

Lightning overview of structure theory of algebraic groups

10-1

For this section only we allow non-affine algebraic groups.

I.e. G is a group object in the category of varieties $/k$.

(reduced, separated scheme of finite type).

We also assume $k = \bar{k}$.

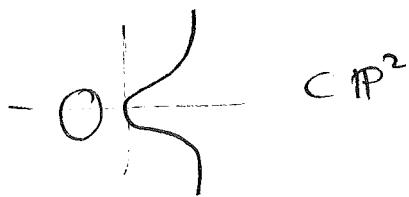
Easy Theorem: There exists a unique connected normal subgroup $G^\circ \subset G$ s.t. G/G° is an étale group scheme (i.e. here $\cong \Gamma$ for some finite group Γ).

$$G^\circ \hookrightarrow G \twoheadrightarrow G/G^\circ.$$

Hence we can assume G is connected.

Def: An abelian variety is a connected proper algebraic group.

Eg: $\{(x,y,z) \in \mathbb{C}P^2 \mid y^2 = x(x-z)(x+z)\}$ is an abelian variety "elliptic curve".



Thm: ① Any abelian variety is projective.

② For the group law on any abelian variety is abelian.

Rem: Abelian varieties are amongst the most important objects in arithmetic geometry, number theory and complex analysis.

Theorem (Chevalley) Any connected algebraic group G admits a unique normal subgroup H s.t. H is abelian and G/H is projective. (an abelian variety)

$$H \hookrightarrow G \twoheadrightarrow G/H.$$

Verbal: This splits the study of algebraic groups into $\begin{cases} \rightarrow \text{abelian} \\ \rightarrow \text{abelian varieties.} \end{cases}$

From now on we may assume that G is abelian.

For any algebraic group, G , $[G, G] \subset G$ is a closed normal subgroup.

Def: An algebraic group is solvable if its derived series, defined by $G^{(0)} := G$, $G^{(i)} := [G^{(i-1)}, G^{(i-1)}]$, terminates in the trivial group (i.e. $G^{(m)} = \{1\}$ for some m).

Theorem of Lie-Kolchin: If G is solvable then G is isomorphic to a closed subgroup of $T_n \subset GL_n$ (the upper triangular matrices inside GL_n) for some n .

Def: An algebraic group is unipotent if it is a successive extension of ~~products~~ products of G_a 's.

Theorem: G is unipotent $\iff G$ is a closed subgroup of $U_n :=$ strictly upper triangular matrices in GL_n for some n .

Remk: Solvable and unipotent groups "gibt's wie Sand am ~~Strand~~ Meer"

Somewhat analogous to classifying p -groups.

(10-3)

Theorem: If G is connected, then there exist unique closed normal maximal subgroups R, G "radical" solvable

R_0, G "unipotent radical"

and exact sequences

$$R, G \longrightarrow G \longrightarrow G/R, G$$

s.t. $R/R, G$ is semi-simple,

$$R_0, G \longrightarrow G \longrightarrow R/R_0, G$$

$R/R_0, G$ is reductive.

G is semi-simple (reductive) if $R, G = \{1\}$ (resp. $R_0, G = \{1\}$).

It turns out that semi-simple and reductive groups

admit a classification via discrete data "root data",

this is what we want to explain now.

Thm: If $\text{char} k = 0$ and G/k is reductive then $\text{Rep } G$ is semi-simple.

(I think this is where the name comes from).

Thm: Assume that G admits a faithful irreducible representation, then G is reductive.

Ex: ~~SL_2, Sp_2~~ $GL_n, SL_n, Sp_{2n}, SO_{2m}$ are reductive.

Some examples of reductive groups:

(10-4)

① GL_n, SL_n (natural representation is faithful, irreducible) ~~and~~

Let $J_n = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 0 & & 1 \\ & \ddots & \\ 1 & & 0 \end{pmatrix}}_n$ anti-diagonal matrix.

② Define $O_n = \{X \in GL_n \mid X^t J X = J\}$. "orthogonal group"

$SO_n = \{X \in GL_n \mid X^t J X = J, \det X = 1\}$. "special orthogonal group"

③ Let $\tilde{J} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & J \\ J & 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

$Sp_{2n} = \{X \in GL_{2n} \mid X^t \tilde{J} X = \tilde{J}\}$.

Exerix: Show that we can take any non-singular matrix above in place of J . The above choice makes the calculation of the Lie algebra particularly pleasant, as we will see later.

Root Systems + Root Data

Let V be a f.d. real vector space. A reflection is an endomorphism s such that $s-1$ is of rank 1, and $s^2 = id$. (i.e. eigenvalues are $(-1, 1, 1, \dots)$).

Any reflection is of the form $v \mapsto v - \langle \alpha^v, v \rangle \alpha$ for $\alpha \in V, \alpha^v \in V^*$, unique up to $\alpha \mapsto \lambda \alpha, \alpha^v \mapsto \lambda^{-1} \alpha^v$ s.t. $\langle \alpha^v, \alpha \rangle = 2$.

Lovely Lemma: Suppose $R \subset V$ is finite, $\langle R \rangle = V$. For $\alpha \in R$ there is at most one reflection s s.t. $s(R) = R$ and $s(\alpha) = -\alpha$.

Proof: Let s, s' be two such reflections. Then $t = s \circ s'$ fixes R and satisfies $t(\alpha) = s(s'(\alpha)) = \alpha, t(R) = R$. Hence t is of finite order. Now s, s' act as the identity on $V/\langle \alpha \rangle$ and hence so does t . Hence there exists $\gamma \in V^*$ s.t. $t(x) = x + \gamma(x)\alpha$, for all $x \in V$. Now $t^n(x) = x + n\gamma(x)\alpha$, hence $\gamma = 0$ and $t = id$. \square

Def: A root system is a subset $R \subset V$ s.t.

- ① R is finite, $0 \notin R$, and $\mathbb{R}\alpha \cap R = \{\pm\alpha\}$ for all $\alpha \in R$.
- ② for any $\alpha, \exists \alpha^v \in V^*$ s.t. $s_{\alpha, \alpha^v}(R) \subset R$. (α^v is unique after Lemma).
- ③ $\alpha^v(R) \subset \mathbb{Z}$ ("integrality")

Given root systems $R_1 \subset V_1, R_2 \subset V_2$ their direct sum is $R_1 \cup R_2 \subset V_1 \oplus V_2$.

A root system is irreducible if it is not isomorphic to a non-trivial direct sum. Alternatively if $\nexists! V = V_1 \oplus V_2$ with $R = (R_1 \cup R_2) \cup (V_1 \cap R) \cup (V_2 \cap R)$.

The rank of a root system is $\dim V$.

Examples:

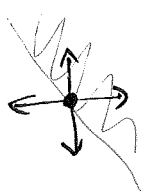
(a) Rank 1: There exists a unique root system: $R = \{\pm\alpha\} \subset V = \mathbb{R}$, $\alpha \neq 0$.



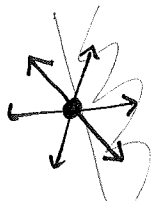
"A₁".

(b) Rank 2: Here are four examples:

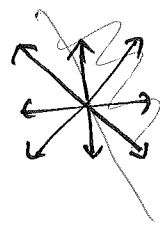
A₁ × A₁



A₂



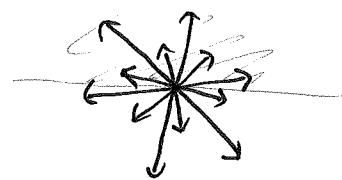
B₂



$\{e_1, e_2\} \cup \{\pm e_1, \pm e_2\}$.

$\{\pm e_i \pm e_j \mid i \neq j\} \subset \mathbb{R}e_1 \oplus \mathbb{R}e_2 \oplus \mathbb{R}e_3 / (e_1 + e_2 + e_3 = 0)$.

G₂



Exercise: These are all.

A system of positive roots is a subset $R^+ \subset R$ st.

- ① $R = R^+ \cup \{-R^+\}$
- ② if $\alpha, \beta \in R^+$ then either $\alpha + \beta \in R^+$ or $\alpha + \beta \notin R$.

Proposition: Given any linear functional $\gamma: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ st. $\gamma(R) \not\equiv 0$, $R^+ = \{\alpha \in R \mid \gamma(\alpha) > 0\}$ is a system of positive roots.

Proposition: For any system R^+ of positive roots, consider

$$\Sigma = \{\alpha \in R^+ \mid \alpha \neq \alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in R^+\}.$$

Then Σ is a basis of V and $R^+ = \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \Sigma \cap R$.

Σ is called a basis of simple roots.

Consider $R \subset V$ a root system.

Let R^+ denote a system of positive roots

and Σ the corresponding basis of simple roots.

We associate a Dynkin diagram to R as follows:

- vertices are the elements of Σ .

- edges are of 3-types:

consider $\alpha, \beta \in \Sigma$, $V_{\alpha, \beta} := \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle$, $R_{\alpha, \beta} := R \cap V_{\alpha, \beta}$

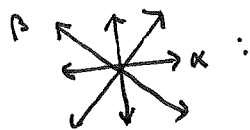
$(R_{\alpha, \beta} \subset V_{\alpha, \beta})$ is a rank 2 root system.

Four cases:

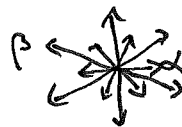
$A_1 \times A_1$: no edge.



B_2 :



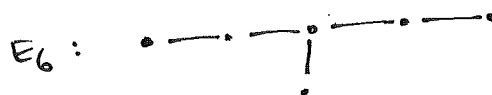
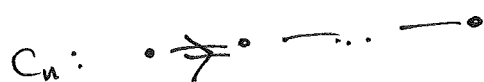
G_2 :



does not depend on choice of RCV and

Thm: The Dynkin diagram determines the isomorphism class of R .

The Dynkin diagrams of the irreducible root systems are as follows:



A root datum is a quadruple $(\mathcal{X}, R, \mathcal{X}^\vee, R^\vee)$ where

- ① $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{X}^\vee$ are free finite rank \mathbb{Z} -modules equipped with \sim -pairing perfect.
 $\langle -, - \rangle: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}^\vee \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$.
- ② $R \subset \mathcal{X}, R^\vee \subset \mathcal{X}^\vee$ are finite sets equipped with a bijection $R \ni \alpha \mapsto \alpha^\vee \in R^\vee$;

Satisfying

- ① $\langle \alpha^\vee, \alpha \rangle = 2$ and $\mathbb{Z}\alpha \cap R = \{\pm\alpha\}$.
- ② $\forall \alpha \in R$ we maps $s_\alpha: \lambda \mapsto \lambda - \langle \alpha^\vee, \alpha \rangle \alpha$, (resp. $s_{\alpha^\vee}: \lambda^\vee \mapsto \lambda^\vee - \langle \lambda, \alpha \rangle \alpha^\vee$) preserve R (resp. R^\vee).

The rank of a root datum is $\text{rk } \mathcal{X} = \text{rk } \mathcal{X}^\vee$.

Example: There are 3 root datum of rk 1:

- ① $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{X}^\vee = \mathbb{Z}, R = R^\vee = \emptyset$. } not semi-simple.
- ② " " $R = \{\pm 2\}, R^\vee = \{\pm 1\}$. } semi-simple
- ③ " " $R = \{\pm 1\}, R^\vee = \{\pm 2\}$.

Given a root datum we can consider

$R \subset \langle R \rangle_{\mathbb{Z}} \subset \mathbb{R}$. This is a root system.

If $\mathcal{X} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{R} = \langle R \rangle_{\mathbb{R}}$ we say our root system is semi-simple.

Assume we are in the semi-simple case, that is $\langle R \rangle_{\mathbb{R}} = V := \mathcal{X} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{R}$.

Fix a root system (V, R)

Proposition: We have a bijection:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{root data with} \\ \text{root system } (V, R) \end{array} \right\} / \cong \longrightarrow \text{subgroups } P/Q \text{ where}$$

$$P = \mathbb{Z}R \text{ "root lattice"}$$

$$Q = \{ \lambda \in V^* \mid \langle \alpha, \lambda \rangle \in \mathbb{Z} \} \text{ "weight lattice"}$$

Examples: ① \mathbb{R} (V, R) is of type A_1 , i.e. $R = \{ \pm \alpha \}$

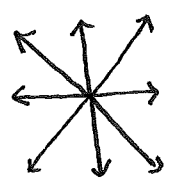
then $\alpha^V \in V^*$ is given by $\langle \alpha^V, \alpha \rangle = 2$. Hence

$$P = \mathbb{Z}\alpha \quad Q = \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{Z}\alpha \quad Q/P = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

Two root data have: $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{Z}\alpha, \mathcal{X}^V = \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{Z}\alpha^V$ "PGL₂".

$\mathcal{X} = \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{Z}\alpha, \mathcal{X}^V = \mathbb{Z}\alpha^V$ "SL₂".

② Suppose (V, R) is of type B_2 , i.e. $V = \{ \pm e_i \mid i=1,2 \} \cup \{ \pm e_1, \pm e_2 \}$.



Then $R^V = \{ \pm 2e_1, \pm 2e_2, \pm e_1, \pm e_2 \} \subset V^*$. Hence

$$\textcircled{a} \quad P = \mathbb{Z}e_1 \oplus \mathbb{Z}e_2$$

$$Q = \langle e_1, \frac{1}{2}(e_1 + e_2) \rangle. \text{ Hence } P/Q = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

③ Exercise: If V is of type G_2 then $P/Q = \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$.