

261A: Lie Groups

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How strange to actually have to see the path of your journey in order to make it.

—Neal Shusterman, [Shu16]

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THEME 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 August 28

Today we review differential topology. Here are some logistical notes.

- There will be weekly homeworks, of about 5 problems.
- There will be a final take-home exam.
- This course has a [bCourses](#) page.
- We will mostly follow Kirillov's book [Kir08].

1.1.1 Group Objects

The goal of this class is to study symmetries of geometric objects. As such, we are interested in studying (infinite) groups with some extra geometric structure, such as a real manifold or a complex manifold or a scheme structure. Speaking generally, we will have some category \mathcal{C} of geometric objects, equipped with finite products (such as a final object), which allows us to have group objects in \mathcal{C} .

Definition 1.1 (group object). Fix a category \mathcal{C} with finite products, such as a final object $*$. A *group object* is the data (G, m, e, i) where $G \in \mathcal{C}$ is an object and $m: G \times G \rightarrow G$ and $e: * \rightarrow G$ and $i: G \rightarrow G$ are morphisms. We require this data to satisfy some associativity, identity, and inverse coherence laws.

For concreteness, we go ahead and write out the coherence diagrams, but they are not so interesting.

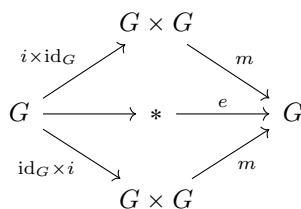
- Associative: the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} G \times G \times G & \xrightarrow{\text{id}_G \times m} & G \times G \\ m \times \text{id}_G \downarrow & & \downarrow m \\ G \times G & \xrightarrow{m} & G \end{array}$$

- Identity: the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} G & \xrightarrow{\text{id}_G \times e} & G \times G & \xleftarrow{e \times \text{id}_G} & G \\ & \searrow & \downarrow m & \swarrow & \\ & & G & & \end{array}$$

- Inverses: the following diagram commutes.



Example 1.2. In the case where $\mathcal{C} = \text{Set}$, we recover the notion of a group, where G is the set, m is the multiplication law, e is the identity, and i is the inverse.

Example 1.3. Group objects in the category of manifolds will be Lie groups.

1.1.2 Review of Topology

This course requires some topology as a prerequisite, but let's review these notions for concreteness. We refer to [Elb22] for most of these notions.

Definition 1.4 (topological space). A *topological space* is a pair (X, \mathcal{T}) of a set X and collection $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ of open subsets of X , which we require to satisfy the following axioms.

- $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}$.
- Finite intersection: for $U, V \in \mathcal{T}$, we have $U \cap V \in \mathcal{T}$.
- Arbitrary unions: for a subcollection $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$, we have $\bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{U}} U \in \mathcal{T}$.

We will suppress the notation \mathcal{T} from our topological space as much as possible.

Example 1.5. The set \mathbb{R} equipped with its usual (metric) topology is a topological space.

Example 1.6. Given a topological space X and a subset $Z \subseteq X$, we can make Z into a topological space with open subsets given by $U \cap Z$ whenever $U \subseteq X$ is open.

Definition 1.7 (closed). A subset Z of a topological space X is *closed* if and only if $X \setminus Z$ is open.

One way to describe topologies is via a base.

Definition 1.8 (base). Given a topological space X , a *base* $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ for the topology such that any open subset $U \subseteq X$ is the union of a subcollection of \mathcal{B} . Equivalently, for any open subset $U \subseteq X$ and $x \in U$, there is $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B \subseteq U$.

Example 1.9. The collection of open intervals $(a, b) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ generates the usual topology. In fact, one can even restrict ourselves to open intervals (a, b) where $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$, so \mathbb{R} has a countable base.

Our morphisms are continuous maps.

Definition 1.10 (continuous). A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ between topological spaces is *continuous* if and only if $f^{-1}(V) \subseteq X$ is open for each open subset $V \subseteq Y$.

Thus, we can define \mathbf{Top} as the category of topological spaces equipped with continuous maps as its morphisms. Thinking categorically allows us to make the following definition.

Definition 1.11 (homeomorphism). A *homeomorphism* is an isomorphism in \mathbf{Top} . Namely, a function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ between topological spaces which is continuous and has a continuous inverse.

Remark 1.12. There are continuous bijections which are not homeomorphisms! For example, one can map $[0, 2\pi) \rightarrow S^1$ by sending $x \mapsto e^{ix}$, which is a continuous bijection, but the inverse is discontinuous at $1 \in S^1$.

Earlier, we wanted to have finite products in our category. Here is how we take products of pairs.

Definition 1.13 (product topology). Given topological spaces X and Y , we define the topological space $X \times Y$ as having $X \times Y$ as its set and open subsets given by arbitrary unions of sets of the form $U \times V$ where $U \subseteq X$ and $V \subseteq Y$ are open.

Remark 1.14. Alternatively, we can say that the topology $X \times Y$ has a base given by the “rectangles” $U \times V$ where $U \subseteq X$ and $V \subseteq Y$ are open. In fact, if \mathcal{B}_X and \mathcal{B}_Y are bases for X and Y , respectively, then we can check that the open subsets

$$\{U \times V : U \in \mathcal{B}_X, V \in \mathcal{B}_Y\}$$

is a base for $X \times Y$.

Remark 1.15. The final object in \mathbf{Top} is the singleton space.

Now, group objects in \mathbf{Top} are called topological groups, which are interesting in their own right. For example, locally compact topological groups have a good Fourier analysis theory.

Example 1.16. The group \mathbb{R} under addition is a topological group. In fact, \mathbb{Q} under addition is also a topological group, though admittedly a more unpleasant one.

Example 1.17. The group $S^1 := \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| = 1\}$ is a topological group.

1.1.3 Review of Differential Topology

However, in this course, we will be more interested in manifolds, so let's define these notions. We refer to [Elb24] for (a little) more detail, and we refer to [Lee13] for (much) more detail. To begin, we note arbitrary topological spaces are pretty rough to handle; here are some niceness requirements. The following is a smallness assumption.

Definition 1.18 (separable). A topological space X is *separable* if and only if it has a countable base.

The following says that points can be separated.

Definition 1.19 (Hausdorff). A topological space X is *Hausdorff* if and only if any pair of distinct points $p, q \in X$ have disjoint open neighborhoods.

The following is another smallness assumption, which we will use frequently but not always.

Definition 1.20 (compact). A topological space X is *compact* if and only if any open cover \mathcal{U} (i.e., each $U \in \mathcal{U}$ is open, and $X = \bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{U}} U$) has a finite subcollection which is still an open cover.

We are now ready for our definition.

Definition 1.21 (topological manifold). A *topological manifold of dimension n* is a topological space X satisfying the following.

- X is Hausdorff.
- X is separable.
- Locally Euclidean: X has an open cover $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \kappa}$ such that there are open subsets $V_\alpha \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and homeomorphisms $\varphi_\alpha: U_\alpha \rightarrow V_\alpha$.

Remark 1.22. By passing to open balls, one can require that all the V_α are open balls. By doing a little more yoga with such open balls (noting $B(0, 1) \cong \mathbb{R}^n$), one can require that $V_\alpha = \mathbb{R}^n$ always.

Remark 1.23. It turns out that open subsets $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ can only be homeomorphic if and only if $n = m$. This implies that the dimension of a connected component of X is well-defined without saying what n is in advance. However, we should say what n is in advance in order to get rid of pathologies like $\mathbb{R} \sqcup \mathbb{R}^2$.

To continue, we must be careful about our choice of U_α s and φ_α s.

Definition 1.24 (chart, atlas, transition function). Fix a topological manifold X of dimension n .

- A *chart* is a pair (U, φ) of an open subset $U \subseteq X$ and homeomorphism φ of U onto an open subset of \mathbb{R}^n .
- An *atlas* is a collection of charts $\{(U_\alpha, \varphi_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in \kappa}$ such that $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \kappa}$ is an open cover of X .
- The *transition function* between two charts (U, φ) and (V, ψ) is the composite homeomorphism

$$\varphi(U \cap V) \xleftarrow{\varphi} (U \cap V) \xrightarrow{\psi} \psi(U \cap V).$$

Note that there is also an inverse transition map going in the opposite direction.

Let's see some examples.

Example 1.25. The space \mathbb{R}^n is a topological manifold of dimension n . It has an atlas with the single chart $\text{id}: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$.

Example 1.26. The singleton $\{*\}$ is a topological manifold of dimension 0. In fact, $\{*\} = \mathbb{R}^0$.

Example 1.27. The hypersurface $S^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ cut out by the equation

$$x_0^2 + \cdots + x_n^2 = 1$$

is a topological manifold of dimension n . It has charts given by stereographic projection out of some choice of north and south poles. Alternatively, it has charts given by the projection maps $\text{pr}_i: S^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ given by deleting the i th coordinate, defined on the open subsets

$$U_i^\pm := \{(x_0, \dots, x_n) \in S^n : \pm x_i > 0\}$$

for choice of index i and sign in $\{\pm\}$.

Calculus on our manifolds will come from our transition maps.

Definition 1.28. An atlas \mathcal{A} on a topological manifold X is C^k , real analytic, or complex analytic (if $\dim X$ is even) if and only if the transition maps have the corresponding condition.

1.2 August 30

Today we finish our review of smooth manifolds. Once again, we refer to [Elb24] for a few more details and [Lee13] for many more details.

Notation 1.29. We will use the word *regular* to refer to one of the regularity conditions C^k , smooth, real analytic, or complex analytic. We may abbreviate complex analytic to “complex” when no confusion is possible. We use the field \mathbb{F} to denote the “ground field,” which is \mathbb{C} when considering the complex analytic case and \mathbb{R} otherwise.

1.2.1 Smooth Manifolds

We now define a regular manifold.

Definition 1.30 (regular manifold). A *regular manifold* of dimension n is a pair (M, \mathcal{A}) of a topological manifold M and a maximal regular atlas \mathcal{A} ; a chart is called regular if and only if it is in \mathcal{A} . We will eventually suppress the \mathcal{A} from our notation as much as possible.

The reason for using a maximal atlas is to ensure that it is more or less unique.

Remark 1.31. Here is perhaps a more “canonical” way to deal with atlas confusion. One can say that two regular atlases \mathcal{A}_1 and \mathcal{A}_2 are compatible if and only if the transition maps between them are also regular; this is the same as saying that $\mathcal{A}_1 \cup \mathcal{A}_2$ is regular. Compatibility forms an equivalence relation, and each equivalence class $[\mathcal{A}]$ has a unique maximal element, which one can explicitly define as

$$\mathcal{A}_{\max} := \{(U, \varphi) : \mathcal{A} \text{ and } (U, \varphi) \text{ are compatible}\}.$$

This explains why it is okay to just work with maximal atlases.

Example 1.32. One can give the topological manifold \mathbb{R}^2 many non-equivalent complex structures. For example, one has the usual choice of $\mathbb{R}^2 \cong \mathbb{C}$, but one can also make \mathbb{R}^2 homeomorphic to $B(0, 1) \subseteq \mathbb{C}$.

Example 1.33. There are “exotic” smooth structures on S^7 .

Example 1.34. Given regular manifolds (X, \mathcal{A}) and (Y, \mathcal{B}) , one can form the product manifold $X \times Y$. It should have maximal atlas compatible with the atlas

$$\{(U \times V, \varphi \times \psi) : (U, \varphi) \in \mathcal{A} \text{ and } (V, \psi) \in \mathcal{B}\}.$$

1.2.2 Regular Functions

With any class of objects, we should have morphisms.

Definition 1.35. A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ of regular manifolds (X, \mathcal{A}) and (Y, \mathcal{B}) is regular if and only if any $p \in X$ has a choice of charts $(U, \varphi) \in \mathcal{A}$ and $(V, \psi) \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $p \in U$ and $f(U) \subseteq V$ and the composite

$$\varphi(U) \xrightarrow{\varphi} U \xrightarrow{f} V \xrightarrow{\psi} \psi(V)$$

is a regular function between open subsets of Euclidean space.

Remark 1.36. One can replace the single choice of charts above with any choice of charts satisfying $p \in U$ and $f(U) \subseteq V$.

Remark 1.37. Here is another way to state this: for any open $V \subseteq Y$ and smooth function $h: V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$, the composite

$$f^{-1}(U) \xrightarrow{f} V \xrightarrow{h} \mathbb{F}$$

succeeds in being smooth (in any local coordinates).

Definition 1.38 (diffeomorphism). A diffeomorphism of regular manifolds (X, \mathcal{A}) and (Y, \mathcal{B}) is a regular map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ with regular inverse.

Remark 1.39. Alternatively, one can say that the charts in \mathcal{A} and the charts in \mathcal{B} are in natural bijection via f . Checking that these notions align is not too hard.

The above definition of regular map is a little rough to handle, so let’s break it down into pieces.

Definition 1.40 (local coordinates). Fix a regular manifold (X, \mathcal{A}) of dimension n . Then a system of *local coordinates* around some point $p \in X$ is a choice of regular chart $(U, \varphi) \in \mathcal{A}$ for which $\varphi(p) = 0$. From here, our local coordinates (x_1, \dots, x_n) are the composite of φ with a coordinate projection to the ground field. (In the complex analytic case, we want the ground field to be \mathbb{C} ; otherwise, the ground field is \mathbb{R} .)

Now, we are able to see that a function $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is regular if and only if it becomes regular in local coordinates. One can even define regularity with respect to a subset of X .

Regularity allows us to produce lots of manifolds, as follows.

Theorem 1.41. Given regular maps $f_1, \dots, f_m: X \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$, the subset

$$\{p \in \mathbb{F}^n : f_1(p) = \dots = f_m(p) = 0 \text{ and } \{df_1(p), \dots, df_n(p)\} \text{ are linearly independent}\}$$

is a manifold of dimension $n - m$.

Sketch. This is more or less by the implicit function theorem; for the $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ cases, one can essentially follow [Lee13, Corollary 5.14]. ■

Example 1.42. The function $\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $(x_0, \dots, x_n) \mapsto x_0^2 + \dots + x_n^2$ is real analytic and sufficiently regular at the value 1, which establishes that S^n defined in Example 1.27 succeeds at being a real analytic manifold.

Functions to \mathbb{F} have a special place in our hearts, so we take the following notation.

Notation 1.43. Give a regular manifold X and any open subset $U \subseteq X$, we let $\mathcal{O}_X(U)$ denote the set of regular functions $U \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$

Remark 1.44. One can check that the data \mathcal{O}_X assembles into a sheaf. Namely, an inclusion $U \subseteq V$ produces restriction maps $\mathcal{O}_X(V) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_X(U)$.

Remark 1.45. Once we have all of our regular functions out of X , we note that some Yoneda-like philosophy explains that the sheaf of X determines its full regular structure. Here is an explicit statement: given a manifold X and two maximal regular atlases \mathcal{A}_1 and \mathcal{A}_2 determining sheaves of regular functions \mathcal{O}_1 and \mathcal{O}_2 , having $\mathcal{O}_1 = \mathcal{O}_2$ forces $\mathcal{A}_1 = \mathcal{A}_2$. Indeed, it is enough to show the inclusion $\mathcal{A}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{A}_2$, so suppose (U, φ) is a regular chart in \mathcal{A}_1 . Then the corresponding local coordinates (x_1, \dots, x_n) all succeed at being regular for \mathcal{A}_1 , so they are smooth functions in \mathcal{O}_1 , so they live in \mathcal{O}_2 also, so (U, φ) will succeed at being a regular local diffeomorphism for \mathcal{A}_2 and hence be a regular chart.

Sheaf-theoretic notions tell us that we should be interested in germs.

Definition 1.46 (germ). Fix a point p on a regular manifold X . A *germ* of a regular function $f \in \mathcal{O}_X(U)$ (where $p \in U$) is the equivalence class of functions $g \in \mathcal{O}_X(V)$ (for a possibly different open subset V containing p) such that $f|_{U \cap V} = g|_{U \cap V}$. The collection of equivalence classes is denoted $\mathcal{O}_{X,p}$ and is called the stalk at p .

1.3 September 4

Today we hope to finish our review of differential topology.

Convention 1.47. For the remainder of class, our manifolds will be smooth, real analytic, or complex analytic.

1.3.1 Tangent Spaces

Now that we are thinking locally about our functions via germs, we can think locally about our tangent spaces.

Definition 1.48 (derivation). Fix a point p on a regular manifold X . A *derivation* at p is an \mathbb{F} -linear map $D: \mathcal{O}_{X,p} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ satisfying the Leibniz rule

$$D(fg) = g(p)D(f) + f(p)D(g).$$

Definition 1.49 (tangent space). Fix a point p on a regular manifold X . Then the *tangent space* $T_p X$ is the \mathbb{F} -vector space of all derivations on $\mathcal{O}_{X,p}$.

As with everything in this subject, one desires a local description of the tangent space.

Lemma 1.50. Fix an n -dimensional regular manifold X and a point $p \in X$. Equip p with a chart (U, φ) giving local coordinates (x_1, \dots, x_n) . Then the maps $D_i: \mathcal{O}_{X,p} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ given by

$$D_i: [(V, f)] \mapsto \left. \frac{\partial f|_{U \cap V}}{\partial x_i} \right|_p$$

provide a basis for $T_p X$.

Proof. Checking that this is a derivation follows from the Leibniz rule on the chart. Linear independence of the D_i s can also be checked locally by plugging in the germs $[(U, x_i)]$ into any linear dependence.

It remains to check that our derivations span. Well, fix any other derivation D which we want to be in the span of the D_i s. By replacing D with $D - \sum_i D(x_i) D_i$, we may assume that $D(x_i) = 0$ for all i . We now want to show that $D = 0$. This amounts to some multivariable calculus. Fix a germ $[(V, f)]$, and shrink U and V enough so that f is defined on U ; we want to show $D(f) = 0$. The fundamental theorem of calculus implies

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(0) + \int_0^1 \frac{d}{dt} f(tx_1, \dots, tx_n) dt.$$

However, one can expand out the derivative on the right by the chain rule to see that

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(0) + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i h_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

for some regular functions $h_1, \dots, h_n: X \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$. Applying D , we see that

$$D(f) = \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{D(x_i)}_0 h_i(p) + \underbrace{x_i(p)}_0 D(h_i) = 0,$$

as required. ■

Tangent spaces have a notion of functoriality.

Definition 1.51. Fix a regular map $F: X \rightarrow Y$ of regular manifolds. Given $p \in X$, the *differential map* is the linear map $dF_p: T_p X \rightarrow T_{F(p)} Y$ defined by

$$dF_p(v)(g) := v(g \circ F)$$

for any $v \in T_p X$ and germ $g \in \mathcal{O}_{X,p}$. We may also denote $dF_p(v)$ by $F_* v$.

One has to check that dF_p is linear (which does not have much to check) and satisfies the Leibniz rule (which is a matter of expansion); we will omit these checks.

Remark 1.52. One also has a chain rule: for regular maps $F: X \rightarrow Y$ and $G: Y \rightarrow Z$, one has $d(G \circ F)_p = dG_{F(p)} \circ dF_p$.

1.3.2 Immersions and Submersions

This map at the tangent space is important enough to give us other definitions.

Definition 1.53 (submersion, immersion, embedding). Fix a regular function $F: X \rightarrow Y$.

- The map F is a *submersion* if and only if dF_p is surjective for all $p \in X$.
- The map F is an *immersion* if and only if dF_p is injective for all $p \in X$.
- The map F is an *embedding* if and only if F is an immersion and a homeomorphism onto its image.

Remark 1.54. One can check that submersions $F: X \rightarrow Y$ have local sections $Y \rightarrow X$. Explicitly, for $Q \in Y$, the fiber $F^{-1}(\{Q\}) \subseteq X$ is a manifold, and if $Q \in \text{im } F$, the fiber has codimension $\dim Y$.

Remark 1.55. If $F: X \rightarrow Y$ is an embedding, then the image $F(X) \subseteq Y$ inherits a unique manifold structure so that the inclusion $F(X) \subseteq Y$ is smooth.

Example 1.56. The projection map $\pi: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $\pi(x, y) := x$ is a submersion.

Example 1.57 (lemniscate). The function $F: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ given by

$$F(\theta) := \left(\frac{\cos \theta}{1 + \sin^2 \theta}, \frac{\cos \theta \sin \theta}{1 + \sin^2 \theta} \right)$$

can be checked to be an immersion (namely, $F'(\theta) \neq 0$ always), but it fails to be injective because $F(\pi/4) = F(3\pi/4) = (0, 0)$, so it is not an embedding.

Example 1.58. The map $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $f(x) := x^3$ is a smooth homeomorphism onto its image, but it is not an immersion.

Example 1.59. For any open subset $U \subseteq X$ of a manifold, the inclusion map $U \rightarrow X$ is an embedding. (In fact, it is also a submersion.)

We will want to distinguish between embeddings, notably to get rid of open embeddings.

Definition 1.60 (closed). An embedding $F: X \rightarrow Y$ of regular manifolds is *closed* if and only if $F(X) \subseteq Y$ is closed.

Example 1.61. Fix a submersion $F: X \rightarrow Y$. A point $Q \in Y$ gives rise to a fiber $Z := F^{-1}(\{Q\})$, which Remark 1.54 explains is a closed submanifold of X of codimension $\dim Y$. One can check that $T_p Z$ is exactly the kernel of $dF_p: T_p X \rightarrow T_p Y$; see [Lee13, Proposition 5.37].

1.3.3 Lie Groups

We now may stop doing topology.

Definition 1.62 (Lie group). A regular *Lie group* is a group object in the category of regular manifolds. For brevity, we may call (real) smooth Lie groups simply “Lie groups” or “real Lie groups,” and we may call complex analytic Lie groups simply “complex Lie groups.”

As with any object, we have a notion of morphisms.

Definition 1.63 (homomorphism). A homomorphism of regular Lie groups is a regular map of the underlying manifolds and a homomorphism of the underlying groups; an isomorphism of regular Lie groups is a homomorphism with an inverse which is also a homomorphism.

Remark 1.64. If X is already a regular manifold, and we are equipped with continuous multiplication and inverse maps, to check that X becomes a regular Lie group, it is enough to check that merely the multiplication map is regular. See [Lee13, Exercise 7-3].

Remark 1.65. Hilbert’s 5th problem asks when C^0 Lie groups can give rise to real Lie groups, and there is a lot of work in this direction. As such, we will content ourselves to focus on real Lie groups instead of any weaker regularity.

Remark 1.66. Any complex Lie group is also a real Lie group.

Here is a basic check which allows one to translate checks to the identity.

Lemma 1.67. Fix a regular Lie group G . For any $g \in G$, the maps $L_g: G \rightarrow G$ and $R_g: G \rightarrow G$ defined by $L_g(x) := gx$ and $R_g(x) := xg$ are regular diffeomorphisms.

Proof. Regularity follows from regularity of multiplication. Our inverses of L_g and R_g are given by $L_{g^{-1}}$ and $R_{g^{-1}}$, which verifies that we have defined regular diffeomorphisms. ■

1.4 September 6

Last time we defined a Lie group. Today and for the rest of the course, we will study them.

1.4.1 Examples of Lie Groups

Here are some examples of Lie groups and isomorphisms.

Example 1.68. For our field \mathbb{F} , the \mathbb{F} -vector space \mathbb{F}^n is a Lie group over \mathbb{F} .

Example 1.69. Any finite (or countably infinite) group given the discrete topology becomes a real and complex Lie group.

Example 1.70. The groups \mathbb{R}^\times and \mathbb{R}^+ (under multiplication) are real Lie groups. In fact, one has an isomorphism $\{\pm 1\} \times \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\times$ of real Lie groups given by $(\varepsilon, r) \mapsto \varepsilon r$.

Example 1.71. The group $S^1 := \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| = 1\}$ (under multiplication) is a real Lie group.

Example 1.72. The group \mathbb{C}^\times is a real Lie group. In fact, one has an isomorphism $S^1 \times \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^\times$ of real Lie groups given again by $(\varepsilon, r) \mapsto \varepsilon r$.

Example 1.73. Over our field \mathbb{F} , the set $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$ of invertible $n \times n$ matrices is a Lie group. Indeed, it is an open subset of \mathbb{F}^{n^2} and thus a manifold, and one can check that the inverse and multiplication maps are rational and hence smooth.

Example 1.74. Consider the collection of matrices

$$\mathrm{SU}_2 := \{A \in \mathrm{GL}_2(\mathbb{C}) : \det A = 1 \text{ and } AA^\dagger = 1_2\},$$

where A^\dagger is the conjugate transpose. Then SU_2 is an embedded submanifold of $\mathrm{GL}_2(\mathbb{C})$ (cut out by the given equations) and also a subgroup. By writing out $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$, one can write out our equations on the coefficients as

$$\begin{cases} ad - bc = 1, \\ a\bar{a} + b\bar{b} = 1, \\ a\bar{c} + b\bar{d} = 0, \\ c\bar{c} + d\bar{d} = 1. \end{cases}$$

In particular, we see that the vector $(a, b) \in \mathbb{C}^2$ is orthogonal to the vector (\bar{c}, \bar{d}) , so we can solve for this line as providing some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $(\bar{c}, \bar{d}) = \lambda(-b, a)$. But then the determinant condition requires $\lambda = 1$ from $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$. By expanding out $a = w + ix$ and $b = y + iz$, one finds that SU_2 is diffeomorphic to S^3 .

The classical groups provide many examples of Lie groups over our field \mathbb{F} .

- One has $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$ and $\mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{F})$, which are subsets of matrices cut out by the conditions $\det A \neq 0$ and $\det A = 1$, respectively.
- Orthogonal: fix a non-degenerate symmetric 2-form Ω on \mathbb{F}^n . One can always adjust our basis of \mathbb{F}^n so that Ω is diagonal, and by adjusting our basis by squares, we may assume that Ω has only $+1$ or -1 s on the diagonal. If $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$, we can in fact assume that $\Omega = 1_n$, and then we find that our group is

$$\mathrm{O}_n(\mathbb{C}) := \{A : A^\top A = 1_n\}.$$

Otherwise, if $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$, then our adjustment (and rearrangement) of the basis allows us to assume that Ω takes the form $\Omega_{k,n-k} := \mathrm{diag}(+1, \dots, +1, -1, \dots, -1)$ with k copies of $+1$ and $n - k$ copies of -1 , and we define

$$\mathrm{O}_{k,n-k}(\mathbb{R}) := \{A : A^\top \Omega A = \Omega\}$$

- Special orthogonal: one can add the condition that $\det A = 1$ to all the above orthogonal groups, which makes the special orthogonal groups.
- Symplectic: for \mathbb{F}^{2n} , one can fix a non-degenerate symplectic 2-form Ω . It turns out that, up to basis, we find that $\Omega = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1_n \\ 1_n & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, and we define

$$\mathrm{Sp}_{2n}(\mathbb{F}) := \{A : A^\top \Omega A = 1_{2n}\}.$$

- Unitary: using the non-degenerate Hermitian forms, we can similarly define

$$\mathrm{U}_n(\mathbb{C}) := \{A : A^\dagger A = 1_n\}$$

is a real Lie group. (Conjugation is not complex analytic, so this is not a complex Lie group!)

1.4.2 Connected Components

We will want to focus on connected Lie groups in this class, so we spend a moment describing why one might hope that this is a reasonable reduction. The main point is that it is basically infeasible to classify finite groups, and allowing for disconnected Lie groups forces us to include all these groups in our study by Example 1.69.

Quickly, recall our notions of connectivity; we refer to [Elb22, Appendix A.1] for details.

Definition 1.75 (connected). A topological space X is *disconnected* if and only if there exists disjoint nonempty open subsets $U, V \subseteq X$ covering X . If there exists no such pair of open subsets, then X is *connected*; in other words, the only subsets of X which are both open and closed are \emptyset and X .

Definition 1.76 (connected component). Given a topological space X and a point $p \in X$, the *connected component* of $p \in X$ is the union of all connected subspaces of X containing p .

Remark 1.77. One can check that the connected component is in fact connected and is thus the maximal connected subspace.

Definition 1.78 (path-connected). A topological space X is *path-connected* if and only if any two points $p, q \in X$ have some (continuous) path $\gamma: [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ such that $\gamma(0) = p$ and $\gamma(1) = q$.

Definition 1.79. Given a topological space X and a point $p \in X$, the *path-connected component* of $p \in X$ is the collection of all $q \in X$ for which there is a path connecting p and q .

Remark 1.80. One can check that having a path connecting two points of X is an equivalence relation on the points of X . Then the path-connected components are the equivalence classes for this equivalence relation. From this, one can check that the path-connected components are the maximal path-connected subsets of a topological space.

One has the following lemmas.

Lemma 1.81. Fix a topological space X .

- (a) If X is path-connected, then X is connected.
- (b) If X is a connected topological n -manifold, then X is path-connected.

Proof. Part (a) is [Elb22, Lemma A.16]. Part (b) is [Elb24, Proposition 1.39]. ■

Lemma 1.82. Fix a continuous surjection $f: X \rightarrow Y$ of topological spaces. If X is connected, then Y is connected.

Proof. This is [Elb22, Lemma A.8]. ■

Anyway, we are now equipped to return to our discussion of Lie groups.

Lemma 1.83. Fix a Lie group G , and let $G^\circ \subseteq G$ be the connected component of the identity $e \in G$. For any $g \in G$, we see that gG° is the connected component of g .

Proof. Certainly gG° is a connected subset containing g by Lemma 1.82 (note multiplication is continuous), so it is contained in the connected component of g . On the other hand, any connected subset U around g must have $g^{-1}U$ be a connected subset around e , so $g^{-1}U \subseteq G^\circ$, so $U \subseteq gG^\circ$. In particular, the connected component of g is also contained in gG° . ■

Proposition 1.84. Fix a Lie group G , and let $G^\circ \subseteq G$ be the connected component of the identity $e \in G$.

- (a) Then G° is a normal subgroup of G .
- (b) The quotient $\pi_0(G) := G/G^\circ$ given the quotient topology from the surjection $G \twoheadrightarrow \pi_0(G)$ is a discrete countable group.

Proof. We show the parts independently.

(a) We check this in parts.

- Of course G° is a subgroup: it contains the identity, and the images of the maps $i: G^\circ \rightarrow G$ and $m: G^\circ \times G^\circ \rightarrow G$ must land in connected subsets of G containing the identity by Lemma 1.82, so we see that G° is contained
- We now must check that G° is normal. Fix some $g \in G$, and we want to show that $gG^\circ g^{-1} \subseteq G^\circ$. Well, define the map $G^\circ \rightarrow G$ by $a \mapsto gag^{-1}$, which we note is continuous because multiplication and inversion are continuous. Lemma 1.82 tells us that the image must be connected, and we see $e \mapsto e$, so the image must actually land in G° .

- (b) One knows that $\pi_0(G)$ is a group because G° is normal, and it is discrete because connected components are both closed and open in G , so the corresponding points are closed and open in $\pi_0(G)$. (We are implicitly using Lemma 1.83.) This is countable because a separated topological space must have countably many connected components. ■

Remark 1.85. One can restate the above result as providing a short exact sequence

$$1 \rightarrow G^\circ \rightarrow G \rightarrow \pi_0(G) \rightarrow 1$$

of Lie groups. In this way, we can decompose our study of G into connected Lie groups and discrete countable groups. In this course, we will ignore studying discrete countable groups because they are too hard.

1.5 September 9

Today we talk more about subgroups and coverings.

1.5.1 Closed Lie Subgroups

Arbitrary subgroups of Lie groups may not inherit a manifold structure, so we add an adjective to acknowledge this.

Definition 1.86 (closed Lie subgroup). Fix a Lie group G . A *closed Lie subgroup* is a subgroup $H \subseteq G$ which is also an embedded submanifold.

Remark 1.87. On the homework, we will show that closed Lie subgroups are in fact closed subsets of G . It is a difficult theorem (which we will not prove nor use in this class) that being a closed subset and a subgroup implies that it is an embedded submanifold.

Here are some checks on subgroups.

Lemma 1.88. Fix a connected topological group G . Given an open neighborhood U of G of the identity $e \in G$, the group G is generated by U is all of G .

Proof. Let H be the subgroup generated by U . For each $h \in H$, we see that $hU \subseteq H$, which is an open neighborhood (see Lemma 1.67), so $H \subseteq G$ is open. However, we also see that

$$G = \bigsqcup_{[g]} gH,$$

where $[g]$ varies over representatives of cosets. Thus, $G \setminus H$ is again the union of open subsets, so H is also closed, so $G = H$ because G is connected. ■

Lemma 1.89. Fix a homomorphism $f: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ of connected Lie groups. If $df_e: T_e G_1 \rightarrow T_e G_2$ is surjective, then f is surjective.

Proof. By translating around (by Lemma 1.67), we see that f is a submersion. (Explicitly, for each $g \in G_1$, we see that $R_{f(g)} \circ f$ must continue to be a submersion at the identity, but this equals $f \circ R_g$, so f is a submersion at g too.) Because submersions are open [Lee13, Proposition 4.28], we see that f being a submersion means that its image is an open subgroup of G_2 , which is all of G_2 by Lemma 1.88. ■

We may want some more flexibility with our subgroups.

Example 1.90. Fix an irrational number $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. Then there is a Lie group homomorphism $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z})^2$ defined by $f(t) := (t, \alpha t)$. One can check that $\text{im } f \subseteq (\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z})^2$ is a dense subgroup, but it is not closed!

So we have the following definition.

Definition 1.91 (Lie subgroup). Fix a Lie group G . A *Lie subgroup* is a subgroup $H \subseteq G$ which is an immersed submanifold.

1.5.2 Quotient Groups

Along with subgroups, we want to be able to take quotients.

Definition 1.92 (fiber bundle). A *fiber bundle* with fiber F on a smooth manifold X is a surjective continuous map $\pi: Y \rightarrow X$ such that there is an open cover \mathcal{U} of X and (local) homeomorphisms making the following diagram commute for all $U \in \mathcal{U}$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \pi^{-1}(U) & \xrightarrow{\sim} & F \times U \\ \pi \searrow & & \swarrow \text{pr}_2 \\ & U & \end{array}$$

Fiber bundles are the correct way to discuss quotients.

Theorem 1.93. Fix a closed Lie subgroup H of a Lie group G .

- (a) Then G/H is a manifold of dimension $\dim G - \dim H$ equipped with a quotient map $q: G \twoheadrightarrow G/H$.
- (b) In fact, q is a fiber bundle with fiber H .
- (c) If H is normal in G , then G/H is actually a Lie group (with the usual group structure).
- (d) We have $T_e(G/H) \cong T_e G / T_e H$.

Proof. We construct the manifold structure on G/H as follows: for each $g \in G$, we produce a coset $\bar{g} \in G/H$, which we note as $q^{-1}(\bar{g}) = gH$. Now, $gH \subseteq G$ is an embedded submanifold because H is (we are using Lemma 1.67), so one can locally find a submanifold $M \subseteq G$ around g intersecting gH transversally, meaning that

$$T_g G = T_g M \oplus T_g(gH).$$

By shrinking M , we can ensure that the above map continues to be an isomorphism in a neighborhood of g , so the multiplication map $M \times H \rightarrow UH$ is a diffeomorphism. Now, MH is an open neighborhood of $g \in G$, and M projects down to an open subset of G/H , so $M \cong q^{-1}(\bar{M})$ provides our chart.

Now, (a) and (d) follows by inspection of the construction. We see that (b) follows because we built our projection map $G \twoheadrightarrow G/H$ so that it locally looks like $U \times H \twoheadrightarrow \bar{U}$, so we get our fiber bundle. Lastly, (d) follows by the equality $T_g G = T_g M \oplus T_g(gH)$. ■

Remark 1.94. Writing the above out in detail would take several pages; see [Lee13, Theorem 21.10].

Access to quotients permits an isomorphism theorem, which we will prove later when we have talked a bit about Lie algebras.

Theorem 1.95 (Isomorphism). Fix a Lie group homomorphism $f: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$.

- (a) The kernel $\ker f$ is a normal closed Lie subgroup of G_1 .
- (b) The quotient $G_1/\ker f$ is a Lie subgroup of G_2 .
- (c) The image $\operatorname{im} f$ is a Lie subgroup of G_2 . If $\operatorname{im} f$ is further closed, then $G_1/\ker f \rightarrow \operatorname{im} f$ is an isomorphism of Lie subgroups.

1.5.3 Actions

Groups are known by their actions, so let's think about how our actions behave.

Definition 1.96 (action). Fix a Lie group G and regular manifold X . Then a *regular action* of G on X is a regular map $\alpha: G \times X \rightarrow X$ satisfying the usual constraints, as follows.

- (a) Identity: $\alpha(e, x) := x$.
- (b) Composition: $\alpha(g, \alpha(h, x)) = \alpha(gh, x)$.

This allows us to define the usual subsets.

Definition 1.97 (orbit, stabilizer). Fix a regular action of a Lie group G on a regular manifold X .

- (a) The *orbit* of $x \in X$ is the subspace $Gx := \{gx : g \in G\}$.
- (b) The *stabilizer* of $x \in X$ is the subgroup $G_x := \{g \in G : gx = x\}$.

Here are some examples.

Example 1.98. The group $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$ acts on the vector space \mathbb{F}^n .

Example 1.99. The group $\mathrm{SO}_3(\mathbb{R})$ preserves distances in its action on \mathbb{R}^3 , so its action descends to an action on S^2 .

Representations are special kinds of actions.

Definition 1.100 (representation). Fix a Lie group G over \mathbb{F} . Then a *representation* of G is the (regular) linear action of G on a finite-dimensional vector space V over \mathbb{F} ; namely, the map $v \mapsto g \cdot v$ for each $g \in G$ must be a linear map $V \rightarrow V$. A *homomorphism* of representations V and W is a linear map $A: V \rightarrow W$ such that $A(gv) = g(Av)$. These objects and morphisms make the category $\mathrm{Rep}_{\mathbb{F}}(G)$.

Remark 1.101. Equivalently, we may ask for the induced map $G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(V)$, given by sending $g \in G$ to the map $v \mapsto gv$, to be a Lie group homomorphism.

Remark 1.102. The category $\mathrm{Rep}_{\mathbb{F}}(G)$ comes with many nice operations.

- (a) **Duals:** given a representation $\pi: G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(V)$, we can induce a G -action on $V^* := \mathrm{Hom}(V, \mathbb{F})$ by

$$((\pi^*g)(v^*))(v) := v^*(g^{-1}v).$$

(Here, π^*g should be a map $V^* \rightarrow V^*$, so it takes a linear functional $v^* \in V^*$ as input and produces the linear functional $(\pi^*g)(v^*)$ as output.)

- (b) **Tensor products:** given representations $\pi: G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(V)$ and $\pi': G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(V')$, we can induce a G -action on $V \otimes W$ by

$$((\pi \otimes \pi')(g \otimes g'))(v \otimes v') := \pi(g)v \otimes \pi'(g')v'.$$

- (c) **Quotients:** given representations $\pi: G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(V)$ and $\pi': G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(V')$, where $V \subseteq V'$ is a G -representation, then we can induce a G -action on V'/V by

$$\pi'(g)(v' + V) := gv' + V.$$

One can check that these operations make $\mathrm{Rep}_{\mathbb{F}}(G)$ into a symmetric monoidal abelian category.

Returning to group actions on manifolds, we remark that Theorem 1.95 can be seen as a version of the Orbit–stabilizer theorem.

Theorem 1.103 (Orbit–stabilizer). Fix a regular action of a Lie group G on a regular manifold X . Further, fix $x \in X$.

- (a) The orbit Gx is an immersed submanifold of X .
- (b) The stabilizer G_x is a closed Lie subgroup of G .
- (c) The quotient map $f: G/G_x \rightarrow X$ given by $g \mapsto gx$ is an injective immersion.
- (d) If Gx is an embedded submanifold, then the map f of (c) is a diffeomorphism.

1.6 September 11

Today we talk more about homogeneous spaces.

1.6.1 Homogeneous Spaces

Let's see some applications of Theorem 1.103.

Example 1.104. Suppose a regular Lie group G acts smoothly and transitively on a regular manifold X . For each $x \in X$, we see that $G/G_x \rightarrow X$ is a bijective immersion. In particular, Sard's theorem implies that $\dim G/G_x = \dim X$, so we conclude that this map is in fact a bijective local diffeomorphism, which of course is just a diffeomorphism. Thus, Theorem 1.93 tells us that the map $G \rightarrow X$ given by $g \mapsto gx$ is a fiber bundle with fiber G_x .

The above situation is so nice that it earns a name.

Definition 1.105 (homogeneous space). Fix a regular Lie group G acting smoothly and transitively on a regular manifold X . If the action of G is transitive, we say that X is a *homogeneous space* of G .

Here are many examples.

Example 1.106. Continuing from Example 1.99, we recall that $\mathrm{SO}_3(\mathbb{R})$ acts on S^2 . In fact, one can check that the stabilizer of any $x \in S^3$ is isomorphic to S^1 , so Example 1.104 tells us that $\mathrm{SO}_3(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow S^2$ is a fiber bundle with fiber S^1 . In general, we find that $\mathrm{SO}_n(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow S^n$ is a fiber bundle with fiber $\mathrm{SO}_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$.

Example 1.107. The group SU_2 acts on \mathbb{CP}^1 by matrix multiplication. We see that the stabilizer of some line in \mathbb{CP}^1 consists of the matrices in SU_2 with a nonzero eigenvector on the line. For example, using the computation of Example 1.74, we see that trying to stabilize $[1 : 0]$ gives rise to the matrices $\begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & \bar{a} \end{bmatrix}$ where we require $b = 0$. Thus, we see that our stabilizer is isomorphic to U_1 . In particular, our orbits are compact immersed submanifolds of \mathbb{CP}^1 of dimension $\dim \mathrm{SU}_2 - \dim U_1 = \dim \mathbb{CP}^1$, so the action must be transitive in order for orbits to be closed and the correct dimension.

Example 1.108. One can check that SU_n acts on $S^{2n-1} \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$ with stabilizer isomorphic to SU_{n-1} .

Example 1.109 (flag varieties). Let \mathcal{F}_n be the set of "flags" of \mathbb{F}^n , which is an ascending chain of subspaces

$$0 = V_0 \subsetneq V_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq V_{n-1} \subsetneq V_n = \mathbb{F}^n.$$

Then we see that $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$ acts on \mathcal{F}_n by matrix multiplication. On the homework, we check that this action is transitive with stabilizer (of the standard flag $\{\mathrm{span}_{\mathbb{F}}(e_1, \dots, e_i)\}_{i=0}^n$) given by the matrix subgroup $B_n(\mathbb{F}) \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$ of upper-triangular matrices. Thus, we see that we can realize \mathcal{F}_n as the manifold quotient $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})/B_n(\mathbb{F})$, providing a manifold structure.

Example 1.110 (Grassmannians). Let $\mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{F}^n)$ be the set of vector subspaces $V \subseteq \mathbb{F}^n$ of dimension k . Then we see that $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$ acts transitively on $\mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{F}^n)$ with stabilizer of $\mathrm{span}(e_1, \dots, e_k)$ given by matrices of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & D \end{bmatrix},$$

where $A \in \mathbb{F}^{k \times k}$ and $B \in \mathbb{F}^{k \times (n-k)}$ and $D \in \mathbb{F}^{(n-k) \times (n-k)}$. Thus, we can realize $\mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{F}^n)$ as the manifold quotient of $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$, providing a manifold structure.

Example 1.111. There are many regular actions of G on itself.

- Regular left: define our action $R_\ell: G \times G \rightarrow G$ by $(g, x) \mapsto gx$.
- Regular right: define our action $R_r: G \times G \rightarrow G$ by $(g, x) \mapsto xg^{-1}$.
- Adjoint: define our action $\text{Ad}: G \times G \rightarrow G$ by $(g, x) \mapsto gxg^{-1}$. (This action is rarely transitive!)

Example 1.112 (adjoint). Fix a regular Lie group G . Note that $\text{Ad}_g(1) = 1$, so we may take the differential to provide a map $(d\text{Ad}_g)_e: T_e G \rightarrow T_e G$, so we get an adjoint representation

$$\begin{aligned} G \times T_e G &\rightarrow T_e G \\ (g, v) &\mapsto (d\text{Ad}_g)_e(v) \end{aligned}$$

which we will frequently abuse notation to abbreviate the above as providing some $\text{Ad}_g \in \text{GL}(T_e G)$. Expanding everything in sight into coordinates reveals that this action is smooth; in fact, one can check (again in coordinates) that the map $G \rightarrow \text{GL}(T_e G)$ given by $g \mapsto (d\text{Ad}_g)_e$ is smooth. Taking the differential of this last map produces a map $T_e G \rightarrow \text{End}(T_e G)$, which is sometimes called the adjoint representation of $T_e G$.

1.6.2 Covering Spaces

It will help to recall some theory around covering spaces. See [Elb23] for (some) more detail about this theory or [Hat01] for (much) more detail.

Definition 1.113 (covering space). A *covering space* is a fibration $p: Y \rightarrow X$ with discrete fiber S . The *degree* of p equals $\#S$.

In more words, we are asking for each $x \in X$ to have an open neighborhood U such that the restriction $p^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U$ is homeomorphic (over U) to $\bigsqcup_{s \in S} p^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U$ for some discrete set S .

Remark 1.114. If X is a regular manifold and $\deg p \leq |\mathbb{N}|$, then Y is also a regular manifold. Indeed, being a manifold is checked locally, so one can find neighborhoods as in the previous remark to witness the manifold structure.

We are interested in paths in topological spaces, but there are too many. To make this set smaller, we consider it up to homotopy.

Definition 1.115 (homotopy). Fix a topological space X . Two paths $\gamma_0, \gamma_1: [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ are *homotopic* relative to their endpoints if and only if there is a continuous map $H_\bullet: [0, 1]^2 \rightarrow X$ such that $H_0 = \gamma_0$ and $H_1 = \gamma_1$ and $H_s(0) = \gamma_0(0) = \gamma_1(0)$ and $H_s(1) = \gamma_0(1) = \gamma_1(1)$ for all s . The map H is called a *homotopy*.

Definition 1.116 (simply connected). A topological space X is *simply connected* if and two paths with the same endpoints are homotopic relative to those endpoints.

Example 1.117. One can check that S^1 fails to be simply connected because the path going around the circle is not homotopic to the constant path.

It is important to know that one can lift paths.

Theorem 1.118. Fix a covering space $p: Y \rightarrow X$. Fix some point $x \in X$ and a path $\gamma: [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ with $\gamma(0) = x$. Then each $\tilde{x} \in p^{-1}(\{x\})$ has a unique path $\tilde{\gamma}: [0, 1] \rightarrow Y$ such that $\tilde{\gamma}(0) = \tilde{x}$ and making the following diagram commute.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} [0, 1] & \xrightarrow{\tilde{\gamma}} & \tilde{X} \\ & \searrow \gamma & \downarrow p \\ & & X \end{array}$$

Remark 1.119. One can further check that having two homotopic paths $\gamma_1 \sim \gamma_2$ downstairs produce homotopic paths $\tilde{\gamma}_1 \sim \tilde{\gamma}_2$.

Remark 1.120. More generally, fix a simply connected topological space Z . Then given a map $f: Z \rightarrow X$ and a choice of $\tilde{x} \in p^{-1}(\{x\})$ and $z \in f^{-1}(\{x\})$, there will be a unique lift $\tilde{f}: Z \rightarrow Y$ such that $\tilde{f}(z) = \tilde{x}$. In short, given any $z' \in Z$, find a path connecting z and z' , send this path into X and then lift it up to Y . Because Z is simply connected (and the above theorem), the choice of path from z to z' does not really matter.

Anyway, we now define our collection of paths.

Definition 1.121 (fundamental group). Fix a point x of a topological space X . Then the set of paths both of whose endpoints are x forms a monoid with operation given by composition (i.e., concatenation). If we take the quotient of this monoid by homotopy classes of paths, then we get a group of path homotopy classes, which we call $\pi_1(X, x)$. This is the *fundamental group*.

Remark 1.122. For any two $x, y \in X$ in the same path-connected component, the path $\alpha: [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ connecting x to y produces an isomorphism $\pi_1(X, x) \cong \pi_1(X, y)$ by $\gamma \mapsto \alpha \cdot \gamma \cdot \alpha^{-1}$, where \cdot denotes path composition.

Remark 1.123. The above remark allows us to verify that X is simply connected if and only if $\pi_1(X, x)$ is trivial for all x . In fact, we only have to check this for one x in each path-connected component.

1.7 September 13

Today we continue our discussion of coverings.

1.7.1 The Universal Cover

There is more or less one covering space which produces all the other ones.

Definition 1.124 (universal cover). Fix a path-connected topological space X . Then a covering space $p: Y \rightarrow X$ is the *universal cover* if and only if Y is connected and simply connected.

We now discuss an action of $\pi_1(X, b)$ on covering spaces in order to better understand this universal cover. Fix a covering space $p: Y \rightarrow X$ and a basepoint $x \in X$. Then we note that $\pi_1(X, x)$ acts on the fiber $p^{-1}(\{x\})$ as follows: for any $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X, x)$ and $\tilde{x} \in p^{-1}(\{x\})$, we define $\tilde{\gamma}: [0, 1] \rightarrow Y$ by lifting the path $\gamma: [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ up to Y so that $\tilde{\gamma}(0) = \tilde{x}$; then

$$[\gamma] \cdot \tilde{x} := \tilde{\gamma}(1).$$

One can check that this action is well-defined (namely, it does not depend on the representative γ and does provide a group action). Here are some notes.

- If Y is path-connected, then the action is transitive: and $\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}' \in p^{-1}(\{x\})$ admit a path $\tilde{\gamma}: [0, 1] \rightarrow Y$ with $\tilde{\gamma}(0) = \tilde{x}$ and $\tilde{\gamma}(1) = \tilde{x}'$, so $\gamma := p \circ \tilde{\gamma}$ has

$$[\gamma] \cdot \tilde{x} := \tilde{x}'$$

by construction of γ .

- If Y is simply connected, then this action is also free. Indeed, choose two paths $\gamma_1, \gamma_2: [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ representing classes in $\pi_1(X, x)$. Now, suppose that $[\gamma_1] \cdot \tilde{x} = [\gamma_2] \cdot \tilde{x}$ for each $\tilde{x} \in p^{-1}(\{x\})$, and we will show that $[\gamma_1] = [\gamma_2]$. Well, choosing lifts $\tilde{\gamma}_1$ and $\tilde{\gamma}_2$, the hypothesis implies that they have the same endpoints. Thus, because Y is simply connected, we know $\tilde{\gamma}_1 \sim \tilde{\gamma}_2$. We now see that $\gamma_1 \sim \gamma_2$ by composing the homotopy witnessing $\tilde{\gamma}_1 \sim \tilde{\gamma}_2$ with p .

The conclusion is that $p^{-1}(\{x\})$ is in bijection with $\pi_1(X, x)$ when $p: Y \rightarrow X$ is the universal cover. Here are some examples.

Example 1.125. One has a covering space $p: S^n \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^n$ given by

$$(x_0, \dots, x_n) \mapsto [x_0 : \dots : x_n].$$

For $n \geq 2$, we know S^n is simply connected, so it will be the universal cover, and we are able to conclude that $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^n)$ is isomorphic to a fiber of p , which has two elements, so $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^n) \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$.

Example 1.126. One has a covering space $p: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$ given by $p(t) := e^{2\pi i t}$. We can see that \mathbb{R} is simply connected (it's convex), so this is a universal covering. This at least tells us that $\pi_1(S^1)$ is countable, and one can track through the group law through the above bijections to see that actually $\pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

Example 1.127. One can show that $\pi_1(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{z_1, \dots, z_n\})$ is the free group on n generators, basically corresponding to how one goes around each point.

Now, in the context of our Lie groups, we get the following result.

Theorem 1.128. Fix a regular Lie group G , and let $p: \tilde{G} \rightarrow G$ be the universal cover.

- Then \tilde{G} has the structure of a regular Lie group.
- The projection p is a homomorphism of Lie groups.
- The kernel $\ker p \subseteq \tilde{G}$ is discrete, central, and isomorphic to $\pi_1(G, e)$. In particular, $\pi_1(G, e)$ is commutative.

Proof. Here we go.

- Remark 1.114 tells us that \tilde{G} is a regular manifold, so it really only remains to exhibit the group structure. We will content ourselves with merely describing the group structure. Fix any $\tilde{e} \in p^{-1}(\{e\})$, which will be our identity.

Now, \tilde{G} is simply connected, so $\tilde{G} \times \tilde{G}$ is also simply connected. Thus, Remark 1.114 explains that the composite

$$\tilde{G} \times \tilde{G} \rightarrow G \times G \xrightarrow{m} G$$

will lift to a unique map to the universal cover as a map \tilde{m} making the following diagram commute.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \tilde{G} \times \tilde{G} & \xrightarrow{\tilde{m}} & \tilde{G} \\ (p,p) \downarrow & & \downarrow p \\ G \times G & \xrightarrow{m} & G \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} (\tilde{e}, \tilde{e}) & \longmapsto & \tilde{e} \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ (e, e) & \longmapsto & e \end{array}$$

One can construct the inverse map similarly by lifting the map $\tilde{G} \xrightarrow{p} G \xrightarrow{i} G$ to a map to \tilde{G} sending $\tilde{e} \mapsto \tilde{e}$. Uniqueness of lifting will guarantee that we satisfy the group law.

(b) We see that p is a homomorphism by construction of \tilde{m} above.

(c) This is on the homework. ■

Example 1.129. Recall that we have the fiber bundle $\mathrm{SO}_n(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow S^{n-1}$ with fiber $\mathrm{SO}_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})$. Thus, the long exact sequence in homotopy groups produces

$$\pi_2(S^{n-1}) \rightarrow \pi_1(\mathrm{SO}_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})) \rightarrow \pi_1(\mathrm{SO}_n(\mathbb{R})) \rightarrow \pi_1(S^{n-1}) \rightarrow \pi_0(\mathrm{SO}_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})).$$

Now, for $n \geq 4$, one has that $\pi_2(S^{n-1}) = \pi_1(S^{n-1}) = 1$, so we have $\pi_1(\mathrm{SO}_{n-1}(\mathbb{R})) \cong \pi_1(\mathrm{SO}_n(\mathbb{R}))$. One can check that $\mathrm{SO}_3(\mathbb{R}) \cong \mathbb{RP}^3$, so we see that

$$\pi_1(\mathrm{SO}_n(\mathbb{R})) \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

for $n \geq 4$. The universal (double) cover of $\mathrm{SO}_n(\mathbb{R})$ is called Spin_n , and Theorem 1.128 explains that we have a short exact sequence

$$1 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathrm{Spin}_n \rightarrow \mathrm{SO}_n(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow 1.$$

Example 1.130. More concretely, one can show that $\mathrm{SU}_2(\mathbb{C})$ has an action on \mathbb{R}^3 preserving distances and orientation, so we get a homomorphism $\mathrm{SU}_2(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathrm{SO}_3(\mathbb{R})$. One can check that this map is surjective with kernel isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$.

In general, Theorem 1.128 explains that we have a short exact sequence

$$1 \rightarrow \pi_1(G) \rightarrow \tilde{G} \rightarrow G \rightarrow 1$$

for any regular Lie group G , so it does not cost us too much to pass from G to \tilde{G} , allowing us to assume that the Lie groups we study are simply connected. (Note that even though $\pi_1(G)$ is discrete, the short exact sequence does not split: \tilde{G} succeeds at being connected.)

1.7.2 Vector Fields

Fix a regular manifold X of dimension n . We may be interested in thinking about all our tangent spaces at once.

Definition 1.131 (tangent bundle). Fix a regular manifold X . Then we define the *tangent bundle* as

$$TX := \{(x, v) : v \in T_x X\}.$$

Note that there is a natural projection map $TX \rightarrow X$ by $(x, v) \mapsto x$.

Remark 1.132. Locally on a chart (U, φ) of X , we see that φ provides coordinates (x_1, \dots, x_n) on U , so one has a bijection

$$U \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow TU$$

by sending $(x, \partial/\partial x_i) \mapsto (\varphi^{-1}(x), d\varphi_x^{-1}(\partial/\partial x_i))$ (In the future, we may conflate $d\varphi_x^{-1}(\partial/\partial x_i)$ with $\partial/\partial x_i$). This provides a chart for TU , and one can check that these charts are smoothly compatible by an explicit computation using the smooth compatibility of charts on X . The point is that $TX \rightarrow X$ is a vector bundle of rank n .

Vector bundles are interesting because of their sections.

Definition 1.133 (vector field). Fix a regular manifold X . Then a *vector field* on X is a smooth section $\sigma: X \rightarrow TX$ of the natural projection map $TX \rightarrow X$.

Remark 1.134. Locally on a chart (U, φ) with coordinates (x_1, \dots, x_n) , we see that we can think about a vector field σ locally as

$$\sigma(x) := \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \Big|_x,$$

where the smoothness of σ enforces the σ_i s to be smooth. Changing coordinates to (U', φ') with a coordinate expansion $\sigma(x) = \sum_i \sigma'_i(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x'_i}$, one can change bases using the Jacobian of $\varphi' \circ \varphi^{-1}$ to find that

$$\sigma'_i(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial x'_i}{\partial x'_j} \sigma_j(x).$$

Anyway, the point is that we can define a vector field locally on these coordinates and then going back and checking that we have actually defined something that will glue smoothly up to X .

The reason we care so much about tangent spaces in this class is because they give rise to our Lie algebras, whose representations are somehow our main focus.

Definition 1.135 (Lie algebra). Fix a Lie group G . Then the *Lie algebra* of G is the vector space

$$\mathfrak{g} := T_e G.$$

It is somewhat difficult to find structure in this tangent space immediately, so we note that $T_e G$ is isomorphic with another vector space.

Definition 1.136 (invariant vector field). Fix a Lie group G . Then a vector field $\xi: G \rightarrow TG$ is *left-invariant* if and only if

$$\xi(gx) = dL_g(\xi(x))$$

for any $x, g \in G$. One can define *right-invariant* analogously.

Remark 1.137. We claim that the vector space of left-invariant vector fields is isomorphic to \mathfrak{g} . Here are our maps.

- Given a left-invariant vector field ξ , one can produce the tangent vector $\xi(e) \in \mathfrak{g}$.
- Given some $\xi(e) \in \mathfrak{g}$, we define

$$\xi(g) := dL_g(\xi(e)) \in T_g G.$$

It is not difficult to check that $\xi: G \rightarrow TG$ is at least a section of the natural projection $TG \rightarrow G$. We omit the check that ξ is smooth because it is somewhat involved.

Remark 1.138. As an aside, we note that the produced left-invariant vector fields parallelizes G after providing a basis of \mathfrak{g} ; in particular, one has a canonical isomorphism $TG \cong G \times \mathfrak{g}$. One can actually show that TG is a Lie group with Lie group structure given by functoriality of the tangent bundle applied to the group operations of G , and one finds that $TG \cong G \rtimes \mathfrak{g}$, where G acts on \mathfrak{g} by the adjoint action.

Next class we will go back and argue that our classical groups are actually Lie groups and compute their Lie algebras.

1.8 September 16

Today we will talk about Lie algebras of classical groups.

1.8.1 The Exponential Map: The Classical Case

Let's work through our examples by hand. Recall that our classical groups are our subgroups of $GL_n(\mathbb{F})$ cut out by equations involving \det and preserving a bilinear/sesquilinear form (symmetric, symplectic, or Hermitian).

Example 1.139. We show that $GL_n(\mathbb{F})$ is a Lie group over \mathbb{F} and compute its Lie algebra.

Proof. Note $GL_n(\mathbb{F})$ is an open submanifold of $M_n(\mathbb{F}) \cong \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$. Matrix multiplication and inversion are rational functions of the coordinates and hence smooth, so $GL_n(\mathbb{F})$ succeeds at being a Lie group. Lastly, we see that being open implies that our tangent space is

$$T_e GL_n(\mathbb{F}) \cong T_e M_n(\mathbb{F}) \cong \mathbb{F}^n,$$

as required. ■

We will postpone the remaining computations until we discuss the exponential. For these computations, we want the exponential map.

Definition 1.140 (exponential). For $X \in \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$, we define the exponential map $\exp: \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow GL_n(\mathbb{F})$ by

$$\exp(X) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{X^k}{k!}.$$

Note that \exp is an isomorphism at the identity, so the Inverse function theorem provides a smooth "local" inverse $\log(1_n + X)$ defined in an open neighborhood of 1_n . In fact, one can formally compute that

$$\log(1_n + X) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k+1} \frac{X^k}{k}.$$

We run a few small checks.

Remark 1.141. Note $\exp(0) = 1$. In fact, one can check that $d\exp_0(A) = A$ for any $A \in \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$ by taking the derivative term by term.

Remark 1.142. We also see that $\exp(AXA^{-1}) = A\exp(X)A^{-1}$ and $\exp(X^\top) = \exp(X)^\top$ and $\exp(X^\dagger) = \exp(X)^\dagger$ by a direct expansion.

What's important about \exp is the following multiplicative property.

Lemma 1.143. Fix $X, Y \in \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$ which commute. Then

$$\exp(X + Y) = \exp(X) \exp(Y).$$

Proof. We check this in formal power series. Because everything in sight converges, this is safe. The main point is to just expand everything. Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} \exp(X + Y) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(X + Y)^k}{k!} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \left(\sum_{a+b=k} \binom{k}{a} X^a Y^b \right) \\ &= \sum_{a,b=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(a+b)!} \cdot \frac{(a+b)!}{a!b!} X^a Y^b \\ &= \sum_{a,b=0}^{\infty} \frac{X^a}{a!} \cdot \frac{Y^b}{b!} \\ &= \exp(X) \exp(Y), \end{aligned}$$

as required. ■

Remark 1.144. For fixed X , the previous point implies that the map $\mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$ given by $t \mapsto \exp(tX)$ is a Lie group homomorphism. (Smoothness is automatic by smoothness of \exp .) The image of this map is called the “1-parameter subgroup” generated by X .

Remark 1.145. Taking inverses shows that $\log(XY) = \log X + \log Y$ for X and Y close enough to the identity.

Here is another check which is a little more interesting.

Lemma 1.146. Fix $X \in \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$. Then

$$\det \exp(X) = \exp(\mathrm{tr} X).$$

Proof. The computations do not change if we extend the base field, so we may work over \mathbb{C} everywhere. Thus, we may assume that X is upper-triangular by conjugating (see Remark 1.142) say with diagonal entries $\{d_1, \dots, d_n\}$. Now, for any $k \geq 0$, any X^k continues to be upper-triangular with diagonal entries $\{d_1^k, \dots, d_n^k\}$. Thus, we see that $\exp(X)$ is upper-triangular with diagonal entries $\{\exp(d_1), \dots, \exp(d_n)\}$, so

$$\det \exp(X) = \exp(d_1) \cdots \exp(d_n) \tag{1.1}$$

$$= \exp(d_1 + \cdots + d_n) \tag{1.2}$$

$$= \exp(\mathrm{tr} X), \tag{1.3}$$

as required. ■

1.8.2 The Classical Groups

For our classical groups, we will show the following result.

Theorem 1.147. For each classical group $G \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$, there will exist a vector subspace $\mathfrak{g} \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$ (which can be identified with $T_e G$ via the embedding $G \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$) and open neighborhoods of the identity $U \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$ and $\mathfrak{u} \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$ such that $\exp: (U \cap G) \rightarrow (\mathfrak{u} \cap \mathfrak{g})$ is a local isomorphism.

Before engaging with the examples, we note the following corollary.

Corollary 1.148. For each classical group G , we see that G is a Lie group with $T_e G = \mathfrak{g}$ and $\dim G = \dim \mathfrak{g}$.

Proof. It suffices to provide a slice chart of the identity for $G \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$; we then get slice charts everywhere by translation. Well, ■

Let's now proceed with our examples.

Example 1.149. We will show that

$$\mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{F}) := \{A \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}) : \det A = 1\}$$

is a Lie group over \mathbb{F} and compute its Lie algebra.

Proof. The main point is to classify which $A \in \mathrm{im} \exp$ actually live in our subgroup. Well, $A = \exp(X)$ has $\det A = 1$ if and only if $\mathrm{tr} X = 0$ by Lemma 1.146, so we see that our Lie subalgebra is

$$\mathfrak{sl}_n(\mathbb{F}) := \{X \in \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F}) : \mathrm{tr} X = 0\}.$$

The result follows. ■

We now begin our computations for bilinear forms.

Example 1.150. Let $B := 1_n$ be the standard bilinear form. We will show that

$$\mathrm{O}_n(\mathbb{F}) := \{A \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}) : ABA^\top B\}$$

is a Lie group over \mathbb{F} and compute its Lie algebra.

Proof. As before, writing $A = \exp(X)$, we see that $ABA^\top = B$ is equivalent to $BA^\top B^{-1} = A^{-1}$, which is equivalent to

$$\exp(BXB^{-1}) = \exp(-X),$$

so we are asking for $BX^\top B^{-1} = -X$, as required. ■

Example 1.151. We will show that

$$\mathrm{SO}_n(\mathbb{F}) := \{A \in \mathrm{O}_n(\mathbb{F}) : \det A = 1\}$$

is a Lie group over \mathbb{F} and compute its Lie algebra.

Over \mathbb{R} , there are more bilinear forms.

Example 1.152. Let $B_{p,q} := 1_p \oplus 1_q$ where $n = p + q$. We will show that

$$\mathrm{O}_{p,q}(\mathbb{F}) := \{A \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}) : AB_{p,q}A^\top B_{p,q}\}$$

is a Lie group over \mathbb{F} and compute its Lie algebra.

Example 1.153. We will show that

$$\mathrm{SO}_{p,q}(\mathbb{F}) := \{A \in \mathrm{O}_{p,q}(\mathbb{F}) : \det A = 1\}$$

is a Lie group over \mathbb{F} and compute its Lie algebra.

Example 1.154. Let $\Omega_{2n} := \begin{bmatrix} 0_n & -1_n \\ 1_n & 0_n \end{bmatrix}$ be the standard symplectic form. We will show that

$$\mathrm{Sp}_{2n}(\mathbb{F}) := \{A \in \mathrm{GL}_{2n}(\mathbb{F}) : A\Omega A^\top = \Omega\}$$

is a Lie group over \mathbb{F} and compute its Lie algebra.

Lastly, we handle Hermitian forms.

Example 1.155. We will show that

$$\mathrm{U}_n(\mathbb{C}) := \{A \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{C}) : AA^\dagger = 1_n\}$$

is a Lie group over \mathbb{R} and compute its Lie algebra.

Example 1.156. We will show that

$$\mathrm{SU}_n(\mathbb{C}) := \{A \in \mathrm{U}_n(\mathbb{C}) : \det A = 1_n\}$$

is a Lie group over \mathbb{R} and compute its Lie algebra.

And because we are over \mathbb{R} , we have the following extra forms.

Example 1.157. Let $B_{p,q} := 1_p \oplus 1_q$ where $n = p + q$. We will show that

$$\mathrm{U}_{p,q}(\mathbb{F}) := \{A \in \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}) : AB_{p,q}A^\dagger B_{p,q}\}$$

is a Lie group over \mathbb{F} and compute its Lie algebra.

Example 1.158. We will show that

$$\mathrm{SU}_{p,q}(\mathbb{C}) := \{A \in \mathrm{SU}_{p,q}(\mathbb{C}) : \det A = 1_n\}$$

is a Lie group over \mathbb{R} and compute its Lie algebra.

All the above examples are similar to the orthogonal group case. I will add the computations in after doing the homework.

THEME 2

PASSING TO LIE ALGEBRAS

2.1 September 18

Today we compute our Lie algebras.

2.1.1 The Exponential Map: The General Case

Given a Lie group G with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} , we would like to define an exponential map $\exp: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow G$. Recall that \exp gave rise to our homomorphisms $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G$ with $\gamma(0) = e$ and $\gamma'(0)$ is specified. This will be our starting point.

Proposition 2.1. Fix a regular Lie group G with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . For each $X \in \mathfrak{g}$, there exists a unique Lie group homomorphism $\gamma_X: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G$ such that $\gamma'_X(0) = X$.

Proof. We use the theory of integral curves; see [Lee13, Chapter 9]. In particular, we see that we must satisfy $\gamma(s+t) = \gamma(t)\gamma(s)$ for all $s, t \in \mathbb{R}$, which yields

$$\gamma'(t) = \gamma(t)\gamma'(0),$$

where this multiplication really means $dL_{\gamma(t)}(\gamma'(0))$.

Thus, we see that we want to extend $X \in T_e G$ to a left-invariant vector field, and then we let $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G$ be the integral curve of this vector field satisfying $\gamma(0) = e$. (A priori, γ can only be defined in a neighborhood of the identity, but we can translate around in the group G to get a global solution. See [Lee13, Lemma 9.15] and in particular its corollary [Lee13, Theorem 9.18].) Then

$$\gamma'(t) = X(\gamma(t)) = dL_{\gamma(t)}(X(0)) = dL_{\gamma(t)}(X)$$

for each $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

Thus far we have shown that there is at most one Lie group homomorphism $\gamma_X: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G$ satisfying $\gamma'_X(0) = X$; namely, it will be the above integral curve! It remains to check that the above integral curve actually satisfies $\gamma(t+s) = \gamma(t)\gamma(s)$. Well, for $s \in \mathbb{R}$, we define $\gamma_1(t) = \gamma(t+s)$ and $\gamma_2(t) = \gamma(s)\gamma(t)$. Then we see that γ_1 and γ_2 are both integral curves satisfying the ordinary differential equation

$$\tilde{\gamma}'(t) = dL_{\tilde{\gamma}(t)}(\tilde{\gamma}'(0))$$

with initial condition $\tilde{\gamma}(0) = \gamma(s)$, so they must be equal, completing the proof. ■

Remark 2.2. Here is one way to conclude without using [Lee13, Theorem 9.18]. The last paragraph of the proof provides a path $\gamma: (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \rightarrow G$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$ satisfying the homomorphism property. But then any $N > 0$ allows us to define $\tilde{\gamma}: (-N, N) \rightarrow G$ given by

$$\tilde{\gamma}(t) := \gamma(t/N)^N.$$

However, we can check that $\tilde{\gamma}$ satisfies $\tilde{\gamma}'(t) = dL_{\tilde{\gamma}(t)}(X)$ with initial condition $\tilde{\gamma}(0) = e$, so $\tilde{\gamma}$ extends γ . Thus, we can extend γ to $\bigcup_{N>0} (-N\varepsilon, N\varepsilon) = \mathbb{R}$.

We now define \exp motivated by the classical case.

Definition 2.3 (exponential). Fix a regular Lie group G with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . For each $X \in \mathfrak{g}$, define γ_X via Proposition 2.1. Then we define $\exp_G: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow G$ by

$$\exp_G(X) := \gamma_X(1).$$

We will omit the subscript from \exp_G as much as possible.

Example 2.4. If $G \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$ is classical, we can take $\gamma_X(t) = \exp(tX)$ where \exp is defined as for GL_n . Thus, $\exp(X)$ matches with the above definition.

Example 2.5. Consider the Lie group \mathbb{R}^n . Then for each $X \in T_0\mathbb{R}^n$, we identify $T_0\mathbb{R}^n \cong \mathbb{R}^n$ to observe that we can take $\gamma_X(t) := tX$. Thus, $\exp(X) = X$.

Example 2.6. For any G , we can take $\gamma_0(t) := 0$, so $\exp(0) = 1$.

Example 2.7. We can directly compute that

$$(d\exp)_0(X) = \left. \frac{d}{dt} \exp(tX) \right|_0 \stackrel{*}{=} \left. \frac{d}{dt} \gamma_X(t) \right|_{t=0} = X.$$

The equality $\exp(tX) \stackrel{*}{=} \gamma_X(t)$ is explained as follows: we can check that $\gamma_{rX}(t) = \gamma_X(rt)$ for any $r, t \in \mathbb{R}$ by computing the derivative at 0, so $\exp(tX) = \gamma_{tX}(1) = \gamma_X(t)$ follows.

Here are some quick checks.

Proposition 2.8. Fix a regular Lie group G with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . Then $\exp: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow G$ is regular and a local diffeomorphism.

Proof. Note that \exp solves the differential equation given by Example 2.7, for which the theory of integral curves promises that this solution must be regular. Example 2.7 also tells us that \exp is an isomorphism at the identity and hence a local diffeomorphism. ■

We would like to know something like $\exp(A+B) = \exp(A)\exp(B)$ when A and B commute, but one needs to be a little careful in how to state this. Here are some manifestations.

Proposition 2.9. Fix a regular Lie group G with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . Then

$$\exp((s+t)X) = \exp(sX)\exp(tX)$$

for any $s, t \in \mathbb{R}$ and $X \in \mathfrak{g}$.

Proof. This is a matter of following the definitions around. Let $\gamma_X: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G$ be the one-parameter family for X . Then we see that $\gamma_{rX}(t) = \gamma_X(rt)$ for any $r \in \mathbb{R}$ as explained in Example 2.7, so

$$\exp((s+t)X) = \gamma_{(s+t)X}(1) = \gamma_X(s+t) = \gamma_X(s)\gamma_X(t) = \exp(sX)\exp(tX),$$

as desired. ■

Proposition 2.10. Fix a homomorphism $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ of Lie groups. Then

$$\varphi(\exp_G(X)) = \exp_H(d\varphi_0(X))$$

for any $X \in T_e G$.

Proof. This follows from the definition. In particular, we claim that

$$\gamma_{d\varphi_0(X)}(t) \stackrel{?}{=} \varphi(\gamma_X(t)).$$

To see this, note that $t \mapsto \varphi(\gamma_X(t))$ is a Lie group homomorphism $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow H$, and we can compute the derivative at 0 to be $d\varphi_0(\gamma'_X(0)) = d\varphi_0(X)$, as required. Plugging in $t = 1$ to the above equation completes the proof. ■

Corollary 2.11. Fix homomorphisms $\varphi_1, \varphi_2: G \rightarrow H$ of Lie groups. Suppose G is connected. If $d\varphi_1 = d\varphi_2$, then $\varphi_1 = \varphi_2$.

Proof. Using Proposition 2.10, we see that

$$\varphi(\exp(X)) = \exp(d\varphi_0(X))$$

produces the same answer for $\varphi \in \{\varphi_1, \varphi_2\}$. However, \exp is a local diffeomorphism by Proposition 2.8, so we have determined the values of φ_1 and φ_2 on the image of \exp , which must contain an open neighborhood of the identity of G . Thus, because G is connected, we see that G is generated by this open neighborhood, so in fact we have fully determined the values of φ_1 and φ_2 . ■

Proposition 2.12. Fix a regular Lie group G with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} , and let $\text{Ad}_\bullet: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(\mathfrak{g})$ be the adjoint representation of Example 1.112. For any $g \in G$ and $X \in \mathfrak{g}$, we have

$$g \exp(X) g^{-1} = \exp(\text{Ad}_g X).$$

Proof. By Proposition 2.10, we see that

$$g \exp(X) g^{-1} = \text{Ad}_g(\exp(X)) = \exp((d\text{Ad}_g)_e X) = \exp(\text{Ad}_g X),$$

where the last equality holds by definition of the adjoint representation. (Yes, the notation is somewhat confusing.) ■

While we are here, we note that there is a logarithm map.

Definition 2.13 (logarithm). Fix a regular Lie group G with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . Because \exp is a local diffeomorphism, there are open neighborhoods $U \subseteq G$ and $\mathfrak{u} \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$ of the identities so that $\log: U \rightarrow \mathfrak{u}$ is an inverse for \exp .

2.1.2 The Commutator

Define the form $\mu: \mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ by

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

(Technically, μ is a priori only defined on an open neighborhood of the identity of $\mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g}$.) Expanding out everything into coordinates, we see that μ has a Taylor series expansion as

$$\mu(X, Y) = c + \alpha_1(X) + \alpha_2(Y) + Q_1(X) + Q_2(Y) + \lambda(X, Y) + \cdots,$$

where c is constant, α_1 and α_2 are linear, Q_1 and Q_2 are quadratic, λ is bilinear, and $+\cdots$ denotes cubic and higher-order terms. However, we see that $\mu(X, 0) = 0$ and $\mu(0, Y) = 0$ for any $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$, so $c = Q_1 = Q_2 = 0$ and $\alpha_1(X) = X$ and $\alpha_2(Y) = Y$. Further, we claim that λ is skew-symmetric: it is enough to show that $\lambda(X, X) = 0$, for which we note that

$$2X = \log(\exp(2X)) = \log(\exp(X) \exp(X)) = \mu(X, X) = X + X + \lambda(X, X) + \cdots,$$

so $\lambda(X, X) = 0$ is forced.

This λ allows us to define the Lie bracket on \mathfrak{g} in a purely group-theoretic way.

Definition 2.14 (Lie bracket). Fix a regular Lie group G with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . Then we define the *commutator* as the skew-symmetric form $\frac{1}{2}\lambda: \mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$, denoted $[-, -]$. In particular, we see that

$$\exp(X) \exp(Y) = \exp\left(X + Y + \frac{1}{2}[X, Y] + \cdots\right), \quad (2.1)$$

where $+\cdots$ denotes higher-order terms (as usual).

Remark 2.15. A priori, the commutator may only be defined on an open neighborhood of the identity of $\mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g}$, so (2.1) only holds (a priori) for sufficiently small X and Y . However, bilinearity allows us to scale our definition of $[-, -]$ from this open neighborhood everywhere.

Example 2.16. We compute the commutator map for GL_n . We see that

$$\exp(X) \exp(Y) = 1 + X + Y + XY + \frac{1}{2}(X^2 + Y^2) + \cdots, \quad (2.2)$$

$$\exp\left(X + Y + \frac{1}{2}[X + Y] + \cdots\right) = 1 + X + Y + \frac{1}{2}(X^2 + Y^2) + \frac{1}{2}XY + \frac{1}{2}YX + \frac{1}{2}[X, Y] + \cdots, \quad (2.3)$$

giving $[X, Y] = XY - YX$ subtracting.

To compute the commutator for the classical groups, we need to check some functoriality.

Proposition 2.17. Fix a homomorphism $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ of Lie groups. For any $X, Y \in T_e G$, we have

$$d\varphi_0([X, Y]) = [d\varphi_0(X), d\varphi_0(Y)].$$

Proof. We unravel the definitions. Everything in sight is linear, so we may assume that X and Y are suffi-

ciently small, so $d\varphi_0(X)$ and $d\varphi_0(Y)$ are sufficiently small. We now compute

$$\begin{aligned} \exp\left(d\varphi_0(X) + d\varphi_0(Y) + \frac{1}{2}[d\varphi_0(X), d\varphi_0(Y)]\right) &= \exp(d\varphi_0(X)) \exp(d\varphi_0(Y)) \\ &\stackrel{*}{=} \varphi(\exp(X))\varphi(\exp(Y)) \\ &= \varphi(\exp(X)\exp(Y)) \\ &= \varphi\left(\exp\left(X + Y + \frac{1}{2}[X, Y] + \cdots\right)\right) \\ &\stackrel{*}{=} \exp\left(d\varphi_0(X) + d\varphi_0(Y) + \frac{1}{2}d\varphi_0([X, Y]) + \cdots\right), \end{aligned}$$

where we have used Proposition 2.10 at the equalities $\stackrel{*}{=}$. Because \exp is a diffeomorphism for X and Y sufficiently small, the desired equality follows. ■

Example 2.18. The embedding $\mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$ implies by Proposition 2.17 that the Lie bracket on the Lie algebra \mathfrak{sl}_n can be computed by restricting the commutator Lie bracket on \mathfrak{gl}_n (given by Example 2.16). In particular, we see that \mathfrak{sl}_n is closed under taking commutators, which is not totally obvious a priori! A similar operation permits computation of the Lie bracket of a Lie group G whenever given an embedding $G \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n$ (such as for the classical groups).

Corollary 2.19. Fix a regular Lie group G with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . Let $\mathrm{Ad}_\bullet: G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(\mathfrak{g})$ denote the adjoint representation. For

$$\mathrm{Ad}_g([X, Y]) = [\mathrm{Ad}_g(X), \mathrm{Ad}_g(Y)].$$

Proof. We simply apply Proposition 2.17 to $\mathrm{Ad}: G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(\mathfrak{g})$, which yields

$$(d\mathrm{Ad}_g)_e([X, Y]) = [(d\mathrm{Ad}_g)_e X, (d\mathrm{Ad}_g)_e Y],$$

which is the original equation after enough abuse of notation. ■

Proposition 2.20. Fix a Lie group G . For sufficiently small $X, Y \in T_e G$, we have

$$\exp(X)\exp(Y)\exp(X)^{-1}\exp(Y)^{-1} = \exp([X, Y] + \cdots).$$

Proof. This is a direct computation. We compute

$$\begin{aligned} \exp(X)\exp(Y)\exp(-X)\exp(-Y) &= \exp\left(X + Y + \frac{1}{2}[X, Y] + \cdots\right)\exp\left(-X - Y + \frac{1}{2}[X, Y] + \cdots\right) \\ &= \exp([X, Y] + \cdots), \end{aligned}$$

where we get some omitted cancellation of lower-order terms in the last equality (and there is a lot of higher-order terms). ■

Corollary 2.21. If G is abelian, then $[X, Y] = 0$ for any X and Y .

Proof. It suffices to assume that X and Y are sufficiently small because the conclusion is linear. Now, Proposition 2.20 implies that

$$\exp([X, Y] + \cdots) = 0,$$

so because \exp is a diffeomorphism for small enough X and Y , so $[X, Y] = 0$ follows. ■

2.2 September 20

Today we continue discussing the Lie bracket.

2.2.1 The Adjoint Action

Fix a regular Lie group G with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . Here is the standard example of a “Lie algebra representation.”

Notation 2.22. Fix a regular Lie group G with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . Note that the map $(d\text{Ad}_g)_1: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(\mathfrak{g})$ is smooth, so we can consider the differential of this map, which we label $\text{ad}: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g})$.

Here are some checks on this map.

Proposition 2.23. Fix a regular Lie group G with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} .

- (a) For $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$, we have $\text{ad}_X(Y) = [X, Y]$.
- (b) For $X \in \mathfrak{g}$, we have $\text{Ad}_{\exp(X)} = \exp(\text{ad}_X)$ as operators $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$.

Proof. Here we go.

- (a) By definition of our differential action, we have

$$(d\text{Ad}_g)_1(Y) = \left. \frac{d}{dt} g \exp(tY) g^{-1} \right|_{t=0}$$

for any $g \in G$ and $Y \in \mathfrak{g}$. We would like to compute a derivative of this map with respect to g (at the identity). As such, we plug in $g = \exp(sX)$ to compute

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ad}_X(Y) &= \left. \frac{d}{ds} (d\text{Ad}_{\exp(sX)})_1(Y) \right|_{s=0} \\ &= \left. \frac{d}{ds} \frac{d}{dt} \exp(sX) \exp(tY) \exp(sX) \right|_{t=0} \bigg|_{s=0} \\ &\stackrel{*}{=} \left. \frac{d}{ds} \frac{d}{dt} \exp(tY + st[X, Y] + \cdots) \right|_{t=0} \bigg|_{s=0}, \end{aligned}$$

where in $*$ we have used the definition of our bracket. Upon expanding out \exp as a series, we see that the lower-order terms are $1 + tY + st[X, Y] + \cdots$ (everything higher is at least quadratic) for small enough s and t , so the derivative evaluates to $[X, Y]$.

- (b) This follows immediately from Proposition 2.10 upon setting $\varphi = (d\text{Ad}_\bullet)_1$. ■

Here is an example computation of what all this adjoint business looks like for GL_n , more directly than appealing to the bracket.

Lemma 2.24. Identify $T\text{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$ with $\text{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}) \times \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$ via left-invariant vector fields. For $X \in \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$, we have

$$\begin{cases} dL_g(X) = gX, \\ dR_g(X) = Xg^{-1}, \\ d\text{Ad}_g(X) = gXg^{-1}. \end{cases}$$

Proof. Set $G := \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$ and $\mathfrak{g} := \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$. Note that the adjoint is the composite of L_g and R_g , so the last equality follows from the first two. For the first equality, we are computing the differential of the maps $L_g, R_g: G \rightarrow G$ at some $h \in G$. Well, L_g and R_g actually extend to perfectly fine linear maps $M_n(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow M_n(\mathbb{F})$, and the differential of any linear map is simply itself upon identifying the tangent spaces of $M_n(\mathbb{F})$ with itself, so we conclude that $dL_g(X) = gX$ and $dR_g(X) = Xg^{-1}$, as required. ■

Lemma 2.25. Fix a homomorphism $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ of Lie groups with Lie algebras \mathfrak{g} and \mathfrak{h} respectively. For any $g \in G$ and $X \in \mathfrak{g}$, we have

$$(d\mathrm{Ad}_{\varphi(g)})_e(d\varphi_1(X)) = d\varphi_1((d\mathrm{Ad}_g)_e(X)).$$

Proof. Simply take the differential (at 1) of the equation $\mathrm{Ad}_{\varphi(g)} \circ \varphi = \varphi \circ \mathrm{Ad}_g$, which is true because φ is a homomorphism. ■

Example 2.26. Given any embedding $G \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$ with Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g} \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$, we can use Lemma 2.25 to compute the adjoint action on \mathfrak{g} by conjugation (via Lemma 2.24)!

Proposition 2.27. Let $(d\mathrm{Ad}_\bullet)_1: \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(\mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F}))$ denote the adjoint representation. Then

$$\mathrm{ad}_X(Y) = XY - YX.$$

Proof. To parse the symbols, we note that $(d(d\mathrm{Ad}_\bullet)_1)_1: \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \mathrm{End}(\mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F}))$, so the statement at least makes sense. Now, given $X \in \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$, define $\gamma: \mathbb{F} \rightarrow M_n(\mathbb{F})$ by $\gamma(t) := 1 + tX$. Then $\gamma'(0) = X$. As such,

$$(d(d\mathrm{Ad}_\bullet)_1)_1(X) = (d(d\mathrm{Ad}_\bullet)_1)_1(\gamma'(0)) = ((d\mathrm{Ad}_\bullet)_1 \circ \gamma)'(0).$$

In particular, plugging in some $Y \in \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$, we may use Lemma 2.24 to compute that

$$\begin{aligned} \left. \frac{d}{dt}((d\mathrm{Ad}_\bullet)_1 \circ \gamma)(t)(Y) \right|_{t=0} &= \left. \frac{d}{dt}(d\mathrm{Ad}_{1+tX})_1(Y) \right|_{t=0} \\ &= \left. \frac{d}{dt}(1+tX)Y(1+tX)^{-1} \right|_{t=0} \\ &= \left. \frac{d}{dt}(1+tX)Y(1-tX+t^2X^2+\dots) \right|_{t=0} \\ &= XY - YX, \end{aligned}$$

where the series expansion takes t small enough for the series to converge. (For example, one can take t small enough so that all eigenvalues of tX are less than 1.) ■

Example 2.28. Given any embedding $G \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$ with Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g} \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$, we note that the action of G on \mathfrak{g} actually extends to an action of G on $\mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$ (still by conjugation) which happens to stabilize \mathfrak{g} . Then the action $G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(\mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F}))$ is a restriction of the adjoint action $\mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(\mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F}))$ given by conjugation still, whose differential action $\mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F}))$ we computed above to be given by $\mathrm{ad}_X: Y \mapsto XY - YX$. This restricts back to the subspace $\mathfrak{g} \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$ (via the inclusion $G \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{F})$), where we know that the action must happen to stabilize $\mathfrak{g} \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{F})$. The point is that we have computed our adjoint representation $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g})$ is given by the commutator. (Alternatively, one can redo the computation of the above proof.)

2.2.2 Lie Algebras

Here is a standard consequence of this theory.

Proposition 2.29 (Jacobi identity). Fix a Lie group G with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . Then we have the Jacobi identity

$$[X, [Y, Z]] + [Y, [Z, X]] + [Z, [X, Y]] = 0.$$

Proof. Doing some rearranging with Proposition 2.23 (and the skew-symmetry), we see that this is equivalent to plugging Z into the identity

$$\mathrm{ad}_{[X,Y]} \stackrel{?}{=} \mathrm{ad}_X \circ \mathrm{ad}_Y - \mathrm{ad}_Y \circ \mathrm{ad}_X.$$

To verify this, we note that the right-hand side is $[\mathrm{ad}_X, \mathrm{ad}_Y]$, where the commutator is taken in $\mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g})$. Thus, we are trying to show that the adjoint preserves a commutator, which we do as follows: recall that $\mathrm{Ad}_\bullet : G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(\mathfrak{g})$ is a morphism of Lie groups, meaning that the differential map ad preserves the commutator by Proposition 2.17. ■

The Jacobi identity is important enough to earn the following definition.

Definition 2.30 (Lie algebra). Fix a field k . Then a *Lie algebra* is a k -vector space \mathfrak{g} equipped with a bilinear form $[-, -] : \mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ satisfying the following.

- (a) Skew-symmetric: $[X, X] = 0$ for all $X \in \mathfrak{g}$.
- (b) Jacobi identity: for any $X, Y, Z \in \mathfrak{g}$, we have

$$[X, [Y, Z]] + [Y, [Z, X]] + [Z, [X, Y]] = 0.$$

A morphism of Lie algebras is a k -linear morphism preserving the forms.

Definition 2.31 (commutative). A Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is *commutative* if and only if $[X, Y] = 0$ for all $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$.

Example 2.32. For any k -algebra A , we produce a Lie bracket on A given by

$$[X, Y] := XY - YX.$$

This map is of course linear in both X and Y (because multiplication is k -linear in a k -algebra), and $[X, X] = X^2 - X^2 = 0$. Lastly, to see the Jacobi identity, we expand:

$$\begin{aligned} [X, [Y, Z]] + [Y, [Z, X]] + [Z, [X, Y]] &= [X, YZ - ZY] + [Y, ZX - XZ] + [Z, XY - YX] \\ &= X(YZ - ZY) - (YZ - ZY)X \\ &\quad + Y(ZX - XZ) - (ZX - XZ)Y \\ &\quad + Z(XY - YX) - (XY - YX)Z \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

For example, one can take A to be $\mathrm{End}_k(V)$ for some k -vector space V ; this produces the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$.

Example 2.33. Given a regular Lie group G , the tangent space at the identity \mathfrak{g} is a Lie algebra according to the above definition.

The above example upgrades into a functor.

Proposition 2.34. Fix a regular Lie group G . For any morphism of Lie groups $\varphi: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$, the differential $d\varphi_e: T_e G_1 \rightarrow T_e G_2$ is a (functorial) morphism of Lie algebras. In fact, if G_1 and G_2 is connected, the induced map

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathrm{LieGrp}}(G_1, G_2) \rightarrow \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathrm{Lie}(k)}(T_e G_1, T_e G_2)$$

is injective. In other words, the functor $G \rightarrow T_e G$ from connected Lie groups to Lie algebras is faithful.

Proof. The differential being a homomorphism of Lie algebras follows from Proposition 2.17. Functoriality follows from the corresponding functoriality for differentials of more general smooth maps. The injectivity follows from Corollary 2.11. ■

Remark 2.35. It turns out that the functor above is also full, though we are not in a position to show this yet.

2.2.3 Sub-algebras

Lie algebras are interesting enough to study on their own right, but we now note that we have sufficient motivation from Proposition 2.34.

Definition 2.36 (subalgebra, ideal). Fix a Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} .

- A *Lie subalgebra* $\mathfrak{h} \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$ is a subspace closed under the Lie bracket of \mathfrak{g} ; note that \mathfrak{h} continues to be a Lie algebra.
- A *Lie ideal* is a subalgebra $\mathfrak{h} \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$ with the stronger property that

$$[X, Y] \in \mathfrak{h}$$

for any $X \in \mathfrak{h}$ and $Y \in \mathfrak{g}$.

Definition 2.37 (representation). A *representation* of a Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} over a field k is a morphism $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ for some vector space V over k .

Here is how these things relate back to Lie groups.

Proposition 2.38. Fix a regular Lie subgroup H of a regular Lie group G . Let their Lie algebras be \mathfrak{h} and \mathfrak{g} , respectively.

- Then $\mathfrak{h} \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$ is a Lie subalgebra.
- If H is normal in G , then \mathfrak{h} is an ideal of \mathfrak{g} .
- If G and H are connected, and \mathfrak{h} is an ideal of \mathfrak{g} , then H is normal in G .

Proof. Here we go.

- Certainly $\mathfrak{h} \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$ is a subspace, so we want to check that $[X, Y] \in \mathfrak{h}$ for $X, Y \in \mathfrak{h}$, where the target bracket is taken in \mathfrak{g} . Consider the embedding $\varphi: H \rightarrow G$ so that $\mathfrak{h} = \mathrm{im} d\varphi_0$. Thus, we use Proposition 2.17 to see that

$$d\varphi_0([X, Y]) = [d\varphi_0(X), d\varphi_0(Y)].$$

Thus, for any $X, Y \in \mathrm{im} d\varphi_0$, we see that $[X, Y] \in \mathrm{im} d\varphi_0$, as required.

- (b) For any $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ and $Y \in \mathfrak{h}$, we want to check that $[X, Y] \in \mathfrak{h}$. By Proposition 2.23, we are asking to check that $\text{ad}_X(Y) \in \mathfrak{h}$. Well, for any $g \in G$, we see that $gHg^{-1} \subseteq H$, so the adjoint $\text{Ad}_g: G \rightarrow G$ restricts to $\text{Ad}_g: H \rightarrow H$. In particular, by taking the differential, we see that the adjoint $(d\text{Ad}_\bullet)_1: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(\mathfrak{g})$ restricts to $(d\text{Ad}_\bullet)_1: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(\mathfrak{h})$. (Namely, $(d\text{Ad}_g)_1(Y) \in \mathfrak{h}$ for any $Y \in \mathfrak{h}$.) Taking the differential of this, we see that we get our map $\text{ad}_\bullet: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{h})$, meaning that $\text{ad}_X(Y) \in \mathfrak{h}$ for any $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ and $Y \in \mathfrak{h}$.
- (c) Recall from Proposition 2.23 that

$$\text{Ad}_{\exp(X)}(Y) = \exp(\text{ad}_X Y).$$

Thus, for any $X \in \mathfrak{g}$, we see that $\text{Ad}_{\exp(X)}$ is an operator $\mathfrak{h} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$. Thus, for $g \in G$ sufficiently close to the identity, we see that $\text{Ad}_g(Y) \in \mathfrak{h}$ for $Y \in \mathfrak{h}$. Taking the exponential, Proposition 2.12 tells us that $ghg^{-1} \in H$ for $g \in G$ and $h \in H$ both sufficiently close to the identity.

Concretely, we get an open neighborhood U of the identity of G such that $ghg^{-1} \in H$ for any $g \in U$ and $h \in H \cap U$. Now, the subset of G normalizing $U \cap H$ is a subgroup of G containing U , so we see that it must be all of G because G is connected. Then the subset of H normalized by G is again a subgroup of H containing $U \cap H$, so we see that it must be all of H because H is connected. Thus, H is normal in G . ■

2.2.4 Lie Algebra of a Vector Field

One can in general provide a Lie algebra of a vector field. Fix a regular vector field $\xi: X \rightarrow TX$ on a regular manifold X . For any regular function f on an open subset $U \subseteq X$, we may define

$$(\xi f)(x) := \xi_x(f_x),$$

where we recall that $\xi_x \in T_x X$ is some derivation which outputs a number when fed a germ f_x . The point is that ξf is itself a regular function $X \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$. We are now able to define a bracket.

Proposition 2.39. Fix a regular manifold X . Given vector fields $\xi, \eta: X \rightarrow TX$, we define the Lie bracket

$$[\xi, \eta] := \xi\eta - \eta\xi.$$

Then $[-, -]$ is a derivation.

Proof. At each $x \in X$, we have certainly defined a map taking regular functions f on X and outputting an element of \mathbb{F} given by

$$[\xi, \eta]_x(f) := \xi_x(\eta f)_x - \eta_x(\xi f)_x.$$

This is certainly linear in f because ξ and η are. Further, the value of $[\xi, \eta]_x(f)$ only depends on the germ f_x because having $f_x = g_x$ for functions f and g implies $(f - g)_x = 0_x$, and then $\eta(f - g)$ and $\xi(f - g)$ both vanish in a neighborhood of x , so $[\xi, \eta]_x(f - g) = 0$.

It remains to check the product rule. Well, for regular functions f and g and some $y \in X$, we compute

$$(\eta f g)(y) = \eta_y(f_y g_y) = f(y)\eta_y(g_y) + g(y)\eta_y(f_y) = (f \cdot \eta g + g \cdot \eta f)(y),$$

and a similar computation works for ξ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \xi(\eta f g)(x) &= \xi(f \eta g + g \eta f)(x) \\ &= \xi(f \eta g)(x) + \xi(g \eta f)(x) \\ &= f(x)\xi(\eta g)(x) + (\xi f)(x)(\eta g)(x) + g(x)\xi(\eta f)(x) + (\xi g)(x)(\eta f)(x), \end{aligned}$$

and a similar computation holds for $\eta(\xi f g)(x)$. Thus, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} [\xi, \eta]_x(fg) &= f(x)\xi(\eta g)(x) + (\xi f)(x)(\eta g)(x) + g(x)\xi(\eta f)(x) + (\xi g)(x)(\eta f)(x) \\ &\quad - (f(x)\eta(\xi g)(x) + (\eta f)(x)(\xi g)(x) + g(x)\eta(\xi f)(x) + (\eta g)(x)(\xi f)(x)) \\ &= f(x)[\xi, \eta]_x g + g(x)[\xi, \eta]_x f \end{aligned}$$

after sufficient cancellation and rearranging. ■

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