Classification of Nilpotent Orbits

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1 Introduction

The goal of this exposition is to prove that the number of nilpotent orbits in a lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is finite. We begin by showing there is a one to one correspondence between certain conjugacy classes of the adjoint action and nonzero nilpotent orbits. We further show that there is also a one to one correspondence between the aforementioned conjugacy classes and certain semisimple orbits, these semisimple orbits will ultimately be shown to be finite via their corresponding weighted Dynkin diagrams.

From now on, we let ${\mathfrak g}$ be a Lie algebra and ${\mathfrak h}$ its Cartan subalgebra.

Definition 1.1. A standard triple in \mathfrak{g} is a three dimensional subalgebra isomorphic to $\mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C})$.

Remark 1.2. Any root vector X_{α} for a given root α yields a standard triple, denoted $\{H_{\alpha}, Y_{\alpha}, X_{\alpha}\}$ such that

- $[H_{\alpha}, Y_{\alpha}] = -2Y_{\alpha}$
- $[H_{\alpha}, X_{\alpha}] = 2X_{\alpha}$
- $[X_{\alpha}, Y_{\alpha}] = H_{\alpha}$

Definition 1.3. We denote by \mathcal{A}_{triple} the set of G_{ad} conjugacy classes of standard triples in \mathfrak{g} .

Define $\Omega: \mathcal{A}_{triple} \longrightarrow \{ \text{non zero nilpotent orbits in } \mathfrak{g} \} \text{ via } \Omega(\{H, X, Y\}) = \mathcal{O}_X$

2 Bijectivity of Ω

2.1 Surjectivity

Theorem 2.1. (Jacobson-Morozov) if \mathfrak{g} is complex semisimple, X a nonzero nilpotent element then there exists a standard triple $\{H, X, Y\}$ such that X corresponds to $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C})$. We call X the nilpositive element.

Proof. By induction on the dimension of \mathfrak{g} . If $\dim \mathfrak{g} = 3$, then \mathfrak{g} is isomorphic to $\mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C})$ and the result holds true. Assume now that the dimension is greater than three. If X were to be contained in a proper subalgebra of \mathfrak{g} , then by inductive hypothesis the statement holds true, so assume that X does not lie in any proper subalgebra of \mathfrak{g} .

denoting by κ the Killing form of \mathfrak{g} and \mathfrak{g}^X the centralizer of X in \mathfrak{g} , we know by [1, Lemma 1.3.9, page 13] that $\kappa(X, \mathfrak{g}^X) = 0$. This implies that $X \in (\mathfrak{g}^X)^{\perp} = [\mathfrak{g}, X]$.

Choose an $H' \in \mathfrak{g}$ such that [H', X] = 2X, this H' can be assumed to be semisimple, since any nilpotent element acting on $\mathbb{C}X$ has eigenvalues 0 and the Jordan decomposition of $H' = H'_s + H'_n$ implies that $[H'_S, X] = 2X$ and $[H'_n, X] = 0$.

Picking $H = H'_s$, we claim that $H \in [\mathfrak{g}, X]$

Proof. of claim: assume $H \notin [\mathfrak{g}, X]$ i.e $\kappa(H, \mathfrak{g}^X) \neq 0$. We consider the eigenspace decomposition of \mathfrak{g}^X , this exists due to the facts that ad_H leaves \mathfrak{g}^X invariant and acts semisimply, denote this decomposition as

$$\mathfrak{g}^X = \mathfrak{g}_0^X \oplus \bigoplus \mathfrak{g}_{\tau_i}^X \tag{1}$$

notice that $g_0^X = \{Z \in \mathfrak{g}^X | [H, Z] = 0\}$, allowing us to rewrite the decomposition

$$\mathfrak{g}^X = (\mathfrak{g}^X)^H \oplus \bigoplus \mathfrak{g}^X_{\tau_i}.$$
 (2)

We can find some $Z \in (\mathfrak{g}^X)^H$ such that $\kappa(H, Z) \neq 0$, this follows from the fact that the Killing form is non-degenerate and that for any $Z_i \in \mathfrak{g}_{\tau_i}$

$$0 = \kappa(H, [H, Z_i]) = \kappa(H, \tau_i Z_i) = \tau_i \kappa(H, Z_i).$$
(3)

It is evident that given such a $Z \in (\mathfrak{g}^X)^H$, the semisimple part Z_s of Z is not trivial, since otherwise Z is nilpotent and therefore $\kappa(H, Z) = 0$. By [1], we know that \mathfrak{g}^{Z_s} is reductive and therefore $[\mathfrak{g}^{Z_s}, \mathfrak{g}^{Z_s}]$ is a semisimple

By [1], we know that \mathfrak{g}^{2s} is reductive and therefore $[\mathfrak{g}^{2s}, \mathfrak{g}^{2s}]$ is a semisimple proper subalgebra of \mathfrak{g} .

This is ultimately a contradiction to X not being in any proper subalgebra of \mathfrak{g} , observe that both $H, X \in \mathfrak{g}^{Z_s}$, i.e $[H, X] = 2X \in [\mathfrak{g}^{Z_s}, \mathfrak{g}^{Z_s}]$. In conclusion, $H \in [\mathfrak{g}, X]$, which proves our claim.

Pick some $Y \in \mathfrak{g}$ such that H = [X, Y] and consider the eigenspace decomposition of $\mathfrak{g} = \bigoplus \mathfrak{g}_{\lambda_i}$. This allows us to write $Y = \bigoplus Y_i$ for $Y_i \in \mathfrak{g}_{\lambda_i}$. Keeping in mind that $H \in \mathfrak{g}_0$, and by the theory of $\mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C})$

$$H = [X, Y] = [H, Y_{-2}] \implies [H, Y] = -2Y.$$
 (4)

Therefore $\{H, X, Y\}$ is a standard triple and the map Ω is surjective.

2.2 Injectivity

Remark 2.2. • The restriction of κ on \mathfrak{g}^H is non degenerate

• \mathfrak{g}^X admits a decomposition of the form $\bigoplus_{i>0} \mathfrak{g}^X_i$

Lemma 2.3. Any two standard triples H, X, Y and H, X, Y' with identical H, X have identical Y.

Proof. Y - Y' is evidently in the -2-eigenspace of the ad_H , however it also in \mathfrak{g}^X , since [X, Y - Y'] = [X, Y] - [X, Y'] = H - H = 0. By the remark above we know that $\mathfrak{g}^X \cap \mathfrak{g}_{-2} = \{0\}$. This completes the proof

The following results and definitions are important for the injectivity of Ω , however are above the scope of this presentation and deal with the theory of Lie groups and their geometric aspects, a detailed account of the theory can be found in [2]

Lemma 2.4. *let* X *be a nonzero nilpotent element of a semisimple* \mathfrak{g} *, defining* $\mathfrak{u}^X = \mathfrak{g}^X \cap [\mathfrak{g}, X]$ *, it is an* ad_H *-invariant nilpotent ideal of* \mathfrak{g}^X *and* $\mathfrak{u}^X = \bigoplus_{i>0} \mathfrak{g}_i^X$ *.*

Lemma 2.5. Denoting with U^X the lie algebra of u^X , there is a diffeomorphism between \mathfrak{u}^X and U^X and $H + \mathfrak{u}^X = U^X H$

Theorem 2.6. (Kostant) For any two standard triples $\{H', X, Y'\}$ and $\{H, X, Y\}$ with the same nilpositive element X there exists an $x \in U^X$ such that xH = H', xX = X, xY = Y', i.e Ω is injective.

3 The Distinguished Semisimple Orbits

Definition 3.1. Define the map $\mathcal{Y} : \mathcal{A}_{triple} \longrightarrow \{semisimple \ orbits\}$ via $\mathcal{Y}(\{H, X, Y\}) = \mathcal{O}_H$

Definition 3.2. We denote by $S_{dist} = Image(\mathcal{Y})$ the distinguished semisimple orbits

Theorem 3.3. The map \mathcal{Y} is a one to one correspondence between \mathcal{A}_{triple} and S_{dist}

3.1 \mathcal{Y} is injective

Theorem 3.4. (Mal'cev) Any two standard triples with the same neutral element H are conjugate by an element of $(G_{ad}^H)^{\circ}$

Proof. Denote the two standard triples with $\{H, X, Y\}$ and $\{H, X', Y'\}$ and write $\mathfrak{g} = \bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathfrak{g}_i$.

Define $\rho = \{Z \in \mathfrak{g}_2 | \mathfrak{g}^Z \cap \mathfrak{g}_{-2} = 0\}$ By the following computation it suffices to show that $(G_{ad}^H)^\circ$ acts transitively on ρ :

$$Z \in \rho \iff \mathfrak{g}^Z \cap \mathfrak{g}_{-2} = 0 \iff x(\mathfrak{g}^Z \cap \mathfrak{g}_{-2}) \iff \mathfrak{g}^{xZ} \cap x\mathfrak{g}_{-2} = 0$$
$$\iff \mathfrak{g}^{xZ} \cap \mathfrak{g}_{-2} = 0 \iff xZ \in \rho$$

claim 1: ρ is path connected and open in \mathfrak{g}_2

Proof. of claim 1: Define $T : \mathfrak{g}_2 \longrightarrow Hom(\mathfrak{g}_{-2}, \mathfrak{g}_0)$ via $T(Z) = ad_Z$. We notice that $Image(T(z)) = [Z, \mathfrak{g}_{-2}]$ and $Kernel(T(z)) = \mathfrak{g}_{-2} \cap \mathfrak{g}^Z$, thus

$$Z \in \rho \iff \mathfrak{g}_{-2} \cap \mathfrak{g}^Z = 0 \iff Kernel(T(z)) = 0$$
$$\iff dim(Image(T(z)) = dim(\mathfrak{g}_{-2})$$

In conclusion, T(Z) must have full rank and is thus Zariski open in \mathfrak{g}_{-2} . It is path connected due to the fact that $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ is path connected and there are only finitely many λ such that $\lambda A + (1 - \lambda)B \notin \rho$.

claim 2: Each $(G_a d^H)^\circ$ orbit in ρ is open and closed.

Proof. of claim 2: if $Z \subset \mathfrak{g}_{-2}$, then $[\mathfrak{g}^Z, Z] = 0$, thus

$$0 = \kappa([\mathfrak{g}^Z \cap \mathfrak{g}_0, Z, \mathfrak{g}_{-2}] = \kappa(\mathfrak{g}^Z \cap \mathfrak{g}_0, [Z, \mathfrak{g}_{-2}].$$

Meaning $[Z, \mathfrak{g}_{-2}] \in (\mathfrak{g}^Z \cap \mathfrak{g}_0)^{\perp} \cap \mathfrak{g}_0$, allowing us to compute that

 $dim((G_a d^H)^{\circ} Z) = dim(\mathfrak{g}_0 - dim(\mathfrak{g}_0) \cap \mathfrak{g}^Z) \ge dim(\mathfrak{g}_0) - dim(\mathfrak{g}_0) + dim(\mathfrak{g}_2) = dim(\mathfrak{g}_2)$

where the last inequality follows from the dimension formula for vector spaces and the computation above.

In conclusion, every orbit in ρ has full dimension, i.e it is open. Since the complement of an orbit is the union of orbits, they are also closed.

 ρ is therefore a single orbit since it is path connected and the proof is complete. $\hfill \Box$

4 Weighted Dynkin Diagrams

Fix a positive root system Φ^+ and a base of simple roots Δ

Definition 4.1. The Borel subalgebra containing \mathfrak{h} is $\mathfrak{b} = \mathfrak{h} \oplus \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \Phi^+} \mathfrak{g}_{\alpha}$. De-

note by $\overline{\mathfrak{b}}$ the analog of the Borel subalgebra but going over the negative roots.

Definition 4.2. We call a $Z \in \mathfrak{h} \Delta$ -dominant if $\alpha(Z)$ is real and non-negative for all $\alpha \in \Delta$.

By the non-degeneracy of κ , we can identify any $H \in \mathfrak{h}$ with an $H^* \in \mathfrak{h}^*$. Coupled with the fact that Δ is a basis of \mathfrak{h}^* , the values of $\alpha(H)$ for $\alpha \in \Delta$ completely determine H.

Since $\mathfrak{g} = \bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathfrak{g}_i$, H is both Δ -dominant and integral, therefore $\alpha(H) \in \mathbb{N}$ for all $\alpha \in \Delta$.

The fact that $Y \in \mathfrak{g}_{-2}$ implies that $[X_{\alpha}, Y] \in \overline{\mathfrak{b}}$

- if $[X_{\alpha}, Y] = 0$, then $X_{\alpha} \in \mathfrak{g}^{Y}$, i.e. $\alpha(H) = 0$
- if $[X_{\alpha}, Y] \neq 0$, then the ad_H -eigenvalue of $[X_{\alpha}, Y] = \alpha(H) 2$ therefore $\alpha(H) 2 \in -\mathbb{N}$. This in total implies that $\alpha(H) = \{0, 1, 2\}$.

If we label every node of the Dynkin diagram of \mathfrak{g} with the eigenvalue $\alpha(H)$ on the corresponding root space \mathfrak{g}_{α} , we obtain at most $3^{rank\mathfrak{g}}$ different Dynkin diagrams, called the weighed Dynkin diagrams of \mathcal{O}_X denoted by $\Delta(\mathcal{O}_X)$.

Theorem 4.3. (Kostant) The weighted Dynkin diagrams of a nilpotent orbit is an invariant, i.e. $\Delta(\mathcal{O}') = \Delta(\mathcal{O}) \iff \mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}'$ for any two nilpotent $\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{O}'$

Proof. " \Leftarrow " is evident

" \Rightarrow if $\Delta(\mathcal{O}') = \Delta(\mathcal{O})$, then there exist two standard triples $\{H, X, Y\}$ and $\{H', X', Y'\}$ with nilpotent X, X'. The neutral elements can be chosen to be identical, thus by Mal'cev's theorem we can choose Y and Y' to be conjugate.

Remark 4.4. While the above chapters indeed give us an upper bound for the number of nilpotent orbits, it is very coarse and not easy to work with. For example the number of nilpotent orbits in E_8 is 70, but 3^8 is a much bigger number.

5 Examples

In this section, we will focus on \mathfrak{sl}_n . While the example does not follow the theory explained above, it gives us the exact number of nilpotent orbits in \mathfrak{sl}_n and is a very enlightening example.

5.1 Counting Orbits in \mathfrak{sl}_n

Definition 5.1. *let* $n \in \mathbb{N}$ *, a partition of* n *is a tuple* $[d_1, ..., d_k]$ *such that*

- $d_1 \ge d_2 \ge \dots \ge d_k \ge 0$
- $\sum d_i = n$

We say two partitions $[d_1, .., d_k]$ and $[p_1, .., p_n]$ are equivalent if and only if $p_i = d_i$ for all $p_i, d_i > 0$

Definition 5.2. the set of all partitions of n is denoted by $\mathcal{P}(n)$

We recall the definition of a Jordan block of type i from basic linear algebra: Construct the $i\times i$ matrix of the form

$$J_{d_i} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & \dots & \\ 0 & \ddots & 1 & \dots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Let $[d_1, \ldots, d_k] \in \mathcal{P}(n)$ such that $d_k > 0$, we can construct the Jordan normal form associated to the partition via:

$$X_{[d_1,\ldots,d_k]} = \begin{pmatrix} J_{d_1} & 0 & \ldots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \ldots & J_{d_k} \end{pmatrix}$$

This matrix is both nilpotent and has trace zero, therefore it is a nilpotent element of \mathfrak{sl}_n . Notice by the uniqueness of the Jordan normal form that any two distinct partitions of n define disjoint nilpotent orbits. Thus we can conclude

 $|\mathcal{P}(n)| \leq |\{\text{nilpotent orbits in } \mathfrak{sl}_n\}|.$

To show the other inequality, \geq , it suffices to recall that any element X can be brought to its unique Jordan normal form. If X is chosen to be nilpotent, then the eigenvalues of X are all 0, however the eigenvalues of an upper triangular matrix are the elements on the diagonal. This concludes the statement.

5.2 \mathfrak{sl}_4 explicitly

We count how many different partitions the number 4 has, giving us

$$\mathcal{P}(4) = \{[4], [3, 1], [2, 2], [2, 1, 1], [1, 1, 1, 1]\}$$
(5)

This gives us 5 distinct nilpotent orbits, the most obvious representatives being

The next question we could try answering is how big is the dimension of each of those orbits? While the dimension corresponding to the orbit of [1, 1, 1, 1] is evidently zero, it is unclear which (if any) of the non-trivial Orbits are maximal/minimal and what their dimensions might be.

It can be shown that there exists a non-trivial nilpotent orbit of minimal dimension and that its dimension is $1+|\{\text{positive roots not orthogonal to the highest root}\}|$ [1], applied to our case of \mathfrak{sl}_4 , we obtain that the dimension is 6.

5.3 Examples of Weighted Dynkin Diagrams

We assume some knowledge of Dynkin diagrams and conclude this exposition by giving out some examples of the weighted Dynkin diagrams for some of common Lie algebras.

We've seen by [3, Theorem 3.1] the exact classification of Dynkin diagrams for irreducible root systems up to isomorphism. Replacing in A_l, B_l, C_l, D_l and E_l the position of each node with it's potential Eigenvalue, we obtain



Example 5.3. We concretely draw A_2, B_2, C_3 and D_4 .



References

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