LECTURE 8-9: THE BAKER-CAMPBELL-HAUSDORFF FORMULA

1. Taylor's expansion on Lie group

As we have seen,

$$[X, Y] = \operatorname{ad}X(Y).$$

So if G is an abelian group, then $c(g): G \to G$ is the identity map for all $g \in G$. As a consequence, $ad(X) \equiv 0$. It follows that the Lie algebra of an abelian Lie group is also abelian, i.e. [X,Y]=0 for all $X,Y \in \mathfrak{g}$. Conversely, one can prove (using proposition 3.1 in lecture 6) that if G is connected and \mathfrak{g} is abelian, then G is also abelian. In other words, the Lie bracket operation on \mathfrak{g} measures the non-commutativity of the multiplication operation on G. In what follows we would like to characterize this quantitatively. In other words, we would like to find out the different between $\exp(X) \exp(Y)$ and $\exp(X + Y)$ for a general Lie group.

Let G be a Lie group and $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ a left invariant vector field on G. Then

$$(Xf)(a) = X_a f = dL_a X_e f = X_e (f \circ L_a) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} f(a \exp(tX)).$$

for any $f \in C^{\infty}(G)$ and any $a \in G$. More generally, for any $t \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$(Xf)(a\exp(tX)) = \left.\frac{d}{ds}\right|_{s=0} f(a\exp(tX)\exp(sX)) = \left.\frac{d}{ds}\right|_{s=0} f(a\exp((t+s)X)) = \left.\frac{d}{dt}f(a\exp(tX))\right).$$

Using this and induction, one can see that for any $k \geq 0$,

$$(X^k f)(a \exp(tX)) = \frac{d^k}{dt^k} \left(f(a \exp(tX)) \right).$$

In particular,

$$(X^k f)(a) = \left. \frac{d^k}{dt^k} \right|_{t=0} f(a \exp(tX)).$$

The formulae above can be generalized to multi-variable case. In fact, if $X_1, \dots, X_k \in \mathfrak{g}$, then

$$(X_1 X_2 f)(a) = \frac{d}{dt_1} \Big|_{t_1 = 0} (X_2 f)(a \exp(t_1 X_1)) = \frac{d}{dt_1} \Big|_{t_1 = 0} \frac{d}{dt_2} \Big|_{t_2 = 0} f(a \exp(t_1 X_1)) \exp(t_2 X_2)),$$

and in general

$$(X_1 \cdots X_k f)(a) = \frac{\partial^k}{\partial t_1 \cdots \partial t_k} \bigg|_{t_1 = \cdots = t_k = 0} f(a \exp(t_1 X_1) \cdots \exp(t_k X_k)).$$

As a consequence, we get the following Taylor's expansion formula

Proposition 1.1. If f is smooth on G, then for small |t|,

$$f(\exp(tX_1)\cdots \exp(tX_n)) = f(e) + t\sum_i X_i f(e) + \frac{t^2}{2} \left\{ \sum_i X_i^2 f(e) + 2\sum_{i < j} X_i X_j f(e) \right\} + O(t^3).$$

We remark that the previous formulae hold for vector-valued functions as well. Our main result in this section is

Theorem 1.2. Let $n \geq 1$ and $X_1, \dots, X_n \in \mathfrak{g}$. Then for |t| sufficiently small,

$$\exp(tX_1)\cdots \exp(tX_n) = \exp(t\sum_{1\le i\le n} X_i + \frac{t^2}{2}\sum_{1\le i< j\le n} [X_i, X_j] + O(t^3)).$$

Proof. We apply proposition 1.1 to the inverse of the exponential map near e, i.e. the map f defined by

$$f(\exp(tX)) = tX$$

for t small enough. Then obviously, f(e) = 0. For any $X \in \mathfrak{g}$,

$$(Xf)(e) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} f(\exp(tX)) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} (tX) = X$$

and for any n > 1,

$$(X^n f)(e) = \frac{d^n}{dt^n}\Big|_{t=0} f(\exp(tX)) = \frac{d^n}{dt^n}\Big|_{t=0} (tX) = 0.$$

Notice

$$\sum_{i} X_{i}^{2} + 2 \sum_{i < j} X_{i} X_{j} = (X_{1} + \dots + X_{n})^{2} + \sum_{i < j} [X_{i}, X_{j}],$$

it follows that

$$f(\exp(tX_1)\cdots\exp(tX_n)) = t\sum_i X_i + \frac{t^2}{2}\sum_{i< j} [X_i, X_j] + O(t^3).$$

On the other hand, by the definition of f,

$$\exp(tX_1)\cdots\exp(tX_n) = \exp(f(\exp(tX_1)\cdots\exp(tX_n))).$$

This completes the proof.

In particular, we see

$$\exp(tX) \exp(tY) = \exp(tX + tY + \frac{t^2}{2}[X, Y] + O(|t|^3)$$

for |t| small. So [X, Y] dominates the difference between $\exp(X) \exp(Y)$ and $\exp(X + Y)$, and thus dominates the non-commutativity of the group multiplication.

2. The Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff Formula

Now the question is: What are the higher order terms in $O(t^3)$ above? For simplicity we will denote by log the inverse of exp near $0 \in \mathfrak{g}$. Let

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

for X, Y close to $0 \in \mathfrak{g}$. We have seen above that

$$\mu(X,Y) = X + Y + \frac{1}{2}[X,Y] + O(|X|^3, |Y|^3)$$

for |X|, |Y| small. A remarkable fact about the remainder terms is that they involves only Lie brackets! In other words, we have

Theorem 2.1 (The Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff formula (existence)). For X and Y small, we have

$$\mu(X,Y) = X + Y + \sum_{m>2} P_m(X,Y),$$

where $P_m(A,B)$ is a Lie polynomial of order m, i.e. $P_m(X,Y)$ is a combination of nested commutators in X, Y that involves m-1 Lie brackets.

Although in application, the above existence result is sufficient, we will prove the following explicit formula:

Theorem 2.2 (Dynkin's formula). For X and Y small,

$$\mu(X,Y) = X + Y + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k+1} \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{\sum_i (l_i + m_i)}}{l_1 + \dots + l_k + 1} \frac{(\operatorname{ad}Y)^{l_1}}{l_1!} \circ \frac{(\operatorname{ad}X)^{m_1}}{m_1!} \circ \dots \circ \frac{(\operatorname{ad}Y)^{l_k}}{l_k!} \circ \frac{(\operatorname{ad}X)^{m_k}}{m_k!} (Y),$$

where the second summation is over $l_1, \dots, l_k, m_1, \dots, m_k \geq 0, l_i + m_i > 0$.

As a consequence, we can write down $P_m(X,Y)$ for m small. Of course,

$$P_2(X,Y) = \frac{1}{2}[X,Y].$$

The next term $P_3(X,Y)$ comes from the following terms in Dynkins's formula:

- (1) $k = 1, l_1 = 1, m_1 = 1 \Longrightarrow -\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}[Y, [X, Y]];$ (2) $k = 1, l_1 = 0, m_1 = 2 \Longrightarrow -\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{1}\frac{1}{2}[X, [X, Y]];$
- (3) $k = 2, l_1 = 1, m_1 = 0, l_2 = 0, m_2 = 1 \Longrightarrow \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{2} [Y, [X, Y]];$ (4) $k = 2, l_1 = 0, m_1 = 1, l_2 = 0, m_2 = 1 \Longrightarrow \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{1} [X, [X, Y]];$

It follows

$$P_3(X,Y) = \frac{1}{12}([X,[X,Y]] - [Y,[X,Y]]).$$

Similarly one can calculate the next term and get

$$P_4(X,Y) = \frac{1}{24}[X,[Y,[Y,X]]].$$

To prove the Dynkin's formula, we will need the following formula that computes the differential of the exponential map at an arbitrary point.

Lemma 2.3. For each $X \in \mathfrak{g}$,

$$(d \exp)_X = (dL_{\exp X})_e \circ \phi(\operatorname{ad} X),$$

where ϕ is the function

$$\phi(z) = \frac{1 - e^{-z}}{z} = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m}{(m+1)!} z^m.$$

Proof of Dynkin's formula.

Write

$$Z(t) = \log(\exp(X)\exp(tY)).$$

Applying lemma 2.3, we get

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\exp Z(t)) = dL_{\exp X}\frac{d}{dt}(\exp tY) = dL_{\exp X}dL_{\exp tY}\phi(\operatorname{ad}(tY))(Y) = dL_{\exp Z(t)}(Y),$$

where we used the fact $\phi(\operatorname{ad}(tY))(Y) = Y$. On the other hand, by using lemma 2.3 directly,

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\exp Z(t)) = dL_{\exp Z(t)}\phi(\operatorname{ad}Z(t))\frac{dZ}{dt}.$$

It follows

$$\frac{dZ}{dt} = \frac{\operatorname{ad}Z(t)}{I - \exp(-\operatorname{ad}Z(t))}(Y) = \sum_{k>0} \frac{1}{k+1} (I - \exp(-\operatorname{ad}Z(t)))^k(Y).$$

Notice that by the naturality of exp and by the definition of ad and Ad,

$$\exp(-\operatorname{ad}Z(t)) = \operatorname{Ad}\exp(-Z(t)) = \operatorname{Ad}(\exp(-tY)\exp(-X))$$
$$= \operatorname{Ad}(\exp(-tY)) \circ \operatorname{Ad}(\exp(-X))$$
$$= \exp(-\operatorname{tad}(Y)) \circ \exp(-\operatorname{ad}(X)).$$

Thus

$$\frac{dZ}{dt} = \sum_{k\geq 0} \frac{(I - \exp(-t\operatorname{ad}Y) \circ \exp(-\operatorname{ad}X))^k}{k+1} (Y)$$

$$= \sum_{k\geq 0} \frac{(-1)^k}{k+1} \sum_{l_1, \dots, l_k, m_1, \dots, m_k \geq 0, l_i+m_i>0} t^{|l|} (-1)^{|l|+|m|} \frac{(\operatorname{ad}Y)^{l_1}}{l_1!} \frac{(\operatorname{ad}X)^{m_1}}{m_1!} \cdots \frac{(\operatorname{ad}Y)^{l_k}}{l_k!} \frac{(\operatorname{ad}X)^{m_k}}{m_k!} Y.$$

where in the last step we used the fact that $adX \in End(\mathfrak{g})$ is an element in a linear Lie group, and thus the exponential map is exactly the matrix exponential. Now the Dynkin's formula follows from termwise integration over t from 0 to 1.

3. The Derivative of the Exponential Map

Finally we prove lemma 2.3. We first show

Lemma 3.1. Let $\gamma_1(t), \gamma_2(t)$ be smooth curves on G, and let $\gamma(t) = \gamma_1(t)\gamma_2(t)$, then

$$\dot{\gamma}(t) = dL_{\gamma_1(t)}(\dot{\gamma}_2(t)) + dR_{\gamma_2(t)}(\dot{\gamma}_1(t)).$$

Proof. Notice the fact $\gamma(t) = \mu(\gamma_1(t), \gamma_2(t))$, where μ is the multiplication operation on G. So the formula above follows from the following formula we have proven,

$$d\mu_{a,b}(X_a, Y_b) = (dL_a)_b(Y_a) + (dR_b)_a(X_a).$$

More generally, by using induction one can easily see that if $\gamma_1(t), \dots, \gamma_m(t)$ are smooth curves on G, and let $\gamma(t) = \gamma_1(t) \dots \gamma_m(t)$, then

$$\dot{\gamma}(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{m} dL_{\gamma_1(t)} \cdots dL_{\gamma_{k-1}} dR_{\gamma_{k+1}(t)} \cdots dR_{\gamma_m(t)} (\dot{\gamma}_k(t)).$$

Now we are ready to prove lemma 2.3. For simplicity we will denote

$$\nu(X,Y) := \frac{d}{dt} \bigg|_{t=0} \exp(X + tY) = (d\exp)_X(Y).$$

Obviously $\nu(X,Y)$ is linear in Y for each fixed X, and lemma 2.3 follows from

Lemma 3.2. For any $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$,

$$\frac{d}{dt}\Big|_{t=0} \exp(X + tY) = (dL_{\exp X})_e \circ \phi(\operatorname{ad} X)(Y).$$

Proof. We notice that for any positive integer m,

$$\begin{split} \nu(X,Y) &= \left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} \left[\exp(\frac{X}{m} + t\frac{Y}{m}) \right]^m \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} (dL_{\exp\frac{X}{m}})^{m-k-1} (dR_{\exp\frac{X}{m}})^k \nu(\frac{X}{m}, \frac{Y}{m}) \\ &= \frac{1}{m} (dL_{\exp\frac{X}{m}})^{m-1} \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} (dL_{\exp\frac{X}{m}})^{-k} (dR_{\exp\frac{X}{m}})^k \nu(\frac{X}{m}, Y). \end{split}$$

Recall that the differential of the conjugation map $c(a) = L_a R_{a^{-1}}$ is Ad, so we get

$$(dL_{\exp\frac{X}{m}})^{-k}(dR_{\exp\frac{X}{m}})^k = \left[dc(\exp(\frac{-X}{m}))\right]^k = \left[\operatorname{Ad}(\exp\frac{-X}{m})\right]^k = \left[\exp(-\frac{\operatorname{ad}X}{m})\right]^k.$$

So we get, for every positive integer m,

$$\nu(X,Y) = (dL_{\exp \frac{X}{m}})^{m-1} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \left[\exp(-\frac{\mathrm{ad}X}{m}) \right]^k \nu(\frac{X}{m},Y).$$

Now the result follows since as $m \to \infty$,

$$\begin{split} (dL_{\exp\frac{X}{m}})^{m-1} &= dL_{\exp\frac{(m-1)X}{m}} \to dL_{\exp X}, \\ \nu(\frac{X}{m},Y) &\to \nu(0,Y) = (d\exp)_0(Y) = Y, \end{split}$$

and, since $adX \in End(\mathfrak{g})$ is a matrix,

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \left[\exp(-\frac{\text{ad}X}{m}) \right]^k = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \exp\left(-\frac{k}{m} \text{ad}X\right)
= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \left(-\frac{k}{m} \text{ad}X\right)^n
= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \left(\frac{k}{m}\right)^n \right] \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} (\text{ad}X)^n
\to \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left[\int_0^1 x^n dx \right] \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} (\text{ad}X)^n
= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(n+1)!} (\text{ad}X)^n.$$

Finally we give several applications. Given the derivative of the exponential map exp at an arbitrary point, we are ready to answer the following question: at which points X the map exp is singular, i.e. $(d \exp)_X$ is not invertible? Since

$$(d\exp)_X = (dL_{\exp X})_e \circ \phi(\operatorname{ad}X)$$

and $dL_{\exp X})_e$ is always invertible, we see that $(d\exp)_X$ is not invertible if and only if the matrix $\phi(\operatorname{ad} X) \in \operatorname{End}(\mathfrak{g})$ is not invertible, i.e. 0 is not an eigenvalue of $\phi(\operatorname{ad} X)$. Since all eigenvalues of $\phi(\operatorname{ad} X)$ are of the form $\phi(\lambda) = \frac{1-e^{-\lambda}}{\lambda}$, where λ is an eigenvalue of $\operatorname{ad} X \in \operatorname{End}(\mathfrak{g})$, we conclude

Corollary 3.3. The singular points of the exponential map $\exp : \mathfrak{g} \to G$ are precisely those $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ such that $\operatorname{ad} X \in \operatorname{End}(\mathfrak{g})$ has an eigenvalue of the form $2\pi i k$, with $k \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$.

As an example, we see that if G is an abelian Lie group, then exp is non-singular everywhere. More generally, if \mathfrak{g} is nilpotent, then exp : $\mathfrak{g} \to G$ is non-singular everywhere.