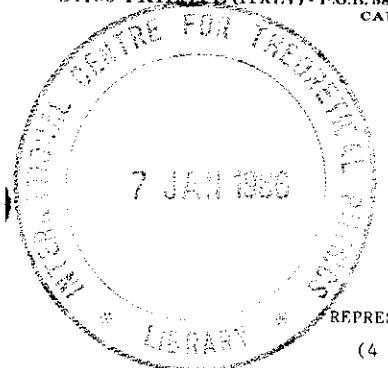




INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR THEORETICAL PHYSICS
34100 TRIESTE (ITALY) • P.O.B. 586 • MIRAMARE - STRADA COSTIERA 11 - TELEPHONES: 224281/2/3/4/5/6
CABLE: CENTRATOM • TELEX 460892 • 1



SMR/161 - 14

COLLEGE ON
REPRESENTATION THEORY OF LIE GROUPS
(4 November - 6 December 1985)

BASIC NOTIONS FOR LIE ALGEBRA

S. Gutt
Université Libre de Bruxelles
Bruxelles Belgium

These are preliminary lecture notes, intended only for distribution to participants.

Basic notions for lie algebras

1 Definitions

A lie algebra \mathfrak{L} (we shall only consider here finite dimensional lie algebras) over a field \mathbb{K} (we shall always assume that \mathbb{K} is commutative and has characteristic zero) is a finite dim. vector space over \mathbb{K} with a bilinear pairing, called the bracket, $[,] : \mathfrak{L} \times \mathfrak{L} \rightarrow \mathfrak{L}$ ($x, y \mapsto [x, y]$) such that

$$[x, x] = 0$$

$$[x, [y, z]] = [[x, y], z] + [y, [x, z]] \quad (\text{Jacobi's identity})$$

A subalgebra of \mathfrak{L} is a subspace \mathfrak{L}' such that $[x', y'] \in \mathfrak{L}'$; it is an ideal if $[x', y] \in \mathfrak{L}'$.

A map $\phi : \mathfrak{L}_1 \rightarrow \mathfrak{L}_2$ between two lie algebras is a homomorphism if it is linear and $\phi([x, y]) = [\phi(x), \phi(y)]$ (it is an isomorphism if it is bijective). If \mathfrak{L}_2 is the lie algebra of all ^{linear} endomorphisms of a vector space V over \mathbb{K} , i.e. $\mathfrak{L}_2 = \text{gl}(V)$, a homomorphism $\phi : \mathfrak{L}_1 \rightarrow \text{gl}(V)$ is called a representation of \mathfrak{L}_1 in V .

A derivation of a lie algebra \mathfrak{L} is a linear map $D : \mathfrak{L} \rightarrow \mathfrak{L}$ such that $D([x, y]) = [Dx, y] + [x, Dy] \quad \forall x, y \in \mathfrak{L}$. We denote by $\text{Der}(\mathfrak{L})$ the space of derivations; it is a subalgebra of $\text{gl}(\mathfrak{L})$.

In particular if $d \in \mathfrak{L}$ $\text{ad } d : \mathfrak{L} \rightarrow \mathfrak{L}$ ($y \mapsto [x, y]$) is a derivation of \mathfrak{L} ; such derivations are called inner, all others are called outer.

The map $\text{ad} : \mathfrak{L} \rightarrow \text{gl}(\mathfrak{L})$ is a representation of \mathfrak{L} called the adjoint representation

The center of the lie algebra \mathfrak{L} is defined by $Z(\mathfrak{L}) = \{z \in \mathfrak{L} \mid [x, z] = 0 \forall x \in \mathfrak{L}\}$. It is an ideal in \mathfrak{L} . The derived algebra of \mathfrak{L} , $\mathfrak{L}^{(1)} = [\mathfrak{L}, \mathfrak{L}]$ is also an ideal in \mathfrak{L} .

If K is any subspace of \mathfrak{X} , the normalizer of K in \mathfrak{X} , $N_{\mathfrak{X}}(K)$ is defined by
 $N_{\mathfrak{X}}(K) = \{x \in \mathfrak{X} \mid [x, K] \subset K\}$, it is a subalgebra of \mathfrak{X} .

If K is any subset of \mathfrak{X} , the centralizer of K in \mathfrak{X} is the subalgebra defined by
 $C_{\mathfrak{X}}(K) = \{x \in \mathfrak{X} \mid [x, K] = 0\}$.

If $\phi: \mathfrak{X}_1 \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}_2$ is a homomorphism of Lie algebras, $\ker \phi$ is an ideal in \mathfrak{X}_1 , $\text{Im } \phi$ is a subalgebra of \mathfrak{X}_2 .

If \mathfrak{X} is a Lie algebra and \mathfrak{J} is an ideal of \mathfrak{X} , the quotient algebra $\mathfrak{X}/\mathfrak{J}$ is the quotient space with the bracket defined by $[x+\mathfrak{J}, y+\mathfrak{J}] = [x, y] + \mathfrak{J}$. In particular, if $\phi: \mathfrak{X}_1 \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}_2$ is a homomorphism, $\mathfrak{X}_1/\ker \phi$ is isomorphic to $\text{Im } \phi$.

Example . Let $\mathfrak{X} = \text{gl}(m, \mathbb{R}) = \text{set of } m \times m \text{ matrices with coefficients in } \mathbb{R}$, with the bracket defined by the commutator of matrices, i.e. $[A, B] = AB - BA$.

If $\phi: \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$: $A \mapsto \text{trace } A$, then ϕ is a Lie homomorphism and $\ker \phi = \text{sl}(m, \mathbb{R}) = \{A \in \text{gl}(m, \mathbb{R}) \mid \text{trace } A = 0\}$ is an ideal in \mathfrak{X} .

If $\mathcal{D}(m, \mathbb{R})$ is the set of all diagonal matrices in \mathfrak{X} , it is a subalgebra ($[\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}] = 0$), but not an ideal ($[\text{diag}(a_1, \dots, a_m), E_{ij}] = (a_i - a_j)E_{ij}$). If E_{ij} is the matrix whose only nonzero coefficient is a one at the intersection of the i^{th} row and j^{th} column and $\text{diag}(a_1, \dots, a_m) = \sum_i a_i E_{ii}$.

The centralizer of $\mathcal{D}(m, \mathbb{R})$ in \mathfrak{X} is equal to its normalizer and is equal to $\mathcal{D}(m, \mathbb{R})$.

2. Jordan-Chevalley decomposition

Let \mathbb{F} be algebraically closed and V be a finite dimensional vector space over \mathbb{F} .

Definitions : An endomorphism $X \in \text{End } V$ is semisimple if X is diagonalizable.

An endomorphism $X \in \text{End } V$ is nulpotent if $X^n = 0$ for some integer n .

Proposition : Any $X \in \text{End } V$ can be written uniquely as $X = X_s + X_m$ where X_s is semisimple, X_m is nulpotent and X_s and X_m commute. There exist polynomials $a(t), b(t)$ without constant term such that $X_s = a(X)$, $X_m = b(X)$.

Proof : One first show that if $p(t)$ is the characteristic polynomial of X , i.e. $p(t) = \det(tI - X)$, then $p(X) = 0$. Indeed, as V is finite dimensional

there exists a smallest integer k so that $1, X, \dots, X^k$ are linearly dependent,

$$\sum_{j=0}^k b_j X^j = 0 \text{ with } b_k \neq 0. \quad \text{While } d(t) = \sum_{j=0}^k b_j t^j = \prod_{i=1}^n (t - c_i)^{k_i}$$

Set $W_j = \sum_{i=1}^{k_j} (X - c_i)^{k_i}$, $V_j = W_j(V)$. Then $(X - c_j)^{k_j} = 0$ on V_j but no smaller power is zero; let $v_{j,j} \in V_j$ so that $(X - c_j)^{k_j-1} v_{j,j} \neq 0$ and set $v_{j,-1} = (X - c_j)v_{j,j}$. Then $v_{j,-1}, \dots, v_{j,k_j}$ are linearly independent and $Xv_{j,-1} = c_j v_{j,-1} + v_{j,-2}$ ($1 \leq j \leq k$)

Extending the $v_{j,-1}$'s to a basis of V , X takes the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & * \\ 0 & * \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & * \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence $p(t) = (t - c_1)^{k_1} \det(tI - X')$, so that $d(t)$ divides $p(t)$ and, hence, $p(X) = 0$.

$$\text{Let us write } p(t) = \prod_{i=1}^n (t - a_i)^{k_i}$$

The polynomials $f_i(t) = (t - a_i)^{k_i}$ and $p'(t) = \prod_{i=2}^n (t - a_i)^{k_i}$ are relatively prime so there exist polynomials $g(t)$ and $q(t)$ so that

$$g(t)f_i(t) + q(t)p'(t) = 1. \quad (*)$$

Set $M_1 = \ker(X - a_1)^{k_1}$, $M_2 = \ker p'(X)$; then $q(X)p'(X)V \subset M_2$ and

$g(X)f_1(X) \subset M_2$ (because $p(X) = 0$). As $V = (g(X)f_1(X) + q(X)p'(X))V$ (by $V = M_1 + M_2$), the sum is direct ($(f_1(X)t - b_1(X))v = 0 \rightarrow v = 0$ since $t^{k_1} \neq 1$ in \mathbb{F})).

The characteristic polynomial of $X|_{M_1}$ is equal to $(t-a_1)^{\dim M_1}$, with $\dim M_1 \leq t$ (by the same reasoning as above) and the characteristic polynomial of $X|_{M_2}$ is not divisible by $(t-a_1)$. So $\dim M_1 = x_1$, $a(X)p'(X)$ is an projection on M_1 and the characteristic polynomial of $X|_{M_2}$ is $p'(t)$.

By induction V is the direct sum of the spaces

$$V_i = \ker(X - a_i)^{x_i}$$

and there is a polynomial p_i of X which is a projection of V onto V_i .

Define X_S by $X_S|_{V_i} = a_i \text{Id}$ and $X_N = X - X_S$. In a suitable basis $X = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & * \\ 0 & a_2 \\ 0 & * \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & a_n & * \end{pmatrix}$

Remark that $X_S = \sum a_i p_i(X)$ and that one can choose a polynomial without constant terms so that $X_S = a(X)$.

The unicity of the decomposition follows from the fact that if

$$X_S + X_N = X_S' + X_N'$$

then $X_S \cdot X_{S'} = X_N \cdot X_N'$. As all those endomorphisms commute, $X_S \cdot X_{S'}$ is both semisimple and nilpotent, hence zero.

Remark If $A \subset B \subset V$ are subspaces and X maps B into A , then so do X_S and X_N as they can be written as polynomials in X without constant term.

Lemma 1: If $X = X_S + X_N$ is the so called Jordan decomposition described in proposition 1, then $\text{ad } X = \text{ad}(X_S) + \text{ad}(X_N)$ is the Jordan decomposition of $\text{ad } X$.

Proof: $\text{ad } X_N$ is nilpotent because $(\text{ad } X_N)^t Y$ is a combination of $X_N^t Y X_N^t$ with $t+2=r$. Similarly $\text{ad } X_S$ is semisimple and $[\text{ad } X_S, \text{ad } X_N] = \text{ad}[X_S, X_N] = 0$. \square

Lemma 2: let \mathbb{k} be arbitrary ($\text{char } \mathbb{k} = 0$) and $\alpha \in \text{End}(V)$ where V is a finite dimensional vector space over \mathbb{k} . For any $y \in \text{End}(V)$, denote by $N(y)$ its kernel (= null-space) $N(y) = \{v \in V / yv = 0\}$ and by $R(y)$ its range. Then V is the direct sum of N and R where

$$N = \bigcup_{i \geq 1} N(\alpha^i)$$

$$R = \bigcap_{i \geq 1} R(\alpha^i)$$

Proof: Assume first that \mathbb{k} is algebraically closed. Then, using the Jordan Chevalley decomposition there is a basis in which

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & * & & \\ 0 & a_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & a_n & * \end{pmatrix}$$

where the a_i 's are the eigenvalues.

clearly $R = \bigcup_{i \geq 0} V_{a_i}$ where V_{a_i} is the generalized eigenspace associated to a_i , and $N = V_0$, hence the result.

If \mathbb{k} is not algebraically closed, we go to its closure $\bar{\mathbb{k}}$. Let $V^{\bar{\mathbb{k}}} = V \otimes_{\mathbb{k}} \bar{\mathbb{k}}$ and consider α as an endomorphism of $V^{\bar{\mathbb{k}}}$; we will denote it $\alpha^{\bar{\mathbb{k}}}$. Then $(\alpha^{\bar{\mathbb{k}}})^c = (\alpha^c)^{\bar{\mathbb{k}}}$ and for any $y \in \text{End}(V)$

$$N(y^{\bar{\mathbb{k}}}) = (N(y))^{\bar{\mathbb{k}}} \quad R(y^{\bar{\mathbb{k}}}) = (R(y))^{\bar{\mathbb{k}}}$$

So $V^{\bar{\mathbb{k}}}$ is the direct sum of $N^{\bar{\mathbb{k}}}$ and $R^{\bar{\mathbb{k}}}$, hence the result. \square

3 Nilpotent Lie algebras

A. Engel's theorem

Definition Let \mathfrak{g} be a Lie algebra over \mathbb{F} . One defines a sequence of ideals \mathfrak{g}^m of \mathfrak{g} by

$$\mathfrak{g}^0 = \mathfrak{g} \quad \mathfrak{g}^1 = [\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}] \quad \mathfrak{g}^2 = [\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}^1] \quad \dots \quad \mathfrak{g}^{i+1} = [\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}^i] \quad \dots$$

\mathfrak{g} is called nilpotent if $\mathfrak{g}^m = 0$ for some m . It is abelian if $\mathfrak{g}^1 = 0$.

Example. Any abelian Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is nilpotent. In particular the set $\mathcal{D}(m, \mathbb{F})$ of all $m \times m$ diagonal matrices with coefficients in \mathbb{F}

- Let $\mathcal{U}(m, \mathbb{F})$ be the set of all $m \times m$ strictly upper triangular matrices (i.e. $a_{ij} = 0$ if $i > j$) with coefficients in \mathbb{F} . Any Lie subalgebra of $\mathcal{U}(m, \mathbb{F})$ is nilpotent.

- Let $\mathfrak{h} = \mathfrak{h}_m$ be the Heisenberg algebra. $\mathfrak{h}_m = \mathbb{R}^{2m} \times \mathbb{R}$ with the bracket $[(y, a), (y', a')] = F(y, y')$ where F is a non-degenerate skewsymmetric 2-form on \mathbb{R}^{2m} . $\mathfrak{h}^2 = 0$ so \mathfrak{h} is nilpotent.

Proposition: Let \mathfrak{g} be a Lie algebra

- If \mathfrak{g} is nilpotent, so are all subalgebras and homomorphic images of \mathfrak{g} .
- If $\mathfrak{g}/\mathfrak{z}(\mathfrak{g})$ is nilpotent, so is \mathfrak{g} .
- If \mathfrak{g} is nilpotent $\mathfrak{z}(\mathfrak{g}) \neq 0$.

The proofs are direct consequences of the definitions.

Proposition 2: If \mathfrak{g} is nilpotent, $\text{ad } \alpha$ is a nilpotent endomorphism of \mathfrak{g} for all $\alpha \in \mathfrak{g}$.

Proof: If \mathfrak{g} is nilpotent $\mathfrak{g}^m = \underbrace{[\mathfrak{g}, [\mathfrak{g}, \dots [}_{m} [\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]] = 0$ so $\text{ad } \alpha^m = 0 \forall \alpha \in \mathfrak{g}$. \square

We shall see that the converse is true.

Remark (i) If $\alpha \in \text{gl}(V)$ is a nilpotent endomorphism, then so is $\text{ad } \alpha$.

(ii) The reverse is false: a matrix α can be ad-nilpotent (i.e. $\text{ad } \alpha$ is nilpotent) without being nilpotent (ex: identity matrix!).

Theorem 1: Let A be a subalgebra of $\text{gl}(V)$, V finite dim. vector space of \mathbb{F} .

If A consists of nilpotent endomorphisms and $V \neq 0$, there exists a non-zero vector $v \in V$ for which $A.v = 0$.

Proof: Use induction on $\dim A$; the case $\dim A = 1$ follows from the fact that $\text{ker } z \neq \mathbb{F}$ if α is nilpotent. Let $K \subseteq A$ be any subalgebra; K acts on V_K via ad , thus, by induction, there exists $\alpha + K \neq K$ so that $[K, \alpha + K] \subset K$; thus $\alpha \notin K$ and $\alpha \in N_A(K)$. If K is a maximal proper subalgebra of A , $N_A(K) = A$, i.e. K is an ideal in A . Clearly $\dim A/K = 1$ (because the inverse image in A of a 1-dim. subspace is a subalgebra containing K). Thus $A = K + \mathbb{F}\alpha$. By induction $W = \{v \in V \mid K.v = 0\}$ is non-zero; as K is an ideal, W is stable under A . The endomorphism $\alpha \in A \setminus K$ is nilpotent on W , hence there exists a vector $w \in W$ so that $\alpha.w = 0$. \square

Corollary: If A is a subalgebra of $\text{gl}(V)$ consisting of nilpotent endomorphisms, there exists a flag (V_i) in V (i.e. subspaces V_i such that $\dim V_i = i$ and $V_{i-1} \subset V_i$, $V \geq 1$) stable under A , with $A.V_i \subset V_{i-1}$, $V \geq 1$.

In other words, there exists a basis of V relative to which the matrices of A are upper triangular.

Proof: By induction. Let $v \in V$ be so that $A.v = 0$. Set $V' = \mathbb{F}v$ and $V'' = V/V'$. The action of A induces an action on V'' given by nilpotent endomorphisms. \square

Theorem 2 (Engel): Let \mathfrak{g} be a Lie algebra. If $\text{ad } \alpha$ is nilpotent for all $\alpha \in \mathfrak{g}$, then \mathfrak{g} is nilpotent.

Proof: We may assume $\mathfrak{g} \neq 0$. Then $\text{ad } \mathfrak{g} \subset \text{cyl}(\mathfrak{g})$ satisfies the hypothesis of Theorem 1. Thus, there exists $\alpha \in \mathfrak{g}$ so that $[y, \alpha] = 0 \forall y$, i.e. $\mathfrak{z}(\mathfrak{g}) \neq 0$. $\mathfrak{g}/\mathfrak{z}(\mathfrak{g})$ has smaller dimension and consists of ad-nilpotent elements; by induction it is nilpotent and by 3.A. proposition 1, \mathfrak{g} is nilpotent. \square

B. Representations of nilpotent Lie algebras

Let \mathfrak{d} be a nilpotent Lie algebra and ρ be a representation of \mathfrak{d} in a finite-dimensional vector space V over \mathbb{F} .

Definition. A linear function $\lambda: \mathfrak{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ is a weight of ρ if there exists $v \neq 0$ in V and an integer $m(\lambda) \geq 1$ such that

$$(\rho(x) - \lambda(x)\mathbb{I})^m v = 0 \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathfrak{d}.$$

In this case, the set of all such λ 's and zero form a vector space, called the weight space of ρ corresponding to λ and denoted $V_{\rho, \lambda}$.

Notation. If W is an invariant subspace of V under ρ (i.e. $\rho(x)w \in W \forall x \in \mathfrak{d}$), we denote by $\rho|_W$ the restriction of $\rho(x)$ to W for any $x \in \mathfrak{d}$.

Remark. The representation ρ consists of nilpotent endomorphisms if and only if $V = V_{\rho, 0}$.

Theorem. Let \mathfrak{d} be a nilpotent Lie algebra, ρ a representation of \mathfrak{d} in a finite dimensional vector space V over \mathbb{F} . Assume \mathbb{F} to be algebraically closed. Then, the weight subspaces of ρ corresponding to distinct weights are linearly independent, each weight subspace is invariant under ρ and if $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r$ are all distinct weights of ρ , $V = \bigoplus_{i=1}^r V_{\rho, \lambda_i}$ the sum being direct.

Proof. If $\dim \mathfrak{d} = 1$ the result follows from proposition 1 : if

$$\text{Te End}(V) \text{ then } V = \bigoplus V_i; \quad V_i = \text{Ker } (T - \lambda_i \mathbb{I})^{m_i} \text{ where}$$

$\lambda_i (i=1, \dots, k)$ are the distinct eigenvalues with multiplicities m_i , i.e the characteristic polynomial of T is given by $(t-\alpha_1)^{m_1} \cdots (t-\alpha_k)^{m_k}$.

If $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r$ are distinct weights, choose x_0 so that the $\lambda_i(x_0)$ are all distinct. Then $V_{\rho, \lambda_i} \subseteq \text{Ker } (T - \lambda_i(x_0))^{m_i}$ where $T = \rho(x_0)$ and m_i is the multiplicity of $\lambda_i(x_0)$ in $\rho(x_0)$. So the V_{ρ, λ_i} are linearly independent.

By induction, one has for any $x, y \in \mathfrak{d}$

$$\rho(y) (\rho(x) - \alpha \mathbb{I})^q - (\rho(x) - \alpha \mathbb{I})^q \rho(y) = - \sum_{i=0}^{q-1} (\rho(x) - \alpha \mathbb{I})^i \rho([x, y]) (\rho(x) - \alpha \mathbb{I})^{q-i-1}$$

Again by induction, there exist integers c_{qi} so that

$$\begin{aligned} & \rho(y) (\rho(x) - \alpha \mathbb{I})^q - (\rho(x) - \alpha \mathbb{I})^q \rho(y) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{q-1} c_{qi} \rho([\alpha \mathbb{I}^{q-i-1} y] (\rho(x) - \alpha \mathbb{I})^{q-i-1}) \end{aligned}$$

Let $v \in V_{\rho, \lambda_i}$ and τ be such that $(\rho(x) - \lambda_i(x)\mathbb{I})^\tau v = 0 \forall x \in \mathfrak{d}$. Then, for $q \geq \tau$

$$-(\rho(x) - \lambda_i(x)\mathbb{I})^q \rho(y)v = \sum_{i=\tau+1}^{q-1} c_{qi} \rho([\alpha \mathbb{I}^{q-i-1} y] (\rho(x) - \alpha \mathbb{I})^{q-i-1})v$$

Since \mathfrak{d} is nilpotent, $\text{ad } x^i y = 0$ for sufficiently large i and so, for q large enough the right hand side is zero. Thus each space V_{ρ, λ_i} is stable under ρ .

We show that $V = \bigoplus V_{\rho, \lambda_i}$ by induction on $\dim \mathfrak{d}$.

Consider a subspace M of codimension 1 in \mathfrak{d} so that $[\mathfrak{d}, \mathfrak{d}] \subset M$.

Clearly M is a subalgebra of \mathfrak{d} and, by induction, if $\rho'|_M$ is the restriction of ρ to M and β_1, \dots, β_j are the weight of $\rho'|_M$: $V = \bigoplus V_{\rho', \beta_j}$.

By the formula above each V_{ρ', β_j} is invariant under ρ .

Let y be an element of $\mathfrak{d} \setminus M$. Then, under $\rho(y)$ each V_{ρ', β_j} decomposes into

$$V_{\rho', \beta_j} = V_1^{(j)} \oplus \cdots \oplus V_{m_j}^{(j)}$$

where $V_k^{(j)}$ is the generalized eigenspace for $\rho(y)|_{V_{\rho', \beta_j}}$ for the eigenvalue $\lambda_k^{(j)}$.

Again each $V_k^{(j)}$ is invariant under ρ' hence under ρ .

The weight of ρ on $V_k^{(j)}$ is given by $\begin{cases} \alpha_i^k(x) = \beta_j(x) & \text{if } x \in M \\ \alpha_i^k(y) = \lambda_k^{(j)}(y) \end{cases}$

Clearly $V = \bigoplus V_i^{(j)}$ where the sum is direct; each $V_i^{(j)}$ is invariant under ρ and $V_i^{(j)}$ is a weight-space corresponding to the weight $\alpha_i^{(j)}$.

The last statement follows from:

$$(\rho(x+kY) - \alpha_i^{(j)}(x+kY))^q = \sum_{t=0}^q (\rho(x) - \alpha_i^{(j)}(x))^t \mathbb{I}^{q-t} (\rho(Y) - \alpha_i^{(j)}(Y))^{q-t} \frac{\alpha_i^{(j)}}{t!(q-t)!}$$

$$+ \sum_{t=1}^{q-1} c_{t,q} (\rho(x) - \alpha_i^{(j)}(x))^t \rho([\alpha \mathbb{I}^{q-t-1} Y] (\rho(x) - \alpha_i^{(j)}(x)))^{q-t-1}$$

X and Y is in number $t+1$

where $c_{t,q}$ are real numbers, at the right hand side vanishes on $v \in V_i^{(j)}$ for large enough q . \square

Definition: A Lie group is said to be nilpotent if its Lie algebra is nilpotent.

Theorem: Let G be a connected nilpotent Lie group, \mathfrak{g} its Lie algebra.

- (i) There exists a polynomial map $P: \mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ such that

$$\exp X \cdot \exp Y = \exp P(X, Y) \quad \forall X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$$

- (ii) The map $\exp: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow G$ is surjective.

Proof: We know by Campbell-Baker-Hausdorff formula that

$$\exp X \cdot \exp Y = \exp \mu(X, Y) \quad \forall X, Y \in \text{N neighborhood of } 0 \text{ in } \mathfrak{g}.$$

$$\text{with } \mu(X, Y) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} C_m(X, Y) \quad C_m: \mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}^{m+1} = [\mathfrak{g}_m[\mathfrak{g}_m, [\dots]]]$$

so that the series is a finite sum when G is nilpotent.

Consider $P: \mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$, $P(X, Y) = \sum C_m(X, Y)$; this is a polynomial map and, by analyticity the formula $\exp X \cdot \exp Y = \exp P(X, Y)$ is valid everywhere. Define $G' = \exp \mathfrak{g}$, it is a subgroup of G and it contains an open neighborhood of e in G , thus G' is open and thus closed in G , as G is connected. $G = G'$ and \exp is surjective. \square

Definition 2: An endomorphism α of a finite-dim vector space V is said to be nilpotent if $\alpha - I$ is nilpotent; it is then invertible and α^{-1} is also nilpotent.

Theorem 2: Any connected simply connected nilpotent Lie group is isomorphic to a closed subgroup of $GL(V)$ consisting of nilpotent endomorphisms, for some finite dimensional vector space V .

For a proof see Kostant [1959] p. 199.

A. Definitions

Definition: Let \mathfrak{g} be a Lie algebra over \mathbb{F} . One defines the descending sequence of ideals $\mathfrak{g}^{(n)}$ of \mathfrak{g} by $\mathfrak{g}^{(0)} = \mathfrak{g}$, $\mathfrak{g}^{(1)} = [\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]$, $\mathfrak{g}^{(2)} = [\mathfrak{g}^{(1)}, \mathfrak{g}^{(1)}]$, $\mathfrak{g}^{(n+1)} = [\mathfrak{g}^{(n)}, \mathfrak{g}^{(n)}]$.

A Lie algebra is solvable if $\mathfrak{g}^{(n)} = 0$ for some n .

Remark that, for any integer m , $\mathfrak{g}^{(m)} \subset \mathfrak{g}^{(n)}$.

Example: • Any nilpotent Lie algebra is solvable.

• Let $\mathcal{T}(m, \mathbb{R}) = \mathcal{U}(m, \mathbb{R}) + \mathcal{D}(m, \mathbb{R})$ be the set of all $m \times m$ upper triangular matrices (i.e. $a_{ij} = 0$ if $i > j$) with coefficients in \mathbb{R} . Any Lie algebra contained in $\mathcal{T}(m, \mathbb{R})$ is solvable.

Proposition: Let \mathfrak{g} be a Lie algebra.

- If \mathfrak{g} is solvable, so are all subalgebras and homomorphic images of \mathfrak{g} .
- If \mathfrak{f} is a solvable ideal of \mathfrak{g} such that $\mathfrak{g}/\mathfrak{f}$ is solvable, then \mathfrak{g} itself is solvable.
- If \mathfrak{f} and \mathfrak{f}' are solvable ideals of \mathfrak{g} , so is $\mathfrak{f} + \mathfrak{f}'$.

The proof is a direct consequence of the definition.

Corollary: Any Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} has a unique maximal solvable ideal (i.e. one which is not included in any larger solvable ideal).

Definition: The radical of a Lie algebra is its maximal solvable ideal. It is denoted by $\text{rad}(\mathfrak{g})$.

A Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is semisimple if $\mathfrak{g} \neq 0$ and $\text{rad}(\mathfrak{g}) = 0$.

We shall see in § 9 that any Lie algebra splits into its radical and a semisimple part.

B. Lie's theorem

Theorem Let \mathfrak{d} be a solvable subalgebra of $\text{gr}(V)$ (V finite dim. vector space over \mathbb{K}). Assume \mathbb{K} to be algebraically closed. If $V \neq 0$, then V contains a common eigenvector for all the endomorphisms in \mathfrak{d} .

Proof One uses induction on $\dim \mathfrak{d}$, the case $\dim \mathfrak{d} = 1$ being obvious (an endomorphism has an eigenvector when \mathbb{K} is algebraically closed).

- One takes an ideal K of codimension one : since \mathfrak{d} is solvable and $\mathfrak{d}_{\leq 0}$, $[\mathfrak{d}, \mathfrak{d}] \neq \mathfrak{d}$ and one takes for K the inverse image of any subspace of codimension one in $\mathfrak{d}/[\mathfrak{d}, \mathfrak{d}]$ which is abelian, clearly K is an ideal as $K \supset [\mathfrak{d}, \mathfrak{d}]$.

By induction : there exists a common eigenvector $v \in V$ for K . Define $\lambda: K \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ such that $x.v = \lambda(x)v \quad \forall x \in K$ and let $W = \{w \in V \mid x.w = \lambda(x)w \quad \forall x \in K\}$ so $W \neq 0$.

(Remark : if $K = 0$, \mathfrak{d} is abelian of dimension one).

We show that W is invariant under $\mathfrak{d} = K + \mathfrak{d}_{\geq 0}$.

Let $w \in W$, $x \in \mathfrak{d}$, we want to see that $y \cdot x w = \lambda(y)xw \quad \forall y \in K$.

One has $y \cdot x w = [y, x] w + x[y, w] = \lambda(y)w + \lambda([y, x])w \quad (\#)$

We prove that $\lambda([y, x]) = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathfrak{d}, y \in K$. We fix $x \in \mathfrak{d}, w \in W$.

Let $n > 0$ be the smallest integer for which $xw, x^2w, \dots, x^n w$ are linearly dependent. Let $W_i = \text{span}\{w, xw, \dots, x^{i-1}w\} \subset W$.

Each $y' \in K$ leaves W_i invariant ($\#$) relative to the given basis. $y' \in K$ is represented on W_i by an upper triangular matrix with diagonal entries equal to $\lambda(y')$. So $\text{tr}_{W_i}(y') = n\lambda(y')$. In particular

if $y' = [x, y]$ where $x \in \mathfrak{d}, y \in K$, as both x and y stabilize $W_n, [x, y]$ acts as the commutator of endomorphisms and $\text{tr}_{W_n}([x, y]) = n\lambda([x, y]) = 0$.

- Take any eigenvector v of \mathfrak{d} in W ; it is an eigenvector for all the endomorphisms in \mathfrak{d} . □

Corollary 1 (Lie's theorem) Let \mathfrak{d} be a solvable subalgebra of $\text{gr}(V)$ (V : finite dim. vector space over \mathbb{K}), \mathbb{K} algebraically closed. Then \mathfrak{d} stabilizes some flag in V . In other words, the matrices of \mathfrak{d} relative to a suitable basis are upper triangular.

The proof follows by induction on $\dim V$.

Corollary 2 A Lie algebra \mathfrak{d} is solvable if and only if its derived algebra $\mathfrak{d}' = [\mathfrak{d}, \mathfrak{d}]$ is nilpotent.

Proof If \mathfrak{d}' is nilpotent, clearly \mathfrak{d} is solvable. For the reverse, we first assume \mathbb{K} to be algebraically closed. If \mathfrak{d} is solvable, so is the algebra $\{\text{ad } x ; x \in \mathfrak{d}\} \subset \text{gr}(\mathfrak{d})$. By Lie's theorem, there exists a flag in \mathfrak{d} stabilized by \mathfrak{d} , i.e. a chain of ideals in \mathfrak{d} or a basis of \mathfrak{d} in which the matrices of $\text{ad } \mathfrak{d}$ are upper triangular. As $\text{ad} [\mathfrak{d}, \mathfrak{d}] = [\text{ad } \mathfrak{d}, \text{ad } \mathfrak{d}]$, the matrices of $\text{ad } \mathfrak{d}'$ are strictly upper triangular, hence nilpotent. By Engel's theorem \mathfrak{d}' is nilpotent. If \mathbb{K} is not algebraically closed, we denote by $\bar{\mathbb{K}}$ its algebraic closure, by $\mathfrak{d}^c = \mathfrak{d} \otimes_{\mathbb{K}} \bar{\mathbb{K}}$. Then \mathfrak{d}^c is solvable if and only if $[\mathfrak{d}^c, \mathfrak{d}^c] = [\mathfrak{d}, \mathfrak{d}]^c$ is nilpotent. But \mathfrak{d} is nilpotent (resp. solvable) if and only if \mathfrak{d}^c is nilpotent (resp. solvable). □

5 Killing form and Cartan's criterion

A. Killing form

The Killing form β of a Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is a symmetric bilinear form on \mathfrak{g} defined by

$$\beta(x, y) = \text{Tr}(\text{ad } x \text{ ad } y) \quad \forall x, y \in \mathfrak{g}$$

This form is invariant in the sense that

$$\beta([x, y], z) + \beta(y, [x, z]) = 0 \quad \forall x, y, z \in \mathfrak{g}$$

(this results from the fact that $\text{Tr}(ABC) = \text{Tr}(CAB)$ for any $A, B, C \in \text{End}(V)$).

Example 1) If $\mathfrak{g} = \mathbb{R}$ $[x, y] = 0 \quad \forall x, y \in \mathfrak{g}$ and $\beta = 0$.

2) If $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R})$, let E_{ij} be the matrix with a 1 at the intersection of the i^{th} row and the j^{th} column and zero elsewhere. As $\text{ad}(A)(B) = AB - BA$ we have

$$(\text{ad } A \text{ ad } A') E_{ij} = \sum_k A_{ik} A'_{kj} \delta_{jk} - A_{ki} A'_{jk} - A'_{ki} A_{jk} + \sum_k \delta_{ki} A'_{jk} A_{jk}$$

Thus

$$\beta(A, A') = 2m \text{Tr}(AA') - 2 \text{Tr}A \text{Tr}A' \quad \forall A, A' \in \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R}).$$

Lemma: If \mathfrak{z} is an ideal in \mathfrak{g} , the Killing form of \mathfrak{z} viewed as a Lie algebra is equal to the restriction to \mathfrak{z} of the Killing form of \mathfrak{g} .

The proof is a consequence of the fact that $\text{ad } \mathfrak{z}$ maps \mathfrak{g} into \mathfrak{z} . \square

Example: If $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{sl}(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{X \in \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R}) \mid \text{Tr } X = 0\}$, \mathfrak{g} is an ideal in $\mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R})$ because $[\mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R}), \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R})] \subset \mathfrak{sl}(n, \mathbb{R})$. By the lemma above

$$\beta(A, A') = 2m \text{Tr}(AA') \quad \forall A, A' \in \mathfrak{sl}(n, \mathbb{R})$$

B. Cartan's criterion for solvability

Lemma: Let A, B be two subspaces of $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$ where V is a finite dim. vector space over \mathbb{R} . Assume \mathbb{R} to be algebraically closed.

Set $M = \{y \in \mathfrak{gl}(V) \mid [y, B] \subset A\}$. Suppose $x \in M$ satisfies $\text{Tr}(xy) = 0$ for all $y \in M$. Then x is nilpotent.

Proof: Let $x = x_s + x_n$ be the Jordan decomposition of x .

Fix a basis v_1, \dots, v_m of V relative to which x_s has matrix $\text{diag}(a_1, \dots, a_m)$. Let E be the vector subspace of \mathbb{R} over the prime field \mathbb{Q} , spanned by the eigenvalues a_1, \dots, a_m . We want to show that $x_s = 0$, thus that $x_s = 0 \forall i$. It is clearly enough to show that $E^* = 0$. Let $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ be a linear function, and let $y = \text{diag}(f(a_1), \dots, f(a_m)) \in \mathfrak{gl}(V)$. One has (with the details of $\mathfrak{sl}(2)$ example 2)

$$\text{ad } x_s(E_{ij}) = (a_i - a_j) E_{ij} \quad \text{ad } y(E_{ij}) = (f(a_i) - f(a_j)) E_{ij}$$

Let $r(t)$ be a polynomial without constant term so that

$$r(a_i - a_j) = f(a_i) - f(a_j) \quad \text{for all pairs } i, j.$$

This is possible as f is linear. Clearly $\text{ad } y = r(\text{ad } x_s)$.

By Jordan decomposition $\text{ad } x_s$ is a polynomial in $\text{ad } x$ without constant term, so $\text{ad } y$ is a polynomial in $\text{ad } x$ without constant term.

As $\text{ad } x$ maps B into A , so does $\text{ad } y$ and $y \in M$.

Then $\text{Tr}(xy) = 0 = \sum a_i f(a_i)$; this is a \mathbb{Q} -linear combination of elements of E , applying f one gets $\sum f(a_i)^2 = 0 \Rightarrow f(a_i) = 0 \forall i$ and $f = 0$. \square

Theorem (Cartan's criterion): Let \mathfrak{g} be a subalgebra of $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$ (V finite dim.).

Suppose that $\text{Tr}(xy) = 0 \quad \forall x \in [\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}], y \in \mathfrak{g}$. Then \mathfrak{g} is solvable.

Proof: It is enough to show that $[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]$ is nilpotent (if \mathfrak{g} is closed) or, by Engel's theorem (3 A thm 2) that $\text{ad } x$ is nilpotent for any $x \in [\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]$.

If \mathbb{R} is algebraically closed, one uses Lemma 1 with $V = \mathbb{R}$, $A = [\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]$, $B = \mathfrak{g}$

so $\mathfrak{g} \subset M = \{x \in \mathfrak{gl}(V) \mid [x, \mathfrak{g}] \subset [\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]\}$. To apply it, one needs

$\text{Tr}(xy) = 0 \quad \forall x \in [\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}], y \in \mathfrak{g}$. We know it is true if $y \in \mathfrak{g}$ by hypothesis and

$$\text{Tr}([\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]y) = \text{Tr}(x \mathfrak{g} y - x' \mathfrak{g} y) = \text{Tr}([\mathfrak{g}, y], x)$$

so if $x, x' \in \mathfrak{g}$ and $y \in M$ the last term is zero as $[\mathfrak{g}, y] \subset [\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]$ by definition of M .

Indeed $\text{Tr}(xy) = 0 \quad \forall x \in [\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}], y \in M$ and $\text{ad } x$ is nilpotent for any $x \in [\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]$.

If \mathbb{R} is not algebraically closed, we go to its closure and the hypothesis is still verified. \square

Corollary. A Lie algebra is solvable if

$$\beta([x,y], z) = 0 \quad \forall x, y, z \in \mathfrak{L}$$

Proof we apply the above theorem to the adjoint representation

If $\beta([x,y], z) = 0$, $\text{ad } \mathfrak{L}$ is solvable. As $\text{Ker ad} = Z(\mathfrak{L})$ is abelian and thus solvable, \mathfrak{L} is solvable (by a prop.).

C Cartan's criterion for semisimplicity

Lemma A nonzero Lie algebra is semisimple (i.e. $\text{Rad } \mathfrak{L} = 0$) if and only if \mathfrak{L} has no nonzero abelian ideals.

Proof If R is a nonzero solvable ideal, the last term in the derived series $R, R^{(1)}, R^{(2)}, \dots, R^{(k)} (R^{(k+1)}) = 0$ is abelian, so if \mathfrak{L} has no nonzero abelian ideal, it has no nonzero solvable ideal and $\text{Rad}(\mathfrak{L}) = 0$. Conversely, any abelian ideal must be in the radical, so if $\text{Rad}(\mathfrak{L}) \neq 0$ there is no nonzero abelian ideal. \square

Theorem Let \mathfrak{L} be a nonzero Lie algebra. Then \mathfrak{L} is semisimple if and only if its Killing form is nondegenerate (i.e. $\beta(x, y) = 0 \forall x \in \mathfrak{L} \Rightarrow y = 0$).

Proof. Let $S = \{ y \in \mathfrak{L} \mid \beta(x, y) = 0 \forall x \in \mathfrak{L} \}$

If \mathfrak{L} is semisimple we want to show that $S = 0$. We know that

$\text{Rad } \mathfrak{L} \times \text{ad } y = 0 \quad \forall y \in S \quad x \in [S, S] \subset Y$. Hence by Cartan's criterion

S is solvable so $S \subset \text{Rad}(\mathfrak{L}) = 0$

Conversely, suppose $S = 0$. To prove that \mathfrak{L} is semisimple, it is enough

to show that every maximal nilpotent ideal is zero.

Suppose $X \in \mathfrak{L}, Y \in \mathfrak{L}$. Then $\text{ad } X \text{ad } Y$ maps \mathfrak{L} into S and $(\text{ad } X \text{ad } Y)^2$ maps \mathfrak{L} into $[S, S] = 0$, hence $\text{ad } X \text{ad } Y$ is nilpotent. Thus $\text{tr}(\text{ad } X \text{ad } Y) = \beta(X, Y) = 0$ and $S \subset S$.

Example. If $\mathfrak{d} = \mathfrak{sl}(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{ A \in \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R}) \mid \text{tr} A = 0 \}$, $\beta(A, A') = 2n \text{tr} AA'$ so β is nondegenerate and $\mathfrak{sl}(n, \mathbb{R})$ is semisimple.

D Trace form

If p is a finite dimensional representation of a Lie algebra \mathfrak{L} , one defines the trace form β^p associated to p by:

$$\beta^p(x, y) = \text{tr } p(x)p(y) \quad \forall x, y \in \mathfrak{L}$$

Again, β^p is invariant in the sense that

$$\beta^p([x, y], z) + \beta^p(y, [x, z]) = 0 \quad \forall x, y, z \in \mathfrak{L}$$

Lemma If \mathfrak{L} is semisimple, the trace form β^p is nondegenerate on $(\text{Ker } p)^{\perp}$ where \perp is the orthogonal space in \mathfrak{L} relative to the Killing form β .

Proof On $p : (\text{Ker } p)^{\perp}$, p is injective. If S is the radical of β^p on p , then $\text{tr } p(x)p(y) = 0 \quad \forall x \in S, y \in [S, S] \subset p$. Hence $p(S)$ is solvable. Thus S is solvable so $S \subset \text{Rad}(\mathfrak{L}) = 0$.

