

# Lie algebras

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# Preliminaries

# Introduction

## Definition (Lie algebra)

A vector space  $L$  over a field  $F$  with an operation  $[\cdot, \cdot] : L \times L \rightarrow L$  (so  $(x, y) \mapsto [x, y]$  or  $[xy]$ ) is called a Lie algebra over  $F$  if:

- 1  $[\cdot, \cdot]$  is bilinear.
- 2  $[xx] = 0 \forall x \in L$ .
- 3  $[x [yz]] + [y [zx]] + [z [xy]] = 0 \forall x, y, z \in L$ .

Some small observations:

- 1  $0 = [x + y, x + y] = [xx] + [xy] + [yx] + [yy] = [xy] + [yx] \implies [xy] = -[yx]$ .  
In fact, this statement is equivalent to the second statement above, whenever  $\text{char } F \neq 2$ .
- 2  $[x [yz]] + [y [zx]] + [z [xy]] = 0$   
 $\iff [x [yz]] = -[y [zx]] - [z [xy]] = [y, -[zx]] + [[xy] z] = [y [xz]] + [[xy] z]$

Example:  $\mathbb{R}^3$ 

Endow  $L = \mathbb{R}^3$  the usual cross product  $(x, y, z) \times (a, b, c) = (yc - zb, za - xc, xb - ya)$ .

Define  $[uv] = u \times v$ .

Turns out that  $u \times (v \times w) = (u \cdot v)w - (u \cdot w)v$  (Exercise!).

This gives  $u \times (v \times w) + v \times (w \times u) + w \times (u \times v) = \mathbf{0}$ .

It is not hard to see that  $[\cdot, \cdot]$  is bilinear and  $[uu] = u \times u = \mathbf{0}$ .

## Example: $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$

Let  $V$  be a finite dimensional ( $= n$ )  $F$ -vector space. Consider  $L = \text{End}(V)$ , the associative algebra of endomorphisms of  $V$ , along with the commutator  $[AB] = AB - BA$  for  $A, B \in L$ . Verify it's a Lie algebra:

1 Bilinearity is clear.

2  $[AA] = AA - AA = 0$ .

3  $[A[BC]] + [B[CA]] + [C[AB]] =$   
 $[A, BC - CB] + [B, CA - AC] + [C, AB - BA] = ABC - ACB - BCA +$   
 $CBA + BCA - BAC - CAB + ACB + CAB - CBA - ABC + BAC = 0$ .

We shall use  $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$  to distinguish the Lie algebra from the older associative algebra  $\text{End}(V)$ . The notation is  $\mathfrak{gl}$  because it turns out to be the tangent space of the Lie group  $GL$  at the identity.

A basis of  $\mathfrak{gl}(n, F) = M_n(F)$  is  $\{e_{ij} = e_i e_j^t\}_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$ .

## Example: $\mathfrak{sl}(V)$

Let  $V$  be a finite dimensional ( $= n$ )  $F$ -vector space. Consider  $L = \mathfrak{sl}(V)$   
 $= \{T \in \mathfrak{gl}(V) : \text{Tr}(T) = 0\}$ , along with the commutator  $[AB] = AB - BA$  for  $A, B \in L$ .  
To verify it's a Lie algebra, we do exactly what we did in the previous page.  
A basis of  $\mathfrak{sl}(n, F)$  is  $\{e_{i,j} : i \neq j, 1 \leq i, j \leq n\} \cup \{e_{i,i} - e_{i+1,i+1} : 1 \leq i \leq n-1\}$ .  
Here,  $e_{i,j} = e_i e_j^t$ .

An example to keep in mind is  $\mathfrak{sl}(2, F)$ . This will come up later. An ordered basis is

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, h = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

# Abstract Lie algebras

Let  $L$  be a finite dimensional  $F$ -vector space with basis  $\{u_i\}_{i=1}^n$ . And suppose we know the commutator  $[\cdot, \cdot]$  on  $L$  (i.e., we know  $[u_i, u_j]$ ). At a more atomic level, if we say that  $[u_i, u_j] = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ij}^k u_k$ , then we know all the  $n^3$  numbers  $\{a_{ij}^k : 1 \leq i, j, k \leq n\}$ . In fact, those  $a_{ij}^k$ 's, for which  $i \geq j$ , can be deduced from the others because  $[xy] = -[yx]$ . You might observe that these are the only numbers which can uniquely determine my commutator (of course, not arbitrary numbers: for example, taking  $a_{11}^k = 1$  is absurd).

## Proposition

Consider a set of  $n^3$  numbers  $\{a_{ij}^k \in F : 1 \leq i, j, k \leq n\}$  (indexed by  $i, j, k$ ) satisfying

$$a_{ii}^k = a_{ij}^k + a_{ji}^k = 0 \quad 1 \leq i, j, k \leq n$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \left( a_{ij}^k a_{kj}^m + a_{jl}^k a_{ki}^m + a_{li}^k a_{kj}^m \right) = 0 \quad 1 \leq i, j, m \leq n$$

uniquely determines the commutator of a Lie algebra.

## A small classification problem

Let's determine all Lie algebras (upto isomorphism) of dimension  $\leq 2$ .

- 1 For dimension 1: If we have  $L = Fx$  then clearly  $[a, b] = 0 \forall a, b \in L$ .
- 2 For dimension 2: Suppose a basis of  $L$  is  $x, y$ . The commutator of any two vectors is just a multiple of  $[x, y]$ . Look at  $[xy] = \alpha x + \beta y, \because [xx] = [yy] = 0$ .  
We either have  $\alpha = \beta = 0$ , in which case  $L$  is just abelian.  
Otherwise, we define  $x' = [xy]$  and let  $y' \in L$  be independent of  $x'$ . This will give us  $[x'y'] = \lambda [x, y] = \lambda x', \lambda \neq 0$ . Now take  $y'' = \lambda^{-1}y'$  to finally get  $[x'y''] = x'$ .  
So, upto isomorphism, there is **atmost** one non-abelian  $L$ . We ensure that atleast one such exists.

### 2-dimensional non-abelian Lie algebra

Take  $F = \mathbb{R}, L = \mathbb{R}^2, [u, v] = \left( \det \begin{bmatrix} u & v \end{bmatrix} \right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Indeed, letting  $x = e_1, y = e_2$ , we have  $[x, y] = \left( \det \begin{bmatrix} e_1 & e_2 \end{bmatrix} \right) e_1 = e_1 = x$ .



# Subspaces

# Morphisms and subalgebras

Let  $L, L'$  be  $F$ -Lie algebras with commutators,  $[\cdot, \cdot], [\cdot, \cdot]'$ .

## Definition (Homomorphism and isomorphism)

$\varphi : L \rightarrow L'$  is said to be a **homomorphism** of Lie algebras if  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism of vector spaces such that  $\varphi([x, y]) = [\varphi(x), \varphi(y)]'$ .

Further if  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism of vector spaces, then  $\varphi$  is an **isomorphism** of Lie algebras.

## Definition (Subalgebra)

A vector subspace  $K \subseteq L$  is said to be a **subalgebra** if  $x, y \in K \implies [x, y] \in K$ .

# Derivations

Note that the Jacobi identity really gives  $[x [yz]] = [y [xz]] + [[xy] z]$ .

For  $a \in L$ , write  $D_a = [a, \cdot]$ . Just for this slide let's write  $ab$  instead of  $[ab]$ .

Then this is what the Jacobi identity gives us:  $D_x(yz) = y(D_x z) + (D_x y)z$ .

This is just a derivation!

## Definition ( $F$ -algebra)

An  $F$ -vector space  $\mathfrak{A}$  is said to be an  $F$ -algebra if it comes with a bilinear operation  $\mathfrak{A} \times \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ .

(We do not ask for associativity.)

## Definition (Derivation)

A derivation  $\delta$  of an  $F$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{A}$  is a linear map  $\mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$  s.t.  $\delta(ab) = a\delta(b) + \delta(a)b$ .

The collection of all derivations of  $\mathfrak{A}$  is denoted by  $\text{Der}(\mathfrak{A})$ .

# Derivations

Let  $L$  be an  $F$ -Lie algebra.

It is clearly seen that  $\text{Der}(L)$  is a *subset* of  $\mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{V})$ . Indeed, it is something more (exercise!):

- 1 If  $\delta_1, \delta_2 \in \text{Der}(L)$ , then  $[\delta_1, \delta_2] \in \text{Der}(L)$ .
- 2 If  $\delta_1, \delta_2 \in \text{Der}(L), a \in F$ , then  $\delta_1 + a\delta_2 \in \text{Der}(L)$ .

$\text{Der}(L)$  is a subalgebra of  $\text{End}(L)$ .

However, (exercise!) The ordinary product of two derivations need not be a derivation.

We have already see that  $D_x \in \text{Der}(L) \forall x \in L$ . In literature,  $D_x$  is usually written as  $\text{ad } x$  or  $\text{ad}_x$  and read as the **adjoint of  $x$** . Since this derivation comes from *inside* the algebra, we call all such  $\text{ad}_x$ 's as **inner derivations**. Others are called **outer derivations**.

An example:  $\text{ad}$ 

Recall  $\mathfrak{sl}(2, F)$ . Take the ordered basis  $x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $h = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Check that  $[xy] = h$ ,  $[hx] = 2x$ ,  $[yh] = 2y$ . To determine, say,  $\text{ad}_x$ , it is enough to look at its action on the basis and then use the coefficients to build up the vector w.r.t. the above basis.

For example  $\text{ad}_x(x) = (0, 0, 0)$ ,  $\text{ad}_x(h) = (-2, 0, 0)$ ,  $\text{ad}_x(y) = (0, 1, 0)$  in the matrix

form. So this will mean that  $\text{ad}_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

After computing for  $y, h$  the final result is

$$\text{ad}_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{ad}_h = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{ad}_y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Which subspaces allow quotienting?

A subspace  $I$  of a Lie algebra  $L$  over  $F$  is called an **ideal** of  $L$  if  $[xy] \in I \forall x \in L, y \in I$ . These are the subspaces of our interest which arise as kernels of homomorphisms. We can note that every ideal is a subalgebra, but not conversely.

### Examples

1  $0, L$  are ideals of  $L$ .

2 The center  $Z(L) = \{x \in L : [xz] = 0 \forall z \in L\} = \{x \in L : [xL] = 0\}$ . Consider the <sup>1</sup>map  $\text{ad} : L \rightarrow \mathfrak{gl}(L)$  given by  $x \mapsto \text{ad}_x$ . The kernel of this map is precisely  $\{x \in L : \text{ad}_x = 0\} = \{x \in L : [xL] = 0\} = Z(L)$ .

3 The derived algebra  $[LL] = \left\{ \sum_{i \in I} [x_i y_i] : I \text{ finite and } x_i, y_i \in L \forall i \in I \right\}$ .

This can be realized as a special case of the fact that if  $I, J$  are ideals, so is  $[IJ]$  (and  $I + J$ ).

<sup>1</sup>This is very special, an example of a **representation**. From now, we will call this the adjoint representation.

# Adjoint representation

## Lemma

$\text{ad} : L \rightarrow \mathfrak{gl}(L)$  is a homomorphism of Lie algebras.

## Proof.

It's not hard to see that  $\text{ad}$  is a VS-homomorphism.

Say  $x, y \in L$ . Then  $\text{ad}_{[xy]}(u) = [[xy] u] = -[u [xy]] = -[[ux] y] - [x [uy]] = [y [ux]] - [x [uy]] = [x [yu]] - [y [xu]] = (\text{ad}_x \text{ad}_y - \text{ad}_y \text{ad}_x)(u) = [\text{ad}_x, \text{ad}_y](u)$ . So  $\text{ad}_{[xy]} = [\text{ad}_x, \text{ad}_y]$ . ■

Note that we can also treat  $(V =)L$  as a 'linear space' over  $(K =)L$ : The 'scalar' multiplication is (for  $x \in K, v \in V$ )  $x \cdot v = [xv] = \text{ad}_x(v)$ .

## Definition (Simple Lie algebras)

A non-abelian Lie algebra  $L$  (i.e.,  $[LL] \neq 0$ ) is said to be **simple** if it has no nontrivial proper ideals.

# Representations



## Two languages

### Definition (Representation)

Let  $L$  be a Lie algebra over field  $F$ . A **representation** of  $L$  is a vector space  $V/F$  along with a homomorphism  $\rho : L \rightarrow \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ .

### Definition (Module)

Let  $L$  be a Lie algebra over field  $F$ . An  **$L$ -module** is a vector space  $V$  endowed with an operation  $L \times V \rightarrow V$  (denoted  $(\mathbf{x}, \vec{v}) \mapsto \mathbf{x}\vec{v}$ ) such that the following hold  $\forall a, b \in F, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in L, \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$ :

- 1  $(a\mathbf{x} + b\mathbf{y})\vec{v} = a(\mathbf{x}\vec{v}) + b(\mathbf{y}\vec{v})$
- 2  $\mathbf{x}(a\vec{u} + b\vec{v}) = a(\mathbf{x}\vec{u}) + b(\mathbf{x}\vec{v})$
- 3  $[\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}]\vec{v} = \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{y}\vec{v}) - \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}\vec{v})$

These are exactly the same

For a representation  $\rho : L \rightarrow \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ ,  $V$  is an  $L$ -module via the action  $\mathbf{x}\vec{v} = \rho(\mathbf{x})\vec{v}$ .  
If  $V$  is an  $L$ -module (action  $(\mathbf{x}, \vec{v}) \mapsto \mathbf{x}\vec{v}$ ), then  $\rho : L \rightarrow \mathfrak{gl}(V)$  is a representation by defining  $\rho(\mathbf{x}) = (\vec{v} \mapsto \mathbf{x}\vec{v})$ .

# An important lemma

## Definition (Irreducible representation)

An  $L$ -module  $V$  is said to be **irreducible** iff  $V$  has precisely two nontrivial proper  $L$ -submodules, namely  $0$  and  $V$ .

## Theorem (Schur's lemma)

Let  $V, W$  be irreducible representations of a Lie algebra  $L$ , everything over field  $F$ . Let  $\psi : V \rightarrow W$  be a homomorphism of  $L$ -modules. Then we have

- 1  $\psi = 0$  or  $\psi$  is an isomorphism.
- 2 ( $F = \overline{F}$ ) For  $V = W$ , we have  $\psi = \lambda \cdot I$  for some  $\lambda \in F$ .

## Proof.

- 1  $\ker \psi$  is an  $L$ -submodule. So  $\ker \psi = 0$  or  $\ker \psi = V$ .  
 $\ker \psi = 0 \implies \psi(V) \cong V$ .  $\psi(V)$  is a  $L$ -submodule of  $W$ . It follows that by irreducibility of  $W$  that  $W \cong \psi(V) \cong V$ .  
 $\ker \psi \neq 0 \implies \ker \psi = V \implies \psi = 0$ .
- 2  $\psi \in \text{End}(V)$ . Let  $\lambda \in F = \overline{F}$  be an eigenvalue of  $\psi$ . So  $\ker(\psi - \lambda \cdot I) \neq 0 \implies \psi = \lambda \cdot I$ .

