# Symmetric Spaces Toolkit 

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## 1 Lie Groups and Lie Algebras

### 1.1 Matrix Lie Groups

A subset $G$ of $G L(n, \mathbb{C})$ that is topologically closed and also closed under the group operations (i.e. if $A, B \in G$ then $A B^{-1} \in G$ as well) is called a matrix Lie group. It can be shown (see e.g. [Co]) that such a matrix Lie group is automatically a differentiable sub-manifold of $G L(n, \mathbb{C})$. Note that this definition also includes zero-dimensional matrix groups like $\{\mathrm{Id},-\mathrm{Id}\} \subset$ $G L(n)$.

In this article all matrix Lie groups are supposed to be reductive, which - in our context - means that for each element $A$ of the group its adjoint $A^{\dagger}=\bar{A}^{T}$ is also an element of the group. ${ }^{1}$

In the context of matrix Lie groups we have the usual exponential map

$$
\begin{equation*}
\exp : \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \rightarrow G L(n, \mathbb{C}), \quad X \mapsto e^{X}=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{X^{k}}{k!} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

For a given matrix Lie group $G$ we consider the set

$$
\mathfrak{g}=\left\{X \in G L(n) \mid e^{t X} \in G \text { for all } t \in \mathbb{R}\right\},
$$

and call it the Lie algebra of $G$. In this definition the map $t \mapsto e^{t X}$ is a curve in $G$ which passes through the identity $\operatorname{Id} \in G$. Since

$$
\left.\frac{d}{d t}\right|_{t=0} e^{t X}=X
$$

we can think of $\mathfrak{g}$ as being the set of tangent vectors at the identity $\operatorname{Id} \in G$, i.e.

$$
\mathfrak{g}=T_{\mathrm{Id}} G
$$

Together with the commutator $[X, Y]=X Y-Y X$ one can show (see for example [Ha]) that $\mathfrak{g}$ is also an Lie algebra in the abstract sense. ${ }^{2}$

## Examples of Lie groups and their Lie algebras

- $G=S L(n, \mathbb{C})=\left\{A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \mid \operatorname{det} A=1\right\}, \mathfrak{g}=\mathfrak{g l}(n, \mathbb{C})=\{X \in$ $\left.\mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \mid \operatorname{tr} X=0\right\}$.

[^1]- $G=S U(n)=\left\{A A^{\dagger}=\operatorname{Id}\right\} \cap\{\operatorname{det} A=1\}, \mathfrak{g}=\mathfrak{s u}(n)=\left\{X+X^{\dagger}=\right.$ $0\} \cap\{\operatorname{tr} X=0\}$.


### 1.2 Lie Group Homomorphisms

A Lie group homomorphism is a smooth map

$$
\varphi: G \rightarrow H \quad \text { satisfying } \quad \varphi(g h)=\varphi(g) \varphi(h)
$$

for all $g$ and $h$. For an element $g$ in $G$ we denote its derivative by $d_{g} \varphi$ : $T_{g} G \rightarrow T_{\varphi(g)} H$. In the special case of $g=e$ (the identity in $G$ ) we obtain an isomorphism of Lie algebras:

$$
\varphi_{*}: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}, \quad \text { with } \quad \varphi_{*}([X, Y])=\left[\varphi_{*}(X), \varphi_{*}(Y)\right]
$$

and the important relation

$$
\varphi\left(e^{X}\right)=e^{\varphi_{*}(X)} .
$$

### 1.3 Example: Parametrization of $S O(3, \mathbb{R})$

As an example of a case where we can explicitly calculate the exponential of a matrix we take $G=S O(3, \mathbb{R})=\left\{A A^{T}=\operatorname{Id}\right\} \cap\{\operatorname{det} A=1\}$. Its Lie algebra is given by $\mathfrak{g}=\mathfrak{s o}(3, \mathbb{R})=\left\{X+X^{T}=0\right\} \cap\{\operatorname{tr} X=0\}$ and is spanned by the elements

$$
F_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & -1 \\
0 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad F_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 \\
-1 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad F_{3}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & -1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

for which we have

$$
\left[F_{1}, F_{2}\right]=F_{3}, \quad\left[F_{2}, F_{3}\right]=F_{1}, \quad\left[F_{3}, F_{1}\right]=F_{2}
$$

By choosing this basis we obtain the linear map

$$
\mathbb{R}^{3} \rightarrow \mathfrak{s o}(3), \quad\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \mapsto x_{1} F_{1}+x_{2} F_{2}+x_{3} F_{3},
$$

which is in fact an isomorphism of Lie algebras if we take the standard crossproduct on $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. For an element $x \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$ we denote its image under this map by $A_{x}$. The eigenvalues of $A_{x}$ are 0 (with eigenvector $x$ ) and $\pm i|x|$. The geometric interpretation of the exponential of $A_{x}$ is that of a rotation around the axis $\mathbb{R} x \subset \mathbb{R}^{3}$ by the angle $|x|$. Using $A_{x}^{3}=-|x|^{2} A_{x}$ and the standard series expansions of sin and cos we can simplify (1) and obtain

$$
e^{A_{x}}=\operatorname{Id}+\frac{\sin |x|}{|x|} A_{x}+\frac{1-\cos |x|}{|x|^{2}} A_{x}^{2} .
$$

### 1.4 Example: The "covering" $S U(2) \rightarrow S O(3)$

In the case $n=2$ the group $S U(2)$ can be written as

$$
S U(2)=\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\alpha & -\bar{\beta} \\
\beta & \bar{\alpha}
\end{array}\right)| | \alpha\right|^{2}+|\beta|^{2}=1\right\} .
$$

Its Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s u}(2)$ is given by

$$
\mathfrak{s u}(2)=\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{cc}
i \varphi & z \\
-\bar{z} & -i \varphi
\end{array}\right) \right\rvert\, \varphi \in \mathbb{R}, z \in \mathbb{C}\right\} .
$$

With the basis

$$
E_{1}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
i & 0 \\
0 & -i
\end{array}\right), \quad E_{2}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
-1 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad E_{3}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right),
$$

we have

$$
\mathfrak{s u}(2)=\mathbb{R} E_{1}+\mathbb{R} E_{2}+\mathbb{R} E_{3}
$$

and

$$
\left[E_{1}, E_{2}\right]=E_{3}, \quad\left[E_{2}, E_{3}\right]=E_{1}, \quad\left[E_{3}, E_{1}\right]=E_{2}
$$

(Observe that by setting $\sigma_{k}=2 / i E_{k}$ for $k=1,2,3$, one obtains the Pauli matrices known in physics.) With the basis given above the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s u}(2)$ is isomorphic to $\left(\mathbb{R}^{3}, \times\right)$, and the group $G L(\mathfrak{s u}(2))$ of invertible linear operators on $\mathfrak{s u}(2)$ can in this way be identified with $G L(3, \mathbb{R})$.

The group $S U(2)$ acts on $\mathfrak{s u}(2)$ by conjugation, i.e. for all $g \in S U(2)$ we have the map $X \mapsto g X g^{-1}$. Thus, we have the group homomorphism

$$
S U(2) \rightarrow G L(\mathfrak{s u}(2)) \cong G L(3, \mathbb{R}), \quad g \mapsto g(\cdot) g^{-1}
$$

One can prove that its image is exactly $S O(3, \mathbb{R}) \subset G L(3, \mathbb{R})$. Its kernel is $\{-\mathrm{Id}, \mathrm{Id}\}$. An explicit description of this homomorphism can be found in [DK].

### 1.5 The Derivative of the Exponential Mapping

We are now interested in the derivative of exp at a point $X \in \mathfrak{g}$. Before we can write down the general formula we need to introduce some notation: For $g \in G$ we denote the map $G \rightarrow G, x \mapsto g x$ by $L_{g}$. For $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ we have the linear map

$$
\operatorname{ad} X: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}, \quad Y \mapsto[X, Y] .
$$

Since this map is an operator on the finite-dimensional vector space $\mathfrak{g}$, the exponential $e^{\text {ad } X}$ can be defined in the usual way (see equation (1)).

In the case of general smooth manifolds $M$ and $N$ and a map $f: M \rightarrow N$, the derivative $d_{p} f$ at a point $p \in M$ goes from $T_{p} M$ to $T_{f(p)} N$. In our case, $M$ is simply the vector space $\mathfrak{g}$, so with $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ we can identify $T_{X} \mathfrak{g}$ with $\mathfrak{g}$ itself. The derivative of the exponential map is then given by

$$
d_{X} \exp : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow T_{\exp (X)} G
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{X} \exp =d_{e} L_{\exp X} \circ \int_{0}^{1} e^{-s \operatorname{ad} X} d s \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

An elementary proof of this formula is given is [Ha], chapter three. However, it can be shown that the derivative of the exponential map can be derived from more general principles, which is briefly discussed in appendix A.

If $G$ is a matrix Lie group then the above map $L_{g}: x \mapsto g x$ is linear. Hence, its derivative at the point $e \in G$ is the same as the map itself, i. e. $d_{e} L_{g}$ is the left-multiplication by $g$. So $d_{e} L_{\exp X}(Y)=e^{X} \cdot Y$, and (2) simplifies to

$$
d_{X} \exp =e^{X} \int_{0}^{1} e^{-s \operatorname{ad} X} d s=e^{X} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-\operatorname{ad} X)^{k}}{(k+1)!}=e^{X} \frac{\operatorname{Id}-e^{-\operatorname{ad} X}}{\operatorname{ad} X},
$$

where the right-hand side of the last equality is actually defined by the lefthand side, because ad $X$ might not be invertible.

## 2 Coset Spaces and Homogenous Spaces

If $G$ is a general group (not neccessarily a Lie group) and $K$ a subgroup of $G$, then we can form, for each element $g \in G$, the set $g K=\{g k \mid k \in K\}$. The set of all such $g K$ is called the coset space and denoted by

$$
G / K=\{g K \mid g \in G\}
$$

It is important to note that such a coset space is, in general, not a group anymore. ${ }^{3}$ Associated to a coset space $G / K$ we have the naturally defined map $\pi: G \rightarrow G / K$ assigning to each $g$ its coset $g K$. The group $G$ acts transitively on $G / K$ by left-multiplication, which we sometimes denote by the map $\tilde{L}_{g}: G / K \rightarrow G / K, x K \mapsto g x K$.

Note that since Lie algebras are vector spaces, they are in particular groups with regards to vector addition, so the above construction can also be applied to them. In such a setting, if $\mathfrak{k}$ is a subalgebra of a Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$,

[^2]

Figure 1: The existence of local coordinates in the example of the $S^{1}$ action on $\mathbb{C}^{*}$. The $S^{1}$-orbits are concentric circles around the origin. For a sufficiently small neighborhood we can always find a local slice, which parametrizes the orbits and, thus, defines local coordinates for the coset space $\mathbb{C}^{*} / S^{1}$.
then $\mathfrak{g} / \mathfrak{k}$ is the usual quotient vector space. In general, this quotient vector space is not a Lie algebra anymore.

Now if $G$ is a Lie group and $K$ is a closed subgroup it can be shown that the coset space $G / K$ can be endowed with the structure of a smooth manifold. We refer to such a space as a homogenous space. ${ }^{4}$

### 2.1 Existence of Local Coordinates

The existence of smooth local coordinates on $G / K$ can be illustrated as follows: An open set in $G / K$ is by definition the image of an open set in $G$ under the map $\pi: G \rightarrow G / K$. If we take an open set $U$ in $G$, the image $\pi(U) \subset G / K$ can be interpreted as the set of all $K$-orbits intersecting $U$. It is a theorem that, for a sufficiently small neighborhood $U$, one can always find a local slice, i.e. a smooth submanifold of $U$ which parametrizes the orbits intersecting $U$ (see Figure 1 for an illustrative example where $G=G L(1, \mathbb{C})=\mathbb{C}^{*}=\mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$ and $\left.K=U(1)=S^{1}=\{z \in \mathbb{C}| | z \mid=1\}\right)$. Such a slice defines local coordinates for $\pi(U) \subset G / K$.

[^3]
### 2.2 The Tangent Space

Since homogenous spaces are manifolds we can talk about the tangent space at a point in $G / K$. At the point $e K \in G / K$ the tangent space can be expressed by the Lie algebras of $G$ and $K$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{e K}(G / K)=\mathfrak{g} / \mathfrak{k} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

This can be seen as follows: The projection map $\pi: G \rightarrow G / K$ is surjective. So its derivative at the identity in $G$, which we denote by $\pi_{*}: T_{e} G \rightarrow$ $T_{e K}(G / K)$, is also surjective. It is well-known from Linear Algebra that any surjective linear map $F: V \rightarrow W$ between vector spaces induces an isomorphism between $V / \operatorname{ker} F$ and $W$. Now the kernel of $\pi_{*}$ is precisely $\mathfrak{k}$. Together with $T_{e} G=\mathfrak{g}$ this yields equation (3).

## 3 Symmetric Spaces

A symmetric space is a homogeneous space $G / K$ where the subgroup $K$ has two additional properties:

1. $K$ is a compact ${ }^{5}$ subgroup of $G$, and
2. there exists an involution $\theta: G \rightarrow G$ (i.e. a Lie group homomorphism satisfying $\left.\theta^{2}=\mathrm{Id}\right)$ with $\operatorname{Fix}(\theta)^{\circ} \subset K \subset \operatorname{Fix}(\theta)$,
where $\operatorname{Fix}(\theta)=\{\theta(g)=g\}$ is the fixed point set of $\theta$ and $\operatorname{Fix}^{\circ}(\theta)$ is the topological component of $\operatorname{Fix}(\theta)$ containing the identity element of $G$. In many examples we simply have $K=\operatorname{Fix}(\theta)$.

## Examples

- $G=S L(n, \mathbb{C}), K=S U(n), \theta(A)=\left(A^{\dagger}\right)^{-1}$.
- $G=S U(n), K=S O(n), \theta(A)=\bar{A}$.

From the definition of a symmetric space it follows that every symmetric space can be equipped with a Riemannian metric. This metric is not unique. However, the geodesics defined by such a Riemannian metric are in fact unique. See [He] or [CE] for details.

[^4]
### 3.1 The Cartan Decomposition

From the second property in the definition of a symmetric space it follows that the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{k}$ of $K$ is given as the $(+1)$-eigenspace of $\theta_{*}: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$. The $(-1)$-eigenspace of $\theta_{*}$ is usually denoted by $\mathfrak{p}$ and, together with $\mathfrak{k}$, yields the Cartan decomposition of $\mathfrak{g}$

$$
\mathfrak{g}=\mathfrak{k} \oplus \mathfrak{p}
$$

## Examples

- For $G=S L(n, \mathbb{C}), K=S U(n)$, we have $\theta_{*}(X)=-X^{\dagger}$ and, thus, $\mathfrak{k}=\left\{X=-X^{\dagger}\right\}$ and $\mathfrak{p}=\left\{X=X^{\dagger}\right\}$.
- For $G=S U(n), K=S O(n)$, it follow $\theta_{*}(X)=\bar{X}$ and, thus,

$$
\mathfrak{k}=\{X \in \mathfrak{s u}(n) \mid X=\bar{X}\}=\left\{X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \mid X=-X^{T}\right\}
$$

and $\mathfrak{p}=\left\{X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \mid X=X^{T}\right\}$.
Note that $\mathfrak{p}$ is a canonically defined complement of $\mathfrak{k}$. One can think of it as being "perpedicular" to $\mathfrak{k}$. Since $\theta_{*}$ preserves the bracket operation, one can easily prove the following important inclusions:

$$
\begin{equation*}
[\mathfrak{p}, \mathfrak{p}] \subset \mathfrak{k} \quad \text { and } \quad[\mathfrak{k}, \mathfrak{p}] \subset \mathfrak{p} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

From the Cartan decomposition it follows that $\mathfrak{p}$ is canonically isomorphic to the quotient $\mathfrak{g} / \mathfrak{k}$, which in turn is the tangent space of $G / K$ at the point $e K$. Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{e K}(G / K)=\mathfrak{g} / \mathfrak{k} \cong \mathfrak{p} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 3.2 The Exponential Map for Symmetric Spaces

Since symmetric spaces have a close relation to Lie groups, one can also define an exponential map for them:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Exp}: \mathfrak{p} \rightarrow G / K, \quad \operatorname{Exp}=\pi \circ \exp \mid \mathfrak{p} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The derivative of $\operatorname{Exp}$ at a point $X \in \mathfrak{p}$ is the map $d_{X} \operatorname{Exp}: \mathfrak{p} \rightarrow$ $T_{\operatorname{Exp} X} G / K$. In view of (6) it can be calculated by using the derivative of (Lie-theoretic) exp and applying the chain rule. Furthermore, we can simplify the resulting expression by using equation (4) and $d_{e} \pi(\mathfrak{k})=0$ and obtain

$$
d_{X} \operatorname{Exp}=d_{e K} \tilde{L}_{\exp X} \circ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-\operatorname{ad} X)^{2 k}}{(2 k+1)!}
$$



Figure 2: Straight lines in $\mathfrak{p}$ passing through the origin are mapped to geodesics in $G / K$ by Exp.
where $\tilde{L}_{g}(x K)=g x K$ is defined as in section 2. Using

$$
\frac{\sinh (x)}{x}=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-x)^{2 k}}{(2 k+1)!}
$$

we get an expression of $d_{X}$ Exp which is perhaps easier to remember:

$$
d_{X} \operatorname{Exp}=d_{e K} \tilde{L}_{\exp X} \circ \frac{\sinh \operatorname{ad} X}{\operatorname{ad} X} .
$$

### 3.3 The Exponential Map and Geodesics

If $M$ is a general Riemannian manifold one can always define a local diffeomorphism from the tangent space at a point $p \in M$ into $M$ which maps straight lines passing through the origin in $T_{p} M$ to geodesics in $M$. This map is usually called the Riemannian exponential map and denoted by Exp. See [He] for details.

In section 2 it was remarked that geodesics on a symmetric space are independet of the choice of the respective Riemannian metric. Thus, the Riemannian exponential map is unique in such a context. It can be shown that it can be directly expressed by the usual Lie-theoretic exponential map.

So, by using (5), we have a relation between straight lines in $\mathfrak{p}$ passing through the origin and geodesics in $G / K$ (see figure 2).

## A A Variational Formula for time-dependent Vector Fields

Let $M$ be a smooth manifold and $v_{\varepsilon}$ a smoothly parametrized family of vector fields on $M$. For each $v_{\varepsilon}$ we have an associated flow $\Phi_{\varepsilon}^{t}$ which we assume to be globally defined. The derivative of $\Phi_{\varepsilon}^{t}$ with respect to $\varepsilon$ can be expressed by the following variational formula:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d}{d \varepsilon} \Phi_{\varepsilon}^{t}(x)=\int_{0}^{t} d_{\Phi_{\varepsilon}^{s}(x)} \Phi_{\varepsilon}^{t-s} \frac{v_{\varepsilon}}{d \varepsilon}\left(\Phi_{\varepsilon}^{s}(x)\right) d s \in T_{\Phi_{\varepsilon}^{t}} M \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the context of a general Lie group $G$ with Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ we can apply the above formula to the vector fields defined by $X+\varepsilon Y$, where $X$ and $Y$ are elements of the Lie algebra of $G$ and $\varepsilon$ is a real number. The associated flow is then given by the exponential map

$$
\Phi_{\varepsilon}^{s}(x)=\exp (s(X+\varepsilon Y)) x, \quad x \in G
$$

Applying this to (7) and then simplifying yields the general formula for the derivative of the exponential map:

$$
d_{X} \exp =d_{e} L_{\exp X} \circ \int_{0}^{1} e^{-s \operatorname{ad} X} d s
$$

More details can be found in [DK] and [He].

## B Acknowledgements

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| C No | tation |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\bar{A}$ | Complex conjugate of $A$ |
| $A^{T}$ | The transpose of $A$ |
| $A^{\dagger}$ | The adjoint of $A$, i.e. $\bar{A}^{T}$ |
| Id | The identity matrix |
| $G L(n, \mathbb{C})$ | $\left\{A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \mid \operatorname{det} A \neq 1\right\}$ |
| $S L(n, \mathbb{C})$ | $\left\{A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \mid \operatorname{det} A=1\right\}$ |
| $U(n)$ | $\left\{A \in G L(n, \mathbb{C}) \mid A A^{\dagger}=\mathrm{Id}\right\}$ |
| $S U(n)$ | $U(n) \cap S L(n, \mathbb{C})$ |
| $O(n)$ | $\left\{A \in G L(n, \mathbb{R}) \mid A A^{T}=\operatorname{Id}\right\}$ |
| $S O(n)$ | $O(n) \cap S L(n, \mathbb{R})$ |
| $G$ | A general (matrix) Lie group |
| $G^{\circ}$ | The topological component of $G$ which contains the identity element |
| $e$ | The identity element of a Lie group |
| $e^{X}$ | The exponential of a matrix $X$, i.e. $e^{X}=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} X^{k} / k$ ! |
| $T_{g} G$ | The tangent space of $G$ at a point $g \in G$ |
| $\mathfrak{g}$ | The Lie algebra of $G$, i.e. $\mathfrak{g}=T_{e} G$ |
| $[X, Y]$ | The commutator of two Lie algebra elements, i.e. $[X, Y]=X Y-Y X$ |
| $L_{g}$ | The map defined by left multiplication by $g \in G$, i.e. $L_{g}(x)=g x$ |
| $d_{p} f$ | The differential of a smooth map $f: M \rightarrow N$ beween manifolds. |
| $\varphi_{*}$ | The differential of a Lie group homomorphism at the point $e \in G$, i.e. $\varphi_{*}=d_{e} \varphi$ |
| ad $X$ | The map definied by $(\operatorname{ad} X)(Y)=[X, Y]$ |
| $\operatorname{Fix}(\theta)$ | The fixed point set of the involution $\theta$ |
| $\operatorname{Fix}(\theta)^{\circ}$ | The topological component of $\operatorname{Fix}(\theta)$ containing the identity. |

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is not the abstract definition of reductivity, which is more complicated (see for example $[\mathrm{Hu}])$. However, it can be shown that a matrix Lie group which fulfills the definition of reductivity given here is also reductive in the abstract sense.
    ${ }^{2}$ Recall that an (abstract) Lie algebra is a vector space with an additional product structure that is bilinear, skew-symmetric, and fulfills the Jacobi identity, i.e. $[X,[Y, Z]]+$ $[Y,[Z, X]]+[Z,[X, Y]]=0$.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Unless the subgroup $K$ is "normal" in $G$, which means that $g K=K g$ for all $g \in G$.

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ Homogenous spaces are important examples of abstractly defined smooth manifolds, i.e. manifolds that do not appear as subsets of some ambient space.

[^4]:    ${ }^{5}$ A matrix Lie group $G$ is compact if convergent sequences in $G$ have their limit in $G$, and if there exists a constant $C$ such that for all $A \in G,\left|A_{i j}\right| \leq C$ for all $1 \leq i, j \leq n$. For example, the groups $O(n), S O(n)$, and $S U(n)$ are compact.

