

Lecture 2-6

We now head toward the classification of root systems, following the treatment in Humphreys's 1990 book "Reflection Groups and Coxeter Groups" rather than the text, and in particular considering non-crystallographic root systems as well. If Φ is a root system (not necessarily crystallographic), then we begin by setting up a total order on the ambient vector space R^n in which Φ lives, decreeing that a nonzero vector (a_1, \dots, a_n) is positive if and only if the first nonzero a_i is positive, so that the sum $\vec{v} + \vec{w}$ of any positive vectors \vec{v}, \vec{w} is positive, as is any positive multiple $c\vec{v}$ of a positive vector v . We now have a notion of positive and negative roots in Φ ; given any root α , exactly one of α and $-\alpha$ is positive, and if α, β are positive roots such that $\alpha + \beta$ is a root, then it is a positive root. Next, we consider all subsets S of the set Φ^+ of positive roots such that every $\alpha \in \Phi^+$ is a combination of vectors in S with nonnegative coefficients (for example, Φ^+ itself is one such subset). Let Δ be a minimal such subset, i.e. one not properly containing any other such subset. I claim that $(\alpha, \beta) \leq 0$ for any $\alpha, \beta \in \Delta$. Indeed, otherwise $s_\alpha \beta = \beta + c_\alpha \alpha$ is a root, for some $c_\alpha < 0$. If this root is positive it must be a positive combination of roots $\sum_\gamma x_\gamma \gamma$ of roots in Δ . If the coefficient x_β is less than one, then by subtracting $x_\beta \beta$ from both sides of $s_\alpha \beta = \sum_\gamma x_\gamma \gamma$ and dividing both sides by $1 - x_\beta$, we realize β as a positive combination of other roots in Δ , whence β can be deleted from Δ , a contradiction. If $x_\beta \geq 1$, then again subtracting $x_\beta \beta$ from both sides and dividing by $1 - x_\beta$ if $x_\beta \neq 1$, we realize β as a *negative* combination of elements in Δ and thus as a negative root (or 0 as a negative combination of roots in Δ), again a contradiction. Similarly, we get a contradiction if instead $s_\alpha \beta$ is a negative root.

My next claim is that the roots in Δ are linearly independent. Indeed, if we had a dependence relation $\sum_\alpha c_\alpha \alpha = 0$ as α runs over Δ , then first of all not all the nonzero coefficients c_α can be of the same sign, lest the combination be a positive vector. Transferring terms with negative coefficients over to the other side we get disjoint subsets Δ_1, Δ_2 of Δ and two nonzero equal combinations $\sum_{\alpha \in \Delta_1} c_\alpha \alpha = \sum_{\beta \in \Delta_2} c_\beta \beta$ for which the coefficients c_α, c_β are positive. But now the dot product of the right side $\sum c_\beta \beta$ with some β must be positive, while the dot product of α and β for every α appearing in the left side is nonpositive, another contradiction.

Thus we have a set Δ of linearly independent positive roots such that every positive root is a positive combination of roots in Δ and the angle between any two roots in Δ is obtuse or right. In the crystallographic case, we can strengthen these properties. First of all, given two nonproportional roots α, β with $(\alpha, \beta) > 0$, the positive integers $2(\alpha, \beta)/(\alpha, \alpha), 2(\alpha, \beta)/(\beta, \beta)$ have product at most 3 (by Cauchy-Schwarz), whence one of these integers is 1. Then one of $\alpha - \beta$ and $\beta - \alpha$, and thus both, are roots. Now, given Φ^+ , let Δ consist of the indecomposable roots in Φ^+ (not expressible as a sum of two other roots in Φ^+). Then every root in Φ^+ is a positive *integral* combination of roots in Δ (so that every root in Φ is either a positive or a negative integral combination of roots in Δ). We call the roots in Δ *simple* and we call Δ a *simple subsystem*. The subsystem Δ is determined uniquely by the positive system Φ^+ , consisting as it does exactly of the positive roots not expressible as positive combinations of two or more positive roots.

Now, given any two independent roots $\alpha, \beta \in \Phi$, the product $s_\alpha s_\beta$ of the reflections corresponding to α, β is a rotation in the plane spanned by α and β (through twice the

angle between them). As both s_α, s_β lie in the finite Weyl group W , this rotation must be by a rational multiple of 2π . If $\alpha, \beta \in \Delta$, then since no root can be a combination of α and β with coefficients of different signs, we get the even stronger conclusion that the angle between α and β must be $\pi - \pi/m$ for some integer $m \geq 2$. In the crystallographic case we get the even stronger conclusion that the only possibilities for m are 2, 3, 4, and 6, since $\frac{4(\alpha, \beta)^2}{(\alpha, \alpha)(\beta, \beta)}$ must be a positive integer strictly less than 4. We can record all the angles between simple roots very neatly in a diagram, as follows: take a set of n points, one for every simple root α . If α and β are not orthogonal, join the corresponding vertices by edges, using one edge if the angle between α and β is $2\pi/3$, two edges if it is $3\pi/4$, and three edges if it is $5\pi/6$. In the latter two cases, add an arrow pointing to the shorter of α and β . Finally, if α, β are orthogonal, do not join the corresponding vertices by any edges. We obtain the *Dynkin diagram* D of the crystallographic root system Φ . (If Φ is not crystallographic, we replace D by the *Coxeter graph*, in which vertices α and β are joined by a an edge labelled m , if the angle between them is $\pi - \pi/m$ with $m > 2$; if $m = 2$, the edge is omitted, while if $m = 3$, the edge is present but the label 3 is omitted, by a standard convention).

Given any positive nonsimple root β , we know that β is a positive combination of simple roots α , whence there must be a simple root α with $(\beta, \alpha) > 0$. Reflecting β by α , we get another root, necessarily positive since it is a combination of simple roots involving at least one other than α with positive coefficient. Continuing in this way, we see that *given any positive root, some product of simple reflections (corresponding to simple roots) takes it to a simple root*. Since any conjugate $gs_\alpha g^{-1}$ of a reflection s_α by an orthogonal transformation g is the reflection $s_{g\alpha}$, we also see that all root reflections s_β lie in the subgroup of W generated by the simple reflections, whence *the Weyl group W is generated by the simple reflections*. Also, since every positive root is a product of simple reflections applied to a simple root, and the effect of these simple reflections can be computed once the angles between the simple roots are known, it follows that *the root system Φ can be recovered from its Dynkin diagram D* . Moreover, given the set Φ^+ of positive roots (with respect to some choice of positive vectors in \mathbb{R}^n) and $\alpha \in \Delta$, the corresponding simple subsystem, we see that the reflection s_α sends α to $-\alpha$ but any other positive root to another positive root (involving a simple root with a positive coefficient). Now if we have two distinct positive systems Φ^+ and Φ_1^+ , with simple subsystems Δ, Δ_1 , then there must be some α lying in Δ_1 such that $\alpha \notin \Phi^+$. Applying s_α to Φ_1^+ , we get another positive system whose intersection with Φ^+ has one more element, namely $-\alpha$, than it had before. Continuing in this way, we see that any two positive systems, and thus any two simple subsystems, are conjugate under the group W , whence in particular the Dynkin diagram or Coxeter graph of a root system does not depend on the choice of simple roots.

In the classical cases, it is standard to decree that a nonzero $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is positive if and only if the first nonzero a_i is positive. Then the simple roots in type A_{n-1} are the vectors $e_1 - e_2, \dots, e_{n-2} - e_n$; in type B_n we get the same simple roots plus the root e_n ; in type C_n we get the same simple roots plus the root $2e_n$; finally in type D_n we get the same simple roots plus the root $e_{n_1} + e_n$. In type E_n it is standard to make a different choice of positive vectors, decreeing that a nonzero (a_1, \dots, a_n) is positive if and only if the *last* nonzero a_i is positive. Then the simple roots in type E_8 turn out to

be $1/2(1, -1, \dots, -1, 1), e_2 - e_1, e_2 + e_1, e_3 - e_2, \dots, e_7 - e_6$. In type E_7 we get the same simple roots with the last one omitted; in type E_6 we get the same simple roots with the last two omitted. Finally, in types F_4 and G_2 we revert to our usual convention for positive vectors. The simple roots in type F_4 are $e_2 - e_3, e_3 - e_4, e_4$, and $1/2(1, -1, -1, -1)$ and those for G_2 are $(0, 1, -1), (1, -2, 1)$.