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HEAT EQUATION ON A COMPACT LIE GROUP

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สถาบนวิทยบริการ ชาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

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Heat equation on a compact Lie group

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We study the heat kernel on a compact Lie group. In this work, we will use structure theory of semisimple Lie algebra to find equivalent forms of the heat kernel on a general compact Lie group.



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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Let K be a compact, connected Lie group, with Lie algebra \mathfrak{k} . Let \langle , \rangle denote a fixed Ad-K-invariant inner product on \mathfrak{k} , the existence of which is guaranteed by the compactness of K. Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be an orthonormal basis of \mathfrak{k} , where we view the X_i 's as left-invariant vector fields on K. Define the Casimir operator on K to be

$$\Delta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i^2.$$

If π is a representation of K acting on some space V_{π} , and if π is irreducible, then

$$\pi(\Delta) = \sum \pi(X_i)^2 = -\lambda_{\pi}I.$$

Let ρ_t be the heat kernel for Δ , that is, the fundamental solution at the identity of the heat equation

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \Delta u.$$

Stein proved the existence of such a fundamental solution, and that ρ_t is a C^{∞} function, which is real and strictly positive.

In addition, Using the Peter-Weyl theorem, we can derive a series expansion for ρ_t in terms of the character of K, namely

$$\rho_t(x) = \sum_{\pi \in \widehat{K}} \dim V_{\pi} e^{-\lambda_{\pi} t} \chi_{\pi}(x). \tag{1.1}$$

Here \widehat{K} refers to the set of isomorphism classes of irreducible representation of K, and $\chi_{\pi}(x) = \operatorname{tr}(\pi(x))$ is the character of π .

There is another formula for the heat kernel in terms of Poisson's summation formula.

In this work, we illustrate how to find explicit formulas for the heat kernel on S^1 and SU(2) and give another formula using Poisson's summation formula. Using structure theory of semisimple Lie algebra, we can give an analogous formulas for a general simply-connected compact semisimple Lie group. The main reference of this work is the paper [6].

CHAPTER 2

Lie group and Lie algebra

In this chapter, we give definitions of matrix Lie groups, Lie algebras, representations and their relevant concepts. Details can be found in [2].

Definition 2.1. The general linear group over the real numbers, denoted $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$, is the group of all $n \times n$ invertible matrices with real entries. The general linear group over the complex numbers, denoted $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$, is the group of all $n \times n$ invertible matrices with complex entries.

Definition 2.2. Let $M_n(\mathbb{C})$ denote the space of all $n \times n$ matrices with complex entries.

Definition 2.3. Let $\{A_m\}$ be a sequence of complex matrices in $M_n(\mathbb{C})$. We say that $\{A_m\}$ converges to a matrix A if each entry of A_m converges (as $m \to \infty$) to the corresponding entry of A

Definition 2.4. A matrix Lie group is any subgroup G of $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ with the following property: If $\{A_m\}$ is any sequence of matrices in G, and $\{A_m\}$ converges to some matrix A then either $A \in G$, or A is not invertible.

Example 2.5. The following group are matrix Lie groups.

GL
$$(n, \mathbb{C}) = \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{C}) \mid \det X \neq 0\}$$

GL $(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{R}) \mid \det X \neq 0\}$
SL $(n, \mathbb{C}) = \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{C}) \mid \det X = 1\}$
SL $(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{R}) \mid \det X = 1\}$
O $(n) = \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{R}) \mid X^t = X^{-1}\}$
SO $(n) = \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{R}) \mid X^t = X^{-1} \text{ and } \det X = 1\}$
U $(n) = \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{C}) \mid X^* = X^{-1}\}$; $X^* = \bar{X}^t$
SU $(n) = \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{C}) \mid X^* = X^{-1} \text{ and } \det X = 1\}$

Definition 2.6. Let G and H be matrix Lie groups. A map Φ from G to H is called a **Lie group homomorphism** if Φ is a group homomorphism and Φ is continuous. If, in addition, Φ is one-to-one and onto and the inverse map Φ^{-1} is continuous, then Φ is called a **Lie group isomorphism**

Definition 2.7. A finite-dimensional real or complex Lie algebra is a finite-dimensional real or complex vector space \mathfrak{g} , together with a map $[\cdot, \cdot]$ from $\mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g}$ into \mathfrak{g} , with the following properties:

- 1. $[\cdot, \cdot]$ is bilinear;
- 2. [X, Y] = -[Y, X] for all $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$;
- 3. [X, [Y, Z]] + [Y, [Z, X]] + [Z, [X, Y]] = 0 for all $X, Y, Z \in \mathfrak{g}$.

Condition 2 is called "skew symmetry". Condition 3 is called the **Jacobi's** identity. Note also that Condition 2 implies that [X,X] = 0 for all $X \in \mathfrak{g}$. We will deal only with finite-dimensional Lie algebras and will from now on interpret "Lie algebra" as "finite-dimensional Lie algebra".

Example 2.8. The space $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ of all $n \times n$ real matrices is a real Lie algebra if the bracket operation [X,Y] is defined by

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

This Lie algebra is denoted by $\mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathbb{R})$.

Similarly, the space $M_n(\mathbb{C})$ of all $n \times n$ complex matrices is a complex Lie algebra with respect to the same bracket operation and denoted by $\mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathbb{C})$.

Let V be a finite-dimensional real or complex vector space, and let $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$ denote the space of linear maps of V into itself. The, $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$ becomes a real or complex Lie algebra with the bracket operation [X,Y]=XY-YX.

Definition 2.9. A subalgebra of a real or complex Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is a subspace \mathfrak{h} of \mathfrak{g} such that $[H_1, H_2] \in \mathfrak{h}$ for all H_1 and $H_2 \in \mathfrak{h}$. If \mathfrak{g} is a complex Lie algebra and \mathfrak{h} is a real subspace of \mathfrak{g} which is closed under brackets, then \mathfrak{h} is said to be a real subalgebra of \mathfrak{g} .

Theorem 2.10. Let G be a matrix Lie group, then the set

$$\mathfrak{g} = \{X \in \mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathbb{C}) \,|\, e^{tX} \in G \text{ for all } t \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

is a Lie subalgebra of $M_n(\mathbb{C})$. We call \mathfrak{g} the Lie algebra of a matrix Lie group G.

Example 2.11. By Theorem 2.10, we have the following sets are Lie algebras (of

a Lie group in Example 2.5 respectively).

$$\begin{split} \mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathbb{C}) &= M_n(\mathbb{C}) \\ \mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathbb{R}) &= M_n(\mathbb{R}) \\ \mathfrak{sl}(n,\mathbb{C}) &= \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{C}) \mid \operatorname{tr}(X) = 0\} \\ \mathfrak{sl}(n,\mathbb{R}) &= \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{R}) \mid \operatorname{tr}(X) = 0\} \\ \mathfrak{o}(n) &= \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{R}) \mid X^t = -X\} \\ \mathfrak{so}(n) &= \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{R}) \mid X^t = -X\} \\ \mathfrak{u}(n) &= \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{C}) \mid X^* = -X\} \\ \mathfrak{su}(n) &= \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{C}) \mid X^* = -X \text{ and } \operatorname{tr}(X) = 0\} \end{split}$$

Definition 2.12. If \mathfrak{g} and \mathfrak{h} are Lie algebras, then a linear map $\phi: \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{h}$ is called a **Lie algebra homomorphism** if $\phi([X,Y]) = [\phi(X),\phi(Y)]$ for all $X,Y \in \mathfrak{g}$. If, in addition, ϕ is one-to-one and onto, then ϕ is called a **Lie algebra** isomorphism. A Lie algebra isomorphism of a Lie algebra with itself is called a **Lie algebra automorphism**.

Definition 2.13. If V is a finite-dimensional real vector space, then the complexification of V, denoted $V_{\mathbb{C}}$, is the space of formal linear combinations

$$v_1 + iv_2$$

with $v_1, v_2 \in V$. This becomes a real vector space in the obvious way and becomes a complex vector space if we define

$$i(v_1 + iv_2) = -v_2 + iv_1.$$

Proposition 2.14. Let \mathfrak{g} be a finite-dimensional real Lie algebra and $\mathfrak{g}_{\mathbb{C}}$ its complexification (as a real vector space). Then, the bracket operation on \mathfrak{g} has a unique extension to $\mathfrak{g}_{\mathbb{C}}$ which makes $\mathfrak{g}_{\mathbb{C}}$ into a complex Lie algebra. The complex Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}_{\mathbb{C}}$ is called the **complexification** of the real Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} .

Proposition 2.15. The Lie algebras $\mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathbb{R})$, $\mathfrak{sl}(n,\mathbb{R})$, $\mathfrak{u}(n)$ and $\mathfrak{su}(n)$ are real Lie algebras and the complexifications are the following:

$$\mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathbb{R})_{\mathbb{C}} \cong \mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathbb{C})$$

 $\mathfrak{sl}(n,\mathbb{R})_{\mathbb{C}} \cong \mathfrak{sl}(n,\mathbb{C})$
 $\mathfrak{u}(n)_{\mathbb{C}} \cong \mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathbb{C})$
 $\mathfrak{su}(n)_{\mathbb{C}} \cong \mathfrak{sl}(n,\mathbb{C})$

Definition 2.16. Let G be a matrix Lie group. Then a finite-dimensional complex representation of G is a Lie group homomorphism

$$\Pi: G \to \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$$

 $(n \ge 1)$ or more generally a Lie group homomorphism

$$\Pi: G \to \operatorname{Aut}(V)$$

where V is a finite-dimensional complex vector space (with dim $V \geq 1$). A finite dimensional real representation of G is a Lie group homomorphism Π of G into $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ or into GL(V), where V is a finite-dimensional real vector space.

If g is a real or complex Lie algebra, then a finite-dimensional complex representation of g is a Lie algebra homomorphism π of g into $\mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathbb{C})$ or into $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$, where V is a finite-dimensional complex vector space. If g is a real Lie algebra, then a finite-dimensional real representation of g is a Lie algebra homomorphism π of g into $\mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathbb{R})$ or into $\mathfrak{gl}(V)$.

Example 2.17. Let G be a matrix Lie group, with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . For $A \in G$, define a linear map $\mathrm{Ad}_A : G \to \mathrm{GL}(\mathfrak{g})$ by the formula

$$Ad_A(X) = AXA^{-1}$$
.

Then Ad_A is a representation of G, acting on the space \mathfrak{g} .

Example 2.18. Let \mathfrak{g} be a Lie algebra. For $X \in \mathfrak{g}$, define a linear map ad : $\mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g})$ by

$$ad_X(Y) = [X, Y].$$

Note that $\operatorname{ad}_{[X,Y]}(Z) = [\operatorname{ad}_X,\operatorname{ad}_Y](Z)$. Thus $\operatorname{ad}: \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{g})$ is a Lie algebra homomorphism and hence ad is a representation of \mathfrak{g} , acting on the space \mathfrak{g} .

Definition 2.19. Let Π be a finite-dimensional real or complex representation of a matrix Lie group G, acting on a space V. A subspace W of V is called **invariant** if $\Pi(A)w \in W$ for all $w \in W$ and all $A \in G$. An invariant subspace W is called non-trivial if $W \neq \{0\}$ and $W \neq V$. A representation with no non-trivial invariant subspaces is called **irreducible**.

The terms invariant, non-trivial, and irreducible are defined analogously for a representation of a Lie algebra.

Definition 2.20. Let G be a matrix Lie group, let Π be a representation of G acting on the space V, and let Σ be a representation of G acting on the space W. A linear map $\phi: V \to W$ is called an **intertwining map** of representations if

$$\phi(\Pi(A)v) = \Sigma(A)\phi(v)$$

for all $A \in G$ and all $v \in V$. The analogous property defines intertwining maps of representations of a Lie algebra.

If ϕ is an intertwining map of representations and, in addition, ϕ is invertible, the ϕ is said to be an **equivalence** of representations. If there exists an isomorphism between V and W, then the representations are said to be **equivalent**.

Proposition 2.21. Let G be a matrix Lie group with Lie algebra $\mathfrak g$ and let Π be a (finite-dimensional real or complex) representation of G, acting on the space V. Then, there is a unique representation π of $\mathfrak g$ acting on the same space such that

$$\Pi(e^X) = e^{\pi(X)}$$

for all $X \in \mathfrak{g}$. The representation π can be computed as

$$\pi(X) = \frac{d}{dt} \Pi(e^{tX})|_{t=0}$$

and satisfies

$$\pi(AXA^{-1}) = \Pi(A)\pi(X)\Pi(A)^{-1}$$

for all $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ and all $A \in G$.

Proposition 2.22.

- 1. Let G be a connected matrix Lie group with Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . Let Π be a representation of G and π the associated representation of \mathfrak{g} . Then, Π is irreducible if and only if π is irreducible.
- 2. Let G be a connected matrix Lie group. Let Π₁ and Π₂ be representations of G, and let π₁ and π₂ be the associated Lie algebra representations. Then π₁ and π₂ are equivalent if and only if Π₁ and Π₂ are equivalent.

Proposition 2.23. Let $\mathfrak g$ be a real Lie algebra and $\mathfrak g_{\mathbb C}$ its complexification. Then every finite-dimensional complex representation π of $\mathfrak g$ has a unique extension to a complex-linear representation of $\mathfrak g_{\mathbb C}$, also denoted π and given by

$$\pi(X+iY) = \pi(X) + i\pi(Y)$$

for all $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$. Furthermore, π is irreducible as a representation of $\mathfrak{g}_{\mathbb{C}}$ if and only if it is irreducible as a representation of \mathfrak{g} .

Theorem 2.24 (Schur's Lemma).

1. Let V and W be irreducible real or complex representations of a group or Lie algebra and let $\phi: V \to W$ be an intertwining map. Then either $\phi = 0$ or ϕ is an isomorphism.

- Let V be an irreducible complex representation of a group or Lie algebra and let φ: V → V be an intertwining map of V with itself. Then φ = λI, for some λ ∈ C.
- Let V and W be irreducible complex representations of a group or Lie algebra and let φ₁, φ₂: V → W be nonzero intertwining maps. Then φ₁ = λφ₂, for some λ ∈ C.

Corollary 2.25. Let Π be an irreducible complex representation of a matrix Lie group G. If A is in the center of G, then $\Pi(A) = \lambda I$. Similarly, if π is an irreducible complex representation of a Lie algebra $\mathfrak g$ and if X is in the center of $\mathfrak g$ (i.e., [X,Y]=0 for all $Y\in \mathfrak g$), then $\pi(X)=\lambda I$.

Corollary 2.26. An irreducible complex representation of a commutative group or Lie algebra is one dimensional.

Definition 2.27. Let \mathfrak{g} be the Lie algebra over a field K. Denote T is the tensor algebra of \mathfrak{g} . Then T, as a vector space, is the direct sum

$$T = \bigoplus_{m=0}^{\infty} \mathfrak{g}^{\otimes m}$$

and the product in T is defined from the tensor product. Let I be the two-sided ideal of T generated by the set

$$\{X\otimes Y-Y\otimes X-[X,Y]\mid X,Y\in\mathfrak{g}\}.$$

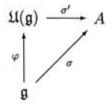
The associative algebra $\mathfrak{U}(\mathfrak{g}) = T/I$ is called the universal enveloping algebra of \mathfrak{g} .

Let ψ be the canonical projection of T onto $\mathfrak{U}(\mathfrak{g})$ and φ the restriction of ψ to \mathfrak{g} . Now φ is a linear map of \mathfrak{g} into $\mathfrak{U}(\mathfrak{g})$ satisfying

$$\varphi([X,Y]) = \varphi(X)\varphi(Y) - \varphi(Y)\varphi(X) = [\varphi(X), \varphi(Y)].$$

The map φ is called the **canonical map** of \mathfrak{g} into $\mathfrak{U}(\mathfrak{g})$. Its universal mapping property is described in the following Proposition.

Proposition 2.28. Let \mathfrak{g} be a Lie algebra over a field K, A an associative algebra over K and σ a Lie algebra homomorphism of \mathfrak{g} into A. Then there exists an algebra homomorphism σ' of $\mathfrak{U}(\mathfrak{g})$ into A such that $\sigma' \circ \varphi = \sigma$. That is, the following diagram commutes:



Proof. The linear map σ of \mathfrak{g} into A is extended to a homomorphism σ_0 of T into A by defining

$$\sigma_0(X_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes X_n) = \sigma(X_1) \cdots \sigma(X_n)$$

The extended homomorphism σ_0 sends the ideal I to 0 because

$$\sigma_0(X \otimes Y - Y \otimes X - [X, Y]) = \sigma(X)\sigma(Y) - \sigma(Y)\sigma(X) - \sigma([X, Y]) = 0.$$

Therefore, the image σ_0 of an element $t \in T$ depends only on the coset t + I and hence there exists a homomorphism σ' of $\mathfrak{U}(\mathfrak{g})$ into A satisfying $\sigma' \circ \varphi = \sigma$.

Definition 2.29. The bilinear form B on $g \times g$ defined by

$$B(X,Y) = \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_X \operatorname{ad}_Y)$$

is called the Killing form of g.

Proposition 2.30. The Killing form has the following properties:

1.
$$B(X,Y) = B(Y,X);$$

2.
$$B([X,Y],Z) = B(X,[Y,Z])$$
.

Proof. Since tr(AB) = tr(BA), we have

$$B(X, Y) = \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_X \operatorname{ad}_Y)$$
$$= \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_Y \operatorname{ad}_X)$$
$$= B(Y, X)$$

and

$$B([X,Y],Z) = \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_{[X,Y]},\operatorname{ad}_Z)$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}([\operatorname{ad}_X,\operatorname{ad}_Y],\operatorname{ad}_Z)$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_X\operatorname{ad}_Y\operatorname{ad}_Z) - \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_Y\operatorname{ad}_Z\operatorname{ad}_Z)$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_X\operatorname{ad}_Y\operatorname{ad}_Z) - \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_X\operatorname{ad}_Z\operatorname{ad}_Y)$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_X[\operatorname{ad}_Y,\operatorname{ad}_Z])$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}(\operatorname{ad}_X\operatorname{ad}_{[Y,Z]})$$

$$= B(X,[Y,Z])$$

for any $X, Y, Z \in \mathfrak{g}$.

Definition 2.31. A symmetric bilinear form $B: V \times V \to K$ is said to be non-degenerate if B(v, w) = 0 for all $w \in V$ implies v = 0.

Definition 2.32. A finite-dimensional Lie algebra g over a field of characteristic 0 is called **semisimple** if its Killing form is non-degenerate.

A connected matrix Lie group is called **semisimple** if its Lie algebra is semisimple.

Example 2.33. The Lie algebra $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ is semisimple. Put

$$X_1 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad X_2 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad X_3 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{pmatrix}$$

be a basis of su(2). Thus

$$\operatorname{ad}_{X_1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ \operatorname{ad}_{X_2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ \operatorname{ad}_{X_3} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore we have

$$B(X_i, X_j) = -2\delta_{ij} \quad (1 \le i, j \le 3),$$

and $det(B(X_i, X_j)) \neq 0$.

Definition 2.34. Let $(X_i)_{1 \le i \le n}$ be a basis of a semisimple Lie algebra. Write

$$g_{ij} = B(X_i, X_j)$$

and

$$(g^{ij}) = (g_{ij})^{-1}.$$

Then the element

$$\Omega = \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} g^{ij} X_i X_j$$

of the universal enveloping algebra $\mathfrak{U}(\mathfrak{g})$ is called the **Casimir element**.

Example 2.35. The Casimir element Ω for $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ is given by

$$\Omega = -\frac{1}{2}(X_1^2 + X_2^2 + X_3^2).$$

Since $B(X_i, X_j) = \delta_{ij}$ for for $1 \le i, j \le 3$; , we have

$$(g_{ij}) = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence

$$(g^{ij}) = \begin{pmatrix} -1/2 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & -1/2 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & -1/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus $g^{ij} = -\frac{1}{2}\delta_{ij}$ and $\Omega = \sum_{i,j=1}^{3} g^{ij} X_i X_j = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{3} X_i^2$.

Proposition 2.36. The Casimir element Ω of $\mathfrak{U}(\mathfrak{g})$ is independent of the choice of the basis (X_i) . Moreover, Ω belongs to the center of $\mathfrak{U}(\mathfrak{g})$.

Proof. Let $(Y_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ be another basis of g. Then Y_i can be written as

$$Y_i = \sum_j a_{ij} X_j.$$

Let

$$h_{ij} = B(Y_i, Y_j), (h^{ij}) = (h_{ij})^{-1}$$
 and $(a^{ij}) = (a_{ij})^{-1}$.

Then we have

$$X_k = \sum_i a^{ki} Y_i,$$

$$h_{ij} = \sum_{k,l} a_{ik} g_{kl} a_{jl} \quad \text{and} \quad h^{ij} = \sum_{k,l} a^{ki} g^{kl} a^{lj}.$$

So we have

$$\sum_{i,j} h^{ij} Y_i Y_j = \sum_{i,j,k,l} a^{ki} g^{kl} a^{lj} Y_i Y_j$$
$$= \sum_{k,l} g^{kl} X_k X_l.$$

We have proved that Ω is independent of the choice of (X_i) . Let $X^i = \sum_j g^{ij} X_j$. Then we have

$$B(X^i, X_j) = \sum_k B(g^{ik}X_k, X_j) = \sum_k g^{ik}g_{kj} = \delta^i_j$$

and

$$\Omega = \sum_{i} X_{i}X^{i}$$
.

Let

$$[X, X_i] = \sum_j c_{ij} X_j$$
 and $[X, X^i] = \sum_j d_{ij} X^j$.

Then we have

$$d_{ij} = B([X, X^i], X_j) = -B(X^i, [X, X_j]) = -c_{ji}.$$
 (2.1)

In any associative algebra A, the identity

$$[a, bc] = [a, b]c + b[a, c]$$
 (2.2)

holds for any a, b and c in A. By (2.1) and (2.2), we have

$$\begin{split} [X,\Omega] &= [X, \sum g^{ij} X_i X_j] \\ &= \sum g^{ij} [X, X_i X_j] \\ &= \sum_{i,j} g^{ij} [X, X_i] X_j + \sum_{i,j} g^{ij} X_i [X, X_j] \\ &= \sum_i [X, X_i] X^i + \sum_i X_i [X, X^i] \\ &= \sum_{i,j} c_{ij} X_j X^i + \sum_{i,j} d_{ij} X_i X^j = 0 \end{split}$$

for any X in \mathfrak{g} . Since \mathfrak{g} and 1 generate the algebra $\mathfrak{U}(\mathfrak{g})$, we have proved that the Casimir element Ω belongs to the center of $\mathfrak{U}(\mathfrak{g})$.



CHAPTER 3

Heat kernel on S^1 and SU(2)

In this chapter, we establish formulas for heat kernel on S^1 and SU(2).

3.1 Heat kernel of the circle

Definition 3.1. The circle group is the set of all complex number z such that |z| = 1 and denoted by S^1 .

Theorem 3.2. Let χ be an irreducible representation of the group \mathbb{R} of real numbers. Then χ is equivalent to $\chi_{\theta}(t) = e^{i\theta t}$ for some real number θ . Moreover, χ_{θ} is equivalent to χ_{ϕ} if and only if $\theta = \phi$.

Proof. Since the group $\mathbb R$ is commutative, an irreducible representation χ is one-dimensional. By replacing χ with an equivalent one, we can assume that the representation space of χ is $\mathbb C$ and that χ is a continuous homomorphism of $\mathbb R$ into the multiplicative group U(1) of complex numbers with absolute value 1. First we show that χ is a differentiable function. The homomorphic property of χ is expressed by

$$\chi(s+t) = \chi(s)\chi(t) \tag{3.1}$$

for all s and t in \mathbb{R} . Integrating (3.1) with respect to t from 0 to h, we obtain

$$\int_{0}^{h} \chi(s+t) \, dt = \chi(s) \int_{0}^{h} \chi(t) \, dt \tag{3.2}$$

Since $\chi(0) = 1$ and χ is continuous,

$$\int_0^h \chi(t) \, dt \neq 0 \tag{3.3}$$

for all $h \neq 0$ with sufficiently small absolute value. On the other hand

$$\int_0^h \chi(s+t) \, dt = \int_s^{s+h} \chi(u) \, du. \tag{3.4}$$

Since χ is continuous, the right-hand-side of the last equality (3.4) is a differentiable function of s. So by (3.2), (3.3) and (3.4), we have proved that χ is differentiable. Let $\chi'(0) = c$. Then (3.1) yields

$$\chi'(s) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\chi(s+t) - \chi(s)}{t} = \chi(s) \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\chi(t) - \chi(0)}{t} = c\chi(s).$$
 (3.5)

The function χ also satisfies

$$\chi(0) = 1.$$

The function $\chi_c(t) = e^{ct}$ also satisfies the differential equation $\chi'(s) = c\chi(s)$ and the initial condition $\chi(0) = 1$. So χ coincides with χ_c , because the function $\varphi(s) = e^{-cs}\chi(s)$ has the derivative $\varphi'(s) = -ce^{cs}\chi(s) + ce^{-cs}\chi(s) = 0$ for all $s \in \mathbb{R}$ and is thus equal to the constant $\varphi(0) = 1$. Moreover since χ is a unitary representation, $\chi(s)\overline{\chi(s)} = 1$ for all $s \in \mathbb{R}$. Differentiating the last equation at s = 0, we get $c + \overline{c} = 0$. Thus c is a purely imaginary number. Thus there is a real number θ such that $\chi_{\theta}(t) = e^{i\theta t}$. Since $GL(1, \mathbb{C}) = \mathbb{C}^*$ is commutative, χ_{θ} is equivalent to χ_{ϕ} if and only if $\chi_{\theta} = \chi_{\phi}$. If $\chi_{\theta} = \chi_{\phi}$, then we get $\theta = \phi$ by differentiating $\chi_{\theta} = \chi_{\phi}$ at t = 0.

Theorem 3.3. Any irreducible representation Π of the circle is equivalent to $\Pi_n(t) = e^{int}$ for some integer n. Moreover $\Pi_n = \Pi_m$ if and only if n = m.

Proof. Since the group S^1 is commutative, an irreducible representation Π is one-dimensional. Then $\Pi: S^1 \to \operatorname{GL}(1,\mathbb{C})$ is a homomorphism. Let $\phi: \mathbb{R} \to S^1$ be defined by $\phi(x) = e^{ix}$. Since ϕ is a homomorphism, $\Pi \circ \phi: \mathbb{R} \to \operatorname{GL}(1,\mathbb{C})$ is a homomorphism and hence $\Pi \circ \phi(2\pi) = 1$. By Theorem 3.2, we have $\Pi \circ \phi(x) = e^{i\theta x}$ for some real number θ . By substituting $x = 2\pi$, we have $\Pi \circ \phi(2\pi) = e^{2i\pi\theta}$. Thus $1 = e^{2i\pi\theta}$. Therefore θ is an integer.

Theorem 3.4. Heat kernel of the circle is given by the following formula

$$\rho_t(x) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-n^2 t} e^{inx}.$$

Proof. From Theorem 3.3, we can conclude that the set of isomorphism classes of irreducible representations of S^1 is $\{\Pi_n = e^{int} \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. Hence, we can identify $\widehat{S^1}$ with \mathbb{Z} , the set of integers. Since the group S^1 is commutative, the irreducible representation Π_n is one-dimensional. Thus

$$\dim(V_{\Pi_n}) = 1$$
 for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Next, we find the character of the representation. Since $\chi_{\Pi_n}(x) = \operatorname{tr}(\Pi_n(x)) = \operatorname{tr}(e^{inx}) = e^{inx}$ for all $x \in S^1$,

$$\chi_{\Pi_n}(x) = e^{inx}$$
.

To determine λ_{π} , we find eigenvalues of Δ . Note that

$$\Delta(e^{inx}) = \frac{d^2}{dx^2}e^{inx} = \frac{d}{dx}(in)e^{inx} = -n^2e^{inx}.$$

Thus

$$\lambda_{\Pi_n} = -n^2$$
.

Since $\rho_t(x) = \sum_{\pi \in \widehat{K}} \dim V_{\pi} e^{-\lambda_{\pi} t/2} \chi_{\Pi}(x)$, we have

$$\rho_t(x) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-n^2 t} e^{inx}.$$

Theorem 3.5. The formulas for ρ_t on S^1 can be given by

$$\rho_t(x) = \left(\frac{\pi}{t}\right)^{1/2} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-(x+2\pi n)^2/4t}.$$
 (3.6)

Proof. Let $K_t(x) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-(x+2\pi n)^2/4t}$. The m-th Fourier coefficients is determined by the integral for $m \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\int_0^{2\pi} K_t(x)e^{-imx} dx = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-(x+2\pi n)^2/4t} e^{-imx} dx$$
$$= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \int_{2\pi n}^{2\pi(n+1)} e^{-y^2/4t} e^{-imy} dy,$$

where we substitute $y = x + 2\pi n$ and use the fact that $e^{im2\pi n} = 1$. The last expression is

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2/4t} e^{-imy} \, dy.$$

We make the substitution $y = (2t)^{1/2}u$, $dy = (2t)^{1/2} du$ and use a standard identity from calculus, namely

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-u^2} e^{-iuv} du = (2\pi)^{1/2} e^{-v^2/2}.$$

We then obtain
$$\int_0^{2\pi} K_t(x) e^{-imx} dx = (\frac{t}{\pi})^{1/2} e^{-m^2 t}.$$

Hence

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-n^2t} e^{inx} = (\frac{\pi}{t})^{1/2} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-(x+2\pi n)^2/4t}.$$

3.2 Heat kernel of the group SU(2)

The group SU(2) consists of all 2×2 matrices X satisfying

$$X^* = X^{-1}$$
 and $\det X = 1$.

Consider the space V_m of homogeneous polynomials in two complex variables with total degree $m (m \ge 0)$; that is, V_m is the space of functions of the form

$$f(z_1, z_2) = a_0 z_1^m + a_1 z_1^{m-1} z_2 + a_2 z_1^{m-2} z_2^2 + \dots + a_m z_2^m$$
(3.7)

with $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ and a_i 's arbitrary complex constants. The space V_m is an (m+1)-dimensional complex vector space.

Now, by definition, an element U of SU(2) is a linear map on \mathbb{C}^2 . Let z denote the pair $z = (z_1, z_2)$ in \mathbb{C}^2 . Then, we may define a linear map $\Pi_m(U)$ on the space V_m by the formula

$$[\Pi_m(U)f](z) = f(U^{-1}z). \tag{3.8}$$

Explicitly, if f is as in (3.7), then

$$[\Pi_m(U)f](z_1,z_2) = \sum_{k=0}^m a_k (U_{11}^{-1}z_1 + U_{12}^{-1}z_2)^{m-k} (U_{21}^{-1}z_1 + U_{22}^{-1}z_2)^k.$$

By expanding out the right-hand side of this formula, we see that $\Pi_m(U)f$ is again a homogeneous polynomial of degree m. Thus, $\Pi_m(U)$ actually maps V_m into V_m .

Now compute

$$\Pi_m(U_1)[\Pi_m(U_2)f](z) = [\Pi_m(U_2)f](U_1^{-1}z)$$

$$= f(U_2^{-1}U_1^{-1}z)$$

$$= \Pi_m(U_1U_2)f(z).$$

Thus, Π_m is a (finite-dimensional complex) representation of SU(2).

Let us now compute the corresponding Lie algebra representation π_m . Then π_m can be computed as

$$\pi_m(X) = \frac{d}{dt} \Pi_m(e^{tX})|_{t=0}.$$

Hence,

$$(\pi_m(X)f)(z) = \frac{d}{dt}f(e^{-tX}z)|_{t=0}.$$

Now, let z(t) be the curve in \mathbb{C}^2 defined as $z(t) = e^{-tX}z$, so that z(0) = z. Of course, z(t) can be written as $z(t) = (z_1(t), z_2(t))$, with $z_i(t) \in \mathbb{C}$. By the chain rule,

$$\pi_m(X)f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z_1} \frac{dz_1}{dt}|_{t=0} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z_2} \frac{dz_2}{dt}|_{t=0}.$$

However, $dz/dt|_{t=0} = -Xz$, so we obtain the following formula for $\pi_m(X)$:

$$\pi_m(X)f = -\frac{\partial f}{\partial z_1}(X_{11}z_1 + X_{12}z_2) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial z_2}(X_{21}z_1 + X_{22}z_2). \tag{3.9}$$

Now, according to Proposition 2.23, every finite-dimensional complex representation of Lie algebra $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ extends uniquely to a complex-linear representation of the complexification of $\mathfrak{su}(2)$. However, the complexification of $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ is $\mathfrak{sl}(2;\mathbb{C})$. The representation π_m of $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ given by (3.9) thus extends to representation of $\mathfrak{sl}(2,\mathbb{C})$, which we will also call π_m and which is also given by (3.9).

So, for example, consider the element

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

in the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{sl}(2,\mathbb{C})$. Applying formula (3.9) gives

$$(\pi_m(H)f)(z) = -\frac{\partial f}{\partial z_1}z_1 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z_2}z_2.$$

Thus, we see that

$$\pi_m(H) = -z_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial z_1} + z_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial z_2}.$$
 (3.10)

Applying $\pi_m(H)$ to a basis element $z_1^k z_2^{m-k}$, we get

$$\pi_m(H)z_1^k z_2^{m-k} = -kz_1^k z_2^{m-k} + (m-k)z_1^k z_2^{m-k}$$
$$= (m-2k)z_1^k z_2^{m-k}.$$

Thus, $z_1^k z_2^{m-k}$ is an eigenvector for $\pi_m(H)$ with eigenvalue m-2k. In particular, $\pi_m(H)$ is diagonalizable. Let X and Y be the elements

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

in $\mathfrak{sl}(2,\mathbb{C})$. Then, (3.9) tells us that

$$\pi_m(X) = -z_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial z_1}, \pi_m(Y) = -z_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial z_2}$$

so that

$$\pi_m(X)z_1^k z_2^{m-k} = -kz_1^{k-1}z_2^{m-k+1}$$
(3.11)

$$\pi_m(Y)z_1^k z_2^{m-k} = (k-m)z_1^{k+1} z_2^{m-k+1}. (3.12)$$

Theorem 3.6. The representation π_m is an irreducible representation of $\mathfrak{sl}(2,\mathbb{C})$.

Proof. It suffices to show that every nonzero invariant subspace of V_m is, in fact, equal to V_m . So, let W be such a space. Since W is assumed nonzero, there is at least one nonzero element w in W. Then, w can be written uniquely in the form

$$w = a_0 z_1^m + a_1 z_1^{m-1} z_2 + a_2 z_1^{m-2} z_2^2 + \dots + a_m z_2^m$$

with at least one of the a_k 's nonzero. Let k_0 be the smallest value of k for which $a_k \neq 0$ and consider

$$\pi_m(X)^{m-k_0}w$$
.

Since each application of $\pi_m(X)$ lowers the power of z_1 by 1, $\pi_m(X)^{m-k_0}$ will kill all the terms in w except $a_{k_0}z_1^{m-k_0}z^{k_0}$. On the other hand, we compute easily that

$$\pi_m(X)^{m-k_0}(z_1^{m-k_0}z_2^{k_0}) = (-1)^{m-k_0}(m-k_0)!z_2^m.$$

We see, then, that $\pi_m(X)^{m-k_0}w$ is a nonzero multiple of z_2^m . Since W is assumed invariant, W must contain z_2^m . Furthermore, it follows from (3.12) that $\pi_m(Y)^k z_2^m$ is nonzero multiple of $z_1^k z_2^{m-k}$. Therefore, W must also contain $z_1^k z_2^{m-k}$ for all $0 \le k \le m$. Since these elements form a basis of V_m , we see that, in fact, $W = V_m$, as desired.

Theorem 3.7. For each integer $m \geq 0$, there is an irreducible representation of $\mathfrak{sl}(2,\mathbb{C})$ with dimension m+1. Any two irreducible representation of $\mathfrak{sl}(2,\mathbb{C})$ with the same dimension are equivalent. If π is an irreducible representation of $\mathfrak{sl}(2,\mathbb{C})$ with dimension m+1, then π is equivalent to the representation π_m described in (3.9)

Proposition 3.8. Any element X in SU(2) is conjugate to an element

$$H(heta) = \left(egin{array}{cc} e^{i heta} & 0 \ 0 & e^{-i heta} \end{array}
ight) \quad ext{for some $ heta \in [0,2\pi]$.}$$

Proof. A unitary matrix X is transformed to a diagonal matrix H by a unitary matrix $U: X = UHU^{-1}$. If X belongs to SU(2) then H also belongs to SU(2) and is equal to $H(\theta)$ for some $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$. The unitary matrix X can be taken from SU(2) because we can replace U by $\lambda U(\lambda \in U(1))$

Any function f on a group G satisfying $f(xyx^{-1}) = f(y)$ for all x, y in G is called a class function. The reason of this terminology is that the set of group elements of the form xyx^{-1} , with $y \in G$ fixed and x ranging over G, is called the conjugacy class of y. A class function is then a function that is constant on

each conjugacy class.

A character of a representation Π of SU(2) is a class function. To determine $\chi_{\Pi}(x)$ we can identify x in SU(2) with $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$ in Proposition 3.8 for each conjugacy class of θ .

Proposition 3.9. The character of representation Π_n which is constructed in (3.8) is given by

$$\chi_{\Pi_n}(H(\theta)) = \frac{\sin(n+1)\theta}{\sin\theta}.$$

Proof. For $0 \le k \le n$, let $v_k(z_1, z_2) = z_1^k z_2^{n-k}$

For
$$a \in U(1)$$
, let $H(a) = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$. Then

$$\Pi_n H(a) v_k(z_1, z_2) = v_k \begin{pmatrix} a^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{pmatrix} \\
= v_k (a^{-1} z_1, a z_2) \\
= (a^{-1} z_1)^k (a z_2)^{n-k} \\
= a^{n-2k} v_k(z_1, z_2)$$

Thus

$$\chi_{\Pi_n}(H(\theta)) = \text{tr}(\Pi_n(H(\theta)))$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^n a^{n-2k}$$

$$= \frac{a^n(1 - a^{-2n-2})}{1 - a^{-2}}$$

$$= \frac{a^{n+1} - a^{-(n+1)}}{a - a^{-1}}; a = e^{i\theta}$$

$$= \frac{\sin(n+1)\theta}{\sin \theta}$$

Proposition 3.10. Let Π_n be the irreducible representation of SU(2) constructed in (3.8) and $(X_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ the basis of $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ given in Example 2.33. Then the differential representation of Π_n is given by

$$\Pi_n(X_1)v_k = \frac{-i}{2} \{kv_{k-1} + (n-k)v_{k+1}\},$$

$$\Pi_n(X_2)v_k = \frac{1}{2} \{kv_{k-1} - (n-k)v_{k+1}\},$$

$$\Pi_n(X_3)v_k = \frac{n-2k}{2} iv_k$$

where

$$v_k(z_1, z_2) = z_1^k z_2^{n-k}; (0 \le k \le n).$$

Proof. Use (3.9), we obtain

$$\begin{split} \Pi_n(X_1)v_k &= -\frac{\partial v_k}{\partial z_1}(\frac{i}{2}z_2) - \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial z_2}(\frac{i}{2}z_1) \\ &= -\frac{i}{2}kz_1^{k-1}z_2^{n-k+1} - \frac{i}{2}(n-k)z_1^{k+1}z_2^{n-k-1} \\ &= -\frac{i}{2}[kv_{k-1} + (n-k)v_{k+1}]. \\ \Pi_n(X_2)v_k &= \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial z_1}(\frac{1}{2}z_2) - \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial z_2}(\frac{1}{2}z_1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}kz_1^{k-1}z_2^{n-k+1} - \frac{1}{2}(n-k)z_1^{k+1}z_2^{n-k-1} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}[kv_{k-1} - (n-k)v_{k+1}] \\ \Pi_n(X_3)v_k &= -\frac{\partial v_k}{\partial z_1}(\frac{i}{2}z_1) + \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial z_2}(\frac{i}{2}z_2) \\ &= -\frac{i}{2}kz_1^kz_2^{n-k} + \frac{i}{2}(n-k)z_1^kz_2^{n-k} \\ &= \frac{n-2k}{2}iv_k. \end{split}$$

Proposition 3.11. In the representation Π_n , $\Pi_n(\Omega)$ is a scalar transformation given by

$$\Pi_n(\Omega) = \frac{1}{8}n(n+2)I$$

Proof. The Casimir element Ω of $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ is given by Example 2.35. By Proposition 3.10, we have for any $k \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$.

$$\begin{split} \Pi_n(\Omega)v_k &= \frac{-1}{2} \Big[\Pi_n(X_1) \Big\{ \frac{-i}{2} (kv_{k-1} + (n-k)v_{k+1}) \Big\} \\ &+ \Pi_n(X_2) \Big\{ \frac{1}{2} (kv_{k-1} - (n-k)v_{k+1}) \Big\} + \frac{n-2k}{2} i \Pi_n(X_3) v_k \Big] \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \Big\{ 2k(n-k+1) + 2(n-k)(k+1) + (n-2k)^2 \Big\} v_k \\ &= \frac{1}{8} n(n+2) v_k. \end{split}$$

Theorem 3.12. The heat kernel of SU(2) is given by

$$\rho_t(x) = \frac{1}{2i\sin\theta} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} ne^{-\frac{(n^2-1)t}{8}} e^{in\theta}.$$

Proof. By Theorem 3.7, we have the set of isomorphism classes of irreducible representations of SU(2) is $\{\Pi_n|n\geq 0\}$. Hence, we can identify $\widehat{SU(2)}$ with $\mathbb{N}\cup\{0\}$. Moreover $\dim V_n=n+1$. From Proposition 3.11, we have $\lambda_\pi=-\frac{n(n+2)}{8}$. For each $x\in SU(2)$, we can identify x with θ in Proposition 3.8. Hence $\chi_\pi(x)=\chi_\pi(H(\theta))=\frac{\sin(n+1)\theta}{\sin\theta}$.

Now, the formula (1.1) for SU(2) can be written as follows. For any $x \in SU(2)$. x can be conjugated to an element of the form $H(\theta)$, $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$. Since ρ_t is a class function, we have

$$\begin{split} \rho_t(x) &= \rho_t(H(\theta)) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+1)e^{-\frac{n(n+2)t}{8}} \frac{\sin(n+1)\theta}{\sin \theta} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ne^{-\frac{(n^2-1)t}{8}} \frac{\sin n\theta}{\sin \theta} \\ &= \frac{1}{2i\sin \theta} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ne^{-\frac{(n^2-1)t}{8}} (e^{in\theta} - e^{-in\theta}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2i\sin \theta} \Big(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ne^{-\frac{(n^2-1)t}{8}} e^{in\theta} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-n)e^{-\frac{(n^2-1)t}{16}} e^{-in\theta} \Big) \\ &= \frac{1}{2i\sin \theta} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} ne^{-\frac{(n^2-1)t}{8}} e^{in\theta}. \end{split}$$

Theorem 3.13. The heat kernel on SU(2) can be given by the following formula

$$\rho_t(x) = \frac{-4\sqrt{2}}{t^{3/2}\sin\theta} \sqrt{\pi} e^{t/8} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (\theta + 2\pi n) e^{-2(\frac{\theta + 2\pi n}{\sqrt{t}})^2}.$$

Proof. Recall the Poisson summation formula. Let $\phi(x)$ be a complex-valued smooth function with rapid decay on \mathbb{R} ; if λ, θ are real parameter, then

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(\lambda n) e^{in\theta} = \frac{1}{|\lambda|} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{\phi} \left(\frac{\theta + 2\pi n}{\lambda} \right),$$

where

$$\hat{\phi}(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i\omega x} \phi(x) dx$$

is the Fourier transform of $\phi(x)$.

Let
$$\phi(x) = xe^{-x^2+t}$$
. Then $\hat{\phi}(\omega) = -\frac{1}{2}ie^t\sqrt{\pi}\omega e^{-\frac{1}{4}\omega^2}$. Thus
$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \sqrt{t}ne^{-tn^2+t}e^{in\theta} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}}\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{\phi}\Big(\frac{\theta+2\pi n}{\sqrt{t}}\Big)$$
$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} ne^{-(n^2-1)t}e^{in\theta} = \frac{1}{t}\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{\phi}\Big(\frac{\theta+2\pi n}{\sqrt{t}}\Big).$$

Therefore

$$\begin{split} \frac{1}{2i\sin\theta} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} n e^{-\frac{(n^2-1)t}{16}} e^{in\theta} &= \frac{1}{2it\sin\theta} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{\phi} \Big(\frac{\theta+2\pi n}{\sqrt{t}} \Big) \\ &= \frac{1}{2it\sin\theta} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} -\frac{1}{2} i e^t \sqrt{\pi} \Big(\frac{\theta+2\pi n}{\sqrt{t}} e^{-\frac{1}{4} (\frac{\theta+2\pi n}{\sqrt{t}})^2} \Big) \\ &= \frac{-1}{4t^{3/2}\sin\theta} \sqrt{\pi} e^t \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (\theta+2\pi n) e^{-\frac{1}{4} (\frac{\theta+2\pi n}{\sqrt{t}})^2} \end{split}$$

Replacing t with t/8, we have

$$\frac{1}{2i\sin\theta} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} n e^{-\frac{(n^2-1)t}{8}} e^{in\theta} = \frac{-4\sqrt{2}}{t^{3/2}\sin\theta} \sqrt{\pi} e^{t/8} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (\theta+2\pi n) e^{-2(\frac{\theta+2\pi n}{\sqrt{t}})^2}.$$

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CHAPTER 4

Structure Theory

In the next chapter, we will establish formulas for the heat kernel on a general compact Lie group. To do this, we need to know some structure theory of a semisimple Lie algebra. We recall relevant definitions and theorems that will be used in the next chapter.

4.1 Root space decomposition

Definition 4.1. If \mathfrak{g} is a complex semisimple Lie algebra, then a Cartan subalgebra of \mathfrak{g} is a complex subspace \mathfrak{h} of \mathfrak{g} with the following properties:

- 1. for all H_1 and H_2 in \mathfrak{h} , $[H_1, H_2] = 0$;
- 2. for all X in g, if [H, X] = 0 for all H in h, then X is in h;
- 3. for all H in \mathfrak{h} , ad_H is diagonalizable.

Definition 4.2. If \mathfrak{g} is a complex semisimple Lie algebra, then a compact real form of \mathfrak{g} is a real subalgebra \mathfrak{k} of \mathfrak{g} with the property that every X in \mathfrak{g} can be written uniquely as $X = X_1 + iX_2$ with X_1 and X_2 in \mathfrak{k} and such that there is a compact simply-connected matrix Lie group K_1 such that the Lie algebra \mathfrak{k}_1 of K_1 is isomorphic to \mathfrak{k} .

It can be shown that a compact real form of a semisimple complex Lie algebra always exists.

Proposition 4.3. Let \mathfrak{g} be a complex semisimple Lie algebra, \mathfrak{k} a compact real form of \mathfrak{g} , and \mathfrak{t} a maximal commutative subalgebra of \mathfrak{k} . Define $\mathfrak{h} \subset \mathfrak{g}$ to be $\mathfrak{h} = \mathfrak{t} + i\mathfrak{t}$. Then \mathfrak{h} is a Cartan subalgebra of \mathfrak{g} .

Definition 4.4. A root of \mathfrak{g} (relative to the Cartan subalgebra \mathfrak{h}) is a nonzero linear functional α on \mathfrak{h} such that there exists a nonzero element X of \mathfrak{g} with

$$[H,X] = \alpha(H)X$$

for all H in \mathfrak{h} . The set of all roots is denoted by R.

Theorem 4.5. If α is a root, $\alpha(H)$ is imaginary for all H in t.

Definition 4.6. If α is a root, then the **root space** \mathfrak{g}_{α} is the space of all X in \mathfrak{g} for which $[H,X] = \alpha(H)X$ for all H in \mathfrak{h} . An element of \mathfrak{g}_{α} is called a **root vector** (for the root α).

More generally, if α is any element of \mathfrak{h}^* , we define \mathfrak{g}_{α} to be the space of all X in \mathfrak{g} for which $[H,X] = \alpha(H)X$ for all H in \mathfrak{h} (but we do not call \mathfrak{g}_{α} a root space unless α is actually a root).

Theorem 4.7. The Lie algebra g can be decomposed as a direct sum as follows:

$$\mathfrak{g}=\mathfrak{h}\oplus\bigoplus_{lpha\in R}\mathfrak{g}_lpha$$

Theorem 4.8. For any α and β in \mathfrak{h}^* , $[\mathfrak{g}_{\alpha}, \mathfrak{g}_{\beta}] \subset \mathfrak{g}_{\alpha+\beta}$.

Theorem 4.9. Let α be a root of g relative to the Cartan subalgebra \mathfrak{h} .

- 1. If $\alpha \in \mathfrak{h}^*$ is a root, then so is $-\alpha$.
- 2. The roots span h*.

Theorem 4.10. Let α be a root of g relative to the Cartan subalgebra \mathfrak{h} .

- 1. If α is a root, then the only multiples of α that are roots are α and $-\alpha$.
- 2. If α is a root, then the root space \mathfrak{g}_{α} is one dimensional.
- 3. For each root α we can find nonzero elements X_{α} in \mathfrak{g}_{α} , Y_{α} in $\mathfrak{g}_{-\alpha}$ and H_{α} in \mathfrak{h} such that

$$[H_{\alpha}, X_{\alpha}] = 2X_{\alpha}$$
 $[H_{\alpha}, Y_{\alpha}] = -2Y_{\alpha}$
 $[X_{\alpha}, Y_{\alpha}] = H_{\alpha}.$

The element H_{α} is unique and is called the co-roots.

Theorem 4.11. Suppose α and β are roots and H_{α} is the co-root associated to root α . Then $\beta(H_{\alpha})$ is an integer.

Theorem 4.12. Given any linear functional $\alpha \in \mathfrak{h}^*$ (not necessarily a root), there exists a unique element H^{α} in \mathfrak{h} such that

$$\alpha(H) = \langle H^{\alpha}, H \rangle$$

for all H in h.

From now on, we identify each root with the corresponding element of \mathfrak{h} given by the previous theorem. Thus, we now regard a root α as a nonzero element of \mathfrak{h} (not \mathfrak{h}^*).

Theorem 4.13. Let α be a root and let H_{α} be the corresponding co-root. Then α and H_{α} are related by the formulas

$$H_{\alpha} = 2 \frac{\alpha}{\langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle}$$
$$\alpha = 2 \frac{H_{\alpha}}{\langle H_{\alpha}, H_{\alpha} \rangle}.$$

Let \mathfrak{g} be a complex semisimple Lie algebra given to us as a subalgebra of some $\mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathbb{C})$. We have chosen a compact real form \mathfrak{k} of \mathfrak{g} and we let K be the compact subgroup of $GL(n,\mathbb{C})$ whose Lie algebra is \mathfrak{k} . We have chosen a maximal commutative subalgebra \mathfrak{t} of \mathfrak{k} , and we work with the associated Cartan subalgebra $\mathfrak{h} = \mathfrak{t} + i\mathfrak{t}$. We have chosen an inner product on \mathfrak{g} that is invariant under the adjoint action of K and that takes real values on \mathfrak{k} .

Consider the following two subgroups of K:

$$Z(\mathfrak{t}) = \{ A \in K \mid \mathrm{Ad}_A(H) = H \text{ for all } H \text{ in } \mathfrak{t} \}$$
$$N(\mathfrak{t}) = \{ A \in K \mid \mathrm{Ad}_A(H) \subset \mathfrak{t} \text{ for all } H \text{ in } \mathfrak{t} \}$$

Clearly, Z(t) is a subgroup of N(t), and it is easily seen that Z(t) is a normal subgroup of N(t).

Definition 4.14. The Weyl group for g is the quotient group W = N(t)/Z(t).

Theorem 4.15. Under the above notation, we have

- The inner product (·,·) on h is invariant under the action of W.
- The set R ⊂ h of roots is invariant under the action of W.
- The set of co-roots is invariant under the action of W, and w · H_α = H_{w·α} for all w ∈ W and α ∈ R.
- The Weyl group is a finite group.

Theorem 4.16. For each root α , there exists an elements w_{α} of W such that

$$w_{\alpha} \cdot \alpha = -\alpha$$

and such that

$$w_{\alpha} \cdot H = H$$

for all H in h with $\langle \alpha, H \rangle = 0$.

Theorem 4.17. The Weyl group W is generated by the elements w_{α} as α ranges over all roots.

4.2 Root system

Theorem 4.18. The roots form a finite set of nonzero elements of a real innerproduct space $E = it \subset \mathfrak{h}$ and have the following properties:

- The roots span E.
- 2. If α is a root, then $-\alpha$ is a root and the only multiples of α that are roots are α and $-\alpha$.
- 3. If α is a root, let w_{α} denote the linear transformation of E given by

$$w_{\alpha} \cdot \beta = \beta - 2 \frac{\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle} \alpha.$$

Then for all roots α and β , $w_{\alpha} \cdot \beta$ is also a root.

4. If α and β are roots, the the quantity

$$2\frac{\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle}$$

is an integer.

Any collection of vectors in a finite-dimensional real inner product space having these properties is called a **root system**.

Definition 4.19. Suppose that E is a finite-dimensional real inner product space and that $R \subset E$ is a root system. Then a base for R is a subset $\Delta = \{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r\}$ of R such that Δ forms a basis for E as a vector space and such that for each $\alpha \in R$, we have

$$\alpha = n_1 \alpha_1 + n_2 \alpha_2 + \dots + n_r \alpha_r,$$

where the n_j 's are integers and either all greater than or equal to zero or all less than or equal to zero.

Once a base Δ has been chosen, the α 's for which $n_j \geq 0$ are called the **positive root** (with respect to the given choice of Δ) and the α 's with $n_j \leq 0$ are called the **negative roots**. The set of all positive roots is denoted by R^+ . The elements of Δ are called the **positive simple roots**.

Theorem 4.20. For any root system, a base exists.

Definition 4.21. For each $\alpha \in R$, let P_{α} denote the hyperplane perpendicular to α . The hyperplane P_{α} partition E into finitely many regions. An **open Weyl chamber** in E (relative to R) is a connected component of the set

$$E - \bigcup_{\alpha \in R} P_{\alpha}.$$

The set $P = \bigcup_{\alpha \in R} P_{\alpha}$ is called the walls of all Weyl chambers. An element in P is called **singular**, otherwise it is called **regular**.

Definition 4.22. The set of $\mu \in E$ such that $\langle \mu, \alpha \rangle \geq 0$ for all positive simple roots α is called the **closed fundamental Weyl chamber** relative to the given set of positive simple roots. The set of $\mu \in E$ such that $\langle \mu, \alpha \rangle > 0$ for all positive simple roots α is called the **open fundamental Weyl chamber** relative to the given set of positive simple roots.

4.3 Integral and dominant integral elements

Definition 4.23. An element μ of \mathfrak{h} is called an integral element if $\langle \mu, H_{\alpha} \rangle$ is an integer for each root α .

Theorem 4.24. The set of integral elements is invariant under the action of the Weyl group.

Theorem 4.25. If μ is an element of \mathfrak{h} for which $\langle \mu, H_{\alpha} \rangle$ is an integer for all positive simple roots α , then $\langle \mu, H_{\alpha} \rangle$ is an integer for all roots α , and thus, μ is an integral element.

Theorem 4.26. An element μ of h is integral if and only if

$$2\frac{\langle \mu, \alpha \rangle}{\langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle}$$

is an integer for each positive simple root α .

Corollary 4.27. Every root is an integral element.

Definition 4.28. An element μ of \mathfrak{h} is called a **dominant integral element** if $\langle \mu, H_{\alpha} \rangle$ is a non-negative integer for each positive simple root α . Equivalently μ is a dominant integral element if

$$2\frac{\langle \mu, lpha \rangle}{\langle lpha, lpha
angle}$$

is a non-negative integer for each positive simple root α .

Moreover, we say that μ is strictly dominant integral element if $\langle \mu, H_{\alpha} \rangle$ is a positive integer for each positive simple root α .

4.4 Theorem of the highest weight

Definition 4.29. Suppose π is a finite-dimensional representation of \mathfrak{g} on a vector space V. Then $\mu \in \mathfrak{h}$ is called a **weight** for π if there exists a nonzero vector v in V such that

$$\pi(H)v = \langle \mu, H \rangle v \tag{4.1}$$

for all $H \in \mathfrak{h}$. A nonzero vector v satisfying (4.1) is called a **weight vector** for the weight μ , and the set of all vectors satisfying (4.1) (zero or nonzero) is called the **weight space** with weight μ . The dimension of the weight space is called the **multiplicity** of the weight.

Definition 4.30. Let μ_1 and μ_2 be two elements of \mathfrak{h} . Then μ_1 is **higher than** μ_2 (or, equivalently, μ_2 is **lower than** μ_1) if there exists non-negative real numbers a_1, \ldots, a_r such that

$$\mu_1 - \mu_2 = a_1 \alpha_1 + a_2 \alpha_2 + \ldots + a_r \alpha_r$$

where $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r\} = \Delta$ is the set of positive simple roots. This relationship is written as $\mu_1 \succeq \mu_2$ or $\mu_2 \preceq \mu_1$.

If π is a representation of \mathfrak{g} , then a weight μ_0 for π is said to be a **highest weight** if for all weights μ for π , $\mu \leq \mu_0$.

Theorem 4.31 (Theorem of the Hightest Weight). In a semisimple Lie algebra, the following statements hold.

- Every irreducible representation has a highest weight.
- Two irreducible representations with the same highest weight are equivalent.
- The hightest weight of every irreducible representation is a dominant integral element.
- 4. Every dominant integral element occurs as the highest weight of an irreducible representation.

4.5 Weyl character formula

Theorem 4.32. If K is simply connected and λ is a (real) integral element, then there exists a function f on T satisfying

$$f(e^H) = e^{i\lambda(H)} \tag{4.2}$$

for all H in t, where T is the connected Lie subgroup of K whose Lie algebra is t.

We note that T is commutative since \mathfrak{t} is. Also, T is connected and compact. In fact, T is called a maximal torus of K. We have that the exponential map $\exp : \mathfrak{t} \to T$ is surjective. So every $\mathfrak{t} \in T$ can be written as $\mathfrak{t} = e^H$ for some $H \in \mathfrak{t}$. Now we define Γ to be the kernel of this map, that is,

$$\Gamma = \{ H \in \mathfrak{t} \mid \exp H = I \}.$$

Let H_1 and H_2 in t be such that $e^{H_1}=e^{H_2}$. Since t is commutative, $e^{H_1-H_2}=I$ and hence $H_1-H_2\in\Gamma$. This means every $t\in T$ can be written as $t=e^H$ where H is unique up to adding on an element of Γ . Now, back to equation (4.2), if we choose H_1 and H_2 so that $e^{H_1}=e^{H_2}=t$, then $f(t)=e^{i\lambda(H_1)}$ and concurrently $f(t)=e^{i\lambda(H_2)}$. We note that $H_2=H_1+\phi$ for some $\phi\in\Gamma$. So the function is well-defined if $e^{i\lambda(H_1)}=e^{i\lambda(H_2)}=e^{i\lambda(H_1)}e^{i\lambda(\phi)}$. This will hold precisely if $\lambda(\phi)$ is an integer multiple of 2π . So, the function in (4.2) is well-defined precisely if λ has the property that $\lambda(\phi)$ is an integer multiple of 2π for all $\phi\in\Gamma$. This leads to the following definition and theorem.

Definition 4.33. Let $\Lambda = \{H \in \mathfrak{t} \mid e^{2\pi H} = I\}$. An element μ of \mathfrak{t} is called an analytically integral element if $\langle \mu, \lambda \rangle$ is an integer for all $\lambda \in \Lambda$ and denote by \mathcal{I} the set of all analytically integral elements. That is

$$\mathcal{I} = \{ \mu \in \mathfrak{t} \mid \langle \mu, \lambda \rangle \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ for all } \lambda \in \Lambda \}.$$

Meanwhile, we have another notion of integral element, namely that $\mu \in \mathfrak{h}$ is an integral element if $\langle \mu, H_{\alpha} \rangle$ is an integer for each co-root H_{α} . To distinguish this condition from the condition for an analytically integral element, we call μ an algebraically integral element if $\langle \mu, H_{\alpha} \rangle$ is an integer for each root α .

Theorem 4.34. If K is simply connected, then the set of algebraically integral elements and the set of analytically integral elements are the same.

Definition 4.35. Let Π be a finite dimensional representation of a group G. Then the function χ_{Π} on G defined by

$$\chi_{\Pi}(x) = \operatorname{tr}(\Pi(x))$$

is called the character of Π .

Definition 4.36. The half sum of positive roots is denoted by

$$\delta = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha \in R^+} \alpha.$$

We summarize some properties that will be used later.

Theorem 4.37. Let D be the set of dominant integral elements.

- The set D + δ is the set of strictly dominant integral elements.
- (ii) $\bigcup_{s \in W} s \cdot D = I$.
- (iii) $\bigcup_{s \in W} s \cdot (D + \delta) = I P$, which is the set of regular integral elements.
- (iv) For any $\gamma \in \mathcal{I} P$, there exists a unique $s \in W$ and $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$ such that $\gamma = s \cdot (\sigma + \delta)$. In other words, W acts freely on $\mathcal{I} P$.

Theorem 4.38. For any $H \in \mathfrak{t}$, there exists a unique μ in the closed fundamental Weyl chamber and (not necessarily unique) $s \in W$ such that $H = s \cdot \mu$, i.e., $s^{-1} \cdot H = \mu$.

Theorem 4.39. Let R be a root system in E, consider the function $\pi: E \to \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$\pi(H) = \prod_{\alpha \in R^+} \langle \alpha, H \rangle.$$

Then $\pi(s \cdot H) = \det(s)\pi(H)$.

Theorem 4.40 (Weyl Character Formula). If Σ is an irreducible representation of K with highest real weight μ , then we have

$$\chi_{\Sigma}(e^{H}) = \frac{\sum_{w \in W} \det(w) e^{i\langle w \cdot (\mu + \delta), H \rangle}}{\sum_{w \in W} \det(w) e^{i\langle w \cdot \delta, H \rangle}}$$
(4.3)

for all H in t for which the denominator of the right-hand side of (4.3) is nonzero. Here, δ denotes half the sum of the positive real roots.

The denominator of the above formula is called **Weyl denominator** and denoted by j(H). That is

$$j(H) = \sum_{w \in W} \det(w) e^{i\langle w \cdot \alpha, H \rangle} \tag{4.4}$$

Theorem 4.41 (Weyl Dimension Formula). Suppose that π is an irreducible representation of \mathfrak{g} with highest weight μ . Then the dimension of π is given by

$$\dim \pi = \frac{\prod_{\alpha \in R^+} \langle \alpha, \mu + \delta \rangle}{\prod_{\alpha \in R^+} \langle \alpha, \delta \rangle} = \frac{\pi(\mu + \delta)}{\pi(\delta)}$$
(4.5)

CHAPTER 5

Heat kernel on a compact Lie group

Let K be a compact simply-connected Lie group, with Lie algebra \mathfrak{k} . Fix a maximal commutative subalgebra \mathfrak{k} of \mathfrak{k} , and we work with the associated Cartan subalgebra $\mathfrak{h} = \mathfrak{t} + i\mathfrak{t}$. Choose an inner product $\langle \, , \, \rangle$ on \mathfrak{k} that is invariant under the adjoint action of K. Let R be a root system of $i\mathfrak{t}$ which has a basis $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r\}$ where $r = \dim \mathfrak{t}$ and let R^+ be the set of positive roots. Let $n = \dim \mathfrak{k}$, $l = \dim \mathfrak{h}$ and m the number of elements of R^+ . Then n = l + 2m. Let K be the Weyl group and K be set of dominant integral elements. Let K be an orthonormal basis of K, where we view the K is as left-invariant vector fields on K. Let K be a Casimir operator on K.

Proposition 5.1. Let π be a representation of K acting on some vector space V_{π} . Then $\pi(\Delta) = \langle \lambda, \lambda + 2\delta \rangle I$, where λ is a highest weight for π .

Proof. Since the Casimir operator Δ belongs to the center of $\mathfrak{U}(\mathfrak{g})$, $\pi(\Delta)$ is a scalar operator $-\lambda_{\pi}I$ by Schur's lemma. The scalar c is determined as follows. We can choose a Weyl base E_{α} ($\alpha \in R$), H_i ($1 \le i \le l$) of $\mathfrak{g}_{\mathbb{C}}$ satisfying $\langle E_{\alpha}, E_{-\alpha} \rangle = 1$, $\langle H_i, H_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$ and $E_{\alpha} + E_{-\alpha}$, $i(E_{\alpha} - E_{-\alpha})$, $H_i \in \mathfrak{g}$. Then we have

$$-\Delta = \sum_{\alpha \in R} E_{-\alpha} E_{\alpha} + \sum_{i=1}^{l} H_{i}^{2} = \sum_{\alpha \in R^{+}} (2E_{-\alpha} E_{\alpha} + H_{\alpha}) + \sum_{i=1}^{l} H_{i}^{2},$$

because $[E_{\alpha}, E_{-\alpha}] = H_{\alpha}$ where H_{α} is the element in the space it satisfying $\langle H, H_{\alpha} \rangle = \alpha(H)$ for every H in $\mathfrak{t}_{\mathbb{C}}$. Let $x \neq 0$ be the weight vector corresponding to the highest weight $\lambda : \pi(E_{\alpha})x = 0$ for $\alpha \in P$, $\pi(H_{\alpha})x = \lambda(H_{\alpha})x = -\langle \lambda, \alpha \rangle x$. Then we have

$$\lambda_{\pi} x = \pi(\Delta) x = \left(\sum_{\alpha \in R^{+}} \langle \lambda, \alpha \rangle - \sum_{i=1}^{l} \lambda (H_{i})^{2}\right) x$$
$$= (\langle \lambda, 2\delta \rangle + \langle \lambda, \lambda \rangle) x$$
$$= \langle \lambda, \lambda + 2\delta \rangle x.$$

Proposition 5.2. The heat kernel of compact connected Lie group is given by

$$\rho_t(e^H) = \frac{e^{|\delta|^2 t}}{j(H)\pi(\delta)} \sum_{\gamma \in \mathcal{I}} \pi(\gamma) e^{-|\gamma|^2 t} e^{i\langle \gamma, H \rangle}$$

for all $H \in \mathfrak{t}$.

Proof. By Theorem 4.31 of the highest weight, we can identify each isomorphism class of irreducible representations with a dominant integral element. Moreover, from Proposition 5.1, we have

$$\lambda_{\pi} = -\langle \lambda + 2\delta, \lambda \rangle = -[\langle \lambda + \delta, \lambda + \delta \rangle - \langle \delta, \delta \rangle].$$

Thus we can rewrite the heat kernel (1.1) by

$$\rho_t(H) = \sum_{\lambda \in \mathcal{D}} d_{\lambda} e^{-\langle \lambda + 2\delta, \lambda \rangle t} \chi_{\lambda}(H)$$

Next, using the Weyl dimension formula (4.5), the Weyl character formula (4.3) and the Weyl denominator formula (4.4), we have

$$\begin{split} \rho_t(e^H) &= \sum_{\lambda \in \mathcal{D}} \left(\frac{\pi(\lambda + \delta)}{\pi(\delta)} e^{-\langle \lambda + \delta, \lambda + \delta \rangle t} e^{|\delta|^2 t} \frac{\sum_{s \in W} \det(s) e^{i\langle s(\lambda + \delta), H \rangle}}{j(H)} \right) \\ &= \frac{e^{|\delta|^2 t}}{j(H)\pi(\delta)} \sum_{\lambda \in \mathcal{D}} \sum_{s \in W} \det(s) \pi(\lambda + \delta) e^{-|\lambda + \delta|^2 t} e^{i\langle s(\lambda + \delta), H \rangle} \\ &= \frac{e^{|\delta|^2 t}}{j(H)\pi(\delta)} \sum_{\lambda \in \mathcal{D}} \sum_{s \in W} \det(s) \pi(\lambda + \delta) e^{-|s(\lambda + \delta)|^2 t} e^{i\langle s(\lambda + \delta), H \rangle} \\ &= \frac{e^{|\delta|^2 t}}{j(H)\pi(\delta)} \sum_{\lambda \in \mathcal{D}} \sum_{s \in W} \pi(s(\lambda + \delta)) e^{-|s(\lambda + \delta)|^2 t} e^{i\langle s(\lambda + \delta), H \rangle} \\ &= \frac{e^{|\delta|^2 t}}{j(H)\pi(\delta)} \sum_{\lambda \in \mathcal{D}} \sum_{s \in W} \pi(s(\lambda + \delta)) e^{-|s(\lambda + \delta)|^2 t} e^{i\langle s(\lambda + \delta), H \rangle} \\ &= \frac{e^{|\delta|^2 t}}{j(H)\pi(\delta)} \sum_{\gamma \in \mathcal{I}} \pi(\gamma) e^{-|\gamma|^2 t} e^{i\langle \gamma, H \rangle}, \end{split}$$

where the last equality follows from Theorem 4.37 and the fact that $\pi(\gamma) = 0$ for any $\gamma \in P$.

Now for every rapidly decreasing function f on t^* , we define a Fourier transform \hat{f} as follows:

$$\hat{f}(\lambda) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{l/2}} \int_{t^*} f(\mu) e^{-i\langle \lambda, \mu \rangle} d\mu, \quad (\lambda \in t^*)$$

where the measure $d\mu = dx_1 \cdots dx_l$ $(\mu = \sum_{i=1}^l x_i \lambda_i)$. For $\alpha \in R$, we define a differential operator $\partial(\alpha)$ as follows:

$$\partial(\alpha)f(\lambda) = \left[\frac{d}{ds}f(\lambda + s\alpha)\right]_{s=0}$$

for every differentiable function f on t^* and put

$$\pi(\partial) = \prod_{\alpha \in R^+} \partial(\alpha).$$

Lemma 5.3. For every rapidly decreasing function f on t^* , we have

$$\widehat{\pi(\partial)f}(\lambda) = i^m \pi(\lambda)\widehat{f}(\lambda)$$

and

$$\pi(\partial)\hat{f}(\lambda) = (-i)^m \widehat{\pi \cdot f}(\lambda)$$

for $\lambda \in t^*$.

Proof. For $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^+$, using integration by parts, we have

$$\int_{\mathfrak{t}^{\bullet}} \partial(\alpha) f(\mu) e^{-i\langle \lambda, \mu \rangle} d\mu = i\langle \lambda, \alpha \rangle \int_{\mathfrak{t}^{\bullet}} f(\mu) e^{-i\langle \lambda, \mu \rangle} d\mu.$$

Applying this repeatedly, we have the first claim. Differentiating \hat{f} under the integral sign and noticing the fact that

$$\pi(\partial)e^{-i\langle\lambda,\mu\rangle}d\mu = (-i)^m\pi(\mu)e^{-i\langle\lambda,\mu\rangle},$$

the second assertion is obtained.

Lemma 5.4.

$$\pi(\partial)e^{-\frac{a}{2}|\lambda|^2} = (-a)^m \pi(\lambda)e^{-\frac{a}{2}|\lambda|^2}$$

where a is an arbitrary constant

Proof. This is a straight forward calculation.

Let e_1, \ldots, e_l be an orthonormal basis for t^* with respect to \langle , \rangle . We will indentify t^* with \mathbb{R}^l . Hence t^* has a translation-invariant measure defined on the Borel σ -algebra which will be nomalized to coincide with Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R}^l .

Lemma 5.5. For an arbitrary constant a, put $h_a(\lambda) = e^{-\frac{a}{2}|\lambda|^2}$. Then we have

$$\widehat{h_a}(\lambda) = \frac{c}{a^{\frac{l}{2}}} e^{-\frac{|\lambda|^2}{2a}}.$$

Proof. For $\lambda = \sum_{j=1}^{l} x_i e_i \in t^*$, we have

$$\begin{split} \widehat{h_a}(\lambda) &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{l/2} a^{l/2}} \int_{t^*} e^{-(|\mu^2|/2)} e^{-i\langle \lambda/\sqrt{a}, \mu \rangle} d\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{a^{l/2}} \prod_{j=1}^l \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-1/2y_j^2} e^{-i(x_j/\sqrt{a}) \cdot y_j} dy_j \\ &= \frac{1}{a^{l/2}} e^{-|\lambda|^2/2a}. \end{split}$$

Lemma 5.6. Under the assumption of Lemma 5.5, we have

$$\widehat{\pi \cdot h_a}(\lambda) = (-i)^m a^{-\frac{n}{2}} \pi(\lambda) e^{-\frac{-|\lambda|^2}{2a}}.$$

Proof.

$$\widehat{\pi \cdot h_a}(\lambda) = (-a)^{-m} \widehat{\pi(\partial)h_a}(\lambda)$$

$$= (-a)^{-m} (i)^m \pi(\lambda) \widehat{h_a}(\lambda)$$

$$= (-i)^m a^{-n/2} \pi(\lambda) e^{-|\lambda|^2/2a}.$$

Now, we will find another form of $\rho_t(H)$. Let g be the inverse Fourier transform of $f_t(\gamma) = \pi(\gamma)e^{-|\gamma|^2}t$. That is,

$$g_t(H) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{l/2}} \int_{t^*} \pi(\gamma) e^{-|\gamma|^2 t} e^{i\langle \gamma, H \rangle} d\gamma.$$

We quote the following Poisson's summation formula. The standard proof on \mathbb{R}^n works the same way if we change the sums to be over the lattice and its dual lattice of a Euclidean space.

Theorem 5.7 (Poisson's summation formula).

$$\sum_{\gamma \in \mathcal{I}} f_t(\gamma) e^{i\langle \gamma, H \rangle} = (2\pi)^{l/2} \sum_{\mu \in \Gamma} g_t(H + \mu).$$

Theorem 5.8. The heat kernel of compact connected Lie group is given by

$$\rho_t(e^H) = \frac{c}{j(H)} \sum_{\mu \in \Gamma} \pi(H + \mu) e^{-\frac{1}{4t}|H + \mu|^2}$$

where
$$c = \frac{e^{|\delta|^2 t} (2\pi)^{l/2} i^m}{(2t)^{n/2} \pi(\delta)}$$
.

Proof. We have

$$g_{t}(H) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{l/2}} \int_{t^{*}} \pi(\gamma) e^{-|\lambda|^{2} t} e^{i\langle \gamma, H \rangle} d\gamma$$

$$= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{l/2}} \int_{t^{*}} \pi(\gamma) h_{2t}(\gamma) e^{i\langle \gamma, H \rangle} d\gamma$$

$$= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{l/2}} \int_{t^{*}} (\pi \cdot h_{2t})(\gamma) e^{i\langle \gamma, H \rangle} d\gamma$$

$$= \widehat{\pi \cdot h_{2t}}(-H)$$

$$= (-i)^{m} (2t)^{-n/2} \pi(-H) e^{-\frac{|H|^{2}}{4t}}$$

$$= i^{m} (2t)^{-n/2} \pi(H) e^{-\frac{|H|^{2}}{4t}}.$$

By Theorem 5.7, we obtain

$$\sum_{\gamma \in \mathcal{I}} \pi(\gamma) e^{-|\lambda|^2 t} e^{i(\gamma, H)} = \sum_{\mu \in \Gamma} (2\pi)^{l/2} i^m (2t)^{-n/2} \pi (H + \mu) e^{-\frac{|H + \mu|^2}{4t}}$$
$$= \frac{(2\pi)^{l/2} i^m}{(2t)^{n/2}} \sum_{\mu \in \Gamma} \pi (H + \mu) e^{-\frac{1}{4t}|H + \mu|^2}.$$

By Proposition 5.2, we have

$$\rho_t(e^H) = \frac{e^{|\delta|^2 t} (2\pi)^{l/2} i^m}{j(H)(2t)^{n/2} \pi(\delta)} \sum_{\mu \in \Gamma} \pi(H + \mu) e^{-\frac{1}{4t}|H + \mu|^2}$$
$$= \frac{c}{j(H)} \sum_{\mu \in \Gamma} \pi(H + \mu) e^{-\frac{1}{4t}|H + \mu|^2}$$

where
$$c = \frac{e^{|\delta|^2 t} (2\pi)^{t/2} i^m}{(2t)^{n/2} \pi(\delta)}$$
.

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