#### 1. Week 4: Reductive groups

## 1.1. Definition of a reductive group.

**Proposition/Definition 1.1** ([Spr09, 6.4.14]). Let G be a connected linear algebraic group over k.

- (1) There uniquely exists a maximal closed connected normal solvable subgroup of G defined over k, which is called the *radical* of G. We write R(G) for the radical of G.
- (2) There uniquely exists a maximal closed connected normal unipotent<sup>2</sup> subgroup of G defined over k, which is called the *unipotent radical* of G. We write  $R_u(G)$  for the unipotent radical of G.

**Definition 1.2** (semisimple/reductive groups). Let G be a connected linear algebraic group over k.

- (1) We say that G is semisimple if R(G) is trivial.
- (2) We say that G is reductive if  $R_u(G)$  is trivial.

**Remark 1.3.** In general, any unipotent group is solvable (see [Spr09, 2.4.13]). In particular,  $R_u(G)$  is contained in R(G). This means that if G is semisimple, then G is reductive.

Remark 1.4. In general,  $R_u(G_{\overline{k}})$  could be different from the base change of  $R_u(G)$  from k to  $\overline{k}$ . This means that the condition that a connected linear algebraic G group over k is reductive in the above sense is not equivalent to the condition that  $G_{\overline{k}}$  is reductive. However, such a phenomenon does not happen as long as k is perfect, i.e., we have  $R_u(G)_{\overline{k}} = R_u(G_{\overline{k}})$  for any perfect k. In the situation where k is not perfect, a connected linear algebraic group over k with trivial  $R_u(G)$  is called a pseudo-reductive group. See [CGP15, Section 1.1] for details.

The following proposition basically follows from the definition of being solvable/unipotent.

**Proposition 1.5.** The unipotent radical  $R_u(G)$  is the set of unipotent elements of R(G).

**Proposition 1.6.** Let G be a connected reductive group over k.

- (1) The center Z(G) of G is finite if and only if G is semisimple.
- (2) The derived subgroup  $G_{der} := [G, G]$  is a connected semisimple group over k. Moreover, we have  $G = Z(G) \cdot G_{der}$ .

*Proof.* See [Spr09, 7.3.1 and 8.1.6].

Now, let us introduce several practical propositions to determine the unipotent radical of a given connected reductive group. As mentioned above, the unipotent radical behaves consistently with the base change of the field k as long as it is perfect. Thus, in the rest of this section, let us assume that k is algebraically closed and omit the word "over k". (But sometimes we will temporarily assume that k is not algebraically closed, e.g., when we discuss the rationality.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Solvability is defined in the same way as in the usual group theory, i.e., an algebraic group G is said to be solvable when  $G_n = \{1\}$  for sufficiently large n, where  $G_n := [G_{n-1}, G_{n-1}]$  and  $G_1 := G$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>i.e., all elements are unipotent

**Definition 1.7** (Borel subgroup). Let G be a linear algebraic group. A subgroup B of G is called a *Borel subgroup of* G if it is a maximal connected solvable closed subgroup of G.

**Theorem 1.8** (Lie-Kolchin's theorem, [Spr09, 6.3.1]). Let B be a connected solvable closed subgroup of  $GL_n$ . Let  $B_n$  be the group of upper triangular matrices of  $GL_n$ . Then B is conjugate to a subgroup of  $B_n$ .

Note that, in particular,  $B_n$  is a Borel subgroup of  $GL_n$  by Lie–Kolchin's theorem.

**Proposition 1.9.** Let G be a connected linear algebraic group. All Borel subgroups of G are conjugate.

Proof. See [Spr09, 6.2.7].

**Corollary 1.10.** Let G be a connected linear algebraic group. Then its radical R(G) equals the identity component of the intersection of all Borel subgroups of G.

*Proof.* By definition, R(G) is contained in a Borel subgroup. Since R(G) is normal in G and all Borel subgroups of G are conjugate, R(G) is contained in the intersection of all Borel subgroups of G. As R(G) is connected, it must be contained in the identity component of the intersection. Since the identity component of the intersection of all Borel subgroups of G is closed, connected, normal, and solvable, it must be equal to R(G) by the maximality of R(G).

## 1.2. Examples of reductive groups.

**Example 1.11** (tori). Any torus T is reductive. Indeed, since T is commutative, hence solvable, R(T) is T itself. Since all elements of T are semi-simple,  $R_u(T)$  is trivial.

**Non-Example 1.12** (additive group). The additive group  $\mathbb{G}_a$  is not reductive. Indeed, since  $\mathbb{G}_a$  is commutative, hence solvable,  $R(\mathbb{G}_a)$  is  $\mathbb{G}_a$  itself. However, since  $\mathbb{G}_a$  is a unipotent group<sup>3</sup>,  $R_u(\mathbb{G}_a)$  also equals  $\mathbb{G}_a$ .

**Example 1.13** (general linear group). The general linear group  $GL_n$  is reductive. To check this, note that  $B_n$  is a Borel subgroup of  $GL_n$ , hence its any conjugate is also a Borel subgroup of  $GL_n$ . In particular, the opposite  $\overline{B}_n$  (i.e., the subgroup of lower triangular matrices) is also Borel. Hence their intersection, which is the diagonal subgroup T of  $GL_n$ , must contain  $R(GL_n)$ . This implies that all elements of  $R(GL_n)$  is semisimple, hence  $R_u(GL_n)$  is trivial.

**Exercise 1.14.** Prove that  $R(GL_n) = Z(GL_n)$ .

**Example 1.15** (symplectic group). The symplectic group  $\operatorname{Sp}_{2n}$  is reductive. Indeed, if we put B to be  $B_{2n} \cap \operatorname{Sp}_{2n}$  (i.e., the subgroup of  $\operatorname{Sp}_{2n}$  consisting of matrices of the upper-triangular form), then we can show that B is a Borel subgroup of  $\operatorname{Sp}_{2n}$ . (See the following exercise.) Similarly, its opposite  $\overline{B} := \overline{B}_{2n} \cap \operatorname{Sp}_{2n}$  is also a Borel subgroup of  $\operatorname{Sp}_{2n}$ . Thus the same argument as in the case of  $\operatorname{GL}_n$  implies that  $R_u(\operatorname{Sp}_{2n})$  is trivial.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>For example, this can be seen by choosing an embedding of  $\mathbb{G}_a$  into a general linear group to be  $\mathbb{G}_a \hookrightarrow GL_2 \colon x \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

**Example 1.16** (orthogonal group). Let us assume that the characteristic of k is not 2. Let  $J'_n \in GL_n(k)$  be the anti-diagonal matrix whose anti-diagonal entries are given by 1. Then, by the same argument as in the previous case, we can show that the special orthogonal group  $SO_{2n} = SO(J'_n)$  is reductive. (Note that, for any symmetric matrix J, the special orthogonal group SO(J) is reductive. But an explicit description of its Borel subgroups depends on the choice of J and more complicated.)

**Example 1.17** (unitary group). Here, let us assume that k is not algebraically closed and take a quadratic extension k' of k. Let  $\sigma$  be the nontrivial element of Gal(k'/k). Let  $J \in GL_n(k')$  be a hermitian matrix, i.e.,  ${}^t\sigma(J) = J$ . We define the unitary group U(J) by

$$U(J)(R) := \{ g \in \operatorname{GL}_n(R \otimes_k k') \mid {}^t \sigma(g) J g = J \}.$$

(In particular, we have  $U(J)(k) := \{g \in GL_n(k') \mid {}^t\sigma(g)Jg = J\}$ .) Then, by the same argument as in the previous cases, we can show that the special orthogonal group U(J) is reductive.

**Exercise 1.18.** We put  $B := B_{2n} \cap \operatorname{Sp}_{2n}$ . Then prove that B is a Borel subgroup of  $\operatorname{Sp}_{2n}$ . Hint: let's discuss as follows:

- (1) By definition of a Borel subgroup, there exists a Borel subgroup B' of  $\operatorname{Sp}_{2n}$  containing B. (So our goal is to show that B' is in fact equal to B.) Show that there exists a Borel subgroup  $B'_{2n}$  of  $\operatorname{GL}_{2n}$  containing B' which is given by  $B'_{2n} = xB_{2n}x^{-1}$  for some  $x \in \operatorname{GL}_{2n}$ . (Use: Lie-Kolchin's theorem and the fact that all Borel subgroups are conjugate.)
- (2) Check that the following matrix is an element of B.

$$g := \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(Diagonal entries are 1, the entries above the diagonal are 1, and all other entries are 0.)

- (3) By (2), in particular, we have  $g \in B'_{2n} = xB_{2n}x^{-1}$ . From this, deduce that x must belong to  $B_{2n}$ , hence  $B'_{2n}$  equals  $B_{2n}$ .
- (4) Show that B' = B.

1.3. Classification of connected reductive groups via root data. Over an algebraically closed field, isomorphism classes of connected reductive groups can be classified in terms of linear algebraic data called *root data*.

**Theorem 1.19** ([Spr09, 9.6.2, 10.1.1]). There exists a bijection between

- the set of isomorphism classes of connected reductive groups and
- the set of isomorphism classes of reduced root data.

Let us introduce the definition of a root datum.

**Definition 1.20** (root datum). A root datum is a quadruple  $(X, R, X^{\vee}, R^{\vee})$ , where

- X and  $X^{\vee}$  are free abelian groups of finite rank equipped with a perfect pairing  $\langle -, - \rangle \colon X \times X^{\vee} \to \mathbb{Z}$  and
- R and  $R^{\vee}$  are finite subsets of X and  $X^{\vee}$  (called the sets of roots and *coroots*) equipped with a bijection  $R \leftrightarrow R^{\vee} : \alpha \mapsto \alpha^{\vee}$

satisfying

- (1) for any  $\alpha \in R$ , we have  $\langle \alpha, \alpha^{\vee} \rangle = 2$ ,
- (2) for any  $\alpha \in R$ , we have  $s_{\alpha}(R) = R$  and  $s_{\alpha}^{\vee}(R^{\vee}) = R^{\vee}$ .

Here,  $s_{\alpha}$  and  $s_{\alpha}^{\vee}$  denote the automorphisms of X and  $X^{\vee}$  given by

$$s_{\alpha}(x) = x - \langle x, \alpha^{\vee} \rangle \alpha$$
 and  $s_{\alpha}^{\vee}(x^{\vee}) = x^{\vee} - \langle \alpha, x^{\vee} \rangle \alpha^{\vee}$ .

We say that a root datum  $(X, R, X^{\vee}, R^{\vee})$  is reduced if for any  $\alpha \in R$ , we have  $R \cap \mathbb{Q}\alpha = \{\pm \alpha\}.$ 

In the following, we explain how to construct the map in Theorem 1.19. Thus our aim is to construct a root datum from a given connected reductive group G. Here, we follow the construction given in [Car85, Section 1.9].

We first take a maximal torus T of G. We put  $X := X^*(T)$  and  $X^{\vee} := X_*(T)$ . Note that then X and  $X^{\vee}$  have a natural perfect pairing  $\langle -, - \rangle \colon X \times X^{\vee} \to \mathbb{Z}$ .

Suppose that U is a minimal nontrivial closed unipotent subgroup of G normalized by T. Then, in fact, U is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{G}_a$ . By fixing an isomorphism  $\iota \colon \mathbb{G}_{\mathbf{a}} \xrightarrow{\cong} U$ , we get an element  $\alpha \in X$  satisfying

$$t \cdot \iota(x) \cdot t^{-1} = \iota(\alpha(t) \cdot x)$$

for any  $x \in \mathbb{G}_a$ . This element  $\alpha$  is independent of the choice of  $\iota$ . Furthermore, if U' is another (different to U) minimal nontrivial closed unipotent subgroup of Gnormalized by T, then the associated element of X is also different. Thus it makes sense to write  $U_{\alpha}$  for U. We call  $\alpha$  a root of T in G and  $U_{\alpha}$  its root subgroup. We put R to be the set of roots of T in G.

It can be proved that  $-\alpha$  is also a root when  $\alpha$  is a root. Moreover, the subgroup  $\langle U_{\alpha}, U_{-\alpha} \rangle$  generated by  $U_{\alpha}$  and  $U_{-\alpha}$  is isomorphic to  $SL_2$  or  $PGL_2 := SL_2/\{\pm 1\}$ . Furthermore, in any case, there exists a homomorphism  $\phi \colon \mathrm{SL}_2 \to \langle U_\alpha, U_{-\alpha} \rangle$  satisfying

$$\phi\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & * \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}\right) = U_{\alpha}$$
 and  $\phi\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ * & 1 \end{pmatrix}\right) = U_{-\alpha}$ .

This homomorphism  $\phi$  maps any diagonal element of  $SL_2$  into T. Thus, we can define a cocharacter  $\alpha^{\vee} \in X^{\vee}$  by

$$\alpha^{\vee}(y) := \phi\left(\left(\begin{smallmatrix} y & 0 \\ 0 & y^{-1} \end{smallmatrix}\right)\right).$$

We call  $\alpha^{\vee}$  the coroot associated to  $\alpha$ . We put  $R^{\vee}$  to be the set of all coroots obtained in this way.

**Proposition 1.21.** For any connected reductive group G, the quadruple  $(X, R, X^{\vee}, R^{\vee})$ forms a reduced root datum.

**Example 1.22.** Let  $G := GL_n$ . We take T to be the diagonal maximal torus. Then we can choose a basis of  $X^*(T)$  to be  $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^n$ , where  $e_i$ : diag $(t_1,\ldots,t_n)\mapsto t_i$ . In other words, we have

$$X = X^*(T) \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^n \mathbb{Z}e_i.$$

Similarly, we can choose a basis of  $X_*(T)$  to be  $\{e_i^{\vee}\}_{i=1}^n$ , where  $e_i^{\vee}: t \mapsto \operatorname{diag}(1, \dots, 1, t, 1, \dots, 1)$ , where t is put on the i-th entry. In other words, we have

$$X^{\vee} = X_*(T) \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^n \mathbb{Z}e_i^{\vee}.$$

Any minimal nontrivial closed unipotent subgroup U normalized by T is of the form

$$U_{ij} := \{u_{ij}(x) \mid x \in k\},\$$

where  $u_{ij}(x)$  denotes the matrix such that the diagonal entries are 1, (i, j)-entry is x, and all other entries are 0. We define an isomorphism between  $U_{ij}$  and  $\mathbb{G}_a$  by

$$\iota \colon \mathbb{G}_{\mathbf{a}} \to U_{ij} \colon x \mapsto u_{ij}(x).$$

We can easily check that the action of T on  $U_{ij}$  is given by

$$t \cdot u_{ij}(x) \cdot t^{-1} = u_{ij}(x \cdot t_i/t_j),$$

where  $t = \operatorname{diag}(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ . In other words, the root determined by the subgroup  $U_{ij}$  is  $e_i - e_j$ . We can also check that its corresponding coroot is  $e_i^{\vee} - e_j^{\vee}$ . Therefore we have

$$R = \{e_i - e_j \mid 1 \le i \ne j \le n\}, \quad R^{\vee} = \{e_i^{\vee} - e_j^{\vee} \mid 1 \le i \ne j \le n\}.$$

# 1.4. Classification of reductive groups: more concrete version.

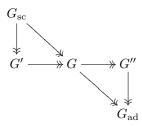
**Definition 1.23** (isogeny). We say that a homomorphism  $f: G \to G'$  of algebraic groups is an *isogeny* if it is surjective and has finite kernel. We say that two algebraic groups G and G' are *isogenous* if there exists an isogeny between G and G'.

Recall that, any connected reductive group G can be written as  $G = Z(G) \cdot G_{\operatorname{der}}$ , where  $G_{\operatorname{der}}$  is semisimple. Especially, we have a surjective homomorphism  $f \colon Z(G) \times G_{\operatorname{der}} \to G \colon (z,g) \mapsto zg$ . Since  $Z(G) \cap G_{\operatorname{der}}$  is contained in  $Z(G_{\operatorname{der}})$ , which is finite, f is an isogeny. In other words, any connected reductive group is realized as the quotient of  $Z(G) \times G_{\operatorname{der}}$  by its finite subgroup. Thus, let us discuss how to classify semisimple groups in the following. (Being semisimple can be expressed in terms of root data: a connected reductive group G is semisimple if and only if G spans  $G \colon X \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q}$  as a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -vector space.)

We say that a semisimple group G is adjoint if its center Z(G) is trivial. In fact, for any semisimple group G, its quotient G/Z(G) is the unique adjoint group isogenous to G; this is denoted by  $G_{\rm ad}$ . The adjoint quotient  $G_{\rm ad}$  is a semisimple group whose center is minimal (trivial) among all semisimple groups isogenous to G.

On the other hand, for any semisimple group G, there uniquely exists a semisimple group " $G_{sc}$ " such that any isogeny to G can be lifted to an isogeny from  $G_{sc}$  to G; this group is called the *simply-connected cover of* G. The simply-connected cover  $G_{sc}$  is a semisimple group whose center is maximal among all semisimple groups

isogenous to G.



Proposition 1.24. Let G be a semisimple group.

- (1) We say that G is simply-connected if  $R^{\vee}$  spans  $X^{\vee}$  over  $\mathbb{Z}$ .
- (2) We say that G is adjoint if R spans X over  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Example 1.25.** Let  $G := \operatorname{GL}_n$  and Z be its center. We put  $\operatorname{SL}_n := \{g \in G \mid \det(g) = 1\}$  and  $\operatorname{PGL}_n := \operatorname{GL}_n/Z$ .<sup>4</sup> Then we obviously have a natural map  $\operatorname{SL}_n \to \operatorname{PGL}_n$ , which is surjective. Moreover, this map has finite kernel; it is given by  $\{z \in Z \mid \det(z) = 1\}$ , which is isomorphic to the group of n-th roots of unity. Hence  $\operatorname{SL}_n \to \operatorname{PGL}_n$  is an isogeny. On the other hand, the quotient map  $\operatorname{GL}_n \to \operatorname{PGL}_n$  is not an isogeny since its kernel is given by Z, which is not finite. In fact,  $\operatorname{SL}_n$  is simply-connected and  $\operatorname{PGL}_n$  is adjoint.

**Definition 1.26** (almost simple group). We say that a semisimple group G is almost simple if it does not contain any nontrivial closed normal subgroup of positive dimension.

**Proposition 1.27.** Let G be a simply-connected (resp. adjoint) group. Then G is written as a product of almost simple simply-connected (resp. adjoint) subgroups.

**Definition 1.28.** We say that a root datum  $\Psi = (X, R, X^{\vee}, R^{\vee})$  is reducible if there exist nonzero root data  $\Psi_1 = (X_1, R_1, X_1^{\vee}, R_1^{\vee})$  and  $\Psi_2 = (X_2, R_2, X_2^{\vee}, R_2^{\vee})$  such that  $\Psi = \Psi_1 \oplus \Psi_2$  (in the obvious sense) and  $\Psi_1$  and  $\Psi_2$  are orthogonal. We say that  $\Psi$  is *irreducible* if it is not reducible.

**Proposition 1.29.** Let G be an almost simple simply-connected (or adjoint) group with root data  $\Psi$ . Then G is almost simple if and only if  $\Psi$  is irreducible.

By the discussion so far, the classification problem of semisimple groups is now reduced ("modulo isogeny") to classifying all almost simple simply-connected semisimple groups. Moreover, it is equivalent to classifying all irreducible reduced root data such that  $R^{\vee}$  spans  $X^{\vee}$ .

The miraculous fact is that there are very limited number of such groups! Such groups can be parametrized by combinatorial objects called *Dynkin diagrams*. Among them, the types  $A_n$ ,  $B_n$ ,  $C_n$ , and  $D_n$  are called *classical types*, and the types  $E_6$ ,  $E_7$ ,  $E_8$ ,  $F_4$ , and  $G_2$  are called *exceptional types*.

**Example 1.30** (type  $A_n$ ). Let  $G := GL_{n+1}$ . Then we have  $G_{der} = SL_{n+1}$ . It's simply-connected, and its adjoint quotient is  $PGL_{n+1}$ . There are of type  $A_n$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Here, the quotient is taken as an algebraic group. In general, for any linear algebraic group G and its closed subgroup H over k, we can define and prove the existence of the quotient of G by H (see [Spr09, 5.5]). One difficult point to care about is that (G/H)(R) might not be equal to G(R)/H(R). (But at least we have the equality for  $R = \overline{k}$ . Thus, in this example, we may think of  $\operatorname{PGL}_n(\overline{k})$  as the quotient of  $\operatorname{GL}_n(\overline{k})$  by its center.)

**Example 1.31** (type  $A_n$ ). Here let k be a non-algebraically-closed field. Let k' be a quadratic extension of k and  $J \in GL_{n+1}(k')$  be a hermitian matrix. We put G := U(J). Then we have  $G_{der} = SU(J)$  (consisting of determinant 1 matrices). It's simply-connected, and its adjoint quotient is PU(J).<sup>5</sup> There are of type  $A_n$ . Here, note that, the above classification theorem of connected reductive groups is for groups over an algebraically closed field. So the point here is that U(J) and  $GL_{n+1}$  are not isomorphic over k, but isomorphic over  $\overline{k}$ .

**Exercise 1.32.** Let k be a non-algebraically-closed field. Let k' be a quadratic extension of k and  $J \in GL_n(k')$  be a hermitian matrix. Prove that U(J) and  $GL_n$  are isomorphic over  $\overline{k}$ . More concretely, prove that the group

$$U(J)(\overline{k}) = \{ g \in \operatorname{GL}_n(\overline{k} \otimes_k k') \mid {}^t \sigma(g) J g = J \}$$

is isomorphic to  $GL_n(\overline{k})$ . Here, if you want, please choose a hermitian matrix J in any way you prefer.

**Example 1.33** (type  $B_n$ ). Let  $G := SO_{2n+1}$ . Then we have  $G_{der} = G$ . It's adjoint, and its simply-connected cover is so-called the "spin group"  $Spin_{2n+1}$  (two-fold cover of  $SO_{2n+1}$ ). There are of type  $B_n$ .

**Example 1.34** (type  $C_n$ ). Let  $G := \operatorname{Sp}_{2n}$ . Then we have  $G_{\operatorname{der}} = G$ . It's simply-connected, and its adjoint quotient is  $\operatorname{PSp}_{2n}$  ( $\operatorname{Sp}_{2n}$  is its two-fold cover). There are of type  $C_n$ .

**Example 1.35** (type  $D_n$ ). Let  $G := SO_{2n}$ . Then we have  $G_{der} = G$ . Its simply-connected cover is  $Spin_{2n}$  (two-fold cover of G), and its adjoint quotient is  $PSO_{2n}$  ( $SO_{2n}$  is its two-fold cover). There are of type  $D_n$ .

1.5. **Rationality.** Let us finally discuss the rationality. From now on, let us again assume that k is a perfect field.

**Definition 1.36.** Let G and G' be connected reductive groups over k. We say that G is a k-form of G' (or G' is a k-form of G) is they are isomorphic over  $\overline{k}$ .

**Example 1.37.** The previous exercise says that U(J) is a k-form of  $GL_n$ .

**Definition 1.38.** We say that a connected reductive group G over k is *split* if it has a split maximal torus over k, i.e., a maximal torus which is isomorphic to a product of  $\mathbb{G}_{\mathbf{m}}$ 's over k.

**Proposition 1.39.** For any connected reductive group G over k, there uniquely exists (up to isomorphism) a split connected reductive group G' over k such that G is a k-form of G'.

**Definition 1.40.** We call a finite group a *finite group of Lie type* is it is realized as  $G(\mathbb{F}_q)$  for some connected reductive group G over  $\mathbb{F}_q$ . We say that a finite group of Lie type  $G(\mathbb{F}_q)$  is

- $\bullet$  of Chevalley type if G is split, and
- $\bullet$  of Steinberg type if G is not split.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>I'm not sure if this is a standard notation.

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