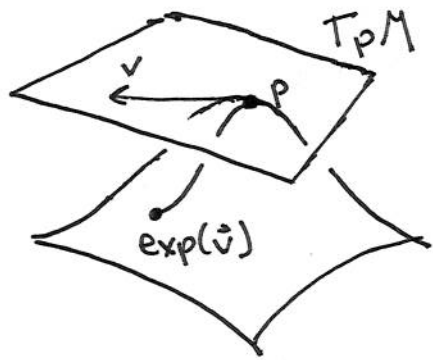


Lie Groups, Lie Algebras and Exp.

In differential geometry, the following construction is standard: Given a vector \vec{v}



in $T_p M$, define $\exp(\vec{v})$ to be the endpoint of the geodesic of length $|\vec{v}|$ starting from p and going

~~length~~ in the $\vec{v}/|\vec{v}|$ direction.

We call this the "exponential map," but why? And how does it work on $V_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and $GL_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ in particular? We will now cover some background material which will help us derive an explicit formula for \exp .

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Definition. Given a real or complex $n \times n$ matrix A , we define

$$e^A = I_n + \sum_{p \geq 1} \frac{A^p}{p!}, \text{ or } e^A = \sum_{p \geq 0} \frac{A^p}{p!}$$

if we're willing to take $A^0 = I_n$.

Lemma. This series converges absolutely.

Example. Consider the matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\theta \\ \theta & 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

We observe that

$$\begin{aligned} A^1 &= \theta \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, & A^2 &= \theta^2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^2 = \theta^2 \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &:= \theta J & &= -\theta^2 I_2. \end{aligned}$$

This means

$$\begin{aligned} e^A &= I_2 + \frac{\theta}{1!} J - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} I_2 - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} J + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} I_2 + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} J - \dots \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} - \frac{\theta^6}{6!} + \dots \right) I_2 + \left(\theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} - \dots \right) J \\ &= \cos \theta I_2 + \sin \theta J = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

This is a general fact:

The matrix exponential of any skew-symmetric matrix is an orthogonal (unitary) matrix. (Further, this map is surjective onto $SO(n)$, ~~or $U(n)$~~ but we'll cover this soon.)

We now develop some of the theory of the matrix exponential.

Lemma. If A is any matrix and U invertible, we have $e^{UAU^{-1}} = Ue^AU^{-1}$

Proof. $(UAU^{-1})^p = UA^pU^{-1}$, so

$$\sum \frac{(UAU^{-1})^p}{p!} = \sum U \frac{A^p}{p!} U^{-1} = U \left(\sum \frac{A^p}{p!} \right) U^{-1}$$

We also recall

Schur Decomposition Theorem. Any complex matrix A can be written $A = UTU^*$, where T is upper triangular.

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Further, the eigenvalues of A are the diagonal entries in T .

Using these, we can show:

Proposition. Given any complex matrix A , if $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of A , then $e^{\lambda_1}, \dots, e^{\lambda_n}$ are the eigenvalues of e^A . Further, if \vec{u} is an eigenvector of A , \vec{u} is also an eigenvector of e^A , with corresponding eigenvalue.

Proof. We know $A = UTU^{-1}$, so by our Lemma,

$$e^A = e^{UTU^{-1}} = e^{UTU^{-1}} = Ue^T U^{-1},$$

so e^A and e^T have the same eigenvalues.

Now taking powers of e^T yields matrices T^2, T^3, \dots which are all upper triangular and have diagonal

entries given by T_{ii}^2, T_{ii}^3 , and so forth. (5)

In particular, this shows that the diagonal entries of e^T are $e^{\lambda_1}, \dots, e^{\lambda_n}$ where $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the diagonal entries of T . Further, e^T is upper triangular, so these are the eigenvalues of e^T (and of T).

To see that any eigenvector of A is an eigenvector of e^A , note that if $A\vec{u} = \lambda\vec{u}$, then $A^n\vec{u} = \lambda^n\vec{u}$ for all n , so $e^A\vec{u} = e^{\lambda}\vec{u}$. \square .

We can show as a consequence that

$$\det(e^A) = \det(e^T) = e^{\lambda_1} \dots e^{\lambda_n} = e^{\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_n} = e^{\text{tr} A},$$

and as a consequence that e^A is always invertible.

We might guess immediately that

$$(e^A)^{-1} = e^{-A} \quad (\text{it looks good})$$

We need:

Lemma. Given $n \times n$ matrices A, B which commute, $e^{A+B} = e^A e^B$.

Since A and $-A$ commute, we're done.

Now we can define a map from the Lie algebra $so(n)$ of skew-symmetric matrices to the Lie group $SO(n)$. ~~orthogonal~~

Theorem. $\exp: so(n) \rightarrow SO(n)$ is well defined and surjective.

Proof. We start with $(e^A)^T = e^{A^T}$ (exercise!).
Now if A is skew-symmetric, we want to prove e^A is in $SO(n)$.

We first check

$$(e^A)^T = e^{(A^T)} = e^{-A} = (e^A)^{-1},$$

as desired. Further $\det(e^A) = e^{\text{tr}A} = e^0 = 1$, showing e^A in $SO(n)$.

Now we need to show \exp is surjective, and we'll need two useful linear algebra facts.

1. If A is skew-symmetric, \exists an orthogonal matrix P so that $A = PDP^T$ where

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} D_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & D_p \end{bmatrix}$$

and each block D_i is either 0 or $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\theta_i \\ \theta_i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ for some θ_i .

2. If $B \in SO(n)$, then \exists an orthogonal matrix P so that $B = PEP^T$ where E is block-diagonal

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} E_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & E_p \end{bmatrix}$$

and each block is either I or a matrix in the form $E_i = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$.

(These are basically specializations of Jordan form.)

Now associate D with E block by block in the obvious way, and observe

$$e^A = e^{PDP^{-1}} = P e^D P^{-1}$$

Now powers of a block diagonal matrix are just ~~the~~ block diagonal with powers of the blocks, so

$$e^D = \begin{bmatrix} e^{D_1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & e^{D_p} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} E_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & E_p \end{bmatrix} = E$$

Since we already saw

$$e^{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\theta \\ \theta & 0 \end{bmatrix}} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

and that $e^0 = I$.

Thus

$$e^A = P e^D P^{-1} = P E P^{-1} = B,$$

as desired. \square

Example. Suppose that $\exp: \mathfrak{so}(3) \rightarrow \text{SO}(3)$.

We can write the formula explicitly:

Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -c & b \\ c & 0 & -a \\ -b & a & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \theta = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} a^2 & ab & ac \\ ab & b^2 & bc \\ ac & bc & c^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Claim.

$$\begin{aligned} e^A &= \cos \theta I + \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} A + \frac{(1 - \cos \theta)}{\theta^2} B \\ &= I + \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} A + \frac{(1 - \cos \theta)}{\theta^2} A^2 \quad \text{if } \theta \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

The proof is an exercise. \square .

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In fact, this represents rotation around the axis (a, b, c) by angle Θ !

Theorem. For a matrix Lie group, the matrix exponential $\exp: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow G$ is the Riemannian exponential map $\exp: T_e G \rightarrow G$.

Example. Using these facts, we see that lines in $\mathfrak{so}(3)$ = skew-symmetric matrices map to rotations around a fixed axis in $SO(3)$, which are (hence) the geodesics of $SO(3)$.