Lecture Notes in Mathematics

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.Iean-Pierre Serre

Lie Algebras and Lie Groups



Lie Algebras and Lie Groups

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Jean-Pierre Serre Collège de France 3, rue d'Ulm 75005 Paris, France

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Part I – Lie Algebras

Introduction

The main general theorems on Lie Algebras are covered, roughly the content of Bourbaki's Chapter I.

I have added some results on free Lie algebras, which are useful, both for Lie's theory itself (Campbell-Hausdorff formula) and for applications to pro-p-groups.

Lack of time prevented me from including the more precise theory of semisimple Lie algebras (roots, weights, etc.); but, at least, I have given, as a last Chapter, the typical case of \mathfrak{sl}_n .

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Jean-Pierre Serre

Harvard, Fall 1964

Chapter I. Lie Algebras: Definition and Examples

Let k be a commutative ring with unit element, and let A be a k-module, then A is said to be a k-algebra if there is given a k-bilinear map $A \times A \to A$ (i.e., a k-homomorphism $A \otimes_k A \to A$).

As usual we may define left, right and two-sided ideals and therefore quotients.

Definition 1. A Lie algebra over k is an algebra with the following properties:

1). The map $A \otimes_k A \to A$ admits a factorization

$$A \otimes_k A \to \bigwedge^2 A \to A$$

i.e., if we denote the image of (x, y) under this map by [x, y] then the condition becomes

$$[x,x] = 0 for all x \in k.$$

2). [[x,y],z]+[[y,z],x]+[[z,x],y]=0 (Jacobi's identity)

The condition 1) implies [x, y] = -[y, x].

Examples. (i) Let k be a complete field with respect to an absolute value, let G be an analytic group over k, and let $\mathfrak g$ be the set of tangent vectors to G at the origin. There is a natural structure of Lie algebra on $\mathfrak g$.

(For an algebraic analogue of this, see example (v) below.)

- (ii) Let \mathfrak{g} be any k-module. Define [x,y]=0 for all $x,y\in\mathfrak{g}$. Such a \mathfrak{g} is called a *commutative* Lie algebra.
 - (ii') If in the preceding example we take $\mathfrak{g} \oplus \bigwedge{}^2\mathfrak{g}$ and define

$$[x,y] = x \wedge y$$
$$[x,y \wedge z] = 0$$
$$[x \wedge y,z] = 0$$
$$[x \wedge y,z \wedge t] = 0$$

for all $x, y, z, t \in \mathfrak{g}$, then $\mathfrak{g} \oplus \bigwedge{}^2 \mathfrak{g}$ is a Lie algebra.

(iii) Let A be an associative algebra over k and define [x,y] = xy - yx, $x,y \in A$. Clearly A with this product satisfies the axioms 1) and 2).

Definition 2. Let A be an algebra over k. A derivation $D: A \to A$ is a k-linear map with the property $D(x \cdot y) = Dx \cdot y + x \cdot Dy$.

(iv) The set Der(A) of all derivations of an algebra A is a Lie algebra with the product [D, D'] = DD' - D'D.

We prove it by computation:

$$[D, D'](x \cdot y) = DD'(x \cdot y) - D'D(x \cdot y)$$

$$= D(D'x \cdot y + x \cdot D'y) - D'(Dx \cdot y + x \cdot Dy)$$

$$= DD'x \cdot y + D'x \cdot Dy + Dx \cdot D'y + x \cdot DD'y$$

$$- D'Dx \cdot y - Dx \cdot D'y - D'x \cdot Dy - x \cdot D'Dy$$

$$= DD'x \cdot y + x \cdot DD'y - D'Dx \cdot y - x \cdot D'Dy$$

$$= [D, D']x \cdot y + x \cdot [D, D']y.$$

Theorem 3. Let \mathfrak{g} be a Lie algebra. For any $x \in \mathfrak{g}$ define a map $\operatorname{ad} x : \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{g}$ by $\operatorname{ad} x(y) = [x, y]$, then:

- 1) ad x is a derivation of g.
- 2) The map $x \mapsto \operatorname{ad} x$ is a Lie homomorphism of \mathfrak{g} into $\operatorname{Der}(\mathfrak{g})$.

Proof.

$$ad x[y, z] = [x, [y, z]]$$

$$= -[y, [z, x]] - [z, [x, y]]$$

$$= [[x, y], z] + [y, [x, z]]$$

$$= [ad x(y), z] + [y, ad x(z)],$$

hence, 1) is equivalent to the Jacobi identity. Now

$$\begin{split} \operatorname{ad}[x,y](z) &= [[x,y],z] \\ &= -[[y,z],x] - [[z,x],y] \\ &= [x,[y,z]] - [y,[x,z]] \\ &= \operatorname{ad} x \operatorname{ad} y(z) - \operatorname{ad} y \operatorname{ad} x(z) \\ &= [\operatorname{ad} x,\operatorname{ad} y](z) \ , \end{split}$$

hence 2) is also equivalent to the Jacobi identity.

(v) The Lie algebra of an algebraic matrix group.

Let k be a commutative ring and let $A = M_n(k)$ be the algebra of $n \times n$ matrices over k.

Given a set of polynomials $P_{\alpha}(X_{ij})$, $1 \leq i, j \leq n$, a zero of (P_{α}) is a matrix $x = (x_{ij})$ such that $x_{ij} \in k$, $P_{\alpha}(x_{ij}) = 0$ for all α .

Let G(k) denote the set of zeroes of (P_{α}) in $A^* = GL_n(k)$. If k' is any associative, commutative k-algebra we have analogously $G(k') \subset M_n(k')$.

Definition 4. The set (P_{α}) defines an algebraic group over k if G(k') is a subgroup of $GL_n(k')$ for all associative, commutative k-algebras k'.

The orthogonal group is an example of an algebraic group (equation: ${}^{t}X \cdot X = 1$, where ${}^{t}X$ denotes the transpose of X).

Now, let k' be the k-algebra which is free over k with basis $\{1, \varepsilon\}$ where $\varepsilon^2 = 0$, i.e., $k' = k[\varepsilon]$.

Theorem 5. Let \mathfrak{g} be the set of matrices $X \in M_n(k)$ such that

$$1 + \varepsilon X \in G(k[\varepsilon])$$
.

Then **g** is a Lie subalgebra of $M_n(k)$.

We have to prove that $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$ implies $\lambda X + \mu Y \in \mathfrak{g}$, if $\lambda, \mu \in k$ and $XY - YX \in \mathfrak{g}$.

To prove that, note first that

$$P_{\alpha}(1+\varepsilon X)=0 \text{ for all } \alpha \iff X \in \mathfrak{g}$$

and, since $\varepsilon^2 = 0$, we have

$$P_{\alpha}(1+\varepsilon X) = P_{\alpha}(1) + dP_{\alpha}(1)\varepsilon X$$
.

But $1 \in G(k)$, i.e. $P_{\alpha}(1) = 0$; therefore

$$P_{\alpha}(1+\varepsilon X) = dP_{\alpha}(1)\varepsilon X$$
.

Hence, **g** is a submodule of $M_n(k)$.

We introduce now an auxiliary algebra k'' given by $k'' = k[\varepsilon, \varepsilon', \varepsilon \varepsilon']$ where $\varepsilon^2 = \varepsilon'^2 = 0$ and $\varepsilon' \varepsilon = \varepsilon \varepsilon'$, i.e., $k'' = k[\varepsilon] \otimes_k k[\varepsilon']$.

Let $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$, so we have

$$g = 1 + \varepsilon X \in G(k[\varepsilon]) \subset G(k'')$$
$$g' = 1 + \varepsilon' Y \in G(k[\varepsilon']) \subset G(k'')$$

$$gg' = (1 + \varepsilon X)(1 + \varepsilon'Y) = 1 + \varepsilon X + \varepsilon'Y + \varepsilon \varepsilon'XY$$

 $g'g = 1 + \varepsilon X + \varepsilon'Y + \varepsilon \varepsilon'YX$.
Write $Z = [X, Y]$, we have

Write Z = [X, Y]; we have

$$gg' = g'g(1 + \varepsilon \varepsilon' Z)$$
.

Since $gg', g'g \in G(k'')$, it follows that

$$1 + \varepsilon \varepsilon' Z \in G(k'')$$
.

But the subalgebra $k[\varepsilon\varepsilon']$ of k'' may be identified with $k[\varepsilon]$. It then follows that $1 + \varepsilon Z \in G(k[\varepsilon])$, hence $Z \in \mathfrak{g}$, q.e.d.

Example. The Lie algebra of the orthogonal group is the set of matrices X such that $(1 + \varepsilon X)(1 + \varepsilon({}^tX)) = 1$, i.e., $X + {}^tX = 0$.

- (vi) Construction of Lie algebras from known ones.
- a) Let \mathfrak{g} be a Lie algebra and let $J \subset \mathfrak{g}$ an ideal, then \mathfrak{g}/J is a Lie algebra.
- b) Let $(\mathfrak{g}_i)_{i\in I}$ be a family of Lie algebras, then $\prod_{i\in I}\mathfrak{g}_i$ is a Lie algebra.
- c) Suppose \mathfrak{g} is a Lie algebra, $\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathfrak{g}$ is an ideal and \mathfrak{b} is a subalgebra of \mathfrak{g} , then \mathfrak{g} is called a *semidirect product* of \mathfrak{b} by \mathfrak{a} if the natural map $\mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{g}/\mathfrak{a}$

induces an isomorphism $\mathfrak{b} \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathfrak{g}/\mathfrak{a}$. If so, and if $x \in \mathfrak{b}$, then ad x maps \mathfrak{a} into \mathfrak{a} so that $\mathrm{ad}_{\mathfrak{a}} x \in \mathrm{Der}(\mathfrak{a})$, i.e., we have a Lie homomorphism $\theta : \mathfrak{b} \to \mathrm{Der}(\mathfrak{a})$.

Theorem 6. The structure of \mathfrak{g} is determined by \mathfrak{a} , \mathfrak{b} and θ , and these can be given arbitrarily.

Proof. Since \mathfrak{g} is the direct sum of \mathfrak{a} and \mathfrak{b} as a k-module and since multiplication is bilinear and anticommutative we have to consider the product [x,y] in the following three cases:

$$x,y\in \mathfrak{a}$$

$$x,y\in \mathfrak{b}$$

$$x\in \mathfrak{b},\ y\in \mathfrak{a}\ .$$

In the first case [x, y] is given in \mathfrak{a} , in the second one [x, y] is given in \mathfrak{b} and in the last one we have

$$[x,y] = \operatorname{ad} x(y) = \theta(x)y$$
.

Conversely, given the Lie algebras \mathfrak{a} and \mathfrak{b} and a Lie homomorphism

$$\theta: \mathfrak{b} \to \mathrm{Der}(\mathfrak{a})$$
,

we can construct a Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} which is a semidirect product of \mathfrak{b} by \mathfrak{a} in such a way that $\theta(x) = \operatorname{ad}_{\mathfrak{a}} x$, where $\operatorname{ad}_{\mathfrak{a}} x$ is the restriction to \mathfrak{a} of $\operatorname{ad}_{\mathfrak{g}} x$, for $x \in \mathfrak{b}$. One has to check that the Jacobi's identity

$$J(x,y,z) = [x,[y,z]] + [y,[z,x]] + [z,[x,y]] = 0$$

holds. There are essentially four cases to be considered:

- (a) $x, y, z \in \mathfrak{a}$ then J(x, y, z) = 0 because \mathfrak{a} is a Lie algebra.
- (b) $x, y \in \mathfrak{a}, z \in \mathfrak{b} J(x, y, z) = 0 \iff \theta(z)$ is a derivation of \mathfrak{a} .
- (c) $x \in \mathfrak{a}, y, z \in \mathfrak{b} J(x, y, z) = 0 \iff \theta([y, z]) = \theta(y)\theta(z) \theta(z)\theta(y)$.
- (d) $x, y, z \in \mathfrak{b}$ J(x, y, z) = 0 because \mathfrak{b} is a Lie algebra.

Chapter II. Filtered Groups and Lie Algebras

1. Formulae on commutators

Let G be a group and let $x, y, z \in G$. We will use the following notations:

- (i) $x^y = y^{-1}xy$, hence the map $G \to G$ given by $x \mapsto x^y$ is an automorphism of G, and we have the relation $(x^y)^z = x^{yz}$.
 - (ii) $(x,y) = x^{-1}y^{-1}xy$ which is called the commutator of x and y.

Proposition 1.1. We have the identities:

(1)
$$xy = yx^y = yx(x,y), x^y = x(x,y), (x,x) = 1, (y,x) = (x,y)^{-1}.$$

(2)
$$(x,yz) = (x,z)(x,y)^z$$
.

$$(2') (xy,z) = (x,z)^y (y,z).$$

(3)
$$(x^y,(y,z))(y^z,(z,x))(x^z,(x,y)) = 1.$$

Proof. (1) is trivial.

(2) From (i) and (1) we have

$$x(x,yz) = x^{yz}$$

$$= (x^{y})^{z}$$

$$= [x(x,y)]^{z}$$

$$= x^{z}(x,y)^{z} = x(x,z)(x,y)^{z}$$

and therefore $(x, yz) = (x, z)(x, y)^z$.

(2')
$$xy(xy,z) = (xy)^{z} = x^{z}y^{z}$$

$$= x(x,z)y(y,z)$$

$$= xy(x,z)^{y}(y,z)$$

and therefore $(xy, z) = (x, z)^y (y, z)$.

(3)
$$(x^{y},(y,z)) = y^{-1}x^{-1}yz^{-1}y^{-1}zyy^{-1}xyy^{-1}z^{-1}yz$$

$$= y^{-1}x^{-1}yz^{-1}y^{-1}zxz^{-1}yz .$$

Put

$$u = zxz^{-1}yz$$
$$v = xyx^{-1}zx$$
$$w = yzy^{-1}xy$$

then $(x^y, (y, z)) = w^{-1}u$.

Analogously (by cyclic permutation)

$$(y^{z},(z,x)) = u^{-1}v$$

 $(z^{x},(x,y)) = v^{-1}w$.

Hence
$$(x^y, (y, z))(y^z, (z, x))(z^x, (x, y)) = 1$$
 q.e.d.

Applications:

Let A, B be subgroups of a group G and let (A, B) denote the subgroup of G generated by the commutators (a, b) for all $a \in A$, $b \in B$.

If A, B, C are normal subgroups of G, then (A, B) is also normal and we have the relation

$$(A,(B,C)) \subset (B,(C,A))(C,(A,B))$$

which follows from 1.1(3).

2. Filtration on a group

Definition 2.1. A filtration on a group G is a map $w: G \to \mathbf{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$ satisfying the following axioms:

- (1) $w(1) = +\infty$.
- (2) w(x) > 0 for all $x \in G$.
- (3) $w(xy^{-1}) \ge \inf\{w(x), w(y)\}.$
- (4) $w((x,y)) \ge w(x) + w(y)$.

It follows from (3) that $w(y^{-1}) = w(y)$. If $\lambda \in \mathbf{R}_+$ we define

$$G_{\lambda} = \left\{ x \in G \mid w(x) \ge \lambda \right\}$$

$$G_{\lambda}^{+} = \left\{ x \in G \mid w(x) > \lambda \right\}.$$

The condition (3) shows that G_{λ} , G_{λ}^{+} are subgroups of G. Moreover, if $x \in G_{\lambda}$, $y \in G$ then $x^{y} \equiv x \pmod{G_{\lambda}^{\lambda}}$ which follows from the relation

$$w((x,y)) \ge \lambda + w(y) > \lambda$$
.

This also proves that G_{λ} is a normal subgroup of G and since $G_{\lambda}^{+} = \bigcup_{\mu > \lambda} G_{\mu}$ it follows that G_{λ}^{+} is also a normal subgroup of G.

The family $\{G_{\lambda}\}$ (resp. $\{G_{\lambda}^{+}\}$) is decreasing, i.e., $\lambda < \mu$ implies $G_{\lambda} \supset G_{\mu}$ (resp. $G_{\lambda}^{+} \supset G_{\mu}^{+}$).

Definition 2.2. For all $\alpha \geq 0$ we define

$$\operatorname{gr}_{\alpha} G = G_{\alpha}/G_{\alpha}^{+}$$
 and $\operatorname{gr} G = \sum_{\alpha} \operatorname{gr}_{\alpha} G$.

Proposition 2.3.

- 1) $\operatorname{gr}_{\alpha} G$ is an abelian group.
- 2) If $x \in G_{\alpha}$ let \bar{x} be its image in $\operatorname{gr}_{\alpha} G$; one has $\overline{(x^y)} = \bar{x}$ for all $y \in G$.

- 3) The map $c_{\alpha,\beta}: G_{\alpha} \times G_{\beta} \to G_{\alpha+\beta}$ defined by $x,y \mapsto (x,y)$ induces a bilinear map $\bar{c}_{\alpha,\beta}: \operatorname{gr}_{\alpha} G \times \operatorname{gr}_{\beta} G \to \operatorname{gr}_{\alpha+\beta} G$.
- 4) The maps $\bar{c}_{\alpha,\beta}$ can be extended by linearity to $c: \operatorname{gr} G \times \operatorname{gr} G \to \operatorname{gr} G$ and this defines a Lie algebra structure on $\operatorname{gr} G$.

Proof. 1) It follows from 2.1(4).

- 2) It is already proved.
- 3) Let $x, x' \in G_{\alpha}$, $y, y' \in G_{\beta}$, then $(x, y) \in G_{\alpha+\beta}$ and we have to prove that if $u, v \in G_{\alpha}^+$ then $(xu, y) \equiv (x, y) \mod G_{\alpha+\beta}^+$, $(x, yv) \equiv (x, y) \mod G_{\alpha+\beta}^+$. Using 1.1(2') and (3) we have

$$\begin{split} \overline{(xu,y)} &= \overline{(x,y)^u} + \overline{(u,y)} = \overline{(x,y)} \\ \overline{(x,yv)} &= \overline{(x,v)} + \overline{(x,y)^v} = \overline{(x,y)} \\ \overline{(xx',y)} &= \overline{(x,y)^{x'}} + \overline{(x',y)} = \overline{(x,y)} + \overline{(x',y)} \\ \overline{(x,y'y)} &= \overline{(x,y)} + \overline{(x,y')^y} = \overline{(x,y)} + \overline{(x,y')} \;. \end{split}$$

This proves 3).

4) Let $\xi \in \operatorname{gr}_{\alpha} G$, $\eta \in \operatorname{gr}_{\beta} G$ and choose elements $x \in G_{\alpha}$, $x \in G_{\beta}$ such that $\bar{x} = \xi$, $\bar{y} = \eta$. Then we have $\overline{(x,y)} = \bar{c}_{\alpha,\beta}(\xi,\eta)$, which we also write $[\xi,\eta]$.

Now if $\xi \in \operatorname{gr} G$ then $\xi = \sum_{\alpha} \xi_{\alpha}$ where $\xi_{\alpha} \in \operatorname{gr}_{\alpha} G$. In order to prove that $[\xi, \xi] = 0$, it is sufficient to prove that $[\xi_{\alpha}, \xi_{\alpha}] = 0$ and $[\xi_{\alpha}, \xi_{\beta}] = -[\xi_{\beta}, \xi_{\alpha}]$. Let $x_{\alpha} \in G_{\alpha}$ such that $\bar{x}_{\alpha} = \xi_{\alpha}$ for all α . Then we have $[\xi_{\alpha}, \xi_{\alpha}] = \overline{(x_{\alpha}, x_{\alpha})} = \overline{1} = 0$, and

$$[\xi_\alpha,\xi_\beta] = \overline{(x_\alpha,x_\beta)} = \overline{(x_\beta,x_\alpha)}^{-1} = -[\xi_\beta,\xi_\alpha] \ .$$

In order to prove the Jacobi identity $J(\xi, \eta, \zeta) = 0$, since J is trilinear, it is enough to consider the case $\xi \in \operatorname{gr}_{\alpha} G$, $\eta \in \operatorname{gr}_{\beta} G$ and $\zeta \in \operatorname{gr}_{\gamma} G$. Now using the Proposition 1.1(3) we have, for $x \in G_{\alpha}$, $y \in G_{\beta}$, $z \in G_{\gamma}$ such that $\bar{x} = \xi$, $\bar{y} = \eta$, $\bar{z} = \zeta$.

$$J(\xi,\eta,\zeta)=\overline{(x^y,(y,z))(y^z,(z,x))(z^x,(x,y))}=\bar{1}=0$$

because $\overline{x^y} = \xi$, $\overline{y^z} = \eta$, $\overline{z^x} = \zeta$. q.e.d.

3. Integral filtrations of a group

Proposition 3.1. For any group G the following two objects are in a one-one correspondence:

- 1) Filtrations $w: G \to \mathbf{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$ such that $w(G) \subset \mathbf{N} \cup \{+\infty\}$.
- 2) Decreasing sequences $\{G_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ of subgroups of G such that
 - (i) $G_1 = G$.
 - (ii) $(G_n, G_m) \subset G_{n+m}$.

Proof. $(1) \Rightarrow (2)$ is clear.

 $(2) \Rightarrow (1)$. Let $x \in G$, then we define a filtration $w : G \to \mathbf{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$ by $w(x) = \sup_{x \in G_n} \{n\}$.

It is clear that $w(1) = +\infty$, w(x) > 0 for all $x \in G$, and $w(x) = w(x^{-1})$.

Now let w(x) = n, w(y) = m, i.e., $x \in G_n$, $y \in G_m$ and $x \notin G_{n+1}$, $y \notin G_{m+1}$. Suppose $n \leq m$, then $G_m \subset G_n$ and therefore $xy^{-1} \in G_n$, i.e.,

$$w(xy^{-1}) \ge \inf\{w(x), w(y)\}$$
.

In case $n = +\infty$ or $m = +\infty$, we have obviously this inequality. Finally the inequality $w((x,y)) \ge w(x) + w(y)$ follows from (ii). q.e.d.

Example. The descending central series of G.

Define $G_1 = G$ and by induction $G_{n+1} = (G, G_n)$. Then the sequence $\{G_n\}$ satisfies the conditions (i)–(ii) of (2) in the Proposition 3.1. Condition (i) is satisfied by definition, and we will prove (ii) by induction on n in the pair (G_n, G_m) .

Let first n = 1, then $(G, G_m) \subset G_{m+1}$ by definition. Now suppose n > 1, then

$$(G_n, G_m) = ((G, G_{n-1}), G_m) \subset (G, (G_{n-1}, G_m))(G_{n-1}, (G, G_m))$$

$$\subset (G, G_{n+m-1})(G_{n-1}, G_{m+1})$$

$$\subset G_{n+m} \cdot G_{n+m} = G_{n+m} .$$

Conversely, if $\{H_n\}$ is a decreasing sequence of subgroups of G which verifies (2), then $H_n \supset G_n$ for all n. The proof of this is also by induction. Suppose n = 1, then by definition $H_1 = G_1$. Now if $n \geq 1$, we have

$$H_{n+1}\supset (H_1,H_n)\supset (G,G_n)=G_{n+1}.$$

4. Filtrations in GL(n)

Let k be a field with an ultrametric absolute value $|x| = a^{v(x)}$. Let A_v be the ring of v and let \mathbf{m}_v be the maximal ideal of A_v , let $k(v) = A_v/\mathbf{m}_v$.

Let n be a positive integer and let G be the group of $n \times n$ -matrices with coefficients in A_v such that $g \equiv 1 \mod \mathfrak{m}_v$, i.e., if $g = (g_{ij})$ then $g_{ij} \equiv \delta_{ij} \mod \mathfrak{m}_v$.

If $g \in G$ then g = 1 + x where x is a matrix with coefficients in \mathbf{m}_v . Clearly G is a group, because it can be described as

$$G = \operatorname{Ker} \big\{ \operatorname{GL}(n, A_v) \to \operatorname{GL}(n, k(v)) \big\} \ .$$

Let $X \in M_n(k)$, $X = (x_{ij})$, then define $v(X) = \inf\{v(x_{ij})\}$. We can define a map $w: G \to \mathbf{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$ by w(g) = v(x), where g = 1 + x.

Theorem 4.1. The map w is a filtration on G.

Proof. The conditions $w(1) = +\infty$ and w(g) > 0 for all $g \in G$ are obvious. Let now $G_{\lambda} = \{ g \in G \mid w(g) \geq \lambda \}$. If \mathfrak{a}_{λ} is defined by

$$\mathfrak{a}_{\lambda} = \left\{ x \mid x \in k, \ v(x) \ge \lambda \right\},\,$$

the set G_{λ} is the kernel of the canonical homomorphism

$$GL(n, A_v) \to GL(n, A_v/\mathfrak{a}_{\lambda})$$
.

Hence G_{λ} is a subgroup of G, and this proves condition (3).

To prove condition (4), i.e., $(G_{\lambda}, G_{\mu}) \subset G_{\lambda+\mu}$, write $g \in G_{\lambda}$, $h \in G_{\mu}$ in the form:

$$q = 1 + x$$
, $h = 1 + y$.

One must check that $hg \equiv gh \pmod{G_{\lambda+\mu}}$. But

$$hg = 1 + x + y + yx$$
$$gh = 1 + x + y + xy$$

and the coefficients of xy and yx belong to $\mathfrak{a}_{\lambda+\mu}$. Hence hg and gh have the same image in $\mathrm{GL}(n, A_v/\mathfrak{a}_{\lambda+\mu})$, and they are congruent $\mathrm{mod}G_{\lambda+\mu}$, q.e.d.

Exercises

- 1. Determine the Lie algebra $\operatorname{gr} G$.
- 2. Prove that $G = \varprojlim G/G_{\lambda}$ if k is complete.

Chapter III. Universal Algebra of a Lie Algebra

1. Definition

Let k be a commutative ring and let \mathfrak{g} be a Lie algebra over k.

Definition 1.1. A universal algebra of \mathfrak{g} is a map $\varepsilon : \mathfrak{g} \to U\mathfrak{g}$, where $U\mathfrak{g}$ is an associative algebra, with a unit satisfying the following properties:

1). ε is a Lie algebra homomorphism,

(i.e.,
$$\varepsilon$$
 is k-linear and $\varepsilon[x,y] = \varepsilon x \cdot \varepsilon y - \varepsilon y \cdot \varepsilon x$).

2). If A is any associative algebra with a unit and $\alpha: \mathfrak{g} \to A$ is any Lie algebra homomorphism, there is a unique homomorphism of associative algebras $\varphi: U\mathfrak{g} \to A$ such that the diagram

$$\mathfrak{g} \xrightarrow{\epsilon} U\mathfrak{g}$$

$$\alpha \downarrow \swarrow \varphi$$

$$A$$

is commutative [i.e., there is an isomorphism

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{Lie}}(\mathfrak{g}, LA) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{Ass}}(U\mathfrak{g}, A)$$

where LA is the Lie algebra associated to A, cf. Chap. I, example (iii).

It is trivial that $U\mathfrak{g}$, if it exists, is unique (up to a unique isomorphism). To prove its existence, we use the tensor algebra $T\mathfrak{g}$ of \mathfrak{g} , i.e., $T\mathfrak{g} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} T^n \mathfrak{g}$, where $T^n\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{g} \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathfrak{g} = \bigotimes^n \mathfrak{g}$ for $n \geq 0$. For any associative algebra A with a unit, one has: $\operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{Mod}}(\mathfrak{g}, A) = \operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{Ass}}(T\mathfrak{g}, A)$.

Now let I be the two-sided ideal of $T\mathfrak{g}$ generated by the elements of the form $[x,y]-x\otimes y+y\otimes x,\ x,y\in\mathfrak{g}$.

Take $U\mathfrak{g} = T\mathfrak{g}/I$, then we have:

Theorem 1.2. Let $\varepsilon : \mathfrak{g} \to U\mathfrak{g}$ be the composition $\mathfrak{g} \to T^1\mathfrak{g} \to T\mathfrak{g} \to U\mathfrak{g}$. Then the pair $(U\mathfrak{g}, \varepsilon)$ is a universal algebra of \mathfrak{g} .

In fact, let α be a Lie homomorphism of \mathfrak{g} into an associative algebra A. Since α is k-linear, it extends to a unique homomorphism $\psi: T\mathfrak{g} \to A$. It is clear that $\psi(I) = 0$, hence ψ defines $\varphi: U\mathfrak{g} \to A$, and we have checked the universal property of $U\mathfrak{g}$.

Remark. Let E be a \mathfrak{g} -module (i.e., a k-module with a bilinear product $\mathfrak{g} \times E \to E$ such that $[x,y]e = x(ye) - y(x \cdot e)$ for $x,y \in \mathfrak{g}, e \in E$). The map $\mathfrak{g} \to \operatorname{End}(E,E)$ which defines the module structure of E is a Lie homomorphism. Hence it extends to an algebra homomorphism $U\mathfrak{g} \to \operatorname{End}(E,E)$ and E becomes a $U\mathfrak{g}$ -left-module. It is easy to check that one obtains in this