## 14.1 Clifford groups, Spin groups, and Pin groups

In this section, we define Clifford groups of a vector space V with a quadratic form over a field K, denoted  $\Gamma_V(K)$ . They are central extensions of orthogonal groups that fit into an exact sequence

$$1 \to K^{\times} \to \Gamma_V(K) \to O_V(K) \to 1.$$

**Definition 195** We define  $\alpha$  to be the automorphism of  $C_V(K)$  induced by -1on V (in other words the automorphism which acts by -1 on odd elements and 1 on even elements)). The Clifford group  $\Gamma_V(K)$  is the group of homogeneous invertible elements  $x \in C_V(K)$  such that  $xV\alpha(x)^{-1} \subseteq V$  (recall that  $V \subseteq C_V(K)$ ). This also gives an action of  $\Gamma_V(K)$  on V.

Many authors leave out the  $\alpha$ , which is a mistake, though not a serious one, and use  $xVx^{-1}$  instead of  $xV\alpha(x)^{-1}$ . Our definition (introduced by Atiyah, Bott, and Schapiro) is better for the following reasons:

- 1. It is the correct superalgebra sign. The superalgebra convention says that whenever you exchange two elements of odd degree, you pick up a minus sign, and V is odd.
- 2. Putting  $\alpha$  in makes the theory much cleaner in odd dimensions. For example, we will see that the described action gives a map  $\Gamma_V(K) \to O_V(K)$  which is onto if we use  $\alpha$ , but not if we do not. (You get  $SO_V(K)$  rather than  $O_V(K)$  in odd dimensions without the  $\alpha$ , which is not a disaster, but is annoying.)

**Lemma 196** The elements of  $\Gamma_V(K)$  that act trivially on V are the elements of  $K^{\times} \subseteq \Gamma_V(K) \subseteq C_V(K)$ .

**Proof** Suppose  $a_0 + a_1 \in \Gamma_V(K)$  acts trivially on V, with  $a_0$  even and  $a_1$  odd. Then  $(a_0 + a_1)v = v\alpha(a_0 + a_1) = v(a_0 - a_1)$ . Matching up even and odd parts, we get  $a_0v = va_0$  and  $a_1v = -va_1$ . Choose an orthogonal basis  $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_n$  for V. (All these results are true in characteristic 2, but you have to work harder: you cannot go around choosing orthogonal bases because they may not exist.) We may write

$$a_0 = x + \gamma_1 y$$

where  $x \in C_V^0(K)$  and  $y \in C_V^1(K)$  and neither x nor y contain a factor of  $\gamma_1$ , so  $\gamma_1 x = x \gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_1 y = y \gamma_1$ . Applying the relation  $a_0 v = v a_0$  with  $v = \gamma_1$ , we see that y = 0, so  $a_0$  contains no monomials with a factor  $\gamma_1$ .

Repeat this procedure with v equal to the other basis elements to show that  $a_0 \in K^{\times}$  (since it cannot have any  $\gamma$ 's in it). Similarly, write  $a_1 = y + \gamma_1 x$ , with x and y not containing a factor of  $\gamma_1$ . Then the relation  $a_1\gamma_1 = -\gamma_1a_1$  implies that x = 0. Repeating with the other basis vectors, we conclude that  $a_1 = 0$ . So  $a_0 + a_1 = a_0 \in K \cap \Gamma_V(K) = K^{\times}$ .  $\Box$  Now we define  $-^T$  to

be the identity on V, and extend it to an anti-automorphism of  $C_V(K)$  ("anti" means that  $(ab)^T = b^T a^T$ ). Do not confuse  $a \mapsto \alpha(a)$  (automorphism),  $a \mapsto a^T$ 

(anti-automorphism), and  $a \mapsto \alpha(a^T)$  (anti-automorphism). Now we define the *spinor norm* of  $a \in C_V(K)$  by  $N(a) = aa^T$ . We also

define a twisted version:  $N^{\alpha}(a) = a\alpha(a)^{T}$ .

## Proposition 197

- The restriction of N to Γ<sub>V</sub>(K) is a homomorphism whose image lies in K<sup>×</sup>. (N is a mess on the rest of C<sub>V</sub>(K).)
- 2. The action of  $\Gamma_V(K)$  on V is orthogonal. That is, we have a homomorphism  $\Gamma_V(K) \to O_V(K)$ .

**Proof** First we show that if  $a \in \Gamma_V(K)$ , then  $N^{\alpha}(a)$  acts trivially on V.

$$N^{\alpha}(a) v \alpha \left(N^{\alpha}(a)\right)^{-1} = a\alpha(a)^{T} v \left(\alpha(a) \underbrace{\alpha(\alpha(a)^{T})}_{=a^{T}}\right)^{-1}$$
(5)

$$= a \underbrace{\alpha(a)^{T} v(a^{-1})^{T}}_{=(a^{-1}v^{T}\alpha(a))^{T}} \alpha(a)^{-1}$$
(6)

$$= aa^{-1}v\alpha(a)\alpha(a)^{-1} \tag{7}$$

$$=v$$
 (8)

So by Lemma ???,  $N^\alpha(a)\in K^\times.$  This implies that  $N^\alpha$  is a homomorphism on  $\Gamma_V(K)$  because

$$N^{\alpha}(a)N^{\alpha}(b) = a\alpha(a)^{T}N^{\alpha}(b)$$
(9)

$$= aN^{\alpha}(b)\alpha(a)^{T} \qquad (N^{\alpha}(b) \text{ is central}) \qquad (10)$$

$$= ab\alpha(b)^T \alpha(a)^T \tag{11}$$

$$= (ab)\alpha(ab)^T = N^{\alpha}(ab).$$
(12)

After all this work with  $N^{\alpha}$ , what we're really interested is N. On the even elements of  $\Gamma_V(K)$ , N agrees with  $N^{\alpha}$ , and on the odd elements,  $N = -N^{\alpha}$ . Since  $\Gamma_V(K)$  consists of homogeneous elements, N is also a homomorphism from  $\Gamma_V(K)$  to  $K^{\times}$ . This proves the first statement of the proposition.

Finally, since N is a homomorphism on  $\Gamma_V(K)$ , the action on V preserves the quadratic form N of V. Thus, we have a homomorphism  $\Gamma_V(K) \to O_V(K)$ .

On V, N coincides with the quadratic form N. Some authors seem not to have noticed this, and use different letters for the norm N and the spinor norm N on V. Sometimes they use a porrly chosen sign convention which makes them different.

Now we analyze the homomorphism  $\Gamma_V(K) \to O_V(K)$ . Lemma ??? says exactly that the kernel is  $K^{\times}$ . Next we will show that the image is all of  $O_V(K)$ . Say  $r \in V$  and  $N(r) \neq 0$ .

$$rv\alpha(r)^{-1} = -rv\frac{r}{N(r)} = v - \frac{vr^2 + rvr}{N(r)}$$
$$= v - \frac{(v, r)}{N(r)}r$$
(13)

$$= \begin{cases} -r & \text{if } v = r \\ v & \text{if } (v, r) = 0 \end{cases}$$
(14)

Thus, r is in  $\Gamma_V(K)$ , and it acts on V by reflection through the hyperplane  $r^{\perp}$ . One might deduce that the homomorphism  $\Gamma_V(K) \to O_V(K)$  is surjective because  $O_V(K)$  is generated by reflections. This is wrong;  $O_V(K)$  is not always generated by reflections!

**Exercise 198** Let  $H = \mathbb{F}_2^2$ , with the quadratic form  $x^2 + y^2 + xy$ , and let  $V = H \oplus H$ . Prove that  $O_V(\mathbb{F}_2)$  is not generated by reflections.

**Solution 199** In H, the norm of any non-zero vector is 1. It is immediate to check that the reflection of a non-zero vector v through another non-zero vector u is

$$r_u(v) = \begin{cases} u & \text{if } u = v \\ v + u & \text{if } u \neq v \end{cases}$$

so reflection through a non-zero vector fixes that vector and swaps the two other non-zero vectors. Thus, the reflection in H generate the symmetric group on three elements  $S_3$ , acting on the three non-zero vectors.

If u and v are non-zero vectors, then  $(u, v) \in H \oplus H$  has norm 1 + 1 = 0, so one cannot reflect through it. Thus, every reflection in V is "in one of the H's," so the group generated by reflections is  $S_3 \times S_3$ . However, swapping the two H's is clearly an orthogonal transformation, so reflections do not generate  $O_V(\mathbb{F}_2)$ .

**Remark 200** This is the only counterexample. For any other vector space and any other non-degenerate quadratic form on this space,  $O_V(K)$  is generated by reflections. The map  $\Gamma_V(K) \to O_V(K)$  is surjective even in the example above. Also, in every case except the example above,  $\Gamma_V(K)$  is generated as a group by non-zero elements of V (i.e. every element of  $\Gamma_V(K)$  is a monomial).

**Remark 201** Equation ??? is the definition of the reflection of v through r. It is only possible to reflect through vectors of non-zero norm. Reflections in characteristic 2 are strange; strange enough that people don't call them reflections, they call them *transvections*.

## Definition 202

$$Pin_V(K) = \{x \in \Gamma_V(K) | N(x) = 1\}$$

, and

$$Spin_V(K) = Pin_V^0(K)$$

, the even elements of  $Pin_V(K)$ .

On  $K^{\times}$ , the spinor norm is given by  $x \mapsto x^2$ , so the elements of spinor norm 1 are  $= \pm 1$ .

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \to & \pm 1 & \to & Pin_V(k) & \to & \Omega_V & \to & 1 \\ & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ 1 & \to & k^* & \to & \Gamma_V(k) & \to & O_V(k) & \to & 1 \\ & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\ 1 & \to & k^{*2} & \to & k^* & \to & k^*/k^{*2} & \to & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

where the rows are exact,  $K^{\times}$  is in the center of  $\Gamma_V(K)$  (this is obvious, since  $K^{\times}$  is in the center of  $C_V(K)$ ), and  $N : O_V(K) \to K^{\times}/(K^{\times})^2$  is the unique homomorphism sending reflection through  $r^{\perp}$  to N(r) modulo  $(K^{\times})^2$ .

To see exactness of the top sequence, note that the kernel of  $\phi$  is  $K^{\times} \cap$ Pin<sub>V</sub>(K) = ±1, and that the image of Pin<sub>V</sub>(K) in  $O_V(K)$  is exactly the elements of norm 1. The bottom sequence is similar, except that the image of Spin<sub>V</sub>(K) is not all of  $O_V(K)$ , it is only  $SO_V(K)$ ; by Remark ??, every element of  $\Gamma_V(K)$  is a product of elements of V, so every element of Spin<sub>V</sub>(K) is a product of an even number of elements of V. Thus, its image is a product of an even number of reflections, so it is in  $SO_V(K)$ .

These maps are NOT always onto, but there are many important cases when they are, such as when V has a positive definite quadratic form. The image is the set of elements of  $O_V(K)$  or  $SO_V(K)$  that have spinor norm 1 in  $K^{\times}/(K^{\times})^2$ .

What is  $N: O_V(K) \to K^{\times}/(K^{\times})^2$ ? It is the UNIQUE homomorphism such that N(a) = N(r) if a is reflection in  $r^{\perp}$ , and r is a vector of norm N(r).

**Example 203** Take V to be a positive definite vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then N maps to 1 in  $\mathbb{R}^{\times}/(\mathbb{R}^{\times})^2 = \pm 1$  (because N is positive definite). So the spinor norm on  $O_V(\mathbb{R})$  is trivial.

So if V is positive definite, we get double covers

$$1 \to \pm 1 \to \operatorname{Pin}_V(\mathbb{R}) \to O_V(\mathbb{R}) \to 1$$

$$1 \to \pm 1 \to \operatorname{Spin}_V(\mathbb{R}) \to SO_V(\mathbb{R}) \to 1$$

This will account for the weird double covers we saw before.

What if V is negative definite? Every reflection now has image -1 in  $\mathbb{R}^{\times}/(\mathbb{R}^{\times})^2$ , so the spinor norm N is the same as the determinant map  $O_V(\mathbb{R}) \to \pm 1$ .

So in order to find interesting examples of the spinor norm, you have to look at cases that are neither positive definite nor negative definite.

Let's look at Lorentz space:  $\mathbb{R}^{1,3}$ .

Reflection through a vector of norm < 0 (spacelike vector, P: parity reversal) has spinor norm -1, det -1 and reflection through a vector of norm > 0 (timelike vector, T: time reversal) has spinor norm +1, det -1. So  $O_{1,3}(\mathbb{R})$  has 4 components (it is not hard to check that these are all the components), usually called 1, P, T, and PT.

**Example 204** The Weyl group of  $F_4$  is generated by reflections of vectors of norms 1 and 2. It is a subgroup of  $O_4(\mathbb{Q})$  so the spinor norm is a homomorphism to  $Q^*/Q^{*2}$ . So by combinign this with the determinant map, we get a homomorphism of this Weyl group onto the Klein 4-group  $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^2$ , mapping reflections of norm 1 or norm 2 vectors onto two different non-trivial elements. Similarly we see immediately that the Weyl group of  $B_n$  has a homomorphism onto the Klein 4-group.

**Example 205** The groups  $PSO_n(\mathbb{R})$  are simple for  $n \geq 5$ , so one might guess by analogy that the groups  $PSO_n(\mathbb{Q})$  are also simple, but the spinor norm shows immediately that they are not. In fact the spinor norm maps  $O_n(\mathbb{Q})$  onto the infinite index 2 subgroup of  $\mathbb{Q}^*/\mathbb{Q}^{*2}$  represented by positive elements, so the abelianization of  $PSO_n(\mathbb{Q})$  is infinite.