Lie Algebras

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Contents

1 Lecture 1

> The material for this class will roughly come from Humphrey, Chapters 1 to 5. There is also a useful appendix which has been uploaded to the ELC system online.

1.1 Overview

Here is a short overview of the topics we expect to cover:

1.1.1 Chapter 2

- Ideals, solvability, and nilpotency
- Semisimple Lie algebras
  - These have a particularly nice structure and representation theory
- Determining if a Lie algebra is semisimple using Killing forms
- Weyl's theorem for complete reducibility for finite dimensional representations
- Root space decompositions

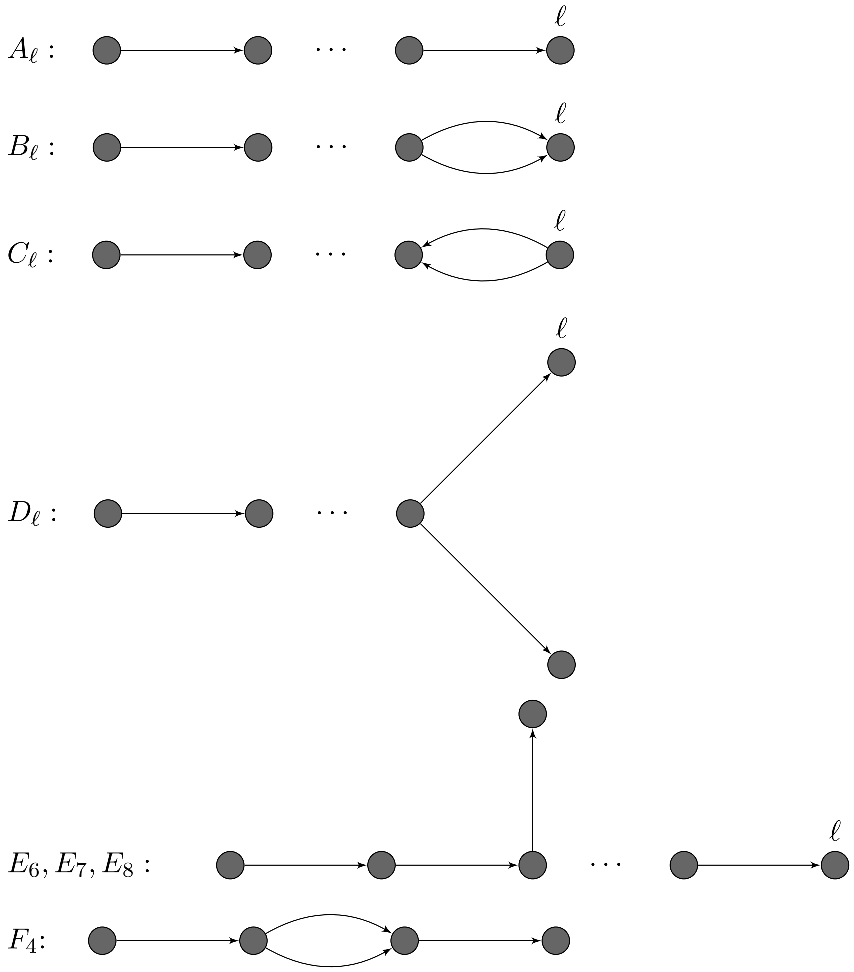
1.1.2 Chapter 3-4

We will describe the following series of correspondences:

$$
\begin{tikzcd}
\text{Semisimple algebras} \arrow[r, Leftrightarrow] & \text{Root systems} \arrow[r, Leftrightarrow] & \text{Dynkin diagrams} \\
\text{Simple algebras over } \mathbb{C} \arrow[r, Leftrightarrow] \arrow[u, Rightarrow, "\bigoplus"] & \text{Irreducible root systems} \arrow[r, Leftrightarrow] \arrow[u, Rightarrow, "\coprod"] & \text{Connected Dynkin diagrams} \arrow[u, Rightarrow, "\coprod"]
\end{tikzcd}
$$

1.2 Classification

The classical Lie algebras can be essentially classified by certain classes of diagrams:



1.3 Chapters 4-5

These cover the following topics:

- Conjugacy classes of Cartan subalgebras
- The PBW theorem for the universal enveloping algebra
- Serre relations

1.3.1 Chapter 6

Some import topics include:

- Weight space decompositions
- Finite dimensional modules
- Character and the Harish-Chandra theorem
- The Weyl character formula
    - This will be computed for the specific Lie algebras seen earlier

We will also see the type A_ℓ algebra used for the first time; however, it differs from the other types in several important/significant ways.

1.3.2 Chapter 7

Skip!

1.3.3 Topics

Time permitting, we may also cover the following extra topics:

- Infinite dimensional Lie algebras [Carter 05]
- BGG Cat-$\mathcal{O}$ [Humphrey 08]

1.4 Content

Fix F a field of characteristic zero – note that prime characteristic is closer to a research topic.

Definition 1. A **Lie Algebra** $\mathfrak{g}$ over F is an F-vector space with an operation denoted the Lie bracket,

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

satisfying the following properties:

- $[\,\cdot\,,\,\cdot\,]$ is bilinear
- $[x, x] = 0$
- The Jacobi identity:

$$[x, [y, z]] + [y, [x, z]] + [z, [x, y]] = \mathbf{0}.$$

Exercise 1. Show that $[x, y] = -[y, x]$.

Definition 2. Two Lie algebras $\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}'$ are said to be isomorphic if $\varphi([x, y]) = [\varphi(x), \varphi(y)]$.

1.5 Linear Lie Algebras

Let $V = \mathbb{F}^n$, and define $\mathrm{End}(V) = \{f : V \to V \ni V \text{ is linear}\}$. We can then define $\mathfrak{gl}(n, V)$ by setting $[x, y] = (x \circ y) - (y \circ x)$.

Exercise 2. Verify that V is a Lie algebra.

Definition 3. Define

$$\mathfrak{sl}(n, V) = \{f \in \mathfrak{gl}(n, V) \ni \mathrm{Tr}(f) = 0\}.$$

(Note the different in definition compared to the lie *group* $\mathrm{SL}(n, V)$.).

Definition 4. A *subalgebra* of a Lie algebra is a vector subspace that is closed under the bracket.

Definition 5. The symplectic algebra

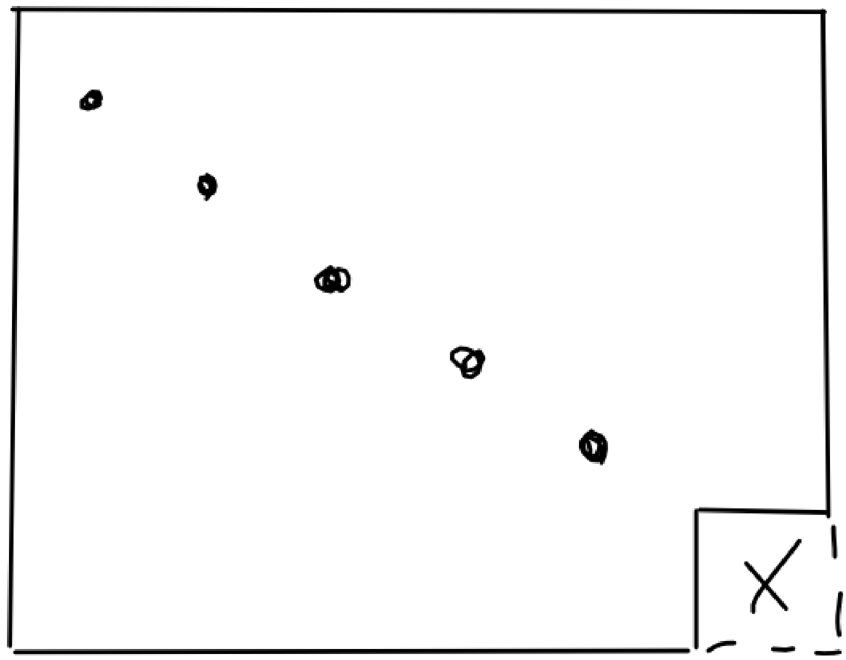
$$\mathfrak{sp}(2\ell, F) = \left\{A \in \mathfrak{gl}(2\ell, F) \ni MA - A^T M = 0\right\} \text{ where } M = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} 0 & I_n \\ \hline -I_n & 0 \end{array}\right).$$

Definition 6. The orthogonal algebra

$$\mathfrak{so}(2\ell, F) = \left\{A \in \mathfrak{gl}(2\ell, F) \ni MA - A^T M = 0\right\} \text{ where}$$
$$M = \begin{cases} \left(\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & \begin{array}{c|c} 0 & I_n \\ \hline -I_n & 0 \end{array} \end{array}\right) & n = 2\ell + 1 \text{ odd}, \\ \left(\begin{array}{c|c} 0 & I_n \\ \hline -I_n & 0 \end{array}\right) & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

Proposition 7. The dimensions of these algebras can be computed;

- The dimension of $\mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{F})$ is n^2, and has basis $\{e_{i,j}\}$ the matrices if a 1 in the i, j position and



zero elsewhere.

- For type A_ℓ, we have $\dim \mathfrak{sl}(n, \mathbb{F}) = (\ell+1)^2 - 1$.
- For type C_ℓ, we have $||\mathfrak{sp}(n, \mathbb{F}) = \ell^2 + 2\left(\frac{\ell(\ell+1)}{2}\right)$, and so elements here

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B = B^t \\ C = C^t & A^t \end{pmatrix}.$$

- For type D_ℓ we have

$$||\mathfrak{so}(2\ell, \mathbb{F}) = \dim \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} A & B = -B^t \\ C = -C^t & -A^t \end{pmatrix} \right\},$$

which turns out to be $2\ell^2 - \ell$.

- For type B_ℓ, we have $\dim \mathfrak{so}(2\ell, \mathbb{F}) = 2\ell^2 - \ell + 2\ell = 2\ell^2 + \ell$, with elements of the form

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|cc} 0 & M & N \\ \hline -N^t & A & C = C^t \\ -M^t & B = B^t & -A^t \end{array}\right).$$

Exercise 3. Use the relation $MA = A^{tM}$ to reduce restrictions on the blocks.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
 & & \mathfrak{so}(6) & \\
 & & \mathfrak{so}(5) \arrow[dr] & \\
\mathfrak{sl}(4) \arrow[uurr] & \mathfrak{sl}(2)^2 \arrow[r] & \mathfrak{so}(4) & \mathfrak{sp}(4) \\
 & & \mathfrak{so}(3) & \\
 & \mathfrak{sl}(2) \arrow[ur] & & \mathfrak{sp}(2) \arrow[ul]
\end{tikzcd}$$

Theorem 8. These are *all* of the isomorphisms between any of these types of algebras, in any dimension.

2 Lecture 2

Recall from last time that a Lie Algebra is a vector space with a bilinear bracket, which importantly satisfies the Jacobi identity:

$$[x, [y, z]] + [y, [x, z]] + [z, [x, y]] = \mathbf{0}.$$

Also recall the examples from last time:

- $A_\ell \iff \mathfrak{sl}(\ell + 1, F)$
- $B_\ell \iff \mathfrak{so}(2\ell + 1, F)$
- $C_\ell \iff \mathfrak{sp}(2\ell, F)$
- $D_\ell \iff \mathfrak{so}(2\ell, F)$

Exercise 4. Characterize these matrix subalgebras in terms of basis elements, and compute their dimensions.

2.1 Lie Algebras of Derivations

Definition 9. An F**-algebra** A is an F-vector space endowed with a bilinear map $A^2 \to A$, $(x, y) \mapsto xy$.

Definition 10. An algebra is **associative** if $x(yz) = (xy)z$.

Modern interest: simple Lie algebras, which have a good representation theory. Take a look a Erdmann-Wildon (Springer) for an introductory look at 3-dimensional algebras.

Definition 11. Any map $\delta : A^2 \to A$ that satisfies the Leibniz rule is called a **derivation** of A, where the rule is given by $\delta(xy) = \delta(x)y + x\delta(y)$.

Definition 12. We define $\mathrm{Der}(A) = \{\delta \ni \delta \text{ is a derivation }\}$.

Any Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ is an F-algebra, since $[\,\cdot\,,\,\cdot\,]$ is bilinear. Moreover, $\mathfrak{g}$ is associative iff $[x,[y,z]] = 0$.

Exercise 5. Show that $\mathrm{Der}\mathfrak{g} \leq \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g})$ is a Lie subalgebra. One needs to check that $\delta_1, \delta_2 \in \mathfrak{g} \implies [\delta_1, \delta_2] \in \mathfrak{g}$.

Exercise 6 (Turn in)**.** Define the adjoint by $\mathrm{ad}_x : \mathfrak{g}\circlearrowleft,\ y \mapsto [x,y]$. Show that $\mathrm{ad}_x \in \mathrm{Der}(\mathfrak{g})$.

2.2 Abstract Lie Algebras

Fact: Every finite-dimensional Lie algebra is isomorphic to a linear Lie algebra, i.e. a subalgebra of $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$. Each isomorphism type can be specified by certain *structure constants* for the Lie bracket.

Example 13. Any F-vector space can be made into a Lie algebra by setting $[x,y] = 0$; such algebras are referred to as *abelian.*

Attempting to classify Lie algebras of dimension at most 2.

- 1 dimensional: We can write $\mathfrak{g} = Fx$, and so $[x,x] = 0 \implies [\,\cdot\,,\,\cdot\,] = 0$. So every bracket must be zero, and thus every Lie algebra is abelian.
- 2 dimensional: Write $\mathfrak{g} = Fx \oplus Fy$, the only nontrivial bracket here is $[x,y]$. Some cases:
  - $[x,y] = 0 \implies \mathfrak{g}$ is abelian.
  - $[x,y] = ax + by \neq 0$. Assume $a \neq 0$ and set $x' = ax + by, y' = \frac{y}{a}$. Now compute $[x', y'] = [ax + by, \frac{y}{a}] = [x,y] = ax + by = x'$. Punchline: $\mathfrak{g} \cong Fx' \oplus Fy', [x', y'] = x'$.

We can fill in a table with all of the various combinations of brackets:

$[\,\cdot\,,\,\cdot\,]$	x'	y'
x'	0	x'
y'	$-x'$	0

Example 14. Let $V = \mathbb{R}^3$, and define $[a,b] = a \times b$ to be the usual cross product.

Exercise 7. Look at notes for basis elements of $\mathfrak{sl}(2,F)$,

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

Compute the matrices of $\mathrm{ad}(e), \mathrm{ad}(h), \mathrm{ad}(g)$ with respect to this basis.

2.3 Ideals

Definition 15. A subspace $I \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$ is called an **ideal**, and we write $I \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$, if $x, y \in I \implies [x,y] \in I$.

Note that there is no need to distinguish right, left, or two-sided ideals. This can be shown using $[x,y] = [-y,x]$.

Exercise 8. Check that the following are all ideals of $\mathfrak{g}$:

- $\{0\}, \mathfrak{g}$.
- $\mathfrak{z}(\mathfrak{g}) = \{z \in \mathfrak{g} \ni [x, z] = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathfrak{g}\}$
- The commutator (or derived) algebra $[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}] = \{\sum_i [x_i, y_i] \ni x_i, y_i \in \mathfrak{g}\}$.
  - Moreover, $[\mathfrak{gl}(n, F), \mathfrak{gl}(n, F)] = \mathfrak{sl}(n, F)$.

Fact: If $I, J \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$, then

- $I + J = \{x + y \ni x \in I, y \in J\} \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$
- $I \bigcap J \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$
- $[I, J] = \{\sum_i [x_i, y_i] \ni x_i \in I, y_i \in J\} \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$

Definition 16. A Lie algebra is **simple** if $[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}] \neq 0$ (i.e. when $\mathfrak{g}$ is not abelian) and has no non-trivial ideals. Note that this implies that $[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}] = \mathfrak{g}$.

Theorem 17. Suppose that char $F \neq 2$, then $\mathfrak{sl}(2, F)$ is not simple.

Proof. Recall that we have a basis of $\mathfrak{sl}(2, F)$ given by $B = \{e, h, f\}$ where

- $[e, f] = h$,
- $[h, e] = 2e$,
- $[h, f] = -2f$.

So think of $[h, e] = \mathrm{ad}_h$, so h is an eigenvector of this map with eigenvalues $\{0, \pm 2\}$. Since char $F \neq 2$, these are all distinct. Suppose $\mathfrak{sl}(2, F)$ has a nontrivial ideal I; then pick $x = ae + bh + cf \in I$. Then $[e, x] = 0 - 2be + ch$, and $[e, [e, x]] = 0 - 0 + 2ce$. Again since char $F \neq 2$, then if $c \neq 0$ then $e \in I$. Now you can show that $h \in I$ and $f \in I$, but then $I = \mathfrak{sl}(2, F)$, a contradiction. So $c = 0$.

Then $x = bh \neq 0$, so $h \in I$, and we can compute

$$\begin{aligned} 2e = [h, e] \in I &\implies e \in I, \\ 2f = [h, -f] \in I &\implies f \in I. \end{aligned}$$

which implies that $I = \mathfrak{sl}(2, F)$ and thus it is simple.

□

Note that there is a homework coming due next Monday, about 4 questions.

3 Lecture 3

Last time, we looked at ideals such as $0, \mathfrak{g}, Z(\mathfrak{g})$, and $[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]$.

Definition: If $I \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ is an ideal, then the quotient $\mathfrak{g}/I$ also yields a Lie algebra with the bracket given by $[x + I, y + I] = [x, y] + I$.

Exercise: Check that this is well-defined, so that if $x + I = x' + I$ and $y + I = y' + I$ then $[x, y] + I = [x', y'] + I$.

3.1 Homomorphisms and Representations

Definition 18. A linear map $\phi : \mathfrak{g}_1 \to \mathfrak{g}_2$ is a *Lie homomorphism* if $\phi[x, y] = [\phi(x), \phi()]$.

Remark. $\ker \phi \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}_1$ and $\operatorname{im} \phi \leq \mathfrak{g}_2$ is a subalgebra.

Fact: There is a canonical way to set up a 1-to-1 correspondence $\{I \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}\} \iff \{\hom \phi : \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{g}'\}$ where $I \mapsto (x \mapsto x + I)$ and the inverse is given by $\phi \mapsto \ker \phi$.

Theorem (Isomorphism theorem for Lie algebras):

- If $\phi : \mathfrak{g}_1 \to \mathfrak{g}_2$ is a Lie algebra homomorphism, then $\mathfrak{g}/\ker \phi \cong \operatorname{im} \phi$
- If $I, J \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ are ideals and $I \subset J$ then $J/I \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}g/I$ and $(\mathfrak{g}/I)/(J/I) \cong \mathfrak{g}/J$.
- If $I, J \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ then $(I + J)/J \cong I/(I \bigcap J)$.

Definition: A *representation* of a Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ is a Lie algebra homomorphism $\phi : \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ into a linear Lie algebra for some vector space V.

We call V a $\mathfrak{g}$-module with action $g \cdot v = \phi(g)(v)$.

Example: The *adjoint representation*:

$$\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{ad} : \mathfrak{g} &\to \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g}) \\
x &\mapsto [x, \cdot\,].
\end{aligned}$$

Corollary 19. Any simple Lie algebra is isomorphic to a linear Lie algebra.

Proof: Since $\mathfrak{g}$ is simple, the center $Z(\mathfrak{g}) = 0$. We can rewrite the center as

$$\begin{aligned}
Z(\mathfrak{g}) = \Big\{ x \in \mathfrak{g} \ni \operatorname{ad}_{x(y)} = 0 \quad \forall y \in \mathfrak{g} \Big\} \\
= \ker \operatorname{ad}_x.
\end{aligned}$$

Using the first isomorphism theorem, we have $\mathfrak{g}/Z(\mathfrak{g}) \cong \operatorname{im} \operatorname{ad} \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g})$. But $\mathfrak{g}/Z(\mathfrak{g}) = \mathfrak{g}$ here, so we are done.

3.2 Automorphisms

Definition: An automorphism of $\mathfrak{g}$ is an isomorphism $\mathfrak{g}\circlearrowleft$, and we define

$$\operatorname{Aut}(\mathfrak{g}) = \{\phi : \mathfrak{g}\circlearrowleft \ \ni \phi \text{ is an isomorphism } \}.$$

Proposition: If $\delta \in \operatorname{Der}(\mathfrak{g})$ is nilpotent, then

$$\exp(\delta) := \sum \frac{\delta^n}{n!} \in \operatorname{Aut}(\mathfrak{g}).$$

This is well-defined because δ is nilpotent, and a binomial formula holds:

$$\frac{\delta^{n([x,y])}}{n!} = \sum_{i=0}^{n}[\frac{\delta^i(x)}{i!}, \frac{\delta^{n-i}(y)}{(n-i)!}].$$

and for $n = 1, \delta([x,y]) = [x, \delta(y)] + [\delta(x), y]$.

Exercise: Show that

$$[(\exp\delta)(x), (\exp\delta)(y)] = \sum_{n=0}^{k-1} \frac{\delta^n([x,y])}{n!}.$$

Example: Let $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{F})$ and define

$$s = \exp(\mathrm{ad}_e)\exp(\mathrm{ad}_{-f})\exp(\mathrm{ad}_e) \in \mathrm{Aut}\mathfrak{g}.$$

where e, f are defined as (todo, see written notes).

Then define the Weyl group $W = \langle s \rangle$.

Exercise: Check that $s(e) = -f, s(f) = -e, s(h) = -h$, and so the order of s is 2 and $W = \{1, s\}$.

4 Lecture 4

4.1 Solvability

Idea: Define a semisimple Lie algebra

Definition: The derived series for $\mathfrak{g}$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathfrak{g}^{(0)} &= \mathfrak{g} \\
\mathfrak{g}^{(1)} &= [\mathfrak{g}^{(0)}, \mathfrak{g}^{(0)}] \\
&\cdots \\
\mathfrak{g}^{(i+1)} &= [\mathfrak{g}^{(i)}, \mathfrak{g}^{(i)}].
\end{aligned}$$

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

Exercise (to turn in): Check that the Lie algebra of upper triangular matrices in $\mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{F})$.

Example: Abelian Lie algebras are solvable

Example: Simple Lie algebras are *not* solvable.

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

1. If $\mathfrak{g}$ is solvable, then all subalgebras and all homomorphic images of $\mathfrak{g}$ are also solvable.

2. If $I \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ and both I and $\mathfrak{g}/I$ are solvable, then so is $\mathfrak{g}$.
3. If $I, J \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ are solvable, then so is $I + J$.

Corollary (of part 3 above): Any Lie algebra has a unique maximal solvable ideal, which we denote the *radical* $\mathrm{Rad}(\mathfrak{g})$.

Definition: A Lie algebra is semisimple if $\mathrm{Rad}(\mathfrak{g}) = 0$.

Example: Any simple Lie algebra is semisimple.

Example: Using part (2) above, we can deduce that we can construct a semisimple Lie algebra from *any* Lie algebra: for any $\mathfrak{g}$, the quotient $\mathfrak{g}/\mathrm{Rad}(\mathfrak{g})$ is semisimple.

4.2 Nilpotency

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{g}^0 &= \mathfrak{g} \\ \mathfrak{g}^1 &= [\mathfrak{g}^0, \mathfrak{g}^0] \\ &\cdots \\ \mathfrak{g}^{i+1} &= [\mathfrak{g}^i, \mathfrak{g}^i]. \end{aligned}$$

Much like the previous case, we have

Example: Abelian Lie algebras are nilpotent.

Example: Nilpotent Lie algebras are solvable.

Example: The *strictly* upper triangular matrices (with zero on the diagonal) are nilpotent.

1. If $\mathfrak{g}$ is nilpotent, then all subalgebras and all homomorphic images of $\mathfrak{g}$ are also nilpotent.
2. If $\mathfrak{g}/Z(\mathfrak{g})$ is nilpotent, then so is $\mathfrak{g}$.
3. If $\mathfrak{g} \neq 0$ is nilpotent, then $Z(\mathfrak{g}) \neq 0$.

Claim: If $\mathfrak{g}$ is nilpotent, then $\mathrm{ad}_x \in \mathrm{End}(\mathfrak{g})$ is nilpotent for all $x \in \mathfrak{g}$.

Proof: This is because $\mathfrak{g}^n = 0 \iff [\mathfrak{g}, [\mathfrak{g}, [\mathfrak{g}, \cdots]]] = 0$, and so for every $x_i, y \in \mathfrak{g}$ we have $[x_1, [x_2, \cdots [x_n, y]]] = 0$, and so $\mathrm{ad}_{x_1} \circ \mathrm{ad}_{x_2} \circ \cdots \mathrm{ad}_{x_n} = 0$ which implies that $\mathrm{ad}_x^n = 0$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{g}$.

Theorem [Engel]: If ad_x is nilpotent for all $x \in \mathfrak{g}$, then $\mathfrak{g}$ is nilpotent.

> Remark: This can be confusing if $\mathfrak{g}$ is a linear algebra, we can consider elements $x \in \mathfrak{g}$ and ask if it is the case x being nilpotent (as an endomorphism) iff $\mathfrak{g}g$ is nilpotent? False, a counterexample is $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{gl}(2, \mathbb{C})$, where there exists an x which is *not* nilpotent while ad_x *is* nilpotent, which contradicts the above theorem.

Proof:

Lemma: Let $\mathfrak{g} \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ be a Lie subalgebra for some finite dimensional vector space V. If x is nilpotent as an endomorphism on V for all $x \in V$, then there exists a nonzero vector $v \in V$ such that $\mathfrak{g}v = 0$, so $x \in \mathfrak{g} \implies x(v) = 0$.

Proof of lemma Use induction on $\dim \mathfrak{g}$, splitting into two separate base cases: - Case $\dim \mathfrak{g} = 0$, then $\mathfrak{g} = \{0\}$. - Case $\dim g = 1$, left as an exercise.

Inductive step: Let A be a maximal proper subalgebra and define $\phi : A \to \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g}/A)$ where $a \mapsto (x + A \mapsto [a, x] + A)$. We need to check that ϕ is a homomorphism, this just follows from using the Jacobi identity.

We also need to show that im $\phi \leq \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g}/a)$ is a Lie subalgebra, and $\dim \text{im } \phi < \dim \mathfrak{g}$. The claim is that $\phi(a) \in \text{End}(\mathfrak{g}/A)$ is nilpotent for all $a \in A$. By the inductive hypothesis, there is a nonzero coset $y + A \in \mathfrak{g}/A$ such that $(\text{im } \phi) \cdot (y + A) = A$. Since $y \notin A$, then $\phi(a)(y + A) = A$ for all $a \in A$, and so $[a, y] \in A$.

We want to show that A is a subalgebra of codimension 1, and $A \oplus F_y \leq \mathfrak{g}$ is a Lie subalgebra. This is because $[a_1 + c_1 y, a_2 + c_2 y] = [a_1, a_2] + c_2[a_1, y] - c_2[a_2, y] + c_1 c_2[y, y]$. The last term is zero, the middle two terms are in A, and because A is closed under the bracket, the first term is in A as well.

But then $A \oplus F_y$ is a larger subalgebra than A, which was maximal, so it must be everything. So $A \oplus F_y = \mathfrak{g}$. So $A \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ because $[a_1, a_2 + cy]$ is in $A, A \oplus F_y = \mathfrak{g}$ respectively, and this equals $[a_1, a_2] + c[a_1, y]$, where both terms are in A.

Proof to be continued on Friday!

5 Lecture 5

Last time: we had a theorem that said that if $\mathfrak{g} \in \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ and every $x \in \mathfrak{g}$ is nilpotent, then there exists a nonzero $v \in V$ such that $\mathfrak{g}v = 0$.

We proceeded by induction on the dimension of V, constructing im $\phi \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g}/A)$, and showed that $\mathfrak{g} = A \oplus Fy$. Now consider

$$W = \{v \in V \ni Av = 0\},$$

which is $\mathfrak{g}$-invariant, so $\mathfrak{g}(W) \subseteq W$, or for all $a \in A, x \in \mathfrak{g}, v \in W$, we have $a \curvearrowright x(v) = 0$. This is true because $a \curvearrowright x = x \circ a + [a, x] \in \mathfrak{gl}(V)$. But V is killed by any element in A, and both of these terms are in A. In particular, the y appearing in Fy also satisfies $y \in W$. Consider $y|_W \in \text{End}(w)$, and we want to apply the inductive hypothesis to $Fy|_W \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}(V)$.

We need to check that $y|_W \in \text{End}(V)$, which is true exactly because y is nilpotent. So we can construct a nonzero $v \in W \subset V$ such that $y(v) = 0$, and so $\mathfrak{g}v = 0$.

Claim: $\phi(a) \in \text{End}(\mathfrak{g}/A)$ is nilpotent. Each $a \in A \subset \mathfrak{g}$ is nilpotent by assumption. Define the maps for left multiplication by a, $m_\ell : x \mapsto ax$, and the right multiplication $m_r : x \mapsto xa$. These are nilpotent, and since m_ℓ, m_r commute, the difference $m_\ell - m_r$ is nilpotent, and this is exactly ad_a. But then $\phi(a)$ is nilpotent.

Good proof for using all of the definitions!

Now we can see what the consequences of having such a nonzero vector are. This theorem implies Engel's theorem, which says that if $\text{ad}_x \in \text{End}(\mathfrak{g})$ is nilpotent for every $x \in \mathfrak{g}$, then $\mathfrak{g}$ is nilpotent.

Proof: By induction on dimension. The base case is easy. For the inductive step, the previous theorem applies to $\text{ad}g \subset \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g})$. So we can produce the nonzero $v \in \mathfrak{g}$ such that $\text{ad}\mathfrak{g}v = 0$. Then $[x, v] = 0$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{g}$, so either $v \in Z(\mathfrak{g})$ or $Z(\mathfrak{g}) \neq 0$. In either case, $\mathfrak{g}/Z(\mathfrak{g})$ has smaller dimension.

Since ad_x is nilpotent, so is $\mathrm{ad}_x + Z(\mathfrak{g})$, and so $\mathfrak{g}/Z(\mathfrak{g})$ is nilpotent. By an earlier proposition, since the quotient is nilpotent, so is the total space. $\square$

Let $\mathfrak{N}(F)$ be the subalgebra of $\mathfrak{gl}(F)$ consisting of strictly upper triangular matrices. We have a corollary: if $\mathfrak{g} \subset \mathfrak{gl}(n, F)$ is a Lie subalgebra such every $x \in \mathfrak{g}$ is nilpotent as an endomorphism of F, then the matrices of $\mathfrak{g}$ with respect to some bases of in $\mathfrak{N}(n, F)$.

The proof is by induction on n, where the base case is easy. For the inductive step, we use the previous theorem to get a v_1 such that $x(v_1) = 0$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{g}$. Let $\overline{V} = F^n/Fv_1 \cong F^{n-1}$, and define $\phi : \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{gl}(\overline{V})$ where $x \mapsto (\overline{y} \mapsto \overline{y(x)})$.

Then $\mathrm{im}\, \phi \leq \mathfrak{gl}(n-1, F)$ as a subalgebra, and every $\phi(x) \in \mathrm{End}(F^{n-1})$ is nilpotent, since x was nilpotent on the larger space. But (see notes) then x can be written as a strictly upper-triangular matrix.

5.1 Chapter 2: Semisimple Lie Algebras

We now assume $\mathrm{char}\, F = 0$ and $\overline{F} = F$.

Theorem: If $\mathfrak{g}$ is a solvable Lie subalgebra of $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$ for some finite dimensional V, then V contains a common eigenvector for a $x \in \mathfrak{g}$, i.e. a $\lambda : \mathfrak{g} \to F, x \mapsto \lambda(x)$ such that $x(v) = \lambda(x)v$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{g}$.

Proof: We will use induction on the dimension of $\mathfrak{g}$. For the inductive step:

Claim 1: There is an ideal $A \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ such that $\mathfrak{g} = A \oplus Fy$ for some $y \neq 0$, so A is a subalgebra of a solvable Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ and thus solvable itself. By hypothesis, we can produce a $w \in V \setminus \{0\}$, and thus a functional $\lambda : A \to F$ such that $aw = \lambda(a)w$ for all $a \in A$. So we define

$$V_\lambda = \{v \in V \ni av = \lambda(a)v \forall a \in A\}$$

where $w \in V_\lambda$.

Claim 2: $y(V_\lambda) \subseteq V_\lambda$, or $y|_{V_\lambda} \in \mathrm{End}(V_\lambda)$.

Thus $F(y|_{V_\lambda}) \leq \mathfrak{gl}(V_\lambda)$ is a Lie algebra of dimension 1, and thus solvable. By the inductive hypothesis, we can find a $v \in V_\lambda$ and some $\mu \in F$ such that $y(v) = \mu v$. An arbitrary element $x \in \mathfrak{g}$ can be written as $x = a + cy$ for some $a \in A, c \in F$ and it acts by $x(v) = a(v) + cy(v) = \lambda(a)v + c\mu v = (\lambda(a) + c)v \in V_\lambda$.

6 Lecture n+1

Todo

7 Lecture n+2

Definition (Jordan Decomposition)

Let $X \in \mathrm{End}(V)$ for V finite dimensional. Then,

(a) There exists a unique $X_s, X_n \in \mathrm{End}(V)$ such that $X = X_s + X_n$ where X_s is semisimple, X_n is nilpotent, and $[X_s, X_n] = 0$.

(b) There exists a $p(t), q(t) \in t\mathbb{F}[t]$ such that $X_s = p(X), X_n = q(X)$.

(Polynomials with no constant term.)

Proof of (a): Assume $X_s = X_s + X_n = X_s' + X_n'$, so both have bracket zero. Assuming that (b) holds, we have $X_s = p(X)$, and so

$$[X, X_s] = [X_s + X_n', X_s'] = [X_s', X_s'] + [X_s', X_n'] = 0 \implies [p(X), X_S'] = 0 = [X_s, X_s']$$

Using fact (c) from last time, then X_s, X_s' can be diagonalized simultaneously, and so $X_s - X_s'$ is semisimple.

On the other hand, if X_n', X_n are nilpotent, and since these commute, $X_n - X_n'$ is nilpotent. But then this is a Jordan decomposition of the zero map, i.e.

$$0 = X - X = (X_s - X_s') + (X_n + X_n')$$

where the first term is semisimple and the second is nilpotent. Then each term is both semisimple *and* nilpotent, so they must be zero, which is what we wanted to show.

Proof of part (b): Let $m(t) = \prod_{i=1}^{r} (t - \lambda_i)^{m_i}$ be the minimal polynomial of X, where each $m_i \geq 1$ and the λ_i are distinct. Then the primary composition of V is given by

$$V = \bigoplus_{i=1}^{r} V_i, \quad V_i = \ker(X - \lambda_i I_V) \neq 0, \quad X(V_i) \subseteq V_i$$

Claim: There exists a polynomail $p \in F[t]$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} p &= \lambda \mod (t - \lambda_i)^{m_i} \quad \forall i, \\ p &= 0 \mod t. \end{aligned}$$

The existence follows from the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

What is $p(x) \curvearrowright V_i$? This acts by scalar multiplication by λ_i for all i. (Check). Because of the restrictive conditions, $p(x)$ has no constant term.

So $p(X) = X_s$ is the semisimple part we want. Now just set $q(t) = t - p(t)$, then $X_n := q(X) = X - X_s$ is nilpotent.

Example: The Jordan Decomposition is invariant under taking adjoints.

If we have $X = X_s + X_n$, then $\mathrm{ad}_X \in \mathrm{End}(\mathrm{End}(V))$. It can be shown that $(\mathrm{ad}_X)_s + (\mathrm{ad}_X)_n = \mathrm{ad}(X_s) + \mathrm{ad}(X_n)$.

Let e_{ii} be the elementary matrix with a 1 in the i, j position. You can write ad_X as a 4×4 matrix (see image).

$$p(x) \sim \begin{pmatrix} \boxed{\lambda_1 I_{V_1}} & & & 0 \\ & \boxed{\lambda_2 I_{V_2}} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \boxed{\lambda_r I_{V_r}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Figure 1: ???

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$X = X_s + X_n$$

$$= \begin{array}{c} e_{11} \\ e_{12} \\ e_{21} \\ e_{22} \end{array} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{JNF}} \left(\begin{array}{c|cccc} 0 & & & & \\ \hline & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & 0 & 1 & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & 0 \end{array}\right)$$

$$= \begin{array}{c} e_{11} \\ e_{12} \\ e_{21} \\ e_{22} \end{array} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{JNF}} \left(\begin{array}{c|cccc} 0 & & & & \\ \hline & 0 & 1 & & \\ & & 0 & 1 & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & 0 \end{array}\right)$$

You can check that $(\mathrm{ad}_X)_S = 0, \mathrm{ad}(X_s) = 0$, and $(\mathrm{ad}X)_n$ is the Jordan form given above.

Lemma:

(a) $x \in \mathrm{End}(V) \implies \mathrm{ad}(x)_s = \mathrm{ad}(x_s)$ and $\mathrm{ad}(x)_n = \mathrm{ad}(x_n)$.

(b) If A is a finite dimensional $\mathbb{F}$-algebra, then $\delta \in \mathrm{Der}(A) \implies \delta_s, \delta_n \in \mathrm{Der}(A)$ as well.

Proof of (a):

Check that $\mathrm{ad}(x) = \mathrm{ad}(x_s) + \mathrm{ad}(x_n)$. Then for $y \in \mathrm{End}(V)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathrm{ad}(x))(y) &= [x, y] \\ &= [x_s + x_n, y] \\ &= [x_s, y] + [x_n, y] \\ &= (\mathrm{ad}(x_s))(y) + (\mathrm{ad}(x_n))(y). \end{aligned}$$

Using theorem 3.3, x_n nilpotent $\implies$ $\mathrm{ad}(x_n)$ is also nilpotent. So write $x_s = \sum \lambda_i e_{ii}$ with the eigenvalues on the diagonal. Then $\mathrm{ad}x_s(e_{ij}) = (\lambda_i - \lambda_j)e_{ij}$ for all i, j. But then $\mathrm{ad}x_s$ is given by

$$(\delta-(\lambda+\mu)I)^n([x,y])$$

$$=\sum_{i=0}^{n}\binom{n}{i}\left[(\delta-\lambda I)^i(x),\ (\delta-\mu I)^{n-i}(y)\right]$$

Figure 2: Image

a matrix with $\lambda_i - \lambda_j$ in the i, j position and zeros elsewhere. By the uniqueness of the Jordan decomposition, the statement follows.

Proof of (b):

Since $\delta \in \mathrm{Der}(A)$, the primary decomposition with respect to δ is given by

$$A = \bigoplus_{\lambda \in F} A_\lambda \quad \text{where } A_\lambda = \left\{ a \in A \ni (\delta - \lambda I)^k a = 0 \text{ for some } k >> 0 \right\}.$$

So $\delta_s \curvearrowright A_\lambda$ by scalar multiplication (by λ). Then for $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{F}$, we have

So $[A_x, A_y] \subseteq A_{\lambda+\mu}$ for all $x, y \in A$. But then

and so $\delta_s \in \mathrm{Der}(A)$, and $\delta_n = \delta - \delta_s \in \mathrm{Der}(A)$ as well.

8 Lecture n+3

Todo

9 Lecture n+4

Review of bilinear forms: let $V = \mathbb{F}^n$.

Definition: A bilinear form $\beta : V^2 \to \mathbb{F}$ can be represented by a matrix B with respect to a basis $\{\mathbf{v}_i\}$ such that

$$\beta\beta(\sum a_i \mathbf{v}_i, \sum b_i \mathbf{v}_i) = (a_1\ a_2\ \cdots)B(b_1\ b_2\ \cdots)$$

- β is *symmetric* iff $\beta(a, b) = \beta(b, a)$.
- β is *symplectic* iff $\beta(a, b) = -\beta(b, a)$.
- β is *isotropic* iff $\beta(a, a) = 0$.

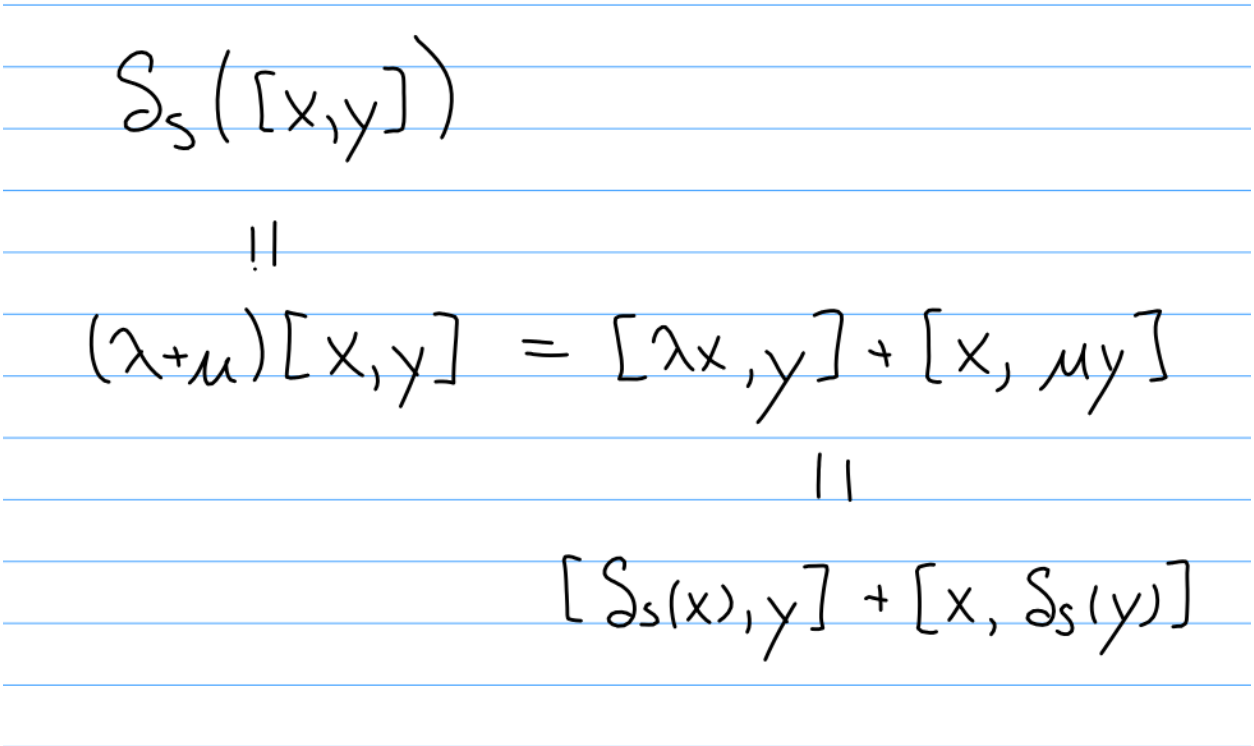


Figure 3: Image

For a subspace $U \leq V$, define

$$U^{\perp} := \{\mathbf{v} \in V \ni \beta(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0} \ \forall u \in U\}.$$

> Note: in general, left/right orthogonality are distinguished, but these will be identical when β is symmetric/symplectic.

The form β is said to be *non-degenerate* iff $V^{\perp} = 0$ iff $\det B \neq 0$.

Assume F is an algebraically closed field, so $\overline{F} = F$, and $\mathrm{char} F \neq 2$, then

- If β is non-degenerate and symmetric, then $B \sim I_n$
- If β is non-degenerate and symplectic, then $B \sim [0, I_{n/2}; I_{n/2}, 0]$.

Remark:

$\mathfrak{so}(n, \mathbb{F}) = \{x \in \mathfrak{gl}(n, F) \ni \beta(x(u), v) = -\beta(u, x(v))\}$, where B has the matrix $[0, I; I, 0]$ if n is odd, or this matrix with a 1 in the top-left corner if n is odd.

Similarly, $\mathfrak{sp}(2m, \mathbb{F})$ can be described this way with the matrix $[0, -I_m; -I_m, 0]$.

Overview: The killing form is defined as $\kappa : \mathfrak{g}^2 \to \mathbb{F}$ where $\kappa(x, y) = \mathrm{tr}(\mathrm{ad}_x \circ \mathrm{ad}_y)$.

Then we have **Cartan's Criteria**:

- $\mathfrak{g}$ solvable $\iff$ $\kappa(x, y) = 0 \forall x \in [\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}], y \in \mathfrak{g}$.
- $\mathfrak{g}$ semisimple $\iff$ κ is non-degenerate.

Note that if $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple, then $\mathfrak{g} = \bigoplus_i I_i$ with each $I_i \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ and simple.

9.1 Cartan's Criteria

Some facts:

1. κ is symmetric
2. If $\mathfrak{g}$ is finite dimensional, then κ is associative, i.e $\kappa([x,y],z) = \kappa(x,[y,z])$.

Exercise: Show that if $I \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$, then $I^\perp \leq \mathfrak{g}$ is an ideal.

Proof of (2): In section 4.3, it was shown that $\mathrm{tr}([a,b] \circ c) = \mathrm{tr}(a \circ [b,c])$ for all $a,b,c \in \mathrm{End}(V)$ (provided V is finite dimensional).

So

$$\begin{aligned}
\kappa([x,y],z) &= \mathrm{tr}(\mathrm{ad}_{[x,y]} \circ \mathrm{ad}_z) \\
&= \mathrm{tr}([\mathrm{ad}_x, \mathrm{ad}_y] \circ \mathrm{ad}_z) \\
&= \mathrm{tr}(\mathrm{ad}_x \circ [\mathrm{ad}_y, \mathrm{ad}_z]) \\
&= \mathrm{tr}(\mathrm{ad}_x \circ \mathrm{ad}_{[y,z]}) \\
&= \mathrm{tr}(x,[y,z])..
\end{aligned}$$

Theorem: $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple iff κ is nondegenerate.

Proof: $\implies$: We want to show that $\mathfrak{g}^\perp = 0$. Note that $[\mathfrak{g}^\perp, \mathfrak{g}^\perp] \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$, and so for all $x \in [\mathfrak{g}^\perp, \mathfrak{g}^\perp]$ and for any $y \in \mathfrak{g}^\perp$, we have

$$\kappa(x,y) = \mathrm{tr}(\mathrm{ad}_x \circ \mathrm{ad}_y) = 0$$

by the const(?) of $\mathfrak{g}^\perp$. This implies $\mathfrak{g}^\perp$ is solvable.

Using fact (2), we have $\mathfrak{g}^\perp \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ and thus $\mathfrak{g}^\perp \subseteq \mathrm{rad}(\mathfrak{g})$, which is 0 since because $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple. So either $\mathfrak{g}^\perp = 0$ or κ is nondegenerate.

Used the fact that the radical was a maximal solvable ideal.

$\impliedby$: We want to show that for all $I \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ where $[I,I] = 0$, we have $I^\perp \subseteq \mathfrak{g}^\perp$.

For $x \in I, y \in \mathfrak{g}$, we have

$$(\mathrm{ad}_x \circ \mathrm{ad}_y)^2 = \mathfrak{g} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{ad}_y} \mathfrak{g} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{ad}_x} I \xrightarrow{\mathrm{ad}_y} I \xrightarrow{\mathrm{ad}_x} 0$$

And thus $\mathrm{tr}(\mathrm{ad}_x \circ \mathrm{ad}_y) = 0$ and $I \subseteq \mathfrak{g}^\perp$.

Suppose that $\mathfrak{g}$ is *not* semisimple. Then there exists a solvable ideal $J \neq 0$ such that the last term J^i in the derived series is an ideal $I \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ such that $[I,I] = 0$, forcing $J^i \subset \mathfrak{g}^\perp = 0$, which is a contradiction.

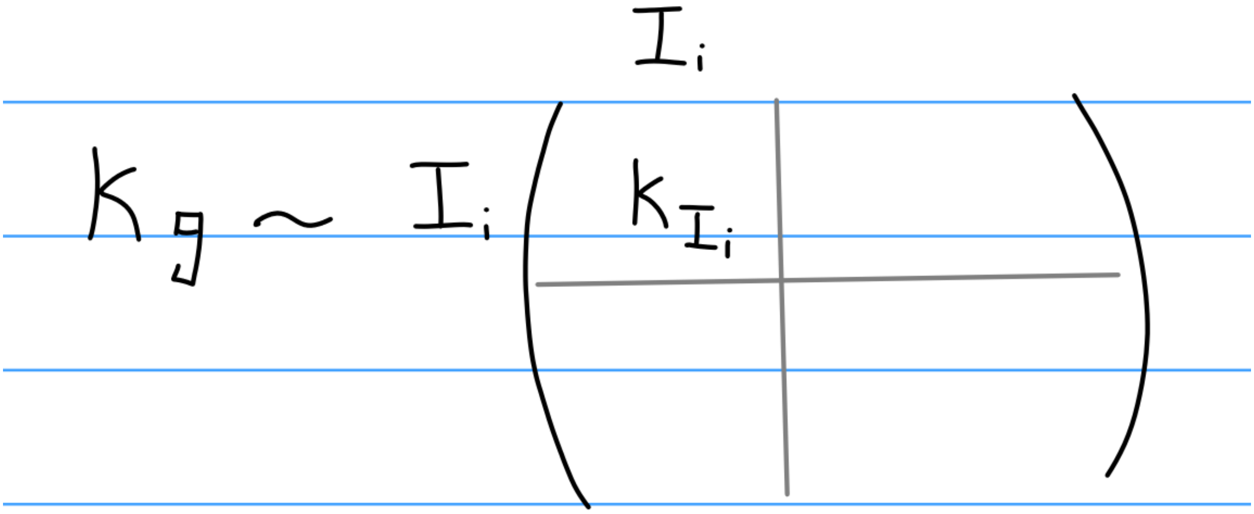


Figure 4: Image

9.2 Section 5.2

Theorem: If $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple, then

a. There exist ideals $I_i \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ which are simple Lie algebras satisfying $\mathfrak{g} = \bigoplus I_i$. Note that $[I_i, I_j] \subseteq I_i \bigcap I_j = 0$, since direct summands intersect only trivially.

b. Every simple $I \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ is one of these I_i.

c. $\kappa_{I_i} = \kappa_{\mathfrak{g}}|_{I_i \times I_i}$, so

Remark: $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple $\iff$ $\mathfrak{g} = \bigoplus_i I_i$ for some simple Lie algebras I_i.

$\Longleftarrow:$ For all $i, S \coloneqq \mathrm{rad}\mathfrak{g}, I_i \trianglelefteq I_i$ is a solvable ideal. This implies that it is 0, since I_i is simple.

By definition, simple Lie algebras are not abelian.

Supposing that $S = I_i$, we would then have $[S.S] \neq 0$ since $[I_i, I_i] \neq 0$ by definition. But $[S, S] \neq S$ because S is solvable, which says that S is not simple (a contradiction).

Note that $[\mathrm{rad}\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}] \subseteq \bigoplus [\mathrm{rad}\mathfrak{g}, I_i] = 0$, which forces $\mathrm{rad}\mathfrak{g} \subseteq Z(\mathfrak{g})$. Since I_i is simple, $Z(I_i) = 0$ for all i. But $Z(\mathfrak{g}) = \bigoplus Z(I_i) = 0$, and this forces $\mathrm{rad}(\mathfrak{g}) \subseteq Z(\mathfrak{g}) \implies \mathrm{rad}\mathfrak{g} = 0$. So $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple.

Next time – starting the representation theory with $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{F})$.

10 Lecture 10?

Recall the killing form:

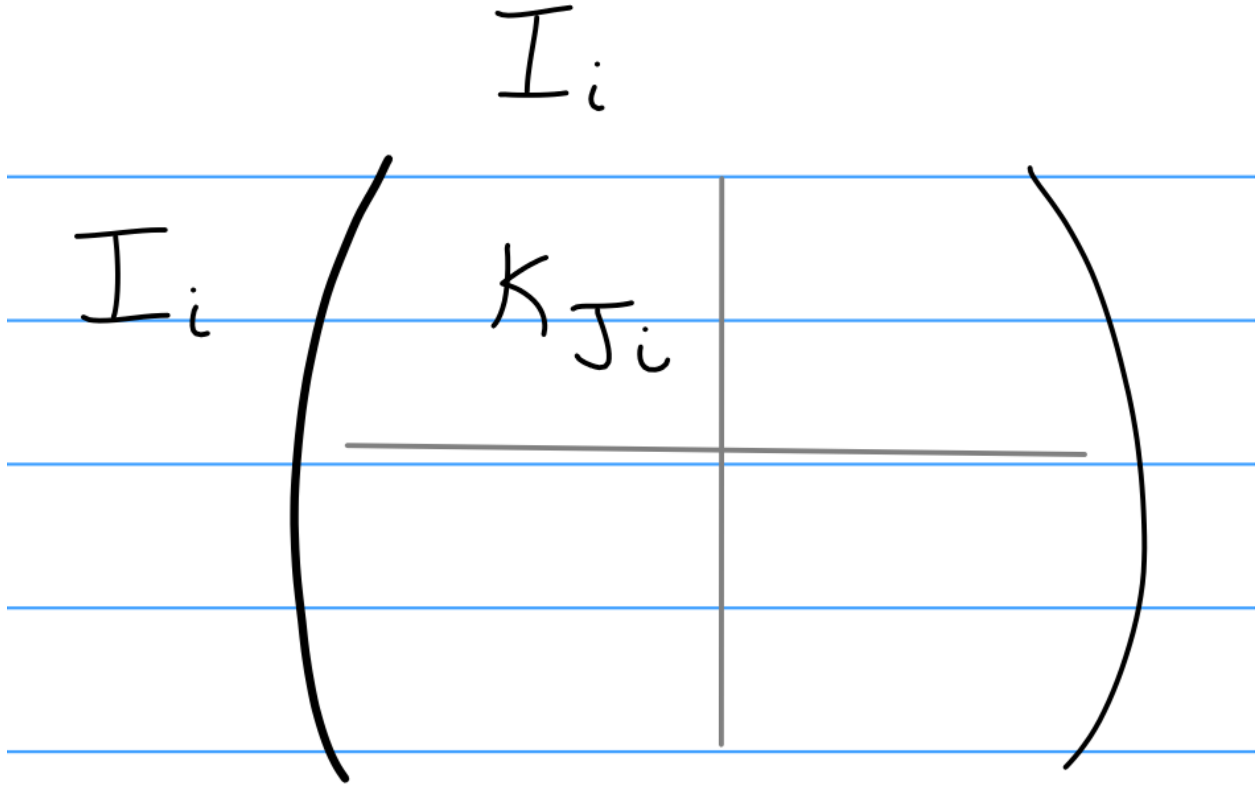


Figure 5: Image

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa : lieg^2 &\to \mathbb{F} \\ (x, y) &\mapsto \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_x \circ \operatorname{ad}_y). \end{aligned}$$

and Cartan's criteria:

1. $\mathfrak{g}$ is solvable $\iff$ $\kappa(x, y) = 0\ \forall x \in \mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}],\ y \in \mathfrak{g}$.
2. $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple $\iff$ κ is non-degenerate.

Theorem: If $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple, then

a. $\mathfrak{g} = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n I_i$ for some $I_i \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ which are all simple.
b. Every simple ideal $I \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ is one of the I_i.
c. $\kappa_{I_i} = \kappa_{\mathfrak{g}} \left.\right|_{I_i \times I_i}$.

Proof of (a): Use induction on $\dim \mathfrak{g}$. If $\mathfrak{g}$ has no nonzero proper ideals, then $\mathfrak{g}$ is simple and we're done.

Otherwise, let I_1 be a minimal nonzero ideal of $\mathfrak{g}$. Then $I_1^\perp \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ is also an ideal, and thus $I := I_1 \bigcap I_1^\perp \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$ is as well. Then for all $x \in [I, I]$, we must have $\kappa(x, y) = 0$ for any $y \in I \subseteq I_1^\perp$. So I is solvable, and thus $I = 0$. So $\mathfrak{g} = I_1 \oplus I_1^\perp$.

$$\operatorname{ad} x \sim \left(\begin{array}{c|c} A_x & B_x \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array}\right) \qquad \kappa_{\mathfrak{g}}(x,y) = \operatorname{tr}\left(\left(\begin{array}{c|c} A_x & B_x \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c|c} A_y & B_y \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array}\right)\right)$$

$$\operatorname{ad} y \sim \left(\begin{array}{c|c} A_y & B_y \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array}\right) \qquad = \operatorname{tr}\left(\begin{array}{c|c} A_xA_y & B_xB_y \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array}\right)$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}(A_xA_y)$$

$$= \kappa_{I_i}(x,y)$$

Figure 6: Image

Note that any ideal of $I_1^\perp$ is also an ideal of $\mathfrak{g}$, which implies that $\operatorname{rad}(I_1^\perp) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}(\mathfrak{g})$, which is zero since $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple, and thus $I_1^\perp$ is semisimple as well.

By the inductive hypothesis, $I_1^\perp = I_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus I_n$ where each $I_j \trianglelefteq I_i^\perp$ is simple. Then $I_j \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g} \implies [I_1, I_j] \subset I_1 \bigcap I_j$, since I_1 has no contribution. But this is a subset of $I_1 \bigcap I_1^\perp = 0$. $\square$

Proof of (b): If $I \trianglelefteq \mathfrak{g}$, then $[I, \mathfrak{g}] \trianglelefteq I$ because $[[I, \mathfrak{g}], I] \subseteq [I, I] \subseteq [I, \mathfrak{g}]$.

Since $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple, $0 = \operatorname{rad}(\mathfrak{g}) \supseteq Z(\mathfrak{g})$. So $[I, \mathfrak{g}] \neq 0$, and thus $[I, \mathfrak{g}] = I$ since I is simple. But then $[I, \mathfrak{g}] = \bigoplus [I, I_i]$ is simple as well. So only one direct summand can survive, since otherwise this would produce at least 2 nontrivial ideals, and $[I, \mathfrak{g}] = [I, I_i]$ for some i.

So for all $j \neq i$, we must have $I_j \bigcap I = I_j \bigcap [I, I_i] = 0$, and so $I \subseteq I_i$. But then $I = I_i$ since I_i itself is simple, and we're done.

Proof of (c):

(Without using the simplicity of I_i)

For $x, y \in I_i$, we have

10.1 Inner Derivations

Recall that $\operatorname{ad}\mathfrak{g} \subseteq \operatorname{Der}\mathfrak{g}$, and in fact (lemma) this is an ideal.

Theorem: If $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple, then $\operatorname{ad}\mathfrak{g} = \operatorname{Der}\mathfrak{g}$.

Proof of lemma:

For all $\delta \in \operatorname{Der}\mathfrak{g}$ and all $x, y \in \mathfrak{g}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
[\delta, \mathrm{ad}_x](y) &= \delta([x,y]) - [x, \delta(y)] \\
&= [\delta(x), y] \\
&= [\mathrm{ad}_{\delta(x)}](y),
\end{aligned}$$

and so $[\delta, \mathrm{ad}x] \subseteq \mathrm{ad}\mathfrak{g}$. $\square$

Proof of theorem:

If $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple, then $0 = \mathrm{rad}\mathfrak{g} \supseteq Z(\mathfrak{g}) = \ker \mathrm{ad}$. Thus $\mathrm{ad}\mathfrak{g} \cong g/\ker \mathrm{ad} \cong \mathfrak{g}$ is also semisimple.

This means that $\kappa_{\mathrm{ad}\mathfrak{g}}$ is non-degenerate, and thus $\mathrm{ad}\mathfrak{g} \bigcap (\mathrm{ad}\mathfrak{g})^{\perp} = 0$, where $(\mathrm{ad}\mathfrak{g})^{\perp} \trianglelefteq \operatorname{Der}(\mathfrak{g})$.

(Note that the non-degeneracy of κ already forces $(\mathrm{ad}\mathfrak{g})^{\perp} = 0$.)

Then $[(\mathrm{ad}\mathfrak{g})^{\perp}, \mathrm{ad}\mathfrak{g}] = 0$, and so for all $\delta \in (\mathrm{ad}\mathfrak{g})^{\perp}$, we have $\delta(x) = [\delta, \mathrm{ad}x]$ by the lemma, but we've shown that this is zero.

But then δ must be zero because ad is an isomorphism, and in particular it is injective. This means that $(\mathrm{ad}\mathfrak{g})^{\perp} = 0$, and thus $\mathrm{ad}\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{g}$. $\square$

We can use this to define an abstract Jordan decomposition by pulling back decompositions on adjoints:

11 Friday Lecture

Todo

12 Monday September 16th

Let $S = \exp(\mathrm{ad}e) \circ \exp(\mathrm{ad} - f) \circ \exp(\mathrm{ad}ei)$, which has the following matrix:

Where $\exp(\mathrm{ad}e) = 1 + \mathrm{ad}e + \frac{1}{2}(\mathrm{ad}e)^2$, which would have the form

Theorem: If $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple, then any finite dimensional $\mathfrak{g}$-module V is completely reducible, i.e. it splits into a direct sum of simple modules.

12.1 Proof of Weyl's(?) Theorem

If V itself is simple, then we're done, so suppose it is not.

Assume there exists a nonzero submodule $U \subsetneq V$. It suffices to show that $V = U \oplus U'$ for some U'.

12.1.1 Step 1:

If $\dim V = 2$ and $\dim U = 1$.

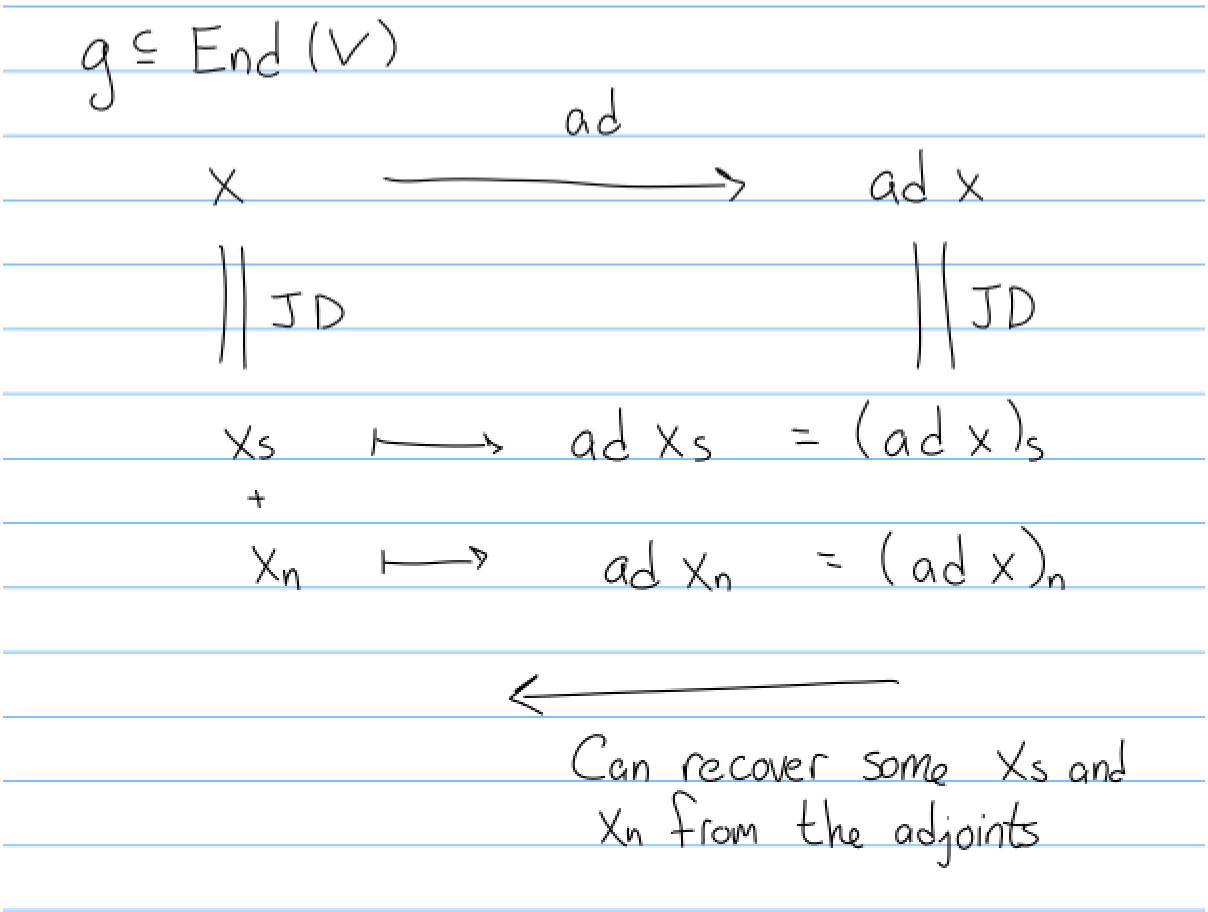


Figure 7: Image

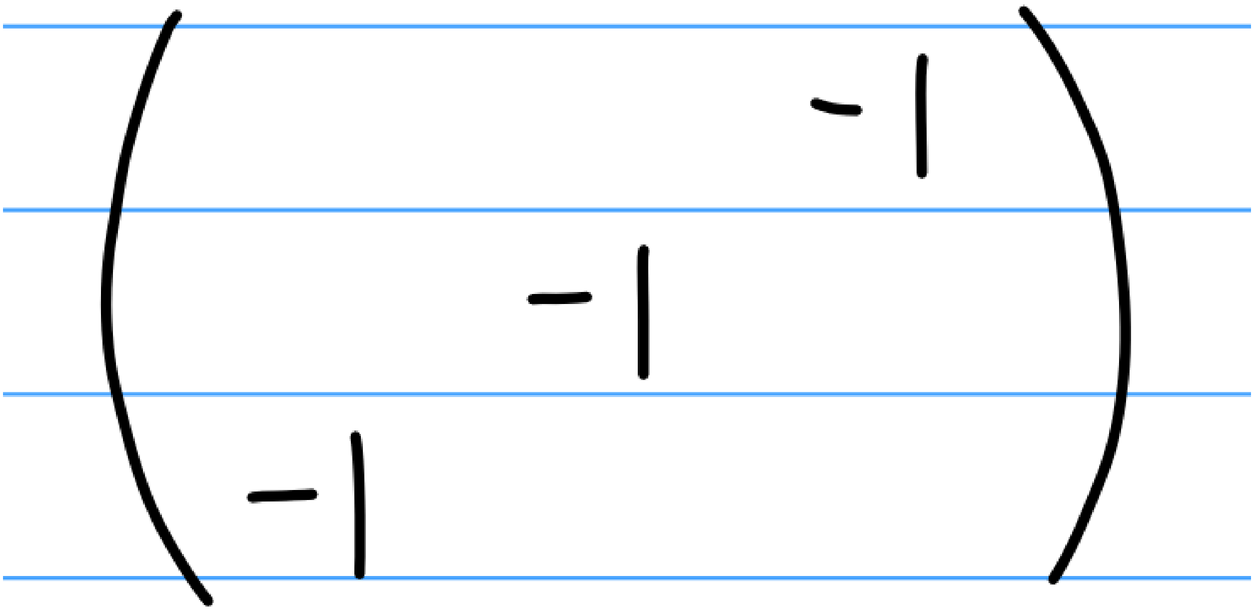


Figure 8: Image

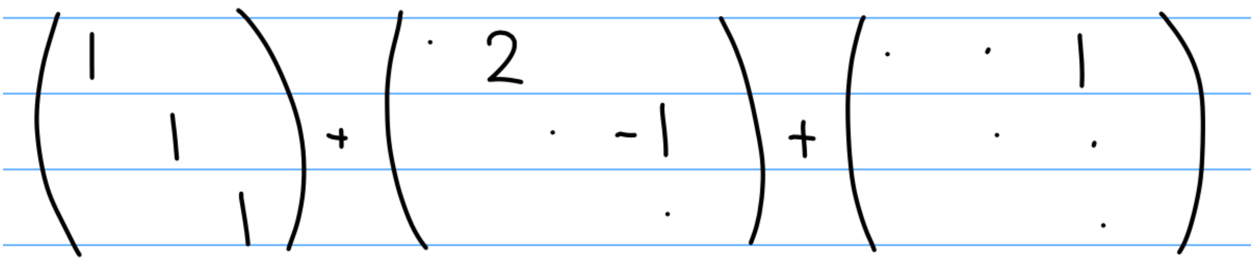


Figure 9: Image

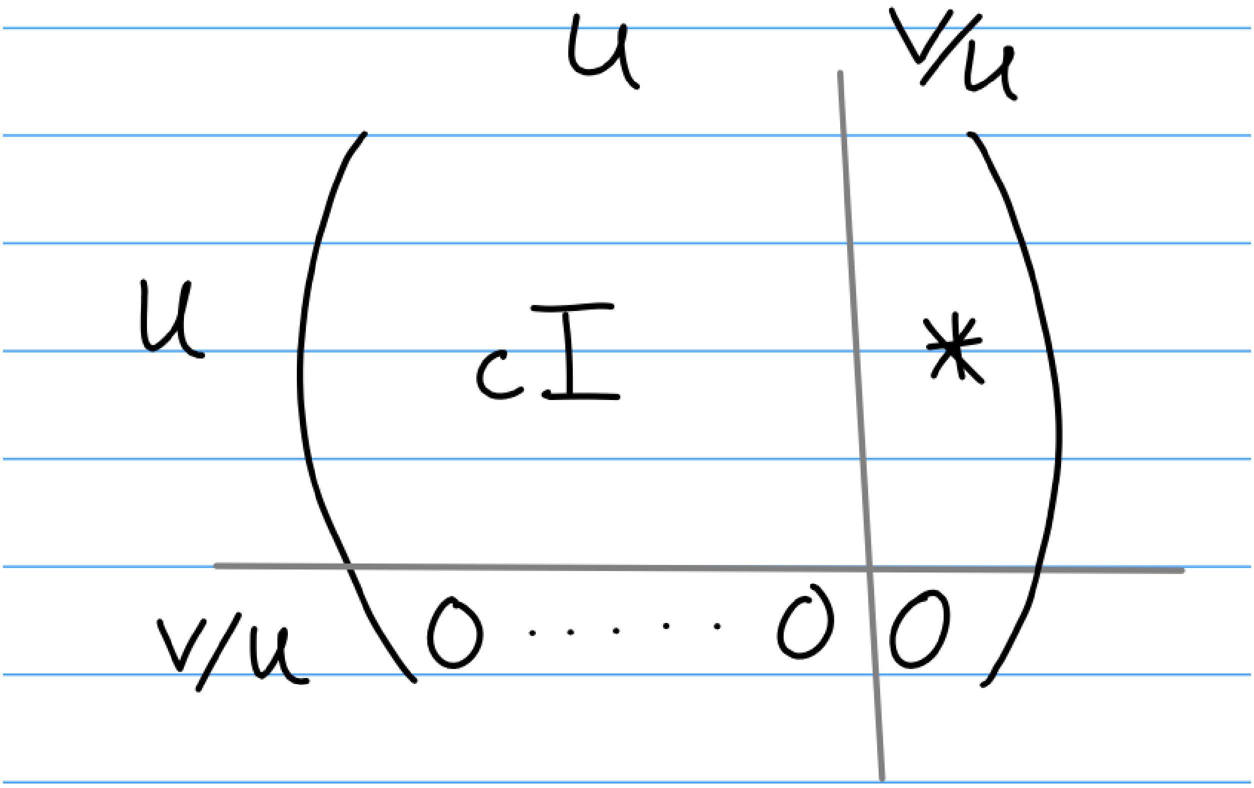


Figure 10: Image

Then $U, V/U$ are both trivial modules. So $g \curvearrowright u = 0$ for all $u \in U$. But then $g \curvearrowright (v + U) = U$ for all $v \in V$, since $g \curvearrowright v \in U$.

So for all $x, y \in lieg$ and all $v \in V$, we have $[x, y] \curvearrowright v = x \curvearrowright (y \curvearrowright v) - y \curvearrowright (x \curvearrowright v)$. But both of the terms in parenthesis are in U, and all elements in $\mathfrak{g}$ kill elements in U, so this is zero. So $[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}] \curvearrowright V$ trivially.

Exercise: If $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple, then $[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}] = \mathfrak{g}$.

So $\mathfrak{g} \curvearrowright V$ trivially. Thus any U' that is a complementary subspace of U will be a submodule of V.

12.1.2 Step 2:

Suppose U is simple and $\dim U > 1$, so $\dim V/U = 1$.

Let Ω be the Casimir element on U (faithful representation?). Then $\Omega u = \check{c}$ for some $c \in \mathbb{F}$, and so $\Omega(U) \subseteq U$.

Since $\Omega : V \circlearrowleft$ is a homomorphism, $\ker \Omega \subseteq V$ is a $\mathfrak{g}$-submodule. Then $\dim V/U = 1 \implies V/U$ is a trivial module. So $\mathfrak{g} \curvearrowright V/U = 0$, i.e. $\mathfrak{g} \curvearrowright V \subseteq U$.

Then $\Omega(v) = \sum_i x_i \curvearrowright (y_i \curvearrowright v) \in U$ for all $v \in V$. What is the matrix of Ω?

In particular, $\mathrm{Tr}(\Omega\mid_{V/U}) = 0$. So $\mathrm{Tr}(\Omega) = \mathrm{Tr}(\Omega\mid_U)$. From 6.2, we know that $\mathrm{Tr}(\Omega) \neq 0 \implies c \neq 0$, where c is the scalar appearing above. So $\ker\Omega$ is 1-dimensional, and $\ker\Omega \bigcap U = \{0\}$.

So take $U' = \ker\Omega$.

12.1.3 Step 3:

Suppose U is *not* simple, but $\dim V/U = 1$.

We will induct on the dimension of U. Pick a proper nonzero submodule $\overline{U} \subsetneq U$, so that $\dim U/\overline{U} < \dim U$. Now $V/U \cong (V/\overline{U})/(U/\overline{U})$ by an isomorphism theorem. So $U/\overline{U}$ is a submodule of $V/\overline{U}$ of codimension 1. Applying the inductive hypothesis, we obtain $V/\overline{U} = U/\overline{U} \oplus \overline{V}/\overline{U}$ for some $\overline{V}$ such that $U \subseteq \overline{V} \subseteq V$.

In particular, since $U \subseteq \overline{V}$ has codimension 1, $\dim\overline{U} < \dim U$. So apply the inductive hypothesis again: $\overline{V} = \overline{U} \oplus U'$ for some U', and $V = U \oplus U'$.

12.1.4 Step 4: The general case

Recall that $\hom(V, U)$ is a $\mathfrak{g}$-module where

$$(g \curvearrowright \phi)(v) = g \curvearrowright \phi(v) - \phi(g \curvearrowright v).$$

Define

$$S = \{\phi \in \hom(V, U) \ni \phi\mid_U \in F1_U\}.$$

Then $S \leq \hom(V, U)$ as a submodule. Define $T = \{\phi \in S \ni \phi\mid_U = 0\}$. Then $T \leq S$ as a submodule, and $\mathfrak{g}(S) \subseteq T$.

Now each $\phi \in S$is determined ($\mod T$) by the scalar $\phi\mid_U$. Note that $\dim(S/T) = 1$. By steps 1-3, we know that $S = T \oplus T'$ for some $T' \subseteq S$ of dimension 1. Then $T' = \mathrm{span}_{\mathbb{F}}(f)$ for some nonzero map $f : V \to U$ such that $f(u) = cu$ for some $c \neq 0$.

Then $\mathfrak{g}(T \oplus T') = \mathfrak{g}(S) \subseteq T \implies \mathfrak{g}(T') = 0$. So for all $g \in \mathfrak{g}$, we have $0 = (g \curvearrowright f)(v) = f \curvearrowright f(v) - f(g \curvearrowright v)$. Then $f : V \to U$ is a lie algebra homomorphism, $\ker f = U'$, and thus $V = U \oplus U'$. $\square$

Some consequences of Weyl's theorem:

12.2 Preservation of Jordan Decomposition

Recall that when $\mathfrak{g} \in \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ is a linear lie algebra, then for $x \in \mathfrak{g}$ we have:

Jordan Decomposition: $x = x_s + x_n$ where $x_s, x_n \in \mathrm{End}(V)$.

Abstract Jordan Decomposition:

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

Figure 11: Image

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{g} &\xrightarrow{\text{ad}} \text{ad}(\mathfrak{g}) \\ x &\mapsto \text{ad}x \\ x_s &\leftarrow (\text{ad}x)_s \\ x_n &\leftarrow (\text{ad}x)_n. \end{aligned}$$

and so $x = x_s' + x_n'$ for some x'. The theorem will be that these recover the usual Jordan decomposition.

Theorem: If $\mathfrak{g} \in \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ is semisimple and V is finite dimensional, then $x_s, x_n \in \mathfrak{g}$, and $x_s = x_s', x_n'$.

Corollary: If $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple and finite dimensional and $\phi : \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ is a finite dimensional representation, then if $x = x_s + x_n$ is the abstract Jordan decomposition, then $\phi(x) = \phi(x_s) + \phi(x_n)$ is the Jordan decomposition in $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$.

Example: If $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$ is semisimple and finite dimensional, and h is diagonal, then by JD $h = h + 0, \phi(h) = \phi(h) + 0$. Then $h \curvearrowright V$ semisimply, or $V = \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}} V_\lambda$, where $V_\lambda = \{v \in V \ni h \curvearrowright v = \lambda v\}$ are the eigenspaces.

13 Wednesday Lecture

Last time: The abstract Jordan Decomposition coincides with the actual Jordan Decomposition.

$$\begin{aligned} \phi : \mathfrak{g} &\to \mathfrak{gl}(V) \\ x \mapsto \phi(x) = \phi(x)_s + \phi(x)_n &= \phi(x_n) + \phi(x_s) \\ x_s + x_n &\mapsto \phi(x_s) + \phi(x_n). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $x_s \curvearrowright V$ semisimply. The example we saw last time was $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$, with a matrix $h = [1, 0; 0, -1]$ and $V = \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \mathbb{C}} V_\lambda$.

13.1 Finite Dimensional Representations of $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$

13.2 Weights and Maximal Vectors

Definition: If $V_\lambda \neq 0$, then V_λ is a *weight space* of V and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is a *weight* of h in V. We then define $W_t(V) = \{\text{weights in } V\}$.

Lemma: If $v \in V_\lambda$ then $e \curvearrowright v \in V_{\lambda+2}$ and $f \curvearrowright v \in V_{\lambda-2}$.

Proof:

$$
\begin{aligned}
h \curvearrowright (e \curvearrowright v) &= [h, e] \curvearrowright v + e \curvearrowright (h \curvearrowright v) \\
&= 2e \curvearrowright v + \lambda e \curvearrowright v \\
&= (\lambda + 2) e \curvearrowright v.
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
h \curvearrowright (f \curvearrowright v) &= [h, f] \curvearrowright v + f \curvearrowright (h \curvearrowright v) \\
&= -2f \curvearrowright v + \lambda f \curvearrowright v \\
&= (\lambda - 2) f \curvearrowright v.
\end{aligned}
$$

So if V is a finite-dimensional $\mathfrak{g}$-module, then there exists a $V_\lambda \neq 0$ such that $V_{\lambda+2} = 0$. Any nonzero $v \in V_\lambda$ is called a *maximal vector*.

Note: in category $\mathcal{O}$, these always exist?

Some computations:

- $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{gl}(2, \mathbb{C})$ Then $V = \mathbb{C}$ is the trivial module, and $g \curvearrowright V = 0$. So $W_t(V) = \{0\}$, and $V = V_0$.

If $V = \mathbb{C}^2$, then take the natural representation $\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}} \{v_1 = [1, 0], v_2 = [0, 1]\}$. Then $g \curvearrowright V$ by matrix multiplication, and if $h = [1, 0; 0, -1]$ then $h \curvearrowright v_1 = v_1$ and $h \curvearrowright v_2 = -v_2$ by just doing the matrix-vector multiplication. Then $\mathbb{C}([1, 0]) = V_1, \mathbb{C}([0, 1]) = V_{-1}$, so $W_t(V) = \{\pm 1\}$.

Taking $V = \mathbb{C}^3 = \operatorname{ad}\mathfrak{g} = \operatorname{span})_{\mathbb{C}} \{e, f, h\}$, then

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

So $W_t(V) = \{2, 0, -2\}$ and $V_2 = \mathbb{C}e, V_0 = \mathbb{C}h, V_{-2} = \mathbb{C}f$.

> Note the pattern: some largest value, then jumping by 2 to lower values, ending at negative the largest value. In some sense, the rest of the theory will reduce to the case of $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$.

Lemma: Let V be a finite dimensional simple $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$-module, and $V_0 \in V_\lambda$ a maximal vector.

Set $V_{-1} = 0, V_i = f^{(i)} \curvearrowright v_0$ (where $f^{(i)} = \frac{f^i}{i!}$). Then for all $i \geq 0$, we have

a. $h \curvearrowright v_i = (\lambda - 2i)v_i$
b. $f \curvearrowright v_i = (i+1)v_{i+1}$
c. $e \curvearrowright v_i = (\lambda - i + 1)v_{i-1}$

Proof of (a): By lemma 7.1, we have $f \curvearrowright v_0 \in V_{\lambda-2}$, and so inductively $f^{(i)} \curvearrowright v_0 \in V_{\lambda-2i}$

Proof of (b): By definition.

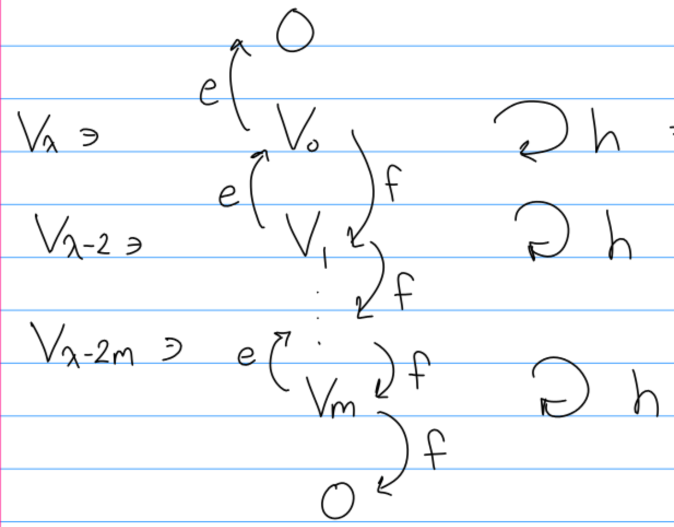
Proof of (c):

$$\begin{aligned} ie \curvearrowright v_i = ie \curvearrowright \frac{f^i \curvearrowright v_0}{i!} \\ = e \curvearrowright (f \curvearrowright v_{i-1}) \\ = [e, f] \curvearrowright v_{i-1} + f \curvearrowright (e \curvearrowright v_{i-1}) \\ = h \curvearrowright v_{i-1} + f \curvearrowright ((\lambda - i + 2)v_{i-2})\text{ind} \\ = (\lambda - 2i + 2)v_{i-2} + (\lambda + i - 2)(i - 1v_{i-1}) \\ = i(\text{RHS}). \end{aligned}$$

Theorem: If V is a finite dimensional and simple, then $V \cong L(m)$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ where $L(m) = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}} \{v_0, v)1, \cdots v_m\}$ where each v_i is of weight $m - 2i$.

Thus $L(m) = L(m)_m \oplus L(m)_{m-2} \oplus \cdots \oplus L(m)_{-m}$ where $\dim L(m)_\mu = 1$ for all μ and $\dim L(m = m + 1.)$

Proof: Pick a maximal vector $v_0 \in V_\lambda$ for any weight λ. Define v_i as usual. Let $m = \min \{i \ni V_i \neq 0, \; V_{i+1} = 0\}$



$\Rightarrow S := \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}} \{V_0, \cdots, V_m\} \leq V$ as modules

$\Rightarrow S = V$ by simplicity

Definition: A module V is a *highest weight module* of weight λ if $V = \mathfrak{g} \curvearrowright v_0$ for some maximal vector $v_0 \in V_\lambda$.

Then λ is referred to as the *highest weight*, and v_0 is the *highest weight vector*.

Corollary: If V is finite-dimensional, then

a. $V = \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}} V_\lambda$
b. The number of summands $= \dim V_0 + \dim V_1$.

Proof of (a): By Weyl's theorem, we know $V = \oplus W_i$ for some simple W_i. By theorem 7.2, this is equal to $\oplus_{m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}} L(m)^{\mu_m}$

Proof of (b): $\dim V_0 = \#\{\text{summands where } m \text{ is even}\}$ $\dim V_1 = \#\{\text{summands where } m \text{ is odd}\}$

Remark: Let $V_d = \{f \in \mathbb{C}[x, y] \ni f \text{ is homogeneous of total degree } d\} = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}} \left\{x^d, x^{d-1}y, \cdots, y^d\right\}$.

Then $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C}) \curvearrowright V_d$ by

$$\begin{aligned} e &\mapsto x\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \\ f &\mapsto y\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\ h &\mapsto x\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - y\frac{\partial}{\partial y}. \end{aligned}$$

Fact: For $L(m), \phi : \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C}) \to \mathfrak{gl}(L(m))$, define

$$s = (\exp \phi(e)) \circ (\exp \phi(-f)) \circ (\exp \phi(e))$$

Then $s(v_i) = -v_{m-i}$.

14 Friday Lecture

Last time: Construction of simple finite-dimensional $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$ module.

Today: Root space decomposition for semisimple finite-dimensional $\mathfrak{g}$.

14.1 Root Space Decomposition

Let $\mathfrak{g}$ be semisimple and finite dimensional, and let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$.

14.1.1 Maximal Toral subalgebra and roots

Definition: A subalgebra $\mathfrak{h} \leq \mathfrak{g}$ is *toral* if $\mathfrak{h} \neq 0$ and it consists of only semisimple elements (i.e. $x_n = 0 \forall x \in \mathfrak{h}$)

Lemma:

a. There exists a toral subalgebra of $\mathfrak{g}$, which is a nontrivial maximal toral subalgebra.

b. Any toral subalgebra is abelian.

Proof of (a): Want to show that there exists an $x \in \mathfrak{g}$ such that $x_s \neq 0$, which will imply that $\mathfrak{h} = \mathbb{C}x_s$ is toral.

Suppose $x_s = 0$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{g}$, then $\mathrm{ad}x = \mathrm{ad}x_n$ is nilpotent. By Engel's theorem, this means $\mathfrak{g}$ must be nilpotent. But this contradicts $[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}] = \mathfrak{g}$ (since $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple) so the derived series can never reach zero.

Proof of (b): Fix $x \in \mathfrak{h}$, want to show that $[x, h] = 0 \forall h \in \mathfrak{h}$. Then $x = x_s$, and so $\mathrm{ad}x : \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{g}$ is diagonalizable. It suffices to show that $\mathrm{ad}x|_{\mathfrak{h}} = 0$ for all $\mathfrak{h}$.

Suppose that $[x, h] = ah$ for some vector h where $a \neq 0$. Decompose $\mathfrak{h}$ into eigenspaces, so $\mathfrak{h} = \bigoplus_\lambda \mathfrak{h}_\lambda$ where $\mathfrak{h}_\lambda = \{y \in \mathfrak{h} \ni [h, y] = \lambda y\}$. But then $[h, x] \in \mathfrak{h}_0$, since $[h, [h, x]] = [h, -ah] = 0$.

So write $x = \sum_\lambda c_\lambda x_\lambda$, where $c_\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ and $x_\lambda \in \mathfrak{h}_\lambda$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} [h, x] &= \sum_\lambda c_\lambda [h, x_\lambda] \\ &= \sum_\lambda c_\lambda \lambda x_\lambda \in \mathfrak{h}_0, \end{aligned}$$

so $\lambda c \lambda = 0 \forall \lambda \neq 0$, which means $c_\lambda = 0 \forall \lambda \neq 0$, and thus $x \in \mathfrak{h}_0$ and $[h, x] = 0$. But this contradicts $[x, h] = ah$.

Now $\forall x, h \in \mathfrak{h}, g \in \mathfrak{g}$, we have $[h, [x, y]] = [x, [h, y]] + [y, [x, h]] = [x, [h, y]]$. Thus $\mathrm{ad}h \circ \mathrm{ad}x = \mathrm{ad}x \circ \mathrm{ad}h$ as elements of $\mathrm{End}(\mathfrak{g})$.

So $\mathfrak{g} = \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathfrak{h}^*} \mathfrak{g}_\alpha$, where $\mathfrak{g}_\alpha = \{x \in \mathfrak{g} \ni [h, x] = \alpha(h) x \forall h \in \mathfrak{h}\}$.

Note that $\mathfrak{g}_0 = \{x \in \mathfrak{g} \ni [h, x] = 0 \forall h \in \mathfrak{h}\} = C_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathfrak{h}) \supseteq \mathfrak{h}$, i.e. the centralizer of $\mathfrak{h}$ in $\mathfrak{g}$.

Definition: Fix a toral subalgebra $\mathfrak{h} \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$, then a *root* is a nonzero $\alpha \in \mathfrak{h}^*$ such that $\mathfrak{g}_\alpha \neq 0$. $\mathfrak{g}_\alpha$ is referred to as the *root space*.

We write $\Phi = \{\text{roots}\}$ and $\mathfrak{g} = C_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathfrak{h}) \oplus (\bigoplus_{\alpha \in \Phi} \mathfrak{g}_\alpha)$.

Example: $\mathfrak{sl}(3, \mathbb{C})$.

TODO: Insert image from phone.

Then $\Phi = \{\alpha : \mathfrak{h} \to \mathbb{C}, h_1 \mapsto \alpha(h_1) \in \{\pm 1, \pm 2\}\}$. So

- $\mathfrak{g}_0 = \mathbb{C}h_1 \oplus \mathbb{C}h_2$
- $\mathfrak{g}_1 = \mathbb{C}f_2 \oplus \mathbb{C}e_3$
- $\mathfrak{g}_2 = \mathbb{C}e_1$
- $\mathfrak{g}_{-1} \mathbb{C}f_3 \oplus \mathbb{C}e_2$
- $\mathfrak{g}_{-2} = \mathbb{C}f_1$.

TODO: Insert second and third image from phone

From these computations, we collect the eigenvalues as ordered pairs. If we choose a larger toral subalgebra, we get a finer decomposition. And if we take a maximal toral subalgebra, then $\mathfrak{h} = \mathfrak{g}_0$ and all $\dim \mathfrak{g}_\alpha = 1$.

$$\kappa([h,x],y) = \alpha(h)\kappa(x,y)$$

$x \in \mathfrak{g}_\alpha$

$$= -\kappa([x,h],y)$$

$$= -\kappa(x,[h,y]) = -\beta(h)\kappa(x,y)$$

$x \in \mathfrak{g}_\beta$

Figure 12: Image

Proposition (a): $[\mathfrak{g}_\alpha, \mathfrak{g}_\beta] \subseteq \mathfrak{g}_{\alpha+\beta}$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathfrak{h}^*$.

Proposition (b): If $x \in \mathfrak{g}_\alpha$ and $\alpha \neq 0$ then ad$x$ is nilpotent.

Proposition (c): If $\alpha, \beta \in \mathfrak{h}^*$ and $\alpha + \beta = 0$, then $\kappa(x,y) = 0 \forall x \in \mathfrak{g}_\alpha, y = \mathfrak{g}_\beta$.

Proof of (a): Easy exercise:

Proof of (b): For all $y \in \mathfrak{g}$, $y \in \mathfrak{g}_\mu$ for some $\mu \in \mathfrak{h}^*$. We have $\mathfrak{g}_u \xrightarrow{\text{ad}x} \mathfrak{g}_{\mu+\alpha} \xrightarrow{\text{ad}x} \mathfrak{g}_{\mu+2\alpha} \to \cdots$ by $y \mapsto [x,y] \mapsto \cdots$. Since $\mathfrak{g}$ is finite dimensional, this must terminate, so $(\text{ad}x)^n(y) = 0$ for some n.

Proof of (c): If $\alpha + \beta = 0$, then there exists an $h \in \mathfrak{h}$ such that $\alpha(h) + \beta(h) \neq 0$. Since the killing form is associative, we have

Corollary: $\kappa \mid_{\mathfrak{g}_0}$ is nondegenerate.

Proof: We want to show $\kappa(h,y) = 0 \forall y \in \mathfrak{g}_0 \implies h = 0$ holds for any choice of $y \in \mathfrak{g}_\alpha$ with $\alpha \neq 0$.

By proposition (c), we have $\kappa(h,y) = 0$. Note that we have $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{g}_0 \oplus (\bigoplus_{\alpha \neq 0} \mathfrak{g}_\alpha)$. This implies that $\kappa(h,y) = 0 \forall y \in \mathfrak{g}$. But then $h = 0$ because κ is nondegenerate and $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple.

15 Monday Lecture