

Remarks III.8

(1) In the two first cases $B_{\mathfrak{g}}$ is non-degenerate and hence \mathfrak{g} is semisimple.

(2) The third case is equivalent to the property that $[e, e] = 0$ since $[\frac{1}{3}, e]ce$.

Now we move to the decomposition theorem for OSL's.

Thm III.9 Let (\mathfrak{g}, θ) be an effective OSL-algebra. Then

$$\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{g}_0 \oplus \mathfrak{g}_+ \oplus \mathfrak{g}_-$$

is a direct sum of θ -stable ideals such that :

(1) the decomposition is orthogonal wrt the Killing form of \mathfrak{g} .

(2) $(\mathfrak{g}_0, \theta|_{\mathfrak{g}_0})$, $(\mathfrak{g}_+, \theta|_{\mathfrak{g}_+})$, $(\mathfrak{g}_-, \theta|_{\mathfrak{g}_-})$

are respectively OSL's of euclidean, compact and non-compact type.

We begin with a very basic construction.

Let thus $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{k} + \mathfrak{e}$ be the standard decomposition and let $U \leq GL(\mathfrak{g})$

be the compact connected subgroup with

$$\text{Lie } U = \text{ad}_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathfrak{k}).$$

Observe that since $\text{ad}_{\mathfrak{g}}(x)(\mathfrak{e}) \subset \mathfrak{e}$

we deduce that the subspace \mathfrak{e} is

U -invariant. Observe also (exercise)

that $U \leq \text{Aut } \mathfrak{g}$.

Let \langle , \rangle be an \mathcal{U} -invariant scalar product on \mathfrak{g} . Then there is $A \in \text{End}(\mathfrak{g})$ uniquely determined by

$$B_g(x, y) = \langle Ax, y \rangle \quad \forall x, y \in \mathfrak{g}.$$

Since B_g is symmetric, A is symmetric wrt \langle , \rangle .

Since $\mathcal{U} \subset \text{Aut } \mathfrak{g}$ it follows from Lemma IV.2(2) that B_g is \mathcal{U} -invariant

which reads:

$$\langle A(k(x), k(y)) \rangle = \langle Ax, y \rangle \quad \forall x, y \in \mathfrak{g} \\ \forall k \in \mathcal{U}$$

which implies:

$$A \cdot k = k \cdot A \quad \forall k \in \mathcal{U}.$$

and hence

$$A \cdot \text{ad}_g(u) = \text{ad}_g(u) \cdot A \quad \forall u \in \mathcal{U}.$$

Let f_1, \dots, f_n be an ONB consisting of eigenvectors of A with corresponding eigenvalues β_1, \dots, β_n . Define

$$e_0 := \sum_{\beta_i = 0} \mathbb{R} f_i$$

$$e_+ := \sum_{\beta_i > 0} \mathbb{R} f_i$$

$$e_- := \sum_{\beta_i < 0} \mathbb{R} f_i$$

Since V and $\text{ad}_g(z)$ commutes with A , the eigenspaces of A are V and $\text{ad}_g(z)$ invariant and so are e_0, e_+, e_- .

Lemma IV. 10.

(1) e_0 is the null space of B_g in \mathfrak{g}
that is $= \{ x \in \mathfrak{g} : B_g(x, \Gamma) = 0 \ \forall \Gamma \in \mathfrak{g} \}$.

(2) $[e_0, e] = 0$ and e_0 is an abelian ideal in \mathfrak{g} .

(3) $[e_-, e_+] = 0$.

Proof:

(1). Let $\mathfrak{g}^\perp := \{ x \in \mathfrak{g} : B_g(x, \Gamma) = 0 \ \forall \Gamma \in \mathfrak{g} \}$.

Since B_g is θ -invariant so is \mathfrak{g}^\perp .

Hence $\mathfrak{g}^\perp = (\mathfrak{g}^\perp \cap \mathfrak{u}) \oplus (\mathfrak{g}^\perp \cap \mathfrak{e})$.

Since (\mathfrak{g}, θ) is effective, by Lemma IV. 6. (2)

$B_g|_{\mathfrak{u} \times \mathfrak{u}}$ is negative definite, hence

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$y^\perp \cap u = \{0\}$ and $y^\perp \subset e$. Thus

$$y^\perp = \{x \in e : \langle Ax, y \rangle = 0 \ \forall y \in e\}$$

$$= \text{Ker } A = e_0.$$

□

(2) $[e_0, e] \subset u$. But now if

$x \in e_0, y \in e, z \in u$:

$$\begin{aligned} B_g([x, y], z) &= -B([y, x], z) \\ &= B(x, [y, z]) \\ &= \langle Ax, \underbrace{[y, z]}_e \rangle = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Since $B_g|_{u \times u} \ll 0$ this implies

$$[x, y] = 0 \quad \text{hence} \quad [e_0, e] = 0.$$

In particular $[e_0, e_0] = 0$ and

$$[e_0, g] = \underbrace{[e_0, e]}_0 + \underbrace{[e_0, u]}_{\subset e_0} \subset e_0.$$

(3) Let $x \in e_-$, $y \in e_+$, $z \in u$:

$$B([x, y], z) = -B(y, [x, z])$$

but $y \in e_-$, $[x, z] \in e_+$ hence

$$-B(y, [x, z]) = - \langle \underbrace{Ay}_{e_-}, \underbrace{[x, z]}_{e_+} \rangle = 0$$

which implies $[x, y] = 0$.



It is now natural to define:

$$u_+ := [e_+, e_+], \quad u_- := [e_-, e_-].$$

Lemma III.11: u_+ and u_- are orthogonal w.r.t $B_{\mathfrak{g}}$.

Proof: let $x_{\pm}, y_{\pm} \in e_{\pm}$.

$$B_g([x_+, \gamma_+], [x_-, \gamma_-])$$

$$= -B_g(\gamma_+, [x_+, [x_-, \gamma_-]])$$

Jacobi gives:

$$[x_+, [x_-, \gamma_-]] + [\gamma_-, \overbrace{[x_+, x_-]}^0] + [x_-, \overbrace{[\gamma_-, x_+]}^0]$$

$$= 0$$

□

Finally we define u_0 as the orthogonal complement of $u_+ \oplus u_-$ in u

wrt B_g .

Lemma III. 12

(1) u_0, u_+, u_- are ideals in u .

(2) $[u_0, e_-] = [u_0, e_+] = 0$

(3) $[u_-, e_0] = [u_-, e_+] = 0$

(4) $[u_+, e_0] = [u_+, e_-] = 0$.

Proof:

(1) recall that $\text{ad}(z)$ preserves e_+ and e_- .

Thus if $z \in \mathfrak{u}$, $x, \gamma \in e_+$:

$$\text{ad}(z)([x, \gamma]) = \underbrace{[\text{ad}(z)x, \gamma]}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ e_+}} + \underbrace{[x, \text{ad}(z)\gamma]}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ e_+}}$$

Which shows that $\mathfrak{u}_+ := [e_+, e_+]$ is

an ideal in \mathfrak{u} and so is \mathfrak{u}_- .

If now $z \in \mathfrak{u}$ and $x \in \mathfrak{u}$ is orthogonal

to $\mathfrak{u}_+ \oplus \mathfrak{u}_-$ we have $\forall \gamma \in \mathfrak{u}_+ \oplus \mathfrak{u}_-$:

$$\begin{aligned} B(\text{ad}(z)x, \gamma) &= -B(x, \underbrace{\text{ad}(z)\gamma}_{\in \mathfrak{u}_+ \oplus \mathfrak{u}_-}) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

hence \mathfrak{u}_0 is an ideal as well.

(2) $[\mathfrak{u}_0, e_-] = 0$: We know that $\text{ad}(z)$

preserves e_- , in particular $[\mathfrak{u}_0, e_-] \subset e_-$.

Now pick $z \in u_0, x, y \in e_- :$

$$B([z, x], y) = B(z, [x, y]) = 0$$

$\underbrace{[x, y]}_{\in e_-}$

Since u_0 is orthogonal to u_- . But

$B|_{e_- \times e_-}$ is non-degenerate hence $[z, x] = 0$.

The same argument gives $[u_0, e_+] = 0$.

(3) ~~Let $z \in u_-, y \in e_0 \pm e_+ :$~~

~~$B([z, x], y) =$~~

$$[u_+, e_0] = [[e_+, e_+], e_0]$$

$$\underset{\text{Jacobi}}{\subset} [e_+, [e_+, e_0]] = 0$$

(by Lemma III. 10. (2))

and $[u_+, e_-] = [[e_+, e_+], e_-]$

$$\subset [e_+, [e_+, e_-]] = 0$$

Jacobi

(by Lemma III. 10. (3))

□

Corollary III.13

(1) e_0 is an abelian ideal in \mathfrak{g} .

(2) $\mathfrak{u}_0 \oplus e_0$, $\mathfrak{u}_- \oplus e_-$, $\mathfrak{u}_+ \oplus e_+$

are ideals in \mathfrak{g} and pairwise orthogonal.

Proof:

(1) is Lemma III.10. (2)

(2) We know that $e = e_0 \oplus e_- \oplus e_+$

and $\mathfrak{u} = \mathfrak{u}_0 \oplus \mathfrak{u}_- \oplus \mathfrak{u}_+$ are orthogonal

decompositions. The orthogonality statement

follows then from the fact that $\mathfrak{g} = e + e$

is an orthogonal decomposition.

$\mathfrak{u}_0 \oplus e_0$: We know (Lemma III.10) that

e_0 is an ideal in \mathfrak{g} and (Lemma III.12)

that \mathfrak{u}_0 is an ideal in \mathfrak{u} .

It remains to check what happens with

$[u_0, e]$: now $\text{ad}_y(u)$ preserves the

decomposition $e_0 \oplus e_- \oplus e_+$ and hence

$[u_0, e_0] \subset e_0$. Furthermore III.12 (2)

gives $[u_0, e_- \oplus e_+] = 0$, which

implies $[u_0, e] \subset e_0$ and proves that

$u_0 + e_0$ is an ideal in \mathfrak{g} .

$u_- \oplus e_-$:

We compute $[u_- + e_-, \mathfrak{g}]$:

$$[u_- + e_-, u] \subset \underbrace{[u_-, u]}_{\subset u_-} + \underbrace{[e_-, u]}_{\subset e_-}$$

(IV.12.(1))

$$\subset u_- + e_-.$$

$$[u_- + e_-, e] \subset [u_-, e] + [e_-, e]$$

$$\text{But } [u_-, e] \subset \underbrace{[u_-, e_-]}_{\subset e_-} + \underbrace{[u_-, e_0 + e_+] = 0}_{\text{by IV.12(3)}}$$

Thus: $[u_-, e] \subset e_-$.

Finally: $[e_-, e] \subset [e_-, e_-] + [e_-, e_0] + [e_-, e_+]$

By definition $u_- = [e_-, e_-]$; and

$[e_-, e_0] = 0$ by III. 10 (2) while $[e_-, e_+] = 0$

by III. 10. (3).

The argument for $u_+ + \mathfrak{g}_+$ is the same.

□

Now we proceed to the definition of the decomposition as announced in the Theorem II. 9.

Observe that $\mathfrak{g}_\pm = u_\pm \oplus e_\pm \neq 0$

$\mathfrak{P} \ e_\pm \neq 0$ in which case $u_\pm \neq 0$

since otherwise the Killing form of \mathfrak{g}_\pm

would be identically zero.

It can however happen that $e_0 = 0$ but $u_0 \neq 0$ in which case $\mathfrak{g}_0 = \mathfrak{u}_0$ is not a good definition since the restriction of Θ to \mathfrak{g}_0 would be the identity. Thus we proceed as follows by distinguishing cases:

(1) $e_0 \neq 0$: we define

$\mathfrak{g}_0 = \mathfrak{u}_0 + \mathfrak{e}_0$, $\mathfrak{g}_- = \mathfrak{u}_- + \mathfrak{e}_-$, $\mathfrak{g}_+ = \mathfrak{u}_+ + \mathfrak{e}_+$
and the involutions

$$\Theta_\mu := \Theta|_{\mathfrak{g}_\mu}, \quad \mu \in \{0, +, -\}.$$

Then Θ_μ is an involution on \mathfrak{g}_μ .

(2) $e_0 = 0, e_- \neq 0$:

$$\mathfrak{g}_0 = 0, \quad \mathfrak{g}_- = \mathfrak{u}_0 \oplus \mathfrak{u}_- \oplus \mathfrak{e}_-$$

$$\mathfrak{g}_+ = \mathfrak{u}_+ \oplus \mathfrak{e}_+.$$

and \mathfrak{g}_+ are just obtained by restricting

(2) to \mathfrak{g}_+ .

$$(3) \underline{e_0 = 0, e_- = 0}$$

Then $\mathfrak{g}_0 = 0, \mathfrak{g}_- = 0$ and

$$\mathfrak{g}_+ = u_0 \oplus u_+ \oplus e_+$$

Now we have to verify that $\mathfrak{g}_0, \mathfrak{g}_-, \mathfrak{g}_+$ have the desired type.

First $\mathfrak{g}_0 = u_0 + e_0$ is of euclidean

type since by lemma IV.10 e_0 is an

abelian ideal in \mathfrak{g} hence in \mathfrak{g}_0 .

We know by definition that $B_{\mathfrak{g}}$ is

negative definite on e_- and positive

definite on e_+ . What remains to be

seen is that the Killing form of \mathfrak{g}_+

coincides with the restriction of the Killing form of \mathfrak{g} ! This follows from the following general fact:

Lemma III.14 :

If \mathfrak{g} is a Lie algebra and $\mathfrak{r} \triangleleft \mathfrak{g}$ an ideal we have: $B_{\mathfrak{r}} = B_{\mathfrak{g}}|_{\mathfrak{r} \times \mathfrak{r}}$.

This is left as an exercise in linear algebra.

Finally we also leave as an exercise to verify that in each case

$\mathfrak{u}_0, \mathfrak{u}_-, \mathfrak{u}_+$ are compactly embedded in resp. $\mathfrak{g}_0, \mathfrak{g}_-, \mathfrak{g}_+$.

So far we have introduced three categories of objects:

1. Symmetric spaces $M \ni o$

2. Riemannian symmetric pair (G, K)

3. Orthogonal symmetric Lie algebra $(\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{q})$.

For OSL's we proved a decomposition theorem for effective OSL's. If now

(G, K) is a Riemannian symmetric pair

and $\mathfrak{g} = \text{Lie } G$, $\mathfrak{q} = \mathfrak{d}_o$ or the

associated OSL, then:

$$\mathbb{Z}(\mathfrak{g}) \cap \mathfrak{q} = \text{Lie}(\mathbb{Z}(G) \cap K)$$

and thus $(\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{q})$ is effective iff

$\mathbb{Z}(G) \cap K$ is discrete. Accordingly

We define

Def. III. 15 A RSP (G, K) is effective if $Z(G) \cap K$ is discrete.

Now we observe the following simple

Lemma III. 16.

Let $G = IS(M)^0$, $K = \text{Stab}_G(o)$.

If $N \triangleleft G$ is a normal subgroup of G contained in K , then $N = e$.

In particular (G, K) is effective.

Proof: We have $gKg^{-1} = \text{Stab}_G(g \cdot o)$

and thus if $N \subset K$ and is normal in G ,

We get $N \subset \bigcap_{g \in G} gKg^{-1} = \bigcap_{m \in M} \text{Stab}_G(m) = \{e\}$.

Observe now that ~~$Z(G)$~~ any subgroup of $Z(G)$ is normal in G and hence

$Z(G) \cap K = \{e\}$. \square

Def. III. 17 : An effective RSP (G, K)

is said of compact, non-compact, euclidean type if the corresponding OSZ is.

In view of lemma III. 16. the following definition then makes sense:

Def. III. 18 : A Riemannian symm. space

M is said of ~~the~~ compact, non-compact, euclidean type if the corresponding RSP

$(IS(M)^\circ, Stob(0))$ is.

With the help of some basic Lie theory

We can now globalize Thm III. 9:

Thm III.9. Let M be a simply connected Riemannian symmetric space.

Then M is the Riemannian product

$$M_0 \times M_- \times M_+$$

of symmetric spaces of non-compact, compact and non-compact type.

Proof: Let $G = \text{Is}(M)^\circ$, $K = \text{Stab}_G(o)$,

$\sigma(g) = J_o g J_o$ and $\mathfrak{g} = \text{Lie } G$, $\mathfrak{m} = D_o \sigma$

the associated \mathfrak{sl}_2 . Since $(\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{m})$ is

effective we can apply Thm III.9 and

get $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{g}_0 \oplus \mathfrak{g}_- \oplus \mathfrak{g}_+$

the decomposition into types.

Let G_0, G_-, G_+ be the Lie subgroups of G

corresponding to $\mathfrak{g}_0, \mathfrak{g}_-, \mathfrak{g}_+$.

We observe that G_0, G_-, G_+ are normal subgroups of G and that all their pairwise intersections are discrete.

Now observe: ~~$G \supset G_0 \supset G_\pm$~~

$$[G_\alpha, G_\beta] \subset G_\alpha \cap G_\beta \quad \alpha \neq \beta$$

and since $[G_\alpha, G_\beta]$ is connected (why?)

and $G_\alpha \cap G_\beta$ discrete, we conclude

$$[G_\alpha, G_\beta] = \{e\} \quad \forall \alpha \neq \beta.$$

Thus the map

$$\begin{aligned} G_0 \times G_- \times G_+ &\xrightarrow{\psi} G \\ (x, y, z) &\longmapsto x \cdot y \cdot z \end{aligned}$$

is a homomorphism which on the level of

Lie algebras induces:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{g}_0 \times \mathfrak{g}_- \times \mathfrak{g}_+ &\xrightarrow{D\psi} \mathfrak{g} \\ (x, y, z) &\longmapsto x + y + z \end{aligned}$$

an isomorphism. Hence by classical Lie theory we get that the lift of γ to the universal coverings:

$$\tilde{\gamma} : \tilde{G}_0 \times \tilde{G}_- \times \tilde{G}_+ \rightarrow \tilde{G}$$

is a Lie group isomorphism, which at the level of Lie algebras induces $D_e \gamma$.

Let $p : \tilde{G} \rightarrow G$ be the covering homomorphism. Then

$$\frac{\tilde{G}}{(\tilde{p}^{-1}(K))^\circ} \longrightarrow \frac{\tilde{G}}{\tilde{p}^{-1}(K)} \cong G/K \cong M$$

is a connected covering of M and since M is simply connected this implies

$$\tilde{p}^{-1}(K) \cong (\tilde{p}^{-1}(K))^\circ$$

is connected. Thus $\tilde{p}^{-1}(K) < \tilde{G}$ is

the Lie subgroup associated to $\mathfrak{h} \subset \mathfrak{g}$.

Let then K_0, K_-, K_+ be the Lie subgroups of $\tilde{G}_0, \tilde{G}_-, \tilde{G}_+$ corresponding to $\mathfrak{k}_0 \subset \mathfrak{g}_0, \mathfrak{k}_- \subset \mathfrak{g}_-, \mathfrak{k}_+ \subset \mathfrak{g}_+$. Then

$K_0 \times K_- \times K_+$ is the Lie subgroup of $\tilde{G}_0 \times \tilde{G}_- \times \tilde{G}_+$ corresponding to $\mathfrak{k}_0 \times \mathfrak{k}_- \times \mathfrak{k}_+$

and since $\tilde{\Psi}$ is a Lie group isomorphism

this implies $\tilde{\Psi}(K_0 \times K_- \times K_+) = \tilde{p}^{-1}(K)$

in particular K_0, K_-, K_+ are closed

subgroups of $\tilde{G}_0, \tilde{G}_-, \tilde{G}_+$. One

verifies that $(\tilde{G}_0, K_0), (\tilde{G}_-, K_-), (\tilde{G}_+, K_+)$

are Riemannian symmetric pairs by lifting

σ to \tilde{G} . Finally the diffeomorphism

$\tilde{\Psi}$ induces a $\tilde{\Psi}$ -equivariant diffeom.

$$\tilde{G}_0 / K_0 \times \tilde{G}_- / K_- \times \tilde{G}_+ / K_+ \longrightarrow \tilde{G} / \tilde{p}^{-1}(K) = M.$$

