

## 6. Classical Lie groups

**6.1. First examples of classical groups.** Roughly speaking, **classical groups** are groups of matrices arising from linear algebra. More precisely, classical groups are the following subgroups of the **general linear group**  $GL_n(\mathbb{K})$ :  $GL_n(\mathbb{K})$ ,  $SL_n(\mathbb{K})$  (the **special linear group**),  $O_n(\mathbb{K})$ ,  $SO_n(\mathbb{K})$ ,  $Sp_{2n}(\mathbb{K})$ ,  $O(p, q)$ ,  $SO(p, q)$ ,  $U(p, q)$ ,  $SU(p, q)$ ,  $Sp(2p, 2q) := Sp_{2n}(\mathbb{C}) \cap U(2p, 2q)$  for  $p + q = n$  (and also some others we'll consider later).

Namely,

- The **orthogonal group**  $O_n(\mathbb{K})$  is the group of matrices preserving the nondegenerate quadratic form in  $n$  variables,  $Q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$  (or, equivalently, the corresponding bilinear form  $x_1y_1 + \dots + x_ny_n$ );

- The **symplectic group**  $Sp_{2n}(\mathbb{K})$  is the group of matrices preserving a nondegenerate skew-symmetric form in  $2n$  variables;

- The **pseudo-orthogonal group**  $O(p, q)$ ,  $p + q = n$  is the group of real matrices preserving a nondegenerate quadratic form of signature  $(p, q)$ ,  $Q = x_1^2 + \dots + x_p^2 - x_{p+1}^2 - \dots - x_n^2$  (or, equivalently, the corresponding bilinear form);

- The **pseudo-unitary group**  $U(p, q)$ ,  $p + q = n$  is the group of complex matrices preserving a nondegenerate Hermitian quadratic form of signature  $(p, q)$ ,  $Q = |x_1|^2 + \dots + |x_p|^2 - |x_{p+1}|^2 - \dots - |x_n|^2$  (or, equivalently, the corresponding sesquilinear form);

- The **special pseudo-orthogonal, pseudo-unitary, and orthogonal groups**  $SO(p, q) \subset O(p, q)$ ,  $SU(p, q) \subset U(p, q)$ ,  $SO_n \subset O_n$  are the subgroups of matrices of determinant 1.

Note that the groups don't change under switching  $p, q$  and that  $(S)O_n(\mathbb{R}) = (S)O(n, 0)$ ; it is also denoted  $(S)O(n)$ . Also  $(S)U(n, 0)$  is denoted by  $(S)U(n)$ .

**Exercise 6.1.** Show that the special (pseudo)orthogonal groups are index 2 subgroups of the (pseudo)orthogonal groups.

Let us show that they are all Lie groups. For this purpose we'll use the **exponential map** for matrices. Namely, recall from linear algebra that we have an analytic function  $\exp : \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{K}) \rightarrow GL_n(\mathbb{K})$  given by the formula

$$\exp(a) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^n}{n!},$$

and the matrix-valued analytic function  $\log$  near  $1 \in GL_n(\mathbb{K})$ ,

$$\log(A) = - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(1-A)^n}{n}.$$

Namely, this is well defined if the spectral radius of  $1 - A$  is  $< 1$  (i.e., all eigenvalues are in the open unit disk). These maps have the following properties:

1. They are mutually inverse.
2. They are conjugation-invariant.
3.  $d \exp_0 = d \log_1 = \text{Id}$ .
4. If  $xy = yx$  then  $\exp(x + y) = \exp(x) \exp(y)$ . If  $XY = YX$  then  $\log(XY) = \log(X) + \log(Y)$  (for  $X, Y$  sufficiently close to 1).
5. For  $x \in \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{K})$  the map  $t \mapsto \exp(tx)$  is a homomorphism of Lie groups  $\mathbb{K} \rightarrow GL_n(\mathbb{K})$ .
6.  $\det \exp(a) = \exp(\text{Tr } a)$ ,  $\log(\det A) = \text{Tr}(\log A)$ .

Now we can look at classical groups and see what happens to the equations defining them when we apply  $\log$ .

1.  $G = SL_n(\mathbb{K})$ . We already showed that it is a Lie group in Example 3.14 but let us re-do it by a different method. The group  $G$  is defined by the equation  $\det A = 1$ . So for  $A$  close to 1 we have  $\log(\det A) = 0$ , i.e.,  $\text{Tr } \log(A) = 0$ . So  $\log(A) \in \mathfrak{sl}_n(\mathbb{K}) = \mathfrak{g}$ , the space of matrices with trace 0. This defines a local chart near  $1 \in G$ , showing that  $G$  is a manifold, hence a Lie group (namely, local charts near other points are obtained by translation).

2.  $G = O_n(\mathbb{K})$ . The equation is  $A^T = -A$ , thus  $\log(A)^T = -\log(A)$ , so  $\log(A) \in \mathfrak{so}_n(\mathbb{K}) = \mathfrak{g}$ , the space of skew-symmetric matrices.

3.  $G = U(n)$ . The equation is  $\overline{A}^T = -A$ , thus  $\overline{\log(A)}^T = -\log(A)$ , so  $\log(A) \in \mathfrak{u}_n = \mathfrak{g}$ , the space of skew-Hermitian matrices.

**Exercise 6.2.** Do the same for all classical groups listed above.

We obtain

**Proposition 6.3.** *Every classical group  $G$  from the above list is a Lie group, with  $\mathfrak{g} = T_1 G \subset \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{K})$ . Moreover, if  $\mathfrak{u} \subset \mathfrak{gl}_n(\mathbb{K})$  is a small neighborhood of 0 and  $U = \exp(\mathfrak{u})$  then  $\exp$  and  $\log$  define mutually inverse diffeomorphisms between  $\mathfrak{u} \cap \mathfrak{g}$  and  $U \cap G$ .*

**Exercise 6.4.** Which of these groups are complex Lie groups?

**Exercise 6.5.** Use this proposition to compute the dimensions of classical groups:  $\dim SL_n = n^2 - 1$ ,  $\dim O_n = n(n - 1)/2$ ,  $\dim Sp_{2n} = n(2n + 1)$ ,  $\dim SU_n = n^2 - 1$ , etc. (Note that for complex groups we give the dimension over  $\mathbb{C}$ ).

**6.2. Quaternions.** An important role in the theory of Lie groups is played by the **algebra of quaternions**, which is the only noncommutative finite dimensional division algebra over  $\mathbb{R}$ , discovered in the 19th century by W. R. Hamilton.

**Definition 6.6.** The **algebra of quaternions** is the  $\mathbb{R}$ -algebra with basis  $1, \mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{k}$  and multiplication rules

$$\mathbf{ij} = -\mathbf{ji} = \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{jk} = -\mathbf{kj} = \mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{ki} = -\mathbf{ik} = \mathbf{j}, \quad \mathbf{i}^2 = \mathbf{j}^2 = \mathbf{k}^2 = -1.$$

This algebra is associative but not commutative.

Given a quaternion

$$\mathbf{q} = a + b\mathbf{i} + c\mathbf{j} + d\mathbf{k}, \quad a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R},$$

we define the **conjugate quaternion** by the formula

$$\bar{\mathbf{q}} = a - b\mathbf{i} - c\mathbf{j} - d\mathbf{k}.$$

Thus

$$\mathbf{q}\bar{\mathbf{q}} = |\mathbf{q}|^2 = a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2 \in \mathbb{R},$$

where  $|\mathbf{q}|$  is the length of  $\mathbf{q}$  as a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . So if  $\mathbf{q} \neq 0$  then it is invertible and

$$\mathbf{q}^{-1} = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{q}}}{|\mathbf{q}|^2}.$$

Thus  $\mathbb{H}$  is a **division algebra** (i.e., a skew-field). One can show that the only finite dimensional associative division algebras over  $\mathbb{R}$  are  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{C}$  and  $\mathbb{H}$ . (See Exercise 6.9).

In particular, we can do linear algebra over  $\mathbb{H}$  in almost the same way as we do over ordinary fields. Namely, every (left or right) module over  $\mathbb{H}$  is free and has a basis; such a module is called a (left or right) **quaternionic vector space**. In particular, any (say, right) quaternionic vector space of dimension  $n$  (i.e., with basis of  $n$  elements) is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{H}^n$ . Moreover,  $\mathbb{H}$ -linear maps between such spaces are given by left multiplication by quaternionic matrices. Finally, it is easy to see that Gaussian elimination works the same way as over ordinary fields; in particular, every invertible square matrix over  $\mathbb{H}$  is a product of elementary matrices of the form  $1 + (\mathbf{q} - 1)E_{ii}$  and  $1 + \mathbf{q}E_{ij}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , where  $\mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{H}$  is nonzero.

Also it is easy to show that

$$\overline{\mathbf{q}_1\mathbf{q}_2} = \overline{\mathbf{q}_2\mathbf{q}_1}, \quad |\mathbf{q}_1\mathbf{q}_2| = |\mathbf{q}_1| \cdot |\mathbf{q}_2|$$

(check this!). So quaternions are similar to complex numbers, except they are non-commutative. Finally, note that  $\mathbb{H}$  contains a copy of  $\mathbb{C}$  spanned by  $1, \mathbf{i}$ ; however, this does not make  $\mathbb{H}$  as  $\mathbb{C}$ -algebra since  $\mathbf{i}$  is not a central element.

**Proposition 6.7.** *The group of unit quaternions  $\{\mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{H} : |\mathbf{q}| = 1\}$  under multiplication is isomorphic to  $SU(2)$  as a Lie group.*

*Proof.* We can realize  $\mathbb{H}$  as  $\mathbb{C}^2$ , where  $\mathbb{C} \subset \mathbb{H}$  is spanned by  $1, \mathbf{i}$ ; namely,  $(z_1, z_2) \mapsto z_1 + \mathbf{j}z_2$ . Then left multiplication by quaternions on  $\mathbb{H} = \mathbb{C}^2$  commutes with right multiplication by  $\mathbb{C}$ , i.e., is  $\mathbb{C}$ -linear. So it is given by complex 2-by-2 matrices. It is easy to compute that the corresponding matrix is

$$z_1 + z_2\mathbf{j} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} z_1 & z_2 \\ -\overline{z_2} & \overline{z_1} \end{pmatrix},$$

and we showed in Example 2.3(5) that such matrices (with  $|z_1|^2 + |z_2|^2 = 1$ ) are exactly the matrices from  $SU(2)$ .  $\square$

This is another way to see that  $SU(2) \cong S^3$  as a manifold (since the set of unit quaternions is manifestly  $S^3$ ).

**Corollary 6.8.** *The map  $\mathbf{q} \mapsto (\frac{\mathbf{q}}{|\mathbf{q}|}, |\mathbf{q}|)$  is an isomorphism of Lie groups  $\mathbb{H}^\times \cong SU(2) \times \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ .*

This is the quaternionic analog of the trigonometric form of complex numbers, except the “phase” factor  $\frac{\mathbf{q}}{|\mathbf{q}|}$  is now not in  $S^1$  but in  $S^3 = SU(2)$ .

**Exercise 6.9.** Let  $D$  be a finite dimensional division algebra over  $\mathbb{R}$ .

- (i) Show that if  $D$  is commutative then  $D = \mathbb{R}$  or  $D = \mathbb{C}$ .
- (ii) Assume that  $D$  is not commutative. Take  $\mathbf{q} \in D$ ,  $\mathbf{q} \notin \mathbb{R}$ . Show that there exist  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\mathbf{i} := a + b\mathbf{q}$  satisfies  $\mathbf{i}^2 = -1$ .
- (iii) Decompose  $D$  into the eigenspaces  $D_\pm$  of the operator of conjugation by  $\mathbf{i}$  with eigenvalues  $\pm 1$  and show that  $1, \mathbf{i}$  is a basis of  $D_+$ , i.e.,  $D_+ \cong \mathbb{C}$ .
- (iv) Pick  $\mathbf{q} \in D_-$ ,  $\mathbf{q} \neq 0$ , and show that  $D_- = D_+\mathbf{q}$ , so  $\{1, \mathbf{i}, \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{i}\mathbf{q}\}$  is a basis of  $D$  over  $\mathbb{R}$ . Deduce that  $\mathbf{q}^2$  is a central element of  $D$ .
- (v) Conclude that  $\mathbf{q}^2 = -\lambda$  where  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$  and deduce that  $D \cong \mathbb{H}$ .

**6.3. More classical groups.** Now we can define a new classical group  $GL_n(\mathbb{H})$ , a real Lie group of dimension  $4n^2$ , called the **quaternionic general linear group**. For example, as we just showed,  $GL_1(\mathbb{H}) = \mathbb{H}^\times \cong SU(2) \times \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ .

For  $A \in GL_n(\mathbb{H})$ , let  $\det A$  be the determinant of  $A$  as a linear operator on  $\mathbb{C}^{2n} = \mathbb{H}^n$ .

**Lemma 6.10.** *We have  $\det A > 0$ .*

*Proof.* For  $n = 1$ ,  $A = \mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{H}^\times$  and  $\det \mathbf{q} = |\mathbf{q}|^2 > 0$ . It follows that  $\det(1 + (\mathbf{q} - 1)E_{ii}) = |\mathbf{q}|^2 > 0$ . Also it is easy to see that  $\det(1 + \mathbf{q}E_{ij}) = 1$  for  $i \neq j$ . It then follows by Gaussian elimination that for any  $A$  we have  $\det(A) > 0$ .  $\square$

Let  $SL_n(\mathbb{H}) \subset GL_n(\mathbb{H})$  be the subgroup of matrices  $A$  with  $\det A = 1$ , called the **quaternionic special linear group**.

**Exercise 6.11.** Show that  $SL_n(\mathbb{H}) \subset GL_n(\mathbb{H})$  is a normal subgroup, and  $GL_n(\mathbb{H}) \cong SL_n(\mathbb{H}) \times \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ .

Thus  $SL_n(\mathbb{H})$  is a real Lie group of dimension  $4n^2 - 1$ .

We can also define groups of quaternionic matrices preserving various sesquilinear forms. Namely, let  $V \cong \mathbb{H}^n$  be a right quaternionic vector space.

**Definition 6.12.** A **sesquilinear form** on  $V$  is a biadditive function  $(, ) : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{H}$  such that

$$(\mathbf{x}\alpha, \mathbf{y}\beta) = \bar{\alpha}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})\beta, \quad \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V, \quad \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{H}.$$

Such a form is called **Hermitian** if  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \overline{(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})}$  and **skew-Hermitian** if  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = -\overline{(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})}$ .

Note that the order of factors is important here!

**Proposition 6.13.** (i) Every nondegenerate Hermitian form on  $V$  in some basis takes the form

$$(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \bar{x}_1 y_1 + \dots + \bar{x}_p y_p - \bar{x}_{p+1} y_{p+1} - \dots - \bar{x}_n y_n$$

for a unique pair  $(p, q)$  with  $p + q = n$ .

(ii) Every nondegenerate skew-Hermitian form on  $V$  in some basis takes the form

$$(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \bar{x}_1 \mathbf{j} y_1 + \dots + \bar{x}_n \mathbf{j} y_n.$$

**Exercise 6.14.** Prove Proposition 6.13.

In (i), the pair  $(p, q)$  is called the **signature** of the quaternionic Hermitian form.

**Exercise 6.15.** Show that a nondegenerate quaternionic Hermitian form of signature  $(p, q)$  can be written as

$$(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = B_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{j} B_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}),$$

with  $B_1, B_2$  taking values in  $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{R} + \mathbb{R}\mathbf{i} \subset \mathbb{H}$ , where  $B_1$  is a usual nondegenerate Hermitian form of signature  $(2p, 2q)$  and  $B_2$  is a nondegenerate skew-symmetric bilinear form on  $V$  as a  $(2n)$ -dimensional  $\mathbb{C}$ -vector space. Show that  $B_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = B_1(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{y})$ . Deduce that any complex linear transformation preserving  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  is  $\mathbb{H}$ -linear.

Thus the group of symmetries of a nondegenerate quaternionic Hermitian form of signature  $(p, q)$  is  $Sp(2p, 2q) = Sp_{2n}(\mathbb{C}) \cap U(2p, 2q)$ . It is called the **quaternionic pseudo-unitary group**.

One also sometimes uses the notation  $U(p, q, \mathbb{R}) = O(p, q)$ ,  $U(p, q, \mathbb{C}) = U(p, q)$ ,  $U(p, q, \mathbb{H}) = Sp(2p, 2q)$ , and  $U(n, 0, \mathbb{K}) = U(n, \mathbb{K})$  for  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{H}$ .

**Exercise 6.16.** Show that a nondegenerate quaternionic skew-Hermitian form can be written as

$$(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = B_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{j}B_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}),$$

with  $B_1, B_2$  taking values in  $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{R} + \mathbb{R}\mathbf{i} \subset \mathbb{H}$ , where  $B_1$  is an ordinary skew-Hermitian form, while  $B_2$  is a symmetric bilinear form (both nondegenerate). Show that  $B_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = B_1(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{y})$ . Deduce that any complex linear transformation preserving  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  is  $\mathbb{H}$ -linear. Also show that the signature of the Hermitian form  $iB_1$  is necessarily  $(n, n)$ .

Thus the group of symmetries of a nondegenerate quaternionic skew-Hermitian form is  $O_{2n}(\mathbb{C}) \cap U(n, n)$ . This group is denoted by  $O^*(2n)$  and called the **quaternionic orthogonal group**. There is also the subgroup  $SO^*(2n) \subset O^*(2n)$  of matrices of determinant 1 (having index 2).

All of these groups are Lie groups, which is shown similarly to Subsection 6.1, using the exponential map.

**Exercise 6.17.** Compute the dimensions of all classical groups introduced above.

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