

1. Introduction.

The origins of Lie theory are geometric and stem from Felix Klein's ⁽¹⁸⁴⁹⁻¹⁹²⁵⁾ work

called Erlangen programm that the geometry of a space is determined by its group of symmetries.

In practice the geometry M and its group of symmetries G have a manifold structure and moreover the

action $\alpha: G \times M \rightarrow M$ is

smooth. This way every tangent

vector $X \in T_e M$ gives rise to a

smooth vector field on M :

pick a point $p \in M$, look at the

derivative at $e \in G$ of the action

map $\alpha: G \rightarrow M, g \mapsto g \cdot p$ and

take the image of X to obtain a

tangent vector $D_e \alpha_p(X) \in T_p M$.

This is ⁽¹⁸⁴²⁻¹⁸⁹⁵⁾ Lie's viewpoint to look at the

action infinitesimally. This way we

obtain a finite dimensional vector

space of smooth vector fields that

is closed under the bracket operation:

that is a Lie algebra. The smooth

action is thus encoded infinitesimally

by an algebraic object called Lie algebra.

It is Wilhelm Killing (1847-1923) who

insisted that one should thus classify ~~and~~ ^{all} finite dimensional Lie algebras.

The notion of Lie algebra of a Lie group G is obtained by applying the above construction to G acting by right translations on itself.

The structure of the course is as follows:

Chapter 2: Topological groups; homogeneous spaces and invariant measures.

Chapter 3: Lie groups and their Lie algebras: correspondence between subalgebras and subgroups.

Chapter 4: Structure theory.

In structure theory we will see that a general Lie algebra can be decomposed into two pieces, one a solvable algebra, the other semisimple. Semisimple algebras were eventually classified by E. Cartan (1869-1951) in terms of combinatorial data.

2. Topological groups.

2.1. Definitions and examples.

Def. 2.1 A topological group is a group G whose underlying set is endowed with a topology such that the multiplication

$$m: G \times G \rightarrow G \\ (g, h) \mapsto g \cdot h$$

and the inverse

$$i: G \rightarrow G \\ g \mapsto g^{-1}$$

are continuous maps.

In the above definition $G \times G$ is endowed with the product topology.

Elementary consequences 2.2.

(i) Since the inverse $i: G \rightarrow G$ is continuous and $i \circ i = \text{id}$, it follows that i is a homeomorphism.

(ii) For every $g \in G$, the left translation
$$L_g : G \rightarrow G$$
$$x \mapsto gx$$

and the right translation

$$R_g : G \rightarrow G$$
$$x \mapsto xg$$

are continuous. Moreover,

$$L_g \circ L_{g^{-1}} = L_{g^{-1}} \circ L_g = \text{id} \quad , \quad R_{g^{-1}} \circ R_g = R_g \circ R_{g^{-1}} = \text{id}$$

and hence L_g and R_g are homeomorphisms.

(iii) Let $\varphi: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ be a homomorphism of top. groups. The condition

$$\varphi(g \cdot h) = \varphi(g) \varphi(h) \quad \forall g, h \in G_1$$

can also be equivalently expressed by the commutativity of the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} G_1 & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & G_2 \\ L_{g^{-1}} \uparrow & & \downarrow L_{\varphi(g)} \\ G_1 & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & G_2 \end{array}$$

Which implies that if φ is continuous at e , it is continuous at every $g \in G_1$.

(iv) A subgroup $H \leq G$ of a topological group G is a topological group when equipped with the induced topology.

(v) Given topological groups G_α , $\alpha \in A$
the cartesian product $\prod_{\alpha \in A} G_\alpha$ with
product topology is a top. group.

(vi) $H \triangleleft G$ a normal subgroup of a
topological group then the quotient G/H
with quotient topology is a topological group.

We will say more about quotients in
section 2.5.2 on homogeneous spaces.

Let us turn to examples.

Example 2.3: any group G with the discrete
topology.

Example 2.4: \mathbb{R}^n with euclidean topology
and addition $+$.

Example 2.5 The multiplicative groups \mathbb{R}^\times and \mathbb{C}^\times of the fields \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} .

Example 2.6. Let $M_{n,n}(\mathbb{R})$ be the space of $n \times n$ real matrices with euclidean topology. Then the matrix product $(A, B) \mapsto A \cdot B$ is clearly continuous. The subset

$$GL(n, \mathbb{R}) := \left\{ A \in M_{n,n}(\mathbb{R}) : \det A \neq 0 \right\}$$

is open; it is a group ~~is~~ with neutral element Id , as the inverse of A is given by $(A^{-1})_{ij} = \frac{\det M_{i,j}}{\det A}$

where $M_{i,j}$ is the cofactor matrix.

With this we see that $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ is a topological group.

Given a locally compact Hausdorff space X it is natural to endow its group of homeomorphisms $\text{Homeo}(X)$ with the compact open topology. It ~~is~~ is then not necessarily a topological group, see Chapter 2 exercise 8 b) in Togg's notes. It is so if X is compact, see 8 a).

Example 2.7

If X locally compact Hausdorff and locally connected, then $\text{Homeo}(X)$ is a top. group. This holds for instance if X is a manifold.

Another important source of top. groups is:

Example 2.8 Let (X, d) be a proper metric space, that is one in which all closed balls of finite radius are compact. Then its group of isometries $\text{Iso}(X) := \{ f: X \rightarrow X : \text{bijection with } d(f(x), f(y)) = d(x, y) \ \forall x, y \in X \}$ with compact open topology is a topological group.

For example if $X = \mathbb{R}^n$ with euclidean distance $\text{Iso}(X) = O(n, \mathbb{R}) \times \mathbb{R}^n$.

We may also choose X to be the set of vertices of a regular tree T_d of valency d with the combinatorial distance.

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While $\text{Iso}(T_d)$, $d \geq 3$ is not related to any Lie group in any sense, the study of its closed subgroups is a very active domain of research.

Example 2.9 : The ring of p -adic integers $\mathbb{Z}_p = \varprojlim \mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z}$ and its fraction field $\mathbb{Q}_p = \mathbb{Z}_p[\frac{1}{p}]$. Then

\mathbb{Q}_p is a locally compact non-discrete field. (See Example 2.10 in Iozzi's notes).

Example 2.10 The following subgroups of the topological group $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ ~~with~~ play an important role in its structure theory.

$$(i) A = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} : \lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}_+^x \right\}$$

is a closed subgroup isomorphic to $(\mathbb{R}_+^x)^n$ as topological group.

(ii) The group of strictly upper triangular matrices

$$N = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & x \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1 \end{pmatrix} : x \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

is a closed subgroup of $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$;

it is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ for $n=2$

and non-abelian for $n \geq 3$.

(iii) The group $K = O(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{A \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) : A^t A = I\}$ of orthogonal matrices is a closed subgroup of $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$.

Notice that the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization procedure can be formulated as follows: every $g \in GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ can be uniquely written as

$$g = k \cdot a \cdot n$$

with $k \in O(n, \mathbb{R})$, $a \in A$, $n \in N$.

In fact the product map

$$K \times A \times N \rightarrow GL(n, \mathbb{R})$$

$$(k, a, n) \mapsto k \cdot a \cdot n$$

is a homeomorphism. In general Lie

theory this is the Iwasawa decomposition.

Linear algebra provides us with a plethora of topological groups, as the following examples show:

Example 2.11 ~~Let~~ Consider the

bilinear symmetric form on \mathbb{R}^n :

$$B(x, y) := - \sum_{i=1}^p x_i y_i + \sum_{j=p+1}^n x_j y_j$$

$$= {}^t_x \begin{pmatrix} -\text{Id}_p & 0 \\ 0 & \text{Id}_q \end{pmatrix} y$$

where $n = p + q$. This is the symmetric non-degenerate bilinear form of signature

(p, q) . The group $O(p, q)$

$$= \left\{ g \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) : g \text{ preserves } B \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ g \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) : {}^t_x \begin{pmatrix} -\text{Id}_p & 0 \\ 0 & \text{Id}_q \end{pmatrix} g = \begin{pmatrix} -\text{Id}_p & 0 \\ 0 & \text{Id}_q \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

is a closed subgroup of $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$.

Example 2.12 As in Example 2.6

one defines

$$GL(n, \mathbb{C}) = \left\{ X \in M_{n,n}(\mathbb{C}) : \det X \neq 0 \right\}.$$

It is an open subset of the finite dimensional \mathbb{C} -vector space $M_{n,n}(\mathbb{C})$ and with induced topology it becomes a topological group.

Let for $X \in M_{n,n}(\mathbb{C})$ define

$$X^* = \overline{X}^t. \text{ Then we define}$$

as in 2.10:

$$A = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} : \lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}_+^* \right\}$$

$$N = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1 \end{pmatrix} : * \in \mathbb{C} \right\}$$

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$$U(n) := \{ g \in GL(n, \mathbb{C}) : gg^* = I_n \}$$

the latter being the unitary group.

Then the Iwasawa decomposition

$$K \times A \times N \longrightarrow GL(n, \mathbb{C})$$

$$(k, a, n) \longmapsto k \cdot a \cdot n$$

holds as well.

Example 2.13 Very often one restricts

to matrices of determinant 1; this

leads then to closed subgroups of

the linear group defined so far.

$$\text{Namely: } SL(n, \mathbb{R}) = \left\{ g \in GL(n, \mathbb{R}) : \det g = 1 \right\}$$

$$SO(p, q) = O(p, q) \cap SL(n, \mathbb{R})$$

$$SL(n, \mathbb{C}) = \{ g \in GL(n, \mathbb{C}) : \det g = 1 \}$$

$$SU(n) = U(n) \cap SL(n, \mathbb{C}).$$

2.2. Compactness and Local Compactness.

Local compactness imposes a sharp divide between top. groups that are and the others, mainly due to the existence of Haar measure in the former case. Recall:

Def. 2.14 a topological space X is locally compact if every point admits a compact neighborhood.

For us the salient fact will be

Fact 2.15 a Hausdorff space X is locally compact iff every point admits a fundamental system of compact neighborhoods.

Of course not every subspace of a locally compact space is locally compact.

The following criterion is very useful

Fact 2.16 Let X be l.c. Hausdorff.

Then $Y \subset X$ is l.c. iff it is open in its closure.

With this at hand we are going to analyze our examples so far and add some new ones.

Clearly G with discrete topology
(2.3); $(\mathbb{R}^n, +)$ (2.4); $\mathbb{R}^x, \mathbb{C}^x$ (2.5)

are locally compact Hausdorff. So is

(2.6) $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ since it is an open subset of $M_{n,n}(\mathbb{R})$; In Example 2.7

if M is a manifold with $\dim M \geq 1$
then $\text{Homeo}(M)$ is not l.c. (exercise)

Example 2.17 Let $G_\alpha, \alpha \in A$ be
a set of ^{Hausdorff} topological groups. Then

(i) $\prod_{\alpha \in A} G_\alpha$ is compact iff G_α is
compact $\forall \alpha \in A$.

(ii) $\prod_{\alpha \in A} G_\alpha$ is locally compact iff

all G_α 's are l.c. AND all G_α are
compact except finitely many.

Example 2.18 (see Example 2.8)

If (X, d) is a proper metric space
then $\text{Iso}(X)$ is locally compact
and if X is compact, $\text{Iso}(X)$ is also.

All this follows from the following version of Arzela - Ascoli: : if (X, d) is any metric space then $\mathcal{F} \subset C(X, X)$ (continuous maps $X \rightarrow X$) has compact closure if \mathcal{F} is equicontinuous and for every $x \in X$, the set $\{f(x) : f \in \mathcal{F}\}$ has compact closure.

It is instructive to look more closely at the locally compact group $\text{Iso}(T_d)$. (exercise).

Example 2.19 A, N and K are closed subgroups of $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ hence locally compact. In addition

We claim that $O(n)$ is compact.

Indeed $O(n)$ is the inverse image of Id by the continuous map

$$\begin{aligned} M_{n,n}(\mathbb{R}) &\longrightarrow M_{n,n}(\mathbb{R}) \\ A &\longmapsto A^t A \end{aligned}$$

hence closed in $M_{n,n}(\mathbb{R})$. Writing

a matrix X as $X = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$, X_i column

vectors the condition $A^t A = \text{Id}$ implies

$$\|X_i\|^2 = 1, \text{ hence } \sum_{i=1}^n \|X_i\|^2 = n \text{ which}$$

implies $O(n)$ is a bounded subset

of $M_{n,n}(\mathbb{R})$; being also closed this

implies compactness by Heine-Borel.

Example 2.20

We mentioned (Ex. 2.18) that $O(p, q)$ is a closed subgroup of $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$.

When either $p = n$ or $q = n$ we have

$$O(n, 0) = O(n, \mathbb{R}) = O(0, n) \text{ hence is}$$

compact. In all other case we have

$p \geq 1$ and $q \geq 1$, and we claim that

$O(p, q)$ is non-compact. To get an

idea why this is so we compute

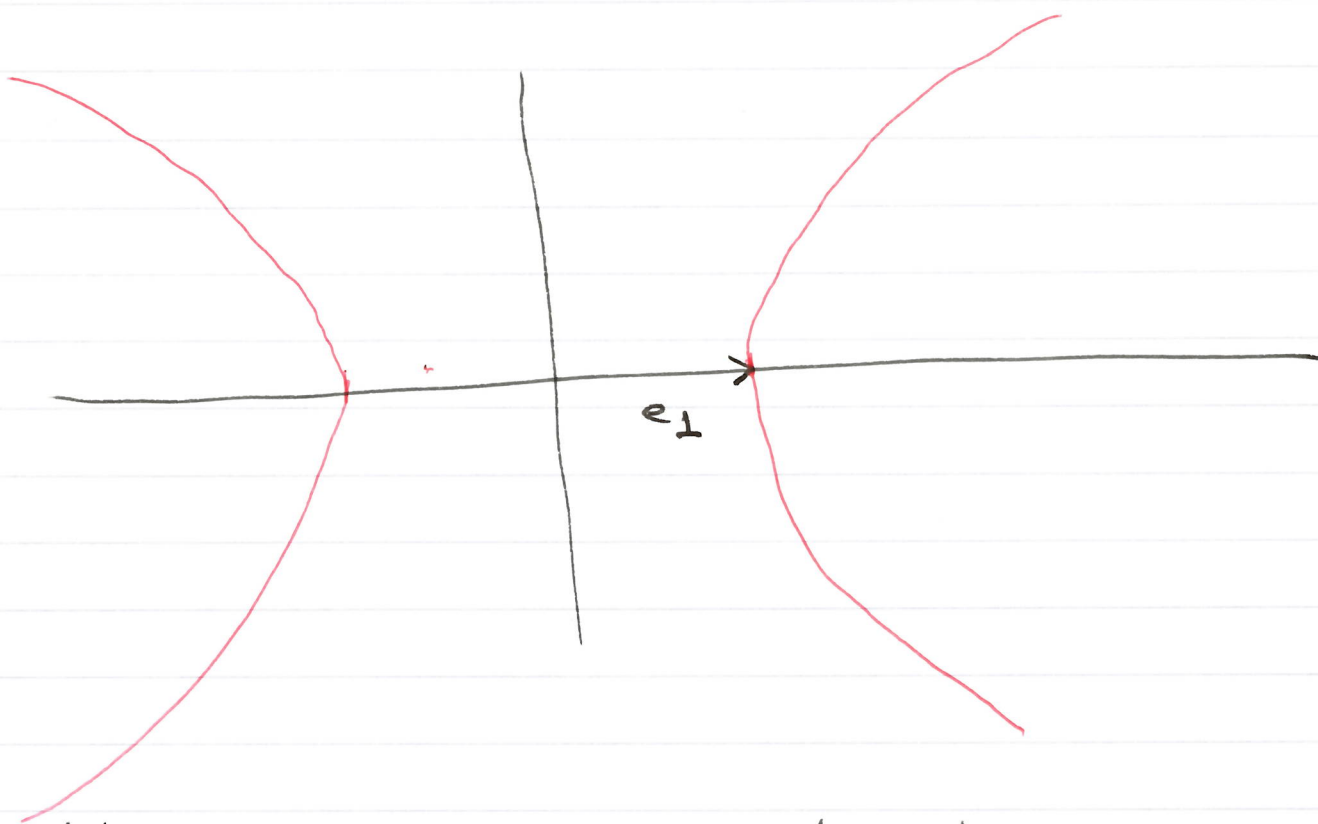
explicitly $SO(1, 1)$ which is a closed

subgroup of $O(1, 1)$, in fact of index

two.

$$SO(1, 1) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ y & x \end{pmatrix} : \begin{array}{l} x^2 - y^2 = 1 \\ x, y \in \mathbb{R} \end{array} \right\}$$

The orbit of e_1 under $SO(1,1)$ is



We can parametrize the hyperbola containing e_1 by $t \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \cosh t \\ \sinh t \end{pmatrix}, t \in \mathbb{R}$ and in fact (exercise)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{R} &\longrightarrow SO(1,1) \\ t &\longmapsto \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \cosh t & \sinh t \\ \sinh t & \cosh t \end{pmatrix} : t \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

is a continuous group homomorphism identifying \mathbb{R} topologically with $SO(1,1)^\circ$

the connected component of $SO(n,1)$ containing Id .

Exercise: use $p \geq 1, q \geq 1$ to inject \mathbb{R} isomorphically to a closed subgroup of $O(p, q)$.

Example 2.21: (see Fogzi's notes Example 2.24 for details).

Let \mathcal{H} be a complex Hilbert space.

One can endow the group $U(\mathcal{H})$ of unitary operators with the strong operator topology; a basis of open sets is given by

$$U(T; u_1, \dots, u_n; \varepsilon) = \left\{ S \in U(\mathcal{H}) : \|S u_i - T u_i\| \leq \varepsilon, 1 \leq i \leq n \right\}$$

One verifies that $U(\mathcal{K})$ is a topological group and: (see Lemma 2.2. in \mathbb{I}_{033i}),

$U(\mathcal{K})$ is locally compact $\Leftrightarrow \dim \mathcal{K} < +\infty$
in which case it is compact.

2.3. General facts about topological groups.

Recall some facts about connectedness in topological spaces. A topological space is connected if it cannot be written as disjoint union of two proper open subsets. Recall:

- the closure of a connected subset is connected

- the continuous image of a connected set is connected.

Given a top. space X the relation $x \sim y$ iff $\{x, y\} \subset$ connected subset

is an equivalence relation and its equivalence classes are called the connected components of X . They are the maximal connected subsets.

We have:

Prop. 2.22 Let G be a topological group then the following hold:

- (i) If $H \leq G$ is a subgroup so is \overline{H} .
- (ii) If $H \leq G$ is open then it is closed.
- (iii) The connected component G^0 of G containing the neutral element e is a closed normal subgroup.
- (iv) If G is connected and $U \ni e$ a neighborhood of e then $\bigcup_{n \geq 1} U^n = G$.

(v) If G is connected and $N \triangleleft G$ is discrete normal, then N is contained in the center $Z(G)$ of G .

Notation :- given subset A_1, \dots, A_n in G

$$A_1 \cdots A_n = \{ a_1 \cdots a_n : a_i \in A_i \}$$

- given $U \subset G$,

$$U^n := \{ u_1 \cdots u_n : u_i \in U ; 1 \leq i \leq n \}$$

$$U^{-1} := \{ u^{-1} : u \in U \}$$

- we say a subset $V \subset G$ is symmetric if $V^{-1} = V$.

Lemma 2.23

(i) If $U \ni e$ is a neighborhood of e there exists $V \ni e$ symmetric open with $V \subset U$.

(ii) Let $U \ni e$ be a neighborhood of e .

Then there is $V \ni e$ open symmetric

with $V^2 = V^{-1} \cdot V \subset U$.

Proof: (i) Let $e \in W \subset U$ with W

open. Then $W^{-1} = i(W) \ni e$ is open

and $V := W \cap W^{-1} \ni e$ is open symmetric

with $V \subset U$.

(ii) $m: G \times G \rightarrow G$ being

continuous at (e, e) there is $W \ni e$

neighborhood of e such that

$$W^2 = m(W \times W) \subset U.$$

Now (by (i)) take $V \ni e$ open symm.

with $V \subset W$. \square

Proof of Prop 2.22.

(i) Since m is continuous

$$m(\overline{H \times H}) \subset \overline{m(H \times H)} = \overline{H}$$

and thus $m(\overline{H} \times \overline{H}) \subset \overline{H}$.

Since $i: G \rightarrow G$ is a homeo we get

from $i(H) = H$ that $i(\overline{H}) = \overline{H}$

hence \overline{H} is a subgroup.

(ii) Let R be a set of representatives of G/H with $R \ni e$. Then

$$G = H \sqcup \bigsqcup_{r \in R \setminus \{e\}} r \cdot H$$

since $r \cdot H = \bigcup_r (H)$, $r \cdot H$ is open and

so, is $\bigsqcup_{r \in R \setminus \{e\}} r \cdot H$ hence H is closed.

(iii) We have $G^\circ \times G^\circ \ni (e, e)$ is connected hence $m(G^\circ \times G^\circ) \ni e$ is and hence $m(G^\circ \times G^\circ) \subset G^\circ$.

Since i is a homeo and $i(e) = e$ we get $i(G^\circ) = G^\circ$. This shows that G° is a subgroup.

Since $\overline{G^\circ} \supset G^\circ \ni e$ is connected, we have by maximality of G° that $\overline{G^\circ} = G^\circ$, hence is closed.

Let $\forall g \in G : \text{int}(g) : G \rightarrow G$
 $x \mapsto gxg^{-1}$

which is clearly continuous. Since

$\text{int}(g)(e) = e$ we get $\text{int}(g)(G^\circ) \subset G^\circ$

hence G° is normal in G .

(iv) Let $V = V^{-1} \ni e$ open with $V \in \mathcal{U}$. Then

$$H := \bigcup_{n \geq 1} V^n \subset \bigcup_{n \geq 1} U^n.$$

One verifies that H is a subgroup; in addition each V^n is open hence H is an open subgroup hence closed.

This implies $H = G$ and hence $\bigcup_{n \geq 1} U^n = G$.

(v) Let $N \triangleleft G$ be discrete, normal.

Then, $\forall n \in N$ the continuous

$$\begin{aligned} \text{map } G &\longrightarrow N \\ g &\longmapsto g^n j^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

has connected image containing n ; since N is discrete, this image is $\{n\}$ hence $N \subset Z(G)$. \square