## A NOTE ON SUMS OF ROOTS

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ABSTRACT. In this paper, we look at properties of roots which can be written as sums of roots in crystallographic root systems. We derive properties of the poset associated to such a sum consisting of the subsums which are themselves roots.

**1. Introduction.** Bourbaki [1, Chapter VI] discussed basic properties of crystallographic root systems of finite Weyl groups which are of fundamental importance in Lie theory. In particular, it was shown that, given a set of positive roots  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n$ , in a crystallographic root system  $\Phi$  such that  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \cdots + \alpha_n$  is a root, we can find a permutation  $\pi$  of the indices  $1, \ldots, n$ , such that  $\alpha_{\pi(1)} + \alpha_{\pi(2)} + \cdots + \alpha_{\pi(i)}$  is a root for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . In this paper, we include a generalization of this result due to Dyer, and we examine the structure of a poset associated to such a set of roots.

If  $\Phi$  is a crystallographic root system and  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \Phi$  has the property that  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \cdots + \alpha_n \in \Phi$ , we can define an associated poset. Let  $\alpha_I = \sum_{i \in I} \alpha_i$  for  $I \subseteq [n] = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ . The set

$$C = \{ I \subseteq [n] \mid \alpha_I \in \Phi \}$$

forms a poset under the containment partial order. In this paper, we show that, for a given i with  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , the cardinality of the set  $\{I \in C \mid |I| = i\}$  is always greater than or equal to n - i + 1, and C is a graded poset. Furthermore, given any  $k \in [n]$  and any  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , there is at least one  $I \in C$  with |I| = i and  $k \in I$ . We show that, when the root system  $\Phi$  is of type  $A_n$ , the poset C is a lattice, but give a counterexample to show that, this is not the case in general.

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#### 2. Notation and definitions.

**Definition 2.1.** Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$  with a positive definite, symmetric bilinear form  $(-|-) : V \times V \to \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\Phi$  be a subset of V. Then,  $\Phi$  is said to be *a root system* in V if the following conditions are satisfied:

- (1)  $\Phi$  is finite, does not contain 0, and spans V.
- (2) For all  $\alpha \in \Phi$ , the reflection  $s_{\alpha} : V \to V$ , defined by  $s_{\alpha}(v) = v (\alpha \mid \alpha^{\vee})\alpha$ , where

$$\alpha^{\vee} = \frac{2\alpha}{(\alpha \mid \alpha)},$$

leaves  $\Phi$  stable.

(3) For  $\alpha, \phi \in \Phi$ ,  $(\phi \mid \alpha^{\vee}) \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

This type of root system is frequently referred to as a *crystallographic* root system.

We can choose a system  $\Phi^+$  of positive roots for  $\Phi$  as in Bourbaki [1, Theorem 3]. Then,  $\Phi = \Phi^+ \cup \Phi^-$  is a disjoint union where  $-\Phi^+ = \Phi^-$ . If  $\alpha, \beta \in \Phi$  such that  $\beta = c\alpha$ , where  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $c \in \{\pm 1, \pm 1/2, \pm 2\}$ [1, Proposition 8]. If a root  $\alpha \in \Phi$  is such that  $1/2\alpha \notin \Phi$ , then  $\alpha$  is called *an indivisible root*.

**Definition 2.2.** A root system  $\Phi$  is *reduced* if every root of the system is indivisible.

We let  $\Phi' = \Phi \cup \{0\}$ . If  $\Phi$  is reduced,  $\Phi'$  is the set of weights of the adjoint representation of the corresponding semisimple complex Lie algebra. The set  $\{i \in \mathbb{Z} \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$  will be denoted by [n]. For  $\pi \in S_n$ , the permutations of [n], and  $I \subseteq [n]$ , let  $\pi(I)$  denote  $\{\pi(j) \mid j \in I\}$ . If  $\alpha_i \in \Phi'$  for  $i \in [n]$  and  $I \subseteq [n]$ , we let  $\alpha_I = \sum_{i \in I} \alpha_i$  (here,  $\alpha_{\emptyset} = 0$ ).

**3.** Sums of roots. If  $\alpha \in \Phi$  and  $\beta \in \Phi'$ , we will refer to the set  $\{\beta + k\alpha \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\} \cap \Phi'$  as a root string. We have the following results on root strings from Bourbaki [1] and from Dyer (unpublished).

**Lemma 3.1** ([1, Chapter VI, Propositions 8, 9 and Theorem 1]). Let  $\alpha \in \Phi$  and  $\beta \in \Phi'$ .

- (i)  $\{k \in \mathbb{Z} \mid \beta + k\alpha \in \Phi'\} = [-q, p] \text{ for some } p, q \ge 0, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}, with <math>p q = -\langle \beta, \alpha^{\vee} \rangle.$
- (ii) If  $\langle \beta, \alpha^{\vee} \rangle > 0$ , then  $\beta \alpha \in \Phi'$  and, if  $\langle \beta, \alpha^{\vee} \rangle < 0$ , then  $\beta + \alpha \in \Phi'$ .

**Proposition 3.2** ([1, Chapter VI, Proposition 19]). Let  $\{\beta_i\}_{1 \le i \le n}$  be a sequence of positive roots such that  $\beta_{[n]}$  is a root. Then, there exists a permutation  $\pi \in S_n$  such that  $\beta_{\pi([i])}$  is a root for  $1 \le i \le n$ .

A version of the following lemma involving more restrictive hypotheses is applied in [3] to give an elementary proof, independent of the theory of semisimple Lie algebras, of a lemma of Oshima on parabolic subgroup orbits on finite root systems. The main result of this paper, Theorem 3.7, extends part (ii) of Lemma 3.3 from a set of three roots to a set of *n* roots. It would be interesting to have a proof of Theorem 3.7 in the case where  $\Phi$  is reduced using semisimple complex Lie algebras, similar to that stated in [3, Remark 4.2(2)] for the case n = 3.

**Lemma 3.3** ([3]). Let  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \Phi'$  be such that  $\alpha_{[n]} \in \Phi'$ . Then:

- (i) there exists a permutation  $\pi \in S_n$  such that  $\alpha_{\pi([i])} \in \Phi'$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .
- (ii) Suppose that n = 3 and  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \in \Phi$ , but  $\alpha_2 + \alpha_3 \notin \Phi'$ . Then,  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_3 \in \Phi'$ .
- (iii) Assume that  $\alpha_I \neq 0$  if  $\emptyset \subsetneq I \subseteq [n]$  and  $\alpha_i + \alpha_j \notin \Phi$  for any i, jwith  $2 \leq i < j \leq n$ . Then,  $\alpha_I \in \Phi$  for all  $I \subseteq [n]$  with  $1 \in I$ .

**Note 3.4.** If  $\alpha_i \in \Phi^+$  for all  $i \in [n]$ , then, for  $\emptyset \neq I \subseteq [n]$ ,  $\alpha_I \in \Phi' \Leftrightarrow \alpha_I \in \Phi^+$ .

*Proof.* The proof is trivial if  $n \leq 2$ . If  $n \geq 2$ , we use induction on n. (i)

Case 1.  $\alpha = \alpha_{[n]} \neq 0$ . Here,  $(\alpha, \alpha) = \sum_{i \in [n]} (\alpha, \alpha_i) > 0$ ; thus, there exists an  $i \in [n]$  with  $(\alpha, \alpha_i) > 0$ . Without loss of generality, we may assume that i = n. Then,  $(\alpha, \alpha_n) > 0$ , which implies that  $\langle \alpha, \alpha_n^{\vee} \rangle > 0$ , which, in turn, implies that  $\alpha_{[n-1]} = \alpha - \alpha_n \in \Phi'$ . By induction, there exists a  $\hat{\sigma} \in S_{n-1}$  such that  $\alpha_{\hat{\sigma}([i])} \in \Phi'$  for  $i \in [n-1]$ . We can extend  $\hat{\sigma}$  to  $\sigma \in S_n$  with  $\sigma(n) = n$ . Then,  $\alpha_{\sigma([i])} \in \Phi'$  for  $i \in [n]$ .

Case 2.  $\alpha_{[n]} = 0$ . In this case,  $\alpha_{[n-1]} = -\alpha_n \in \Phi'$ . By induction, there exists a  $\hat{\sigma} \in S_{n-1}$  with  $\alpha_{\hat{\sigma}([i])} \in \Phi'$  for  $i \in [n-1]$ . We can extend  $\hat{\sigma}$  to  $\sigma \in S_n$  with  $\sigma(n) = n$ . Then,  $\alpha_{\sigma([i])} \in \Phi'$  for  $i \in [n]$ .

(ii) Suppose that  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \in \Phi$ ,  $\alpha_2 + \alpha_3 \notin \Phi'$  and  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_3 \notin \Phi'$ . Since  $\alpha_2 \in \Phi'$  and  $\alpha_2 + \alpha_3 \notin \Phi'$ ,  $\alpha_3 \neq 0$ ; thus,  $\alpha_3 \in \Phi$ . Hence,  $\alpha_3 + \alpha_2 \notin \Phi'$ ,  $\alpha_2 \neq 0$  and  $\alpha_2 \in \Phi$ . By symmetry,  $\alpha_1 \in \Phi$  also. Since  $\alpha_2 + \alpha_3 \notin \Phi'$ , we must have  $\langle \alpha_2, \alpha_3^{\vee} \rangle \geq 0$ , and similarly, we must have  $\langle \alpha_1, \alpha_3^{\vee} \rangle \geq 0$ . Since  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 \in \Phi'$ ,  $-\alpha_2 \in \Phi$  and  $(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3) + (-\alpha_2) \notin \Phi'$ , we must have  $\langle \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3, -\alpha_2^{\vee} \rangle \geq 0$ . Similarly,  $\langle \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3, -\alpha_1^{\vee} \rangle \geq 0$ . Thus, we have

$$(\alpha_2, \alpha_3) \ge 0,$$
  $(\alpha_1, \alpha_3) \ge 0,$   
 $(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3, \alpha_2) \le 0,$   $(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3, \alpha_1) \le 0.$ 

Hence,

$$(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \alpha_2) \le -(\alpha_3, \alpha_2) \le 0$$

and

$$(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \alpha_1) \le -(\alpha_3, \alpha_1) \le 0.$$

Therefore, we have

$$(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \alpha_1 + \alpha_2) = (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \alpha_1) + (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \alpha_2) \le 0,$$

which implies that  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 0$  and contradicts the assumption that  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \neq 0$ , thus proving (ii).

**Note 3.5.** In a root system of type  $A_1 \times A_1$ , say  $\Phi = \{\pm \alpha, \pm \beta\}$ ,  $\alpha + (-\alpha) + \beta \in \Phi'$ ,  $\alpha + (-\alpha) = 0 \in \Phi'$ ; however,  $\alpha + \beta \notin \Phi'$  and  $-\alpha + \beta \notin \Phi'$ . Thus, result (ii) fails if we assume that  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \in \Phi'$ .

(iii) We will use induction on n. If  $n \leq 2$ , the result is trivial. Suppose that  $n \geq 3$ . By (i), there is a  $\sigma \in S_n$  such that  $\alpha_{\sigma([i])} \in \Phi'$ for all  $i \in [n]$ . By the assumption that  $\alpha_I \neq 0$  for  $I \neq \emptyset$ , we have  $\alpha_I \in \Phi' \Leftrightarrow \alpha_I \in \Phi$  for  $I \neq \emptyset$ . Thus,  $\alpha_{\sigma(1)}, \alpha_{\sigma(2)}$  and  $\alpha_{\sigma(1)} + \alpha_{\sigma(2)}$ are in  $\Phi$ . By the assumption of (iii), either  $\sigma(1) = 1$  or  $\sigma(2) = 1$ . Let  $\tilde{\sigma} \in S_n$  denote the permutation  $\sigma(1, 2)$  (first, apply the transposition (1,2), followed by  $\sigma$ ). Then,  $\alpha_{\tilde{\sigma}([i])} = \alpha_{\sigma([i])}$  for  $i \geq 3$ . Thus, we may assume that  $\sigma(1) = 1$ . By reindexing  $\alpha_2, \alpha_3, \ldots, \alpha_n$ , we may assume that  $\sigma$  is the identity permutation. We claim that  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_i \in \Phi$  for  $i \in [n] \setminus [1]$ . This is true for i = 2. Set  $\beta_1 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$ ,  $\beta_i = \alpha_{i+1}$  for  $i \in [n-1] \setminus [1]$ . Since  $\beta_{[n-1]} \in \Phi$ and  $\beta_i + \beta_j \notin \Phi$  for  $2 \le i < j \le n-1$ , induction gives  $\beta_{I'} \in \Phi$  for all  $I' \subseteq [n-1]$  with  $1 \in I'$ . Equivalently,  $\alpha_I \in \Phi$  for all  $I \subseteq [n]$  with  $[2] \subseteq I$ . In particular, for any  $j \in [n] \setminus [2], \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_j \in \Phi$ . Since  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \in \Phi$  but  $\alpha_2 + \alpha_j \notin \Phi$ , by (ii), this implies  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_j \in \Phi$  for  $j \in [n] \setminus [2]$ , proving our claim.

Now, we fix a  $j \in [n] \setminus [2]$  such that  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_j \in \Phi$ . Let  $\gamma_1 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_j$ ,  $\gamma_i = \alpha_i$  for  $i \in [j-1] \setminus [1]$  and  $\gamma_i = \alpha_{i+1}$  for  $i \in [n-1] \setminus [j-1]$ . Since  $\gamma_{[n-1]} \in \Phi$  and  $\gamma_p + \gamma_q \notin \Phi$  if  $2 \leq p < q \leq n$ , induction gives  $\gamma_{I'} \in \Phi$  if  $I' \subseteq [n-1]$  with  $1 \in I'$ , that is,  $\alpha_I \in \Phi$  if  $\{1, j\} \subseteq I$ . We have now shown that  $\alpha_I \in \Phi$  for all  $I \subseteq [n]$  such that either  $[2] \subseteq I$  or  $\{1, j\} \subseteq I, j \in [n] \setminus [2]$ . Since  $\alpha_1 \in \Phi$ , this gives  $\alpha_I \in \Phi$  for all  $I \subseteq [n]$ with  $1 \in I$ .

We now turn our attention to the poset associated to a root, which can be expressed as a sum of roots in a crystallographic root system.

**Definition 3.6.** Let  $\Phi$  denote a crystallographic root system, and let  $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n\} \subseteq \Phi$  with  $\alpha_{[n]} \in \Phi$ . The poset associated to the sum  $\alpha_{[n]}$  is the set

$$C = \{I \subseteq [n] \mid \alpha_I \in \Phi'\}$$

ordered by inclusion. For  $i \ge 1$ ,  $C_i$  denotes the subset of elements of C with cardinality  $i, C_i = \{I \in C \mid |I| = i\}$  and  $c_i$  denotes its cardinality,  $c_i = |C_i|$ .

**Theorem 3.7.** Let  $\Phi$  denote a crystallographic root system. Let  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \Phi$  with  $\alpha_{[n]} \in \Phi$  be such that  $\alpha_I \neq 0$  if  $I \subseteq [n]$  and  $I \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $c_i$  be defined as above. Then, for  $i \geq 1$ ,  $c_i \geq n - i + 1$ . Furthermore, given any  $k \in [n]$ , there exists at least one  $I \in C_i$  such that  $k \in I$ .

**Note 3.8.** The assumption that  $\alpha_I \neq 0$  if  $I \subseteq [n]$  and  $I \neq \emptyset$  holds for  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \Phi^+$ .

*Proof.* We use induction on n. Let us assume that, if 0 < j < n and  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_j \in \Phi$  with  $\alpha_{[j]} \in \Phi$ , then, for  $i \in [j]$ , the cardinality of the set  $\{I \subseteq [j] \mid |I| = i \text{ and } \alpha_I \in \Phi\}$  is  $\geq j - i + 1$  and, given any  $k \in [j]$ , there exists at least one  $I \subseteq [j]$  with |I| = i,  $\alpha_I \in \Phi$  and  $k \in I$ .

Clearly, this is true for j = 1 and 2. It is also true for j = 3 by Lemma 3.3 (ii). We may assume that the roots  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n$  are ordered in a manner such that  $\alpha_{[i]} \in \Phi$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

Assume that n > 3. For i = n, the set I = [n] has the property that  $\alpha_{[n]} \in \Phi$ ; hence,  $c_i \ge 1$  as desired, and, trivially,  $k \in I$  for all  $k \in [n]$ . Thus, we can limit our attention to the case  $0 < i \le n-1$ . We fix such an *i*. Since  $\alpha_{[n-1]} \in \Phi$ , we have by induction that

$$\#(\{I \subseteq [n-1] \mid |I| = i \text{ and } \alpha_I \in \Phi\}) \ge (n-1) - i + 1 = n - i$$

and that, for each k with  $1 \leq k \leq n-1$ , there exists at least one  $I \subseteq [n-1]$  with |I| = i,  $\alpha_I \in \Phi$  and  $k \in I$ . Therefore, it suffices to show that there is at least one  $I \subseteq [n]$  with |I| = i,  $n \in I$  and  $\alpha_I \in \Phi$ .

We have  $\alpha_{[n]} = \alpha_{[n-2]} + \alpha_{n-1} + \alpha_n \in \Phi$ . If  $\alpha_{[n-2]} + \alpha_n \in \Phi$ , then, by induction, there exists an  $I \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, n-2, n\}$  such that  $n \in I$ , |I| = iand  $\alpha_I \in \Phi$ . If  $\alpha_{[n-2]} + \alpha_n \notin \Phi$ , then, by Lemma 3.3 (ii) above, we have  $\alpha_{n-1} + \alpha_n \in \Phi$ . Therefore,  $\alpha_{[n]} = \alpha_{[n-3]} + \alpha_{n-2} + (\alpha_{n-1} + \alpha_n) \in \Phi$ . If  $\alpha_{[n-3]} + (\alpha_{n-1} + \alpha_n) \in \Phi$ , then we can use induction to find  $I \subseteq [n]$  such that  $\alpha_I \in \Phi$ , |I| = i and  $n \in I$ . Otherwise, according to Lemma 3.3 (ii), we have that  $\alpha_{n-2} + (\alpha_{n-1} + \alpha_n) \in \Phi$ . This process can continue for at most i - 1 steps prior to finding  $I \subseteq [n]$  with  $n \in I$  such that |I| = iand  $\alpha_I \in \Phi$ .

#### 4. Graded posets from sums of roots.

**Definition 4.1** ([2, 5]). A graded poset P is a finite poset with a minimum element m and a maximum element M such that every maximal chain  $m = p_0 < p_1 < \cdots < p_r = M$  has the same length r, called the rank P. If P is a graded poset, then, for any  $x \in P$ , the closed interval [m, x] is graded. The rank of x is the rank of the interval [m, x].

**Theorem 4.2.** Let  $\Phi$  denote a crystallographic root system. Let  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \Phi$  with  $\alpha_{[n]} \in \Phi$  be such that  $\alpha_I \neq 0$  if  $I \subseteq [n]$  and  $I \neq \emptyset$ . Let C be the poset associated to the sum  $\alpha_{[n]}$ . If  $I, J \in C$  with  $I \subseteq J$  and  $k = |J \setminus I| \ge 2$ , then there exists a  $K \in C$  with  $I \subseteq K \subseteq J$  and |K| = |I| + 1. Consequently, we can find  $I_1, I_2, \ldots, I_k \in C$  such that  $|I_l \setminus I_{l-1}| = 1$  for  $l \in [k]$ , and

$$I = I_0 \subseteq I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq I_k = J.$$

*Proof.* Let  $J \setminus I = \{\alpha_{j_1}, \alpha_{j_2}, \dots, \alpha_{j_k}\}$ . We use induction on k. The result is obviously true if k = 1. We have  $\alpha_J = \alpha_I + \alpha_{j_1} + \alpha_{j_2} + \dots + \alpha_{j_k} \in \Phi$ . Letting  $\alpha_{i_1} = \alpha_I, \alpha_{i_2} = \alpha_{j_1}, \alpha_{i_3} = \alpha_{j_2}, \dots, \alpha_{i_{k+1}} = \alpha_{j_k}$ , by Theorem 3.7, we have at least k+1-2+1 = k > 1 subsets L of the set of indices  $\{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_{k+1}\}$  for which |L| = 2 and  $\alpha_L \in \Phi$ . Furthermore, at least one of those subsets contains  $i_1$ . Therefore there exists a  $j_l \in J \setminus I$  such that  $\alpha_I + \alpha_{j_l} \in \Phi$ . Letting  $K = I \cup \{j_l\}$ , we have  $|K \setminus I| = 1, K \subseteq J$  and  $\alpha_K \in \Phi$ . Therefore,  $K \in C$  and, since  $|J \setminus K| = k - 1$ , we can use induction to find  $I_2, I_3, \dots, I_k \in C$ , such that  $|I_l \setminus I| = l$  and

 $I = I_0 \subseteq K = I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \dots \subseteq I_k = J.$ 

Theorems 3.7 and 4.2 yield the following:

**Theorem 4.3.** Let  $\alpha_i \in \Phi$  for  $i \in [n]$  be such that  $\alpha_{[n]} \in \Phi$  and  $\alpha_I \neq 0$ if  $I \subseteq [n]$ ,  $I \neq \emptyset$ . Let C be the poset associated to the sum  $\alpha_{[n]}$ . Then:

- (i) C is a graded poset with minimum element Ø, maximum element [n] and rank function given by I → |I| for I ∈ C.
- (ii) For  $0 \le i \le n$ , let  $C_i = \{I \in C \mid |I| = i\}$ , and let  $c_i = |C_i|$ . Then, for  $i \in [n], c_i \ge n - i + 1$ .
- (iii) If  $i, k \in [n]$ , then there exists an  $I \in C_i$  with  $k \in I$ .

**Definition 4.4.** A poset P with partial order  $\leq$  is a *lattice* if, for every pair  $x, y \in P$ , there exist elements  $x \lor y$  and  $x \land y$  in P such that

- $x \leq x \lor y, y \leq x \lor y$  and, if  $u \in P$  with  $x \leq u$  and  $y \leq u$ , then  $x \lor y \leq u$ ,
- $x \ge x \land y, y \ge x \land y$  and, if  $l \in P$  with  $x \ge l$  and  $y \ge l$ , then  $x \land y \ge l$ .

Below, we present some examples with root systems of type  $A_n$  and  $B_n$ . We see that, in root systems of type  $A_n$ , the posets defined above associated to sums of roots, are lattices. We see with the example from  $B_4$  presented below that this is not always the case.

**4.1. Root system of type**  $A_n$  ([1]). Let  $\{\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \ldots, \varepsilon_{n+1}\}$  denote the canonical basis of  $V = \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ . The set of vectors  $\Phi = \{\varepsilon_i - \varepsilon_j \mid i \neq j, 1 \leq i \leq n+1, 1 \leq j \leq n+1\}$  is a root system of type  $A_n$ , with positive roots given by  $\Phi^+ = \{\varepsilon_i - \varepsilon_j \mid i < j, 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq n+1\}$ . Let  $s_\alpha : V \to V$  denote the reflection associated to  $\alpha \in \Phi$ . The associated Weyl group W is the group generated by the reflections  $\{s_{\varepsilon_i-\varepsilon_j} \mid 1 \leq i < j \leq n+1\}$ . Since  $s_{\varepsilon_i-\varepsilon_j}$  switches  $\varepsilon_i$  and  $\varepsilon_j$  for  $1 \leq i < j \leq n+1$  and leaves  $\varepsilon_k$  fixed for  $k \notin \{i, j\}$ , we can identify W with the symmetric group on n+1 letters  $S_{n+1}$ .

**Example 4.5.** A sum of roots form a root system of type  $A_3$ .

Suppose that  $\Phi$  is of type  $A_3$  with positive roots

$$\Phi^+ = \{ \alpha_1 = \varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2, \alpha_2 = \varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_3, \\ \alpha_3 = \varepsilon_3 - \varepsilon_4, \alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \alpha_2 + \alpha_3, \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 \}.$$

Clearly,  $\alpha = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3$  has the property that  $\alpha_I \in \Phi$  for  $\emptyset \subsetneq I \subseteq [3]$ and  $I \neq \{1,3\}$ . The poset corresponding to this sum of roots is the lattice consisting of all subsets of [3] except  $\{1,3\}$ .

**Example 4.6.** Posets associated to sums of roots in a root system of type  $A_{n-1}$  are lattices.

Suppose that  $\Phi$  is of type  $A_{n-1}$  with  $\Phi^+ = \{\varepsilon_i - \varepsilon_j \mid 1 \le i < j \le n\}$ . Let  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m \in \Phi$  be such that  $\alpha_{[m]} \in \Phi$  and  $\alpha_I \ne 0$  for all I with  $\emptyset \subsetneq I \subseteq [m]$ .

**Claim 4.7.** We claim that there is a  $\sigma \in S_m$  and a  $w \in W$  such that  $w(\alpha_{\sigma(i)}) = \varepsilon_i - \varepsilon_{i+1}$ .

*Proof.* This may be proven by induction on m. The result is trivial if m = 1. Suppose that  $m \ge 2$ . By Lemma 3.3, we may assume that, by permuting the  $\alpha_i, \alpha_{[m-1]} \in \Phi$ . By induction, we may assume that  $\alpha_i = \varepsilon_i - \varepsilon_{i+1}$  for  $i = 1, \ldots, m-1$ . Then, since  $\alpha_{[m-1]} \in \Phi$ , we must have  $m - 1 \le n$  and  $\alpha_{[m-1]} = \varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_m$ . Since  $\alpha_{[m]} = \alpha_{[m-1]} + \alpha_m \in \Phi$ and  $\alpha_I \ne 0$  for all I with  $\emptyset \subsetneq I \subseteq [m]$ , we must have either  $\alpha_m = \varepsilon_j - \varepsilon_1$ for some  $j \ge m+1$  or  $\alpha_m = \varepsilon_m - \varepsilon_j$  for some  $m+1 \le j \le n+1$ .

In the first case, we can choose  $w \in W$  with  $w(\varepsilon_j) = \varepsilon_1$  and  $w(\varepsilon_i) = \varepsilon_{i+1}$  for i = 1, ..., m. This yields  $w(\alpha_1) = \varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_3, ..., w(\alpha_{m-1}) = \varepsilon_m - \varepsilon_{m+1}, w(\alpha_m) = \varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2$ , and the claim follows.

In the second case, choosing  $w \in W$  with  $w(\varepsilon_i) = \varepsilon_i$  for  $i = 1, \ldots, m$ and  $w(\varepsilon_j) = \varepsilon_{m+1}$ . This yields  $w(\alpha_1) = \varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2, \ldots, w(\alpha_{m-1}) = \varepsilon_{m-1} - \varepsilon_m, w(\alpha_m) = \varepsilon_m - \varepsilon_{m+1}$ , and Claim 4.7 is proved.  $\Box$  It follows from the claim that the poset associated to the sum  $\alpha_{[m]}$  is the same up to isomorphism as that associated to the sum  $\beta_{[m]}$  where  $\beta_1 = \varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2, \beta_2 = \varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_3, \ldots, \beta_m = \varepsilon_m - \varepsilon_{m+1}$ . This poset is isomorphic to the collection of nonempty intervals  $\{[i, j] \mid 1 \leq i < j \leq n\}$  inside [n], ordered by containment, which is easily seen to be a lattice.

**4.2. Root system of type**  $B_n$  ([1, Chapter VI]). Let  $\{\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \ldots, \varepsilon_n\}$  denote the canonical basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The set of vectors  $\Phi = \{\pm \varepsilon_i, \pm \varepsilon_i \pm \varepsilon_j \mid 1 \le i < j \le n\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  forms a root system of type  $B_n$ .

**Example 4.8.** A sum of roots in a root system of type  $B_4$  where the associated poset is not a lattice.

We have

$$\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 = (\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2) + 2(\varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_3) + 2(\varepsilon_3 - \varepsilon_4) + 2\varepsilon_4 \in \Phi.$$

Letting  $\alpha_1 = \varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2$ ,  $\alpha_2 = \alpha_3 = \varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_3$ ,  $\alpha_4 = \alpha_5 = \varepsilon_3 - \varepsilon_4$ ,  $\alpha_6 = \alpha_7 = \varepsilon_4$ , we see that  $\alpha_{[7]} \in \Phi$ . Figure 1, generated by the **POSETS** package for **Mathematica** [4], shows the interval  $[\alpha_7, \alpha_{[7]}]$  in the associated poset C.

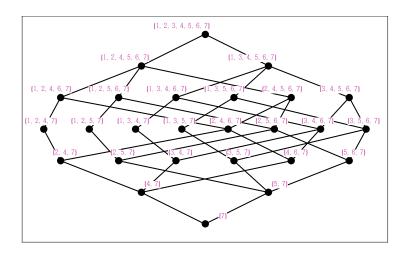


FIGURE 1. Note on sums of roots.

# 828 TIMOTHY FERDINANDS AND ANNETTE PILKINGTON

We see that the subsets  $I = \{4, 7\}$  and  $J = \{5, 7\}$  do not have a least upper bound  $I \lor J$ . The highlighted nodes in Figure 2 show the subsets of C containing I and J, respectively.

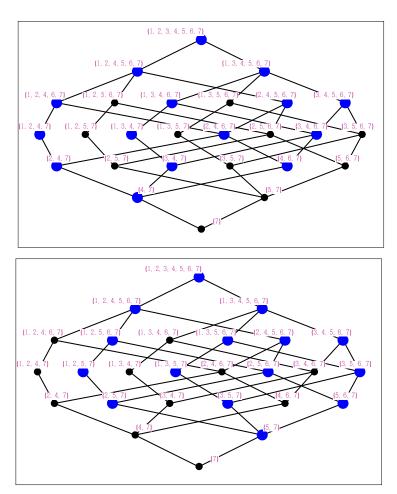


FIGURE 2.

We see that I and J are both bounded above by the sets  $\{2, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$ and  $\{3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$ , and there is no subset  $K \subset [7] \in C$  with  $I, J \subseteq K$ and |K| < 5. **Example 4.9.** The root system of type  $BC_2$ .

This is the unique irreducible, non-reduced root system of rank 2. The positive roots may be chosen to be

$$\Phi^+ = \{\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, 2\varepsilon_1, 2\varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2.$$

Consider the roots  $\{\alpha_1 = \varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_1, \alpha_2 = \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2, \alpha_3 = -\varepsilon_2\}$ . Then,  $\alpha_I \in \Phi$  for all I with  $\emptyset \subsetneq I \subseteq [3]$ . The corresponding poset is the Boolean lattice of all subsets of [3]. Note that, in contrast to the root system of type  $A_n$  above, we cannot transform the set  $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3\}$  here to a set of positive roots using an element of the associated Weyl group.

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