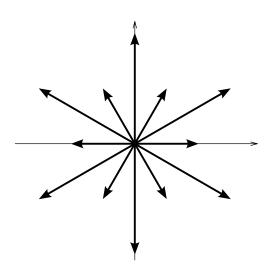
Lie Groups and Lie Algebras

Lecture notes for 7CCMMS01/CMMS01/CM424Z

Ingo Runkel





Contents

| 1 | Pre | amble | 3 | | |
|--------------|--|--|-----------|--|--|
| 2 | Symmetry in Physics | | | | |
| | 2.1 | Definition of a group | 4 | | |
| | 2.2 | Rotations and the Euclidean group | 6 | | |
| | 2.3 | Lorentz and Poincaré transformations | 8 | | |
| | 2.4 | (*) Symmetries in quantum mechanics | 9 | | |
| | 2.5 | (*) Angular momentum in quantum mechanics | 11 | | |
| 3 | Matrix Lie Groups and their Lie Algebras | | | | |
| | 3.1 | Matrix Lie groups | 12 | | |
| | 3.2 | The exponential map | 14 | | |
| | 3.3 | The Lie algebra of a matrix Lie group | 15 | | |
| | 3.4 | A little zoo of matrix Lie groups and their Lie algebras | 17 | | |
| | 3.5 | Examples: $SO(3)$ and $SU(2)$ | 19 | | |
| | 3.6 | Example: Lorentz group and Poincaré group | 21 | | |
| | 3.7 | Final comments: Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff formula | 23 | | |
| 4 | Lie algebras 24 | | | | |
| | 4.1 | Representations of Lie algebras | 24 | | |
| | 4.2 | Irreducible representations of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ | 27 | | |
| | 4.3 | Direct sums and tensor products | 29 | | |
| | 4.4 | Ideals | 32 | | |
| | 4.5 | The Killing form | 34 | | |
| 5 | Classification of finite-dimensional, semi-simple, complex Lie | | | | |
| | | ebras | 37 | | |
| | $5.\overline{1}$ | Working in a basis | 37 | | |
| | 5.2 | Cartan subalgebras | 38 | | |
| | 5.3 | Cartan-Weyl basis | 42 | | |
| | 5.4 | Examples: $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ and $sl(n,\mathbb{C})$ | 47 | | |
| | 5.5 | The Weyl group | 49 | | |
| | 5.6 | Simple Lie algebras of rank 1 and 2 | 50 | | |
| | 5.7 | Dynkin diagrams | 53 | | |
| | 5.8 | Complexification of real Lie algebras | 56 | | |
| 6 | Epi | Epilogue | | | |
| \mathbf{A} | Appendix: Collected exercises 63 | | | | |
| | A.1 | Hints and solutions for exercises | 77 | | |

Exercise 0.1:

I certainly did not manage to remove all errors from this script. So the first exercise is to find all errors and tell them to me.

1 Preamble

The topic of this course is Lie groups and Lie algebras, and their representations. As a preamble, let us have a quick look at the definitions. These can then again be forgotten, for they will be restated further on in the course.

Definition 1.1:

A *Lie group* is a set G endowed with the structure of a smooth manifold and of a group, such that the multiplication $\cdot: G \times G \to G$ and the inverse $()^{-1}: G \to G$ are smooth maps.

This definition is more general than what we will use in the course, where we will restrict ourselves to so-called matrix Lie groups. The manifold will then always be realised as a subset of some \mathbb{R}^d . For example the manifold S^3 , the three-dimensional sphere, can be realised as a subset of \mathbb{R}^4 by taking all points of \mathbb{R}^4 that obey $x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2 = 1$. [You can look up 'Lie group' and 'manifold' on eom.springer.de, wikipedia.org, mathworld.wolfram.org, or planetmath.org.]

In fact, later in this course Lie algebras will be more central than Lie groups.

Definition 1.2:

A *Lie algebra* is a vector space V together with a bilinear map $[\ ,\]:V\times V\to V,$ called *Lie bracket*, satisfying

- (i) [X, X] = 0 for all $X \in V$ (skew-symmetry),
- (ii) [X, [Y, Z]] + [Y, [Z, X]] + [Z, [X, Y]] = 0 for all $X, Y, Z \in V$ (Jacobi identity).

We will take the vector space V to be over the real numbers \mathbb{R} or the complex numbers \mathbb{C} , but it could be over any field.

Exercise 1.1:

Show that for a real or complex vector space V, a bilinear map $b(\cdot, \cdot): V \times V \to V$ obeys b(u, v) = -b(v, u) (for all u, v) if and only if b(u, u) = 0 (for all u). [If you want to know, the formulation [X, X] = 0 in the definition of a Lie algebra is preferable because it also works for the field \mathbb{F}_2 . There, the above equivalence is not true because in \mathbb{F}_2 we have 1 + 1 = 0.]

Notation 1.3:

- (i) "iff" is an abbreviation for "if and only if".
- (ii) If an exercise features a "*" it is optional, but the result may be used in the

following. In particular, it will not be assumed in the exam that these exercises have been done. (This does not mean that material of these exercises cannot appear in the exam.)

- (iii) If a whole section is marked by a "*", its material was not covered in the course, and it will not be assumed in the exam that you have seen it before. It will also not be assumed that you have done the exercises in a section marked by (*).
- (iv) If a paragraph is marked as "Information", then as for sections marked by (*) it will not be assumed in the exam that you have seen it before.

2 Symmetry in Physics

The state of a physical system is given by a collection of particle positions and momenta in classical mechanics or by a wave function in quantum mechanics. A *symmetry* is then an invertible map f on the space of states which commutes with the time evolution (as given Newton's equation $m\ddot{x} = -\nabla V(x)$, or the Schrödinger equation $i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t}\psi = H\psi$)

state at time 0
$$\xrightarrow{\text{evolve}}$$
 state at time t (2.1)
$$\downarrow f \qquad = \qquad \downarrow f$$
state' at time 0 $\xrightarrow{\text{evolve}}$ state' at time t

Symmetries are an important concept in physics. Recent theories are almost entirely constructed from symmetry considerations (e.g. gauge theories, supergravity theories, two-dimensional conformal field theories). In this approach one demands the existence of a certain symmetry and wonders what theories with this property one can construct. But let us not go into this any further.

2.1 Definition of a group

Symmetry transformations like translations and rotations can be composed and undone. Also 'doing nothing' is a symmetry in the above sense. An appropriate mathematical notion with these properties is that of a group.

Definition 2.1:

A group is a set G together with a map $\cdot: G \times G \to G$ (multiplication) such that

- (i) $(x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z)$ (associativity)
- (ii) there exists $e \in G$ s.t. $e \cdot x = x = x \cdot e$ for all $x \in G$ (unit law)
- (iii) for each $x \in G$ there exists an $x^{-1} \in G$ such that $x \cdot x^{-1} = e = x^{-1} \cdot x$ (inverse)

Exercise 2.1:

Prove the following consequences of the group axioms: The unit is unique. The inverse is unique. The map $x \mapsto x^{-1}$ is invertible as a map from G to G. $e^{-1} = e$. If gg = g for some $g \in G$, then g = e. The set of integers together with addition $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ forms a group. The set of integers together with multiplication (\mathbb{Z}, \cdot) does not form a group.

Of particular relevance for us will be groups constructed from matrices. Denote by $\mathrm{Mat}(n,\mathbb{R})$ (resp. $\mathrm{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C})$) the $n\times n$ -matrices with real (resp. complex) entries. Let

$$GL(n,\mathbb{R}) = \{ M \in \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{R}) | \det(M) \neq 0 \}$$
 (2.2)

Together with matrix multiplication (and matrix inverses, and the identity matrix as unit) this forms a group, called *general linear group* of degree n over \mathbb{R} . This is the basic example of a Lie group.

Exercise 2.2:

Verify the group axioms for $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$. Show that $Mat(n, \mathbb{R})$ (with matrix multiplication) is not a group.

Definition 2.2:

Given two groups G and H, a group homomorphism is a map $\varphi : G \to H$ such that $\varphi(g \cdot h) = \varphi(g) \cdot \varphi(h)$ for all $g, h \in G$.

Exercise 2.3:

Let $\varphi: G \to H$ be a group homomorphism. Show that $\varphi(e) = e$ (the units in G and H, respectively), and that $\varphi(g^{-1}) = \varphi(g)^{-1}$.

Here is some more vocabulary.

Definition 2.3:

A map $f: X \to Y$ between two sets X and Y is called *injective* iff $f(x) = f(x') \Rightarrow x = x'$ for all $x, x' \in X$, it is *surjective* iff for all $y \in Y$ there is a $x \in X$ such that f(x) = y. The map f is *bijective* iff it is surjective and injective.

Definition 2.4:

An automorphism of a group G is a bijective group homomorphism from G to G. The set of all automorphisms of G is denoted by Aut(G).

Exercise 2.4:

Let G be a group. Show that $\operatorname{Aut}(G)$ is a group. Show that the map $\varphi_g: G \to G$, $\varphi_g(h) = ghg^{-1}$ is in $\operatorname{Aut}(G)$ for any choice of $g \in G$.

Definition 2.5:

Two groups G and H are *isomorphic* iff there exists a bijective group homomorphism from G to H. In this case we write $G \cong H$.

2.2 Rotations and the Euclidean group

A typical symmetry is invariance under rotations and translations, as e.g. in the Newtonian description of gravity. Let us start with rotations.

Take \mathbb{R}^n (for physics probably n=3) with the standard inner product

$$g(u,v) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i v_i \quad \text{for } u,v \in \mathbb{R}^n .$$
 (2.3)

A linear map $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is an orthogonal transformation iff

$$g(Tu, Tv) = g(u, v)$$
 for all $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$. (2.4)

Denote by $e_i = (0, 0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0)$ the *i*'th basis vector of \mathbb{R}^n , so that in component notation $(Te_i)_k = T_{ki}$. Evaluating the above condition in this basis gives

lhs =
$$g(Te_i, Te_j) = \sum_k T_{ki} T_{kj} = (T^t T)_{ij}$$
, rhs = $g(e_i, e_j) = \delta_{ij}$. (2.5)

Hence T is an orthogonal transformation iff $T^tT = \mathbf{1}$ (here **1** denotes the unit matrix $(\mathbf{1})_{ij} = \delta_{ij}$).

What is the geometric meaning of an orthogonal transformation? The condition g(Tu, Tv) = g(u, v) shows that it preserves the length $|u| = \sqrt{g(u, u)}$ of a vector as well as the angle $\cos(\theta) = g(u, v)/(|u||v|)$ between two vectors.

However, T does not need to preserve the orientation. Note that

$$T^t T = \mathbf{1} \Rightarrow \det(T^t T) = \det(\mathbf{1}) \Rightarrow \det(T)^2 = 1 \Rightarrow \det(T) \in \{\pm 1\} \quad (2.6)$$

The orthogonal transformations T with $\det(T)=1$ preserve orientation. These are rotations.

Definition 2.6:

(i) The orthogonal group O(n) is the set

$$O(n) = \{ M \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R}) | M^t M = \mathbf{1} \}$$
(2.7)

with group multiplication given by matrix multiplication.

(ii) The special orthogonal group SO(n) is given by those elements M of O(n) with $\det(M) = 1$.

For example, SO(3) is the group of rotations of \mathbb{R}^3 .

Let us check that O(n) is indeed a group.

(a) Is the multiplication well-defined?

Given $T, U \in O(n)$ we have to check that also $TU \in O(n)$. This follows from $(TU)^t TU = U^t T^t TU = U^t \mathbf{1}U = \mathbf{1}$.

(b) Is the multiplication associative?

The multiplication is that of $Mat(n, \mathbb{R})$, which is associative.

(c) Is there a unit element?

The obvious candidate is $\mathbf{1}$, all we have to check is if it is an element of O(n). But this is clear since $\mathbf{1}^t\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{1}$.

(d) Is there an inverse for every element?

For an element $T \in O(n)$, the inverse should be the inverse matrix T^{-1} . It exists because $\det(T) \neq 0$. It remains to check that it is also in O(n). To this end note that $T^tT = \mathbf{1}$ implies $T^t = T^{-1}$ and hence $(T^{-1})^tT^{-1} = TT^{-1} = \mathbf{1}$.

Definition 2.7:

A subgroup of a group G is a non-empty subset H of G, s.t. $g, h \in H \Rightarrow g \cdot h \in H$ and $g \in H \Rightarrow g^{-1} \in H$. We write $H \leq G$ for a subgroup H of G.

From the above we see that O(n) is a subgroup of $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$.

Exercise 2.5:

- (i) Show that a subgroup $H \leq G$ is in particular a group, and show that it has the same unit element as G.
- (ii) Show that SO(n) is a subgroup of $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$.

The transformations in O(n) all leave the point zero fixed. If we are to describe the symmetries of euclidean space, there should be no such distinguished point, i.e. we should include *translations*. It is more natural to consider the euclidean group.

Definition 2.8:

The euclidean group E(n) consists of all maps $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ that leave distances fixed, i.e. for all $f \in E(n)$ and $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we have |x - y| = |f(x) - f(y)|.

The euclidean group is in fact nothing but orthogonal transformations complemented by translations.

Exercise 2.6:

Prove that

- (i*) for every $f \in E(n)$ there is a unique $T \in O(n)$ and $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$, s.t. f(v) = Tv + u for all $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- (ii) for $T \in O(n)$ and $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ the map $v \mapsto Tv + u$ is in E(n).

The exercise shows that there is a bijection between E(n) and $O(n) \times \mathbb{R}^n$ as sets. However, the multiplication is not $(T, x) \cdot (R, y) = (TR, y + x)$. Instead one finds the following. Writing $f_{T,u}(v) = Tv + u$, we have

$$f_{T,x}(f_{R,y}(v)) = f_{T,x}(Rv+y) = TRv + Ty + x = f_{TR,Ty+x}(v)$$
(2.8)

so that the group multiplication is

$$(T,x) \cdot (R,y) = (TR, Ty + x)$$
 (2.9)

Definition 2.9:

Let H and N be groups.

(i) The direct product $H \times N$ is the group given by all pairs $(h, n), h \in H, n \in N$ with multiplication and inverse

$$(h,n)\cdot(h',n') = (h\cdot h',n\cdot n')$$
 , $(h,n)^{-1} = (h^{-1},n^{-1})$. (2.10)

(ii) Let $\varphi: H \to \operatorname{Aut}(N)$, $h \mapsto \varphi_h$ be a group homomorphism. The *semidirect* $\operatorname{product} H \ltimes_{\varphi} N$ (or just $H \ltimes N$ for short) is the group given by all pairs (h, n), $h \in H$, $n \in N$ with multiplication and inverse

$$(h,n)\cdot(h',n')=(h\cdot h',n\cdot\varphi_h(n'))$$
 , $(h,n)^{-1}=(h^{-1},\varphi_{h^{-1}}(n^{-1}))$. (2.11)

Exercise 2.7:

- (i) Starting from the definition of the semidirect product, show that $H \ltimes_{\varphi} N$ is indeed a group. [To see why the notation H and N is used for the two groups, look up "semidirect product" on wikipedia.org or eom.springer.de.]
- (ii) Show that the direct product is a special case of the semidirect product.
- (iii) Show that the multiplication rule $(T, x) \cdot (R, y) = (TR, Ty + x)$ found in the study of E(n) is that of the semidirect product $O(n) \ltimes_{\varphi} \mathbb{R}^n$, with $\varphi : O(n) \to \operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ given by $\varphi_T(u) = Tu$.

Altogether, one finds that the euclidean group is isomorphic to a semidirect product

$$E(n) \cong O(n) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n \quad . \tag{2.12}$$

2.3 Lorentz and Poincaré transformations

The *n*-dimensional Minkowski space is \mathbb{R}^n together with the non-degenenerate bilinear form

$$\eta(u,v) = u_0 v_0 - u_1 v_1 - \dots - u_{n-1} v_{n-1} . \tag{2.13}$$

Here we labelled the components of a vector u starting from zero, u_0 is the 'time' coordinate and u_1, \ldots, u_{n-1} are the 'space' coordinates.

The symmetries of Minkowski space are described by the Lorentz group, if one wants to keep the point zero fixed, or by the Poincaré group, if just distances w.r.t. η should remain fixed.

Definition 2.10:

(i) The Lorentz group O(1, n-1) is defined to be

$$O(1, n-1) = \{ M \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) | \eta(Mu, Mv) = \eta(u, v) \text{ for all } u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n \}$$
. (2.14)

(ii) The Poincaré group P(1, n-1) [there does not seem to be a standard symbol; we will use P] is defined to be

$$P(1, n-1) = \{ f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n \mid \eta(x-y, x-y) = \eta(f(x) - f(y), f(x) - f(y))$$
 for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n \}$. (2.15)

Exercise 2.8:

Show that O(1, n-1) can equivalently be written as

$$O(1, n-1) = \{ M \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) | M^t J M = J \}$$

where J is the diagonal matrix with entries $J = \text{diag}(1, -1, \dots, -1)$.

Similar to the euclidean group E(n), an element of the Poincaré group can be written as a composition of a Lorentz transformation $\Lambda \in O(1, n-1)$ and a translation.

Exercise 2.9:

- (i*) Prove that for every $f \in P(1, n-1)$ there is a unique $\Lambda \in O(1, n-1)$ and $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$, s.t. $f(v) = \Lambda v + u$ for all $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- (ii) Show that the Poincaré group is isomorphic to the semidirect product $O(1,n-1)\ltimes\mathbb{R}^n$ with multiplication

$$(\Lambda, u) \cdot (\Lambda', u') = (\Lambda \Lambda', \Lambda u' + u) . \tag{2.16}$$

2.4 (*) Symmetries in quantum mechanics

In quantum mechanics, symmetries are at their best [attention: personal opinion]. In particular, the *representations* of symmetries on vector spaces play an important role. We will get to that in section 4.1.

Definition 2.11:

Given a vector space E and two linear maps $A, B \in \text{End}(E)$ [the endomorphisms of a vector space E are linear maps from E to E], the *commutator* [A, B] is

$$[A, B] = AB - BA \in \text{End}(E) . \tag{2.17}$$

Lemma 2.12:

Given a vector space E, the space of linear maps $\operatorname{End}(E)$ together with the commutator as Lie bracket is a Lie algebra. This Lie algebra will be called gl(E), or also $\operatorname{End}(E)$.

The reason to call this Lie algebra gl(E) will become clear later. Let us use the proof of this lemma to recall what a Lie algebra is.

Proof of lemma:

Abbreviate V = End(E).

(a) [,] has to be a bilinear map from $V \times V$ to V.

Clear.

- (b) [,] has to obey [A,A]=0 for all $A\in V$ (skew-symmetry). Clear.
- (c) [,] has to satisfy the Jacobi identity [A,[B,C]]+[B,[C,A]]+[C,[A,B]]=0 for all $A,B,C\in V$.

This is the content of the next exercise. It follows that V is a Lie algebra. \square

Exercise 2.10:

Verify that the commutator [A, B] = AB - BA obeys the Jacobi identity.

The states of a quantum system are collected in a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} over \mathbb{C} . [Recall: Hilbert space = vector space with inner product (\cdot, \cdot) which is complete w.r.t. the norm $|u| = \sqrt{(u, u)}$.] The time evolution is described by a self-adjoint operator H [i.e. $H^{\dagger} = H$] on \mathcal{H} . If $\psi(0) \in \mathcal{H}$ is the state of the system at time zero, then at time t the system is in the state

$$\psi(t) = \exp\left(\frac{t}{i\hbar}H\right)\psi(0) = \left(1 + \frac{t}{i\hbar}H + \frac{1}{2!}\left(\frac{t}{i\hbar}H\right)^2 + \dots\right)\psi(0) \quad . \tag{2.18}$$

[One should worry if the infinite sum converges. For finite-dimensional \mathcal{H} it always does, see section 3.2.] Suppose we are given a self-adjoint operator A which commutes with the Hamiltonian,

$$[A, H] = 0 . (2.19)$$

Consider the family of operators $U_A(s) = \exp(isA)$ for $s \in \mathbb{R}$. The $U_A(s)$ are unitary (i.e. $U_A(s)^{\dagger} = U_A(s)^{-1}$) so they preserve probabilities (write $U = U_A(s)$)

$$|(U\psi, U\psi')|^2 = |(\psi, U^{\dagger}U\psi')|^2 = |(\psi, \psi')|^2 . \tag{2.20}$$

Further, they commute with time-evolution

$$\psi \xrightarrow{\text{evolve}} \exp\left(\frac{t}{i\hbar}H\right)\psi \qquad (2.21)$$

$$\downarrow U_A(s) \qquad = \qquad \downarrow U_A(s) \qquad \qquad \downarrow U_A(s)$$

The last equality holds because A and H commute. Thus from A we obtain a continuous one-parameter family of symmetries. Some comments:

- The operator A is also called *generator of a symmetry*. If we take s to be very small we have $U_A(s) = \mathbf{1} + isA + O(s^2)$, and A can be thought of as an infinitesimal symmetry transformation.
- The infinitesimal symmetry transformations are easier to deal with than the whole family. Therefore one usually describes continuous symmetries in terms of their generators.
- The relation between a continuous family of symmetries and their generators will in essence be the relation between Lie groups and Lie algebras, the latter are an infinitesimal version of the former. It turns out that Lie algebras are much easier to work with and still capture most of the structure.

2.5 (*) Angular momentum in quantum mechanics

Consider a quantum mechanical state ψ in the position representation, i.e. a wave function $\psi(q)$. It is easy to see how to act on this with translations,

$$(U_{\text{trans}}(s)\psi)(x) = \psi(q+s) \quad . \tag{2.22}$$

So what is the infinitesimal generator of translations? Take s to be small to find

$$(U_{\text{trans}}(s)\psi)(q) = \psi(q) + s\frac{\partial}{\partial q}\psi(q) + O(s^2) \quad , \tag{2.23}$$

so that (the convention $\hbar = 1$ is used)

$$U_{\text{trans}}(s) = \mathbf{1} + s \frac{\partial}{\partial q} + O(s^2) = \mathbf{1} + isp + O(s^2) \text{ with } p = -i \frac{\partial}{\partial q}$$
. (2.24)

The infinitesimal generators of rotations in three dimensions are

$$L_i = \sum_{j,k=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{ijk} q_j p_k \quad , \quad \text{with } i = 1, 2, 3 \quad , \tag{2.25}$$

and where ε_{ijk} is antisymmetric in all indices and $\varepsilon_{123} = 1$.

Exercise 2.11:

(i) Consider a rotation around the 3-axis,

$$(U_{\text{rot}}(\theta)\psi)(q_1, q_2, q_3) = \psi(q_1\cos\theta - q_2\sin\theta, q_2\cos\theta + q_1\sin\theta, q_3)$$
 (2.26)

and check that infinitesimally

$$U_{\rm rot}(\theta) = \mathbf{1} + i\theta L_3 + O(\theta^2) \quad . \tag{2.27}$$

(ii) Using $[q_r, p_s] = i\delta_{rs}$ (check!) verify the commutator

$$[L_r, L_s] = i \sum_{t=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{rst} L_t \quad . \tag{2.28}$$

(You might need the relation $\sum_{k=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{ijk} \varepsilon_{lmk} = \delta_{il} \delta_{jm} - \delta_{im} \delta_{jl}$ (check!).)

The last relation can be used to define a three-dimensional Lie algebra: Let V be the complex vector space spanned by three generators ℓ_1, ℓ_2, ℓ_3 . Define the bilinear map $[\ ,\]$ on generators as

$$[\ell_r, \ell_s] = i \sum_{t=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{rst} \ell_t \quad . \tag{2.29}$$

This turns V into a complex Lie algebra: - skew-symmetry [x, x] = 0: ok. - Jacobi identity : turns out ok. We will later call this Lie algebra $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$.

This Lie algebra is particularly important for atomic spectra, e.g. for the hydrogen atom, because the electrons move in a rotationally symmetric potential. This implies $[L_i, H] = 0$ and acting with one of the L_i on an energy eigenstate gives results in an energy eigenstate of the same energy. We say: The states at a given energy have to form a representation of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$. Representations of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$ are treated in section 4.2.

3 Matrix Lie Groups and their Lie Algebras

3.1 Matrix Lie groups

Definition 3.1:

A matrix Lie group is a closed subgroup of $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$ or $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$ for some $n \geq 1$.

Comments:

- 'closed' in this definition stands for 'closed as a subset of the topological space $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$ (resp. $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$)'. It is equivalent to demanding that given a sequence A_n of matrices belonging to a matrix subgroup H s.t. $A = \lim_{n \to \infty} A_n$ exists and is in $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$ (resp. $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$), then already $A \in H$.
- A matrix Lie group is a Lie group. However, not every Lie group is isomorphic to a matrix Lie group. We will not prove this. If you are interested in more details, consult e.g. [Baker, Theorem 7.24] and [Baker, Section 7.7].

So far we have met the groups

- invertible linear maps $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$ and $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$. In general we set $GL(V) = \{$ invertible linear maps $V \to V\}$, such that $GL(n,\mathbb{R}) = GL(\mathbb{R}^n)$, etc.
- Some subgroups of $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$, namely $O(n) = \{M \in \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{R}) | M^t M = \mathbf{1}\}$ and $SO(n) = \{M \in O(n) | \det(M) = 1\}$.
- Some semidirect products, $E(n) \cong O(n) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n$ and $P(1, n-1) \cong O(1, n-1) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n$.

All of these are matrix Lie groups, or isomorphic to matrix Lie groups:

■ For O(n) and SO(n) we already know that they are subgroups of $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$. It remains to check that they are closed as subsets of $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$. This follows since for a continuous function f and any sequence a_n with limit $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = a$ we have $\lim_{n\to\infty} f(a_n) = f(a)$. The defining relations $M \mapsto M^t M$ and $M \mapsto \det(M)$ are continuous functions.

Alternatively one can argue as follows: The preimage of a closed set under a continuous map is closed. The one-point sets $\{1\} \subset \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{R})$ and $\{1\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ are closed.

■ For the groups E(n) and P(1, n-1) we use the following lemma.

Lemma 3.2:

Let $\varphi: \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{R}) \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \operatorname{Mat}(n+1,\mathbb{R})$ be the map

$$\varphi(M, v) = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} M & v \\ \hline 0 & 1 \end{array}\right) . \tag{3.1}$$

- (i) φ restricts to an injective group homomorphism from $O(n) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n$ to $GL(n+1,\mathbb{R})$, and from $O(1,n-1) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n$ to $GL(n+1,\mathbb{R})$.
- (ii) The images $\varphi(O(n) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n)$ and $\varphi(O(1, n-1) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n)$ are closed subsets of $GL(n+1, \mathbb{R})$.

Proof:

(i) We need to check that

$$\varphi((R, u) \cdot (S, v)) = \varphi(R, u) \cdot \varphi(S, v) . \tag{3.2}$$

The lhs is equal to

$$\varphi((R,u)\cdot(S,v)) = \varphi(RS,Rv+u) = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} RS & Rv+u \\ \hline 0 & 1 \end{array}\right)$$
(3.3)

while the rhs gives

$$\varphi(R, u) \cdot \varphi(S, v) = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} R & u \\ \hline 0 & 1 \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c|c} S & v \\ \hline 0 & 1 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} RS & Rv + u \\ \hline 0 & 1 \end{array}\right) , \quad (3.4)$$

so φ is a group homomorphism. Further, it is clearly injective.

(ii) The images of $O(n) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n$ and $O(1, n-1) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n$ under φ consist of all matrices

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c}
R & u \\
\hline
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)$$
(3.5)

with $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and R an element of O(n) and O(1, n-1), respectively. This is a closed subset of $GL(n+1, \mathbb{R})$ since O(n) (resp. O(1, n-1)) and \mathbb{R}^n are closed. \square

Here are some matrix Lie groups which are subgroups of $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$.

Definition 3.3:

On \mathbb{C}^n define the inner product

$$(u,v) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} (u_k)^* v_k . (3.6)$$

Then the unitary group U(n) is given by

$$U(n) = \{ A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{C}) | (Au, Av) = (u, v) \text{ for all } u, v \in \mathbb{C}^n \}$$
 (3.7)

and the special unitary group SU(n) is given by

$$SU(n) = \{ A \in U(n) | \det(A) = 1 \}$$
 (3.8)

Exercise 3.1:

- (i) Show that U(n) and SU(n) are indeed groups.
- (ii) Let $(A^{\dagger})_{ij} = (A_{ji})^*$ be the hermitian conjugate. Show that the condition (Au, Av) = (u, v) for all $u, v \in \mathbb{C}^n$ is equivalent to $A^{\dagger}A = \mathbf{1}$, i.e.

$$U(n) = \{ A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{C}) \mid A^{\dagger}A = \mathbf{1} \}$$
.

(iii) Show that U(n) and SU(n) are matrix Lie groups.

Definition 3.4:

For $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{C}$, the special linear group $SL(n, \mathbb{K})$ is given by

$$SL(n, \mathbb{K}) = \{ A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{K}) | \det(A) = 1 \} . \tag{3.9}$$

3.2 The exponential map

Definition 3.5:

The exponential of a matrix $X \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{K})$, for $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} , is

$$\exp(X) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} X^k = 1 + X + \frac{1}{2} X^2 + \dots$$
 (3.10)

Lemma 3.6:

The series defining $\exp(X)$ converges absolutely for all $X \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{K})$.

Proof

Choose your favorite norm on $Mat(n, \mathbb{K})$, say

$$||X|| = \sum_{k,l=1}^{n} |A_{kl}| . (3.11)$$

The series $\exp(X)$ converges absolutely if the series of norms $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \|X^k\|$ converges. This in turn follows since $\|XY\| \leq \|X\| \|Y\|$ and since the series e^a converges for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

The following exercise shows a convenient way to compute the exponential of a matrix via its Jordan normal form (\rightarrow wikipedia.org, eom.springer.de).

Exercise 3.2:

(i) Show that for $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$\exp\left(\begin{array}{cc} \lambda & 1\\ 0 & \lambda \end{array}\right) = e^{\lambda} \cdot \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1\\ 0 & 1 \end{array}\right) .$$

(ii) Let $A \in \text{Mat}(n, \mathbb{C})$. Show that for any $U \in GL(n, \mathbb{C})$

$$U^{-1} \exp(A)U = \exp(U^{-1}AU)$$
.

(iii) Recall that a complex $n \times n$ matrix A can always be brought to Jordan normal form, i.e. there exists an $U \in GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ s.t.

$$U^{-1}AU = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} J_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & J_r \end{array} \right) \quad ,$$

where each Jordan block is of the form

$$J_k = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_k & 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & & & \lambda_k \end{pmatrix} , \quad \lambda_k \in \mathbb{C} .$$

In particular, if all Jordan blocks have size 1, the matrix \boldsymbol{A} is diagonalisable. Compute

$$\exp\left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & t \\ -t & 0 \end{array}\right)$$
 and $\exp\left(\begin{array}{cc} 5 & 9 \\ -1 & -1 \end{array}\right)$.

Exercise 3.3:

Let $A \in Mat(n, \mathbb{C})$.

- (i) Let $f(t) = \det(\exp(tA))$ and $g(t) = \exp(t\operatorname{tr}(A))$. Show that f(t) and g(t) both solve the first order DEQ $u' = \operatorname{tr}(A)u$.
- (ii) Using (i), show that

$$det(exp(A)) = exp(tr(A))$$
.

Exercise 3.4:

Show that if A and B commute (i.e. if AB = BA), then $\exp(A) \exp(B) = \exp(A + B)$.

3.3 The Lie algebra of a matrix Lie group

In this section we will look at the relation between matrix Lie groups and Lie algebras. As the emphasis on this course will be on Lie algebras, in this section we will state some results without proof.

Defintion 1.1:

A Lie algebra is a vector space V together with a bilinear map $[\ ,\]:V\times V\to V,$ called Lie bracket, satisfying

- (i) [X, X] = 0 for all $X \in V$ (skew-symmetry),
- (ii) [X, [Y, Z]] + [Y, [Z, X]] + [Z, [X, Y]] = 0 for all $X, Y, Z \in V$ (Jacobi identity).

If you have read through sections 2.4 and 2.5 you may jump directly to definition 3.7 below. If not, here are the definition of a commutator and of the Lie algebra $gl(E) \equiv \operatorname{End}(E)$ restated.

Defintion 2.11:

Given a vector space E and two linear maps $A, B \in \text{End}(E)$ [the endomorphisms of a vector space E are the linear maps from E to E], the *commutator* [A, B] is

$$[A, B] = AB - BA \in \text{End}(E) . \tag{3.12}$$

Lemma 2.12:

Given a vector space E, the space of linear maps $\operatorname{End}(E)$ together with the commutator as Lie bracket is a Lie algebra. This Lie algebra will be called gl(E), or also $\operatorname{End}(E)$.

Proof:

Abbreviate V = End(E).

(a) [,] has to be a bilinear map from $V \times V$ to V.

Clear.

(b) [,] has to obey [A, A] = 0 for all $A \in V$ (skew-symmetry).

Clear

(c) [,] has to satisfy the Jacobi identity [A,[B,C]]+[B,[C,A]]+[C,[A,B]]=0 for all $A,B,C\in V$.

This is the content of the next exercise. It follows that V is a Lie algebra. \square

Exercise 2.10:

Verify that the commutator [A, B] = AB - BA obeys the Jacobi identity.

The above exercise also shows that the $n \times n$ matrices $\mathrm{Mat}(n,\mathbb{K})$, for $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{C}$, form a Lie algebra with the commutator as Lie bracket. This Lie algebra is called $gl(n,\mathbb{K})$. (In the notation of lemma 2.12, $gl(n,\mathbb{K})$ is the same as $gl(\mathbb{K}^n) \equiv \mathrm{End}(\mathbb{K}^n)$.)

Definition 3.7:

A Lie subalgebra h of a Lie algebra g is a a sub-vector space h of g such that whenever $A, B \in h$ then also $[A, B] \in h$.

Definition 3.8:

Let G be a matrix Lie group in $Mat(n, \mathbb{K})$, for $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{C}$.

(i) The Lie algebra of G is

$$g = \{ A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{K}) | \exp(tA) \in G \text{ for all } t \in \mathbb{R} \} . \tag{3.13}$$

(ii) The dimension of G is the dimension of its Lie algebra (which is a vector space over \mathbb{R}).

The following theorem justifies the name 'Lie algebra of a matrix Lie group'. We will not prove it, but rather verify it in some examples.

Theorem 3.9:

The Lie algebra of a matrix Lie group, with commutator as Lie bracket, is a Lie algebra over \mathbb{R} (in fact, a Lie subalgebra of $gl(n, \mathbb{R})$).

What one needs to show is that first, g is a vector space, and second, that for $A, B \in g$ also $[A, B] \in g$. The following exercise indicates how this can be done.

Exercise* 3.5:

Let G be a matrix Lie group and let g be the Lie algebra of G.

- (i) Show that if $A \in g$, then also $sA \in g$ for all $s \in \mathbb{R}$.
- (ii) The following formulae hold for $A, B \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{K})$: the Trotter Product Formula,

$$\exp(A+B) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\exp(A/n) \exp(B/n) \right)^n ,$$

and the Commutator Formula,

$$\exp([A,B]) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\exp(A/n) \exp(B/n) \exp(-A/n) \exp(-B/n) \right)^{n^2}.$$

(For a proof see [Baker, Theorem 7.26]). Use these to show that if $A, B \in g$, then also $A + B \in g$ and $[A, B] \in g$. (You will need that a matrix Lie group is closed.) Note that part (i) and (ii) combined prove Theorem 3.9.

3.4 A little zoo of matrix Lie groups and their Lie algebras

Here we collect the 'standard' matrix Lie groups (i.e. those which are typically mentioned without further explanation in text books). Before getting to the table, we need to define one more matrix Lie algebra.

Definition 3.10:

Let $\mathbf{1}_{n\times n}$ be the $n\times n$ unit matrix, and let

$$J_{\mathrm{sp}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{1}_{n \times n} \\ -\mathbf{1}_{n \times n} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{Mat}(2n, \mathbb{R}) .$$

The set

$$SP(2n) = \{M \in Mat(2n, \mathbb{R}) | M^t J_{sp} M = J_{sp} \}$$

is called the $2n \times 2n$ (real) symplectic group.

Exercise 3.6:

Prove that SP(2n) is a matrix Lie group.

| Mat. Lie gr. | Lie algebra of the matrix Lie group | Dim. (over \mathbb{R}) |
|--------------------|--|---------------------------|
| $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$ | $gl(n,\mathbb{R}) = \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{R})$ | n^2 |
| $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$ | $gl(n,\mathbb{C}) = \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C})$ | $2n^2$ |
| $SL(n,\mathbb{R})$ | $sl(n,\mathbb{R}) = \{A \in \mathrm{Mat}(n,\mathbb{R}) \mathrm{tr}(A) = 0\}$ | $n^2 - 1$ |
| $SL(n,\mathbb{C})$ | $sl(n,\mathbb{C}) = \{A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C}) \operatorname{tr}(A) = 0\}$ | $2n^2 - 2$ |
| O(n) | $o(n) = \{ A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R}) A + A^t = 0 \}$ | $\frac{1}{2}n(n-1)$ |
| SO(n) | so(n) = o(n) | |
| SP(2n) | $sp(2n) = \{ A \in \operatorname{Mat}(2n, \mathbb{R}) J_{\operatorname{sp}}A + A^t J_{\operatorname{sp}} = 0 \}$ | n(2n+1) |
| U(n) | $u(n) = \{ A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{C}) A + A^{\dagger} = 0 \}$ | n^2 |
| SU(n) | $su(n) = \{A \in u(n) \operatorname{tr}(A) = 0\}$ | $n^2 - 1$ |

Let us verify this list.

$\blacksquare GL(n,\mathbb{R})$:

We have to find all elements $A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R})$ such that $\exp(sA) \in GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ for all $s \in \mathbb{R}$. But $\exp(sA)$ is always invertible. Hence the Lie algebra of $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ is just $\operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R})$ and its real dimension is n^2 .

$\blacksquare GL(n,\mathbb{C})$:

Along the same lines as for $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$ we find that the Lie algebra of $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$ is $Mat(n,\mathbb{C})$. As a vector space over \mathbb{R} it has dimension $2n^2$.

$\blacksquare SL(n,\mathbb{R})$

What are all $A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R})$ such that $\det(\exp(sA)) = 1$ for all $s \in \mathbb{R}$? Use

$$\det(\exp(sA)) = e^{s\operatorname{tr}(A)} \tag{3.14}$$

to see that tr(A) = 0 is necessary and sufficient. The subspace of matrices with tr(A) = 0 has dimension $n^2 - 1$.

$\blacksquare O(n)$:

What are all $A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R})$ s.t. $(\exp(sA))^t \exp(sA) = \mathbf{1}$ for all $s \in \mathbb{R}$? First, suppose that $M = \exp(sA)$ has the property $M^tM = \mathbf{1}$. Expanding this in s,

$$\mathbf{1} = (\mathbf{1} + sA^{t})(\mathbf{1} + sA) + O(s^{2}) = \mathbf{1} + s(A^{t} + A) + O(s^{2}) , \qquad (3.15)$$

which shows that $A^t + A = 0$ is a necessary condition for A to be in the Lie algebra of O(n). Further, it is also sufficient since $A + A^t = 0$ implies

$$(\exp(sA))^t \exp(sA) = \exp(sA^t) \exp(sA) = \exp(-sA) \exp(sA) = 1$$
 . (3.16)

In components, the condition $A^t + A = 0$ implies $A_{ii} = 0$ and $A_{ij} = -A_{ji}$. Thus only the entries A_{ij} with $1 \le i < j \le n$ can be choosen freely. The dimension of o(n) is therefore $\frac{1}{2}n(n-1)$.

$\blacksquare SO(n)$:

What are all $A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R})$ s.t. $\exp(sA) \in O(n)$ and $\det(\exp(sA)) = 1$ for all $s \in \mathbb{R}$? First, $\exp(sA) \in O(n)$ (for all $s \in \mathbb{R}$) is equivalent to $A + A^t = 0$. Second, as for $SL(n, \mathbb{K})$ use

$$1 = \det(\exp(sA)) = e^{s\operatorname{tr}(A)} \tag{3.17}$$

to see that further tr(A) = 0 is necessary and sufficient. However, $A + A^t = 0$ already implies tr(A) = 0. Thus SO(n) and O(n) have the same Lie algebra.

$\blacksquare SU(n)$:

Here the calculation is the same as for SO(n), except that now $A^{\dagger} + A = 0$ does not imply that tr(A) = 0, so this is an extra condition.

Exercise 3.7:

In the table of matrix Lie algebras, verify the entries for $SL(n, \mathbb{C})$, SP(2n), U(n) and confirm the dimension of SU(n).

A Lie algebra probes the structure of a Lie group close to the unit element. If the Lie algebras of two Lie groups agree, the two Lie groups look alike in a neighbourhood of the unit, but may still be different. For example, even though o(n) = so(n) we still have $O(n) \ncong SO(n)$.

Information 3.11:

This is easiest to see via topological considerations (which we will not treat in this course). The group SO(n) is path connected, which means that for any $p,q \in SO(n)$ there is a continuous map $\gamma:[0,1] \to SO(n)$ such that $\gamma(0)=p$ and $\gamma(1)=q$ [Baker, section 9]. However, O(n) cannot be path connected. To see this choose $p,q \in O(n)$ such that $\det(p)=1$ and $\det(q)=-1$. The composition of a path γ with det is continuous, and on O(n), det only takes values ± 1 , so that it cannot change from 1 to -1 along γ . Thus there is no path from p to q. In fact, O(n) has two connected components, and SO(n) is the connected component containing the identity.

3.5 Examples: SO(3) and SU(2)

SO(3)

We will need the following two notations. Let $\mathcal{E}(n)_{ij}$ denote the $n \times n$ -matrix which has only one nonzero matrix element at position (i, j), and this matrix element is equal to one,

$$\left[\mathcal{E}(n)_{ij}\right]_{kl} = \delta_{ik}\delta_{jl} \quad . \tag{3.18}$$

For example,

$$\mathcal{E}(3)_{12} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} . \tag{3.19}$$

If the value of n is clear we will usually abbreviate $\mathcal{E}_{ij} \equiv \mathcal{E}(n)_{ij}$.

Let ε_{ijk} , $i, j, k \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ be totally anti-symmetric in all indices, and let $\varepsilon_{123}=1.$

- Exercise 3.8:
 (i) Show that $\mathcal{E}_{ab}\mathcal{E}_{cd} = \delta_{bc}\mathcal{E}_{ad}$.
 (ii) Show that $\sum_{x=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abx}\varepsilon_{cdx} = \delta_{ac}\delta_{bd} \delta_{ad}\delta_{bc}$.

The Lie algebra so(3) of the matrix Lie group SO(3) consists of all real, antisymmetric 3×3 -matrices. The following three matrices form a basis of so(3),

$$J_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} , J_{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} , J_{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} .$$

$$(3.20)$$

Exercise 3.9:

(i) Show that the generators J_1 , J_2 , J_3 can also be written as

$$J_a = \sum_{b,c=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abc} \mathcal{E}_{bc} \qquad ; \quad a \in \{1,2,3\} \quad .$$

- (ii) Show that $[J_a, J_b] = -\sum_{c=1}^3 \varepsilon_{abc} J_c$ (iii) Check that $R_3(\theta) = \exp(-\theta J_3)$ is given by

$$R_3(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) & 0\\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} .$$

This is a rotation by an angle θ around the 3-axis. Check explicitly that $R_3(\theta) \in$ SO(3).

SU(2)

The Pauli matrices are defined to be the following elements of $Mat(2, \mathbb{C})$,

$$\sigma_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
 , $\sigma_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $\sigma_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$. (3.21)

Exercise 3.10: Show that for $a, b \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, $[\sigma_a, \sigma_b] = 2i \sum_c \varepsilon_{abc} \sigma_c$.

The Lie algebra su(2) consists of all anti-hermitian, trace-less complex 2×2 matrices.

- Exercise 3.11: (i) Show that the set $\{i\sigma_1, i\sigma_2, i\sigma_3\}$ is a basis of su(2) as a real vector space. Convince yourself that the set $\{\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3\}$ does not form a basis of su(2) as a real vector space.
- (ii) Show that $[i\sigma_a, i\sigma_b] = -2\sum_{c=1}^3 \varepsilon_{abc} i\sigma_c$.

so(3) and su(2) are isomorphic

Definition 3.12:

Let g, h be two Lie algebras.

(i) A linear map $\varphi: g \to h$ is a Lie algebra homomorphism iff

$$\varphi([a,b]) = [\varphi(a), \varphi(b)]$$
 for all $a, b \in g$.

(ii) A Lie algebra homomorphism φ is a Lie~algebra~isomorphism iff it is invertible.

If we want to emphasise that g and h are Lie algebras over \mathbb{R} , we say that $\varphi:g\to h$ is a homomorphism (or isomorphism) of real Lie algebras. We also say $complex\ Lie\ algebra$ for a Lie algebra whose underlying vector space is over \mathbb{C} .

Exercise 3.12:

Show that so(3) and su(2) are isomorphic as real Lie algebras.

Also in this case one finds that even though $so(3) \cong su(2)$, the Lie groups SO(3) and SU(2) are *not* isomorphic.

Information 3.13:

This is again easiest seen by topological arguments. One finds that SU(2) is simply connected, i.e. every loop embedded in SU(2) can be contracted to a point, while SO(3) is not simply connected. In fact, SU(2) is a two-fold covering of SO(3).

3.6 Example: Lorentz group and Poincaré group

■ Commutators of o(1, n-1).

Recall that the Lorentz group was given by

$$O(1, n-1) = \{ M \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) | M^t J M = J \}$$
(3.22)

where J is the diagonal matrix with entries $J = \text{diag}(1, -1, \dots, -1)$, and that these linear maps preserve the bilinear form

$$\eta(x,y) = x_0 y_0 - x_1 y_1 - \dots - x_{n-1} y_{n-1}$$
(3.23)

on \mathbb{R}^n . Let e_0, e_1, \dots, e_{n-1} be the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^n (i.e. $x = (x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}) = \sum_k x_k e_k$). We will use the numbers

$$\eta_{kl} = \eta(e_k, e_l) = J_{kl} \quad .$$
(3.24)

Exercise 3.13:

Show that the Lie algebra of O(1, n-1) is

$$o(1, n-1) = \{A \in \text{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R}) | A^t J + JA = 0\}$$
.

If we write the matrices $A \in o(1, n-1)$ in block form, the condition $A^tJ + JA = 0$ becomes

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c} a & c^{t} \\ \hline b^{t} & D^{t} \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & -1 \end{array}\right) + \left(\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & -1 \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c|c} a & b \\ \hline c & D \end{array}\right) \\
= \left(\begin{array}{c|c} a & -c^{t} \\ \hline b^{t} & -D^{t} \end{array}\right) + \left(\begin{array}{c|c} a & b \\ \hline -c & -D \end{array}\right) = 0$$
(3.25)

where $a \in \mathbb{C}$ and $D \in \operatorname{Mat}(n-1,\mathbb{R})$. Thus a = 0, $c = b^t$ and $D^t = -D$. Counting the free parameters gives the dimension to be

$$\dim(o(1, n-1)) = n-1 + \frac{1}{2}(n-1)(n-2) = \frac{1}{2}n(n-1) . \tag{3.26}$$

Consider the following elements of o(1, n-1),

$$M_{ab} = \eta_{bb} \mathcal{E}_{ab} - \eta_{aa} \mathcal{E}_{ba} \qquad a, b \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$$
 (3.27)

These obey $M_{ab} = -M_{ba}$ and the set $\{M_{ab}|0 \le a < b \le n-1\}$ forms a basis of o(1, n-1)).

Exercise 3.14:

Check that the commutator of the M_{ab} 's is

$$[M_{ab}, M_{cd}] = \eta_{ad} M_{bc} + \eta_{bc} M_{ad} - \eta_{ac} M_{bd} - \eta_{bd} M_{ac}$$
.

■ Commutators of p(1, n-1).

In lemma 3.2 we found an embedding of the Poincaré group P(1, n-1) into $\operatorname{Mat}(n+1, \mathbb{R})$. Let us denote the image in $\operatorname{Mat}(n+1, \mathbb{R})$ by $\tilde{P}(1, n-1)$. In the same lemma, we checked that $\tilde{P}(1, n-1)$ is a matrix Lie group. Let us compute its Lie algebra p(1, n-1).

Exercise 3.15:

(i) Show that, for $A \in \text{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R})$ and $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\exp\left(\frac{A\mid u}{0\mid 0}\right) = \left(\frac{e^A\mid Bu}{0\mid 1}\right) \qquad , \quad B = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} A^{n-1} \quad .$$

[If A is invertible, then $B = A^{-1}(e^A - 1)$.]

(ii) Show that the Lie algebra of $\tilde{P}(1,n-1)$ (the Poincaré group embedded in $\mathrm{Mat}(n+1,\mathbb{R})$) is

$$p(1, n-1) = \left\{ \left(\begin{array}{c|c} A & x \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array} \right) | A \in o(1, n-1) , x \in \mathbb{R}^n \right\} .$$

Let us define the generators M_{ab} for $a,b \in \{0,1,\dots,n-1\}$ as before and set in addition

$$P_a = \mathcal{E}_{an}$$
 , $a \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$. (3.28)

Exercise 3.16:

Show that, for $a, b, c \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$,

$$[M_{ab}, P_c] = \eta_{bc} P_a - \eta_{ac} P_b$$
 , $[P_a, P_b] = 0$.

We thus find that altogether the Poincaré algebra p(1, n-1) has basis

$$\{M_{ab} | 0 \le a < b \le n-1\} \cup \{P_a | 0 \le a \le n-1\}$$
(3.29)

which obey the commutation relations

$$[M_{ab}, M_{cd}] = \eta_{ad} M_{bc} + \eta_{bc} M_{ad} - \eta_{ac} M_{bd} - \eta_{bd} M_{ac} ,$$

$$[M_{ab}, P_c] = \eta_{bc} P_a - \eta_{ac} P_b ,$$

$$[P_a, P_b] = 0 .$$
(3.30)

3.7 Final comments: Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff formula

Here are some final comments before we concentrate on the study of Lie algebras. Let g be the Lie algebra of a matrix Lie group G.

For $X, Y \in q$ close enough to zero, we have

$$\exp(X)\exp(Y) = \exp(X \star Y) \quad , \tag{3.31}$$

where

$$X \star Y = X + Y + \frac{1}{2}[X, Y] + \frac{1}{12}[X, [X, Y]] + \frac{1}{12}[Y, [Y, X]] + \dots$$
 (3.32)

can be expressed entirely in terms of commutators (which we will not prove). This is known as the *Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff identity*. For a proof, see [Bourbaki "Groupes et algèbres de Lie" Ch. II $\S 6$ n° 2 Thm. 1], and for an explicit formula [n° 4] of the same book.

Thus the Lie algebra g encodes all the information (group elements and their multiplication) of G in a neighbourhood of $\mathbf{1} \in G$.

Exercise 3.17:

There are some variants of the BCH identity which are also known as *Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff formulae*. Here we will prove some.

Let $\operatorname{ad}(A): \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C}) \to \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C})$ be given by $\operatorname{ad}(A)B = [A,B]$. [This is called the *adjoint action*.]

(i) Show that for $A, B \in \text{Mat}(n, \mathbb{C})$,

$$f(t) = e^{tA}Be^{-tA}$$
 and $g(t) = e^{tad(A)}B$

both solve the first order DEQ

$$\frac{d}{dt}u(t) = [A, u(t)] .$$

(ii) Show that

$$e^A B e^{-A} = e^{\operatorname{ad}(A)} B = B + [A, B] + \frac{1}{2} [A, [A, B]] + \dots$$

(iii) Show that

$$e^A e^B e^{-A} = \exp(e^{\operatorname{ad}(A)}B) .$$

(iv) Show that if [A, B] commutes with A and B,

$$e^A e^B = e^{[A,B]} e^B e^A$$
.

(v) Suppose [A,B] commutes with A and B. Show that $f(t)=e^{tA}e^{tB}$ and $g(t)=e^{tA+tB+\frac{1}{2}t^2[A,B]}$ both solve $\frac{d}{dt}u(t)=(A+B+t[A,B])u(t)$. Show further that

$$e^A e^B = e^{A+B+\frac{1}{2}[A,B]}$$
.

4 Lie algebras

In this course we will only be dealing with vector spaces over \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} . When a definition or statement works for either of the two, we will write \mathbb{K} instead of \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} . (In fact, when we write \mathbb{K} below, the statement or definition holds for every field.)

4.1 Representations of Lie algebras

Definition 4.1:

Let g be a Lie algebra over \mathbb{K} . A representation (V, R) of g is a \mathbb{K} -vector space V together with a Lie algebra homomorphism $R: g \to \operatorname{End}(V)$. The vector space V is called representation space and the linear map R the action or representation map. We will sometimes abbreviate $V \equiv (V, R)$.

In other words, (V, R) is a representation of g iff

$$R(x) \circ R(y) - R(y) \circ R(x) = R([x, y])$$
 for all $x, y \in g$. (4.1)

Exercise 4.1:

It is also common to use 'modules' instead of representations. The two concepts are equivalent, as will be clear by the end of this exercise.

Let g be a Lie algebra over \mathbb{K} . A g-module V is a \mathbb{K} -vector space V together with a bilinear map $.: g \times V \to V$ such that

$$[x, y].w = x.(y.w) - y.(x.w)$$
 for all $x, y \in g, w \in V$. (4.2)

- (i) Show that given a g-module V, one gets a representation of g by setting R(x)w=x.w.
- (ii) Given a representation (V, R) of g, show that setting x.w = R(x)w defines a g-module on V.

Given a representation (V, R) of g and elements $x \in g$, $w \in V$, we will sometimes abbreviate $x.w \equiv R(x)w$.

Definition 4.2:

Let g be a Lie algebra.

- (i) A representation (V, R) of g is faithful iff $R: g \to \text{End}(V)$ is injective.
- (ii) An intertwiner between two representations (V, R_V) and (W, R_W) is a linear map $f: V \to W$ such that

$$f \circ R_V(x) = R_W(x) \circ f \quad . \tag{4.3}$$

(iii) Two representations R_V and R_W are isomorphic if there exists an invertible intertwiner $f: V \to W$.

In particular, two representations whose representation spaces are of different dimension are never isomorphic. There are two representations one can construct for any Lie algebra g over \mathbb{K} .

- The trivial representation is given by taking \mathbb{K} as representation space (i.e. the one-dimensional \mathbb{K} -vector space \mathbb{K} itself) and defining $R: g \to \operatorname{End}(\mathbb{K})$ to be R(x) = 0 for all $x \in g$. In short, the trivial representation is $(\mathbb{K}, 0)$.
- The second representation is more interesting. For $x \in g$ define the map $ad_x : g \to g$ as

$$\operatorname{ad}_{x}(y) = [x, y] \quad \text{for all} \quad y \in g \quad .$$
 (4.4)

Then $x \mapsto \operatorname{ad}_x$ defines a linear map $\operatorname{ad}: g \to \operatorname{End}(g)$. This can be used to define a representation of g on itself. In this way one obtains the *adjoint representation* (g, ad) . This is indeed a representation of g because

$$(\mathrm{ad}_{x} \circ \mathrm{ad}_{y} - \mathrm{ad}_{y} \circ \mathrm{ad}_{x})(z) = [x, [y, z]] - [y, [x, z]]$$

$$= [x, [y, z]] + [y, [z, x]] = -[z, [x, y]] = \mathrm{ad}_{[x, y]}(z) .$$

$$(4.5)$$

Exercise 4.2:

Show that for the Lie algebra u(1), the trivial and the adjoint representation are isomorphic.

Given a representation R of g on \mathbb{K}^n we define the dual representation R^+ via

$$R^{+}(x) = -R(x)^{t} \qquad \text{for all } x \in g . \tag{4.6}$$

That is, for the $n \times n$ matrix $R^+(x) \in \operatorname{End}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ we take minus the transpose of the matrix R(x).

Exercise 4.3:

Show that if (\mathbb{K}^n, R) is a representation of g, then so is (\mathbb{K}^n, R^+) with $R^+(x) = -R(x)^t$.

The dual representation can also be defined for a representation R on a vector space V other then \mathbb{K}^n . One then takes R^+ to act on the dual vector space V^* and defines $R^+(x) = -R(x)^*$, i.e. $(V,R)^+ = (V^*, -R^*)$.

Definition 4.3:

Let g be a Lie-algebra and let (V, R) be a representation of g.

- (i) A sub-vector space U of V is called *invariant subspace* iff $x.u \in U$ for all $x \in g$, $u \in U$. In this case we call (U, R) a sub-representation of (V, R).
- (ii) (V, R) is called *irreducible* iff $V \neq \{0\}$ and the only invariant subspaces of (V, R) are $\{0\}$ and V.

Exercise 4.4:

Let $f: V \to W$ be an intertwiner of two representations V, W of g. Show that the $kernel \ker(f) = \{v \in V | f(v) = 0\}$ and the $image \operatorname{im}(f) = \{w \in W | w = f(v) \text{ for some } v \in V\}$ are invariant subspaces of V and W, respectively.

Recall the following result from linear algebra.

Lemma 4.4:

A matrix $A \in Mat(n, \mathbb{C})$, n > 0, has at least one eigenvector.

This is the main reason why the treatment of *complex* Lie algebras is much simpler than that of real Lie algebras.

Lemma 4.5:

(Schur's Lemma) Let g be a Lie algebra and let U, V be two irreducible representations of g. Then an intertwiner $f: U \to V$ is either zero or an isomorphism.

Proof:

The kernel $\ker(f)$ is an invariant subspace of U. Since U is irreducible, either $\ker(f) = U$ or $\ker(f) = \{0\}$. Thus either f = 0 or f is injective. The image $\operatorname{im}(f)$ is an invariant subspace of V. Thus $\operatorname{im}(f) = \{0\}$ or $\operatorname{im}(f) = V$, i.e. either f = 0 or f is surjective. Altogether, either f = 0 or f is a bijection. \square

Corollary 4.6:

Let g be a Lie algebra over $\mathbb C$ and let U,V be two finite-dimensional, irreducible representations of g.

- (i) If $f: U \to U$ is an intertwiner, then $f = \lambda id_U$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.
- (ii) If f_1 and f_2 are nonzero intertwiners from U to V, then $f_1 = \lambda f_2$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}^{\times} = \mathbb{C} \{0\}$.

Proof:

(i) By lemma 4.4, f has an eigenvalue $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. Note that the linear map $h_{\lambda} = f - \lambda \mathrm{id}_{U}$ is an intertwiner from U to U since, for all $x \in g$, $u \in U$,

$$h_{\lambda}(x.u) = f(x.u) - \lambda x.u = x.f(u) - x.(\lambda u) = x.h_{\lambda}(u)$$
.

Let $u \neq 0$ be an eigenvector, $fu = \lambda u$. Then $h_{\lambda}(u) = 0$ so that h_{λ} is not an isomorphism. By Schur's lemma $h_{\lambda} = 0$ so that $f = \lambda \mathrm{id}_{U}$.

(ii) By Schur's Lemma, f_1 and f_2 are isomorphisms. $f_2^{-1} \circ f_1$ is an intertwiner from U to U. By part (i), $f_2^{-1} \circ f_1 = \lambda \operatorname{id}_U$, which implies $f_1 = \lambda f_2$. As $f_1 \neq 0$ we also have $\lambda \neq 0$.

4.2 Irreducible representations of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$

Recall that

$$sl(2,\mathbb{C}) = \{ A \in \operatorname{Mat}(2,\mathbb{C}) | \operatorname{tr}(A) = 0 \} . \tag{4.7}$$

In section 3.4 we saw that this, understood as a real Lie algebra, is the Lie algebra of the matrix Lie group $SL(2,\mathbb{C})$. However, since $\mathrm{Mat}(2,\mathbb{C})$ is a complex vector space and since the condition $\mathrm{tr}(A)=0$ is \mathbb{C} -linear, we can also understand $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ as a complex Lie algebra. We should really use a different symbol for the two, but by abuse of notation we (and everyone else) will not.

In this section, by $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ we will always mean the *complex* Lie algebra. The aim of this section is to prove the following theorem.

Theorem 4.7:

The dimension gives a bijection

$$\dim: \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{finite dim. irreducible repns} \\ \text{of } sl(2,\mathbb{C}) \text{ up to isomorphism} \end{array} \right\} \longrightarrow \{1,2,3,\dots\} \quad . \tag{4.8}$$

All matrices A in $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ are of the form

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & -a \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{for} \quad a, b, c \in \mathbb{C} \quad . \tag{4.9}$$

A convenient basis will be

$$H = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{array}\right) \quad , \quad E = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right) \quad , \quad F = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right) \quad . \tag{4.10}$$

Exercise 4.5:

Check that for the basis elements of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ one has [H,E]=2E, [H,F]=-2F and [E,F]=H.

Exercise 4.6:

Let (V, R) be a representation of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$. Show that if R(H) has an eigenvector with non-integer eigenvalue, then V is infinite-dimensional.

Hint: Let $H.v = \lambda v$ with $\lambda \notin \mathbb{Z}$. Proceed as follows.

- 1) Set w = E.v. Show that either w = 0 or w is an eigenvector of R(H) with eigenvalue $\lambda + 2$.
- 2) Show that either V is infinite-dimensional or there is an eigenvector v_0 of R(H) of eigenvalue $\lambda_0 \notin \mathbb{Z}$ such that $E.v_0 = 0$.
- 3) Let $v_m = F^m \cdot v_0$ and define $v_{-1} = 0$. Show by induction on m that

$$H.v_m = (\lambda_0 - 2m)v_m$$
 and $E.v_m = m(\lambda_0 - m + 1)v_{m-1}$.

4) Conclude that if $\lambda_0 \notin \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ all v_m are nonzero.

Corollary 4.8:

(to exercise 4.6) In a finite-dimensional representation (V, R) of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$ the eigenvalues of R(H) are integers.

Exercise 4.7:

The Lie algebra $h = \mathbb{C}H$ is a subalgebra of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$. Show that h has finite-dimensional representations where R(H) has non-integer eigenvalues.

Next we construct a representation of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ for a given dimension.

Lemma 4.9:

Let $n \in \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$ and let $e_0, ..., e_{n-1}$ be the standard basis of \mathbb{C}^n . Set $e_{-1} = e_n = 0$. Then

$$H.e_m = (n - 1 - 2m)e_m$$

 $E.e_m = m(n - m)e_{m-1}$
 $F.e_m = e_{m+1}$ (4.11)

defines an irreducible representation V_n of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ on \mathbb{C}^n .

Proof: To see that this is a representation of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ we check the definition explicitly. For example

$$[E, F].e_m = H.e_m = (n - 1 - 2m)e_m$$
 (4.12)

and

$$E.(F.e_m) - F.(E.e_m) = (m+1)(n-m-1)e_m - m(n-m)e_m$$

$$= (n-1-2m)e_m = [E, F].e_m .$$
(4.13)

To check the remaining conditions is the content of the next exercise.

Irreducibility can be seen as follows. Let W be a nonzero invariant subspace of \mathbb{C}^n . Then $R(H)|_W$ has an eigenvector $v \in W$. But v is also an eigenvector of

R(H) itself, and (because the e_m are a basis consisting of eigenvectors of H with distinct eigenvalues) has to be of the form $v = \lambda e_m$, for some $m \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. Thus W contains in particular the vector e_m Starting from e_m one can obtain all other e_k by acting with E and F. Thus W has to contain all e_k and hence $W = \mathbb{C}^n$.

Exercise 4.8:

Check that the representation of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ defined in the lecture indeed also obeys [H,E].v=2E.v and [H,F].v=-2F.v for all $v\in\mathbb{C}^n$.

Proof of Theorem 4.7, part I:

Lemma 4.9 shows that the map dim() in the statement of Theorem 4.7 is surjective.

Exercise 4.9:

Let (W, R) be a finite-dimensional, irreducible representation of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$. Show that for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ there is an injective intertwiner $\varphi : V_n \to W$.

Hint: (recall exercise 4.6)

- 1) Find a $v_0 \in W$ such that $E.v_0 = 0$ and $H.v_0 = \lambda_0 v_0$ for some $h \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- 2) Set $v_m = F^m \cdot v_0$. Show that there exists an n such that $v_m = 0$ for $m \ge n$. Choose the smallest such n.
- 3) Show that $\varphi(e_m) = v_m$ for $m = 0, \dots, n-1$ defines an injective intertwiner.

Proof of Theorem 4.7, part II:

Suppose (W,R) is a finite-dimensional irreducible representation of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$. By exercise 4.9 there is an injective intertwiner $\varphi:V_n\to W$. By Schur's lemma, as φ is nonzero, it has to be an isomorphism. This shows that the map dim() in the statement of Theorem 4.7 is injective. Since we already saw that it is also surjective, it is indeed a bijection.

4.3 Direct sums and tensor products

Definition 4.10:

Let U, V be two \mathbb{K} -vector spaces.

(i) The direct sum of U and V is the set

$$U \oplus V = \{ (u, v) | u \in U, v \in V \}$$
 (4.14)

with addition and scalar multiplication defined to be

$$(u, v) + (u', v') = (u + u', v + v')$$
 and $\lambda(u, v) = (\lambda u, \lambda v)$ (4.15)

for all $u \in U$, $v \in V$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$. We will write $u \oplus v \equiv (u, v)$.

(ii) The $tensor\ product$ of U and V is the quotient vector space

$$U \otimes V = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{K}}((u, v) | u \in U, v \in V)/W \tag{4.16}$$

where W is the \mathbb{K} -vector space spanned by the vectors

$$(\lambda_1 u_1 + \lambda_2 u_2, v) - \lambda_1(u_1, v) - \lambda_2(u_2, v)$$
, $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{K}$, $u_1, u_2 \in U$, $v \in V$.

$$(u, \lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2) - \lambda_1(u, v_1) - \lambda_2(u, v_2)$$
, $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{K}$, $u \in U$, $v_1, v_2 \in V$.

The equivalence class containing (u, v) is denoted by (u, v) + W or by $u \otimes v$.

What the definition of the tensor product means is explained in the following lemma, which can also be understood as a pragmatic definition of $U \otimes V$.

Lemma 4.11:

- (i) Every element of $U \otimes V$ can be written in the form $u_1 \otimes v_1 + \cdots + u_n \otimes v_n$.
- (ii) In $U \otimes V$ we can use the following rules

$$(\lambda_1 u_1 + \lambda_2 u_2) \otimes v = \lambda_1 u_1 \otimes v + \lambda_2 u_2 \otimes v \quad , \ \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{K} \ , \ u_1, u_2 \in U \ , \ v \in V \ .$$

$$u \otimes (\lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2) = \lambda_1 u \otimes v_1 + \lambda_2 u \otimes v_2$$
, $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{K}$, $u \in U$, $v_1, v_2 \in V$.

Proof:

- (ii) is an immediate consequence of the definition: Take the first equality as an example. The difference between the representative $(\lambda_1 u_1 + \lambda_2 u_2, v)$ of the equivalence class on the lhs and the representative $\lambda_1(u_1, v) + \lambda_2(u_2, v)$ of the equivalence class on rhs lies in W, i.e. in the equivalence class of zero.
- (i) By definition, any $q \in U \otimes V$ is the equivalence class of an element of the form

$$q = \lambda_1(u_1, v_1) + \dots + \lambda_n(u_n, v_n) + W$$
 (4.17)

for some n > 0. But this is just the equivalence class denoted by

$$q = \lambda_1 \cdot u_1 \otimes v_1 + \dots + \lambda_n \cdot u_n \otimes v_n \quad . \tag{4.18}$$

By part (ii), we in particular have $\lambda(u \otimes v) = (\lambda u) \otimes v$ so that the above vector can be written as

$$q = (\lambda_1 u_1) \otimes v_1 + \dots + (\lambda_n u_n) \otimes v_n \quad , \tag{4.19}$$

which is of the desired form.

Exercise* 4.10:

Let U, V be two finite-dimensional \mathbb{K} -vector spaces. Let u_1, \ldots, u_m be a basis of U and let v_1, \ldots, v_n be a basis of V.

(i) [Easy] Show that

$$\{u_k \oplus 0 | k = 1, \dots, m\} \cup \{0 \oplus v_k | k = 1, \dots, n\}$$

is a basis of $U \oplus V$.

(ii) [Harder] Show that

$$\{u_i \otimes v_i | i = 1, \dots, m \text{ and } j = 1, \dots, n\}$$

is a basis of $U \otimes V$.

This exercise shows in particular that

$$\dim(U \oplus V) = \dim(U) + \dim(V)$$
 and $\dim(U \otimes V) = \dim(U) \dim(V)$. (4.20)

Definition 4.12:

Let g, h be Lie algebras over \mathbb{K} . The direct sum $g \oplus h$ is the Lie algebra given by the \mathbb{K} -vector space $g \oplus h$ with Lie bracket

$$[x \oplus y, x' \oplus y'] = [x, x'] \oplus [y, y'] \qquad \text{for all } x, x' \in g, \ y, y' \in h \ . \tag{4.21}$$

Exercise 4.11:

Show that for two Lie algebras g,h, the vector space $g \oplus h$ with Lie bracket as defined in the lecture is indeed a Lie algebra.

Definition 4.13:

Let g be a Lie algebra and let U, V be two representations of g.

(i) The $direct\ sum$ of U and V is the representation of g on the vector space $U\oplus V$ with action

$$x.(u \oplus v) = (x.u) \oplus (x.v)$$
 for all $x \in g, u \in U, v \in V$. (4.22)

(ii) The $tensor\ product$ of U and V is the representation of g on the vector space $U\otimes V$ with action

$$x.(u \otimes v) = (x.u) \otimes v + u \otimes (x.v)$$
 for all $x \in g, u \in U, v \in V$. (4.23)

Exercise 4.12:

Let g be a Lie algebra and let U, V be two representations of g.

- (i) Show that the vector spaces $U \oplus V$ and $U \otimes V$ with g-action as defined in the lecture are indeed representations of g.
- (ii) Show that the vector space $U \otimes V$ with g-action $x.(u \otimes v) = (x.u) \otimes (x.v)$ is not a representation of g.

Exercise 4.13:

Let V_n denote the irreducible representation of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ defined in the lecture. Consider the isomorphism of vector spaces $\varphi: V_1 \oplus V_3 \to V_2 \otimes V_2$ given by

$$\varphi(e_0 \oplus 0) = e_0 \otimes e_1 - e_1 \otimes e_0 ,$$

$$\varphi(0 \oplus e_0) = e_0 \otimes e_0 ,$$

$$\varphi(0 \oplus e_1) = e_0 \otimes e_1 + e_1 \otimes e_0 ,$$

$$\varphi(0 \oplus e_2) = 2e_1 \otimes e_1 ,$$

(so that V_1 gets mapped to anti-symmetric combinations and V_3 to symmetric combinations of basis elements of $V_2 \otimes V_2$). With the help of φ , show that

$$V_1 \oplus V_3 \cong V_2 \otimes V_2$$

as representations of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ (this involves a bit of writing).

4.4 Ideals

If U,V are sub-vector spaces of a Lie algebra g over $\mathbb K$ we define [U,V] to be the sub-vector space

$$[U, V] = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{K}}([x, y] | x \in U, y \in V) \subset g . \tag{4.24}$$

Definition 4.14:

Let g be a Lie algebra.

- (i) A sub-vector space $h \subset g$ is an *ideal* iff $[g, h] \subset h$.
- (ii) An ideal h of g is called proper iff $h \neq \{0\}$ and $h \neq g$.

Exercise 4.14:

Let g be a Lie algebra.

- (i) Show that a sub-vector space $h \subset g$ is a Lie subalgebra of g iff $[h, h] \subset h$.
- (ii) Show that an ideal of g is in particular a Lie subalgebra.
- (iii) Show that for a Lie algebra homomorphism $\varphi: g \to g'$ from g to a Lie algebra g', $\ker(\varphi)$ is an ideal of g.
- (iv) Show that [g, g] is an ideal of g.
- (v) Show that if h and h' are ideals of g, then their intersection $h \cap h'$ is an ideal of g.

Lemma 4.15:

If g is a Lie algebra and $h \subset g$ is an ideal, then quotient vector space g/h is a Lie algebra with Lie bracket

$$[x+h, y+h] = [x, y] + h$$
 for $x, y \in g$. (4.25)

Proof:

(i) The Lie bracket is well defined: Let $\pi:g\to g/h,\ \pi(x)=x+h$ be the canonical projection. For $a=\pi(x)$ and $b=\pi(y)$ we want to define

$$[a, b] = \pi([x, y])$$
 (4.26)

For this to be well defined, the rhs must only depend on a and b, but not on the specific choice of x and y. Let thus x', y' be two elements of g such that

 $\pi(x') = a$, $\pi(y') = b$. Then there exist $h_x, h_y \in h$ such that $x' = x + h_x$ and $y' = y + h_y$. It follows that

$$\pi([x', y']) = \pi([x + h_x, y + h_y])$$

$$= \pi([x, y]) + \pi([h_x, y]) + \pi([x, h_y]) + \pi([h_x, h_y]) .$$
(4.27)

But $[h_x, y]$, $[x, h_y]$ and $[h_x, h_y]$ are in h since h is an ideal, and hence

$$0 = \pi([h_x, y]) = \pi([x, h_y]) = \pi([h_x, h_y]) . \tag{4.28}$$

It follows $\pi([x',y']) = \pi([x,y]) + 0$ and hence the Lie bracket on g/h is well-defined.

(ii) The Lie bracket is skew-symmetric, bilinear and solves the Jacobi-Identity: Immediate from definition. E.g.

$$[x+h, x+h] = [x, x] + h = 0 + h . (4.29)$$

Exercise 4.15:

Let g be a Lie algebra and $h \subset g$ an ideal. Show that $\pi: g \to g/h$ given by $\pi(x) = x + h$ is a surjective homomorphism of Lie algebras with kernel $\ker(\pi) = h$.

Definition 4.16:

A Lie algebra g is called

- (i) abelian iff $[g, g] = \{0\}.$
- (ii) simple iff it has no proper ideal and is not abelian.
- (iii) semi-simple iff it is isomorphic to a direct sum of simple Lie algebras.
- (iv) reductive iff it is isomorphic to a direct sum of simple and abelian Lie algebras.

Lemma 4.17:

If g is a semi-simple Lie algebra, then [g, g] = g.

Proof

- Suppose first that g is simple. We have seen in exercise 4.14(iv) that [g,g] is an ideal of g. Since g is simple, $[g,g]=\{0\}$ or [g,g]=g. But $[g,g]=\{0\}$ implies that g is abelian, which is excluded for simple Lie algebras. Thus [g,g]=g.
- Suppose now that $g = g_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus g_n$ with all g_k simple Lie algebras. Then

$$[g,g] = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{K}}([g_k, g_l]|k, l = 1, \dots, n) = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{K}}([g_k, g_k]|k = 1, \dots, n)$$
$$= \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{K}}(g_k|k = 1, \dots, n) = g$$
(4.30)

where we first used that $[g_k, g_l] = \{0\}$ for $k \neq l$ and then that $[g_k, g_k] = g_k$ since g_k is simple.

Exercise 4.16:

Let g, h be Lie algebras and $\varphi : g \to h$ a Lie algebra homomorphism. Show that if g is simple, then φ is either zero or injective.

4.5 The Killing form

Definition 4.18:

Let g be a finite-dimensional Lie algebra over \mathbb{K} . The Killing form $\kappa \equiv \kappa_g$ on g is the bilinear map $\kappa: g \times g \to \mathbb{K}$ given by

$$\kappa(x,y) = \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_x \circ \operatorname{ad}_y) \quad \text{for} \quad x,y \in g \quad .$$
(4.31)

Lemma 4.19:

The Killing form obeys, for all $x, y, z \in g$,

- (i) $\kappa(x, y) = \kappa(y, x)$ (symmetry)
- (ii) $\kappa([x,y],z) = \kappa(x,[y,z])$ (invariance)

Proof:

(i) By cyclicity of the trace we have

$$\kappa(x,y) = \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_x \circ \operatorname{ad}_y) = \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_y \circ \operatorname{ad}_x) = \kappa(y,x) \quad . \tag{4.32}$$

(ii) From the properties of the adjoint action and the cyclicity of the trace we get

$$\kappa([x,y],z) = \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_{[x,y]}\operatorname{ad}_z) = \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_x\operatorname{ad}_y\operatorname{ad}_z - \operatorname{ad}_y\operatorname{ad}_x\operatorname{ad}_z)
= \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_x\operatorname{ad}_y\operatorname{ad}_z - \operatorname{ad}_x\operatorname{ad}_z\operatorname{ad}_y) = \kappa(x,[y,z]) .$$
(4.33)

Exercise 4.17:

(i) Show that for the basis of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ used in exercise 4.5, one has

$$\kappa(E,E) = 0 \; , \; \; \kappa(E,H) = 0 \; , \; \; \kappa(E,F) = 4 \; ,$$

$$\kappa(H,H) = 8 \; , \; \; \kappa(H,F) = 0 \; , \; \; \kappa(F,F) = 0 \; .$$

Denote by Tr the trace of 2×2 -matrices. Show that for $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ one has $\kappa(x,y)=4\operatorname{Tr}(xy)$.

(ii) Evaluate the Killing form of p(1,1) for all combinations of the basis elements M_{01} , P_0 , P_1 (as used in exercises 3.14 and 3.16). Is the Killing form of p(1,1) non-degenerate?

Exercise 4.18:

(i) Show that for $gl(n, \mathbb{C})$ one has $\kappa(x, y) = 2n \operatorname{Tr}(xy) - 2\operatorname{Tr}(x)\operatorname{Tr}(y)$, where Tr is the trace of $n \times n$ -matrices.

Hint: Use the basis \mathcal{E}_{kl} to compute the trace in the adjoint representation.

(ii) Show that for $sl(n, \mathbb{C})$ one has $\kappa(x, y) = 2n \operatorname{Tr}(xy)$.

Exercise 4.19:

Let g be a finite-dimensional Lie algebra and let $h \subset g$ be an ideal. Show that

$$h^{\perp} = \{ x \in g | \kappa_q(x, y) = 0 \text{ for all } y \in h \}$$

is also an ideal of q.

The following theorem we will not prove.

Theorem 4.20:

If g is a finite-dimensional complex simple Lie algebra, then κ_g is non-degenerate.

Information 4.21:

The proof of this (and the necessary background) needs about 10 pages, and can be found e.g. in [Fulton, Harris "Representation Theory" Part II Ch. 9 and App. C Prop. C.10]. It works along the following lines. One defines

$$g^{\{0\}} = g \ , \ g^{\{1\}} = [g^{\{0\}}, g^{\{0\}}] \ , \ g^{\{2\}} = [g^{\{1\}}, g^{\{1\}}] \ , \ \dots \eqno(4.34)$$

and calls a Lie algebra solvable if $g^{\{m\}} = \{0\}$ for some m. The hard part then is to prove Cartan's criterion for solvability, which implies that if a complex, finite-dimensional Lie algebra g has $\kappa_g = 0$, then g is solvable. Suppose now that g is simple. Then [g,g] = g, and hence g is not solvable (as $g^{\{m\}} = g$ for all m). Hence κ_g does not vanish. But the set

$$g^{\perp} = \{ x \in g | \kappa_q(x, y) = 0 \text{ for all } y \in g \}$$

$$(4.35)$$

is an ideal (see exercise 4.19). Hence it is $\{0\}$ or g. But $g^{\perp} = g$ implies $\kappa_g = 0$, which cannot be for g simple. Thus $g^{\perp} = \{0\}$, which precisely means that κ_g is non-degenerate.

Lemma 4.22:

Let g be a finite-dimensional Lie algebra. If g contains an abelian ideal h (i.e. $[h,g]\subset h$ and [h,h]=0), then κ_g is degenerate.

Exercise 4.20:

Show that if a finite-dimensional Lie algebra g contains an abelian ideal h, then the Killing form of g is degenerate. (Hint: Choose a basis of h, extend it to a basis of g, and evaluate $\kappa_g(x,a)$ with $x \in g$, $a \in h$.)

Exercise 4.21:

Let $g = g_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus g_n$, for finite-dimensional Lie algebras g_i . Let $x = x_1 + \cdots + x_n$ and $y = y_1 + \cdots + y_n$ be elements of g such that $x_i, y_i \in g_i$. Show that

$$\kappa_g(x,y) = \sum_{i=1}^n \kappa_{g_i}(x_i, y_i) .$$

Theorem 4.23:

For a finite-dimensional, complex Lie algebra g, the following are equivalent.

- (i) g is semi-simple.
- (ii) κ_g is non-degenerate.

Proof:

(i) \Rightarrow (ii): We can write

$$g = g_1 \oplus \dots \oplus g_n \tag{4.36}$$

for g_k simple Lie algebras. If $x, y \in g_k$, then $\kappa_g(x, y) = \kappa_{g_k}(x, y)$, while if $x \in g_k$ and $y \in g_l$ with $k \neq l$, we have $\kappa_g(x, y) = 0$. Let $x = x_1 + \dots + x_n \neq 0$ be an element of g, with $x_k \in g_k$. There is at least one $x_l \neq 0$. Since g_l is simple, κ_{g_l} is non-degenerate, and there is a $y \in g_l$ such that $\kappa_{g_l}(x_l, y) \neq 0$. But

$$\kappa_g(x,y) = \kappa_{g_l}(x_l,y) \neq 0 \quad . \tag{4.37}$$

Hence κ_g is non-degenerate.

- $(ii) \Rightarrow (i)$:
- g is not abelian (or by lemma 4.22 κ_g would be degenerate). If g does not contain a proper ideal, then it is therefore simple and in particular semi-simple.
- Suppose now that $h \subset g$ is a proper ideal and set $X = h \cap h^{\perp}$. Then X is an ideal. Further, $\kappa(a,b) = 0$ for all $a \in h$ and $b \in h^{\perp}$, so that in particular $\kappa(a,b) = 0$ for all $a,b \in X$. But then, for all $a,b \in X$ and for all $x \in g$, $\kappa(x,[a,b]) = \kappa([x,a],b) = 0$ (since $[x,a] \in X$ as X is an ideal). But κ is non-degenerate, so that this is only possible if [a,b] = 0. It follows that X is an abelian ideal. By the previous lemma, then $X = \{0\}$ (or κ would be degenerate).
- In exercise 4.22 you will prove that, since κ_g is non-degenerate, $\dim(h) + \dim(h^{\perp}) = \dim(g)$. Since $[h, h^{\perp}] = \{0\}$ and $h \cap h^{\perp} = \{0\}$, we have $g = h \oplus h^{\perp}$ as Lie algebras. Apply the above argument to h and h^{\perp} until all summands contain no proper ideals. Since g is finite-dimensional, this process will terminate. \square

Exercise 4.22:

Let g be a finite-dimensional Lie algebra with non-degenerate Killing form. Let $h \subset g$ be a sub-vector space. Show that $\dim(h) + \dim(h^{\perp}) = \dim(g)$.

Exercise 4.23:

Show that the Poincaré algebra p(1, n-1), $n \ge 2$, is not semi-simple.

Definition 4.24:

Let g be a Lie algebra over \mathbb{K} . A bilinear form $B: g \times g \to \mathbb{K}$ is called *invariant* iff B([x,y],z) = B(x,[y,z]) for all $x,y,z \in g$.

Clearly, the Killing form is an invariant bilinear form on g, which is in addition symmetric. The following theorem shows that for a simple Lie algebra, it is unique up to a constant.

Theorem 4.25:

Let g be a finite-dimensional, complex, simple Lie algebra and let B be an invariant bilinear form. Then $B = \lambda \kappa_g$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

The proof will be given in the following exercise.

Exercise 4.24:

In this exercise we prove the theorem that for a finite-dimensional, complex, simple Lie algebra g, and for an invariant bilinear form B, we have $B = \lambda \kappa_g$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

- (i) Let $g^* = \{\varphi : g \to \mathbb{C} \text{ linear}\}$ be the dual space of g. The dual representation of the adjoint representation is $(g, \operatorname{ad})^+ = (g^*, -\operatorname{ad})$. Let $f_B : g \to g^*$ be given by $f_B(x) = B(x, \cdot)$, i.e. $[f_B(x)](z) = B(x, z)$. Show that f_B is an intertwiner from (g, ad) to $(g^*, -\operatorname{ad})$.
- (ii) Using that g is simple, show that (g, ad) is irreducible.
- (iii) Since (g, ad) and $(g^*, -\text{ad})$ are isomorphic representations, also $(g^*, -\text{ad})$ is irreducible. Let f_{κ} be defined in the same way as f_B , but with κ instead of B. Show that $f_B = \lambda f_{\kappa}$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.
- (iv) Show that $B = \lambda \kappa$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

5 Classification of finite-dimensional, semi-simple, complex Lie algebras

In this section we will almost exclusively work with finite-dimensional semisimple complex Lie algebras. In order not to say that too often we abbreviate

fssc = finite-dimensional semi-simple complex

5.1 Working in a basis

Let g be a finite-dimensional Lie algebra over \mathbb{K} . Let $\{T^a|a=1,\ldots,\dim(g)\}$ be a basis of g. Then we can write

$$[T^a, T^b] = \sum_c f^{ab}_{\ c} T^c \qquad , \quad f^{ab}_{\ c} \in \mathbb{K} \quad .$$
 (5.1)

The constants $f^{ab}_{\ c}$ are called *structure constants* of the Lie algebra g. (If g is infinite-dimensional, and we are given a basis, we will also call the $f^{ab}_{\ c}$ structure constants.)

Exercise 5.1:

Let $\{T^a\}$ be a basis of a finite-dimensional Lie algebra g over \mathbb{K} . For $x \in g$, let $M(x)_{ab}$ be the matrix of ad_x in that basis, i.e.

$$\operatorname{ad}_x(\sum_b v_b T^b) = \sum_a (\sum_b M(x)_{ab} v_b) T^a .$$

Show that $M(T^a)_{cb} = f^{ab}_{\ c}$, i.e. the structure constants give the matrix elements of the adjoint action.

Exercise* 5.2:

A fact from linear algebra: Show that for every non-degenerate symmetric bilinear form $b: V \times V \to \mathbb{C}$ on a finite-dimensional, complex vector space V there exists a basis v_1, \ldots, v_n (with $n = \dim(V)$) of V such that $b(v_i, v_j) = \delta_{ij}$.

If g is a fssc Lie algebra, we can hence find a basis $\{T^a|a=1,\ldots,\dim(g)\}$ such that

$$\kappa(T^a, T^b) = \delta_{ab} \quad . \tag{5.2}$$

In this basis the structure constants can be computed to be

$$\kappa(T^c, [T^a, T^b]) = \sum_{d} f^{ab}_{\ d} \kappa(T^c, T^d) = f^{ab}_{\ c} \quad . \tag{5.3}$$

Exercise 5.3:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and $\{T^a\}$ a basis such that $\kappa(T^a, T^b) = \delta_{ab}$. Show that the structure constants in this basis are anti-symmetric in all three indices.

Exercise 5.4:

Find a basis $\{T^a\}$ of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ s.t. $\kappa(T^a,T^b)=\delta_{ab}$.

5.2 Cartan subalgebras

Definition 5.1:

An element x of a complex Lie algebra g is called ad-diagonalisable iff $\mathrm{ad}_x:g\to g$ is diagonalisable, i.e. iff there exists a basis T^a of g such that $[x,T^a]=\lambda_aT^a$, $\lambda_a\in\mathbb{C}$ for all a.

Lemma 5.2:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra g.

- (i) Any $x \in g$ with $\kappa(x, x) \neq 0$ is ad-diagonalisable.
- (ii) g contains at least one ad-diagonalisable element.

Proof:

(i) Let $n = \dim(g)$. The solution to exercise 5.2 shows that we can find a basis

 $\{T^a \mid a=1,\ldots,n\}$ such that $\kappa(T^a,T^b)=\delta_{ab}$ and such that $x=\lambda T^1$ for some $\lambda\in\mathbb{C}^{\times}$. From exercise 5.1 we know that $M_{ba}\equiv M(T^1)_{ba}=f^{1a}_{\ \ b}$ are the matrix elements of ad_{T^1} in the basis $\{T^a\}$. Since f is totally antisymmetric (see exercise 5.3), we have

$$M_{ba} = f_{\ b}^{1a} = -f_{\ a}^{1b} = -M_{ab} \quad , \tag{5.4}$$

i.e. $M^t = -M$. In particular, $[M^t, M] = 0$, so that M is normal and can be diagonalised. Thus T^1 is ad-diagonalisable, and with it also x.

(ii) Exercise 5.2 also shows that (since κ is symmetric and non-degenerate) one can always find an $x \in g$ with $\kappa(x, x) \neq 0$.

Definition 5.3:

A sub-vector space h of a fssc Lie algebra g is a $Cartan\ subalgebra$ iff it obeys the three properties

- (i) all $x \in h$ are ad-diagonalisable.
- (ii) h is abelian.
- (iii) h is maximal in the sense that if h' obeys (i) and (ii) and $h \subset h'$, then already h = h'.

Exercise 5.5:

Show that the diagonal matrices in $sl(n,\mathbb{C})$ are a Cartan subalgebra.

- The dimension $r = \dim(h)$ of a Cartan subalgebra is called the rank of g. By lemma 5.2, $r \ge 1$. It turns out (but we will not prove it in this course, but see [Fulton, Harris] § D.3) that r is independent of the choice of h and hence the rank is indeed a property of g.
- Let H^1, \ldots, H^r be a basis of h. By assumption, ad_{H^i} can be diagonalised for each i. Further ad_{H^i} and ad_{H^j} commute for any $i, j \in \{1, \ldots, r\}$,

$$[ad_{H^i}, ad_{H^j}] = ad_{[H^i, H^j]} = 0$$
 (5.5)

Thus, all ad_{H^i} can be *simultaneously* diagonalised.

■ Let $y \in g$ be a simultaneous eigenvector for all $H \in h$,

$$\operatorname{ad}_{H}(y) = \alpha_{y}(H)y$$
 , for some $\alpha_{y}(H) \in \mathbb{C}$. (5.6)

The $\alpha_{\nu}(H)$ depend linearly on H. Thus we obtain a function

$$\alpha_y: h \to \mathbb{C} \quad , \tag{5.7}$$

i.e. $\alpha_y \in h^*$, the dual space of h. Conversely, given an element $\varphi \in h^*$ we set

$$g_{\varphi} = \{ x \in g | [H, x] = \varphi(H)x \text{ for all } H \in h \} . \tag{5.8}$$

Definition 5.4:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and h a Cartan subalgebra of g.

- (i) $\alpha \in h^*$ is called a root of g (with respect to h) iff $\alpha \neq 0$ and $g_{\alpha} \neq \{0\}$.
- (ii) The $root \ system$ of g is the set

$$\Phi \equiv \Phi(g, h) = \{ \alpha \in h^* | \alpha \text{ is a root} \} . \tag{5.9}$$

Decomposing g into simultaneous eigenspaces of elements of h we can write

$$g = g_0 \oplus \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \Phi} g_{\alpha} \quad . \tag{5.10}$$

(This is a direct sum of vector spaces only, not of Lie algebras.)

Lemma 5.5:

- (i) $[g_{\alpha}, g_{\beta}] \subset g_{\alpha+\beta}$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in h^*$.
- (ii) If $x \in g_{\alpha}$, $y \in g_{\beta}$ for some $\alpha, \beta \in h^*$ s.t. $\alpha + \beta \neq 0$, then $\kappa(x, y) = 0$.
- (iii) κ restricted to g_0 is non-degenerate.

Proof:

(i) Have, for all $H \in h$, $x \in g_{\alpha}$, $y \in g_{\beta}$,

$$ad_{H}([x,y]) = [H, [x,y]] \stackrel{\text{(1)}}{=} -[x, [y,H]] - [y, [H,x]]$$

$$= \beta(H)[x,y] - \alpha(H)[y,x] = (\alpha + \beta)(H)[x,y]$$
(5.11)

where (1) is the Jacobi identity. Thus $[x, y] \in g_{\alpha+\beta}$.

(ii) Let $H \in h$ be such that $\alpha(H) + \beta(H) \neq 0$ (H exists since $\alpha + \beta \neq 0$). Then

$$(\alpha(H) + \beta(H))\kappa(x, y) = \kappa(\alpha(H)x, y) + \kappa(x, \beta(H)y)$$

$$\stackrel{\text{(1)}}{=} \kappa([H, x], y) + \kappa(x, [H, y]) = -\kappa([x, H], y) + \kappa(x, [H, y]) \tag{5.12}$$

$$\stackrel{(2)}{=} -\kappa(x, [H, y]) + \kappa(x, [H, y]) = 0$$

where (1) uses that $x \in g_{\alpha}$ and $y \in g_{\beta}$, and (2) that κ is invariant. Thus $\kappa(x,y) = 0$.

(iii) Let $y \in g_0$. Since κ is non-degenerate, there is an $x \in g$ s.t. $\kappa(x,y) \neq 0$. Write

$$x = x_0 + \sum_{\alpha \in \Phi} x_\alpha$$
 where $x_0 \in g_0$, $x_\alpha \in g_\alpha$. (5.13)

Then by part (ii), $\kappa(x,y) = \kappa(x_0,y)$. Thus for all $y \in g_0$ we can find an $x_0 \in g_0$ s.t. $\kappa(x_0,y) \neq 0$.

Exercise 5.6:

Another fact about linear algebra: Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space and let $F \subset V^*$ be a proper subspace (i.e. $F \neq V^*$). Show that there exists a nonzero $v \in V$ such that $\varphi(v) = 0$ for all $\varphi \in F$.

Lemma 5.6:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and h a Cartan subalgebra. Then

- (i) the Killing form restricted to h is non-degenerate.
- (ii) $g_0 = h$.
- (iii) $g_0^* = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(\Phi)$.

Proof:

(i) Since for all $a,b \in h$, $\operatorname{ad}_a(b) = [a,b] = 0$ we have $h \subset g_0$. Suppose there is an $a \in h$ such that $\kappa(a,b) = 0$ for all $b \in h$. Then in particular $\kappa(a,a) = 0$. As κ is non-degenerate on g_0 , there is a $z \in g_0$, $z \notin h$, such that $\kappa(a,z) \neq 0$. If $\kappa(z,z) \neq 0$ set u=z. Otherwise set u=a+z (then $\kappa(u,u) = \kappa(a+z,a+z) = 2\kappa(a,z) \neq 0$). In either case $u \notin h$ and $\kappa(u,u) \neq 0$. By lemma 5.2, u is addiagonalisable. Also [b,u] = 0 for all $b \in h$ (since $u \in g_0$). But then $\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(h,u)$ obeys conditions (i),(ii) in the definition of a Cartan subalgebra and contains h as a proper subspace, which is a contradiction to h being a Cartan subalgebra. Hence κ has to be non-degenerate on h.

(ii) By part (i) we have subspaces

$$h \subset g_0 \subset g \tag{5.14}$$

and κ is non-degenerate on h, g_0, g . It is therefore possible to find a basis $\{T^a\}$ of g s.t.

- $\label{eq:kappa} \blacksquare \stackrel{\circ}{\kappa} (T^a, T^b) = \delta_{ab}$
- $\blacksquare T^a \in h \text{ for } a = 1, \dots, \dim(h) \text{ and } T^a \in g_0 \text{ for } a = 1, \dots, \dim(g_0).$

Let $X = T^a$ with $a = \dim(g_0)$. We have [H, X] = 0 for all $H \in h$ (since $X \in g_0$). Further, X is ad-diagonalisable (since $K(X, X) \neq 0$, see lemma 5.2 (i)). Thus the space $\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(h, X)$ obeys (i) and (ii) in the definition of a Cartan subalgebra, and hence by maximality of h we have $h = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(h, X)$. Thus $X \in h$ and hence $\dim(g_0) = \dim(h)$.

(iii) Suppose that $\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(\Phi)$ is a proper subspace of g_0^* . By exercise 5.6 there exists a nonzero element $H \in g_0$ s.t.

$$\alpha(H) = 0$$
 for all $\alpha \in \Phi$. (5.15)

Since $g_0 = h$ we have, for all $\alpha \in \Phi$ and all $x \in g_\alpha$, $[H, x] = \alpha(H)x = 0$. Thus [H, x] = 0 for all $x \in g$. But then $\mathrm{ad}_H = 0$, in contradiction to κ being non-degenerate (have $\kappa(y, H) = 0$ for all $y \in g$).

Exercise 5.7:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and let $h \subset g$ be sub-vector space such that

- $(1) [h, h] = \{0\}.$
- (2) κ restricted to h is non-degenerate.
- (3) if for some $x \in g$ one has [x, a] = 0 for all $a \in h$, then already $x \in h$.

Show that h is a Cartan subalgebra of g if and only if it obeys (1)–(3) above.

5.3 Cartan-Weyl basis

Definition 5.7:

(i) For $\varphi \in g_0^*$ let $H^{\varphi} \in g_0$ be the unique element s.t.

$$\varphi(x) = \kappa(H^{\varphi}, x)$$
 for all $x \in g_0$. (5.16)

(ii) Define the non-degenerate pairing $(\cdot,\cdot):g_0^*\times g_0^*\to\mathbb{C}$ via

$$(\gamma, \varphi) = \kappa(H^{\gamma}, H^{\varphi}) \quad . \tag{5.17}$$

Information 5.8:

We will see shortly that $(\alpha, \alpha) > 0$ for all $\alpha \in \Phi$. Since Φ is a finite set, there is a $\theta \in \Phi$ such that (θ, θ) is maximal. Some texts (such as [Fuchs,Schweigert] Sect. 6.3) use a a rescaled version of the Killing form κ to define (\cdot, \cdot) . This is done to impose the convention that the longest root lengths is $\sqrt{2}$, i.e. $(\theta, \theta) = 2$, which leads to simpler expressions in explicit calculations. But it also makes the exposition less clear, so we will stick to κ (as also done e.g. in [Fulton,Harris] § 14.2.)

Exercise 5.8:

Let $\{H^1, \ldots, H^r\} \subset g_0$ be a basis of g_0 such that $\kappa(H^i, H^j) = \delta_{ij}$ (recall that $r = \dim(g_0)$ is the rank of g). Show that for $\gamma, \varphi \in g_0^*$ one has $H^{\gamma} = \sum_{i=1}^r \gamma(H^i)H^i$, as well as $(\gamma, \varphi) = \sum_{i=1}^r \gamma(H^i)\varphi(H^i)$ and $(\gamma, \varphi) = \gamma(H^{\varphi})$.

Lemma 5.9:

Let $\alpha \in \Phi$. Then

- (i) $-\alpha \in \Phi$.
- (ii) If $x \in g_{\alpha}$ and $y \in g_{-\alpha}$ then $[x, y] = \kappa(x, y)H^{\alpha}$.
- (iii) $(\alpha, \alpha) \neq 0$.

Proof:

- (i) For $x \in g_{\alpha}$, the Killing form $\kappa(x,y)$ can be nonzero only for $y \in g_{-\alpha}$ (lemma 5.5(ii)). Since κ is non-degenerate, $g_{-\alpha}$ cannot be empty, and hence $-\alpha \in \Phi$.
- (ii) Since $[g_{\alpha}, g_{-\alpha}] \subset g_0$ we have $[x, y] \in g_0$. Note that for all $H \in g_0$,

$$\begin{split} \kappa(H,[x,y]) &= \kappa([H,x],y) = \alpha(H)\kappa(x,y) = \kappa(H^{\alpha},H)\kappa(x,y) \\ &= \kappa(H,\kappa(x,y)H^{\alpha}) \ . \end{split} \tag{5.18}$$

Since κ is non-degenerate, this implies $[x, y] = \kappa(x, y)H^{\alpha}$.

(iii) By exercise 5.8 we have $(\alpha, \alpha) = \alpha(H^{\alpha})$. We will show that $\alpha(H^{\alpha}) \neq 0$.

■ Since $\alpha \neq 0$ have $H^{\alpha} \neq 0$. Since $g_0^* = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(\Phi)$, there exists a $\beta \in \Phi$ s.t. $\beta(H^{\alpha}) \neq 0$. Consider the subspace

$$U = \bigoplus_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} g_{\beta + m\alpha} \quad . \tag{5.19}$$

For $x \in g_{\beta+m\alpha}$ have $[H^{\alpha}, x] = (\beta(H^{\alpha}) + m\alpha(H^{\alpha}))x$ so that the trace of $\mathrm{ad}_{H^{\alpha}}$ over U is

$$\operatorname{tr}_{U}(\operatorname{ad}_{H^{\alpha}}) = \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} (\beta(H^{\alpha}) + m\alpha(H^{\alpha})) \operatorname{dim}(g_{\beta+m\alpha}) . \tag{5.20}$$

■ Choose a nonzero $x \in g_{\alpha}$. There is a $y \in g_{-\alpha}$ s.t. $\kappa(x,y) \neq 0$; we can choose y such that $\kappa(x,y) = 1$. Then $[x,y] = H^{\alpha}$. Since $\mathrm{ad}_x : g_{\gamma} \to g_{\gamma+\alpha}$ and $\mathrm{ad}_y : g_{\gamma} \to g_{\gamma-\alpha}$, both, ad_x and ad_y map U to U. Then we can also compute

$$\operatorname{tr}_{U}(\operatorname{ad}_{H^{\alpha}}) = \operatorname{tr}_{U}(\operatorname{ad}_{[x,y]}) = \operatorname{tr}_{U}(\operatorname{ad}_{x}\operatorname{ad}_{y} - \operatorname{ad}_{y}\operatorname{ad}_{x}) = 0 , \qquad (5.21)$$

by cyclicity of the trace.

■ Together with the previous expression for $tr_U(ad_{H^{\alpha}})$ this implies

$$\alpha(H^{\alpha}) \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} m \operatorname{dim}(g_{\beta+m\alpha}) = -\beta(H^{\alpha}) \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} \operatorname{dim}(g_{\beta+m\alpha})$$
 (5.22)

The rhs is nonzero (as $\beta(H^{\alpha}) \neq 0$ by construction, and $\dim(g_{\beta}) \neq 0$ since β is a root), and hence the lhs as to be nonzero. In particular, $\alpha(H^{\alpha}) \neq 0$.

Recall the standard basis E, F, H of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$ we introduced in section 4.2.

Theorem and Exercise 5.9:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and g_0 a Cartan subalgebra. Let $\alpha \in \Phi(g, g_0)$. Choose $e \in g_{\alpha}$ and $f \in g_{-\alpha}$ such that $\kappa(e, f) = \frac{2}{(\alpha, \alpha)}$. Show that $\varphi : sl(2, \mathbb{C}) \to g$, given by

$$\varphi(E) = e$$
 , $\varphi(F) = f$, $\varphi(H) = \frac{2}{(\alpha, \alpha)} H^{\alpha}$,

is an injective homomorphism of Lie algebras.

This implies in particular that g can be turned into a finite-dimensional representation (g, R_{ω}) of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$ via

$$R_{\varphi}(x)z = \operatorname{ad}_{\varphi(x)}z$$
 for all $x \in sl(2, \mathbb{C})$, $z \in g$, (5.23)

i.e. by restricting the adjoint representation of g to $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$. For $z \in g_{\beta}$ we find

$$R_{\varphi}(H)z = \frac{2}{(\alpha, \alpha)}[H^{\alpha}, z] = \frac{2}{(\alpha, \alpha)}\beta(H^{\alpha})z = \frac{2(\alpha, \beta)}{(\alpha, \alpha)}z \quad . \tag{5.24}$$

From corollary 4.6 we know that in a finite-dimensional representation of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$, all eigenvalues of $R_{\varphi}(H)$ have to be integers. Thus

$$\frac{2(\alpha,\beta)}{(\alpha,\alpha)} \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{for all } \alpha,\beta \in \Phi . \tag{5.25}$$

Theorem 5.10:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and g_0 a Cartan subalgebra. Then

- (i) if $\alpha \in \Phi$ and $\lambda \alpha \in \Phi$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, then $\lambda \in \{\pm 1\}$.
- (ii) $\dim(g_{\alpha}) = 1$ for all $\alpha \in \Phi$.

The proof will be given in the following exercise.

Exercise* 5.10:

In this exercise we will show that $\dim(g_{\alpha}) = 1$ for all $\alpha \in \Phi$. On the way we will also see that if $\alpha \in \Phi$ and $\lambda \alpha \in \Phi$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, then $\lambda \in \{\pm 1\}$.

(i) Choose $\alpha \in \Phi$. Let $L = \{m \in \mathbb{Z} | m\alpha \in \Phi\}$. Since Φ is a finite set, so is L. Let n_+ be the largest integer in L, n_- the smallest integer in L. Show that $n_+ \geq 1$ and $n_- \leq -1$.

(ii) We can assume that $n_+ \geq |n_-|$. Otherwise we exchange α for $-\alpha$. Pick $e \in g_{\alpha}$, $f \in g_{-\alpha}$ s.t. $\kappa(e,f) = \frac{2}{(\alpha,\alpha)}$ and define $\varphi : sl(2,\mathbb{C}) \to g$ as in exercise 5.9. Show that

$$U = \mathbb{C}H^{\alpha} \oplus \bigoplus_{m \in L} g_{m\alpha}$$

is an invariant subspace of the representation (g, R_{φ}) of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$.

(iii) Show that for $z \in g_{m\alpha}$ one has $R_{\varphi}(H)z = 2mz$.

(iv) By (ii), (U, R_{φ}) is also a representation of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$. Show that $V = \mathbb{C}e \oplus \mathbb{C}H^{\alpha} \oplus \mathbb{C}f$ is an invariant subspace of (U, R_{φ}) . Show that the representation (V, R_{φ}) is isomorphic to the irreducible representation V_3 of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$.

(v) Choose an element $v_0 \in g_{n+\alpha}$. Set $v_{k+1} = R_{\varphi}(F)v_k$ and show that

$$W = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{2n_+})$$

is an invariant subspace of U.

(vi) (W, R_{φ}) is isomorphic to the irreducible representation $V_{2n_{+}+1}$ of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$. Show that the intersection $X = V \cap W$ is an invariant subspace of V and W. Show that X contains the element H^{α} and hence $X \neq \{0\}$. Show that X = V and X = W.

We have learned that for any choice of v_0 in $g_{n_+\alpha}$ we have V=W. This can only be if $n_+=1$ and $\dim(g_\alpha)=1$. Since $1 \leq |n_-| \leq n_+$, also $n_-=1$. Since $\kappa:g_\alpha\times g_{-\alpha}$ is non-degenerate, also $\dim(g_{-\alpha})=1$.

Definition 5.11:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra. A subset

$$\{H^i, i=1,\ldots,r\} \cup \{E^{\alpha} | \alpha \in \Phi\}$$

of g, for Φ a finite subset of $\left(\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(H^1,\ldots,H^r)\right)^* - \{0\}$, is called a *Cartan-Weyl basis* of g iff it is a basis of g, and $[H^i,H^j]=0$, $[H^i,E^{\alpha}]=\alpha(H^i)E^{\alpha}$,

$$[E^{\alpha}, E^{\beta}] = \begin{cases} 0 & ; \alpha + \beta \notin \Phi \\ N_{\alpha, \beta} E^{\alpha + \beta} & ; \alpha + \beta \in \Phi \\ \frac{2}{(\alpha, \alpha)} H^{\alpha} & ; \alpha = -\beta \end{cases}$$

where $N_{\alpha,\beta} \in \mathbb{C}$ are some constants.

In the above definition, it is understood that (α, α) and H^{α} are computed with respect to the Cartan subalgebra $h = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(H^1, \dots, H^r)$ of g. That h is indeed a Cartan subalgebra is the topic of the next exercise.

Exercise 5.11:

Let $\{H^i\} \cup \{E^\alpha\}$ be a Cartan-Weyl basis of a fssc Lie algebra g. Show that

(i) $\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(H^1, \ldots, H^r)$ is a Cartan subalgebra of g. (ii) $\kappa(E^{\alpha}, E^{-\alpha}) = \frac{2}{(\alpha, \alpha)}$.

(ii)
$$\kappa(E^{\alpha}, E^{-\alpha}) = \frac{2}{(\alpha, \alpha)}$$
.

The analysis up to now implies the following theorem.

Theorem 5.12:

For any fssc Lie algebra g, there exists a Cartan-Weyl basis.

Lemma 5.13:

- (i) $\kappa(G, H) = \sum_{\alpha \in \Phi} \alpha(G)\alpha(H)$ for all $G, H \in g_0$. (ii) $(\lambda, \mu) = \sum_{\alpha \in \Phi} (\lambda, \alpha)(\alpha, \mu)$ for all $\lambda, \mu \in g_0^*$. (iii) $(\alpha, \beta) \in \mathbb{R}$ and $(\alpha, \alpha) > 0$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in \Phi$.

Proof:

(i) Let $\{H^i\} \cup \{E^\alpha\}$ be a Cartan-Weyl basis of g. One computes

$$\kappa(G, H) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} H^{i^*} ([G, [H, H^i]]) + \sum_{\alpha \in \Phi} E^{\alpha^*} ([G, [H, E^{\alpha}]]) = \sum_{\alpha \in \Phi} \alpha(H) \alpha(G) .$$
(5.26)

(ii) Using part (i) we get

$$(\lambda, \mu) = \kappa(H^{\lambda}, H^{\mu}) = \sum_{\alpha \in \Phi} \alpha(H^{\lambda}) \alpha(H^{\mu}) = \sum_{\alpha \in \Phi} (\alpha, \mu)(\alpha, \lambda)$$
 (5.27)

(iii) Using part (ii) we compute

$$(\alpha, \alpha) = \sum_{\beta \in \Phi} (\alpha, \beta)(\alpha, \beta) \quad . \tag{5.28}$$

Multiplying both sides by $4/(\alpha, \alpha)^2$ yields

$$\frac{4}{(\alpha,\alpha)} = \sum_{\beta \in \Phi} \left(\frac{2(\alpha,\beta)}{(\alpha,\alpha)}\right)^2 . \tag{5.29}$$

We have already seen that $\frac{2(\alpha,\beta)}{(\alpha,\alpha)} \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus the rhs is real and non-negative. Since $(\alpha,\alpha) \neq 0$ (see lemma 5.9 (iii)) it follows that $(\alpha,\alpha) > 0$. Together with $\frac{2(\alpha,\beta)}{(\alpha,\alpha)} \in \mathbb{Z}$ this in turn implies that $(\alpha,\beta) \in \mathbb{R}$.

Exercise 5.12:

Let $g = g_1 \oplus g_2$ with g_1, g_2 fssc Lie algebras. For k = 1, 2, let h_k be a Cartan subalgebra of g_k .

- (i) Show that $h = h_1 \oplus h_2$ is a Cartan subalgebra of g.
- (ii) Show that the root system of g is $\Phi(g,h) = \Phi_1 \cup \Phi_2 \subset h_1^* \oplus h_2^*$ where $\Phi_1 = \{\alpha \oplus 0 | \alpha \in \Phi(g_1,h_1)\}$ and $\Phi_2 = \{0 \oplus \beta | \beta \in \Phi(g_2,h_2)\}.$
- (iii) Show that $(\alpha, \beta) = 0$ for all $\alpha \in \Phi_1$ and $\beta \in \Phi_2$.

Lemma 5.14:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and g_0 be a Cartan subalgebra. The following are equivalent.

- (i) g is simple.
- (ii) One cannot write $\Phi(g, g_0) = \Phi_1 \cup \Phi_2$ where Φ_1 , Φ_2 are non-empty and $(\alpha, \beta) = 0$ for all $\alpha \in \Phi_1$, $\beta \in \Phi_2$.

Proof:

- $\neg(i) \Rightarrow \neg(ii)$: This amounts to exercise 5.12.
- $\neg(ii) \Rightarrow \neg(i)$: Let $\Phi \equiv \Phi(g, g_0) = \Phi_1 \cup \Phi_2$ with the properties stated in (ii).
- If $\alpha \in \Phi_1$, $\beta \in \Phi_2$ then $\alpha + \beta \notin \Phi_2$, since

$$(\alpha, \alpha + \beta) = (\alpha, \alpha) \neq 0 . (5.30)$$

Similarly, since $(\beta, \alpha + \beta) \neq 0$ we have $\alpha + \beta \notin \Phi_1$. Thus $\alpha + \beta \notin \Phi$.

■ If $\alpha, \beta \in \Phi_1$, $\alpha \neq -\beta$, then

$$0 \neq (\alpha + \beta, \alpha + \beta) = (\alpha + \beta, \alpha) + (\alpha + \beta, \beta)$$
 (5.31)

so that $\alpha + \beta \notin \Phi_2$.

■ Let $\{H^i\} \cup \{E^{\alpha}\}$ be a Cartan-Weyl basis of g. Let $h_1 = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(H^{\alpha} | \alpha \in \Phi_1)$ and

$$g_1 = h_1 \oplus \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \Phi_1} \mathbb{C}E^{\alpha} . \tag{5.32}$$

Claim: g_1 is a proper ideal of g. The proof of this claim is the subject of the next exercise. Thus g has a proper ideal and hence is not simple.

Exercise 5.13:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and g_0 be a Cartan subalgebra. Suppose $\Phi(g, g_0) = \Phi_1 \cup \Phi_2$ where Φ_1 , Φ_2 are non-empty and $(\alpha, \beta) = 0$ for all $\alpha \in \Phi_1$, $\beta \in \Phi_2$. Let $\{H^i\} \cup \{E^{\alpha}\}$ be a Cartan-Weyl basis of g. Show that

$$g_1 = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(H^{\alpha} | \alpha \in \Phi_1) \oplus \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \Phi_1} \mathbb{C}E^{\alpha}$$

is a proper ideal in q.

The following theorem we will not prove. (For a proof see [Fulton, Harris] $\S\,21.3.)$

Theorem 5.15:

Let g, g' be fssc Lie algebras with Cartan subalgebras $g_0 \subset g$ and $g'_0 \subset g'$. Then g and g' are isomorphic iff there is an isomorphism $g_0^* \to g'_0^*$ of vector spaces that preserves (\cdot, \cdot) and maps $\Phi(g, g_0)$ to $\Phi(g', g'_0)$.

Definition 5.16:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra g with Cartan subalgebra g_0 . The root space is the real span

$$R \equiv R(g, g_0) = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Phi(g, g_0)) \quad . \tag{5.33}$$

[The term root spaces is also used for the spaces g_{α} , so one has to be a bit careful.]

In particular, R is a real vector space.

Exercise 5.14:

Let R the root space of a fssc Lie algebra with Cartan subalgebra g_0 .

- (i) Show that the bilinear form (\cdot,\cdot) on g_0^* restricts to a real valued *positive definite* inner product on R.
- (ii) Use the Gram-Schmidt procedure to find an orthonormal basis $\{\varepsilon_1, \ldots, \varepsilon_m\}$ of R (over \mathbb{R}). Show that m = r (where $r = \dim(g_0)$ is the rank of g) and that $\{\varepsilon_1, \ldots, \varepsilon_r\}$ is a basis of g_0^* (over \mathbb{C}).
- (iii) Show that there exists a basis $\{H^i|i=1,\ldots,r\}$ of g_0 such that $\alpha(H^i)\in\mathbb{R}$ for all $i=1,\ldots,r$ and $\alpha\in\Phi$.

The basis $\{\varepsilon_1, \ldots, \varepsilon_r\}$ provides an identification of R and \mathbb{R}^r , whereby the inner product (\cdot, \cdot) on R becomes the usual inner product $g(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^r x_i y_i$ on \mathbb{R}^r . [In other words, R and \mathbb{R}^r are isomorphic as inner product spaces.]

5.4 Examples: $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ and $sl(n,\mathbb{C})$

Recall the basis

$$H = \mathcal{E}_{11} - \mathcal{E}_{22} , \quad E = \mathcal{E}_{12} , \quad F = \mathcal{E}_{21}$$
 (5.34)

of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$, with Lie brackets

$$[E, F] = H$$
 , $[H, E] = 2E$, $[H, F] = -2F$. (5.35)

Define the linear forms ω_1 and ω_2 on diagonal 2×2-matrices as

$$\omega_i(\mathcal{E}_{ij}) = \delta_{ij} \ . \tag{5.36}$$

Fix the Cartan subalgebra $h = \mathbb{C}H$. Define $\alpha \equiv \alpha_{12} = \omega_1 - \omega_2 \in h^*$. Then α is a root since

$$\alpha(H) = (\omega_1 - \omega_2)(\mathcal{E}_{11} - \mathcal{E}_{22}) = 2$$
 and $[H, E] = 2E = \alpha(H)E$. (5.37)

Let us now work out H^{α} . After a bit of staring one makes the ansatz

$$H^{\alpha} = \frac{1}{4} (\mathcal{E}_{11} - \mathcal{E}_{22}) . \tag{5.38}$$

As h is one-dimensional, to verify this it is enough to check that $\kappa(H^{\alpha}, H) =$ $\alpha(H)$. Recall from exercise 4.17 that $\kappa(x,y) = 4\text{Tr}(xy)$. Thus

$$\kappa(H^{\alpha}, H) = 4 \operatorname{Tr}(H^{\alpha}H) = \operatorname{Tr}((\mathcal{E}_{11} - \mathcal{E}_{22})(\mathcal{E}_{11} - \mathcal{E}_{22})) = 2 = \alpha(H) .$$
 (5.39)

In the same way one gets $(\alpha, \alpha) = \kappa(H^{\alpha}, H^{\alpha}) = \frac{1}{2}$. Finally, note that

$$[E, F] = H = \frac{2}{(\alpha, \alpha)} H^{\alpha} . \tag{5.40}$$

Altogether this shows that $\{H, E^{\alpha} \equiv E, E^{-\alpha} \equiv F\}$ already is a Cartan-Weyl basis of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$. We can draw the following picture,



Such a picture is called a root diagram. The real axis is identified with the root space R, and the root α has length $1/\sqrt{2}$.

Exercise 5.15:

In this exercise we construct a Cartan-Weyl basis for $sl(n,\mathbb{C})$. As Cartan subalgebra h we take the trace-less diagonal matrices.

(i) Define the linear forms ω_i , i = 1, ..., n on diagonal $n \times n$ -matrices as $\omega_i(\mathcal{E}_{ij}) =$ δ_{ij} . Define $\alpha_{kl} = \omega_k - \omega_l$. Show that for $k \neq l$, α_{kl} is a root.

Hint: Write a general element $H \in h$ as $H = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k \mathcal{E}_{kk}$ with $\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k = 0$. Show that $[H, \mathcal{E}_{kl}] = \alpha_{kl}(H)\mathcal{E}_{kl}$.

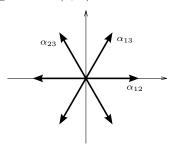
(ii) Show that $H^{\alpha_{kl}} = \frac{1}{2n}(\mathcal{E}_{kk} - \mathcal{E}_{ll})$. Hint: Use exercise 4.18 to verify $\kappa(H^{\alpha_{kl}}, H) = \alpha_{kl}(H)$ for all $H \in h$.

- (iii) Show that $(\alpha_{kl}, \alpha_{kl}) = 1/n$ and that $[\mathcal{E}_{kl}, \mathcal{E}_{lk}] = 2/(\alpha_{kl}, \alpha_{kl}) \cdot H^{\alpha_{kl}}$
- (iv) Show that, with $\Phi = \{\alpha_{kl} \mid k, l = 1, \dots, n, k \neq l\}$ and $E^{\alpha_{kl}} = \mathcal{E}_{kl}$,

$$\left\{H^{\alpha_{k,k+1}} \mid k=1,\ldots,n-1\right\} \cup \left\{E^{\alpha} \mid \alpha \in \Phi\right\}$$

is a Cartan-Weyl basis of $sl(n, \mathbb{C})$.

(v) Show that the root diagram of $sl(3,\mathbb{C})$ is



where each arrow has length $1/\sqrt{3}$ and the angle between the arrows is 60° .

5.5 The Weyl group

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra with Cartan subalgebra g_0 . For each $\alpha \in \Phi(g, g_0)$, define a linear map

$$s_{\alpha}: g_0^* \longrightarrow g_0^* \quad , \quad s_{\alpha}(\lambda) = \lambda - 2 \frac{(\alpha, \lambda)}{(\alpha, \alpha)} \alpha \quad .$$
 (5.41)

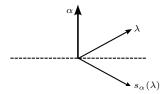
The s_{α} , $\alpha \in \Phi$ are called Weyl reflections.

Exercise 5.16:

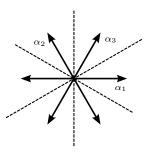
Let s_{α} be a Weyl reflection. Show that

$$s_{\alpha}(\alpha) = -\alpha$$
 , $(\alpha, \lambda) = 0 \Rightarrow s_{\alpha}(\lambda) = \lambda$, $s_{\alpha} \circ s_{\alpha} = \mathrm{id}$, $s_{-\alpha} = s_{\alpha}$.

Thus s_{α} is indeed a reflection, we have the following picture,



And in $sl(3,\mathbb{C})$ we find



So in this example, it seems that roots get mapped to roots under Weyl reflections. This is true in general.

Theorem 5.17:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra with Cartan subalgebra g_0 . If $\alpha, \beta \in \Phi$, then also $s_{\alpha}(\beta) \in \Phi$.

Proof:

■ Let $\alpha \in \Phi$. Recall the injective homomorphism of Lie algebras $\varphi \equiv \varphi_{\alpha} : sl(2,\mathbb{C}) \to g$,

$$\varphi(H) = \frac{2}{(\alpha, \alpha)} H^{\alpha}$$
, $\varphi(E) = E^{\alpha}$, $\varphi(F) = E^{-\alpha}$. (5.42)

This turns g into a representation (g, R_{φ}) of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$. For a root $\beta \in \Phi$ have

$$R_{\varphi}(H)E^{\beta} = \frac{2}{(\alpha,\alpha)}[H^{\alpha}, E^{\beta}] = \frac{2(\alpha,\beta)}{(\alpha,\alpha)}E^{\beta} = mE^{\beta}$$
 (5.43)

for some integer m. We may assume $m \geq 0$ (otherwise replace $\alpha \to -\alpha$ and start again). The representation theory of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ tells us that then also -m has to be an eigenvalue of $R_{\omega}(H)$ with eigenvector

$$v = (R_{\varphi}(F))^m E^{\beta} \neq 0$$
 (5.44)

But

$$v = (R_{\omega}(F))^m E^{\beta} = [E^{-\alpha}, [\dots, [E^{-\alpha}, E^{\beta}] \dots] \in g_{\beta - m\alpha}$$
 (5.45)

Since $v \neq 0$ have $g_{\beta-m\alpha} \neq \{0\}$ so that $\beta - m\alpha \in \Phi$.

■ Now evaluate the Weyl reflection

$$s_{\alpha}(\beta) = \beta - 2\frac{(\alpha, \beta)}{(\alpha, \alpha)}\alpha = \beta - m\alpha$$
 , (5.46)

which we have shown to be a root. Thus $\alpha, \beta \in \Phi$ implies that $s_{\alpha}(\beta) \in \Phi$.

Definition 5.18:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra with Cartan subalgebra g_0 . The Weyl group W of g is the subgroup of $GL(g_0^*)$ generated by the Weyl reflections,

$$W = \{ s_{\beta_1} \cdots s_{\beta_m} \mid \beta_1, \dots, \beta_m \in \Phi, m = 0, 1, 2, \dots \} . \tag{5.47}$$

Exercise 5.17:

Show that the Weyl group of a fssc Lie algebra is a finite group (i.e. contains only a finite number of elements).

5.6 Simple Lie algebras of rank 1 and 2

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and let $R = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Phi)$ be the root space. Recall that on R, (\cdot, \cdot) is a positive definite inner product.

Suppose g has rank 1, i.e. $R = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Phi)$ is one-dimensional. By theorem 5.10, if $\alpha \in \Phi$ and $\lambda \alpha \in \Phi$, then $\lambda \in \{\pm 1\}$. Hence the root system has to be

$$-\alpha$$
 α α

This is the root system of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$. Thus by theorem 5.15 any fssc Lie algebra of rank 1 is isomorphic to $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$. This Lie algebra is also called A_1 .

To proceed we need to have a closer look at the inner product of roots. By the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality,

for all
$$u, v \in R$$
, $(u, v)^2 \le (u, u)(v, v)$. (5.48)

Also, $(u, v)^2 = (u, u)(v, v)$ iff u and v are colinear.

For two roots $\alpha, \beta \in \Phi$, $\beta \neq \pm \alpha$, this means $(\alpha, \beta)^2 < (\alpha, \alpha)(\beta, \beta)$, i.e.

$$p \cdot q < 4$$
 where $p = 2\frac{(\alpha, \beta)}{(\alpha, \alpha)} \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $q = 2\frac{(\alpha, \beta)}{(\beta, \beta)} \in \mathbb{Z}$. (5.49)

The angle between two roots α and β is

$$\cos(\theta)^2 = \frac{(\alpha, \beta)^2}{(\alpha, \alpha)(\beta, \beta)} = \frac{pq}{4} . \tag{5.50}$$

If $(\alpha, \beta) \neq 0$ we can also compute the ratio of length between the two roots,

$$\frac{(\beta,\beta)}{(\alpha,\alpha)} = \frac{p}{q} \quad . \tag{5.51}$$

If $(\alpha, \beta) = 0$ then p = q = 0 and we obtain no condition for the length ratio. Now suppose

- \blacksquare $(\alpha, \beta) \neq 0$ (i.e. α and β are not orthogonal)
- $\blacksquare \beta \neq \pm \alpha$ (i.e. α and β are not colinear)

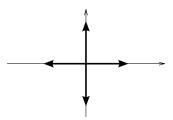
Then we can in addition assume

- \blacksquare $(\alpha, \beta) > 0$ (otherwise replace $\alpha \to -\alpha$)
- \blacksquare $(\beta, \beta) \ge (\alpha, \alpha)$ (otherwise exchange $\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta$)

Then $p \geq q > 0$. Altogether, the only allowed pairs (p, q) are

Consider now a Lie algebra of rank 2. Let θ_m be the *smallest* angle between two distinct roots that occurs. The following are all possible root systems:

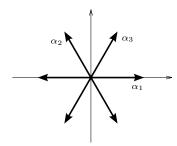
 $\bullet \theta_m = 90^{\circ}$. The root system is



By lemma 5.14 this Lie algebra is not simple. It has to be the direct sum of two rank 1 Lie algebras. Up to isomorphism, there is only one such algebra, hence

$$g = sl(2, \mathbb{C}) \oplus sl(2, \mathbb{C}) \quad . \tag{5.52}$$

■ $\theta_m = 60^\circ$. Let α_1 , α_3 be two roots with this angle. Then by the above table, α_1 and α_3 have the same length,

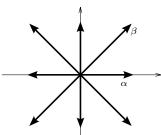


The root α_2 has been obtained by completing this picture with respect to Weyl reflections. Also for each root α , a root $-\alpha$ has been added. There can be no further roots, or one would have a minimum angle less than 60°. Thus

$$g = sl(3, \mathbb{C}) \quad . \tag{5.53}$$

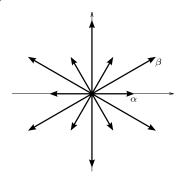
This Lie algebra is also called A_2 .

 $\bullet \theta_m = 45^{\circ}$. Let α , β be two roots with this angle. Then by the above table, $(\beta, \beta) = 2(\alpha, \alpha)$,



Again, the root system has been completed with respect to Weyl reflections and $\alpha \to -\alpha$. This Lie algebra is called B_2 . [It is a complexification of so(5), see section 5.8.]

■ $\theta_m = 30^{\circ}$. Let α , β be two roots with this angle. Then by the above table, $(\beta, \beta) = 3(\alpha, \alpha)$, and the roots system (completed with respect to Weyl reflections and $\alpha \to -\alpha$) is



This Lie algebra is called G_2 . [See [Fulton-Harris, chapter 22] for more on G_2 .]

Exercise 5.18:

Give the dimension (over \mathbb{C}) of all rank two fssc Lie algebras as found in section 5.6.

5.7 Dynkin diagrams

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and $R = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Phi)$. Pick a vector $n \in R$ such that the hyperplane

$$H = \{ v \in R | (v, n) = 0 \}$$
 (5.54)

does not contain an element of Φ (i.e. $H \cap \Phi = \emptyset$). Define

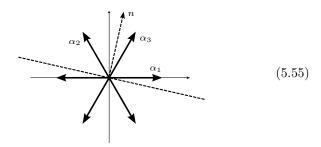
- positive roots $\Phi_+ = \{\alpha \in \Phi | (\alpha, n) > 0\}$
- negative roots $\Phi_- = \{\alpha \in \Phi | (\alpha, n) < 0\}$

Exercise 5.19:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and let Φ_+ and Φ_- be the positive and negative roots with respect to some hyperplane. Show that

- (i) $\Phi = \Phi_+ \cup \Phi_-$.
- (ii) $\alpha \in \Phi_+ \Leftrightarrow -\alpha \in \Phi_-$ and $|\Phi_+| = |\Phi_-|$ (the number of elements in a set S is denoted by |S|).
- (iii) $\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Phi_+) = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Phi).$

For example, for $sl(3,\mathbb{C})$ we can take



Let Φ_s be all elements of Φ_+ that *cannot* be written as a linear combination of elements of Φ_+ with *positive coefficients* and at least two terms [this is to exclude the trivial linear combination $\alpha = 1 \cdot \alpha$]. The roots $\Phi_s \subset \Phi_+$ are called *simple roots*. For example, for $sl(3,\mathbb{C})$ (with the choice of n as in (5.55)) we get $\Phi_s = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2\}$.

Properties of simple roots (which we will not prove):

- Φ_s is a basis of R. [It is easy to see that $\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Phi_s) = R$, linear independence not so obvious.]
- Let $\Phi_s = {\alpha^{(1)}, \ldots, \alpha^{(r)}}$. If $i \neq j$ then ${\alpha^{(i)}, \alpha^{(j)}} \leq 0$. [Also not so obvious.]

Definition 5.19:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and let $\Phi_s \subset \Phi$ be a choice of simple roots. The Cartan matrix is the $r \times r$ matrix with entries

$$A^{ij} = \frac{2(\alpha^{(i)}, \alpha^{(j)})}{(\alpha^{(j)}, \alpha^{(j)})} . (5.56)$$

Exercise 5.20:

Using the properties of simple roots stated in the lecture, prove the following properties of the Cartan matrix.

- (i) $A^{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- (ii) $A^{ii} = 2$ and $A^{ij} \le 0$ if $i \ne j$.
- (iii) $A^{ij}A^{ji} \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ if $i \neq j$.

For $sl(3,\mathbb{C})$ we can choose $\Phi_s = \{\alpha^1, \alpha^2\}$. The off-diagonal entries of the Cartan matrix are

$$A^{12} = \frac{2(\alpha^1, \alpha^2)}{(\alpha^2, \alpha^2)} = \frac{2 \cdot (-1)}{2} = -1 = A^{21} . \tag{5.57}$$

Thus the Cartan matrix of $sl(3,\mathbb{C})$ is

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} . (5.58)$$

A $\it Dynkin\ diagram$ is a pictorial representation of a Cartan matrix obtained as follows:

- Draw dots (called vertices) labelled $1, \ldots, r$.
- For $i \neq j$ draw $A^{ij}A^{ji}$ lines between the vertices i and j.
- If $|A^{ij}| > |A^{ji}|$ draw an arrowhead '>' on the lines between i and j pointing from i to j.
- Remove the labels $1, \ldots, r$.

Notes

(1) If there is an arrow from node i to node j $\underset{i}{\bigcirc}$ then

$$\frac{\left(\alpha^{(i)}, \alpha^{(i)}\right)}{\left(\alpha^{(j)}, \alpha^{(j)}\right)} = \frac{|A^{ij}|}{|A^{ji}|} > 1 \quad , \tag{5.59}$$

i.e. the root $\alpha^{(i)}$ is longer than the root $\alpha^{(j)}$.

(2) When giving a Dynkin diagram, we will often also include a labelling of the vertices. However, this is not part of the definition of a Dynkin diagram. Instead, it constitutes an additional choice, namely a choice of numbering of the simple roots.

For $sl(3,\mathbb{C})$ we get the Dynkin diagram (together with a choice of labelling for the vertices, which is not part of the Dynkin diagram)

$$\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$$
 (5.60)

Exercise 5.21:

A Dynkin diagram is connected if for any two vertices $i \neq j$ there is a sequence of nodes k_1, \ldots, k_m with $k_1 = i, k_m = j$ such that $A^{k_s, k_{s+1}} \neq 0$ for $s = 1, \ldots, m-1$. [In words: one can go from any vertex to any other by walking only along lines.] Show that if the Dynkin diagram of a fssc Lie algebra is connected, then the Lie algebra is simple. [The converse follows from the classification theorem of Killing and Cartan, which shows explicitly that simple Lie algebras have connected Dynkin diagrams.]

The following two theorems we will not prove [but at least we can understand their contents]. (For a proof see [Fulton, Harris] $\S 21.2$ and $\S 21.3$.)

Theorem 5.20:

Two fssc Lie algebras $g,\ g'$ are isomorphic iff they have the same Dynkin diagram.

Theorem 5.21:

(Killing, Cartan) Let g be a simple finite-dimensional complex Lie algebra. The Dynkin diagram of g is one of the following:

(The names of the Dynkin diagrams above are also used to denote the corresponding Lie algebras. The choice for the labelling of vertices made in the list above is the same as e.g. in [Fuchs, Schweigert, Table IV].)

Exercise 5.22:

Compute the Dynkin diagrams of all rank two fssc Lie algebras using the root diagrams obtained in section 5.6.

Exercise 5.23:

The Dynkin diagram (together with a choice for the numbering of the vertices) determines the Cartan matrix uniquely. Write out the Cartan matrix for the Lie algebras A_4 , B_4 , C_4 , D_4 and F_4 .

5.8 Complexification of real Lie algebras

In sections 3.3–3.6 we studied the Lie algebras of matrix Lie groups. Those were defined to be *real* Lie algebras. In this section we will make the connection to the complex Lie algebras studied chapter 5.

Definition 5.22:

Let V be a real vector space. The *complexification* $V_{\mathbb{C}}$ of V is defined as the quotient

$$\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}((\lambda, v)|\lambda \in \mathbb{C}, v \in V)/W \tag{5.61}$$

where W is the vector space spanned (over \mathbb{C}) by the vectors

$$(\lambda, r_1 v_1 + r_2 v_2) - \lambda r_1(1, v_1) - \lambda r_2(1, v_2)$$
(5.62)

for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, $r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, $v_1, v_2 \in V$. [This is nothing but to say that $V_{\mathbb{C}} = \mathbb{C} \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} V$.]

Elements of $V_{\mathbb{C}}$ are equivalence classes. The equivalence class containing the pair (λ, v) will be denoted $(\lambda, v) + W$, as usual. $V_{\mathbb{C}}$ is a complex vector space. All elements of $V_{\mathbb{C}}$ are complex linear combinations of elements of the form $(\lambda, v) + W$. But

$$(\lambda, v) + W = \lambda(1, v) + W \quad , \tag{5.63}$$

so that all elements of $V_{\mathbb{C}}$ are linear combinations of elements of the form (1, v) + W. We will use the shorthand notation $v \equiv (1, v) + W$.

Exercise* 5.24:

Let V be a real vector space. Show that every $v \in V_{\mathbb{C}}$ can be uniquely written as v = (1, a) + i(1, b) + W, with $a, b \in V$, i.e., using the shorthand notation, v = a + ib.

Exercise 5.25:

Let V be a finite-dimensional, real vector space and let $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ be a basis of V. Show that $\{(1, v_1) + W, \ldots, (1, v_n) + W\}$ is a basis of $V_{\mathbb{C}}$. (You may want to use the result of exercise 5.24.)

Remark 5.23:

The abbreviation $v \equiv (1, v) + W$ has to be used with some care. Consider the complex numbers $\mathbb C$ as two-dimensional real vectors space. Every element of $\mathbb C$ can be written uniquely as a+ib with $a,b\in\mathbb R$. Thus a basis of $\mathbb C$ (over $\mathbb R$) is given by $e_1=1$ and $e_2=i$. The complexification $\mathbb C_{\mathbb C}$ therefore has the basis $\{e_1,e_2\}$ (over $\mathbb C$). In particular, in $\mathbb C_{\mathbb C}$ we have $ie_1\neq e_2$ (or e_1 and e_2 are not linearly independent). The shorthand notation might suggest that $ie_1=i(1)=(i)=e_2$, but this is not true, as in full notation

$$ie_1 = i((1,1) + W) = (i,1) + W \neq (1,i) + W = e_2$$
 (5.64)

Definition 5.24:

Let h be a real Lie algebra.

(i) The complexification $h_{\mathbb{C}}$ of h is the complex vector space $h_{\mathbb{C}}$ together with the Lie bracket

$$[\lambda x, \mu y] = \lambda \mu \cdot [x, y] \quad \text{for all} \quad \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C} , \quad x, y \in h .$$
 (5.65)

(ii) Let g be a complex Lie algebra. h is called a *real form* of g iff $h_{\mathbb{C}} \cong g$ as complex Lie algebras.

Exercise 5.26:

Let h be a finite-dimensional real Lie algebra and let g be a finite-dimensional complex Lie algebra. Show that the following are equivalent.

- (1) h is a real form of g.
- (2) There exist bases $\{T^a|a=1,\ldots,n\}$ of h (over \mathbb{R}) and $\{\tilde{T}^a|a=1,\ldots,n\}$ of g (over \mathbb{C}) such that

$$[T^a, T^b] = \sum_{c=1}^n f_c^{ab} T^c$$
 and $[\tilde{T}^a, \tilde{T}^b] = \sum_{c=1}^n f_c^{ab} \tilde{T}^c$

with the same structure constants f_c^{ab} .

The following is an instructive example.

Lemma 5.25:

- (i) su(2) is a real form of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$.
- (ii) $sl(2,\mathbb{R})$ is a real form of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$.
- (iii) su(2) and $sl(2,\mathbb{R})$ are not isomorphic as real Lie algebras.

Proof:

(i) Recall that

$$su(2) = \{ M \in \text{Mat}(2, \mathbb{C}) | M + M^{\dagger} = 0, \text{tr}(M) = 0 \} ,$$

 $sl(2, \mathbb{C}) = \{ M \in \text{Mat}(2, \mathbb{C}) | \text{tr}(M) = 0 \} .$ (5.66)

In both cases the Lie bracket is given by the matrix commutator. A basis of su(2) (over \mathbb{R}) is

$$T^{1} = \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{pmatrix} , \quad T^{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} , \quad T^{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} . \tag{5.67}$$

By exercise 5.25, the vectors T^a also provide a basis (over \mathbb{C}) of $su(2)_{\mathbb{C}}$. A basis of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ (over \mathbb{C}) is

$$\tilde{T}^1 = \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{pmatrix} , \quad \tilde{T}^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} , \quad \tilde{T}^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} . \quad (5.68)$$

Since these are the the same matrices, their matrix commutator agrees, and hence $\varphi: su(2)_{\mathbb{C}} \to sl(2,\mathbb{C}), \ \varphi(T^a) = \tilde{T}^a$ is an isomorphism of complex Lie algebras.

(ii) The proof goes in the same way as part (i). Recall that

$$sl(2, \mathbb{R}) = \{ M \in Mat(2, \mathbb{R}) | tr(M) = 0 \}$$
 (5.69)

A basis of $sl(2,\mathbb{R})$ (over \mathbb{R}) is

$$T^{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 , $T^{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $T^{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. (5.70)

A basis of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ (over \mathbb{C}) is

$$\tilde{T}^1 = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{array} \right) \quad , \quad \tilde{T}^2 = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array} \right) \quad , \quad \tilde{T}^3 = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array} \right) \quad . \tag{5.71}$$

As before, $\varphi: sl(2,\mathbb{R})_{\mathbb{C}} \to sl(2,\mathbb{C}), \ \varphi(T^a) = \tilde{T}^a$ an isomorphism of complex Lie algebras.

Exercise 5.27:

Show that the Killing form of su(2) is negative definite (i.e. $\kappa(x,x) < 0$ for all $x \in su(2)$) and that the one of $sl(2,\mathbb{R})$ is not. Conclude that there exists no isomorphism $\varphi: sl(2,\mathbb{R}) \to su(2)$ of real Lie algebras.

Here is a list of real Lie algebras whose complexifications give the simple complex Lie algebras A_r , B_r , C_r and D_r . As we have seen, several real Lie algebras can have the same complexification, so the list below is only one possible choice.

real Lie algebra
$$h$$
 $su(r+1)$ $so(2r+1)$ $sp(2r)$ $so(2r)$ complex Lie algebra $g\cong h_{\mathbb{C}}$ A_r B_r C_r D_r

Lemma 5.26:

Let g be a finite-dimensional complex Lie algebra and let h be a real form of g. Then κ_g is non-degenerate iff κ_h is non-degenerate.

Proof:

Let T^a be a basis of h and \tilde{T}^a be a basis of g such that

$$[T^a, T^b] = \sum_{c=1}^n f_c^{ab} T^c \text{ and } [\tilde{T}^a, \tilde{T}^b] = \sum_{c=1}^n f_c^{ab} \tilde{T}^c .$$
 (5.72)

Then

$$\kappa_h(T^a, T^b) = \sum_c (T^c)^* ([T^a, [T^b, T^c]]) = \sum_{c,d} f^{bc}_{d} f^{ad}_{c}
= \sum_c (\tilde{T}^c)^* ([\tilde{T}^a, [\tilde{T}^b, \tilde{T}^c]]) = \kappa_g (\tilde{T}^a, \tilde{T}^b) .$$
(5.73)

This shows that in the bases we have chosen, the matrix elements of κ_h and κ_g agree. In particular, the statement that κ_h is non-degenerate is equivalent to the statement that κ_g is non-degenerate.

Exercise 5.28:

Show that $o(1, n-1)_{\mathbb{C}} \cong so(n)_{\mathbb{C}}$ as complex Lie algebras.

Recall that the Lie algebra of the four-dimensional Lorentz group is o(1,3). The exercise shows in particular, that o(1,3) has the same complexification as so(4). Since the Killing form of so(4) is non-degenerate, we know that $so(4)_{\mathbb{C}}$ is semi-simple.

Lemma 5.27:

 $so(4) \cong su(2) \oplus su(2)$ as real Lie algebras.

Proof:

Consider the following basis for so(4),

$$X_1 = \mathcal{E}_{23} - \mathcal{E}_{32}$$
 , $X_2 = \mathcal{E}_{31} - \mathcal{E}_{13}$, $X_3 = \mathcal{E}_{12} - \mathcal{E}_{21}$,
 $Y_1 = \mathcal{E}_{14} - \mathcal{E}_{41}$, $Y_2 = \mathcal{E}_{24} - \mathcal{E}_{42}$, $Y_3 = \mathcal{E}_{34} - \mathcal{E}_{43}$, (5.74)

i.e. in short

$$X_a = \sum_{b c=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abc} \mathcal{E}_{bc} , \quad Y_a = \mathcal{E}_{a4} - \mathcal{E}_{4a} , \quad \text{for } a = 1, 2, 3 .$$
 (5.75)

The X_1, X_2, X_3 are just the basis of the so(3) subalgebra of so(4) obtained by considering only the upper left 3×3 -block. Their commutator has been computed in exercise 3.9,

$$[X_a, X_b] = -\sum_{c=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abc} X_c$$
 (5.76)

To obtain the remaining commutators we first compute

$$X_{a}Y_{b} = \sum_{c,d=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{acd} \mathcal{E}_{cd} (\mathcal{E}_{b4} - \mathcal{E}_{4b}) = \sum_{c=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{acb} \mathcal{E}_{c4} ,$$

$$Y_{b}X_{a} = \sum_{c,d=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{acd} (\mathcal{E}_{b4} - \mathcal{E}_{4b}) \mathcal{E}_{cd} = \sum_{d=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abd} \mathcal{E}_{4d} ,$$

$$Y_{a}Y_{b} = (\mathcal{E}_{a4} - \mathcal{E}_{4a}) (\mathcal{E}_{b4} - \mathcal{E}_{4b}) = -\mathcal{E}_{ab} - \delta_{ab} \mathcal{E}_{44} ,$$

$$(5.77)$$

and from this, and exercise 3.8(ii), we get

$$[X_a, Y_b] = \sum_{c=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abc} (-\mathcal{E}_{c4} + \mathcal{E}_{4c}) = -\sum_{c=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abc} Y_c ,$$

$$[Y_a, Y_b] = -\mathcal{E}_{ab} + \mathcal{E}_{ba} = -\sum_{c,d=1}^{3} (\delta_{ac} \delta_{bd} - \delta_{ad} \delta_{bc}) \mathcal{E}_{cd}$$

$$= -\sum_{c,d=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abx} \varepsilon_{xcd} \mathcal{E}_{cd} = -\sum_{x=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abx} X_x .$$

$$(5.78)$$

Set now

$$J_a^+ = \frac{1}{2}(X_a + Y_a)$$
 , $J_a^- = \frac{1}{2}(X_a - Y_a)$. (5.79)

Then

$$[J_a^+, J_b^+] = \frac{1}{4} ([X_a, X_b] + [X_a, Y_b] + [Y_a, X_b] + [Y_a, Y_b])$$

$$= -\frac{1}{4} \sum_{c=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abc} (X_c + Y_c + Y_c + X_c) = -\sum_{c=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abc} J_c^+ ,$$

$$[J_a^+, J_b^-] = \dots = 0 ,$$

$$[J_a^-, J_b^-] = \dots = -\sum_{c=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abc} J_c^- .$$
(5.80)

We see that we get two commuting copies of so(3), i.e. we have shown (note that we have only used real coefficients)

$$so(4) \cong so(3) \oplus so(3) \tag{5.81}$$

as real Lie algebras. Together with $so(3)\cong su(2)$ (as real Lie algebras) this implies the claim. \Box

Since $su(2)_{\mathbb{C}} \cong sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ (as complex Lie algebras), complexification immediately yields the identity

$$so(4)_{\mathbb{C}} \cong sl(2,\mathbb{C}) \oplus sl(2,\mathbb{C})$$
 (5.82)

It follows that for the complexification of the Lorentz algebra o(1,3) we equally get $o(1,3)_{\mathbb{C}} \cong sl(2,\mathbb{C}) \oplus sl(2,\mathbb{C})$.

Information 5.28:

This isomorphism is used in theoretical physics (in particular in the contexts of relativistic quantum field theory and of supersymmetry) to describe representations of the Lorentz algebra o(1,3) in terms of representations of $sl(2,\mathbb{C}) \oplus sl(2,\mathbb{C})$. Irreducible representations V_d of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ are labelled by their dimension d. It is also customary to denote representations of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ by their 'spin' (this comes from $sl(2,\mathbb{C}) \cong su(2)_{\mathbb{C}}$); V_d then has spin s = (d-1)/2, i.e. V_1, V_2, V_3, \ldots have spin $0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, \ldots$ Representations of $o(1,3)_{\mathbb{C}}$ are then labelled by a pair of spins (s_1, s_2) .

6 Epilogue

A natural question for a mathematician would be "What are all Lie groups? What are their representations?". A physicist would ask the same question, but would use different words: "What continuous symmetries can occur in nature? How do they act on the space of quantum states?"

In this course we have answered neither of these questions, but we certainly went into the good direction.

• In the beginning we have studied matrix Lie groups. They are typically defined by non-linear equations, and it is easier to work with a 'linearised version', which is provided by a Lie algebra. To this end we have seen that

a (matrix) Lie group G gives rise to a real Lie algebra g.

We have not shown, but it is nonetheless true, that a representation of a Lie group also gives rise to a representation of the corresponding real Lie algebra.

• So before addressing the question "What are all Lie groups?" we can try to answer the simpler question "What are all real Lie algebras?" However, it turns out that it is much simpler to work with complex Lie algebras than with real Lie algebras. To obtain a complex Lie algebra we used that

every real Lie algebra g gives rise to a complex Lie algebra $g_{\mathbb{C}}$.

For representations one finds (but we did not) that a (real) representation of a real Lie algebra gives rise to a (complex) representation of its complex-ification.

• To classify all complex Lie algebras is still to hard a problem. But if one demands two additional properties, namely that the complex Lie algebra is finite-dimensional and that its Killing form is non-degenerate (these were precisely the fssc Lie algebras), then a complete classification can be achieved.

All finite-dimensional simple complex Lie algebras are classified in the Theorem of Killing and Cartan.

It turns out (but we did not treat this in the course) that one can equally classify all finite-dimensional representations of fssc Lie algebras.

One can now wonder what the classification result, i.e. the answer to "What are all finite-dimensional simple complex Lie algebras?", has to do with the original question "What are all Lie groups?". It turns out that one can retrace one's steps and arrive instead at an answer for the question "What are all compact connected simple Lie groups?" (A group is called simple if has no normal subgroups other than $\{e\}$ and itself, and if it is not itself the trivial group. A connected Lie group is called simple if it does not contain connected normal subgroups other than $\{e\}$ and itself.) A similar route can be taken to obtain the finite-dimensional representations of a compact simple Lie group.

A Appendix: Collected exercises

Exercise 0.1:

I certainly did not manage to remove all errors from this script. So the first exercise is to find all errors and tell them to me.

Exercise 1.1:

Show that for a real or complex vector space V, a bilinear map $b(\cdot, \cdot): V \times V \to V$ obeys b(u, v) = -b(v, u) (for all u, v) if and only if b(u, u) = 0 (for all u). [If you want to know, the formulation [X, X] = 0 in the definition of a Lie algebra is preferable because it also works for the field \mathbb{F}_2 . There, the above equivalence is not true because in \mathbb{F}_2 we have 1 + 1 = 0.]

Exercise 2.1:

Prove the following consequences of the group axioms: The unit is unique. The inverse is unique. The map $x \mapsto x^{-1}$ is invertible as a map from G to G. $e^{-1} = e$. If gg = g for some $g \in G$, then g = e. The set of integers together with addition $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ forms a group. The set of integers together with multiplication (\mathbb{Z}, \cdot) does not form a group.

Exercise 2.2:

Verify the group axioms for $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$. Show that $Mat(n, \mathbb{R})$ (with matrix multiplication) is not a group.

Exercise 2.3:

Let $\varphi: G \to H$ be a group homomorphism. Show that $\varphi(e) = e$ (the units in G and H, respectively), and that $\varphi(g^{-1}) = \varphi(g)^{-1}$.

Exercise 2.4:

Show that Aut(G) is a group.

Exercise 2.5:

- (i) Show that a subgroup $H \leq G$ is in particular a group, and show that it has the same unit element as G.
- (ii) Show that SO(n) is a subgroup of $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$.

Exercise 2.6:

Prove that

- (i*) for every $f \in E(n)$ there is a unique $T \in O(n)$ and $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$, s.t. f(v) = Tv + u for all $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- (ii) for $T \in O(n)$ and $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ the map $v \mapsto Tv + u$ is in E(n).

Exercise 2.7:

(i) Starting from the definition of the semidirect product, show that $H \ltimes_{\varphi} N$ is indeed a group. [To see why the notation H and N is used for the two groups, look up "semidirect product" on wikipedia.org or eom.springer.de.]

(ii) Show that the direct product is a special case of the semidirect product.

(iii) Show that the multiplication rule $(T,x)\cdot (R,y)=(TR,Ty+x)$ found in the study of E(n) is that of the semidirect product $O(n)\ltimes_{\varphi}\mathbb{R}^n$, with $\varphi:O(n)\to \operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ given by $\varphi_T(u)=Tu$.

Exercise 2.8:

Show that O(1, n-1) can equivalently be written as

$$O(1, n-1) = \{ M \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) | M^t J M = J \}$$

where J is the diagonal matrix with entries $J = \text{diag}(1, -1, \dots, -1)$.

Exercise 2.9:

(i*) Prove that for every $f \in P(1, n-1)$ there is a unique $\Lambda \in O(1, n-1)$ and $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$, s.t. $f(v) = \Lambda v + u$ for all $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

(ii) Show that the Poincaré group is isomorphic to the semidirect product $O(1, n-1) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n$ with multiplication

$$(\Lambda, u) \cdot (\Lambda', u') = (\Lambda \Lambda', \Lambda u' + u)$$
.

Exercise 2.10:

Verify that the commutator [A, B] = AB - BA obeys the Jacobi identity.

Exercise 2.11:

(i) Consider a rotation around the 3-axis,

$$(U_{\rm rot}(\theta)\psi)(q_1, q_2, q_3) = \psi(q_1\cos\theta - q_2\sin\theta, q_2\cos\theta + q_1\sin\theta, q_3)$$

and check that infinitesimally

$$U_{\rm rot}(\theta) = \mathbf{1} + i\theta L_3 + O(\theta^2)$$
.

(ii) Using $[q_r, p_s] = i\delta_{rs}$ (check!) verify the commutator

$$[L_r, L_s] = i \sum_{t=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{rst} L_t .$$

(You might need the relation $\sum_{k=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{ijk} \varepsilon_{lmk} = \delta_{il} \delta_{jm} - \delta_{im} \delta_{jl}$ (check!).)

Exercise 3.1:

(i) Show that U(n) and SU(n) are indeed groups.

(ii) Let $(A^{\dagger})_{ij}=(A_{ji})^*$ be the hermitian conjugate. Show that the condition (Au,Av)=(u,v) for all $u,v\in\mathbb{C}^n$ is equivalent to $A^{\dagger}A=\mathbf{1}$, i.e.

$$U(n) = \{ A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{C}) \mid A^{\dagger} A = \mathbf{1} \}$$
.

(iii) Show that U(n) and SU(n) are matrix Lie groups.

Exercise 3.2:

(i) Using the definition of the matrix exponential in terms of the infinite sum, show that for $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

$$\exp\left(\begin{array}{cc} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{array}\right) = e^{\lambda} \cdot \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}\right) \ .$$

(ii) Let $A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{C})$. Show that for any $U \in GL(n, \mathbb{C})$

$$U^{-1} \exp(A)U = \exp(U^{-1}AU)$$
.

(iii) Recall that a complex $n \times n$ matrix A can always be brought to Jordan normal form, i.e. there exists an $U \in GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ s.t.

$$U^{-1}AU = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} J_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & J_r \end{array} \right) \quad ,$$

where each Jordan block is of the form

$$J_k = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_k & 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & & & \lambda_k \end{pmatrix} , \quad \lambda_k \in \mathbb{C} .$$

In particular, if all Jordan blocks have size 1, the matrix A is diagonalisable. Compute

$$\exp\left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & t \\ -t & 0 \end{array}\right)$$
 and $\exp\left(\begin{array}{cc} 5 & 9 \\ -1 & -1 \end{array}\right)$.

Exercise 3.3:

Let $A \in Mat(n, \mathbb{C})$.

- (i) Let $f(t) = \det(\exp(tA))$ and $g(t) = \exp(t\operatorname{tr}(A))$. Show that f(t) and g(t) both solve the first order DEQ $u' = \operatorname{tr}(A) u$.
- (ii) Using (i), show that

$$\det(\exp(A)) = \exp(\operatorname{tr}(A)) \ .$$

Exercise 3.4:

Show that if A and B commute (i.e. if AB = BA), then $\exp(A) \exp(B) = \exp(A + B)$.

Exercise* 3.5:

Let G be a matrix Lie group and let g be the Lie algebra of G.

(i) Show that if $A \in g$, then also $sA \in g$ for all $s \in \mathbb{R}$.

(ii) The following formulae hold for $A, B \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{K})$: the Trotter Product Formula,

$$\exp(A+B) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\exp(A/n) \exp(B/n) \right)^n ,$$

and the Commutator Formula,

$$\exp([A,B]) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \Big(\exp(A/n) \exp(B/n) \exp(-A/n) \exp(-B/n) \Big)^{n^2} \ .$$

(For a proof see [Baker, Theorem 7.26]). Use these to show that if $A, B \in g$, then also $A + B \in g$ and $[A, B] \in g$. (You will need that a matrix Lie group is closed.) Note that part (i) and (ii) combined prove Theorem 3.9.

Exercise 3.6:

Prove that SP(2n) is a matrix Lie group.

Exercise 3.7:

In the table of matrix Lie algebras, verify the entries for $SL(n,\mathbb{C})$, SP(2n), U(n) and confirm the dimension of SU(n).

Exercise 3.8:

- (i) Show that $\mathcal{E}_{ab}\mathcal{E}_{cd} = \delta_{bc}\mathcal{E}_{ad}$. (ii) Show that $\sum_{x=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abx}\varepsilon_{cdx} = \delta_{ac}\delta_{bd} \delta_{ad}\delta_{bc}$.

Exercise 3.9:

- (i) Show that the generators J_1 , J_2 , J_3 can also be written as $J_a = \sum_{b,c=1}^3 \varepsilon_{abc} \mathcal{E}_{bc}$, $a \in \{1, 2, 3\}.$
- (ii) Show that $[J_a,J_b]=-\sum_{c=1}^3 \varepsilon_{abc}J_c$ (iii) Check that $R_3(\theta)=\exp(-\theta J_3)$ is given by

$$R_3(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) & 0\\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} .$$

This is a rotation by an angle θ around the 3-axis. Check explicitly that $R_3(\theta) \in$ SO(3).

Exercise 3.10:

Show that for $a, b \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, $[\sigma_a, \sigma_b] = 2i \sum_c \varepsilon_{abc} \sigma_c$.

Exercise 3.11:

- (i) Show that the set $\{i\sigma_1, i\sigma_2, i\sigma_3\}$ is a basis of su(2) as a real vector space. Convince yourself that the set $\{\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3\}$ does not form a basis of su(2) as a real vector space.
- (ii) Show that $[i\sigma_a, i\sigma_b] = -2\sum_{c=1}^3 \varepsilon_{abc} i\sigma_c$.

Exercise 3.12:

Show that so(3) and su(2) are isomorphic as real Lie algebras.

Exercise 3.13:

Show that the Lie algebra of O(1, n-1) is

$$o(1, n-1) = \{A \in \text{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R}) | A^t J + JA = 0\}$$
.

Exercise 3.14:

Check that the commutator of the M_{ab} 's is

$$[M_{ab}, M_{cd}] = \eta_{ad} M_{bc} + \eta_{bc} M_{ad} - \eta_{ac} M_{bd} - \eta_{bd} M_{ac}$$
.

Exercise 3.15:

(i) Show that, for $A \in \text{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R})$ and $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\exp\left(\frac{A \mid u}{0 \mid 0}\right) = \left(\frac{e^A \mid Bu}{0 \mid 1}\right) , \quad B = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} A^{n-1} .$$

[If A is invertible, then $B = A^{-1}(e^A - \mathbf{1})$.]

(ii) Show that the Lie algebra of $\tilde{P}(1, n-1)$ (the Poincaré group embedded in $\operatorname{Mat}(n+1, \mathbb{R})$) is

$$p(1, n-1) = \left\{ \left(\begin{array}{c|c} A & x \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{array} \right) \middle| A \in o(1, n-1) \ , \ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \right\} \ .$$

Exercise 3.16:

Show that, for $a, b, c \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$,

$$[M_{ab}, P_c] = \eta_{bc} P_a - \eta_{ac} P_b$$
 , $[P_a, P_b] = 0$.

Exercise 3.17:

There are some variants of the BCH identity which are also known as *Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff formulae*. Here we will prove some.

Let $\operatorname{ad}(A): \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C}) \to \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C})$ be given by $\operatorname{ad}(A)B = [A,B]$. [This is called the *adjoint action*.]

(i) Show that for $A, B \in Mat(n, \mathbb{C})$,

$$f(t) = e^{tA}Be^{-tA}$$
 and $g(t) = e^{tad(A)}B$

both solve the first order DEQ

$$\frac{d}{dt}u(t) = [A, u(t)] .$$

(ii) Show that

$$e^A B e^{-A} = e^{\operatorname{ad}(A)} B = B + [A, B] + \frac{1}{2} [A, [A, B]] + \dots$$

(iii) Show that

$$e^A e^B e^{-A} = \exp(e^{\operatorname{ad}(A)}B)$$

(iv) Show that if [A, B] commutes with A and B,

$$e^A e^B = e^{[A,B]} e^B e^A .$$

(v) Suppose [A,B] commutes with A and B. Show that $f(t)=e^{tA}e^{tB}$ and $g(t)=e^{tA+tB+\frac{1}{2}t^2[A,B]}$ both solve $\frac{d}{dt}u(t)=(A+B+t[A,B])u(t)$. Show further that

$$e^A e^B = e^{A+B+\frac{1}{2}[A,B]}$$
.

Exercise 4.1:

It is also common to use 'modules' instead of representations. The two concepts are equivalent, as will be clear by the end of this exercise.

Let g be a Lie algebra over \mathbb{K} . A g-module V is a \mathbb{K} -vector space V together with a bilinear map . : $g \times V \to V$ such that

$$[x,y].w = x.(y.w) - y.(x.w) \qquad \text{for all} \quad x,y \in g, w \in V \quad . \tag{A.1}$$

- (i) Show that given a g-module V, one gets a representation of g by setting R(x)w=x.w.
- (ii) Given a representation (V, R) of g, show that setting x.w = R(x)w defines a g-module on V.

Exercise 4.2:

Show that for the Lie algebra u(1), the trivial and the adjoint representation are isomorphic.

Exercise 4.3:

Show that if (\mathbb{K}^n, R) is a representation of g, then so is $(\mathbb{K}^n, R+)$ with $R^+(x) = -R(x)^t$.

Exercise 4.4:

Let $f: V \to W$ be an intertwiner of two representations V, W of g. Show that $\ker(f) = \{v \in V | f(v) = 0\}$ and $\operatorname{im}(f) = \{w \in W | w = f(v) \text{ for some } v \in V\}$ are invariant subspaces of V and W, respectively.

Exercise 4.5:

Check that for the basis elements of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ one has [H,E]=2E, [H,F]=-2F and [E,F]=H.

Exercise 4.6:

Let (V, R) be a representation of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$. Show that if R(H) has an eigenvector with non-integer eigenvalue, then V is infinite-dimensional.

Hint: Let $H.v = \lambda v$ with $\lambda \notin \mathbb{Z}$. Proceed as follows.

1) Set w = E.v. Show that either w = 0 or w is an eigenvector of R(H) with

eigenvalue $\lambda + 2$.

- 2) Show that either V is infinite-dimensional or there is an eigenvector v_0 of R(H) of eigenvalue $\lambda_0 \notin \mathbb{Z}$ such that $E.v_0 = 0$.
- 3) Let $v_m = F^m \cdot v_0$ and define $v_{-1} = 0$. Show by induction on m that

$$H.v_m = (\lambda_0 - 2m)v_m$$
 and $E.v_m = m(\lambda_0 - m + 1)v_{m-1}$.

4) Conclude that if $\lambda_0 \notin \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ all v_m are nonzero.

Exercise 4.7:

The Lie algebra $h = \mathbb{C}H$ is a subalgebra of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$. Show that h has finite-dimensional representations where R(H) has non-integer eigenvalues.

Exercise 4.8:

Check that the representation of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ defined in the lecture indeed also obeys [H,E].v=2E.v and [H,F].v=-2F.v for all $v\in\mathbb{C}^n$.

Exercise 4.9:

Let (W,R) be a finite-dimensional, irreducible representation of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$. Show that for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ there is an injective intertwiner $\varphi: V_n \to W$.

Hint: (recall exercise 4.6)

- 1) Find a $v_0 \in W$ such that $E.v_0 = 0$ and $H.v_0 = \lambda_0 v_0$ for some $h \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- 2) Set $v_m = F^m \cdot v_0$. Show that there exists an n such that $v_m = 0$ for $m \ge n$. Choose the smallest such n.
- 3) Show that $\varphi(e_m) = v_m$ for $m = 0, \dots, n-1$ defines an injective intertwiner.

Exercise* 4.10:

Let U, V be two finite-dimensional K-vector spaces. Let u_1, \ldots, u_m be a basis of U and let v_1, \ldots, v_n be a basis of V.

(i) [Easy] Show that

$$\{u_k \oplus 0 | k = 1, \dots, m\} \cup \{0 \oplus v_k | k = 1, \dots, n\}$$

is a basis of $U \oplus V$.

(ii) [Harder] Show that

$$\{u_i \otimes v_j | i = 1, \dots, m \text{ and } j = 1, \dots, n\}$$

is a basis of $U \otimes V$.

Exercise 4.11:

Show that for two Lie algebras g, h, the vector space $g \oplus h$ with Lie bracket as defined in the lecture is indeed a Lie algebra.

Exercise 4.12:

Let g be a Lie algebra and let U, V be two representations of g.

(i) Show that the vector spaces $U \oplus V$ and $U \otimes V$ with g-action as defined in

the lecture are indeed representations of g.

(ii) Show that the vector space $U \otimes V$ with g-action $x.(u \otimes v) = (x.u) \otimes (x.v)$ is not a representation of g.

Exercise 4.13:

Let V_n denote the irreducible representation of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ defined in the lecture. Consider the isomorphism of vector spaces $\varphi: V_1 \oplus V_3 \to V_2 \otimes V_2$ given by

$$\varphi(e_0 \oplus 0) = e_0 \otimes e_1 - e_1 \otimes e_0 ,$$

$$\varphi(0 \oplus e_0) = e_0 \otimes e_0 ,$$

$$\varphi(0 \oplus e_1) = e_0 \otimes e_1 + e_1 \otimes e_0 ,$$

$$\varphi(0 \oplus e_2) = 2e_1 \otimes e_1 ,$$

(so that V_1 gets mapped to anti-symmetric combinations and V_3 to symmetric combinations of basis elements of $V_2 \otimes V_2$). With the help of φ , show that

$$V_1 \oplus V_3 \cong V_2 \otimes V_2$$

as representations of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ (this involves a bit of writing).

Exercise 4.14:

Let g be a Lie algebra.

- (i) Show that a sub-vector space $h\subset g$ is a Lie subalgebra of g if and only if $[h,h]\subset h.$
- (ii) Show that an ideal of g is in particular a Lie subalgebra.
- (iii) Show that for a Lie algebra homomorphism $\varphi: g \to g'$ from g to a Lie algebra g', $\ker(\varphi)$ is an ideal of g.
- (iv) Show that [g, g] is an ideal of g.
- (v) Show that if h and h' are ideals of g, then their intersection $h \cap h'$ is an ideal of g.

Exercise 4.15:

Let g be a Lie algebra and $h \subset g$ an ideal. Show that $\pi: g \to g/h$ given by $\pi(x) = x + h$ is a surjective homomorphism of Lie algebras with kernel $\ker(\pi) = h$.

Exercise 4.16:

Let g, h be Lie algebras and $\varphi : g \to h$ a Lie algebra homomorphism. Show that if g is simple, then φ is either zero or injective.

Exercise 4.17:

(i) Show that for the basis of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ used in exercise 4.5, one has

$$\kappa(E,E) = 0 \ , \ \ \kappa(E,H) = 0 \ , \ \ \kappa(E,F) = 4 \ ,$$

$$\kappa(H, H) = 8$$
, $\kappa(H, F) = 0$, $\kappa(F, F) = 0$.

Denote by Tr the trace of 2×2 -matrices. Show that for $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ one has $\kappa(x,y)=4\operatorname{Tr}(xy)$.

(ii) Evaluate the Killing form of p(1,1) for all combinations of the basis elements M_{01} , P_0 , P_1 (as used in exercises 3.14 and 3.16). Is the Killing form of p(1,1) non-degenerate?

Exercise 4.18:

(i) Show that for $gl(n, \mathbb{C})$ one has $\kappa(x, y) = 2n \operatorname{Tr}(xy) - 2\operatorname{Tr}(x)\operatorname{Tr}(y)$, where Tr is the trace of $n \times n$ -matrices.

Hint: Use the basis \mathcal{E}_{kl} to compute the trace in the adjoint representation.

(ii) Show that for $sl(n, \mathbb{C})$ one has $\kappa(x, y) = 2n \operatorname{Tr}(xy)$.

Exercise 4.19:

Let g be a finite-dimensional Lie algebra and let $h \subset g$ be an ideal. Show that

$$h^{\perp} = \{ x \in g | \kappa_q(x, y) = 0 \text{ for all } y \in h \}$$

is also an ideal of q.

Exercise 4.20:

Show that if a finite-dimensional Lie algebra g contains an abelian ideal h, then the Killing form of g is degenerate. (Hint: Choose a basis of h, extend it to a basis of g, and evaluate $\kappa_g(x, a)$ with $x \in g$, $a \in h$.)

Exercise 4.21:

Let $g = g_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus g_n$, for finite-dimensional Lie algebras g_i . Let $x = x_1 + \cdots + x_n$ and $y = y_1 + \cdots + y_n$ be elements of g such that $x_i, y_i \in g_i$. Show that

$$\kappa_g(x,y) = \sum_{i=1}^n \kappa_{g_i}(x_i, y_i) .$$

Exercise 4.22:

Let g be a finite-dimensional Lie algebra with non-degenerate Killing form. Let $h \subset g$ be a sub-vector space. Show that $\dim(h) + \dim(h^{\perp}) = \dim(g)$.

Exercise 4.23:

Show that the Poincaré algebra p(1, n-1), $n \ge 2$, is not semi-simple.

Exercise 4.24:

In this exercise we prove the theorem that for a finite-dimensional, complex, simple Lie algebra g, and for an invariant bilinear form B, we have $B = \lambda \kappa_g$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

(i) Let $g^* = \{\varphi : g \to \mathbb{C} \text{ linear}\}$ be the dual space of g. The dual representation of the adjoint representation is $(g, \operatorname{ad})^+ = (g^*, -\operatorname{ad})$. Let $f_B : g \to g^*$ be given by $f_B(x) = B(x, \cdot)$, i.e. $[f_B(x)](z) = B(x, z)$. Show that f_B is an intertwiner from (g, ad) to $(g^*, -\operatorname{ad})$.

(ii) Using that g is simple, show that (g, ad) is irreducible.

(iii) Since (g, ad) and $(g^*, -ad)$ are isomorphic representations, also $(g^*, -ad)$ is irreducible. Let f_{κ} be defined in the same way as f_B , but with κ instead of B. Show that $f_B = \lambda f_{\kappa}$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

(iv) Show that $B = \lambda \kappa$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

Exercise 5.1:

Let $\{T^a\}$ be a basis of a finite-dimensional Lie algebra g over \mathbb{K} . For $x \in g$, let $M(x)_{ab}$ be the matrix of ad_x in that basis, i.e.

$$\operatorname{ad}_x(\sum_b v_b T^b) = \sum_a (\sum_b M(x)_{ab} v_b) T^a .$$

Show that $M(T^a)_{cb} = f^{ab}_{c}$, i.e. the structure constants give the matrix elements of the adjoint action.

Exercise* 5.2:

A fact from linear algebra: Show that for every non-degenerate symmetric bilinear form $b: V \times V \to \mathbb{C}$ on a finite-dimensional, complex vector space V there exists a basis v_1, \ldots, v_n (with $n = \dim(V)$) of V such that $b(v_i, v_j) = \delta_{ij}$.

Exercise 5.3:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and $\{T^a\}$ a basis such that $\kappa(T^a, T^b) = \delta_{ab}$. Show that the structure constants in this basis are anti-symmetric in all three indices.

Exercise 5.4:

Find a basis $\{T^a\}$ of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ s.t. $\kappa(T^a,T^b)=\delta_{ab}$.

Exercise 5.5:

Show that the diagonal matrices in $sl(n,\mathbb{C})$ are a Cartan subalgebra.

Exercise 5.6:

Another fact about linear algebra: Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space and let $F \subset V^*$ be a proper subspace (i.e. $F \neq V^*$). Show that there exists a nonzero $v \in V$ such that $\varphi(v) = 0$ for all $\varphi \in F$.

Exercise 5.7:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and let $h \subset g$ be sub-vector space such that

- $(1) [h, h] = \{0\}.$
- (2) κ restricted to h is non-degenerate.
- (3) if for some $x \in g$ one has [x, a] = 0 for all $a \in h$, then already $x \in h$. Show that h is a Cartan subalgebra of g if and only if it obeys (1)–(3) above.

Exercise 5.8:

Let $\{H^1,\ldots,H^r\}\subset g_0$ be a basis of g_0 such that $\kappa(H^i,H^j)=\delta_{ij}$ (recall that $r=\dim(g_0)$ is the rank of g). Show that for $\gamma,\varphi\in g_0^*$ one has $H^\gamma=\sum_{i=1}^r\gamma(H^i)H^i$, as well as $(\gamma,\varphi)=\sum_{i=1}^r\gamma(H^i)\varphi(H^i)$ and $(\gamma,\varphi)=\gamma(H^\varphi)$.

Exercise 5.9:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and g_0 a Cartan subalgebra. Let $\alpha \in \Phi(g, g_0)$. Choose $e \in g_{\alpha}$ and $f \in g_{-\alpha}$ such that $\kappa(e, f) = \frac{2}{(\alpha, \alpha)}$. Show that $\varphi : sl(2, \mathbb{C}) \to g$ given

$$\varphi(E)=e \ , \ \varphi(F)=f \ , \ \varphi(H)=\frac{2}{(\alpha,\alpha)}H^{\alpha}$$

is an injective homomorphism of Lie algebras.

Exercise* 5.10:

In this exercise we will show that $\dim(g_{\alpha}) = 1$ for all $\alpha \in \Phi$. On the way we will also see that if $\alpha \in \Phi$ and $\lambda \alpha \in \Phi$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, then $\lambda \in \{\pm 1\}$.

(i) Choose $\alpha \in \Phi$. Let $L = \{ m \in \mathbb{Z} | m\alpha \in \Phi \}$. Since Φ is a finite set, so is L. Let n_+ be the largest integer in L, n_- the smallest integer in L. Show that $n_{+} \geq 1 \text{ and } n_{-} \leq -1.$

(ii) We can assume that $n_+ \geq |n_-|$. Otherwise we exchange α for $-\alpha$. Pick $e \in g_{\alpha}$, $f \in g_{-\alpha}$ s.t. $\kappa(e, f) = \frac{2}{(\alpha, \alpha)}$ and define $\varphi : sl(2, \mathbb{C}) \to g$ as in exercise 5.9. Show that

$$U = \mathbb{C}H^{\alpha} \oplus \bigoplus_{m \in L} g_{m\alpha}$$

is an invariant subspace of the representation (g, R_{φ}) of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$.

(iii) Show that for $z \in g_{m\alpha}$ one has $R_{\varphi}(H)z = 2mz$.

(iv) By (ii), (U, R_{φ}) is also a representation of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$. Show that $V = \mathbb{C}e \oplus \mathbb{C}$ $\mathbb{C}H^{\alpha} \oplus \mathbb{C}f$ is an invariant subspace of (U, R_{φ}) . Show that the representation (V, R_{φ}) is isomorphic to the irreducible representation V_3 of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$.

(v) Choose an element $v_0 \in g_{n+\alpha}$. Set $v_{k+1} = R_{\varphi}(F)v_k$ and show that

$$W = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{2n_+})$$

is an invariant subspace of U.

(vi) (W, R_{φ}) is isomorphic to the irreducible representation $V_{2n_{+}+1}$ of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$. Show that the intersection $X = V \cap W$ is an invariant subspace of V and W. Show that X contains the element H^{α} and hence $X \neq \{0\}$. Show that X = Vand X = W.

We have learned that for any choice of v_0 in $g_{n+\alpha}$ we have V=W. This can only be if $n_+ = 1$ and $\dim(g_\alpha) = 1$. Since $1 \le |n_-| \le n_+$, also $n_- = 1$. Since $\kappa: g_{\alpha} \times g_{-\alpha}$ is non-degenerate, also $\dim(g_{-\alpha}) = 1$.

Exercise 5.11:

Let $\{H^i\} \cup \{E^\alpha\}$ be a Cartan-Weyl basis of a fssc Lie algebra g. Show that

(i) $\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(H^{1}, \ldots, H^{r})$ is a Cartan subalgebra of g. (ii) $\kappa(E^{\alpha}, E^{-\alpha}) = \frac{2}{(\alpha, \alpha)}$.

Exercise 5.12:

Let $g = g_1 \oplus g_2$ with g_1, g_2 fssc Lie algebras. For k = 1, 2, let h_k be a Cartan subalgebra of g_k .

(i) Show that $h = h_1 \oplus h_2$ is a Cartan subalgebra of g.

(ii) Show that the root system of g is $\Phi(g,h) = \Phi_1 \cup \Phi_2 \subset h_1^* \oplus h_2^*$ where $\Phi_1 = \{\alpha \oplus 0 | \alpha \in \Phi(g_1,h_1)\}$ and $\Phi_2 = \{0 \oplus \beta | \beta \in \Phi(g_2,h_2)\}.$

(iii) Show that $(\alpha, \beta) = 0$ for all $\alpha \in \Phi_1$ and $\beta \in \Phi_2$.

Exercise 5.13:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and g_0 be a Cartan subalgebra. Suppose $\Phi(g, g_0) = \Phi_1 \cup \Phi_2$ where Φ_1 , Φ_2 are non-empty and $(\alpha, \beta) = 0$ for all $\alpha \in \Phi_1$, $\beta \in \Phi_2$. Let $\{H^i\} \cup \{E^{\alpha}\}$ be a Cartan-Weyl basis of g. Show that

$$g_1 = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(H^{\alpha} | \alpha \in \Phi_1) \oplus \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \Phi_1} \mathbb{C}E^{\alpha}$$

is a proper ideal in g.

Exercise 5.14:

Let R the root space of a fssc Lie algebra with Cartan subalgebra g_0 .

(i) Show that the bilinear form (\cdot,\cdot) on g_0^* restricts to a real valued positive definite inner product on R.

(ii) Use the Gram-Schmidt procedure to find an orthonormal basis $\{\varepsilon_1, \ldots, \varepsilon_m\}$ of R (over \mathbb{R}). Show that m = r (where $r = \dim(g_0)$ is the rank of g) and that $\{\varepsilon_1, \ldots, \varepsilon_r\}$ is a basis of g_0^* (over \mathbb{C}).

(iii) Show that there exists a basis $\{H^i|i=1,\ldots,r\}$ of g_0 such that $\alpha(H^i)\in\mathbb{R}$ for all $i=1,\ldots,r$ and $\alpha\in\Phi$.

Exercise 5.15:

In this exercise we construct a Cartan-Weyl basis for $sl(n,\mathbb{C})$. As Cartan subalgebra h we take the trace-less diagonal matrices.

(i) Define the linear forms ω_i , i = 1, ..., n on diagonal $n \times n$ -matrices as $\omega_i(\mathcal{E}_{jj}) = \delta_{ij}$. Define $\alpha_{kl} = \omega_k - \omega_l$. Show that for $k \neq l$, α_{kl} is a root.

Hint: Write a general element $H \in h$ as $H = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k \mathcal{E}_{kk}$ with $\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k = 0$. Show that $[H, \mathcal{E}_{kl}] = \alpha_{kl}(H)\mathcal{E}_{kl}$.

(ii) Show that $H^{\alpha_{kl}} = \frac{1}{2n} (\mathcal{E}_{kk} - \mathcal{E}_{ll})$.

Hint: Use exercise 4.18 to verify $\kappa(H^{\alpha_{kl}}, H) = \alpha_{kl}(H)$ for all $H \in h$.

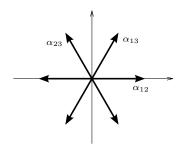
(iii) Show that $(\alpha_{kl}, \alpha_{kl}) = 1/n$ and that $[\mathcal{E}_{kl}, \mathcal{E}_{lk}] = 2/(\alpha_{kl}, \alpha_{kl}) \cdot H^{\alpha_{kl}}$

(iv) Show that, with $\Phi = \{\alpha_{kl} \mid k, l = 1, \dots, n, k \neq l\}$ and $E^{\alpha_{kl}} = \mathcal{E}_{kl}$,

$$\left\{H^{\alpha_{k,k+1}} \mid k=1,\ldots,n{-}1\right\} \cup \left\{E^{\alpha} \mid \alpha \in \Phi\right\}$$

is a Cartan-Weyl basis of $sl(n, \mathbb{C})$.

(v) Show that the root diagram of $sl(3,\mathbb{C})$ is



where each arrow has length $1/\sqrt{3}$ and the angle between the arrows is 60°.

Exercise 5.16:

Let s_{α} be a Weyl reflection. Show that

$$s_{\alpha}(\alpha) = -\alpha$$
 , $(\alpha, \lambda) = 0 \Rightarrow s_{\alpha}(\lambda) = \lambda$, $s_{\alpha} \circ s_{\alpha} = \mathrm{id}$, $s_{-\alpha} = s_{\alpha}$.

Exercise 5.17:

Show that the Weyl group of a fssc Lie algebra is a finite group (i.e. contains only a finite number of elements).

Exercise 5.18:

Give the dimension (over \mathbb{C}) of all rank two fssc Lie algebras as found in section 5.6.

Exercise 5.19:

Let g be a fssc Lie algebra and let Φ_+ and Φ_- be the positive and negative roots with respect to some hyperplane. Show that

- (i) $\Phi = \Phi_+ \cup \Phi_-$.
- (ii) $\alpha \in \Phi_+ \Leftrightarrow -\alpha \in \Phi_-$ and $|\Phi_+| = |\Phi_-|$ (the number of elements in a set S is denoted by |S|).
- (iii) $\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Phi_+) = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Phi).$

Exercise 5.20:

Using the properties of simple roots stated in the lecture, prove the following properties of the Cartan matrix.

- (i) $A^{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- (ii) $A^{ii} = 2$ and $A^{ij} \leq 0$ if $i \neq j$.
- (iii) $A^{ij}A^{ji} \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ if $i \neq j$.

Exercise 5.21:

A Dynkin diagram is *connected* if for any two vertices $i \neq j$ there is a sequence of nodes k_1, \ldots, k_m with $k_1 = i, k_m = j$ such that $A^{k_s, k_{s+1}} \neq 0$ for $s = 1, \ldots, m-1$. [In words: one can go from any vertex to any other by walking only along lines.]

Show that if the Dynkin diagram of a fssc Lie algebra is connected, then the Lie algebra is simple. [The converse follows from the classification theorem of Killing and Cartan, which shows explicitly that simple Lie algebras have connected Dynkin diagrams.]

Exercise 5.22:

Compute the Dynkin diagrams of all rank two fssc Lie algebras using the root diagrams obtained in section 5.6.

Exercise 5.23:

The Dynkin diagram (together with a choice for the numbering of the vertices) determines the Cartan matrix uniquely. Write out the Cartan matrix for the Lie algebras A_4 , B_4 , C_4 , D_4 and F_4 .

Exercise* 5.24:

Let V be a real vector space. Show that every $v \in V_{\mathbb{C}}$ can be uniquely written as v = (1, a) + i(1, b) + W, with $a, b \in V$, i.e., using the shorthand notation, v = a + ib.

Exercise 5.25:

Let V be a finite-dimensional, real vector space and let $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ be a basis of V. Show that $\{(1, v_1) + W, \ldots, (1, v_n) + W\}$ is a basis of $V_{\mathbb{C}}$. (You may want to use the result of exercise 5.24.)

Exercise 5.26:

Let h be a finite-dimensional real Lie algebra and let g be a finite-dimensional complex Lie algebra. Show that the following are equivalent.

- (1) h is a real form of g.
- (2) There exist bases $\{T^a|a=1,\ldots,n\}$ of h (over $\mathbb R$) and $\{\tilde T^a|a=1,\ldots,n\}$ of g (over $\mathbb C$) such that

$$[T^a, T^b] = \sum_{c=1}^n f_c^{ab} T^c \quad \text{and} \quad [\tilde{T}^a, \tilde{T}^b] = \sum_{c=1}^n f_c^{ab} \tilde{T}^c$$

with the same structure constants f_c^{ab} .

Exercise 5.27:

Show that the Killing form of su(2) is negative definite (i.e. $\kappa(x,x) < 0$ for all $x \in su(2)$) and that the one of $sl(2,\mathbb{R})$ is not. Conclude that there exists no isomorphism $\varphi : sl(2,\mathbb{R}) \to su(2)$ of real Lie algebras.

Exercise 5.28:

Show that $o(1, n-1)_{\mathbb{C}} \cong so(n)_{\mathbb{C}}$ as complex Lie algebras.

A.1 Hints and solutions for exercises

Solution for exercise 1.1:

 \Rightarrow : Setting u = v in b(u, v) = -b(v, u) gives b(u, u) = -b(u, u), i.e. 2b(u, u) = 0 and therefore b(u, u) = 0.

 \Leftarrow : By assumption, b(u+v,u+v)=0. Since b is bilinear, this is equivalent to b(u,u)+b(u,v)+b(v,u)+b(v,v)=0. The first and last term are again zero by assumption, so b(u,v)+b(v,u)=0.

Hints for exercise 2.1:

- Suppose e' is another unit. Then, since e is a unit, $e \cdot e' = e'$, and, since e' is a unit, $e \cdot e' = e$. Thus e = e'.
- If x^{-1} and x' are inverses of x, consider $x^{-1} \cdot x \cdot x'$ to show that $x^{-1} = x'$.
- Since the inverse is unique, $x \mapsto x^{-1}$ does indeed define a map. Show that $(x^{-1})^{-1} = x$ to see that the map squares to the identity.
- To see $gg = g \Rightarrow g = e$, multiply both sides by g^{-1} .
- For (\mathbb{Z}, \cdot) note that 0 and 2, 3, 4, . . . do not have inverses in \mathbb{Z} with respect to multiplication of whole numbers.

Hint for exercise 2.2:

Regarding $Mat(n, \mathbb{R})$, what is the inverse of the matrix with all entries zero?

Solution for exercise 2.3:

Since φ is a group homomorphism, we have $\varphi(e) \cdot \varphi(e) = \varphi(e \cdot e) = \varphi(e)$. Multiplying both sides with $\varphi(e)^{-1}$ gives $\varphi(e) = e$. To show that $\varphi(g^{-1})$ is inverse to $\varphi(g)$, by uniqueness of the inverse, it is enough to prove $\varphi(g^{-1}) \cdot \varphi(g) = e = \varphi(g) \cdot \varphi(g^{-1})$. This follows since $\varphi(g^{-1}) \cdot \varphi(g) = \varphi(g^{-1} \cdot g) = \varphi(e) = e$ and similarly for the condition that $\varphi(g^{-1})$ is right-inverse to $\varphi(g)$.

Solution for exercise 2.4:

To show that $\operatorname{Aut}(G)$ is a group we first have to show that the composition $\phi \circ \psi$ of two group automorphisms $\phi, \psi \in \operatorname{Aut}(G)$ is again in $\operatorname{Aut}(G)$. Certainly, $\phi \circ \psi$ is again a bijection from G to G. It remains to show that it is a group homomorphism. This follows from $\phi(\psi(g \cdot h)) = \phi(\psi(g) \cdot \psi(h)) = \phi(\psi(g)) \cdot \phi(\psi(h))$. Now we can proceed to check the three group properties associativity, unit and inverse. The first is clear since composition of maps is always associative: $\phi \circ (\psi \circ \eta)$ and $(\phi \circ \psi) \circ \eta$, applied to an element g, are both defined to mean $\phi(\psi(\eta(g)))$. The unit is provided by the identity map id : $G \to G$. The inverse of an element $\phi \in \operatorname{Aut}(G)$ is the inverse map ϕ^{-1} since by definition of the inverse map $\phi(\phi^{-1}(g)) = g = \phi^{-1}(\phi(g))$, i.e. $\phi \circ \phi^{-1} = \operatorname{id} = \phi^{-1} \circ \phi$.

Solution for exercise 2.5:

(i) By definition of a subgroup, H comes with a multiplication $\cdot: H \times H \to H$, given by the restriction of the multiplication on G. Also by definition of a subgroup, the multiplication on H is associative (since that of G is) and has an inverse. It remains to check that there is a unit for H. This can be seen as follows. Pick an element h in H. Then also h^{-1} and $h \cdot h^{-1}$ are in H. But $h \cdot h^{-1}$ is the unit e of G. Thus H contains the unit of G, which is hence also a unit for H. In particular, H is a group.

(ii) Let $U, T \in SO(n)$. Then in particular, $U, T \in O(n)$. Since O(n) is a subgroup of $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ we have $UT \in O(n)$. To see that also $UT \in SO(n)$ it remains to check that $\det(UT) = 1$. But this is true since $\det(UT) = \det(U) \det(T)$ and both, $\det(U)$ and $\det(T)$ are equal to one. For the inverse of an element $U \in SO(n)$, we again have $U^{-1} \in O(n)$ since O(n) is a subgroup of $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$. Further, $\det(U^{-1}) = (\det(U))^{-1} = 1$, so that also $U^{-1} \in SO(n)$.

Part of solution for exercise 2.6:

(i) Let $f \in E(n)$. Define h(v) = f(v) - f(0) so that now h(0) = 0. Clearly, h preserves distances. The only difficulty is that we are not allowed to assume that h is linear. Start from the standard basis e_i of \mathbb{R}^n and set $e'_i = h(e_i)$. Since $|e_i - 0| = |h(e_i) - h(0)| = |h(e_i)|$ we see that e'_i has length one. Further, for $i \neq j$,

$$2 = |e_i - e_j|^2 = |h(e_i) - h(e_j)|^2 = g(e'_i - e'_j, e'_i - e'_j) = 1 - 2g(e'_i, e'_j) + 1 ,$$

which implies $g(e'_i, e'_j) = 0$. Hence the e'_i also form an orthonormal basis, and there is a unique map $T \in O(n)$ such that $e'_i = Te_i$. A point in \mathbb{R}^n is uniquely fixed once we know its distance to zero and to the n points e_i . It follows that knowing the e'_i completely fixes the map h. Since further the orthogonal transformation T preserves distances, we have h(v) = Tv, and f is indeed of the form f(v) = Tv + u.

Solution for exercise 2.7:

- (i) Verify the group axioms. The '·' will not be written explicitly.
- Associativity: On the one hand,

$$((h_1, n_1)(h_2, n_2))(h_3, n_3) = (h_1 h_2, n_1 \varphi_{h_1}(n_2))(h_3, n_3)$$
$$= (h_1 h_2 h_3, n_1 \varphi_{h_1}(n_2) \varphi_{h_1 h_2}(n_3)) ,$$

and on the other hand,

$$(h_1, n_1) ((h_2, n_2)(h_3, n_3)) = (h_1, n_1) (h_2 h_3, n_2 \varphi_{h_2}(n_3))$$
$$= (h_1 h_2 h_3, n_1 \varphi_{h_1}(n_2 \varphi_{h_2}(n_3))) .$$

To see that these two are equal, note that

$$n_1\varphi_{h_1}(n_2\varphi_{h_2}(n_3)) = n_1\varphi_{h_1}(n_2)\varphi_{h_1}(\varphi_{h_2}(n_3)) = n_1\varphi_{h_1}(n_2)\varphi_{h_1h_2}(n_3)$$
,

where we first used that φ_h is an automorphism of N (and hence $\varphi_h(ab) = \varphi_h(a)\varphi_h(b)$), and second that φ itself is a group homomorphism from H to $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$ (and hence $\varphi_{gh}(a) = \varphi_g(\varphi_h(a))$).

■ Unit: Have

$$(e,e)(h,n) = (eh, e\varphi_e(n)) = (h,n)$$
,

where we used that φ_e is the identity in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$, and

$$(h,n)(e,e) = (he, n\varphi_h(e)) = (h,n) ,$$

where we used that a group homomorphism takes the unit to the unit.

■ Inverse: Have

$$(h,n)(h,n)^{-1} = (h,n)(h^{-1},\varphi_{h^{-1}}(n^{-1})) = (hh^{-1},n\varphi_h(\varphi_{h^{-1}}(n^{-1}))) = (e,e)$$
,

where we used that $\varphi_h(\varphi_{h^{-1}}(a)) = \varphi_{hh^{-1}}(a) = \varphi_e(a) = a$, and

$$(h,n)^{-1}(h,n) = (h^{-1},\varphi_{h^{-1}}(n^{-1}))(h,n) = (h^{-1}h,\varphi_{h^{-1}}(n^{-1})\varphi_{h^{-1}}(n))$$
$$= (e,\varphi_{h^{-1}}(n^{-1}n)) = (e,e) ,$$

where we used that $\varphi_{h^{-1}}(ab) = \varphi_{h^{-1}}(a)\varphi_{h^{-1}}(b)$ and that $\varphi_{h^{-1}}(e) = e$.

(ii) The map $\varphi: H \to \operatorname{Aut}(N)$ defined by $\varphi_h = \operatorname{id}_N$, i.e. the map taking all elements of H to the unit in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$, is a group homomorphism. With this map, multiplication and inverse of $H \ltimes_{\varphi} N$ read

$$(h, n)(h', n') = (hh', n\varphi_h(n')) = (hh', nn')$$

and

$$(h,n)^{-1} = (h^{-1}, \varphi_{h^{-1}}(n^{-1})) = (h^{-1}, n^{-1})$$

which is precisely the definition of the direct product $H \times N$.

(iii) The map $\varphi_T(u) = Tu$ is invertible, since T is, and it obeys $\varphi_T(u+v) = T(u+v) = Tu + Tv = \varphi_T(u) + \varphi_T(v)$, where '+' is the group operation on \mathbb{R}^n . Thus indeed $\varphi_T \in \operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{R}^n)$. Further, $\varphi_{RS}(u) = RSu = \varphi_R(\varphi_S(u))$ so that $\varphi: O(n) \to \operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is a group homomorphism. The multiplication on $O(n) \ltimes_{\varphi} \mathbb{R}^n$ reads, writing again '+' for the group operation on \mathbb{R}^n ,

$$(T, x)(R, y) = (TR, x + \varphi_T(y)) = (TR, Ty + x)$$
.

Solution for exercise 2.8:

We defined $O(1, n-1) = \{M \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) | \eta(Mu, Mv) = \eta(u, v) \text{ for all } u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$. Consider the standard basis e_0, \ldots, e_{n-1} of \mathbb{R}^n (with non-standard labelling). It is easy to see that $\eta(e_i, e_j) = J_{ij}$. Further,

$$\eta(Me_i, Me_j) = \eta(\sum_k M_{ki}e_k, \sum_l M_{lj}e_l) = \sum_{k,l} M_{ki}M_{lj}\eta(e_k, e_l)
= \sum_{k,l} M_{ki}J_{kl}M_{lj} = [M^tJM]_{ij}$$

so that $\eta(Mu, Mv) = \eta(u, v)$ for all $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is equivalent to $M^t J M = J$.

Hints for exercise 2.9:

- (i) Similar to part (i) of exercise 2.6.
- (ii) Let $\varphi: O(1, n-1) \to \operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ be given by $\varphi_{\Lambda}(u) = \Lambda u$. That this is a group homomorphism is checked in the same way as in exercise 2.7(iii). For

 $\Lambda \in O(1, n-1)$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, let $f_{\Lambda,x} : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be given by $f_{\Lambda,x}(u) = \Lambda u + x$. Since

$$\eta(f_{\Lambda,x}(u) - f_{\Lambda,x}(v), f_{\Lambda,x}(u) - f_{\Lambda,x}(v)) = \eta(\Lambda u - \Lambda v, \Lambda u - \Lambda v)$$
$$= \eta(\Lambda(u - v), \Lambda(u - v)) = \eta(u - v, u - v)$$

we have $f_{\Lambda,x} \in P(1,n-1)$. Consider the map $F: O(1,n-1) \ltimes_{\varphi} \mathbb{R}^n \to P(1,n-1)$ given by $F(\Lambda,x) = f_{\Lambda,x}$. The map F is clearly injective. By part (i) it is also surjective, so that it is a bijection. It remains to check that it is a group homomorphism. To this end note that for all $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$F((\Lambda, x)(\Lambda', x'))(u) = F(\Lambda\Lambda', \Lambda x' + x)(u) = f_{\Lambda\Lambda', \Lambda x' + x}(u) = \Lambda\Lambda' u + \Lambda x' + x$$

and

$$(F(\Lambda, x)F(\Lambda', x'))(u) = f_{\Lambda, x}(f_{\Lambda', x'}(u)) = f_{\Lambda, x}(\Lambda'u + x') = \Lambda(\Lambda'u + x') + x ,$$

so that indeed $F((\Lambda, x)(\Lambda', x')) = F(\Lambda, x)F(\Lambda', x')$.

Hint for exercise 2.10:

Just substitute the definition of the commutator and check that in the resulting sum all terms cancel.

Hints for exercise 3.1:

- (i) Show that they are subgroups of $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$, similar to the argument for O(n) and SO(n).
- (ii) First convince yourself that for $A, B \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{C})$ the statements A = B and $(u, Av) = (u, Bv) \ \forall u, v \in \mathbb{C}^n$ are equivalent. Next note that by definition

$$(u, Av) = \sum_{k,l=1}^{n} u_k^* A_{kl} v_l = \sum_{k,l=1}^{n} (A_{kl}^* u_k)^* v_l = (A^{\dagger} u, v) .$$

Then

$$(Au, Av) = (u, v) \ \forall u, v \in \mathbb{C}^n \Leftrightarrow (u, A^{\dagger}Av) = (u, v) \ \forall u, v \in \mathbb{C}^n \Leftrightarrow A^{\dagger}A = \mathbf{1}$$
.

(iii) From (i) we know that U(n) and SU(n) are subgroups of $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$. It remains to show that they are closed. The maps $f: \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C}) \to \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C})$ and $g: \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C}) \to \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C}) \times \mathbb{C}$ given by $f(A) = A^{\dagger}A$ and $g(A) = (A^{\dagger}A, \det(A))$ are both continuous. Thus the preimage of the closed set $\{1\}$ under f and of $\{(1,1)\}$ under g will also be closed. But $f^{-1}(\{1\}) = U(n)$ and $g^{-1}(\{(1,1)\}) = SU(n)$, proving that these two subsets of $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$ are closed.

Solution for exercise 3.2:

(i) By recursion on n one checks

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{array}\right)^n = \left(\begin{array}{cc} \lambda^n & n\lambda^{n-1} \\ 0 & \lambda^n \end{array}\right) .$$

The infinite sum is then easy to evaluate,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \left(\begin{array}{cc} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{array} \right)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \left(\begin{array}{cc} \lambda^n & n \lambda^{n-1} \\ 0 & \lambda^n \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} e^{\lambda} & e^{\lambda} \\ 0 & e^{\lambda} \end{array} \right) \ ,$$

which proves the assertion.

(ii) Note that

$$U^{-1}A^nU = U^{-1}AA \cdots AU = U^{-1}AUU^{-1}AU \cdots U^{-1}AU = (U^{-1}AU)^n$$
.

Then

$$U^{-1}\exp(A)U = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} U^{-1} A^n U = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} (U^{-1} A U)^n = \exp(U^{-1} A U) .$$

(iii) Have

$$U^{-1} \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & t \\ -t & 0 \end{array} \right) U = \left(\begin{array}{cc} it & 0 \\ 0 & -it \end{array} \right) \quad \text{for} \quad U = \left(\begin{array}{cc} -i & i \\ 1 & 1 \end{array} \right) \quad .$$

Then

$$\begin{split} &\exp\left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & t \\ -t & 0 \end{array}\right) = U \exp\left(\begin{array}{cc} it & 0 \\ 0 & -it \end{array}\right) U^{-1} = U \left(\begin{array}{cc} e^{it} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-it} \end{array}\right) U^{-1} \\ &= \left(\begin{array}{cc} \cos(t) & \sin(t) \\ -\sin(t) & \cos(t) \end{array}\right) \ . \end{split}$$

Have

$$U^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 9 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} U = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{for} \quad U = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} .$$

Then

$$\exp\left(\begin{array}{cc} 5 & 9 \\ -1 & -1 \end{array}\right) = U \exp\left(\begin{array}{cc} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{array}\right) U^{-1} = e^2 \cdot U \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}\right) U^{-1} = e^2 \cdot \left(\begin{array}{cc} 4 & 9 \\ -1 & -2 \end{array}\right)$$

Hint for exercise 3.3:

(i) First note that $\det(\mathbf{1} + \varepsilon A)$ is a polynomial in ε . From the explicit form of the determinant one finds $\det(\mathbf{1} + \varepsilon A) = 1 + \varepsilon \operatorname{tr}(A) + O(\varepsilon^2)$. Next consider the functions $f(t) = \det(\exp(tA))$, $g(t) = \exp(t\operatorname{tr}(A))$. To find the derivative of f with respect to f note

$$\det(\exp((t+\varepsilon)A)) = \det(\exp(tA))\det(\exp(\varepsilon A))$$
$$= \det(\exp(tA))(1+\varepsilon \operatorname{tr}(A)+O(\varepsilon^2)) ,$$

so that $f'(t) = \operatorname{tr}(A) \operatorname{det}(\exp(tA)) = \operatorname{tr}(A) f(t)$. The derivative of g(t) is straightforward, $g'(t) = \operatorname{tr}(A) \exp(t\operatorname{tr}(A)) = \operatorname{tr}(A) g(t)$. Thus both, f(t) and

g(t) solve u'(t) = tr(A)u(t).

(ii) The solution to the first order DEQ u'(t) = tr(A)u(t) is uniquely determined by the initial condition u(0). Since f(0) = 1 = g(0), it follows that f(t) = g(t). In particular f(1) = g(1), which proves the assertion.

Solution for exercise 3.4:

Have

$$e^{A+B} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} (A+B)^n$$
.

Now since A and B commute,

$$(A+B)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} A^k B^{n-k}$$
.

Substituting this results in the same sum as for $e^A e^B$.

Solution for exercise 3.5:

(i) This is just part of the definition of a Lie algebra g of a matrix Lie group G: if $A \in g$ then also $tA \in g$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

(ii) Since $A, B \in g$, it follows that $\exp(tA)$ and $\exp(tB)$ are in G for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$, in particular for t = 1/n for $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$. Since G is a group, also the product $\exp(tA)\exp(tB)$ is in G. Hence $M_n = \exp(A/n)\exp(B/n)$ is a sequence of elements in G. By the Trotter product formula, the $n \to \infty$ limit exists in $\operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{R})$ and is given by $\exp(A+B)$. Since G is closed, it follows that $\exp(A+B) \in G$. Substituting A = tX and B = tY we see that if $X, Y \in g$ then $\exp(t(X+Y)) \in G$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and hence $X + Y \in g$.

Regarding the commutator, if $A, B \in g$ then $M_n = \exp(A/n) \exp(B/n) \exp(-A/n)$ exp(-B/n) is a sequence of elements in G. By the commutator formula its limit exists in $\operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{R})$ and is given by $\exp([A,B])$. Since G is closed, it follows that $\exp([A,B]) \in G$. Substituting $A = \sqrt{t}X$ and $B = \pm \sqrt{t}Y$ we see that if $X, Y \in g$ then $\exp(\pm t[X,Y]) \in G$ for all t > 0 and hence $[X,Y] \in g$.

Hint for exercise 3.6:

This follows in the same way as exercise 3.1 (iii), i.e. by using that SP(2n) is defined via the inverse image of a closed set under a continuous function.

Solution for exercise 3.7:

■ $SL(n,\mathbb{C})$: We have to find all $A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C})$ such that $\operatorname{det}(\exp(tA)) = 1$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. From $\operatorname{det}(\exp(tA)) = e^{t\operatorname{tr}(A)}$ we see that $\operatorname{tr}(A) = 0$ is necessary and sufficient. The subspace of complex matrices with $\operatorname{tr}(A) = 0$ has real dimension $2(n^2 - 1)$.

■ SP(2n): Suppose $\exp(sA)$, with $A \in \operatorname{Mat}(2n,\mathbb{R})$ and $s \in \mathbb{R}$, obeys $(\exp(sA))^t J_{\operatorname{sp}} \exp(sA) = J_{\operatorname{sp}}$. To first order in s this implies

$$J_{\rm sp} + s(A^t J_{\rm sp} + J_{\rm sp} A) + O(s^2) = J_{\rm sp}$$
,

i.e. $J_{\rm sp}A + A^tJ_{\rm sp} = 0$. Conversely, suppose that $J_{\rm sp}A + A^tJ_{\rm sp} = 0$. Then, for any $s \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$(\exp(sA))^t J_{\rm sp} \exp(sA) = J_{\rm sp} J_{\rm sp}^{-1} \exp(sA^t) J_{\rm sp} \exp(sA)$$

$$\stackrel{(1)}{=} J_{\rm sp} \exp(sJ_{\rm sp}^{-1} A^t J_{\rm sp}) \exp(sA) \stackrel{(2)}{=} J_{\rm sp} \exp(-sJ_{\rm sp}^{-1} J_{\rm sp} A) \exp(sA)$$

$$= J_{\rm sp} \exp(-sA) \exp(sA) \stackrel{(3)}{=} J_{\rm sp} \quad ,$$

where (1) makes use of exercise 3.2 (ii), (2) follows since by assumption $A^t J_{\rm sp} = -J_{\rm sp}A$, and (3) amounts to exercise 3.4 for B=-A. We see that $J_{\rm sp}A+A^t J_{\rm sp}=0$ is necessary and sufficient for $\exp(sA)\in SP(2n)$ for all $s\in\mathbb{R}$.

To find the dimension of sp(2n), write $A \in \text{Mat}(2n,\mathbb{R})$ in terms of four $n \times n$ -matrices E, F, G, H as

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{cc} E & F \\ G & H \end{array} \right) .$$

One computes

$$A^t J_{\rm sp} = \left(\begin{array}{cc} E^t & G^t \\ F^t & H^t \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & \mathbf{1} \\ -\mathbf{1} & 0 \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} -G^t & E^t \\ -H^t & F^t \end{array} \right)$$

and similarly

$$J_{\rm sp} A = \left(\begin{array}{cc} G & H \\ -E & -F \end{array} \right) \ .$$

The condition $J_{\rm sp}A + A^tJ_{\rm sp} = 0$ is thus equivalent to

$$G^t = G$$
 , $E^t = -H$, $F^t = F$.

This shows that G and F have to be symmetric, while H is arbitrary, and E is fixed uniquely by H. The (real) dimension of sp(2n) is therefore

$$\dim_{\mathbb{R}}(sp(2n)) = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1) + \frac{1}{2}n(n+1) + n^2 = n(2n+1) \ .$$

■ U(n): Suppose $M = \exp(tA)$, with $M, A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{C})$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$, obeys $M^{\dagger}M = \mathbf{1}$. To first order in t this implies

$$1 + t(A^{\dagger} + A) + O(t^2) = 1$$
,

i.e. $A^{\dagger} + A = 0$. Conversely, suppose that $A^{\dagger} + A = 0$. Then, for any $t \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$(\exp(tA))^{\dagger} \exp(tA) = \exp(tA^{\dagger}) \exp(tA) = \exp(-tA) \exp(tA) = \mathbf{1}$$
.

Thus $A^{\dagger}+A=0$ is necessary and sufficient for $\exp(tA)\in U(n)$ for all $t\in\mathbb{R}$. A matrix $A\in \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C})$ obeying $A^{\dagger}+A=0$ will have purely imaginary diagonal entries, and its lower triangular part is determined in terms of its upper triangular part. Hence A is determined by n real and $\frac{1}{2}n(n-1)$ complex parameters. The real dimension of u(n) is therefore $n+n(n-1)=n^2$.

■ SU(n): In the calculation for U(n) we have seen that an element A of u(n) has entries ir_1, \ldots, ir_n on the diagonal, with $r_k \in \mathbb{R}$. The condition $\operatorname{tr}(A) = 0$ fixes r_n in terms of r_1, \ldots, r_{n-1} so that the real dimension of su(n) is that of u(n) less one: $\dim_{\mathbb{R}}(su(n)) = n^2 - 1$.

Solution for exercise 3.8:

(i) We verify the identity $\mathcal{E}_{ab}\mathcal{E}_{cd}=\delta_{bc}\mathcal{E}_{ad}$ componentwise. By matrix multiplication

$$\left[\mathcal{E}_{ab}\mathcal{E}_{cd}\right]_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \left[\mathcal{E}_{ab}\right]_{ik} \left[\mathcal{E}_{cd}\right]_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \delta_{ai}\delta_{bk}\delta_{ck}\delta_{dj} = \delta_{ai}\delta_{bc}\delta_{dj} = \delta_{bc} \left[\mathcal{E}_{ad}\right]_{ij}.$$

(ii) We want to show that

$$\sum_{x=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abx} \varepsilon_{cdx} = \delta_{ac} \delta_{bd} - \delta_{ad} \delta_{bc} \quad . \tag{*}$$

Suppose a = b or c = d: By anti-symmetry, either $\varepsilon_{abx} = 0$ or $\varepsilon_{cdx} = 0$, so that the lhs of (*) is zero. On the rhs, both terms cancel, so in this case (*) reads 0 = 0 and is true.

Suppose $a \neq b$ and $c \neq d$: There is a unique value x_{ab} such that $\varepsilon_{abx_{ab}} \neq 0$. So only one term $(x = x_{ab})$ contributes to the lhs of (*), which now reads

$$\varepsilon_{abx_{ab}}\varepsilon_{cdx_{ab}} = \delta_{ac}\delta_{bd} - \delta_{ad}\delta_{bc}$$
 if $a \neq b$ and $c \neq d$. (**)

In particular, if the two (unordered) sets $\{a,b\}$ and $\{c,d\}$ are not equal, then both sides of (**) are zero. If $\{a,b\} = \{c,d\}$, then either a=c and b=d in which case the lhs is $(\pm 1)^2$ and the rhs is 1, or a=d and b=c in which case the lhs is $(\pm 1)(\mp 1)$ and the rhs is -1.

Hence indeed (*) is true. (Of course one could also have checked all $3^4 = 81$ possible index combinations explicitly.)

Hints for exercise 3.9:

- (i) This can be seen by explicit verification of all three cases. For example, $\sum_{a,b} \varepsilon_{1ab} \mathcal{E}_{ab} = \varepsilon_{123} \mathcal{E}_{23} + \varepsilon_{132} \mathcal{E}_{32} = \mathcal{E}_{23} \mathcal{E}_{32}$. This is precisely the matrix given for J_1 .
- (ii) We have

$$J_{a}J_{b} = \sum_{r,s,t,u} \varepsilon_{ars} \varepsilon_{btu} \mathcal{E}_{rs} \mathcal{E}_{tu} = \sum_{r,s,t,u} \varepsilon_{ars} \varepsilon_{btu} \delta_{st} \mathcal{E}_{ru} = \sum_{r,s,u} \varepsilon_{ars} \varepsilon_{ubs} \mathcal{E}_{ru}$$
$$= \sum_{r,u} (\delta_{au} \delta_{rb} - \delta_{ab} \delta_{ru}) \mathcal{E}_{ru}$$

and

$$[J_a, J_b] = \sum_{r,u} (\delta_{au}\delta_{rb} - \delta_{ab}\delta_{ru} - \delta_{bu}\delta_{ra} + \delta_{ba}\delta_{ru})\mathcal{E}_{ru} = \sum_{r,u} (\delta_{au}\delta_{rb} - \delta_{bu}\delta_{ra})\mathcal{E}_{ru}$$
$$= \sum_{r,u,c} \varepsilon_{abc}\varepsilon_{urc}\mathcal{E}_{ru} = -\sum_{c} \varepsilon_{abc}J_{c}$$

(iii) Use the method from exercise 3.2 (iii) to compute the exponential. For the explicit check that $R_3(\theta) \in SO(3)$ compute $\det(R_3(\theta))$ and $R_3(\theta)^t R_3(\theta)$ using $\sin(\theta)^2 + \cos(\theta)^2 = 1$.

Hint for exercise 3.10:

Because of anti-symmetry of the commutator it is enough to verify the identity in the cases $[\sigma_1, \sigma_2] = 2i\varepsilon_{123}\sigma_3$, $[\sigma_1, \sigma_3] = 2i\varepsilon_{132}\sigma_2$ and $[\sigma_2, \sigma_3] = 2i\varepsilon_{231}\sigma_1$. For example

$$\sigma_1 \sigma_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{pmatrix}$$
 and $\sigma_2 \sigma_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -i & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{pmatrix}$

so that indeed $[\sigma_1, \sigma_2] = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 - \sigma_2 \sigma_1 = 2i\sigma_3$.

Solution for exercise 3.11:

(i) An element $A \in su(2)$ obeys $A^{\dagger} + A = 0$ and tr(A) = 0. It is therefore a complex 2×2 matrix with entries

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} ix & y + iz \\ -y + iz & -ix \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{where} \quad x, y, z \in \mathbb{R} .$$

Each such matrix can be written as a *real* linear combination of the three matrices

$$b_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
 , $b_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $b_3 = \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{pmatrix}$.

We have $b_1 = i\sigma_1$, $b_2 = i\sigma_2$ and $b_3 = i\sigma_3$, which demonstrates the claim. (In particular, $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3$ do not form a basis of su(2) as, first of all, they are not actually in su(2), and second, one would need *complex* linear combinations to reach elements of su(2)).

(ii) Have

$$[i\sigma_a, i\sigma_b] = -[\sigma_a, \sigma_b] = -2i\sum_{c=1}^3 \varepsilon_{abc}\sigma_c = -2\sum_{c=1}^3 \varepsilon_{abc}(i\sigma_c) .$$

Solution for exercise 3.12:

Define the linear map $\varphi: so(3) \to su(2)$ by prescribing its values on a basis. For so(3) we use the basis $\{J_1, J_2, J_3\}$ from section 3.5 and for su(2) we use the basis $\{i\sigma_1, i\sigma_2, i\sigma_3\}$. We set $\varphi(J_k) = \frac{1}{2}i\sigma_k$, $k \in \{1, 2, 3\}$. As φ takes a basis to a basis it is an isomorphism of real vector spaces.

To establish that so(3) is isomorphic to su(2) as a real Lie algebra, it is now enough to verify that φ is a Lie algebra homomorphism. We find

$$\varphi([J_a, J_b]) = \varphi(-\sum_{c=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abc} J_c) = -\sum_{c=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abc} \varphi(J_c) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{c=1}^{3} \varepsilon_{abc} (i\sigma_c)$$

and

$$[\varphi(J_a), \varphi(J_b)] = \left[\frac{1}{2}i\sigma_a, \frac{1}{2}i\sigma_b\right] = \frac{1}{4}[i\sigma_a, i\sigma_b] = \frac{1}{4}(-2)\sum_{c=1}^3 \varepsilon_{abc}(i\sigma_c) .$$

Thus indeed $\varphi([J_a, J_b]) = [\varphi(J_a), \varphi(J_b)].$

Solution for exercise 3.13:

We need to find all $A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{R})$ such that $\exp(tA)^t J \exp(tA) = J$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. To first order in t this implies

$$(\mathbf{1} + tA^t + O(t^2))J(\mathbf{1} + tA + O(t^2)) = J$$

$$\Rightarrow J + t(A^tJ + JA) + O(t^2) = J \quad \Rightarrow \quad A^tJ + JA = 0 .$$

Conversely, note that $JJ = \mathbf{1}$ so that $J^{-1} = J$. Thus $A^tJ + JA = 0$ is equivalent to $A^t = -JAJ$ and we have

$$\begin{split} \exp(tA)^t J \exp(tA) &= \exp(tA^t) J \exp(tA) = \exp(-tJAJ) J \exp(tA) \\ &= J \exp(-tA) J J \exp(tA) = J \exp(-tA) \exp(tA) = J \enspace . \end{split}$$

Altogether, we see that $\exp(tA)^t J \exp(tA) = J$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$ is equivalent to $A^t J + JA = 0$, as was to be shown.

Solution for exercise 3.14:

Note that

$$[\mathcal{E}_{ab}, \mathcal{E}_{cd}] = \mathcal{E}_{ab}\mathcal{E}_{cd} - \mathcal{E}_{cd}\mathcal{E}_{ab} = \delta_{cb}\mathcal{E}_{ad} - \delta_{ad}\mathcal{E}_{cb} .$$

Using this and $\eta_{ab} = \eta_{aa}\delta_{ab}$, we find

$$[M_{ab}, M_{cd}] = [\eta_{bb}\mathcal{E}_{ab} - \eta_{aa}\mathcal{E}_{ba}, \eta_{dd}\mathcal{E}_{cd} - \eta_{cc}\mathcal{E}_{dc}]$$

$$= \eta_{bb}\eta_{dd} (\delta_{cb}\mathcal{E}_{ad} - \delta_{ad}\mathcal{E}_{cb}) - \eta_{bb}\eta_{cc} (\delta_{db}\mathcal{E}_{ac} - \delta_{ac}\mathcal{E}_{db})$$

$$- \eta_{aa}\eta_{dd} (\delta_{ca}\mathcal{E}_{bd} - \delta_{bd}\mathcal{E}_{ca}) + \eta_{aa}\eta_{cc} (\delta_{da}\mathcal{E}_{bc} - \delta_{bc}\mathcal{E}_{da})$$

$$= \eta_{ad} (\eta_{cc}\mathcal{E}_{bc} - \eta_{bb}\mathcal{E}_{cb}) + \eta_{bc} (\eta_{dd}\mathcal{E}_{ad} - \eta_{aa}\mathcal{E}_{da})$$

$$- \eta_{ac} (\eta_{dd}\mathcal{E}_{bd} - \eta_{bb}\mathcal{E}_{db}) - \eta_{bd} (\eta_{cc}\mathcal{E}_{ac} - \eta_{aa}\mathcal{E}_{ca})$$

$$= \eta_{ad}M_{bc} + \eta_{bc}M_{ad} - \eta_{ac}M_{bd} - \eta_{bd}M_{ac} .$$

Solution for exercise 3.15:

(i) By induction on n one can show that for $n \geq 1$,

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c}A & u\\\hline 0 & 0\end{array}\right)^n = \left(\begin{array}{c|c}A^n & A^{n-1}u\\\hline 0 & 0\end{array}\right) \ .$$

Using this to evaluate the exponential gives the desired answer.

(ii) Consider $\exp(tC)$ for $C \in \operatorname{Mat}(n+1,\mathbb{R})$. To first order in t, $\exp(tC) = \mathbf{1} + tC + O(t^2)$. For this to be in $\tilde{P}(1, n-1)$ we need

$$\mathbf{1} + tC + O(t^2) = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} M(t) & u(t) \\ \hline 0 & 1 \end{array}\right)$$

for some $M(t) \in O(1, n-1)$ and $u(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$. This requires C to be of the form

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} A & x \\ \hline 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
 with $A \in o(1, n-1)$.

Conversly, if C is of the above form, then part (i) shows that

$$\exp(tC) = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} e^{tA} & Bx \\ \hline 0 & 1 \end{array}\right)$$

for some $B \in \text{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R})$. Since $A \in o(1, n-1)$, by definition $\exp(tC) \in O(1, n-1)$ so that indeed p(1, n-1) has the claimed form.

Solution for exercise 3.16:

Writing out the definition gives

$$[M_{ab}, P_c] = [\eta_{bb}\mathcal{E}_{ab} - \eta_{aa}\mathcal{E}_{ba}, \mathcal{E}_{cn}]$$

$$= \eta_{bb} (\delta_{bc}\mathcal{E}_{an} - \delta_{an}\mathcal{E}_{cb}) - \eta_{aa} (\delta_{ac}\mathcal{E}_{bn} - \delta_{bn}\mathcal{E}_{ca})$$

$$= \eta_{bc}\mathcal{E}_{an} - \eta_{ac}\mathcal{E}_{bn} = \eta_{bc}P_a - \eta_{ac}P_b ,$$

where we used that $\delta_{an} = 0$ and $\delta_{bn} = 0$ as $a, b \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$. Further,

$$[P_a, P_b] = [\mathcal{E}_{an}, \mathcal{E}_{bn}] = \delta_{nb}\mathcal{E}_{an} - \delta_{an}\mathcal{E}_{bn} = 0 .$$

Solution for exercise 3.17:

(i) Calculate

$$\frac{d}{dt}f(t) = Ae^{tA}Be^{-tA} - e^{tA}BAe^{-tA} = Af(t) - f(t)A = [A, f(t)]$$

where we used that $[A, e^{tA}] = 0$. Further

$$\frac{d}{dt}g(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{nt^{n-1}}{n!} \operatorname{ad}(A)^n B = \operatorname{ad}(A)e^{t\operatorname{ad}(A)} B = [A, g(t)] .$$

- (ii) Since f(t) and g(t) solve the same first order DEQ and since f(0) = g(0) = B, we have f(t) = g(t) for all t. In particular f(1) = g(1), which is the identity that was to be shown.
- (iii) Recall that for any invertible U we have $Ue^AU^{-1} = \exp(UAU^{-1})$. Hence

$$e^A e^B e^{-A} = \exp(e^A B e^{-A}) = \exp(e^{ad(A)} B)$$
.

(iv) If [A, B] commutes with A it follows that

$$e^{\operatorname{ad}(A)}B = B + [A, B]$$

as all higher terms vanish. By part (ii) we have

$$e^A e^B = e^{B + [A,B]} e^A .$$

But B and [A, B] commute by assumption, so by exercise 3.4 we have

$$e^{B+[A,B]} = e^{[A,B]}e^{B}$$
.

which implies the claim.

(v) For the derivative of f(t) we compute

$$f'(t) = Ae^{tA}e^{tB} + e^{tA}Be^{tB} = (A + e^{tA}Be^{-tA})e^{tA}e^{tB} = (A + B + t[A, B])f(t) ,$$

where in the last step we used part (ii) and that assumption that [A, B] commutes with A. To compute the derivative of g(t) we write out the exponential, differentiate each power with respect to t, and use that by assumption $A+B+\frac{1}{2}t[A,B]$ and A+B+t[A,B] commute to get g'(t)=(A+B+t[A,B])g(t). Now f(0)=g(0)=1, so that f(t)=g(t). For t=1 this implies the second claim.

Solution for exercise 4.1:

(i) We are given a g-module V. For $x \in g$ we define the linear map $R(x): V \to V$ as R(x)w = x.w for all $w \in V$. We now check that $R: g \to \operatorname{End}(V)$ is a Lie algebra homomorphism. For all $x, y \in g$ and $w \in V$ we have

$$R([x,y])w = [x,y].w = x.(y.w) - y.(x.w) = R(x)R(y)w - R(y)R(x)w$$

= $[R(x), R(y)]w$.

Thus (V, R) is a representation of g.

(ii) We are given a representation (V,R) of g. Consider the bilinear map . : $g \times V \to V$ given by x.w = R(x)w for all $x \in g$, $w \in V$. We need to check that this defines a g-module on V. For all $x,y \in g$ and $w \in V$ we have

$$[x,y].w = R([x,y])w = R(x)R(y)w - R(y)R(x)w = x.(y.w) - y.(x.w)$$
.

Thus V with the g-action $: g \times V \to V$ defined above is a g-module.

Solution for exercise 4.2:

The (real) Lie algebra u(1) is the vector space \mathbb{R} with Lie bracket [x,y]=0 for all $x,y\in\mathbb{R}$. Let $(\mathbb{R},R_{\mathrm{tr}})$ be the trivial representation (i.e. $R_{\mathrm{tr}}=0$), and let (\mathbb{R},ad) be the adjoint representation. Define $f:\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$ to be just the identity f(x)=x. This is an isomorphism, and it provides an intertwiner $(\mathbb{R},\mathrm{ad})\to(\mathbb{R},R_{\mathrm{tr}})$ since

$$R_{\rm tr}(x)(f(y)) = 0$$
 and $f({\rm ad}_x y) = [x, y] = 0$.

Solution for exercise 4.3:

Have

$$R^{+}([x,y]) = -R([x,y])^{t} = -(R(x)R(y) - R(y)R(x))^{t}$$

$$= -(R(y)^{t}R(x)^{t} - R(x)^{t}R(y)^{t})$$

$$= (-R(x)^{t})(-R(y)^{t}) - (-R(y)^{t})(-R(x)^{t})$$

$$= R^{+}(x)R^{+}(y) - R^{+}(y)R^{+}(x) ,$$

thus $(\mathbb{K}^n, \mathbb{R}^+)$ is a representation of g.

Solution for exercise 4.4:

Suppose $v \in \ker(f)$. We need to show that $x.v \in \ker(f)$ for all $x \in g$. Have

$$f(x.v) = x.f(v) = 0 ,$$

where we first used that f is an intertwiner and then that $v \in \ker(f)$. It follows that indeed $x.v \in \ker(f)$, and hence that $\ker(f)$ is an invariant subspace. Next suppose that $w \in \operatorname{im}(f)$ and $x \in g$. We need to show that also $x.w \in \operatorname{im}(f)$. By assumption there is a $v \in V$ such that w = f(v). Then

$$x.w = x.f(v) = f(x.v) \in \text{im}(f) .$$

Thus also im(f) is an invariant subspace.

Hint for exercise 4.5:

Just check all equations explicitly. For example

$$[H,E] = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 2E .$$

Solution for exercise 4.6:

- 1) We have $H.w = H.(E.v) = [H, E].v + E.(H.v) = 2E.v + \lambda E.v = (\lambda + 2)w$. Thus if $w \neq 0$ then w is an eigenvector of R(H) with eigenvalue $\lambda + 2$.
- 2) Suppose $E^m.v \neq 0$ for all m > 0. Then they form an infinite set of eigenvectors of R(H) with distinct eigenvalues, and hence an infinite set of linearly independent vectors in V. Therefore V is infinite-dimensional.

Suppose next that $E^n.v=0$ for some $n\geq 0$. Choose the smallest such n. Then $v_0=E^{n-1}.v$ is nonzero (by definition) and $E.v_0=0$. Continuing the argument of 1) by induction we have $H.(E^m.v)=(\lambda+2m)E^m.v$ and so $H.v_0=\lambda_0v_0$ with $\lambda_0=\lambda+2n-2$. In particular, if $\lambda\neq\mathbb{Z}$ also $\lambda_0\neq\mathbb{Z}$.

3) For m=0 the equations are clearly true. Assume now that we have shown them for a given m. Then for m+1 we compute

$$H.v_{m+1} = H.(F.v_m) = [H, F].v_m + F.(H.v_m) = -2F.v_m + (\lambda_0 - 2m)F.v_m$$

= $(\lambda_0 - 2m - 2)v_{m+1}$,

and

$$E.v_{m+1} = E.(F.v_m) = [E, F].v_m + F.(E.v_m) = H.v_m + m(\lambda_0 - m + 1)F.v_{m-1}$$
$$= (\lambda_0 - 2m + m(\lambda_0 - m + 1))v_m = (m+1)(\lambda_0 - m)v_m.$$

4) We proceed again by induction. $v_0 \neq 0$ by construction. Suppose now that $v_{m-1} \neq 0$ for some m > 0. Then $E.v_m = m(\lambda_0 - m + 1)v_{m-1}$. But $m(\lambda_0 - m + 1) \neq 0$ as $\lambda_0 \notin \mathbb{Z}$ and m > 0, and $v_{m-1} \neq 0$ by induction assumption. Therefore $E.v_m \neq 0$ and hence also $v_m \neq 0$.

To complete the proof of the statement in the exercise it now suffices to notice that the infinite set of vectors $\{v_m \mid m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}\}$ are all eigenvectors of R(H) with distinct eigenvalues, and hence linearly independent. Thus V is infinite-dimensional.

Solution for exercise 4.7:

Take V to be a one-dimensional vector space with basis v. Define R on a basis via $R(H)v = \lambda v$ for an arbitrary $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. Since h is one-dimensional, the relation [R(x), R(y)] = R([x, y]) for all $x, y \in h$ amounts to [R(H), R(H)] = R([H, H]) which holds trivially. Therefore (V, R) is a finite-dimensional representation of h such that R(H) has an eigenvector with eigenvalue $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ which need not be an integer.

Solution for exercise 4.8:

It is again useful to define $e_{-1} = e_n = 0$. For $m = 0, \ldots, n-1$ have

$$[H, E].e_m = 2E.e_m = 2m(n-m)e_{m-1}$$

and

$$H.(E.e_m) - E.(H.e_m) = m(n-m)H.e_{m-1} - (n-1-2m)E.e_m$$

$$= m(n-m)(n-1-2m+2)e_{m-1} - (n-1-2m)m(n-m)e_{m-1}$$

$$= m(n-m)(n-1-2m+2-n+1+2m)e_{m-1} = 2m(n-m)e_{m-1}.$$

Further,

$$[H, F].e_m = -2F.e_m = -2e_{m+1}$$

and

$$H.(F.e_m) - F.(H.e_m) = H.e_{m+1} - (n-1-2m)F.e_m$$

= $(n-1-2m-2)e_{m+1} - (n-1-2m)e_{m+1} = -2e_{m+1}$.

Thus indeed [H, E].v = 2E.v and [H, F].v = -2F.v holds for a basis of \mathbb{C}^n , and therefore for all $v \in \mathbb{C}^n$.

Solution for exercise 4.9:

1) Since W is a finite-dimensional complex vector space, R(H) has an eigenvector v. The argument in part 2) of exercise 4.6 then shows that we can find an eigenvector v_0 of R(H) such that $E.v_0 = 0$. Let λ_0 be the eigenvalue of v_0 .

- 2) From part 3) of exercise 4.6 we know that the nonzero v_m are all eigenvectors of R(H) with distinct eigenvectors. Since W is finite-dimensional, there can only be a finite number of nonzero v_m . Choose n such that v_0, \ldots, v_{n-1} are nonzero and $v_n = 0$. As $v_m = F.v_{m-1}$, clearly $v_m = 0$ for $m \ge n$.
- 3) From part 3) of exercise 4.6,

$$E.v_n = n(\lambda_0 - n + 1)v_{n-1} .$$

By construction, $v_{n-1} \neq 0$ and $v_n = 0$. This is only possible if $\lambda_0 = n - 1$ (the possibility n = 0 is excluded because $v_0 \neq 0$). Comparing to the definition in lemma 4.9 it is now straightforward to check that for $x \in \{E, H, F\}$ and $m = 0, \ldots, n - 1$,

$$\varphi(x.e_m) = x.v_m$$

which implies $\varphi(x.u) = x.\varphi(u)$ for all $x \in sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ and $u \in \mathbb{C}^n$. Thus φ is an intertwiner. Since the e_m form a basis and the v_m are linearly independent, φ is injective.

Solution for exercise 4.10:

(i) In the given bases of U and V, any element x of $U \oplus V$ can be written as

$$x = (a_1u_1 + \dots + a_mu_m, b_1v_1 + \dots + b_nv_n)$$
.

By the rules for addition and scalar multiplication, this is equal to

$$x = a_1(u_1, 0) + \dots + a_m(u_m, 0) + b_1(0, v_1) + \dots + b_n(0, v_n)$$
.

Further, x=0 implies that all a_i and b_j have to be zero (since the u_i and v_j form bases), so that $(u_i,0)\equiv u_i\oplus 0,\ i=1,\ldots,m$ together with $(0,v_j)\equiv 0\oplus v_j,\ j=1,\ldots,n$ does indeed form a basis of $U\oplus V$.

■ The $u_i \otimes v_j$ span $U \otimes V$: It is enough to show that we can reach any element of the form $u \otimes v$ (since any $x \in U \otimes V$ can be written as a sum of elements of this form). In terms of the bases of U and V we have $u = a_1u_1 + \cdots + a_mu_m$ and $v = b_1v_1 + \cdots + b_nv_n$ for some constants a_i, b_j . By the rules for the tensor product we can write

$$u \otimes v = \sum_{i,j} a_i b_j \, u_i \otimes v_j \quad .$$

■ The $u_i \otimes v_j$ are linear independent: Let $S = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{K}}((u,v)|u \in U, v \in V)$, so that $U \otimes V = S/W$, with W as in the lecture. Let $\alpha : U \to \mathbb{K}$ be a linear map. Define the map $\tilde{\beta} : S \to V$ on the generators of S by $\tilde{\beta}((u,v)) = \alpha(u)v$. One checks that $\tilde{\beta}$ vanishes on W (by linearity), so that it gives rise to a well defined map on the quotient space S/W: $\beta(u \otimes v) = \alpha(u)v$. Choose $\alpha(u_i) = \delta_{ij}$. Suppose now that for some constants λ_{kl} ,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} \sum_{l=1}^{n} \lambda_{kl} \, u_k \otimes v_l = 0 \quad .$$

Applying β gives

$$0 = \sum_{k,l} \lambda_{kl} \alpha(u_k) v_l = \sum_{l} \lambda_{jl} v_l \in V$$

Since the v_l are linear independent, we find that $\lambda_{jl} = 0$ for l = 1, ..., n. But j was arbitrary, so that $\lambda_{kl} = 0$ for all k, l.

Hint for exercise 4.11:

The Lie bracket on $g \oplus h$ is bilinear. For example,

$$[x \oplus y + x' \oplus y', p \oplus q] = [(x + x') \oplus (y + y'), p \oplus q]$$

$$= [x + x', p] \oplus [y + y', q] = ([x, p] + [x', p]) \oplus ([y, q] + [y', q])$$

$$= [x, p] \oplus [y, q] + [x', p] \oplus [y', q] = [x \oplus y, p \oplus q] + [x' \oplus y', p \oplus q] .$$

Skew-symmetry $[x \oplus y, x \oplus y] = 0$ and the Jacobi identity also follows immediately form the corresponding properties of g and h.

Solution for exercise 4.12:

(i) $U \oplus V$ is a representation of g, since the action is bilinear, and we have, for all $x, y \in g$ and $u \oplus v \in U \oplus V$,

$$[x,y].u \oplus v = ([x,y].u) \oplus ([x,y].v)$$

and (not writing the '.')

$$xy u \oplus v - yx u \oplus v = (xyu) \oplus (xyv) - (yxu) \oplus (yxv)$$
$$= (xyu - yxu) \oplus (xyv - yxv)$$

which agrees with $[x,y].u \oplus v$ since U and V are representations of g.

 $U \otimes V$ is a representation of g, since the action is bilinear, and we have, for all $x, y \in g$ and $u \otimes v \in U \otimes V$,

$$[x, y].u \otimes v = ([x, y].u) \otimes v + u \otimes ([x, y].v)$$

and (not writing the '.')

$$xy u \otimes v - yx u \otimes v = (xyu) \otimes v - (yxu) \otimes v + u \otimes (xyv) - u \otimes yxv$$
$$= (xyu - yxu) \otimes v + u \otimes (xyv - yxv)$$

which agrees with $[x, y].u \otimes v$.

(ii) The map $(x, u \otimes v) \mapsto (xu) \otimes (xv)$ from $g \times (U \otimes V)$ to $U \otimes V$ is not bilinear. For example, $(\lambda x, u \otimes v)$ gets mapped to $\lambda^2(xu) \otimes (xv)$ and not $\lambda(xu) \otimes (xv)$.

Hint for exercise 4.13:

For $e_0 \oplus 0$ note that H, E, F annihilate this element, and also

$$H.(e_0 \otimes e_1 - e_1 \otimes e_0) = (He_0) \otimes e_1 + e_0 \otimes (He_1) - (He_1) \otimes e_0 - e_1 \otimes (He_0) = 0$$

and similar for E, F. For $0 \oplus e_0, 0 \oplus e_1, 0 \oplus e_2$ we check

$$F.0 \oplus e_0 = 0 \oplus e_1$$
 , $F.0 \oplus e_1 = 0 \oplus e_2$, $F.0 \oplus e_2 = 0$,

and

$$F.e_0 \otimes e_0 = (Fe_0) \otimes e_0 + e_0 \otimes (Fe_0) = e_1 \otimes e_0 + e_0 \otimes e_1$$

$$F.(e_0 \otimes e_1 + e_1 \otimes e_0) = 2e_1 \otimes e_1$$

$$F.e_1 \otimes e_1 = 0$$

So that $\varphi(F.0 \oplus e_k) = F.\varphi(0 \oplus e_k)$. The same calculation can be repeated for H and E. For example,

$$\varphi(H.(0 \oplus e_2)) = \varphi(-2(0 \oplus e_2)) = -4e_1 \otimes e_1$$

and

$$H.\varphi(0 \oplus e_2) = H.(2e_1 \otimes e_1) = 2(-e_1 \otimes e_1 - e_1 \otimes e_1)$$
.

or

$$\varphi(E.(0 \oplus e_1)) = \varphi(2(0 \oplus e_0)) = 2e_0 \otimes e_0$$

and

$$E.\varphi(0 \oplus e_1) = E.(e_0 \otimes e_1 + e_1 \otimes e_0) = e_0 \otimes e_0 + e_0 \otimes e_0 .$$

Solution for exercise 4.14:

- (i) By definition, a sub-vector space $h \subset g$ is a Lie subalgebra if and only if for all $A, B \in h$ also $[A, B] \in h$.
- Suppose $[h,h] \subset h$. Then for all $A,B \in h$ also $[A,B] \in h$, so that h is a Lie subalgebra.
- Suppose that h is a Lie subalgebra. Then for all $A, B \in h$ also $[A, B] \in h$. Since h is a vector space, also all linear combinations of elements of the form [A, B] are in h. Thus $[h, h] \subset h$.
- (ii) For an ideal $h \subset g$ we have $[h,g] \subset h$. Since $[h,h] \subset [h,g]$, in particular $[h,h] \subset h$. By part (i), h is a Lie subalgebra.
- (iii) Let $y \in \ker(\varphi)$. Then for all $x \in g$,

$$\varphi([x,y]) = [\varphi(x), \varphi(y)] = [\varphi(x), 0] = 0 ,$$

so that also $[x, y] \in \ker(\varphi)$. Thus $[g, \ker(\varphi)] \subset \ker(\varphi)$, i.e. $\ker(\varphi)$ is an ideal. (iv) Let h = [g, g]. Then

$$[g,h] = [g,[g,g]] \subset [g,g] = h \quad ,$$

i.e. h is an ideal.

(v) Let $y \in h \cap h'$. Then for any $x \in g$ we have $[x, y] \in h$ because h is an ideal, and $[x, y] \in h'$ because h' is an ideal. Thus $[x, y] \in h \cap h'$ for all $x \in g$, i.e. $h \cap h'$ is an ideal.

Solution for exercise 4.15:

By definition, all elements of g/h are equivalence classes of the form x + h, for

 $x \in g$. Since $\pi(x) = x + h$, π is surjective. Further $\pi(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x + h = h \Leftrightarrow x \in h$ thus $\ker(\pi) = h$. Further, π is a homomorphism of Lie algebras because for all $x, y \in g$, $[\pi(x), \pi(y)] = [x + h, y + h] = [x, y] + h = \pi([x, y])$.

Solution for exercise 4.16:

By exercise 4.14(iii), $\ker(\varphi)$ is an ideal. Since g is simple, $\ker(\varphi)$ is either $\{0\}$ or equal to g. Thus φ is either injective or identically zero.

Solution for exercise 4.17:

(i) Let $E^*, F^*, H^* \in sl(2, \mathbb{C})^*$ be the dual basis, i.e. $E^*(E) = 1$, $E^*(F) = 0$, $E^*(H) = 0$, etc. Then for all $x, y \in sl(2, \mathbb{C})$

$$\kappa(x,y) = \text{tr}(\text{ad}_x \text{ad}_y) = E^*([x,[y,E]]) + F^*([x,[y,F]]) + H^*([x,[y,H]]) .$$

Computing all combinations results in

$$\begin{split} \kappa(E,E) &= E^*([E,[E,E]]) + F^*([E,[E,F]]) + H^*([E,[E,H]]) \\ &= 0 + F^*([E,H]) + H^*([E,-2E]) = 0 \\ \kappa(E,F) &= E^*([E,[F,E]]) + F^*([E,[F,F]]) + H^*([E,[F,H]]) \\ &= E^*([E,-H]) + 0 + H^*([E,2F]) = 2 + 0 + 2 = 4 \\ \kappa(E,H) &= E^*([E,[H,E]]) + F^*([E,[H,F]]) + H^*([E,[H,H]]) = 0 \\ \kappa(F,F) &= E^*([F,[F,E]]) + F^*([F,[F,F]]) + H^*([F,[F,H]]) = 0 \\ \kappa(F,H) &= E^*([F,[H,E]]) + F^*([F,[H,F]]) + H^*([F,[H,H]]) = 0 \\ \kappa(H,H) &= E^*([H,[H,E]]) + F^*([H,[H,F]]) + H^*([H,[H,H]]) \\ &= E^*([H,2E]) + F^*([H,-2F]) + 0 = 4 + 4 \end{split}$$

The relation $\kappa(x,y) = 4 \operatorname{Tr}(xy)$ can also be verified by straightforward computation. For example, HH is the identity matrix, so that $\operatorname{Tr}(HH) = 2$ and $4 \operatorname{Tr}(HH) = \kappa(H,H)$.

(ii) The non-vanishing commutators of $M \equiv M_{01}$, P_0 and P_1 are (recall that in two dimensions, $\eta = \text{diag}(1, -1)$)

$$[M_{01}, P_0] = \eta_{10}P_0 - \eta_{00}P_1 = -P_1$$
 , $[M_{01}, P_1] = \eta_{11}P_0 - \eta_{01}P_1 = -P_0$.

Denoting the dual basis by M^* , P_0^* , P_1^* , by the same method as above we find

$$\begin{split} \kappa(M,M) &= M^*([M,[M,M]]) + P_0^*([M,[M,P_0]]) + P_1^*([M,[M,P_1]]) \\ &= 0 + P_0^*([M,-P_1]) + P_1^*([M,-P_0]) = 2 \\ \kappa(M,P_0) &= M^*([M,[P_0,M]]) + P_0^*([M,[P_0,P_0]]) + P_1^*([M,[P_0,P_1]]) = 0 \\ \kappa(M,P_1) &= M^*([M,[P_1,M]]) + P_0^*([M,[P_1,P_0]]) + P_1^*([M,[P_1,P_1]]) = 0 \\ \kappa(P_0,P_0) &= M^*([P_0,[P_0,M]]) + P_0^*([P_0,[P_0,P_0]]) + P_1^*([P_0,[P_0,P_1]]) = 0 \\ \kappa(P_0,P_1) &= M^*([P_0,[P_1,M]]) + P_0^*([P_0,[P_1,P_0]]) + P_1^*([P_0,[P_1,P_1]]) = 0 \\ \kappa(P_1,P_1) &= M^*([P_1,[P_1,M]]) + P_0^*([P_1,[P_1,P_0]]) + P_1^*([P_1,[P_1,P_1]]) = 0 \end{split}$$

It follows that κ is degenerate, since e.g. $\kappa(x, P_0) = 0$ for all $x \in p(1, 1)$.

Solution for exercise 4.18:

(i) It is enough to verify the identity for $x = \mathcal{E}_{ab}$ and $y = \mathcal{E}_{cd}$. Use

$$[\mathcal{E}_{ij}, \mathcal{E}_{kl}] = \delta_{kj}\mathcal{E}_{il} - \delta_{il}\mathcal{E}_{kj} .$$

to check

$$[\mathcal{E}_{ab}, [\mathcal{E}_{cd}, \mathcal{E}_{ij}]] = \delta_{bc}\delta_{di}\mathcal{E}_{aj} + \delta_{ad}\delta_{cj}\mathcal{E}_{ib} - \delta_{aj}\delta_{di}\mathcal{E}_{cb} - \delta_{bi}\delta_{cj}\mathcal{E}_{ad} .$$

One then computes

$$\kappa(\mathcal{E}_{ab}, \mathcal{E}_{cd}) = \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} \mathcal{E}_{ij}^{*} ([\mathcal{E}_{ab}, [\mathcal{E}_{cd}, \mathcal{E}_{ij}]])$$

$$= \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} (\delta_{bc}\delta_{di}\delta_{ai} + \delta_{ad}\delta_{cj}\delta_{bj} - \delta_{aj}\delta_{di}\delta_{ci}\delta_{bj} - \delta_{bi}\delta_{cj}\delta_{ai}\delta_{dj})$$

$$= 2n\delta_{ad}\delta_{bc} - 2\delta_{ab}\delta_{cd} .$$

On the other hand,

$$\operatorname{Tr}(\mathcal{E}_{ab}) = \delta_{ab}$$
 , $\operatorname{Tr}(\mathcal{E}_{cd}) = \delta_{cd}$, $\operatorname{Tr}(\mathcal{E}_{ab}\mathcal{E}_{cd}) = \delta_{ad}\delta_{bc}$,

from which the claim follows.

(ii) This is an immediate consequence of (i) together with the fact that the matrices in $sl(n,\mathbb{C})$ are trace-less.

Solution for exercise 4.19:

We have to show that if $y \in h^{\perp}$, then for all $x \in g$ also $[x, y] \in h^{\perp}$. This can be seen by direct computation. Let $z \in h$ be arbitrary. Then

$$\kappa_a([x, y], z) = -\kappa_a([y, x], z) = -\kappa_a(y, [x, z]) = 0$$

since $[x, z] \in h$ (h is an ideal) and $\kappa_g(y, p) = 0$ for any $p \in h$ (as $y \in h^{\perp}$). Thus h^{\perp} is an ideal.

Solution for exercise 4.20:

Let $m = \dim(h)$ and $n = \dim(g)$. Let $\{v_1, \ldots, v_m\}$ be a basis of h and let v_{m+1}, \ldots, v_n s.t. $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is a basis of g. Let $v_k^* \in g^*$, $k = 1, \ldots, n$ denote the dual basis. For any $a \in h$ and $x \in g$,

$$\kappa(x, a) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} v_i^* ([x, [a, v_i]]) + \sum_{j=m+1}^{n} v_j^* ([x, [a, v_j]])$$

The first sum is zero, because for $i=1,\ldots,m$ both v_i and a are in h so that $[a,v_i]=0$. The second sum is zero, because $[a,v_j]$ is in h (as h is an ideal), and hence also $[x,[a,v_j]]\in h$; but for $j=m+1,\ldots,n$ we have $v_j(b)=0$ for all $b\in h$. Thus $\kappa(x,a)=0$ for all $x\in g$ and hence κ is degenerate.

Solution for exercise 4.21:

Let $v_{\alpha}^{(i)}$, $\alpha = 1, ..., n_i$ be a basis of g_i . Then the set $\{v_{\alpha}^{(i)} | i = 1, ..., n, \alpha = 1, ..., n_i\}$ provides a basis of g. Writing out the trace of the Killing form gives

$$\kappa_g(x,y) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{\alpha=1}^{n_i} (v_{\alpha}^{(i)})^* ([x,[y,v_{\alpha}^{(i)}]]).$$

By definition of the Lie bracket on a direct sum of Lie algebras, if $a \in g_i$ and $b \in g_i$ for $i \neq j$, then [a, b] = 0 in g. Thus

$$[x, [y, v_{\alpha}^{(i)}]] = [x_i, [y_i, v_{\alpha}^{(i)}]]$$

This gives the desired result,

$$\kappa_g(x,y) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{\alpha=1}^{n_i} (v_{\alpha}^{(i)})^* ([x_i, [y_i, v_{\alpha}^{(i)}]]) = \sum_{i=1}^n \operatorname{tr}_{g_i} (\operatorname{ad}_{x_i} \operatorname{ad}_{y_i}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \kappa_{g_i}(x_i, y_i).$$

Solution for exercise 4.22:

Define a linear map $f: g \to g^*$ via $f(x) = \kappa(x, \cdot)$. Suppose f(x) = 0 for some $x \in g$. This means that (f(x))(y) = 0 for all $y \in g$, i.e. that $\kappa(x,y) = 0$ for all $y \in g$. Since κ is non-degenerate, this implies x = 0. Thus f is injective. But $\dim(g) = \dim(g^*)$ and so f is also surjective. The last statement is a consequence of the $\operatorname{rank-nullity}$ theorem of linear algebra (\to WIKIPEDIA) which states that for a linear map $F: V \to W$ between to finite-dimensional vector spaces V and W we have

$$\dim(\operatorname{im} F) + \dim(\ker F) = \dim(V) .$$

Since f is surjective, every linear map $g \to \mathbb{K}$ is of the form $\kappa(x,\cdot)$ for an appropriate x. In particular, every linear map $h \to \mathbb{K}$ can be written as $\kappa(x,\cdot)$ for an appropriate x. Thus we get a surjective map $\tilde{f}: g \to h^*$, also given by

 $f(x) = \kappa(x, \cdot)$, but now the second argument of κ has to be taken from h. For the kernel of \tilde{f} one finds

$$\ker \,\tilde{f} = \big\{ x \in g \, \big| \, \kappa(x,y) = 0 \text{ for all } y \in h \big\} = h^{\perp} \, .$$

Furthermore, since \tilde{f} is surjective, im $\tilde{f} = h^*$. Applying the rank-nullity theorem to \tilde{f} then gives $\dim(h^*) + \dim(h^{\perp}) = \dim(g)$. Since $\dim(h^*) = \dim(h)$, this proves the statement.

Solution for exercise 4.23:

We will use the basis M_{ab} , P_a for p(1, n-1) as in exercises 3.14 and 3.16. Let $h = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(P_a|a=0,\ldots,n-1)$. From the commutation relations of p(1,n-1) one reads off immediately that [u,v]=0 for any $u,v\in h$ (as $[P_a,P_b]=0$) and $[x,u]\in h$ for any $x\in p(1,n-1)$ and $u\in h$ (as $[P_a,P_b]=0\in h$ and $[M_{ab},P_c]\in h$). Thus h is an abelian ideal and by lemma 4.22, the Killing form of p(1,n-1) is degenerate. This implies that p(1,n-1) is not semi-simple.

Solution for exercise 4.24:

(i) Recall that by definition of the dual of a linear map, we have that for some $F: g \to g$, the dual $F^*: g^* \to g^*$ is given by $[F^*\varphi](y) = \varphi(Fy)$ where $\varphi \in g^*$ and $g \in g$.

We have to show that for all $x \in g$,

$$f_B \operatorname{ad}_x = -\operatorname{ad}_x^* f_B$$
.

Both sides are maps from g to g^* . For any $y, z \in g$ we compute, with $F = -\mathrm{ad}_x$ and $\varphi = f_B(y)$,

$$[-\mathrm{ad}_x^* f_B(y)](z) = [F^* \varphi](z) = \varphi(Fz) = [f_B(y)](-\mathrm{ad}_x z)$$
$$= B(y, -[x, z]) = -B(y, [x, z]) = -B([y, x], z) = B([x, y], z) .$$

Furthermore,

$$[f_B \operatorname{ad}_x y](z) = f_B([x, y])(z) = B([x, y], z)$$
.

Thus f_B is indeed an intertwiner.

- (ii) An invariant subspace h of (g, ad) has the property that for all $x \in g$, $a \in h$ one has $\operatorname{ad}(x)a \in h$, i.e. that $[x,a] \in h$. Thus h is an ideal of g. Since g is simple, its only ideals are $\{0\}$ and g. Therefore the only invariant subspaces of (g, ad) are $\{0\}$ and g and hence the adjoint representation of a simple Lie algebra is irreducible.
- (iii) Since κ is also an invariant bilinear form, $f_{\kappa}: g \to g^*$ is an intertwiner from (g, ad) to $(g, \mathrm{ad})^+$. Further, κ is non-degenerate, so that f_{κ} is invertible (and hence in particular nonzero). Suppose that also f_B is nonzero. Since (g, ad) to $(g, \mathrm{ad})^+$ are irreducible, by Schur's lemma any two nonzero intertwiners between them are multiples of each other, $f_B = \lambda f_{\kappa}$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}^{\times}$. If f_B is zero, then $f_B = \lambda f_{\kappa}$ with $\lambda = 0$.
- (iv) Since by part (iii) $f_B = \lambda f_{\kappa}$, in particular $[f_B(y)](z) = [\lambda f_{\kappa}(y)](z)$ for all $y, z \in g$, i.e. $B(y, z) = \lambda \kappa(y, z)$. Thus $B = \lambda \kappa$.

Solution for exercise 5.1:

Have

$$ad_{T^a}(T^b) = [T^a, T^b] = \sum_c f^{ab}_{\ c} T^c$$

and

$$\operatorname{ad}_{T^a}(\sum_d v_d T^d) = \sum_c (\sum_d M(T^a)_{cd} v_d) T^c .$$

Comparing the two (set $v_d = \delta_{db}$) shows

$$M(T^a)_{cb} = f^{ab}_{\ c} \quad .$$

Solution for exercise 5.2:

Let $n = \dim(V)$.

■ Pick any nonzero vector $u \in V$. If $b(u,u) \neq 0$ set $v_1 = u/\sqrt{b(u,u)}$ and go to the next step. If b(u,u) = 0 choose a vector $v \in V$ such that $b(u,v) \neq 0$ (which exists since b is non-degenerate). If $b(v,v) \neq 0$ set $v_1 = v/\sqrt{b(v,v)}$ and go to the next step. If b(v,v) = 0 then x = u + v has

$$b(x,x) = b(u,u) + 2b(u,v) + b(v,v) = 2b(u,v) \neq 0.$$

Set $v_1 = x/\sqrt{b(x,x)}$.

■ We found $v_1 \in V$ with $b(v_1, v_1) = 1$. Choose u_2, \ldots, u_n s.t. $\{v_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n\}$ is a basis of V. Set

$$w_k = u_k - b(u_k, v_1)v_1$$
 , $k = 2, ..., n$.

Then $b(v_1, w_k) = b(v_1, u_k) - b(v_1, u_k)b(v_1, v_1) = 0$. The set $\{v_1, w_2, \dots, w_n\}$ is still a basis of V. Let $W = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(w_2, \dots, w_n)$. Since $b(v_1, w) = 0$ for all $w \in W$, b restricted to W also has to be non-degenerate. Now start again at step 1 with W instead of V.

Solution for exercise 5.3:

We have seen that

$$f^{ab}_{c} = \kappa(T^c, [T^a, T^b]) .$$

Clearly this is anti-symmetric in a and b, $f_c^{ab} = -f_c^{ba}$. For b and c note

$$f^{ab}_{\ \ c} = \kappa(T^c, [T^a, T^b]) = \kappa([T^c, T^a], T^b) = -\kappa(T^b, [T^a, T^c]) = -f^{ac}_{\ \ b} \ \ .$$

But then also for a and c,

$$f^{ab}_{\ \ c} = -f^{ac}_{\ \ b} = f^{ca}_{\ \ b} = -f^{cb}_{\ \ a} \ \ .$$

Hint for exercise 5.4:

Recall from exercise 4.17 that in the standard basis H, E, F of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$ one has $\kappa(E, F) = 4$, $\kappa(H, H) = 8$ and zero for all other pairings. We can thus choose

$$T^1 = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}H$$
 , $T^2 = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}(E+F)$, $T^3 = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}(E-F)$.

Then, e.g.

$$\kappa(T^2, T^2) = \frac{1}{8}\kappa(E + F, E + F) = \frac{1}{8}2\kappa(E, F) = 1$$
.

Solution for exercise 5.5:

We have to verify properties (i)–(iii) of a Cartan subalgebra. Let

$$h = \{ \sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda_k \mathcal{E}_{kk} | \lambda_k \in \mathbb{C}, \sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda_k = 0 \}$$

be the diagonal matrices in $sl(n, \mathbb{C})$.

(i) Let $H = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda_k \mathcal{E}_{kk} \in h$. Then

$$\operatorname{ad}_{H}\mathcal{E}_{ij} = [H, \mathcal{E}_{ij}] = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \lambda_{k} (\mathcal{E}_{kk}\mathcal{E}_{ij} - \mathcal{E}_{ij}\mathcal{E}_{kk}) = (\lambda_{i} - \lambda_{j})\mathcal{E}_{ij}$$

so that ad_H acts diagonal on all \mathcal{E}_{ij} . Since

$$sl(n,\mathbb{C}) = h \oplus \bigoplus_{i \neq j} \mathbb{C}\mathcal{E}_{ij}$$

we have found a basis in which ad_H is diagonal for all $H \in h$.

- (ii) Diagonal matrices commute. Therefore [h, h] = 0.
- (iii) To show maximality of h it is sufficient to show that [x,H]=0 for all $H\in h$ implies $x\in h$ (i.e. h is already maximal as an abelian subalgebra). To this end let $H=\sum_{k=1}^n\lambda_k\mathcal{E}_{kk}\in h$ with $\lambda_i\neq\lambda_j$ for $i\neq j$. (This always exists, e.g. $\lambda_k=k$ for $k=1,\ldots,n-1$ and $\lambda_n=-\sum_{k=1}^{n-1}\lambda_k$.) Let $M=\sum_{i,j}a_{ij}\mathcal{E}_{ij}\in sl(n,\mathbb{C})$. Then

$$[H, M] = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} [H, \mathcal{E}_{ij}] = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} (\lambda_i - \lambda_j) \mathcal{E}_{ij} .$$

Since $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$ for $i \neq j$ the commutator [H, M] can only be zero if $a_{ij} = 0$ for $i \neq j$. But then $M \in h$.

Solution for exercise 5.6:

Let f_1, \ldots, f_m be a basis of F. By assumption, $m < \dim(V^*) = \dim(V)$. Define the a linear map $A: V \to \mathbb{C}^m$ via $A(v) = (f_1(v), \ldots, f_m(v))$. By the rank-nullity theorem of linear algebra, $\dim(\operatorname{im} A) + \dim(\ker A) = \dim(V)$. But $\dim(\operatorname{im} A) \leq \dim(\mathbb{C}^m) = m$ and so $\dim(\ker A) \geq \dim(V) - m > 0$. Choose any nonzero $v \in \ker A$. Then $f_k(v) = 0$ for $k = 1, \ldots, m$ and since the f_k are a basis, $\varphi(v) = 0$ for all $\varphi \in F$.

Solution for exercise 5.7:

■ Suppose h is a Cartan subalgebra. Then (1) is part of the definition of a Cartan subalgebra, (2) was proved in the lecture, and for (3) note that, if for some $x \in g$ one has [x, a] = 0 for all $a \in h$, then by definition $x \in g_0$. We have proved in the lecture that $g_0 = h$, so that indeed $x \in h$.

■ Suppose $h \subset g$ is a sub-vector space that obeys (1)–(3). Since by (2), κ restricted to h is non-degenerate we can find a basis H^i , $i=1,\ldots,\dim(h)$ of h such that $\kappa(H^i,H^j)=\delta_{ij}$. In particular $\kappa(H^i,H^i)\neq 0$ so that (as proved in the lecture) H^i is ad-diagonalisable. Since $[h,h]=\{0\}$, all ad_{H^i} , $i=1,\ldots,\dim(h)$ can be simultaneously diagonalised. But then also each linear combination of the H^i is ad-diagonalisable. Thus h consists entirely of ad-diagonalisable elements and therefore obeys condition (i) in the definition of a Cartan subalgebra. Condition (ii) is just property (1), and condition (iii) is implied by (3) (since (iii) is stronger than (3)).

Solution for exercise 5.8:

By definition, H^{γ} is the unique element of g_0 such that $\kappa(H^{\gamma}, x) = \gamma(x)$ for all $x \in g_0$. In particular $\kappa(H^{\gamma}, H^i) = \gamma(H^i)$. On the other hand we can always write

$$H^{\gamma} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} c_i H^i$$
 for some $c_i \in \mathbb{C}$.

Because $\kappa(H^i, H^j) = \delta_{ij}$ it follows that $c_i = \kappa(H^i, H^\gamma)$ and hence $c_i = \gamma(H^i)$. Furthermore,

$$(\gamma,\varphi) = \kappa(H^{\gamma},H^{\varphi}) = \sum_{i,j=1}^{r} \gamma(H^{i})\varphi(H^{j})\kappa(H^{i},H^{j}) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \gamma(H^{i})\varphi(H^{i}) .$$

Finally, by definition of H^{γ} ,

$$(\gamma, \varphi) = \kappa(H^{\gamma}, H^{\varphi}) = \gamma(H^{\varphi})$$
.

Solution for exercise 5.9:

We have shown in the lecture that for $\alpha \in \Phi$, $(\alpha, \alpha) \neq 0$, so that φ is well-defined. We compute explicitly

$$\begin{split} [\varphi(E),\varphi(F)] &= [e,f] = \kappa(e,f)H^{\alpha} = \frac{2}{(\alpha,\alpha)}H^{\alpha} = \varphi(H) = \varphi([E,F]) \\ [\varphi(H),\varphi(E)] &= \frac{2}{(\alpha,\alpha)}[H^{\alpha},e] = \frac{2}{(\alpha,\alpha)}\alpha(H^{\alpha})e = 2e = \varphi([H,E]) \\ [\varphi(H),\varphi(F)] &= \frac{2}{(\alpha,\alpha)}[H^{\alpha},f] = \frac{2}{(\alpha,\alpha)}(-\alpha(H^{\alpha}))f = -2f = \varphi([H,F]) \end{split}$$

Thus φ is a homomorphism of Lie algebras. Finally, $e, f, H^{\alpha} \in g$ are linearly independent, so that φ is injective.

Solution for exercise 5.10:

- (i) Since $\alpha \in L$ we have $n_+ \geq 1$. As shown in the lecture, if $\alpha \in \Phi$, then also $-\alpha \in \Phi$. Thus $n_- \leq -1$.
- (ii) Abbreviate $R \equiv R_{\varphi}$. We have already seen in the lecture that $R(E): g_{\gamma} \to g_{\gamma+\alpha}$ and $R(F): g_{\gamma} \to g_{\gamma-\alpha}$. Further, $R(H): g_{\gamma} \to g_{\gamma}$. Thus clearly

$$\tilde{U} = g_0 \oplus \bigoplus_{m \in L} g_{m\alpha}$$

is an invariant subspace of g. Now, for $x \in g_{\alpha}$ and $y \in g_{-\alpha}$ we have, by a lemma shown in the lecture,

$$R(E)y = [e, y] = \kappa(e, y)H^{\alpha}$$
 and $R(F)x = [f, x] = -[x, f] = -\kappa(x, f)H^{\alpha}$.

Further, $R(H)H^{\alpha} = 0$, so that indeed also U is an invariant subspace of g. (iii) Have, for $z \in g_{m\alpha}$,

$$R(H)z = \frac{2}{(\alpha,\alpha)}[H^{\alpha},z] = \frac{2}{(\alpha,\alpha)}(m\alpha)(H^{\alpha})z = \frac{2}{(\alpha,\alpha)}m(\alpha,\alpha)z = 2mz .$$

(iv) Clearly, V is a subspace of U. It is also the image of the Lie algebra homomorphism $\varphi: sl(2,\mathbb{C}) \to g$ and therefore, for given $a \in V$ let $y \in g$ such that $\varphi(y) = a$. Then for all $x \in (2,\mathbb{C})$,

$$R(x)a = [\varphi(x), a] = [\varphi(x), \varphi(y)] = \varphi([x, y]) \in V$$
.

Further, to check that $(V, R_{\varphi}) \cong V_3$ as $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$ -representations, first note that $\varphi: sl(2, \mathbb{C}) \to V$ is invertible, and that φ in fact gives an isomorphism from the adjoint representation $(sl(2, \mathbb{C}), ad)$ to (V, R_{φ}) (verifying this just amounts to the equation spelled out above). Finally, the adjoint representation of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$ is isomorphic to V_3 (via the intertwiner $f: sl(2, \mathbb{C}) \to V_3$, $f(E) = v_0$, $f(H) = v_1$, $f(2F) = v_2$, check!).

- (v) Since $v_0 \in g_{n+\alpha}$, by part (iii) we have $R(H)v_0 = 2n_+v_0$. Since by construction, $g_{m\alpha} = \{0\}$ for all $m > n_+$ we have $R(E)v_0 = 0$. By the analysis of $sl(2,\mathbb{C})$ -representations in section 4.2, $R(F)^k v_0 \neq 0$ for $k = 0, \ldots, 2n_+$ and $R(F)^{2n_++1}v_0 = 0$. Since $\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(R(F)^k v_0 | k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0})$ closes under the action of R(E), R(F) and R(H), it follows that W is an invariant subspace of U.
- (vi) Both, V and W are invariant subspaces of the representation (U, R_{φ}) of $sl(2, \mathbb{C})$. The intersection of two invariant subspaces is again an invariant subspace, since for all $x \in sl(2, \mathbb{C})$ and $a \in V \cap W$ we have $R_{\varphi}(x)a \in V$ (as V is an invariant subspace) and $R_{\varphi}(x)a \in W$ (as W is an invariant subspace), i.e. $_{\varphi}(x)a \in V \cap W$.

Next, clearly $H^{\alpha} \in V$. As for W, note that $v_{n_{+}} = R(F)^{n_{+}}v_{0}$ is nonzero, and obeys $R(H)v_{n_{+}} = (2n_{+} - 2n_{+})v_{n_{+}} = 0$, so that $v_{n_{+}} = \lambda H^{\alpha}$ for some nonzero $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

But as (V, R_{φ}) is an irreducible representation, any invariant subspace is either $\{0\}$ or V. Since $V \cap W$ is not empty, we have $V \cap W = V$. Similarly, since (W, R_{φ}) is irreducible, we have $V \cap W = W$. Thus V = W.

Solution for exercise 5.11:

(i) We will show that $h = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(H^1, \dots, H^r)$ satisfies properties (i)–(iii) of definition 5.3. By definition the H^i are ad-diagonalisable, and so every $H \in h$ is ad-diagonalisable. Furthermore, again by definition, h is abelian. Thus properties (i) and (ii) hold. Now suppose there exists a $K \in g$ such that $\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(h \cup \{K\})$ is a Cartan subalgebra. Use the Cartan-Weyl basis to write

$$K = \sum_{j=1}^{r} x_j H^j + \sum_{\alpha \in \Phi} y_{\alpha} E^{\alpha} \quad , \quad x_i, y_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{C} \quad ,$$

Pick an $\alpha \in \Phi$. To show that $y_{\alpha} = 0$ pick an $H \in h$ such that $\alpha(H) \neq 0$ (this exists because $\alpha \neq 0$). Then the condition that K commutes with H implies

$$0 = [H, K] = \sum_{\alpha \in \Phi} y_{\alpha}[H, E^{\alpha}] = \sum_{\alpha \in \Phi} y_{\alpha}\alpha(H)E^{\alpha} .$$

Since the E^{α} are linearly independent, we see that $y_{\alpha}=0$. Repeating the argument for all $\alpha \in \Phi$ shows that all $y_{\alpha}=0$ and so $K \in h$. This establishes property (iii) and thus h is a Cartan subalgebra of g.

(ii) We have

$$\begin{split} \kappa(E^{\alpha},E^{-\alpha}) &= \frac{1}{(\alpha,\alpha)} \kappa([H^{\alpha},E^{\alpha}],E^{-\alpha}) = \frac{1}{(\alpha,\alpha)} \kappa(H^{\alpha},[E^{\alpha},E^{-\alpha}]) \\ &= \frac{2}{(\alpha,\alpha)^2} \kappa(H^{\alpha},H^{\alpha}) = \frac{2}{(\alpha,\alpha)} \; . \end{split}$$

Solution for exercise 5.12:

- (i) We will show that $h = h_1 \oplus h_2$ satisfies properties (1)–(3) of exercise 5.7.
- Property (1) is clear, as $[h_i, h_j] = \{0\}$ for i, j = 1, 2.
- Property (2) can be seen as follows. κ_g restricted to g_1 is equal to κ_{g_1} . Further, κ_{g_1} restricted to the Cartan subalgebra h_1 is non-degenerate. Therefore κ_g restricted to h_1 is non-degenerate. In the same way one sees that κ_g restricted to h_2 is non-degenerate. Thus, κ_g restricted to $h_1 \oplus h_2$ is non-degenerate.
- For property (3), let $x = x_1 \oplus x_2$ and suppose that [x,c] = 0 for all $c \in h$. Then in particular, for all $a \in h_1$, $0 = [x_1 \oplus x_2, a \oplus 0] = [x_1, a] \oplus 0$. Thus $x_1 \in h_1$ as h_1 is a Cartan subalgebra. Similarly it follows that $x_2 \in h_2$. Thus $x \in h$. This establishes that $h_1 \oplus h_2$ is a Cartan subalgebra of $g_1 \oplus g_2$.

 (ii) Let

$$\{H_1^i|i=1,\ldots,r_1\}\cup\{E_1^\alpha|\alpha\in\Phi(g_1,h_1)\}$$

and

$$\{H_2^i|i=1,\ldots,r_2\}\cup\{E_2^\alpha|\alpha\in\Phi(g_2,h_2)\}$$

be Cartan-Weyl bases of g_1 and g_2 , respectively. Then

$$\tilde{H}^i = \begin{cases} H_1^i \oplus 0 & ; i = 1, \dots, r_1 \\ 0 \oplus H_2^{i-r_1} & ; i = r_1+1, \dots, r_1+r_2 \end{cases}, \quad \tilde{E}^{\gamma} = \begin{cases} E_1^{\alpha} \oplus 0 & ; \gamma = \alpha \oplus 0 \in \Phi_1 \\ 0 \oplus E_2^{\beta} & ; \gamma = 0 \oplus \beta \in \Phi_2 \end{cases}$$

is a basis of g. Let $a \oplus b \in h$ be arbitrary. Then

$$\begin{split} [a \oplus b, H_1^i \oplus 0] &= 0 \quad , \quad [a \oplus b, 0 \oplus H_2^j] = 0 \quad , \\ [a \oplus b, E_1^\alpha \oplus 0] &= [a, E_1^\alpha] \oplus 0 = (\alpha(a)E_1^\alpha) \oplus 0 = (\alpha \oplus 0)(a \oplus b) \cdot (E_1^\alpha \oplus 0) \quad , \\ [a \oplus b, 0 \oplus E_2^\beta] &= 0 \oplus [b, E_2^\beta] = 0 \oplus (\beta(b)E_2^\beta) = (0 \oplus \beta)(a \oplus b) \cdot (0 \oplus E_2^\beta) \quad . \end{split}$$

This show that all elements of $\Phi_1 \cup \Phi_2$ are indeed roots. It also shows that there are no more roots, because all basis elements \tilde{E}^{γ} are already accounted for by

the roots $\gamma \in \Phi_1 \cup \Phi_2$. Thus $\Phi(g, h) = \Phi_1 \cup \Phi_2$.

(iii) By definition,

$$(\lambda, \mu) = \kappa_a(H^{\lambda}, H^{\mu})$$

where H^{λ} is defined by

$$\lambda(a) = \kappa_a(H^{\lambda}, a)$$
 for all $a \in h$.

If $\lambda = \lambda_1 \oplus 0 \in \Phi_1$ we obtain in this way

$$H^{\lambda} = H_1^{\lambda_1} \oplus 0 \quad ,$$

since for any $a \oplus b \in h$,

$$\kappa_g(H^{\lambda}, a \oplus b) = \kappa_g(H_1^{\lambda_1} \oplus 0, a \oplus b) = \kappa_{g_1}(H_1^{\lambda_1}, a) = \lambda_1(a) = \lambda(a \oplus b) .$$

Similarly, if $\mu = 0 \oplus \mu_2 \in \Phi_2$ we get

$$H^{\mu} = 0 \oplus H_2^{\mu_2}$$
.

Thus, for $\lambda \in \Phi_1$ and $\mu \in \Phi_2$,

$$\kappa_a(H^{\lambda}, H^{\mu}) = \kappa_a(H_1^{\lambda_1} \oplus 0, 0 \oplus H_2^{\mu_2}) = 0$$

Solution for exercise 5.13:

We have $g_1 \neq \{0\}$ as $\Phi_1 \neq \{0\}$ and $g_1 \neq g$ as $\Phi_2 \neq \{0\}$. Thus if g_1 is an ideal of g it is a proper ideal of g. Let $h_1 = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(H^{\alpha}|\alpha \in \Phi_1)$ and $h_2 = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(H^{\alpha}|\alpha \in \Phi_2)$. We have to show $[g_1, g] \subset g$. Now

$$[g_1, g] = \left[h_1 \oplus \bigoplus_{\gamma \in \Phi_1} \mathbb{C}E^{\gamma} , g_0 \oplus \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \Phi_1} \mathbb{C}E^{\alpha} \oplus \bigoplus_{\beta \in \Phi_2} \mathbb{C}E^{\beta} \right]$$

$$= \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}} \left([h_1, g_0], [h_1, \mathbb{C}E^{\alpha}], [h_1, \mathbb{C}E^{\beta}], [\mathbb{C}E^{\gamma}, g_0], \right]$$

$$[\mathbb{C}E^{\gamma}, \mathbb{C}E^{\alpha}], [\mathbb{C}E^{\gamma}, \mathbb{C}E^{\beta}] \mid \alpha, \gamma \in \Phi_1, \beta \in \Phi_2 \right) .$$

Next we show that all terms enterning the span are already in g_1 , so that the span itself is in g_1 .

- $\blacksquare [h_1, g_0] = \{0\}.$
- $\bullet [h_1, \mathbb{C} E^{\alpha}] \subset \mathbb{C} E^{\alpha} \text{ as } h_1 \subset g_0 \text{ and } [H, E^{\alpha}] = \alpha(H) E^{\alpha} \text{ for all } H \in g_0.$
- $[h_1, \mathbb{C}E^{\beta}] = 0$ as any element of h_1 can be written as a linear combination of the H^{α} , $\alpha \in \Phi_1$, and $[H^{\alpha}, E^{\beta}] = \beta(H^{\alpha})E^{\beta} = (\alpha, \beta)E^{\beta} = 0$ (by assumption, $(\alpha, \beta) = 0$ for $\alpha \in \Phi_1$ and $\beta \in \Phi_2$).
- $\blacksquare [\mathbb{C}E^{\gamma}, g_0] \subset \mathbb{C}E^{\gamma} \text{ as } [H, E^{\gamma}] = \alpha(H)E^{\gamma} \text{ for all } H \in g_0.$
- $[\mathbb{C}E^{\gamma}, \mathbb{C}E^{\alpha}] \subset g_1$, since as shown in the lecture, for $\gamma, \alpha \in \Phi_1$, $\gamma + \alpha \notin \Phi_2$. this leaves $\gamma = -\alpha$, in which case $[E^{-\alpha}, E^{\alpha}] = -\frac{2}{(\alpha, \alpha)}H^{\alpha} \in g_1$, or $\gamma + \alpha \in \Phi_1$, in which case $[E^{\gamma}, E^{\alpha}] = N_{\gamma,\alpha}E^{\gamma+\alpha} \in g_1$, or $\gamma + \alpha \notin \Phi$, in which case $[E^{\gamma}, E^{\alpha}] = 0 \in g_1$.
- \blacksquare [$\mathbb{C}E^{\gamma}$, $\mathbb{C}E^{\beta}$] = {0} since we have seen in the lecture that if $\gamma \in \Phi_1$ and $\beta \in \Phi_2$,

then $\gamma + \beta$ is not a root.

Altogether we see that $[g_1, g] \subset g$ such that g_1 is a proper ideal of g.

Solution for exercise 5.14:

(i) Let $\lambda, \mu \in R$. We can then write $\lambda = \sum_{\alpha \in \Phi} c_{\alpha} \alpha$, $\mu = \sum_{\alpha \in \Phi} d_{\alpha} \alpha$ with coefficients $c_{\alpha}, d_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}$. Further,

$$(\lambda, \mu) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Phi} (\lambda, \gamma)(\mu, \gamma) = \sum_{\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \Phi} c_{\alpha} d_{\beta} (\alpha, \gamma)(\beta, \gamma) .$$

All the factors on the rhs are real, thus $(\lambda, \mu) \in \mathbb{R}$, i.e. (\cdot, \cdot) takes real values on R. Further, it is positive definite, since for $\lambda \in R$ nonzero,

$$(\lambda, \lambda) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Phi} (\lambda, \gamma)^2 > 0,$$

as (λ, γ) cannot be zero for all $\gamma \in \Phi$. [Otherwise $\lambda = 0$ since (\cdot, \cdot) is non-degenerate on g_0^* and Φ spans g_0^* over \mathbb{C} .] Thus $(\lambda, \lambda) > 0$ for all $\lambda \in R$ and $(\lambda, \lambda) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \lambda = 0$, and hence (\cdot, \cdot) is positive definite on R.

(ii) The Gram-Schmidt procedure can be used to produce from a set of vectors $\{v_1, \ldots, v_m\}$ in a real vector space V an orthonormal basis of $\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(v_1, \ldots, v_m)$ with respect to a positive-definite symmetric bilinear form $g(\cdot, \cdot)$. It proceeds recursively (compare to the solution to exercise 5.2).

■ Start with v_1 . Set $u_1 = v_1/\sqrt{g(v_1, v_1)}$ and $u_k = v_k - g(u_1, v_k)u_1$ for k = 2, ..., m. Then, again for k = 2, ..., m, $g(u_1, u_k) = g(u_1, v_k) - g(u_1, v_k)g(u_1, u_1) = 0$

■ Let $V' = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(u_2, \ldots, u_m)$. Since g is non-degenerate, and $g(u_1, v) = 0$ for all $v \in V'$, the restriction of g to V' is also non-degenerate. We can thus iterate the procedure, using the vector space V' with basis $\{u_2, \ldots, u_m\}$ as a starting point for the previous step.

Now pick a basis $\{v_1,\ldots,v_m\}$ of R (over \mathbb{R}). Use the Gram-Schmidt procedure to obtain an orthonormal basis $\{\varepsilon_1,\ldots,\varepsilon_m\}$ of R. Since $\{\varepsilon_1,\ldots,\varepsilon_m\}$ is a basis of R over \mathbb{R} , we know that if for any set of real coefficients c_1,\ldots,c_m such that $\sum_{i=1}^m c_i\varepsilon_i=0$ then we have $c_i=0$ for $i=1,\ldots,m$. Now suppose that we have a set of complex coefficients $\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_m$ such that in $g_0^*,\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i\varepsilon_i=0$. Taking the inner product with ε_i on both sides then shows that $\lambda_i=0$ for $i=1,\ldots,m$. Thus the $\{\varepsilon_1,\ldots,\varepsilon_m\}$ are linear independent also in g_0^* (over \mathbb{C}). Further, since all roots $\alpha\in\Phi$ can be expressed as linear combinations of the ε_i , we have $\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}(\varepsilon_1,\ldots,\varepsilon_m)=g_0^*$. Thus $\{\varepsilon_1,\ldots,\varepsilon_m\}$ is a basis of g_0^* . As g_0^* has dimension r, this shows also that m=r.

(iii) Set $H^i = H^{\varepsilon_i}$, i.e. the H^i are defined via $\varepsilon_i(a) = \kappa(H^i, a)$ for all $a \in g_0$. Then $\{H^1, \ldots, H^r\}$ is a basis of g_0 because $\{\varepsilon_1, \ldots, \varepsilon_r\}$ is a basis of g_0^* , and for all $\alpha \in \Phi$,

$$\alpha(H^i) = \alpha(H^{\varepsilon_i}) = (\alpha, \varepsilon_i) \in \mathbb{R}$$

as both, α and ε_i lie in R.

Solution for exercise 5.15:

(i) Note that $\alpha_{kl}(H) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i(\omega_k - \omega_l)(\mathcal{E}_{ii}) = a_k - a_l$. Then

$$[H, \mathcal{E}_{kl}] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i [\mathcal{E}_{ii}, \mathcal{E}_{kl}] = (a_k - a_l) \mathcal{E}_{kl} = \alpha_{kl}(H) \mathcal{E}_{kl}.$$

For $k \neq l$ we have $\alpha_{kl} \neq 0$ and so α_{kl} is a root.

(ii) Write a general $H \in h$ as in (i). Then

$$\kappa(H^{\alpha_{kl}}, H) = 2n \operatorname{Tr}(H^{\alpha_{kl}}H) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \left(\operatorname{Tr}(\mathcal{E}_{kk}\mathcal{E}_{ii}) - \operatorname{Tr}(\mathcal{E}_{ll}\mathcal{E}_{ii})\right)$$
$$= a_k - a_l = \alpha_{kl}(H) ,$$

as required.

(iii) By definition

$$(\alpha_{kl}, \alpha_{kl}) = \kappa(H^{\alpha_{kl}}, H^{\alpha_{kl}}) = 2n \operatorname{Tr}(H^{\alpha_{kl}} H^{\alpha_{kl}})$$
$$= \frac{1}{2n} \operatorname{Tr}((\mathcal{E}_{kk} - \mathcal{E}_{ll})(\mathcal{E}_{kk} - \mathcal{E}_{ll})) = \frac{1}{n} ,$$

and

$$[\mathcal{E}_{kl}, \mathcal{E}_{lk}] = \mathcal{E}_{kk} - \mathcal{E}_{ll} = \frac{2}{(\alpha_{kl}, \alpha_{kl})} H^{\alpha_{kl}}$$
.

- (iv) Follows from (i)–(iii).
- (v) Compute as in part (iii),

$$\begin{split} &(\alpha_{12},\alpha_{23}) = 6 \operatorname{Tr}(H^{\alpha_{12}}H^{\alpha_{23}}) = \frac{1}{6} \operatorname{Tr}((\mathcal{E}_{11} - \mathcal{E}_{22})(\mathcal{E}_{22} - \mathcal{E}_{33})) = -\frac{1}{6} ,\\ &(\alpha_{12},\alpha_{13}) = \frac{1}{6} \operatorname{Tr}((\mathcal{E}_{11} - \mathcal{E}_{22})(\mathcal{E}_{11} - \mathcal{E}_{33})) = \frac{1}{6} ,\\ &(\alpha_{23},\alpha_{13}) = \frac{1}{6} \operatorname{Tr}((\mathcal{E}_{22} - \mathcal{E}_{33})(\mathcal{E}_{11} - \mathcal{E}_{33})) = \frac{1}{6} . \end{split}$$

Together with $(\alpha_{12}, \alpha_{12}) = (\alpha_{23}, \alpha_{23}) = (\alpha_{13}, \alpha_{13}) = 1/3$ this shows that the angle between α_{12} and α_{23} is 120° , that the angle between α_{12} and α_{13} is 60° , etc. Together with $\alpha_{kl} = -\alpha_{lk}$ this gives the root diagram as shown.

Hint for exercise 5.16:

All identities follow from direct substitution into the definition

$$s_{\alpha}(\lambda) = \lambda - 2 \frac{(\alpha, \lambda)}{(\alpha, \alpha)} \alpha$$
.

For example, for any $\lambda \in g_0^*$,

$$s_{\alpha}(s_{\alpha}(\lambda)) = s_{\alpha}\left(\lambda - 2\frac{(\alpha,\lambda)}{(\alpha,\alpha)}\alpha\right) \stackrel{(1)}{=} s_{\alpha}(\lambda) - 2\frac{(\alpha,\lambda)}{(\alpha,\alpha)}s_{\alpha}(\alpha)$$

$$\stackrel{(2)}{=} \lambda - 2\frac{(\alpha,\lambda)}{(\alpha,\alpha)}\alpha - 2\frac{(\alpha,\lambda)}{(\alpha,\alpha)}(-\alpha) = \lambda \quad ,$$

where we used (1) that s_{α} is a linear map and (2) that $s_{\alpha}(\alpha) = -\alpha$. It follows that $s_{\alpha} \circ s_{\alpha} = \mathrm{id}$.

Solution for exercise 5.17:

 \blacksquare We have proved in the lecture that a Weyl reflection maps a root to a root. Since an element of the Weyl group W is a finite composition of Weyl reflections, we have

$$w(\alpha) \in \Phi$$
 for all $w \in W$, $\alpha \in \Phi$.

■ Let us number the roots in Φ by 1, 2, ..., m (with $m = \dim(g) - r$),

$$\Phi = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_m\} .$$

Let $w \in W$. For k = 1, ..., m we know that $w(\alpha_k)$ is a root. Denote the number of that root by $\pi_w(k)$. Then π_w defines a map from the set $\{1, ..., m\}$ to itself. Furthermore,

$$\alpha_k = w^{-1}(w(\alpha_k)) = w^{-1}(\alpha_{\pi_w(k)}) = \alpha_{\pi_{w^{-1}}(\pi_w(k))}$$

which shows that $\pi_{w^{-1}}(\pi_w(k)) = k$, i.e. π_w is invertible and hence a permutation: $\pi_w \in S_m$.

■ Suppose that for $w, x \in W$ we have $\pi_x = \pi_w$. Then, for k = 1, ..., m,

$$w(\alpha_k) = \alpha_{\pi_w(k)} = \alpha_{\pi_x(k)} = x(\alpha_k) .$$

Since the roots span g_0^* , a linear map from g_0^* to g_0^* is uniquely determined once we know its action on Φ . This implies that w = x.

■ The above argument shows that we obtain an injective map from W to S_m . But S_m has a finite number of elements (in fact, m!), and hence also W can only have a finite number of elements.

Solution for exercise 5.18:

The decomposition of g into root spaces (simultaneous eigenspaces of elements of the Cartan subalgebra) is

$$g = g_0 \oplus \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \Phi} g_{\alpha} .$$

We have proved that $\dim(g_{\alpha}) = 1$ for all $\alpha \in \Phi$. Further, g_0 is the Cartan subalgebra, and its dimension is by definition the rank. Thus

$$\dim(q) = r + |\Phi|$$
,

where $|\Phi|$ denote the number of elements in Φ . For the examples treated in section 5.6 this gives:

$$\frac{\theta_m}{\dim(g)} = \frac{90^\circ}{60^\circ} = \frac{45^\circ}{45^\circ} = \frac{30^\circ}{14}$$

Solution for exercise 5.19:

(i) By definition, no root lies in the hyperplane $H = \{v \in R | (v, n) = 0\}$. Thus $(n, \alpha) \neq 0$ for all $\alpha \in \Phi$. Hence either $(\alpha, n) > 0$ or $(\alpha, n) < 0$ and therefore

each root is an element either of Φ_+ or else of Φ_- .

(ii) If $\alpha \in \Phi_+$, then by definition $(\alpha, n) > 0$, where n is the normal defining the hyperplane. This is equivalent to $(-\alpha, n) < 0$, i.e. $-\alpha \in \Phi_-$. Thus of each pair of roots $\{\alpha, -\alpha\}$ one element lies in Φ_+ and one in Φ_- . This implies that $|\Phi_+| = |\Phi_-|$.

(iii) Since $\Phi_- = \{-\alpha | \alpha \in \Phi_+\}$, it is immediate that $\operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Phi_+) = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Phi_+ \cup \Phi_-)$, which together with part (i) implies the claim.

Solution for exercise 5.20:

(i) We have proved in the lecture that for any two roots $\alpha, \beta \in \Phi$ we have

$$\frac{2(\alpha,\beta)}{(\alpha,\alpha)} \in \mathbb{Z} .$$

This holds in particular for simple roots, and hence $A^{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}$.

(ii) First, $A^{ii} = \frac{2(\alpha^{(i)}, \alpha^{(i)})}{(\alpha^{(i)}, \alpha^{(i)})} = 2$ and second, if $i \neq j$ then we have stated (but not proved) in the lecture that $(\alpha^{(i)}, \alpha^{(j)}) \leq 0$. Since in addition $(\alpha, \alpha) > 0$ for all $\alpha \in \Phi$ we have, again for $i \neq j$, $A^{ij} = \frac{2(\alpha^{(i)}, \alpha^{(j)})}{(\alpha^{(j)}, \alpha^{(j)})} \leq 0$.

(iii) By assumption $i \neq j$, so that $\alpha^{(i)}$ and $\alpha^{(j)}$ are not colinear (or they would not form a basis). Then, by the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality,

$$(\alpha^{(i)}, \alpha^{(j)})^2 < (\alpha^{(i)}, \alpha^{(i)})(\alpha^{(j)}, \alpha^{(j)})$$

or, equivalently, $A^{ij}A^{ji} < 4$. Since both $A^{ij} \leq 0$ and $A^{ji} \leq 0$ it follows that $A^{ij}A^{ji} \geq 0$. Since further $A^{ij}, A^{ji} \in \mathbb{Z}$, also their product is an integer. This only leaves the possibilites $A^{ij}A^{ji} \in \{0,1,2,3\}$.

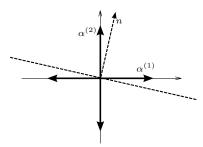
Solution for exercise 5.21:

We will show that if g is not simple, then the Dynkin diagram is not connected. Suppose thus that g is not simple. We have seen in the lecture, that in this case we can decompose the root system Φ of g as $\Phi = \Phi_1 \cup \Phi_2$ with both Φ_1 and Φ_2 not empty, and such that $(\alpha, \beta) = 0$ for all $\alpha \in \Phi_1$ and $\beta \in \Phi_2$. Set $R = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Phi)$ as well as $R_1 = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Phi_1)$ and $R_2 = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{R}}(\Phi_2)$. Then $R_1 \cap R_2 = \{0\}$ (as any element λ in the intersection has to obey $(\lambda, \lambda) = 0$). Let $\alpha^{(1)}, \ldots, \alpha^{(r)}$ be a choice of simple roots for g. Since the simple roots span R (over \mathbb{R}), they cannot all lie in R_1 . Let us number the simple roots such that $\alpha^{(1)}, \ldots, \alpha^{(s)} \in \Phi_1$ and $\alpha^{(s+1)}, \ldots, \alpha^{(r)} \in \Phi_2$, with $1 \leq s \leq r - 1$. Since $(\alpha^{(i)}, \alpha^{(j)}) = 0$ for $i \leq s$ and j > s, there is no line joining a vertex $\{1, \ldots, s\}$ to a vertex $\{s+1, \ldots, r\}$. Thus the Dynkin diagram is not connected.

Solution for exercise 5.22:

For each of the four cases, below a choice of hyperplane and the resulting set of simple roots are given. From this the Cartan matrix and the Dynkin diagram are computed.

 $\blacksquare \theta_m = 90^{\circ}$:



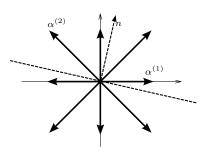
Thus $(\alpha^{(1)}, \alpha^{(2)}) = 0$ and

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A^{11} & A^{12} \\ A^{21} & A^{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

is the Cartan matrix. Consequently the Dynkin diagram is

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\bigcirc & \bigcirc \\
1 & 2
\end{array}$$

- $\theta_m = 60^{\circ}$: This is treated in detail in section 5.7 of the lecture notes.
- $\bullet \theta_m = 45^{\circ}$:



Thus $(\alpha^{(2)},\alpha^{(2)})=2$ (longest root must have length squared 2) and $(\alpha^{(1)},\alpha^{(1)})=1$ (ratio of length squared is 2). The coordinates are then $\alpha^{(1)}=(1,0)$ and $\alpha^{(2)}=(-1,1)$, so that $(\alpha^{(1)},\alpha^{(2)})=-1$. Inserting this in the definition of the Cartan matrix we find $A^{12}=-1$ and $A^{21}=-2$. Thus

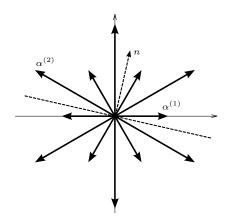
$$A = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 2 & -1 \\ -2 & 2 \end{array}\right)$$

is the Cartan matrix. Consequently the Dynkin diagram is

$$\bigcirc$$

which is the Dynkin diagram of B_2 (with a different convention for labelling simple roots as compared to theorem 5.21, but the labelling is just a choice and not part of the diagram).

 $\theta_m = 30^{\circ}$:



Thus $(\alpha^{(2)}, \alpha^{(2)}) = 2$ (longest root must have length squared 2) and $(\alpha^{(1)}, \alpha^{(1)}) = 2/3$ (ratio of length squared is 3). We also know that the angle between $\alpha^{(1)}$ and $\alpha^{(2)}$ is 150°, so that

$$(\alpha^{(1)}, \alpha^{(2)}) = \cos(150^\circ) \cdot |\alpha^{(1)}| \cdot |\alpha^{(2)}| = -\sqrt{\frac{3}{4}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \cdot \sqrt{2} = -1$$

Inserting this in the definition of the Cartan matrix we find $A^{12}=-1$ and $A^{21}=-3$. Thus

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 2 & -1 \\ -3 & 2 \end{array}\right)$$

is the Cartan matrix. Consequently the Dynkin diagram is

which is the Dynkin diagram of G_2 (with a different convention for labelling simple roots as compared to theorem 5.21).

Solution for exercise 5.23:

Using the numbering of nodes used in the lecture, as well as the standard convention for matrices

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} A^{11} & A^{12} & A^{13} & A^{14} \\ A^{21} & A^{22} & A^{23} & A^{24} \\ A^{31} & A^{32} & A^{33} & A^{34} \\ A^{41} & A^{42} & A^{43} & A^{44} \end{array}\right)$$

we find

$$A(A_4) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} , \quad A(B_4) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} ,$$

$$A(C_4) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} , \qquad A(D_4) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} ,$$

$$A(F_4) = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 2 \end{array} \right) .$$

Solution for exercise 5.24:

■ We will start by defining the 'real part' of an element in $V_{\mathbb{C}}$. Let

$$X = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{C}}((\lambda, v) | \lambda \in \mathbb{C}, v \in V)$$
,

so that $V_{\mathbb{C}} = X/W$ with W as defined in the lecture. Define a function $\tilde{R}: X \to V$ as follows. For

$$u = \lambda_1(\mu_1, v_1) + \dots + \lambda_m(\mu_m, v_m)$$

with $v_k \in V$ and $\lambda_k, \mu_k \in \mathbb{C}$, set

$$\tilde{R}(u) = \operatorname{Re}(\lambda_1 \mu_1) v_1 + \operatorname{Re}(\lambda_m \mu_m) v_m$$
.

One can check that, for $u, u' \in X$ and $r \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\tilde{R}(u+u') = \tilde{R}(u) + \tilde{R}(u')$$
 and $\tilde{R}(ru) = r\tilde{R}(u)$.

Note further that, for any $\mu \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$\tilde{R}(\mu(\lambda, r_1v_1 + r_2v_2) - \mu\lambda r_1(1, v_1) - \mu\lambda r_2(1, v_2))$$

$$= \text{Re}(\mu\lambda)(r_1v_1 + r_2v_2) - \text{Re}(\mu\lambda r_1)v_1 - \text{Re}(\mu\lambda r_2)v_2 = 0 .$$

By definition, every element of W can be written as a sum of vectors of the form as in the argument of \tilde{R} . Since $\tilde{R}(u+u')=\tilde{R}(u)+\tilde{R}(u')$ it follows that $\tilde{R}(w)=0$ for all $w\in W$. In particular $\tilde{R}(u+w)=\tilde{R}(u)$ for all $u\in X,\,w\in W$. Thus it it possible to define a map $R:V_{\mathbb{C}}\to V$ as $R(x+W)=\tilde{R}(x)$, since the rhs does not depend on the the choice of representative x of the equivalence class x+W.

■ Suppose (1, a) + i(1, b) + W = 0 + W. Then also

$$0 = R((1, a) + i(1, b) + W) = Re(1)a + Re(i)b = a$$

and, since also i((1, a) + i(1, b) + W) = 0 + W,

$$0 = R(i(1,a) - (1,b) + W) = -b ,$$

i.e. a = 0 and b = 0.

■ Any element $u \in V_{\mathbb{C}}$ can be written as a finite sum

$$u = \lambda_1(\mu_1, v_1) + \dots + \lambda_m(\mu_m, v_m) + W$$

Using the definition of W, we can rewrite u as

$$u = (\lambda_1 \mu_1, v_1) + \dots + (\lambda_m \mu_m, v_m) + W .$$

Suppose that $\lambda_k \mu_k = x_k + iy_k$ with $x_k, y_k \in \mathbb{R}$. Then we can further rewrite

$$u = (x_1 + iy_1, v_1) + \dots + (x_m + iy_m, v_m) + W$$

$$= x_1(1, v_1) + \dots + x_m(1, v_m) + iy_1(1, v_1) + \dots + iy_m(1, v_m) + W$$

$$= (1, x_1v_1 + \dots + x_mv_m) + i(1, y_1v_1 + \dots + y_mv_m) + W$$

which is of the form (1,a)+i(1,b)+W. It remains to show that a and b are unique, i.e. that if (1,a)+i(1,b)+W=(1,a')+i(1,b')+W, then a=a' and b=b'. But this follows since we have seen that (1,a-a')+i(1,b-b')+W=0+W implies a-a'=0 and b-b'=0.

Solution for exercise 5.25:

Let $B = \{(1, v_1) + W, \dots, (1, v_n) + W\}.$

■ B spans $V_{\mathbb{C}}$: Let $u \in V_{\mathbb{C}}$. By exercise 5.24 we can write u = (1, a) + i(1, b) + W. Since $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is a basis of V, we can write $a = a_1v_1 + \cdots + a_nv_n$ and $b = b_1v_1 + \cdots + b_nv_n$ for some $a_k, b_k \in \mathbb{R}$. Thus

$$u = (1, a) + i(1, b) + W$$

= $a_1(1, v_1) + \dots + a_n(1, v_n) + ib_1(1, v_1) + \dots + ib_n(1, v_n) + W$,

which shows that B spans $V_{\mathbb{C}}$ (over \mathbb{C}).

■ The elements of B are linearly independent: Let $\lambda_k \in \mathbb{C}$ be such that

$$\lambda_1(1, v_1) + \dots + \lambda_n(1, v_n) + W = 0 + W$$
.

We have to show that this implies that all λ_k are zero. Write $\lambda_k = x_k + iy_k$ with $x_k, y_k \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$0 + W = \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_k(1, v_k) + iy_k(1, v_k) + W$$

= $(1, x_1v_1 + \dots + x_nv_n) + i(1, y_1v_1 + \dots + y_nv_n) + W$

Since the decomposition of an element of $V_{\mathbb{C}}$ as (1,a)+i(1,b)+W is unique, and (1,0)+i(1,0)+W=0+W, it follows that $x_1v_1+\cdots+x_nv_n=0$ and

 $y_1v_1 + \cdots + y_nv_n = 0$. But the $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ are linearly independent. This implies that $x_k = 0$ and $y_k = 0$ for $k = 1, \dots, n$.

Solution for exercise 5.26:

 $(1)\Rightarrow(2)$: Let $\varphi:h_{\mathbb{C}}\to g$ be an isomorphism of complex Lie algebras. Let $n=\dim(h)$ (over \mathbb{R}) and let $T^a,\ a=1,\ldots,n$ be a basis of h. Then $T^a,\ a=1,\ldots,n$ is a basis of $h_{\mathbb{C}}$ (recall our shorthand notation $v\equiv(1,v)+W$). Set $\tilde{T}^a=\varphi(T^a)$. Since φ is an isomorphism, $\tilde{T}^a,\ a=1,\ldots,n$ is a basis of g. Let f^{ab}_c be the structure constants of h,

$$[T^a, T^b] = \sum_{c=1}^n f_c^{ab} T^c$$
.

Then also

$$[\tilde{T}^a, \tilde{T}^b] = [\varphi(T^a), \varphi(T^b)] = \varphi([T^a, T^b])$$

$$= \varphi(\sum_{c=1}^n f_c^{ab} T^c) = \sum_{c=1}^n f_c^{ab} \varphi(T^c) = \sum_{c=1}^n f_c^{ab} \tilde{T}^c .$$

(2) \Rightarrow (1): Define a linear map $\varphi:h_{\mathbb{C}}\to g$ on the given basis as $\varphi(T^a)=\tilde{T}^a$. Since φ maps a basis to a basis it is an isomorphism of vector spaces. Furthermore

$$\begin{split} [\varphi(T^a),\varphi(T^b)] &= [\tilde{T}^a,\tilde{T}^b] = \sum_{c=1}^n f_c^{ab} \, \tilde{T}^c \\ &= \sum_{c=1}^n f_c^{ab} \, \varphi(T^c) = \varphi(\sum_{c=1}^n f_c^{ab} \, T^c) = \varphi([T^a,T^b]) \end{split}$$

so that φ is also an isomorphism of Lie algebras.

Solution for exercise 5.27:

■ Abbreviate $\kappa \equiv \kappa_{su(2)}$. Recall from exercise 3.11 that a basis of su(2) is given in terms of the Pauli matrices as $\{T^1, T^2, T^3\}$ with $T^a = i\sigma_a$, a = 1, 2, 3. The commutation relations are $[T^a, T^b] = -2\sum_c \varepsilon_{abc} T^c$. The Killing form evaluated on T^a and T^b reads

$$\kappa(T^{a}, T^{b}) = \sum_{c=1}^{3} (T^{c})^{*}([T^{a}, [T^{b}, T^{c}]]) = \sum_{c,d=1}^{3} (-2\varepsilon_{bcd})(-2\varepsilon_{adc})$$
$$= 4\sum_{c=1}^{3} (\delta_{bc}\delta_{ca} - \delta_{ba}\delta_{cc}) = 4(\delta_{ab} - 3\delta_{ba}\delta_{cc}) = -8\delta_{a,b} .$$

This implies that $\kappa(x,x) < 0$ for all nonzero $x \in su(2)$.

■ Abbreviate $\kappa \equiv \kappa_{sl(2,\mathbb{R})}$. Consider the following basis of $sl(2,\mathbb{R})$:

$$H = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{array}\right) \ , \ E = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right) \ , \ F = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right) \ .$$

Then a calculation identical to that of exercise 4.17 shows that

$$\kappa(E, E) = 0 \; , \; \; \kappa(E, H) = 0 \; , \; \; \kappa(E, F) = 4 \; ,$$
 $\kappa(H, H) = 8 \; , \; \; \kappa(H, F) = 0 \; , \; \; \kappa(F, F) = 0 \; .$

In particular, $\kappa(H, H) > 0$, so that the Killing form of $sl(2, \mathbb{R})$ is not negative definite. (As an aside, note that $\kappa(E - F, E - F) = -2\kappa(E, F) = -8$, so that $\kappa_{sl(2,\mathbb{R})}$ is not positive-definite either.)

■ Let $\varphi : g \to h$ be an isomorphism of Lie algebras, and let $\{T^a\}$ be a basis of g. Then $\{\tilde{T}^a\}$ with $\tilde{T}^a = \varphi(T^a)$ is a basis of h. One computes, for all $x, y \in g$,

$$\kappa_h(\varphi(x), \varphi(y)) = \sum_c (\tilde{T}^c)^* ([\varphi(x), [\varphi(y), \tilde{T}^c]])$$

$$= \sum_c (T^c)^* (\varphi^{-1}([\varphi(x), [\varphi(y), \varphi(T^c)]])) = \sum_c (T^c)^* ([x, [y, T^c]]) = \kappa_g(x, y) .$$

In particular, a real Lie algebra with negative definite Killing form cannot be isomorphic to a Lie algebra which contains an element H with $\kappa(H, H) > 0$.

Hint for exercise 5.28:

First convince yourself that

$$so(n)_{\mathbb{C}}=\{M\in \mathrm{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C})\,|\,M^t+M=0\}\quad\text{and}$$

$$o(1,n-1)_{\mathbb{C}}=\{M\in \mathrm{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C})\,|\,M^tJ+JM=0\}\ .$$

Let A be the diagonal matrix A = diag(1, i, ..., i). It has the properties

$$AJA = 1$$
 . $JA^{-1} = A = A^{-1}J$.

Define a linear map $\varphi: \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C}) \to \operatorname{Mat}(n,\mathbb{C})$ as $\varphi(M) = A^{-1}MA$ and note that φ is an isomorphism (what is the inverse?). Furthermore it is easy to see that it preserves commutators (check!),

$$\varphi([M, N]) = [\varphi(M), \varphi(N)]$$
.

Now

$$M^t + M = 0 \Leftrightarrow AM^tA + AMA = 0 \Leftrightarrow AM^tA^{-1}J + JA^{-1}MA = 0$$

 $\Leftrightarrow \varphi(M)^tJ + J\varphi(M) = 0$

Thus $M \in so(n)_{\mathbb{C}}$ if and only if $\varphi(M) \in o(1, n-1)_{\mathbb{C}}$. Therefore, φ also provides an isomorphism $so(n)_{\mathbb{C}} \to o(1, n-1)_{\mathbb{C}}$. We have already checked that it is compatible with the Lie bracket.

Index

GL(V), 12

group homomorphism, 5

group of rotations of \mathbb{R}^3 , 6

abelian, for Lie algebras, 33 group, definition, 4 action, of a Lie algebra, 24 homomorphism, of Lie algebras, 21 ad-diagonalisable, 38 adjoint representation, 25 ideal, of a Lie algebra, 32 Aut(G), 5 iff, 3 automorphism of a group, 5 image, of an intertwiner, 26 injective map, 5 Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff identity, 23 intertwiner, of representations, 25 bijective map, 5 invariant bilinear form, 37 Cartan matrix, 54 invariant subspace, 26 Cartan subalgebra, 39 irreducible representation, 26 Cartan-Weyl basis, 44 isomorphic, for groups, 5 commutator, 16 isomorphic, for representations, 25 complexification, of a real Lie alg., 57 isomorphism, of Lie algebras, 21 complexification, of a real vect.sp., 56 Jacobi identity, 16 connected, for Dynkin diagrams, 55 kernel, of an intertwiner, 26 dimension, of a matrix Lie group, 16 Killing form, 34 direct product, of groups, 8 direct sum, of Lie algebras, 31 Lie algebra, definition, 15 direct sum, of representations, 31 Lie algebra, of a matrix Lie group, 16 direct sum, of vector spaces, 29 Lie bracket, 15 dual representation, 25 Lie group, definition, 3 Dynkin diagram, 54 Lie subalgebra, 16 Lorentz group, 8 E(n), 7 $\mathcal{E}(n)_{ij}$, 19 $Mat(n, \mathbb{K}), 5$ ε_{ijk} , 20 matrix Lie group, definition, 12 End(E), 16 Minkowski space, 8 endomorphism, of a vector space, 16 module, of a Lie algebra, 24 euclidean group, 7 exponential of a matrix, 14 negative root, 53 faithful, for representations, 25 O(1, n-1), 8fssc, 37 o(1, n-1), 22O(n), 6 general linear group, 5 o(n), 18ql(E), 16 orthogonal group, 6 $gl(n, \mathbb{K}), 16$ orthogonal transformation, 6 $GL(n,\mathbb{R}), 5$

P(1, n-1), 8

p(1, n-1), 22

Pauli matrices, 20 Poincaré group, 8 Poincaré algebra, 23 positive root, 53 proper ideal, 32

unitary group, 13

Weyl group, 50 Weyl reflection, 49

rank, of a Lie algebra, 39
real form, of a complex Lie algebra, 57
reductive, for Lie algebras, 33
representation map, 24
representation space, 24
representation, of a Lie algebra, 24
root diagram, 48
root space, 47
root system, 40
root, of a Lie algebra, 40

Schur's Lemma, 26 semi-simple, for Lie algebras, 33 semidirect product, 8 simple root, 53 simple, for Lie algebras, 33 $SL(n, \mathbb{K}), 14$ $sl(n, \mathbb{K}), 18$ SO(n), 6so(n), 18SP(2n), 17sp(2n), 18special linear group, 14 special orthogonal group, 6 special unitary group, 13 structure constants, of a Lie alg., 37 SU(n), 13 su(n), 18sub-representation, 26 subgroup, 7 surjective map, 5 symmetry, of physical system, 4 symplectic group, 17

tensor product, of representations, 31 tensor product, of vector spaces, 29 trivial representation, 25

U(n), 13 u(n), 18