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## Part I

### One-dimensional integrable systems

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## Chapter 1: Lie Groups

### I. Definitions and examples.

We assume that the reader is familiar with the idea of a (smooth) manifold. For our purposes, it will be enough to think of a manifold which is embedded (as a submanifold) in some  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . For example, the sphere  $S^{n-1} = \{x \in \mathbf{R}^n \mid \|x\| = 1\}$  is embedded in  $\mathbf{R}^n$ .

We assume also that the reader understands the concept of tangent bundle. If  $X$  is a submanifold of  $\mathbf{R}^n$ , the tangent space to  $X$  at a point  $x \in X$  is the space of “tangent vectors to curves in  $X$  through  $x$ ”, i.e.,

$$T_x X = \{\gamma'(0) \mid \gamma : (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n, \gamma(-\epsilon, \epsilon) \subseteq X, \gamma(0) = x\}.$$

Here,  $\gamma'(0) = \frac{d}{dt}\gamma(t)|_0 = D\gamma_0(\frac{d}{dt})$ . (In the case of  $S^{n-1}$ , it is easy to verify the usual description of  $T_x S^{n-1}$  as the set of all vectors which are orthogonal to  $x$ .) The tangent bundle of  $X$  can then be defined as

$$TX = \{(x, U) \in X \times \mathbf{R}^n \mid U \in T_x X\}.$$

This is a submanifold of  $X \times \mathbf{R}^n$ , and there is a natural projection map  $\pi : TX \rightarrow X$ . If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is a (smooth) map, then the derivative of  $f$  is a map  $Df : TX \rightarrow TY$ .

Using the tangent bundle, one can define another basic object: A vector field on  $X$  is a (smooth) map  $V : X \rightarrow TX$  such that  $\pi \circ V$  is the identity map of  $X$ . The value of  $V$  at  $x$  will be denoted by  $V_x$ ;  $V_x$  is an element of  $T_x X$ . An important property of vector fields is that they act on (smooth) functions “by differentiation”: If  $V$  is a vector field, and  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ , then we obtain a function  $Vf$  by means of the formula  $(Vf)(x) = (Df)_x(V_x)$ . Here we use the standard convention that  $T_u \mathbf{R}$  is identified canonically with  $\mathbf{R}$ , for any  $u \in \mathbf{R}$ .

**Definition.** Let  $X$  be a (smooth) manifold. We say that  $X$  is a (real) Lie group if

- (1)  $X$  has a group structure,  $\circ$ , and
- (2) the map  $X \times X \rightarrow X$ ,  $(x, y) \mapsto x \circ y^{-1}$  is smooth.

A complex Lie group may be defined in a similar way: It is a complex manifold  $X$ , with a group structure, such that the map  $X \times X \rightarrow X$ ,  $(x, y) \mapsto x \circ y^{-1}$  is complex analytic (holomorphic).

The main examples of Lie groups are *matrix groups*.

*Examples:*

(1)  $M_n\mathbf{R} = \{\text{real } n \times n \text{ matrices}\}$ ,  $\circ =$  matrix addition. Similarly for  $M_n\mathbf{C}, M_n\mathbf{H}$ . More generally, any real (or complex) vector space is a real (or complex) Lie group.

(2)  $GL_n\mathbf{R} = \{A \in M_n\mathbf{R} \mid A \text{ is invertible}\}$ ,  $\circ =$  matrix multiplication. Similarly for  $GL_n\mathbf{C}$ .

(3)  $SL_n\mathbf{R} = \{A \in GL_n\mathbf{R} \mid \det A = 1\}$ ,  $\circ =$  matrix multiplication. Similarly for  $SL_n\mathbf{C}$ .

(4)  $O_n = \{A \in M_n\mathbf{R} \mid A^t = A^{-1}\}$ ,  $\circ =$  matrix multiplication. Similarly we have  $U_n = \{A \in M_n\mathbf{C} \mid A^* = A^{-1}\}$ ,  $Sp_n = \{A \in M_n\mathbf{H} \mid A^* = A^{-1}\}$ .

(5)  $SO_n = \{A \in O_n \mid \det A = 1\}$ ,  $\circ =$  matrix multiplication. Similarly for  $SU_n$ .

*Exercises:*

(1.1) In the above list of examples, which are real Lie groups? Which are complex Lie groups?

(1.2) Why are  $GL_n\mathbf{H}, SL_n\mathbf{H}$  and  $SSp_n$  omitted from the above list of examples?

(1.3) Show that  $GL_n\mathbf{C}$  is connected.

(1.4) Show that  $SO_n$  is compact and connected.

(1.5) Show that  $O_n$  has two connected components, each of which is diffeomorphic to  $SO_n$ . Is it true that  $O_n$  is isomorphic (as a group) to  $SO_n \times \{\pm I\}$ ?

**Definition.** Let  $G_1, G_2$  be Lie groups. Let  $\Theta : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be a (smooth) map. We say that  $\Theta$  is a (Lie group) homomorphism if  $\Theta(gh) = \Theta(g)\Theta(h)$  for all  $g, h \in G$ .

Similarly, we define the concepts of monomorphism, epimorphism, isomorphism, etc.

*Example:*

The determinant map  $\det : GL_n\mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^*$  is a homomorphism. (Here,  $\mathbf{R}^* = GL_1\mathbf{R}$ , the group of non-zero real numbers.)

The concept of “subgroup” requires a little care:

**Definition.** Let  $G_1, G_2$  be Lie groups, such that  $G_1$  is an (algebraic) subgroup of  $G_2$ . We say that  $G_1$  is a Lie subgroup of  $G_2$  if the inclusion map  $G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  is an embedding.

If  $G_1$  is an (algebraic) subgroup of  $G_2$ , and also a submanifold, then  $G_1$

is certainly a Lie subgroup of  $G_2$ . However, for reasons which will become clear in the next chapter, we do not *insist* that a Lie subgroup should also be a submanifold. The standard example of this is given by the (algebraic) subgroup  $G_1 = \{[ta, tb] \mid t \in \mathbf{R}\}$  of the Lie group  $G_2 = \mathbf{R}^2/\mathbf{Z}^2$  (for a fixed choice of  $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$  with  $(a, b) \neq (0, 0)$ ). We give  $G_1$  the structure of a Lie group by using the natural homomorphism  $\mathbf{R} \rightarrow G_1, t \mapsto [ta, tb]$ . There are two cases to consider: (1)  $G_1$  is isomorphic (as a Lie group) to  $\mathbf{R}/\mathbf{Z}$  if  $b = 0$  or if  $a/b$  is rational; (2)  $G_1$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbf{R}$  if  $a/b$  is irrational. In both cases,  $G_1$  is a Lie subgroup of  $G_2$ . But only in case (1) is  $G_1$  a submanifold of  $G_2$ .

It is well known that a Lie subgroup is a submanifold if and only if it is closed (see Varadarajan [1984], Theorem 2.5.4). From Chapter 3 onwards, we shall usually abbreviate the expression “closed Lie subgroup” to “subgroup”.

**II. The exponential map.**

Let  $G$  be a Lie group. We use the following standard notation:  
 $e$  = the identity element of  $G$  ( $= I$  if  $G$  is a matrix group)  
 $\mathfrak{g} = T_e G$  = the tangent space to  $G$  at  $e$ .

The relationship between  $G$  and  $\mathfrak{g}$  is very important. It is useful, therefore, to have an explicit description of  $\mathfrak{g}$ . Here are some examples, for matrix groups:

*Examples:*

- (1)  $T_e M_n \mathbf{R} = M_n \mathbf{R}$  (because  $M_n \mathbf{R}$  is a vector space).
- (2)  $T_e GL_n \mathbf{R} = M_n \mathbf{R}$  (because  $GL_n \mathbf{R}$  is an open subset of a vector space).
- (3)  $T_e O_n = \text{skew}_n \mathbf{R} = \{A \in M_n \mathbf{R} \mid A^t = -A\}$ .

(Proof: If  $X \subseteq \mathbf{R}^n$ , we use the description of  $T_x X$  given earlier, i.e., the space of tangent vectors  $\gamma'(0)$  with  $\gamma : (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow X \subseteq \mathbf{R}^n$  and  $\gamma(0) = x$ . In the case of  $O_n \subseteq M_n \mathbf{R}$ ,  $x = I$ , we have  $\gamma(t)^t \gamma(t) = I$  for all  $t \in (-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ . By differentiation, we obtain  $\gamma'(0)^t \gamma(0) + \gamma(0)^t \gamma'(0) = 0$ , hence  $\gamma'(0)^t = -\gamma'(0)$ . Thus,  $T_e O_n \subseteq \text{skew}_n \mathbf{R}$ . Conversely, if  $A \in \text{skew}_n \mathbf{R}$ , let  $\gamma(t) = \exp tA$ . Then we have  $\gamma : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow M_n \mathbf{R}$ , such that  $\gamma(\mathbf{R}) \subseteq O_n$  and  $\gamma(0) = I$ . By differentiation,  $\gamma'(0) = A$ . Hence  $\text{skew}_n \mathbf{R} \subseteq T_e O_n$ .)

The (matrix) exponential function

$$\exp A = \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{A^n}{n!},$$

which appeared in Example (3), is very useful. (It is easy to show that the series converges for any  $A$ .) It has the following properties:

**Proposition.**

(1) The exponential map  $\exp : M_n \mathbf{R} \rightarrow GL_n \mathbf{R}$  is a local chart at  $I \in GL_n \mathbf{R}$ .

(2) Let  $G$  be a Lie subgroup of  $GL_n \mathbf{R}$ . Then the exponential map restricts to a map  $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow G$ , and this map is a local chart at  $I \in G$ . ■

(This proposition may be proved by calculating the derivative of the exponential map at  $0 \in M_n \mathbf{R}$ . If  $f$  is any (smooth) function, then the derivative  $Df$  is given by the formula  $(Df)_x(V) = \frac{d}{dt} f(\gamma(t))|_0$ , where  $V = \frac{d}{dt} \gamma(t)|_0$ . Hence,  $(D \exp)_0 A = \frac{d}{dt} \exp tA|_0 = A$ . Thus,  $(D \exp)_0$  is the identity map!)

More generally, it is possible to define  $\exp : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow G$  for any Lie group. We shall not need the general definition. However, the following useful property of the exponential map (which is valid also in the general case) should be noted: For any  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ , the map  $\gamma : t \mapsto \exp tX$  provides a curve in  $G$  with  $\gamma(0) = e$  and  $\gamma'(0) = X$ .

*Exercises:*

(1.6) Let  $\gamma, \delta : (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow M_n \mathbf{R}$ . Show that  $(\gamma + \delta)' = \gamma' + \delta'$  and  $(\gamma\delta)' = \gamma'\delta + \gamma\delta'$ .

(1.7) Let  $A, B \in M_n \mathbf{R}$ . Is it true that  $\exp A \exp B = \exp(A + B)$ ?

(1.8) Show that  $T_e U_n = \text{skewHerm}_n \mathbf{C} = \{A \in M_n \mathbf{C} \mid A^* = -A\}$ .

(1.9) Show that  $T_e SL_n \mathbf{R} = \{A \in M_n \mathbf{R} \mid \text{trace } A = 0\}$ .

(1.10) Show that the exponential map  $\exp : \text{skewHerm}_n \rightarrow U_n$  is surjective.

**Bibliographical comments.**

See the comments at the end of Chapter 3.

Chapter 2: Lie Algebras

I. Definitions and examples.

**Definition.** Let  $V$  be a vector space (real or complex). We say that  $V$  is a Lie algebra (real or complex) if

- (1) there is a bilinear map  $[ \ , \ ] : V \times V \rightarrow V$ , such that
- (2)  $[X, Y] = -[Y, X]$  and  $[[X, Y], Z] + [[Y, Z], X] + [[Z, X], Y] = 0$  for all  $X, Y, Z \in V$ .

Examples:

- (1)  $V =$  any vector space,  $[X, Y] = 0$  for all  $X, Y \in V$ . (In this case, we say that  $V$  is *abelian*.)
- (2)  $V =$  the vector space consisting of all vector fields on a manifold  $M$ ,  $[ \ , \ ] =$  bracket of vector fields. (Recall that the bracket of vector fields  $V_1, V_2$  on any manifold  $M$  is defined by  $[V_1, V_2]f = V_1(V_2f) - V_2(V_1f)$ , where  $f : M \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is any function.)
- (3)  $V = \mathbf{R}^3$ ,  $[X, Y] = X \times Y$  (vector cross product).
- (4)  $V = \text{End}(W)$ , the vector space of all endomorphisms of a vector space  $W$ ,  $[X, Y] = XY - YX$ . (If  $V = \mathbf{R}^n$  or  $\mathbf{C}^n$ ,  $\text{End}(V) = M_n\mathbf{R}$  or  $M_n\mathbf{C}$ .)

Let  $G$  be a Lie group. Let  $\mathfrak{g} = T_eG$ . We can construct a Lie algebra structure for  $\mathfrak{g}$ , as follows. For any  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ , we define a vector field  $X^*$  on  $G$  by

$$X_g^* = DL_g(X) = \frac{d}{dt}g \exp tX|_0.$$

(Here  $L_g : G \rightarrow G$  is given by  $L_g(h) = gh$ . Later, we shall need the analogous map  $R_g : G \rightarrow G$ ,  $R_g(h) = hg$ .) In this way, we can identify  $\mathfrak{g}$  with a subspace of the Lie algebra of all vector fields on  $G$  (see Example (2)). This subspace consists precisely of the *left-invariant* vector fields on  $G$ , i.e., the vector fields  $V$  such that  $V_{gh} = DL_g(V_h)$  for all  $g, h \in G$ .

**Lemma.** If  $U, V$  are left-invariant vector fields on  $G$ , then so is  $[U, V]$ .

*Proof.* For any  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} V_{gh}f &= Vf(gh) = Vf \circ L_g(h) \\ DL_g(V_h)f &= DL_g(V)f(h) = Df(DL_g(V))(h) = V(f \circ L_g)(h), \end{aligned}$$

so the condition  $V_{gh} = DL_g(V_h)$  (for all  $h \in G$ ) is equivalent to the condition  $Vf \circ L_g(h) = V(f \circ L_g)(h)$  (for all  $h \in G$ ,  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ ). If

$U, V$  satisfy this condition, we have

$$\begin{aligned} [U, V](f \circ L_g) &= U(V(f \circ L_g)) - V(U(f \circ L_g)) \\ &= U((Vf) \circ L_g) - V((Uf) \circ L_g) \\ &= (U(Vf)) \circ L_g - (V(Uf)) \circ L_g \\ &= ([U, V]f) \circ L_g. \end{aligned}$$

So  $[U, V]$  satisfies the same condition. ■

It follows that  $\mathfrak{g}$  inherits the structure of a Lie algebra; it becomes a subalgebra of the Lie algebra of all vector fields. We therefore obtain  $[ \ , \ ] : \mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$  (satisfying conditions (1) and (2) above). By definition we have  $[X^*, Y^*] = [X, Y]^*$ , for any  $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$ . In future, we call  $\mathfrak{g}$  the *Lie algebra of the Lie group  $G$* .

**Proposition.** *If  $G$  is a matrix group, then the Lie algebra structure of  $\mathfrak{g}$  is given by*

$$[X, Y] = XY - YX$$

(where  $XY$  denotes the product of the matrices  $X, Y$ ).

*Sketch of the proof.* We have  $X^*f(g) = \frac{d}{dt}f(g \exp tX)|_0$ . Hence,

$$(Y^*(X^*f))(e) = \frac{d}{ds} \frac{d}{dt} f(\exp sY \exp tX)|_0|_0.$$

If  $f$  is linear, the proposition follows from this. The general case can be deduced from the case where  $f$  is linear. ■

*Exercise:*

(2.1) If  $G = SO_3$  (and if  $\mathfrak{g}$  is identified with  $\mathbf{R}^3$ ), show that we obtain Example (3) above.

The main significance of the Lie algebra (of a Lie group) is demonstrated by the next theorem:

**Theorem.** *There is a one to one correspondence between*

- (1) *connected Lie subgroups  $G$  of  $GL_n\mathbf{R}$  (or  $GL_n\mathbf{C}$ ), and*
- (2) *Lie subalgebras  $V$  of  $M_n\mathbf{R}$  (or  $M_n\mathbf{C}$ ).* ■

The correspondence assigns to a Lie group  $G$  its Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$ . (It follows from the definition of a Lie subgroup in Chapter 1 that this procedure is valid.) A proof of the theorem can be found in Varadarajan [1984], Theorem 2.5.2. There is a more general result, the “Fundamental Theorem of Lie Theory”, which establishes a one to one correspondence between *arbitrary*

Lie groups (up to local isomorphism) and Lie algebras. Details of this may also be found in Varadarajan [1984], section 2.8.

*Examples:*

- (1)  $G = SO_n, V = \text{skew}_n \mathbf{R}$ .
- (2) For fixed  $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$ , with  $(a, b) \neq (0, 0)$ , let

$$G = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \exp \sqrt{-1} at & 0 \\ 0 & \exp \sqrt{-1} bt \end{pmatrix} \middle| t \in \mathbf{R} \right\}$$

$$V = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{-1} at & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{-1} bt \end{pmatrix} \middle| t \in \mathbf{R} \right\}.$$

Observe that  $G$  is isomorphic to  $S^1 = U_1$  if  $b = 0$  or  $a/b$  is rational, and  $G$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbf{R} = M_1 \mathbf{R}$  otherwise. (For comments on the topology of  $G$ , see the end of section II of Chapter I.)

(3) Let  $G$  be a Lie subgroup of  $GL_n \mathbf{R}$ . Hence,  $\mathfrak{g}$  is a (real) Lie subalgebra of  $M_n \mathbf{R}$ , and  $\mathfrak{g} \otimes \mathbf{C}$  is a (complex) Lie subalgebra of  $M_n \mathbf{C}$ . By the theorem, there exists a (complex) Lie subgroup  $G^c$  of  $GL_n \mathbf{C}$  whose Lie algebra is  $\mathfrak{g} \otimes \mathbf{C}$ . The complex group  $G^c$  is called the *complexification* of  $G$ . For example,  $GL_n \mathbf{C}$  is the complexification of  $GL_n \mathbf{R}$ . *Warning: It is possible to have  $G_1^c = G_2^c$  and  $G_1 \neq G_2$ !* For example, the complexification of  $U_n$  is also  $GL_n \mathbf{C}$ .

The correspondence between Lie groups and Lie algebras is extremely important because (very roughly speaking) it reduces the study of Lie groups to linear algebra. The Lie algebra is also a useful tool in the study of the differential geometry of Lie groups. As an example, we mention the following simple result.

A *Riemannian metric*  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  on a manifold  $X$  is by definition an inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_x$  on each tangent space  $T_x X$  (and it is assumed that  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_x$  depends smoothly on  $x$ ). If  $X = G$ , a Lie group, then a *left-invariant Riemannian metric* is a Riemannian metric  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  such that  $\langle X, Y \rangle_k = \langle DL_h X, DL_h Y \rangle_{hk}$  for all  $X, Y \in T_k G$ , and all  $h, k \in G$ .

**Proposition.** *There is a one to one correspondence between*

- (1) *left-invariant Riemannian metrics  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  on  $G$ , and*
- (2) *inner products  $\langle\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle\rangle$  on  $\mathfrak{g}$ . ■*

(Given  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ , we define  $\langle\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle\rangle = \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_e$ . Conversely, given  $\langle\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle\rangle$ , we define  $\langle X, Y \rangle_g = \langle\langle DL_{g^{-1}} X, DL_{g^{-1}} Y \rangle\rangle$ , where  $X, Y \in T_g G$ .)



**II. The adjoint representation.**

**Definition.** Let  $G$  be a Lie group. Let  $V$  be a vector space. A representation of  $G$  on  $V$  is a homomorphism  $G \rightarrow GL(V)$ .

(The notation  $GL(V)$  means the group of invertible linear transformations  $T : V \rightarrow V$ . For example,  $GL(\mathbf{R}^n) = GL_n \mathbf{R}$ .)

**Definition.** Let  $G$  be a Lie group, and let  $\mathfrak{g}$  be the Lie algebra of  $G$ . The adjoint representation of  $G$  on  $\mathfrak{g}$  is the homomorphism

$$\text{Ad} : G \rightarrow GL(\mathfrak{g}), \quad g \mapsto D(L_g \circ R_{g^{-1}})_e.$$

Alternatively:

$$\text{Ad}(g)X = \left. \frac{d}{dt} g \exp tX g^{-1} \right|_{t=0}.$$

**Proposition.** If  $G$  is a matrix group, then  $\text{Ad}(A)X = AXA^{-1}$ .

*Proof.*  $\text{Ad}(A)X = \left. \frac{d}{dt} A(\exp tX)A^{-1} \right|_0 = \left. \frac{d}{dt} \exp tAXA^{-1} \right|_0 = AXA^{-1}$ . ■

There is a version of the adjoint representation for Lie algebras. First, a representation of a Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$  on a vector space  $V$  is defined to be a Lie algebra homomorphism  $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \text{End}(V)$ . Next, the adjoint representation of  $\mathfrak{g}$  on  $\mathfrak{g}$  is defined to be the homomorphism

$$\text{ad} = D(\text{Ad})_e : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \text{End}(\mathfrak{g}).$$

**Proposition.** If  $G$  is a matrix group, then  $\text{ad}(X)Y = XY - YX$ .

*Proof.*  $D(\text{Ad})_e(X)Y = \left. \frac{d}{dt} \text{Ad}(\exp tX)Y \right|_0 = \left. \frac{d}{dt} (\exp tX)Y(\exp -tX) \right|_0 = XY - YX$ . ■

(More generally, for arbitrary Lie groups, it can be shown that  $\text{ad}(X)Y = [X, Y]$ .)

From now on, we shall only consider matrix groups! This is not a serious restriction, and it simplifies our calculations.

The adjoint representation is useful in studying the geometry of  $G$ . For example:

**Proposition.** There is a one to one correspondence between

(1) bi-invariant Riemannian metrics  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  on  $G$  (bi-invariant means left invariant and right invariant), and

(2) Ad-invariant inner products  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  on  $\mathfrak{g}$  (Ad-invariant means that  $\langle \text{Ad}(g)X, \text{Ad}(g)Y \rangle = \langle X, Y \rangle$  for all  $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$  and all  $g \in G$ ). ■

This is proved in the same way as the proposition at the end of the last section.

By “averaging over  $G$ ” any inner product on  $\mathfrak{g}$ , and using the above correspondence, it is possible to prove the following existence result:

**Proposition.** *If  $G$  is a compact Lie group, then there exists a bi-invariant Riemannian metric on  $G$ .* ■

For example, if  $G = O_n$ , an Ad-invariant inner product on  $\text{skew}_n \mathbf{R}$  is given by  $\langle \langle A, B \rangle \rangle = -\text{trace } AB$ . By the proposition, we obtain a bi-invariant Riemannian metric on  $O_n$ .

A deeper property of the adjoint representation is that it measures the non-commutativity of  $G$ . For example, if  $G$  is abelian, then  $\text{Ad}(g)X = X$  for all  $g \in G, X \in \mathfrak{g}$ . The next definition helps to clarify this idea.

**Definition.** *Let  $G$  be a compact Lie group. A Cartan subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{g}$  is a maximal abelian Lie subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{g}$ .*

For example, let

$$\mathfrak{c}_n = \left\{ \left( \begin{array}{cccc} \sqrt{-1}x_1 & & & \\ & \sqrt{-1}x_2 & & \\ & & \dots & \\ & & & \sqrt{-1}x_n \end{array} \right) \mid x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbf{R} \right\}.$$

Then  $\mathfrak{c}_n$  is a Cartan subalgebra of  $\text{skewHerm}_n \mathbf{C}$ .

**Theorem (Cartan).** *Let  $G$  be a compact Lie group. Let  $\mathfrak{g}$  be the Lie algebra of  $G$ . Let  $\mathfrak{c}_1, \mathfrak{c}_2$  be two Cartan subalgebras of  $\mathfrak{g}$ . Then there exists some  $g \in G$  such that  $\text{Ad}(g)\mathfrak{c}_1 = \mathfrak{c}_2$ .* ■

**Corollary.** *Let  $G$  be a compact Lie group. Let  $\mathfrak{g}$  be the Lie algebra of  $G$ . Let  $\mathfrak{c}$  be a Cartan subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{g}$ . If  $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ , then there exists some  $g \in G$  such that  $\text{Ad}(g)X \in \mathfrak{c}$ .* ■

This is a “diagonalization theorem”. For example, let us take  $G = U_n, \mathfrak{g} = \text{skewHerm}_n \mathbf{C}$ , and  $\mathfrak{c} = \mathfrak{c}_n$ . Then we obtain the following familiar fact from linear algebra: If  $X \in \text{skewHerm}_n \mathbf{C}$ , then there exists some  $A \in U_n$  such that  $AXA^{-1} \in \mathfrak{c}_n$ .

There is a version of Cartan’s theorem for (compact, connected) Lie groups, where the concept of “Cartan subalgebra” is replaced by the concept of “maximal torus”. As a corollary, we obtain diagonalization theorems for Lie groups. The appropriate definition is: