

## The Exponential Map

The exponential map, introduced for closed Lie subgroups of  $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$  in Chap. 5, can be defined for a general Lie group  $G$  as a map  $\mathrm{Lie}(G) \rightarrow G$ .

We may consider a vector field (6.5) that is allowed to vary smoothly. By this we mean that we introduce a real parameter  $\lambda \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon)$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$  and smooth functions  $a_i : M \times (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and consider a vector field, which in local coordinates is given by

$$(Xf)(m) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i(m, \lambda) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(m). \quad (8.1)$$

**Proposition 8.1.** *Suppose that  $M$  is a smooth manifold,  $m \in M$ , and  $X$  is a vector field on  $M$ . Then, for sufficiently small  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a path  $p : (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow M$  such that  $p(0) = m$  and  $p_*(d/dt)(t) = X_{p(t)}$  for  $t \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ . Such a curve, on whatever interval it is defined, is uniquely determined. If the vector field  $X$  is allowed to depend on a parameter  $\lambda$  as in (8.1), then for small values of  $t$ ,  $p(t)$  depends smoothly on  $\lambda$ .*

Here we are regarding the interval  $(-\epsilon, \epsilon)$  as a manifold, and  $p_*(d/dt)$  is the image of the tangent vector  $d/dt$ . We call such a curve an *integral curve* for the vector field.

*Proof.* In terms of local coordinates  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  on  $M$ , the vector field  $X$  is

$$\sum a_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i},$$

where the  $a_i$  are smooth functions in the coordinate neighborhood. If a path  $p(t)$  is specified, let us write  $x_i(t)$  for the  $x_i$  component of  $p(t)$ , with the coordinates of  $m$  being  $x_1 = \dots = x_n = 0$ . Applying the tangent vector  $p_*(t)(d/dt)(t)$  to a function  $f \in C^\infty(G)$  gives

$$\frac{d}{dt} f(x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t)) = \sum x'_i(t) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t)).$$

On the other hand, applying  $X_{p(t)}$  to the same  $f$  gives

$$\sum_i a_i(x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t)) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t)),$$

so we need a solution to the first-order system

$$x'_i(t) = a_i(x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t)), \quad x_i(0) = 0, \quad (i = 1, \dots, n).$$

The existence of such a solution for sufficiently small  $|t|$ , and its uniqueness on whatever interval it does exist, is guaranteed by a standard result in the theory of ordinary differential equations, which may be found in most texts. See, for example, Ince [81], Chap. 3, particularly Sect. 3.3, for a rigorous treatment. The required Lipschitz condition follows from smoothness of the  $a_i$ . For the statement about continuously varying vector fields, one needs to know the corresponding fact about first-order systems, which is discussed in Sect. 3.31 of [81]. Here Ince imposes an assumption of analyticity on the dependence of the differential equation on  $\lambda$ , which he allows to be a complex parameter, because he wants to conclude analyticity of the solutions; if one weakens this assumption of analyticity to smoothness, one still gets smoothness of the solution.  $\square$

In general, the existence of the integral curve of a vector field is only guaranteed in a small segment  $(-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ , as in Proposition 8.1. However, we will now see that, for left-invariant vector fields on a Lie group, the integral curve extends to all  $\mathbb{R}$ . This fact underlies the construction of the exponential map.

**Theorem 8.1.** *Let  $G$  be a Lie group and  $\mathfrak{g}$  its Lie algebra. There exists a map  $\exp : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow G$  that is a local homeomorphism in a neighborhood of the origin in  $\mathfrak{g}$  such that, for any  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ ,  $t \rightarrow \exp(tX)$  is an integral curve for the left-invariant vector field  $X$ . Moreover,  $\exp((t+u)X) = \exp(tX)\exp(uX)$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ . We know that for sufficiently small  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists an integral curve  $p : (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow G$  for the left-invariant vector field  $X$  with  $p(0) = 1$ . We show first that if  $p : (a, b) \rightarrow G$  is any integral curve for an open interval  $(a, b)$  containing 0, then

$$p(s)p(t) = p(s+t) \text{ when } s, t, s+t \in (a, b). \quad (8.2)$$

Indeed, since  $X$  is invariant under left-translation, left-translation by  $p(s)$  takes an integral curve for the vector field into another integral curve. Thus,  $t \rightarrow p(s)p(t)$  and  $t \rightarrow p(s+t)$  are both integral curves, with the same initial condition  $0 \rightarrow p(s)$ . They are thus the same.

With this in mind, we show next that if  $p : (-a, a) \rightarrow G$  is an integral curve for the left-invariant vector field  $X$ , then we may extend it to all of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Of course, it is sufficient to show that we may extend it to  $(-\frac{3}{2}a, \frac{3}{2}a)$ . We extend it by the rule  $p(t) = p(a/2)p(t - a/2)$  when  $-a/2 \leq t \leq 3a/2$  and

$p(t) = p(-a/2)p(t + a/2)$  when  $-3a/2 \leq t \leq a/2$ , and it follows from (8.2) that this definition is consistent on regions of overlap.

Now define  $\exp : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow G$  as follows. Let  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ , and let  $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G$  be an integral curve for the left-invariant vector field  $X$  with  $p(0) = 0$ . We define  $\exp(X) = p(1)$ . We note that if  $u \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $t \mapsto p(tu)$  is an integral curve for  $uX$ , so  $\exp(uX) = p(u)$ .

The exponential map is a smooth map, at least for  $X$  near the origin in  $\mathfrak{g}$ , by the last statement in Proposition 8.1. Identifying the tangent space at the origin in the vector space  $\mathfrak{g}$  with  $\mathfrak{g}$  itself,  $\exp$  induces a map  $T_0(\mathfrak{g}) \rightarrow T_e(G)$  (that is  $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ ), and this map is the identity map by construction. Thus, the Jacobian of  $\exp$  is nonzero and, by the Inverse Function Theorem,  $\exp$  is a local homeomorphism near 0.  $\square$

We also denote  $\exp(X)$  as  $e^X$  for  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ .

*Remark 8.1.* If  $G = \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ , then as we explained in Chap. 7, Proposition 7.2 allows us to identify the Lie algebra of  $G$  with  $\mathrm{Mat}_n(\mathbb{C})$ . We observe that the definition of  $\exp : \mathrm{Mat}_n(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$  by a series in (5.2) agrees with the definition in Theorem 8.1. This is because  $t \mapsto \exp(tX)$  with either definition is an integral curve for the same left-invariant vector field, and the uniqueness of such an integral curve follows from Proposition 8.1.

**Proposition 8.2.** *Let  $G, H$  be Lie groups and let  $\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{h}$  be their respective Lie algebras. Let  $f : G \rightarrow H$  be a homomorphism. Then the following diagram is commutative:*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathfrak{g} & \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}f} & \mathfrak{h} \\ \downarrow \exp & & \downarrow \exp \\ G & \xrightarrow{f} & H \end{array}$$

*Proof.* It is clear from the definitions that  $f$  takes an integral curve for a left-invariant vector field  $X$  on  $G$  to an integral curve for  $\mathrm{d}f(X)$ , and the statement follows.  $\square$

A *representation* of a Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$  over a field  $F$  is a Lie algebra homomorphism  $\pi : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathrm{End}(V)$ , where  $V$  is an  $F$ -vector space, or more generally a vector space over a field  $E$  containing  $F$ , and  $\mathrm{End}(V)$  is given the Lie algebra structure that it inherits from its structure as an associative algebra. Thus,

$$\pi([x, y]) = \pi(x)\pi(y) - \pi(y)\pi(x).$$

We may sometimes find it convenient to denote  $\pi(x)v$  as just  $xv$  for  $x \in \mathfrak{g}$  and  $v \in V$ . We may think of  $(x, v) \mapsto xv = \pi(x)v$  as a multiplication. If  $V$  is a vector space, given a map  $\mathfrak{g} \times V \rightarrow V$  denoted  $(x, v) \mapsto xv$  such that  $x \mapsto \pi(x)$  is a representation, where  $\pi(x) : V \rightarrow V$  is the endomorphism  $v \rightarrow xv$ , then we call  $V$  a  $\mathfrak{g}$ -*module*. A *homomorphism*  $\phi : U \rightarrow V$  of  $\mathfrak{g}$ -modules is an  $F$ -linear map satisfying  $\phi(xv) = x\phi(v)$ .

*Example 8.1.* If  $\pi : G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(V)$  is a representation, where  $V$  is a real or complex vector space, then the Lie algebra of  $\mathrm{GL}(V)$  is  $\mathrm{End}(V)$ , so the differential  $\mathrm{Lie}(\pi) : \mathrm{Lie}(G) \rightarrow \mathrm{End}(V)$ , defined by Proposition 7.3, is a Lie algebra representation.

By the universal property of  $U(\mathfrak{g})$  in Theorem 10.1, A Lie algebra representation  $\pi : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathrm{End}(V)$  extends to a ring homomorphism  $U(\mathfrak{g}) \rightarrow \mathrm{End}(V)$ , which we continue to denote as  $\pi$ .

If  $\mathfrak{g}$  is a Lie algebra over a field  $F$ , we get a homomorphism  $\mathrm{ad} : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathrm{End}(\mathfrak{g})$ , called the *adjoint map*, defined by  $\mathrm{ad}(x)y = [x, y]$ . We give  $\mathrm{End}(\mathfrak{g})$  the Lie algebra structure it inherits as an associative ring. We have

$$\mathrm{ad}(x)([y, z]) = [\mathrm{ad}(x)(y), z] + [y, \mathrm{ad}(x)(z)] \quad (8.3)$$

since, by the Jacobi identity, both sides equal  $[x, [y, z]] = [[x, y], z] + [y, [x, z]]$ . This means that  $\mathrm{ad}(x)$  is a derivation of  $\mathfrak{g}$ .

Also

$$\mathrm{ad}(x)\mathrm{ad}(y) - \mathrm{ad}(y)\mathrm{ad}(x) = \mathrm{ad}([x, y]) \quad (8.4)$$

since applying either side to  $z \in \mathfrak{g}$  gives  $[x, [y, z]] - [y, [x, z]] = [[x, y], z]$  by the Jacobi identity. So  $\mathrm{ad} : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathrm{End}(\mathfrak{g})$  is a Lie algebra representation.

We next explain the geometric origin of  $\mathrm{ad}$ . To begin with, representations of Lie algebras arise naturally from representations of Lie groups. Suppose that  $G$  is a Lie group and  $\mathfrak{g}$  is its Lie algebra. If  $V$  is a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ , any Lie group homomorphism  $\pi : G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(V)$  induces a Lie algebra homomorphism  $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathrm{End}(V)$  by Proposition 7.3; that is, a real or complex representation.

In particular,  $G$  acts on itself by conjugation, and so it acts on  $\mathfrak{g} = T_e(G)$ . This representation is called the *adjoint representation* and is denoted  $\mathrm{Ad} : G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(\mathfrak{g})$ . We show next that the differential of  $\mathrm{Ad}$  is  $\mathrm{ad}$ . That is:

**Theorem 8.2.** *Let  $G$  be a Lie group,  $\mathfrak{g}$  its Lie algebra, and  $\mathrm{Ad} : G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(\mathfrak{g})$  the adjoint representation. Then the Lie group representation  $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathrm{End}(\mathfrak{g})$  corresponding to  $\mathrm{Ad}$  by Proposition 7.3 is  $\mathrm{ad}$ .*

*Proof.* It will be most convenient for us to think of elements of the Lie algebra as tangent vectors at the identity or as local derivations of the local ring there. Let  $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$ . If  $f \in C^\infty(G)$ , define  $c(g)f(h) = f(g^{-1}hg)$ . Then our definitions of the adjoint representation amount to

$$(\mathrm{Ad}(g)Y)f = Y(c(g^{-1})f).$$

To compute the differential of  $\mathrm{Ad}$ , note that the path  $t \rightarrow \exp(tX)$  in  $G$  is tangent to the identity at  $t = 0$  with tangent vector  $X$ . Therefore, under the representation of  $\mathfrak{g}$  in Proposition 7.3,  $X$  maps  $Y$  to the local derivation at the identity

$$f \mapsto \left. \frac{d}{dt} (\mathrm{Ad}(e^{tX})Y)f \right|_{t=0} = \left. \frac{d}{dt} \frac{d}{du} f(e^{tX}e^{uY}e^{-tX}) \right|_{t=u=0}.$$

By the chain rule, if  $F(t_1, t_2)$  is a function of two real variables,

$$\frac{d}{dt}F(t, t) \Big|_{t=0} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial t_1}(0, 0) + \frac{\partial F}{\partial t_2}(0, 0). \quad (8.5)$$

Applying this, with  $u$  fixed to  $F(t_1, t_2) = f(e^{t_1 X} e^{u Y} e^{-t_2 X})$ , our last expression equals

$$\frac{d}{du} \frac{d}{dt} f(e^{tX} e^{uY}) \Big|_{t=u=0} - \frac{d}{du} \frac{d}{dt} f(e^{uY} e^{tX}) \Big|_{t=u=0} = XYf(1) - YXf(1).$$

This is, of course, the same as the effect of  $[X, Y] = \text{ad}(X)Y$ . □

### Exercises

**Exercise 8.1.** Show that the exponential map  $\mathfrak{su}(2) \rightarrow \text{SU}(2)$  is surjective, but the exponential map  $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$  is not.