DEFINITION OF A LIE ALGEBRA

k is a fixed field. Let L be a k-vector space (or vector space). We say that L is a k-algebra (or algebra) if we are given a bilinear map $L \times L \to L$ denoted $(x, y) \mapsto xy$. If L, L' are algebras, an algebra homomorphism $f: L \to L'$ is a linear map such that f(xy) = f(x)f(y) for all x, y. We say that f is an algebra isomorphism if it is an algebra homomorphism and a vector space isomorphism. In this case $f^{-1}: L' \to L$ is an algebra isomorphism. If L is an algebra, a subset $L' \subset L$ is a subalgebra if it is a vector subspace and $x \in L', y \in L' \implies xy \in L'$. Then L' is itself an algebra in an obvious way. If L is an algebra, a subset $I \subset L$ is an ideal if it is a vector subspace; $x \in L, y \in I \implies xy \in I; x \in I, y \in L \implies xy \in I$. Then I is a subalgebra. Moreover, the quotient vector space V/I is an algebra with multiplication (x + I)(y + I = xy + I). (Check that this is well defined.) The canonical map $L \to L/I$ is an algebra homomorphism then ker $(f) = f^{-1}(0)$ is an ideal of L.

We say that the algebra L is a Lie algebra if

(a) xx = 0 for all x;

(b) x(yz) + y(zx) + z(xy) = 0 for all x, y, z. (Jacobi identity). Note that (a) implies

(a') xy = -yx for all x, y.

Indeed xy + yx = (x + y)(x + y) - xx - yy = 0.

Traditionally in a Lie algebra one writes [x, y] instead of xy and one calls [x, y] the *bracket*.

Example (a). Let A be an algebra. Assume that (xy)z = x(yz), that is, the algebra A is associative. Define a new algebra structure on A by [x, y] = xy - yx. This makes A into a Lie algebra. We check the Jacobi identity:

$$\begin{split} & [x, [y, z]] + [y, [z, x]] + [z, [x, y]] \\ & = x(yz - zy) - (yz - zy)x + y(zx - xz) - (zx - xz)y + z(xy - yx) - (xy - yx)z = 0. \end{split}$$

Example (b). Let V be a vector space. Let End(V) be the vector space of endomorphisms of V (linear maps $V \to V$). This is an associative algebra where the product xy is the composition of endomorphisms (xy)(v) = x(y(v)) for $v \in V$. By example (a), End(V) is a Lie algebra with bracket [x, y] = xy - yx. This Lie algebra is also denoted by $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$.

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Example (c). Let V be as in (b). Assume that $\dim(V) < \infty$. Let $L = \{x \in End(V) | \operatorname{tr}(x) = 0\}$. This is a (Lie) subalgebra of End(V). Indeed, if $x, y \in End(V) = \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ then $\operatorname{tr}[x, y] = \operatorname{tr}(xy - yx) = 0$ hence $[x, y] \in L$. Thus L is even an ideal of $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$. The Lie algebra L is also denoted by $\mathfrak{sl}(V)$.

Example (d). Let V be as in (b). Let $(,): V \times V \to k$ be a bilinear map. Let $L = \{x \in End(V) | (x(v), v') + (v, x(v')) = 0 \forall v, v' \in V\}$. We show that L is a Lie subalgebra of $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$. Indeed, if $x, y \in L$ and $v, v' \in V$ we have

$$([x, y](v), v') + (v, [x, y](v'))$$

= $(x(y(v)), v') - (y(x(v), v') + (v, x(y(v')) - (v, y(x(v'))) = 0.$

Example (e). Let V be as in (c). Assume that we are given a sequence of vector subspaces $0 = V_0 \subset V_1 \subset V_2 \subset \ldots \subset V_n = V$, dim $V_i = i$. Let

 $\mathfrak{t} = \{ x \in End(V) | x(V_i) \subset V_i \text{ for } i \in [0, n] \}$

 $\mathfrak{n} = \{ x \in End(V) | x(V_i) \subset V_{i-1} \text{ for } i \in [1, n] \}.$

Then \mathfrak{t} is a Lie subalgebra of End(V) and \mathfrak{n} is a Lie subalgebra of \mathfrak{t} .

Example (f). Let A be an algebra. A derivation of A is a linear map $d: A \to A$ such that d(xy) = d(x)y + xd(y) = 0 for all x, y. (Leibniz rule). Let Der(A) be the set of all derivations of A. This is a vector subspace of End(A). We show that Der(A) is a Lie subalgebra of End(A). Indeed, let $d, d' \in Der(A)$ and $x, y \in A$. We have

$$\begin{split} [d, d'](xy) &= d(d'(xy)) - d'(d(xy)) = d(d'(x)y + xd'(y)) - d'(d(x)y + xd(y)) \\ &= d(d'(x))y + d'(x)d(y) + d(x)d'(y) + xd(d'(y)) \\ &- d'(d(x))y - d(x)d'(y) - d'(x)d(y) - xd'(d(y)) \\ &= d(d'(x))y - d'(d(x))y + xd(d'(y)) - xd'(d(y)) = [d, d'](x)y + x[d, d'](y) \end{split}$$

hence $[d, d'] \in Der(A)$.

Example (g). Let L be a Lie algebra. By (f), Der(L) is again a Lie algebra. If $x \in L$ then $ad(x) : L \to L$, $y \mapsto [x, y]$ is a derivation of L, that is, ad(x)[y, y'] = [ad(x)(y), y'] + [y, ad(x)(y')] for all y, y'. (Equivalently, [x, [y, y']] = [[x, y], y'] + [y, [x, y']] which follows from Jacobi's identity.) The map $x \mapsto ad(x)$ is a Lie algebra homomorphism $L \to Der(L)$, that is, it is linear (obviously) and, for $x, x', y \in L$ we have ad([x, x'])(y) = ad(x)(ad(x')y) - ad(x')(ad(x)y). (Equivalently, [[x, x'], y] = [x, [x', y]] - [x', [x, y]], which again follows from Jacobi's identity.)

Example (h). Let V be as in (a). Define an algebra structure on A on V by xy = 0 for all x, y. This is a Lie algebra. (An *abelian* Lie algebra.)

Example (i). Let L be a Lie algebra. Let [L, L] be the vector subspace of L spanned by $\{[x, y] | x \in L, y \in L\}$. This is an ideal of L. One calls [L, L] the *derived* algebra of L.

Example (j). Let L be a Lie algebra. Let $Z_L = \{x \in L | [x, y] = 0 \forall y \in L\}$. This is an (abelian) subalgebra of L called the *centre* of L.

Example (k). Let L be a Lie algebra. Let K be a vector subspace of L. Then $N_L(K) = \{x \in L | [x, y] \in K \forall y \in K\}$ is a Lie subalgebra of L. Indeed, if $x, x' \in N_L(K)$ and $y \in K$ we have $[[x, x'], y] = [[x, y], x'] + [x, [x', y]] \in [x', K] + [x, K] \subset K + K \subset K$. One calls $N_L(K)$ the normalizer of K in L.

Example (1). Let $L = \mathfrak{sl}(V)$ where V is a 2-dimensional vector space. Identify L with the set of 2×2 matrices with trace 0. A basis is given by

$$e = {0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0}, f = {0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0}, g = {1 \ 0 \ 0 \ -1},$$

We have [e, f] = h, [h, e] = 2e, [h, f] = -2f.

A Lie algebra L is said to be *simple* if it is not abelian and L has no ideals other than 0, L.

We show that L in Ex.(1) is simple. (We assume $2^{-1} \in k$.) Let I be an ideal other than 0. We show that I = L. Let $x = ae + bf + ch \in I - \{0\}$. Now

 $[e, [e, x]] = [e, bh - 2e] = -2be \in I, [f, [f, x]] = [f, ah + 2cf] = 2af \in I.$

If $a \neq 0$ we deduce $f \in I$ hence $h = [e, f] \in I$ and $e = -2^{-1}[e, h] \in I$; thus I = L. Similarly if $b \neq 0$ then I = L. Thus we may assume that a = b = 0. Then $h \in I$ and $e = -2^{-1}[e, h] \in I$, $f = 2^{-1}[f, h] \in I$ so that I = L.

Let A be an algebra. An automorphism of A is an algebra isomorphism $L \xrightarrow{\sim} L$.

Lemma. Assume that k has characteristic 0. If $d : A \to A$ is a derivation such that $d^n = 0$ for some n > 0 then $e^d = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{d^n}{n!} : A \to A$ is an automorphism of A.

From the definition of a derivation we get

$$\frac{d^{\circ}}{s!}(xy) = \sum_{p+q=s} \frac{d^{P}}{p!}(x)\frac{d^{q}}{q!}(y)$$

for all $s \ge 0$. (Use induction on s.) For $x, y \in A$ we have

$$e^{d}(x)e^{d}(y) = \sum_{p} \frac{d^{p}}{p!}(x)\sum_{q} \frac{d^{q}}{q!}(y) = \sum_{s} \sum_{p+q=s} \frac{d^{p}}{p!}(x)\frac{d^{q}}{q!}(y) = \sum_{s} \frac{d^{s}}{s!}(xy) = e^{d}(xy).$$

Thus e^d is an algebra homomorphism. We have $e^d e^{-d} = e^{-d} e^d = 1$. Thus e^d is a vector space isomorphism. The lemma is proved.

SOLVABLE, NILPOTENT LIE ALGEBRAS

Let L be a Lie algebra. If X, X' are subsets of L, let [X, X'] be the subspace spanned by $\{[x, x'] | x \in X, x' \in X'\}$. If I, I' are ideals of L then [I, I'] is an ideal of L. Hence

 $L^{(0)} = L, L^{(1)} = [L, L], L^{(2)} = [L^{(1)}, L^{(1)}], L^{(3)} = [L^{(2)}, L^{(2)}], \dots$ are ideals of L and $L^{(0)} \supset L^{(1)} \supset L^{(2)} \supset \dots$

L is said to be *solvable* if $L^{(n)} = 0$ for some $n \ge 1$. For example t is a solvable Lie algebra.

L solvable, L' subalgebra $\implies L'$ is solvable.

L solvable, I ideal $\implies L/I$ is solvable.

L Lie algebra, I ideal such that I and L/I are solvable $\implies L$ is solvable.

L Lie algebra, I, J ideals such that I and J are solvable $\implies I + J$ solvable ideal.

It follows that, if dim $L < \infty$ there exists a unique solvable ideal of L which contains any solvable ideal of L. This is call the radical of L. Notation: rad(L). We say that L is *semisimple* if rad(L) = 0. In any case L/rad(L) is semisimple.

For a Lie algebra L,

 $L^0 = L, L^1 = [L, L], L^2 = [L, L^1], L^3 = [L, L^2], \dots$ are ideals of L and $L^0 \supset L^1 \supset L^2 \supset \dots$

L is said to be *nilpotent* if $L^n = 0$ for some $n \ge 1$. For example \mathfrak{n} is a nilpotent Lie algebra. But \mathfrak{t} is not nilpotent although it is solvable. Clearly, $L^{(i)} \subset L^i$. Hence L nilpotent $\implies L$ solvable.

L nilpotent, L' subalgebra $\implies L'$ is nilpotent.

L nilpotent, I ideal $\implies L/I$ is nilpotent.

L Lie algebra, L/Z(L) nilpotent $\implies L$ is nilpotent.

L nilpotent, $L \neq 0 \implies Z(L) \neq 0$.

Lemma. Let V be a vector space, dim $V < \infty$. Let $x \in \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ be nilpotent. Then $ad(x) : \mathfrak{gl}(V) \to \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ is nilpotent.

For $y \in End(V)$ set A(y) = xy, B(y) = yx. Then ad(x)y = (A - B)(y). By assumption, A, B are nilpotent endomorphisms of End(V). They commute hence A - B is a nilpotent endomorphism of End(V). The lemma is proved.

Proposition. Let L be a Lie algebra, $\dim(L) < \infty$, let V be a vector space, $0 < \dim V < \infty$ and let $\rho : L \to End(V)$ be a Lie algebra homomorphism such that $\rho(l) : V \to V$ is nilpotent for all $l \in L$. Then there exists $v \in V - \{0\}$ such that $\rho(l)(v) = 0$ for all $l \in L$.

Induction on dim(L). If ρ is not injective, then dim($\rho(L)$) < dim(L) and the proposition is applicable to $\rho(L)$ instead of L. Hence it holds for L itself. Thus we may assume that ρ is injective or that L is a Lie subalgebra of End(V).

We may assume that $L \neq 0$. Let L' be a Lie subalgebra of L with $L' \neq L$ of maximal possible dimension. By the lemma, if $x \in L'$, then $ad(x) : L \to L$ is nilpotent. Hence it induces a nilpotent linear map $L/L' \to L/L'$. By the induction hypothesis applied to L', L/L' instead of L, V, there exists $x \in L - L'$ such that $[x', x] \in L'$ for all $x' \in L'$. Thus, L' is properly contained in $N_L(L')$. By the choice of L' we have $N_L(L') = L$ hence L' is an ideal of L. Any line in L/L' is a one dimensional subalgebra; its inverse image in L contains L' properly hence is equal to L, by the choice of L'. Thus, $\dim(L/L') = 1$. Hence, if $z \in L - L'$ we have $L = L' \oplus kz$. By the induction hypothesis, $W = \{v \in V | xv = 0 \forall x \in L'\} \neq 0$. Since L' is an ideal, W is stable under L. In particular z(W) = W. Since z is a nilpotent endomorphism, we can find $v \in W - \{0\}$ such that zv = 0.

Theorem(Engel). Let L be a Lie algebra, $\dim(L) < \infty$. Assume that $ad(x) : L \to L$ is nilpotent for any $x \in L$. Then L is nilpotent.

Induction on dim(L). We can assume that $L \neq 0$. By the proposition (with V = L) there exists $x \in L - \{0\}$ such that [L, x] = 0 that is, $Z(L) \neq 0$. Now the induction hypothesis applies to L/Z(L). Hence L/Z(L) is nilpotent. Hence L is nilpotent.

Remark. Conversely, if L is a nilpotent Lie algebra, then $ad(x) : L \to L$ is nilpotent for any $x \in L$. Indeed, clearly $ad(x)L^i \subset L^{i+1}$ hence $ad(x)^n L \subset L^n$ for any n. Now use $L^n = 0$ for large n.

Corollary). Let L, V, ρ be as in the proposition. Then there exists a sequence of vector subspaces $0 = V_0 \subset V_1 \subset V_2 \subset \ldots \subset V_n = V$, dim $V_i = i$ such that $\rho(x)V_i \subset V_{i-1}$ for $i \in [1, n]$.

Induction on dim V. By the proposition, we can find $v \in V - \{0\}$ such that $\rho(x)v = 0$ for all $x \in L$. Set $V_1 = kv$. Let $W = V/V_1$. If W = 0, we are done. If $W \neq 0$ we apply the induction hypothesis to L, W instead of L, V. We find a sequence of vector subspaces $0 = W_0 \subset W_1 \subset W_2 \subset \ldots \subset W_{n-1} = W$, dim $W_i = i$ such that $\rho(x)W_i \subset W_{i-1}$ for $i \in [1, n-1]$. Let V_i be the inverse image of W_{i-1} under $V \to V$ ($i \in [2, n]$). Then V_1, V_2, \ldots have the required properties.

Lemma. Let L be a nilpotent Lie algebra, $\dim(L) < \infty$. Let I be an ideal of L such that $I \neq 0$. Then $I \cap Z(L) \neq 0$.

Applying the proposition to L, I (instead of L, V) we see that there exists $x \in I$ such that [L, x] = 0. Then $x \in I \cap Z(L)$.