Unipotent <br> Elements of $G L(n, q)$

In this chapter we discuss the connectedness of commuting graphs for conjugacy classes of unipotent elements in $G L(n, q)$, where $q=p^{a}$ for some prime $p$ and $a \in \mathbb{N}$. Recall an element $x \in G L(n, q)$ is unipotent if it has order a power of $p$. Equivalently $x$ is unipotent if all of its eigenvalues are 1 .

A Jordan block of size $m$ is an $m \times m$ matrix of the form

$$
B_{m}=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & \ddots & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right) .
$$

A matrix $x=\operatorname{diag}\left(B_{m_{1}}, \ldots, B_{m_{r}}\right)$, where each $B_{m_{i}}$ is a Jordan block of size $m_{i}$, is in Jordan normal form. Every unipotent element in $G L(n, q)$ is conjugate to a matrix in Jordan normal form, and we say $y \in G L(n, q)$ has type $\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{r}\right)$ if it is conjugate to
$\operatorname{diag}\left(B_{m_{1}}, \ldots, B_{m_{r}}\right)$. Note $\sum_{i=1}^{r} m_{i}=n$.
Throughout this chapter we denote the class graph we are considering by $\Gamma$ and let $\Gamma_{x}$ be the connected component of $\Gamma$ containing $x$. In Sections 4.5 and 4.6 we will need the exponent $\varepsilon$ of $P G L(2, q)$. We note here that if $p$ is even, $\varepsilon=p\left(q^{2}-1\right)$ and if $p$ is odd, $\varepsilon=p\left(q^{2}-1\right) / 2$.

### 4.1 Preliminary Results

In this section we record some standard results and definitions that will be used later in the chapter. We start with some easy lemmas about matrices.

Lemma 4.1.1 Suppose $M \in G L(2, q)$ is a non-scalar matrix. There exists a conjugate of $M$ with non-zero top right entry.

Proof. Let

$$
M=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & 0 \\
b & c
\end{array}\right)
$$

and suppose all elements in the conjugacy class of $M$ also have a zero for their top right entry. Conjugating $M$ by

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

gives $b=0$, and then conjugating by

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

gives $a=c$. Therefore $M$ is a scalar matrix.

Lemma 4.1.2 Suppose $M \in G L(2, q)$ is a non-scalar matrix with projective order $\alpha$.

Then for any $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $k \not \equiv 0 \bmod \alpha$, there is a conjugate of $M$ with non-zero top right entries in both itself and its $k$ th power.

Proof. Let $N=M^{k}$. Since $N$ is non-scalar, some conjugate $N^{L}$, with $L \in G L(2, q)$, must have non-zero top right entry by Lemma 4.1.1. Then $\left(M^{L}\right)^{k}=\left(M^{k}\right)^{L}=N^{L}$. So $M^{L}$ is a conjugate of $M$ with a non-zero entry in the top right of its $k$ th power. Since any power of a lower triangular matrix is lower triangular, $M^{L}$ also has a non-zero top right entry. $\square$

Lemma 4.1.3 Suppose $M \in G L(2, q)$ has non-zero top right entry, but zero top right entry in its $m$ th power. Let $\alpha$ be the projective order of $M$ and set $l=(\alpha, m)$. Then the top right entry of $M^{l}$ is zero.

Proof. As $(\alpha, m)=l$, there exist $s, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\alpha r+m s=l$. Then

$$
M^{l}=M^{\alpha r+m s}=t\left(M^{m}\right)^{s}
$$

for some scalar $t$. Therefore $M^{l}$ is a scalar multiple of a power of a lower triangular matrix and so has top right entry zero.

Lemma 4.1.4 Let $M \in G L(2, q)$ have top right entry non-zero and suppose $M^{m}$ has top right entry equal zero, where $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $M^{m} \in Z(G L(2, q))$.

Proof. Let

$$
M=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right) \text { and } M^{m}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{m} & 0 \\
c_{m} & d_{m}
\end{array}\right)
$$

We note $M \in C_{G L(2, q)}\left(M^{m}\right)$ and so

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{m} & 0 \\
c_{m} & d_{m}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{m} & 0 \\
c_{m} & d_{m}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Hence

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a a_{m}+b c_{m} & b d_{m} \\
c a_{m}+d c_{m} & d d_{m}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a a_{m} & b a_{m} \\
a c_{m}+c d_{m} & b c_{m}+d d_{m}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

So since $b \neq 0$, we have $a_{m}=d_{m}$ and $c_{m}=0$.

Lemma 4.1.5 Let $a \in G F(q)^{*}$ and suppose $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ is even. There exists $A \in G L(2, q)$ such that $A \notin Z(G L(2, q)), A^{m} \in Z(G L(2, q))$ and $\operatorname{det} A=a$.

Proof. Let

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
-a & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

Then $A \in G L(2, q), A \notin Z(G L(2, q))$ and $\operatorname{det} A=a$. Also

$$
A^{m}=\left(A^{2}\right)^{\frac{m}{2}}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
(-a)^{\frac{m}{2}} & 0 \\
0 & (-a)^{\frac{m}{2}}
\end{array}\right) \in Z(G L(2, q))
$$

Lemma 4.1.6 Suppose $g_{m} \in G L(2 m, q)$ with

$$
g_{m}=\left(\begin{array}{cccccccc}
a_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 & b_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
* & a_{2} & \ddots & \vdots & * & b_{2} & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
* & \ldots & * & a_{m} & * & \ldots & * & b_{m} \\
c_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 & d_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
* & c_{2} & \ddots & \vdots & * & d_{2} & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
* & \ldots & * & c_{m} & * & \ldots & * & d_{m}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Then $\operatorname{det} g_{m}=\prod_{i=1}^{m}\left(a_{i} d_{i}-b_{i} c_{i}\right)$.

Proof. We proceed by induction. The result is clear for $m=1$, so now consider $m=k$ for $k>1$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{det} g_{k}=a_{k} \operatorname{det}\left(\begin{array}{ccccccc}
a_{1} & 0 & 0 & b_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
* & \ddots & 0 & * & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
* & * & a_{k-1} & * & * & b_{k-1} & 0 \\
c_{1} & 0 & 0 & d_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
* & \ddots & 0 & * & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
* & * & c_{k-1} & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
* & \ldots & * & * & \ldots & * & d_{k}
\end{array}\right) \\
&\left(\begin{array}{ccccccccc}
a_{1} & 0 & 0 & b_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
* & \ddots & 0 & * & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
* & * & a_{k-1} & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
* & \ldots & * & * & \ldots & * & b_{k} \\
c_{1} & 0 & 0 & d_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
* & \ddots & 0 & * & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
* & * & c_{k-1} & * & * & d_{k-1} & 0
\end{array}\right) \\
&=(-1)^{k} c_{k} \operatorname{det}\left(a_{k} d_{k}-b_{k} c_{k}\right) \operatorname{det} g_{k-1} \\
& \\
&=\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(a_{i} d_{i}-b_{i} c_{i}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

by induction.

Lemma 4.1.7 Let $\alpha$ be a generator of $G F(q)^{*}$ and let $m$ be even. Then $\left\langle\alpha^{m}, \alpha^{\frac{m(m-1)}{2}}\right\rangle=$ $\left\langle\alpha^{\frac{m}{2}}\right\rangle$.

Proof. Let $K=\left\langle\alpha^{m}, \alpha^{\frac{m(m-1)}{2}}\right\rangle$ and $L=\left\langle\alpha^{\frac{m}{2}}\right\rangle$. It is clear $K \leqslant L$. Also note, as $m$ is
even, $\frac{m-2}{2} \in G F(q)^{*}$, and

$$
\alpha^{\frac{m(m-1)}{2}}\left(\alpha^{m}\right)^{-\left(\frac{m-2}{2}\right)}=\alpha^{\frac{m}{2}} .
$$

Therefore $L \leqslant K$.

Let $V$ be an $n$-dimensional vector space over $G F(q)$ and set $G=G L(n, q)$. Our strategy in this chapter will be to consider whether there are any subspaces fixed by all elements in $\Gamma_{x}$. If not we will then show the stabilizer in $G L(n, q)$ of the connected component $\Gamma_{x}$ is irreducible. In Section 4.4 we show if $\operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$ is irreducible, then $S L(n, q) \subseteq \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$. The leads to the following definition.

Definition 4.1.8 $A$ graph $\Gamma$ is S-connected if $S L(n, q) \subseteq \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$ for some $x \in V(\Gamma)$.

Once we have determined a graph is S -connected, we will consider whether it is connected.
We now introduce the subspaces of $V$ we will be using.
Definition 4.1.9 Let $x \in G$. For any $v \in V$, let $[v, x]=v(x-1)$ and $[V, x]=\{[v, x] \mid$ $v \in V\}$. Set $[V, x ; 1]=[V, x]$, and for $k>1$, write $[V, x ; k]=[[V, x ; k-1], x]$.

Lemma 4.1.10 Let $x \in G$. For any $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0},[V, x ; k]$ is a $C_{G}(x)$-invariant subspace.

Proof. Let $y \in C_{G}(x)$. Then for any $v \in V$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[v, x ; k] y } & =v(x-1)^{k} y \\
& =v y(x-1)^{k} \\
& =[v y, x ; k] \\
& \in[V, x ; k] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 4.1.11 Suppose $y \in C_{G}(x)$ and $[V, x]=[V, y]$. Then $[V, x ; k]=[V, y ; k]$ for any $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.

Proof. We proceed by induction on $k$. Suppose $[V, x ; i]=[V, y ; i]$ for all $1 \leqslant i<k$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[V, x ; k] } & =[[V, x ; k-1], x] \\
& =[[V, y ; k-1], x] \\
& =[[V, x], y ; k-1], \text { as } y \in C_{G}(x), \\
& =[[V, y], y ; k-1] \\
& =[V, y ; k] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 4.1.12 Let $x \in G$. Then $\operatorname{Soc}(x)=\{v \in V \mid[v, x]=0\}$, and for $k \in \mathbb{Z}>0$, $S_{o c}{ }^{k}(x)=\{v \in V \mid[v, x ; k]=0\}$. When we want to emphasize the space rather than the element of $G$ we use the notation $\operatorname{Soc}(V)$ instead of $\operatorname{Soc}(x)$.

Lemma 4.1.13 For $x \in G$ and $k \in \mathbb{Z}>0$, Soc ${ }^{k}(x)$ is a $C_{G}(x)$-invariant space.

Proof. Let $y \in C_{G}(x), v \in \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[v y, x ; k] } & =v y(x-1)^{k} \\
& =v(x-1)^{k} y \\
& =[v, x ; k] y \\
& =0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

So $v y \in \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)$.

Lemma 4.1.14 Suppose $y \in C_{G}(x)$ and $\operatorname{Soc}(x)=\operatorname{Soc}(y)$. Then $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)=\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(y)$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.

Proof. Suppose $v \in \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)$. Then $[v, x ; k-1] \in \operatorname{Soc}(x)=\operatorname{Soc}(y)$, and so $[[v, x ; k-$ $1], y]=0$. But $[[v, x ; k-1], y]=[[v, y], x ; k-1]$ so $[v, y] \in \operatorname{Soc}^{k-1}(x)$. Inductively, $\operatorname{Soc}^{k-1}(x)=\operatorname{Soc}^{k-1}(y)$, hence $[v, y] \in \operatorname{Soc}^{k-1}(y)$. Then $[v, y ; k]=0$, therefore $v \in \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(y)$ and so $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x) \subseteq \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(y)$. The opposite containment is similar.

Definition 4.1.15 $A$ cyclic basis for $x$ is a basis $\mathcal{B}$ of $V$ such that $[v, x] \in \mathcal{B}$ or $[v, x]=0$ for all $v \in \mathcal{B}$. Let $\mathcal{B}$ be a cyclic basis for $x$, and $B=\{v \in \mathcal{B} \mid[u, x] \neq v$ for all $u \in \mathcal{B}\}$. Then $B$ is a cyclic basis generating set for $\mathcal{B}$.

Lemma 4.1.16 Let $x \in G$ be unipotent. An element in the centralizer of $x$ is completely determined by its action on a cyclic basis generating set for $x$.

Proof. This is Lemma 3.6 in [7].

Lemma 4.1.17 Suppose $x \in G$ is unipotent of type $(m, m)$. Then any two linearly independent vectors in $V \backslash[V, x]$ can be used to generate a cyclic basis of $V$ for $x$.

Proof. Let $v_{1}, u_{1} \in V \backslash[V, x]$ be linearly independent and set $v_{i}=\left[v_{1}, x ; i-1\right], u_{i}=$ $\left[u_{1}, x ; i-1\right]$ for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant m$. Let $\mathcal{B}=\left\{v_{i}, u_{i} \mid 1 \leqslant i \leqslant m\right\}$. As $v_{1}, u_{1} \in V \backslash[V, x]$, we have $|\mathcal{B}| \leqslant 2 m$. Suppose $\mathcal{B}$ is not linearly independent. For each $i, v_{i}, u_{i} \in[V, x ; i-1] \backslash[V, x ; i]$. Let $i$ be minimal such that $v_{i}, u_{i}$ are not linearly independent. Then there exist $\lambda, \mu \in$ $G F(q)^{*}$ such that $\lambda v_{i}+\mu u_{i} \in[V, x ; i]$. This implies

$$
\lambda v_{i-1}+\mu u_{i-1}+[V, x ; i-1] \in \operatorname{Soc}(V /[V, x ; i])=[V, x ; i-1] /[V, x ; i] .
$$

Then $\lambda v_{i-1}+\mu u_{i-1} \in[V, x ; i-1]$, contradicting the minimality of $i$.

Definition 4.1.18 An element $x \in G L(n, q)$ is regular unipotent if it is unipotent of type ( $n$ ).

We consider the class graph of a regular unipotent element in Section 4.2, but, as the following lemma suggests, regular unipotent elements are also useful in some of the other cases we consider.

Lemma 4.1.19 A regular unipotent element fixes precisely one subspace of $V$ of each dimension $1, \ldots, n$.

Proof. Let $x \in G$ be regular unipotent and $\mathcal{B}$ be a cyclic basis for $x$. Then with respect to $\mathcal{B}, x$ is in Jordan normal form and it is clear $[V, x ; i]$ is the unique subspace of $V$ of dimension $n-i$ fixed by $x$, for $0 \leqslant i<n$.

We now consider centralizers of general unipotent elements in $G$.

Definition 4.1.20 A matrix over $G F(q)$ is triangularly striped if it has the form
(i)

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
a_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
a_{2} & a_{1} & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
a_{r} & \ldots & a_{2} & a_{1}
\end{array}\right)
$$

(ii)

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 \\
\vdots & & & \vdots \\
0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 \\
a_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
a_{2} & a_{1} & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
a_{r} & \ldots & a_{2} & a_{1}
\end{array}\right) \text {, or }
$$

(iii)

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccccccc}
a_{1} & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & 0 \\
a_{2} & a_{1} & \ddots & & & & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & & & \vdots \\
a_{r} & \ldots & a_{2} & a_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

with $a_{i} \in G F(q)$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$.

Lemma 4.1.21 Suppose $x \in G L(n, q)$ is unipotent of type $\left(m_{1}, m_{2}, \ldots, m_{t}\right)$, written in Jordan normal form. Then

$$
C_{G}(x)=\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
C_{11} & \ldots & C_{1 t} \\
\vdots & & \vdots \\
C_{t 1} & \ldots & C_{t t}
\end{array}\right) \in G \right\rvert\, C_{i j} \text { is a triangularly striped } m_{i} \times m_{j} \text { matrix }\right\} .
$$

Proof. This is [38, p.28].

Example 4.1.22 Let

$$
x=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right) \in G L(5, q)
$$

Then

$$
C_{G}(x)=\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
a_{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
a_{2} & a_{1} & 0 & b_{1} & 0 \\
a_{3} & a_{2} & a_{1} & b_{2} & b_{1} \\
c_{1} & 0 & 0 & d_{1} & 0 \\
c_{2} & c_{1} & 0 & d_{2} & d_{1}
\end{array}\right) \right\rvert\, a_{1}, d_{1} \in G F(q)^{*}, a_{2}, a_{3}, b_{1}, b_{2}, c_{1}, c_{2}, d_{2} \in G F(q)\right\} .
$$

We have the following corollaries to Lemma 4.1.21.

Corollary 4.1.23 Let $x \in G$ be regular unipotent. Then $\left|C_{G}(x)\right|=(q-1) q^{n-1}$.

Proof. Choose a basis of $V$ so $x$ is written in Jordan normal form. Then

$$
C_{G}(x)=\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
a_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
a_{2} & a_{1} & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
a_{n} & \ldots & a_{2} & a_{1}
\end{array}\right) \right\rvert\, a_{1} \in G F(q)^{*}, a_{i} \in G F(q) \text { for } 2 \leqslant i \leqslant n\right\}
$$

by Lemma 4.1.21, and the result is clear.

Corollary 4.1.24 Suppose $x \in G L(2 m, q)$ is unipotent of type $(m, m)$. Then every element in $C_{G}(x)$ has determinant an $m$ th power.

Proof. Choose a basis of $V$ so $x$ is written in Jordan normal form and let $g \in C_{G}(x)$.

Then $t=2$ so by Lemma 4.1.21,

$$
g=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
C_{1,1} & C_{1,2} \\
C_{2,1} & C_{2,2}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
a & & & b & & \\
* & \ddots & * & \ddots & \\
* & * & a & * & * & b \\
c & & d & & \\
* & \ddots & * & \ddots & \\
* & * & c & * & * & d
\end{array}\right),
$$

for some $a, b, c, d \in G F(q)$. Therefore by Lemma 4.1.6, $\operatorname{det} g=(a d-b c)^{m}$.

Definition 4.1.25 Let $V$ be an $n$-dimensional vector space over $G F(q)$, with $n \geqslant 2$. $A$ transvection is an element of $G L(V)$ such that $\operatorname{dim}[V, t]=1, \operatorname{dim} C_{V}(t)=n-1$ and $[V, t] \subseteq C_{V}(t)$. An $n$-1-dimensional subspace of $V$ is a hyperplane and a 1-dimensional subspace of $V$ is a point. For a hyperplane $H \subset V$ and a point $P \subseteq H$, let $R(H, P)=$ $\left\langle t \in G L(V) \mid H=C_{V}(t), P=[V, t]\right\rangle$. We say $R(H, P)$ is a subgroup of root type and elements of $R(H, P)$ are root elements.

We note for any $g \in G, R(H, P)^{g}=R\left(H^{g}, P g\right)$, so the conjugate of a root subgroup is a root subgroup.

The following two results of McLaughlin [34, 35], about groups generated by subgroups of root type, will be used in Section 4.4.

Theorem 4.1.26 Suppose $\mathbb{F} \neq G F(2)$, $V$ is a vector space over $\mathbb{F}$ with $\operatorname{dim} V \geqslant 2$, and $G$ is a subgroup of $S L(V)$ which is generated by subgroups of root type. Also suppose the identity subgroup 1 is the only normal unipotent subgroup of $G$. Then for some $s \geqslant 1$, $V=V_{0} \oplus V_{1} \oplus \ldots \oplus V_{s}$ and $G=G_{1} \times \ldots \times G_{s}$, where
(i) The $V_{i}$ are stable for the $G_{j}$;
(ii) $\left.G_{i}\right|_{V_{j}}=1$ if $i \neq j$;
(iii) $\left.G_{i}\right|_{V_{i}}=S L\left(V_{i}\right)$ or $S p\left(V_{i}\right)$.

Theorem 4.1.27 Suppose $\mathbb{F}=G F(2), V$ is a vector space over $\mathbb{F}$ of dimension $n \geqslant 2$, and $G$ is an irreducible subgroup of $S L(V)$ which is generated by transvections. Then either $G=S L(V)$ or $n \geqslant 4$ and $G$ is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Sp}(V)$.

We conclude this section with a few results about vector spaces with forms which will also be used in Section 4.4. Let $[V, T]=\{[v, t] \mid v \in V, t \in T\}$ and $\operatorname{Isom}(V)$ be the group of isometries of $V$.

Lemma 4.1.28 Let $V$ be a finite dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{F}$ which supports a nondegenerate symmetric or symplectic form, and let $U$ be a subspace of $V$. Then

$$
\operatorname{dim} U^{\perp}=\operatorname{dim} V-\operatorname{dim} U
$$

Proof. See [1, 19.2].

Lemma 4.1.29 Let $V$ be a finite dimensional vector space over the field $\mathbb{F}$. Suppose $($,$) is a nondegenerate symmetric or symplectic form on V$ and $T \leqslant I \operatorname{som}(V)$. Then $[V, T]^{\perp}=C_{V}(T)$.

Proof. Let $v, w \in V$ and $t \in T$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
([v, t], w) & =(v(t-1), w) \\
& =(v t, w)-(v, w) \\
& =\left(v, w t^{-1}\right)-(v, w) \\
& =\left(v, w\left(t^{-1}-1\right)\right) \\
& =\left(v,\left[w, t^{-1}\right]\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

So if $w \in C_{V}(T)$ then $\left[w, t^{-1}\right]=0$ for all $t \in T$ and so $([v, t], w)=0$ for all $v \in V, t \in T$. Therefore $w \in[V, T]^{\perp}$. Conversely, if $w \in[V, T]^{\perp}$, then $([v, t], w)=0$ for all $v \in V$, $t \in T$ and so $\left(v,\left[w, t^{-1}\right]\right)=0$ for all $v \in V, t \in T$. Then since the form is nondegenerate, $\left[w, t^{-1}\right]=0$ for all $t \in T$ and hence $w \in C_{V}(T)$.

Lemma 4.1.30 Suppose $V$ is a vector space over $\mathbb{F}$ and $T \leqslant \operatorname{Sp}(V)$ with $\operatorname{dim}[V, T]=1$. Then $|T| \leqslant|\mathbb{F}|$.

Proof. Let $0 \neq w \in[V, T]$. Then as $\operatorname{dim}[V, T]=1$, for any $v \in V, t \in T$, there exists $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ such that $[v, t]=\lambda w$. So there are at most $|\mathbb{F}|$ elements in $[V, T]$.

Now, by Lemma 4.1.29, $[V, T]^{\perp}=C_{V}(T)$, and by Lemma 4.1.28,

$$
\operatorname{dim}[V, T]^{\perp}=\operatorname{dim} V-\operatorname{dim}[V, T] .
$$

So $\operatorname{dim} C_{V}(T)=\operatorname{dim} V-1$ and we can choose $u \in V \backslash C_{V}(T)$. Suppose there exist $t_{1}, t_{2} \in T$ such that $\left[u, t_{1}\right]=\left[u, t_{2}\right]$. Then $u t_{1}=u t_{2}$ and hence $u \in C_{V}\left(t_{1} t_{2}^{-1}\right)$. Clearly $C_{V}(T) \subseteq C_{V}\left(t_{1} t_{2}^{-1}\right)$ and so since $u \notin C_{V}(T)$ and $\operatorname{dim} C_{V}(T)=\operatorname{dim} V-1$, we have $V=C_{V}\left(t_{1} t_{2}^{-1}\right)$. As $t_{1} t_{2}^{-1} \in \operatorname{Aut}(V)$, we have $t_{1}=t_{2}$ and hence $\left[u, t_{1}\right]=\left[u, t_{2}\right]$ if and only if $t_{1}=t_{2}$. Then $|\{[u, t] \mid u \in V\}| \leqslant|\mathbb{F}|$ implies $|T| \leqslant|\mathbb{F}|$.

### 4.2 Regular Unipotent Classes

In this section we consider the commuting graph of a regular unipotent element in $G=$ $G L(n, q)$.

Lemma 4.2.1 Let $x \in G$ be regular unipotent. Then $C_{G}(x)$ is abelian.

Proof. Let $\left\{v_{n}, v_{n-1}, \ldots, v_{1}\right\}$ be a cyclic basis for $x$. Then for $1 \leqslant i<n, v_{n-i}=\left[v_{n}, x ; i\right]=$ $v_{n}(x-1)^{i}$. Let $y \in C_{G}(x)$. By Lemma 4.1.16, the action of every element in $C_{G}(x)$ is
completely given by its action on $v_{n}$, so for some $\lambda_{i} \in G F(q)$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
v_{n} y & =\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} v_{i} \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} v_{n}(x-1)^{n-i} \\
& =v_{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}(x-1)^{n-i} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $z=y-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}(x-1)^{n-i}$. Then $v_{n} z=0$ and for $1 \leqslant i<n$,

$$
v_{n-i} z=v_{n}(x-1)^{i} z=v_{n} z(x-1)^{i}=0,
$$

as $z \in C_{G}(x)$. Therefore $z=0$ and hence $y=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}(x-1)^{n-i}$. So every element of $C_{G}(x)$ can be written as a polynomial in $x-1$ and hence $C_{G}(x)$ is abelian.

Corollary 4.2.2 The connected component $\Gamma_{x}$ has diameter 1 .

Proof. This follows from Lemma 2.0.9 as $C_{G}(x)$ is abelian by Lemma 4.2.1.

Since, from Lemma 2.0.9 we see the elements in $\Gamma_{x}$ are precisely the regular unipotent elements in $C_{G}(x)$, we can count them and hence determine how many components $\Gamma$ has.

Lemma 4.2.3 Let $x \in G L(n, q)$ be a regular unipotent element in Jordan normal form. Then

$$
C_{G}(x) \cap \operatorname{cl}_{G}(x)=\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
1 & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 \\
\lambda_{1} & 1 & \ddots & & \vdots \\
\lambda_{2} & \lambda_{1} & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
\lambda_{n-1} & \ldots & \lambda_{2} & \lambda_{1} & 1
\end{array}\right) \right\rvert\, \lambda_{i} \in G F(q) \text { for } 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n-1, \lambda_{1} \neq 0\right\} .
$$

Proof. Since all unipotent elements have characteristic polynomial $f(t)=(t-1)^{n}$, the unipotent elements in $C_{G}(x)$ are those with 1's on the leading diagonal.

Recall, a regular unipotent element fixes a unique 1 -space. Let $\left\{v_{n}, \ldots, v_{1}\right\}$ be a cyclic basis for $x$ and let

$$
y=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
1 & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 \\
\lambda_{1} & 1 & \ddots & & \vdots \\
\lambda_{2} & \lambda_{1} & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
\lambda_{n-1} & \ldots & \lambda_{2} & \lambda_{1} & 1
\end{array}\right),
$$

with $\lambda_{i} \in G F(q), 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n-1$. If $\lambda_{1}=0$ then both $\left\langle v_{1}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle v_{2}\right\rangle$ are fixed by $y$, and if $\lambda_{1} \neq 0$, the only space fixed by $y$ is $\left\langle v_{1}\right\rangle$. Therefore $y$ is regular unipotent if and only if $\lambda_{1} \neq 0$.

Corollary 4.2.4 The number of elements in $\Gamma_{x}$ is $q^{n-2}(q-1)$.

Proof. We have seen above that the elements in $\Gamma_{x}$ are precisely the conjugates of $x$ in $C_{G}(x)$, and from Lemma 4.2 .3 we see $\left|C_{G}(x) \cap c l_{G}(x)\right|=q^{n-2}(q-1)$.

Theorem 4.2.5 Let $x \in G L(n, q)$ be regular unipotent. Then the commuting class graph of $x$ consists of $q^{\frac{(n-2)(n-3)}{2}}(q+1) \prod_{i=3}^{n}\left(q^{i}-1\right)$ components, each of which is a complete graph with $q^{n-2}(q-1)$ vertices.

Proof. We have $\left|C_{G}(x)\right|=q^{n-1}(q-1)$ by Corollary 4.1.23, so the number of conjugates of $x$ in $G$ is $q^{\frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}} \prod_{i=2}^{n}\left(q^{i}-1\right)$. Each component contains $q^{n-2}(q-1)$ vertices, by Corollary 4.2.4, and is a complete graph by Corollary 4.2.2. So the number of components is $q^{\frac{(n-2)(n-3)}{2}}(q+1) \prod_{i=3}^{n}\left(q^{i}-1\right)$ as claimed.

### 4.3 Classes where the Jordan block sizes differ by 2

## or more

In this section we let $x$ be unipotent of type $x=\left(m_{1}, m_{2}, \ldots, m_{k}\right)$ with $m_{j} \geqslant m_{j+1}+2$, for $1 \leqslant j<k$. Let

$$
B=\left\{v_{i, j} \mid 1 \leqslant j \leqslant k, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant m_{j}\right\}
$$

be a cyclic basis for $V$ with respect to $x$, where

$$
\left[v_{i, j}, x\right]=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
v_{i-1, j} & \text { if } i>1 \\
0 & \text { if } i=1
\end{array}\right.
$$

So we can think as the basis as an array, where commutating any basis element with $x$ moves it down one row.

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
v_{m_{1}, 1} & & & \\
v_{m_{1}-1,1} & & & \\
\vdots & & & \\
v_{m_{2}, 1} & v_{m_{2}, 2} & & \\
\vdots & \vdots & & \\
& & & \\
v_{m_{k}, 1} & v_{m_{k}, 2} & \ldots & v_{m_{k}, k} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ldots & \vdots \\
v_{1,1} & v_{1,2} & \ldots & v_{1, k}
\end{array}
$$

For $1 \leqslant a \leqslant m_{1}$, let $W_{a}=\left\langle v_{i, j} \mid i+j \leqslant a+1\right\rangle$.
The next result requires our hypothesis on the structure of Jordan blocks of $x$.

Lemma 4.3.1 Let $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap \operatorname{cl}_{G}(x)$. For $1 \leqslant a \leqslant m_{1}, W_{a}$ is a $y$-invariant subspace of $V$ and further, for $2 \leqslant a \leqslant m_{1}$, we have $\left[W_{a}, y\right] \subseteq W_{a-1}$.

Proof. First note, as $m_{1}>m_{2}, W_{1}=\left\langle v_{1,1}\right\rangle=\left[V, x ; m_{1}-1\right]$, and so is $y$-invariant and, furthermore, $\left[W_{1}, y\right]=0$.

We now proceed by induction. Assume $W_{a-1}$ is $y$-invariant. It suffices to show $\left[W_{a}, y\right] \subseteq W_{a-1}$ for $2 \leqslant a \leqslant m_{1}$, or equivalently, since

$$
B \cap W_{a} \backslash W_{a-1}=\left\{v_{i, j} \in B \mid i+j=a+1\right\}=\left\{v_{a+1-j, j} \in B \mid m_{j}>a-j\right\}
$$

$\left[v_{a+1-j, j}, y\right] \in W_{a-1}$ for all $v_{a+1-j, j} \in B$, with $m_{j}>a-j$.
Suppose $v_{a+1-j, j} \in B$ with $m_{j}+j>a$. Let

$$
U_{a, j}= \begin{cases}\operatorname{Soc}^{a-j+1}(x) \cap\left[V, x ; m_{j}-(a-j)-1\right], & \text { if } m_{j}-a>0 \\ \operatorname{Soc}^{a-j+1}(x), & \text { if } m_{j}-a \leqslant 0\end{cases}
$$

Since $a+1-j$ is the smallest $h \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $v_{a+1-j, j} \in \operatorname{Soc}^{h}(x)$, we see $v_{a+1-l, l} \notin$ $\operatorname{Soc}^{a-j+1}(x)$ for $l<j$, as $a+1-l>a+1-j$. Similarly, for any $v_{a+1-l, l} \in B \cap W_{a} \backslash W_{a-1}$, $m_{l}-(a-l)-1$ is the largest $h \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $v_{a+1-l, l} \in[V, x ; h]$. Now, for $l>j$, since $m_{i} \geqslant m_{i+1}+2$ for $1 \leqslant i<k$, we have $m_{j} \geqslant m_{l}+2(l-j)$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
m_{l}-(a-l)-1 & \leqslant m_{j}-2(l-j)-(a-l)-1 \\
& =m_{j}-(a-j)-1+j-l \\
& <m_{j}-(a-j)-1,
\end{aligned}
$$

and hence $v_{a+1-l, l} \notin\left[V, x ; m_{j}-(a-l)-1\right]$. Therefore $v_{a+1-j, j}$ is the only member of $B \cap W_{a} \backslash W_{a-1}$ which is also in $U_{a, j}$.

So $\left(U_{a, j}+W_{a-1}\right) / W_{a-1}$ is a $y$-invariant 1-space generated by $v_{a+1-j, j}+W_{a-1}$ and hence, since $y$ is unipotent, $\left[v_{a+1-j, j}, y\right] \in W_{a-1}$ as required.

Corollary 4.3.2 With $x$ and $y$ as in Lemma 4.3.1, $W_{1}=\left[V, x ; m_{1}-1\right]=\left[V, y ; m_{1}-1\right]$ and so is $\langle x, y\rangle$ invariant.

Proof. By repeated applications of Lemma 4.3.1, $\left[V, y ; m_{1}-1\right]=\left[W_{m_{1}}, y ; m_{1}-1\right] \subseteq$ $W_{1}=\left[V, x ; m_{1}-1\right]$. Therefore, since $\operatorname{dim}\left[V, y ; m_{1}-1\right]=\operatorname{dim}\left[V, x ; m_{1}-1\right]=1$, we have $\left[V, y ; m_{1}-1\right]=\left[V, x ; m_{1}-1\right]$, as required. Hence $W_{1}$ is $\langle x, y\rangle$ invariant.

Theorem 4.3.3 Suppose $x$ is unipotent of type $x=\left(m_{1}, m_{2}, \ldots, m_{k}\right)$ with $m_{i} \geqslant m_{i+1}+2$, for $1 \leqslant i<k$. Then the commuting graph for the conjugacy class in $G$ of $x$ is disconnected.

Proof. Let $\Gamma_{x}$ be the connected component of the commuting graph containing $x$. From Corollary 4.3.2 it is clear for any $y \in \Gamma_{x}$, we have $\left[V, y ; m_{1}-1\right]=\left[V, x ; m_{1}-1\right]$. Therefore since we can find $z \in \operatorname{cl}_{G}(x)$ such that $\left[V, z ; m_{1}-1\right] \neq\left[V, x ; m_{1}-1\right]$, the commuting graph is disconnected.

### 4.4 Components of Commuting Graphs Stabilized by Irreducible Subgroups

Let $x \in G L(n, q)$ be unipotent and $H=\left\langle C_{G}(y) \mid y \in V\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)\right\rangle$, where $\Gamma_{x}$ is the connected component containing $x$. In this section we show that if $H$ acts irreducibly on $V$, then $S L(V) \leqslant H$. This result will be used in the following sections.

Lemma 4.4.1 There is a subgroup of root type in $C_{G}(x)$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{B}$ be a cyclic basis for $x$, so $x$ is in Jordan normal form with respect to $\mathcal{B}$. For
any $\lambda \in G F(q)$, let

$$
t_{\lambda}=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
1 & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & 1 & \ddots & & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
\lambda & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

and let $R=\left\langle t_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in G F(q)\right\rangle$. Then $R=R(K, P)$, where $K=\langle(1,0, \ldots, 0),(0,1, \ldots, 0), \ldots,(0, \ldots, 1,0)\rangle$ and $P=\langle(1,0, \ldots, 0)\rangle$. By Lemma 4.1.21, $R \leqslant C_{G}(x)$.

For $X \subseteq G L(V)$ let $\mathcal{R}(X)$ be the set of subgroups of root type in $X$ and set

$$
H_{0}=\langle\mathcal{R}(H)\rangle
$$

Suppose $H$ is irreducible. Recall for any group $G, O_{p}(G)$ is the largest normal $p$-subgroup of $G$.

Lemma 4.4.2 We have $H_{0} \unlhd H$ and $O_{p}\left(H_{0}\right)=1$.

Proof. The conjugate of a root subgroup is a root subgroup, so for $h \in H$ and $R \in \mathcal{R}(H)$, $R^{h}$ is a root subgroup of $H$ and hence is in $\mathcal{R}(H)$. Since $\mathcal{R}(H)$ generates $H_{0}$ we have $H_{0} \unlhd H$.

Since $O_{p}\left(H_{0}\right)$ is a characteristic subgroup of $H_{0}$ and $H_{0} \unlhd H$, we have $O_{p}\left(H_{0}\right) \unlhd H$ and hence $O_{p}\left(H_{0}\right) \leqslant O_{p}(H)$. Suppose $O_{p}(H) \neq 1$. For $v \in C_{V}\left(O_{p}(H)\right), h \in H$ and $g \in O_{p}(H)$, we have $v h g=v h g h^{-1} h=v h$, and so $C_{V}\left(O_{p}(H)\right)$ is a $H$-invariant subspace of $V$. Therefore $C_{V}\left(O_{p}(H)\right)=0$ or $V$ as $H$ is irreducible. Since $O_{p}(H)$ is a $p$-group we cannot have $C_{V}\left(O_{p}(H)\right)=0$, and since $O_{p}(H)$ is a group of automorphisms of $V$ we also cannot have $C_{V}\left(O_{p}(H)\right)=V$. Therefore $O_{p}(H)=1$ and hence $O_{p}\left(H_{0}\right)=1$ as required. $\square$

We can now use Clifford's Theorem [27, Thm 6.5, p.80] to write

$$
\left.V\right|_{H_{0}}=W_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus W_{s},
$$

where the $W_{i}$ are irreducible conjugate $H_{0}$-modules, i.e. $W_{i}=W_{1} h$ for some $h \in H$.
Lemma 4.4.3 Let $t$ be a root element in $H$. Then there is a unique $i \in\{1, \ldots, s\}$ such that $\left[W_{i}, t\right] \neq 0$.

Proof. As $t$ is a root element, $\operatorname{dim} C_{V}(t)=\operatorname{dim} V-1$. So since $V=W_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus W_{s}, t$ cannot centralize all of the $W_{i}$ 's else $V \subseteq C_{V}(t)$. Now suppose $W_{i}, W_{j} \nsubseteq C_{V}(t)$, for some $i, j \in\{1, \ldots, s\}, i \neq j$, and let $U=W_{i} \oplus W_{j}$. Since $t$ is in a root subgroup of $H, t \in H_{0}$, then as $W_{i}, W_{j}$ are $H_{0}$-invariant, we have $\left[W_{i}, t\right] \neq\left[W_{j}, t\right]$. Now $[U, t]=\left[W_{i}, t\right]+\left[W_{j}, t\right]$, and hence $\operatorname{dim}[U, t]=\operatorname{dim}\left[W_{i}, t\right]+\operatorname{dim}\left[W_{j}, t\right]=2$, a contradiction.

Lemma 4.4.4 For some $i \in\{1, \ldots, s\}, W_{i}$ is $x$-invariant.

Proof. There is a root element $t \in C_{G}(x)$, by Lemma 4.4.1. This $t$ is in a subgroup of root type and so $t \in H_{0}$. We may suppose, without loss of generality, $W_{1}$ is not centralized by $t$. We claim $W_{1}$ is $x$-invariant. Suppose not. Note $W_{1} x$ is an irreducible $H_{0}$-module and so we have $W_{1} x \cong W_{i}$ for some $i \in\{2, \ldots, s\}$. Then, by Lemma 4.4.3, $t$ centralizes $W_{i}$ and hence $W_{1} x$. So

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =\left[W_{1} x, t\right] \\
& =\left[W_{1} x, t\right] x^{-1} \\
& =W_{1} x(t-1) x^{-1} \\
& =W_{1}(t-1) x x^{-1} \text { as } t \in C_{G}(x) \\
& =\left[W_{1}, t\right],
\end{aligned}
$$

a contradiction.

Relabeling if necessary, assume from now on that $W_{1}$ is $x$-invariant and $t \in C_{G}(x) \cap H_{0}$ is a root element which doesn't centralize $W_{1}$. We set $U=W_{2} \oplus \ldots \oplus W_{s}$. Note $U$ is centralized by $t$ and, since $x \in H, U x$ is a $H_{0}$-module. Suppose $U$ is not $x$-invariant, so $U x+U>U$. Now, $V / U \cong W_{1}$ is irreducible as a $H_{0}$-module, and therefore $U x+U=V$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[V, t] } & =[U x+U, t] \\
& =[U x, t]+[U, t] \\
& =[U x, t] \text { as }[U, t]=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

So, since $[V, t]=\left[W_{1}, t\right] \neq 0$, and $W_{1}$ is an irreducible $H_{0}$-module, $W_{1} \subseteq U x$. Then, as $W_{1}$ is $x$-invariant $W_{1}=W_{1} x^{-1} \subseteq U$, a contradiction.

Lemma 4.4.5 We have $s=1$ and so $H_{0}$ is irreducible.

Proof. Suppose $s>1$. Let $\mathcal{B}_{1}$ be a cyclic basis of $W_{1}$ for $x$, let $\mathcal{B}_{2}$ be a cyclic basis of $U$ for $x$ and let $\mathcal{B}=\left\{\mathcal{B}_{1}, \mathcal{B}_{2}\right\}$. Then with respect to $\mathcal{B}, x$ is written in Jordan normal form. Since $W_{1}$ and $U$ are $H_{0}$-invariant, with respect to $\mathcal{B}$, any $h \in H_{0}$ can be written

$$
h=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
H_{1} & 0 \\
0 & H_{2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $H_{1} \in G L\left(W_{1}\right), H_{2} \in G L(U)$. Let $\Omega$ be the set of matrices in $M a t_{\operatorname{dim} W_{1} \times \operatorname{dim} U}(q)$
with non-zero bottom left entry and zeros everywhere else and let

$$
T=\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{cc}
I_{1} & 0 \\
C & I_{2}
\end{array}\right) \right\rvert\, C \in \Omega\right\}
$$

where $I_{1}$ and $I_{2}$ are appropriately sized identity matrices. Then $T$ is a root subgroup in $C_{G}(x)$, by Lemma 4.1.21, but is not contained in $H_{0}$, a contradiction. Therefore $s=1$ and hence $H_{0}$ is irreducible.

Now, by Lemma 4.4.5, $H_{0}$ is an irreducible subgroup generated by subgroups of root type such that $O_{p}\left(H_{0}\right)=1$, so we can apply Theorems 4.1.26, 4.1.27 by McLaughlin to see $H_{0}$ is either $S L(V), S p(V)$ or, if $q=2$, a subgroup of $S p(V)$.

Suppose $H_{0}=S p(V)$ or is a subgroup of $S p(V)$. Assume $x$ has type $\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}\right)$, with $k>1$, and choose a basis of $V$ so $x$ is written in Jordan normal form. For any $\lambda \in G F(q)$ let

$$
s_{\lambda}=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
I_{m_{1}} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
B_{\lambda} & I_{m_{2}} & \ldots & 0 \\
\vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & \ldots & \ldots & I_{m_{k}}
\end{array}\right),
$$

and

$$
t_{\lambda}=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
I_{m_{1}} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & I_{m_{2}} & \ldots & 0 \\
\vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\
C_{\lambda} & \ldots & \ldots & I_{m_{k}}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $B_{\lambda}$ and $C_{\lambda}$ have the entry $\lambda$ in their bottom left corners and zero everywhere else. Then for all $\lambda \in G F(q), s_{\lambda}$ and $t_{\lambda}$ are transvections contained in $C_{G}(x)$ and hence $H_{0}$. Let $T=\left\langle s_{\lambda}, t_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in G F(q)\right\rangle$, so $|T| \geqslant q^{2}$. We have $\left[V, s_{\lambda}\right]=\left[V, t_{\mu}\right]$ for all $\lambda, \mu \in G F(q)$ and
hence $\operatorname{dim}[V, T]=1$. Then, by Lemma 4.1.30, we see $T \nless S p(V)$ and hence $H_{0} \nless S P(V)$. Thus $H_{0}=S L(V)$.

We have shown the following.

Theorem 4.4.6 Let $x \in G L(n, q)$ be unipotent and $H=\left\langle C_{G}(y) \mid y \in V\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)\right\rangle$. If $H$ is irreducible, then $S L(V) \leqslant H$.

Proof. Let $H_{0}=\langle\mathcal{R}(H)\rangle$. Then by Lemma 4.4.2 we have $H_{0} \unlhd H$ and $O_{p}\left(H_{0}\right)=1$, and by Lemma 4.4.5, $H_{0}$ is irreducible on $V$. Therefore we can apply Theorems 4.1.26 and 4.1.27 to see $H_{0}$ is either $S L(V), S p(V)$ or a subgroup of $S p(V)$. Then by Lemma 4.1.30 and the discussion afterwards, we have $H_{0}=S L(V)$. Therefore $S L(V) \leqslant H$ as claimed.

### 4.5 Classes of Type $(m, m-1)$

Suppose $x \in G$ is unipotent of type ( $m, m-1$ ). Let

$$
\mathcal{B}_{x}=\left\{v_{i, 1}, v_{j, 2} \mid 1 \leqslant i \leqslant m, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant m-1\right\}
$$

be a cyclic basis for $x$ where, for $k \in\{1,2\}$,

$$
\left[v_{i, k}, x\right]=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
v_{i-1, k} & \text { if } i>1 \\
0 & \text { if } i=1
\end{array}\right.
$$

Again we can think of the basis as an array as follows.

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
v_{m, 1} & \\
v_{m-1,1} & v_{m-1,2} \\
v_{m-2,1} & v_{m-2,2} \\
\vdots & \\
v_{1,1} & v_{1,2}
\end{array}
$$

where commutating a basis vector with $x$ moves it down a row.
For $1 \leqslant k \leqslant m-1$,

$$
\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)=\left\langle v_{i, 1}, v_{i, 2} \mid 1 \leqslant i \leqslant k\right\rangle,
$$

and

$$
[V, x ; k]=\left\langle v_{i, 1}, v_{j, 2} \mid 1 \leqslant i \leqslant m-k, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant m-k-1\right\rangle .
$$

Lemma 4.5.1 There exists a regular unipotent element in $C_{G}(x)$.

Proof. Let
where $J(i)$ is a Jordan block of size $i$. By Lemma 4.1.21, $y_{m} \in C_{G}(x)$. We show $y_{m}$ is a regular unipotent element.

We have

$$
y_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

so the characteristic polynomial of $y_{2}$ is $f_{y_{2}}(t)=(1-t)^{3}$. Now, proceeding by induction and taking determinants along row 1 and then row $m+1$ in $y_{m}-I_{2 m-1} t$ we see

$$
f_{y_{m}}(t)=(1-t)^{2} \operatorname{det}\left(y_{m-1}-I_{2 m-3} t\right)=(1-t)^{2 m+1},
$$

where $I_{k}$ is the $k$ by $k$ identity matrix. Therefore all of the eigenvalues of $y_{m}$ are 1 and hence $y_{m}$ is unipotent.

Next we observe that the only 1 -space of $V$ fixed by $y_{m}$ is $\langle(1,0, \ldots, 0)\rangle$. So $y_{m}$ is a unipotent element which fixes a single 1 -space and therefore $y_{m}$ is regular unipotent.

Corollary 4.5.2 There is exactly one $C_{G}(x)$-invariant subspace of dimension $d$ for $d \in$ $\{1, \ldots, n\}$.

Proof. First note that if $d$ is even, $d=2 k$ for some $k \in\{1, \ldots, m-1\}$ and $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)=d$. If $d$ is odd, $d=2 k-1$ for some $k \in\{1, \ldots, m-1\}$ and $\operatorname{dim}[V, x ; m-k]=d$. Therefore, since the spaces $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)$ and $[V, x ; k]$ are $C_{G}(x)$-invariant for $k \in\{1, \ldots, m\}$ by Lemmas 4.1.10 and 4.1.13, there is at least one $C_{G}(x)$-invariant subspace of $V$ of each dimension. By Lemma 4.5.1 there is a regular unipotent element $z \in C_{G}(x)$ and, by Lemma 4.1.19, $z$ leaves invariant exactly one subspace of each dimension. The result follows.

First we consider the case $m=2$. Choose a basis of $V$ such that $x$ is given in Jordan normal form, and let

$$
y=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \text { and } z=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Then $y, z \in C_{G}(x)$ by Lemma 4.1.21, and $y, z \in c l_{G}(x)$. Then only proper non-trivial subspace of $V$ are $[V, x]$ and $\operatorname{Soc}(x)$ by Corollary 4.5.2. We have $[V, x]=\langle(1,0,0)\rangle$ and $\operatorname{Soc}(x)=\langle(1,0,0),(0,0,1)\rangle$. Now note $[V, y]=\langle(0,0,1)\rangle \neq[V, x]$ and $\operatorname{Soc}(z)=$ $\langle(1,0,0),(0,1,0)\rangle \neq \operatorname{Soc}(x)$. Let $H=\left\langle C_{G}(y) \mid y \in \Gamma_{x}\right\rangle$. We have $x, y, z \in H$ and so $H$ acts irreducibly on $V$.

We now assume $m>2$. Let $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap c l_{G}(x)$. Then the action of $y$ on $V$ is
completely given by its action on $v_{m, 1}$ and $v_{m-1,2}$ by Lemma 4.1.16, so let

$$
\left[v_{m, 1}, y\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} \lambda_{i} v_{m-i, 1}+\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} \mu_{i} v_{m-i, 2},
$$

and

$$
\left[v_{m-1,2}, y\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} \tau_{i} v_{m-i, 1}+\sum_{i=1}^{m-2} \sigma_{i} v_{m-1-i, 2}
$$

Now we note that $[V, y]$ is a $C_{G}(x)$-invariant subspace by Lemma 4.1.10, and $V /[V, y]$ is a 2 -space. Therefore as $x$ is unipotent, $[V, x ; 2] \subseteq[V, y]$. Since $V /[V, x ; 2]$ is a 4 -space, we can look at the 2-space $[V, y] /[V, x ; 2]$. We have

$$
\left[v_{m, 1}, y\right]+[V, x ; 2],\left[v_{m-1,1}, y\right]+[V, x ; 2],\left[v_{m-1,2}, y\right]+[V, x ; 2] \in[V, y] /[V, x ; 2],
$$

and therefore these vectors must be linearly dependent. That is,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\lambda_{1} v_{m-1,1}+\mu_{1} v_{m-1,2}+\mu_{2} v_{m-2,2}+[V, x ; 2], \\
\mu_{1} v_{m-2,2}+[V, x ; 2]
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
\tau_{1} v_{m-1,1}+\sigma_{1} v_{m-2,2}+[V, x ; 2]
$$

are linearly dependent and so we see that either

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau_{1}=0 \text { or } \mu_{1}=0 . \tag{4.5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We first consider the case $\tau_{1}=0$.
Lemma 4.5.4 If $\tau_{1}=0$, then we have $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)=\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(y)$ for all $k \in\{1, \ldots, m\}$.

Proof. Suppose $u \in \operatorname{Soc}(x)$. Then $u=\alpha v_{1,1}+\beta v_{1,2}$, for some $\alpha, \beta \in G F(q)$. Then

$$
[u, y]=\alpha\left[v_{1,1}, y\right]+\beta\left[v_{1,2}, y\right]=\beta \tau_{1} v_{1,1}=0,
$$

so $u \in \operatorname{Soc}(y)$. The lemma now follows from Lemma 4.1.14.

Next we consider the case $\tau_{1} \neq 0$. Then $\mu_{1}=0$.

Lemma 4.5.5 If $\tau_{1} \neq 0$ and $\mu_{1}=0$, then for all $k \in\{1, \ldots, m\}$, we have $[V, x ; k]=$ $[V, y ; k]$.

Proof. Note

$$
\left[v_{m, 1}, y\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} \lambda_{i} v_{m-i, 1}+\sum_{i=2}^{m-1} \mu_{i} v_{m-i, 2} \in[V, x],
$$

and

$$
\left[v_{m-1,2}, y\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} \tau_{i} v_{m-i, 1}+\sum_{i=1}^{m-2} \sigma_{i} v_{m-1-i, 2} \in[V, x] .
$$

Therefore $[V, y] \subseteq[V, x]$, and hence $[V, y]=[V, x]$. The result now follows from Lemma 4.1.11.

Continuing the assumption $\tau_{1} \neq 0, \mu_{1}=0$, for $0 \leqslant k \leqslant m-2$ we restrict the map defined by the commutator of $y$ to

$$
\psi_{k}:[V, x ; k] /[V, x ; k+1] \rightarrow[V, x ; k+1] /[V, x ; k+2] .
$$

So

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(v_{m-k, 1}+[V, x ; k+1]\right) \psi_{k} & =\lambda_{1} v_{m-k-1,1}+\mu_{2} v_{m-k-2,2}+[V, x ; k+2], \\
\left(v_{m-k-1,2}+[V, x ; k+1]\right) \psi_{k} & =\tau_{1} v_{m-k-1,1}+\sigma_{1} v_{m-k-2,2}+[V, x ; k+2] .
\end{aligned}
$$

For each $k$, the map $\psi_{k}$ is given by the matrix

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\lambda_{1} & \mu_{2} \\
\tau_{1} & \sigma_{1}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Lemma 4.5.6 The matrix $A$ is in $G L(2, q)$.

Proof. First note $\left[v_{1,1}, y\right]=0$ and

$$
\left[\tau_{1} v_{2,1}-\lambda_{1} v_{1,2}, y\right]=\tau_{1}\left[v_{2,1}, y\right]-\lambda_{1}\left[v_{1,2}, y\right]=\tau_{1} \lambda_{1} v_{1,1}-\lambda_{1} \tau_{1} v_{1,1}=0
$$

Therefore $\left\langle v_{1,1}, \tau_{1} v_{2,1}-\lambda_{1} v_{1,2}\right\rangle \subseteq \operatorname{Soc}(y)$ and, as $\tau_{1} \neq 0$, we have $\operatorname{dim}\left\langle v_{1,1}, \tau_{1} v_{2,1}-\lambda_{1} v_{1,2}\right\rangle=$ 2. Now suppose $A$ is not invertible, so we have $\lambda_{1} \sigma_{1}-\tau_{1} \mu_{2}=0$. Let

$$
u=\tau_{1} v_{3,1}-\lambda_{1} v_{2,2}+\tau_{2} v_{2,1}-\lambda_{2} v_{1,2} .
$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[u, y] } & =\tau_{1}\left[v_{3,1}, y\right]-\lambda_{1}\left[v_{2,2}, y\right]+\tau_{2}\left[v_{2,1}, y\right]-\lambda_{2}\left[v_{1,2}, y\right] \\
& =\tau_{1}\left(\lambda_{1} v_{2,1}+\lambda_{2} v_{1,1}+\mu_{2} v_{1,2}\right)-\lambda_{1}\left(\tau_{1} v_{2,1}+\tau_{2} v_{1,1}+\sigma_{1} v_{1,2}\right)+\tau_{2} \lambda_{1} v_{1,1}-\lambda_{2} \tau_{1} v_{1,1} \\
& =\left(\tau_{1} \mu_{2}-\lambda_{1} \sigma_{1}\right) v_{1,2} \\
& =0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $u \in \operatorname{Soc}(y)$. As $\tau_{1} \neq 0, u \notin\left\langle v_{1,1}, \tau_{1} v_{2,1}-\lambda_{1} v_{1,2}\right\rangle$ and hence $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Soc}(y)>2$, a contradiction.

Let $\varepsilon$ be the exponent of $P G L(2, q)$, and write

$$
A^{k}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{k} & b_{k} \\
c_{k} & d_{k}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Lemma 4.5.7 Fix $k \in\{1, \ldots, m\}$ and suppose $\varepsilon$ divides $k$. Then $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(y)=\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)$.

Proof. First note $[V, x ; m-k]=[V, y ; m-k]$, by Lemma 4.5.5, and so $[V, x ; m-k] \subseteq$ $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(y)$. Now $\mathcal{B}_{x} \cap \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x) \backslash[V, x ; m-k]=\left\{v_{k, 2}\right\}$, and $\left[v_{k, 2}, y ; k\right]=c_{k} v_{1,1}$. By Lemma 4.5.6, $A \in G L(2, q)$, and so as $\varepsilon$ divides $k, A^{k}$ is scalar and hence $c_{k}=0$. Therefore $v_{k, 2} \in \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(y)$ and hence $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x) \subseteq \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(y)$. So we have $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(y)=\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)$ as required.

Theorem 4.5.8 Suppose $m>\varepsilon$. Then $\operatorname{Soc}^{\varepsilon}(x)=\operatorname{Soc}^{\varepsilon}(y)$, for all $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap c l_{G}(x)$.

Proof. By 4.5.3, either $\tau_{1}=0$ or $\tau_{1} \neq 0$ and $\mu_{1}=0$. If $\tau_{1}=0$, then Lemma 4.5.4 gives the result, and if $\tau_{1} \neq 0$ and $\mu_{1}=0$, Lemma 4.5.7 does.

We now consider what happens when $m \leqslant \varepsilon$.

Lemma 4.5.9 Fix $k \in\{1, \ldots, m-1\}$ and assume $\varepsilon$ does not divide $k$. Then there exists $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap \operatorname{cl}_{G}(x)$ such that $[V, x ; k] \neq[V, y ; k]$.

Proof. By Lemma 4.1.2, we can find $A \in G L(2, q)$ with non-zero entries in the top right of both $A$ and $A^{k}$. Write

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right) \text { and } A^{i}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{i} & b_{i} \\
c_{i} & d_{i}
\end{array}\right)
$$

so $b, b_{k} \neq 0$. We define an element $y \in C_{G}(x)$ by $\left[v_{m, 1}, y\right]=a v_{m-1,1}+b v_{m-1,2}$ and $\left[v_{m-1,2}, y\right]=c v_{m-2,1}+d v_{m-2,2}$. First note $\left[v_{m, 1}, y ; i\right]=a_{i} v_{m-i, 1}+b_{i} v_{m-i, 2}$ and $\left[v_{m-1,2}, y ; i\right]=$ $c_{i} v_{m-i-1,1}+d_{i} v_{m-i-1,2}$. So $\left[v_{m, 1}, y ; m\right]=\left[v_{m-1,2}, y ; m\right]=0$ and hence the largest Jordan
block of $y$ has size at most $m$. Now observe $\left\{v_{1,1}, v_{1,2}\right\} \in \operatorname{Soc}(y)$ so $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Soc}(y) \geqslant 2$. Suppose $u \in \operatorname{Soc}(y)$, where $u=\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} v_{i, 1}+\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} \beta_{i} v_{i, 2}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =[u, y] \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i}\left[v_{i, 1}, y\right]+\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} \beta_{i}\left[v_{i, 2}, y\right] \\
& =\sum_{i=2}^{m} \alpha_{i}\left(a v_{i-1,1}+b v_{i-1,2}\right)+\sum_{i=2}^{m-1} \beta_{i}\left(c v_{i-1,1}+d v_{i-1,2}\right) \\
& =\alpha_{m}\left(a v_{m-1,1}+b v_{m-1,2}\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}\left(\left(\alpha_{i} a+\beta_{i} c\right) v_{i-1,1}+\left(\alpha_{i} b+\beta_{i} d\right) v_{i-1,2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $\alpha_{m} b=0$ and for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant m-1, \alpha_{i} a+\beta_{i} c=\alpha_{i} b+\beta_{i} d=0$. So as $b \neq 0, \alpha_{m}=0$ and

$$
0=\alpha_{i} a+\beta_{i} c=\alpha_{i} a b+\beta_{i} b c=-\beta_{i} a d+\beta_{i} b c=\beta_{i}(-a d+b c) .
$$

Then $A$ invertible implies $\beta_{i}=0$ and hence $\alpha_{i}=0$, for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant m-1$. Therefore $u=\alpha_{1} v_{1,1}+\beta_{1} v_{1,2} \in\left\langle v_{1,1}, v_{1,2}\right\rangle$ so $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Soc}(y)=2$. Thus $y$ has two Jordan blocks so we see $y$ has type $(m, m-1)$ and hence is conjugate to $x$.

Now, $\left[v_{m, 1}, y ; k\right]=a_{k} v_{m-k, 1}+b_{k} v_{m-k, 2} \in[V, y ; k]$, but since $b_{k} \neq 0,\left[v_{m, 1}, y ; k\right] \notin$ $[V, x ; k]$. Therefore $[V, x ; k] \neq[V, y ; k]$ as required.

Lemma 4.5.10 Fix $k \in\{1, \ldots, m-1\}$ such that $\varepsilon$ does not divide $k$. Then there exists $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap c_{G}(x)$ such that $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x) \neq \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(y)$.

Proof. By Lemma 4.1.2, there exists $M \in G L(2, q)$ with non-zero entries in the top right of both itself and its $k$ th power. Let

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)
$$

be the transpose of $M$ and write

$$
A^{i}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{i} & b_{i} \\
c_{i} & d_{i}
\end{array}\right)
$$

for $i \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$. We use $A$ to define an element $y \in C_{G}(x)$. Let $\left[v_{m, 1}, y\right]=a v_{m-1,1}+b v_{m-2,2}$ and $\left[v_{m-1,2}, y\right]=c v_{m-1,1}+d v_{m-2,2}$. Now, $\left[v_{m, 1}, y ; i\right]=a_{i} v_{m-i, 1}+b_{i} v_{m-1-i, 2}$ and $\left[v_{m-1,2}, y ; i\right]=$ $c_{i} v_{m-i, 1}+d_{i} v_{m-1-i, 2}$, so $\left[v_{m, 1}, y ; m\right]=\left[v_{m-1,2}, y ; m\right]=0$. Therefore the largest Jordan block of $y$ has size at most $m$.

Note $\left\langle v_{1,1}, c v_{2,1}-a v_{1,2}\right\rangle \subseteq \operatorname{Soc}(y)$, so since $c \neq 0, \operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Soc}(y) \geqslant 2$. Now suppose $u \in \operatorname{Soc}(y)$, where $u=\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} v_{i, 1}+\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} \beta_{i} v_{i, 2}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =[u, y] \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i}\left[v_{i, 1}, y\right]+\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} \beta_{i}\left[v_{i, 2}, y\right] \\
& =\alpha_{2} a v_{1,1}+\beta_{1} c v_{1,1}+\sum_{i=3}^{m} \alpha_{i}\left(a v_{i-1,1}+b v_{i-2,2}\right)+\sum_{i=2}^{m-1} \beta_{i}\left(c v_{i, 1}+d v_{i-1,2}\right) \\
& =\left(\alpha_{2} a+\beta_{1} c\right) v_{1,1}+\sum_{i=3}^{m} \alpha_{i}\left(a v_{i-1,1}+b v_{i-2,2}\right)+\sum_{i=3}^{m} \beta_{i-1}\left(c v_{i-1,1}+d v_{i-2,2}\right) \\
& =\left(\alpha_{2} a+\beta_{1} c\right) v_{1,1}+\sum_{i=3}^{m}\left(\left(\alpha_{i} a+\beta_{i-1} c\right) v_{i-1,1}+\left(\alpha_{i} b+\beta_{i-1} d\right) v_{i-2,2}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

so $\alpha_{2} a+\beta_{1} c=0$ and for $3 \leqslant i \leqslant m, \alpha_{i} a+\beta_{i-1} c=\alpha_{i} b+\beta_{i-1} d=0$. Now $c \neq 0$, so for $3 \leqslant i \leqslant m$,

$$
0=\alpha_{i} b+\beta_{i-1} d=\alpha_{i} b c+\beta_{i-1} c d=\alpha_{i} b c-\alpha_{i} a d=\alpha_{i}(b c-a d) .
$$

We have $A$ invertible, so $\alpha_{i}=0$ and hence $\beta_{i-1}=0$. Then

$$
u=\alpha_{1} v_{1,1}+\alpha_{2} v_{2,1}+\beta_{1} v_{1,2}=\alpha_{1} v_{1,1}+\alpha_{2} c^{-1}\left(c v_{2,1}-a v_{1,2}\right),
$$

as $\alpha_{2} a+\beta_{1} c=0$. So $u \in\left\langle v_{1,1}, c v_{2,1}-a v_{1,2}\right\rangle$ and hence $\operatorname{Soc}(y)=\left\langle v_{1,1}, c v_{2,1}-a v_{1,2}\right\rangle$. Therefore $y$ has two Jordan blocks, so is of type ( $m, m-1$ ) and hence is conjugate to $x$. Further, $\left[v_{k, 2}, y ; k\right]=c_{k} v_{1,1}$ and $c_{k} \neq 0$, so $v_{k, 2} \notin \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(y)$. But $v_{k, 2} \in \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)$, and so $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x) \neq \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(y)$ as required.

Theorem 4.5.11 Suppose $m \leqslant \varepsilon$ and set $H=\left\langle C_{G}(y) \mid y \in \Gamma_{x}\right\rangle$. Then $H$ is an irreducible subgroup of $G$.

Proof. For any $k \in\{1, \ldots, m-1\}$ we can find $y_{k} \in C_{G}(x) \cap c l_{G}(x)$ such that $[V, x ; k] \neq$ $\left[V, y_{k} ; k\right]$ by Lemma 4.5.9 and $z_{k} \in C_{G}(x) \cap \operatorname{cl}_{G}(x)$ such that $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x) \neq \operatorname{Soc}^{k}\left(z_{k}\right)$ by Lemma 4.5.10. Now $C_{G}\left(y_{k}\right), C_{G}\left(z_{k}\right) \subseteq H$, for each $k \in\{1, \ldots, m-1\}$, and so $H$ does not stabilize [ $V, x ; k]$ or $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)$ for any $1 \leqslant k \leqslant m-1$. These are all of the $C_{G}(x)$-invariant subspaces of $V$ by Corollary 4.5.2, and hence $H$ is irreducible.

We now have the main result of this section.
Theorem 4.5.12 Let $x \in G L(n, q)$ be unipotent of type $(m, m-1)$ and let $\varepsilon$ be the exponent of $P G L(2, q)$. The class graph of $x$ is connected if and only if $m \leqslant \varepsilon$.

Proof. By Theorem 4.5.8, if there exists $k \in\{1, \ldots, m-1\}$ such that $\varepsilon$ divides $k$, we have $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)=\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(y)$ for all $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap \operatorname{cl}_{G}(x)$. Therefore for any $y \in \Gamma_{x}, \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)=\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(y)$, as $x$ is arbitrary. Then, since there exists $z \in \operatorname{cl}_{G}(x)$ with $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x) \neq \operatorname{Soc}^{k}(z)$, the class graph is disconnected.

Now suppose $\varepsilon$ does not divide $k$ for any $k \in\{1, \ldots, m-1\}$. Then $H=\left\langle C_{G}(y) \mid y \in \Gamma_{x}\right\rangle$ is irreducible by Theorem 4.5.11. So by Theorem 4.4.6, $S L(n, q) \subseteq H$. Let $g \in \operatorname{cl}_{G}(x)$ be in Jordan normal form, so there exists $h \in G L(n, q)$ such that $x=h^{-1} g h$. For any $a \in G F(q)^{*}, r=\operatorname{diag}\left(a, \ldots, a, a^{-1}, \ldots, a^{-1}\right) \in C_{G}(g)$ by Lemma 4.1.21, and so $h^{-1} r h \in C_{G}(x)$. Note $\operatorname{det} h^{-1} r h=\operatorname{det} r=a$, so for any element $a \in G F(q)^{*}, H$ contains an element with determinant $a$. Therefore $H=G L(n, q)$, thus $G L(n, q)$ stabilizes $\Gamma_{x}$ and so the class graph is connected.

### 4.6 Classes of Type $(m, m)$

Throughout this section let $x \in G L(2 m, q)$ be unipotent of type $(m, m)$. We proceed just as in the last section.

Lemma 4.6.1 There exists a regular unipotent element in $C_{G}(x)$.
Proof. Let

$$
y_{m}=\left(\begin{array}{c|ccc|c} 
& \begin{array}{lll}
0 & \ldots & 0
\end{array} & 0 \\
\hline & & & \\
J(m) & & & 0 \\
& & I_{m-1} & \vdots \\
& & & 0 \\
\hline & & & \\
I_{m} & & & & \\
\hline
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $J(m)$ is a Jordan block of size $m$ and $I_{m}$ is the $m \times m$ identity. We have $y_{m} \in C_{G}(x)$ by Lemma 4.1.21 and now show $y_{m}$ is unipotent by induction on $m$.

First note

$$
y_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right),
$$

and so the characteristic polynomial of $y_{2}$ is

$$
f_{y_{2}}(t)=\operatorname{det}\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
1-t & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1-t & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1-t & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1-t
\end{array}\right)=(1-t)^{4} .
$$

Now consider $f_{y_{m}}$, the characteristic polynomial of $y_{m}$. Taking determinants along row 1 and then row $m+1$ in $y_{m}-I_{2 m} t$ we have

$$
f_{y_{m}}(t)=(1-t)^{2} \operatorname{det}\left(y_{m-1}-I_{2 m-2} t\right)=(1-t)^{2 m+2}
$$

by induction. Therefore $y_{m}$ is unipotent. Next we note the only 1 -space of $V$ fixed by $y_{m}$ is $\langle(1,0, \ldots, 0)\rangle$. Therefore $y_{m}$ is regular unipotent as claimed.

Lemma 4.6.2 The only $C_{G}(x)$-invariant spaces of $V$ are $\operatorname{Soc}^{k}(x)=[V, x ; m-k]$ for $1 \leqslant k \leqslant m-1$.

Proof. Let

$$
K=\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
a & & & b & & \\
0 & \ddots & & 0 & \ddots & \\
0 & 0 & a & 0 & 0 & b \\
c & & & d & & \\
0 & \ddots & 0 & \ddots & \\
0 & 0 & c & 0 & 0 & d
\end{array}\right) \right\rvert\, a, b, c, d \in G F(q), a d-b c \neq 0\right\}
$$

By Lemma 4.1.21 $K \leqslant C_{G}(x)$ and it is easy to see $K$ acts on $[V, x ; i-1] /[V, x ; i]$ as $G L(2, q)$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant m$. Therefore $[V, x ; i-1] /[V, x ; i]$ has no non-trivial $C_{G}(x)$-invariant subspaces for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant m$.

Suppose the lemma is false. Let $U$ be a minimal dimensional $C_{G}(x)$-invariant subspace of $V$ such that $U$ is not a commutator of $x$. Consider $[U, x]$. This is a $C_{G}(x)$-invariant subspace of $V$, as $U$ is, and we have $\operatorname{dim}[U, x]<\operatorname{dim} U$ as $x$ is unipotent. So by minimality of $U,[U, x]=[V, x ; j]$ for some $j$. Now $[U, x]=[V, x ; j]$ implies $U \subseteq[V, x ; j-1]$ and since $U$ is not a commutator, this containment is proper. Therefore $[V, x ; j] \subset U \subset$
$[V, x ; j-1]$ and hence $U /[V, x ; j]$ is a non-trivial $C_{G}(x)$-invariant subspace of the 2-space $[V, x ; j-1] /[V, x ; j]$, a contradiction.

If $m=1, x$ is the identity so the class graph is trivially connected. Suppose $m=2$ so $x$ is unipotent of type $(2,2)$. Let

$$
\mathcal{B}_{x}=\left\{v_{2,1}, v_{1,1}, v_{2,2}, v_{1,2} \mid\left[v_{2,1}, x\right]=v_{1,1},\left[v_{2,2}, x\right]=v_{1,2}\right\}
$$

be a cyclic basis for $x$, so with respect to $\mathcal{B}_{x}, x$ is written in Jordan normal form. Let

$$
y=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right),
$$

and note $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap c l_{G}(x)$. We have $\operatorname{Soc}(x)=\left\langle v_{1,1}, v_{1,2}\right\rangle$ and $\operatorname{Soc}(y)=\left\langle v_{1,1}, v_{2,1}\right\rangle$ so $\operatorname{Soc}(x) \neq \operatorname{Soc}(y)$. Therefore $H=\left\langle C_{G}(z) \mid z \in \Gamma_{x}\right\rangle \geqslant\left\langle C_{G}(x), C_{G}(y)\right\rangle$ acts irreducibly on $V$ by Lemma 4.6.2 and hence by Theorem 4.4.6, $S L(4, q) \subseteq H \subseteq \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$.

Now let $r_{a}=\operatorname{diag}(a, 1,1,1)$ for $a \in G F(q)^{*}$, and note

$$
r_{a}^{-1} x r_{a}=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
a & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right) \in C_{G}(x) \cap c l_{G}(x)
$$

and $\operatorname{det} r=a$. So for any $a \in G F(q)^{*}, r_{a}$ stabilizes $\Gamma_{x}$ and so there are elements in $\operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$ with determinant $a$. Therefore $G L(4, q)$ stabilizes $\Gamma_{x}$ and the class graph is connected.

From now on assume $m \geqslant 3$. Let $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap \operatorname{cl}_{G}(x)$. We know $[V, x]$ is $y$-invariant by Lemma 4.1.10 and so we can consider the action of $y$ on $V /[V, x]$. First suppose $y$ acts as the identity on $V /[V, x]$. Then for any $v \in V$ we have $v+[V, x]=(v+[V, x]) y=v y+[V, x]$ giving $[v, y] \in[V, x]$. Therefore $[V, y] \subseteq[V, x]$ and hence, as $\operatorname{dim}[V, y]=\operatorname{dim}[V, x]$, we have $[V, y]=[V, x]$. It follows from Lemma 4.1.11 that $[V, x ; k]=[V, y ; k]$ for any $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.

Now suppose $y$ does not act as the identity on $V /[V, x]$. Then, since $\operatorname{dim} V /[V, x]=2$, we can choose linearly independent vectors $v_{m, 1}, v_{m, 2}$ in $V \backslash[V, x]$ such that $y$ acts on $V /[V, x]$ as

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

with respect to the basis $\left\{v_{m, 1}+[V, x], v_{m, 2}+[V, x]\right\}$. By Lemma 4.1.17, $\left\{v_{m, 1}, v_{m, 2}\right\}$ generates a cyclic basis $\mathcal{B}_{x}$ of $V$ with respect to $x$. As usual we think of this basis as an array

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
v_{m, 1} & v_{m, 2} \\
v_{m-1,1} & v_{m-1,2} \\
\vdots & \vdots \\
v_{1,1} & v_{1,2},
\end{array}
$$

where commutating any basis element with $x$ moves it down one row.
Note $\operatorname{dim} V /[V, y]=2$ and, since $x$ and $y$ commute, $[V, y]$ is $x$-invariant. Therefore $[V, x ; 2] \subseteq[V, y]$ as $x$ is unipotent. From the dimensions of the spaces we see $\operatorname{dim}[V, y] /[V, x ; 2]=2$, and so

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {\left[v_{m, 1}, y\right]+[V, x ; 2],} \\
& {\left[v_{m, 2}, y\right]+[V, x ; 2]}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\left[v_{m-1,1}, y\right]+[V, x ; 2]
$$

are linearly dependent. Now

$$
\begin{gathered}
{\left[v_{m, 1}, y\right]+[V, x ; 2]=v_{m, 2}+a v_{m-1,1}+b v_{m-1,2}+[V, x ; 2],} \\
{\left[v_{m, 2}, y\right]+[V, x ; 2]=e v_{m-1,1}+d v_{m-1,2}+[V, x ; 2]}
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
\left[v_{m-1,1}, y\right]+[V, x ; 2]=v_{m-1,2}+[V, x ; 2],
$$

for some $a, b, d, e \in \mathbb{Z}$. It follows that $e=0$.
Let $V_{m}=V, V_{0}=\left\langle v_{1,2}\right\rangle$ and for $1 \leqslant k \leqslant m-1$ let $V_{k}=\left\langle v_{i, 1}, v_{i+1,2}, v_{1,2} \mid 1 \leqslant i \leqslant k\right\rangle$. Then $\left[v_{m, 1}, y\right] \in a v_{m-1,1}+v_{m, 2}+V_{m-2}$ and $\left[v_{m, 2}, y\right] \in c v_{m-2,1}+d v_{m-1,2}+V_{m-3}$, with $a, c, d \in G F(q)$, and we see $\left[V_{k}, y\right] \subseteq V_{k-1}$ for all $k \in\{1, \ldots, m\}$.

For $1<k<m$ we restrict the map defined by the commutator of $y$ to

$$
\phi_{k}: V_{k} / V_{k-1} \rightarrow V_{k-1} / V_{k-2},
$$

where

$$
\left(v_{k, 1}+V_{k-1}\right) \phi_{k}=a v_{k-1,1}+v_{k, 2}+V_{k-2}
$$

and

$$
\left(v_{k+1,2}+V_{k-1}\right) \phi_{k}=c v_{k-1,1}+d v_{k, 2}+V_{k-2} .
$$

Then for each $k$ the map $\phi_{k}$ is given by the matrix

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & 1 \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)
$$

Write

$$
A^{k}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{k} & b_{k} \\
c_{k} & d_{k}
\end{array}\right)
$$

for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, where $a_{k}, b_{k} \cdot c_{k}, d_{k} \in G F(q)$, and note $\left[v_{m, 1}, y ; k\right] \in a_{k} v_{m-k, 1}+b_{k} v_{m-k+1,2}+$ $V_{m-k-1}$ and $\left[v_{m, 2}, y ; k\right] \in c_{k} v_{m-k-1,1}+d_{k} v_{m-k+1,2}+V_{m-k-2}$.

Lemma 4.6.3 The matrix $A$ is invertible and $b_{m}=0$.

Proof. First note $\left\langle v_{2,2}-d v_{1,1}, v_{1,2}\right\rangle \subseteq \operatorname{Soc}(y)$. Suppose $A$ is not invertible, so $a d-c=0$. As $v_{2,1}, v_{3,2} \in V_{2}$, we have $\left[v_{2,1}, y\right]=a v_{1,1}+v_{2,2}+e v_{1,2}$ and $\left[v_{3,2}, y\right]=c v_{1,1}+d v_{2,2}+f v_{1,2}$, for some $e, f \in G F(q)$. Let $u=v_{3,2}-d v_{2,1}+e v_{2,2}-f v_{1,1}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[u, y] } & =\left[v_{3,2}, y\right]-d\left[v_{2,1}, y\right]+e\left[v_{2,2}, y\right]-f\left[v_{1,1}, y\right] \\
& =c v_{1,1}+d v_{2,2}+f v_{1,2}-d\left(a v_{1,1}+v_{2,2}+e v_{1,2}\right)+d e v_{1,2}-f v_{1,2} \\
& =(c-a d) v_{1,1} \\
& =0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

So $u \in \operatorname{Soc}(y)$, and hence $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Soc}(y) \geqslant 3$, a contradiction. Therefore $A$ is invertible. Clearly $\left[v_{i, 1}, y ; m\right]=0$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant m-1$, and $\left[v_{i, 2}, y ; m\right]=0$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant m$, however $\left[v_{m, 1}, y ; m\right]=b_{m} v_{1,2}$. Therefore $b_{m}=0$.

Let $\varepsilon$ be the exponent of $P G L(2, q)$ and $\Gamma_{x}$ be the connected component of the commuting graph containing $x$.

Lemma 4.6.4 Let $(m, \varepsilon)=k$. Then $[V, x ; k]=[V, y ; k]$ for all $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap \operatorname{cl}_{G}(x)$.

Proof. Let $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap c l_{G}(x)$. We have already shown if $y$ acts as the identity on $V /[V, x]$ then $[V, x ; i]=[V, y ; i]$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}>0$. Now suppose $y$ acts as a regular unipotent element on $V /[V, x]$ and let $A$ be the matrix described above. We have $A$ invertible and $b_{m}=0$, by Lemma 4.6.3. Let $\alpha$ be the projective order of $A, l=(m, \alpha)$ and apply Lemma 4.1.3 to see $b_{l}=0$. Since $l$ divides $k, A^{k}$ is a power of a lower triangular matrix and so $b_{k}=0$.

We have $\left[v_{i, 1}, y ; k\right] \in[V, x ; k]$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant m-1$, and $\left[v_{i, 2}, y ; k\right] \in[V, x ; k]$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant m$, and $\left[v_{m, 1}, y ; k\right] \in b_{k} v_{m-k+1,2}+[V, x ; k]=[V, x ; k]$ as $b_{k}=0$. So $[V, y ; k] \subseteq[V, x ; k]$ and hence $[V, x ; k]=[V, y ; k]$.

Theorem 4.6.5 Let $x \in G L(2 m, q)$ have type $(m, m)$ and suppose $(m, \varepsilon)<m$. Then the commuting graph of $x$ is disconnected.

Proof. Suppose $y \in \Gamma_{x}$. Then there is a sequence $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{r}$ of conjugates of $x$ such that $y_{1} \in C_{G}(x), y_{i} \in C_{G}\left(y_{i-1}\right)$ for $1<i \leqslant r$ and $y \in C_{G}\left(y_{r}\right)$. We now apply Lemma 4.6.4 to each of the pairs $\left(x, y_{1}\right),\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right), \ldots,\left(y_{r}, y\right)$, to see

$$
[V, x ; k]=\left[V, y_{1} ; k\right]=\ldots=\left[V, y_{r} ; k\right]=[V, y ; k] .
$$

Therefore $[V, x ; k]=[V, y ; k]$ for all $y \in \Gamma_{x}$. Since there are conjugates of $x$ with different $k$-th commutators, the graph is disconnected.

We now consider what happens when $(m, \varepsilon)=m$. Suppose $A \in G L(2, q)$ with top right entry non-zero, and $A^{m} \in Z(G L(2, q)$. Write

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)
$$

and for $1<i \leqslant m$,

$$
A^{i}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{i} & b_{i} \\
c_{i} & d_{i}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Note $b \neq 0, b_{m}=c_{m}=0$ and $a_{m}=d_{m}$. We use $A$ to define $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap c l_{G}(x)$.
By Lemma 4.1.16, we only need to specify the action of $y$ on $\left\{v_{m, 1}, v_{m, 2}\right\}$, a cyclic basis generating set for $\mathcal{B}_{x}$. So let $\left[v_{m, 1}, y\right]=a v_{m-1,1}+b v_{m, 2}$ and $\left[v_{m, 2}, y\right]=c v_{m-2,1}+d v_{m-1,2}$. We have $y \in C_{G}(x)$ by construction, but we need to check it is conjugate to $x$.

First note $\left[v_{m, 1}, y ; i\right]=a_{i} v_{m-i, 1}+b_{i} v_{m-i+1,2}$ and $\left[v_{m, 2}, y ; i\right]=c_{i} v_{m-i-1,1}+d_{i} v_{m-i, 2}$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant m$ so $\left[v_{m, 1}, y ; m\right]=b_{m} v_{1,2}=0$ as $b_{m}=0$, and $\left[v_{m, 2}, y ; m\right]=0$. Therefore the largest Jordan block of $y$ has size at most $m$. We have $\left\langle v_{1,2}, b v_{2,2}-d v_{1,1}\right\rangle \subseteq \operatorname{Soc}(y)$, so $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Soc}(y) \geqslant 2$. Now suppose $u \in \operatorname{Soc}(y)$, where $u=\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(\alpha_{i} v_{i, 1}+\beta_{i} v_{i, 2}\right)$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =[u, y] \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(\alpha_{i}\left[v_{i, 1}, y\right]+\beta_{i}\left[v_{i, 2}, y\right]\right) \\
& =\alpha_{1} b v_{1,2}+\beta_{2} d v_{1,2}+\sum_{i=2}^{m} \alpha_{i}\left(a v_{i-1,1}+b v_{i, 2}\right)+\sum_{i=2}^{m-1} \beta_{i+1}\left(c v_{i-1,1}+d v_{i, 2}\right) \\
& =\left(\alpha_{1} b+\beta_{2} d\right) v_{1,2}+\alpha_{m}\left(a v_{m-1,1}+b v_{m, 2}\right)+\sum_{i=2}^{m-1}\left(\left(\alpha_{i} a+\beta_{i+1} c\right) v_{i-1,1}+\left(\alpha_{i} b+\beta_{i+1} d\right) v_{i, 2}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

so $\alpha_{1} b+\beta_{2} d=0, \alpha_{m} a=\alpha_{m} b=0$, and for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant m-1, \alpha_{i} a+\beta_{i+1} c=\alpha_{i} b+\beta_{i+1} d=0$. Then as $b \neq 0, \alpha_{m}=0$ and

$$
0=\alpha_{i} a+\beta_{i+1} c=\alpha_{i} a b+\beta_{i+1} b c=-\beta_{i+1} a d+\beta_{i+1} b c=\beta_{i+1}(-a d+b c) .
$$

So since $A$ is invertible, $\beta_{i+1}=0$ and hence $\alpha_{i}=0$. Then

$$
u=\alpha_{1} v_{1,1}+\beta_{1} v_{1,2}+\beta_{2} v_{2,2}=\beta_{1} v_{1,2}+\beta_{2} b^{-1}\left(b v_{2,2}-d v_{1,1}\right) \in\left\langle v_{1,2}, b v_{2,2}-d v_{1,1}\right\rangle
$$

Therefore $\operatorname{Soc}(y)=\left\langle v_{1,2}, b v_{2,2}-d v_{1,1}\right\rangle$ and so $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Soc}(y)=2$. Thus $y$ has two Jordan blocks so is of type ( $m, m$ ) and hence is conjugate to $x$.

Lemma 4.6.6 Fix $1 \leqslant k \leqslant m-1$. There exists an element $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap c l_{G}(x)$ such that $[V, y ; k] \neq[V, x ; k]$.

Proof. Since $m$ divides the exponent of $P G L(2, q)$, there exists $M \in G L(2, q)$ such that $M^{m} \in Z(G L(2, q))$ but $M^{k} \notin Z(G L(2, q))$. Then by Lemma 4.1.2, there is a conjugate $A$ of $M$ with non-zero entries in the top right corner of both itself and its $k$-th power. We use $A$ to define $y$ as above. We have shown $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap c l_{G}(x)$. Now $\left[v_{m, 1}, y ; k\right]=a_{k} v_{m-k, 1}+$ $b_{k} v_{m-k+1,2}$ with $b_{k} \neq 0$. Therefore $\left[v_{m, 1}, y ; k\right] \notin[V, x ; k]$ and hence $[V, y ; k] \nsubseteq[V, x ; k]$.

Theorem 4.6.7 Let $x \in G L(n, q)$ be unipotent of type $(m, m)$ and suppose $(m, \varepsilon)=m$. Let $H=\left\langle C_{G}(y) \mid y \in \Gamma_{x}\right\rangle$. Then $H$ is an irreducible subgroup of $G L(n, q)$. Furthermore, $S L(n, q) \subseteq H$.

Proof. For any $k \in\{1, \ldots, m-1\}$, we can find $y_{k} \in C_{G}(x) \cap \operatorname{cl}_{G}(x)$ such that $[V, x ; k] \neq$ $\left[V, y_{k} ; k\right]$ by Lemma 4.6.6. Each $y_{k} \in H$ and so $H$ cannot stabilize $[V, x ; k]$ for any $k \in\{1, \ldots, m-1\}$. Therefore, since these are all of the $C_{G}(x)$-invariant subspaces by Lemma 4.6.2, we have $H$ irreducible. We now apply Theorem 4.4.6 to see $S L(n, q) \subseteq H$. $\square$

Recall a class graph $\Gamma$ is S-connected if $S L(n, q) \subseteq \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$ for all $x \in V(\Gamma)$.

Theorem 4.6.8 Let $x \in G L(n, q)$ be unipotent of type $(m, m)$. The class graph of $x$ is $S$-connected if and only if $(m, \varepsilon)=m$. In particular, if $\Gamma$ is connected, then $m \leqslant \varepsilon$.

Proof. This follows directly from Theorems 4.6.5 and 4.6.7 and the definition of S-connected. $\square$

We now consider how many components there are in a graph which is S -connected and hence determine when the class graph is connected. Recall the number of components in $\Gamma$ is given by $\left|G: \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)\right|$ for any $x \in V(\Gamma)$. If $\Gamma$ is S-connected, $S L(n, q) \subseteq \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$ and so to work out $\left|G: \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)\right|$ we need to determine what values the determinants of elements in $\operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$ take.

Let $g \in \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$. Then $x^{g} \in \Gamma_{x}$ and so there exist $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{r} \in \Gamma_{x}$ with $y_{1}=x$, $y_{r}=x^{g}$, such that $y_{i+1} \in C_{G}\left(y_{i}\right)$ for $1 \leqslant i<r$. For each pair $\left(y_{i}, y_{i+1}\right), 1 \leqslant i<r$, we can work out a change of basis matrix $B_{i}$ from $\mathcal{B}_{y_{i}}$ to $\mathcal{B}_{y_{i+1}}$, where $\mathcal{B}_{z}$ is a cyclic basis for $z$. Then $x^{g}=x^{B_{1} \ldots B_{r_{1}}}$ and therefore, by Lemma 2.0.4, $g=k B_{1} \ldots B_{r-1}$ for some $k \in C_{G}(x)$. Then $\operatorname{det} g=\operatorname{det} k \operatorname{det} B_{1} \ldots \operatorname{det} B_{r-1}$.

Let $x \in G L(n, q)$ be unipotent of type $(m, m)$ and let $v_{m, 1}, v_{m, 2}$ generate a cyclic basis $\mathcal{B}_{x}$ for $x$. First suppose $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap \operatorname{cl}_{G}(x)$ acts as the identity on $V /[V, x]$. Then the action of $y$ is completely given by

$$
\left[v_{m, 1}, y\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}\left(\lambda_{i} v_{m-i, 1}+\mu_{i} v_{m-i, 2}\right),
$$

and

$$
\left[v_{m, 2}, y\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}\left(\tau_{i} v_{m-i, 1}+\sigma_{i} v_{m-i, 2}\right)
$$

where

$$
M=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\lambda_{1} & \mu_{1} \\
\tau_{1} & \sigma_{1}
\end{array}\right)
$$

is invertible.
The matrix of $y$ with respect to the basis $\mathcal{B}_{x}$ is

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
1 & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & 0 \\
\lambda_{1} & 1 & \ddots & & \vdots & \mu_{1} & \ddots & & & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & & \vdots \\
\vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & 0 & \vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\lambda_{m-1} & \ldots & \ldots & \lambda_{1} & 1 & \mu_{m-1} & \ldots & \ldots & \mu_{1} & 0 \\
0 & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & 0 & 1 & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 \\
\tau_{1} & \ddots & & & \vdots & \sigma_{1} & 1 & \ddots & & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
\tau_{m-1} & \ldots & \ldots & \tau_{1} & 0 & \sigma_{m-1} & \ldots & \ldots & \sigma_{1} & 1
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Now let $u_{m, 1}=v_{m, 1}, u_{m, 2}=v_{m, 2}$ and use these to generate a cyclic basis $\mathcal{B}_{y}$ for $y$. For convenience we let $\lambda_{1}=a, \mu_{1}=b, \tau_{1}=c$ and $\sigma_{1}=d$. So

$$
M=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)
$$

and write

$$
M^{i}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{i} & b_{i} \\
c_{i} & d_{i}
\end{array}\right)
$$

for $i \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.
The change of basis matrix from $\mathcal{B}_{x}$ to $\mathcal{B}_{y}$ is given by

$$
B=\left(\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
a_{m-1} & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 & b_{m-1} & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & 0 \\
* & \ddots & \ddots & & \vdots & * & \ddots & & & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & a_{2} & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & b_{2} & & \vdots \\
\vdots & & \ddots & a & 0 & \vdots & & \ddots & b & \vdots \\
* & \ldots & \ldots & * & 1 & * & \ldots & \ldots & * & 0 \\
c_{m-1} & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & 0 & d_{m-1} & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 \\
* & \ddots & & & \vdots & * & \ddots & \ddots & & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & c_{2} & & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & d_{2} & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & & \ddots & c & \vdots & \vdots & & \ddots & d & 0 \\
* & \ldots & \ldots & * & 0 & * & \ldots & \ldots & * & 1
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Using Lemma 4.1.6 we see

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{det} B & =\left(a_{1} d_{1}-b_{1} c_{1}\right)\left(a_{2} d_{2}-b_{2} c_{2}\right) \ldots\left(a_{m-1} d_{m-1}-b_{m-1} c_{m-1}\right) \\
& =\operatorname{det} M \operatorname{det} M^{2} \ldots \operatorname{det} M^{m-1} \\
& =(\operatorname{det} M)^{\frac{m(m-1)}{2}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We have shown the following.
Lemma 4.6.9 Suppose $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap \operatorname{cl}_{G}(x)$ acts as the identity on $V /[V, x]$. Then $\operatorname{det} B_{y}=$ $\alpha^{\frac{m(m-1)}{2}}$, for some $\alpha \in G F(q)^{*}$.

We also have the following converse.
Lemma 4.6.10 Given $\alpha \in G F(q)^{*}$, there exists $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap c l_{G}(x)$ such that $\operatorname{det} B_{y}=$ $\alpha^{\frac{m(m-1)}{2}}$.

Proof. Let $M \in G L(2, q)$ be such that $\operatorname{det} M=\alpha$. We use $M$ to determine an element $y \in C_{G}(x)$ as follows. Write

$$
M=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)
$$

and let $\left[v_{m, 1}, y\right]=a v_{m-1,1}+b v_{m-1,2},\left[v_{m, 2}, y\right]=c v_{m-1,1}+d v_{m-1,2}$. It is clear $\left[v_{m, 1}, y ; m\right]=$ $\left[v_{m, 2}, y ; m\right]=0$ and $\operatorname{Soc}(y)=\left\langle v_{1,1}, v_{1,2}\right\rangle$, and therefore $y$ is conjugate to $x$. Now by Lemma 4.6.9, $\operatorname{det} B_{y}=(\operatorname{det} M)^{\frac{m(m-1)}{2}}=\alpha^{\frac{m(m-1)}{2}}$.

Now suppose $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap c l_{G}(x)$ acts as a regular unipotent element on $V /[V, x]$. As earlier in this section we choose linearly independent vectors $v_{m, 1}, v_{m, 2} \in V \backslash[V, x]$ such that $y$ acts on $V /[V, x]$ as

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

with respect to the basis $\left\{v_{m, 1}+[V, x], v_{m, 2}+[V, x]\right\}$. Let $\mathcal{B}_{x}$ be the cyclic basis for $x$ generated by $v_{m, 1}, v_{m, 2}$. Then we know the action of $y$ on $V$ is completely determined by

$$
\left[v_{m, 1}, y\right]=a v_{m-1,1}+v_{m, 2}+\sum_{i=2}^{m-1}\left(\lambda_{i} v_{m-i, 1}+\mu_{i} v_{m-i+1,2}\right)+\mu_{m} v_{1,2}
$$

and

$$
\left[v_{m, 2}, y\right]=c v_{m-2,1}+d v_{m-1,2}+\sum_{i=3}^{m-1}\left(\tau_{i} v_{m-i, 1}+\sigma_{i} v_{m-i+1,2}\right)+\sigma_{m} v_{1,2},
$$

where

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & 1 \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)
$$

is invertible with the top right entry in its $m$-th power zero, and $\lambda_{i}, \mu_{i}, \tau_{i}, \sigma_{i} \in G F(q)$ for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant m$.

The matrix of $y$ with respect to the basis $\mathcal{B}_{x}$ is

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
1 & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 & 1 & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & 0 \\
a & 1 & \ddots & & \vdots & \mu_{2} & \ddots & & & \vdots \\
\lambda_{2} & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 & \vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\lambda_{m-1} & \ldots & \lambda_{2} & a & 1 & \mu_{m} & \ldots & \ldots & \mu_{2} & 1 \\
0 & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & 0 & 1 & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & \ddots & & & \vdots & d & 1 & \ddots & & \vdots \\
c & \ddots & \ddots & & \vdots & \sigma_{3} & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\
\tau_{m-1} & \ldots & c & 0 & 0 & \sigma_{m} & \ldots & \sigma_{3} & d & 1
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Now let $u_{m, 1}=v_{m, 1}, u_{m, 2}=v_{m-1,2}$ and use these to generate a cyclic basis $\mathcal{B}_{y}$ for $y$. Again write

$$
A^{i}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{i} & b_{i} \\
c_{i} & d_{i}
\end{array}\right)
$$

for $i \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.
The change of basis matrix from $\mathcal{B}_{x}$ to $\mathcal{B}_{y}$ is given by

$$
B=\left(\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
a_{m-1} & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 & * & b_{m-1} & \ldots & \ldots & 0 \\
* & \ddots & \ddots & & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & & \vdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & a_{2} & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & & \ddots & b_{2} & \vdots \\
* & \ldots & * & a & 0 & * & \ldots & \ldots & * & b \\
0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 & 1 & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & 0 & b_{m-1} & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & 0 \\
a_{m-2} & \ddots & & & \vdots & * & \ddots & \ddots & & \vdots \\
* & \ddots & \ddots & & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & b_{2} & \ddots & \vdots \\
* & * & a & \ddots & \vdots & * & \ldots & * & 1 & 0 \\
0 & \ldots & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & \ldots & \ldots & 0
\end{array}\right) .
$$

So using Lemma 4.1.6 we see

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{det} B & =-b_{m-1} \operatorname{det}\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
a_{m-1} & & & b_{m-1} & & \\
* & \ddots & & * & \ddots & \\
* & * & a_{2} & * & * & b_{2} \\
a_{m-2} & & & b_{m-2} & & \\
* & \ddots & & * & \ddots & \\
* & * & a & * & * & 1
\end{array}\right) \\
& =-b_{m-1}\left(a_{2}-a b_{2}\right)\left(a_{3} b_{2}-a_{2} b_{3}\right) \ldots\left(a_{m-1} b_{m-2}-a_{m-2} b_{m-1}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we note

$$
\begin{aligned}
A^{i} & =A^{i-1} A \\
& =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{i-1} & b_{i-1} \\
c_{i-1} & d_{i-1}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & 1 \\
c & d
\end{array}\right) \\
& =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a a_{i-1}+c b_{i-1} & b a_{i-1}+d b_{i-1} \\
a c_{i-1}+c d_{i-1} & b c_{i-1}+d d_{i-1}
\end{array}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

So $a_{i}=a a_{i-1}+c b_{i-1}$ and $b_{i}=b a_{i-1}+d b_{i-1}$. Then for $i>2$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{i} b_{i-1}-a_{i-1} b_{i} & =\left(a a_{i-1}+c b_{i-1}\right)\left(b a_{i-2}+d b_{i-2}\right)-\left(a a_{i-2}+c b_{i-2}\right)\left(b a_{i-1}+d b_{i-1}\right) \\
& =(a d-c)\left(a_{i-1} b_{i-2}-a_{i-2} b_{i-1}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Also $a_{2}-a b_{2}=\left(a^{2}+c\right)-a(a+d)=-(a d-c)$. So $a_{i} b_{i-1}-a_{i-1} b_{i}=-(a d-c)^{i-1}$ and

$$
\operatorname{det} B=(-1)^{m-1} b_{m-1}(a d-c)^{\frac{(m-1)(m-2)}{2}}=(-1)^{m-1} b_{m-1}(\operatorname{det} A)^{\frac{(m-1)(m-2)}{2}}
$$

Now $A A^{m-1}=A^{m}=a_{m} I$ by Lemma 4.1.4. So

$$
A^{m-1}=a_{m} A^{-1}=\frac{a_{m}}{\operatorname{det} A}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
d & -1 \\
-c & a
\end{array}\right),
$$

and hence $b_{m-1}=-a_{m} / \operatorname{det} A$. Thus

$$
\operatorname{det} B=(-1)^{m} a_{m}(\operatorname{det} A)^{\frac{m(m-3)}{2}} .
$$

Also note $a_{m}^{2}=\operatorname{det}\left(A^{m}\right)=(\operatorname{det} A)^{m}$.

Suppose $m$ is odd. Then $m-3$ is even and so

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{det} B & =(-1)^{m} a_{m}\left((\operatorname{det} A)^{m}\right)^{\frac{m-3}{2}} \\
& =(-1)^{m} a_{m}\left(a_{m}^{2}\right)^{\frac{m-3}{2}} \\
& =(-1)^{m} a_{m}^{m-2} \\
& =\frac{(-1)^{m} a_{m}^{m}}{a_{m}^{2}} \\
& =\left(\frac{-a_{m}}{\operatorname{det} A}\right)^{m} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now suppose $m$ is even. Then $a_{m}= \pm(\operatorname{det} A)^{\frac{m}{2}}$. So

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{det} B & = \pm(-1)^{m}(\operatorname{det} A)^{\frac{m(m-2)}{2}} \\
& = \pm\left((\operatorname{det} A)^{\frac{m-2}{2}}\right)^{m} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We have shown the following

Lemma 4.6.11 Suppose $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap c_{G}(x)$ acts as a regular unipotent element on $V /[V, x]$. If $m$ is odd, $\operatorname{det} B_{y}=\alpha^{m}$ for some $\alpha \in G F(q)^{*}$, and if $m$ is even, $\operatorname{det} B_{y}=$ $\pm \alpha^{\frac{m(m-2)}{2}}$ for some $\alpha \in G F(q)^{*}$.

We consider the cases for $m$ even and $m$ odd separately.

Lemma 4.6.12 Suppose $m$ is odd and divides $\varepsilon$. The number of components in the class graph is $(m, q-1)$.

Proof. Suppose $g \in C_{G}(x)$. Then $\operatorname{det} g$ is an $m$ th power by Lemma 4.1.24 and further it is clear for any $\alpha \in G F(q)^{*}$, there exists $g \in C_{G}(x)$ such that $\operatorname{det} g=\alpha^{m}$. Also by Lemmas 4.6.9 and 4.6.11 we see for any $y, z \in V\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)$ such that $[y, z]=1$, a change of basis matrix
from $\mathcal{B}_{y}$ to $\mathcal{B}_{z}$ has determinant an $m$ th power in $G F(q)^{*}$. Therefore the determinant map

$$
\operatorname{det}: \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right) \rightarrow G F(q)^{*}, g \rightarrow \operatorname{det} g
$$

has image set $\left\{\alpha^{m} \mid \alpha \in G F(q)^{*}\right\}$, and hence $\left|G: \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)\right|=(m, q-1)$.

Lemma 4.6.13 Suppose $m$ is even and divides $\varepsilon$. The number of components in the class graph is at most $\left(\frac{m}{2}, q-1\right)$.

Proof. If $g \in C_{G}(x)$ then $\operatorname{det} g$ is an $m$ th power by Lemma 4.1.24 and for any $\alpha \in G F(q)^{*}$, there exists $g \in C_{G}(x)$ such that $\operatorname{det} g=\alpha^{m}$. By Lemmas 4.6.9 and 4.6.10, if $y$ acts as the identity on $V /[V, x]$ we have $\operatorname{det} B_{y}=\alpha^{\frac{m(m-1)}{2}}$ and if $\alpha \in G F(q)^{*}$ there exists $y \in C_{G}(x) \cap c l_{G}(x)$ such that $\operatorname{det} B_{y}=\alpha^{\frac{m(m-1)}{2}}$.

Therefore by Lemma 4.1.7 the determinant map

$$
\operatorname{det}: \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right) \rightarrow G F(q)^{*}, g \rightarrow \operatorname{det} g
$$

is onto $\left\{\left.\alpha^{\frac{m}{2}} \right\rvert\, \alpha \in G F(q)^{*}\right\}$. Thus $\left|G: \operatorname{Stab}_{G}\left(\Gamma_{x}\right)\right| \leqslant\left(\frac{m}{2}, q-1\right)$.
Example 4.6.14 First note the exponent of $\operatorname{PGL}(2,5)$ is 60 and the exponent of $P G L(2,7)$ is 168 .
(1) Let $x \in G L(6,5)$ be of type $(3,3)$. Then $(m, \varepsilon)=(3,120)=3$ so the class graph is $S$-connected. Further $(m, q-1)=(3,4)=1$ and so the class graph is connected.
(2) Let $x \in G L(6,7)$ be of type $(3,3)$. Then $(m, \varepsilon)=(3,168)=3$ so the class graph is $S$-connected. However, $(m, q-1)=(3,6)=3$ and so the graph has three components.
(3) Let $x \in G L(12,5)$ be of type $(6,6)$. Then $(m, \varepsilon)=(6,120)=6$ so the class graph is $S$-connected. Now note $(m, q-1)=(6,4)=2$, but $(m / 2, q-1)=(3,4)=1$, so in this case the graph is connected.
(4) Let $x \in G L(12,7)$ be of type $(6,6)$. Then $(m, \varepsilon)=(6,168)=6$ so the class graph is $S$-connected. Now, $(m / 2, q-1)=(3,6)=3$. So the graph has at most three components.

## Chapter 5

## Conjugacy Classes and Character

## Degrees

The aim of the second half of this thesis is to prove the following theorem.
Theorem 5.0.1 In a finite simple group the degree of any irreducible character divides the size of some conjugacy class of the group.

This problem is considered in [26] where the authors say they have verified this for all groups in the Atlas, [12]. It would be nice if Theorem 5.0.1 could be extended to all finite groups, however the extraspecial groups provide a counterexample. If we have $E=p^{1+2 n}$ then the set of character degrees of $E$ is $\left\{1, p^{n}\right\}$ and the set of conjugacy class degrees is $\{1, p\}$.

A character of a finite group $G$ is imprimitive if it is induced from a proper subgroup of $G$, otherwise it is primitive. In the extraspecial group $E=p^{1+2 n}$, those characters of degree $p^{n}$ are imprimitive. This leads to the following conjecture in [26].

Conjecture 5.0.2 Let $G$ be a finite group and let $\chi$ be a primitive irreducible character of $G$. Then there exists $g \in G$ such that $\chi(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{G}(g)\right|$.

In [26] this is considered for solvable groups and the following is proved.

Lemma 5.0.3 Let $G$ be a finite solvable group and let $\chi$ be a primitive irreducible character of $G$. Then there exists $g \in G$ such that $(\chi(1))_{p}$ divides $\left|c l_{G}(g)\right|^{3}$ for any prime divisor $p$ of $|G|$, where $(\chi(1))_{p}$ is the $p$-part of $\chi(1)$.

This has been improved in [20] to the following.

Lemma 5.0.4 Let $G$ be a finite solvable group, let $\chi$ be a primitive irreducible character of $G$ and $p$ a prime divisor of $|G|$. Then the number of $g \in G$ such that $(\chi(1))_{p}$ divides $\left|c l_{G}(g)\right|^{3}$ is at least $\frac{2|G|}{1+\log _{p}|G|_{p}}$. Also if $\chi(1)_{p}>1$ there exists a $p^{\prime}$-element $g \in G$ such that $p^{3} \chi(1)_{p}$ divides $\left|c l_{G}(g)\right|^{3}$.

Similar problems have been also been considered. In [15] Dolfi showed if $G$ is a solvable group and distinct primes $p$ and $q$ divide the degree of an irreducible character then they also divide the size of a conjugacy class of $G$. In [11] it was shown that the same result holds without the condition that $G$ is solvable.

In Chapter 6 we prove the result for both the symmetric groups and the alternating groups and also for their double covers. Chapter 7 considers some combinatorial results which will be used in Chapter 9. In Chapter 8 we introduce algebraic groups and go on to discuss the finite groups of Lie type. Towards the end we concentrate on the conjugacy classes of two particular types of element - regular unipotent and regular semisimple. Finally in Chapter 9 we briefly discuss characters in the finite groups of Lie type and go on to prove the result for groups of adjoint type. We then prove the theorem for the simple groups of Lie type. Note the result for the sporadic groups has been checked from the Atlas [12]. Our main theorem then follows from the classification of finite simple groups.

## Chapter 6

## The Symmetric Group

### 6.1 Conjugacy Classes

The symmetric group $S_{n}$ is the set of permutations of the set $\Omega=\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. We start with some basic properties of elements in $S_{n}$.

Any element of $S_{n}$ can be written as a product of disjoint cycles, uniquely up to the order of the cycles.

Definition 6.1.1 Let $\pi=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{r_{1}}\right)\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{r_{2}}\right) \ldots\left(z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{r_{k}}\right)$, be an element of $S_{n}$ written as a product of disjoint cycles. The cycle shape of $\pi$ is $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{k}\right)$.

Lemma 6.1.2 Suppose $\pi=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{r}\right) \in S_{n}$ and $\tau$ is any element of $S_{n}$. Then $\tau^{-1} \pi \tau=\left(x_{1} \tau, x_{2} \tau, \ldots, x_{r} \tau\right)$.

Proof. For $i<r,\left(x_{i} \tau\right) \tau^{-1} \pi \tau=x_{i} \pi \tau=x_{i+1} \tau$. For $i=r,\left(x_{r} \tau\right) \tau^{-1} \pi \tau=x_{r} \pi \tau=x_{1} \tau$.

Lemma 6.1.3 Conjugate elements of $S_{n}$ have the same cycle shape.

Proof. Let $\pi=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{r_{1}}\right)\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{r_{2}}\right) \ldots\left(z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{r_{k}}\right) \in S_{n}$ and let $\tau \in S_{n}$.

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tau^{-1} \pi \tau & =\tau^{-1}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{r_{1}}\right)\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{r_{2}}\right) \ldots\left(z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{r_{k}}\right) \tau \\
& =\tau^{-1}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{r_{1}}\right) \tau \tau^{-1}\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{r_{2}}\right) \tau \ldots \tau^{-1}\left(z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{r_{k}}\right) \tau \\
& =\left(x_{1} \tau, x_{2} \tau, \ldots, x_{r_{1}} \tau\right)\left(y_{1} \tau, y_{2} \tau, \ldots, y_{r_{2}} \tau\right) \ldots\left(z_{1} \tau, z_{2} \tau, \ldots, z_{r_{k}} \tau\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

by Lemma 6.1.2.

Lemma 6.1.4 Let $\pi, \sigma \in S_{n}$. Then $\pi$ and $\sigma$ are conjugate in $S_{n}$ if and only if they have the same cycle shape.

Proof. Suppose $\pi$ and $\sigma$ have the same cycle shape. Let $\pi=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{r_{1}}\right)\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{r_{2}}\right) \ldots\left(z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{r_{k}}\right)$ and $\sigma=\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{r_{1}}\right)\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{r_{2}}\right) \ldots\left(c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{r_{k}}\right)$, and let

$$
\tau=\left(\begin{array}{ccccccccccccc}
x_{1} & x_{2} & \ldots & x_{r_{1}} & y_{1} & y_{2} & \ldots & y_{r_{2}} & \ldots & z_{1} & z_{2} & \ldots & z_{r_{k}} \\
a_{1} & a_{2} & \ldots & a_{r_{1}} & b_{1} & b_{2} & \ldots & b_{r_{2}} & \ldots & c_{1} & c_{2} & \ldots & c_{r_{k}}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Then $\sigma=\tau^{-1} \pi \tau$. The converse is Lemma 6.1.3.

Definition 6.1.5 $A$ partition of $n$ is a set of positive integers $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{k}\right)$ such that $\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_{i}=n$. Write $\lambda \vdash n$ to show $\lambda$ is a partition of $n$. We will assume $\lambda_{i} \geqslant \lambda_{i+1}$ for all $1 \leqslant i \leqslant k$, unless otherwise stated. We say $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{k}\right) \vdash n$ is a strict partition if $\lambda_{i}>\lambda_{i+1}$ for all $1 \leqslant i \leqslant k$.

From Lemma 6.1 .4 we see that each conjugacy class of $S_{n}$ corresponds uniquely to a partition of $n$.

Lemma 6.1.6 The size of the conjugacy class in $S_{n}$ corresponding to the partition $\lambda \vdash n$
is

$$
\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\lambda)\right|=\frac{n!}{1^{m_{1}} m_{1}!2^{m_{2}} m_{2}!\ldots n^{m_{n}} m_{n}!}
$$

where $m_{i}$ is the number of cycles in $\lambda$ of length $i$.

Proof. See [36, p.3].

### 6.2 Representations and Character Degrees

In this section we follow the development in [36].

Definition 6.2.1 Let $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{k}\right)$ be a partition of $n$. $A$ Young diagram for $\lambda$ consists of $n$ nodes placed in $k$ left-justified rows with $\left|\lambda_{i}\right|$ nodes in row $i$. Label the nodes $(i, j)$ where $i$ is the row number and $j$ is the column number. We also use $\lambda$ for the name of the diagram.

Example 6.2.2 For $\lambda=(6,4,3,1)$ the Young diagram for $\lambda$ is


- •••
- ••
$\bullet$

Definition 6.2.3 Let $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{k}\right)$ be a partition of $n$. $A$ Young tableau for $\lambda$ is a Young diagram for $\lambda$ with the nodes replaced by the integers $1, \ldots, n$ in some order.

Let $t^{\lambda}$ denote a Young tableau for $\lambda$, and label the entries $t(i, j)$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant\left|\lambda_{i}\right|$, $1 \leqslant j \leqslant k$.

Definition 6.2.4 Two Young tableaux for $\lambda$ are equivalent if they contain the same numbers in each row. A Young tabloid for $\lambda$ is an equivalence class for this equivalence relation. We write $\left\{t^{\lambda}\right\}$.

For a Young tableau $t$, let

$$
R_{t}=\left\{\pi \in S_{n} \mid \pi \text { stabilizes each row in } t\right\}
$$

and

$$
C_{t}=\left\{\pi \in S_{n} \mid \pi \text { stabilizes each column in } t\right\}
$$

Define $R_{t}^{+}=\sum_{\pi \in R_{t}} \pi$ and $C_{t}^{-}=\sum_{\pi \in C_{t}}(\operatorname{sgn} \pi) \pi$, and note $R_{t}^{+}$and $C_{t}^{-}$are in the group ring of $S_{n}$.

Definition 6.2.5 Let $t$ be a Young tableau. The polytabloid oft is $e_{t}=C_{t}^{-} R_{t}^{+} t=C_{t}^{-}\{t\}$.

Definition 6.2.6 The Specht module corresponding to the partition $\lambda$ is the module generated by the polytabloids $e_{t}$, where $t$ runs over the tableaux for $\lambda$.

It can be shown that the Specht modules form a complete set of irreducible modules for $S_{n}$, see [36, Th. 2.4.6, p.66]. Therefore we have a $1-1$ correspondence between the partitions of $n$ and the irreducible modules, and hence characters, of $S_{n}$.

We now state a useful result which enables the character degree corresponding to the partition $\lambda$ to be calculated from the Young diagram for $\lambda$.

Definition 6.2.7 The hook length of a node in the Young diagram is the sum of the number of nodes directly to the right of the node and the number of nodes directly beneath the node, plus 1 for the node itself. Let $h(i, j)$ be the hook number of the node $(i, j)$.

Definition 6.2.8 The hook length diagram, $H(\lambda)$, for a partition $\lambda$ consists of the Young diagram for $\lambda$ with each node replaced by the hook length at that node.

Example 6.2.9 The hook length diagram for $\lambda=(6,4,3,1)$ is

```
9
6
4 1
1
```

Theorem 6.2.10 The degree of the character $\chi$, corresponding to the partition $\lambda$ is given by

$$
\chi(1)=\frac{n!}{\prod_{(i, j) \in \lambda} h(i, j)} .
$$

Proof. See [36, Th. 3.10.2, p.124].

Example 6.2.11 Let $\lambda=(6,4,3,1) \vdash 14$. The degree of the character corresponding to $\lambda$ is

$$
\chi(1)=\frac{14!}{9 \times 7 \times 6 \times 4 \times 2 \times 1 \times 6 \times 4 \times 3 \times 1 \times 4 \times 2 \times 1 \times 1}=50050 .
$$

Our result for the symmetric group is as follows.

Theorem 6.2.12 The degree of an irreducible character of $S_{n}$ divides the size of some conjugacy class of $S_{n}$.

Proof. Let $\lambda$ be a partition of $n$ corresponding to the irreducible character $\chi$ of $S_{n}$. The set of hook lengths on the diagonal of $H(\lambda)$ is $\{h(1,1), h(2,2), \ldots, h(r, r)\}$. Each node in $H(\lambda)$ is counted by exactly one hook in the above set and therefore $\sum_{i=1}^{r} h(i, i)=n$. Also $h(i, i)>h(i+1, i+1)$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$. So $\mu=(h(1,1), h(2,2), \ldots, h(r, r))$ is a strict partition of $n$ with

$$
\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\mu)\right|=\frac{n!}{\prod_{i=1}^{r} h(i, i)},
$$

from Lemma 6.1.6. By Theorem 6.2.10,

$$
\chi(1)=\frac{n!}{\prod_{(i, j) \in \lambda} h(i, j)}=\frac{n!}{\prod_{i=1}^{r} h(i, i) \prod_{(i, j) \in \lambda, i \neq j} h(i, j)}
$$

which clearly divides $\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\mu)\right|$. So $\chi(1)$ divides the size of the conjugacy class corresponding to the partition $\mu$.

We finish this section by considering a related question. Given a non-trivial conjugacy class $K$ in $S_{n}$ can we find a non-linear irreducible character whose degree divides $|K|$ ? It turns out that we cannot, as the following example shows.

Example 6.2.13 Let $G=S_{19}$. Let $K_{1}=c l_{G}((12))$ and $K_{2}=c l_{G}((123))$. Then $\left|K_{1}\right|=$ 171 and $\left|K_{2}\right|=1938$ and there do not exist any non-linear irreducible characters of $G$ whose degrees divide the order of these classes.

### 6.3 The Alternating Group

Any element in $S_{n}$ can be written as a product of transpositions. This product is not unique, but either always contains an even number of transpositions, or always contains an odd number of transpositions. We say an element of $S_{n}$ is even if it can be written as a product of an even number of transpositions. The alternating group $A_{n}$ consists of all the even permutations in $S_{n}$. The conjugacy classes and irreducible character degrees in $A_{n}$ can be calculated from those in $S_{n}$.

Lemma 6.3.1 Let $\pi \in A_{n}$. The conjugacy class of $\pi$ in $S_{n}$ splits into two conjugacy classes of equal size in $A_{n}$ if and only if $\pi$ does not commute with an odd element of $S_{n}$. Otherwise it remains the same.

Proof. First suppose $\pi$ commutes with an odd element of $S_{n}$, say $\tau$. Let $\sigma$ be any conjugate of $\pi$ in $S_{n}$. Then for some $\delta \in S_{n}$ we have $\sigma=\delta^{-1} \pi \delta=(\tau \delta)^{-1} \pi \tau \delta$. Now, since $\tau$ is an odd element, one of $\delta$ and $\tau \delta$ must be even and so $\sigma \in c l_{A_{n}}(\pi)$.

Now suppose $\pi$ does not commute with any odd elements of $S_{n}$. Then $C_{A_{n}}(\pi)=C_{S_{n}}(\pi)$ and so $\left|c l_{A_{n}}(\pi)\right|=\frac{\left|A_{n}\right|}{\left|C_{A_{n}}(\pi)\right|}=\frac{\left|S_{n}\right|}{2\left|C_{S_{n}}(\pi)\right|}=\frac{1}{2}\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\pi)\right|$. Let $\gamma \in c l_{S_{n}}(\pi) \backslash c l_{A_{n}}(\pi)$. Then $\gamma$ cannot commute with any odd element, so by the same argument, $\left|c l_{A_{n}}(\gamma)\right|=\frac{1}{2}\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\pi)\right|$. Then $c l_{S_{n}}(\pi)=c l_{A_{n}}(\pi) \cup c l_{A_{n}}(\gamma)$, where $\left|c l_{A_{n}}(\pi)\right|=\left|c l_{A_{n}}(\gamma)\right|$.

Lemma 6.3.2 Let $\chi$ be an irreducible character of $S_{n}$. If $\chi$ is non-zero somewhere outside of $A_{n}, \chi$ restricted to $A_{n}$ is irreducible. If $\chi$ is zero everywhere outside of $A_{n}$, it restricts to the sum of two distinct irreducible characters of the same degree in $A_{n}$. All the irreducible characters of $A_{n}$ come from restrictions of irreducible characters of $S_{n}$ in one of these ways.

Proof. See [28, 20.13, p.219].

Definition 6.3.3 Let $\lambda$ be a partition of $n$. The conjugate partition $\lambda^{\prime}$ is the partition obtained by reflecting along the diagonal in the Young diagram for $\lambda$. The Young diagram for $\lambda$ is symmetric if $\lambda=\lambda^{\prime}$.

Example 6.3.4 Let $\lambda=(6,4,3,1)$. Then $\lambda^{\prime}=(4,3,3,2,1,1)$ and so $\lambda$ is not symmetric. Let $\mu=(5,4,2,2,1)$. Then $\mu=\mu^{\prime}$ and so $\mu$ is symmetric.

Now we come to the result for the alternating groups.

Theorem 6.3.5 The degree of an irreducible character of $A_{n}$ divides the size of some conjugacy class of $A_{n}$.

Proof. Let $\lambda$ be a partition of $n$ corresponding to the irreducible character $\chi$ of $S_{n}$. Again we consider the strict partition $\mu=\left(\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \ldots, \mu_{r}\right)$ given by the set of hook lengths on
the diagonal of $H(\lambda)$. Let $\pi$ be an element of $S_{n}$ of shape $\mu$ and write $\pi=\pi_{1} \pi_{2} \ldots \pi_{r}$ as a product of disjoint cycles. There are several cases to deal with.

First suppose $\pi$ is an even element of $S_{n}$ which commutes with an odd element. By Lemma 6.3.1, the conjugacy class of $\pi$ in $S_{n}$ does not split in $A_{n}$. Therefore $\chi(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{A_{n}}(\pi)\right|$ by Theorem 6.2.12, and so the degree of the irreducible characters of $A_{n}$ corresponding to $\chi$ divides $\left|c l_{A_{n}}(\pi)\right|$ by Lemma 6.3.2.

Now suppose $\pi$ is an even element of $S_{n}$ which does not commute with an odd element. By Lemma 6.3.1 this means the conjugacy class of $\pi$ in $S_{n}$ splits into two classes of equal size in $A_{n}$. Also, $h(i, i)$ must be odd for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$.

If the Young diagram of $\lambda$ is symmetric, $\chi$ restricts to $A_{n}$ as a sum of two irreducible characters, each of degree $\frac{1}{2} \chi(1)$ by [14]. These character degrees clearly divide $\left|c l_{A_{n}}(\pi)\right|$.

If the Young diagram is not symmetric we must have $h(x, y)=2$ for some $(x, y) \in \lambda$, $x \neq y$. Then

$$
\left|c l_{A_{n}}(\pi)\right|=\frac{n!}{2 \prod_{i=1}^{r} h(i, i)}
$$

and

$$
\chi(1)=\frac{n!}{\prod_{(i, j) \in \lambda} h(i, j)}=\frac{n!}{2 \prod_{i=1}^{r} h(i, i) \prod_{(i, j) \in \lambda, i \neq j,(i, j) \neq(x, y)} h(i, j)} .
$$

So again we have $\chi(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{A_{n}}(\pi)\right|$ and hence by Lemma 6.3.2 so does the corresponding irreducible character degrees in $A_{n}$.

Next we consider what happens when $\pi$ is an odd element of $S_{n}$. In this case, when $\pi$ is written as a product of disjoint cycles, $\pi$ must have a cycle of even length. Let $\pi_{m}$ be the smallest such cycle. Suppose $m=r$, and let $\pi^{*}=\pi_{1} \ldots \pi_{r-1} \pi_{m}^{2}$. This corresponds to the partition $\mu^{*}=\left(\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{r-1}, \frac{1}{2} \mu_{m}, \frac{1}{2} \mu_{m}\right)$. We have $\mu^{*} \vdash n$ and $\pi^{*} \in A_{n}$. There are two cycles of the same length in $\pi^{*}$ so its conjugacy class in $S_{n}$ does not split in $A_{n}$. The size
of the conjugacy class of $\pi^{*}$ is

$$
\left|c l_{A_{n}}\left(\pi^{*}\right)\right|=\left|c l_{S_{n}}\left(\pi^{*}\right)\right|=\frac{n!}{2 \frac{h(m, m)}{2} \frac{h(m, m)}{2} \prod_{i=1}^{r-1} h(i, i)}=\frac{n!}{\frac{h(m, m)}{2} \prod_{i=1}^{r} h(i, i)} .
$$

It is clear that $\frac{1}{2} h(m, m)$ occurs somewhere on the hook of $(m, m)$, say at $(a, b)$. Then

$$
\chi(1)=\frac{n!}{\prod_{(i, j) \in \lambda} h(i, j)}=\frac{n!}{\frac{h(m, m)}{2} \prod_{i=1}^{r} h(i, i) \prod_{(i, j) \in \lambda, i \neq j,(i, j) \neq(a, b)} h(i, j)} .
$$

Therefore $\chi(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{A_{n}}\left(\pi^{*}\right)\right|$, and by Lemma 6.3.2, so will its irreducible constituents in $A_{n}$.

Finally, suppose $\pi$ is an odd element of $S_{n}$ and $\pi_{m}$ is the smallest cycle of even length, but $m \neq r$. The hook diagram of $\lambda$ has the form

$$
\begin{array}{ccccccc}
l & k+d+1 & \beta_{b}+d+1 & \cdots & \beta_{1}+d+1 & d & \cdots \\
1 \\
k+c+1 & k & \beta_{b} & \cdots & \beta_{1} & & \\
\alpha_{a}+c+1 & \alpha_{a} & \ddots & & & & \\
\vdots & \vdots & & & & & \\
\alpha_{1}+c+1 & \alpha_{1} & & & & \\
c & & & & & \\
\vdots & & & & & \\
1 & & & & & \\
& & & & & & \\
& & & & &
\end{array}
$$

where $k$ and all entries on the diagonal below $k$ are odd, and $l=h(m, m)$ is even. From the diagram we see $l=k+c+d+2=(k+c+1)+(k+d+1)-k$. So since $l$ is even and $k$ is odd, we have $k+c+1 \neq k+d+1$. Without loss of generality assume $k+d+1>k+c+1$. Then $d>c$ and hence $d \geqslant c+1$. So we have a hook number of $c+1$ on the hook through $(m, m)$. Note $(k+d+1)+(c+1)=l$ and so $k+d+1$ and
$c+1$ have the same parity. Let $\mu^{*}=\left(\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{m-1}, k+d+1, c+1, \mu_{m+1}, \ldots, \mu_{r}\right)$.
If $k+d+1$ is even, then $k+d+1, c+1 \neq \mu_{i}$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$ and $\mu^{*}$ commutes with an odd element of $S_{n}$. Therefore the conjugacy class corresponding to $\mu^{*}$ in $S_{n}$ does not split in $A_{n}$. We may rearrange $\mu^{*}$ into a strict partition so this is like the first case we considered.

If $k+d+1$ is odd, $\mu_{m-1}>k+d+1>\mu_{m+1}$, but we may have $c+1=\mu_{i}$ for some $m+1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$. If $c+1 \neq \mu_{i}$ for $m+1 \leqslant i \leqslant r, \mu^{*}$ can be rearranged to a strict partition, so the conjugacy class of $\mu^{*}$ in $S_{n}$ splits in $A_{n}$. If $c+1=\mu_{i}$ for some $i, \mu^{*}$ commutes with an odd permutation, so the conjugacy class does not split in $A_{n}$. Either way we have

$$
\left|c l_{A_{n}}\left(\mu^{*}\right)\right|=\frac{n!}{2(k+d+1)(c+1) \prod_{1 \leqslant i \leqslant r, i \neq m} h(i, i)} .
$$

The hook diagram has an even number on its diagonal so it cannot be symmetric. Therefore we must have a hook number equal 2 and so this is like the second case we considered. This completes the investigation of all cases.

## $6.4 \tilde{S}_{n}$

In this section we assume $n \geqslant 4$ and consider the double covers of the symmetric group.
Definition 6.4.1 We define $\tilde{S}_{n}$ to be the group generated by $z, t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n-1}$, with the following relations.
(i) $z^{2}=1$.
(ii) $z t_{i}=t_{i} z$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant n-1$.
(iii) $t_{i}^{2}=z$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant n-1$.
(iv) $\left(t_{i} t_{i+1}\right)^{3}=z$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant n-2$.
(v) $t_{i} t_{j}=z t_{j} t_{i}$, for $|i-j|>1,1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant n-1$.

Lemma 6.4.2 The group $\tilde{S}_{n}$ satisfies the following.
(i) $\left|\tilde{S}_{n}\right|=2\left|S_{n}\right|=2 n$ !.
(ii) $Z=\{1, z\} \subseteq Z\left(\tilde{S}_{n}\right)$ and $\tilde{S}_{n} / Z \cong S_{n}$.

Proof. See [22, Th. 2.8, p19].

Let $\theta: \tilde{S}_{n} \rightarrow S_{n}, t_{i} \theta=(i, i+1)$ for $1 \leqslant i<n$. Suppose $C$ is a conjugacy class in $S_{n}$. Then $\theta^{-1}(C)$ is either a conjugacy class in $\tilde{S}_{n}$ or a union of two conjugacy classes in $\tilde{S}_{n}$, [22, Th. 3.6, p.28]. We can calculate the sizes of conjugacy classes in $\tilde{S}_{n}$ from those in $S_{n}$.

Lemma 6.4.3 Let $\lambda \in S_{n}$ be written as a product of disjoint cycles and let $\tilde{\lambda}$ be a preimage of $\lambda$ in $\tilde{S}_{n}$. Let $m_{i}$ be the number of cycles in $\lambda$ of length $i$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant n$. If $\lambda$ is an even permutation,

$$
\left|c l_{\tilde{S}_{n}}(\tilde{\lambda})\right|= \begin{cases}\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\lambda)\right| \quad \text { if } m_{2 i}=0, \text { for } 1 \leqslant i \leqslant \frac{1}{2} n \\ 2\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\lambda)\right| \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

If $\lambda$ is an odd permutation,

$$
\left|c l_{\tilde{S}_{n}}(\tilde{\lambda})\right|= \begin{cases}\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\lambda)\right| & \text { if } m_{i}=0 \text { or } 1, \text { for } 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n \\ 2\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\lambda)\right| & \text { otherwise } .\end{cases}
$$

Proof. See [22, Th. 3.8, p29].

There are two types of irreducible representations in $\tilde{S}_{n}$, positive and negative. The positive representations are the same as those for $S_{n}$ and so have been dealt with in the previous chapter. The negative representations come from projective representations of
$S_{n}$. It is the characters of these we are interested in here. For each strict partition $\lambda$ of $n$ we have an irreducible character $\theta_{\lambda}$ of $\tilde{S}_{n}$. If $\lambda$ is an odd partition, there is another irreducible character $\theta_{\lambda}^{a}$, but $\theta_{\lambda}^{a}(1)=\theta_{\lambda}(1),[22$, p. 77$]$, so we don't need to consider these characters. These are all the irreducible characters of $\tilde{S}_{n}$ from the negative representations, $[22, \mathrm{Th}$. 8.6, p.115].

Let $\lambda=\left\{\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{k}\right\}$ be a strict partition of $n$. We form the shifted diagram $S(\lambda)$ of $\lambda$ by placing $\lambda_{1}$ nodes in the first row and $\lambda_{i}$ nodes in the $i$ th row, starting from the $i$ th column.

Example 6.4.4 Let $\lambda=(6,4,3,1)$. Then $S(\lambda)$ is


- •••
- ••

We then form the shift symmetric diagram, $Y(\lambda)$ of $\lambda$, by placing $\lambda_{1}$ nodes in the 0th column and $\lambda_{i}$ nodes in the $(i-1)$ th column beneath the $i$ nodes already there. This is a Young diagram for $S_{2 n}$.

Example 6.4.5 Let $\lambda=(6,4,3,1)$. Then $Y(\lambda)$ is


We can now form the hook diagram of $Y(\lambda)$ as in the case for $S_{n}$. Finally we delete the nodes in the hook diagram of $Y(\lambda)$ which are not in $S(\lambda)$. This leaves $H(\lambda)$.

Example 6.4.6 Let $\lambda=(6,4,3,1)$. The hook diagram of $Y(\lambda)$ is

| 12 | 10 | 9 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 10 | 8 | 7 | 5 | 4 | 2 |  |
| 9 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 3 | 1 |  |
| 7 | 5 | 4 | 2 | 1 |  |  |
| 4 | 2 | 1 |  |  |  |  |
| 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| and | $H(\lambda)$ | is |  |  |  |  |
| 10 | 9 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 1 |  |
|  | 7 | 5 | 4 | 2 |  |  |
|  |  | 4 | 3 | 1 |  |  |
|  |  |  | 1 |  |  |  |

Recall $\lambda=\left\{\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{k}\right\}$. We can divide $S(\lambda)$ into nodes of three types. The nodes in column $k$ are type 2. The nodes to the right of column $k$ are type 1 and the nodes to the left of column $k$ are type 3 .

Example 6.4.7 For $\lambda=(6,4,3,1)$ we have


Lemma 6.4.8 Let $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{k}\right)$ be a strict partition of $n$. There are exactly $\frac{1}{2}(n-r)$ even numbers in $H(\lambda)$, where $r$ is the number of even parts in $\lambda$.

Proof. Consider the entries in $H(\lambda)$ in row $i$. The type 2 node of row $i$ has hook length $\lambda_{i}$. The type 3 nodes have hook lengths $\lambda_{i}+\lambda_{i+1}, \ldots, \lambda_{i}+\lambda_{k}$. The type 1 nodes have hook lengths $\lambda_{i}-1, \lambda_{i}-2, \ldots, 2,1$ with $\lambda_{i}-\lambda_{i+1}, \ldots, \lambda_{i}-\lambda_{k}$ removed, see [22, p190].

Clearly for $i<j \leqslant k$ either $\lambda_{i}+\lambda_{j}$ and $\lambda_{i}-\lambda_{j}$ are both even or they are both odd. Let $x$ be the number of even hook lengths at type 3 nodes in row $i$.

If $\lambda_{i}$ is an even number we have $\frac{1}{2}\left(\lambda_{i}-2\right)-x$ even hook lengths of type 1 . So the total number of even numbers in row $i$ is

$$
\frac{\lambda_{i}-2}{2}-x+1+x=\frac{\lambda_{i}}{2} .
$$

If $\lambda_{i}$ is an odd number we have $\frac{1}{2}\left(\lambda_{i}-1\right)-x$ even hook lengths of type 1 . So the total number of even numbers in row $i$ is

$$
\frac{\lambda_{i}-1}{2}-x+0+x=\frac{\lambda_{i}-1}{2} .
$$

Therefore the total number of even hook lengths in $H(\lambda)$ is

$$
\sum_{\lambda_{i} \text { odd }} \frac{\lambda_{i}-1}{2}+\sum_{\lambda_{i} \text { even }} \frac{\lambda_{i}}{2}=\frac{n-r}{2} .
$$

Recall $\theta_{\lambda}$ is the character corresponding to the strict partition $\lambda$. We have the following Theorem from [22, Th. 10.7, p191].

Theorem 6.4.9 Let $\lambda$ be a strict partition of $n$ with length $k$. Then

$$
\theta_{\lambda}(1)=\frac{2^{\frac{1}{2}(n-k-\varepsilon(\lambda))} n!}{h(\lambda)}
$$

where

$$
\varepsilon(\lambda)= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } \lambda \text { is an even partition } \\ 1 & \text { if } \lambda \text { is an odd partition }\end{cases}
$$

and $h(\lambda)$ is the product of the hook numbers in $H(\lambda)$.

Let $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{k}\right)$ be a strict partition of $n$. Reordering $\lambda$ if necessary, write $\lambda=$ $\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{r}, \lambda_{r+1}, \ldots, \lambda_{r+s}\right)$, where $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{r}$ are cycles of odd length and $\lambda_{r+1}, \ldots, \lambda_{r+s}$ are cycles of even length, with $\lambda_{1}>\lambda_{2}>\ldots>\lambda_{r}$ and $\lambda_{r+1}>\lambda_{r+2}>\ldots>\lambda_{r+s}$.

We use $\lambda$ to define another partition, $\mu$, of $n$. For $r \geqslant s$, let

$$
\mu=\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{r+1}, \ldots, \lambda_{s}+\lambda_{r+s}, \lambda_{s+1}, \ldots, \lambda_{r}\right),
$$

for $r<s$ and $s-r$ even, let

$$
\mu=\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{r+1}, \ldots, \lambda_{r}+\lambda_{2 r}, \lambda_{2 r+1}+\lambda_{2 r+2}, \ldots, \lambda_{r+s-1}+\lambda_{r+s}\right),
$$

and for $r<s$ with $s-r$ odd, let

$$
\mu=\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{r+1}, \ldots, \lambda_{r}+\lambda_{2 r}, \lambda_{2 r+1}+\lambda_{2 r+2}, \ldots, \lambda_{r+s-2}+\lambda_{r+s-1}, \lambda_{r+s}\right) .
$$

Then $\mu$ can be rearranged to a strict partition of $n$. Let $\mu=\left(\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \ldots, \mu_{l}\right)$.

Example 6.4.10 If $\lambda=(6,4,3,1)$, then $\mu=(9,5)$. If $\lambda=(10,9,6,5,4,2)$, then $\mu=$ $(19,11,6)$.

Theorem 6.4.11 Let $\lambda$ and $\mu$ be as above and let $\tilde{\mu}$ be a preimage of $\mu$ in $\tilde{S}_{n}$. Then $\theta_{\lambda}(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{\tilde{S}_{n}}(\tilde{\mu})\right|$.

Proof. By Lemma 6.4.3, $\left|c l_{\tilde{S}_{n}}(\tilde{\mu})\right|=\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\mu)\right|$ or $2\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\mu)\right|$, so it is sufficient to show $\theta_{\lambda}(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\mu)\right|$. That is

$$
\frac{2^{\frac{1}{2}(n-k-\varepsilon(\lambda))} n!}{h(\lambda)} \text { divides } \frac{n!}{\mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{l}} .
$$

This is equivalent to

$$
2^{\frac{1}{2}(n-k-\varepsilon(\lambda))} \text { divides } \frac{h(\lambda)}{\mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{l}} .
$$

We know $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{l-1}$ appear as type 3 hook numbers in $H(\lambda)$. Also, $\mu_{l}$ is a hook number in $H(\lambda)$ of type 3 or type 2 . So if we can show there are at least $\frac{1}{2}(n-k-\varepsilon(\lambda))$ even numbers left in $H(\lambda)$ after $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{l}$ have been removed, we are done.

Let $K(\lambda)$ be the set of hook numbers in $H(\lambda)$ without $\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \ldots, \mu_{l}$. There are several cases to consider.

First suppose $0 \leqslant s \leqslant r$. Then $k \geqslant r$ and

$$
\mu=\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{r+1}, \ldots, \lambda_{s}+\lambda_{r+s}, \lambda_{s+1}, \ldots, \lambda_{r}\right)=\left(\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{l}\right) .
$$

For all $1 \leqslant i \leqslant l, \mu_{i}$ is an odd number, so the number of even numbers in $K(\lambda)$ is $\frac{1}{2}(n-r)$ by Lemma 6.4.8. Therefore we have

$$
\frac{n-k-\varepsilon(\lambda)}{2} \leqslant \frac{n-r}{2}
$$

as required.
Next suppose $0 \leqslant r<s$ and $s-r$ is even. Then $k \geqslant s$ and

$$
\mu=\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{r+1}, \ldots, \lambda_{r}+\lambda_{2 r}, \lambda_{2 r+1}+\lambda_{2 r+2}, \ldots, \lambda_{r+s-1}+\lambda_{r+s}\right)=\left(\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{l}\right) .
$$

We have $\frac{1}{2}(s-r)$ even numbers in $\mu$ and so we have

$$
\frac{n-r}{2}-\frac{s-r}{2}=\frac{n-s}{2}
$$

even numbers in $K(\lambda)$, by Lemma 6.4.8. Then

$$
\frac{n-k-\varepsilon(\lambda)}{2} \leqslant \frac{n-s-\varepsilon(\lambda)}{2} \leqslant \frac{n-s}{2} .
$$

Finally we suppose $0 \leqslant r<s$ and $s-r$ is odd. Then $k \geqslant s$ and

$$
\mu=\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{r+1}, \ldots, \lambda_{r}+\lambda_{2 r}, \lambda_{2 r+1}+\lambda_{2 r+2}, \ldots, \lambda_{r+s-2}+\lambda_{r+s-1}, \lambda_{r+s}\right)=\left(\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{l}\right) .
$$

We have $\frac{1}{2}(s-r-1)+1$ even numbers in $\mu$ and so we have

$$
\frac{n-r}{2}-\left(\frac{s-r-1}{2}+1\right)=\frac{n-s-1}{2}
$$

even numbers in $K(\lambda)$.
If $s$ is even, then $\lambda$ is an even permutation so $\varepsilon(\lambda)=0$. Also, $r>0$ since $s-r$ is odd, so $k>s$ and hence $k \geqslant s+1$. Then

$$
\frac{n-k-\varepsilon(\lambda)}{2}=\frac{n-k}{2} \leqslant \frac{n-s-1}{2} .
$$

If $s$ is odd, then $\lambda$ is an odd permutation so $\varepsilon(\lambda)=1$. Then

$$
\frac{n-k-\varepsilon(\lambda)}{2}=\frac{n-k-1}{2} \leqslant \frac{n-s-1}{2} .
$$

## $6.5 \quad \tilde{A}_{n}$

Again throughout this section we assume $n \geqslant 4$.

Definition 6.5.1 In Lemma 6.4.2 we stated that there is a projection of $\tilde{S}_{n}$ onto $S_{n}$. We define $\tilde{A}_{n}$ to be the inverse image of $A_{n}$ under this projection.

We can calculate the sizes of the conjugacy classes in $\tilde{A}_{n}$ from those in $A_{n}$, and the degrees of the irreducible negative representations from those in $\tilde{S}_{n}$.

Lemma 6.5.2 Let $\lambda \in A_{n}$, written as a product of disjoint cycles, and let $\tilde{\lambda}$ be a preimage of $\lambda$ in $\tilde{A}_{n}$. Let $m_{i}$ be the number of cycles in $\lambda$ of length $i$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant n$.
$\left|c l_{\tilde{A}_{n}}(\tilde{\lambda})\right|= \begin{cases}\left|c l_{A_{n}}(\lambda)\right| & \text { if } m_{2 i}=0, \text { for } 1 \leqslant i \leqslant \frac{1}{2} n, \text { or if } m_{i}=0 \text { or } 1, \text { for } 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n, \\ 2\left|c l_{A_{n}}(\lambda)\right| & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}$

Proof. See [22, Th. 3.9, p30].

Lemma 6.5.3 Let $\lambda$ be a strict partition of $n$ and let $\theta_{\lambda}$ be the corresponding character in $\tilde{S}_{n}$. If $\lambda$ is an even partition, the restriction of $\theta_{\lambda}$ to $\tilde{A}_{n}$ is the sum of two distinct irreducible characters, each of degree $\frac{1}{2} \theta_{\lambda}(1)$. If $\lambda$ is an odd partition, the restriction of $\theta_{\lambda}$ to $\tilde{A}_{n}$ is irreducible. This gives us all the characters of the irreducible negative representation of $\tilde{A}_{n}$.

Proof. See [22, Th. 8.6, p114].

Theorem 6.5.4 The degree of an irreducible character of $\tilde{A}_{n}$ divides the size of some conjugacy class of $\tilde{A}_{n}$.

Proof. Let $\lambda$ be a strict partition of $n$ and let $\theta_{\lambda}$ be the corresponding character in $\tilde{S}_{n}$. Let $\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}$ be an irreducible constituent of the restriction of $\theta_{\lambda}$ to $\tilde{A}_{n}$. Write $\lambda=$ $\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{r}, \lambda_{r+1}, \ldots, \lambda_{r+s}\right)$, where $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{r}$ are cycles of odd length and $\lambda_{r+1}, \ldots, \lambda_{r+s}$ are cycles of even length, with $\lambda_{1}>\lambda_{2}>\ldots>\lambda_{r}$ and $\lambda_{r+1}>\lambda_{r+2}>\ldots>\lambda_{r+s}$. Let $\mu$ be as in the case for $\tilde{S}_{n}$.

1. Suppose $0 \leqslant s \leqslant r$. Then $\mu$ is an even partition with only odd length cycles. Therefore we have $\left|c l_{\tilde{A}_{n}}(\tilde{\mu})\right|=\left|c l_{A_{n}}(\mu)\right|=\frac{1}{2}\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\mu)\right|=\frac{1}{2}\left|c{\tilde{\tilde{S}_{n}}}(\tilde{\mu})\right|$. If $s$ is even, then
$\lambda$ is an even partition and so $\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)=\frac{1}{2} \theta_{\lambda}(1)$. We know from Theorem 6.4.11, $\theta_{\lambda}(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{\tilde{S}_{n}}(\tilde{\mu})\right|$, so clearly $\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{\tilde{A}_{n}}(\tilde{\mu})\right|$. If $s$ is odd, then $\lambda$ is an odd partition and so $\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)=\theta_{\lambda}(1)$. So we need to show

$$
\frac{2^{\frac{1}{2}(n-k-\varepsilon(\lambda))} n!}{h(\lambda)} \text { divides } \frac{n!}{2 \mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{l}}
$$

Therefore if we can show there are at least $\frac{1}{2}(n-k-\varepsilon(\lambda))+1$ even numbers in $K(\lambda)$, we are done. Now, $s$ is odd so $s \geqslant 1$ and thus $k \geqslant r+1$. Also, $\lambda$ is odd so $\varepsilon(\lambda)=1$. Therefore we have

$$
\frac{n-k-\varepsilon(\lambda)}{2}+1=\frac{n-k+1}{2} \leqslant \frac{n-r}{2} .
$$

So by Lemma 6.4.8 this case is complete.
2. Suppose $0 \leqslant r<s$ and $\mu$ is an even partition. We can rearrange $\mu$ to be a strict partition and it has at least one even length cycle. Therefore $\left|c l_{\tilde{A}_{n}}(\tilde{\mu})\right|=\left|c l_{A_{n}}(\mu)\right|=$ $\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\mu)\right|$. We know, from Theorem 6.4.11, $\theta_{\lambda}(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{S_{n}}(\mu)\right|$. So $\theta_{\lambda}(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{\tilde{A}_{n}}(\tilde{\mu})\right|$, and therefore $\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{\tilde{A}_{n}}(\tilde{\mu})\right|$ as required.
3. Suppose $0 \leqslant r<s, s-r$ is even, $\lambda$ is even and $\mu$ is odd. Let $\mu^{*}=\left(\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{l-1}, \lambda_{r+s-1}, \lambda_{r+s}\right)$. Then $\mu^{*}$ can be rearranged to a strict partition of $n, \tilde{\mu}^{*} \in \tilde{A}_{n}$, and $\left|c l_{\tilde{A}_{n}}\left(\tilde{\mu}^{*}\right)\right|=$ $\left|c l_{A_{n}}\left(\mu^{*}\right)\right|=\left|c l_{S_{n}}\left(\mu^{*}\right)\right|=\frac{n!}{\mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{l-1} \lambda_{r+s-1} \lambda_{r+s}}$. Let $K^{*}(\lambda)$ be the set of hook numbers in $H(\lambda)$ with $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{l-1}, \lambda_{r+s-1}, \lambda_{r+s}$ removed. We have $\frac{1}{2}(n-r)$ even numbers in $H(\lambda), \frac{1}{2}(s-r)+1$ even numbers in $\mu^{*}$, and so $\frac{1}{2}(n-s-2)$ even numbers in $K^{*}(\lambda)$. Since $\lambda$ is even,

$$
\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)=\frac{1}{2} \theta_{\lambda}(1)=\frac{2^{\frac{1}{2}(n-k)} n!}{2 h(\lambda)} .
$$

We have

$$
\frac{n-k}{2}-1=\frac{n-k-2}{2} \leqslant \frac{n-s-2}{2},
$$

so $\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{\tilde{A}_{n}}\left(\tilde{\mu}^{*}\right)\right|$.
4. Suppose $0<r<s, s-r$ is even, $\lambda$ is odd and $\mu$ is odd. Let $\mu^{*}=\left(\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{l-1}, \lambda_{r+s-1}, \lambda_{r+s}\right)$. Then, following the previous case we have $\frac{1}{2}(n-s-2)$ even numbers in $K^{*}(\lambda)$. As $\lambda$ is odd,

$$
\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)=\theta_{\lambda}(1)=\frac{2^{\frac{1}{2}(n-k-1)} n!}{h(\lambda)} .
$$

We have $k>s$, so $k \geqslant s+1$. Therefore

$$
\frac{n-k-1}{2} \leqslant \frac{n-s-2}{2}
$$

so $\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{\tilde{A}_{n}}\left(\tilde{\mu}^{*}\right)\right|$.
5. Suppose $0<r<s, s-r$ is odd, $\lambda$ is even and $\mu$ is odd.

Let $\mu^{*}=\left(\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{l-2}, \lambda_{r+s-2}, \lambda_{r+s-1}, \lambda_{r+s}\right)$. Then $\mu^{*}$ can be rearranged to a strict partition of $n, \tilde{\mu}^{*} \in \tilde{A}_{n}$, and $\left|c l_{\tilde{A}_{n}}\left(\tilde{\mu^{*}}\right)\right|=\left|c l_{A_{n}}\left(\mu^{*}\right)\right|=\left|c l_{S_{n}}\left(\mu^{*}\right)\right|=\frac{n!}{\mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{l-2} \lambda_{r+s-2} \lambda_{r+s-1} \lambda_{r+s}}$. Let $K^{*}(\lambda)$ be the set of hook numbers in $H(\lambda)$ with $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{l-2}, \lambda_{r+s-2}, \lambda_{r+s-1}, \lambda_{r+s}$ removed. We have $\frac{1}{2}(n-r)$ even numbers in $H(\lambda), \frac{1}{2}(s-r+1)+1$ even numbers in $\mu^{*}$, and so $\frac{1}{2}(n-s-3)$ even numbers in $K^{*}(\lambda)$. Since $\lambda$ is even,

$$
\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)=\frac{1}{2} \theta_{\lambda}(1)=\frac{2^{\frac{1}{2}(n-k)} n!}{2 h(\lambda)} .
$$

We have $k>s$, so $k \geqslant s+1$. Therefore

$$
\frac{n-k}{2}-1=\frac{n-k-2}{2} \leqslant \frac{n-s-3}{2}
$$

and so $\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{\tilde{A}_{n}}\left(\tilde{\mu}^{*}\right)\right|$.
6. Suppose $0<r<s, s-r$ is odd, $\lambda$ is odd and $\mu$ is odd.

Let $\mu^{*}=\left(\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{l-2}, \lambda_{r+s-2}, \lambda_{r+s-1}, \lambda_{r+s}\right)$. Then, as in the previous case we have $\frac{1}{2}(n-s-3)$ even numbers in $K^{*}(\lambda)$. Note $\lambda$ is odd so

$$
\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)=\theta_{\lambda}(1)=\frac{2^{\frac{1}{2}(n-k-1)} n!}{h(\lambda)} .
$$

We have $s$ odd so must have $r$ even and hence, since $r>0, k \geqslant s+2$. Therefore

$$
\frac{n-k-1}{2} \leqslant \frac{n-s-3}{2}
$$

and so $\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{\tilde{A}_{n}}\left(\tilde{\mu}^{*}\right)\right|$.
7. Finally suppose $r=0, \lambda$ is an odd permutation and $\mu$ is an odd permutation. Then $\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)=\theta_{\lambda}(1)$. Let $\mu^{*}=\left(\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{l-1}, \frac{1}{2} \mu_{l}, \frac{1}{2} \mu_{l}\right)$. Then $\tilde{\mu}^{*} \in \tilde{A}_{n}$ and $\left|c l_{\tilde{A}_{n}}\left(\tilde{\mu}^{*}\right)\right|=$ $2\left|c l_{A_{n}}\left(\mu^{*}\right)\right|=2\left|c l_{S_{n}}\left(\mu^{*}\right)\right|=\frac{2 n!}{\mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{l}\left(\frac{1}{2} \mu_{l}\right)}$. We show $\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{\tilde{A}_{n}}\left(\tilde{\mu}^{*}\right)\right|$.

$$
\tilde{\theta}_{\lambda}(1)=\frac{2^{\frac{1}{2}(n-k-1)} n!}{h(\lambda)}
$$

so we need $2^{\frac{1}{2}(n-k-1)-1} \mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{l}\left(\frac{1}{2} \mu_{l}\right)$ divides $h(\lambda)$. Clearly $\frac{1}{2} \mu_{l}$ is the hook number of a node in row $k$ of $H(\lambda)$, so $\mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{l}\left(\frac{1}{2} \mu_{l}\right)$ divides $h(\lambda)$. Let $K^{*}(\lambda)$ be the set of hook numbers in $H(\lambda)$ with $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{l}, \frac{1}{2} \mu_{l}$ removed. There are $\frac{1}{2} n$ even numbers in $H(\lambda)$ so there are at least $\frac{1}{2} n-\frac{1}{2}(s+1)=\frac{1}{2}(n-s-2)$ even numbers in $K^{*}(\lambda)$.

Then,

$$
\frac{n-k-1}{2}-1=\frac{n-s-3}{2}<\frac{n-s-1}{2},
$$

as required.

## Chapter 7

## Combinatorial Results

In this short technical chapter we consider some results which we will use in the following chapters.

Lemma 7.0.1 Let $m \in \mathbb{Z}, m>2$ and let $L_{m}=\binom{c-1}{2}+\binom{m-2}{2}+\ldots+\binom{2}{2}$. Then

$$
L_{m}=\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i)(i-1) .
$$

Proof. We proceed by induction on $m$. Suppose $m=3$. Then $L_{m}=\binom{2}{2}=1=\sum_{i=1}^{2}(3-i)(i-1)$. Now, by induction, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
L_{m+1} & =L_{m}+\binom{m}{2} \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i)(i-1)+\frac{m(m-1)}{2} \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i)(i-1)+\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} i \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i)(i-1)+\sum_{i=1}^{m}(i-1) \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{m}(m+1-i)(i-1)
\end{aligned}
$$

as required.

Let $\alpha=\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right)$ be a sequence of length $m$. For such an $\alpha$, define

$$
N_{\alpha}=\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i)\left(\alpha_{i}+i-1\right)-L_{m},
$$

where $L_{m}$ is as in Lemma 7.0.1.
Lemma 7.0.2 Let $l$ be a positive integer and $\alpha=\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right)$ be a partition of $l+1$ with $\alpha_{1} \leqslant \alpha_{2} \leqslant \ldots \leqslant \alpha_{m}$ and $m<l+1$. Then there exists a partition $\beta=\left(\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{m+1}\right)$ of $l+1$, with $\beta_{1} \leqslant \ldots \leqslant \beta_{m+1}$, such that $N_{\alpha}<N_{\beta}$.

Proof. Let $j$ be minimal such that $\alpha_{j} \neq 1$. Let $\beta=\left(1, \ldots, 1, \alpha_{j}-1, \alpha_{j+1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right)$, where $\beta_{j+1}=\alpha_{j}-1$. Note $\beta_{i}=\alpha_{i-1}$ for $i \neq j+1$. Then by Lemma 7.0.1

$$
\begin{aligned}
N_{\beta}-N_{\alpha}= & \sum_{i=1}^{m}(m+1-i)\left(\beta_{i}+i-1\right)-\sum_{i=1}^{m}(m+1-i)(i-1)-\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i)\left(\alpha_{i}+i-1\right) \\
& +\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i)(i-1) \\
= & \sum_{i=1}^{m}(m+1-i) \beta_{i}-\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i) \alpha_{i} \\
= & \sum_{i=1}^{m}(m+1-i) \beta_{i}-\sum_{i=2}^{m}(m+1-i) \alpha_{i-1} \\
= & m \beta_{1}+\sum_{i=2}^{m}(m+1-i)\left(\beta_{i}-\alpha_{i-1}\right) \\
= & m+(m+1-(j+1))\left(\beta_{j+1}-\alpha_{j}\right) \\
= & j \\
> & 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 7.0.3 Let $l \in \mathbb{Z}, l \geqslant 2$. An l-sequence of length $m$ is a sequence $\alpha=$ $\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right)$ satisfying
(i) $\alpha_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geqslant 0}$ for all $1 \leqslant i \leqslant m$;
(ii) $\alpha_{1} \leqslant \alpha_{2} \leqslant \ldots \leqslant \alpha_{m}$;
(iii) $\alpha_{2} \neq 0$;
(iv) $\alpha_{i} \neq \alpha_{i+2}$;
(v) $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i}=l+\left[\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)^{2}\right]$, where $[z]$ is the largest integer less than or equal to $z$.

Let $\alpha=\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right)$ be a sequence of length $m$. For such an $\alpha$, define $A_{\alpha}=\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i) \alpha_{i}-M_{m}$, where $M_{m}=\binom{m-2}{2}+\binom{m-4}{2}+\ldots+\binom{x}{2}$, with $x=2$ if $m$ is even and $x=3$ if $m$ is odd.

Lemma 7.0.4 Let $m \geqslant 5$ be odd and suppose $\alpha=\left(0,1,1, \ldots, \frac{m-3}{2}, \frac{m-3}{2}, \frac{m-1}{2}, l\right)$, with $l \geqslant \frac{m-1}{2}$. Then $\alpha$ is an $l$-sequence and $A_{\alpha}=\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)^{2}$.

Proof. It is clear $\alpha$ satisfies Definition 7.0.3(i)-(iv). We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} & =2 \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{m-3}{2}} i+\frac{m-1}{2}+l \\
& =\left(\frac{m-3}{2}\right)\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)+\frac{m-1}{2}+l \\
& =\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)^{2}+l
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $\alpha$ satisfies Definition 7.0.3(v) and so is an $l$-sequence.
We prove the second claim by induction on $k=\frac{m-1}{2}$. For $k=2, \alpha=(0,1,1,2, l)$ and $A_{\alpha}=\sum_{i=1}^{4}(5-i) \alpha_{i}-\binom{3}{2}=4$ as required. Now let $\beta=\left(0,1,1, \ldots, \frac{m-5}{2}, \frac{m-5}{2}, \frac{m-3}{2}, l\right)$.

Inductively we have $A_{\beta}=\left(\frac{m-3}{2}\right)^{2}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{\alpha} & =A_{\beta}+\sum_{i=1}^{m-3} 2 \alpha_{i}+2 \alpha_{m-2}+\alpha_{m-1}-\binom{m-2}{2} \\
& =\left(\frac{m-3}{2}\right)^{2}+4 \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{m-3}{2}} i+\frac{m-1}{2}-\frac{(m-2)(m-3)}{2} \\
& =\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 7.0.5 Let $m \geqslant 4$ be even and suppose $\alpha=\left(0,1,1, \ldots, \frac{m-2}{2}, \frac{m-2}{2}, l\right)$, with $l>$ $\frac{m-2}{2}$. Then $\alpha$ is an $l$-sequence and $A_{\alpha}=\left(\frac{m-2}{2}\right)\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)$.

Proof. Clearly $\alpha$ satisfies Definition 7.0.3(i)-(iv). We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} & =2 \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{m-2}{2}} i+l \\
& =\left(\frac{m-2}{2}\right)\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)+l \\
& =\left[\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)^{2}\right]+l
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $\alpha$ satisfies $7.0 .3(\mathrm{v})$, so is an $l$-sequence.
The second claim is proved by induction on $k=\frac{m-2}{2}$. For $k=1, \alpha=(0,1,1, l)$ and $A_{\alpha}=\sum_{i=1}^{3}(4-i) \alpha_{i}-\binom{2}{2}=2$. Now let $\beta=\left(0,1,1, \ldots, \frac{m-4}{2}, \frac{m-4}{2}, l\right)$. Inductively we have
$A_{\beta}=\left(\frac{m-4}{2}\right)\left(\frac{m-2}{2}\right)$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{\alpha} & =A_{\beta}+\sum_{i=1}^{m-3} 2 \alpha_{i}+2 \alpha_{m-2}+\alpha_{m-1}-\binom{m-2}{2} \\
& =\left(\frac{m-4}{2}\right)\left(\frac{m-2}{2}\right)+4 \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{m-4}{2}} i+3 \frac{(m-2)}{2}-\frac{(m-2)(m-3)}{2} \\
& =\left(\frac{m-4}{2}\right)\left(\frac{m-2}{2}\right)+2\left(\frac{m-4}{2}\right)\left(\frac{m-2}{2}\right)+3 \frac{(m-2)}{2}-\frac{(m-2)(m-3)}{2} \\
& =\left(\frac{m-2}{2}\right)\left(\frac{m}{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

This proves the claim.

Lemma 7.0.6 Let $\alpha=\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right)$ be an l-sequence and let

$$
\beta=\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{j-1}, \alpha_{j}+1, \alpha_{j+1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k-1}, \alpha_{k}-1, \alpha_{k+1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right)=\left(\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}, \ldots, \beta_{m}\right) .
$$

Then $A_{\beta}=A_{\alpha}+k-j$.

Proof. We compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{\beta}= & \sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i) \beta_{i}-M_{m} \\
= & \sum_{i=1}^{j-1}(m-i) \alpha_{i}+(m-j)\left(\alpha_{j}+1\right)+\sum_{i=j+1}^{k-1}(m-i) \alpha_{i} \\
& +(m-k)\left(\alpha_{k}-1\right)+\sum_{i=k+1}^{m-1}(m-i) \alpha_{i}-M_{m} \\
= & \sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i) \alpha_{i}-M_{m}+k-j \\
= & A_{\alpha}+k-j
\end{aligned}
$$

as claimed.

Let $m$ be odd and $l \geqslant \frac{m-1}{2}$. Set

$$
\sigma=\left(0,1,1, \ldots, \frac{m-3}{2}, \frac{m-3}{2}, \frac{m-1}{2}, l\right)=\left(\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{m}\right) .
$$

Note $\sigma$ is an $l$-sequence by Lemma 7.0.4. Let $\beta=\left(\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{m}\right)$ be an $l$-sequence of length $m$. By Definition 7.0.3(v), $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma_{i}$, and by Definition 7.0.3(ii),(iii),(iv), we see $\beta_{m} \leqslant \sigma_{m}$ and $\beta_{i} \geqslant \sigma_{i}$ for $1 \leqslant i<m$. Therefore any $l$-sequence $\beta$ of length $m$ can be obtained from $\sigma$ by subtracting a positive integer from $\sigma_{m}$ and distributing it among the other $\sigma_{i}$ 's to obtain the given $\beta_{i}$ 's.

Lemma 7.0.7 With $\sigma$ and $\beta$ as above, we have $A_{\sigma} \leqslant A_{\beta}$.

Proof. This follows by Lemma 7.0.6.

Lemma 7.0.8 Let $\beta$ be an $l$-sequence of length $m$, with $m$ odd. Then either $m<2 l+1$ and $A_{\beta} \leqslant(l-1)^{2}$, or $m=2 l+1$ and $A_{\beta}=l^{2}$.

Proof. Let $\beta=\left(\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{m}\right)$. First suppose $m<2 l+1$. In order for $\beta$ to be an $l$-sequence, we must have $\beta_{m} \geqslant \frac{m+1}{2}$. Each time we subtract 1 from $\sigma_{m}$ and add it to another $\sigma_{i}$, we increase $A_{\sigma}$ by at most $(m-1)$ by Lemma 7.0.6. Therefore, by Lemma 7.0.4,

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{\beta} & \leqslant\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)^{2}+(m-1)\left(l-\frac{m+1}{2}\right) \\
& =1+3+\ldots+(m-2)+(m-1)\left(l-\frac{m+1}{2}\right) \\
& \leqslant 1+3+\ldots+(m-2)+m+\ldots+(2(l-1)-1) \\
& =(l-1)^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now suppose $m=2 l+1$. By Definition 7.0.3, we must have

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{2 l+1} \beta_{i}=l+\left(\frac{(2 l+1)-1}{2}\right)^{2}=l(l+1) .
$$

Therefore the only $l$-sequence of length $2 l+1$ is $\beta=(0,1,1, \ldots, l, l)$. Then, by Lemma 7.0.4,

$$
A_{\beta}=\left(\frac{(2 l+1)-1}{2}\right)^{2}=l^{2}
$$

Finally suppose we have $m>2 l+1$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_{i} & \geqslant 2 \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{m-1}{2}} i \\
& =\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)\left(\frac{m+1}{2}\right) \\
& =\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)^{2}+\frac{m-1}{2} \\
& >\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)^{2}+\frac{(2 l+1)-1}{2} \\
& =\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)^{2}+l
\end{aligned}
$$

so $\beta$ does not satisfy Definition 7.0.3.

Now let $m$ be even and $l \geqslant \frac{m}{2}$. Set

$$
\sigma=\left(0,1,1, \ldots, \frac{m-2}{2}, \frac{m-2}{2}, l\right)=\left(\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{m}\right) .
$$

By Lemma 7.0.5, $\sigma$ is an $l$-sequence. We can obtain any $l$-sequence $\beta$ of length $m$ as in th case when $m$ is odd.

Lemma 7.0.9 For any l-sequence of length $m$, we have $A_{\sigma} \leqslant A_{\beta}$.

Proof. This follows by Lemma 7.0.6.

Lemma 7.0.10 Let $\beta$ be an l-sequence of length $m$, with $m$ even. Then either $m<2 l$ and $A_{\beta} \leqslant l(l-2)$ or $m=2 l$ and $A_{\beta}=l(l-1)$.

Proof. Let $\beta=\left(\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{m}\right)$ be an $l$-sequence. First suppose $m<2 l$. In order to satisfy the conditions in Definition 7.0.3, we must have $\beta_{m} \geqslant \frac{m}{2}$. Each time we subtract 1 from $\sigma_{m}$ and add it to another $\sigma_{i}$, we increase $A_{\sigma}$ by at most $(m-1)$ by Lemma 7.0.6. If $\beta \neq \sigma$, $\beta_{m-1} \geqslant \sigma_{m-1}+1$. Therefore, by Lemma 7.0.5,

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{\beta} & \leqslant A_{\sigma}+1+(m-1)\left(l-\frac{m}{2}-1\right) \\
& =2+4+\ldots+(m-2)+1+(m-1)\left(l-\frac{m}{2}-1\right) \\
& \leqslant 2+4+\ldots+(m-2)+m+\ldots+(2(l-1)-2)+1 \\
& =(l-2)(l-1)+1 \\
& \leqslant l(l-2) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now suppose $m=2 l$. Then by Definition 7.0.3,

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{2 l} \beta_{i}=l+\left[\left(\frac{2 l-1}{2}\right)^{2}\right]=l+\left[l^{2}-l+\frac{1}{4}\right]=l^{2} .
$$

So we must have $\beta=(0,1,1, \ldots, l-1, l-1, l)$. Then by Lemma 7.0.5 we have

$$
A_{\beta}=\left(\frac{2 l-2}{2}\right)\left(\frac{2 l}{2}\right)=l(l-1) .
$$

Finally suppose $m>2 l$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta_{i} & \geqslant 2 \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{m-2}{2}} i+\frac{m}{2} \\
& =\left(\frac{m-2}{2}\right)\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)+\left(\frac{m}{2}\right) \\
& >\left[\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)^{2}\right]+l
\end{aligned}
$$

so $\beta$ does not satisfy Definition 7.0.3.

## Chapter 8

## Algebraic Groups and Finite

## Groups of Lie Type

### 8.1 Root Systems

Let $V$ be a finite-dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{R}$, with an inner product $(\cdot, \cdot)$. Let $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle=\frac{2(\beta, \alpha)}{(\alpha, \alpha)}$, and define

$$
r_{\alpha}(\beta)=\beta-\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle \alpha
$$

Then $r_{\alpha}$ is a reflection in the hyperplane perpendicular to $\alpha$.

Definition 8.1.1 $A$ root system is a finite subset $\Sigma$ of $V$ such that, for all $\alpha, \beta \in \Sigma$, $r_{\alpha}(\Sigma) \subseteq \Sigma,\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle \in \mathbb{Z}$, and $c \alpha \in \Sigma$ implies $c= \pm 1$. The elements of $\Sigma$ are called roots.

Lemma 8.1.2 Let $\Sigma$ be a root system. If $\alpha, \beta \in \Sigma$, with $\alpha \neq \pm \beta$, then

$$
\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle\langle\beta, \alpha\rangle \in\{0,1,2,3\} .
$$

Proof. We have $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle\langle\beta, \alpha\rangle=\frac{4(\alpha, \beta)(\beta, \alpha)}{(\alpha, \alpha)(\beta, \beta)}=4 \cos ^{2} \theta$, where $\theta$ is the angle between $\alpha$ and $\beta$. So since $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle \in \mathbb{Z}$, we must have $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle\langle\beta, \alpha\rangle \in\{0,1,2,3,4\}$. Suppose $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle\langle\beta, \alpha\rangle=4$.

Then $\cos \theta= \pm 1$, which implies $\theta=0$ or $\pi$, so $\alpha= \pm \beta$, a contradiction. Therefore we have $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle\langle\beta, \alpha\rangle \in\{0,1,2,3\}$.

Corollary 8.1.3 Suppose $(\alpha, \beta)<0$. Then either $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle=-1$ or $\langle\beta, \alpha\rangle=-1$.

Proof. Clearly $(\alpha, \beta)<0$ implies both $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle<0$ and $\langle\beta, \alpha\rangle<0$. So the result follows from Lemma 8.1.2.

Definition 8.1.4 $A$ fundamental system of a root system $\Sigma$ is a linearly independent subset $\Pi$, such that every element of $\Sigma$ is either a non-negative or non-positive linear combination of elements of $\Pi$.

For a fixed $\Pi \subseteq \Sigma$, let $\Sigma^{+}$be the subset of $\Sigma$ consisting of those elements which can be written as a non-negative linear combination of $\Pi$, and let $\Sigma^{-}$be the subset of $\Sigma$ consisting of those elements which can be written as a non-positive linear combination of $\Pi$. Note $\Sigma=\Sigma^{+} \cup \Sigma^{-}$.

Lemma 8.1.5 Suppose $\alpha, \beta \in \Pi$ with $\alpha \neq \beta$. Then $(\alpha, \beta) \leqslant 0$ and hence $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle \leqslant 0$.

Proof. See [33, p.270].

The root system $\Sigma$ is irreducible if there do not exist non-empty disjoint subsets $\Sigma_{1}, \Sigma_{2}$ in $\Sigma$ such that $\Sigma=\Sigma_{1} \cup \Sigma_{2}$ and $(\alpha, \beta)=0$ for all $\alpha \in \Sigma_{1}, \beta \in \Sigma_{2}$.

Definition 8.1.6 $A$ Dynkin diagram is a graph with vertex set $\Pi$ and $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle\langle\beta, \alpha\rangle$ edges connecting the vertices $\alpha, \beta \in \Pi$. If $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are joined by at least one edge then, by Corollary 8.1.3, at least one of $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle=-1$ or $\langle\beta, \alpha\rangle=-1$ holds. If $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle \neq-1$ the edges between $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are labelled with an arrow.

A complete set of connected Dynkin diagrams is given in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1: Dynkin Diagrams


Theorem 8.1.7 The irreducible root systems correspond to the connected Dynkin diagrams.

Proof. [33, Th. 9.6].

Lemma 8.1.8 Suppose $\Pi$ is a fundamental system of the root system $\Sigma$, with a connected Dynkin diagram. Let $\alpha \in \Pi$ and $\delta=\sum_{\tau \in \Pi} \tau$. Then there exist positive roots $\beta_{1}=$ $\alpha, \ldots, \beta_{l}=\delta$ such that $\beta_{i}=\beta_{i-1}+\rho$, where $\rho \in \Pi$. In particular, $\delta$ is a root.

Proof. We use induction on $|\Pi|$. The case $|\Pi|=1$ is clear so assume $|\Pi|>1$. Let $\Delta$ be a subset of $\Pi$ such that $\alpha \in \Delta,|\Delta|=|\Pi|-1$ and $\Delta$ has a connected diagram. Inductively there exist positive roots $\beta_{1}=\alpha, \ldots, \beta_{l-1}=\sum_{\tau \in \Delta} \tau$, spanned by $\Delta$. Now let $\omega \in \Pi \backslash \Delta$. Since $\Delta$ is connected and the Dynkin diagram corresponding to $\Pi$ is a tree, $\omega$ is joined to a unique node $\lambda \in \Delta$. Then $\langle\lambda, \omega\rangle \neq 0$ and $\langle\mu, \omega\rangle=0$ for all $\mu \in \Delta \backslash\{\lambda\}$, so we have

$$
\left(\beta_{l-1}, \omega\right)=\sum_{\tau \in \Delta}(\tau, \omega)=(\lambda, \omega)<0 .
$$

Therefore, by Corollary 8.1.3, either $\left\langle\beta_{l-1}, \omega\right\rangle=-1$ or $\left\langle\omega, \beta_{l-1}\right\rangle=-1$. If $\left\langle\beta_{l-1}, \omega\right\rangle=-1$, then

$$
r_{\omega}\left(\beta_{l-1}\right)=\beta_{l-1}-\left\langle\beta_{l-1}, \omega\right\rangle \omega=\delta
$$

and if $\left\langle\omega, \beta_{l-1}\right\rangle=-1$, then

$$
r_{\beta_{l-1}}(\omega)=\omega-\left\langle\omega, \beta_{l-1}\right\rangle \beta_{l-1}=\delta .
$$

So $\delta$ is a positive root and the lemma holds.

Let $\Pi=\left\{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{l}\right\}$ be a set of simple roots for the root system $\Sigma$. Let $\beta \in \Sigma$. Then we can write $\beta=\sum_{i=1}^{l} m_{i} \alpha_{i}$, with $m_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$ and either all $m_{i}$ non-negative, or all $m_{i}$
non-positive. We define the height of $\beta$ by $h t(\beta)=\sum_{i=1}^{l} m_{i}$. The highest root is the root with the greatest height, and is unique.

Example 8.1.9 Let $\Pi=\left\{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{7}\right\}$ be the set of fundamental roots in $E_{7}$. Let $\alpha^{*}$ be the highest root. Then by [19, p.12], $\alpha^{*}=2 \alpha_{1}+3 \alpha_{2}+4 \alpha_{3}+2 \alpha_{4}+3 \alpha_{5}+2 \alpha_{6}+\alpha_{7}$.

Lemma 8.1.10 In $E_{7}, \alpha^{*}-\alpha_{1}$ is a root.

Proof. The only node in the Dynkin diagram of type $E_{7}$ which $\alpha_{1}$ is joined to is $\alpha_{2}$, so by Corollary 8.1.3, either $\left\langle\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right\rangle=-1$ or $\left\langle\alpha_{2}, \alpha_{1}\right\rangle=-1$, and $\left\langle\alpha_{j}, \alpha_{1}\right\rangle=0$ for $j>2$. First suppose $\left\langle\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right\rangle=-1$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
r_{\alpha^{*}}\left(\alpha_{1}\right) & =\alpha_{1}-\left\langle\alpha_{1}, \alpha^{*}\right\rangle \alpha^{*} \\
& =\alpha_{1}-\left(3\left\langle\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}\right\rangle+2\left\langle\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right\rangle\right) \alpha^{*} \\
& =\alpha_{1}-(-3+4) \alpha^{*} \\
& =\alpha_{1}-\alpha^{*} .
\end{aligned}
$$

So $\alpha_{1}-\alpha^{*}$ is a root and hence so is $\alpha^{*}-\alpha_{1}$. Now suppose $\left\langle\alpha_{2}, \alpha_{1}\right\rangle=-1$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
r_{\alpha_{1}}\left(\alpha^{*}\right) & =\alpha^{*}-\left\langle\alpha^{*}, \alpha_{1}\right\rangle \alpha_{1} \\
& =\alpha^{*}-\left(3\left\langle\alpha_{2}, \alpha_{1}\right\rangle+2\left\langle\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right\rangle\right) \alpha_{1} \\
& =\alpha^{*}-(-3+4) \alpha_{1} \\
& =\alpha^{*}-\alpha_{1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

So again $\alpha^{*}-\alpha_{1}$ is a root.

Example 8.1.11 Let $\Pi=\left\{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{8}\right\}$ be the set of fundamental roots in $E_{8}$. The highest root is given by $\alpha^{*}=2 \alpha_{1}+4 \alpha_{2}+6 \alpha_{3}+3 \alpha_{4}+5 \alpha_{5}+4 \alpha_{6}+3 \alpha_{7}+2 \alpha_{8}$, see [19, p.12].

Lemma 8.1.12 In $E_{8}, \alpha^{*}-\alpha_{8}$ is a root.

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Lemma 8.1.10, using $\alpha_{8}$ in place of $\alpha_{1}$.

### 8.2 Algebraic Groups

Let $K$ be an algebraically closed field and let $A=K\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ be the ring of polynomials in $n$ independent commuting variables over $K$. For any $S \subseteq A$, we define an algebraic set to be the set of common zeros of $S$. That is, algebraic sets have the form

$$
\mathcal{V}(S)=\left\{x \in K^{n} \mid f(x)=0 \text { for all } f \in S\right\} .
$$

The sets $\mathcal{V}(S)$ for $S \subseteq A$ form the closed sets of the Zariski topology on $K^{n}$.
Let $X \subseteq K^{n}$ be an algebraic set. The vanishing ideal of $X$ is

$$
\mathcal{I}(X)=\{f \in A \mid f(x)=0 \text { for all } x \in X\} .
$$

Let $K[X]=A / \mathcal{I}(X)$. This is the coordinate ring of $X$. Since $K$ is algebraically closed, $\mathcal{I}(X)$ is a radical ideal. If $X$ is irreducible, $\mathcal{I}(X)$ is a prime ideal and hence $K[X]$ is an integral domain, see [18] for details.

Definition 8.2.1 An affine variety is a pair $(X, K[X])$ as defined above. Generally we just say $X$ is an affine variety.

Definition 8.2.2 Let $K(X)$ be the quotient field of $K[X]$. The dimension of $X$ is the transcendence degree of $K(X)$ over $K$.

Definition 8.2.3 Let $K$ be an algebraically closed field. A linear algebraic group $G$ over $K$ is a group which is also an affine variety over $K$. Let $G$ and $H$ be linear algebraic groups. A map $\phi: G \rightarrow H$ is an algebraic group homomorphism if $\phi$ is both a group homomorphism and a morphism of affine varieties.

Lemma 8.2.4 $A$ group $G$ is a linear algebraic group over $K$ if and only if it is isomorphic to a closed subgroup of $G L_{n}(K)$, for some $n$.

Proof. See [18, Cor. 2.4.4, p.135].

Definition 8.2.5 A topological space $X$ is connected if it cannot be written as the union of two disjoint non-empty open subsets.

Let $G$ be a linear algebraic group. We denote the closed connected component containing the identity by $G^{\circ}$, and note it has finite index in $G$, see [18, Prop. 1.3.13, p.31]. The dimension of $G$ is defined to be the dimension of $G^{\circ}$ as an affine variety.

Definition 8.2.6 Let $G$ be a connected linear algebraic group. The radical $R(G)$ of $G$ is the largest closed connected solvable normal subgroup of $G$. The unipotent radical $R_{u}(G)$ is the largest closed connected unipotent normal subgroup of $G$. We say $G$ is semisimple if and only if $R(G)=1$ and reductive if and only if $R_{u}(G)=1$.

We have $R_{u}(G) \subseteq R(G)$, so a semisimple group is reductive.
Definition 8.2.7 A connected linear algebraic group $G$ is simple if any proper normal subgroup of $G$ is finite and contained in $Z(G)$.

Definition 8.2.8 Let $G$ be a linear algebraic group. A Borel subgroup of $G$ is a maximal closed connected solvable subgroup of $G$.

If $G$ is a linear algebraic group, every element of $G$ lies in some Borel subgroup of $G$, and any two Borel subgroups of $G$ are conjugate, see [18, Thm. 3.4.3, p.198].

Definition 8.2.9 Let $G_{m}$ be the multiplicative group of $K$. A torus is isomorphic to $a$ direct product of finitely many copies of $G_{m}$. A torus is maximal in $G$ if it is not properly contained in any other torus in $G$. Suppose $T$ is a torus in $G$ with $T \cong \underbrace{G_{m} \times \ldots \times G_{m}}_{k \text { times }}$. Then the dimension of $T$ is $k$.

If $G$ is a linear algebraic group, any two maximal tori in $G$ are conjugate and every torus is contained in some Borel subgroup of $G$.

Definition 8.2.10 Let $G$ be an algebraic group with maximal torus $T$. The rank of $G$ is the dimension of $T$. Let $S$ be a maximal torus in $G^{\prime}$, the derived subgroup of $G$. The semisimple rank of $G$ is the dimension of $S$.

Let $G$ be a linear algebraic group and let $B$ be a Borel subgroup of $G$. Since $B$ is solvable and connected, we can write $B=R_{u}(B) T$, where $R_{u}(B)$ is the unipotent radical of $B$ and $T$ is any maximal torus of $B$, see [19]. We say $b \in B$ is unipotent if $b \in R_{u}(B)$, and semisimple if $b \in T$.

Definition 8.2.11 Let $G$ be a linear algebraic group and $x \in G$. As above, $x$ must lie in some Borel subgroup $B$ of $G$. Then $x$ is unipotent in $G$ if it is unipotent in $B$ and $x$ is semisimple in $G$ if it is semisimple in $B$. Also, $x$ is regular if $\operatorname{dim} C_{G}(x)=\operatorname{rank} G$.

Let $T$ be a maximal torus of the connected reductive group $G$. The character group $X$ of $T$ is the set of algebraic group homomorphisms from $T$ to $G_{m}$, with multiplication $\left(\chi_{1}+\chi_{2}\right)(t)=\chi_{1}(t) \chi_{2}(t)$ for all $\chi_{1}, \chi_{2} \in X, t \in T$. We define the cocharacter group $Y$ to be the set of algebraic group homomorphisms from $G_{m}$ to $T$, with multiplication $\left(\gamma_{1}+\gamma_{2}\right)(\lambda)=\gamma_{1}(\lambda) \gamma_{2}(\lambda)$ for all $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2} \in Y, \lambda \in G_{m}$. Write $X=\operatorname{Hom}\left(T, G_{m}\right)$ and $Y=\operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{m}, T\right)$ to denote these entities.

Lemma 8.2.12 $\operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{m}, G_{m}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. Clearly $f(x)=x^{j} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{m}, G_{m}\right)$ for all $j \in \mathbb{Z}$. Conversely, suppose $f \in$ $\operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{m}, G_{m}\right)$. Then since $\operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{m}, G_{m}\right) \subseteq K\left[x, x^{-1}\right], f(x)=\sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} a_{i} x^{i}$ with all but a finite number of $a_{i}^{\prime} s$ zero. Let $j$ be the smallest $i$ such that $a_{j} \neq 0$. Then $g(x)=$ $f(x) x^{-j} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{m}, G_{m}\right)$ has non-zero constant term and no negative powers. Suppose $g$ has degree $r$. Define $h(x)=g\left(x^{2}\right)-g(x)^{2}$. As $h$ has degree at most $2 r$, either $h$ has $2 r$
roots in $K$ or $h=0$. Since $g$ is a homomorphism, we have $h(\lambda)=0$ for all $\lambda \in G_{m}$, and hence $h=0$. Let $g(x)=b_{r} x^{r}+\ldots+b_{1} x+b_{0}$, where $b_{0} \neq 0$. Then

$$
h(x)=b_{r} x^{2 r}+\ldots+b_{1} x^{2}+b_{0}-\left(b_{r} x^{r}+\ldots+b_{1} x+b_{0}\right)^{2}=0 .
$$

So by equating coefficients we have $b_{0}=1$ and $b_{i}=0$ for all $i \neq 1$. Therefore $g=1$ and hence $f(x) x^{-j}=1$, that is $f(x)=x^{j}$.

Let $\chi \in X$ be a character, and $\gamma \in Y$ be a cocharacter. Then the composition $\chi \circ \gamma$ is a homomorphism from $G_{m}$ to $G_{m}$, so there exists $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $(\chi \circ \gamma)(\lambda)=\lambda^{n}$ for all $\lambda \in K$, by Lemma 8.2.12. Define $\langle\chi, \gamma\rangle=n$. We can then define a map $\psi: X \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ by $\psi((\chi, \gamma))=\langle\chi, \gamma\rangle$, for $\chi \in X, \gamma \in Y$.

Lemma 8.2.13 We have $X \cong \operatorname{Hom}(Y, \mathbb{Z})$ and $Y \cong \operatorname{Hom}(X, \mathbb{Z})$.

Proof. For $\chi \in X$, define $\psi_{\chi}: Y \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ by $\psi_{\chi}(\gamma)=\langle\chi, \gamma\rangle$ for $\gamma \in Y$. Similarly for $\gamma \in Y$ define $\psi_{\gamma}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ by $\psi_{\gamma}(\chi)=\langle\chi, \gamma\rangle$ for $\chi \in X$. By [33, p.23, Prop. 3.6], the maps $\chi \rightarrow \psi_{\chi}$ and $\gamma \rightarrow \psi_{\gamma}$ are isomorphisms from $X$ to $\operatorname{Hom}(Y, \mathbb{Z})$ and $Y$ to $\operatorname{Hom}(X, \mathbb{Z})$ respectively.

Again, fix a maximal torus $T$ of $G$. Let $G_{a}$ be the additive group of the field $K$. Any subgroup of $G$ which is isomorphic to $G_{a}$ is called a one-parameter subgroup. A root subgroup is a one-parameter subgroup of $G$ which is normalized by $T$. Let $H$ be a root subgroup of $G$. Then $T$ acts on $H$ by conjugation, giving a homomorphism $\phi: T \rightarrow$ Aut $G_{a}$. So, since Aut $G_{a}$ is isomorphic to $G_{m}$, we have $\phi \in X$. Any such homomorphism $\phi$ is called a root, and we let $\Phi$ denote the set of roots. We have $\Phi$ is a finite set and, up to isomorphism, is independent of the choice of $T$. We say $\Phi$ is the root system of $G$. By [ 9, p. 77$], \Phi$ is a root system in the sense of Section 8.1.

Theorem 8.2.14 Let $X_{\alpha}$ be the root subgroup corresponding to the root $\alpha \in \Phi$. Then $G=\left\langle T, X_{\alpha} \mid \alpha \in \Phi\right\rangle$.

Proof. See [9, p.19].

Let $G$ be a connected reductive group with maximal torus $T$ and character and cocharacter groups $X$ and $Y$ respectively. Let $\Phi$ be the root system of $G$ with respect to $T$, with fundamental system $\Delta$. For any $\beta \in \Phi$, there exists $\beta^{\vee} \in Y$ such that, for all $\alpha \in \Phi$, $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle=\left\langle\alpha, \beta^{\vee}\right\rangle$, where $\langle\alpha, \beta\rangle$ is as in Section 8.1 and $\left\langle\alpha, \beta^{\vee}\right\rangle$ is as above, [9, p.19]. Let $\Phi^{\vee}=\left\{\beta^{\vee} \mid \beta \in \Phi\right\}$. This is the set of coroots of $G$ and is a finite subset of $Y$. Clearly, $|\Phi|=\left|\Phi^{\vee}\right|$.

Definition 8.2.15 Define $\left(X, \Phi, Y, \Phi^{\vee}\right)$ to be the root datum for $G$.
Let $G$ be a connected semisimple group. Given root datum $\left(X, \Phi, Y, \Phi^{\vee}\right)$, we have $\mathbb{Z} \Phi \leqslant X$ and $\mathbb{Z} \Phi^{\vee} \leqslant Y$, with both subgroups having finite index [9, p.23]. Let $\Omega=$ $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\mathbb{Z} \Phi^{\vee}, \mathbb{Z}\right)$. By restriction we have an injection $\operatorname{Hom}(Y, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \Omega$, so since $X \cong$ $\operatorname{Hom}(Y, \mathbb{Z})$, by Lemma 8.2.13, we may identify $X$ with a subgroup of $\Omega$. By [9, p.23], $|\Omega: X|=\left|Y: \mathbb{Z} \Phi^{\vee}\right|$, and so $|X: \mathbb{Z} \Phi|\left|Y: \mathbb{Z} \Phi^{\vee}\right|=|\Omega: \mathbb{Z} \Phi|$.

Let $G$ be a connected reductive group with root system $\Phi$. Let $\Delta$ be the set of fundamental roots of $\Phi$. If $\Delta$ has a connected Dynkin diagram, $G$ is a simple group. However, there is normally more than one linear algebraic group with a particular Dynkin diagram. From a given Dynkin diagram, $\Phi$ and $\Phi^{\vee}$ can be determined up to isomorphism and hence so can $\Omega$. Given $G$ corresponding to a certain Dynkin diagram, there is a subgroup $X$ such that $\mathbb{Z} \Phi \subseteq X \subseteq \Omega$ which determines $G$ up to isomorphism.

Definition 8.2.16 With $G$ and $X$ as above, $G$ is called adjoint if $X=\mathbb{Z} \Phi$ and simply connected if $X=\Omega$.

Definition 8.2.17 Let $G$ and $H$ be linear algebraic groups. An isogeny is a surjective homomorphism $\psi: G \rightarrow H$ such that ker $\psi$ is finite.

Let $G_{a d}$ and $G_{s c}$ be the adjoint and simply connected groups corresponding to a given Dynkin diagram. There is an isogeny $G_{s c} \rightarrow G_{a d}$, with kernel $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Omega / \mathbb{Z} \Phi, G_{m}\right)$. The centre of $G_{s c}$ is isomorphic to this kernel. Note $Z\left(G_{a d}\right)=1$.

Definition 8.2.18 Let $G$ be a simple linear algebraic group and assume $\Delta=\left\{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{l}\right\}$ is a set of fundamental roots. Let $h=\sum_{i=1}^{l} m_{i} \alpha_{i}$ be the highest root. A prime $p$ is bad for $G$ if $p$ divides $m_{i}$ for some $1 \leqslant i \leqslant l$. A prime is good for $G$ if it is not bad.

The bad primes for the simple algebraic groups are as follows, [33, p.117].

| Group Type | Bad Primes |
| :---: | :---: |
| $A_{l}$ | none |
| $B_{l}$ | 2 |
| $C_{l}$ | 2 |
| $D_{l}$ | 2 |
| $G_{2}$ | 2,3 |
| $F_{4}$ | 2,3 |
| $E_{6}$ | 2,3 |
| $E_{7}$ | 2,3 |
| $E_{8}$ | $2,3,5$ |

### 8.3 Finite Groups of Lie Type

In this section we discuss how the finite groups of Lie type can be obtained from the linear algebraic groups.

Definition 8.3.1 [9, p.31] Let $K$ be an algebraically closed field of characteristic $p$ and $q$ some positive power of $p$. Define $F_{q}: G L_{n}(K) \rightarrow G L_{n}(K)$ by $F_{q}\left(\left(a_{i j}\right)\right)=\left(a_{i j}^{q}\right)$. Now let $G$ be a linear algebraic group over $K$ and $F$ a homomorphism of $G$. Suppose there exists an injective map $i: G \rightarrow G L_{n}(K)$ such that $i \circ F=F_{q} \circ i$. Then $F$ is a standard

Frobenius map. A Frobenius map on $G$ is a homomorphism $F: G \rightarrow G$ such that there is some integer $m>0$ with $F^{m}$ a standard Frobenius map. Following [19], we say $F$ is a Frobenius map of level $q^{\frac{1}{m}}$.

Definition 8.3.2 Let $G$ be a linear algebraic group and $F$ be a Frobenius map on $G$. The fixed point set of $F$ on $G$ is

$$
G^{F}=\{g \in G \mid F(g)=g\} .
$$

Lemma 8.3.3 If $G$ is a linear algebraic group and $F$ is a Frobenius map on $G$, then $G^{F}$ is a finite group.

Proof. See [18, Prop. 4.1.4, p.228].

Definition 8.3.4 Let $G$ be a connected reductive group and $F$ be a Frobenius map on $G$. Then $G^{F}$ is called $a$ finite group of Lie type.

Proposition 8.3.5 Let $F$ be a Frobenius map on $G$, of level $q_{0}$ and let $H$ be a closed subgroup of $G$. Then the restriction of $F$ to $H$ is a Frobenius map on $H$ of level $q_{0}$.

Proof. See [19, Prop. 2.1.10, p.34].

The following is the Lang-Steinberg Theorem.

Theorem 8.3.6 (Lang-Steinberg) Let $G$ be a connected linear algebraic group over $K$, with Frobenius map $F$. Then the map $L: G \rightarrow G, L(g)=g^{-1} F(g)$, is surjective.

Proof. See [9, p.32].

Definition 8.3.7 Let $G$ be a connected linear algebraic group over $K$, with Frobenius map $F$. A subgroup $H$ of $G$ is $F$-stable if $F(H)=H$.

The following result is a standard application of the Lang-Steinberg Theorem.
Lemma 8.3.8 Let $G$ be a connected reductive group with Frobenius map F. Then $G$ contains an F-stable Borel subgroup, and an F-stable maximal torus.

Proof. Let $B$ be a Borel subgroup in $G$. Then $F(B)$ is also a Borel subgroup and so, as all Borel subgroups of $G$ are conjugate in $G$, there exists $g \in G$ such that $F(B)=g^{-1} B g$. Now by the Lang-Steinberg Theorem, $g=x^{-1} F(x)$ for some $x \in G$. Then

$$
F\left(x B x^{-1}\right)=F(x) F(B) F(x)^{-1}=x g F(B) g^{-1} x^{-1}=x B x^{-1} .
$$

So $x B x^{-1}$ is an $F$-stable Borel subgroup in $G$. The proof is the same for maximal tori.

Definition 8.3.9 Let $G$ be a connected reductive group with Frobenius map F. Let B be an $F$-stable Borel subgroup and $T$ an $F$-stable maximal torus of $G$. Then we say $B^{F}$ is a Borel subgroup and $T^{F}$ is a maximal torus of $G^{F}$.

Definition 8.3.10 Let $G$ be a connected reductive group with Frobenius map F. A maximally split torus of $G$ is an $F$-stable maximal torus $T$ which is contained in an $F$-stable Borel subgroup. Then $T^{F}$ is a maximally split torus of $G^{F}$.

Lemma 8.3.11 Let $G$ be a simple linear algebraic group with Frobenius map F. Let $H$ be the preimage of $(G / Z(G))^{F}$ in $G$ under the natural homomorphism. Then $\psi: H \rightarrow Z(G)$, $\psi(h)=h^{-1} F(h)$, is a surjective homomorphism with kernel $G^{F}$.

Proof. Let $g, h \in H$. Then

$$
\psi(g h)=(g h)^{-1} F(g h)=h^{-1} g^{-1} F(g) F(h)=h^{-1} \psi(g) F(h)=\psi(g) h^{-1} F(h)=\psi(g) \psi(h),
$$

since $\psi(g) \in Z(G)$. So $\psi$ is a homomorphism. Now let $T$ be an $F$-stable maximal torus of $G$. Note $T$ is connected and $Z(G) \leqslant T$, see [19, Th. 1.9.5, p.14], so for any $z \in Z(G)$
there is a $t \in T$ such that $z=t^{-1} F(t)$, by the Lang-Steinberg Theorem. For any $g \in G$, $g \in H$ if and only if $g^{-1} F(g) \in Z(G)$. Therefore $t \in H$ and hence $\psi$ is surjective. Finally, $k \in \operatorname{ker} \psi$ if and only if $k^{-1} F(k)=1$. So, since $G^{F} \leqslant H$, we have ker $\psi=G^{F}$.

### 8.4 Dual Groups

Let $G$ be a connected reductive group with root datum $\left(X, \Phi, Y, \Phi^{\vee}\right)$. Then $\left(Y, \Phi^{\vee}, X, \Phi\right)$ is also the root datum for a connected reductive group $G^{*},[9$, $\operatorname{Prop} 4.2 .1$, p.112]. We call $G^{*}$ the dual group of $G$ and note it is unique up to isomorphism.

Suppose $F$ is a Frobenius map on $G$. We can define an action of $F$ on $X$ and $Y$ as follows. Let $T$ be a maximally split torus of $G$ with respect to $F$. For $\chi \in X, t \in T$, let $(F(\chi))(t)=\chi(F(t))$, and for $\gamma \in Y, \lambda \in G_{m}$, let $(F(\gamma))(\lambda)=F(\gamma(\lambda))$. We have the following definition from [9, Prop. 4.3.1, p.114].

Definition 8.4.1 Suppose $G$ and $G^{*}$ are connected reductive groups with Frobenius maps $F$ and $F^{*}$ respectively, and let $T \leqslant G$ and $T^{*} \leqslant G^{*}$ be maximally split tori. Let the corresponding root datum for $G$ be $\left(X, \Phi, Y, \Phi^{\vee}\right)$ and for $G^{*}$ be $\left(X^{*}, \Phi^{*}, Y^{*}, \Phi^{* \vee}\right)$. Then $(G, F)$ and $\left(G^{*}, F^{*}\right)$ are in duality if there exists an isomorphism $\delta: X \rightarrow Y^{*}$ such that
(i) $\delta(\Phi)=\Phi^{* V}$;
(ii) $\left\langle\chi, \alpha^{\vee}\right\rangle=\left\langle\alpha^{*}, \delta(\chi)\right\rangle$ for all $\chi \in X, \alpha \in \Phi$, where $\delta(\alpha)=\left(\alpha^{*}\right)^{\vee}$;
(iii) $\delta(F(\chi))=F^{*}(\delta(\chi))$ for all $\chi \in X$.

Parts ( $i$ ) and (ii) of this definition show $G$ and $G^{*}$ are dual groups.

Definition 8.4.2 Suppose $(G, F)$ and $\left(G^{*}, F^{*}\right)$ are in duality. Then $G^{F}$ and $G^{* F^{*}}$ are dual groups.

Lemma 8.4.3 Suppose $G^{F}$ and $G^{* F^{*}}$ are dual groups. Then $\left|G^{F}\right|=\left|G^{* F^{*}}\right|$.

Proof. See [9, Prop. 4.4.4, p.118].

Let $G$ be a simple algebraic group with Frobenius map $F$. Generally, if $G^{F}$ is of adjoint type, the dual group $G^{* F^{*}}$ is the corresponding simply connected group with the same root system. The only exceptions are $G^{F}=\left(B_{l}\right)_{a d}(q)$, where $G^{* F^{*}}=\left(C_{l}\right)_{s c}(q)$, and $G^{F}=\left(C_{l}\right)_{a d}(q)$, where $G^{* F^{*}}=\left(B_{l}\right)_{s c}(q),[9$, p.120].

### 8.5 Centralizers

For this section let $G$ be a connected reductive group and fix a maximal torus $T$ of $G$. Let $X$ be the character group of $T$ and $\Phi$ the corresponding root system, with fundamental system $\Delta$. Recall every semisimple element in $G$ is conjugate to an element of $T$.

Theorem 8.5.1 Let $s$ be a semisimple element of $T$. Then $s \in C_{G}(s)^{\circ}$ and $C_{G}(s)^{\circ}$ is reductive with root system $\Phi_{1}=\{\alpha \in \Phi: \alpha(s)=1\}$, where $C_{G}(s)^{\circ}$ is the connected component of $C_{G}(s)$.

Proof. See [9, section 3.5].

Lemma 8.5.2 Suppose $\alpha \in \Delta$ with $\alpha(x) \neq 1$, for $x \in T$. Then for any $\beta \in \Phi$, if $\alpha+\beta \in \Phi,(\alpha+\beta)(x) \neq 1$.

Proof. From the definition of multiplication in $X$, we have $(\alpha+\beta)(x)=\alpha(x) \beta(x) \neq 1$.

Let $s \in T$ be a non-central semisimple element of $G$ and let $C_{G}(s)^{\circ}$ have root system $\Phi_{1}$. If $\Delta \subseteq \Phi_{1}$, we have $\Phi \subseteq \Phi_{1}$ and hence $\Phi=\Phi_{1}$. This implies $C_{G}(s)^{\circ}=G$, a contradiction. Therefore there exists $\alpha \in \Delta$ such that $\alpha \notin \Phi_{1}$. So by Lemma 8.1.8 there are at least $|\Delta|$ roots in $\Phi^{+}$which are not in $\Phi_{1}^{+}$. This gives us the following lemma.

Lemma 8.5.3 With the above conditions, we have $\left|\Phi_{1}^{+}\right| \leqslant\left|\Phi^{+}\right|-|\Delta|$.

Corollary 8.5.4 If the root system of $G$ is not of type $A_{l}$, we have $\left|\Phi_{1}^{+}\right| \leqslant\left|\Phi^{+}\right|-|\Delta|-1$. Further, if the root system of $G$ is of type $E_{7}$ or $E_{8},\left|\Phi_{1}^{+}\right| \leqslant\left|\Phi^{+}\right|-|\Delta|-2$.

Proof. The highest root $\alpha^{*}$ is a positive root including $\alpha$ in its sum. Therefore, by Lemma 8.5.2, $\alpha^{*}(s) \neq 1$ and so $\alpha^{*} \notin \Phi_{1}$. For groups of type other than $A_{l}$, the root $\alpha^{*}$ is not one of the $\beta_{i}, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant l$, in Lemma 8.1.8, so we are done. For groups of type $E_{7}$ and $E_{8}$ we also have the roots given by Lemmas 8.1.10 and 8.1.12.

We have the following lemma from [9, p.27].
Lemma 8.5.5 Let $x$ be an element of an algebraic group $G$. Then $C_{G}(x)$ is a closed subgroup of $G$.

Lemma 8.5.6 Let $F$ be a Frobenius map on $G$ and let $x$ be an element in $G^{F}$. Then $C_{G}(x)$ is $F$-stable.

Proof. Let $g \in C_{G}(x)$. Then

$$
F(g)^{-1} x F(g)=F\left(g^{-1}\right) F(x) F(g)=F\left(g^{-1} x g\right)=F(x)=x,
$$

and so $F(g) \in C_{G}(x)$.

Corollary 8.5.7 Let $F$ be a Frobenius map on $G$ and let $s$ be a semisimple element in $G^{F}$. Then $F$ is a Frobenius map on $C_{G}(s)$.

Proof. This follows from Lemmas 8.3.5, 8.5.5 and 8.5.6.

Lemma 8.5.8 Let $F$ be a Frobenius map on $G$, let $g \in G^{F}$ and $x \in G$. Then $g^{x} \in G^{F}$ if and only if $x F\left(x^{-1}\right) \in C_{G}(g)$.

Proof. Suppose $g^{x} \in G^{F}$. Then $F\left(g^{x}\right)=g^{x}$ and hence $F(g)^{F(x)}=g^{x}$. Therefore, since $g \in G^{F}, g^{F(x)}=g^{x}$ and so $x F\left(x^{-1}\right) \in C_{G}(g)$. Conversely, if $x F\left(x^{-1}\right) \in C_{G}(g), g^{x}=$ $g^{F(x)}=F(g)^{F(x)}=F\left(g^{x}\right)$ as required.

Lemma 8.5.9 Let $G$ be a connected reductive group with root system $\Phi$ and let $F$ be a Frobenius map on $G$. Then a Sylow p-subgroup of $G^{F}$ has order $q^{\left|\Phi^{+}\right|}$.

Proof. See [9, p.74].

Corollary 8.5.10 Let $G$ be a connected reductive group with Frobenius map F, and let $s \in G^{F}$ be semisimple. Assume $C_{G}(s)$ is connected with root system $\Phi_{1}$. Then $\left|C_{G^{F}}(s)\right|_{p} \leqslant$ $q^{\left(\left|\Phi^{+}\right|-|\Delta|\right)}$. Further, if $G$ is not of type $A_{l},\left|C_{G^{F}}(s)\right|_{p} \leqslant q^{\left(\left|\Phi^{+}\right|-|\Delta|-1\right)}$ and if $G$ is of type $E_{7}$ or $E_{8},\left|C_{G^{F}}(s)\right|_{p} \leqslant q^{\left(\left|\Phi^{+}\right|-|\Delta|-2\right)}$.

Proof. By Corollary 8.5.7, $F$ is a Frobenius map on $C_{G}(s)$. Therefore $C_{G}(s)$ is a connected reductive group with Frobenius map $F$, so by Lemma 8.5.9 $\left|C_{G^{F}}(s)\right|_{p}=q^{\left|\Phi_{1}^{+}\right|}$. Hence by Lemma 8.5.3 we have $\left|C_{G^{F}}(s)\right|_{p} \leqslant q^{\left(\left|\Phi^{+}\right|-|\Delta|\right)}$ as required. The remainder follows from Corollary 8.5.4.

### 8.6 Regular Unipotent Conjugacy Classes

In this section, we assume $G$ is a connected reductive group with a connected centre and $F$ is a Frobenius map on $G$.

Lemma 8.6.1 There exist regular unipotent elements in $G^{F}$. The number of them is $\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{\left|Z(G)^{F}\right| q}$, where $l$ is the semisimple rank of $G$.

Proof. See [9, Prop. 5.1.7, p.130, Prop. 5.1.9, p.131].

Lemma 8.6.2 Let $u$ be a regular unipotent element in $G$. Then $C_{G}(u)$ is abelian.

Proof. See [16, Cor. 1.16, p.220].

Definition 8.6.3 Let $H$ be an $F$-invariant subgroup of $G$. Define an equivalence relation on $H$ by $x \sim y$ if and only if there exists $g \in H$ such that $y=g x F\left(g^{-1}\right)$. Let $H^{1}(F, H)$ denote the equivalence classes of this relation.

Lemma 8.6.4 Let $H$ be a closed $F$-invariant subgroup of $G$. There is a bijection from $H^{1}(F, H)$ to $H^{1}\left(F, H / H^{\circ}\right)$.

Proof. See [19, Thm. 2.1.4, p.32].

Corollary 8.6.5 Let $u$ be a regular unipotent element in $G^{F}$. Then there is a bijection from $H^{1}\left(F, C_{G}(u)\right)$ to $H^{1}\left(F, C_{G}(u) / C_{G}(u)^{\circ}\right)$.

Proof. We see $C_{G}(u)$ is closed and $F$-stable by Lemmas 8.5.5 and 8.5.6, so this follows by Lemma 8.6.4.

Lemma 8.6.6 Let $u$ be an element in $G^{F}$. Suppose $u^{x}, u^{y} \in G^{F}$ for $x, y \in G$. Then $u^{x}$ and $u^{y}$ are conjugate in $G^{F}$ if and only if $x F\left(x^{-1}\right) \sim y F\left(y^{-1}\right)$ in $C_{G}(u)$.

Proof. Suppose there exists $g \in G^{F}$ such that $u^{x}=\left(u^{y}\right)^{g}$. Then $u=u^{y g x^{-1}}$ and so $y g x^{-1} \in C_{G}(u)$. Let $h \in C_{G}(u)$ be such that $y g x^{-1}=h$. Then $g=y^{-1} h x$ and since $g \in G^{F}, F\left(y^{-1} h x\right)=y^{-1} h x$. This means $y F\left(y^{-1}\right)=h x F\left(x^{-1}\right) F\left(h^{-1}\right)$, and so $x F\left(x^{-1}\right) \sim$ $y F\left(y^{-1}\right)$.

Conversely, suppose $x F\left(x^{-1}\right) \sim y F\left(y^{-1}\right)$. Then since $x F\left(x^{-1}\right), y F\left(y^{-1}\right) \in C_{G}(u)$ by Lemma 8.5.8, there exists $h \in C_{G}(u)$ such that $y F\left(y^{-1}\right)=h x F\left(x^{-1}\right) F\left(h^{-1}\right)$. Then $y^{-1} h x=F\left(y^{-1} h x\right)$ and so $y^{-1} h x \in G^{F}$. Now, $\left(u^{y}\right)^{y^{-1} h x}=u^{h x}=u^{x}$ and so $u^{x}$ and $u^{y}$ are conjugate in $G^{F}$.

Lemma 8.6.7 Let u be a regular unipotent element in $G^{F}$. There is a bijection between the set of regular unipotent conjugacy classes in $G^{F}$ and $H^{1}\left(F, C_{G}(u) / C_{G}(u)^{\circ}\right)$.

Proof. By the Lang-Steinberg Theorem, every element of $C_{G}(u)$ can be written as $x F\left(x^{-1}\right)$, for some $x \in G$. From Lemmas 8.5.8 and 8.6.6, we have $u^{x}$ is conjugate to $u^{y}$ in $G^{F}$ if and only if $x F\left(x^{-1}\right) \sim y F\left(y^{-1}\right)$ where $\sim$ is an the equivalence relation with equivalence classes $H^{1}\left(F, C_{G}(u)\right)$. The result now follows from Corollary 8.6.5.

Corollary 8.6.8 The number of conjugacy classes of regular unipotent elements in $G^{F}$ is $\left|H^{1}\left(F, C_{G}(u) / C_{G}(u)^{\circ}\right)\right|$.

Proof. This follows directly from Lemma 8.6.7.

Now let $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{s}$ be representatives of the distinct classes of $H^{1}\left(F, C_{G}(u)\right)$. By the Lang-Steinberg Theorem, there exist $h_{i} \in G$ such that $g_{i}=h_{i} F\left(h_{i}^{-1}\right)$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant s$. For each $i$, let $w_{i}=u^{h_{i}}$. Then $\left\{w_{1}, \ldots, w_{s}\right\}$ is a set of conjugacy class representatives for the regular unipotent conjugacy classes of $G^{F}$. Let $F_{i}=F c_{g_{i}^{-1}}$, where $c_{g}$ is conjugation by $g$.

Lemma 8.6.9 For $1 \leqslant i \leqslant s$, the action of $F$ on $C_{G}\left(w_{i}\right)$ is equivalent to the action of $F_{i}$ on $C_{G}(u)$.

Proof. Let $x \in C_{G}(u)$. Then $F\left(x^{h_{i}}\right)=F(x)^{F\left(h_{i}\right)}=\left(F(x)^{g_{i}^{-1}}\right)^{h_{i}}=\left(F_{i}(x)\right)^{h_{i}}$, since $g_{i}=$ $h_{i} F\left(h_{i}^{-1}\right)$.

Corollary 8.6.10 For $1 \leqslant i \leqslant s,\left|C_{G^{F}}\left(w_{i}\right)\right|=\left|C_{G^{F_{i}}}(u)\right|$.

Lemma 8.6.11 We have $C_{G^{F_{i}}}(u)=C_{G^{F}}(u)$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant s$.

Proof. $x \in C_{G^{F_{i}}}(u)$ if and only if $x \in C_{G}(u)$ and $F_{i}(x)=x$. So by Lemma 8.6.2, this is if and only if $x \in C_{G^{F}}(u)$.

Corollary 8.6.12 The centralizers of all regular unipotent elements in $G^{F}$ have the same size.

Proof. For $1 \leqslant i \leqslant s,\left|C_{G^{F}}\left(w_{i}\right)\right|=\left|C_{G^{F_{i}}}(u)\right|=\left|C_{G^{F}}(u)\right|$, by Corollary 8.6.10 and Lemma 8.6.11.

Lemma 8.6.13 Let $x$ be a regular unipotent element in $G^{F}$. Then there is a unique maximal connected unipotent subgroup $U$ of $G$ containing $x$. Furthermore we have the following results.
(i) $C_{G}(x)=Z(G) C_{U}(x)$. So if $G$ is of adjoint type, $C_{G}(x)=C_{U}(x)$.
(ii) $C_{U}(x)$ is connected if and only if $p$ is a good prime for $G$.
(iii) If $G$ is simple and $p$ is bad for $G$, the order of $C_{U}(x) / C_{U}(x)^{\circ}$ is $p$ unless $G$ is of type $E_{7}$ or $E_{8}$ and $p=2$. In these cases $C_{U}(x) / C_{U}(x)^{\circ}$ has order 4 .
(iv) If $G$ is simple and adjoint, the number of $G^{F}$ conjugacy classes of regular unipotent elements is $\left|C_{U}(x) / C_{U}(x)^{\circ}\right|$.

Proof. See [16, p.220].

Theorem 8.6.14 Let $G$ be a simple algebraic group of adjoint type. If p is a good prime for $G$, there is only one conjugacy class of regular unipotent elements in $G^{F}$ and its order is $\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{q^{l}}$. If $p$ is a bad prime for $G$, every regular unipotent conjugacy class in $G^{F}$ has size $\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{p q^{l}}$ unless $G$ is of type $E_{7}$ or $E_{8}$ and $p=2$, in which case it has size $\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{4 q^{l}}$.

Proof. Since $G$ is of adjoint type, $Z(G)=1$. The result is clear for good primes from Lemmas 8.6.1 and 8.6.13. Now suppose $p$ is a bad prime for $G$. From Lemma 8.6.13 there are $p$ conjugacy classes of regular unipotent elements in $G^{F}$, except if $G$ is of type $E_{7}$ or $E_{8}$ and $p=2$, when there are four such classes. So, since by Corollary 8.6.12, the centralizers of regular unipotent elements in $G^{F}$ all have the same order, we have the result.

### 8.7 Regular Semisimple Elements

Let $G$ be a connected semisimple group with Frobenius map $F$.
Definition 8.7.1 Let $x \in G^{F}$ be semisimple. Then $x$ is regular if and only if $\left|C_{G^{F}}(x)\right|_{p}=1$.

Lemma 8.7.2 There exist regular semisimple elements in $G_{s c}^{F}$.

Proof. This follows from [32, Th. 3.3].

Lemma 8.7.3 Suppose $x \in G_{s c}^{F}$ is regular semisimple. Let $Z=Z\left(G_{s c}^{F}\right)$ and $K=G_{s c}^{F} / Z$. Then $x Z$ is regular semisimple in $K$.

Proof. Let $X=\langle x, Z\rangle$, so $C_{K}(x Z)=C_{K}(X / Z)$. Suppose $x Z$ is not regular semisimple. Then $p$ divides $\left|C_{K}(X / Z)\right|$ and so there exists $c Z \in C_{K}(X / Z)$ which has order $p$. We have $(|Z|, p)=1$, so $|\langle c, Z\rangle|=p|Z|$, and hence we may assume $c$ has order $p$. Let $C=\langle c\rangle$. Then $(|C|,|X|)=1$ and so the action of $C$ on $X$ is coprime. Hence, by [30, 8.2.7, p.187], $[X, C]=[X, C, C] \leqslant[Z, C]=1$. Therefore $C$ centralizes $X$ and in particular $c \in C_{G_{s c}^{F}}(x)$ which implies $p$ divides $\left|C_{G_{s c}^{F}}(x)\right|$, a contradiction.

Corollary 8.7.4 There exist regular semisimple elements in $G_{a d}^{F}$.

Proof. We have $K \cong\left(G_{a d}^{F}\right)^{\prime}$ and so by Lemma 8.7.3, there is a regular unipotent element $z \in\left(G_{a d}^{F}\right)^{\prime}$. Now note $G_{a d}^{F} /\left(G_{a d}^{F}\right)^{\prime}$ is a $p^{\prime}$-group, so $\left|C_{G_{a d}^{F}}(z)\right|_{p}=\left|C_{\left(G_{a d}^{F}\right)^{\prime}}(z)\right|_{p}=1$. Therefore $z$ is a regular unipotent element in $G_{a d}^{F}$.

## Chapter 9

## Character degrees of Finite groups of Lie Type

### 9.1 Characters

The aim of this section is to provide the character theoretic background needed to prove our theorem. The theory is known as Deligne-Lusztig theory and is developed in [9].

Definition 9.1.1 Let $\chi_{1}, \ldots, \chi_{k}$ be all the irreducible characters of a finite group $G$. A generalized character of $G$ is any function $\chi=\sum_{i=1}^{k} n_{i} \chi_{i}$, with $n_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant k$.

From now on, let $G$ be a connected reductive group with a Frobenius map $F$. For any maximal torus $T^{F}$ in $G^{F}$, let $\widehat{T}^{F}=\operatorname{Hom}\left(T^{F}, \mathbb{C}^{*}\right)$ be the set of complex characters of $T^{F}$. In [9], Carter defines an equivalence relation on the pairs $(T, \theta)$, where $T$ is a maximal $F$-stable torus of $G$ and $\theta \in \widehat{T}^{F}$. This is known as geometric conjugacy, see [9, p.107] for details.

Lemma 9.1.2 Let $G^{*}$ be a connected reductive group with Frobenius map $F^{*}$ and assume $(G, F)$ and $\left(G^{*}, F^{*}\right)$ are in duality. Then there is a bijection between the geometric conjugacy classes in $G$ and the $F^{*}$-stable semisimple conjugacy classes in $G^{*}$.

Proof. See [9, Thm. 4.4.6, p.119].

In [13], Deligne and Lusztig defined a generalized character $R_{T, \theta}$ for each $F$-stable maximal torus $T$ and each $\theta \in \widehat{T}^{F}$. The theory is very complicated, and includes cohomology groups, so we shall just state a couple of facts about these characters, without including the details.

Lemma 9.1.3 Let $\chi$ be an irreducible character of $G^{F}$. Then $\chi$ is a constituent of $R_{T, \theta}$ for some $F$-stable maximal torus $T$ and $\theta \in \widehat{T}^{F}$.

Proof. See [9, Cor. 7.5.7, p.236].

Lemma 9.1.4 Suppose $T$ and $T^{\prime}$ are $F$-stable maximal tori of $G$ and let $\theta \in \widehat{T}^{F}$ and $\theta^{\prime} \in \widehat{T}^{F}$. If $(T, \theta)$ and $\left(T^{\prime}, \theta^{\prime}\right)$ are not in the same geometric conjugacy class, then $R_{T, \theta}$ and $R_{T^{\prime}, \theta^{\prime}}$ have no common irreducible constituents.

Proof. See [9, Th. 7.3.8, p.220].

Now suppose for some irreducible character $\chi$ of $G$, we have $\left(R_{T, \theta}, \chi\right) \neq 0$ and $\left(R_{T^{\prime}, \theta^{\prime}}, \chi\right) \neq 0$, where $T, T^{\prime}, \theta$ and $\theta^{\prime}$ are as before. Then by Lemma 9.1.4, $(T, \theta)$ and $\left(T^{\prime}, \theta^{\prime}\right)$ must be in the same geometric conjugacy class. Thus, by Lemma 9.1.3, each irreducible character of $G^{F}$ determines some geometric conjugacy class.

Definition 9.1.5 Let $\chi_{i}$ and $\chi_{j}$ be irreducible characters of $G^{F}$. We say $\chi_{i}$ and $\chi_{j}$ are geometrically conjugate if they determine the same geometric conjugacy class.

We now need to assume our connected reductive group $G$ has a connected centre.

Definition 9.1.6 Let $\chi$ be an irreducible character of $G^{F}$. If its average value on the regular unipotent elements of $G^{F}$ is nonzero then we say that $\chi$ is semisimple.

Every geometric conjugacy class, $\kappa$, of irreducible characters of $G^{F}$ contains exactly one semisimple character. This character is defined by

$$
\chi_{\kappa}= \pm \sum_{(T, \theta) \in \kappa, m o d G^{F}} \frac{R_{T, \theta}}{\left(R_{T, \theta}, R_{T, \theta}\right)},
$$

where the sum is taken over one representative of each $G^{F}$-orbit on $\kappa$ and the sign is chosen to make $\chi_{\kappa}(1)$ positive, [9, p.288].

An important result for us is the following.

Lemma 9.1.7 The degree of any semisimple character is coprime to $p$.

Proof. See [9, Th. 8.4.8, p.288].

The geometric conjugacy class containing the principal character is the one corresponding to $(T, 1)$, where $T$ is any $F$-stable maximal torus of $G$.

Definition 9.1.8 Let $\chi$ be an irreducible character of $G^{F}$. If $\chi$ is a constituent of $R_{T, 1}$ for any $F$-stable maximal torus of $G$ then it is called unipotent.

Lists of the degrees of the unipotent characters of $G^{F}$, for $G$ simple, are given in $[9$, Ch. 13].

There is the following Jordan decomposition for characters, see [9, 12.9, p.391]. This will be very useful to us.

Lemma 9.1.9 Let $\chi$ be an irreducible character of $G^{F}$. Then there exists a pair $\left(\chi_{s}, \chi_{u}\right)$ such that $\chi(1)=\chi_{s}(1) \chi_{u}(1)$, where $\chi_{s}$ is a semisimple character of $G^{F}$ and $\chi_{u}$ is a unipotent character of $C_{G^{*} F^{*}}\left(s^{*}\right)$, where $s^{*}$ is a semisimple element in the conjugacy class of $G^{* F^{*}}$ determined by $\chi_{s}$ as in Lemma 9.1.2.

At last our first concrete result.

Lemma 9.1.10 Let $G$ be a simple connected reductive group of adjoint type and let $F$ be a Frobenius map on $G$. Let $\chi$ be an irreducible character of $G^{F}$ which is not unipotent. Then $\chi(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|$, where $u$ is any regular unipotent element in $G^{F}$.

Proof. First, let $p$ be a good prime for $G$. Then $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|=\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{q^{L}}$, by Theorem 8.6.14. We know $\chi(1)$ divides $\left|G^{F}\right|$, so we only need to consider the $p$-part of $\chi(1)$. Let ( $\chi_{s}, \chi_{u}$ ) be the Jordan decomposition of $\chi$. By Lemma 9.1.7, $\left(\chi_{s}(1)\right)_{p}=1$ and since $\chi$ is not unipotent, $\chi_{s}$ is not the principal character. Then $s^{*}$ is a non-central element of $G^{* F^{*}}$. Now, $\chi_{u}$ is a character of $C_{G^{*} F^{*}}\left(s^{*}\right)$, so $\chi_{u}(1)$ divides $\left|C_{G^{*} F^{*}}\left(s^{*}\right)\right|$. Therefore by Corollary 8.5.10, $\left(\chi_{u}(1)\right)_{p} \leqslant q^{\left|\Phi^{+}\right|-l}$, and so since $\left|G^{F}\right|_{p}=q^{\left|\Phi^{+}\right|}, \chi(1)$ divides $\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{q^{l}}$ as required.

Now we consider the situation for bad primes. Let $p$ be a bad prime for $G$, but assume we do not have $p=2$ and $G$ of type $E_{7}$ or $E_{8}$. Then we have $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|=\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{p q^{T}}$ by Theorem 8.6.14. Clearly $\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{q^{++1}}$ divides $\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{p q^{l}}$. So, since we have $\left|C_{G^{*}}\left(s^{*}\right)\right|_{p} \leqslant q^{\left|\Phi^{+}\right|-l-1}$ by Corollary 8.5.10, the result follows as above.

Finally we consider the case $p=2$ and $G$ of type $E_{7}$ or $E_{8}$. By Theorem 8.6.14, $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|=\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{4 q^{l}}$ and so the result follows from Corollary 8.5.10 as before.

### 9.2 The Steinberg Character

Definition 9.2.1 A group $\mathcal{G}$, with subgroups $\mathcal{B}$ and $\mathcal{N}$, is said to have a $B N$-pair if the following are satisfied.
(i) $\mathcal{G}=\langle\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{N}\rangle$.
(ii) $\mathcal{H}=\mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{N} \unlhd \mathcal{N}$.
(iii) $\mathcal{W}=\mathcal{N} / \mathcal{H}$ is generated by a set $S=\left\{s_{i} \mid i \in I, s_{i}^{2}=1\right\}$.
(iv) For $i \in I, n_{i} \mathcal{B} n_{i} \neq \mathcal{B}$, where $n_{i} \in \mathcal{N}$ is any preimage of $s_{i}$.
(v) $n_{i} \mathcal{B} n \subseteq \mathcal{B} n_{i} n \mathcal{B} \cup \mathcal{B} n_{i} \mathcal{B}$ for $n \in \mathcal{N}$ and $n_{i}$ as before.

Definition 9.2.2 Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a group with a BN-pair, $\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{N}$. Then $\mathcal{G}$ has a split $B N$-pair if there exists a unipotent subgroup $\mathcal{U} \unlhd \mathcal{B}$ such that:
(i) $\mathcal{B}=\mathcal{U H}$ and $\mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{H}=\{1\}$;
(ii) $\bigcap_{n \in \mathcal{N}} n \mathcal{B} n^{-1}=\mathcal{H}$.

Example 9.2.3 Set $\mathcal{G}=G L(n, K)$. Let $\mathcal{B}$ be the subgroup of lower triangular matrices, $\mathcal{N}$ be the subgroup of monomial matrices and $\mathcal{U}$ be the subgroup of lower unitriangular matrices. Then $\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{N}$ is a split $B N$-pair for $\mathcal{G}$. Note $\mathcal{H}$ is the subgroup of diagonal matrices.

Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a group with a $B N$-pair, $\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{N}$. For any $J \subseteq I$ let $\mathcal{W}_{J}=\left\langle s_{i}: i \in J\right\rangle$, and $\mathcal{N}_{J}$ be such that $\mathcal{N}_{J} / \mathcal{H}=\mathcal{W}_{J}$. Define $\mathcal{P}_{J}=\mathcal{B} \mathcal{N}_{J} \mathcal{B}$. This is a subgroup by [9, Prop 2.1.4, p.43].

Definition 9.2.4 We say $\mathcal{P}_{J}$ is a standard parabolic subgroup of $\mathcal{G}$.

Definition 9.2.5 Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a finite group with a $B N$-pair. The Steinberg character of $\mathcal{G}$ is given by

$$
S t=\sum_{J \subseteq I}(-1)^{|J|}\left(1_{\mathcal{P}_{J}}\right)^{\mathcal{G}},
$$

where $\left(1_{\mathcal{P}_{J}}\right)^{\mathcal{G}}$ is the principal character of $\mathcal{P}_{J}$ induced up to $\mathcal{G}$.

Lemma 9.2.6 The Steinberg character is irreducible.

Proof. See [9, Cor. 6.2.4, p.190].

Theorem 9.2.7 Let $G$ be a connected reductive group with Frobenius map F. Then
(i) $G$ has a split $B N$-pair;
(ii) $G^{F}$ has a split BN-pair.

Proof. Let $B$ be an $F$-stable Borel subgroup in $G$ and let $T$ be an $F$-stable maximal torus of $G$ contained in $B$. Let $N=N_{G}(T)$ and $U=R_{u}(B)$, the unipotent radical of $B$. Note $N$ and $U$ are also $F$-stable and $B \cap N=T$. Then $B, N$ is a split $B N$-pair for $G$ and $B^{F}, N^{F}$ is a split $B N$-pair for $G^{F}$. See $[9, \mathrm{p} .22,23,34]$ for details.

From now on suppose $G$ is a finite group of Lie type and $P_{J}$ is a standard parabolic subgroup of $G$. Then $P_{J}$ is a semidirect product $P_{J}=L_{J} U_{J}$ where $L_{J} \cap U_{J}=1$ and $U_{J}$ is the largest normal unipotent subgroup of $P_{J}$. This is known as the Levi decomposition of $P_{J}$ and $L_{J}$ is called a standard Levi subgroup. Furthermore, $L_{J}$ is a finite group of Lie type. See [10, p.119] for details.

The following lemma gives us a way to calculate the values of the Steinberg character on $G$.
 Then $S t_{G} \downarrow_{P_{J}}=S t_{L_{J}} \uparrow^{P_{J}}$.

Proof. See [9, p.191].
Lemma 9.2.9 Let $G$ be a finite group of Lie type. Then $S t_{G}(1)=\left|R_{U}(B)\right|$.
Proof. From Lemma 9.2.8 we have $S t_{G}(1)=S t_{L_{J}} \uparrow^{P_{J}}(1)$. Let $J=\emptyset$. Then $P_{J}=L_{J} U_{J}=$ $T R_{U}(B)=B$. So

$$
S t_{G}(1)=S t_{T} \uparrow^{B}(1)=\frac{1}{|T|} \sum_{x \in B} S t_{T}(1)=\frac{|B|}{|T|} S t_{T}(1)=\left|R_{U}(B)\right|,
$$

since $T$ is abelian.

Theorem 9.2.10 Let $G$ be a connected reductive group with a Frobenius map $F$. Let $g$ be a regular semisimple element in $G^{F}$. Then $S t(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(g)\right|$.

Proof. From Lemma 9.2.9, St(1) $=\left|G^{F}\right|_{p}$. So since $\left|C_{G^{F}}(g)\right|_{p}=1$, the result clearly follows.

### 9.3 Unipotent Characters

The aim of this section is to prove the following result.

Theorem 9.3.1 Let $G$ be a simple algebraic group of adjoint type, with Frobenius map F, and let $\chi$ be any irreducible unipotent character of $G^{F}$, other than the Steinberg character. Then $\chi(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|$ for any regular unipotent element $u \in G^{F}$.

To prove this lemma, we need to consider the different types of root system separately. We rely heavily on the results in [9, 13.8].

Suppose $G$ is of type $A_{l}$. Then the unipotent characters are parameterized by partitions of $l+1$. Let $\alpha=\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right) \vdash l+1$, with $\alpha_{1} \leqslant \alpha_{2} \leqslant \ldots \leqslant \alpha_{m}$, and let $\lambda_{i}=\alpha_{i}+i-1$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant m$. Let $\chi_{\alpha}$ be the character corresponding to $\alpha$. Then from [9, p.465]

$$
\chi_{\alpha}(1)=\frac{\prod_{k=1}^{l+1}\left(q^{k}-1\right) \prod_{i, j, j<i}\left(q^{\lambda_{i}}-q^{\lambda_{j}}\right)}{q^{L_{m}} \prod_{i} \prod_{k=1}^{\lambda_{i}}\left(q^{k}-1\right)}
$$

where

$$
L_{m}=\binom{m-1}{2}+\binom{m-2}{2}+\ldots+\binom{2}{2} .
$$

Lemma 9.3.2 Let $\chi_{\alpha}$ be the irreducible unipotent character of $G^{F}$ corresponding to $\alpha \vdash l+1$. Then $\left(\chi_{\alpha}(1)\right)_{p}=q^{\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i) \alpha_{i}}$.

Proof. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\chi_{\alpha}(1)\right)_{p} & =\frac{\prod_{i, j, j<i} q^{\lambda_{j}}}{q^{L_{m}}} \\
& =q^{\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i) \lambda_{i}-L_{m}} \\
& =q^{\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i) \alpha_{i}}
\end{aligned}
$$

## from Lemma 7.0.1.

Lemma 9.3.3 Theorem 9.3.1 holds for $G$ of type $A_{l}$.

Proof. From Lemma 7.0.2 we know the unipotent character with the largest $p$-part is given by the partition $(1,1, \ldots, 1) \vdash l+1$. This corresponds to the Steinberg character. By the same lemma, the character with the next largest $p$-part corresponds to $\alpha=(1, \ldots, 1,2) \vdash$ $l+1$. By Lemma 9.3.2, for this $\alpha$ we have

$$
\left(\chi_{\alpha}(1)\right)_{p}=q^{\sum_{i=1}^{l-1}(l-i)}=q^{\frac{l(l-1)}{2}} .
$$

There are no bad primes for $A_{l}$, so for all $p$ and regular unipotent $u \in G^{F},\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|=$ $\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{q^{l}}$, by Theorem 8.6.14, and hence $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|_{p}=q^{\frac{l(l-1)}{2}}$. So the result follows.

Now suppose $G$ is of type ${ }^{2} A_{l}\left(q^{2}\right)$. The irreducible unipotent characters of $G^{F}$ are parameterized by partitions of $l+1$ as for $A_{l}$. Let $\chi_{\alpha}$ be the character corresponding to $\alpha$. Then from [9, p.465],

$$
\chi_{\alpha}(1)=\frac{\prod_{k=1}^{l+1}\left(q^{k}+(-1)^{k+1}\right) \prod_{i, j, j<i}\left(q^{\lambda_{i}}-(-1)^{\lambda_{i}+\lambda_{j}} q^{\lambda_{j}}\right)}{q^{L_{m}} \prod_{i} \prod_{k=1}^{\lambda_{i}}\left(q^{k}-(-1)^{k}\right)}
$$

where $L_{m}$ is as above.

Lemma 9.3.4 Theorem 9.3.1 holds for $G$ of type ${ }^{2} A_{l}$.

Proof. Both the $p$-parts of the unipotent character degrees and the regular unipotent conjugacy class sizes are the same as in the $A_{l}$ case. Therefore the proof is the same as that of Lemma 9.3.3.

Now suppose $G$ is of type $B_{l}$ or $C_{l}$. Let $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{a}\right)$ with $0 \leqslant \lambda_{1}<\ldots<\lambda_{a}$, and $\mu=\left(\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{b}\right)$ with $0 \leqslant \mu_{1}<\ldots<\mu_{b}$. We consider pairs $(\lambda, \mu)$ such that $a-b$ is odd and positive and $\lambda_{1}$ and $\mu_{1}$ are not both 0 . The rank of $(\lambda, \mu)$ is given by $\sum_{i=1}^{a} \lambda_{i}+\sum_{j=1}^{b} \mu_{i}-\left(\frac{a+b-1}{2}\right)^{2}$. Suppose $G^{F}$ is of rank $l$, then the unipotent characters of $G^{F}$ correspond to the pairs of sequences with rank $l$. Let $\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}$ be the character corresponding to the pair $(\lambda, \mu)$.

First assume $p$ is a good prime for $G$. Then from [9, p.467],

$$
\left(\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}(1)\right)_{p}=\frac{\prod_{i, i^{\prime}, i^{\prime}<i} q^{\lambda_{i^{\prime}}} \prod_{j, j^{\prime}, j^{\prime}<j} q^{\mu_{j^{\prime}}} \prod_{i, j} q^{\min \left\{\lambda_{i}, \mu_{j}\right\}}}{q^{M_{m}}} .
$$

where $M_{m}=\binom{a+b-2}{2}+\binom{a+b-4}{2}+\ldots+\binom{3}{2}$.
Since we are only interested in the $p$-part of the character degrees, we may combine the pair $(\lambda, \mu)$ to form an $l$-sequence $\alpha=\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right)$, where $m=a+b$, as in Definition 7.0.3.

Lemma 9.3.5 Let $\alpha$ be an l-sequence corresponding to the pair $(\lambda, \mu)$. Then

$$
\left(\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}(1)\right)_{p}=q^{A_{\alpha}},
$$

where $A_{a}=\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i) \alpha_{i}-M_{m}$.

Proof. We have

$$
\sum_{i, i^{\prime}, i^{\prime}<i} \lambda_{i^{\prime}}+\sum_{j, j^{\prime}, j^{\prime}<j} \mu_{j^{\prime}}+\sum_{i, j} \min \left\{\lambda_{i}, \mu_{j}\right\}=\sum_{i, j, j<i} \alpha_{j}=\sum_{i=1}^{m-1}(m-i) \alpha_{i},
$$

and so the result follows.

From Lemma 7.0.8, we see that if $m=2 l+1$ we have the unique pair $(\lambda, \mu)$ with $\lambda=(0,1,2, \ldots, l)$ and $\mu=(1,2, \ldots, l)$. It follows from Lemma 7.0.8 and Lemma 9.3.5 that $\left(\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}(1)\right)_{p}=q^{l^{2}}$ and so this is the Steinberg character. By the same lemmas, if $m<2 l+1$ we have $\left(\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}\right)_{p} \leqslant q^{(l-1)^{2}}$.

Now, since $p$ is a good prime for $G$, we have from Theorem 8.6.14, $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|=\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{q^{l}}$ so $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|_{p}=q^{l(l-1)}$, where $u$ is any regular unipotent element in $G^{F}$. Therefore for $a+b<2 l+1, \theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|$ as required.

The only bad prime for $G=B_{l}$ is $p=2$. In this case we have

$$
\left(\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}(1)\right)_{p}=\frac{\prod_{i, i^{\prime}, i^{\prime}<i} q^{\lambda_{i^{\prime}}} \prod_{j, j^{\prime}, j^{\prime}<j} q^{\mu_{j}^{\prime}} \prod_{i, j} q^{\min \left\{\lambda_{i}, \mu_{j}\right\}}}{2^{\left(\frac{a+b-1}{2}\right)} q^{M_{m}}} .
$$

where $M_{m}=\binom{a+b-2}{2}+\binom{a+b-4}{2}+\ldots+\binom{3}{2}$.
By Theorem 8.6.14, for any regular unipotent element $u \in G^{F}$, we have $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|=$ $\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{2 q^{l}}$ and hence $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|_{2}=\frac{q^{l(l-1)}}{2}$. Then for any unipotent character $\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}$, except the Steinberg character, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}(1)\right)_{2} & \leqslant q^{(l-1)^{2}} \\
& \leqslant q^{l(l-1)-1} \\
& \leqslant \frac{q^{l(l-1)}}{2} \\
& =\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|_{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore we have proved the following.

Lemma 9.3.6 Theorem 9.3.1 holds for $G$ of type $B_{l}$ or $C_{l}$.

Now suppose $G$ is of type $D_{l}$. Let $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{a}\right)$ with $0 \leqslant \lambda_{1}<\ldots<\lambda_{a}$ and $\mu=\left(\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{b}\right)$ with $0 \leqslant \mu_{1}<\ldots<\mu_{b}$. We consider pairs $(\lambda, \mu)$ such that $a-b$ is divisible by 4 and $\lambda_{1}$ and $\mu_{1}$ are not both 0 . The rank of $(\lambda, \mu)$ is $\sum_{i=1}^{a} \lambda_{i}+\sum_{j=1}^{b} \mu_{i}-\left[\left(\frac{a+b-1}{2}\right)^{2}\right]$. Suppose $G^{F}$ is of rank $l$, then the unipotent characters of $G^{F}$ correspond to the pairs of sequences with rank $l$, where $(\mu, \lambda)$ corresponds to the same character as $(\lambda, \mu)$, and if $\lambda=\mu$, there are two characters of the same degree. Let $\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}$ be a character corresponding to the pair $(\lambda, \mu)$.

Let $p$ be a good prime for $G$. Then we have, from [9, p.471],

$$
\left(\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}(1)\right)_{p}=\frac{\prod_{i, i^{\prime}, i^{\prime}<i} q^{\lambda_{i^{\prime}}} \prod_{j, j^{\prime}, j^{\prime}<j} q^{\mu_{j^{\prime}}} \prod_{i, j} q^{\min \left\{\lambda_{i}, \mu_{j}\right\}}}{q^{M_{m}}}
$$

where $M_{m}=\binom{a+b-2}{2}+\binom{a+b-4}{2}+\ldots+\binom{3}{2}$.
Again we may combine the pair $(\lambda, \mu)$ to form an $l$-sequence $\alpha=\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right)$, where $m=a+b$, as in Definition 7.0.3. Lemma 9.3.5 also holds here and so we have $\left(\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}(1)\right)_{p}=q^{A_{\alpha}}$.

From Lemma 7.0 .10 , if $m=2 l$ we have $\lambda=(0,1, \ldots, l-1)$ and $\mu=(1, \ldots, l-1, l)$ and so $\left(\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}(1)\right)_{p}=q^{l^{2}}$, hence this is the Steinberg character. Also from Lemma 7.0.10, if $m<2 l$ we have $\left(\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}(1)\right)_{p} \leqslant q^{l(l-2)}$. So, since by Theorem 8.6.14 we have $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|_{p}=$ $q^{l(l-2)}$ for any regular unipotent $u \in G^{F}$, the result follows.

Now suppose $p=2$. Then from [9, p.471],

$$
\left(\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}(1)\right)_{p}=\frac{\prod_{i, i^{\prime}, i^{\prime}<i} q^{\lambda_{i^{\prime}}} \prod_{j, j^{\prime}, j^{\prime}<j} q^{\mu_{j^{\prime}}} \prod_{i, j} q^{\min \left\{\lambda_{i}, \mu_{j}\right\}}}{2^{c} q^{M_{m}}}
$$

where

$$
c=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
{\left[\frac{a+b-1}{2}\right]} & \text { if } \lambda \neq \mu \\
a=b & \text { if } \lambda=\mu
\end{array}\right.
$$

and $M_{m}$ is as before.
Let $u$ be any regular unipotent element in $G^{F}$. Then by Theorem 8.6.14 $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|_{p}=\frac{q^{l(l-2)}}{2} \geqslant q^{l(l-2)-1}$. Then for any unipotent character, except the Steinberg character, by Lemma 7.0.10 we have

$$
\left(\theta_{(\lambda, \mu)}\right)_{2} \leqslant q^{(l-2)(l-1)+1} \leqslant q^{l(l-2)-1} \leqslant\left|c l_{G^{F}}(u)\right|_{p} .
$$

Therefore we have proved the following lemma.

Lemma 9.3.7 If $G$ has type $D_{l}$ then Theorem 9.3.1 holds.

We can now complete the proof of Theorem 9.3.1.

Proof (Theorem 9.3.1). Lemmas 9.3.3, 9.3.4. 9.3.6 and 9.3.7 show the result for $G$ of types $A_{l},{ }^{2} A_{l}, B_{l}, C_{l}$ and $D_{l}$. For $G$ of type ${ }^{2} D_{l}$ the proof is similar to that of $D_{l}$ except we have $a-b \equiv 2 \bmod 4$. Finally, if $G^{F}$ is one of $G_{2}(q),{ }^{3} D_{4}\left(q^{3}\right), F_{4}(q), E_{6}(q),{ }^{2} E_{6}\left(q^{2}\right)$, $E_{7}(q), E_{8}(q),{ }^{2} B_{2}(q),{ }^{2} G_{2}(q)$ or ${ }^{2} F_{4}(q)$, we can check the unipotent character degrees directly from [9, Ch. 13] to see the theorem holds, including for bad primes.

### 9.4 The Simple Groups

Let $G$ be a simple algebraic group with Frobenius map $F$. Then

$$
K=\left(G_{a d}^{F}\right)^{\prime} \cong G_{s c}^{F} / Z\left(G_{s c}^{F}\right)
$$

is a finite simple group, except in a few small cases. In this section we prove the following.

Theorem 9.4.1 Let $K$ be as above. Then for any irreducible character $\chi$ of $K$ there exists $x \in K$ such that $\chi(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{K}(x)\right|$.

In fact we prove the following corollary.

Corollary 9.4.2 There exist two conjugacy classes in $K$ such that the degree of any irreducible character of $K$ divides the order one of them.

Lemma 9.4.3 Let $x$ be any regular unipotent element in $G_{a d}^{F}$. Then $\left(\left|Z\left(G^{* F^{*}}\right)\right|,\left|C_{G_{a d}^{F}}(x)\right|\right)=1$.

Proof. By Lemma 8.6.1 $\left|C_{G_{a d}^{F}}(x)\right|=q^{l}$. The order of $\left|Z\left(G^{* F^{*}}\right)\right|=\left|Z\left(G_{s c}^{F}\right)\right|$ is $p$-prime by [19, p.19].

Lemma 9.4.4 Let $u \in G_{a d}^{F}$ be unipotent. Then $u \in K$.

Proof. A unipotent element in $G^{F}$ has order a power of $p$, see [16]. Therefore, since $\left|G_{a d}^{F}: K\right|=\left|Z\left(G_{s c}^{F}\right)\right|$ has $p$-prime order we have the result.

Lemma 9.4.5 Let $x$ be a regular unipotent element in $G^{F}$. Then $C_{K}(x)=C_{G^{F}}(x)$.

Proof. By Lemma 8.6.13, $C_{G}(x)=C_{U}(x)$ where $U$ is a maximal connected unipotent subgroup of $G$ containing $x$. Therefore all the elements in $G$ which centralize $x$ are unipotent and so the same must be true in $G^{F}$. Hence $C_{G^{F}}(x) \leqslant K$, and we have $C_{K}(x)=C_{G^{F}}(x)$.

Lemma 9.4.6 Let $x$ be a regular unipotent element in $G^{F}$. Then $\left|c l_{K}(x)\right|=\frac{\left|c l_{G F}(x)\right|}{\left|Z\left(G^{*} F^{*}\right)\right|}$ Proof. We have $\left|c l_{K}(x)\right|=\frac{|K|}{\left|C_{K}(x)\right|}=\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{\left|Z\left(G^{* F^{*}}\right)\right|\left|C_{G^{F}}(x)\right|}=\frac{\left|c l_{G^{F}}(x)\right|}{\left|Z\left(G^{* F^{*}}\right)\right|}$.

Lemma 9.4.7 Let $\chi$ be an irreducible unipotent character of $G^{F}$ which is not the Steinberg character, and let $x$ be a regular unipotent element of $K$. Then $\chi(1)$ divides $\left|l_{K}(x)\right|$.

Proof. If $\chi$ is a unipotent character of $G^{F}$, then it is also a unipotent character of $G^{* F^{*}}$. So $\chi(1)$ divides $\frac{\left|G^{* F^{*}}\right|}{\left|Z\left(G^{* F^{*}}\right)\right|}$ by [24, Th. 6.5, p.68]. We also have $\chi(1)$ divides $\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{\left|C_{G^{F}}(x)\right|}$ by Theorem 9.3.1. Therefore, since $\left(\left|Z\left(G^{* F^{*}}\right)\right|,\left|C_{G^{F}}(x)\right|\right)=1$, we have $\chi(1)$ divides $\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{\left|Z\left(G^{* F^{*}}\right)\right|\left|C_{G^{F}}(x)\right|}=$ $\left|c l_{K}(x)\right|$ by Lemma 9.4.6.

The following lemma is from [9, p.288].

Lemma 9.4.8 Let $\chi_{s}$ be a semisimple character of $G^{F}$. Let $s^{*}$ be a semisimple element in the conjugacy class of the dual group determined by $\chi_{s}$, as in Lemma 9.1.2. Then $\chi(1)=\left.\left|G^{* F^{*}}: C_{G^{*} F^{*}}\left(s^{*}\right)\right|\right|_{p^{\prime}}$.

Lemma 9.4.9 Let $\chi$ be an irreducible character of $G^{F}$ which is not unipotent and let $x$ be a regular unipotent element of $K$. Then $\chi(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{K}(x)\right|$.

Proof. By Lemma 9.1.9, we have $\chi(1)=\chi_{s}(1) \chi_{u}(1)$, where $\chi_{s}$ is a semisimple character of $G^{F}$ and $\chi_{u}$ a unipotent character of $C_{G^{*} F^{*}}\left(s^{*}\right)$ for $s^{*}$ a semisimple element of $G^{* F^{*}}$ in the conjugacy class determined by $\chi_{s}$. Then $\chi_{u}(1)$ divides $\frac{\left|C_{G^{*} F^{*}}\left(s^{*}\right)\right|}{\mid Z\left(C_{G^{*} F^{*}}\left(s^{*}\right) \mid\right.}$ by $[24$, Th. 6.5, p.68], and $\chi_{s}(1)$ divides $\frac{\left|G^{*} F^{*}\right|}{\left|C_{G^{*}} F^{*}\left(s^{*}\right)\right|}$ by Lemma 9.4.8. So $\chi_{s}(1) \chi_{u}(1)$ divides $\frac{\left|G^{* F^{*}}\right|}{\left|Z\left(C_{G^{*} F^{*}}\left(s^{*}\right)\right)\right|}$ and hence $\frac{\left|G^{* F^{*}}\right|}{\left|Z\left(G^{* F^{*}}\right)\right|}$. By Lemma 9.1.10, $\chi_{s}(1) \chi_{u}(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{G^{F}}(x)\right|$ and so, since $\left(\left|Z\left(G^{* F^{*}}\right)\right|,\left|C_{G^{F}}(x)\right|\right)=1, \chi_{s}(1) \chi_{u}(1)$ divides $\frac{\left|G^{F}\right|}{\left|Z\left(G^{* F^{*}}\right)\right|\left|C_{G^{F}}(x)\right|}=\left|c l_{K}(x)\right|$.

Lemma 9.4.10 Let $\chi$ be the Steinberg character of $G_{a d}^{F}$. The there exists $x \in K$ such that $\chi(1)$ divides $\left|c l_{K}(x)\right|$.

Proof. By Lemma 8.7.3 there exists a regular semisimple element $x$ in $K$. Then $\left|c l_{K}(x)\right|_{p}=$ $\frac{|K|_{p}}{\left|C_{K}(x)\right|_{p}}=|K|_{p}=|G|_{p}$ since $\left|Z\left(G_{s c}^{F}\right)\right|$ is $p$-prime. Therefore the result follows by Theorem 9.2.10.

Proof (Theorem 9.4.1). Since $K$ is a normal subgroup of $G_{a d}^{F}$, the degree of any irreducible character of $K$ must divide the degree of some irreducible character of $G_{a d}^{F}$. By Lemmas
9.4.7, 9.4.9 and 9.4.10 we have shown the degree of any irreducible character of $G_{a d}^{F}$ divides the size of some conjugacy class of $K$. Therefore the result follows.

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