

Clifford algebras and spinors

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This essay will present a brief outline of the theory of Clifford algebras, together with a small amount of material about quadratic forms. I follow loosely the well known book **Geometric algebra** by Emil Artin, but with elegant modifications that I saw originally in some lecture notes by Raoul Bott, (dating from 1962), subsequently included in [Atiyah-Bott-Shapiro:1964].

In the first section, I'll recall a few facts about quadratic forms and orthogonal groups that will be needed eventually. In the second, I'll discuss quaternion algebras, which will play a major role later on. In the third, I'll look at Clifford algebras, and spin groups. In the fourth, I'll exhibit a number of examples, mostly in low dimensions.

Throughout, unless specified otherwise, F will be an arbitrary field of characteristic other than two, and Q will be a nondegenerate quadratic form on the F -vector space V .

Contents

1. Quadratic spaces
2. Quaternion algebras
3. Spinors
4. Examples
5. References

1. Quadratic spaces

In this essay, a quadratic form on a vector space V over F is a function Q such that the function

$$u \circ v = (1/2)(Q(u+v) - Q(u) - Q(v))$$

is bilinear. (This requires that the characteristic not be equal to 2.) If V is given a basis $\{v_i\}$, the form Q corresponds to a symmetric matrix M_Q such that

$$Q(v) = {}^t v M_Q v.$$

The (i, j) entry in M_Q is $v_i \circ v_j$. The determinant of M_Q modulo $(F^\times)^2$ is a well defined invariant of the form, called its **discriminant**.

Thus

$$Q(u+v) = Q(u) + 2(u \circ v) + Q(v), \quad u \circ u = Q(u).$$

If X is any subset of V , let

$$X^\perp = \{v \in V \mid v \circ x = 0 \text{ for all } x \in X\}.$$

The intersection $X \cap X^\perp$ may be non-trivial, in which case it will be made up of **isotropic** elements, on which Q vanishes. It is always a vector subspace. The assumption that Q is nondegenerate means that $V^\perp = \{0\}$. Equivalently, the map

$$\mathfrak{B}: V \longrightarrow \text{Hom}(V, F), \quad v \longmapsto [u \longmapsto v \circ u]$$

is an isomorphism.

1.1. Lemma. *If V has dimension n and U is a linear subspace of V of dimension d , then U^\perp has dimension $n - d$.*

Proof. It is the kernel of the composition of \mathfrak{B} with restriction to U . ▮

1.2. Lemma. *If U is a subspace of V on which the restriction of Q is nondegenerate, then*

$$V = U \oplus U^\perp.$$

Proof. Because $U \cap U^\perp = \{0\}$. ▮

As a special case:

1.3. Lemma. *If $Q(v) \neq 0$ then every vector w in V can be expressed as $c \cdot v + u$ with u in v^\perp .*

Proof. Familiar. Explicitly

$$c = \frac{w \circ v}{Q(v)}. \quad \text{▮}$$

With our assumption that the characteristic of F is not two, one can always choose a basis that makes M_Q diagonal:

1.4. Proposition. *There exists in V a basis (v_i) such that $v_i \circ v_j = 0$ if $i \neq j$.*

Proof. By induction on the dimension of V . If $n = 1$, the result is trivial. Otherwise, choose v_n such that $Q(v_n) \neq 0$, and applying the previous Lemma write $V = F \cdot v_n \oplus v_n^\perp$. Apply induction. ▮

QUADRATIC FIELD EXTENSIONS. Suppose E/F to be a separable quadratic field extension, considered as a vector space over F . The norm map $x \mapsto x\bar{x}$ is a quadratic form on E .

HYPERBOLIC SPACES. In general, V will contain isotropic vectors. One quadratic space with lots of them is the hyperbolic space of dimension $2m$. If $m = 1$, this is the quadratic space H_2 whose matrix is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The space H_{2m} is the orthogonal sum of m copies of H_2 . In a suitable coordinate system, its form matrix is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & I_m \\ I_m & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

A subspace of V is called isotropic if Q vanishes identically on it.

1.5. Lemma. *If $\{u_i\}$ is the basis of an isotropic subspace U of V , there exist vectors w_i in V spanning an isotropic subspace W such that*

$$u_i \circ w_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

In these circumstances,

$$V = U \oplus W \oplus (U \oplus W)^\perp.$$

Proof. By induction. It suffices to show that there exists w such that

$$w \circ u_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

I leave this as an exercise. ▮

THE ORTHOGONAL GROUP. The orthogonal group $O(Q)$ is that of all X in $GL(V)$ preserving Q , and $SO(Q)$ is the intersection $O(Q) \cap SL(V)$. If V is given a coordinate system, the group $O(Q)$ is that of all matrices X such that

$${}^t X M_Q X = M_Q.$$

It follows from this formula that $\det(X) = \pm 1$, so that $O(Q)/SO(Q)$ has at most two elements. If $Q(v) \neq 0$ the map

$$r_v: u \mapsto u - 2 \left(\frac{u \circ v}{Q(v)} \right) \cdot v$$

is an orthogonal reflection in the hyperplane v^\perp . The determinant of a reflection is -1 , so $O(Q)/SO(Q) = \{\pm 1\}$.

The following is Theorem 3.20 of [Artin:1966].

1.6. Theorem. *In a non-degenerate quadratic space of dimension n , every transformation σ in $O(Q)$ can be expressed as a product of at most n reflections.*

Proof. The proof will be by induction on n , and will take a while.

If σ fixes an **anisotropic** vector v (that is to say, such that $Q(v) \neq 0$) then it is essentially an isometry in the space v^\perp of dimension $n - 1$, so we may apply induction to see that it is a product of at most $n - 1$ reflections.

If there exists a vector v such that $u = \sigma(v) - v$ is anisotropic, let ρ be the reflection r_u , which will take v to $\sigma(v)$, and $\rho\sigma$ will be an isometry that fixes v , so we may apply the earlier case.

So now we are reduced to the case in which (i) all vectors fixed by σ are isotropic and (ii) if v is anisotropic then $\sigma(v) - v$ is isotropic. I claim:

1.7. Lemma. *In these circumstances, σ lies in $SO(Q)$.*

Proof of the Lemma. In several steps.

Step 1. *No matter whether v is anisotropic or not, $\sigma(v) - v$ is isotropic.*

This should be intuitive. For example, suppose $F = \mathbb{R}$. The set of all $\sigma(v) - v$ is a linear subspace W of V . The anisotropic vectors in V are dense, and therefore their image in W is also dense. But Q is continuous, so it vanishes in all of W .

If a subset Ω of \mathbb{R}^n is open and v is an arbitrary vector in \mathbb{R}^n , then perturbations of v will generically lie in Ω . This suggests the following general proof.

Suppose ν to be isotropic. Then for any anisotropic v and ε in F

$$Q(\nu + \varepsilon v) = \varepsilon \nu \circ v + \varepsilon^2 Q(v).$$

But since V is nondegenerate the vector space ν^\perp has dimension $n - 1 > 1$, so we may find an anisotropic v in it, and then

$$Q(\nu + \varepsilon v) = \varepsilon^2 Q(v).$$

Thus $Q(\nu + \varepsilon v)$ is anisotropic for all $\varepsilon \neq 0$. For $\varepsilon \neq 0$

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= Q(\sigma(\nu + \varepsilon v) - (\nu + \varepsilon v)) \\ &= Q((\sigma(\nu) - \nu) + \varepsilon(\sigma(v) - v)) \\ &= Q(\sigma(\nu) - \nu) + \varepsilon(\sigma(\nu) - \nu) \circ (\sigma(v) - v). \end{aligned}$$

But $|F| > 2$, so each term in this linear function of ε must vanish, which proves the claim. ▣

Step 2. Let W be the image of the linear map $v \mapsto \sigma(v) - v$. The form Q vanishes identically on W , so it has dimension $d \leq n/2$. The claim now is that σ fixes every v in W^\perp , which is of dimension $n - d$.

Suppose v to lie in W^\perp . Then for every u in V

$$\begin{aligned} (\sigma(v) - v) \circ u &= \sigma(v) \circ u - v \circ u \\ &= v \circ \sigma^{-1}(u) - v \circ u \\ &= v \circ (\sigma^{-1}(u) - u) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

since if $u = \sigma(x)$ then $\sigma^{-1}(u) - u = x - \sigma(x)$ lies in W . But since $\text{RAD}(V) = 0$, $v = 0$. ▮

Step 3. Since σ fixes no anisotropic vector, all vectors in W^\perp are isotropic, and must have dimension at most $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$. Therefore $n - d = d$, $n = 2d$, and $W = W^\perp$ is a maximal isotropic subspace of V . The space V itself must be a hyperbolic space of dimension $2d$, a direct sum of hyperbolic planes.

Step 4. Now choose a basis $\{w_i\}$ of W and a dual basis \widehat{w}_i of an isotropic complement U . The matrix of σ must be of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} I & S \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}.$$

But this lies in $\text{SO}(Q)$, and the Lemma is proved. ▮

Now to conclude the proof of the Theorem. First of all, we know from the Lemma that it is true for any σ in $O(Q)$ with $\det(\sigma) = -1$.

Let ρ be any reflection in $O(Q)$. Then $\rho\sigma$ has $\det = -1$, and hence we may write

$$\rho\sigma = r_1 \dots r_m$$

with $m \leq 2d$. But since $\rho\sigma$ has $\det = -1$, m must be odd, hence $m \leq 2d - 1$. Write $\sigma = \rho r_1 \dots r_m$. ▮

2. Quaternion algebras

In this section F is allowed to have characteristic two.

Suppose E/F to be a separable quadratic extension. It might even be the algebra $F \oplus F$. For α in F^\times , let $B = B_{E,\alpha}$ be the algebra generated over F by E and an element σ , with relations

$$x\sigma = \sigma\bar{x}, \quad \sigma^2 = \alpha.$$

The field F embeds into it, and its image is the centre of B .

If c lies in E^\times , then changing σ to $c\sigma$ determines an isomorphic algebra, and α changes to $c\bar{c}\alpha$, so the isomorphism class of $B_{E,\alpha}$ depends only on the image of α in F^\times/NE^\times .

The field E acts on the right on B , so the identification with E^2 is the map

$$(x, y) \mapsto x + \sigma y.$$

Acting by multiplication on the left, B commutes with this right action of E . This gives us an embedding of B into $M_2(E)$. Explicitly, $x + \sigma y$ takes

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &\mapsto x + \sigma y \\ \sigma &\mapsto x + \sigma y\sigma \\ &= x\sigma + \sigma^2\bar{y} \\ &= \sigma\bar{x} + \alpha\bar{y}. \end{aligned}$$

In other words, it corresponds to the matrix

$$\mu(x + \sigma y) = \begin{bmatrix} x & \alpha\bar{y} \\ y & \bar{x} \end{bmatrix}.$$

In conformity with the theory of Galois descent, these are the matrices such that $\gamma^{-1}\bar{X}\gamma = X$, with

$$\gamma = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \alpha \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The embedding of B into $M_2(E)$ determines by restriction the trace operator $X \mapsto \text{trace}(X)$. The determinant of $\mu(x + \sigma y)$ is

$$N_{B/F}(x) = x\bar{x} - \alpha y\bar{y}.$$

Both the trace and the norm lie in F , and the norm is a homomorphism from B^\times to F^\times . Considering B as a vector space over F , this gives us a non-degenerate quadratic form of dimension four.

Define the **conjugate** of $x + \sigma y$ to be $\bar{x} + \bar{y}\sigma$. Conjugation is an involutory anti-automorphism. The norm map can then be expressed as

$$(2.1) \quad N(x + \sigma y) = (x + \sigma y)(\bar{x} - \bar{y}\sigma) = (x + \sigma y)\overline{(x + \sigma y)}.$$

2.2. Proposition. *If α lies in NE^\times then $B_{E,\alpha}$ is isomorphic to $M_2(F)$, and otherwise it is a division algebra.*

In particular, if $E = F \oplus F$ then B is isomorphic to $M_2(F)$. If E is a field, then $E \otimes E$ is isomorphic to $E \oplus E$, so that $B \otimes K$ is isomorphic to $M_2(K)$ for any extension field K/F into which E embeds.

Proof. Suppose λ to be a generator of E/F , satisfying the quadratic equation

$$\lambda^2 - a\lambda + b = 0.$$

Take $1, \lambda$ as a basis of E/F . Since

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda \cdot 1 &= \lambda \\ \lambda \cdot \lambda &= a\lambda - b \end{aligned}$$

we get an embedding of E into $M_2(F)$ taking

$$\lambda \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -b \\ 1 & a \end{bmatrix}.$$

But then

$$\bar{\lambda} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

If

$$\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

then $\sigma^2 = I$ and

$$\sigma \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sigma^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -b \\ 1 & a \end{bmatrix}$$

so that $B_{E,1}$ is isomorphic to $M_2(F)$.

Now suppose α does not lie in NE^\times . Then from (2.1) one can see that $N(z) \neq 0$ unless $z = 0$, and $z \neq 0$ has as inverse $\bar{z}/N(z)$. ▮

Example. Suppose that F does not have characteristic two. Then $E = F(\sqrt{\beta})$ for some β . Say $\lambda = \sqrt{\beta}$. Then B has as basis

$$1, \lambda, \sigma, \sigma\lambda$$

whose squares are

$$1, \beta, \alpha, -\alpha\beta.$$

The norm form is

$$N(x, y, z, w) = x^2 - \beta y^2 - \alpha z^2 + \alpha\beta w^2.$$

This form has discriminant 1, and in fact this property characterizes the four-dimensional forms defined by quaternion algebras.

If $F = \mathbb{R}$, $E = \mathbb{C}$, and $\alpha = -1$ then B is Hamilton's quaternions \mathbb{H} .

The data (E, α) determining B are not at all unique. If K/F is any quadratic extension embedded into B there exists some β in B such that (k, β) also define B . It commonly happens that B contains lots of quadratic extensions. For p -adic fields there is exactly one quaternion division algebra, into which all quadratic extensions embed.

What is the orthogonal group of $N_{B/F}$? First of all, if ν lies in $N_{E/F}^1$ then multiplication

$$(a) \quad X \mapsto \nu X$$

preserves the norm. So does conjugation by any element of B^\times :

$$(b) \quad X \mapsto \mu X \mu^{-1}.$$

Since

$$\mu \cdot \nu X \cdot \mu^{-1} = \mu \nu \mu^{-1} \cdot \mu X \mu^{-1}$$

the two types of orthogonal transformations in (a) and (b) give rise to a homomorphism from the semi-direct product $N_{B/F}^1 \rtimes (B^\times/F^\times)$ to the special orthogonal group of $N_{B/F}$.

2.3. Proposition. *This homomorphism from $N_{B/F}^1 \rtimes (B^\times/F^\times)$ to $\text{SO}(N_{B/F})$ is an isomorphism.*

The orthogonal group contains in addition the conjugation operator.

Associated to B is also a quadratic space of dimension three. The kernel has dimension three, on which one may consider the restriction of $N_{B/F}$, which I'll call $N_{B,0}$. Conjugations by elements of B^\times take this space to itself and preserve $N_{B,0}$.

2.4. Proposition. *The canonical homomorphism from B^\times/F^\times to $\text{SO}(N_{B,0})$ is an isomorphism.*

ALGEBRAIC GROUPS. The group F^\times may be considered as the F -rational points of a one-dimensional algebraic subvariety

$$\{(x, y) \mid xy = 1\}$$

of F^2 . Similarly E^\times may be regarded as the F -rational points of a two-dimensional variety, and B^\times as those on an algebraic variety of dimension four. Related algebraic varieties defined over F include B^\times/F^\times and $N_{B/F}^1$. The embedding of $N_{B/F}^1$ into B^\times induces a homomorphism from $N_{B/F}^1$ to B^\times/F^\times , whose kernel is $\{\pm 1\}$. As a homomorphism of algebraic groups it is a surjection, which means that the associated map of points rational over an algebraic closure is surjective, but it is not generally a surjection of F -rational points.

For example, if B is the real quaternion algebra \mathbb{H} the map of \mathbb{R} -rational points is surjective, whereas if $B = M_2(\mathbb{R})$ it is not. Of course the homomorphism of \mathbb{C} -rational points, from $\text{SL}_2(\mathbb{C})$ to $\text{GL}_2(\mathbb{C})/\mathbb{C}^\times$, is surjective.

3. Spinors

The **Clifford algebra** $C = C(V, Q)$ is the quotient of $\bigotimes^\bullet V$ by the two-sided ideal generated by tensors of the form $v \otimes v - Q(v)$. It inherits a multiplication from the tensor algebra. Now

$$Q(u+v) - Q(u) - Q(v) = 2(u \circ v) = (u+v)^2 - u^2 - v^2 = u \cdot v + v \cdot u.$$

For example, if $u \circ v = 0$ then $u \cdot v = -v \cdot u$. Thus u and v do not generally commute.

3.1. Lemma. *Suppose V to have dimension n , and let (e_i) be a basis. Then the algebra C has dimension 2^n , and a basis is made up of the images e_S of the tensors*

$$e_{i_1} \otimes \dots \otimes e_{i_k}$$

as S runs through ordered subsets $\{i_1 < \dots < i_k\}$ of $[1, n]$.

Proof. This is because C may be filtered by order, and the graded module is the exterior algebra. ▮

There is a simple formula for the product of two basis elements. Define an operation on ordered subsets of $[1, n]$:

$$S \dot{+} T = (S \cup T) - (S \cap T).$$

In effect, this is bit-wise addition modulo 2. Define also a function on pairs from $[1, n]$:

$$(s, t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s \leq t \\ -1 & \text{if } s > t. \end{cases}$$

3.2. Lemma. For S, T ordered subsets of $[1, n]$

$$e_S \cdot e_T = \prod_{S \times T} (s, t) \cdot \prod_{S \cap T} Q(e_u) \cdot e_{S \dot{+} T}.$$

Proof. By induction on $|S|$, since $e_s \cdot e_t = -e_t \cdot e_s$ if $s \neq t$. ▮

The ring C is itself graded by parity of degree, defining C^0 and C^1 . There exists a canonical embedding of V into C^1 , and I shall identify V with its image. It generates C .

The Clifford algebra possesses a natural universal property, characterizing homomorphisms from the tensor algebra that factor through $C(V)$. Because of this, and since $Q(-v) = Q(v)$, there exists a unique **involutive automorphism**

$$\alpha: C \longrightarrow C, \quad v \longmapsto -v.$$

The parity grading of $C(V)$ is the eigenspace decomposition of α .

There is also the **transpose**

$$x \mapsto {}^t x, \quad e_1 \otimes \dots \otimes e_k \mapsto e_k \otimes \dots \otimes e_1,$$

which is an **anti-automorphism**. And finally is also the **conjugation** anti-automorphism

$$x \mapsto \bar{x} = \alpha({}^t x) = {}^t \alpha(x).$$

For every x in $C(Q)$, define its **norm**

$$N(x) = x \cdot \bar{x}.$$

Example. Suppose V to be \mathbb{R}^2 with basis i, j and $Q(xi + yj) = -(x^2 + y^2)$. If $k = ij$ in $C(Q)$, then $k^2 = -1$ and the algebra $C(Q)$ may then be identified with Hamiltonian's quaternions \mathbb{H} . The conjugate of $w + xi + yj + zk$ is $w - xi - yj - zk$,

$$N(w + xi + yj + zk) = w^2 + x^2 + y^2 + z^2,$$

and the norm map is a homomorphism. In general, the norm map does not behave in such a simple fashion, as we shall see.

Let $C = C(V)$. The **Clifford group** of C is the subgroup Γ of x in C^\times such that the map

$$\rho(x): v \mapsto \alpha(x)vx^{-1}$$

takes V to itself. It is a group, stable under transpose and conjugation, and ρ is a group homomorphism into $\text{GL}(V)$.

Remark. [Artin:1966] defines a version of ρ by ordinary conjugation, not this twisted conjugation. This causes him a fair amount of difficulty with signs. It is here that I am following [Bott:1962-3]. There is an illuminating discussion of the point in §3 of Brian Conrad's Math 210 lecture notes. The basic problem with Artin's definition is that, when n is odd, the center of the Clifford algebra—and hence the kernel of his ρ —is a linear combination of elements in C^0 and C^1 . Lack of homogeneity makes many formulations and proofs rather awkward.

What is the image of ρ ? What is its kernel? We shall work slowly towards proving:

3.3. Theorem. *The homomorphism ρ is a surjection from Γ onto $O(Q)$. The kernel of the map consists of the scalars F^\times .*

There are three things to be shown: (a) that the image contains $O(Q)$, (b) that its kernel is the scalars, and (c) that the image is contained in $O(Q)$. I show these in several steps.

Step 1. The vector v is a unit in C if and only if $Q(v) \neq 0$, in which case

$$v^{-1} = v/Q(v).$$

Then $\alpha(v) = -v$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha(v)uv^{-1} &= -vuv/Q(v) \\ &= -v(2u \circ v - vu)/Q(v) \\ &= -2 \cdot \frac{u \circ v}{v \circ v} \cdot v + u \\ &= r_v(u). \end{aligned}$$

Hence:

3.4. Lemma. *If $Q(v) \neq 0$ then v lies in Γ and the corresponding linear transformation is the orthogonal reflection r_v .*

With Artin's definition the image is $-r_v$. This causes trouble because whether or not this lies in $SO(Q)$ depends on the dimension of V .

By Theorem 1.6, this implies claim (a).

Step 2. Next is (b): *The kernel of ρ is the group of scalars F^\times .*

This is Proposition 3.2 in [Bott:1962]. The proof is straightforward if a bit long. Suppose

$$\alpha(x)v = vx$$

for all v in V . If $x = x_0 + x_1$ with $x_i \in C^i$, then upon matching parities this translates to

$$x_0v = vx_0, \quad -x_1v = vx_1.$$

Suppose $e = e_i$ to be a basis element of V . We can write x_0 uniquely as $a + eb$ in terms of the basis e_S , with a in C^0 and b in C^1 , neither of them involving any terms with a factor e . Setting $v = e$ we get

$$ae + ebe = ea + Q(e)b.$$

Since neither a nor b contains any factor e , Lemma 3.2 tells us that $ae = ea$ and $be = -eb$. We can hence cancel $ea = ae$ from both sides. We then deduce that $Q(e)b = -Q(e)b$, which implies that $b = 0$. Hence the expansion of x_0 cannot involve any e_S with i in S . Since e_i was arbitrary, x_0 must be a scalar.

Suppose similarly that $x_1 = a + eb$ with a in C^1 , b in C^0 . Now

$$av + ebv = -va - veb$$

for all v . Setting $v = e$ we conclude immediately this time that $b = 0$. Now set $a = ec$ with c in C^0 . We have

$$vec = -ecv$$

for all v in V . Setting $v = e$ we deduce that $c = 0$, hence $x_1 = 0$. ▮

Step 3. Recall the **norm** map

$$N(x) = x \cdot \bar{x} = x \cdot \alpha({}^t x).$$

I claim that $N(x) \in F^\times$ for x in Γ .

Proof. It suffices to show that it is in the kernel of ρ . Let u in V be given, and let $v = \rho(x)u$. Then

$$\alpha(x)ux^{-1} = v.$$

Apply the transpose map to get

$${}^t x^{-1} u {}^t \alpha(x) = v = \alpha(x)ux^{-1}$$

so that

$$\alpha(\alpha({}^t x)x)u(\alpha({}^t x)x)^{-1} = u.$$

Therefore $\bar{x}x = c$ lies in F^\times and $x^{-1} = \bar{x}/c$ so $x\bar{x} = c$ as well. ▮

Step 4. The map N is a homomorphism from Γ to F^\times .

Proof. By the previous step

$$N(xy) = xy \cdot \overline{yx} = x \cdot N(y) \cdot \bar{x} = N(x)N(y). ▮$$

Step 5. The image of ρ is contained in $O(Q)$.

Proof. By the previous step

$$N(\rho(x)v) = N(\alpha(x)yx^{-1}) = N(\alpha(x))N(v)N(x)^{-1} = N(v). ▮$$

This concludes the proof of the Theorem. ▮

3.5. Proposition. The group Γ is the union of $\Gamma \cap C^0$ and $\Gamma \cap C^1$.

Proof. Follows from Theorem 1.6 and Theorem 3.3. ▮

Define

$$\text{GSpin}(Q) = \Gamma \cap C^0.$$

The image of $\text{GSpin}(Q)$ with respect to ρ is equal to $\text{SO}(Q)$. More precisely:

3.6. Theorem. This sequence is exact:

$$1 \longrightarrow F^\times \longrightarrow \text{GSpin}(Q) \longrightarrow \text{SO}(Q) \longrightarrow 1.$$

Let $\text{Spin}(Q)$ be the subgroup of $\text{GSpin}(Q)$ on which $N = 1$. In general, the map

$$\text{Spin}(Q) \longrightarrow \text{SO}(Q)$$

is not surjective.

4. Examples

In this section I'll exhibit a number of examples. They will all be of dimension of at most four. In these low dimensions, there is a very simple criterion for deciding whether or not a given x in $C^0(Q)$ actually lies in Γ .

4.1. Lemma. *If $n \leq 4$, an element x of $C^0(Q)$ lies in Γ if and only if $N(x)$ lies in F^\times .*

Proof. We have already proved one half of this.

Supposing x to lie in C^0 and $N(x)$ to lie in F^\times , we must show that $u = xv x^{-1}$ lies in V whenever v lies in V . But since $N(x)$ lies in F^\times , $x^{-1} = {}^t_c/N(x)$, from which we deduce that ${}^t_u = u$. However, under the assumption that $n \leq 4$ the subspace of x in $C^1(Q)$ with ${}^t_x = x$ coincides with V . ■

This is enhanced by the observation that if $n \leq 3$ then $N(x)$ lies in F^\times for all x in $C^0(Q)$.

Example. Take $V = F \cdot v$, $Q(x \cdot v) = ax^2$. Then C is spanned by 1 and v , with $v \cdot v = a$, and $C(Q)$ is isomorphic to $F(\sqrt{a})$. If a is a square, this is isomorphic as a ring to the direct sum $F \oplus F$.

Example. Take $F = \mathbb{R}$, $V = \mathbb{R} \cdot j + \mathbb{R} \cdot k$, with $Q(xj + yk) = -(x^2 + y^2)$. If $i = jk$, then also $i^2 = -1$. Embed \mathbb{C} into C^0 , taking $\sqrt{-1}$ to i . Then C is the space $\mathbb{C} + \mathbb{C}j$ and

$$jz = \bar{z}j.$$

We may identify C^1 with $\mathbb{C}j$. We have relations

$$\begin{aligned} i^2 = j^2 = k^2 &= -1 \\ ij = k, \quad jk = i, \quad ki = j, \end{aligned}$$

so C is isomorphic to the quaternion algebra \mathbb{H} . The group GSpin is isomorphic to \mathbb{C}^\times and if V is identified with $\mathbb{C}j$, z acts as rotation by z/\bar{z} .

Example. Take $F = \mathbb{R}$, $V = \mathbb{R}^3$ with basis e_i , $Q(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$. Set

$$\begin{aligned} i &= e_2 e_3 \\ j &= e_3 e_1 \\ k &= e_1 e_2 \end{aligned}$$

Then C^0 is isomorphic to \mathbb{H} , GSpin is \mathbb{H}^\times and Spin is the kernel of $N_{\mathbb{H}/\mathbb{R}}$.

Example. Let F be arbitrary, (V, Q) the hyperbolic plane. If u, v are a hyperbolic basis, then

$$e = (u + v)/2, \quad f = (u - v)/2$$

satisfy

$$Q(e) = 1, \quad Q(f) = -1 \quad e \circ f = 0.$$

Mapping

$$e \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad f \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

determines an isomorphism of $C(Q)$ with $M_2(F)$. It takes

$$ef \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad fe \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The group Spin is that of diagonal matrices

$$\begin{bmatrix} t & 0 \\ 0 & 1/t \end{bmatrix} = t \cdot \frac{(1 + ef)}{2} + (1/t) \cdot \frac{(1 - ef)}{2},$$

which act as hyperbolic rotations $(x, y) \mapsto (t^2x, y/t^2)$.

Example. Suppose $(V, Q) = H_{2d}$, with orthogonal basis e_i, f_i . Then $\text{Spin}(Q)$ contains the elements

$$t \cdot \frac{(1 + e_i f_i)}{2} + (1/t) \cdot \frac{(1 - e_i f_i)}{2}$$

which generate a torus isomorphic to $(F^\times)^d$. Relating this algebraic torus to one in $\text{SO}(Q)$ will eventually show that Spin is a Zariski-connected algebraic variety.

Example. Let F be arbitrary, v the space of 2×2 matrices of trace 0, $Q = -\det$. If we take as coordinates

$$\begin{bmatrix} z & x \\ y & -z \end{bmatrix}$$

the form Q becomes $xy + z^2$. The group $\text{GL}_2(F)$ acts on this by conjugation, preserving Q . The group $\text{PGL}_2(F)$ therefore embeds into $\text{O}(Q)$. This is the unique irreducible representation of $\text{PGL}_2(F)$. The image

of $\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$ (suitably rearranged) is

$$\begin{bmatrix} a/b & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & b/a \end{bmatrix}.$$

and the image of PGL_2 therefore lies in $\text{SO}(Q)$, and in fact is isomorphic to it. The group $\text{O}(Q)$ is generated by its image and $-I$.

As a mild generalization of this, take (V, Q) to be any three-dimensional quadratic space with isotropic vectors. It will be equivalent to $H \oplus ax^2$ for some $a \neq 0$.

Say

$$v_1^2 = 1, \quad v_2^2 = -1, \quad v_3^2 = a.$$

Set

$$\gamma_1 = v_2 v_3, \quad \gamma_2 = v_3 v_1, \quad \gamma_3 = \gamma_1 \gamma_2 = -a v_1 v_2.$$

These, together with 1, form a basis of C^0 . We have

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_1^2 &= v_2 v_3 v_2 v_3 \\ &= -v_2^2 v_3^2 \\ &= a \\ \gamma_2^2 &= v_3 v_1 v_3 v_1 \\ &= -v_1^2 v_3^2 \\ &= -a \\ \gamma_3^2 &= a^2 v_1 v_2 v_1 v_2 \\ &= -a^2 v_1^2 v_2^2 \\ &= a^2. \end{aligned}$$

The algebra $C^0(Q)$ is therefore a quaternion algebra. Its norm form is

$$x^2 - ay^2 + az^2 - a^2 w^2.$$

It is in fact isomorphic to $M_2(F)$, since the norm form is isotropic. Consequently, $\Gamma = \text{GL}_2(F)$ and the spin group is $\text{SL}_2(F)$.

Example. Let F be arbitrary, E/F quadratic. Let V be the vector space of all 2×2 Hermitian matrices

$$h = \begin{bmatrix} y+x & z \\ \bar{z} & y-x \end{bmatrix}$$

Let Q be the quadratic form

$$(-1/2) \det(h) = z\bar{z} + x^2 - y^2,$$

which takes values in F . Then $\text{Spin}(Q)$ is $\text{SL}_2(E)$. The group $\text{SL}_2(E)$ acts on this:

$$h \mapsto gh^t\bar{g},$$

and we get therefore an embedding of $\text{SL}_2(E)$ into $\text{SO}(Q)$. In fact, this identifies $\text{SL}_2(E)$ with $\text{Spin}(Q)$.

How to see this? Let $E = F(\sqrt{\alpha})$,

$$\begin{aligned} v_1^2 &= 1 \\ v_2^2 &= -1 \\ v_3^2 &= 1 \\ v_4^2 &= -\alpha \end{aligned}$$

The ring $C^0(Q)$ therefore contains the Clifford algebra associated to the quadratic space $H \oplus F$, which we know to be $M_2(F)$. If

$$\gamma = v_1 v_2 v_3 v_4.$$

then

$$\gamma^2 = \alpha.$$

This means that $F \oplus F \cdot \gamma$ generates a ring isomorphic to E . Furthermore, γ generates the center of C^0 . This gives an embedding of $M_2(E)$ into C^0 , which turns out to be an isomorphism. The group Γ is that of all x in $\text{GL}_2(K)$ such that $\det(x)$ lies in F^\times , and $\text{Spin}(Q)$ must be $\text{SL}_2(K)$.

Example. In a later version, I'll explain the cases $(V, Q) = H_4 \oplus x^2$, in which the spin group is $\text{Sp}_4(F)$. Also let $(V, Q) = H_6$, in which the spin group is $\text{SL}_4(F)$.

LANGLANDS DUALITY.

4.2. Proposition. *The groups GSp_{2n} and GSpin_{2n+1} are Langlands duals.*

This is Proposition 2.4 of [Asgari:2002].

As an example of a low-dimensional accident:

4.3. Proposition. *The group GSpin_5 is isomorphic to GSp_4 .*

Proof. This is not quite immediate. We need a suitable isomorphism τ of $X^*(T)$ with $X_*(T)$. It must take Δ to Δ^\vee , as must also its transpose tT . The transpose tT is defined by the equation

$$\langle {}^t\tau(u), v \rangle = \langle u, \tau(v) \rangle.$$

But if $\gamma = \varepsilon_1$ the pairing matrix is

$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle \alpha, \alpha^\vee \rangle & \langle \alpha, \beta^\vee \rangle & \langle \alpha, \gamma^\vee \rangle \\ \langle \beta, \alpha^\vee \rangle & \langle \beta, \beta^\vee \rangle & \langle \beta, \gamma^\vee \rangle \\ \langle \gamma, \alpha^\vee \rangle & \langle \gamma, \beta^\vee \rangle & \langle \gamma, \gamma^\vee \rangle \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -2 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

so the map

$$\begin{aligned} \tau: \alpha &\mapsto \beta^\vee \\ \beta &\mapsto \alpha^\vee \\ \gamma &\mapsto \gamma^\vee. \end{aligned}$$

is the one we are looking for. 

The isomorphism is not unique, since there exists an involution of GSp_{2n} acting as I in Sp_{2n} but taking μ to $-\mu$:

$$X \mapsto {}^*X^{-1}.$$

Therefore there are two possible identifications of the dual of GSp_4 with GSp_4 , both taking B to B , T to T . (This caused me some confusion in verifying the Proposition.)

5. References

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