## 6. Lie Algebras

Tangent space to a linear Lie group

- Lie algebras
- Homomorhisms of Lie algebras
- Lie algebras of linear Lie groups: examples.
6.1. Tangent space to a linear Lie group. Let $G \leq G L(n, \mathbb{k})$ be a linear Lie group.

Definition 62. A one-parameter subgroup of G is a continuous mapping $\gamma$ : $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow G$ which satisfies (the homomorphism property)

$$
\gamma(s+t)=\gamma(s) \gamma(t) \quad(t, s \in \mathbb{R})
$$

Note : Recall that $\mathbb{R}$ can be viewed as a linear Lie group. Hence (the one-parameter subgroup) $\gamma$ is a continuous homomorphism of linear Lie groups. It can be shown that every one-parameter subgroup of G is differentiable at 0 (in fact, differentiable at every $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ).

A one-parameter subgroup $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{G}$ can be viewed as a collection $(\gamma(t))_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ of linear transformations on $\mathbb{k}^{n}$ such that (for $t, s \in \mathbb{R}$ )

- $\quad \gamma(0)=\operatorname{id}_{\mathbb{k}^{n}}$.
- $\gamma(s+t)=\gamma(s) \gamma(t)$.
- $\gamma(t) \in \mathrm{G}$ depends continuously on $t$.

In other words, $\gamma$ is a linear representation of the (Abelian) group $\mathbb{R}$ on (the vector space) $\mathbb{k}^{n}$. (So $\gamma$ defines a continuous action of $\mathbb{R}$ on $\mathbb{k}^{n}$.) On the other hand, the (parametrized) curve $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{G}$ has a tangent vector $\dot{\gamma}(0) \in \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$ at $\gamma(0)=\mathbf{1}$.

Proposition 43. Let $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G$ be a one-parameter subgroup of $G$. Then $\gamma$ is differentiable at every $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and

$$
\dot{\gamma}(t)=\dot{\gamma}(0) \gamma(t)=\gamma(t) \dot{\gamma}(0) .
$$

Proof. We have (for $t, h \in \mathbb{R}$ )

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\gamma}(t) & =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h}(\gamma(t+h)-\gamma(t)) \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h}(\gamma(h) \gamma(t)-\gamma(t)) \\
& =\left(\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h}(\gamma(h)-\mathbf{1})\right) \gamma(t) \\
& =\dot{\gamma}(0) \gamma(t)
\end{aligned}
$$

and similarly

$$
\dot{\gamma}(t)=\gamma(t) \dot{\gamma}(0) .
$$

We can now determine the form of all one-parameter subgroups of G.
Theorem 44. Let $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathrm{G}$ be a one-parameter subgroup of G . Then it has the form

$$
\gamma(t)=\exp (t A)
$$

for some $A \in \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$.
Proof. Let $A=\dot{\gamma}(0)$. This means that $\gamma$ satisfies (the differential equation)

$$
\dot{\gamma}(t)=A \gamma(t)
$$

and is subject to (the initial condition)

$$
\gamma(0)=\mathbf{1} .
$$

This initial value problem (IVP) has the unique solution $\gamma(t)=\exp (t A)$.
We cannot yet reverse this process and decide for which $A \in \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$ the one-parameter subgroup

$$
\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{k}), \quad t \mapsto \exp (t A)
$$

actually takes values in G. (The answer involves the Lie algebra of G.)
Note : We have a curious phenomenon in the fact that although the definition of a oneparameter group only involves first order differentiability, the general form $\exp (t A)$ is always infinitely differentiable (and indeed analytic) as a function of $t$. This is an important characteristic of much of the Lie theory, namely that conditions of first order differentiability (and even continuity) often lead to much stronger conditions.

Let $\mathrm{G} \leq \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{k})$ be a linear Lie group. Recall that $\mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$ may be considered to be some Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^{m}$.

DEfinition 63. A (parametrized) curve in G is a differentiable mapping $\gamma:(a, b) \subseteq$ $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}^{n \times n}$ such that

$$
\gamma(t) \in \mathrm{G} \quad \text { for all } t \in(a, b) .
$$

The derivative

$$
\dot{\gamma}(t):=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h}(\gamma(t+h)-\gamma(t)) \in \mathbb{K}^{n \times n}
$$

is called the tangent vector to $\gamma$ at $\gamma(t)$. We will usually assume that $a<0<b$.
$\diamond$ Exercise 83. Given two curves $\gamma, \sigma:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathrm{G}$, we define a new curve, the product curve, by

$$
(\gamma \sigma)(t):=\gamma(t) \sigma(t) .
$$

Show that (for $t \in(a, b)$ )

$$
(\gamma \sigma)^{\prime}(t)=\gamma(t) \dot{\sigma}(t)+\dot{\gamma}(t) \sigma(t) .
$$

## Exercise 84.

(a) Let $\gamma:(-1,1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ be given by

$$
\gamma(t):=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \cos t & \sin t \\
0 & -\sin t & \cos t
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Show that $\gamma$ is a curve in $\mathbf{S O}(3)$ and find $\dot{\gamma}(0)$. Show that

$$
\left(\gamma^{2}\right)^{\cdot}(0)=2 \dot{\gamma}(0)
$$

(b) Let $\sigma:(-1,1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ be given by

$$
\sigma(t):=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \cos t & \sin t \\
0 & -\sin t & \cos t
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Calculate $\dot{\sigma}(0)$. Write the matrix $\gamma(t) \sigma(t)$ and verify that

$$
(\gamma \sigma)^{\cdot}(0)=\dot{\gamma}(0)+\dot{\sigma}(0) .
$$

$\diamond$ Exercise 85. Let $\alpha:(-1,1) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be given by

$$
\alpha(t):=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
e^{i \pi t} & 0 & 0 \\
0 & e^{i \frac{\pi t}{2}} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & e^{i \frac{\pi t}{2}}
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Show that $\alpha$ is a curve in $\mathbf{U}(3)$. Calculate $\dot{\alpha}(0)$.
Definition 64. The tangent space to G at $A \in \mathrm{G}$ is the set

$$
T_{A} \mathrm{G}:=\left\{\dot{\gamma}(0) \in \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}: \gamma \text { is a curve in } \mathrm{G} \text { with } \gamma(0)=A\right\} .
$$

Proposition 45. The set $T_{A} \mathrm{G}$ is a real vector subspace of $\mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$.
Proof. Let $\alpha, \beta:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$ be two curves in $G$ through $A$ (i.e., $\left.\alpha(0)=\beta(0)=A\right)$. Then

$$
\gamma:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}, \quad t \mapsto \alpha(t) A^{-1} \beta(t)
$$

is also a curve in G with $\gamma(0)=A$. We have

$$
\dot{\gamma}(t)=\dot{\alpha}(t) A^{-1} \beta(t)+\alpha(t) A^{-1} \dot{\beta}(t)
$$

and hence

$$
\dot{\gamma}(0)=\dot{\alpha}(0) A^{-1} \beta(0)+\alpha(0) A^{-1} \dot{\beta}(0)=\dot{\alpha}(0)+\dot{\beta}(0)
$$

which shows that $T_{A} \mathrm{G}$ is closed under (vector) addition.
Similarly, if $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\alpha:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$ is a curve in $G$ with $\alpha(0)=A$, then

$$
\eta:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}, \quad t \mapsto \alpha(\lambda t)
$$

is another such curve. Since $\dot{\eta}(0)=\lambda \dot{\alpha}(0)$, we see that $T_{A} \mathrm{G}$ is closed under (real) scalar multiplication. So $T_{A} \mathrm{G}$ is a (real) vector subspace of $\mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$.

## C.C. REMSING

Note : Since the vector space $\mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$ is finite dimensional, so is (the tangent space) $T_{A}$.
Definition 65. If $\mathrm{G} \leq \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{k})$ is a linear Lie group, its dimension is the dimension of the (real) vector space $T_{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{G}$ ( $\mathbf{1}$ is the identity matrix). So

$$
\operatorname{dim} \mathrm{G}:=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{R}} T_{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{G} .
$$

Note : If the linear Lie group G is complex, then its complex dimension is

$$
\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{C}} \mathrm{G}:=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{C}} T_{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{G} .
$$

$\diamond$ Exercise 86. Show that the matrix group U(1) has dimension 1.
Note : The only connected linear Lie groups (up to isomorphism) of dimension 1 are $\mathbb{T}^{1}=$ $U(1)$ and $\mathbb{R}$, and of dimension 2 are $\mathbb{R}^{2}, \mathbb{T}^{1} \times \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{T}^{2}$, and $\operatorname{AGL}^{+}(1, \mathbb{R})$.

Example 66. The real general linear group $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ has dimension $n^{2}$. The determinant function $\operatorname{det}: \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and $\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{1})=1$. So there is some $\epsilon$-ball about 1 in $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that, for each $A$ in this ball, $\operatorname{det} A \neq 0$ (i.e., $A \in \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ ). If $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, then define a curve $\sigma$ in $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ by

$$
\sigma(t):=\mathbf{1}+t B
$$

Then $\sigma(0)=\mathbf{1}$ and $\dot{\sigma}(0)=B$, and (for small $t$ ) $\sigma(t) \in G L(n, \mathbb{R})$. Hence the tangent space $T_{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ is all of $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ which has dimension $n^{2}$. So $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})=n^{2}$.
$\diamond$ Exercise 87. Show that the dimension of the complex general linear group $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ is $2 n^{2}$.

Proposition 46. Let Sk-sym ( $n$ ) denote the set of all skew-symmetric matrices in $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. Then Sk-sym (n) is a linear subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and its dimension is $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$.

Proof. If $A, B \in \operatorname{Sk}$-sym ( $n$ ), then

$$
(A+B)^{\top}+(A+B)=A^{\top}+A+B^{\top}+B=0
$$

so that $\operatorname{Sk-sym}(n)$ is closed under (vector) addition.
It is also closed under scalar multiplication, for if $A \in \operatorname{Sk}-\operatorname{sym}(n)$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, then $(\lambda A)^{\top}=\lambda A^{\top}$ so that

$$
(\lambda A)^{\top}+\lambda A=\lambda\left(A^{\top}+A\right)=0 .
$$

To check the dimension of $\operatorname{Sk}$-sym ( $n$ ) we construct a basis. Let $E_{i j}$ denote the matrix whose entries are all zero except the $i j$-entry, which is 1 , and the $j i$-entry, which is -1 . If we define these $E_{i j}$ only for $i<j$, we can see that they form a basis for $\operatorname{Sk}$-sym ( $n$ ). It is easy to compute that there are

$$
(n-1)+(n-2)+\cdots+2+1=\frac{n(n-1)}{2}
$$

of them.
$\diamond$ Exercise 88. Show that if $\sigma$ is a curve through the identity (i.e., $\sigma(0)=\mathbf{1}$ ) in the orthogonal group $\mathrm{O}(n)$, then $\dot{\sigma}(0)$ is skew-symmetric.

Note : It follows that $\operatorname{dim} \mathrm{O}(n) \leq \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$. (Later we will show that this estimation is an equality.)
6.2. Lie algebras. We will adopt the notation $\mathfrak{g}:=T_{\mathbf{1}} G$ for this real vector subspace of $\mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$. In fact, $\mathfrak{g}$ has a more interesting algebraic structure, namely that of a Lie algebra.

NOTE : It is customary to use lower case Gothic (Fraktur) characters (such as $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{g}$ and $\mathfrak{h}$ ) to refer to Lie algebras.

DEFINITION 67. A (real) Lie algebra $\mathfrak{a}$ is a real vector space equipped with a product

$$
[\cdot, \cdot]: \mathfrak{a} \times \mathfrak{a} \rightarrow \mathfrak{a}, \quad(x, y) \mapsto[x, y]
$$

such that (for $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x, y, z \in \mathfrak{a}$ )
(LA1) $\quad[x, y]=-[y, x]$.
(LA2) $\quad[\lambda x+\mu y, z]=\lambda[x, z]+\mu[y, z]$.
$($ LA3 $) \quad[x,[y, z]]+[y,[z, x]]+[z,[x, y]]=0$.
The product $[\cdot, \cdot]$ is called the Lie bracket of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{a}$.
Note : (1) Condition (LA3) is called the Jacobi identity. So the Lie bracket $[\cdot, \cdot]$ of (the Lie algebra) $\mathfrak{a}$ is a skew-symmetric bilinear mapping (on $\mathfrak{a}$ ) which satisfies the Jacobi identity. Hence Lie algebras are non-associative algebras. The Lie bracket plays for Lie algebras the same role that the associative law plays for associative algebras.
(2) While we can define complex Lie algebras (or, more generally, Lie algebras over any field), we shall only consider Lie algebras over $\mathbb{R}$.

EXAMPLE 68. Let $\mathfrak{a}=\mathbb{R}^{n}$ and set (for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ )

$$
[x, y]:=0
$$

The trivial product is a skew-symmetric bilinear multiplication (on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ ) which satisfies the Jacobi identity and hence is a Lie bracket. $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ equipped with this product (Lie bracket) is a Lie algebra. Such a Lie algebra is called an Abelian Lie algebra.
$\diamond$ Exercise 89. Show that the only Lie algebra structure on (the vector space) $\mathbb{R}$ is the trivial one.

ExAmple 69. Let $\mathfrak{a}=\mathbb{R}^{3}$ and set (for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$ )

$$
[x, y]:=x \times y \quad(\text { the cross product })
$$

For the standard unit vectors $e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}$ we have

$$
\left[e_{1}, e_{2}\right]=-\left[e_{2}, e_{1}\right]=e_{3}, \quad\left[e_{2}, e_{3}\right]=-\left[e_{3}, e_{2}\right]=e_{1}, \quad\left[e_{3}, e_{1}\right]=-\left[e_{1}, e_{3}\right]=e_{2}
$$

Then $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ equipped with this bracket operation is a Lie algebra. In fact, as we will see later, this is the Lie algebra of (the matrix group) $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ and also of $\mathrm{SU}(2)$ in disguise.

Given two matrices $A, B \in \mathbb{K}^{n \times n}$, their commutator is

$$
[A, B]:=A B-B A
$$

$A$ and $B$ commute (i.e., $A B=B A$ ) if and only if $[A, B]=0$. The commutator $[\cdot, \cdot]$ is a product on $\mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$ satisfying conditions (LA1)-(LA3).
$\diamond$ Exercise 90. Verify the Jacobi identity for the commutator $[\cdot, \cdot]$.
The real vector space $\mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$ equipped with the commutator $[\cdot, \cdot]$ is a Lie algebra.
Note : The procedure to give $\mathbb{K}^{n \times n}$ a Lie algebra structure can be extended to any associative algebra. A Lie bracket can be defined in any associative algebra by the commutator $[x, y]=$ $x y-y x$, making it a Lie algebra. Here the skew-symmetry condition (axiom) is clearly satisfied, and one can check easily that in this case the Jacobi identity for the commutator follows from the associativity law for the ordinary product.
There is another way in which Lie algebras arise in the study of algebras. A derivation $d$ of a non-associative algebra $\mathcal{A}$ (i.e., a vector space endowed with a bilinear mapping $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ ) is a linear mapping $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ satisfying the formal analogue of the Leibniz rule for differentiating a product (for all $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$ )

$$
d(x y)=(d x) y+x(d y) .
$$

(The concept of a derivation is an abstraction of the idea of a first-order differential operator.) The set of all derivations on $\mathcal{A}$ is clearly a vector subspace of the algebra End $(\mathcal{A})$ of all linear mappings $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$. Although the product of derivations is in general not a derivation, the commutator $d_{1} \circ d_{2}-d_{2} \circ d_{1}$ of two derivations is again a derivation. Thus the set of all derivations of a non-associative algebra is a Lie algebra, called the derivation algebra of the given non-associative algebra.

Suppose that $\mathfrak{a}$ is a vector subspace of the Lie algebra $\mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$. Then $\mathfrak{a}$ is a Lie subalgebra of $\mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$ if it is closed under taking commutators of pairs of alements in $\mathfrak{a}$; that is,

$$
A, B \in \mathfrak{a} \Rightarrow[A, B] \in \mathfrak{a}
$$

Of course, $\mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$ is a Lie subalgebra of itself.
Theorem 47. If $\mathrm{G} \leq \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{k})$ is a linear Lie group, then the tangent space $\mathfrak{g}=T_{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{G}$ is a Lie subalgebra of $\mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$.

Proof. We will show that two curves $\alpha, \beta$ in G with $\alpha(0)=\beta(0)=\mathbf{1}$, there is such a curve $\gamma$ with $\dot{\gamma}(0)=[\dot{\alpha}(0), \dot{\beta}(0)]$, where $[\cdot, \cdot]$ is the matrix commutator.

Consider the mapping

$$
F:(s, t) \mapsto F(s, t):=\alpha(s) \beta(t) \alpha(s)^{-1} .
$$

This is clearly differentiable with respect to each of the variables $s, t$. For each $s$ (in the domain of $\alpha$ ), $F(s, \cdot)$ is a curve in $G$ with $F(s, 0)=1$. Differentiating gives

$$
\left.\frac{d}{d t} F(s, t)\right|_{t=0}=\alpha(s) \dot{\beta}(0) \alpha(s)^{-1}
$$

and so

$$
\alpha(s) \dot{\beta}(0) \alpha(s)^{-1} \in \mathfrak{g} .
$$

Since $\mathfrak{g}$ is a closed subspace of $\mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$ (any vector subspace is an intersection of hyperplanes), whenever this limit exists we also have

$$
\lim _{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{s}\left(\alpha(s) \dot{\beta}(0) \alpha(s)^{-1}-\dot{\beta}(0)\right) \in \mathfrak{g} .
$$

$\diamond$ Exercise 91. Verify the following matrix version of the usual rule for differentiating an inverse :

$$
\frac{d}{d t}\left(\alpha(t)^{-1}\right)=-\alpha(t)^{-1} \dot{\alpha}(t) \alpha(t)^{-1}
$$

We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim _{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{s}\left(\alpha(s) \dot{\beta}(0) \alpha(s)^{-1}-\dot{\beta}(0)\right) & =\left.\frac{d}{d s} \alpha(s) \dot{\beta}(0) \alpha(s)^{-1}\right|_{s=0} \\
& =\dot{\alpha}(0) \dot{\beta}(0) \alpha(0)-\alpha(0) \dot{\beta}(0) \alpha(0)^{-1} \dot{\alpha}(0) \alpha(0)^{-1} \\
& =\dot{\alpha}(0) \dot{\beta}(0) \alpha(0)-\alpha(0) \dot{\beta}(0) \dot{\alpha}(0) \\
& =\dot{\alpha}(0) \dot{\beta}(0)-\dot{\beta}(0) \dot{\alpha}(0) \\
& =[\dot{\alpha}(0), \dot{\beta}(0)] .
\end{aligned}
$$

This shows that $[\dot{\alpha}(0), \dot{\beta}(0)] \in \mathfrak{g}$, hence it must be of the form $\dot{\gamma}(0)$ for some curve $\gamma$.
So, for each linear Lie group $G$, there is a Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}=T_{1} G$. We call $\mathfrak{g}$ the Lie algebra of $G$.

Note : The essential phenomenon behind Lie theory is that one may associate, in a natural way, to a linear Lie group G its Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$. The Lie algebra is first of all a (real) vector space and secondly is endowed with a skew-symmetric bilinear product (the Lie bracket). Amazingly, the group G is almost completely determined by $\mathfrak{g}$ and its Lie bracket. Thus, for many purposes, one can replace $G$ with $\mathfrak{g}$. Since $G$ is a complicated nonlinear object and $\mathfrak{g}$ is just a vector space, it is usually vastly simpler to work with $\mathfrak{g}$. Otherwise intractable computations may become straightforward linear algebra; this is one source of the power of Lie theory.
6.3. Homomorphisms of Lie algebras. A suitable type of homomorphism $G \rightarrow H$ between linear Lie groups gives rise to a linear mapping $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ respecting the Lie algebra structures.

Definition 70. Let $\mathrm{G} \leq \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{k}), \mathrm{H} \leq \mathrm{GL}(m, \mathbb{k})$ be linear Lie groups and let $\Phi$ : $\mathrm{G} \rightarrow \mathrm{H}$ be a continuous mapping. Then $\Phi$ is said to be differentiable if for every (differentiable) curve $\gamma:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathrm{G}$, the composite mapping $\Phi \circ \gamma:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathrm{H}$ is a (differentiable) curve with derivative

$$
(\Phi \circ \gamma)^{\cdot}(t)=\frac{d}{d t} \Phi(\gamma(t))
$$

and, if two (differentiable) curves $\alpha, \beta:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathrm{G}$ both satisfy the conditions

$$
\alpha(0)=\beta(0) \quad \text { and } \quad \dot{\alpha}(0)=\dot{\beta}(0)
$$

then $(\Phi \circ \alpha)^{\prime}(0)=(\Phi \circ \beta)^{\prime}(0)$.
Such a mapping $\Phi$ is a differentiable homomorphism if it is also a group homomorphism. A continuous homomorphism of matrix groups that is also differentiable is called a Lie homomorphism.

Note : The "technical restriction" in the definition of a Lie homomorphism is, in fact, unnecessary. (It turns out, but by no means easy to prove, that every continuous homomorphism between Lie groups is differentiable - in fact, analytic.)

If $\Phi: \mathbf{G} \rightarrow \mathbf{H}$ is the restriction of a differentiable mapping $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{k}) \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(m, \mathbb{k})$, then $\Phi$ is also a differentiable mapping.

Proposition 48. Let G, H, K be linear Lie groups and let $\Phi: \mathrm{G} \rightarrow \mathrm{H}, \Psi: \mathrm{H} \rightarrow \mathrm{K}$ be differentiable homomorphisms.
(a) For each $A \in \mathrm{G}$ there is a linear mapping $d \Phi_{A}: T_{A} \mathrm{G} \rightarrow T_{\Phi(A)} \mathrm{H}$ given by

$$
d \Phi_{A}(\dot{\gamma}(0))=(\Phi \circ \gamma)^{\cdot}(0) .
$$

(b) We have

$$
d \Psi_{\Phi(A)} \circ d \Phi_{A}=d(\Psi \circ \Phi)_{A} .
$$

(c) For the identity mapping $\mathbf{1}_{\mathrm{G}}: \mathrm{G} \rightarrow \mathrm{G}$ and $A \in \mathrm{G}$,

$$
d\left(\mathbf{1}_{\mathrm{G}}\right)_{A}=\mathbf{1}_{T_{A} \mathrm{G}} .
$$

Proof. (a) The definition of $d \Phi_{A}$ makes sense since (by the definition of differentiability), given $X \in T_{A} \mathrm{G}$, for any curve $\gamma$ with $\gamma(0)=A$ and $\dot{\gamma}(0)=X,(\Phi \circ \gamma)^{\cdot}(0)$ depends only on $X$ and not on $\gamma$. The identities (b) and (c) are straightforward to verify.

Exercise 92. Verify that the map $d \Phi_{A}: T_{A} \mathrm{G} \rightarrow T_{\Phi(A)} \mathrm{H}$ is linear.

If $\Phi: \mathrm{G} \rightarrow \mathrm{H}$ is a differentiable homomorphism, then (since $\Phi(\mathbf{1})=\mathbf{1}) d \Phi_{\mathbf{1}}: T_{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{G} \rightarrow$ $T_{1} \mathrm{H}$ is a linear mapping, called the derivative of $\Phi$ and usually denoted by

$$
d \Phi: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h} .
$$

Definition 71. Let $\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{h}$ be Lie algebras. A linear mapping $\phi: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ is a homomorphism of Lie algebras if (for $x, y \in \mathfrak{g}$ )

$$
\phi([x, y])=[\phi(x), \phi(y)] .
$$

Theorem 49. Let G, H be linear Lie groups and $\Phi: \mathrm{G} \rightarrow \mathrm{H}$ be a Lie homomorphism. Then the derivative $d \Phi: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ is a homomorphism of Lie algebras.

Following ideas and notation in the proof of Theorem 47 , for curves $\alpha, \beta$ in G with $\alpha(0)=\beta(0)=1$, we can use the composite mapping

$$
\Phi \circ F:(s, t) \mapsto \Phi(F(s, t))=\Phi(\alpha(s)) \Phi(\beta(t)) \Phi(\alpha(s))^{-1}
$$

to deduce $d \Phi([\dot{\alpha}(0), \dot{\beta}(0)])=[d \Phi(\dot{\alpha}(0)), d \Phi(\dot{\beta}(0))]$.
$\diamond$ Exercise 93. Write down a full proof of Theorem 49.
Corollary 50. Let $\mathrm{G}, \mathrm{H}$ be linear Lie groups and $\Phi: \mathrm{G} \rightarrow \mathrm{H}$ be a Lie isomorphism of linear Lie groups. Then the derivative $d \Phi: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ is an isomorphism of Lie algebras.

Proof. $\Phi^{-1} \circ \Phi$ is the identity, so

$$
d \Phi^{-1} \circ d \Phi: T_{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{G} \rightarrow T_{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{G}
$$

is the identity. Thus $d \Phi^{-1}$ is surjective and $d \Phi$ is injective.
Likewise, $\Phi \circ \Phi^{-1}$ is the identity, so $d \Phi \circ d \Phi^{-1}$ is the identity. Thus $d \Phi^{-1}$ is injective, and $d \Phi$ is surjective. The result now follows.

Note : Isomorphic linear Lie groups have isomorphic Lie algebras. The converse (i.e., linear Lie groups with isomorphic Lie algebras are isomorphic) is false. For example, the rotation group SO (2) and the diagonal group

$$
\mathrm{D}_{1}=\left\{\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & e^{a}
\end{array}\right]: a \in \mathbb{R}\right\} \leq \operatorname{AGL}^{+}(1, \mathbb{R})
$$

both have Lie algebras isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$ (the only Lie algebra structure on $\mathbb{R}$ ), but $\mathrm{SO}(2)$ is homeomorphic to a circle, while $D_{1}$ is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$, so they are certainly not isomorphic.

However, the converse is - in a sense - almost true, so that the bracket operation on $\mathfrak{g}$ almost determines $G$ as a group. After the existence of the Lie algebra, this fact is the most remarkable in Lie theory. Its precise formulation is known as Lie's Third Theorem.

### 6.4. Lie algebras of linear Lie groups: examples.

6.4.1. The Lie algebras of $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ and $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$. Let us start with the real general linear group $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R}) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. We have shown (see Example 90$)$ that $T_{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})=$ $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. Hence the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g l}(n, \mathbb{R})$ of $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ consists of all $n \times n$ matrices (with real entries), with the commutator as the Lie bracket. Thus $\mathfrak{g l}(n, \mathbb{R})=\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. It follows that

$$
\operatorname{dim} \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})=\operatorname{dim} \mathfrak{g l}(n, \mathbb{R})=n^{2}
$$

Similarly, the Lie algebra of the complex general linear group $G L(n, \mathbb{C})$ is $\mathfrak{g l}(n, \mathbb{C})=$ $\mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and

$$
\operatorname{dim} \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathfrak{g l}(n, \mathbb{C})=2 n^{2}
$$

6.4.2. The Lie algebras of $\operatorname{SL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ and $\operatorname{SL}(n, \mathbb{C})$. For $\operatorname{SL}(n, \mathbb{R}) \leq \operatorname{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$, suppose that $\alpha:(a, b) \rightarrow \operatorname{SL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ is a curve in $\operatorname{SL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ with $\alpha(0)=\mathbf{1}$. For $t \in(a, b)$ we have $\operatorname{det} \alpha(t)=1$ and so

$$
\frac{d}{d t} \operatorname{det} \alpha(t)=0 .
$$

Using Proposition 37, it follows that $\operatorname{tr} \dot{\alpha}(0)=0$ and thus

$$
T_{1} \mathrm{SL}(n, \mathbb{R}) \subseteq \operatorname{Ker} \operatorname{tr}:=\left\{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}: \operatorname{tr} A=0\right\}
$$

If $A \in \operatorname{Ker} \operatorname{tr} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, the curve $\alpha:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, \quad t \mapsto \exp (t A)$ satisfies (the boundary conditions)

$$
\alpha(0)=1 \quad \text { and } \quad \dot{\alpha}(0)=A .
$$

Moreover, using Liouville's Formula, we get

$$
\operatorname{det} \alpha(t)=\operatorname{det} \exp (t A)=e^{t \operatorname{tr} A}=1
$$

Hence the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s l}(n, \mathbb{R})$ of $\operatorname{SL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ consists of all $n \times n$ matrices (with real entries) having trace zero, with the commutator as the Lie bracket. Thus

$$
\mathfrak{s l}(n, \mathbb{R})=T_{1} \mathrm{SL}(n, \mathbb{R})=\{A \in \mathfrak{g l}(n, \mathbb{R}): \operatorname{tr} A=0\}
$$

Since $\operatorname{tr} A=0$ imposes one condition on $A$, it follows that

$$
\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{SL}(n, \mathbb{R})=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathfrak{s l}(n, \mathbb{R})=n^{2}-1
$$

Similarly, the Lie algebra of the complex special linear group $\operatorname{SL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ is

$$
\mathfrak{s l}(n, \mathbb{C})=T_{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{SL}(n, \mathbb{C})=\{A \in \mathfrak{g l}(n, \mathbb{C}): \operatorname{tr} A=0\}
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{SL}(n, \mathbb{C})=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathfrak{s l}(n, \mathbb{C})=2\left(n^{2}-1\right)
$$

6.4.3. The Lie algebras of $\mathrm{O}(n)$ and $\mathrm{SO}(n)$. First, consider the orthogonal group $\mathrm{O}(n)$; that is,

$$
\mathrm{O}(n)=\left\{A \in \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R}): A^{\top} A=\mathbf{1}\right\} \leq \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})
$$

Given a curve $\alpha:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathbf{O}(n)$ with $\alpha(0)=\mathbf{1}$, we have

$$
\frac{d}{d t} \alpha(t)^{T} \alpha(t)=0
$$

and so

$$
\dot{\alpha}(t)^{\top} \alpha(t)+\alpha(t)^{\top} \dot{\alpha}(t)=0
$$

which implies

$$
\dot{\alpha}(0)^{\top}+\dot{\alpha}(0)=0 .
$$

Thus we must have $\dot{\alpha}(0) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is skew-symmetric. So

$$
T_{1} \mathrm{O}(n) \subseteq \operatorname{Sk}-\operatorname{sym}(n)=\left\{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}: A^{\top}+A=0\right\}
$$

(the set of all $n \times n$ skew-symmetric matrices in $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ).
On the other hand, if $A \in \operatorname{Sk}$-sym $(n) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we consider the curve

$$
\alpha:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R}), \quad t \mapsto \exp (t A) .
$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha(t)^{\top} \alpha(t) & =\exp (t A)^{\top} \exp (t A) \\
& =\exp \left(t A^{\top}\right) \exp (t A) \\
& =\exp (-t A) \exp (t A) \\
& =\mathbf{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence we can view $\alpha$ as a curve in $\mathrm{O}(n)$. Since $\dot{\alpha}(0)=A$, this shows that

$$
\operatorname{Sk}-\operatorname{sym}(n) \subseteq T_{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{O}(n)
$$

and hence the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{o}(n)$ of the orthogonal group $\mathbf{O}(n)$ consists of all $n \times n$ skew-symmetric matrices, with the usual commutator as the Lie bracket. Thus

$$
\mathfrak{o}(n)=T_{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{O}(n)=\operatorname{Sk-sym}(n)=\left\{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}: A^{\top}+A=0\right\} .
$$

It follows that (see Proposition 46)

$$
\operatorname{dim} \mathrm{O}(n)=\operatorname{dim} \mathfrak{o}(n)=\frac{n(n-1)}{2}
$$

Exercise 94. Show that if $A \in \operatorname{Sk}-\operatorname{sym}(n)$, then $\operatorname{tr} A=0$.

By Liouville's Formula, we have

$$
\operatorname{det} \alpha(t)=\operatorname{det} \exp (t A)=1
$$

and hence $\alpha:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathrm{SO}(n)$, where $\mathrm{SO}(n)$ is the special orthogonal group. We have actually shown that the Lie algebra of the special orthogonal group $\mathrm{SO}(n)$ is

$$
\mathfrak{s o}(n)=\mathfrak{o}(n)=\left\{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}: A^{\top}+A=0\right\} .
$$

6.4.4. The Lie algebra of $\mathrm{SO}(3)$. We will discuss the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s o}(3)$ of the rotation group SO (3) in some detail.

Exercise 95. Show that

$$
\mathfrak{s o}(3)=\left\{\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & -c & b \\
c & 0 & -a \\
-b & a & 0
\end{array}\right] \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}: a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}\right\} .
$$

The Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s o ( 3 )}$ is a three-dimensional real vector space. Consider the rotations

$$
R_{1}(t)=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \cos t & -\sin t \\
0 & \sin t & \cos t
\end{array}\right], R_{2}(t)=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\cos t & 0 & \sin t \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
-\sin t & 0 & \cos t
\end{array}\right], R_{3}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\cos t & -\sin t & 0 \\
\sin t & \cos t & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Then the mappings

$$
\rho_{i}: t \mapsto R_{i}(t), \quad i=1,2,3
$$

are curves in $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ and clearly $\rho_{i}(0)=\mathbf{1}$. It follows that

$$
\dot{\rho}_{i}(0):=A_{i} \in \mathfrak{s o}(3), \quad i=1,2,3 .
$$

These elements (matrices) are

$$
A_{1}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & -1 \\
0 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right], \quad A_{2}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 \\
-1 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right], \quad A_{3}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & -1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right] .
$$

$\diamond$ Exercise 96. Verify that the matrices $A_{1}, A_{2}, A_{3}$ form a basis for $\mathfrak{s o}(3)$. (We shall refer to this basis as the standard basis.)
$\diamond$ Exercise 97. Compute all the Lie brackets (commutators) $\left[A_{i}, A_{j}\right], i, j=1,2,3$ and then determine the coefficients $c_{i j}^{k}$ defined by

$$
\left[A_{i}, A_{j}\right]=c_{i j}^{1} A_{1}+c_{i j}^{2} A_{2}+c_{i j}^{3} A_{3}, \quad i, j=1,2,3
$$

(These coefficients are called the structure constants of the Lie algebra. They completely determine the Lie bracket $[\cdot, \cdot]$.)

The Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s o}(3)$ may be identified with (the Lie algebra) $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ as follows. We define the mapping

$$
\wedge: \mathbb{R}^{3} \rightarrow \mathfrak{s o}(3), \quad x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \mapsto \widehat{x}:=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & -x_{3} & x_{2} \\
x_{3} & 0 & -x_{1} \\
-x_{2} & x_{1} & 0
\end{array}\right] .
$$

This mapping is called the hat map.
$\diamond$ Exercise 98. Show that the hat map ${ }^{\wedge}: \mathbb{R}^{3} \rightarrow \mathfrak{s o}(3)$ is an isomorphism of vector spaces.

Exercise 99. Show that (for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$ )
(a) $x \times y=\widehat{x} y$.
(b) $\widehat{x \times y}=[\widehat{x}, \widehat{y}]$.
(c) $x \bullet y=-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}(\widehat{x} \widehat{y})$.

Formula (b) says that the hat map is in fact an isomorphism of Lie algebras and so we can identify the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s o ( 3 )}$ with (the Lie algebra) $\mathbb{R}^{3}$.
Note : For $x \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$, the matrix exponential $\exp (t \widehat{x})$ is a rotation about (the axis) $x$ through the angle $t\|x\|$. The following explicit formula for $\exp (\widehat{x})$ is known as Rodrigues' Formula:

$$
\exp (\widehat{x})=\mathbf{1}+\frac{\sin \|x\|}{\|x\|} \widehat{x}+\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{\sin \left(\frac{\|x\|}{2}\right)}{\frac{\|x\|}{2}}\right]^{2} \widehat{x}^{2} .
$$

This result says that the exponential map

$$
\exp : \mathfrak{s o}(3) \rightarrow \mathrm{SO}(3)
$$

is onto. Rodrigues' Formula is useful in computational solid mechanics, along with its quaternionic counterpart.
6.4.5. The Lie algebras of $\mathrm{U}(n)$ and $\mathrm{SU}(n)$. Consider the unitary group $\mathbf{U}(n)$; that is,

$$
\mathrm{U}(n)=\left\{A \in \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C}): A^{*} A=\mathbf{1}\right\}
$$

For a curve $\alpha$ in $\mathbf{U}(n)$ with $\alpha(0)=\mathbf{1}$, we obtain

$$
\dot{\alpha}(0)^{*}+\dot{\alpha}(0)=0
$$

and so $\dot{\alpha}(0) \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is skew-Hermitian. So

$$
T_{1} \cup(n) \subseteq \operatorname{Sk} \text {-Herm }(n)=\left\{A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}: A^{*}+A=0\right\}
$$

(the set of all $n \times n$ skew-Hermitian matrices in $\mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ ).
If $H \in \operatorname{Sk}-\operatorname{Herm}(n)$, then the curve

$$
\alpha:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C}), \quad t \mapsto \exp (t H)
$$

satisfies

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha(t)^{*} \alpha(t) & =\exp (t H)^{*} \exp (t H) \\
& =\exp \left(t H^{*}\right) \exp (t H) \\
& =\exp (-t H) \exp (t H) \\
& =\mathbf{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence we can view $\alpha$ as a curve in $\mathrm{U}(n)$. Since $\dot{\alpha}(0)=H$, this shows that

$$
\operatorname{Sk-Herm}(n) \subseteq T_{\mathbf{1}} \cup(n)
$$

and hence the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{u}(n)$ of the unitary group $\mathbf{U}(n)$ consists of all $n \times n$ skewHermitian matrices, with the usual commutator as the Lie bracket. Thus

$$
\mathfrak{u}(n)=T_{\mathbf{1}} \cup(n)=\text { Sk-Herm }(n)=\left\{H \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}: H^{*}+H=0\right\} .
$$

It follows that (see Problem 39)

$$
\operatorname{dim} \mathcal{U}(n)=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathfrak{u}(n)=n^{2}
$$

The special unitary group $\operatorname{SU}(n)$ can be handled in a similar way. Again we have

$$
\mathfrak{s u}(n)=T_{1} \mathrm{SU}(n) \subseteq \operatorname{Sk} \text {-Herm }(n) .
$$

If $\alpha:(a, b) \rightarrow \operatorname{SU}(n)$ is a curve with $\alpha(0)=\mathbf{1}$ then, as in the analysis for $\operatorname{SL}(n, \mathbb{R})$, we have $\operatorname{tr} \dot{\alpha}(0)=0$. Writing

$$
\text { Sk-Herm }^{0}(n):=\{H \in \operatorname{Sk-Herm}(n): \operatorname{tr} H=0\}
$$

this gives $\mathfrak{s u}(n) \subseteq \operatorname{Sk}_{\mathbf{k}}-\operatorname{Herm}^{0}(n)$. On the other hand, if $H \in \operatorname{Sk}-\operatorname{Herm}^{0}(n)$ then the curve

$$
\alpha:(a, b) \rightarrow \cup(n), \quad t \mapsto \exp (t H)
$$

takes values in $\mathrm{SU}(n)$ and $\dot{\alpha}(0)=H$. Hence

$$
\mathfrak{s u}(n)=T_{1} \mathrm{SU}(n)=\operatorname{Sk}_{\mathbf{k}} \operatorname{Herm}^{0}(n)=\left\{H \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}: H^{*}+H=0 \text { and } \operatorname{tr} H=0\right\} .
$$

Note : For a linear Lie group $\mathrm{G} \leq \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ (with Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ ), the following are true (and can be used in determining Lie algebras of linear Lie groups).

- The mapping

$$
\exp _{\mathrm{G}}: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R}), \quad X \mapsto \exp (X)
$$

has image contained in $G, \exp _{G}(\mathfrak{g}) \subseteq G$. We will normally write $\exp _{G}: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow G$ for the exponential mapping on $G$ (and sometimes even just exp). In general, the exponential mapping $\exp _{\mathrm{G}}$ is neither one-to-one nor onto.

- If $G$ is compact and connected, then $\exp _{G}$ is onto.
- The mapping $\exp _{\mathrm{G}}$ maps a neighborhood of 0 in $\mathfrak{g}$ bijectively onto a neighborhood of 1 in G.
$\diamond$ Exercise 100. Verify that the exponential map

$$
\exp _{\cup(1)}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{U}(1)=\mathbb{S}^{1}, \quad t \mapsto e^{i t}
$$

is onto but not one-to-one.

Example 72. The exponential map

$$
\exp _{\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})}: \mathfrak{s l}(2, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \operatorname{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})
$$

is not onto. Let

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\lambda & 0 \\
0 & \frac{1}{\lambda}
\end{array}\right] \quad \text { with } \quad \lambda<-1
$$

We see that $A \in \mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ and we shall show that $A$ is not of the form $\exp (X)$ with $X \in \mathfrak{s l}(2, \mathbb{R})$. If $A=\exp (X)$, then the eigenvalues of $A$ are of the form $e^{a}$ and $e^{b}$, where $a$ and $b$ are the eigenvalues of $X$. Suppose $\lambda=e^{a}$ and $\frac{1}{\lambda}=e^{b}$. Then

$$
a=-b+2 k \pi i, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

However, since $\lambda$ is negative, $a$ is actually complex and therefore its conjugate is also an eigenvalue; that is, $b=\bar{a}$. This gives $a$ as pure imaginary. Then

$$
1=\left|e^{a}\right|=|\lambda|=-\lambda
$$

which contradicts the assumption that $\lambda<-1$.
6.4.6. The Lie algebra of $\operatorname{SU}(2)$. We will discuss the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s u}(2)$ in some detail.
$\diamond$ Exercise 101. Show that

$$
\mathfrak{s u}(2)=\left\{\left[\begin{array}{cc}
c i & -b+a i \\
b+a i & -c i
\end{array}\right] \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}: a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}\right\}
$$

The Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s u}(2)$ is a three-dimensional real vector space. Consider the matrices

$$
H_{1}=\frac{1}{2}\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right], \quad H_{2}=\frac{1}{2}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right], \quad H_{3}=\frac{1}{2}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
i & 0 \\
0 & -i
\end{array}\right]
$$

Clearly,

$$
H_{i} \in \mathfrak{s u}(2), \quad i=1,2,3
$$

$\diamond$ Exercise 102. Verify that the matrices $H_{1}, H_{2}, H_{3}$ form a basis for $\mathfrak{s u}(2)$.
$\diamond$ Exercise 103. Compute all the Lie brackets (commutators) $\left[H_{i}, H_{j}\right], i, j=1,2,3$ and then determine the structure constants of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s u}(2)$.

Consider the mapping

$$
\phi: \mathbb{R}^{3} \rightarrow \mathfrak{s u}(2), \quad x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \mapsto x_{1} H_{1}+x_{2} H_{2}+x_{3} H_{3}
$$

$\diamond$ Exercise 104. Show that the mapping $\phi: \mathbb{R}^{3} \rightarrow \mathfrak{s u}(2)$ is an isomorphism of Lie algebras ( $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ with the cross product).

Thus we can identify the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s u}(2)$ with (the Lie algebra) $\mathbb{R}^{3}$.
Note : The Lie algebras $\mathfrak{s u}(2)$ and $\mathfrak{s o}$ (3) look the same algebraically (they are isomorphic). An explicit isomorphism (of Lie algebras) is given by

$$
\psi: x_{1} H_{1}+x_{2} H_{2}+x_{3} H_{3} \mapsto x_{1} A_{1}+x_{2} A_{2}+x_{3} A_{3} .
$$

This suggests that there might be a close relationship between the matrix groups themselves. Indeed there is a (surjective) Lie homomorphism $\mathrm{SU}(2) \rightarrow \mathrm{SO}(3)$ whose derivative (at $\mathbf{1})$ is $\psi$. Recall the adjoint representation

$$
\operatorname{Ad}: \mathrm{SU}(2) \rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}(\mathfrak{s u}(2)), \quad A \mapsto \operatorname{Ad}_{A}\left(: U \mapsto A U A^{*}\right)
$$

Each $\mathrm{Ad}_{A}$ is a linear isomorphism of $\mathfrak{s u}(2) . \mathrm{Ad}_{A}$ is actually an orthogonal transformation on $\mathfrak{s u}(2)$ (the mapping $(X, Y) \mapsto-\operatorname{tr}(X Y)$ is an inner product on $\mathfrak{s u}(2))$ and so $\mathrm{Ad}_{A}$ corresponds to an element of $\mathrm{O}(3)$ (in fact, $\mathrm{SO}(3))$. The mapping

$$
\overline{\mathrm{Ad}}: \mathrm{SU}(2) \rightarrow \mathrm{SO}(3), \quad A \mapsto \mathrm{Ad}_{A}
$$

turns out to be a continuous homomorphism of matrix groups that is differentiable (i.e., a Lie homomorphism) and such that its derivative $d \overline{\mathrm{Ad}}: \mathfrak{s u}(2) \rightarrow \mathfrak{s o}(3)$ is $\psi$.
6.4.7. The Lie algebras of $\mathrm{T}(n, \mathbb{k})$ and $\mathrm{UT}(n, \mathbb{k})$. Let $\alpha:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathrm{T}(n, \mathbb{k})$ be a curve in $\mathrm{T}(n, \mathbb{k})$ with $\alpha(0)=\mathbf{1}$. Then $\dot{\alpha}(0)$ is upper triangular. Moreover, using the argument for $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{k})$ we see that given any upper triangular matrix $A \in \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$, there is a curve

$$
\sigma:(-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}, \quad t \mapsto \mathbf{1}+t A
$$

such that $\sigma(t) \in \mathrm{T}(n, \mathbb{k})$ and $\dot{\sigma}(0)=A$. Hence the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{t}(n, \mathbb{k})$ of $\mathrm{T}(n, \mathbb{k})$ consists of all $n \times n$ upper triangular matrices, with the usual commutator as the Lie bracket. Thus

$$
\mathfrak{t}(n, \mathbb{k})=T_{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{T}(n, \mathbb{k})=\left\{A \in \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}: a_{i j}=0 \text { for } i>j\right\} .
$$

It follows that

$$
\operatorname{dim} \mathrm{T}(n, \mathbb{k})=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathfrak{t}(n, \mathbb{k})=\frac{n(n+1)}{2} \operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{k}
$$

An upper triangular matrix $A \in \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$ is strictly upper triangular if all its diagonal entries are 0 . Then the Lie algebra of the unipotent group $\mathrm{UT}(n, \mathbb{k})$ consists of all $n \times n$ strictly upper triangular matrices, with the usual commutator as the Lie bracket. So

$$
\mathfrak{u t}(n, \mathbb{k})=T_{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{UT}(n, \mathbb{k})=\left\{A \in \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}: a_{i j}=0 \text { for } i \geq j\right\}
$$

$\diamond$ Exercise 105. Find $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathfrak{u t}(n, \mathbb{k})$.
(33) Let $\mathrm{G} \leq \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{k})$ be a linear Lie group.
(a) Prove that if $A=\dot{\alpha}(0) \in T_{1} \mathrm{G}$, then $\exp (A) \in \mathrm{G}$. (This means that the matrix exponential map $\exp : \mathbb{k}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{k})$ maps the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}=$ $T_{1} \mathrm{G}$ into G .)
(b) Hence deduce that

$$
T_{1} \mathrm{G}=\left\{X \in \mathbb{K}^{n \times n}: \exp (t X) \in \mathrm{G} \text { for all } t \in \mathbb{R}\right\}
$$

(34) Let $G$ be a linear Lie group. Prove that the following statements are logically equivalent.
(a) Any two elements of G may be joined by a path in G.
(b) $G$ is not the disjoint union of two non-empty open sets.
(c) $G$ is generated by any neighborhood of $\mathbf{1}$.
(d) $G$ is generated by $\exp (\mathfrak{g})$. (A subset of $G$ generates $G$ if every element of $G$ is a finite product of elements of the subset and their inverses; in this case, it means that every element of G is of the form $\exp \left(X_{1}\right) \exp \left(X_{2}\right) \cdots \exp \left(X_{k}\right)$ for some $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{k}$ in the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ of G .)
(35) Let G be a linear Lie group with associated Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$. Prove that the group G is Abelian if and only if the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ is Abelian (i.e., $[x, y]=0$ for all $x, y \in \mathfrak{g})$.
(36) Let $\mathfrak{g}$ be a (real) Lie algebra. A vector subspace $\mathfrak{k}$ of $\mathfrak{g}$ is called an ideal if

$$
[x, y] \in \mathfrak{k} \quad \text { for all } x \in \mathfrak{g}, y \in \mathfrak{k}
$$

(a) Verify that any ideal $\mathfrak{k}$ is a Lie subalgebra (of $\mathfrak{g}$ ).
(b) Show that the center of $\mathfrak{g}$

$$
\mathfrak{z}(\mathfrak{g}):=\{x \in \mathfrak{g}:[x, y]=0 \text { for all } y \in \mathfrak{g}\}
$$

is an ideal in $\mathfrak{g}$.
(c) Show that the vector subspace

$$
[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]:=\operatorname{span}\{[x, y]: x, y \in \mathfrak{g}\}
$$

is an ideal in $\mathfrak{g}$. (It is called the commutator subalgebra.)
(d) Show that the set

$$
\mathfrak{s l}(n, \mathbb{k}):=\left\{x \in \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}: \operatorname{tr} x=0\right\}
$$

is an ideal in $\mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$. (It is called the special linear Lie algebra.)
(37) Show that if $\phi: \mathfrak{g}_{1} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}_{2}$ is a Lie algebra homomorphism, then the kernel Ker $\phi$ is an ideal of $\mathfrak{g}_{1}$, and the image $\operatorname{Im} \phi$ is a Lie subalgebra of $\mathfrak{g}_{2}$.
(38) Let $\mathrm{G} \leq \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{k})$ be a linear Lie group. Prove that if H is a normal subgroup of G , then $T_{1} \mathrm{H}$ is an ideal of the Lie algebra $T_{1} \mathrm{G}$.
(39) A matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is called skew-Hermitian if $A^{*}+A=0$.
(a) Show that the diagonal terms of a skew-Hermitian matrix are purely imaginary and hence deduce that the set Sk-Herm $(n)$ of all skew-Hermitian matrices in $\mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is not a vector space over $\mathbb{C}$.
(b) Prove that $\operatorname{Sk}$-Herm ( $n$ ) is a real vector space of dimension

$$
n+2 \frac{n(n-1)}{2}=n^{2}
$$

(c) If $\sigma$ is a curve through the identity in $\mathrm{U}(n)$, show that $\dot{\sigma}(0)$ is skewHermitian and hence

$$
\operatorname{dim} \mathrm{U}(n) \leq n^{2}
$$

(40) Consider the set (of $n \times n$ skew-symmetric matrices)

$$
\mathfrak{s o}(n)=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}: x^{\top}+x=0\right\} .
$$

(It is called the special orthogonal Lie algebra.)
(a) Show that $\mathfrak{s o}(n)$ is a Lie subalgebra of $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.
(b) Show that the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s o}$ (3) contains no ideals other than itself and (the trivial ideal) $\{0\}$. (Such a Lie algebra is called simple.)
[Hint : Show that any non-trivial ideal must contain all the elements of the standard basis.]
(41) For each of the following linear Lie group G, determine its Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ and hence its dimension.
(a) $\mathrm{G}=\left\{A \in \mathrm{GL}(2, \mathbb{R}): A^{\top} Q A=Q\right\}$, where $Q=\left[\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right]$.
(b) $\mathrm{G}=\left\{A \in \mathrm{GL}(2, \mathbb{R}): A^{\top} Q A=Q\right\}$, where $Q=\left[\begin{array}{cc}1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1\end{array}\right]$.
(c) $G=A G L(3, \mathbb{R})$.
(d) $\mathrm{G}=\mathrm{H}_{3}$.
(e) $G=G_{4} \leq$ UT $^{u}(4, \mathbb{R})$ from Exercise 65.
(f) $\mathrm{G}=\mathrm{E}(n)$.
(g) $\mathrm{G}=\mathrm{SE}(n)$.
(42) (a) Show that the Lie algebra of the symplectic group $\operatorname{Sp}(2 n, \mathbb{R})$ is

$$
\mathfrak{s p}(2 n, \mathbb{R})=\left\{A \in \mathbb{R}^{2 n \times 2 n}: A^{\top} \mathbb{J}+\mathbb{J} A=0\right\}
$$

(b) If

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right] \in \mathfrak{s l}(2 n, \mathbb{R})
$$

show that $A \in \mathfrak{s p}(2 n, \mathbb{R})$ if and only if

$$
d=-a^{\top}, \quad c=c^{\top}, \quad \text { and } \quad b=b^{\top} .
$$

(c) Calculate the dimension of $\mathfrak{s p}(2 n, \mathbb{R})$.
(43) Show that the Lie algebra of the Lorentz group Lor is
$\mathfrak{l o r}=\left\{A \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4}: S A+A^{\top} S=0\right\}=\left\{\left[\begin{array}{cccc}0 & a_{1} & a_{2} & a_{3} \\ -a_{1} & 0 & a_{4} & a_{5} \\ -a_{2} & -a_{4} & 0 & a_{6} \\ a_{3} & a_{5} & a_{6} & 0\end{array}\right]: a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{6} \in \mathbb{R}\right\}$.
(44) Consider the linear Lie group $\mathbb{k}^{\times}=\mathrm{GL}(1, \mathbb{k})$. (Its Lie algebra is clearly $\mathbb{k}$.)
(a) Show that the determinant function

$$
\operatorname{det}: \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{k}) \rightarrow \mathbb{k}^{\times}
$$

is a Lie homomorphism (i.e., a continuous homomorphism of linear Lie groups that is also differentiable; cf. Definition 70).
(b) Show that the induced homomorphism of Lie algebras (i.e., the derivative of det) is the trace function

$$
\operatorname{tr}: \mathbb{k}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{k} .
$$

(c) Derive from (b) that (for $A, B \in \mathbb{k}^{n \times n}$ )

$$
\operatorname{tr}(A B)=\operatorname{tr}(B A)
$$

