# Lie Theory

## November 17, 2023

## Contents

1	Bac	kground 2	2
	1.1	Topology	2
2	Topologcial Groups		
	2.1	Introduction	)
	2.2	Neighborhoods of Identity	2
	2.3	Metrizable Groups	3
	2.4	Homomorphisms	3
	2.5	Subgroups	1
	2.6	Connected Components of Topological Groups	1
	2.7	Group Action	5
	2.8	Homogeneous Spaces	5
	2.9	Orbits and Homogeneous Spaces	7
	2.10	Examples	7
3	$\mathbf{Lie}$	Group 8	3
	3.1	Basics	3
	3.2	Tangent Bundle to a Manifold	3
	3.3	Lie Groups	3
	3.4	Lie Algebra	)
	3.5	Exponential Map	)
	3.6	Exponential Map Formulas	L
	3.7	Lie Algebras and Lie Group Homomorphisms	3
	3.8	The Adjoint Representation	1
	3.9	Haar Measure on Lie Group	5
4	Lie'	s Fundamental Theorem 16	3
	4.1		3
	4.2	Baker Campbell Hausdorff Theorem	3
	4.3	Universal Enveloping Algebra	7
	4.4	Completing the Proof of PBW Theorem	7
	4.5	Bialgebra	7
	4.6	Universal algebra as Differential Operators	

## 1 Background

#### 1.1 Topology

**Definition 1.1.1.** A topological space is *locally connected* at point x if everyneighborhood of x contains a connected open neighborhood.

## 2 Topologcial Groups

#### 2.1 Introduction

**Definition 2.1.1.** A *topological group* is a group such that

- 1. he product  $p: G \times G \to G, p(g,h) = gh$ , is a continuous map if  $G \times G$  has the product topology;
- 2. The map  $\iota: G \to G, \iota(g) = g^{-1}$ , is continuous (hence, a homeomorphism, as  $\iota^{-1} = \iota$ ).

Each element  $g \in G$  defines the following maps.

- left translation:  $L_q: G \to G, L_q(h) = gh;$
- right translation:  $R_q: G \to G, R_q(h) = hg;$
- conjugation:  $C_q: G \to G, C_q(h) = ghg^{-1}$ .

## 2.2 Neighborhoods of Identity

An (open) neighborhood of  $x \in X$ , where X is a topological space, is an open set U that cointains x.

Let G be a topological group, and  $1 \in G$  is the identity. V(1) refers to the set of all neighborhoods of 1.

**Proposition 2.2.1** (Proposition 2.2). Let G be a t.g. (topological group), V = V(1). Then we'll have

- 1. (T1)for all  $u \in V, 1 \in u$ ;
- 2.  $(T2)u, v \in V \implies u \cap v \in V$ ;
- 3. (TG1) for all  $u \in V$ , there exists  $v \in V$  s.t.  $v^2 \subseteq u$ ;
- 4.  $(TG2) \ u \in V \implies u^{-1} \in V$ ;
- 5.  $(TG3) \ u \in V, g \in G \implies gug^{-1} \in V$ .

**Definition 2.2.2.** Let G be a group, not necessarily topological group. A system of neighborhood of  $1 \in G$  is a family of sets sastisfying (T1) to (TG3).

**Definition 2.2.3.** Let X be a topological space and  $x \in X$ . A fundamental system of neighborhoods of x is a family F of open sets containing x s.t. for all open u that contains x, there exists  $v \in F$  s.t.  $v \subseteq u$ .

**Theorem 2.2.4** (Proposition 2.5). Let G be an abstract group, V be a system of neighborhoods of 1. There exists a unique topology on G making G into a topological group and s.t. V is a fundamental system of neighborhoods of 1.

 $idea \ of \ proof.$ 

**Proposition 2.2.5.** Let G be a topological group. TFAE

- 1. topology of G is a Hausdorff
- 2.  $\{1\}$  is closed in
- 3.  $\bigcap_{U \in \mathcal{V}(1)} U = \{1\}$

## 2.3 Metrizable Groups

**Definition 2.3.1.** Let G be a topological group. G is metrizable if it has a left-(or right-) invariate distance which defines the tooplogy left-invariant for all  $g \in G$  and d(gx, gy) = d(x, y) for all  $x, y \in G$ .

**Theorem 2.3.2.** A topological group G is metrizable iff it has a countable system of neighborhoods of 1.

#### 2.4 Homomorphisms

We need to talk about  $G \to H$  continuous homomorphisms.

Example 2.4.1. The determinant homomorphism det :  $GL_n(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathbb{R}^* = GL(1,\mathbb{R})$  is continuous.

**Theorem 2.4.2.** Let G, H be topological group. A group homomorphism  $\phi : G \to H$  is continuous iff  $\phi$  is continuous at  $1 \in G$ .

*Proof.*  $\implies$  is obvious. Let's look at the other direction.

Note that  $\phi \circ L_g = L_{\phi(g)} \circ \phi$  as maps  $G \to H$  because

$$(\phi \circ L_g)(g') = \phi(gg') = \phi(g)\phi(g') = (L_{\phi(g)} \circ \phi)(g').$$

Then

$$\phi = L_{\phi(q)} \circ \phi \circ L_{q^{-1}}$$

is continuous at g, as  $L_{g^{-1}}$  is continuous at g,  $\phi$  continuous at 1, and  $L_{\phi(g)}$  continuous everywhere.

**Theorem 2.4.3.** A map  $\phi: G \to H$  is a group homomorphism (G, H are just groups) iff

$$gr(\phi) := \{(g, \phi(g)) \mid g \in G\} \subseteq G \times H.$$

**Proposition 2.4.4.** Let X and Y be topological spaces, such that Y is Hausdorff. A map  $\phi: X \to Y$  is continuous if and only if its graph  $gr(\phi)$  is closed and the projection  $p(x, \phi(x)) = x$  is a homeomorphism.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\phi$  is continuous. Then

$$gr(\phi) = \theta^{-1}(\Delta y)$$
 w.r.t.  $\theta: X \times Y \to Y \times Y$ 

is closed, since *tehta* is continuous and  $\Delta y$  is closed.

**Theorem 2.4.5.** Suppose G, H are topological groups, H is Hausdorff. The map  $G \to H$  is a continuous homomorphism iff  $gr(\phi)$  is a closed subgroup and  $p: gr(\phi) \to G$  is a homeomorphism.

## 2.5 Subgroups

Let G be a topological group.  $H \subseteq G$  is a topological subgroup if H is a topological group w.r.t. the induced topology.

**Proposition 2.5.1.** Let G be a topological group. If  $H \subseteq G$  a subgroup, which is open. Then H is also closed.

Proof. Consider

$$Y = \bigcup_{g \in G - H} gH.$$

Y is open, as it is a union of open sets. H is also closed, as G-Y=H. Hence, H is closed.

**Proposition 2.5.2.** G a topological group,  $H \subseteq G$  a subgroup. Then  $\overline{H}$  is also a subgroup of G.

*Proof.* Note that  $A \subseteq X$  (subset of a topological space),  $x \in \overline{A}$  iff for all open U that contains  $x, U \cap A \neq \emptyset$ . Then we check the followings.

1.  $\overline{H}$  is closed under  $m: G \times G \to G$ .

### 2.6 Connected Components of Topological Groups

A connected space cannot be written as the union of two disjoint open sets.

A *connected component* of a point  $x \in X$  is the union of all connected sets containing x, which is also the maximal connected set containing x.

A connected component of X is a maximal connected subset.

If  $A \subseteq X$  is connected, then the closure  $\overline{A}$  is connected. Thus, every connected component is closed.

Let G be a topological group,  $G_0$  is the connected component of  $1 \in G$ .

**Proposition 2.6.1.**  $G_0$  is a closed normal subgroup of G. The connected components of G are exactly  $gG_0$  for  $g \in G$ .

A neighborhood N of  $x \in X$  is a subset  $N \subseteq X$ ,  $x \in N$  and there exists an open  $U \subseteq X$  s.t  $x \in U \subseteq N$ .

A space is *locally connected* if for every open neighborhood of every point contains a connected open neighborhood.

**Proposition 2.6.2.** If G is locally conencted, then  $G_0$  is open.

**Proposition 2.6.3.** If G connected,  $U \in \mathcal{V}(1)$ , then  $G = \bigcup_{n \geq 1} U^n$ .

#### 2.7 Group Action

Suppose G a group, X a set.

**Definition 2.7.1.** A *left action* of a group G on a set X is a function that associates to  $g \in G$  a map  $a(g) : X \to X$  which satisfies the properties: 1.  $a(1) = \mathrm{id}_X$ , that is, a(1)(x) = x, for every  $x \in X$ ; 2.  $a(gh) = a(g) \circ a(h)$ .

**Definition 2.7.2.** Let  $\phi_x: G \times X \to X, \phi_y: G \times Y \to Y$ . A map  $f: X \to Y$  is G-equivariant if

$$\phi_y(g, f(x)) = f(\phi_x(g, x)).$$

Same stroy for topological groups.

**Definition 2.7.3.** Let G be a topological group, X a topological space, an *action* G on X should be continuous. In other words, G acts on X by homeomorphisms  $\phi_g$ .

Action is *transitive* if X = Gx for some  $x \in X$ . We define the *orbit* of x to be  $Gx = \{gx \mid g \in G\}$ . A *stabilizer* or *isotropy subgroup* of x is  $G_x = \{g \in G \mid gx = x\}$ .

An action is an effective action or faithful if  $gx = x, \forall x \in X \implies g = 1$ , equivalently,  $\bigcap_{x \in X} G_x = \{1\}$ .

#### Proposition 2.7.4.

$$G/G_x \to X$$
 where  $gG_x \mapsto gx$ .

This map is equivariant.

**Proposition 2.7.5.** Suppose that the action of G on X is continuous and that X is a Hausdorff space. Then, any isotropy subgroup  $G_x, x \in X$ , is closed.

## 2.8 Homogeneous Spaces

Let G be a topological group.

**Definition 2.8.1.** A homogeneous G-space is just G/H for a subgroup H of G.

**Definition 2.8.2.** A topological space X without regards to group is *homogeneous* if for all  $x,y \in X$ , there exists a homeomorphism  $\phi: X \to X$  s.t.  $\phi(x) = y$ .

Topology on G/H is that of a quotient:  $\pi: G \to G/H$ . In other words,  $U \subseteq G/H$  open if  $\pi^{-1}(U) \subseteq G$  open.

Note: action of G on G/H is continuous:

$$G \times G/H \to G/H$$
 where  $(x, gH) \mapsto xgH$ .

**Proposition 2.8.3.** We have the following facts.

- 1. G/H is a homogeneous space in the sense of topology.
- 2.  $\pi: G \to G/H$  is an open map (it takes open sets to open sets).
- 3. H compact implies that  $\pi$  is a closed map.
- 4. G/H is Hausdorff iff H is closed.
- 5. G/H discrete iff H open. (HW2)
- 6. If G is compact, G/H discrete and finite iff H is open.
- 7.  $H \triangleleft G$  implies G/H is a topological group.
- 8.  $H := \overline{\{1\}}$ . Then H is a normal subgroup of G, and G/H is Hausdorff topological group.

Proof of 1. Consider left translation

$$L_x: qH \mapsto xqH.$$

This is a homeomorphism since  $L_{x^{-1}}$  is an inverse and both are continuous.  $\square$ 

*Proof of 2.* We need to show that  $\pi^{-1}\pi(U)$  is open. (Omitted, just do image preimage and write it as union of right cosets).

*Proof of 3.* Take  $F \subseteq G$  closed, if H is a compact subset, then  $FH \subseteq G$  is closed. (From a proposition from textbook).

Notice that  $\pi(F)$  closed iff  $\pi^{-1}\pi(F)$  closed, and the latter equals to FH.  $\square$ 

*Proof of 4.* We first show  $\implies$  . Note that  $H = \pi^{-1}(H)$ , which is a point of G/H, so it's closed. Thus H is closed.

Then we show  $\Leftarrow$ . Consider the homeomorphism

$$f: G/H \times G/H \to G \times G/H \times H$$
 where  $(g_1H, g_2H) \mapsto (g_1, g_2)H \times H$ .

Denote  $\Delta = \{(gH, gH)\}$ . Then  $f(\Delta) = \{(g, g)H \times H\}$  is closed iff  $\pi_{G \times G}^{-1} f(\Delta)$  is closed, which equals to  $\{(g_1, g_2) \mid g_1H = g_2H\} = \{(g_1, g_2) \mid g_1^{-1}g_2 \in H\}$ .  $\square$ 

Let G be a topological group,  $H \subseteq G$  a subgroup.

**Proposition 2.8.4.** If H and G/H are compact, then so is G.

Proof.

$$\pi:G\to G/H$$

is a *perfect map*, i.e., a continuous subjective closed map with compact fibers  $\pi^{-1}(x), \forall x \in G/H$ .

**Proposition 2.8.5.** If G/H and H are connected, then so is G.

*Proof.* Suppose G is not connected, then there exists  $A \bigsqcup B = G$ ,  $A, B \neq \emptyset$  open, disjoin  $\subseteq G$ . Then  $\pi(A), \pi(B) \neq \emptyset$ , open because  $\pi$  is always open,  $\pi(A) \cup \pi(B) = G/H$ , which is connected. Therefore  $\pi(A) \cap \pi(B) \neq \emptyset$ . Thus there exists  $gH \in G/H$  s.t.  $gH \cap A \neq \emptyset$  and  $gH \cap B \neq \emptyset$ .

## 2.9 Orbits and Homogeneous Spaces

Homogeneous space  $G/G_x$ , we hav ea bijection:

$$G/G_x \to G \cdot x$$
 where  $gG_x \mapsto gx$ .

**Proposition 2.9.1.** Let  $G \times X \to X$  be a continuous and transitive action of G on X. Fix  $x \in X$  and consider the bijection

$$\xi_x: G/G_x \to X \text{ given by } \xi_x(gG_X) = gx.$$

Then  $\xi_x$  is continuous with respect to the quotient topology in  $G/G_x$ .

**Proposition 2.9.2.** Let  $G \times X \to X$  be a topological transitive group action. Suppose G is locally compact and spearable (i.e., has a countable dense subset) and X is Hausdorff and locally compact, Then

$$\xi_x: G/G_x \to X = G \cdot x \quad \forall x \in X$$

is a homeomorphism.

#### 2.10 Examples

We have

$$O(N) = \{ g \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \mid gg^T = I_n(\det g = 1) \}.$$

O(n) acts on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with orbits being  $S_r^{n-1} - \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid |x| = r\}, r \geq 0$ .

Induction implies that O(n), SO(n) are compact, SO(n) connected.

Also  $SL(n,\mathbb{R})$  is connected, as it has for n > -2 has 2 orbits on  $\mathbb{R}^n : \{0\}, \mathbb{R}^n - \{0\}$ . Also  $SL(n,\mathbb{C})$  is connected.

Consider unitary groups

$$U(n) = \{ g \in GL(n, \mathbb{C}) \mid gg^{-T} - I_n(\det g = 1) \}.$$

 $GL(n,\mathbb{F})$  acts on  $\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ , which is the set of lines through 0 in  $\mathbb{F}^n$ .

 $Gr_k(n, \mathbb{F})$  is the set of k-dimensional subspaces of  $\mathbb{F}^n$ , which is the quotient of the set of  $n \times k$ -matrices of rank k by  $GL(k, \mathbb{F})$  acting on the right.

## 3 Lie Group

#### 3.1 Basics

**Definition 3.1.1.** A Lie group G is a group and a manifold such that

$$m: G \times G \to G$$

is smooth.

The composition of two smooth maps is smooth.

**Proposition 3.1.2.** The inverse map  $\iota: G \to G$  is a diffeomorphism with

$$d\iota_q = -(dL_{q^{-1}})_1 \circ (dR_{q^{-1}})_q.$$

Particularly,  $\iota_1 = -\operatorname{id}$ .

## 3.2 Tangent Bundle to a Manifold

A fiber bundle is a structure  $(E,B,\pi,F)$ , where E,B, and F are topological spaces and  $\pi:E\to B$  is a continuous surjection satisfying a local triviality condition outlined below. The space B is called the base space of the bundle, E the total space, and F the fiber. The map  $\pi$  is called the projection map (or bundle projection). We shall assume in what follows that the base space B is connected.

We require that for every  $x \in B$ , there is an open neighborhood  $U \subseteq B$  of x (which will be called a trivializing neighborhood) such that there is a homeomorphism  $\varphi: \pi^{-1}(U) \to U \times F$  (where  $\pi^{-1}(U)$  is given the subspace topology, and  $U \times F$  is the product space) in such a way that  $\pi$  agrees with the projection onto the first factor. That is, the following diagram should commute:

#### ADD THIS!

Denote the tangent bundle

$$TM = \bigcup_{x \in M} T_x M$$
  $T_x M = \{ m(t) \mid m(0) = x \} / \sim .$ 

#### 3.3 Lie Groups

Let TG be the tangent bundle to a Lie group G. We define

$$d(L_g)_h: T_hG \to T_{gh}G$$
 where  $h'(t) \mapsto (gh)'(t)$ .

Notice that then

$$d(L_q)_1: T_1G \simeq T_qG.$$

Moreover,

$$G \times T_1G \simeq TG$$
 where  $(g, v) \mapsto (g, d(L_g)_1 v)$ .

Thus, TG is trivial as a vector bundle for a Lie group G. i.e. G is parallelizable.

## 3.4 Lie Algebra

Proposition 3.4.1.

$$[\phi * X, \phi * Y] = \phi * ([X, Y]).$$

**Definition 3.4.2.** Let G be a Lie group. A vector field X on G is said to be

• right invariant if, for every  $g \in G, (R_g)_* X = X$ . In detail,

$$d(R_q)_k(X(h)) = X(hq)$$

for every  $g, h \in G$ ;

• left invariant if, for every  $g \in G, (L_g)_* X = X$ , that is,

$$d(L_g)_h(X(h)) = X(gh).$$

**Definition 3.4.3.** We define Maurer-Cartan forms, which are differential 1 forms on G with values in  $T_1G$ . They are defined by right or left translations by

$$\omega_g^r(v) = d\left(R_{g^{-1}}\right)_g(v) \quad \text{ and } \quad \omega_g^l(v) = d\left(L_{g^{-1}}\right)_g(v)$$

for  $g \in G$  and  $v \in T_qG$ .

**Proposition 3.4.4.** If  $X \in Vect(G)$  is right-invariant, then  $\omega^r(X) = X(1)$ , the constant  $T_1G$ -valued function. Similarly, if X is left-invariant, then  $\omega^l(X) = X(1)$ .

**Definition 3.4.5.** We define the set of right invariant fields as

$$Inv_r = \bigcap_{q \in G} ker\left((R_q)_* - Id_{vect(G)}\right) \subseteq Vect(G).$$

**Theorem 3.4.6.** Let  $Inv_r \cong T_1G \cong Inv_e$ 

**Definition 3.4.7.**  $\mathfrak{g} = (Inv_r, [,])$  is the *Lie algebra* of a Lie group G.

**Proposition 3.4.8.** This bracket gives the following bracket on  $T_1G$ :

$$A \in T_1G \to A^r(g) = d(R_g)_1A.$$

Moreover

$$[A, B] := [A, B]_r = [A^r, B^r](1).$$

**Proposition 3.4.9.** Let  $A, B \in T_1G$ . Then,  $[A, B]_r = -[A, B]_l$ .

$$[A, B] = -[A, B]_e = BA - AB.$$

#### 3.5 Exponential Map

Remarks on flows on manifolds.

Let X be a vector field on manifold  $M, X \in C^{\infty}(M, TM)$ . A flow  $\phi_t^x$  defined by  $\phi_t^x(x) = x(t), t \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ , and  $\frac{dx}{dt} = X(x), x(0) = x$ .

Another notation is  $X_t = \phi_t^x$ .

WTS

$$X_{s+t} = X_s \circ X_t = X_t \circ X_s$$
.

Take  $X \in \mathfrak{g} = Inv^r$  right invariant vector field

Then  $X_t(g)$  the flow equals to g(t) and is given by

$$\frac{dg}{dt} = X(g), \quad g(0) = g.$$

For  $g \in G$ ,  $g(t) : (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \to G$ .

**Lemma 3.5.1.** For  $X \in Inv^r$ , we have

$$X_t(gh) = X_t(g)h \quad \forall g, h \in G.$$

**Theorem 3.5.2.** A right-invariant vector field X is complete, i.e., defined for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

G a lie group,  $\mathfrak{g} = T_1G$  its lie algebra.

**Definition 3.5.3.** The exponential map

$$\exp:\mathfrak{g}\to G$$

is defined by  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$  generates the right invariant vector field  $X^r(g) = d(R_g)_1 X, g \in G$ .

Then we create a flow, denoted by  $X_t^r = g(t)$ , for  $\frac{dg(t)}{gt} = X^r(g(t)), g(0) = g$ , which gives that  $X_t^r(1)|_{t=1} = \exp(X)$ .

**Proposition 3.5.4.** By doing the same procedure using left-invariant vector field  $X^l$  gives the same result:

$$X_t^l(1)|_{t=1} = X_t^r(1)|_{t=1} = \exp(X).$$

Moreover,

$$X_t^l(1) = X_t^r(1) \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

*Proof.* Denote  $g(t_0) = X_t^r(1), g(0) = 1$ . It's sufficient to show that  $\frac{dg}{dt} = X^l(g)$ .

We know that

$$\begin{split} \frac{dg}{dt} &= \frac{d}{dt} \left( X_t^r(1) \right) = \frac{d}{ds} \left( X_{s+t}^r(1) \right) |_{s=0} \\ &= \frac{d}{ds} \left( X_t^r(X_s^r(1)) \right) |_{s=0} \\ &= \frac{d}{ds} \left( X_t^r(1) X_s^r(1) \right) |_{s=0} \\ &= \frac{d}{ds} \left( L_{X_t^r(1)} X_s^r(1) \right) |_{s=0} \\ &= d(L_{X_t^r(1)})_1 \frac{d}{ds} \left( X_s^r(1) \right) |_{s=0} \\ &= d(L_{X_t^r(1)})_1 X^r(1) \\ &= d(L_{X_t^r(1)})_1 X \\ &= X^l(X_t^r(1)) \\ &= X^l(g(t)) \end{split}$$
 chain rule

We have

$$X_t(1): (\mathbb{R}, t) \to G.$$

a homomorphism, sometimes we call it a *one-parametric* subgroup of G generated by a right invariant vector field  $X^r$ .

Q: What is  $X_t^r(1)$  and  $X_t^l(1)$  via exp?

A: Suppose Y a vector field on M. Suppose we run a corresponding flow  $Y_t$  on M. Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $(aY)_t = Y_{at}$  whenever flow  $Y_{at}$  and  $Y_t$  are defined.

$$(tY)_s|_{s=1} = Y_t.$$

Applying this to  $M = G, Y = X^r$  at  $g = 1, tX^r = (tX)^r$ , we have

$$\exp(tX) = (tX)_s^r(1)|_{s=1} = (tX^r)_s(1)|_{s=1} = X_t^r(1).$$

Then

$$X_t^r(1) = \exp(tX) \quad X_t^l(1) = \exp(tX).$$

From office hour:  $(\phi_*X)(y) = (d\phi)_{\phi^{-1}(y)}X(\phi^{-1}(y))$  pushforward

## 3.6 Exponential Map Formulas

One formula is that

$$\exp((s+t)X) = \exp(sX)\exp(tX) = \exp(tX)\exp(sX), \quad \forall x, t \in \mathbb{R}, x \in \mathfrak{g}.$$

This implies that for all X,

$$\{\exp(tX) \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\}\$$

is an abelian subgroup of G.

Take  $X \in \mathfrak{g}, X^r \in Inv^r, g \in \mathfrak{g}$ , we have

$$X_t^r(g) = X_t^r(1)g$$
 because  $X_t^r(gh) = X_t^r(g) = h$ .

This implies that

$$X_t^r(g) = X_t^r(1)g = \exp(tX)g$$
, similarly  $X_t^l(g) = g \exp(tX)$ .

We also have

- 1.  $\exp(0) = 1$ ;
- 2.  $\exp(nX) = \exp(X)^n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ;
- 3.  $\exp(X)^{-1} = \exp(-X)$ .

Note that  $\mathfrak{g} \cong \mathbb{R}^N$ , so  $T_y \mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{g}$  for all  $y \in \mathfrak{g}$ .

**Proposition 3.6.1.** exp :  $\mathfrak{g} \to G$  is smooth, and

$$d(\exp)_0: T_0\mathfrak{g} \to T_1G \quad where \quad X \mapsto X.$$

In other words,  $d(\exp)_0 = id_{\mathfrak{a}}$ .

*Proof.*  $\exp(X)$  is smooth because  $X^r(g) = d(R_g)_1 X$  depends smoothly on X. Then flow  $X_t^r(g)$  depends smoothly on  $X^r$ . Thus specialization of  $X_t^r(g)$  at g = 1, t = 1 is also smooth as a function of X. Thus

$$\exp(X) = X^r(1)|_{t=1}$$

is smooth.

Now let's compute the differential.

$$d(\exp)_0(X) = \frac{d}{dt} (\exp(0 + tX)) |_{t=0}$$
$$= \frac{d}{dt} (X_t^r(1))_{t=0}$$
$$= X^r(1)$$
$$= X$$

By inverse function theorem,  $\exp:\mathfrak{g}\to G$  is a diffeomorphism locally near  $0\in\mathfrak{g}$ , i.e. there is an open neighborhood  $U\subseteq\mathfrak{g}$  of 0 and an open neighborhood  $V\subseteq G$  of 1 such that

$$\exp |_U: U \to V$$

is a diffeo-morphism.

**Theorem 3.6.2.** If G is connected, then for all  $g \in G$ , there exists  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathfrak{g}$  such that  $g = \exp(x_1) \cdots \exp(x_n)$ .

*Proof.* Let G be a connected topological group, V any open neighborhood of 1. Then  $G = \bigcup_{n \ge 1} V^n$ . For all  $g \in G$ , there exists n such that  $g \in V^n$ . In other words,  $g = v_1 \cdots v_n$  where  $v_i \in V$ .

Take V from the previous remark about exp a locally diffeomorphism locally near 0, we have  $v_i = \exp(x_i)$  for some  $x_i \in U$ .

#### 3.7 Lie Algebras and Lie Group Homomorphisms

Let G, H be Lie groups. A *Lie group homomorphism*  $\phi : G \to H$  is a smooth map which is a group homomorphism.

We claim that for a group homomorphism  $\phi: G \to H$ . For  $\phi$  to be a Lie group homomorphism, it's enough to check the differentiability just at g = 1.

Notice that

$$\phi = R_{\phi(g)} \circ \phi \circ R_{g^{-1}}.$$

For h close to g in G, we have

$$\phi(h) = (R_{\phi(g)} \circ \phi)(hg^{-1}).$$

Therefore,  $(d\phi)_1$  exists implies  $d(R_{\phi(q)} \circ \phi)_1$  exists, and then  $(d\phi)_g$  exists.

**Proposition 3.7.1** (Lemma 5.14). Let G and H be Lie groups with Lie algebras  $\mathfrak{g}$  and  $\mathfrak{h}$ , respectively. Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a differentiable homomorphism and take  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ . Then, for every  $g \in G$ , it holds

$$d\phi_q(X^r(g)) = Y^r(\phi(g)) \quad d\phi_q(X^l(g)) = Y^l(\phi(g)),$$

where  $Y = d\phi_1(X)$ .

This proposition shows that  $X^r$  and  $Y^r$  (same with  $X^l$  and  $Y^l$ ) are  $\phi$ -related, i.e.  $d\phi_x(X(x)) = Y(\phi(x))$ .

**Proposition 3.7.2.** Let G and H be Lie groups with Lie algebras  $\mathfrak{g}$  and  $\mathfrak{h}$ , respectively. Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a differentiable homomorphism and take  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ . Then,

$$\phi(\exp(X)) = \exp(d\phi_1(X)).$$

**Proposition 3.7.3** (Proposition A.2). Let  $\phi: M \to N$  be a differentiable map and  $X_1, X_2$  vector fields on M. Suppose that  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  are vector fields on N that are  $\phi$ -related to  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ , respectively. Then  $[X_1, X_2]$  and  $[Y_1, Y_2]$  are  $\phi$ -related.

**Proposition 3.7.4** (Proposition 5.16). Let G and H be Lie groups with Lie algebras  $\mathfrak{g}$  and  $\mathfrak{h}$ , respectively. Let  $\phi: G \to H$  be a differentiable homomorphism. Then,  $d\phi_1: \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{h}$  is a homomorphism, that is,

$$d\phi_1[X,Y] = [d\phi_1 X, d\phi_1 Y]$$

with left or right invariant brackets.

Example 3.7.5. Consider

$$\det: GL(n,\mathbb{R}) \to \mathbb{R}^{\times} = GL(1,\mathbb{R}).$$

Then we know

$$d(\det)_1: \mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathbb{R}) \to \mathbb{R}.$$

**Proposition 3.7.6.** From the above example, we have

$$d(\det)_1 A = \operatorname{tr} A.$$

*Proof.* We have  $G = GL(n, \mathbb{R}), A \in T_1G$ . Consider

$$\alpha(t): (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \to G$$
 where  $\alpha(0) = 1, \alpha'(0) = A$ .

Then

$$d(\det)_1 A = \frac{d}{dt} (I_n + tA)|_{t=0}$$

$$= \frac{d}{dt} \left( t^n \chi_{-A} \left( \frac{1}{t} \right) \right)|_{t=0}$$

$$\chi_A(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I_n - A)$$

$$= (\lambda - \lambda_1) \cdots (\lambda - \lambda_n)$$

$$= \lambda^n - (\operatorname{tr} A) \lambda^{n-1} + \cdots + (-1)^n \det A$$

$$= \frac{d}{dt} (1 + t(\operatorname{tr} A) + \cdots + t^n \det A)|_{t=0}$$

$$= \operatorname{tr} A$$

Remark that

$$\ker \det = \{ g \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \mid \det g = 1 \} = SL(n, \mathbb{R}).$$

### 3.8 The Adjoint Representation

**Definition 3.8.1.** A representation of a Lie group G on a finite vector space V is a Lie group homomorphism

$$\rho: G \to GL(V) \cong GL(n, \mathbb{R}).$$

**Example 3.8.2** (Martin Page 105). Let  $G = Gl(n, \mathbb{R})$ . Its canonical representation on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the identity map. The corresponding infinitesimal representation is also the identity, that is, it associates with an element of  $\mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R})$  the corresponding linear map of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . This statement follows from

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( e^{tA} \right)_{|t=0} = A$$

**Example 3.8.3** (Martin Page 106). Again, let  $G = Gl(n, \mathbb{R})$  and consider the tensor product

$$T_k = \bigotimes^k \mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R}^n \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathbb{R}^n.$$

For  $g \in G$ , define the linear map  $\rho_k(g): T_k \to T_k$  in such a way that, for the tensor products  $v_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes v_k, v_1, \ldots, v_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , it holds

$$\rho_k(g) (v_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes v_k) = gv_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes gv_k.$$

Map  $\rho_k$  is a representation of  $Gl(n,\mathbb{R})$ . Its infinitesimal representation is computed with the derivative

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( e^{tA} v_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes e^{tA} v_k \right)_{|t=0} = \sum_{i=1}^k v_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes A v_i \otimes \cdots \otimes v_k$$

The right hand side in this equality defines the linear map  $(d\rho_k)_1(A)$ . The tensor representation can be restricted to any linear group  $G \subset Gl(n, \mathbb{R})$ .

Analogous representations are obtained for the k-th exterior product  $\wedge^k \mathbb{R}^n$ . The expressions for  $\rho_k(g)$  and  $(d\rho_k)_1$  are the same, replacing the tensor product  $\otimes$  by the exterior product  $\wedge$ .

**Definition 3.8.4.** The *adjoint representation* Ad :  $G \to Gl(\mathfrak{g})$ , of G on its Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$  is defined by

$$Ad(g) = d(C_g)_1 = d(L_g \circ R_{g^{-1}})_1 = d(R_{g^{-1}} \circ L_g)_1$$
$$= (dL_g)_{g^{-1}} \circ (dR_{g^{-1}})_1 = (dR_{g^{-1}})_g \circ (dL_g)_1.$$

The representation Ad is differentiable.

Recall

$$d(Ad)_1 = \operatorname{ad} : \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g}) \quad \text{where} \quad X \mapsto [X, -].$$

Corollary 3.8.5 (Proposition 5.19). Let G be a Lie group with Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$ , with bracket given by left invariant vector fields. Then,  $d(\mathrm{Ad})_1(X) = \mathrm{ad}_l(X)$  for every  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$  and

$$Ad(\exp X) = \exp(ad_l(X))$$

**Proposition 3.8.6.** If G is abelian, then  $\mathfrak{g}$  is abelian. If  $G = G_0$ , then  $\mathfrak{g}$  abelian which implies G is abelian.

**Proposition 3.8.7.** We have  $\ker \operatorname{Ad} = \operatorname{Ad}^{-1} \subseteq G$  (closed subgroup). And  $\ker \operatorname{Ad} = Z(G_0)$  (centralizer of  $G_0$ ).

## 3.9 Haar Measure on Lie Group

**Definition 3.9.1.** A left(right) *Haar measure* is a measure invariant under left (right) translations.

$$\omega \in \Omega^n(G)$$

invariant under left translation gives a Haar measure. It means that

$$L_q^*(\omega) = \omega \quad \forall g \in G.$$

**Example 3.9.2.** Let  $G = GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ . The Haar measure would be

$$\frac{1}{(\det q)^n} \wedge dg_{ij} \quad g \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}).$$

We have  $\omega$  is left-invariant iff for all q, h,

$$((L_q)^*\omega)(h) = \omega(h)$$
 i.e.  $(L_{q^{-1}})_q^*\omega(1) = \omega(g)$ .

## 4 Lie's Fundamental Theorem

#### 4.1

**Theorem 4.1.1** (Lie's Third and Second Theorem). The functor from simply connected Lie group to Lie algebra establishes an equivalence of categories. (it's surjective)

**Proposition 4.1.2.** For every finite dimensional Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$ , there exists a Lie group with  $\mathfrak{g}$  as its Lie algebra.

In mathematics, the Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff formula is the solution for Z to the equation

 $e^X e^Y = e^Z$ 

for possibly noncommutative X and Y in the Lie algebra of a Lie group. There are various ways of writing the formula, but all ultimately yield an expressio for Z in Lie algebraic terms, that is, as a formal series (not necessarily convergent) in X and Y and iterated commutators thereof. The first few terms of this series are:

$$Z = X + Y + \frac{1}{2}[X, Y] + \frac{1}{12}[X, [X, Y]] - \frac{1}{12}[Y, [X, Y]] + \cdots$$

## 4.2 Baker Campbell Hausdorff Theorem

Let  $\mathbb{R}\langle x,y\rangle$  be the free associated algebra on x,y, also could be written as the tensor algebra of  $V=\mathbb{R}x\oplus\mathbb{R}y$ , written as  $T(V)=\oplus_{n>0}V^{\oplus n}$ .

Given A associated  $\mathbb{R}$ -algebra. Denote A[[s,t]] the algebra of formal power series in s, t(st=ts), could be written as

$$A[[s,t]] = \{a_{00} + a_{10}s + a_{01}t + a_{11}st + a_{12}st^2 + a_{21}s^2t + \dots \mid a_{ij} \in A\}$$
$$A = \lim_{\leftarrow} A[s,t]/(s,t)^n.$$

Define

$$\ell(xs, yt) = \log(\exp(xs)\exp(yt)) = \log(e^{xs}e^{yt}),$$

where

$$e^{xs} = 1 + \frac{xs}{1!} + \frac{x^2s^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3s^3}{3!} + \cdots$$

and

$$\log(1+z) = z - \frac{z^2}{2} + \frac{z^3}{3} - \cdots$$

 $z \in (s,t) \subseteq \mathbb{R} < x,y > [[s,t]].$  And  $\log(\alpha) = \log(a + (\alpha-1)),$  provided  $\alpha-1 \in (s,t).$ 

**Theorem 4.2.1** (BCH). 1. For the formal power series  $\ell(xs, yt)$ , we have

$$\ell(xs,yt) = xs + yt + \frac{1}{2}[x,y]st + \frac{1}{12}[x,[x,y]]s^2t + \frac{1}{12}[y,[y,x]]st^2 + \cdots$$

with all the coefficients in power series  $\ell(xs,yt)$  given by Lie-bracket polynomials, where  $[x,y] := xy - yx \in \mathbb{R}\langle x,y\rangle$ . The coefficients may be obtained by a recursive formula.

2. Given a Lie group G, there exists  $u' \subseteq u \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$  and  $V \subseteq G$  (open neighborhoods of 0 and 1, resp.) such that  $\exp(\mathfrak{g}) = G$  and  $\log(V) = u$ . And u' is such that for all  $X, Y \in u'$ , we have  $\exp(X) \exp(Y) \in V$ , which allows us to apply  $\log$ :

$$C(X,Y) := \log(\exp(X)\exp(Y)).$$

Then the series  $\ell(X,Y)$  as a series in  $\mathfrak{g}$ , converges to C(X,Y).

Corollary 4.2.2. A smooth Lie group G is real analytic.

#### 4.3 Universal Enveloping Algebra

Let V be a vector space with  $k = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{Q}_p$  or any field of

Let T(V) be the free algebra generated by V. Universal property iff Functor  $T:Vect\to Alg$  from vector space to associated algebras is a left forgetful functor:

$$F: Alg \rightarrow Vect \quad A \mapsto F(A) = A.$$

That is a natural bijection

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{Alg}(T(V), A) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{Vect}(V, A).$$

There exists a left adjoint of  $Alg \to LieAlg$  which takes A to  $\mathfrak{g}(A) = A$ , denoted by  $U: LieAlg \to Alg$  where  $\mathfrak{g} \mapsto U\mathfrak{g}$ , which is called the *universal enveloping algebra*.

**Definition 4.3.1.**  $U\mathfrak{g} = T(\mathfrak{g})/(xy - yx - [x, y])$  with  $x, y \in \mathfrak{g}$ .

Proposition 4.3.2. This is a left-adjoint, indeed.

#### 4.4 Completing the Proof of PBW Theorem

Given a filtered vector space V, we define  $\operatorname{gr} V \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} \operatorname{gr}_n V$ , where  $\operatorname{gr}_n V \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} V_{\leq n}/V_{\leq (n-1)}$ .

A Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$  is abelian if the bracket is identically 0. If  $\mathfrak{g}$  is abelian, then  $\mathcal{U}\mathfrak{g} = \mathcal{S}\mathfrak{g}$ , where  $\mathcal{S}V$  is the symmetric algebra generated by the vector space V (so that  $\mathcal{S}$  is left-adjoint to Forget: CoMALG  $\to$  VECT).

**Theorem 4.4.1** (Poincaré-Birkhoff-Witt). The map  $S\mathfrak{g} \to \operatorname{gr} \mathcal{U}\mathfrak{g}$  is an isomorphism of algebras.

#### 4.5 Bialgebra

**Definition 4.5.1.** An element x of a coalgebra B is called *primitive* if  $\delta(x) = x \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes x$ . Denote prim(B) as the set of all primitive  $x \in B$ .

**Proposition 4.5.2.** There is a bialgebra structure on  $\mathcal{U}\mathfrak{g}$  for a Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$  such that  $prim(\mathcal{U}\mathfrak{g}) = \mathfrak{g}$ .

#### 4.6 Universal algebra as Differential Operators

**Definition 4.6.1** (Grothendieck). Let X be a space and  $\mathscr S$  a sheaf of functions on X. We define the *sheaf*  $\mathscr D$  *of Grothendieck differential operators* inductively. Given open  $U \subseteq X$ , we define  $\mathscr D \le 0(U) = \mathscr S(U)$ , and

$$\mathscr{D}_{\leq n}(U) = \{x : \mathscr{S}(U) \to \mathscr{S}(U) \text{ s.t. } [x, f] \in \mathscr{D}_{\leq (n-1)}(U) \forall f \in \mathscr{S}(U) \},$$

where  $\mathscr{S}(U) \curvearrowright \mathscr{S}(U)$  by left-multiplication. Then  $\mathscr{D}(U) = \bigcup_{n \geq 0} \mathscr{D}_{\leq n}(U)$  is a filtered sheaf; we say that  $x \in \mathscr{D}_{\leq n}(U)$  is an *nth-order differential operator on* U

 $\mathcal{D}_{\leq 1}$  is a subsheaf, a sheaf of Lie algebras.

By Jacobi identity we have

$$[\mathscr{D}_{\leq m}, \mathscr{D}_{\leq n}] \subseteq \mathscr{D}_{m+n-1}.$$

We have

$$\mathscr{D}_{<1}(U) = C_M^{\infty}(U) \oplus Vect(U) = \{D \in \mathscr{D}_{<1}(U) \mid D(1) = 0\}.$$

 $\mathscr{D}$  is generated as a sheaf of associated algebras by  $C_M^{\infty}$  and TM.

**Proposition 4.6.2.** Let G be a Lie group, and  $\mathscr{D}(G)^G$  the subalgebra of left-invariant differential operators on G. The natural map  $U\mathfrak{g} \to \mathscr{D}(G)^G$  generated by the identification of  $\mathfrak{g}$  with leftinvariant vector fields is an isomorphism of algebras.

**Lemma 4.6.3.** Suppose for some  $u \in \mathcal{U}\mathfrak{g} = \mathcal{D}(G)^G$ , we have (uf)(1) = 0 for each  $f \in C_{G,1}^{\infty}$  stalk of germs of functions  $C_G^{\infty}$  at 1. Then u = 0.

*Proof.* Let's show u = 0 as a differential operator. For all  $g \in G$ ,

$$(uf)(g) = (L_g^*(uf))(1) = (u(L_g^*f))(1) = 0.$$

Thus uf = 0 and u = 0.

**Proposition 4.6.4.** Extend  $\Delta$  to

$$\Delta: \mathcal{U}\mathfrak{g}[[s]] \to (\mathcal{U}\mathfrak{g} \otimes \mathcal{U}\mathfrak{g})[[s]].$$

then  $\Delta$  is an s-adic-continuous algebra homomorphism. Then  $u(s) \in \mathcal{U}\mathfrak{g}[[s]]$  is primitive iff  $e^{u(s)}$  is group-like, that is

$$\Delta(e^{u(s)}) = e^{u(s)} \otimes e^{u(s)},$$

.