Dechant, Pierre-Philippe ORCID logoORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4694-4010 (2017) A Clifford algebraic approach to reflection groups and root systems. In: Yau Institute Seminar in Geometry and Physics, 10th August 2017, Yau Mathematical Sciences Center (YMSC), Tsinghua, China. (Unpublished)

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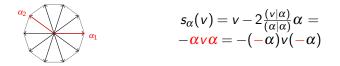
# A Clifford algebraic approach to reflection groups and root systems

Pierre-Philippe Dechant

Mathematics Department, University of York

Yau Institute Seminar in Geometry and Physics August 10th, 2017

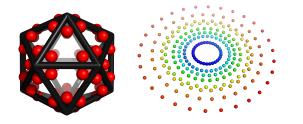
#### Reflection groups: a new approach



- Work at the level of root systems (which define reflection groups)
- Interested in non-crystallographic root systems e.g. viruses, fullerenes etc. But: no Lie algebra, so conventionally less studied
- Clifford algebra is a uniquely suitable framework for reflection groups/root systems: reflection formula, spinor double covers, complex/quaternionic quantities arising as geometric objects

#### Main results

- Framework for reflection, conformal, modular and braid groups
- New view on the geometry of the Coxeter plane
- Induction of exceptional root systems and ADE from Platonic symmetries
- Naturally defines a range of representations



Conclusions

# **Platonic Solids**



Platonic Solid	Group	root system	
Tetrahedron	A <sub>3</sub>	Cuboctahedron	
	$A_1^{\tilde{3}}$	Octahedron	
Octahedron	<i>B</i> <sub>3</sub>	Cuboctahedron	
Cube		+Octahedron	
Icosahedron	H <sub>3</sub>	Icosidodecahedron	
Dodecahedron			

• Platonic Solids have been known for millennia

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Conclusions

# **Platonic Solids**



Platonic Solid	Group	root system	
Tetrahedron	A <sub>3</sub>	Cuboctahedron	
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Cube		+Octahedron	
Icosahedron	H <sub>3</sub>	Icosidodecahedron	
Dodecahedron			

• Platonic Solids have been known for millennia

• Described by Coxeter groups

## 4D analogues of the Platonic Solids

- The 16-cell, 24-cell, 24-cell and dual 24-cell, the 600-cell and the 120-cell
- In higher dimensions there are only hypersimplices and hypercubes/octahedra  $(A_n \text{ and } B_n)$

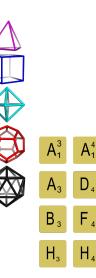








# **Platonic Solids**

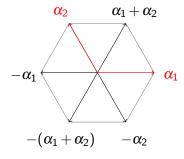


- Abundance of 4D root systems exceptional
- Concatenating 3D reflections gives 4D Clifford spinors (binary polyhedral groups)
- These induce 4D root systems

$$R = a_0 + a_1 e_2 e_3 + a_2 e_3 e_1 + a_3 e_1 e_2 \Rightarrow$$
  
$$R\tilde{R} = a_0^2 + a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2$$

• This construction accidental to 3D perhaps explains the unusual abundance of 4D root systems

#### Root systems



Root system  $\Phi$ : set of vectors  $\alpha$  in a vector space with an inner product such that 1.  $\Phi \cap \mathbb{R}\alpha = \{-\alpha, \alpha\} \ \forall \ \alpha \in \Phi$ 2.  $[s_{\alpha}\Phi = \Phi \ \forall \ \alpha \in \Phi]$ 

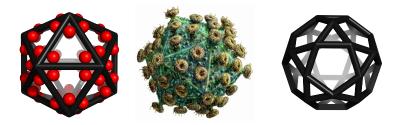
#### reflection groups

$$s_{lpha}: v 
ightarrow s_{lpha}(v) = v - 2 rac{(v|lpha)}{(lpha|lpha)} lpha$$

Simple roots: express every element of  $\Phi$  via a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -linear combination with coefficients of the same sign.

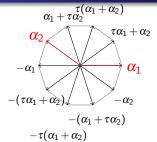
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#### The Icosahedron



- Rotational icosahedral group is  $I = A_5$  of order 60
- Full icosahedral group is H<sub>3</sub> of order 120 (including reflections/inversion); generated by the root system icosidodecahedron

#### Non-crystallographic Coxeter groups $H_2 \subset H_3 \subset H_4$





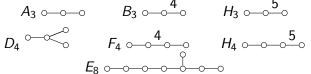
$\frown$	$\frown$	5 _		(2 - 10)
$\bigcirc$	-0-		A =	$-1 \ 2 \ -\tau$
			1	$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -\tau \\ 0 & -\tau & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

 $H_2 \subset H_3 \subset H_4$ : 10, 120, 14,400 elements, the only Coxeter groups that generate rotational symmetries of order 5. Linear combinations now in the extended integer ring

$$\boxed{\mathbb{Z}[\tau] = \{a + \tau b | a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}} \text{ golden ratio} \qquad \tau = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5}) = 2\cos\frac{\pi}{5}$$
$$\boxed{x^2 = x + 1} \qquad \tau' = \sigma = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \sqrt{5}) = 2\cos\frac{2\pi}{5} \qquad \tau + \sigma = 1, \tau \sigma = -1$$

### Cartan-Dynkin diagrams

Coxeter-Dynkin diagrams: node = simple root, no link = roots orthogonal i.e. angle  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ , simple link = roots at angle  $\frac{\pi}{3}$ , link with label m = angle  $\frac{\pi}{m}$ .  $A_2 \circ - \circ \qquad H_2 \circ \frac{5}{-} \circ \qquad I_2(n) \circ \frac{n}{-} \circ$  $A_3 \circ - \circ \qquad B_3 \circ - \frac{4}{-} \circ \qquad H_3 \circ - \frac{5}{-} \circ$ 



#### Polyhedral groups, Platonic solids and root systems

#### 2 Reflection groups with Clifford algebras

- A Clifford way of doing orthogonal transformations
- The geometry of the Coxeter plane
- Root system induction and ADE correspondences

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- Representations from multivector groups
- Conformal, modular and braid groups

### 3 Conclusions

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#### Clifford Algebra and orthogonal transformations

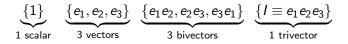
- Geometric Product for two vectors  $ab \equiv a \cdot b + a \wedge b$
- Inner product is symmetric part  $a \cdot b = \frac{1}{2}(ab+ba)$
- Reflecting *a* in *n* is given by  $a' = a 2(a \cdot n)n = -nan$  (*n* and -n doubly cover the same reflection)
- Via Cartan-Dieudonné theorem any orthogonal transformation can be written as successive reflections, which are doubly covered by Clifford versors/pinors A

$$x' = \pm n_1 n_2 \dots n_k x n_k \dots n_2 n_1 = \pm A x \tilde{A}$$

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Clifford Algebra of 3D: the relation with 4D and 8D

#### • Clifford (Pauli) algebra in 3D is



- We can multiply together root vectors in this algebra  $\alpha_i \alpha_j \dots$
- A general element has 8 components: 8D
- even products (rotations/spinors) have four components:

$$R = a_0 + a_1 e_2 e_3 + a_2 e_3 e_1 + a_3 e_1 e_2 \Rightarrow R\tilde{R} = a_0^2 + a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2$$

• So behaves as a 4D Euclidean object – inner product  $(R_1, R_2) = \frac{1}{2}(R_2\tilde{R_1} + R_1\tilde{R_2})$ 

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#### Spinors from reflections: easy example



• The 6 roots (±1,0,0) and permutations in  $A_1 \times A_1 \times A_1$ 

• 
$$\pm e_1, \pm e_2, \pm e_3$$
 generate group of 8 spinors  
 $\pm 1, \pm e_1e_2, \pm e_2e_3, \pm e_3e_1$ 

• This is a discrete spinor group isomorphic to the quaternion group Q.

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#### Pinors from reflections: easy example

$$\underbrace{\{\pm 1\}}_{1 \text{ scalar}} \quad \underbrace{\{\pm e_1, \pm e_2, \pm e_3\}}_{3 \text{ vectors}} \quad \underbrace{\{\pm e_1e_2, \pm e_2e_3, \pm e_3e_1\}}_{3 \text{ bivectors}} \quad \underbrace{\{\pm I \equiv e_1e_2e_3\}}_{1 \text{ trivector}}$$

- The pin group also of course contains  $\pm e_1, \pm e_2, \pm e_3$  and  $\pm e_1e_2e_3$
- So total pin group is a group of order 16
- Since  $e_1, e_2, e_3$  generate the inversion  $e_1e_2e_3$ , actually the 8 elements in the even subalgebra and the other 8 elements in the other 4D can be 'Hodge' dualised
- $\bullet$  So when the group contains the inversion  $Pin=Spin\times \mathbb{Z}_2$

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#### Spinors from reflections: icosahedral case

• The  $H_3$  root system has 30 roots e.g. simple roots

$$\alpha_1 = e_2, \alpha_2 = -\frac{1}{2}((\tau - 1)e_1 + e_2 + \tau e_3)$$
 and  $\alpha_3 = e_3$ 

- Subgroup of rotations  $A_5$  of order 60 is doubly covered by 120 spinors of the form  $\alpha_1 \alpha_2 = -\frac{1}{2}(1-(\tau-1)e_1e_2+\tau e_2e_3)$ ,  $\alpha_1 \alpha_3 = e_2e_3$  and  $\alpha_2 \alpha_3 = -\frac{1}{2}(\tau-(\tau-1)e_3e_1+e_2e_3)$ .
- The inclusion of the  $H_3$  inversion doubles this

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#### Polyhedral groups as multivector groups

Group	Discrete subgroup	Order	Action Mechanism
<i>SO</i> (3)	rotational (chiral)	G	$x  ightarrow  ilde{R} x R$
<i>O</i> (3)	reflection (full/Coxeter)	2 G	$x  ightarrow \pm  ilde{A} x A$
Spin(3)	binary	2 G	$(R_1,R_2) \rightarrow R_1R_2$
Pin(3)	pinory (?)	4  <i>G</i>	$(A_1,A_2) \rightarrow A_1A_2$

- e.g. the chiral icosahedral group has 60 elements, encoded by 120 spinors, which form the binary icosahedral group
- together with the inversion/pseudoscalar *I* this gives 60 rotations and 60 rotoinversions, i.e. the full icosahedral group *H*<sub>3</sub> in 120 elements doubly covered by 240 pinors

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Some Group Theory: chiral, full, binary, pin

- Easy to calculate conjugacy classes etc
- Chiral (binary) polyhedral groups have irreps
- tetrahedral (12/24): 1, 1', 1",  $2_s$ ,  $2'_s$ ,  $2''_s$ , 3
- octahedral (24/48): 1, 1', 2,  $2_s$ ,  $2'_s$ , 3, 3',  $4_s$
- icosahedral (60/120): 1, 2<sub>s</sub>, 2'<sub>s</sub>, 3, 3, 4, 4<sub>s</sub>, 5, 6<sub>s</sub>
- All binary are discrete subgroups of *SU*(2) and all thus have a 2<sub>s</sub> spinor irrep
- Connection with Trinities and the McKay correspondence

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Tetrahedral group  $A_3$ : rotational group  $\tilde{R} \times R$ 

Simple roots for 
$$A_3$$
:  
 $\alpha_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(e_2 - e_1), \ \alpha_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(e_3 - e_2) \text{ and } \ \alpha_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(e_1 + e_2)$ 

Conj. Class	Distinct rotations given by tw	vo spinors each $(\pm)$
1	±1	
4	$\pm rac{1}{2} \left(1 - e_1 e_2 + e_2 e_3 - e_3 e_1  ight),$	$\pm \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 - e_1 e_2 - e_2 e_3 + e_3 e_1 \right),$
	$\pm rac{1}{2} \left( 1 + e_1 e_2 - e_2 e_3 - e_3 e_1  ight),$	$\pm \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + e_1 e_2 + e_2 e_3 + e_3 e_1 \right)$
$4^{-1}$	$\pm rac{1}{2} \left( 1 + e_1 e_2 - e_2 e_3 + e_3 e_1  ight),$	$\pm \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + e_1 e_2 + e_2 e_3 - e_3 e_1 \right),$
	$\pm \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - e_1 e_2 + e_2 e_3 + e_3 e_1\right),$	$\pm rac{1}{2} \left( 1 - e_1 e_2 - e_2 e_3 - e_3 e_1  ight)$
3	$\pm e_1 e_2, \ \pm e_2 e_3, \ \pm e_3 e_1$	

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#### Tetrahedral group $A_3$ : spinor group $R_1R_2$

Conjugacy	Group elements
Class	
1	1
1_	-1
4	$rac{1}{2}\left(1-e_{1}e_{2}+e_{2}e_{3}-e_{3}e_{1} ight),  rac{1}{2}\left(1-e_{1}e_{2}-e_{2}e_{3}+e_{3}e_{1} ight),$
	$\frac{1}{2}(1+e_1e_2-e_2e_3-e_3e_1),  \frac{1}{2}(1+e_1e_2+e_2e_3+e_3e_1)$
4_	$-\frac{1}{2}(1-e_1e_2+e_2e_3-e_3e_1), -\frac{1}{2}(1-e_1e_2-e_2e_3+e_3e_1),$
	$-\frac{1}{2}(1+e_1e_2-e_2e_3-e_3e_1),  -\frac{1}{2}(1+e_1e_2+e_2e_3+e_3e_1)$
$4^{-1}$	$rac{1}{2}(1+e_1e_2-e_2e_3+e_3e_1),  rac{1}{2}(1+e_1e_2+e_2e_3-e_3e_1),$
	$\frac{1}{2}\left(1-e_{1}e_{2}+e_{2}e_{3}+e_{3}e_{1} ight),  \frac{1}{2}\left(1-e_{1}e_{2}-e_{2}e_{3}-e_{3}e_{1} ight)$
$4^{-1}_{-}$	$-rac{1}{2}\left(1+e_{1}e_{2}-e_{2}e_{3}+e_{3}e_{1} ight), -rac{1}{2}\left(1+e_{1}e_{2}+e_{2}e_{3}-e_{3}e_{1} ight),$
	$-\frac{1}{2}(1-e_1e_2+e_2e_3+e_3e_1), -\frac{1}{2}(1-e_1e_2-e_2e_3-e_3e_1)$
6	$\pm e_1 e_2,  \pm e_2 e_3,  \pm e_3 e_1$

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A Clifford way of doing orthogonal transformations

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### Tetrahedral group $A_3$ : pin group $A_1A_2$

Conjugacy	Group elements
Class	
1	1
1_	-1
8+	$rac{1}{2}\left(1-e_{1}e_{2}+e_{2}e_{3}-e_{3}e_{1} ight),  rac{1}{2}\left(1-e_{1}e_{2}-e_{2}e_{3}+e_{3}e_{1} ight),$
	$rac{1}{2}\left(1+e_{1}e_{2}-e_{2}e_{3}-e_{3}e_{1} ight),  rac{1}{2}\left(1+e_{1}e_{2}+e_{2}e_{3}+e_{3}e_{1} ight),$
	$rac{1}{2}\left(1+e_{1}e_{2}-e_{2}e_{3}+e_{3}e_{1} ight),  rac{1}{2}\left(1+e_{1}e_{2}+e_{2}e_{3}-e_{3}e_{1} ight),$
	$rac{1}{2}\left(1-e_{1}e_{2}+e_{2}e_{3}+e_{3}e_{1} ight),  rac{1}{2}\left(1-e_{1}e_{2}-e_{2}e_{3}-e_{3}e_{1} ight)$
8_	$-\frac{1}{2}(1-e_1e_2+e_2e_3-e_3e_1), -\frac{1}{2}(1-e_1e_2-e_2e_3+e_3e_1),$
	$-\frac{1}{2}(1+e_1e_2-e_2e_3-e_3e_1), -\frac{1}{2}(1+e_1e_2+e_2e_3+e_3e_1),$
	$-\frac{1}{2}(1+e_1e_2-e_2e_3+e_3e_1), -\frac{1}{2}(1+e_1e_2+e_2e_3-e_3e_1),$
	$-rac{1}{2}\left(1-e_{1}e_{2}+e_{2}e_{3}+e_{3}e_{1} ight),  -rac{1}{2}\left(1-e_{1}e_{2}-e_{2}e_{3}-e_{3}e_{1} ight)$
6	$\pm e_1 e_2,  \pm e_2 e_3,  \pm e_3 e_1$
12	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\pm e_1 \pm e_2),  \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\pm e_2 \pm e_3),  \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\pm e_3 \pm e_1)$
6+	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(I \pm e_1),  \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(I \pm e_2),  \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(I \pm e_3)$
6_	$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(I\pm e_1), -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(I\pm e_2), -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(I\pm e_3)$

Doubly covers  $A_3$ .

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#### Polyhedral groups, Platonic solids and root systems

#### 2 Reflection groups with Clifford algebras

- A Clifford way of doing orthogonal transformations
- The geometry of the Coxeter plane
- Root system induction and ADE correspondences

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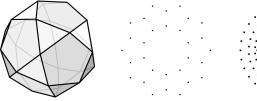
- Representations from multivector groups
- Conformal, modular and braid groups

### 3 Conclusions

A Clifford way of doing orthogonal transformations **The geometry of the Coxeter plane** Root system induction and ADE correspondences Representations from multivector groups Conformal, modular and braid groups

# The Coxeter Plane

- Every (for our purposes) Coxeter group has a Coxeter plane.
- A way to visualise Coxeter groups in any dimension by projecting their root system onto the Coxeter plane



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Coxeter Elements, Degrees and Exponents

- Like the symmetric group, Coxeter groups can have invariant polynomials. Their degrees *d* are important invariants/group characteristics.
- Turns out that actually degrees d are intimately related to so-called exponents m m = d 1.

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### Coxeter Elements, Degrees and Exponents

• A Coxeter Element is any combination of all the simple reflections  $w = s_1 \dots s_n$ , i.e. in Clifford algebra it is encoded

by the versor  $W = \alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n$  acting as  $v \to wv = \pm \tilde{W}vW$ . All such elements are conjugate and thus their order is invariant and called the Coxeter number *h*.

• The Coxeter element has complex eigenvalues of the form  $exp(2\pi mi/h)$  where *m* are called exponents:

 $wx = \exp(2\pi m i/h)x$ 

• Standard theory complexifies the real Coxeter group situation in order to find complex eigenvalues, then takes real sections again.

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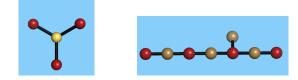
Coxeter Elements, Degrees and Exponents

- The Coxeter element has complex eigenvalues of the form  $exp(2\pi mi/h)$  where *m* are called exponents
- Standard theory complexifies the real Coxeter group situation in order to find complex eigenvalues, then takes real sections again.
- In particular, 1 and h-1 are always exponents
- Turns out that actually exponents and degrees are intimately related (m = d 1). The construction is slightly roundabout but uniform, and uses the Coxeter plane.

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# The Coxeter Plane

- In particular, can show every (for our purposes) Coxeter group has a Coxeter plane
- Existence relies on the fact that all groups in question have tree-like Dynkin diagrams, and thus admit an alternate colouring
- Essentially just gives two sets of mutually commuting generators



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# The Coxeter Plane

- Existence relies on the fact that all groups in question have tree-like Dynkin diagrams, and thus admit an alternate colouring
- Essentially just gives two sets of orthogonal = mutually commuting generators but anticommuting root vectors α<sub>w</sub> and α<sub>b</sub> (duals ω)
- Cartan matrices are positive definite, and thus have a Perron-Frobenius (all positive) eigenvector λ<sub>i</sub>.
- Take linear combinations of components of this eigenvector as coefficients of two vectors from the orthogonal sets
   v<sub>w</sub> = Σλ<sub>w</sub>ω<sub>w</sub> and v<sub>b</sub> = Σλ<sub>b</sub>ω<sub>b</sub>
- Their outer product/Coxeter plane bivector  $B_C = v_b \wedge v_w$ describes an invariant plane where w acts by rotation by  $2\pi/h$ .

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#### Clifford Algebra and the Coxeter Plane – 2D case

$$I_2(n)$$
  $\stackrel{n}{\frown}$ 

- For  $I_2(n)$  take  $\alpha_1 = e_1$ ,  $\alpha_2 = -\cos\frac{\pi}{n}e_1 + \sin\frac{\pi}{n}e_2$
- So Coxeter versor is just

$$W = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 = -\cos\frac{\pi}{n} + \sin\frac{\pi}{n} e_1 e_2 = -\exp\left(-\frac{\pi I}{n}\right)$$

• In Clifford algebra it is therefore immediately obvious that the action of the  $l_2(n)$  Coxeter element is described by a versor (here a rotor/spinor) that encodes rotations in the  $e_1e_2$ -Coxeter-plane and yields h = n since trivially  $W^n = (-1)^{n+1}$  yielding  $w^n = 1$  via  $wv = \tilde{W}vW$ .

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# Clifford Algebra and the Coxeter Plane – 2D case

• Coxeter versor 
$$W = -\cos\frac{\pi}{n} + \sin\frac{\pi}{n}e_1e_2 = -\exp\left(-\frac{\pi I}{n}\right)$$

•  $I = e_1 e_2$  anticommutes with both  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  such that sandwiching formula becomes

$$v \rightarrow wv = \tilde{W}vW = \tilde{W}^2v = \exp\left(\pm\frac{2\pi I}{n}\right)v$$
 immediately

yielding the standard result for the complex eigenvalues in real Clifford algebra without any need for artificial complexification

- The Coxeter plane bivector  $B_C = e_1 e_2 = I$  gives the complex structure
- The Coxeter plane bivector  $B_C$  is invariant under the Coxeter versor  $\tilde{W}B_CW = \pm B_C$ .

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Clifford algebra: no need for complexification

- Turns out in Clifford algebra we can factorise W into orthogonal (commuting/anticommuting) components  $W = \alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n = W_1 \dots W_n$  with  $W_i = \exp(\pi m_i l_i / h)$
- Here,  $I_i$  is a bivector describing a plane with  $I_i^2 = -1$
- For v orthogonal to the plane described by  $I_i$  we have  $v \rightarrow \tilde{W}_i v W_i = \tilde{W}_i W_i v = v$  so cancels out
- For v in the plane we have

$$v o ilde{W}_i v W_i = ilde{W}_i^2 v = \exp(2\pi m_i I_i / h) v$$

• Thus if we decompose *W* into orthogonal eigenspaces, in the eigenvector equation all orthogonal bits cancel out and one gets the complex eigenvalue from the respective eigenspace

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Clifford algebra: no need for complexification

• For v in the plane we have

$$v \rightarrow \tilde{W}_i v W_i = \tilde{W}_i^2 v = \exp(2\pi m_i l_i / h) v$$

- So complex eigenvalue equation arises geometrically without any need for complexification
- Different complex structures immediately give different eigenplanes
- Eigenvalues/angles/exponents given from just factorising  $W = \alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n$
- E.g.  $H_4$  has exponents 1,11,19,29 and  $W = \exp\left(\frac{\pi}{30}B_C\right)\exp\left(\frac{11\pi}{30}IB_C\right)$
- Here we have been looking for orthogonal eigenspaces, so innocuous – different complex structures commute
- But not in general naive complexification can be misleading

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## 4D case: $D_4$

- E.g.  $D_4$  has exponents 1, 3, 3, 5
- Coxeter versor decomposes into orthogonal components

$$W = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4 = e_1 e_2 e_3 e_4 - e_2 e_3 - e_1 e_2 + e_1 e_3$$

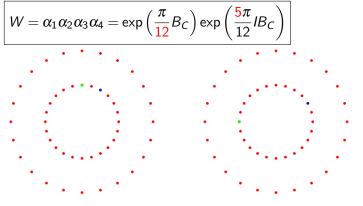
$$=\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{3}-B_C)IB_C=\exp\left(\frac{\pi}{6}B_C\right)\exp\left(\frac{3\pi}{6}IB_C\right)$$

$$B_C = 1/\sqrt{3}(e_1 + e_2 + e_3)e_4; \ B_C = (e_1 + e_2 - 2e_3)(e_1 - e_2)$$

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# 4D case: $F_4$

- E.g.  $F_4$  has exponents 1, 5, 7, 11
- Coxeter versor decomposes into orthogonal components



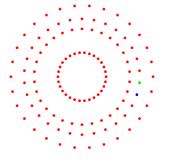
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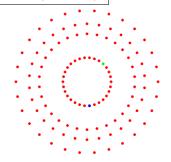
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## 4D case: $H_4$

- E.g. *H*<sub>4</sub> has exponents 1,11,19,29
- Coxeter versor decomposes into orthogonal components

$$W = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \alpha_4 = \exp\left(\frac{\pi}{30} B_C\right) \exp\left(\frac{11\pi}{30} I B_C\right)$$





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#### Clifford Algebra and the Coxeter Plane – 4D case summary

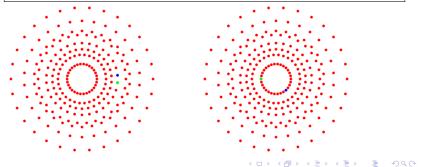
rank 4	exponents	W-factorisation
A <sub>4</sub>	1,2,3,4	$W = \exp\left(\frac{\pi}{5}B_C\right)\exp\left(\frac{2\pi}{5}IB_C\right)$
B <sub>4</sub>	1,3,5,7	$W = \exp\left(\frac{\pi}{8}B_C\right)\exp\left(\frac{3\pi}{8}IB_C\right)$
<i>D</i> <sub>4</sub>	1,3,3,5	$W = \exp\left(\frac{\pi}{6}B_C\right)\exp\left(\frac{\pi}{2}IB_C\right)$
F <sub>4</sub>	1, 5, 7, 11	$W = \exp\left(\frac{\pi}{12}B_C\right)\exp\left(\frac{5\pi}{12}IB_C\right)$
$H_4$	1,11,19,29	$W = \exp\left(\frac{\pi}{30}B_C\right)\exp\left(\frac{11\pi}{30}IB_C\right)$

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## 8D case: $E_8$

- E.g. *H*<sub>4</sub> has exponents 1,11,19,29, *E*<sub>8</sub> has 1,7,11,13,17,19,23,29
- Coxeter versor decomposes into orthogonal components

$$W = \alpha_1 \dots \alpha_8 = \exp(\frac{\pi}{30}B_C)\exp(\frac{7\pi}{30}B_2)\exp(\frac{11\pi}{30}B_3)\exp(\frac{13\pi}{30}B_4)$$

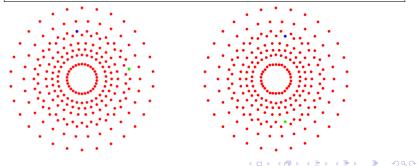


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## 8D case: $E_8$

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### Imaginary differences – different imaginaries

So what has been gained by this Clifford view?

- There are different entities that serve as unit imaginaries
- They have a geometric interpretation as an eigenplane of the Coxeter element
- These don't need to commute with everything like *i* (though they do here at least anticommute. But that is because we looked for orthogonal decompositions)
- But see that in general naive complexification can be a dangerous thing to do – unnecessary, issues of commutativity, confusing different imaginaries etc

### Polyhedral groups, Platonic solids and root systems

### 2 Reflection groups with Clifford algebras

- A Clifford way of doing orthogonal transformations
- The geometry of the Coxeter plane
- Root system induction and ADE correspondences

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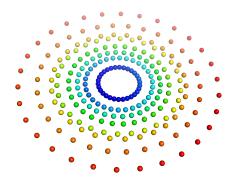
- Representations from multivector groups
- Conformal, modular and braid groups

## 3 Conclusions

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## Exceptional $E_8$ (projected into the Coxeter plane)

 $E_8$  root system has 240 roots,  $H_3$  has order 120

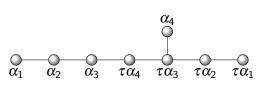


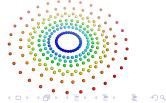
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• Order 120 group *H*<sub>3</sub> doubly covered by 240 (s)pinors in 8D space

• With (somewhat counterintuitive) reduced inner product this gives the *E*<sub>8</sub> root system

•  $E_8$  is actually hidden within 3D geometry!





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### Induction Theorem – root systems

 Induction Theorem: every 3D root system gives a 3D spinor group which gives a 4D root system.

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### Induction Theorem – root systems

- Induction Theorem: every 3D root system gives a 3D spinor group which gives a 4D root system.
- Check axioms:

1. 
$$\Phi \cap \mathbb{R}\alpha = \{-\alpha, \alpha\} \ \forall \ \alpha \in \Phi$$

2. 
$$s_{\alpha} \Phi = \Phi \ \forall \ \alpha \in \Phi$$

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$$s_{\alpha} \Phi = \Phi \ \forall \ \alpha \in \Phi$$

• Proof: 1. R and -R are in a spinor group by construction (double cover of orthogonal transformations), 2. closure under reflections is guaranteed by the closure property of the spinor group (with a twist:  $-R_1\tilde{R}_2R_1$ )

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- Proof: 1. R and -R are in a spinor group by construction (double cover of orthogonal transformations), 2. closure under reflections is guaranteed by the closure property of the spinor group (with a twist:  $-R_1\tilde{R}_2R_1$ )
- In 2D, the space of spinors is also 2D and the root systems are self-dual under an analogous construction

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## Spinors from reflections: easy example



- The 6 roots (±1,0,0) and permutations in  $A_1 \times A_1 \times A_1$ generate 8 spinors:
- $\pm e_1, \pm e_2, \pm e_3$  give the 8 spinors  $\pm 1, \pm e_1e_2, \pm e_2e_3, \pm e_3e_1$
- This is a discrete spinor group isomorphic to the quaternion group *Q*.
- As 4D vectors these are  $(\pm 1, 0, 0, 0)$  and permutations, the 8 roots of  $A_1 \times A_1 \times A_1 \times A_1$  (the 16-cell).

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## $H_4$ from $H_3$

- The  $H_3$  root system has 30 roots e.g. simple roots  $\alpha_1 = e_2, \alpha_2 = -\frac{1}{2}((\tau - 1)e_1 + e_2 + \tau e_3)$  and  $\alpha_3 = e_3$ .
- Subgroup of rotations  $A_5$  of order 60 is doubly covered by 120 spinors of the form  $\alpha_1 \alpha_2 = -\frac{1}{2}(1-(\tau-1)e_1e_2+\tau e_2e_3)$ ,  $\alpha_1 \alpha_3 = e_2e_3$  and  $\alpha_2 \alpha_3 = -\frac{1}{2}(\tau-(\tau-1)e_3e_1+e_2e_3)$ .

$$(\pm 1,0,0,0)$$
 (8 perms),  $\frac{1}{2}(\pm 1,\pm 1,\pm 1,\pm 1)$  (16 perms)  
 $\frac{1}{2}(0,\pm 1,\pm \sigma,\pm \tau)$  (96 even perms),  
As 4D vectors are the 120 roots of the  $H_4$  root system.

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## Spinors and Polytopes

- Can reinterpret spinors in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  as vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^4$
- Give (exceptional) root systems  $(D_4, F_4, H_4)$
- They constitute the vertices of the 16-cell, 24-cell, 24-cell and dual 24-cell and the 600-cell
- These are 4D analogues of the Platonic Solids. Strange symmetries better understood in terms of 3D spinors









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## Trinity of 4D Exceptional Root Systems

• Exceptional phenomena:  $D_4$  (triality, important in string theory),  $F_4$  (largest lattice symmetry in 4D),  $H_4$  (largest non-crystallographic symmetry); Exceptional  $D_4$  and  $F_4$  arise from series  $A_3$  and  $B_3$ ;  $A_1 \times I_2(n) \rightarrow I_2(n) \times I_2(n)$ 

rank-3 group	diagram	binary	rank-4 group	diagram
$A_1 \times A_1 \times A_1$	0 0 0	Q	$A_1 \times A_1 \times A_1 \times A_1$	0 0 0 0
A <sub>3</sub>	000	2 <i>T</i>	<i>D</i> <sub>4</sub>	$\sim$
B <sub>3</sub>	<u>4</u>	20	F <sub>4</sub>	<u>4</u> ⊙
H <sub>3</sub>	<u>5</u>	21	H <sub>4</sub>	<u> </u>

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Arnold's indirect connection between Trinities  $(A_3, B_3, H_3)$ and  $(D_4, F_4, H_4)$ 

- Arnold had noticed a handwavey connection:
- Decomposition of 3D groups in terms of number of Springer cones matches what are essentially the exponents of the 4D groups:
- $A_3: 24 = 2(1+3+3+5) D_4: (1,3,3,5)$
- $B_3: 48 = 2(1+5+7+11) F_4: (1,5,7,11)$
- $H_3$ :  $120 = 2(1+11+19+29) H_4$ : (1,11,19,29)

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### Arnold's indirect connection between Trinities

rank 4	exponents	W-factorisation
A <sub>4</sub>	1,2,3,4	$W = \exp\left(\frac{\pi}{5}B_C\right)\exp\left(\frac{2\pi}{5}IB_C\right)$
<i>B</i> <sub>4</sub>	1,3,5,7	$W = \exp\left(\frac{\pi}{8}B_C\right)\exp\left(\frac{3\pi}{8}IB_C\right)$
<i>D</i> <sub>4</sub>	1,3,3,5	$W = \exp\left(\frac{\pi}{6}B_C\right)\exp\left(\frac{\pi}{2}IB_C\right)$
F <sub>4</sub>	1, 5, 7, 11	$W = \exp\left(\frac{\pi}{12}B_C\right)\exp\left(\frac{5\pi}{12}IB_C\right)$
$H_4$	1,11,19,29	$W = \exp\left(\frac{\pi}{30}B_C\right)\exp\left(\frac{11\pi}{30}IB_C\right)$

The remaining cases in the root system induction construction work the same way, not just this Trinity! So more general correspondence:

 $(A_1 \times I_2(n), A_3, B_3, H_3) \rightarrow (I_2(n) \times I_2(n), D_4, F_4, H_4)$ 

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## The countably infinite family $I_2(n)$ and Arnold's construction

- For  $A_1^3$  can see immediately 8 = 2(1+1+1+1)
- Simple roots  $\alpha_1 = e_1$ ,  $\alpha_2 = e_2$ ,  $\alpha_3 = e_3$ ,  $\alpha_4 = e_4$  give  $W = e_1 e_2 e_3 e_4 = (\cos \frac{\pi}{2} + \sin \frac{\pi}{2} e_1 e_2)(\cos \frac{\pi}{2} + \sin \frac{\pi}{2} e_3 e_4) = \exp(\frac{\pi}{2} e_1 e_2)\exp(\frac{\pi}{2} e_3 e_4)$
- Gives exponents (1, 1, 1, 1) (from h 1 = 2 1)

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## The countably infinite family $I_2(n)$ and Arnold's construction

- For  $A_1 \times I_2(n)$  one gets the same decomposition  $4n = 2(1 + (n-1) + 1 + (n-1)) = 2 \cdot 2n$
- Simple roots  $\alpha_1 = e_1$ ,  $\alpha_2 = -\cos\frac{\pi}{n}e_1 + \sin\frac{\pi}{n}e_2$ ,  $\alpha_3 = e_3$ ,  $\alpha_4 = -\cos\frac{\pi}{n}e_3 + \sin\frac{\pi}{n}e_4$  give  $W = \exp\left(-\frac{\pi e_1e_2}{n}\right)\exp\left(-\frac{\pi e_3e_4}{n}\right)$
- Gives exponents (1, (n-1), 1, (n-1))

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# The countably infinite family $I_2(n)$ and Arnold's construction

- So Arnold's initial hunch regarding the exponents extends in fact to my full correspondence
- McKay correspondence is a correspondence between even subgroups of SU(2)/quaternions and ADE affine Lie algebras
- In fact here get the even quaternion subgroups from 3D link to ADE affine Lie algebras via McKay?

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## 3D, 4D and ADE correspondences

- McKay correspondence relates even SU(2) subgroups with ADE Lie algebras  $(A_{2n-1}, D_{n+2}, E_6, E_7, E_8)$
- Induction theorem: get these as 2D/4D root systems  $(I_2(n) \times I_2(n), D_4, F_4, H_4)$  from 2D/3D root systems  $A_1 \times I_2(n), A_3, B_3, H_3)$
- (2n+2,12,18,30) are numbers of roots, the sum of the dimensions of the irreps and the ADE Coxeter number

4D	G	$\sum d_i$	ADE	h
			$\tilde{A}_{2n-1}$	2n
$I_2(n)  imes I_2(n)$	$\operatorname{Dic}_n$	2n+2	$\tilde{D}_{n+2}$	2(n+1)
$D_4$	2T	12	$\tilde{E}_6$	12
$F_4$	2O	18	$\tilde{E}_7$	18
$H_4$	2I	30	$\tilde{E}_8$	30

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## 2D/3D, 2D/4D and ADE correspondences

- McKay correspondence relates even SU(2) subgroups with ADE Lie algebras  $(A_{2n-1}, D_{n+2}, E_6, E_7, E_8)$
- Induction theorem: get these as 2D/4D root systems  $(I_2(n) \times I_2(n), D_4, F_4, H_4)$  from 2D/3D root systems  $A_1 \times I_2(n), A_3, B_3, H_3)$
- (2n+2,12,18,30) are numbers of roots, the sum of the dimensions of the irreps and the ADE Coxeter number

2D/3D	$ \Phi $	4D	G	$\sum d_i$	ADE	h
$A_1 \times I_2(n)$	2n+2	$I_2(n) \times I_2(n)$	$\operatorname{Dic}_n$	2n+2		
$A_3$	12	$D_4$	2T	12		
$B_3$	18	$F_4$	2O	18		
$H_3$	30	$H_4$	2I	30		

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## 2D/3D, 2D/4D and ADE correspondences

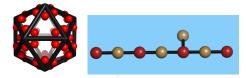
- McKay correspondence relates even *SU*(2) subgroups with ADE Lie algebras (*A*<sub>2*n*-1</sub>, *D*<sub>*n*+2</sub>, *E*<sub>6</sub>, *E*<sub>7</sub>, *E*<sub>8</sub>)
- Induction theorem: get these as 2D/4D root systems  $(I_2(n), I_2(n) \times I_2(n), D_4, F_4, H_4)$  from 2D/3D root systems  $(I_2(n), A_1 \times I_2(n), A_3, B_3, H_3)$
- (2n,2n+2,12,18,30) are numbers of roots, the sum of the dimensions of the irreps and the ADE Coxeter number

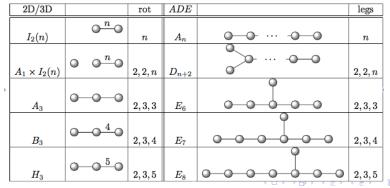
2D/3D	$ \Phi $	4D	G	$\sum d_i$	ADE	h
$I_2(n)$	2n	$I_2(n)$	$C_{2n}$	2n	$\tilde{A}_{2n-1}$	2n
$A_1 \times I_2(n)$	2n+2	$I_2(n) \times I_2(n)$	$\operatorname{Dic}_n$	2n+2	$\tilde{D}_{n+2}$	2(n+1)
$A_3$	12	$D_4$	2T	12	$\tilde{E}_6$	12
$B_3$	18	$F_4$	2O	18	$\tilde{E}_7$	18
$H_3$	30	$H_4$	2I	30	$\tilde{E}_8$	30

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### Is there a direct Platonic-ADE correspondence?



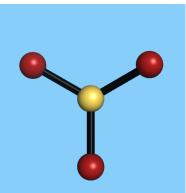


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### A Trinity of root system ADE correspondences

- 2D/3D root systems  $(I_2(n), A_1 \times I_2(n), A_3, B_3, H_3)$
- 2D/4D root systems  $(I_2(n), I_2(n) \times I_2(n), D_4, F_4, H_4)$
- ADE root systems  $(A_n, D_{n+2}, E_6, E_7, E_8)$



### Polyhedral groups, Platonic solids and root systems

### 2 Reflection groups with Clifford algebras

- A Clifford way of doing orthogonal transformations
- The geometry of the Coxeter plane
- Root system induction and ADE correspondences

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- Representations from multivector groups
- Conformal, modular and braid groups

## 3 Conclusions

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### Polyhedral groups as multivector groups

Group	Discrete subgroup	Order	Action Mechanism
<i>SO</i> (3)	rotational (chiral)	G	$x \rightarrow \tilde{R} x R$
<i>O</i> (3)	reflection (full/Coxeter)	2 G	$x  ightarrow \pm  ilde{A} x A$
Spin(3)	binary	2 G	$(R_1,R_2) \rightarrow R_1R_2$
Pin(3)	pinory (?)	4  <i>G</i>	$(A_1,A_2) \rightarrow A_1A_2$

- e.g. the chiral icosahedral group has 60 elements, encoded by 120 spinors, which form the binary icosahedral group
- together with the inversion/pseudoscalar *I* this gives 60 rotations and 60 rotoinversions, i.e. the full icosahedral group *H*<sub>3</sub> in 120 elements doubly covered by 240 pinors

A Clifford way of doing orthogonal transformations The geometry of the Coxeter plane Root system induction and ADE correspondences **Representations from multivector groups** Conformal, modular and braid groups

Representations from Clifford multivector groups

- The usual picture of orthogonal transformations on an *n*-dimensional vector space is via *n* × *n* matrices acting on vectors, immediately making connections with representations = matrices satisfying the group multiplication laws.
- Easy to construct representations with (s)pinors in the 2<sup>n</sup>-dimensional Clifford algebra as reshuffling components.
- Spinors leave the original *n*-dimensional vector space invariant, reshuffle the components of the vector.
- But can also consider various representation matrices acting on different subspaces of the Clifford algebra.

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## Representations from Clifford multivector groups – trivial, parity, rotation representations

- The scalar subspace is one-dimensional.  $\tilde{R}1R = \tilde{R}R = 1$  gives the trivial representation, and likewise pinors A give the parity.
- The double-sided action  $\tilde{R} \times R$  of spinors R on a vector x in the *n*-dimensional vector space gives an  $n \times n$ -dimensional representation, which is just the usual rotation matrices.
- E.g.  $e_1e_2$  acting on  $x = x_1e_1 + x_2e_2 + x_3e_3$  gives  $e_2e_1xe_1e_2 = -x_1e_1 - x_2e_2 + x_3e_3$  which could also be expressed as  $\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & -1 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1\\ x_2\\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -x_1\\ -x_2\\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}$
- If the spinors were acting as  $R \times \tilde{R}$  would give a potentially different representation.

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Characters, their norm, and the Frobenius-Schur indicator

- Similarity transformed representations are also good representations, but are not fundamentally different: they are equivalent.
- So want a measure for a representation that is invariant under similarity transformations, e.g. the trace aka the character  $\chi$  of a matrix
- A class function i.e. the same within a conjugacy class because of the cyclicity of the trace
- The character norm  $||\chi||^2 := \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} |\chi(g)|^2$
- The Frobenius-Schur indicator  $v := \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \chi(g^2)$

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# Real representations of real, complex, and quaternionic type

- $||\chi||^2 = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} |\chi(g)|^2 = 1$ : representation of real type
- $||\chi||^2 = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} |\chi(g)|^2 = 2$ : representation of complex type
- $||\chi||^2 = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} |\chi(g)|^2 = 4$ : representation of quaternionic type
- Theorem: A complex representation is irreducible if and only if  $||\chi||^2 = 1$ .
- Theorem: A real representation is irreducible if and only if  $||\chi||^2 + \nu(\chi) = 2$ , e.g. 4 2 = 2 or 1 + 1 = 2.

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Representations from Clifford multivector groups  $-8 \times 8$ and  $4 \times 4$  (whole algebra / even subalgebra)

- Rather than restricting oneself to the *n*-dimensional vector space, one can also define representations by  $2^n \times 2^n$ -matrices acting on the whole Clifford algebra, i.e. any element acting on an arbitrary element, e.g. here  $8 \times 8$ .
- Likewise, one can define  $2^{(n-1)} \times 2^{(n-1)}$ -dimensional spinor representations as acting on the even subalgebra.
- 3D spinors have components in (1, e1e2, e2e3, e3e1), multiplication with another spinor e.g. e1e2 will reshuffle these components (e1e2, -1, -e3e1, e2e3)
- This reshuffling can therefore be described by a  $4 \times 4$ -matrix.

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## $4 \times 4$ – explicit example: $A_1^3$

(	1	0	0	0)	( -	-1	0	0	0	) (	0	0	0	$^{-1}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \end{pmatrix}$	1	0	0)
	0	1	0	0		0	$^{-1}$	0	0		0	0	$^{-1}$	0	-1	0	0	0
	0	0	1	0		0	0	$^{-1}$	0	,	0	1	0	0	, 0	0	0	1 ,
l	0	0	0	1)	(	0	0	0	$^{-1}$	) (	1	0	0	o )	, ( 0 -1 0 0	0	-1	0)
(	0	0	1	0	)	( 0	-1	0	0	)	0	0	0	1)	( 0	0	$^{-1}$	0)
	0	0	0	$^{-1}$		1	0	0	0		0	0	1	0	, ( 0 , ( 1 0	0	0	1
	$^{-1}$	0	0	0	,	0	0	0	$^{-1}$	,	0	$^{-1}$	0	0	, 1	0	0	0
	0	1	0	0	J	0	0	1	0	) (	1	0	0	o )	( 0	$^{-1}$	0	0)

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## Character table of Q

ſ	Q	1	-1	$\pm e_1 e_2$	$\pm e_2 e_3$	$\pm e_3 e_1$
	1	1	1	1	1	1
	1'	1	1	-1	-1	1
	$1^{\prime\prime}$	1	1	-1	1	-1
	$1^{\prime\prime\prime}$	1	1	1	-1	-1
	2	2	-2	0	0	0
	4 <sub><i>H</i></sub>	4	-4	0	0	0

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## $4 \times 4$ – explicit example: $A_3$

- As a set of vectors in 4D, they are  $(\pm 1,0,0,0)$  (8 permutations) ,  $\frac{1}{2}(\pm 1,\pm 1,\pm 1,\pm 1)$  (16 permutations)
- Conjugacy classes:  $1 \cdot 4^2 + 1 \cdot (-4)^2 + 6 \cdot 0^2 + 8 \cdot 2^2 + 8 \cdot (-2)^2 = 32 + 32 + 32 = 96$
- $||\chi||^2 = 96/24 = 4$ ,  $\nu = -2$  and  $||\chi||^2 + \nu = 2$  i.e. real irreducible of quaternionic type.

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# $3 \times 3$ – explicit example: $H_3$

• Icosahedral spinors are

 $(\pm 1, 0, 0, 0)$  (8 permutations) ,  $\frac{1}{2}(\pm 1, \pm 1, \pm 1, \pm 1)$  (16 permutations)

 $rac{1}{2}(0,\pm 1,\pm \sigma,\pm au)$  (96 even permutations) ,

• E.g. the rotation matrices corresponding to  $\alpha_1 \alpha_2$  and  $\alpha_2 \alpha_3$  via  $\tilde{R} \times R$  are

$$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \tau & \tau - 1 & -1 \\ 1 - \tau & -1 & -\tau \\ -1 & \tau & 1 - \tau \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \tau & 1 - \tau & -1 \\ 1 - \tau & 1 & -\tau \\ 1 & \tau & \tau - 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The characters  $\chi(g)$  are obviously 0 and  $\tau$ 

•  $||\chi||^2 = 120/120 = 1$ ,  $\nu = 1$  and  $||\chi||^2 + \nu = 2$  i.e. real irreducible of real type

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 $3 \times 3$  – explicit example:  $H_3$  other way

• If the spinors were acting as  $R \times \tilde{R}$ , then

$$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \tau & 1-\tau & -1 \\ \tau-1 & -1 & \tau \\ -1 & -\tau & 1-\tau \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \tau & 1-\tau & 1 \\ 1-\tau & 1 & \tau \\ -1 & -\tau & \tau-1 \end{pmatrix},$$

with the same characters as before. Swapping the action of the spinor can change the representation.

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# $4 \times 4$ – explicit example: $H_3$

Spinors α<sub>1</sub>α<sub>2</sub> and α<sub>2</sub>α<sub>3</sub> multiplying a generic spinor
 R = a<sub>0</sub> + a<sub>1</sub>e<sub>2</sub>e<sub>3</sub> + a<sub>2</sub>e<sub>3</sub>e<sub>1</sub> + a<sub>3</sub>e<sub>1</sub>e<sub>2</sub> from the left reshuffles the components (a<sub>1</sub>, a<sub>2</sub>, a<sub>3</sub>, a<sub>0</sub>) with the matrices given as

$$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & \tau - 1 & 0 & -\tau \\ 1 - \tau & -1 & -\tau & 0 \\ 0 & \tau & -1 & \tau -1 \\ \tau & 0 & 1 - \tau & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} -\tau & 0 & 1 - \tau & -1 \\ 0 & -\tau & -1 & \tau -1 \\ \tau - 1 & 1 & -\tau & 0 \\ 1 & 1 - \tau & 0 & -\tau \end{pmatrix}$$

with characters -2 and  $-2\tau$ .

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#### $4 \times 4$ – explicit example $H_3$ : quaternionic type

- 120 4 × 4 matrices 9 conjugacy classes, with pairs that have  $\pm 2\chi_3$  so gives 4 times that of the 3 × 3 case
- $|G| \cdot ||\chi||^2 = 1 \cdot 4^2 + 1 \cdot (-4)^2 + 12 \cdot (-2\tau)^2 + 12 \cdot (2\tau)^2 + 12 \cdot (-2\sigma)^2 + 12 \cdot (2\sigma)^2 + 20 \cdot (-2)^2 + 20 \cdot (2)^2 + 30 \cdot 0^2 = 480$
- $||\chi||^2 = 480/120 = 4$ , v = -2 and  $||\chi||^2 + v = 2$  i.e. real irreducible of quaternionic type

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#### Character table of $I = A_5$

Ι	1	20 <i>C</i> <sub>3</sub>	15 <i>C</i> <sub>2</sub>	12 <i>C</i> <sub>5</sub>	$12C_{5}^{2}$
1	1	1	1	1	1
3	3	0	-1	τ	σ
3	3	0	-1	σ	τ
4	4	1	0	-1	-1
5	5	-1	1	0	0

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### Character table of 21

	1	20 <i>C</i> <sub>3</sub>	30 <i>C</i> <sub>2</sub>	12 <i>C</i> <sub>5</sub>	$12C_5^2$	-1	$-20C_{3}$	$-12C_{5}$	$-12C_{5}^{2}$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
3	3	0	-1	τ	σ	3	0	τ	σ
3	3	0	-1	σ	τ	3	0	σ	τ
4	4	1	0	-1	-1	4	1	-1	$-1$
5	5	-1	1	0	0	5	-1	0	0
2	2	-1	0	$-\sigma$	- au	-2	1	σ	τ
2	2	-1	0	- au	$-\sigma$	-2	1	τ	σ
4	4	1	0	-1	-1	-4	-1	1	1
6	6	0	0	1	1	-6	0	-1	-1
4 <sub><i>H</i></sub>	4	-2	0	$-2\tau$	$-2\sigma$	-4	2	2τ	2σ
4 <sub><i>H</i></sub>	4	-2	0	$-2\sigma$	$-2\tau$	-4	2	2σ	2τ

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A general construction of representations of quaternionic type – canonical representations

- It had so far been overlooked that there is a systematic construction of representations of quaternionic type for 3D polyhedral groups
- This is simply due to the fact that the spinors in 3D provide a realisation of the quaternions
- Therefore spinors provide 4x4 representations of quaternionic type for all (though limited number of) possible groups
- However, they are canonical for a choice of 3D simple roots, i.e. there is a preferred amongst all similarity transformed versions
- These simple roots also determine the 3x3 rotation matrices and their reversed representations in a similar canonical way

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#### Characters in general

• For a general spinor  $R = a_0 + a_1e_2e_3 + a_2e_3e_1 + a_3e_1e_2$  one has 3D character  $\chi = 3a_0^2 - a_1^2 - a_2^2 - a_3^2$  and representation

$$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} a_0^2 + a_1^2 - a_2^2 - a_3^2 & -2a_0a_3 + 2a_1a_2 & 2a_0a_2 + 2a_1a_3 \\ 2a_0a_3 + 2a_1a_2 & a_0^2 - a_1^2 + a_2^2 - a_3^2 & -2a_0a_1 + 2a_2a_3 \\ -2a_0a_2 + 2a_1a_3 & 2a_0a_1 + 2a_2a_3 & a_0^2 - a_1^2 - a_2^2 + a_3^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

and the 4D rep and character are

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_0 & a_3 & -a_2 & a_1 \\ -a_3 & a_0 & a_1 & a_2 \\ a_2 & -a_1 & a_0 & a_3 \\ -a_1 & -a_2 & -a_3 & a_0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \chi = 4a_0.$$

• Characters of the representations are all determined by the spinor!

#### Polyhedral groups, Platonic solids and root systems

#### 2 Reflection groups with Clifford algebras

- A Clifford way of doing orthogonal transformations
- The geometry of the Coxeter plane
- Root system induction and ADE correspondences

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- Representations from multivector groups
- Conformal, modular and braid groups

## 3 Conclusions

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Clifford Algebra and orthogonal transformations

- Inner product is symmetric part  $a \cdot b = \frac{1}{2}(ab + ba)$
- Reflecting a in b is given by  $a' = a 2(a \cdot b)b = -bab$  (b and -b doubly cover the same reflection)
- Via Cartan-Dieudonné theorem any orthogonal (/conformal/modular) transformation can be written as successive reflections

$$\overline{x' = \pm n_1 n_2 \dots n_k x n_k \dots n_2 n_1} = \pm A x \tilde{A}$$

 The conformal group C(p,q) ~ SO(p+1,q+1) so can use these for translations, inversions etc as well

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# Conformal Geometric Algebra

- Go to  $e_1, e_2, e, \bar{e}$ , with  $e_0^2 = 1, e_i^2 = -1, e^2 = 1, \bar{e}^2 = -1$
- Define two null vectors  $n \equiv e + \bar{e}, \ \bar{n} \equiv e \bar{e}$
- Can embed the 2D vector x = x<sup>µ</sup>e<sub>µ</sub> = xe<sub>1</sub> + ye<sub>2</sub> as a null vector in 4D (also normalise F(x) ⋅ e = −1)

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2 - x^2} (x^2 n + 2\lambda x - \lambda^2 \bar{n})$$

 So neat thing is that conformal transformations are now done by rotors (except inversion which is a reflection) – distances are given by inner products

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#### Conformal Transformations in CGA

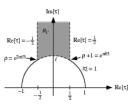
$$F(x) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2 - x^2} (x^2 n + 2\lambda x - \lambda^2 \bar{n})$$

- **Reflection**: spacetime F(-axa) = -aF(x)a
- Rotation: spacetime  $F(R \times \tilde{R}) = RF(x)\tilde{R}, R = \exp(\frac{ab}{2\lambda})$
- Translation:  $F(x+a) = R_T F(x) \tilde{R}_T$  for  $R_T = \exp(\frac{na}{2\lambda}) = 1 + \frac{na}{2\lambda}$
- Dilation:  $F(e^{\alpha}x) = R_D F(x) \tilde{R}_D$  for  $R_D = \exp(\frac{\alpha}{2\lambda} e\bar{e})$
- Inversion: Reflection in extra dimension e: F(<sup>x</sup>/<sub>x<sup>2</sup></sub>) = -eF(x)e sends n ↔ n
- Special conformal transformation:  $F(\frac{x}{1+ax}) = R_S F(x)\tilde{R}_S$  for  $R_S = R_I R_T R_I$

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# Modular group



• Modular generators:  $\mathbf{T}: au 
ightarrow au + 1$ ,  $\mathbf{S}: au 
ightarrow -1/ au$ 

• 
$$\langle S, T | S^2 = I, (ST)^3 = I \rangle$$
 CGA rotor version:  $R_Y X \tilde{R}_Y$ 

• CGA: 
$$T_X = \exp(\frac{ne_1}{2}) = 1 + \frac{ne_1}{2}$$
 and  $S_X = e_1 e$  (slight issue

of complex structure  $\tau =$  complex number, not vector in the 2D real plane so map  $e_1 : x_1e_1 + x_2e_2 \leftrightarrow x_1 + x_2e_1e_2 = x_1 + ix_2$ •  $(S_X T_X)^3 = -1$  and  $S_X^2 = -1$ 

• So a 3-fold and a 2-fold rotation in conformal space

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- $(S_X T_X)^3 = -1$  and  $S_X^2 = -1$  is inherently spinorial
- Of course Clifford construction gives a double cover
- The braid group is a double cover
- So Clifford construction gives the braid group double cover of the modular group
- $\sigma_1 = \tilde{T}_X = \exp(-ne_1/2)$  and  $\sigma_2 = T_X S_X T_X = \exp(-\bar{n}e_1/2)$ satisfying  $\sigma_1 \sigma_2 \sigma_1 = \sigma_2 \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \ (= S_X)$
- Nice symmetry between the roles of the point at infinity and the origin
- Might not be known? Spinorial techniques might make awkward modular transformations more tractable?



- Clifford algebra provides a very general way of doing reflection group theory (Cartan-Dieudonné)
- Construction of the exceptional root systems from 3D root systems
- More geometric approach to the geometry of the Coxeter plane, degrees and exponents
- Geometry of 3D space systematically and canonically gives representations of 4D root systems in terms of quaternions and polyhedral representations of quaternionic type (among others)



Thank you!



#### Quaternion groups via the geometric product

- The 8 quaternions of the form  $(\pm 1, 0, 0, 0)$  and permutations are the Lipschitz units, the quaternion group in 8 elements.
- The 8 Lipschitz units together with  $\frac{1}{2}(\pm 1, \pm 1, \pm 1, \pm 1)$  are the Hurwitz units, the binary tetrahedral group of order 24. Together with the 24 'dual' quaternions of the form  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\pm 1, \pm 1, 0, 0)$ , they form the binary octahedral group of order 48.
- The 24 Hurwitz units together with the 96 unit quaternions of the form  $(0, \pm \tau, \pm 1, \pm \sigma)$  and even permutations, are called the lcosians. The icosian group is isomorphic to the binary icosahedral group with 120 elements.
- The unit spinors {1; e<sub>2</sub>e<sub>3</sub>; e<sub>3</sub>e<sub>1</sub>; e<sub>1</sub>e<sub>2</sub>} of Cl(3) are isomorphic to the quaternion algebra *H*.

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### $H_4$ from icosahedral spinors

- The  $H_3$  root system has 30 roots e.g. simple roots  $\alpha_1 = e_2, \alpha_2 = -\frac{1}{2}((\tau 1)e_1 + e_2 + \tau e_3)$  and  $\alpha_3 = e_3$ .
- The subgroup of rotations is A<sub>5</sub> of order 60
- These are doubly covered by 120 spinors of the form  $\alpha_1 \alpha_2 = -\frac{1}{2}(1 (\tau 1)e_1e_2 + \tau e_2e_3), \ \alpha_1 \alpha_3 = e_2e_3$  and  $\alpha_2 \alpha_3 = -\frac{1}{2}(\tau (\tau 1)e_3e_1 + e_2e_3).$
- As a set of vectors in 4D, they are

 $(\pm 1, 0, 0, 0)$  (8 permutations) ,  $\frac{1}{2}(\pm 1, \pm 1, \pm 1, \pm 1)$  (16 permutations)

 $rac{1}{2}(0,\pm 1,\pm \sigma,\pm au)$  (96 even permutations) ,

which are precisely the 120 roots of the  $H_4$  root system.

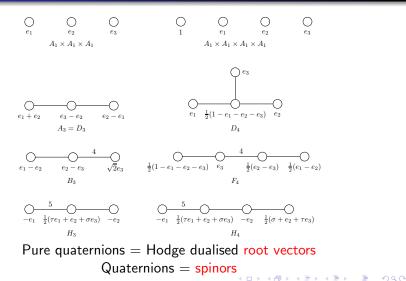
## Systematic construction of the polyhedral groups

- Multiplying together root vectors in the Clifford algebra gave a systematic way of constructing the binary polyhedral groups as 3D spinors = quaternions.
- The 6/12/18/30 roots in  $A_1 \times A_1 \times A_1/A_3/B_3/H_3$  generate 8/24/48/120 spinors.
- The discrete spinor group is isomorphic to the quaternion group Q / binary tetrahedral group 2T / binary octahedral group 2O / binary icosahedral group 2I).

# Quaternionic representations of 3D and 4D Coxeter groups

- Groups  $E_8$ ,  $D_4$ ,  $F_4$  and  $H_4$  have representations in terms of quaternions
- Extensively used in the high energy physics/quasicrystal/Coxeter/polytope literature and thought of as deeply significant, though not really clear why
- e.g.  $H_4$  consists of 120 elements of the form (±1,0,0,0),  $\frac{1}{2}(\pm 1,\pm 1,\pm 1,\pm 1)$  and (0,± $\tau$ ,±1,± $\sigma$ )
- Seen as remarkable that the subset of the 30 pure quaternions is a realisation of  $H_3$  (a sub-root system)
- Similarly,  $B_3$  and  $A_1 \times A_1 \times A_1$  have representations in terms of pure quaternions
- Clifford provides a much simpler geometric explanation

#### Quaternionic representations in the literature



## Demystifying Quaternionic Representations

- Pure quaternion subset of 4D groups only gives 3D group if the 3D group contains the inversion/pseudoscalar /
- e.g. does not work for the tetrahedral group A<sub>3</sub>, but A<sub>3</sub> → D<sub>4</sub> induction still works, with the central node essentially 'spinorial'
- In fact, it goes the other way around: the 3D groups induce the 4D groups via spinors
- The rank-4 groups are also generated (under quaternion multiplication) by two quaternions we can identify as
   R<sub>1</sub> = α<sub>1</sub>α<sub>2</sub> and R<sub>2</sub> = α<sub>2</sub>α<sub>3</sub>
- Can see these are 'spinor generators' and how they don't really contain any more information/roots than the rank-3 groups alone

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# Quaternions vs Clifford versors

- Sandwiching is often seen as particularly nice feature of the quaternions giving rotations
- This is actually a general feature of Clifford algebras/versors in any dimension; the isomorphism to the quaternions is accidental to 3D
- However, the root system construction does not necessarily generalise
- 2D generalisation merely gives that  $I_2(n)$  is self-dual
- Octonionic generalisation just induces two copies of the above 4D root systems, e.g.  $A_3 \rightarrow D_4 \oplus D_4$
- Recently constructed  $E_8$  from the 240 pinors doubly covering 120 elements of  $H_3$  in  $2^3 = 8$ -dimensional 3D Clifford algebra