Lie Algebras

D. Zack Garza

August 28, 2019

Contents

Lect	ture 1	2
1.1	Overview	4
	1.1.1 Chapter 2	2
	•	
1.2		
1.3	Chapters 4-5	٠
	1.3.1 Chapter 6	٠
	•	
	•	
1.4		
1.5	Linear Lie Algebras	4
Lect	ture 2	6
2.1	Lie Algebras of Derivations	7
2.2		
2.3	Ideals	8
Lect	ture 3	ģ
3.1	Homomorphisms and Representations	Ç
3.2		
1	A A	11
		1(
	·	11
4.2	Nilpotency	1.
Lect	ture 5	12
5.1	Chapter 2: Semisimple Lie Algebras	13
Lect	ture n+1	13
Lect	ture n+2	14
	1.1 1.2 1.3 1.4 1.5 Lec 2.1 2.2 2.3 Lec 4.1 4.2 Lec 5.1 Lec	1.1.1 Chapter 2 1.1.2 Chapter 3-4 1.2 Classification 1.3 Chapters 4-5 1.3.1 Chapter 6 1.3.2 Chapter 7 1.3.3 Topics 1.4 Content 1.5 Linear Lie Algebras Lecture 2 2.1 Lie Algebras of Derivations 2.2 Abstract Lie Algebras 2.3 Ideals Lecture 3 3.1 Homomorphisms and Representations 3.2 Automorphisms Lecture 4 4.1 Solvability 4.2 Nilpotency Lecture 5

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:



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-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,

$$[\cdot,\cdot]:\mathfrak{g}\times\mathfrak{g}\to\mathfrak{g}$$

 $(x,y)\mapsto[x,y].$

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 $\operatorname{End}(V) = \{f : V \to V \ni V \text{ is linear}\}$. 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 $group \operatorname{SL}(n, V)$.).

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

Definition 5. The symplectic algebra

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

Definition 6. The orthogonal algebra

$$\mathfrak{so}(2\ell,F) = \left\{ A \in \mathfrak{gl}(2\ell,F) \ni MA - A^TM = 0 \right\} \text{ where}$$

$$M = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1 & 0}{0 & I_n \\ \hline 0 & -I_n & 0 \end{pmatrix}} & n = 2\ell + 1 \text{ odd,} \\ \left(\frac{0 & I_n}{-I_n & 0} \right) & \text{else.} \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

Proposition 1. 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

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} A & B = B^t \\ C = C^t & A^t \end{array}\right).$$

• For type D_{ℓ} we have

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

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

$$\begin{pmatrix}
0 & M & N \\
-N^t & A & C = C^t \\
-M^t & B = B^t & -A^t
\end{pmatrix}.$$

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



Theorem 1. 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 7. An *F*-algebra *A* is an *F*-vector space endowed with a bilinear map $A^2 \to A$, $(x,y) \mapsto xy$.

Definition 8. 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 9. 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 10. We define $Der(A) = \{\delta \ni \delta \text{ is a derivation } \}.$

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 $\operatorname{Der}\mathfrak{g} \leq \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g})$ is a Lie subalgebra. One needs to check that $\delta_1, \delta_2 \in \mathfrak{g} \Longrightarrow [\delta_1, \delta_2] \in \mathfrak{g}$.

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

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 1. 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:

Example 2. 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 ad(e), ad(h), ad(g) with respect to this basis.

2.3 Ideals

Definition 11. A subspace $I \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$ is called an **ideal**, and we write $I \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$, 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 $I, J \leq \mathfrak{g}$, then

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

Definition 12. 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 2. 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

$$2e = [h, e] \in I \implies e \in I,$$

 $2f = [h, -f] \in I \implies f \in I.$

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 $I \leq \mathfrak{g}$ 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 13. A linear map $\phi : \mathfrak{g}_1 \to \mathfrak{g}_2$ is a *Lie homomorphism* if $\phi[x,y] = [\phi(x),\phi()]$.

Remark. $\ker \phi \leq \mathfrak{g}_1$ 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 $\{I \leq \mathfrak{g}\} \iff \{\hom \phi : \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{g}'\}$ 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 $I, J \leq \mathfrak{g}$ are ideals and $I \subset J$ then $J/I \leq \mathfrak{g}g/I$ and $(\mathfrak{g}/I)/(J/I) \cong \mathfrak{g}/J$.
- If $I, J \leq \mathfrak{g}$ then $(I+J)/J \cong I/(I \cap J)$.

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 g-module with action $g \cdot v = \phi(g)(v)$.

Example: The adjoint representation:

ad:
$$\mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g})$$

 $x \mapsto [x, \cdot].$

Corollary 1. 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

$$Z(\mathfrak{g}) = \left\{ x \in \mathfrak{g} \ \ni \mathrm{ad}_{x(y)} = 0 \quad \forall y \in \mathfrak{g} \right\}$$
$$= \ker \mathrm{ad}_x.$$

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

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

Proposition: If $\delta \in \text{Der}(\mathfrak{g})$ 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:

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

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

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

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 $I \leq \mathfrak{g}$ and both I and \mathfrak{g}/I are solvable, then so is \mathfrak{g} .
- 3. If $I, J \leq \mathfrak{g}$ 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 $radical \operatorname{Rad}(\mathfrak{g})$.

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

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

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

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 im $\phi < \dim \mathfrak{g}$. The claim is that $\phi(a) \in \operatorname{End}(\mathfrak{g}/A)$ is nilpotent for all $a \in A$. By the inductive hypothesis, there is a nonzero coset $y + A \in \mathfrak{g}/A$ such that $(\operatorname{im} \phi) \cdot (y + A) = A$. 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 $[a_1 + c_1y, a_2 + c_2y] = [a_1, a_2] + c_2[a_1, y] - c_2[a_2, y] + c_1c_2[y, y]$. 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 $A \unlhd \mathfrak{g}$ 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 $y|_W \in \operatorname{End}(w)$, 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: $\phi(a) \in \operatorname{End}(\mathfrak{g}/A)$ 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.

Now we can see what the consequences of having such a nonzero vector are. This theorem implies Engel's theorem, which says that if $ad_x \in End(\mathfrak{g})$ 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 $\operatorname{ad} g \subset \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g})$. So we can produce the nonzero $v \in \mathfrak{g}$ such that $\operatorname{ad} \mathfrak{g} v = 0$. 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 $\operatorname{ad}_x + Z(\mathfrak{g})$, 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 im $\phi \leq \mathfrak{gl}(n-1,F)$ as a subalgebra, and every $\phi(x) \in \operatorname{End}(F^{n-1})$ 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 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 g. For the inductive step:

Claim 1: There is an ideal $A \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$ 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

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

where $w \in V_{\lambda}$.

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

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

- (a) There exists a unique $X_s, X_n \in \text{End}(V)$ 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 $m_i \ge 1$ 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 polynomial $p \in F[t]$ such that

$$p = \lambda \mod (t - \lambda_i)^{m_i} \quad \forall i,$$

 $p = 0 \mod t.$

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 $\operatorname{ad}_X \in \operatorname{End}(\operatorname{End}(V))$. It can be shown that $(\operatorname{ad}_X)_s + (\operatorname{ad}_X)_n = \operatorname{ad}(X_s) + \operatorname{ad}(X_n)$.



Figure 1: ???

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).

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

$$X = X_{S} + X_{N}$$





You can check that $(ad_X)_S = 0$, $ad(X_s) = 0$, and $(adX)_n$ is the Jordan form given above. Lemma:

- (a) $x \in \text{End}(V) \implies \text{ad}(x)_s = \text{ad}(x_s) \text{ and } \text{ad}(x)_n = \text{ad}(x_n).$
- (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 $ad(x) = ad(x_s) + ad(x_n)$. Then for $y \in End(V)$, we have

$$(ad(x))(y) = [x, y]$$

$$= [x_s + x_n, y]$$

$$= [x_s, y] + [x_n, y]$$

$$- (ad(x_s))(y) + (ad(x_n))(y).$$

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

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

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