

Lie algebras

Jasper Ty

What is this?

These are notes based on my reading of Humphreys's "Introduction to Lie Algebras and Representation Theory".

Contents

1	Definitions	2
1.1	Lie algebras	2
1.2	Derivations, the adjoint representation	4
1.3	Examples	5
1.3.1	Type A	5
1.3.2	Type B	5
1.3.3	Type C	5
1.3.4	Type D	6
1.4	Abstract Lie algebras	6
2	Ideals and homomorphisms	6
2.1	Homomorphisms	7
3	Automorphisms	9
4	Solvable and nilpotent Lie algebras	9
4.1	The derived series, solvability	9
4.2	The descending central series, nilpotency	10
4.3	Engel's theorem	10
5	Solutions to exercises	11

I Definitions

Convention 1.0.1. All vector spaces are finite dimensional and no assumptions are made about the field they are over.

1.1 Lie algebras

Definition 1.1.1. A **Lie algebra** \mathfrak{g} is a vector space equipped with a product

$$\begin{aligned} [_, _] : \mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g} &\rightarrow \mathfrak{g}, \\ (x, y) &\mapsto [x y], \end{aligned}$$

such that

(L1) $[_, _]$ is bilinear,

(L2) $[xx] = 0$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{g}$, and

(L3) $[x [\gamma z]] + [\gamma [zx]] + [z [xy]] = 0$.

We refer to $[xy]$ as the **bracket** or the **commutator** of x and y .

(L3) is referred to as the *Jacobi identity*.

As an exercise in using this definition, we show the following:

Proposition 1.1.2. Brackets are anticommutative, i.e

$$[xy] = -[yx]. \quad (\text{L2}')$$

is a relation in any Lie algebra.

Proof. By (L2), we have that

$$[x + y, x + y] = 0,$$

and by (L1),

$$[xx] + [xy] + [\gamma x] + [\gamma y] = 0.$$

By (L2) again,

$$[xy] + [\gamma x] = 0,$$

which completes the proof. \square

We will look at our first example of a Lie algebra, which is closely related to the $GL(V)$.

Definition 1.1.3 (\mathfrak{gl} , abstractly). Let V be a vector space. The **general linear algebra** $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$ is defined to be the Lie algebra with underlying vector space $\text{End } V$ and bracket given by

$$[xy] = xy - yx$$

defined with $\text{End } V$ natural ring structure.

Put in a more concrete sense, $\text{End } V$'s aforementioned ring structure is exactly that of $n \times n$ matrices, where $n = \dim V$. Then, the following definition makes sense, and is in a sense “the only” finite dimensional general linear algebra.

Definition 1.1.4 (\mathfrak{gl} , concretely). Let \mathbb{F} be some field and let n be a positive integer. The **general linear algebra** $\mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$ is defined to be the Lie algebra with underlying vector space the set of all $n \times n$ matrices over \mathbb{F} , with bracket given by

$$[xy] = xy - yx.$$

We can ea

Proposition 1.1.5. Let $\{e_{pq}\}_{p,q=0}^n$ be the standard basis of $\mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$. Then

$$[e_{pq}e_{rs}] = \delta_{qr}e_{ps} - \delta_{sp}e_{rq},$$

where δ is the Kronecker delta.

Proof. Using the Iverson bracket,

$$(e_{pq})_{ij} = [p = i \wedge q = j]^?$$

and so

$$\begin{aligned} (e_{pq}e_{rs})_{ij} &= \sum_{k=1}^n (e_{pq})_{ik} (e_{rs})_{kj} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n [p = i \wedge q = k]^? [r = k \wedge s = j]^? \\ &= \left(\sum_{k=1}^n [q = r = k]^? \right) [p = i \wedge s = j]^? \end{aligned}$$

$$= \delta_{qr}(e_{ps})_{ij}.$$

So $e_{pq}e_{rs} = \delta_{qr}e_{ps}$. Similarly, $e_{rs}e_{pq} = \delta_{sp}e_{rq}$. \square

Importantly, many Lie algebras, and in fact all the Lie algebras we are concerned with, occur as subalgebras of the general linear algebra—a **subalgebra** of a Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is a vector subspace of \mathfrak{g} that is closed under the bracket.

■ **Definition 1.1.6.** A **linear Lie algebra** is a subalgebra of $\mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$ for some n .

1.2 Derivations, the adjoint representation

■ **Definition 1.2.1.** Let \mathfrak{U} be a \mathbb{F} -algebra. A **derivation** of \mathfrak{U} is a linear map $d : \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}$ which satisfies the *Leibniz rule*

$$d(ab) = a(db) + (da)b.$$

■ The collection of all derivations of \mathfrak{U} is denoted $\text{Der } \mathfrak{U}$.

■ **Definition 1.2.2.** The **adjoint representation** of a Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is the mapping

$$x \mapsto \text{ad}_x$$

where $\text{ad}_x \in \text{Der } \mathfrak{g}$ is defined to be

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ad}_x : \mathfrak{g} &\rightarrow \mathfrak{g} \\ y &\mapsto [x, y]. \end{aligned}$$

■ **Proposition 1.2.3.** ad_x is a derivation.

Proof. We start with the Jacobi identity (L3)

$$[x[yz]] + [y[zx]] + [z[xy]] = 0,$$

which, using the anticommutation relations $[y[zx]] = -[y[xz]]$ and $[z[xy]] = -[[xy]z]$, is equivalent to

$$[x[yz]] = [y[xz]] + [[xy]z].$$

But this is saying that

$$\text{ad}_x[yz] = [y, \text{ad}_x z] + [\text{ad}_x y, z]$$

which is exactly the defining identity for derivations. \square

1.3 Examples

We have four distinguished families of Lie algebras:

$$A_\ell, \quad B_\ell, \quad C_\ell, \quad D_\ell.$$

These classify all but five of the so-called **semisimple Lie algebras**.

1.3.1 Type A

Definition 1.3.1. Let V be a \mathbb{F} -vector space, and fix a basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ of V . The **trace** of an endomorphism $x \in \text{End } V$ of V is defined to be the sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \langle v_i, x(v_i) \rangle$$

where $\langle -, - \rangle$ is the canonical pairing.

In other words, it is the sum of the diagonal entries of the matrix representation of x .

We say that x is **traceless** if $\text{tr } x = 0$.

Definition 1.3.2. The **special linear algebra** $\mathfrak{sl}(V)$ is defined to be the set of all traceless endomorphisms of V .

Proposition 1.3.3. $\mathfrak{sl}(V)$ is a subalgebra of $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$.

Proof. The trace is a linear operator $\text{tr} : \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$. Since the kernel of a linear operator is a vector subspace, we conclude that $\mathfrak{sl}(n, \mathbb{F})$ is a vector subspace of \mathfrak{gl} .

Finally, the fact that $\text{tr}(xy - yx) = \text{tr}(xy) - \text{tr}(yx) = 0$ for *all* $x, y \in \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{F})$ means that $\mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{F})$'s Lie bracket is closed in $\mathfrak{sl}(n, \mathbb{F})$. \square

1.3.2 Type B

Definition 1.3.4. The **orthogonal algebra** $\mathfrak{o}(2n + 1, \mathbb{F})$ is defined to be

1.3.3 Type C

Definition 1.3.5. Let $\dim V = 2\ell$. We define a skew-symmetric bilinear form f on V via the matrix

$$s := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I_\ell \\ -I_\ell & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Namely,

$$f(u, v) := u^T s v.$$

The **symplectic algebra** $\mathfrak{sp}(V)$ is defined to be the set of all $x \in \text{End } V$ such that

$$f(x(u), v) = -f(u, x(v)).$$

1.3.4 Type D

Definition 1.3.6. The **orthogonal algebra** $\mathfrak{o}(2n, \mathbb{F})$ is defined to be

1.4 Abstract Lie algebras

2 Ideals and homomorphisms

Definition 2.0.1. A subspace I of a Lie algebra L is called an **ideal** of L if $[xy] \in I$ for all $x \in L$ and $y \in I$.

Definition 2.0.2. The **quotient of a Lie algebra** L by an ideal I , denoted L/I , is defined to be the quotient of L as a vector space by I as a subspace, equipped with the product

$$[x + I, y + I] := [xy] + I.$$

Proposition 2.0.3. L/I is a Lie algebra.

Proof. These are all easy to check.

$$\begin{aligned} [ax + by + I, z + I] &= \\ ([ax + by, z]) + I &= (a[x, z] + b[y, z]) + I \\ &= (a[x, z] + I) + (b[y, z] + I) \\ &= a[x + I, z + I] + b[y + I, z + I]. \end{aligned}$$

$$[x + I, x + I] = [xx] + I = 0 + I$$

□

2.1 Homomorphisms

There is a natural definition of a Lie algebra homomorphism—it's a map that respects brackets.

Definition 2.1.1. Let \mathfrak{g} and \mathfrak{h} be two Lie algebras. We say that a map $\phi : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ is a **Lie algebra homomorphism** if it is a linear map for which

$$\phi([x, y]) = [\phi(x), \phi(y)]$$

for all $x, y \in \mathfrak{g}$. A **Lie algebra isomorphism** is a Lie algebra morphism that is also an isomorphism of vector spaces.

Definition 2.1.2. A **representation** of a Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is a Lie algebra morphism $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{gl}(V)$.

Theorem 2.1.3 (Lie algebra isomorphism theorems). Let \mathfrak{g} and \mathfrak{h} be Lie algebras.

- (a) If $\phi : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ is a homomorphism, then $\mathfrak{g}/\ker \phi \simeq \text{im } \phi$. If $\mathfrak{i} \subseteq \ker \phi$ is an ideal of \mathfrak{g} , there exists a unique homomorphism $\bar{\phi} : \mathfrak{g}/\mathfrak{i} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ that makes the following diagram commute:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathfrak{g} & \xrightarrow{\phi} & \mathfrak{h} \\ \pi \downarrow & \nearrow \bar{\phi} & \\ \mathfrak{g}/\mathfrak{i} & & \end{array}$$

- (b) if \mathfrak{i} and \mathfrak{j} are ideals of \mathfrak{g} such that $\mathfrak{i} \subseteq \mathfrak{j}$, then $\mathfrak{j}/\mathfrak{i}$ is an ideal of $\mathfrak{g}/\mathfrak{i}$ and there is a natural isomorphism

$$(\mathfrak{g}/\mathfrak{i})/(\mathfrak{j}/\mathfrak{i}) \simeq \mathfrak{g}/\mathfrak{j}.$$

- (c) if $\mathfrak{i}, \mathfrak{j}$ are ideals of \mathfrak{g} , there is a natural isomorphism

$$(\mathfrak{i} + \mathfrak{j})/\mathfrak{i} \simeq \mathfrak{i}/(\mathfrak{i} \cap \mathfrak{j}).$$

Proof. (a) The map

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\phi} : \mathfrak{g}/\ker \phi &\rightarrow \text{im } \phi \\ x + \ker \phi &\mapsto \phi(x) \end{aligned}$$

is the desired isomorphism $\mathfrak{g}/\ker \phi \simeq \text{im } \phi$. We verify that it is well defined: let $x + \ker \phi = x' + \ker \phi$. Then there exists $k, k' \in \ker \phi$ such that $x + k = x' + k'$, and we have that

$$\phi(x) = \phi(x + k) = \phi(x + k') = \phi(x'),$$

so $\bar{\phi}$ is a well-defined function on the cosets in $\mathfrak{g}/\ker \phi$.

Next, we check that it respects brackets:

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\phi}\left([x + \ker \phi, y + \ker \phi]\right) &= \bar{\phi}\left([xy] + \ker \phi\right) \\ &= \phi\left([xy]\right) \\ &= [\phi(x)\phi(y)] \\ &= \left[\bar{\phi}\left(x + \ker \phi\right), \bar{\phi}\left(y + \ker \phi\right)\right]. \end{aligned}$$

Then, it is a homomorphism. To show that it is an isomorphism, we note that it has a trivial kernel, trivially:

$$\ker \bar{\phi} = \{x + \ker \phi : x + \ker \phi = \ker \phi\} = \{0 + \ker \phi\}.$$

□

Theorem 2.1.4. The adjoint representation $\text{ad} : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g})$ is a representation of \mathfrak{g} .

Proof. ad is evidently linear. Next, we just check that it is a homomorphism:

$$\begin{aligned} [\text{ad}_x \text{ad}_y](z) &= (\text{ad}_x \text{ad}_y - \text{ad}_y \text{ad}_x)(z) \\ &= (\text{ad}_x \text{ad}_y)(z) - (\text{ad}_y \text{ad}_x)(z) \\ &= \text{ad}_x[yz] - \text{ad}_y[xz] \\ &= [x[yz]] - [y[xz]] \\ &= [x[yz]] + [y[zx]] \\ &= [[xy]z] \\ &= \text{ad}_{[xy]}(z). \end{aligned}$$

□

■ **Corollary 2.1.5.** Any simple Lie algebra is isomorphic to a linear Lie algebra.

Proof. Let \mathfrak{g} be a Lie algebra. We have that

$$\ker \text{ad} = \{x \in \mathfrak{g} : \text{ad}_x = 0\} = \{x \in \mathfrak{g} : [x, y] = 0 \text{ for all } y \in \mathfrak{g}\} = Z(\mathfrak{g}).$$

Hence, if \mathfrak{g} is simple, i.e if $Z(\mathfrak{g}) = 0$, then ad has a trivial kernel, so it is an isomorphism. \square

3 Automorphisms

■ **Definition 3.0.1.** A **automorphism** of a Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is an isomorphism $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$.

■ **Proposition 3.0.2.** Let V be a vector space and let $g \in \text{GL}(V)$ be an invertible element of $\text{End } V$. Then the map

$$x \mapsto gxg^{-1}$$

is an automorphism of $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$.

Proof. The aforementioned map is a vector space isomorphism, with explicit inverse

$$x \mapsto g^{-1}xg$$

and it is a homomorphism, as

$$\begin{aligned} g[x, y]g^{-1} &= g(xy - yx)g^{-1} \\ &= (gxg^{-1})(yg^{-1}) - (gyg^{-1})(gxg^{-1}) \\ &= (gxg^{-1}g)yg^{-1} - (gyg^{-1}g)gxg^{-1} \\ &= [gxg^{-1}, gyg^{-1}]. \end{aligned}$$

\square

4 Solvable and nilpotent Lie algebras

4.1 The derived series, solvability

Definition 4.1.1. The **derived series** of a Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is a sequence of ideals $\mathfrak{g}^{(0)}, \mathfrak{g}^{(1)}, \dots$ defined

$$\begin{cases} \mathfrak{g}^{(0)} := \mathfrak{g} \\ \mathfrak{g}^{(i)} := [\mathfrak{g}^{(i-1)} \mathfrak{g}^{(i-1)}] \end{cases}.$$

In other words, $\mathfrak{g}^{(i)}$ is all those elements of \mathfrak{g} which can be written as linear combinations of i “binary trees” of brackets in \mathfrak{g} .

Definition 4.1.2. A Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is said to be **solvable** if $\mathfrak{g}^{(n)} = 0$ for some n .

For example, abelian Lie algebras are solvable, whereas simple Lie algebras are never solvable.

Proposition 4.1.3. The Lie algebra of upper triangular matrices $\mathfrak{t}_n(\mathbb{F})$ is solvable.

Proof.

□

4.2 The descending central series, nilpotency

Definition 4.2.1. The **descending central series** of a Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is a sequence of ideals $\mathfrak{g}^0, \mathfrak{g}^1, \dots$ defined

$$\begin{cases} \mathfrak{g}^0 := \mathfrak{g} \\ \mathfrak{g}^i := [\mathfrak{g} \mathfrak{g}^{i-1}] \end{cases}.$$

Definition 4.2.2. A Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is said to be **nilpotent** if $\mathfrak{g}^n = 0$ for some n .

Proposition 4.2.3. All nilpotent Lie algebras are solvable.

Definition 4.2.4. Let \mathfrak{g} be a Lie algebra. We say that $x \in \mathfrak{g}$ is **ad-nilpotent** if $(\text{ad}_x)^n = 0$ for some n .

4.3 Engel’s theorem

We will prove **Engel’s theorem**

Theorem 4.3.1 (Engel). Let \mathfrak{g} be a Lie algebra. Then the following are equivalent:

- (i) \mathfrak{g} is nilpotent,
- (ii) All the elements of \mathfrak{g} are ad-nilpotent.

Proof of Engel's theorem.

□

5 Solutions to exercises

Exercise 5.1 (Humphreys 1.1). Verify that \mathbb{R}^3 with the bracket given by the *cross product*

$$[xy] := x \times y$$

is a Lie algebra, and write down its structure constants relative to the usual basis of \mathbb{R}^3 .

Let

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad z = \begin{pmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ z_3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad w = \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The cross product is defined

$$x \times y = \begin{pmatrix} x_2 y_3 - x_3 y_2 \\ x_3 y_1 - x_1 y_3 \\ x_1 y_2 - x_2 y_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then we directly verify the Lie algebra axioms.

For (L1),

$$\begin{aligned} (ax + by) \times z &= \begin{pmatrix} (ax_2 + by_2)z_3 - (ax_3 + by_3)z_2 \\ (ax_3 + by_3)z_1 - (ax_1 + by_1)z_3 \\ (ax_1 + by_1)z_2 - (ax_2 + by_2)z_1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} (ax_2 z_3 + by_2 z_3) - (ax_3 z_2 + by_3 z_2) \\ (ax_3 z_1 + by_3 z_1) - (ax_1 z_3 + by_1 z_3) \\ (ax_1 z_2 + by_1 z_2) - (ax_2 z_1 + by_2 z_1) \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \begin{pmatrix} a(x_2 z_3 - x_3 z_2) + b(y_2 z_3 + y_3 z_2) \\ a(x_3 z_1 - x_1 z_3) + b(y_3 z_1 + y_1 z_3) \\ a(x_1 z_2 - x_2 z_1) + b(y_1 z_2 + y_2 z_1) \end{pmatrix} \\
&= a(x \times z) + b(y \times z).
\end{aligned}$$

And, via an almost identical calculation,

$$x \times (a y \times b z) = a(x \times y) + b(x \times z).$$

Next, we verify (L₂)

$$x \times x = \begin{pmatrix} x_2 x_3 - x_3 x_2 \\ x_3 x_1 - x_1 x_3 \\ x_1 x_2 - x_2 x_1 \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

And finally, we verify the Jacobi identity (L₃)

$$x \times x = \begin{pmatrix} x_2 x_3 - x_3 x_2 \\ x_3 x_1 - x_1 x_3 \\ x_1 x_2 - x_2 x_1 \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$