

## Lecture 15 — Classical (Semi) Simple Lie Algebras and Root Systems

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Recall

$$O_{V,B}(\mathbb{F}) = \{a \in gl_V(\mathbb{F}) \mid B(au, v) + B(u, av) = 0, \text{ for all } u, v \in V\} \subset gl_V(\mathbb{F})$$

where  $V$  is a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$ ,  $B$  is a bilinear form  $: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ . Choosing a basis of  $V$  and denoting by  $B$  the matrix of the bilinear form in this basis, we proved we get the subalgebra

$$o_{n,B}(\mathbb{F}) = \{a \in gl_n(\mathbb{F}) \mid a^T B + Ba = 0\} \subset gl_n(\mathbb{F}).$$

For different choices of basis, we get isomorphic Lie algebras  $o_{n,B}(\mathbb{F})$ .

Now, consider the case where  $B$  is a symmetric non-degenerate bilinear form. If  $\mathbb{F}$  is algebraically closed and  $\text{char } \mathbb{F} \neq 2$ , one can choose a basis in which the matrix of  $B$  is any symmetric non-degenerate matrix.

**Example 15.1.**  $I_N$  where  $N = \dim V$ .

We will choose a basis such that

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & & & \ddots \\ 0 & & \ddots & 1 & \vdots \\ \vdots & & 1 & \ddots & 0 \\ & \ddots & & & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and denote by  $so_N(\mathbb{F})$  the corresponding Lie algebra  $o_{N,B}(\mathbb{F})$ .

**Exercise 15.1.** Show  $so_N(\mathbb{F}) = \{a \in gl_N(\mathbb{F}) \mid a + a' = 0\}$  where  $a'$  is the transposition of  $a$  with respect to the anti-diagonal.

*Proof.*  $so_N(\mathbb{F}) = \{a \in gl_N(\mathbb{F}) \mid a^T B + Ba = 0\}$  where  $B$  is the matrix consisting of ones along the anti-diagonal.

As  $B = B^T$ , we have  $a^T B = a^T B^T = (Ba)^T$ . Viewing  $B$  as a permutation matrix, we get  $Ba$  permutes the rows by  $\text{row}_i \rightarrow \text{row}_{n-i}$ . Transposing and reapplying  $B$ , we get  $B(Ba)^T = a'$  and  $BBa = a$ . Hence we obtain the following sequence of implications

$$a^T B + Ba = 0$$

$$(Ba)^T + Ba = 0$$

$$B(Ba)^T + a = 0$$



**Exercise 15.2.** a) Using the root space decomposition, prove that  $so_N(\mathbb{F})$  is semisimple if  $N \geq 3$ .  
b) Show  $so_N(\mathbb{F})$  is simple if  $N = 3$  or  $N \geq 5$  by showing that  $\Delta$  is indecomposable.

Thus we have another two series of simple Lie algebras:  $so_{2n+1}(\mathbb{F})$  for  $n \geq 1$  (type B) and  $so_{2n}(\mathbb{F})$  for  $n \geq 3$  (type D).

*Proof.* a) We must check (1), (2), and (3) of the semisimplicity criterion.

(1) is clear for  $B$  and  $D$  and (3) is clear for  $B$ . For (3) in case  $D$ , we have roots  $\epsilon_i - \epsilon_j$  and  $\epsilon_i + \epsilon_j$ , adding and dividing by 2 (as  $\text{char } \mathbb{F} \neq 2$ ) gives us  $\epsilon_i$ , hence (3) holds.

(2) We compute  $[\mathfrak{g}_\alpha, \mathfrak{g}_{-\alpha}] = [e_{ij} - e_{N+1-j, N+1-i}, e_{ji} - e_{N+1-i, N+1-j}] = (e_{ii} - e_{N+1-i, N+1-i}) + (e_{N+1-j, N+1-j} - e_{jj}) = h_\alpha \in \mathfrak{h}$ . As  $\alpha(h_\alpha) \neq 0$ ,  $so_N$  is semisimple in  $N \geq 3$ .

b) To show simple for  $N = 3$  and  $N \geq 5$ , we show that  $\Delta$  is indecomposable. This is clear for  $N = 3$ . We list pairs and corresponding paths for  $n \geq 3$ .  $N = 5$  is done separately. For ease of notation, we write  $\epsilon_i$  as  $i$  and remark that any root is connected to its negative by the path of length one.

- $(i + j) \rightarrow (j + k)$  via  $(i + j, -k - i, j + k)$
- $(i + j) \rightarrow (i - j)$  via  $(i + j, k - i, j - k, i - j)$
- $(i + j) \rightarrow (i)$  via  $(i + j, -j, i)$

Therefore when  $N > 5$ , we may concatenate and find paths through  $(i + j)$ . When  $N = 5$ , we had the issue of connecting  $(i + j)$  to  $(i - j)$ . As  $N$  is odd in this case, we may use the path  $(i + j, -i, i - j)$ . Therefore,  $so_N(\mathbb{F})$  is simple for  $N = 3$  and  $N \geq 5$ .

□

**Exercise 15.3.** Show  $\Delta_{so_4(\mathbb{F})} = \{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2, \epsilon_2 - \epsilon_1\} \sqcup \{\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2, -\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2\}$  is the decomposition into decomposables. Deduce that  $so_4(\mathbb{F})$  is isomorphic to  $sl_2(\mathbb{F}) \oplus sl_2(\mathbb{F})$ .

*Proof.* We have the decomposition

$$\{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2, \epsilon_2 - \epsilon_1\} \sqcup \{\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2, -\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2\}.$$

This is in fact a decomposition since the collection of roots distance one from  $\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2$  is  $\epsilon_2 - \epsilon_1$  as  $\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2 + \epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 = 2\epsilon_1 \notin \Delta$  and  $\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2 + -\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2 = -2\epsilon_2 \notin \Delta$ . Hence, we have a decomposition.

To show isomorphic to  $sl_2 \oplus sl_2$ . Consider the basis of  $\mathfrak{h}$ ,  $x = e_{11} - e_{44}$  and  $y = e_{22} - e_{33}$ . If we change bases to from  $x, y$  to  $x + y, x - y$ . Let

$$e = e_{12} - e_{34}, f = e_{13} - e_{24}, g = e_{31} - e_{42}, h = e_{21} - e_{43}.$$

Then

$$[x + y, e] = 0, [x + y, f] = 2f, [x + y, g] = -2g, [x + y, h] = 0, [g + f] = x + y$$

and

$$[x - y, e] = 2e, [x - y, f] = 0, [x - y, g] = 0, [x - y, h] = -2h, [e, h] = x - y$$



- $e_{ij} - e_{N+1-j, N+1-i}$  if  $e_{ij} \in A$
- $e_{ij} + e_{N+1-j, N+1-i}$  if  $e_{ij} \in B \cup C$
- $e_{ij}$  if  $e_{ij} \in X \cup Y$

with eigenvalues  $\epsilon_i - \epsilon_j, \epsilon_i + \epsilon_j, -\epsilon_i - \epsilon_j, 2\epsilon_i, -2\epsilon_i$  for  $e_{ij} \in A, B, C, X, Y$  respectively.

To compute  $[\mathfrak{g}_\alpha, \mathfrak{g}_{-\alpha}]$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} [e_{ij} - e_{N+1-j, N+1-i}, e_{ji} - e_{N+1-i, N+1-j}] &= (e_{ii} - e_{N+1-i, N+1-i}) + (e_{N+1-j, N+1-j} - e_{jj}) = h_\alpha \in \mathfrak{h} \\ [e_{ij} + e_{N+1-j, N+1-i}, e_{ji} + e_{N+1-i, N+1-j}] &= (e_{ii} - e_{N+1-i, N+1-i}) - (e_{N+1-j, N+1-j} - e_{jj}) = h_\alpha \in \mathfrak{h} \\ [e_{ij}, e_{jj}] &= e_{ii} - e_{jj} = h_\alpha \in \mathfrak{h}. \end{aligned}$$

In each case  $\alpha(h_\alpha) \neq 0$ , and therefore (2) holds.

Finally, (3) is clear, so we only must show in-decomposability to get simplicity.

From Exercise 15.2, when  $n \geq 3$ , have that all pairs of the form  $\pm\epsilon_i \pm \epsilon_j$  are connected to  $\epsilon_i - \epsilon_j$ . We may connect  $2\epsilon_j$  to  $\epsilon_i - \epsilon_j$  as  $2\epsilon_j + \epsilon_i - \epsilon_j = \epsilon_i + \epsilon_j \in \Delta$  and therefore through concatenation we are done.

When  $n = 2$  we may connect  $\epsilon_i - \epsilon_j$  to  $\epsilon_i + \epsilon_j$  as  $\epsilon_i - \epsilon_j + \epsilon_i + \epsilon_j = 2\epsilon_i \in \Delta$ , so we have in-decomposability.

When  $n = 1$ , indecomposability is clear. □

**Remark 1.** Thus we get four series of simple Lie algebras  $A_n = sl_n(\mathbb{F})(n \geq 1), B_n = so_{2n+1}(\mathbb{F})(n \geq 1), C_n = sp_{2n}(\mathbb{F})(n \geq 1), D_n = so_{2n}(\mathbb{F}), (n \geq 4)$  called the classical simple Lie algebras.

**Proposition 15.2.** *Let  $\mathfrak{g}$  be a simple finite dimensional Lie algebra. Then*

- Any symmetric invariant bilinear form is either non-degenerate or identically zero.*
- Any two non-degenerate such bilinear forms are proportional:  $(a, b)_1 = \lambda(a, b)_2$ .*

*Proof.* a) If  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  is an invariant bilinear form and  $I$  is its kernel, then  $I$  is an ideal, hence  $\mathfrak{g}$  simple implies that either  $I = 0$  or  $I = \mathfrak{g}$ .

b) Choose a basis of  $\mathfrak{g}$  and let  $B_i$  be the matrix of  $(\cdot, \cdot)_i$  in the basis.  $\text{Det}(B_i) \neq 0$ . Consider  $\det(B_1 - \lambda B_2) = \det(B_2) \det(B_1 B_2^{-1} - \lambda I) = 0$  if  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $B_1 B_2^{-1}$ . Hence the form  $(a, b)_1 - \lambda(a, b)_2$  is a degenerate, invariant, bilinear form as  $\det$  is 0. Hence the form  $(a, b)_1 - \lambda(a, b)_2$  is identically zero by (a), which implies  $(a, b)_1 = \lambda(a, b)_2$ . □

**Corollary 15.3.** *If  $\mathfrak{g} \subset gl_N(\mathbb{F})$  is a simple Lie algebra, then the Killing form on  $\mathfrak{g}$  is proportional to the trace form  $(a, b) = \text{tr } ab$  on  $\mathfrak{g}$ .*

**Example 15.3.** On  $gl_N(\mathbb{F})$ : (1)  $\text{tr } e_{ii} e_{ij} = \delta_{ij}$  (with  $e_{ii}$  basis of  $D$ ), hence the induced bilinear form on  $D^* = (\epsilon_i, \epsilon_j) = \delta_{ij}$  (2). Hence for all classical simple Lie algebras A,B,C,D, the Killing form is a positive constant multiple of (1) and on  $\mathfrak{h}^*$  is a positive constant multiple of (2).

**Definition 15.1.** Let  $V$  be a finite dimensional real Euclidean space, i.e.  $V$  finite dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$  with symmetric positive definite bilinear form  $(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Let  $\Delta \subset V$  be a subset of  $V$ . Then the pair  $(V, \Delta)$  is called a root system if:

- i)  $\Delta$  finite,  $0 \notin \Delta$ ,  $\Delta$  spans  $V$  over  $\mathbb{R}$ ;
- ii) (String Condition) For any  $\alpha, \beta \in \Delta$ , the set  $\{\beta + j\alpha \mid j \in \mathbb{Z}\} \cap (\Delta \cup \{0\})$  is a string  $\beta + p\alpha, \beta + (p-1)\alpha, \dots, \beta - q\alpha$  where  $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and  $p - q = 2\frac{(\alpha, \beta)}{(\alpha, \alpha)}$ ;
- iii) For all  $\alpha \in \Delta$ , we have  $k\alpha \in \Delta$  if and only if  $k = 1$  or  $k = -1$ .

**Example 15.4.** The basic example: Let  $\mathfrak{g}$  be a finite dimensional Lie algebra over an algebraically closed field  $\mathbb{F}$  of characteristic 0,  $\mathfrak{h}$  a Cartan subalgebra,  $\Delta \subset \mathfrak{h}_{\mathbb{Q}}^*$  the set of roots,  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  the Killing form on  $\mathfrak{h}_{\mathbb{Q}}^*$  which is  $\mathbb{Q}$ -valued and positive definite.

Let  $V = \mathbb{R} \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathfrak{h}_{\mathbb{Q}}^*$ , i.e. linear combinations of roots with real coefficients and extend the Killing form by bilinearity. Then the pair  $(V, \Delta)$  is a root system, called the  $\mathfrak{g}$  root system.

**Remark 2.** This construction is independent of the choice of the Cartan subalgebra  $\mathfrak{h}$  due to Chevalley's Theorem.

**Exercise 15.5.** Let  $(V, \Delta)$  be a root system. Then  $\Delta$  is indecomposable if and only if there does not exist non-trivial decomposition  $(V, \Delta) = (V_1, \Delta_1) \oplus (V_2, \Delta_2)$  where  $V = V_1 \oplus V_2$ ,  $V_1 \perp V_2$ ,  $\Delta_i \subset V_i$ , and  $\Delta = \Delta_1 \cup \Delta_2$ . (Hint: Use String Condition)

Moreover, the decomposition of  $\Delta = \bigsqcup \Delta_i$  into indecomposable sets corresponds to decomposition of the root system in the orthogonal direct sum of indecomposable root systems.

*Proof.* For the first direction, suppose we have a decomposition  $\Delta = \Delta_1 \sqcup \Delta_2$ ,  $\Delta_i \subset V_i$ ,  $\alpha \in \Delta_i$ ,  $\beta \in \Delta_2$ . Therefore,  $\alpha + \beta \notin \Delta \cup \{0\}$ , hence  $q = 0$ . As well, clearly  $-\alpha \in \Delta_2$ , so  $p = 0$ . Therefore,  $\frac{2(\alpha, \beta)}{(\alpha, \alpha)} = 0$ , hence  $(\alpha, \beta) = 0$ . Let  $V_i = \text{span}(\Delta_i)$ , then by above  $V_1 \perp V_2$ , and thus  $V = V_1 \oplus V_2$ .

On the other hand, suppose  $V = V_1 \oplus V_2$ ,  $V_1 \perp V_2$ . Choose  $\Delta_i = \Delta \cap V_i$ . We show  $\Delta_1 \sqcup \Delta_2$  is a decomposition. In the contrary case, choose  $\alpha \in \Delta_i$ ,  $\beta \in \Delta_2$  and suppose  $\alpha + \beta \in \Delta \cup \{0\}$ . Then,  $\alpha + \beta \neq 0$  since  $(\alpha, -\alpha) \neq 0$ , so  $\alpha + \beta \in \Delta$ . Without loss of generality,  $\alpha + \beta \in \Delta_1 \subset V_1$ , as  $\beta \in \Delta_2 \subset V_2$  and  $V_1 \perp V_2$ , we have  $0 = (\alpha + \beta, \beta) = (\alpha, \beta) + (\beta, \beta) = (\beta, \beta)$ . This is a contradiction, hence  $\alpha + \beta \notin \Delta$ , so we have a decomposition.

By the above argument, it is clear that the decomposition into indecomposables corresponds to the orthogonal decomposition with respect to  $(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

□