AUTOMORPHIC L-FUNCTIONS

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0. Introduction.

The goal of this course is to give a proof of functoriality of symmetric cube and symmetric fourth of cuspidal representations of $GL_2(\mathbb{A})$, where \mathbb{A} is the ring of adeles of a number field F. Let $\pi = \otimes_v \pi_v$ be a cuspidal representation of $GL_2(\mathbb{A})$. Let $Sym^m : GL_2(\mathbb{C}) \longrightarrow GL_{m+1}(\mathbb{C})$ be the symmetric mth power representation. By the local Langlands' correspondence, $Sym^m(\pi_v)$ is a well-defined irreducible admissible representation of $GL_{m+1}(F_v)$ for each v. Then $Sym^m(\pi) = \otimes_v Sym^m(\pi_v)$ is an irreducible admissible representation of $GL_{m+1}(\mathbb{A})$.

Conjecture 0.1 (Langlands). $Sym^m(\pi)$ is an automorphic representation.

Theorem 0.2.

- (1) (Gelbart-Jacquet) $Sym^2(\pi)$ is an automorphic representation of $GL_3(\mathbb{A}_F)$.
- (2) (Kim-Shahidi) $Sym^3(\pi)$ is an automorphic representation of $GL_4(\mathbb{A}_F)$.
- (3) (Kim) $Sym^4(\pi)$ is an automorphic representation of $GL_5(\mathbb{A}_F)$.

We use the Langlangs-Shahidi method and the converse theorem of Cogdell-Piatetski-Shapiro. For this, we need exceptional groups of type E_6 , E_7 and D_{2n} (spin groups). We will first develop necessary background. The following is a syllabus for the course.

- (1) Chevalley groups and their properties
- (2) Cuspidal representations
- (3) L-groups and automorphic L-functions
- (4) Induced representations and intertwining operators
- (5) Eisenstein series and constant terms
- (6) L-functions in the constant terms
- (7) Meromorphic continuation of L-functions
- (8) Generic representations and their Whittaker models
- (9) Local coefficients and non-constant terms
- (10) Local Langlands conjecture
- (11) Local L-functions and functional equations
- (12) Normalization of intertwining operators

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- (13) Langlands' functoriality
- (14) Converse theorem of Cogdell and Piatetski-Shapiro
- (15) Holomorphy and boundedness in vertical strips of L-functions
- (16) Functoriality of symmetric cube
- (17) Functoriality of symmetric fourth

1. Chevalley groups and their properties.

This section is mostly from [Bo], [Hum], [Sa], and [Se].

1.1 Algebraic groups. Let F be a field, and let G be an affine algebraic group defined over F. The easiest way to define it, is to define it as a subgroup of $GL(n,\Omega)$, where Ω is an algebraically closed field, containing F such that G is the set of solutions of a finite set of polynomial equations in X_{ij} with coefficients in F (we assume, for simplicity, that F is of characteristic zero). In algebraic geometry terms, G is an algebraic variety (closed subset in Zariski topology).

Examples 1.1.

- (1) $\mathbf{G} = GL(n)$. It is a closed set in Ω^{n^2+1} defined by a polynomial $det(X_{ij})Y = 1$. We usually denote GL(1) by \mathbb{G}_m and Ω by \mathbb{G}_a , which is isomorphic to the group $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$
- (2) $\mathbf{G} = SL(n)$ is defined by $det(X_{ij}) 1$.

(3)
$$\mathbf{G} = Sp(2n) = \{g \in SL(2n) | {}^{t}gJg = J, J = \begin{pmatrix} & J_{n} \\ -J_{n} \end{pmatrix}, J_{n} = \begin{pmatrix} & & 1 \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \}$$

This is given by $4n^2$ polynomial equations. It is called symplectic group. Note that Sp(2) = SL(2).

(4) $\mathbf{G} = R_{\mathbb{Q}(i)/\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{G}_m)$ is called the restriction of scalars, because $\mathbf{G}(\mathbb{Q}) = GL(1,\mathbb{Q}(i))$. It is given by $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ -y & x \end{pmatrix} \in GL(2,\Omega) \right\}$. Similarly, $\mathbf{G} = R_{\mathbb{Q}(i)/\mathbb{Q}}(GL(2))$ is defined.

We will always write in bold letters to denote algebraic groups, in order to emphasize that it is a subgroup of $GL(n,\Omega)$. If \mathbf{G} is an algebraic group, then $\mathbf{G}(F)$ denotes the group of F-rational points. If $\mathbf{G} \subset GL(n)$ is defined by a set of polynomials with coefficients in a commutative ring R, we can define the group of R-rational points by $\mathbf{G}(R) = \mathbf{G} \cap R^{n^2+1}$. Hence, for example, GL(n,R) is the set of $n \times n$ matrices over R whose determinants are units in R. So $GL(2,\mathbb{Z})$ is the set of 2×2 matrices with integer components and whose determinants are ± 1 .

Definition 1.2. Let G be a connected algebraic group. The radical of G, denoted by R(G) is a maximal element in the set of connected solvable normal subgroups of G. The unipotent radical of G, denoted by $R_u(G)$, is the unipotent part of R(G), i.e., the set of unipotent elements of R(G).

Recall that $g \in \mathbf{G}$ is semi-simple if g is similar to a diagonal matrix; g is unipotent if $(g-1)^m = 0$ for some positive integer m. By Jordan decomposition, any g can be written uniquely $g = g_s g_u$, where g_s is semi-simple, g_u unipotent and g_s, g_u commute.

Definition 1.3. G is called semi-simple if $R(\mathbf{G}) = 1$; **G** is called reductive if $R_u(\mathbf{G}) = 1$.

One can think of reductive groups as groups like GL(n). Semi-simple groups are like SL(n), where the center is finite.

- **Proposition 1.4.** (1) (Levi decomposition) Suppose G is a connected algebraic group defined over a field F of characteristic zero. Then there exists a reductive subgroup $M \subset G$ such that $G = MR_u(G)$ (semi-direct product).
- (2) Suppose G is reductive. Then $G = R(G) \cdot G'$ (almost direct product, i.e., the intersection is finite), where G' is the derived group, i.e., G' = [G, G]. Also R(G) is the connected component of the center of G.

We will use the Levi decomposition mostly in the case of parabolic subgroups.

Definition 1.5. An algebraic group \mathbf{T} defined over F is called torus if \mathbf{T} is isomorphic to $GL(1)^n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. A torus \mathbf{T} is called split over F if the isomorphism is defined by a polynomial with coefficients in F.

Examples 1.6. Let D(n) be the group of diagonal matrices in GL(n). Then clearly, D(n) is a torus. The algebraic group $\mathbf{G} = R_{\mathbb{Q}(i)/\mathbb{Q}}GL(1)$ in examples 1.1, is a torus.

In fact, $\mathbf{G} \simeq GL(1)^2$. The isomorphism is $\begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ -y & x \end{pmatrix} \longmapsto \begin{pmatrix} x+yi & 0 \\ 0 & x-yi \end{pmatrix}$. Notice that the isomorphism is not defined by polynomials with coefficients in \mathbb{Q} . This is an example of quasi-split torus. In this course, we will only deal with split tori.

Definition 1.7. Let G be an algebraic group. Define $X^*(G)$ to be the group of characters defined over F, i.e., the group of homomorphisms $G \longrightarrow GL(1)$, defined by a polynomial.

Proposition 1.8. $X^*(GL(1)^n) \simeq \mathbb{Z}^n$.

We can give the characters explicitly; $\chi(x_1,...,x_n)=x_1^{m_1}\cdots x_n^{m_n}$ for $m_i\in\mathbb{Z}$.

Proposition 1.9. Let G be reductive and $G = S \cdot G'$, where S = R(G) and G' is the derived group. Then S is a torus and X * (G) is a subgroup of X * (S) with finite index.

Proof. We first show that $X*(\mathbf{G})=1$ if \mathbf{G} is semi-simple. If \mathbf{G} is simple (i.e., it has no proper closed normal subgroup of dimension>0), then given $\chi: \mathbf{G} \longrightarrow GL(1)$, $ker\chi$ is a closed normal subgroup. By dimension formula, $dim\mathbf{G}=dim(Im\chi)+dim(ker\chi)$. Hence $dim(ker\chi)\geq 1$. So $ker\chi=\mathbf{G}$. If \mathbf{G} is semi-simple, there is an isogeny (surjective homomorphism with a finite kernel) $\prod_{i=1}^k \mathbf{G}_i \longrightarrow \mathbf{G}$, where \mathbf{G}_i is simple. Then $X^*(\mathbf{G}) \longrightarrow \prod_{i=1}^k X^*(\mathbf{G}_i)$ is an injection. Hence $X^*(\mathbf{G})=$

1. Suppose **G** is reductive. Then there exists an isogeny $S \times \mathbf{G}' \longrightarrow \mathbf{G}$. Then $X^*(\mathbf{G}) \longrightarrow X^*(S) \times X^*(\mathbf{G}') = X^*(S)$ is an injection with finite index. \square

Example 1.10. Suppose $G = GL(n) = Z \cdot SL(n)$, where $Z = \{aI_n | a \in GL(1)\}$. Then $X^*(Z) = \langle \chi : aI_n \mapsto a \rangle \simeq \mathbb{Z}$. But $X^*(GL(n)) = \langle det \rangle$, where det is the character $g \mapsto det(g)$. But $det(aI_n) = a^n$.

1.2 Roots and coroots. Let **G** be an algebraic group. We can define its Lie algebra, denoted by \mathfrak{g} . It is the set of left invariant derivations of the algebra of algebraic functions on **G**. Rather than defining it abstractly, we show how to find it in the case when $\mathbf{G} \subset GL(n,\Omega)$: Take t such that $t^2 = 0$. Then $\mathfrak{g} = \{X \in M(n,\Omega) | 1 + tX \in \mathbf{G}\}$. Note that \mathfrak{g} is a vector space whose dimension is $\dim \mathbf{G}$.

Examples 1.11. (1) $\mathbf{G} = SL(n)$. Then $\mathfrak{g} = \{X \in M(n) | \det(1 + tX) = 1\} = \{X \in M(n) | trX = 0\}$.

(2) $\mathbf{G} = Sp(2n) = \{g \in SL(2n) | {}^tgJg = J\}$. Then $\mathfrak{g} = \{X \in M(n) | {}^tXJ + JX = 0\}$.

Definition 1.12. We have an adjoint representation $Ad : \mathbf{G} \longrightarrow End(\mathfrak{g})$, defined by $Ad(g)(X) = gXg^{-1}$.

Let **T** be a maximal torus in **G**. Then $Ad(\mathbf{T})$ is a set of diagonalizable commuting endomorphisms $\mathfrak{g} \longrightarrow \mathfrak{g}$. Hence they are simultaneously diagonalizable. Eigenvalues are characters of **T**. Hence we have

$$\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{g}_0^{(\mathbf{T})} \oplus \oplus_{lpha \in \Phi} \mathfrak{g}_{lpha}^{(\mathbf{T})},$$

where $\mathfrak{g}_{\alpha}^{(\mathbf{T})} = \{X \in \mathfrak{g} | Ad(t)(X) = \alpha(t)X\}$, and $\alpha \in X^*(\mathbf{T}), \alpha \neq 0$. Only finitely many such α 's appear. We call Φ the set of roots of \mathbf{G} with respect to \mathbf{T} .

Example 1.13. Let $\mathbf{G} = Sp(4)$. Then $\mathbf{T} = \{x(t_1, t_2) = diag(t_1, t_2, t_2^{-1}, t_1^{-1})\}$ and $\mathfrak{g} = \{\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & A' \end{pmatrix}\}$, where $A = \begin{pmatrix} u & v \\ w & x \end{pmatrix}$, $A' = \begin{pmatrix} -x & -v \\ -w & -u \end{pmatrix}$, and B, C are of the form $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b & a \end{pmatrix}$. The roots are $\{\pm (e_1 \pm e_2), \pm 2e_1, \pm 2e_2\}$, where $e_1 : x(t_1, t_2) \mapsto$

$$t_{1}, e_{2}: x(t_{1}, t_{2}) \mapsto t_{2}. \text{ Then } \mathfrak{g}_{e_{1}-e_{2}} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} A \\ A' \end{pmatrix} \right\}, \text{ where } A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & v \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathfrak{g}_{2e_{1}} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} O & B \\ O & O \end{pmatrix} \right\}, \text{ where } B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathfrak{g}_{2e_{2}} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} O & B \\ O & O \end{pmatrix} \right\}, \text{ where } B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ c & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathfrak{g}_{e_{1}+e_{2}} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} O & B \\ O & O \end{pmatrix} \right\}, \text{ where } B = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let $N(\mathbf{T}), Z(\mathbf{T})$ be the normalizer and centralizer of \mathbf{T} in \mathbf{G} . Then $Z(\mathbf{T}) = \mathbf{T}$ and $W = N(\mathbf{T})/\mathbf{T}$ is finite, called the Weyl group of \mathbf{G} relative to \mathbf{T} . For $s \in N(\mathbf{T})$, we can define $w_s : \mathbf{T} \longrightarrow \mathbf{T}$, by $w_s(t) = sts^{-1}$. It induces an isomorphism $w'_s : X^*(\mathbf{T}) \longrightarrow X^*(\mathbf{T})$ by $w'_s(\chi) = \chi \circ w_s$. We will identify s with w_s and w'_s .

Let $X_*(\mathbf{T}) = Hom(GL(1), \mathbf{T})$ be the group of cocharacters. Then there is a natural pairing $\langle , \rangle \colon X^*(\mathbf{T}) \times X_*(\mathbf{T}) \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. For $\chi \in X^*(\mathbf{T}), \mu \in X_*(\mathbf{T})$, we define $\langle \chi, \mu \rangle \in \mathbb{Z}$ as follows: $\chi \circ \mu \colon GL(1) \longrightarrow GL(1)$. Since $X^*(GL(1)) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$,

there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\chi \circ \mu(t) = t^k$. Define $\langle \chi, \mu \rangle = k$. Using this pairing, we identify $X_*(\mathbf{T})$ with $Hom(X^*(\mathbf{T}), \mathbb{Z})$.

For each $\alpha \in \Phi$, we define the coroot $\alpha^{\vee} \in X_*(\mathbf{T})$ as follows: Since $\alpha : \mathbf{T} \longrightarrow GL(1)$, $(ker\alpha)^0 \subset \mathbf{T}$ is a subtorus of codimension one. $((ker\alpha)^0)$ is the connected component of the identity of $ker\alpha$.) Let Z_{α} be the centralizer of $(ker\alpha)^0$ in \mathbf{G} . It is a connected, reductive group with \mathbf{T} as a maximal torus. Let G_{α} be the derived group of Z_{α} . Then $G_{\alpha} \simeq SL(2)$ or PGL(2), and G_{α} has a maximal torus $T_{\alpha} \subset \mathbf{T}$. Define $\alpha^{\vee} : GL(1) \longrightarrow T_{\alpha}$ be the unique homomorphism such that $(\alpha, \alpha)^0 > 0$.

Definition 1.14. Suppose G is reductive and T is a maximal torus. Then $(X^*(T), \Phi, X_*(T), \Phi^{\vee})$ is called a root datum of G.

Examples 1.15. (1) $\mathbf{G} = GL(n)$. Let α be a root such that $\alpha(diag(t_1,...,t_n)) = t_i t_{i+1}^{-1}$. Then $ker\alpha = \{diag(t_1,...,t_{i-1},tI_2,t_{i+2},...,t_n)\}$. It is connected. So $Z_{\alpha} = \{diag(t_1,...,t_{i-1},GL(2),t_{i+2},...,t_n)\}$ and $G_{\alpha} = \{diag(1,...,1,SL(2),1,...,1)\}$. Hence $\alpha^{\vee}(t) = (1,...,1,t,t^{-1},1,...,1)$.

(2) $\mathbf{G} = Sp(4)$. Let $\alpha_1 = e_1 - e_2, \alpha_2 = 2e_2$ in Example 1.13. Then $\alpha_1^{\vee}(t) = diag(t, t^{-1}, t, t^{-1})$ and $\alpha_2^{\vee}(t) = diag(1, t, t^{-1}, 1)$.

Suppose **G** is semi-simple, and **T** is a maximal torus. Let $X = X^*(\mathbf{T})$. Then (X, Φ, W) is a root system: X is a free module of rank l $(l = dim \mathbf{T})$; Φ is finite subset of X; W is a finite automorphism group of X such that

- (1) $0 \notin \Phi$; if $\alpha \in \Phi$, then $-\alpha \in \Phi$
- (2) If $\alpha \in \Phi$, and $c\alpha \in \Phi$ for $c \in \mathbb{Q}$, then $c = \pm 1$
- (3) To each $\alpha \in \Phi$, there corresponds $w_{\alpha} \in W$ such that $w_{\alpha}(\chi) = \chi \alpha^{\vee}(\chi)\alpha$ for $\chi \in X$. Also $w_{\alpha}(\Phi) = \Phi$.
- (4) $X_{\mathbb{Q}} (= X \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q})$ is generated by Φ as a vector space over \mathbb{Q}
- (5) W is generated by $\{w_{\alpha} : \alpha \in \Phi\}$

If **G** is reductive, then we need to take $X = X^*(T/S)$, where $S = Z(\mathbf{G})^0$. Since W is finite, one can introduce W-invariant positive definite symmetric bilinear form (,) on $X_{\mathbb{Q}}$. (Take any positive definite symmetric bilinear form <,> and define $(x,y) = \frac{1}{|W|} \sum_{w \in W} < wx, wy >.$)

From the relation $(w_{\alpha}(\chi), w_{\alpha}(\chi)) = (\chi, \chi)$ and $w_{\alpha}(\chi) = \chi - \alpha^{\vee}(\chi)\alpha$, we have $\alpha^{\vee}(\chi) = \frac{2(\alpha, \chi)}{(\alpha, \alpha)}$. Using this, we can identify α^{\vee} with $\frac{2\alpha}{(\alpha, \alpha)}$. Also we see that $w_{\alpha}^2 = 1$, $w_{\alpha}(\alpha) = -\alpha$ and w_{α} leaves fixed the hyperplane $H_{\alpha} = \{\chi \in X_{\mathbb{R}} : (\alpha, \chi) = 0\}$. We call w_{α} "reflection" or "symmetry" with respect to α .

For $\alpha, \beta \in \Phi$, $c_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{2(\alpha,\beta)}{(\alpha,\alpha)} \in \mathbb{Z}$. It is called Cartan integer.

1.3 Classification of root systems. The space $X_{\mathbb{R}} - \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Phi} H_{\alpha}$ is a finite union of disjoint connected components; such a component is called a Weyl chamber. To each Weyl chamber C^0 , is associated a linear order in X; $\alpha > 0$ if $(\alpha, \chi) > 0$ for all $\chi \in C^0$. We denote the set of positive roots by Φ_+ .

Definition 1.16. A positive root α is said to be simple if α cannot be expressed in the form $\beta + \gamma$ for $\beta, \gamma \in \Phi_+$.

We denote the set of simple roots of Φ_+ by Δ . It is called a fundamental system.

Theorem 1.17 (Main properties of fundamental system).

- (1) The fundamental system consists of l linear independent roots $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_l$.
- (2) Every root $\alpha \in \Phi$ can be written uniquely in the form

$$\alpha = \pm \sum_{i=1}^{l} m_i \alpha_i,$$

where $m_i \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \cup \{0\}$.

- (3) W is generated by $\{w_{\alpha_i} : \alpha_i \in \Delta\}$
- (4) Every root $\alpha \in \Phi$ can be written in the form

$$\alpha = w_{\alpha_{i_r}} \cdots w_{\alpha_{i_1}} \alpha_{i_0},$$

where $\alpha_{i_0}, ..., \alpha_{i_r} \in \Delta$

(5) W acts simply transitively on the set of Weyl chambers. Namely, there is a one to one correspondence between fundamental systems of Φ and Weyl chambers.

Lemma 1.18. If α, β are two nonproportional roots, and $(\alpha, \beta) > 0$, then $\alpha - \beta$ is a root.

Proof. Recall that $c_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{2(\alpha,\beta)}{(\alpha,\alpha)} \in \mathbb{Z}$. By Cauchy-Schwartz inequality, $c_{\alpha\beta}c_{\beta\alpha} < 4$. Hence if $(\alpha,\beta) > 0$, then $c_{\alpha\beta}$ or $c_{\beta\alpha} = 1$. If $c_{\beta\alpha} = 1$, $\alpha - \beta = \alpha - c_{\beta\alpha}\beta = w_{\beta}(\alpha) \in \Phi$. The other case is the same. \square

Corollary 1.19. For $\alpha_i, \alpha_j \in \Delta$, $(\alpha_i, \alpha_j) \leq 0$, and $c_{\alpha_i, \alpha_j} \in \{0, -1, -2, -3\}$.

Definition 1.20. A root system Φ is reducible if $\Phi = \Phi_1 \cup \Phi_2$, where Φ_1, Φ_2 are non-empty subsystems of Φ and $\Phi_1 \perp \Phi_2$. A root system Φ is called irreducible if it is not reducible.

Given an irreducible fundamental root system $\Delta = \{\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_l\}$, we call the matrix (c_{α_i,α_j}) Cartan matrix. We can attach Dynkin diagram to Δ in the following way: To each vector $\alpha_i \in \Delta$, associate a vertex, and connect vertices corresponding to α_i and α_j with a single, double, or triple line according to whether $c_{\alpha_i,\alpha_j} = -1, -2, -3$. The arrows point from a longer to a shorter vector, when the lengths are different.

The following is a list of the Dynkin diagrams of irreducible fundamental systems (See [Se] or [Hum]):

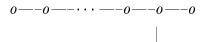
Theorem 1.21 (Classification of irreducible root systems).

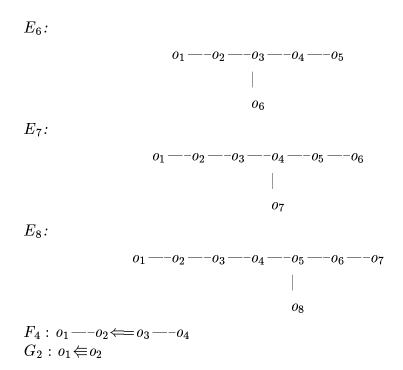
$$A_{l}\left(SL(l+1)\right): o -- o -- \cdots -- o -- o$$

$$B_{l}\left(SO(2l+1)\right): o -- o -- \cdots -- o -- o \Longrightarrow o$$

$$C_{l}\left(Sp(2l)\right): o -- o -- \cdots -- o -- o \Longleftrightarrow o$$

$$D_{l}:$$





Theorem 1.22. There exists a one to one correspondence between irreducible root systems and simple Lie algebras.

Complex Lie groups attached to the above irreducible root systems have been known before Chevalley. Chevalley observed that they can be constructed as algebraic groups. The following theorem gives a one to one correspondence between irreducible root systems and isogeny classes of split simple algebraic groups defined over a prime field (Assume that it is of characteristic zero).

Theorem 1.23 (Fundamental Theorem of Chevalley). (1) Given a root system (X, Φ) , there exists a connected semi-simple algebraic group G, defined over a prime field having (X, Φ) as its root system (with respect to a split maximal torus T of G). We denote G by $G(X, \Phi)$.

(2) Suppose $(X_1, \Phi), (X_2, \Phi)$ are two root systems with associated algebraic groups $\mathbf{G}_1, \mathbf{G}_2$. Suppose there is an injection $\rho: X_2 \longrightarrow X_1$ such that ρ is an identity on Φ . Then there exists an isogeny $\phi: \mathbf{G}_1 \longrightarrow \mathbf{G}_2$.

The above group $G(X, \Phi)$ is called "Chevalley group," or "split group", since it has a maximal torus which is split over the prime field. These days, any split reductive groups are called Chevalley groups.

Let (X, Φ) be a root system. Let

$$X_0 = \{\Delta\}_{\mathbb{Z}} = \{\Phi\}_{\mathbb{Z}},$$

$$X^0 = \{\Phi^{\vee}\}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{\wedge} = \{\chi \in X_{\mathbb{Q}} : (\chi, \alpha^{\vee}) \in \mathbb{Z}, \text{ for all } \alpha^{\vee} \in \Phi^{\vee}\}.$$

 X_0 is called the root module of Φ ; X^0 is called the weight module of Φ . We have inclusions: $X_0 \subset X \subset X^0$. By the fundamental theorem of Chevalley, there exist isogenies

$$G(X^0, \Phi) \longrightarrow G(X, \Phi) \longrightarrow G(X_0, \Phi).$$

Proposition 1.24. The center of $G(X^0, \Phi)$ is finite and it is isomorphic to X^0/X_0 .

Hence given a root system, there exist only a finitely many Chevalley groups in the isogeny class.

Definition 1.25. The group $G(X^0, \Phi)$ is called simply connected group of type Φ . The group $G(X_0, \Phi)$ is called adjoint group of type Φ . (Note that the center of $G(X_0, \Phi)$ is trivial.)

1.4 Construction of Chevalley groups: simply connected type. Let Φ be a root system and let \mathfrak{g} be a semi-simple Lie algebra determined by Φ . Hence

$$\mathfrak{g}=\mathfrak{h}\oplus\sum_{lpha\in\Phi}\mathfrak{g}_lpha,$$

where $\dim \mathfrak{g}_{\alpha} = 1$ for each $\alpha \in \Phi$. Let $\Delta = \{\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_l\}$ be simple roots; $l = \dim \mathfrak{h}$. For each α , let $H'_{\alpha} \in \mathfrak{h}$ such that $(H, H'_{\alpha}) = \alpha(H)$ for all $H \in \mathfrak{h}$. Define $H_{\alpha} = \frac{2}{(\alpha, \alpha)} H'_{\alpha}$, and write H_i for H_{α_i} .

Theorem 1.26 (Existence of Chevalley basis). Given the H_i , i = 1, ..., l, chosen above, one can find $E_{\alpha} \in \mathfrak{g}_{\alpha}$, $E_{\alpha} \neq 0$, for each $\alpha \in \Phi$ such that H_i , E_{α} together form a basis for \mathfrak{g} relative to which the equations of structure are as follows:

- (1) $[H_i, H_j] = 0$
- $(2) [H_i, E_\alpha] = c_{\alpha_i, \alpha} E_\alpha$
- (3) $[E_{\alpha}, E_{-\alpha}] = H_{\alpha} = integral \ combination \ of \ H_i$'s
- (4) $[E_{\alpha}, E_{\beta}] = \pm (r+1)E_{\alpha+\beta}$ if $\alpha + \beta$ is a root, where r is such that $\beta r\alpha$ is a root, and $\beta (r+1)\alpha$ is not a root.
- (5) $[E_{\alpha}, E_{\beta}] = 0$ if $\alpha + \beta \neq 0$ and $\alpha + \beta \neq 0$ is not a root.

When r=0, all roots in Φ have the same lengths and Φ is called simply laced root system. They are root systems of type A-D-E. In this case, we can determine the sign in (4) easily: Let $[E_{\alpha}, E_{\beta}] = s_{\alpha\beta}E_{\alpha+\beta}$ if $\alpha+\beta \in \Phi$. Let $A=(c_{\alpha_i,\alpha_j})=B+{}^tB$ be the Cartan matrix. Here B is an upper triangular matrix. It gives rise to an integral valued bilinear form $B(\alpha, \beta)$ such that $(\alpha, \beta) = B(\alpha) + B(\beta, \alpha)$ and

$$B(\alpha_i, \alpha_j) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}(\alpha_i, \alpha_j), & \text{if } i = j \\ 0, & \text{if } i > j \\ (\alpha_i, \alpha_j), & \text{if } i < j \end{cases}$$

Then $s_{\alpha\beta} = (-1)^{B(\alpha,\beta)}$.

Since E_{α} is nilpotent, the exponential map $exp(E_{\alpha})$ is well-defined. For $t \in \bar{F}$, let $e_{\alpha}(t) = exp(tE_{\alpha})$ for each $\alpha \in \Phi$. Let $U_{\alpha} = \{e_{\alpha}(t) : t \in \bar{F}\}$.

Theorem 1.27. The simply connected Chevalley group $G = G(X^0, \Phi)$ is generated by U_{α} for all $\alpha \in \Phi$.

For $t \in \bar{F}^*$, let $w_{\alpha}(t) = e_{\alpha}(t)e_{-\alpha}(t^{-1})e_{\alpha}(t)$ and $h_{\alpha}(t) = w_{\alpha}(t)w_{\alpha}(1)^{-1}$. Then $\alpha^{\vee}(t) = h_{\alpha}(t)$.

Let **U** be the subgroup of **G** generated by U_{α} for all $\alpha \in \Phi_+$, and let **T** be the subgroup of **G** generated by all $h_{\alpha}(t)$, $\alpha \in \Phi$. Let **B** be the group generated by **U** and **T**. Then **B** = **T** · **U** (semi-direct product) and **T** \cap **U** = $\{e\}$.

Theorem 1.28. B is a Borel subgroup (maximal connected solvable subgroup of G) and T is a maximal torus.

Example 1.29. Suppose $\mathfrak{g} = sl(2)$. Then $\Phi = \{\alpha, -\alpha\}$ and

$$H_{\alpha} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad E_{\alpha} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad E_{-\alpha} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$h_{\alpha}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} t & 0 \\ 0 & t^{-1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad e_{\alpha}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad w_{\alpha}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & t \\ -t^{-1} & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We will use the following proposition to reduce many calculations on G to those of SL(2).

Proposition 1.30. If $\alpha \in \Phi$, there exists an injective homomorphism $\phi_{\alpha} : SL(2) \longrightarrow \mathbf{G}$ such that

$$\phi_{\alpha} \begin{pmatrix} t & 0 \\ 0 & t^{-1} \end{pmatrix} = h_{\alpha}(t), \quad \phi_{\alpha} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = e_{\alpha}(t), \quad \phi_{\alpha} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = w_{\alpha}(1).$$

Let F be a p-adic field and \mathcal{O} be its ring of integers. Let K be the subgroup of $\mathbf{G}(F)$ generated by $\{e_{\alpha}(t): t \in \mathcal{O}, \alpha \in \Phi\}$. Then K is a maximal compact subgroup of $\mathbf{G}(F)$, and $\mathbf{G}(F) = K\mathbf{B}(F)$ (Iwasawa decomposition). We usually denote K by $\mathbf{G}(\mathcal{O})$.

Note that any $t \in \mathbf{T}$ can be written uniquely $t = \prod_{i=1}^l h_{\alpha_i}(t_i), t_i \in \bar{F}^*$. So the center of \mathbf{G} is given by

$$Z(G) = \{ \prod_{i=1}^{l} h_{\alpha_i}(t_i) : \prod_{i=1}^{l} t_i^{(\beta_j, \alpha_i)} = 1, \text{ for all } \beta_j \in \Delta \}.$$

Example 1.31. Let $\mathbf{G} = Spin(2n)$ be the simply connected group of type D_n . The simple roots are $\Delta = \{\alpha_1 = e_1 - e_2, ..., \alpha_{n-3} = e_{n-3} - e_{n-2}, \alpha_{n-1} = e_{n-1} - e_n, \alpha_n = e_{n-1} + e_n\}$. Then

$$Z(G) = \begin{cases} \{ \prod_{i=1}^{n-2} h_{\alpha_i}((-1)^i) h_{\alpha_{n-1}}(-t) h_{\alpha_n}(t), \text{ and } h_{\alpha_{n-1}}(t) h_{\alpha_n}(t) : t^2 = 1 \}, & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ \{ h_{\alpha_1}(t^2) \cdots h_{\alpha_{n-2}}(t^{2(n-2)}) h_{\alpha_{n-1}}(t) h_{\alpha_n}(t^3) : t^4 = 1 \}, & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

We set $c = h_{\alpha_{n-1}}(-1)h_{\alpha_n}(-1)$, and

$$z = \begin{cases} \prod_{i=1}^{n-2} h_{\alpha_i}((-1)^i) h_{\alpha_{n-1}}(-1), & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ \prod_{i=1}^{n-2} h_{\alpha_i}((-1)^i) h_{\alpha_{n-1}}(\sqrt{-1}) h_{\alpha_n}(\sqrt{-1}), & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

Note that $c = z^2$ if n is odd. Hence $Z(G) \simeq \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$ if n is odd, and $Z(G) \simeq \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ if n is even. This fact implies that when n is odd, there is, up to isomorphism, a unique non simply-connected, non-adjoint group of type D_n , namely, SO(2n). However, when n is even, there are two non-isomorphic, non simply-connected, non-adjoint group of type D_n ; one is $SO(2n) \simeq Spin(2n)/\{1, c\}$. The other is $HS(2n) \simeq Spin(2n)/\{1, z\}$, the so-called half-spin group.

1.5 Structure of parabolic subgroups. Let $\mathbf{G} = G(X^0, \Phi)$ be the simply connected Chevalley group, which corresponds to a root system Φ . Let \mathbf{T} be a maximal torus.

Theorem 1.32. There is a one to one correspondence between Borel subgroups containing \mathbf{T} and fundamental systems Δ of Φ . The correspondence is $\mathbf{B} = B_{\Delta} \longleftrightarrow \Delta \subset \Phi$;

$$B_{\Delta} = \mathbf{T} \cdot \prod_{\alpha \in \Phi_{+}} U_{\alpha},$$

where Φ_+ is the set of positive roots in Φ determined by Δ .

From now on we fix a Borel subgroup **B**, i.e., a fundamental system Δ .

Definition 1.33. A subgroup of G which contains a Borel subgroup is called parabolic subgroup of G.

Theorem 1.34. There is a one to one correspondence between parabolic subgroups P containing B_{Δ} and subset $\theta \subset \Delta$. The correspondence is $P = P_{\theta} \longleftrightarrow \theta \subset \Delta$;

$$P_{\theta} = G(\Sigma_{\theta}) \cdot T_{\theta} \cdot U_{\theta}^{+} = M_{\theta} N_{\theta},$$

where $M_{\theta} = G(\Sigma_{\theta}) \cdot T_{\theta}$ is the Levi subgroup of P_{θ} , and $N_{\theta} = U_{\theta}^{+} = \prod_{\alpha \in \Phi_{+} - \Sigma_{\theta}^{+}} U_{\alpha}$ is the unipotent radical of P_{θ} , where $\Sigma_{\theta}^{+} = \{\theta\}_{\mathbb{Z}} \cap \Phi_{+}$. Here $T_{\theta} = (\cap_{\alpha \in \theta} \ker \alpha)^{0}$, the subtorus of \mathbf{T} annihilated by θ , and $G(\Sigma_{\theta})$ is the subgroup generated by U_{α} , $\alpha \in \Sigma_{\theta} = \{\theta\}_{\mathbb{Z}} \cap \Phi$

Lemma 1.35 (additional properties of parabolic subgroups).

- (1) M_{θ} is the centralizer of T_{θ} in \mathbf{G} , i.e., T_{θ} is the connected component of the center of M_{θ} .
- (2) $G(\Sigma_{\theta})$ is the derived group of M_{θ} .
- (3) $T_{\theta} \cap G(\Sigma(\theta))$ is finite.
- (4) $G(\Sigma_{\theta})$ is simply connected.

Especially, the Borel subgroup **B** corresponds to the empty set in Δ . Also note that if $\theta_1 \subset \theta_2 \subset \Delta$, then $P_{\theta_1} \subset P_{\theta_2}$. If $\theta = \Delta - \{\alpha\}$ for $\alpha \in \Delta$, $\mathbf{P} = P_{\theta}$ is called a maximal parabolic subgroup.

Examples 1.36. (1) $\mathbf{G} = Sp(2n)$; $\Delta = \{e_1 - e_2, e_2 - e_3, ..., e_{n-1} - e_n, 2e_n\}$. Let $\theta = \Delta - \{2e_n\}$. Then $\mathbf{T} = \{diag(t_1, ..., t_n, t_n^{-1}, ..., t_1^{-1})\}$ and $T_{\theta} = \{diag(t_1, ..., t_n^{-1}, ..., t^{-1})\}$. Hence $P_{\theta} = M_{\theta}N_{\theta}$, $M_{\theta} = \{diag(A, -J_n{}^tA^{-1}J_n) : A \in GL(n)\}$. This is called Siegel parabolic subgroup.

We need the following three examples for our proof of the functoriality of symmetric cube.

(2) $(E_6-1 \text{ case})$ Let \mathbf{G} be a simply connected group of type E_6 . Let $\theta = \Delta - \{\alpha_3\}$. Let $P_{\theta} = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{N}$ and \mathbf{A} be the connected component of the center of \mathbf{M} . Then $\mathbf{A} = \{a(t) : t \in \overline{F}^*\}$, where

$$a(t) = h_{\alpha_1}(t^2)h_{\alpha_2}(t^4)h_{\alpha_3}(t^6)h_{\alpha_4}(t^4)h_{\alpha_5}(t^2)h_{\alpha_6}(t^3).$$

By Lemma 1.35, the derived group \mathbf{M}_D of \mathbf{M} is simply connected, and hence $\mathbf{M}_D \simeq SL_3 \times SL_3 \times SL_2$. We identify \mathbf{A} with GL_1 . We fix an identification of \mathbf{M}_D

and $SL_3 \times SL_3 \times SL_2$ under which the element $h_{\alpha_1}(t)h_{\alpha_2}(t^2)$ goes to the diagonal element $diag(t, t, t^{-2})$ of SL_3 , $h_{\alpha_4}(t^2)h_{\alpha_5}(t)$ to $diag(t, t, t^{-2})$ of SL_3 , and $h_{\alpha_6}(t)$ to $diag(t, t^{-1})$ of SL_2 . We define a map $\bar{f}: \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{M}_D \longrightarrow GL_1 \times GL_1 \times GL_1 \times SL_3 \times SL_3 \times SL_2$ by

$$\bar{f}:(a(t),x,y,z)\longmapsto (t^2,t^2,t^3,x,y,z).$$

Now, $\mathbf{M} \simeq (GL_1 \times SL_3 \times SL_3 \times SL_2)/S$, where

$$S = \{(a(t), t^2I_3, t^2I_3, t^3I_2) : t^6 = 1\}.$$

We obtain an injection $f: \mathbf{M} \longrightarrow GL_3 \times GL_3 \times GL_2$ so that

$$f(h_{\alpha_3}(t)) = (diag(1,1,t), diag(1,1,t), diag(1,t)).$$

Since f is rational, it induces an injection

$$f: \mathbf{M}(\mathbb{A}) \longrightarrow GL_3(\mathbb{A}) \times GL_3(\mathbb{A}) \times GL_2(\mathbb{A}),$$

such that $\mathbf{M}(\mathbb{A})(\mathbb{A}^*)^2$ is co-compact in $GL_3(\mathbb{A}) \times GL_3(\mathbb{A}) \times GL_2(\mathbb{A})$, where $(\mathbb{A}^*)^2$ is embedded as a center of the first two factors.

(3) $(E_7-1 \text{ case})$ Let **G** be a simply connected group of type E_7 . Let $\theta = \Delta - \{\alpha_4\}$. Let $P_\theta = \mathbf{MN}$. Then $\mathbf{A} = \{a(t) : t \in \overline{F}^*\}$, where

$$a(t) = h_{\alpha_1}(t^3) h_{\alpha_2}(t^6) h_{\alpha_3}(t^9) h_{\alpha_4}(t^{12}) h_{\alpha_5}(t^8) h_{\alpha_6}(t^4) h_{\alpha_7}(t^6).$$

By Lemma 1.35, the derived group \mathbf{M}_D of \mathbf{M} is simply connected, and hence $\mathbf{M}_D \simeq SL_2 \times SL_3 \times SL_4$. Now we proceed exactly the same way as in $E_6 - 1$ case; under the identification of \mathbf{M}_D with $SL_2 \times SL_3 \times SL_4$, $\mathbf{M} \simeq (GL_1 \times SL_2 \times SL_3 \times SL_4)/S$, where

$$S = \{(a(t), t^{6}I_{2}, t^{4}I_{3}, t^{3}I_{4}) : t^{12} = 1\}.$$

We also construct an injection $f: \mathbf{M} \longrightarrow GL_2 \times GL_3 \times GL_4$ so that

$$f(h_{\alpha_4}(t)) = (diag(1, t), diag(1, 1, t), diag(1, 1, 1, t)).$$

(4) $(D_n - 2 \text{ case})$ Let $\mathbf{G} = Spin(2n)$ be a split spin group and $\theta = \Delta - \{\alpha_{n-2}\}$. Let $P_{\theta} = \mathbf{MN}$: $\mathbf{A} = \{a(t) : t \in \overline{F}^*\}$, where

$$a(t) = \begin{cases} h_{\alpha_1}(t)h_{\alpha_2}(t^2)\cdots h_{\alpha_{n-2}}(t^{n-2})h_{\alpha_{n-1}}(t^{\frac{n-2}{2}})h_{\alpha_n}(t^{\frac{n-2}{2}}), & \text{if } n \text{ even} \\ h_{\alpha_1}(t^2)h_{\alpha_2}(t^4)\cdots h_{\alpha_{n-2}}(t^{2(n-2)})h_{\alpha_{n-1}}(t^{n-2})h_{\alpha_n}(t^{n-2}), & \text{if } n \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

By Lemma 1.35, the derived group \mathbf{M}_D of \mathbf{M} is simply connected, and hence $\mathbf{M}_D \simeq SL_{n-2} \times SL_2 \times SL_2$. As in the above, we have, $\mathbf{M} \simeq (GL_1 \times SL_{n-2} \times SL_2 \times SL_2)/S$, where

$$S = \begin{cases} \{(a(t), tI_{n-2}, t^{\frac{n-2}{2}}I_2, t^{\frac{n-2}{2}}I_2) : t^{n-2} = 1\}, & \text{if } n \text{ even} \\ \{(a(t), t^2I_{n-2}, t^{n-2}I_2, t^{n-2}I_2) : t^{2(n-2)} = 1\}, & \text{if } n \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

We obtain an injection $f: \mathbf{M} \longrightarrow GL_{n-2} \times GL_2 \times GL_2$ so that

$$f(h_{\alpha_{n-2}}(t)) = (diag(1, ..., 1, t), diag(1, t), diag(1, t)).$$

We need the following example for our proof of the functoriality of symmetric fourth.

(5) $(D_n - 3 \text{ case})$ Let $\mathbf{G} = Spin(2n)$ be a split spin group and $\theta = \Delta - \{\alpha_{n-3}\}$. Let $P_{\theta} = \mathbf{MN}$: $\mathbf{A} = \{a(t) : t \in \overline{F}^*\}$, where

$$a(t) = \begin{cases} h_{\alpha_1}(t^2)h_{\alpha_2}(t^4)\cdots h_{\alpha_{n-3}}(t^{2(n-3)})h_{\alpha_{n-2}}(t^{2(n-3)})h_{\alpha_{n-1}}(t^{n-3})h_{\alpha_n}(t^{n-3}), & \text{if } n \text{ even} \\ h_{\alpha_1}(t)h_{\alpha_2}(t^2)\cdots h_{\alpha_{n-3}}(t^{n-3})h_{\alpha_{n-2}}(t^{n-3})h_{\alpha_{n-1}}(t^{\frac{n-3}{2}})h_{\alpha_n}(t^{\frac{n-3}{2}}), & \text{if } n \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

By Lemma 1.35, the derived group \mathbf{M}_D of \mathbf{M} is simply connected, and hence $\mathbf{M}_D \simeq SL_{n-3} \times SL_4$. Now, $\mathbf{M} \simeq (GL_1 \times SL_{n-3} \times SL_4)/S$, where

$$S = \begin{cases} \{(a(t), t^2 I_{n-3}, t^{n-3} I_4) : t^{2(n-3)} = 1\}, & \text{if } n \text{ even} \\ \{(a(t), t I_{n-3}, t^{\frac{n-3}{2}} I_4) : t^{n-3} = 1\}, & \text{if } n \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

We obtain an injection $f: \mathbf{M} \longrightarrow GL_{n-3} \times GL_4$ so that

$$f(h_{\alpha_{n-3}}(t)) = (diag(1,...,1,t), diag(1,1,t,t)).$$

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