

# Algebraic Groups

D. Zack Garza

Tuesday 1<sup>st</sup> September, 2020

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These are notes live-tex'd from a graduate course in Algebraic Geometry taught by Dan Nakano at the University of Georgia in Fall 2020. As such, any errors or inaccuracies are almost certainly my own.

D. Zack Garza, Tuesday 1<sup>st</sup> September, 2020  
20:45

## 1 Friday, August 21

Reference: Carter's "Finite Groups of Lie Type".  
Reference: Humphrey's "Linear Algebraic Groups" (Springer)

## 1.1 Intro and Definitions

**Definition 1.0.1** (Affine Variety).

Let  $k = \bar{k}$  be algebraically closed (e.g.  $k = \mathbb{C}, \overline{\mathbb{F}_p}$ ). A variety  $V \subseteq k^n$  is an *affine  $k$ -variety* iff  $V$  is the zero set of a collection of polynomials in  $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ .

Here  $\mathbb{A}^n := k^n$  with the Zariski topology, so the closed sets are varieties.

**Definition 1.0.2** (Affine Algebraic Group).

An *affine algebraic  $k$ -group* is an affine variety with the structure of a group, where the multiplication and inversion maps

$$\begin{aligned}\mu : G \times G &\longrightarrow G \\ \iota : G &\longrightarrow G\end{aligned}$$

are continuous.

**Example 1.1.**

$G = \mathbb{G}_a \subseteq k$  the *additive group* of  $k$  is defined as  $\mathbb{G}_a := (k, +)$ . We then have a *coordinate ring*  $k[\mathbb{G}_a] = k[x]/I = k[x]$ .

**Example 1.2.**

$G = \mathrm{GL}(n, k)$ , which has coordinate ring  $k[x_{ij}, T]/\langle \det(x_{ij}) \cdot T = 1 \rangle$ .

**Example 1.3.**

Setting  $n = 1$  above, we have  $\mathbb{G}_m := \mathrm{GL}(1, k) = (k^\times, \cdot)$ . Here the coordinate ring is  $k[x, T]/\langle xT = 1 \rangle$ .

**Example 1.4.**

$G = \mathrm{SL}(n, k) \leq \mathrm{GL}(n, k)$ , which has coordinate ring  $k[G] = k[x_{ij}]/\langle \det(x_{ij}) = 1 \rangle$ .

**Definition 1.0.3** (Irreducible).

A variety  $V$  is *irreducible* iff  $V$  can not be written as  $V = \cup_{i=1}^n V_i$  with each  $V_i \subseteq V$  a proper subvariety.



Figure 1: Reducible vs Irreducible

**Proposition 1.1(?)**

There exists a unique irreducible component of  $G$  containing the identity  $e$ . Notation:  $G^0$ .

**Proposition 1.2(?)**

$G$  is the union of translates of  $G^0$ , i.e. there is a decomposition

$$G = \coprod_{g \in \Gamma} g \cdot G^0,$$

where we let  $G$  act on itself by left-translation and define  $\Gamma$  to be a set of representatives of distinct orbits.

**Proposition 1.3(?)**

One can define solvable and nilpotent algebraic groups in the same way as they are defined for finite groups, i.e. as having a terminating derived or lower central series respectively.

## 1.2 Jordan-Chevalley Decomposition

**Proposition 1.4(Existence and Uniqueness of Radical).**

There is a maximal connected normal solvable subgroup  $R(G)$ , denoted the *radical* of  $G$ .

- $\{e\} \subseteq R(G)$ , so the radical exists.
- If  $A, B \leq G$  are solvable then  $AB$  is again a solvable subgroup.

**Definition 1.4.1 (Unipotent).**

An element  $u$  is *unipotent*  $\iff u = 1 + n$  where  $n$  is nilpotent  $\iff$  its the only eigenvalue is  $\lambda = 1$ .

**Proposition 1.5 (JC Decomposition).**

For any  $G$ , there exists a closed embedding  $G \hookrightarrow \mathrm{GL}(V) = \mathrm{GL}(n, k)$  and for each  $x \in G$  a unique decomposition  $x = su$  where  $s$  is semisimple (diagonalizable) and  $u$  is unipotent.

Define  $R_u(G)$  to be the subgroup of unipotent elements in  $R(G)$ .   
 Suppose  $G$  is connected, so  $G = G^0$ , and nontrivial, so  $G \neq \{e\}$ . Then

- $G$  is semisimple iff  $R(G) = \{e\}$ .
- $G$  is reductive iff  $R_u(G) = \{e\}$ .

**Example 1.5.**

$G = \mathrm{GL}(n, k)$ , then  $R(G) = Z(G) = kI$  the scalar matrices, and  $R_u(G) = \{e\}$ . So  $G$  is reductive and semisimple.

**Example 1.6.**

$G = \mathrm{SL}(n, k)$ , then  $R(G) = \{I\}$ .

**Exercise 1.1.**

Is this semisimple? Reductive? What is  $R_u(G)$ ?

**Definition 1.5.1 (Torus).**

A *torus*  $T \subseteq G$  in  $G$  an algebraic group is a commutative algebraic subgroup consisting of semisimple elements.

**Example 1.7.**

Let

$$T := \left\langle \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & & \mathbf{0} \\ & \ddots & \\ \mathbf{0} & & a_n \end{bmatrix} \subseteq \mathrm{GL}(n, k) \right\rangle.$$

**Remark 1.**

Why are torii useful? For  $\mathfrak{g} = \mathrm{Lie}(G)$ , we obtain a root space decomposition

$$\mathfrak{g} = \left( \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \Phi_-} \mathfrak{g}_\alpha \right) \oplus \mathfrak{t} \oplus \left( \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \Phi_+} \mathfrak{g}_\alpha \right).$$

When  $G$  is a simple algebraic group, there is a classification/correspondence:

$$(G, T) \iff (\Phi, W).$$

where  $\Phi$  is an irreducible root system and  $W$  is a Weyl group.

## 2 Monday, August 24

### 2.1 Review and General Setup

- $k = \bar{k}$  is algebraically closed
- $G$  is a reductive algebraic group
- $T \subseteq G$  is a *maximal split torus*

Split:  $T \cong \bigoplus \mathbb{G}_m$ .

We'll associate to this a root system, not necessarily irreducible, yielding a correspondence

$$(G, T) \iff (\Phi, W)$$

with  $W$  a Weyl group.

This will be accomplished by looking at  $\mathfrak{g} = \text{Lie}(G)$ . If  $G$  is simple, then  $\mathfrak{g}$  is “simple”, and  $\Phi$  irreducible will correspond to a Dynkin diagram.

There is this a 1-to-1 correspondence

$$G \text{ simple} / \sim \iff A_n, B_n, C_n, D_n, E_6, E_7, E_8, F_4, G_2$$

where  $\sim$  denotes *isogeny*.

Taking the Zariski tangent space at the identity “linearizes” an algebraic group, yielding a Lie algebra.

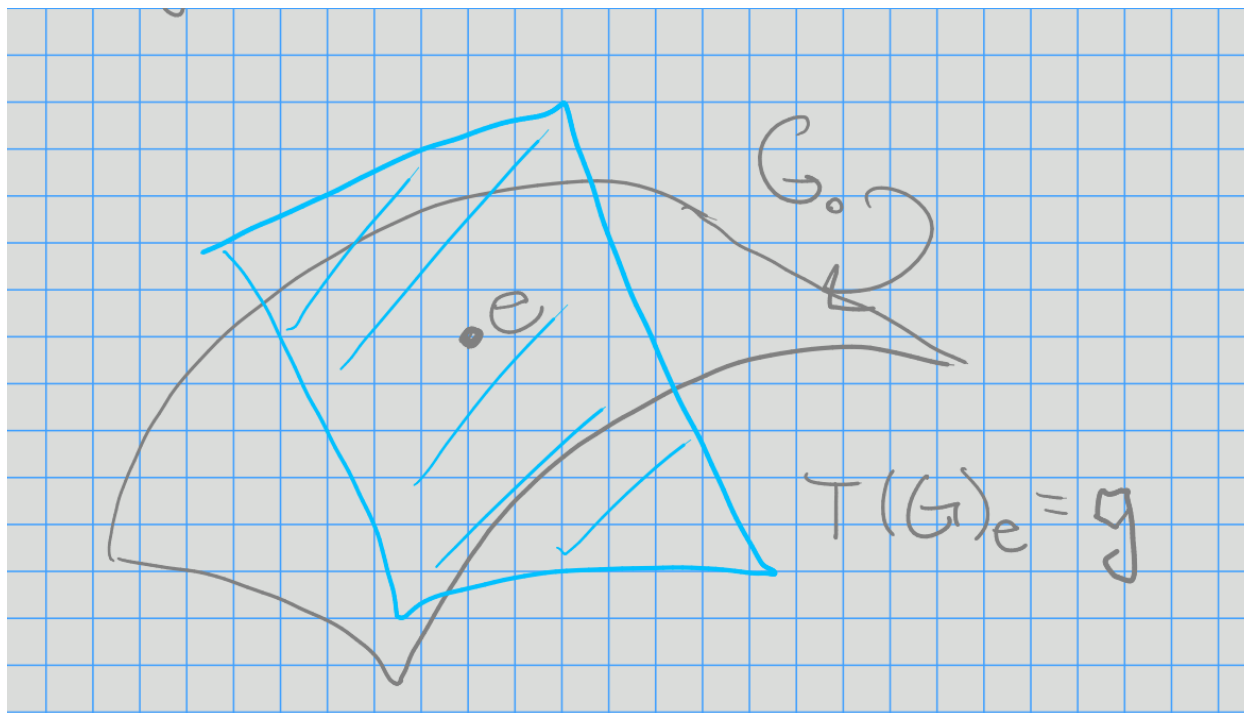


Figure 2: Image

We have the coordinate ring  $k[G] = k[x_1, \dots, x_n]/\mathcal{I}(G)$  where  $\mathcal{I}(G)$  is the zero set. This is equal to  $\{f : G \rightarrow k\}$ ,

## 2.2 The Associated Lie Algebra

**Definition 2.0.1** (The Lie Algebra of an Algebraic Group).

Define *left translation* is

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_x : k[G] &\longrightarrow k[G] \\ y &\mapsto f(x^{-1}y).\end{aligned}$$

Define *derivations* as

$$\text{Der } k[G] = \left\{ D : k[G] \longrightarrow k[G] \mid D(fg) = D(f)g + fD(g) \right\}.$$

We can then realize the Lie algebra as

$$\mathfrak{g} = \text{Lie}(G) = \left\{ D \in \text{Der } k[G] \mid \lambda_x \circ D = D \circ \lambda_x \right\},$$

the left-invariant derivations.

**Example 2.1.**

- $G = \text{GL}(n, k) \implies \mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{gl}(n, k)$
- $G = \text{SL}(n, k) \implies \mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{sl}(n, k)$

Let  $G$  be reductive and  $T$  be a split torus. Then  $T$  acts on  $\mathfrak{g}$  via an *adjoint action*. (For  $\text{GL}_n, \text{SL}_n$ , this is conjugation.)

There is a decomposition into eigenspaces for the action of  $T$ ,

$$\mathfrak{g} = \left( \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \Phi} g_{\alpha} \right) \oplus t$$

where  $t = \text{Lie}(T)$  and  $g_{\alpha} := \left\{ x \in \mathfrak{g} \mid t.x = \alpha(t)x \ \forall t \in T \right\}$  with  $\alpha : T \rightarrow K^{\times}$  a rational function (a *root*).

In general, take  $\alpha \in \text{hom}_{\text{AlgGrp}}(T, \mathbb{G}_m)$ .

**Example 2.2.**

Let  $G = \text{GL}(n, k)$  and

$$T = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_n \end{bmatrix} \mid a_j \in k^{\times} \right\}.$$

Then check the following action:

$$\begin{aligned}
t \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} q_1 & 0 & \\ 0 & \ddots & \\ 0 & & q_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} q_1^{-1} & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & q_n^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & q_1 q_2^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\
&= q_1 q_2^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

Figure 3: Action

which indeed acts by a rational function.

Then

$$g_\alpha = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} = g_{(1,-1,0)}.$$

For  $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{gl}(3, k)$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathfrak{g} &= t \oplus g_{(1,-1,0)} \oplus g_{(-1,1,0)} \\
&\quad \oplus g_{(0,1,-1)} \oplus g_{(0,-1,1)} \\
&\quad \oplus g_{(1,0,-1)} \oplus g_{(-1,0,1)}.
\end{aligned}$$

## 2.3 Representations

Let  $\rho : G \longrightarrow \text{GL}(V)$  be a group homomorphism, then equivalently  $V$  is a (rational)  $G$ -module.

For  $T \subseteq G$ ,  $T \curvearrowright G$  semisimply, so we can simultaneously diagonalize these operators to obtain a *weight space decomposition*  $V = \bigoplus_{\lambda \in X(T)} V_\lambda$ , where

$$\begin{aligned}
V_\lambda &:= \left\{ v \in V \mid t.v = \lambda(t)v \ \forall t \in T \right\} \\
X(T) &:= \text{hom}(T, \mathbb{G}_m).
\end{aligned}$$



**Example 2.3.**

Let  $G = \mathrm{GL}(n, k)$  and  $V$  the  $n$ -dimensional natural representation as column vectors,

$$V = \left\{ [v_1, \dots, v_n] \mid v_j \in k \right\}.$$

Then

$$T = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_n \end{bmatrix} \mid a_j \in k^\times \right\}.$$

Consider the basis vectors  $\mathbf{e}_j$ , then

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = a_j \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = a_1^0 a_2^0 \cdots a_j^0 \cdots a_n^0 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Here the weights are of the form  $\varepsilon_j := [0, 0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0]$  with a 1 in the  $j$ th spot, so we have

$$V = V_{\varepsilon_1} \oplus V_{\varepsilon_2} \oplus \cdots \oplus V_{\varepsilon_n}.$$

**Example 2.4.**

For  $V = \mathbb{C}$ , we have  $t.v = (a_1^0 \cdots a_n^0)v$  and  $V = V_{(0,0,\dots,0)}$ .

**2.4 Classification**

Let  $G$  be a simple algebraic group (no closed, connected, normal subgroups other than  $\{e\}, G$ ) that is nonabelian.

**Example 2.5.**

Let  $G = \mathrm{SL}(3, k)$ . Then

$$T = \left\{ t = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_1 a_2^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_2^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \mid a_1, a_2 \in k^\times \right\}$$

and

$$t. \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = a_1^2 a_2^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

and  $\alpha_1 = (2, -1)$ .

What is  $\alpha_1$ ? Note that you can recover the Cartan something here?

Then

$$\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{g}_{(2,-1)} \oplus \mathfrak{g}_{(-2,1)} \oplus \mathfrak{g}_{(-1,2)} \oplus \mathfrak{g}_{(1,-2)} \oplus \mathfrak{g}_{(1,1)} \oplus \mathfrak{g}_{(-1,-1)}.$$

Then  $\alpha_2 = (-1, 2)$  and  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = (1, 1)$ .

This gives the root space decomposition for  $\mathfrak{sl}_3$ :

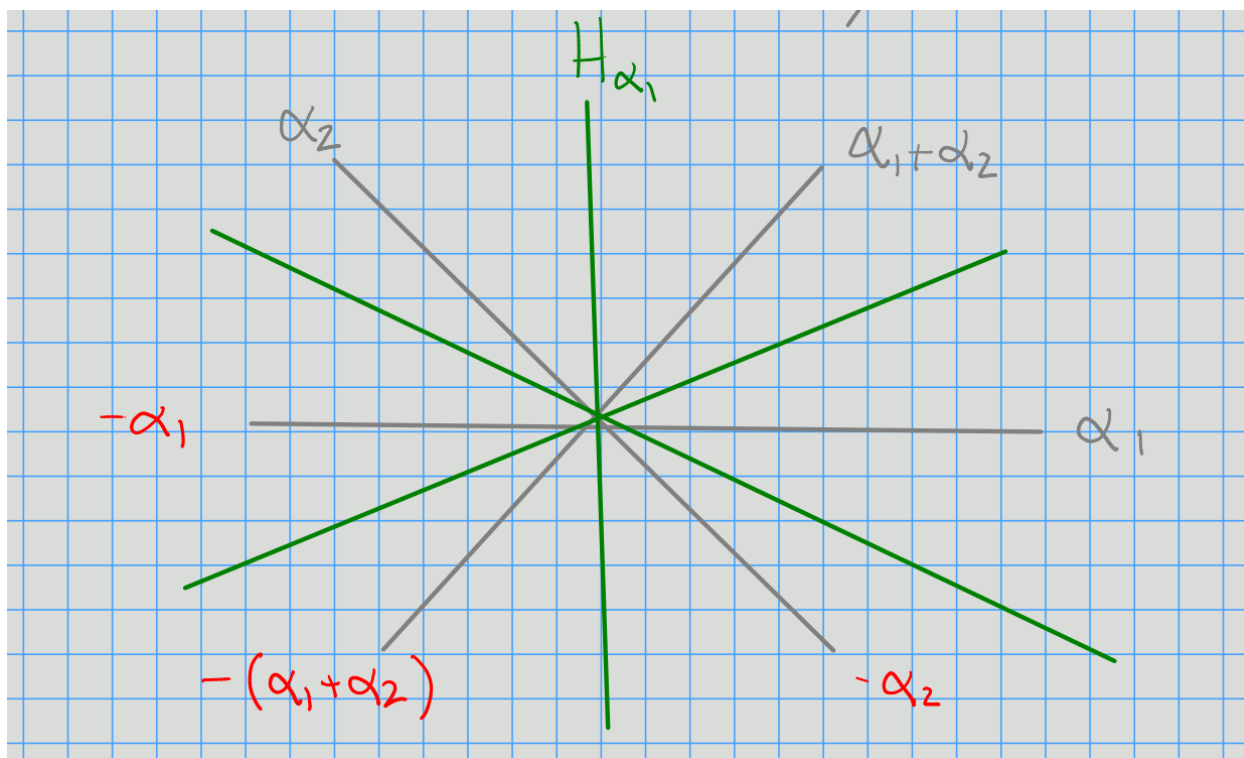


Figure 4: Image

Then the Weyl group will be generated by reflections through these hyperplanes.

### 3 Wednesday, August 26

#### 3.1 Review

- $G$  a reductive algebraic group over  $k$
- $T = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{G}_m$  a maximal split torus
- $\mathfrak{g} = \text{Lie}(G)$
- There's an induced root space decomposition  $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{t} \oplus \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \Phi} \mathfrak{g}_{\alpha}$
- When  $G$  is simple,  $\Phi$  is an *irreducible* root system
  - There is a classification of these by Dynkin diagrams

**Example 3.1.**

$A_n$  corresponds to  $\mathfrak{sl}(n+1, k)$  (mnemonic:  $A_1$  corresponds to  $\mathfrak{sl}(2)$ )

- We have representations  $\rho : G \rightarrow \text{GL}(V)$ , i.e.  $V$  is a  $G$ -module
- For  $T \subseteq G$ , we have a weight space decomposition:  $V = \bigoplus_{\lambda \in X(T)} V_\lambda$  where  $X(T) = \text{hom}(T, \mathbb{G}_m)$ .

Note that  $X(T) \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$ , the number of copies of  $\mathbb{G}_m$  in  $T$ .

### 3.2 Root Systems and Weights

**Example 3.2.**

Let  $\Phi = A_2$ , then we have the following root system:

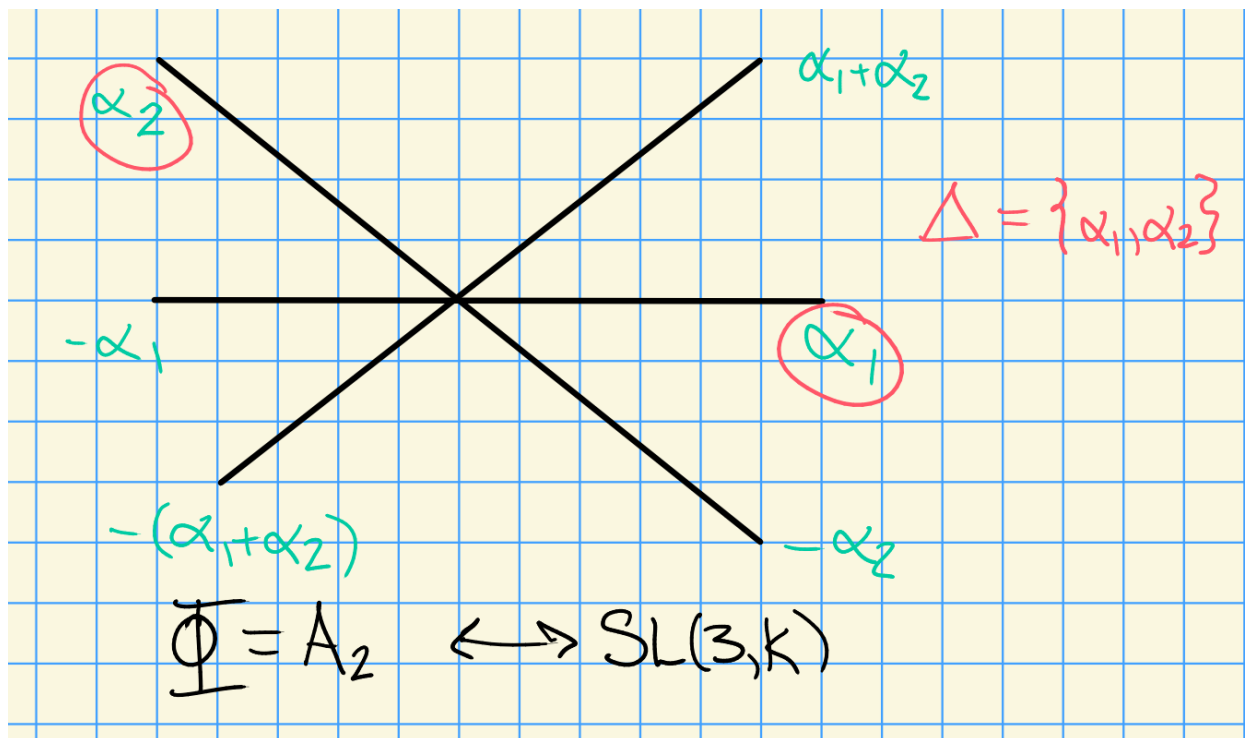


Figure 5: Image

In general, we'll have  $\Delta = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n\}$  a basis of *simple roots*.

**Remark 2.**

Every root  $\alpha \in I$  can be expressed as either positive integer linear combination (or negative) of simple roots.

For any  $\alpha \in \Phi$ , let  $s_\alpha$  be the reflection across  $H_\alpha$ , the hyperplane orthogonal to  $\alpha$ . Then define the *Weyl group*  $W = \{s_\alpha \mid \alpha \in \Phi\}$ .

**Example 3.3.**

Here the Weyl group is  $S_3$ :

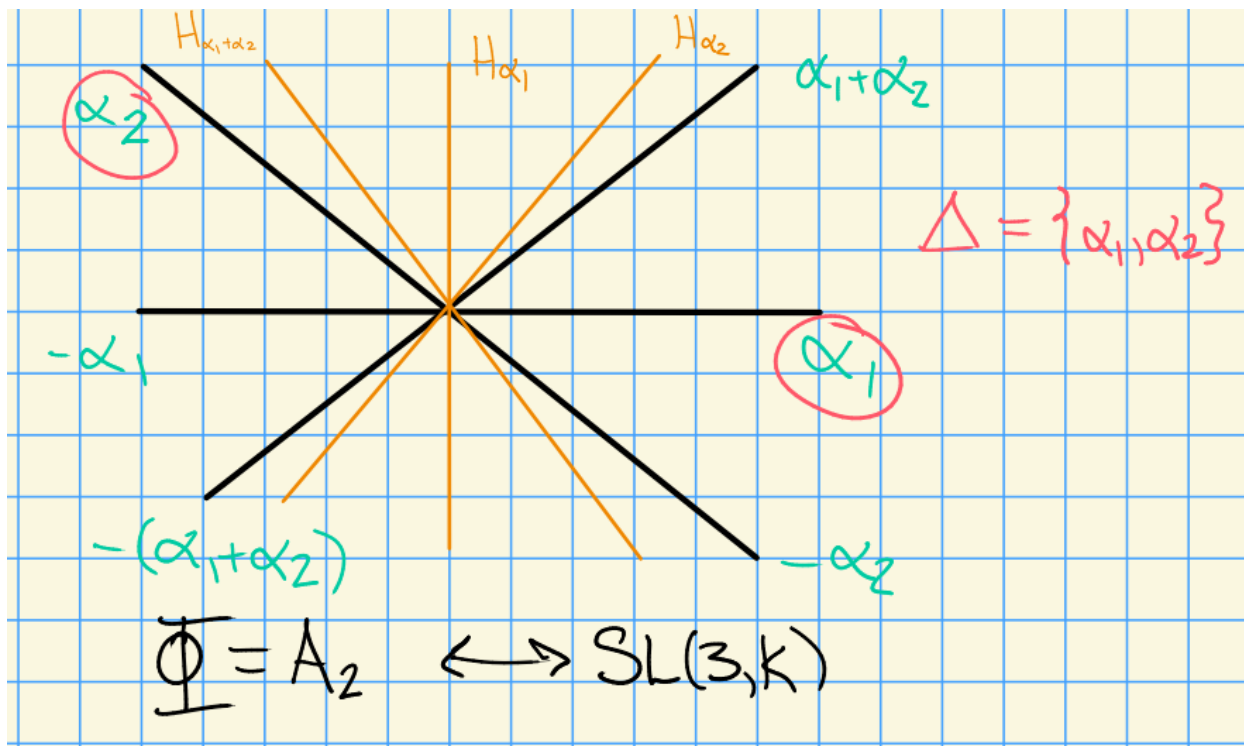


Figure 6: Image

**Remark 3.**

$W$  acts transitively on bases.

**Remark 4.**

$X(T) \subseteq \mathbb{Z}\Phi$ , recalling that  $X(T) = \text{hom}(T, \mathbb{G}_m) = \mathbb{Z}^n$  for some  $n$ . Denote  $\mathbb{Z}\Phi$  the *root lattice* and  $X(T)$  the *weight lattice*.

**Example 3.4.**

Let  $G = \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$  then  $X(T) = \mathbb{Z}\omega$  where  $\omega = 1$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}\Phi = \mathbb{Z}\{\alpha\}$ . Then there is one weight  $\alpha$ , and the root lattice  $\mathbb{Z}\Phi$  is just  $2\mathbb{Z}$ . However, the weight lattice is  $\mathbb{Z}\omega = \mathbb{Z}$ , and these are not equal in general.

**Remark 5.**

There is partial ordering on  $X(T)$  given by  $\lambda \geq \mu \iff \lambda - \mu = \sum_{\alpha \in \Delta} n_\alpha \alpha$  where  $n_\alpha \geq 0$ . (We say  $\lambda$  *dominates*  $\mu$ .)

**Definition 3.0.1** (Fundamental Dominant Weights).

We extend scalars for the weight lattice to obtain  $E := X(T) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{R} \cong \mathbb{R}^n$ , a Euclidean space with an inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ .

For  $\alpha \in \Phi$ , define its *coroot*  $\alpha^\vee := \frac{2\alpha}{\langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle}$ . Define the *simple coroots* as  $\Delta^\vee := \{\alpha_i^\vee\}_{i=1}^n$ , which has a dual basis  $\Omega := \{\omega_i\}_{i=1}^n$  the *fundamental weights*. These satisfy  $\langle \omega_i, \alpha_j^\vee \rangle = \delta_{ij}$ .

What is the notation for fundamental weights? Definitely not  $\Omega$  usually!

Important because we can index irreducible representations by fundamental weights.

A weight  $\lambda \in X(T)$  is *dominant* iff  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}\Omega$ , i.e.  $\lambda = \sum n_i \omega_i$  with  $n_i \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}$ .

If  $G$  is simply connected, then  $X(T) = \bigoplus \mathbb{Z}\omega_i$ .

See Jantzen for definition of simply-connected,  $\mathrm{SL}(n+1)$  is simply connected but its adjoint  $\mathrm{PGL}(n+1)$  is not simply connected.

### 3.3 Complex Semisimple Lie Algebras

When doing representation theory, we look at the Verma modules  $Z(\lambda) = U(\mathfrak{g}) \otimes_{U(\mathfrak{b}^+)} \lambda \twoheadrightarrow L(\lambda)$ .

**Theorem 3.1(?)**.

$L(\lambda)$  as a finite-dimensional  $U(\mathfrak{g})$ -module  $\iff \lambda$  is dominant, i.e.  $\lambda \in X(T)_+$ .

Thus the representations are indexed by lattice points in a particular region:

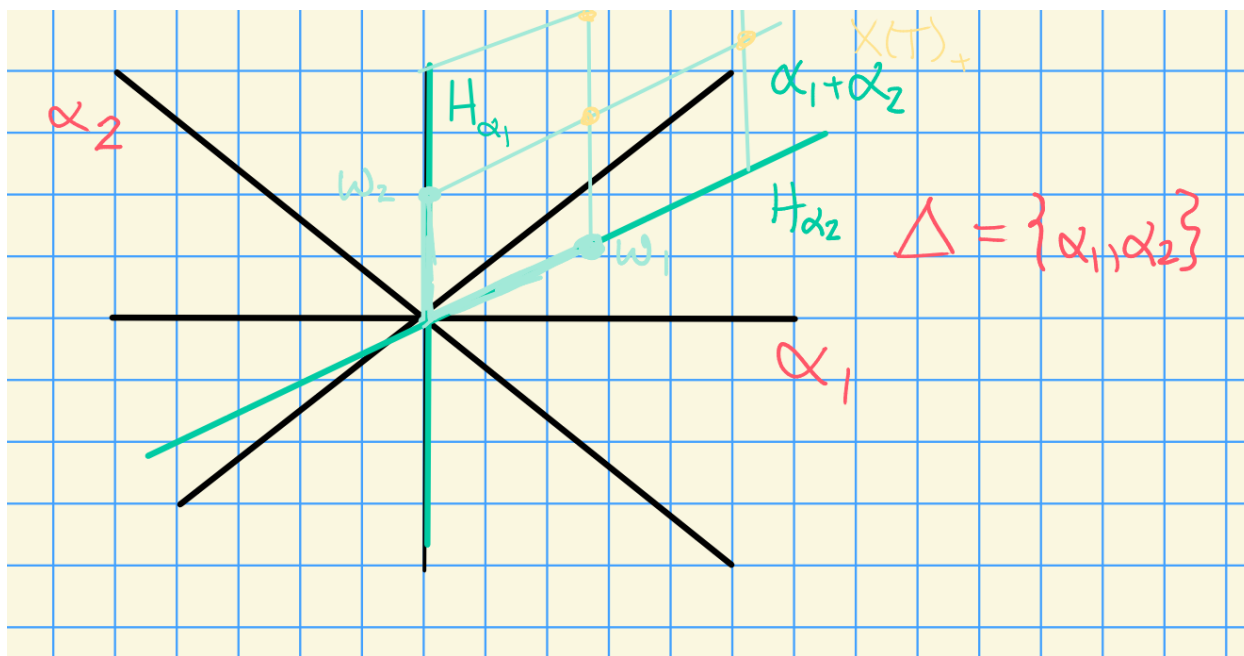


Figure 7: Image

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**Question 1:**

Suppose  $G$  is a simple (simply connected) algebraic group. How do you parameterize *irreducible* representations?

For  $\rho : G$

to  $\mathrm{GL}(V)$ ,  $V$  is a *simple module* (an *irreducible representation*) iff the only proper  $G$ -submodules of  $V$  are trivial.

**Answer 1:** They are also parameterized by  $X(T)_+$ . We'll show this using the induction functor  $\mathrm{Ind}_B^G \lambda = H^0(G/B, \mathcal{L}(\lambda))$  (sheaf cohomology of the flag variety with coefficients in some line bundle).

We'll define what  $B$  is later, essentially upper-triangular matrices.

**Question 2:** What are the dimensions of the irreducible representations for  $G$ ?

**Answer 2:** Over  $k = \mathbb{C}$  using Weyl's dimension formula.

For  $k = \overline{\mathbb{F}_p}$ : conjectured to be known for  $p \geq h$  (the *Coxeter number*), but by Williamson (2013) there are counterexamples. Current work being done!

## 4 Friday, August 28

### 4.1 Representation Theory

Review: let  $\mathfrak{g}$  be a semisimple lie algebra  $/\mathbb{C}$ . There is a decomposition  $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{b}^+ \oplus \mathfrak{n}^- = \mathfrak{n}^+ \oplus t \oplus \mathfrak{n}^-$ , where  $t$  is a torus. We associate  $U(\mathfrak{g})$  the universal enveloping algebra, and representations of  $\mathfrak{g}$  correspond with representations of  $U(\mathfrak{g})$ .

Let  $\lambda \in X(T)$  be a weight, then  $\lambda$  is a  $U(\mathfrak{b}^+)$ -module. We can write  $Z(\lambda) = U(\mathfrak{g}) \otimes_{U(\mathfrak{b}^+)} \lambda$ .

**Remark 6.**

There exists a unique maximal submodule of  $Z(\lambda)$ , say  $RZ(\lambda)$  where  $Z(\lambda)/RZ(\lambda) \cong L(\lambda)$  is an irreducible representation of  $\mathfrak{g}$ .

**Theorem 4.1(?)**.

Let  $L = L(\lambda)$  be a finite-dimensional irreducible representation for  $\mathfrak{g}$ . Then

1.  $L \cong Z(\lambda)/RZ(\lambda)$  for some  $\lambda$ .
2.  $\lambda \in X(T)_+$  is a dominant integral weight.

#### 4.1.1 Induction

Let  $\mathfrak{g}$  be an algebraic group  $/k$  with  $k = \bar{k}$ , and let  $H \leq G$ . Let  $M$  be an  $H$ -module, we'll eventually want to produce a  $G$ -modules.

Step 1: Make  $M$  into a  $G \times H$  where the first component  $(g, 1)$  acts trivially on  $M$ .

Taking the coordinate algebra  $k[G]$ , this is a  $(G \times H)$ -bimodule, and thus becomes a  $G \times H$ -module. Let  $f \in k[G]$ , so  $f : G \rightarrow K$ , and let  $y \in G$ . The explicit action is

$$[(g, h)f](y) := f(g^{-1}yh).$$

Note that we can identify  $H \cong 1 \times H \leq G \times H$ . We can form  $(M \otimes_k k[G])^H$ , the  $H$ -fixed points.

**Exercise 4.1.**

Let  $N$  be an  $A$ -module and  $B \trianglelefteq A$ , then  $N^B$  is an  $A/B$ -module.

Hint: the action of  $B$  is trivial on  $N^B$ . Here  $N^B := \{n \in N \mid b.n = n \forall b \in B\}$

**Definition 4.1.1** (Induction).

The *induced module* is defined as

$$\mathrm{Ind}_H^G(M) := (M \otimes_k k[G])^H.$$

### 4.1.2 Properties of Induction

1.  $(\cdot \otimes_k k[G]) = \mathrm{hom}_H(k, \cdot \otimes_k k[G])$  is only *left-exact*, i.e.

$$(0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow C \longrightarrow 0) \mapsto (0 \longrightarrow FA \longrightarrow FB \longrightarrow FC \longrightarrow \cdots).$$

2. By taking right-derived functors  $R^j F$ , you can take cohomology.

Note that in this category, we won't have enough projectives, but we will have enough injectives.

3. This functor commutes with direct sums and direct limits.
4. (**Important**) Frobenius Reciprocity: there is an adjoint, *restriction*, satisfying

$$\mathrm{hom}_G(N, \mathrm{Ind}_H^G M) = \mathrm{hom}_H(N \downarrow_H, M).$$

5. (Tensor Identity) If  $M \in \mathrm{Mod}(H)$  and additionally  $M \in \mathrm{Mod}(G)$ , then  $\mathrm{Ind}_H^G M = M \otimes_k \mathrm{Ind}_H^G k$ .

If  $V_1, V_2 \in \mathrm{Mod}(G)$  then  $V_1 \otimes_k V_2 \in \mathrm{Mod}(G)$  with the action given by  $g(v_1 \otimes v_2) = gv_1 \otimes gv_2$ .

6. Another interpretation: we can write

$$\mathrm{Ind}_H^G(M) = \left\{ f \in \mathrm{Hom}(G, M_a) \mid f(gh) = h^{-1} \cdot f(g) \forall g \in G, h \in H \right\} \quad M_a = M := \mathbb{A}^{\dim M}.$$

I.e., equivariant wrt the  $H$ -action.

Then  $G$  acts on  $\mathrm{Ind}_H^G M$  by left-translation:  $(gf)(y) = f(g^{-1}y)$ .

7. There is an evaluation map:

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon : \mathrm{Ind}_H^G(M) &\longrightarrow M \\ f &\mapsto f(1). \end{aligned}$$

This is an  $H$ -module morphism. Why? We can check

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon(h.f) &:= (h.f)(a) \\ &= f(h^{-1}a) \\ &= hf(1) \\ &= h(\varepsilon(f)). \end{aligned}$$

We can write the isomorphism in Frobenius reciprocity explicitly:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{hom}_G(N, \mathrm{Ind}_H^G M) &\xrightarrow{\cong} \mathrm{hom}_H(N, M) \\ \varphi &\mapsto \varepsilon \circ \varphi. \end{aligned}$$

8. Transitivity of induction: for  $H \leq H' \leq G$ , there is a natural transformation (?) of functors:

$$\mathrm{Ind}_H^G(\cdot) = \mathrm{Ind}_{H'}^G(\mathrm{Ind}_H^{H'}(\cdot)).$$

Equality as a composition of functors?

## 4.2 Classification of Simple $G$ -modules

Suppose  $G$  is a connected reductive algebraic group  $/k$  with  $k = \bar{k}$ .

**Example 4.1.**

Let  $G = \mathrm{GL}(n, k)$ . There is a decomposition:

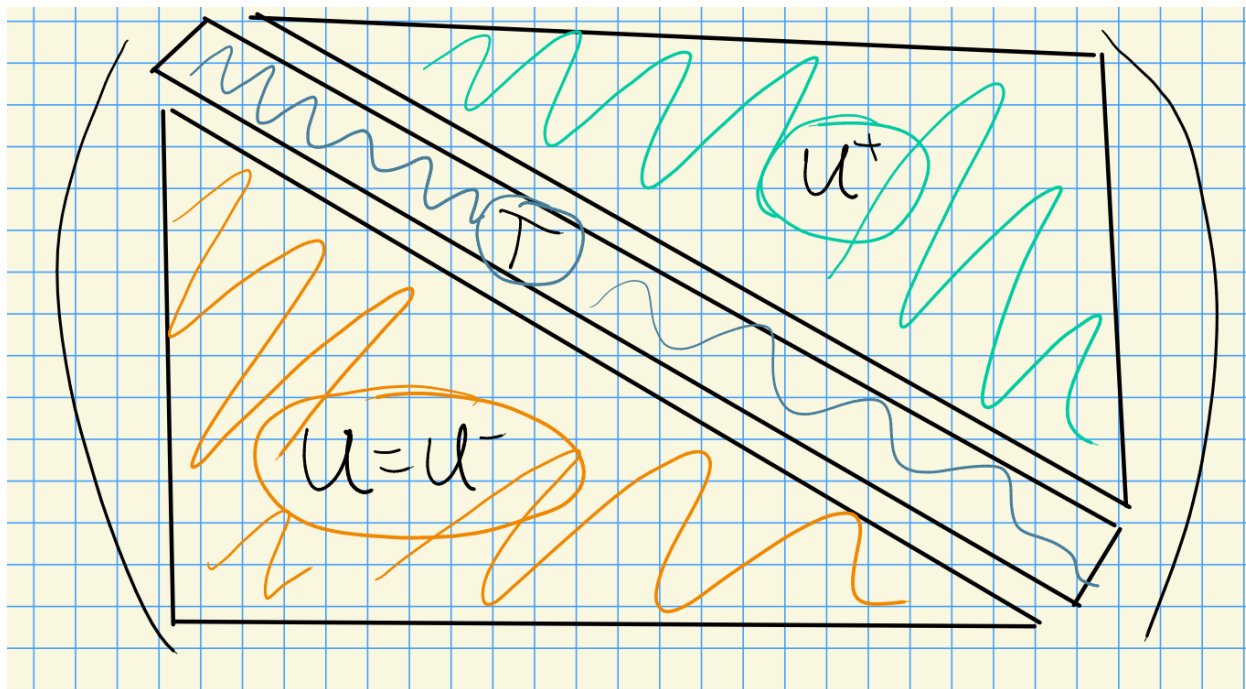


Figure 8: Image

**Step 1:** Getting modules for  $U$ .

Then there's a general fact:  $U^+TU \hookrightarrow G$  is dense in the Zariski topology for any reductive algebraic group. We can form

- $B^+ := T \rtimes U^+$ , the *positive borel*,
- $B^- := T \rtimes U$ , the *negative borel*,



---

Suppose we have a  $U$ -module, i.e. a representation  $\rho : U \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(V)$ . We can find a basis such that  $\rho(u)$  is upper triangular with ones on the diagonal. In this case, there is a composition series with 1-dimensional quotients, and the composition factors are all isomorphic to  $k$ .

Moral: for unipotent groups, there are only trivial representations, i.e. the only simple  $U$ -modules are isomorphic to  $k$ .

**Step 2:** Getting modules for  $B$ .

Modules for  $B$  are solvable, in which case we can find a flag. In this case,  $\rho(b)$  embeds into upper triangular matrices, where the diagonal action may now not be trivial (i.e. diagonal is now arbitrary).

Thus simple  $B$ -modules arise by taking  $\lambda \in X(T) = \mathrm{hom}(T, \mathbb{G}_m) = \mathrm{hom}(T, \mathrm{GL}(1, k))$ , then letting  $u$  act trivially on  $\lambda$ , i.e.  $u.v = v$ . Here we have  $B \rightarrow B/U = T$ , so any  $T$ -module can be pulled back to a  $B$ -module.

**Step 3:** Getting modules for  $G$ .

Let  $\lambda \in X(T)$ , then  $H^0(\lambda) = \mathrm{Ind}_B^G \lambda = \nabla(\lambda)$ .

## 5 Monday, August 31

### 5.1 Review of Representation Theory of Modules

Take  $R$  a ring, then consider  $M$  an  $R$ -module to be a “vector space” over  $M$ . Note that  $M$  is an  $R$ -module  $\iff$  there exists a ring morphism  $\rho : R \rightarrow \mathrm{hom}_{\mathrm{AbGrp}}(M, M)$ .

Now let  $G$  be a group and consider  $G$ -modules  $M$ . Then a  $G$ -module will be defined by taking  $M/k$  a vector space and a  $G$ -action on  $M$ . This is equivalent to having a group morphism  $\rho : G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(M)$ .

For  $M$  a  $G$ -module, given a group action, define

$$\begin{aligned} \rho : G &\rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(M) \\ \rho(g)(m) &= g.m \end{aligned}$$

where  $\rho(h) : M \rightarrow M$ .

Similarly, for  $\rho : G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(M)$  a group morphism, define the group action  $g.m := \rho(g)m$ . Thus representations of  $G$  and  $G$ -modules are equivalent.

**Definition 5.0.1** (?).

Let  $M$  be a  $G$ -module.

1.  $M$  is a *simple*  $G$ -module (equivalently an *irreducible representation*)  $\iff$  the only  $G$ -submodules (equiv.  $G$ -invariant subspaces) are  $0, M$ .
2.  $M$  is *indecomposable*  $\iff$   $M$  can not be written as  $M = M_1 \oplus M_2$  with  $M_i < M$  proper submodules.

**Example 5.1.**

For  $G = \mathrm{SL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ , there is a natural  $n$ -dimensional representation  $M = V$ , and this is irreducible.

What is  $V$ ?

**Example 5.2.**

Let  $R = \mathbb{Z}$ , so we're considering  $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules. For  $M = \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $M$  is not simple since  $2\mathbb{Z} < \mathbb{Z}$  is a proper submodule. However  $M$  is indecomposable.

Recall from last time: we defined a functor  $\text{Ind}_H^G(\cdot) : H\text{-mod} \rightarrow G\text{-mod}$ , where  $\text{Ind}_H^G = (k[G] \otimes M)^H$ , the  $H$ -invariants. This functor is left-exact but not right-exact, so we have cohomology  $R^j \text{Ind}_H^G$  by taking right-derived functors.

Goal: classify simple  $G$ -modules for  $G$  a reductive connected algebraic group.

**Example 5.3.**

For  $G = \text{GL}(n, k)$ , we have a decomposition

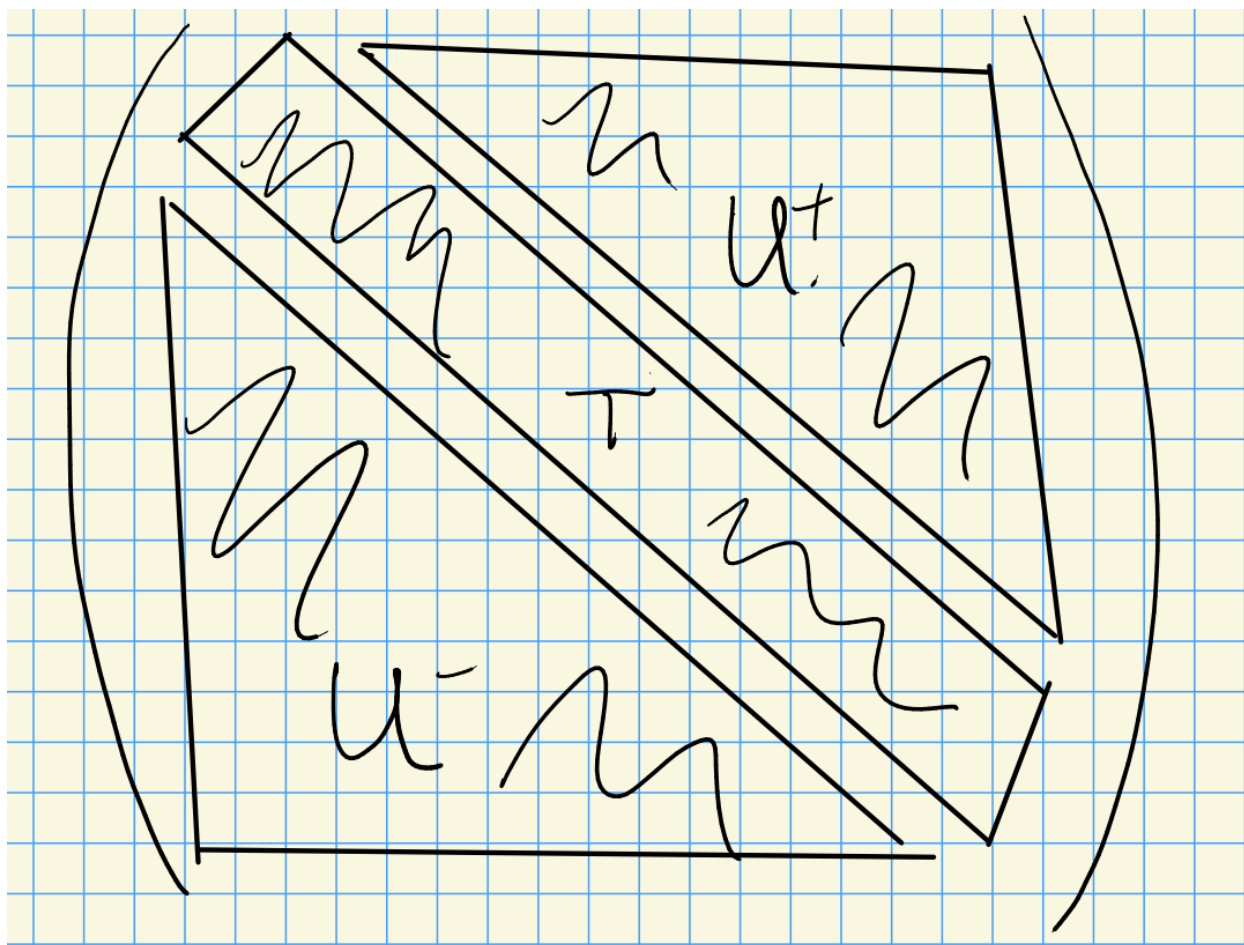


Figure 9: Image

We have

- $B = T \rtimes U$  the negative Borel,
- $B = T \rtimes U^+$  the Borel

For  $U$ -modules:  $k$  is the only simple  $U$ -module. Importantly, if  $V$  is a  $U$ -module, then the fixed points are never zero, i.e.  $V^U = \text{hom}_{U\text{-Mod}}(k, V) \neq 0$ .

For  $B$ -modules: let  $X(T) := \text{hom}(T, \mathbb{G}_m) = \text{hom}(T, \text{GL}(1, k))$ . These are the simple representations for the torus  $T$ . Thus  $\lambda \in X(T)$  represents a simple  $T$ -module.

We have a map  $B \rightarrow B/U = T$ , so we can pullback  $T$ -representations to  $B$ -representations (“inflation”), since we have a map  $T \rightarrow \text{GL}(1, k)$  and we can just compose. So  $\lambda$  is a 1-dimensional (simple)  $B$ -module where  $U$  acts trivially.

Lee’s theorem: all irreducible representations for  $B$  are one-dimensional. Thus these are the simple  $B$ -modules.

For  $G$ -modules: define  $\nabla(\lambda) := \text{Ind}_B^G(\lambda) = H^0(\lambda)$ .

Questions:

1. When does  $H^0(\lambda) = 0$ ?
2. What is  $\dim_{k\text{-Vect}} H^0(\lambda)$ ?
3. What are the composition factors of  $H^0(\lambda)$ ?

Known in characteristic zero, wildly open in positive characteristic.

**Remark 7.**

Another interpretation: look at the flag variety  $G/B$  and take global sections, then  $H^0(\lambda) = H^0(G/B, \mathcal{L}(\lambda))$  where  $\mathcal{L}$  is given by projecting the fiber product  $G \times_B \lambda \rightarrow G/B$  onto the first factor.

**Remark 8.**

1.  $H^0(k) = H^0([0, \dots, 0]) = k[G/B] = k$ .
2.  $H^0(M) = M$  if  $M$  is a  $G$ -module.
3. A  $G$ -module  $M$  is *semisimple* iff  $M = \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$  with each  $M_i$  are simple.
4. Can consider the largest semisimple submodule, the *socle*  $\text{Soc}_G(M)$ .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} L_4 & & L_5 \oplus L_7 \\ & \searrow & \swarrow \\ & (L_1 \oplus L_2 \oplus L_3) = \text{Soc}_G(M) & \end{array}$$

Goal: classify simple  $G$ -modules. Strategy: used dominant highest weights.

As opposed to Verma modules, the irreducibles will be a dual situation where they sit at the bottom of the module. Indicated by the notation  $\nabla$  pointing down!

**Proposition 5.1(?)**

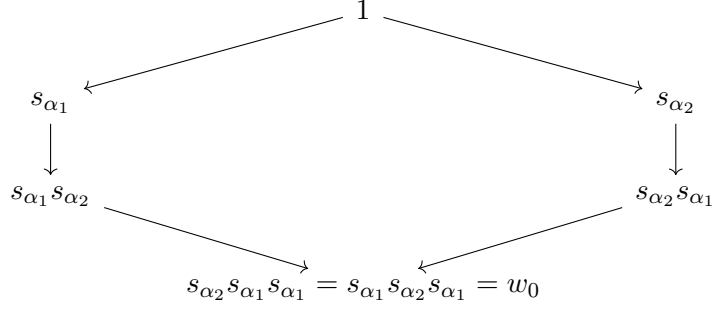
Let  $\lambda \in X(T)$  with  $H^0(\lambda) \neq 0$ .

1.  $\dim H^0(\lambda)^{U^+} = 1$  and  $H^0(\lambda)^{U^+} = H^0(\lambda)_\lambda$ .
2. Every weight of  $H^0(\lambda)$  satisfies  $w_u \lambda \leq \mu \leq \lambda$ , where  $w_0$  is the longest Weyl group element and  $\alpha \leq \beta \iff \alpha - \beta \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \Phi$ .

Note that in fact  $\ell(w_0) = |\Phi^+|$ .

**Example 5.4.**

Take  $A_2$  with simple reflections  $s_{\alpha_1}, s_{\alpha_2}$  and  $\Delta = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2\}$ .



*Proof ((Sketch)).*

We can write

$$H^0(\lambda) = \left\{ f \in k[G] \mid f(gb) = \lambda(b)^{-1} f(g) \text{ } b \in B, g \in G \right\}.$$

Suppose  $f \in H^0(\lambda)^{U^+}$  and  $u_+ \in U^+, t \in T, u \in U$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} (u_+^{-1} f)(tu) &= f(tu) \\ &= \lambda(t)^{-1} f(1). \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand,

$$(u_+^{-1} f)(tu) = f(u_+ tu).$$

So by density,  $f(1)$  is determined by  $f(u_+ tu)$  and  $\dim H^0(\lambda)^{U^+} \leq 1$ . But since this can't be zero, the dimension must be equal to 1. ■

**Proposition 5.2(?).**

Let

$$\varepsilon : H^0(\lambda) \longrightarrow \lambda$$

be the evaluation morphism.

This is a morphism of  $B$ -modules, and in particular is a morphism of  $T$ -modules. Thus the image of a weight  $\mu \neq \lambda$  is zero, so  $\varepsilon$  is injective.

*Proof .*

We have

$$f(u_+tu) = \lambda(t)^{-1}f(1) = \lambda(t)^{-1}\varepsilon(f).$$

Suppose  $f \in H^0(\lambda)^{U^+}$  and  $\varepsilon(f) = 0$ . Then  $f(u_+tu) = 0$ , and by density  $f \equiv 0$ , showing injectivity.

Therefore  $H^0(\lambda)^{U^+} \subset H^0(\lambda)_\lambda$ . Suppose  $\mu$  is maximal among weights in  $H^0(\lambda)$ . Then

$$H^0(\lambda)_\mu \subseteq H^0(\lambda)^{U^+}$$

because  $U^+$  raises weights.

But  $H^0(\lambda)^{U^+} \subseteq H^0(\lambda)_\lambda$  implies  $\mu = \lambda$ . Thus the maximal weight in  $H^0(\lambda)$  is  $\lambda$ .

Recall the situation in lie algebras:  $g_\alpha v \in V_{\lambda+\alpha}$  when  $v \in V_\lambda$ .

Since  $\lambda$  is maximal, any other weight  $\mu$  satisfies  $\mu \leq \lambda$ . Thus

$$H^0(\lambda)_\lambda \subseteq H^0(\lambda)^{U^+} \subseteq H^0(\lambda)_\lambda,$$

forcing these to be equal and finishing part 1. ■