

Tues Oct 29

HW 4 due. Tues Nov 12

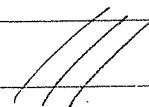
Today: Finite Fields

Let R be a ring. Then $\exists!$ ring map
 $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow R$.

Proof: Since φ is a ring map we must
have $\varphi(1_{\mathbb{Z}}) = 1_R$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(n) &= \varphi(1_{\mathbb{Z}} + \dots + 1_{\mathbb{Z}}) \\ &= \varphi(1_{\mathbb{Z}}) + \dots + \varphi(1_{\mathbb{Z}}) \\ &= 1_R + \dots + 1_R \\ &= "n 1_R"$$

and $\varphi(-n) = -\varphi(n) = -n 1_R$.

This determines the map. 

Highbrow Translation:

\mathbb{Z} is an (the) initial object in
the category of rings.

Now consider a domain R (i.e. no zero-divisors) and the unique map $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow R$

The kernel is an ideal of \mathbb{Z} , hence $\ker \varphi = n\mathbb{Z}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.
We also have.

$$\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}/\ker \varphi \cong \text{im } \varphi \subseteq R.$$

Since R is a domain, so is $\text{im } \varphi$,
hence $n\mathbb{Z}$ is a prime ideal.

We conclude that

$$n = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad n = p \text{ prime.}$$

Def: We say $\text{char}(R) := n$ is the characteristic of the domain R

In particular, we define the characteristic $\text{char}(K)$ of a field K .

Def: We say a field K is prime if it has no proper subfield.

Theorem (Classification of Prime Fields):

Every prime field is isomorphic to

$$\mathbb{Q} \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \quad \text{for } p \text{ prime}$$

(char 0) (char p)

Proof: Let K be a prime field and consider the unique ring map $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow K$. If $\text{char}(K) = p > 0$ then we have

$$\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \cong \text{im } \varphi \subseteq K.$$

Since $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ is a field (Euclid) we see that $\text{im } \varphi$ is a subfield of K . Since K is prime we have $\text{im } \varphi = K$.

If $\text{char}(K) = 0$ then we have

$$\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}/0\mathbb{Z} \cong \text{im } \varphi \subseteq K$$

The smallest subfield of K containing $\text{im } \varphi$ ($\cong \mathbb{Z}$) is isomorphic to \mathbb{Q} .

Since K is prime we have $\mathbb{Q} \cong K$.



Def: Given a field K , the intersection of all subfields is called the prime subfield of K .

Note that the prime subfield is prime. It is isomorphic to \mathbb{Q} or $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$, depending on the characteristic of K .

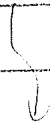
Idea (Steinitz, 1910):

To classify fields we should classify extensions of \mathbb{Q} and $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

This problem includes Galois theory and birational algebraic geometry, so it is "too hard".

However, finite fields can be classified.

Let F be a finite field, so $\text{char}(F) = p > 0$. Let $K \cong \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ be the prime subfield.



The multiplication map $\mu: K \times F \rightarrow F$ defines a K -module structure on F with "scalar multiplication" μ .

Since F is finite, it is certainly finitely generated as a K -module. Hence

$$F \approx K^n \text{ (as } K\text{-modules)}$$

for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. It follows that

$$|F| = |K^n| = |K|^n = p^n.$$

In summary, every finite field has order p^n for some prime p and $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

With some work, one can show the following.

★ Classification of finite fields:

Given prime p and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists a field of order $q := p^n$ and this field is unique up to isomorphism.

We call it \mathbb{F}_q .

Alternative notation: $\mathbb{F}_q = \text{GF}(q)$
"Galois field"

Proof Omitted. (See my ADE book for the existence part.)

Linear algebra over \mathbb{F}_q has an extra kick.

Example:

Let V be an n -dimensional \mathbb{F}_q -module and let U be a k -dimensional submodule. In particular, $U \leq V$ is a finite subgroup so we can apply Lagrange's Theorem.

Since $V \cong \mathbb{F}_q^n$ and $U \cong \mathbb{F}_q^k$ we have

$$|V/U| = |V|/|U|$$

$$= q^n / q^k = q^{n-k}$$

But V/U is itself a f.g. \mathbb{F}_q -module.

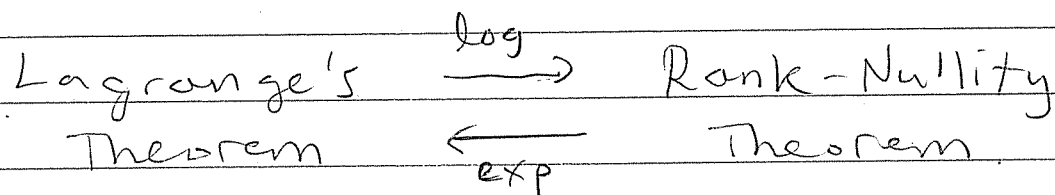
Hence.

$$\begin{aligned}\dim(V/U) &= n - k \\ &= \dim(V) - \dim(U).\end{aligned}$$

In summary, if V is a f.g. \mathbb{F}_q -module then we have

$$\dim(V) = \log_q |V|$$

and in this case we see that



Moral: There is a strong analogy between finite sets and finite-dimensional vector spaces. Vector spaces over \mathbb{F}_q provide a bridge.

The General Linear Group.

Let K be a field and let $V = K^n$. Then we write

$$GL(V) = GL(n, K).$$

If $V = \mathbb{F}_q^n$, then we write

$$GL(V) = GL(n, q).$$

$$Q: |GL(n, q)| = ?$$

Theorem: For any field K we have a bijection.

$$GL(n, K) \leftrightarrow \left\{ \text{ordered bases of } K^n \right\}$$

Proof: Let $(\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_n)$ be an ordered basis for K^n . Define a map $\varphi: K^n \rightarrow K^n$ by $\varphi(\vec{e}_i) := \vec{b}_i$ and extend linearly.

This map is invertible with inverse given by $\varphi^{-1}(\vec{b}_i) = \vec{e}_i$.

Conversely, let $\varphi \in GL(n, K)$. Then

$$(\varphi(\vec{e}_1), \varphi(\vec{e}_2), \dots, \varphi(\vec{e}_n))$$

is an ordered basis of K^n ◻

[In Coordinates: The columns of an invertible matrix form an ordered basis.]

Corollary :

$$|GL(n, q)| = q^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} (q-1)(q^2-1) \cdots (q^n-1).$$

Proof : We will count ordered bases
 $(\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_n)$ of K^n .

First choose $\vec{b}_1 \in \mathbb{F}_q^n - 0$ in $q^n - 1$ ways.

Then choose $\vec{b}_2 \in \mathbb{F}_q^n - \mathbb{F}_q(\vec{b}_1)$ in $q^n - q$ ways.

Then choose $\vec{b}_3 \in \mathbb{F}_q^n - \mathbb{F}_q(\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2)$ in $q^n - q^2$ ways.

Continuing in this way gives

$$|GL(n, q)| = (q^n - 1)(q^n - q)(q^n - q^2) \cdots (q^n - q^{n-1})$$

$$= (q^n - 1)q(q^{n-1} - 1)q^2(q^{n-2} - 1) \cdots q^{n-1}(q - 1)$$

$$= q^{1+2+\dots+(n-1)} (q-1)(q^2-1) \cdots (q^n-1).$$

$$= q^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} (q-1)(q^2-1) \cdots (q^n-1).$$



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Example: } |GL(2, 2)| &= 2^{\frac{2 \cdot 1}{2}} (2-1)(2^2-1) \\ &= 2 \cdot 1 \cdot 3 \\ &= 6 \end{aligned}$$

$$GL(2, 2) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \right. \\ \left. \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Define $SL(n, K)$ as the kernel of the determinant homomorphism

$$\det: GL(n, K) \rightarrow K^\times$$

Note that $\text{im}(\det) = K^\times$, hence

$$GL(n, K) / SL(n, K) \cong K^\times$$

as multiplicative groups.

IF $K = \mathbb{F}_q$ then we conclude that

↓

$$|SL(n, q)| = |GL(n, q)| / |\mathbb{F}_q^\times|$$

$$= \frac{q^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} (q-1)(q^2-1) \cdots (q^{n-1}-1)}{(q-1)}$$

$$= q^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} (q^2-1)(q^3-1) \cdots (q^n-1)$$

We will see in general that

$$Z(GL(n, K)) = \{ aI : a \in K^\times \}$$

= "scalar matrices"

and $Z(SL(n, K)) = \{ I \}$ or $\{ \pm I \}$.

Define: $PSL(n, K) := SL(n, K) / Z(SL(n, K))$.

We will prove later that

$PSL(n, K)$ is simple $\forall n \geq 2$ and all fields K , unless

$$n=2 \text{ and } K = \mathbb{F}_2 \text{ or } \mathbb{F}_3$$

Thurs Oct 31

HW 4 due Tues Nov 12

Current Goal: Prove the following

Theorem: $\forall n \geq 2$ and all fields K ,

$PSL(n, K)$ is simple

unless $n=2$ and $K = \mathbb{F}_2$ or \mathbb{F}_3 ///

These are the simple groups of "Type A",
part of the ABCDEFG classification
scheme of Wilhelm Killing (1888.)

To prove the Theorem we must investigate
the internal structure of GL .

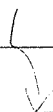
Let K be a field and consider $V \cong K^n$.

After choosing a basis

$$\beta = \vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_n \in K^n$$

we can represent each $\vec{x} \in K^n$

as a column vector:



$$\vec{x} = x_1 \vec{b}_1 + \dots + x_n \vec{b}_n \iff [\vec{x}]_{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Then given an endomorphism $\varphi \in \text{End}(K^n)$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} [\varphi(\vec{x})]_{\beta} &= [\varphi(x_1 \vec{b}_1 + \dots + x_n \vec{b}_n)]_{\beta} \\ &= [x_1 \varphi(\vec{b}_1) + \dots + x_n \varphi(\vec{b}_n)]_{\beta} \\ &= x_1 [\varphi(\vec{b}_1)]_{\beta} + \dots + x_n [\varphi(\vec{b}_n)]_{\beta} \\ &= [\varphi]_{\beta} [\vec{x}]_{\beta}, \end{aligned}$$

where $[\varphi]_{\beta}$ is the $n \times n$ matrix with j th column $[\varphi(\vec{b}_j)]_{\beta}$. In this way we identify $\text{End}(K^n)$ with the K -algebra of $n \times n$ matrices

$$\text{End}(K^n) \cong \text{Mat}_n(K).$$

However, the isomorphism is NON-CANONICAL. It depends on an arbitrary choice of basis.

Q: How do the different choices relate?

Given two bases $\alpha = \vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \dots, \vec{a}_n \in K^n$
 $\beta = \vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_n \in K^n,$

define the matrix

$$[\alpha \rightarrow \beta] := \left([\vec{a}_1]_{\beta} \quad [\vec{a}_2]_{\beta} \quad \dots \quad [\vec{a}_n]_{\beta} \right)$$

Then for all $\vec{x} = x_1 \vec{a}_1 + \dots + x_n \vec{a}_n \in K^n$
we have

$$[\alpha \rightarrow \beta] [\vec{x}]_{\alpha} = \left([\vec{a}_1]_{\beta} \quad \dots \quad [\vec{a}_n]_{\beta} \right) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= x_1 [\vec{a}_1]_{\beta} + x_2 [\vec{a}_2]_{\beta} + \dots + x_n [\vec{a}_n]_{\beta}$$

$$= [\vec{x}]_{\beta}$$

$$= [\vec{x}]_{\beta}$$

Similarly, we define

$$[\beta \rightarrow \alpha] := \left([\vec{b}_1]_{\alpha} \quad [\vec{b}_2]_{\alpha} \quad \dots \quad [\vec{b}_n]_{\alpha} \right)$$

and we see that $\forall \vec{x} \in K^n$,

$$[\beta \rightarrow \alpha][\vec{x}]_{\beta} = [\vec{x}]_{\alpha}.$$

In other words, $[\alpha \rightarrow \beta]$ is an invertible matrix with

$$[\alpha \rightarrow \beta]^{-1} = [\beta \rightarrow \alpha] \quad \text{//}$$

Now consider an endomorphism $\varphi \in \text{End}(K^n)$.
Then $\forall \vec{x} \in K^n$ we have

$$[\varphi(\vec{x})]_{\beta} = [\alpha \rightarrow \beta][\varphi(\vec{x})]_{\alpha}$$

$$[\varphi]_{\beta}[\vec{x}]_{\beta} = [\alpha \rightarrow \beta][\varphi]_{\alpha}[\vec{x}]_{\alpha}$$

$$\underbrace{[\varphi]_{\beta}[\alpha \rightarrow \beta]}_{\text{}}[\vec{x}]_{\alpha} = \underbrace{[\alpha \rightarrow \beta][\varphi]_{\alpha}}_{\text{}}[\vec{x}]_{\alpha}$$

Since this holds for all $\vec{x} \in K^n$ we conclude that

$$[\varphi]_{\beta}[\alpha \rightarrow \beta] = [\alpha \rightarrow \beta][\varphi]_{\alpha}$$

$$\boxed{[\varphi]_{\beta} = [\alpha \rightarrow \beta][\varphi]_{\alpha}[\alpha \rightarrow \beta]^{-1}}$$

Definition: Given $A, B \in \text{Mat}_n(K)$, we say that A and B are conjugate if $\exists P \in \text{GL}(n, K)$ such that

$$B = PAP^{-1}$$

We have seen that matrices that represent the same endomorphism in different coordinates are conjugate.

Conversely, given $P = (\vec{p}_1 \vec{p}_2 \dots \vec{p}_n) \in \text{GL}(n, K)$, note that $\rho = \vec{p}_1, \vec{p}_2, \dots, \vec{p}_n \in K^n$ are a basis, and we have

$$P = ([\vec{p}_1]_{\Sigma} \ [\vec{p}_2]_{\Sigma} \ \dots \ [\vec{p}_n]_{\Sigma}) = [P \rightarrow \Sigma];$$

where Σ is the standard basis of K^n .

Thus if $B = PAP^{-1}$ for some $A, B \in \text{Mat}_n(K)$ then A and B represent the same endomorphism in different coordinates.



Abstractly: $GL(n, K)$ acts on $Mat_n(K)$ by conjugation (this is called the adjoint representation of GL)

The orbits are equivalence classes of endomorphisms

Goal: we would like to parametrize the orbits, to find a standard representative from each orbit.

This is tricky in general, but has a nice solution if K is algebraically closed.

Given $A \in Mat_n(K)$ we say $\vec{x} \in K^n$ is an eigenvector of A if

- $\vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$
- $A\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x}$ for some $\lambda \in K$, called the eigenvalue.

In this case we have

$$A\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x}$$

$$A\vec{x} - \lambda\vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

$$A\vec{x} - \lambda I\vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

$$(A - \lambda I)\vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

$\Rightarrow \ker(A - \lambda I)$ is nontrivial

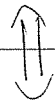
The " λ -eigenspace"

In summary:

$\lambda \in K$ is an eigenvalue of A .



$\ker(A - \lambda I)$ is nontrivial



$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

the "characteristic polynomial"

Define:

$$\chi_A(x) := \det(A - xI) \in K[x]$$

The characteristic polynomial is an invariant of adjoint orbits:

Given $A, B \in \text{Mat}_n(K)$, $P \in \text{GL}(n, K)$ with

$$B = PAP^{-1}$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned}\chi_B(x) &= \det(B - xI) \\ &= \det(PAP^{-1} - xPIP^{-1}) \\ &= \det(P(A - xI)P^{-1}) \\ &= \det(P) \det(A - xI) \det(P)^{-1} \\ &= \det(A - xI) \\ &= \chi_A(x).\end{aligned}$$

But it is not a complete invariant.

Example

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \text{Mat}_2(\mathbb{C})$$

$$\text{have } \chi_A(x) = \chi_B(x) = (x-1)^2$$

↓

But suppose $\exists P$ with $B = PAP^{-1}$. Then

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = P \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} P^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \times$$

Hence A, B are not conjugate.

If K is algebraically closed (i.e. every polynomial in $K[x]$ splits into linear factors), then \exists a complete invariant called the Jordan Normal Form.

★ Theorem: If K is alg. closed then every $A \in \text{Mat}_n(K)$ is conjugate to a unique matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \boxed{J_{n_1}(\lambda_1)} & & & \\ & \boxed{J_{n_2}(\lambda_2)} & & \\ & & \circ & \\ & & & \boxed{J_{n_k}(\lambda_k)} \\ & & & & \circ \end{pmatrix}$$

where each

$$J_n(\lambda) = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} \lambda & 1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & & & \lambda \end{array} \right) \Bigg\}^n$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_n$

is called a Jordan block.

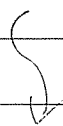
Proof: This is a consequence of the Fundamental Theorem for f.g. modules over a PID (Postponed)

Highbrow Translation:

☆ Jordan-Chevalley Decomposition:

Let K be algebraically closed (more generally, let K be "perfect").

Then for all $A \in \text{Mat}_n(K)$ there exist unique $S, N \in \text{Mat}_n(K)$ such that



- $A = S + N$
- S is semisimple (diagonalizable)
- N is nilpotent ($N^k = 0$ for some k)
- $SN = NS$

Example

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|ccc} 2 & 1 & & \\ \hline & 2 & & \\ \hline & & 3 & 1 \\ & & & 3 \\ & & & & 3 \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{c|ccc} 2 & & & \\ \hline & 2 & & \\ \hline & & 3 & \\ & & & 3 \\ & & & & 3 \end{array} \right) + \left(\begin{array}{c|ccc} 0 & 1 & & \\ \hline & 0 & & \\ \hline & & 0 & 1 \\ & & & 0 \\ & & & & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$A = S + N$$

Check that

$$SN = NS = \left(\begin{array}{c|ccc} 0 & 2 & & \\ \hline & 0 & & \\ \hline & & 0 & 3 \\ & & & 0 & 3 \\ & & & & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

Tues Nov 5

HW 4 is due Tues Nov 12

Recall from last time:

The group $GL(n, K)$ acts on the algebra $\text{Mat}_n(K)$ by conjugation

$$P \cdot A = P A P^{-1}$$

and the orbits are equivalence classes of endomorphisms.

Definition: We say A is diagonalizable if it is equivalent to a diagonal matrix

$$P^{-1} A P = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Suppose $P = (\vec{p}_1 \ \vec{p}_2 \ \cdots \ \vec{p}_n)$.

Then we have

↓

$$A \vec{p}_j = P \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} P^{-1} \vec{p}_j$$

$$= P \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \vec{e}_j$$

$$= P \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_j & \\ & & & \ddots \\ & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \lambda_j \vec{p}_j,$$

hence the columns of P are a basis of eigenvectors for A .

The diagonalizable matrices are "Zariski dense" in $\text{Mat}_n(K) \approx K^{n^2}$, so almost all matrices are diagonalizable.

Furthermore, if K is algebraically closed we have the following.

}

Jordan Decomposition:

For all $A \in \text{Mat}_n(K) \exists ! N \in \text{Mat}_n(K)$
such that

- $A+N$ is diagonalizable
- N is nilpotent ($N^k = 0$ for some k)
- $AN = NA$,

Proof: Next semester. ///

Today we'll consider the space of rectangular matrices

$$\text{Mat}_{n,m}(K) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1m} \\ a_{21} & \dots & a_{2m} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nm} \end{pmatrix} : a_{ij} \in K \right\}$$

If $U \approx K^m$ and $V \approx K^n$ then by
choosing bases

$$\begin{array}{l} \vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_m \in K^m \\ \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \in K^n \end{array}$$

we get a bijection

$$\text{Hom}(U, V) \leftrightarrow \text{Mat}_{n,m}(K)$$

defined by sending the linear map $\varphi: U \rightarrow V$ to the matrix with entries a_{ij} such that

$$\varphi(\vec{u}_j) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{kj} \vec{v}_k$$

The group $GL(n, K) \times GL(m, K)$ acts on $\text{Mat}_{n,m}(K)$ by simultaneously changing coordinates on U and V .

In matrix notation, given $A \in \text{Mat}_{n,m}(K)$ and $(P, Q) \in GL(n, K) \times GL(m, K)$ we have

$$(P, Q) \cdot A := P A Q^{-1}$$

The orbits are equivalence classes of linear maps.

Goal: Find a canonical representative for each orbit.

}

Start by only changing coordinates only on the target space. i.e. let $GL(n, K) \cong \text{Mat}_{n,n}(K)$ act by left multiplication

$$P \cdot A = PA$$

Now define the elementary matrices.

for all $0 \neq k \in K$ we define

$$E_{ij}(k) = \begin{matrix} & & & & j \\ & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & 1 \\ i & \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & 1 & k \\ & & & \ddots \\ & & & & 1 \end{array} \right) & & i \neq j \end{matrix}$$

$$E_{ii}(k) = \begin{matrix} & & & & i \\ & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & 1 \\ i & \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & k & \\ & & & \ddots \\ & & & & 1 \end{array} \right) & & \end{matrix}$$

$$P_{ij} = \begin{matrix} & & & & i & & & & j \\ & & & & \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & 1 & & & & 1 \\ i & \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & 0 & 1 \\ & & & \ddots \\ & & & & 1 \\ & & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & & 0 & 1 \\ & & & & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & & & & 1 \end{array} \right) & & i < j \end{matrix}$$

Note that $\det(E_{ij}(k)) = 1 \neq 0$

$\det(E_{ii}(k)) = k \neq 0$

$\det(P_{ij}) = -1 \neq 0$

So elementary matrices are invertible.

Suppose $A = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{a}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_i \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_n \end{pmatrix}$ has i th row \vec{a}_i .

Note that

$$E_{ij}(k)A = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{a}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_i \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_i + k\vec{a}_j \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_n \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{replace } \vec{a}_i \\ \text{by } \vec{a}_i + k\vec{a}_j. \end{array}$$

$$E_{ii}(k)A = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{a}_1 \\ \vdots \\ k\vec{a}_i \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_n \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{replace } \vec{a}_i \\ \text{by } k\vec{a}_i \end{array}$$

$$P_{ij}A = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{a}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_j \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_i \\ \vdots \\ \vec{a}_n \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{swap rows} \\ \vec{a}_i \text{ and } \vec{a}_j \end{array}$$

These are called elementary row operations

Def: We say the matrix $A = (a_{ij}) \in \text{Mat}_{n,m}(K)$ is in reduced row echelon form (RREF) if

- First nonzero entry in each row = 1; this entry is called a "pivot"
- The pivot in row i is to the right of the pivot in row $i+1$.
- The entries above each pivot are 0.
- The zero rows are at the bottom.

Eg.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \boxed{1} & * & 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \boxed{1} & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ is in RREF}$$

"Echelon" = "Staircase"

★ Theorem:

Every orbit of $GL(n,K) \curvearrowright M_{n,m}(K)$ contains a unique matrix in RREF.

Proof of Existence:

① Start at the bottom left (non-standard)

Current column := 1

Find the lowest nonzero entry in curr. col. that is not in a previous pivot row. This entry is the new pivot.

Scale the new pivot row with $E_{ii}(k)$ to make the pivot = 1.

Use $E_{ij}(k)$ with $i < j$ to eliminate all entries above the pivot that are not in previous pivot rows.

Current Column := Current column + 1

Repeat.

The result looks like

$$T_1 A = \begin{pmatrix} \textcircled{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \textcircled{1} & * \\ \textcircled{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \textcircled{3} & 0 & \textcircled{1} & * & * & * \\ \textcircled{4} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note: T_1 is a product of E_{ii} and E_{ij} ($i < j$) so it is upper triangular.

(2) Permute the rows to put the matrix in upper echelon form.

The result looks like

$$P_{T_1} A = \begin{pmatrix} \textcircled{3} & 0 & \textcircled{1} & * & * & * \\ \textcircled{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \textcircled{1} & * \\ \textcircled{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \textcircled{4} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

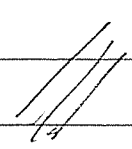
Note: P is a product of P_{ij} so it is a permutation matrix.


(3) Eliminate the entries above the pivots using $E_{ij}(k)$ ($i < j$).

The result looks like

$$T_2 P_{T_1} A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \textcircled{1} & * & 0 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \textcircled{1} & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note: T_2 is again upper triangular.



Proof of Uniqueness: Postponed. 

Corollary (Bruhat Decomposition):

Let $G = GL(n, k)$.

Let $B \leq G$ be the subgroup of upper-triangular matrices (called a Borel subgroup)

Let $W \leq G$ be the subgroup of permutation matrices (called the Weyl group)

Then the group G is generated by the elementary matrices (called Chevalley generators)

and moreover we have

$$G = BWB \\ = \{ b_1 w b_2 : b_1, b_2 \in B, w \in W \}$$

Proof: Let $A \in GL(n, k)$. Then the RREF of A is the identity matrix. Applying the (nonstandard) reduction algorithm gives $T_2 P T_1 A = I$

$$A = T_1^{-1} P^{-1} T_2^{-1}$$

$$\in BWB$$



Thurs Nov 7

HW 4 due next Tuesday

Topic: Double Cosets.

Let $H, K \leq G$ be subgroups. Then the direct product $H \times K$ acts on G by

$$(h, k) \circ g := hgk^{-1}.$$

Proof: We have

$$(1, 1) \circ g = 1g1^{-1} = g$$

and for $(h_1, k_1), (h_2, k_2) \in H \times K$ we have

$$(h_1, k_1) \circ [(h_2, k_2) \circ g]$$

$$= (h_1, k_1) \circ h_2 g k_2^{-1}$$

$$= h_1 h_2 g k_2^{-1} k_1^{-1}$$

$$= (h_1 h_2) g (k_1 k_2)^{-1}$$

$$= [(h_1, k_1)(h_2, k_2)] \circ g.$$



The orbits of this action are called double cosets

$$HgK := \{ h g k : h \in H, k \in K \}$$

Notation: We let

$$HG/K := \{ HgK : g \in G \}$$

Recall that if G is finite then

$$|HgK| = \frac{|H||K|}{|H \cap gKg^{-1}|}$$

Proof: Orbit-stabilizer. ◻

==

Now let K be a field and consider the general linear group.

$$G := GL(n, K)$$

Let $B \leq G$ be the group of upper triangular matrices (called the standard Borel subgroup)

Let $W \subseteq G$ be the group of permutation matrices (called the Weyl group).

Consider the action $B \times B \curvearrowright G$ by $(b_1, b_2) \circ g := b_1 g b_2^{-1}$ and the double coset decomposition $B \backslash G / B$.

Theorem (Bruhat Decomposition):

Every double coset BgB contains a unique permutation, so we get a bijection

$$\begin{aligned} W &\longleftrightarrow B \backslash G / B \\ w &\longmapsto BwB \end{aligned}$$

Proof of Existence (RREF):

I described the "Bruhat algorithm" last time. Today we'll use it to compute the RREF of

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

① start at bottom left. Eliminate up and to the right.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 0 & 2 & 1 \\
 1 & 0 & 2 \\
 \textcircled{2} & 0 & 2
 \end{array}
 \rightarrow
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 \uparrow 0 & 2 & 1 \\
 1 & 0 & 2 \\
 \textcircled{1} & 0 & 1
 \end{array}
 \rightarrow
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 0 & \textcircled{2} & 1 \\
 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 \textcircled{1} & 0 & 1
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 0 & \textcircled{1} & \frac{1}{2} \\
 \rightarrow 0 & 0 & \textcircled{1} \\
 \textcircled{1} & 0 & 1
 \end{array}
 \rightarrow
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 0 & \textcircled{1} & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & \textcircled{1} \\
 \textcircled{1} & 0 & 1
 \end{array}$$

Matrix Form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ & 1 \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}
 \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ & 1 \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}
 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ & 1 & -1 \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}
 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ & 1 \\ & & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}
 A$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} \\ & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ & & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} A$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \textcircled{1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \textcircled{1} \\ \textcircled{1} & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(2) Permute the rows to put pivots on the main diagonal

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 0 \textcircled{1} 0 & \textcircled{1} 0 1 & \textcircled{1} 0 1 \\ 0 0 \textcircled{1} & \rightarrow 0 0 \textcircled{1} & \rightarrow 0 \textcircled{1} 0 \\ \textcircled{1} 0 1 & 0 \textcircled{1} 0 & 0 0 \textcircled{1} \end{array}$$

Matrix Form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \textcircled{1} 0 \\ 0 0 \textcircled{1} \\ \textcircled{1} 0 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} & & 1 \\ & 1 & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \textcircled{1} 0 \\ 0 0 \textcircled{1} \\ \textcircled{1} 0 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \textcircled{1} & & \\ & \textcircled{1} & \\ & & \textcircled{1} \end{pmatrix}$$

(3) Eliminate above the pivots.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \textcircled{1} 0 1 & & \textcircled{1} 0 0 \\ 0 \textcircled{1} 0 & \rightarrow & 0 \textcircled{1} 0 \\ 0 0 \textcircled{1} & & 0 0 \textcircled{1} \end{array}$$

Matrix Form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ & 1 \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \textcircled{1} & & \\ & \textcircled{1} & \\ & & \textcircled{1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \textcircled{1} & & \\ & \textcircled{1} & \\ & & \textcircled{1} \end{pmatrix}$$

DONE.

Summary.

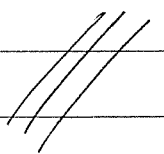
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ & 1 & 0 \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} & & 1 \\ 1 & & \\ & 1 & \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} \\ & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} \\ & & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} A = I$$

$$U_2 P U_1 A = I$$

$$\Rightarrow A = U_1^{-1} P^{-1} U_2^{-1}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ & 1 & 1 \\ & & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} & & 1 \\ 1 & & \\ & 1 & \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ & 1 & 0 \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Bruhat Decomposition



[Bonus: Let $U \subseteq B$ be the group of upper-unitriangular matrices, i.e. with 1's on the diagonal. Then $\forall g \in G$ we can write.

$$g = b w u$$

where $b \in B, w \in W, u \in U.$]

Proof of Uniqueness:

Given $g \in GL(n, K)$ we have shown that $\exists b \in B, w \in W, u \in U$ such that

$$g = b w u.$$

We will show that the permutation w is uniquely determined by g .

Little tweak: Consider the anti-diagonal matrix

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} & & & & 1 \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ 1 & & & & \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that $J^2 = I$ so we have

$$\begin{aligned} Jg &= JbJw u \\ g' &= b'w' u \end{aligned}$$

where $g' = Jg$, $b' = JbJ$, $w' = Jw$.

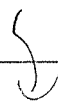
Crucial Observation: $b' = JbJ$ is rotated by 180° so it is now lower triangular.

Now given $A \in GL(n, K)$ and $1 \leq s, t \leq n$, let $[A]_{st}$ = upper left $s \times t$ corner of A .

$$A = \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \leftarrow \quad n-t \\ s \\ \hline n-s \end{array} \left(\begin{array}{c|c} [A]_{st} & * \\ \hline * & * \end{array} \right) \end{array}$$

Use this to write equation $g' = b'w'u$ in block form:

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c} [g']_{st} & * \\ \hline * & * \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} [b']_{ss} & 0 \\ \hline * & * \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c|c} [w']_{st} & * \\ \hline * & * \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c|c} [u]_{tt} & * \\ \hline 0 & * \end{array} \right)$$



$$= \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} [b']_{ss} & [w']_{st} & * \\ \hline & & * \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c|c} [u]_{tt} & * \\ \hline 0 & * \end{array} \right)$$

$$= \left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} [b']_{ss} & [w']_{st} & [u]_{tt} & * \\ \hline & & & * \end{array} \right)$$

Hence $[g']_{st} = [b']_{ss} [w']_{st} [u]_{tt}$

Since $[b']_{ss}$, $[u]_{tt}$ are invertible,
 $[g']_{st}$ and $[w']_{st}$ represent the same
 linear map in different coordinates.
 In particular, we have

$$\text{rank } [g']_{st} = \text{rank } [w']_{st} \quad \forall s, t.$$

But a permutation is uniquely determined
 by these ranks

Example:

$$\begin{pmatrix} & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ 1 & & & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{ranks}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \textcircled{1} & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \textcircled{2} \\ \textcircled{1} & 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & \textcircled{2} & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus g determines $g' = Jg$, which determines $w' = Jw$, which determines w .



The Bruhat algorithm also proves that $GL(n, k)$ is generated by elementary matrices

$E_{ij}(k)$

"transvections"

$E_{ii}(k)$

"diagonal matrices"

P_{ij}

"permutations"

Theorem: Actually, the permutations are not necessary.

Proof: We have $P_{ij} = E_{jj}(-1)E_{ij}(1)E_{ji}(-1)E_{ij}(1)$ because

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \vec{a}_{i_0} & \rightarrow & \vec{a}_{i_0} + \vec{a}_{j_0} & \rightarrow & \vec{a}_{i_0} + \vec{a}_{j_0} & = & \vec{a}_{i_0} + \vec{a}_{j_0} \\ \vec{a}_{j_0} & & \vec{a}_{j_0} & & \vec{a}_{j_0} - (\vec{a}_{i_0} + \vec{a}_{j_0}) & = & -\vec{a}_{i_0} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \vec{a}_{i_0} + \vec{a}_{j_0} - \vec{a}_{i_0} & = & \vec{a}_{j_0} & \rightarrow & \vec{a}_{j_0} \\ -\vec{a}_{i_0} & & -\vec{a}_{i_0} & & \vec{a}_{i_0} \end{array}$$



We have

$$GL(n, K) = \langle E_{ij}(k), E_{ii}(k) : \forall i, j, \forall k \in K \rangle$$

If K is topological, note that

$$\begin{array}{l} E_{ij}(k) \rightarrow I \\ E_{ii}(1+k) \rightarrow I \end{array} \left. \begin{array}{l} \} \\ \} \end{array} \right\} \text{ as } k \rightarrow 0$$

★ Harder Theorem: Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Then $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ is generated by the set

$$\{ E_{ij}(k), E_{ii}(1+k) : \forall i, j, \forall |k| < \varepsilon \}$$

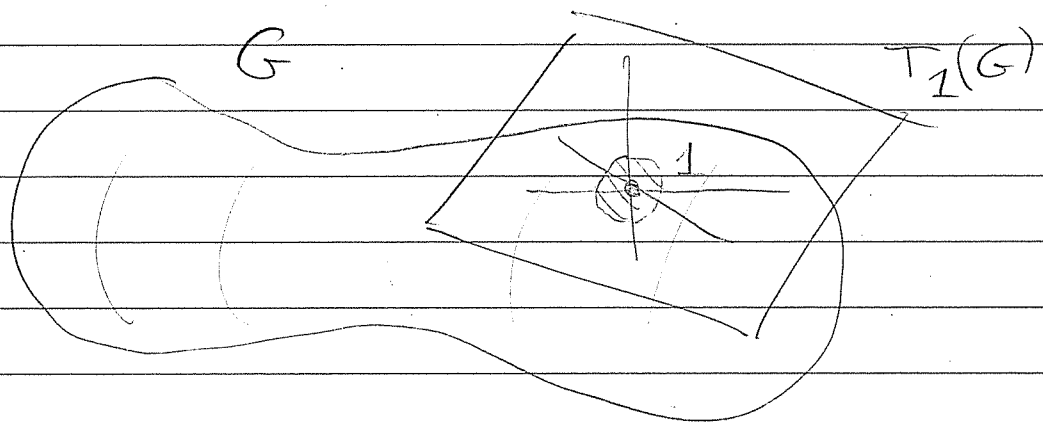
★★ Harder Theorem: If G is a connected Lie group, then G is generated by any neighborhood of the identity $1 \in G$.

[Remark:

$GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ is connected but
 $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ has two connected
components.

]

Picture :



The whole algebraic structure of G is contained near the identity.

Idea (Sophus Lie) :

Consider the tangent space at $1 \in G$,

$$\mathfrak{g} := T_1(G)$$

This is called the "Lie algebra" of G .

Tues Nov 12

HW 4 due today.

Let K be a field. Recall that the general linear group $GL(n, K) = \text{Aut}(K^n)$ is generated by

$$E_{ij}(k)$$

"transvections"

$$E_{ii}(k)$$

"diagonal matrices"

IF $K = \mathbb{C}$, note that

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} E_{ij}(k) \rightarrow I \\ E_{ii}(1+k) \rightarrow I \end{array} \right\} \text{ as } k \rightarrow 0.$$

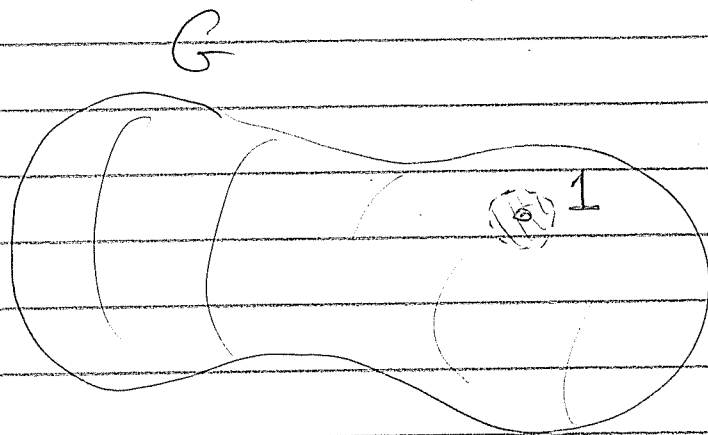
Topological Theorem:

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Then $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ is generated by the matrices

$$\left\{ E_{ij}(k), E_{ii}(1+k) : |k| < \varepsilon \right\}.$$

More generally a connected topological group G is generated by any open neighborhood of the identity $1 \in G$.

Picture:



The algebraic structure of G is local.

Today we will discuss

$SL(n, K)$ and $PSL(n, K)$.

Recall that $SL(n, K)$ is the kernel of the determinant

$$\det: GL(n, K) \rightarrow K^\times,$$

so $SL(n, K) \triangleleft GL(n, K)$.

Theorem: For all K and $n \geq 2$,
 $SL(n, K)$ is generated by the
transvections $E_{ij}(b)$, $i \neq j$.

Proof: We have $\det E_{ij}(k) = 1$, hence $E_{ij}(k) \in SL(n, K)$. We will show that diagonal matrices $E_{ii}(k)$ are not necessary to generate $SL(n, K)$.

[It's not trivial because $SL(n, K)$ does contain diagonal matrices:

$$\begin{pmatrix} k & 0 \\ 0 & 1/k \end{pmatrix} \in SL(2, K) .]$$

We will use induction on n . Assume $SL(n-1, K)$ is generated by transvections and consider $A = (a_{ij}) \in SL(n, K)$.

Since A is invertible, some entry in the first column is nonzero. There are two cases.

Case 1: $a_{j1} \neq 0$ for some $j > 1$. Then we replace row 1 by

$$(\text{row } 1) + \frac{1-a_{11}}{a_{j1}} (\text{row } j).$$

In matrix notation we get

$$E_{1j} \left(\frac{1-a_{1j}}{a_{1j}} \right) A = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & * \\ \hline * & * \end{array} \right)$$

Case 2: If $a_{j1} = 0 \forall j > 1$ then we must have $a_{11} \neq 0$, hence

$$E_{21} \left(\frac{1}{a_{11}} \right) A = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} a_{11} & * \\ \hline 1 & * \\ * & * \end{array} \right)$$

Then we apply Case 1 to get

$$E_{12} (1-a_{11}) E_{21} \left(\frac{1}{a_{11}} \right) A = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & * \\ \hline * & * \end{array} \right)$$

In either case we now have 1 in the top left corner. Multiplying on the left by suitable $E_{j1}(k)$ with $j > 1$ gives

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & * \\ \hline 0 & * \\ \vdots & \\ 0 & \end{array} \right)$$

Then multiplying on the right by suitable $E_{ij}(k)$ with $j > 1$ gives

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|ccc} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \hline 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & & \\ 0 & & & A' \end{array} \right)$$

[Note: multiplying on the right by $E_{ij}(k)$, $i \neq j$, replaces column j by
(column j) + k (column i).]

Since $\det E_{ij}(k) = 1 \quad \forall i \neq j$ and since \det is multiplicative, we have

$$\det \left(\begin{array}{c|ccc} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \hline 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & & \\ 0 & & & A' \end{array} \right) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \det A' = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow A' \in SL(n-1, K).$$

By induction, A' is a product of $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ transvections $E_{ij}'(k)$.

But then $\left(\begin{array}{c|ccc} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \hline 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & & \\ 0 & & & \end{array} \middle| A' \right)$ is a product of

$$E_{i+1, j+1}(k) = \left(\begin{array}{c|ccc} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \hline 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & & \\ 0 & & & E_{ij}(k) \end{array} \right)$$

Example: Express $\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 1/a \end{pmatrix} \in SL(2, K)$
in terms of transvections.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & 1/a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 1/a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 1/a \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1-a \\ & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 1/a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1/a - 1 \\ 0 & 1/a \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1/a - 1 \\ 0 & 1/a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1/a - 1 \\ 0 & 1/a \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1/a - 1 \\ 0 & 1/a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 - 1/a \\ & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/a \end{pmatrix} \checkmark$$

In summary

$$E_{2,1}(-1)E_{12}(1-a)E_{2,1}\left(\frac{1}{a}\right)\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{a} \end{pmatrix}E_{12}\left(1-\frac{1}{a}\right) = I$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{a} \end{pmatrix} &= E_{2,1}\left(\frac{1}{a}\right)^{-1}E_{12}(1-a)^{-1}E_{2,1}(-1)^{-1}E_{12}\left(1-\frac{1}{a}\right)^{-1} \\ &= E_{2,1}\left(-\frac{1}{a}\right)E_{12}(a-1)E_{2,1}(1)E_{12}\left(\frac{1}{a}-1\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \backslash & \\ -\frac{1}{a} & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a-1 & \\ & \backslash & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \backslash & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{a}-1 & \\ & \backslash & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

That was not trivial 😊

==
You will show on HW5 that

$$Z(GL(n, K)) = \left\{ kI : k \in K^\times \right\} \cong K^\times$$

"scalar matrices"

and hence

$$Z(SL(n, K)) = \left\{ kI : k^n = 1 \right\}$$

"n-th roots of 1"

Our next goal is to prove that

$$\text{PSL}(n, K) := \text{SL}(n, K) / Z(\text{SL}(n, K))$$

is a simple group for all fields K
and all $n \geq 2$, except

$$\text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{F}_2) \text{ and } \text{PSL}(3, \mathbb{F}_3),$$

which are not simple. //

We will use a general method due
to Kenkichi Iwasawa (1917-1998)

Def: We say that an action $G \curvearrowright X$
is doubly transitive if

$\forall (x_1, x_2), (y_1, y_2) \in X \times X$ with $x_1 \neq x_2$
and $y_1 \neq y_2$, $\exists g \in G$ such that

$$gx_1 = y_1 \quad \text{and} \quad gx_2 = y_2$$

}

Lemma 1: If $G \curvearrowright X$ is doubly transitive then $\forall x \in X$, $\text{Stab}(x)$ is a maximal subgroup of G .

Proof: Since $G \curvearrowright X$ is doubly transitive, in particular it is transitive, so $\forall x \in X$ we have

$$X \approx G/\text{Stab}(x) \text{ as } G\text{-sets.}$$

Assume for contradiction that $\exists H \leq G$ such that

$$\text{Stab}(x) \subsetneq H \subsetneq G.$$

Then $\exists g \in G - H$ and $h \in H - \text{Stab}(x)$.

Since $\text{Stab}(x) \neq h\text{Stab}(x)$ and $\text{Stab}(x) \neq g\text{Stab}(x)$ and since $X \approx G/\text{Stab}(x)$ is doubly trans., $\exists u \in G$ such that

$$u(\text{Stab}(x)) = \text{Stab}(x) \text{ and } u(h\text{Stab}(x)) = g\text{Stab}(x)$$

i.e. $u \in \text{Stab}(x)$ and $g^{-1}uh \in \text{Stab}(x)$.

But then we have $uh \in H$ and $g^{-1}uh \in H$, hence

$$uh(g^{-1}uh)^{-1} = uh(h^{-1}u^{-1}g) = g \in H.$$

CONTRADICTION. □

Lemma 2: If $G \curvearrowright X$ is doubly transitive, then any normal $N \triangleleft G$ acts either trivially or transitively on X .

Proof: Suppose $N \curvearrowright X$ is not trivial, i.e. $\exists n \in N, x \in X$ with $nx \neq x$.

Now pick any $y \neq y'$ in X . Then by double transitivity $\exists g \in G$ with

$$gx = y \quad \text{and} \quad g(nx) = y'$$

But then we have

$$\begin{aligned} y' &= gn x \\ &= gng^{-1}y. \end{aligned}$$

Since $gng^{-1} \in N$, we conclude that $N \curvearrowright X$ is transitive



To state Iwasawa's criterion, we need one more concept.

To be continued...

Thurs Nov 14

HW 5 due ?

NO CLASS Nov 25 \rightarrow 29 (Thanksgiving)

Final Exam scheduled for

Thurs Dec 12, 2:00 - 4:30pm

... continued.

We are proving that $PSL(n, k)$ is simple using a method of Kenkichi Iwasawa.

Recall: Given an action $G \curvearrowright X$ we define the diagonal action $G \curvearrowright X \times X$ by $g(x_1, x_2) = (gx_1, gx_2)$. We say that $G \curvearrowright X$ is doubly transitive if

$$G \curvearrowright (X \times X - \{(x, x) : x \in X\})$$

is transitive. (G sends any pair to any other pair.)

Lemma 1: If $G \curvearrowright X$ is doubly transitive then $\forall x \in X$, $\text{Stab}(x)$ is a maximal subgroup of G .

Lemma 2: If $G \curvearrowright X$ is doubly transitive then any normal $N \triangleleft G$ acts either trivially or transitively on X .

To state Iwasawa's Theorem we need one more idea.

Given group G and $g, h \in G$ we define the commutator $[g, h] := ghg^{-1}h^{-1}$. Note

$$gh = hg \iff [g, h] = 1$$

We define the commutator subgroup

$$[G, G] := \langle [g, h] : g, h \in G \rangle$$

You will prove on HW5 that $[G, G] \triangleleft G$.

The quotient

$$G^{ab} := G/[G, G]$$

is called the abelianization of G .

}

It is abelian (by construction) and it has the following universal property:

if A is abelian the \forall group homs.
 $\varphi: G \rightarrow A \exists !$ hom. $\tilde{\varphi}: G^{ab} \rightarrow A$
 such that

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 G & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & A \\
 \pi \downarrow & \nearrow \tilde{\varphi} & \\
 G/[G,G] & &
 \end{array}
 \quad \varphi = \tilde{\varphi} \circ \pi$$

★ Theorem (Iwasawa, 1941)
 [in Proc. Imperial Acad. Tokyo, in German]

Let $G \curvearrowright X$ be doubly transitive. IF

- For some x , $\text{Stab}(x)$ has an abelian normal subgroup whose conjugates generate G ,
- $[G,G] = G$

then G/K is simple, where K is the kernel of $G \curvearrowright X$.

Proof:

To show G/K is simple we will show that $K \leq N \leq G$ and $N \trianglelefteq G$ imply that $N=K$ or $N=G$. The result follows from Correspondence.

So assume $K \leq N \leq G$ and $N \trianglelefteq G$.

Let $H = \text{Stab}(x)$ for some $x \in X$. Since N is normal, NH is a subgroup of G . Since $H \leq NH$ and H is maximal by Lemma 1 we have $NH=H$ or $NH=G$.

Case $NH=H$: Then $N \leq H$ implies that N fixes x , hence $N \curvearrowright X$ is not transitive. By Lemma 2, $N \curvearrowright X$ is trivial which means $N \leq K$. we conclude $N=K$. \equiv

Case $NH=G$: Let $U \trianglelefteq H$ be abelian such that $G = \langle gu_j^{-1} : g \in G \rangle$, which exists by hypothesis. Since $N \trianglelefteq G$ and $U \trianglelefteq H$ we have $NU \trianglelefteq NH = G$. Then $\forall g \in G$, $gUg^{-1} \subseteq g(NU)g^{-1} = NU$. It follows that $NU=G$, and hence

$$\frac{G}{N} = \frac{NU}{N} \cong \frac{U}{N \cap U}.$$

Since U is abelian this means G/N is abelian. By universal property of $[G, G]$ we have $[G, G] \leq N$. Then since $[G, G] = G$ by hypothesis, we have $N = G$.



Now we apply Iwasawa to $SL(n, K)$.

Note that $SL(n, K)$ acts on the set of 1-dim subspaces of K^n :

$$\text{Gr}_K(1, n) = \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$$

"projective space"

Given $A \in SL(n, K)$, suppose that $A\ell = \ell$ for all $\ell \in \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$. Then we have

$$A\vec{x} \in K(\vec{x})$$

$$A\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x} \quad \forall \vec{x} \in K^n$$

(Every vector is an eigenvector.) Suppose $A\vec{e}_i = \lambda_i\vec{e}_i$ where \vec{e}_i is the standard basis. So we have

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Suppose $A(\vec{e}_i + \vec{e}_j) = \lambda(\vec{e}_i + \vec{e}_j) = \lambda\vec{e}_i + \lambda\vec{e}_j$.

Then we have

$$\lambda\vec{e}_i + \lambda\vec{e}_j = A(\vec{e}_i + \vec{e}_j) = A\vec{e}_i + A\vec{e}_j = \lambda_i\vec{e}_i + \lambda_j\vec{e}_j$$

$\implies \lambda_i = \lambda = \lambda_j$. We conclude that

A is a scalar matrix $A = kI$.

Thus the kernel of action $SL(n, K) \curvearrowright K\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ is the center

$$Z(SL(n, K)) = \{ kI ; k^n = 1 \}. \quad \equiv$$

[We obtain an action $PSL(n, K) \curvearrowright K\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$, which explains the "P" in PSL .]

Now we show $SL(n, K) \curvearrowright K\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ is doubly transitive. Choose lines $K(\vec{v}_1) \neq K(\vec{v}_2)$ and $K(\vec{u}_1) \neq K(\vec{u}_2)$ and extend these to bases

$$\begin{array}{c} \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \\ \vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_n \end{array}$$

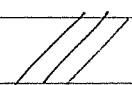
Then the map φ defined by $\varphi(\vec{u}_i) := \vec{v}_i$
 $\forall i$ sends

$$\varphi(K(\vec{u}_1)) = K(\vec{v}_1)$$

$$\varphi(K(\vec{u}_2)) = K(\vec{v}_2)$$

Unfortunately we may have $\det \varphi \neq 1$.
This can be fixed by scaling the n th
column. We define

$$\tilde{\varphi}(\vec{u}_i) = \begin{cases} \varphi(\vec{u}_i) & 1 \leq i \leq n-1 \\ \frac{1}{\det \varphi} \varphi(\vec{u}_i) & i = n \end{cases}$$

Then $\tilde{\varphi} \in SL(n, K)$. 

Now let P be the stabilizer of the
line $K \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$. We know that

$$P = \left\{ \left(\begin{array}{c|c} a & * \\ \hline 0 & B \end{array} \right) : a = \frac{1}{\det B} \right\}$$

"parabolic subgroup"

The projection $P \rightarrow GL(n-1, K)$ defined by

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c} a & * \\ \hline 0 & B \end{array} \right) \mapsto B$$

has abelian kernel

$$U = \left\{ \left(\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & * \dots * \\ \hline 0 & I \end{array} \right) \right\} \cong (K^{n-1}, +)$$

To finish the proof that $PSL(n, K)$ is simple, we must show.

- The conjugates of U generate $SL(n, K)$.
- $[SL(n, K), SL(n, K)] = SL(n, K)$.

We already know that $SL(n, K)$ is generated by transvections $E_{ij}(k)$.

Theorem: Every transvection $E_{ij}(k)$ is conjugate to $E_{12}(\pm k) \in U$.

Proof: If w is a permutation sending $i \mapsto w(i)$ then the corresponding permutation matrix satisfies

$$w E_{ij}(k) w^{-1} = E_{w(i), w(j)}(k).$$

Choose w such that $w(i) = 1$ and $w(j) = 2$, so

$$w E_{ij}(k) w^{-1} = E_{12}(k).$$

If $\det w = 1$ we're done. Otherwise, let

$$d = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & & 0 \\ & 1 & \\ 0 & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then $(dw) E_{ij}(k) (dw)^{-1} = E_{12}(\pm k)$ with
 $dw \in SL(n, k)$



Example:

$$\begin{pmatrix} & & 1 \\ & 1 & \\ -1 & & \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & k & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} & & 1 \\ & 1 & \\ -1 & & \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & k \\ & 1 \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So far we have made no hypothesis on n or the field K (except assuming $n \geq 2$)

Theorem: If $n \geq 2$, then every $E_{ij}(k)$ is a commutator of elements of $SL(n, K)$ except when $n=2$ and $K = \mathbb{F}_2$ or \mathbb{F}_3 .
It follows that

$$[SL(n, K), SL(n, K)] = SL(n, K)$$

Proof: In general, we have

$$[E_{ij}(\alpha), E_{il}(\beta)] = E_{il}(\alpha\beta)$$

when i, j, l are distinct. Thus for $n \geq 3$ we get

$$E_{ij}(k) = [E_{il}(k), E_{ij}(1)], \quad l \notin \{i, j\}.$$

If $n=2$ then we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & \\ & 1/a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & b \\ & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & \\ & 1/a \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & b \\ & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & b(a^2-1) \\ & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

which gives all $E_{12}(k)$ if $|K| > 3$.

Similarly for $E_{21}(k)$.



We are done!

Summary: If $n \geq 2$, then

$$\text{PSL}(n, K) = \text{SL}(n, K) / Z(\text{SL}(n, K))$$

is simple except when $n=2$ and $K = \mathbb{F}_2$ or \mathbb{F}_3 .

This accounts for all the finite simple groups we have known.

order	name
60	$\text{PSL}(2, 4) = \text{PSL}(2, 5)$
168	$\text{PSL}(3, 2) = \text{PSL}(2, 7)$
360	$\text{PSL}(2, 9)$
504	$\text{PSL}(2, 8)$
660	$\text{PSL}(2, 11)$
1092	$\text{PSL}(2, 13)$
2448	$\text{PSL}(2, 17)$
⋮	

The smallest one we haven't met is

$$|\text{PSU}(3, 3)| = 6048$$