

Erdmann-Wildon Lie Algebras - Introduction

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1 Notes

1.1 Definition of Lie Algebras

Let F be a field. A Lie-algebra over F is an F vector space L with a bilinear map (*Lie Bracket*) : $L \times L \rightarrow L, (x, y) \rightarrow [x, y]$ s.t.

$$[x, x] = 0 \quad [x, [y, z]] + [y, [z, x]] + [z, [x, y]] = 0$$

The Lie Bracket is commonly called the *commutator* and the second condition is known as the *Jacobi Identity*

1.2 Examples

(1) Setting $x \wedge y = (x_2y_3 - x_3y_2, x_3y_1 - x_1y_3, x_3y_2 - x_2y_3)$ denotes the Lie Algebra \mathbb{R}_\wedge^3 over \mathbb{R}^3 .

(2) The *Abelian Lie Algebra* is given by $[x, y] = 0$ for all $x, y \in L$

(3) We write $gl(V)$ for the set of all linear maps from $V \rightarrow V$. This is a vector space over F , and is called the *general lie algebra*. The Lie Bracket is defined by

$$[x, y] := x \circ y - y \circ x \text{ for } x, y \in gl(V)$$

(3') If we write $gl(n, F)$ for the vector space of all $n \times n$ matrices over F with the Lie Bracket defined by

$$[x, y] := xy - yx$$

We also note that, trivially,

$$[e_{ij}, e_{kl}] = \delta_{jk}e_{il} - \delta_{il}e_{kj}$$

where δ is the Kronecker delta, $\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

(4) Let $sl(n, F)$ is all matrices with traces of 0. This is a special linear algebra, and everything follows from (3').

(5) Let $b(n, F)$ be the upper triangular matrices. This is the same as case (4).

1.3 Subalgebras and Ideals

A *Lie Subalgebra* is defined intuitively (a vector subspace). An *ideal* is a subspace I of L s.t.

$$[x, y] \in I \quad \forall x \in L, y \in I$$

The Lie Algebra and $\{0\}$ are the trivial ideals. The centre of L is another ideal and is

$$Z(L) := \{x \in L : [x, y] = 0 \quad \forall y \in L\}$$

1.4 Homomorphisms

A map $\varphi : L_1 \rightarrow L_2$ is a *homomorphism* if it is linear and

$$\varphi([x, y]) = [\varphi(x), \varphi(y)] \quad \forall x, y \in L_1$$

It is an *isomorphism* if it is also bijective. The *adjoint homomorphism* is

$$ad : L \rightarrow gl(V) \quad (adx)(y) := [x, y]$$

adx is linear, and $x \rightarrow adx$ is also linear.

1.5 Algebras

An *algebra* over field F is a vector space A with map $A \times A \rightarrow A \quad (x, y) \rightarrow xy$ (called the *product*). It is *associative* if $(xy)z = x(yz)$ and *unital* if there exists an identity.

1.6 Derivations

A *derivation* of algebra A is an F -linear map $D : A \rightarrow A$ s.t.

$$D(a, b) = aD(b) + D(a)b \quad \forall a, b \in A$$

$DerA$ is the set of derivations of A , and is a Lie subalgebra of $gl(A)$.

Examples are given below

- (1) Let $A = C^\infty R$ be the vector space of infinitely differentiable functions $R \rightarrow R$. $(fg)(x) = f(x)g(x)$. A is an associative algebra with $Df = f'$
- (2) The map $adx : L \rightarrow L$ is a derivation of L (Lie Algebra).

1.7 Structure Constants

if L is a Lie algebra over a field F with basis (x_1, \dots, x_n) then $[-, -]$ is completely determined by the products $[x_i, x_j]$. The scalars $a_{ij}^k \in F$ s.t.

$$[x_i, x_j] = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ij}^k x_k$$

these are called the *structure constants*.

2 Exercises

Ex 1.1

- (i) This is clear since $0 \times v = 0$ and the fact that it's bilinear.
- (ii) Suppose we have $ax + by = 0$ for sake of contradiction. Then $x = -\frac{b}{a}y$ and it follows that

$$[x, y] = -\frac{b}{a}[y, y] = 0$$

Therefore, by contradiction, it follows that $[x, y] \neq 0$ means that they are linearly independent.

Ex 1.2 We check scalars and addition:

$$\begin{aligned} (\alpha x) \wedge &= (\alpha x_1, \alpha x_2, \alpha x_3) \wedge (y_1, y_2, y_3) \\ &= (\alpha x_2 y_3 - \alpha x_3 y_2, \alpha x_3 y_1 - \alpha x_1 y_3, \alpha x_2 y_1 - \alpha x_2 y_1) = \alpha(x \wedge y) \\ (x + y) \wedge z &= ((x_2 + y_2)z_3 - (x_3 + y_3)z_2, (x_3 + y_3)z_1 - (x_1 + y_1)z_3, (x_1 + y_1)z_2 - (x_2 + y_2)z_1) \\ &= (x \wedge z) + (y \wedge z) \end{aligned}$$

and the other $x \wedge (y + z)$ follows naturally. To prove the Jacobi identity, we note that

$$\begin{aligned} x \wedge (y \wedge z) &= x \wedge (y_2 z_3 - y_3 z_2, y_3 z_1 - y_1 z_3, y_1 z_2 - y_2 z_1) \\ &= (x_2(y_1 z_2 - y_2 z_1) - x_3(y_3 z_1 - y_1 z_3), x_3(y_2 z_3 - y_3 z_2) - x_1(y_1 z_2 - y_2 z_1), \\ &\quad x_1(y_3 z_1 - y_1 z_3) - x_2(y_2 z_3 - y_3 z_2)) = (x \cdot z)y - (x \cdot y)z \end{aligned}$$

Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} x \wedge (y \wedge z) + y \wedge (z \wedge x) + z \wedge (x \wedge y) &= \\ (x \cdot z)y - (x \cdot y)z + (z \cdot x)y - (y \cdot z)x + (z \cdot y)x - (z \cdot x)y &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Ex 1.3 We bash it out

$$\begin{aligned}
& [x, y \circ z - z \circ y] + [y, z \circ x - x \circ z] + [z, x \circ y - y \circ x] \\
&= x \circ y \circ z - x \circ z \circ y - y \circ z \circ x + z \circ y \circ x + y \circ z \circ x - y \circ x \circ z \\
&\quad - z \circ x \circ y + x \circ z \circ y + z \circ x \circ y - z \circ y \circ x - x \circ y \circ z + y \circ x \circ z \\
&= 0
\end{aligned}$$

Ex 1.4 This is trivial since the multiplication of two upper- Δ matrices is upper triangles, and so it addition and subtraction of these. It follows that $xy - yx$ in b and n .

Ex 1.5 We calculate

$$\begin{aligned}
& \begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & -a \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & -a \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix} = 0 \\
& \implies \begin{bmatrix} xc - yb & (w - z)b - 2xa \\ 2ya + (z - w)c & yb - xc \end{bmatrix} = 0
\end{aligned}$$

so it follows that $b = 0$, $c = 0$ and $2a = 0$. If the characteristic of F is finite and divisible by 2, then $a = \text{char}/2$, otherwise $a = 0$.

Ex 1.6 Let K be the kernel of φ , then notice $\varphi([x, k]) = [\varphi(x), \varphi(k)] = 0$ for $k \in K$, which means that $[x, k] \in K$, so K is the ideal. Similarly, let I be the image of φ . If we have $i_1, i_2 \in I$ with respective $x_1, x_2 : \varphi(x_1) = i_1$ and $\varphi(x_2) = i_2$, then $\varphi([x_1, x_2]) = [\varphi(x_1), \varphi(x_2)] = [i_1, i_2] \in I$, so it is a Lie subalgebra of L_2 .

Ex 1.7 By the Jacobi identity, we have

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

$[x, [y, z]] = [[x, y], z] \implies [y, [z, x]] = 0$, which means that $[a, b] \in Z(L)$. If $[a, b] \in Z(L)$ then the other way is apparent.

Ex 1.8

(i) We calculate

$$\begin{aligned}
[D, E](ab) &= D \circ E(ab) - E \circ D(ab) = D(aE(b) - E(a)b) - E(aD(b) - D(a)b) \\
&= a(D \circ E)(b) - D(a)E(b) - E(a)D(b) + (D \circ E)(a)b - a(E \circ D)(b) + \\
&\quad E(a)D(b) + D(a)E(b) - (E \circ D)(a)b \\
&= a(D \circ E - E \circ D)(b) + (D \circ E - E \circ D)(a)b = a[D, E](b) + [D, E](a)b
\end{aligned}$$

so it is a derivation, as desired.

(ii) This happens when $D(a)E(b) + E(a)D(b) = 0$, which doesn't normally happen.

Ex 1.9

Let the respective bases be denoted as $(x_1, \dots, x_n), (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ and the structure constants are a_{ij}^k .

The isomorphic mapping $\varphi : L_1 \rightarrow L_2$ means that

$$\varphi[x_i, x_j] = \varphi\left(\sum_{k=1}^n a_{ij}^k x_k\right) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ij}^k \varphi(x_k) = [\varphi(x_i), \varphi(x_j)]$$

and we take $y_i = \varphi(x_i)$ and see that the structure constants remain the same. If we're given the bases, then we notice that we just define the mapping $\varphi(x_i) = y_i$ and the structure constants follow.

Ex 1.10

We calculate

$$[x_i[x_j, x_k]] = [x_i, \sum_{l=1}^n a_{jk}^l x_l] = \sum_{l=1}^n a_{jk}^l [x_i, x_l] = \sum_{l=1}^n \sum_{m=1}^n a_{jk}^l a_{il}^m x_m$$

It follows that, for all $i, j, k \in F$. It follows that

$$a_{jk}^l a_{il}^m + a_{ki}^l a_{jl}^m + a_{ij}^l a_{kl}^m = 0$$

Ex 1.11

Obviously, if L_1 and L_2 are isomorphic, it means that they have the same dimension. To prove the other way, consider an arbitrary basis of L_1 $x_1 \dots x_n$ and L_2 $y_1 \dots y_n$. Since $[x_i, x_j] = 0$ and $[y_i, y_j] = 0$, then we just match $x_i \rightarrow y_i$ and this is our isomorphism.

Ex 1.12

We calculate

$$\begin{aligned} [e, f] &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \\ [e, h] &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ [f, h] &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

and so our coefficients are $a_{ef}^h = 1, a_{eh}^e = -2, a_{fh}^f = 2$ and the reverse coefficients are $a_{fe}^h = -1, a_{he}^e = 2, a_{hf}^f = -2$.

Ex 1.13

Examine the basis for $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$. It is given by, as shown above

$$e = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, f = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, h = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Notice that $[e, f] = h, [e, h] = -2e, [f, h] = 2f$. Furthermore, note that, in an ideal which contains some one or two of e, f, h must contain all three, meaning there is no non-trivial ideal.

Ex 1.14

(i) The basis we wish to examine for the antisymmetric matrices of $gl(3, \mathbb{C})$ are

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} z = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and we calculate that the structure constants are equivalent. This implies the isomorphism between the two Lie Algebras.

(ii) We first set $\varphi(h) = cx$ for some constant x . Taking f to be $\alpha x + \beta y + \gamma z$, we find that

$$\varphi([f, h]) = [\varphi(f), \varphi(h)] = [\alpha x + \beta y + \gamma z, cx] = \gamma \bar{c}y - \beta \bar{c}z = 2\alpha x + 2\beta y + 2\gamma z$$

solving we find that $\gamma = \pm \beta i$, and that we can set $\alpha = 0, \gamma = 1, \beta = i$, and $c = 2i$. Similarly, we can calculate the coefficients for e and find that

$$\varphi(h) = 2iz, \varphi(f) = ix + y, \varphi(e) = -ix + y$$

as our isomorphic mapping.

Ex 1.15

(i) For $x, y \in gl_S(n, F)$, we calculate that

$$[x, y]S = (xy - yx)^t S = (y^t x^t - x^t y^t)S = y^t x^t S - x^t y^t S = Syx - Sxy = -S[x, y]$$

so it follows that $[x, y] \in gl_S(n, F)$ and that it is a Lie sub-algebra.

(ii) We find that

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = - \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \implies c = 0, b = 0, a + d = 0$$

so our subspace is of dimension 1 and has a basis

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(iii) No. To see this, we denote $S = \begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix}$. If we let $x = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$, we find that

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix} &= - \begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} \\ \implies \begin{bmatrix} 2aw & (a+b)x \\ (a+b)y & 2bz \end{bmatrix} &= 0 \implies w, x, y, z = 0 \end{aligned}$$

But this means holds for all matrices, not just the diagonal matrices.

(iv) We wish to prove $gl_S(3, \mathbb{R})$ is isomorphic to the Lie subalgebra of $gl(3, \mathbb{C})$ consisting of antisymmetric matrices. We'll just prove that $gl_S(3, \mathbb{R})$ is the same as $gl(3, \mathbb{C})$.

We examine the bases

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and find that, if $S = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$, that $a = e = i$ and $b + d = 0, c + g = 0, h + f = 0$. Further examining for bases

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

we find that no value is 0. We see that any matrix, such as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

satisfies our requirement.

Ex 1.16 This is obvious as it would not necessarily imply that $[x, x] = 0$ since $[x, x] = 0/2$.

Ex 1.17

We apply a change of variables to diagonalize the matrix. We have $x = P^{-1}AP$ for some diagonal eigenvalue matrix A . We also write $B = PYP^{-1}$ and find that $(adx)y = xy - yx = P^{-1}(AB - BA)P$.

y is an eigenvector precisely when $AB - BA$ is λB for some eigenvalue λ . If we let B to be a matrix that is zero except for some non zero value at i, j then our eigenvector is precisely $\lambda_i - \lambda_j$.

These y form a basis of L and it follows that we can diagonalize adx with eigenvectors $\lambda_i - \lambda_j$.

Ex 1.18

We suppose we are given derivation D and adx . We find that

$$\begin{aligned} [D, adx]y &= D[x, y] - [x, Dy] = D(xy - yx) - (xDy - Dyx) \\ &= xDy + Dxy - yDx - Dyx - xDy + Dyx = ad(Dx) \in \text{IDer}L \end{aligned}$$

so it follows that $\text{IDer}L$ is an ideal of $\text{Der}L$.

Ex 1.19

We prove this by induction.

For $n = 1$, it is clear that $\delta(xy) = x\delta(y) + \delta(x)y$.

For the inductive step, assume the equality holds for value n . we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \delta^n(xy) &= \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} \delta^r(x) \delta^{n-r}(y) \\ \implies \delta^{n+1}(xy) &= \delta\left(\sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} \delta^r(x) \delta^{n-r}(y)\right) \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} \delta^r(x) \delta^{n-r+1}(y) + \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} \delta^{r+1}(x) \delta^{n-r}(y) \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^{n+1} \binom{n+1}{r} \delta^r(x) \delta^{n+1-r}(y) \end{aligned}$$

as desired.