## II. The exponential function

In this chapter we study one of the central tools in Lie theory: the matrix exponential function. This function has various applications in the structure theory of subgroups of matrix groups. First of all it is naturally linked to the one-parameter subgroups and it turns out that the local structure of a closed subgroup $G \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ is determined by its one-parameter subgroups. Moreover, it helps us to understand the global topology of various groups of matrices by refining the polar decomposition.

## II.1. Smooth functions defined by power series

First we put the structure that we have on the space $M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ of $(n \times n)$ matrices into a slightly more general context.

Definition II.1.1. (a) A vector space $A$ together with a bilinear map $A \times A \rightarrow$ $A,(x, y) \mapsto x \cdot y$ (called multiplication) is called an (associative) algebra if the multiplication is associative in the sense that

$$
(x \cdot y) \cdot z=x \cdot(y \cdot z) \quad \text { for } \quad x, y, z \in A
$$

We write $x y:=x \cdot y$ for the product of $x$ and $y$ in $A$.
The algebra $A$ is called unital if it contains an element $\mathbf{1}$ satisfying $\mathbf{1} a=$ $a \mathbf{1}=a$ for each $a \in A$.
(b) A norm $\|\cdot\|$ on an algebra $A$ is called submultiplicative if

$$
\|a b\| \leq\|a\| \cdot\|b\| \quad \text { for all } \quad a, b \in A
$$

Then the pair $(A,\|\cdot\|)$ is called a normed algebra. If, in addition, $A$ is a complete normed space, then it is said to be a Banach algebra.

Remark II.1.2. Any finite-dimensional normed space is complete, so that each finite-dimensional normed algebra is a Banach algebra.

Example II.1.3. Endowing $M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ with the operator norm with respect to the euclidean norm on $\mathbb{K}^{n}$ defines on $M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ the structure of a unital Banach algebra.

Lemma II.1.4. If $A$ is a unital Banach algebra, then we endow the vector space $T A:=A \oplus A$ with the norm

$$
\|(a, b)\|:=\|a\|+\|b\|
$$

and the multiplication

$$
(a, b)\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right):=\left(a a^{\prime}, a b^{\prime}+a^{\prime} b\right)
$$

Then $T A$ is a unital Banach algebra.
Writing $\varepsilon:=(0,1)$, then each element of $T A$ can be written in a unique fashion as $(a, b)=a+b \varepsilon$ and the multiplication satisfies

$$
(a+b \varepsilon)\left(a^{\prime}+b \varepsilon^{\prime}\right)=a a^{\prime}+\left(a b^{\prime}+a^{\prime} b\right) \varepsilon .
$$

In particular, $\varepsilon^{2}=0$.
Proof. That $T A$ is a unital algebra is a trivial verification. That the norm is submultiplicative follows from

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|(a, b)\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)\right\| & =\left\|a a^{\prime}\right\|+\left\|a b^{\prime}+a^{\prime} b\right\| \leq\|a\| \cdot\left\|a^{\prime}\right\|+\|a\| \cdot\left\|b^{\prime}\right\|+\left\|a^{\prime}\right\| \cdot\|b\| \\
& \leq(\|a\|+\|b\|)\left(\left\|a^{\prime}\right\|+\left\|b^{\prime}\right\|\right)=\|(a, b)\| \cdot\left\|\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)\right\| .
\end{aligned}
$$

This proves that $(T A,\|\cdot\|)$ is a unital Banach algebra, the unit being $\mathbf{1}=(\mathbf{1}, 0)$. The completeness of $T A$ follows easily from the completeness of $A$ (Exercise)

Lemma II.1.5. Let $\left(c_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence in $\mathbb{K}$ and $r>0$ with

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left|c_{n}\right| r^{n}<\infty
$$

Further let A be a finite-dimensional unital Banach algebra. Then

$$
f: B_{r}(0):=\{x \in A:\|x\|<r\} \rightarrow A, \quad x \mapsto \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_{n} x^{n}
$$

defines a smooth function. Its derivative is given by

$$
\mathrm{d} f(x)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_{n} \mathrm{~d} p_{n}(x)
$$

where $p_{n}(x)=x^{n}$ is the $n$th power map whose derivative is given by

$$
\mathrm{d} p_{n}(x) y=x^{n-1} y+x^{n-2} y x+\ldots+x y x^{n-2}+y x^{n-1} .
$$

For $\|x\|<r$ and $y \in M_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ with $x y=y x$ we obtain in particular

$$
\mathrm{d} p_{n}(x) y=n x^{n-1} y \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{d} f(x) y=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_{n} n x^{n-1} y
$$

Proof. We observe that the series defining $f(x)$ converges for $\|x\|<r$ by the Comparison Test (for series in Banach spaces). We shall prove by induction over $k \in \mathbb{N}$ that all such functions $f$ are $C^{k}$-functions.

Step 1: First we show that $f$ is a $C^{1}$-function. We define $\alpha_{n}: A \rightarrow A$ by

$$
\alpha_{n}(h):=x^{n-1} h+x^{n-2} h x+\ldots+x h x^{n-2}+h x^{n-1} .
$$

Then $\alpha_{n}$ is a continuous linear map with $\left\|\alpha_{n}\right\| \leq n\|x\|^{n-1}$. Furthermore

$$
p_{n}(x+h)=(x+h)^{n}=x^{n}+\alpha_{n}(h)+r_{n}(h),
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|r_{n}(h)\right\| & \leq\binom{ n}{2}\|h\|^{2}\|x\|^{n-2}+\binom{n}{3}\|h\|^{3}\|x\|^{n-3}+\ldots+\|h\|^{n} \\
& =\sum_{k \geq 2}\binom{n}{k}\|h\|^{k}\|x\|^{n-k}
\end{aligned}
$$

In particular $\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\left\|r_{n}(h)\right\|}{\|h\|}=0$, and therefore $p_{n}$ is differentiable in $x$ with $\mathrm{d} p_{n}(x)=\alpha_{n}$. The series

$$
\beta(h):=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_{n} \alpha_{n}(h)
$$

converges absolutely in $\operatorname{End}(A)$ by the Ratio Test since $\|x\|<r$ :

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left|c_{n}\right|\left\|\alpha_{n}\right\| \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left|c_{n}\right| \cdot n \cdot\|x\|^{n-1}<\infty
$$

We thus obtain a linear map $\beta(x) \in \operatorname{End}(A)$ for each $x$ with $\|x\|<r$.
Now let $h$ satisfy $\|x\|+\|h\|<r$, i.e., $\|h\|<r-\|x\|$. Then

$$
f(x+h)=f(x)+\beta(x)(h)+r(h), \quad r(h):=\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} c_{n} r_{n}(h),
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|r(h)\| & \leq \sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\left|c_{n}\right|\left\|r_{n}(h)\right\| \leq \sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\left|c_{n}\right| \sum_{k=2}^{n}\binom{n}{k}\|h\|^{k}\|x\|^{n-k} \\
& \leq \sum_{k=2}^{\infty}\left(\sum_{n=k}^{\infty}\left|c_{n}\right|\binom{n}{k}\|x\|^{n-k}\right)\|h\|^{k}<\infty
\end{aligned}
$$

follows from $\|x\|+\|h\|<r$ because

$$
\sum_{k} \sum_{n \geq k}\left|c_{n}\right|\binom{n}{k}\|x\|^{n-k}\|h\|^{k}=\sum_{n}\left|c_{n}\right|(\|x\|+\|h\|)^{n} \leq \sum_{n}\left|c_{n}\right| r^{n}<\infty
$$

Therefore the continuity of real-valued functions represented by a power series yields

$$
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|r(h)\|}{\|h\|}=\sum_{k=2}^{\infty}\left(\sum_{n=k}^{\infty}\left|c_{n}\right|\binom{n}{k}\|x\|^{n-k}\right) 0^{k-1}=0
$$

This proves that $f$ is a $C^{1}$-function with the required derivative.
Step 2: To complete our proof by induction, we now show that if all functions $f$ as above are $C^{k}$, then they are also $C^{k+1}$. In view of Step 1, this implies that they are smooth.

To set up the induction, we consider the Banach algebra $T A$ from Lemma II.1. 4 and apply Step 1 to this algebra to obtain a smooth function
$F:\{x+\varepsilon h \in T A:\|x\|+\|h\|=\|x+\varepsilon h\|<r\} \rightarrow T A, \quad F(x+\varepsilon h)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_{n} \cdot(x+\varepsilon h)^{n}$,
We further note that

$$
(x+\varepsilon h)^{n}=x^{n}+\mathrm{d} p_{n}(x) h \cdot \varepsilon .
$$

This implies the formula

$$
F(x+\varepsilon h)=f(x)+\varepsilon \mathrm{d} f(x) h
$$

i.e., that the extension $F$ of $f$ to $T A$ describes the first order Taylor expansion of $f$ in each point $x \in A$. Our induction hypothesis implies that $F$ is a $C^{k}$ function.

Let $x_{0} \in A$ with $\left\|x_{0}\right\|<r$ and pick a basis $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d}$ of $A$ with $\left\|h_{i}\right\|<$ $r-\left\|x_{0}\right\|$. Then all functions $x \mapsto \mathrm{~d} f(x) h_{i}$ are defined and $C^{k}$ on a neighborhood of $x_{0}$, and this implies that the function

$$
B_{r}(0) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, A), \quad x \mapsto \mathrm{~d} f(x)
$$

is $C^{k}$. This in turn implies that $f$ is $C^{k+1}$.
The following proposition shows in particular that inserting elements of a Banach algebra in power series is compatible with composition.

Proposition II.1.6. (a) On the set $P_{R}$ of power series of the form

$$
f(z):=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} z^{n}, \quad a_{n} \in \mathbb{K}
$$

and converging on the open disc $B_{R}(0):=\{z \in \mathbb{K}:|z|<R\}$, we define for $r<R$ :

$$
\|f\|_{r}:=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left|a_{n}\right| r^{n}
$$

Then $\|\cdot\|_{r}$ is a norm with the following properties:
(1) $\|\cdot\|_{r}$ is submultiplicative: $\|f g\|_{r} \leq\|f\|_{r}\|g\|_{r}$.
(2) The polynomials $f_{N}(z):=\sum_{n=0}^{N} a_{n} z^{n}$ satisfy $\left\|f-f_{N}\right\|_{r} \rightarrow 0$.
(3) If $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ satisfies $\|A\|<R$, then $f(A):=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} A^{n}$ converges. We further have

$$
\|f(A)\| \leq\|f\|_{r} \quad \text { for } \quad\|A\| \leq r<R
$$

and for $f, g \in P_{R}$ we have

$$
(f \cdot g)(A)=f(A) g(A)
$$

(b) If $g \in P_{S}$ with $\|g\|_{s}<R$ for all $s<S$ and $f \in P_{R}$, then $f \circ g \in P_{S}$ defines an analytic function on the open disc of radius $S$, and for $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ with $\|A\|<S$ we have $\|g(A)\|<R$ and the Composition Formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(g(A))=(f \circ g)(A) \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. (1) First we note that $P_{R}$ is the set of all power series $f(z)=$ $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} z^{n}$ for which $\|f\|_{r}<\infty$ holds for all $r<R$. We leave the easy argument that $\|\cdot\|_{r}$ is a norm to the reader. If $\|f\|_{r},\|g\|_{r}<\infty$ holds for $g(z)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_{n} z^{n}$, then the Cauchy Product Formula implies that

$$
\|f g\|_{r}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left|\sum_{k=0}^{n} a_{k} b_{n-k}\right| r^{n} \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n}\left|a_{k}\right|\left|b_{n-k}\right| r^{k} r^{n-k}=\|f\|_{r}\|g\|_{r}
$$

(2) follows immediately from $\left\|f-f_{N}\right\|_{r}=\sum_{n>N}\left|a_{n}\right| r^{n} \rightarrow 0$.
(3) The relation $\|f(A)\| \leq\|f\|_{r}$ follows from $\left\|a_{n} A^{n}\right\| \leq\left|a_{n}\right| r^{n}$ and the Comparison Test for absolutely convergent series in a Banach space. The relation $(f \cdot g)(A)=f(A) g(A)$ follows from the Cauchy Product Formula (Exercise II.1.3) because the series $f(A)$ and $g(A)$ converge absolutely.
(b) We may w.l.o.g. assume that $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{C}$ because everything on the case $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{R}$ can be obtained by restriction. Our assumption implies that $g\left(B_{S}(0)\right) \subseteq$ $B_{R}(0)$, so that $f \circ g$ defines a holomorphic function on the open disc $B_{S}(0)$. For $s<S$ and $\|g\|_{s}<r<R$ we then derive

$$
\|f \circ g\|_{s} \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left\|a_{n} g^{n}\right\|_{s} \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left|a_{n}\right|\|g\|_{s}^{n} \leq\|f\|_{r}
$$

For $s:=\|A\|$ we obtain $\|g(A)\| \leq\|g\|_{s}<R$, so that $f(g(A))$ is defined. For $s<r<R$ we then have

$$
\left\|f(g(A))-f_{N}(g(A))\right\| \leq\left\|f-f_{N}\right\|_{r} \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Likewise

$$
\left\|(f \circ g)(A)-\left(f_{N} \circ g\right)(A)\right\| \leq\left\|(f \circ g)-\left(f_{N} \circ g\right)\right\|_{s} \leq\left\|f-f_{N}\right\|_{r} \rightarrow 0
$$

and we get

$$
(f \circ g)(A)=\lim _{N \rightarrow \infty}\left(f_{N} \circ g\right)(A)=\lim _{N \rightarrow \infty} f_{N}(g(A))=f(g(A))
$$

because the Composition Formula trivially holds if $f$ is a polynomial.

## Exercises for Section II. 1

Exercise II.1.1. Let $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$ be finite-dimensional normed spaces and $\beta: X_{1} \times \ldots \times X_{n} \rightarrow Y$ an $n$-linear map.
(a) Show that $\beta$ is continuous. Hint: Choose a basis in each space $X_{j}$ and expand $\beta$ accordingly.
(b) Show that there exists a constant $C \geq 0$ with

$$
\left\|\beta\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)\right\| \leq C\left\|x_{1}\right\| \cdots\left\|x_{n}\right\| \quad \text { for } \quad x_{i} \in X_{i}
$$

Exercise II.1.2. Let $Y$ be a Banach space and $a_{n, m}, n, m \in \mathbb{N}$, elements in $Y$ with

$$
\sum_{n, m}\left\|a_{n, m}\right\|:=\sup _{N \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{n, m \leq N}\left\|a_{n, m}\right\|<\infty
$$

(a) Show that

$$
A:=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} a_{n, m}=\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n, m}
$$

and that both iterated sums exist.
(b) Show that for each sequence $\left(S_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of finite subsets $S_{n} \subseteq \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}, n \in \mathbb{N}$, with $S_{n} \subseteq S_{n+1}$ and $\bigcup_{n} S_{n}=\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ we have

$$
A=\lim _{n \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{(j, k) \in S_{n}} a_{j, k} .
$$

Exercise II.1.3. (Cauchy Product Formula) Let $X, Y, Z$ be Banach space and $\beta: X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ a continuous bilinear map. Suppose that $x:=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x_{n}$ is absolutely convergent in $X$ and that $y:=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} y_{n}$ is absolutely convergent in $Y$. Then

$$
\beta(x, y)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \beta\left(x_{k}, y_{n-k}\right)
$$

Hint: Use Exercises II.1.1(b) and II.1.2(b).

## II.2. Elementary properties of the exponential function

After the preparations of the preceding section, it is now easy to see that the matrix exponential function defines a smooth map on $M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$. In this section we describe some elementary properties of this function. As group theoretic consequences for $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{K})$, we show that it has no small subgroups and that all one-parameter groups are smooth and given by the exponential function.

For $x \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ we define

$$
\begin{equation*}
e^{x}:=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^{n} . \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The absolute convergence of the series on the right follows directly from the estimate

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}\left\|x^{n}\right\| \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}\|x\|^{n}=e^{\|x\|}
$$

and the Comparison Test for absolute convergence of a series in a Banach space. We define the exponential function of $M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ by

$$
\exp : M_{n}(\mathbb{K}) \rightarrow M_{n}(\mathbb{K}), \quad \exp (x):=e^{x}
$$

Proposition II.2.1. The exponential function $\exp : M_{d}(\mathbb{K}) \rightarrow M_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ is smooth. For $x y=y x$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{d} \exp (x) y=\exp (x) y=y \exp (x) \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and in particular

$$
\mathrm{d} \exp (0)=\operatorname{id}_{M_{n}(\mathbb{K})} .
$$

Proof. To verify the formula for the differential, we note that for $x y=y x$, Lemma II.1.5 implies that

$$
\mathrm{d} \exp (x) y=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} n x^{n-1} y=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^{n} y=\exp (x) y
$$

For $x=0$, the relation $\exp (0)=\mathbf{1}$ now implies in particular that $\operatorname{dexp}(0) y=y$.

Lemma II.2.2. Let $x, y \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$.
(i) If $x y=y x$, then $\exp (x+y)=\exp x \exp y$.
(ii) $\exp \left(M_{n}(\mathbb{K})\right) \subseteq \mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{K})$, $\exp (0)=\mathbf{1}$, and $(\exp x)^{-1}=\exp (-x)$.
(iii) For $g \in \mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ we have $g e^{x} g^{-1}=e^{g x g^{-1}}$.

Proof. (i) Using the general form of the Cauchy-Product Formula (Exercise II.1.3), we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\exp (x+y) & =\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x+y)^{k}}{k!}=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{\ell=0}^{k}\binom{k}{\ell} x^{\ell} y^{k-\ell} \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{\ell=0}^{k} \frac{x^{\ell}}{\ell!} \frac{y^{k-\ell}}{(k-\ell)!}=\left(\sum_{p=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{p}}{p!}\right)\left(\sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \frac{y^{\ell}}{\ell!}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(ii) From (i) we derive in particular $\exp x \exp (-x)=\exp 0=\mathbf{1}$, which implies (ii).
(iii) is a consequence of $g x^{n} g^{-1}=\left(g x g^{-1}\right)^{n}$ and the continuity of the conjugation map $c_{g}(x):=g x g^{-1}$ on $M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$.

Remark II.2.3. (a) For $n=1$, the exponential function

$$
\exp : M_{1}(\mathbb{R}) \cong \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\times} \cong \mathrm{GL}_{1}(\mathbb{R}), \quad x \mapsto e^{x}
$$

is injective, but this is not the case for $n>1$. In fact,

$$
\exp \left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -2 \pi \\
2 \pi & 0
\end{array}\right)=\mathbf{1}
$$

follows from

$$
\exp \left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -t \\
t & 0
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\cos t & -\sin t \\
\sin t & \cos t
\end{array}\right), \quad t \in \mathbb{R}
$$

This example is nothing but the real picture of the relation $e^{2 \pi i}=1$.
Proposition II.2.4. There exists an open neighborhood $U$ of 0 in $M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ such that the map

$$
\left.\exp \right|_{U}: U \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{K})
$$

is a diffeomorphism onto an open neighborhood of $\mathbf{1}$ in $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{K})$.
Proof. We have already seen that exp is a smooth map, and that $\operatorname{dexp}(\mathbf{0})=$ $\mathrm{id}_{M_{n}(\mathbb{K})}$. Therefore the assertion follows from the Inverse Function Theorem.

If $U$ is as in Proposition II.2.4, we define

$$
\log _{V}:=\left(\left.\exp \right|_{V}\right)^{-1}: V \rightarrow U \subseteq M_{n}(\mathbb{K})
$$

We shall see below why this function deserves to be called a logarithm function.
The following corollary means that the group $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ contains no subgroups that are small in the sense that they lie arbitrarily close to the identity.

> No Small Subgroup Theorem

Theorem II.2.5. There exists an open neighborhood $V$ of $\mathbf{1}$ in $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ such that $\{\mathbf{1}\}$ is the only subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ contained in $V$.
Proof. Let $U$ be as in Proposition II.2.4 and assume furthermore that $U$ is convex and bounded. We set $U_{1}:=\frac{1}{2} U$. Let $G \subseteq V:=\exp U_{1}$ be a subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ and $g \in G$. Then we write $g=\exp x$ with $x \in U_{1}$ and assume that $x \neq 0$. Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ be maximal with $k x \in U_{1}$ (the existence of $k$ follows from the boundedness of $U$ ). Then

$$
g^{k+1}=\exp (k+1) x \in G \subseteq V
$$

implies the existence of $y \in U_{1}$ with $\exp (k+1) x=\exp y$. Since $(k+1) x \in$ $2 U_{1}=U$ follows from $\frac{k+1}{2} x \in[0, k] x \subseteq U_{1}$, and $\left.\exp \right|_{U}$ is injective, we obtain $(k+1) x=y \in U_{1}$, contradicting the maximality of $k$. Therefore $g=\mathbf{1}$.

A one-parameter (sub)group of a group $G$ is a group homomorphism $\gamma:(\mathbb{R},+) \rightarrow G$. The following result describes all differentiable one-parameter subgroups of $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{K})$.

## One-Parameter Group Theorem

Theorem II.2.6. For each $x \in M_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ the map

$$
\gamma:(\mathbb{R},+) \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}_{d}(\mathbb{K}), \quad t \mapsto \exp (t x)
$$

is a smooth group homomorphism solving the initial value problem

$$
\gamma(0)=\mathbf{1} \quad \text { and } \quad \gamma^{\prime}(t)=\gamma(t) x \quad \text { for } t \in \mathbb{R}
$$

Conversely, every continuous one-parameter group $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ is of this form.
Proof. In view of Lemma II.2.2(i) and the differentiability of exp, we have
$\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h}(\gamma(t+h)-\gamma(t))=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h}(\gamma(t) \gamma(h)-\gamma(t))=\gamma(t) \lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h}\left(e^{h x}-\mathbf{1}\right)=\gamma(t) x$.
Hence $\gamma$ is differentiable with

$$
\gamma^{\prime}(t)=x \gamma(t)=\gamma(t) x
$$

From that it immediately follows that $\gamma$ is smooth with $\gamma^{(n)}(t)=x^{n} \gamma(t)$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Although we won't need it for the completeness of the proof, we first show that each one-parameter group $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ which is differentiable in 0 has the required form. For $x:=\gamma^{\prime}(0)$, the calculation

$$
\gamma^{\prime}(t)=\lim _{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\gamma(t+s)-\gamma(t)}{s}=\lim _{s \rightarrow 0} \gamma(t) \frac{\gamma(s)-\gamma(0)}{s}=\gamma(t) \gamma^{\prime}(0)=\gamma(t) x
$$

implies that $\gamma$ is differentiable and solves the initial value problem

$$
\gamma^{\prime}(t)=\gamma(t) x, \quad \gamma(0)=\mathbf{1}
$$

Therefore the Uniqueness Theorem for Linear Differential Equations implies that $\gamma(t)=\exp t x$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

It remains to show that each continuous one-parameter group $\gamma$ of $\mathrm{GL}_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ is differentiable in 0 . As in the proof of Theorem II.2.5, let $U$ be a convex symmetric (i.e., $U=-U$ ) 0 -neighborhood in $M_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ as in Proposition II.2.4 and $U_{1}:=\frac{1}{2} U$. Since $\gamma$ is continuous in 0 , there exists an $\varepsilon>0$ such that $\gamma([-\varepsilon, \varepsilon]) \subseteq \exp \left(U_{1}\right)$. Then $\alpha(t):=\left(\left.\exp \right|_{U}\right)^{-1}(\gamma(t))$ defines a continuous curve $\alpha:[-\varepsilon, \varepsilon] \rightarrow U_{1}$ with $\exp (\alpha(t))=\gamma(t)$ for $|t| \leq \varepsilon$. For any such $t$ we then have

$$
\exp \left(2 \alpha\left(\frac{t}{2}\right)\right)=\exp \left(\alpha\left(\frac{t}{2}\right)\right)^{2}=\gamma\left(\frac{t}{2}\right)^{2}=\gamma(t)=\exp (\alpha(t))
$$

so that the injectitivy of $\exp$ on $U$ yields

$$
\alpha\left(\frac{t}{2}\right)=\frac{1}{2} \alpha(t) \quad \text { for } \quad|t| \leq \varepsilon
$$

Inductively, we thus obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha\left(\frac{t}{2^{k}}\right)=\frac{1}{2^{k}} \alpha(t) \quad \text { for } \quad|t| \leq \varepsilon, k \in \mathbb{N} . \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, we obtain

$$
\alpha(t) \in \frac{1}{2^{k}} U_{1} \quad \text { for } \quad|t| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2^{k}}
$$

For $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $|n| \leq 2^{k}$ and $|t| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2^{k}}$ we now have $|n t| \leq \varepsilon, n \alpha(t) \in \frac{n}{2^{k}} U_{1} \subseteq U_{1}$, and

$$
\exp (n \alpha(t))=\gamma(t)^{n}=\gamma(n t)=\exp (\alpha(n t))
$$

Therefore the injectivity of $\exp$ on $U_{1}$ yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha(n t)=n \alpha(t) \quad \text { for } \quad n \leq 2^{k},|t| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2^{k}} . \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining (2.3) and (2.4), leads to

$$
\alpha\left(\frac{n}{2^{k}} t\right)=\frac{n}{2^{k}} \alpha(t) \quad \text { for } \quad|t| \leq \varepsilon, k \in \mathbb{N},|n| \leq 2^{k}
$$

Since the set of all numbers $\frac{n t}{2^{k}}, n \in \mathbb{Z},|n| \leq 2^{k}$, is dense in the interval $[-t, t]$, the continuity of $\alpha$ implies that

$$
\alpha(t)=\frac{t}{\varepsilon} \alpha(\varepsilon) \quad \text { for } \quad|t| \leq \varepsilon .
$$

In particular, $\alpha$ is smooth and of the form $\alpha(t)=t x$ for some $x \in M_{d}(\mathbb{K})$. Hence $\gamma(t)=\exp (t x)$ for $|t| \leq \varepsilon$, but then $\gamma(n t)=\exp (n t x)$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ leads to $\gamma(t)=\exp (t x)$ for each $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

## Exercises for Section II. 2

Exercise II.2.1. Let $D \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ be a diagonal matrix. Calculate its operator norm.

Exercise II.2.2. If $A$ is a Banach algebra with unit element 1 and $g \in A$ satisfies $\|g-\mathbf{1}\|<1$, then $g$ is invertible, i.e., there exists an element $h \in A$ with $h g=g h=\mathbf{1}$. Hint: For $x:=\mathbf{1}-g$ the Neumann series $y:=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n}$ converges. Show that $y$ is an inverse of $g$.

Exercise II.2.3. (a) Calculate $e^{t N}$ for $t \in \mathbb{K}$ and the matrix

$$
N=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
\cdot & 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdot \\
\cdot & & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
\cdot & & & \cdot & 1 \\
0 & & \ldots & & 0
\end{array}\right) \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})
$$

(b) If $A$ is a block diagonal matrix $\operatorname{diag}\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{k}\right)$, then $e^{A}$ is the block diagonal matrix $\operatorname{diag}\left(e^{A_{1}}, \ldots, e^{A_{k}}\right)$.
(c) Calculate $e^{t A}$ for a matrix $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ given in Jordan Normal Form. Hint: Use (a) and (b).

Exercise II.2.4. Recall that a matrix $x$ is said to be nilpotent if $x^{d}$ for some $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $y$ is called unipotent if $y-\mathbf{1}$ is nilpotent.

Let $a, b \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ be commuting matrices.
(a) If $a$ and $b$ are nilpotent, then $a+b$ is nilpotent.
(b) If $a$ and $b$ are diagonalizable, then $a+b$ and $a b$ are diagonalizable.
(c) If $a$ and $b$ are unipotent, then $a b$ is unipotent.

Exercise II.2.5. (Jordan decomposition)
(a) (Additive Jordan decomposition) Show that each complex matrix $X \in$ $M_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ can be written in a unique fashion as

$$
X=X_{s}+X_{n} \quad \text { with } \quad\left[X_{s}, X_{n}\right]=0
$$

where $X_{n}$ is nilpotent and $X_{s}$ diagonalizable. Hint: Existence (Jordan normal form), Uniqueness (what can you say about nilpotent diagonalizable matrices?). (b) (Multiplicative Jordan decomposition) Show that each invertible complex matrix $g \in \mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ can be written in a unique fashion as

$$
g=g_{s} g_{u}, \quad \text { with } \quad g_{s} g_{u}=g_{u} g_{s}
$$

where $g_{u}$ is unipotent and $g_{s}$ diagonalizable. Hint: Existence: Put $g_{u}:=$ $1+g_{s}^{-1} g_{n}$.
(c) If $X=X_{s}+X_{n}$ is the additive Jordan decomposition, then $e^{X}=e^{X_{s}} e^{X_{n}}$ is the multiplicative Jordan decomposition of $e^{X}$.
(d) $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ commutes with a diagonalizable matrix $D$ if and only if $A$ preserves all eigenspaces of $D$.
(e) $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ commutes with $X$ if and only if it commutes with $X_{s}$ and $X_{n}$. Hint: If $A$ commutes with $X$, it preserves the generalized eigenspaces of $X$ (verify this!), and this implies that it commutes with $X_{s}$, which is diagonalizable and whose eigenspaces are the generalized eigenspaces of $X$.

Exercise II.2.6. Let $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{C})$. Show that the set

$$
e^{\mathbb{R} A}=\left\{e^{t A}: t \in \mathbb{R}\right\}
$$

is bounded in $M_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ if and only if $A$ is diagonalizable with purely imaginary eigenvalues. Hint: Choose a matrix $g \in \mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ for which $A^{\prime}:=g A g^{-1}$ is in Jordan normal form $A^{\prime}=D+N$ ( $D$ diagonal and $N$ strictly upper triangular). Then show that the boundedness of $e^{\mathbb{R} A}$ implies $N=0$ and the boundedness of the subset $e^{\mathbb{R} D}$.

Exercise II.2.7. Show that:
(a) $\exp \left(M_{n}(\mathbb{R})\right)$ is contained in the identity component $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{R})_{+}$of $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{R})$. In particular the exponential function of $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{R})$ is not surjective because $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{R})$ is not connected.
(b) The exponential function

$$
\exp : M_{2}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{R})_{+}
$$

is not surjective. Hint: Use the Jordan normal form to derive some information on the eigenvalues of matrices of the form $e^{x}$ which is not satisfied by all elements of $\mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{R})_{+}$. (Either the spectrum is contained in the positive axis or its consists of two mutually conjugate complex numbers). The matrix $g:=\left(\begin{array}{cc}-1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2\end{array}\right)$ is not contained in the image of exp.
(c) Give also a direct argument why $g$ is not of the form $e^{X}$. Hint: $e^{X}$ commutes with $X$.

Exercise II.2.8. Let $V \subseteq M_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ be a commutative subspace, i.e., an abelian Lie subalgebra. Then $A:=e^{V}$ is an abelian subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ and

$$
\exp :(V,+) \rightarrow(A, \cdot)
$$

is a group homomorphism whose kernel consists of diagonalizable elements whose eigenvalues are contained in $2 \pi i \mathbb{Z}$. Hint: Lemma II.2.1, Exercise II.2.6.

Exercise II.2.9. For $X, Y \in M_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ the following are equivalent:
(1) $e^{X}=e^{Y}$.
(2) $X_{n}=Y_{n}$ holds for the nilpotent Jordan components and $e^{X_{s}}=e^{Y_{s}}$.

Exercise II.2.10. For $A \in M_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ we have $e^{A}=\mathbf{1}$ if and only if $A$ is diagonalizable with all eigenvalues contained in $2 \pi i \mathbb{Z}$. Hint: Exercise II.2.9.

## II.3. The logarithm function

In this section we apply the tools from Section II. 1 to the logarithm series. Since this series has the radius of convergence 1, it defines a smooth function $B_{1}(\mathbf{1}) \rightarrow M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$, and we shall see that it provides a smooth inverse of the exponential function.

Lemma II.3.1. The series

$$
\log (\mathbf{1}+x):=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k+1} \frac{x^{k}}{k}
$$

converges for $x \in M_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ with $\|x\|<1$ and defines a smooth function

$$
\log : B_{1}(\mathbf{1}) \rightarrow M_{d}(\mathbb{K})
$$

For $\|x\|<1$ and $y \in M_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ with $x y=y x$ we have

$$
(\mathrm{d} \log )(\mathbf{1}+x) y=(\mathbf{1}+x)^{-1} y
$$

Proof. The convergence follows from

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k+1} \frac{r^{k}}{k}=\log (1+r)<\infty
$$

for $r<1$, so that the smoothness follows from Lemma II.1.5.
If $x$ and $y$ commute, then the formula for the derivative in Lemma II.1.5 leads to

$$
(\mathrm{d} \log )(\mathbf{1}+x) \cdot y=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k+1} x^{k-1} y=(\mathbf{1}+x)^{-1} y
$$

(here we used the Neumann series; cf. Exercise II.2.2).
Proposition II.3.2. (a) For $x \in M_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ with $\|x\|<\log 2$ we have

$$
\log (\exp x)=x
$$

(b) For $g \in \mathrm{GL}_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ with $\|g-\mathbf{1}\|<1$ we have $\exp (\log g)=g$.

Proof. (a) We apply Proposition II.1.6 with $\exp \in P_{S}, S=\log 2, R=$ $e^{\log 2}=2$ and $\|\exp \|_{s} \leq e^{s} \leq e^{S}=2$ for $s<S$. We thus obtain $\log (\exp x)=x$ for $\|x\|<\log 2$.
(b) Next we apply Proposition II.1.6 with $f=\exp , S=1$ and $g(z)=$ $\log (1+z)$ to obtain $\exp (\log g)=g$.

## The exponential function on nilpotent matrices

Proposition II.3.3. Let

$$
U:=\left\{g \in \mathrm{GL}_{d}(\mathbb{K}):(g-\mathbf{1})^{d}=0\right\}
$$

be the set of unipotent matrices and

$$
N:=\left\{x \in M_{d}(\mathbb{K}): x^{d}=0\right\}
$$

the set of nilpotent matrices. Then $U=\mathbf{1}+N$ and

$$
\exp _{N}:=\left.\exp \right|_{N}: N \rightarrow U
$$

is a homeomorphism whose inverse is given by

$$
\log _{U}: g \mapsto \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k+1} \frac{(g-\mathbf{1})^{k}}{k}=\sum_{k=1}^{d-1}(-1)^{k+1} \frac{(g-\mathbf{1})^{k}}{k}
$$

Proof. First we observe that for $x \in N$ we have

$$
e^{x}-\mathbf{1}=x a \quad \text { with } \quad a:=\sum_{n=1}^{d} \frac{1}{n!} x^{n-1} .
$$

In view of $x a=a x$, this leads to $\left(e^{x}-\mathbf{1}\right)^{d}=x^{d} a^{d}=0$. Therefore $\exp _{N}(N) \subseteq U$. Similarly we obtain for $g \in U$ that

$$
\log _{U}(g)=(g-\mathbf{1}) \sum_{k=1}^{d}(-1)^{k+1} \frac{(g-\mathbf{1})^{k-1}}{k} \in N
$$

For $x \in N$ the curve

$$
F: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow M_{d}(\mathbb{K}), \quad t \mapsto \log _{U} \exp _{N}(t x)
$$

is a polynomial function and Proposition II.3.2 implies that $F(t)=t x$ for $\|t x\|<\log 2$. This imples that $F(t)=t x$ for each $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and hence that $\log _{U} \exp _{N}(x)=F(1)=x$.

Likewise we see that for $g=\mathbf{1}+x \in U$ the curve

$$
G: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow M_{d}(\mathbb{K}), \quad t \mapsto \exp _{N} \log _{U}(\mathbf{1}+t x)
$$

is polynomial with $G(t)=\mathbf{1}+t x$ for $\|t x\|<1$. Therefore $\exp _{N} \log _{U}(g)=$ $F(1)=\mathbf{1}+x=g$. This proves that the functions $\exp _{N}$ and $\log _{U}$ are inverse to each other.

Corollary II.3.4. Let $X \in \operatorname{End}(V)$ be a nilpotent endomorphism of the $\mathbb{K}$ vector space $V$ and $v \in V$. Then the following are equivalent:
(1) $X . v=0$.
(2) $e^{X} \cdot v=v$.

Proof. Clearly $X . v=0$ implies $e^{X} . v=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} X^{n} . v=v$.
If, conversely, $e^{X} . v=v$, then

$$
X . v=\log \left(e^{X}\right) \cdot v=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k+1} \frac{\left(e^{X}-\mathbf{1}\right)^{k}}{k} \cdot v=0 .
$$

## The exponential function on hermitian matrices

For the following proof we recall that for a hermitian $d \times d$-matrix $A$ we have

$$
\|A\|=\max \{|\lambda|: \operatorname{det}(A-\lambda \mathbf{1})=0\}
$$

(Exercise II.3.1).
Proposition II.3.5. The restriction

$$
\exp _{P}:=\left.\exp \right|_{\operatorname{Herm}_{d}(\mathbb{K})}: \operatorname{Herm}_{d}(\mathbb{K}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pd}_{d}(\mathbb{K})
$$

is a diffeomorphism onto the open subset $\operatorname{Pd}_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ of $\operatorname{Herm}_{d}(\mathbb{K})$.
Proof. For $x^{*}=x$ we have $\left(e^{x}\right)^{*}=e^{x^{*}}$, which implies that $\exp x$ is hermitian if $x$ is hermitian. Moreover, if $\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}$ are the real eigenvalues of $x$, then $e^{\lambda_{1}}, \ldots, e^{\lambda_{n}}$ are the eigenvalues of $e^{x}$. Therefore $e^{x}$ is positive definite for each hermitian matrix $x$.

If, conversely, $g \in \operatorname{Pd}_{d}(\mathbb{K})$, then let $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ be an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors for $g$ with $g \cdot v_{j}=\lambda_{j} v_{j}$. Then $\lambda_{j}>0$ for each $j$, and we define $\log _{H}(g) \in \operatorname{Herm}_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ by $\log _{H}(g) \cdot v_{j}:=\left(\log \lambda_{j}\right) v_{j}, j=1, \ldots, n$. From this construction of the logarithm function it is clear that

$$
\log _{H} \circ \exp _{P}=\operatorname{id}_{\operatorname{Herm}_{d}(\mathbb{K})} \quad \text { and } \quad \exp _{P} \circ \log _{H}=\operatorname{id}_{\operatorname{Pd}_{d}(\mathbb{K})}
$$

For two real numbers $x, y>0$ we have

$$
\log (x y)=\log x+\log y
$$

From this we obtain for $\lambda>0$ the relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log _{H}(\lambda g)=(\log \lambda) \cdot \mathbf{1}+\log _{H}(g) \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

by following what happens on each eigenspace of $g$.

The relation

$$
\log (x)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k+1} \frac{(x-\mathbf{1})^{k}}{k}
$$

for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ with $|x-1|<1$ implies that for $\|g-\mathbf{1}\|<1$ we have

$$
\log _{H}(g)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k+1} \frac{(g-\mathbf{1})^{k}}{k}
$$

This proves that $\log _{H}$ is smooth in $B_{1}(\mathbf{1}) \cap \operatorname{Herm}_{d}(\mathbb{K})$, hence in a neighborhood of $g_{0}$ if $\left\|g_{0}-\mathbf{1}\right\|<1$ (Lemma II.3.1), which means that for each eigenvalue $\mu$ of $g_{0}$ we have $|\mu-1|<1$ (Exercise II.2.1). If this condition is not satisfied, then we choose $\lambda>0$ such that $\|\lambda g\|<2$. Then $\|\lambda g-\mathbf{1}\|<1$, and we obtain with (3.1) the formula

$$
\log _{H}(g)=-(\log \lambda) \mathbf{1}+\log _{H}(\lambda g)=-(\log \lambda) \mathbf{1}+\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k+1} \frac{(\lambda g-\mathbf{1})^{k}}{k}
$$

Therefore $\log _{H}$ is smooth on the whole open cone $\operatorname{Pd}_{d}(\mathbb{K})$, so that $\log _{H}=\exp _{P}^{-1}$ implies that $\exp _{P}$ is a diffeomorphism.

Corollary II.3.6. The group $\mathrm{GL}_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ is homeomorphic to

$$
\mathrm{U}_{d}(\mathbb{K}) \times \mathbb{R}^{\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{R}}\left(\operatorname{Herm}_{d}(\mathbb{K})\right)} \quad \text { with } \quad \operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{R}}\left(\operatorname{Herm}_{d}(\mathbb{K})\right)= \begin{cases}\frac{d(d+1)}{2} & \text { for } \mathbb{K}=\mathbb{R} \\ d^{2} & \text { for } \mathbb{K}=\mathbb{C}\end{cases}
$$

## Exercises for Section II.3.

Exercise II.3.1. Show that for a hermitian matrix $A \in \operatorname{Herm}_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ and the euclidian norm $\|\cdot\|$ on $\mathbb{K}^{n}$ we have

$$
\|A\|:=\sup \{\|A x\|:\|x\| \leq 1\}=\max \{|\lambda|: \operatorname{der}(A-\lambda \mathbf{1})=0\}
$$

Hint: Write $x \in \mathbb{K}^{n}$ as a sum $x=\sum_{j} x_{j}$, where $A x_{j}=\lambda_{j} x_{j}$ and calculate $\|A x\|^{2}$ in these term.

Exercise II.3.2. The exponential function

$$
\exp : M_{n}(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{C})
$$

is surjective. Hint: Use the multiplicative Jordan decomposition: Each $g \in$ $\operatorname{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{C})$ can be written in a unique way as $g=d u$ with $d$ diagonalizable and $u$ unipotent with $d u=u d$; see also Proposition II.3.3.

## II.4. The Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff-Dynkin Formula

In this section we derive a formula which expresses the product $\exp x \exp y$ of two sufficiently small matrices $x, y$ as the exponential image $\exp (x * y)$ of an element $x * y$ which can be described in terms of Lie brackets. The (local) multiplication $*$ is called the Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff Multiplication and the explicit series describing this product the Dynkin series.

The discussion of $x * y$ requires some preparation. We start with the adjoint representation of $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{K})$. This is the group homomorphism

$$
\operatorname{Ad}: \mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{K}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}\left(M_{n}(\mathbb{K})\right), \quad \operatorname{Ad}(g) x=g x g^{-1}
$$

where $\operatorname{Aut}\left(M_{n}(\mathbb{K})\right)$ is the group of algebra automorphisms of $M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$. For $x \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ we further define a linear map

$$
\operatorname{ad}(x): M_{n}(\mathbb{K}) \rightarrow M_{n}(\mathbb{K}), \quad \operatorname{ad} x(y):=[x, y]
$$

Lemma II.4.1. For each $x \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ we have

$$
\operatorname{Ad}(\exp x)=\exp (\operatorname{ad} x)
$$

Proof. We define the linear maps

$$
L_{x}: M_{n}(\mathbb{K}) \rightarrow M_{n}(\mathbb{K}), \quad y \mapsto x y
$$

and

$$
R_{x}: M_{n}(\mathbb{K}) \rightarrow M_{n}(\mathbb{K}), \quad y \mapsto y x
$$

Then $L_{x} R_{x}=R_{x} L_{x}$ and ad $x=L_{x}-R_{x}$. Therefore Lemma II.2.2(ii) leads to

$$
\operatorname{Ad}(\exp x) y=e^{x} y e^{-x}=e^{L_{x}} e^{-R_{x}} y=e^{L_{x}-R_{x}} y=e^{\operatorname{ad} x} y
$$

THE DIFFERENTIAL OF THE EXPONENTIAL FUNCTION

Proposition II.4.2. Let $x \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ and $\lambda_{\exp x}(y):=(\exp x) y$ the left multiplication by $\exp x$. Then

$$
\mathrm{d} \exp (x)=\lambda_{\exp x} \circ \frac{\mathbf{1}-e^{-\operatorname{ad} x}}{\operatorname{ad} x}: M_{n}(\mathbb{K}) \rightarrow M_{n}(\mathbb{K}),
$$

where the fraction on the right means $\Phi(\operatorname{ad} x)$ for the entire function

$$
\Phi(z):=\frac{1-e^{-z}}{z}=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-z)^{k-1}}{k!}
$$

The series $\Phi(x)$ converges for each $x \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$.
Proof. First let $\alpha:[0,1] \rightarrow M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ be a smooth curve. Then

$$
\gamma(t, s):=\exp (-s \alpha(t)) \frac{d}{d t} \exp (s \alpha(t))
$$

defines a map $[0,1]^{2} \rightarrow M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ which is $C^{1}$ in each argument. We calculate

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial s}(t, s)= & \exp (-s \alpha(t)) \cdot(-\alpha(t)) \frac{d}{d t} \exp (s \alpha(t)) \\
& \quad+\exp (-s \alpha(t)) \cdot \frac{d}{d t}(\alpha(t) \exp (s \alpha(t))) \\
= & \exp (-s \alpha(t)) \cdot(-\alpha(t)) \frac{d}{d t} \exp (s \alpha(t)) \\
& \quad+\exp (-s \alpha(t)) \cdot\left(\alpha^{\prime}(t) \exp (s \alpha(t))+\alpha(t) \frac{d}{d t} \exp (s \alpha(t))\right) \\
= & \operatorname{Ad}(\exp (-s \alpha(t))) \alpha^{\prime}(t)=e^{-s \operatorname{ad} \alpha(t)} \alpha^{\prime}(t) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Integration over $[0,1]$ with respect to $s$ now leads to

$$
\gamma(t, 1)=\gamma(t, 0)+\int_{0}^{1} e^{-s \mathrm{ad} \alpha(t)} \alpha^{\prime}(t) d s=\int_{0}^{1} e^{-s \mathrm{ad} \alpha(t)} \alpha^{\prime}(t) d s
$$

Next we note that for $x \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{1} e^{-s \operatorname{ad} x} d s & =\int_{0}^{1} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-\operatorname{ad} x)^{k}}{k!} s^{k} d s=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}(-\operatorname{ad} x)^{k} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{s^{k}}{k!} d s \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-\operatorname{ad} x)^{k}}{(k+1)!}=\Phi(\operatorname{ad} x)
\end{aligned}
$$

We thus obtain for $\alpha(t)=x+t y$ the relation

$$
\gamma(0,1)=\exp (-x) \operatorname{dexp}(x) y=\int_{0}^{1} e^{-s \operatorname{ad} x} y d s=\Phi(\operatorname{ad} x) y
$$

Lemma II.4.3. For

$$
\Phi(z)=\frac{1-e^{-z}}{z}:=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{k-1} \frac{z^{k-1}}{k!}, \quad z \in \mathbb{C}
$$

and
$\Psi(z)=\frac{z \log z}{z-1}:=z \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k}(z-1)^{k-1}=z \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{k+1}(z-1)^{k} \quad$ for $|z-1|<1$
we have

$$
\Psi\left(e^{z}\right) \Phi(z)=1 \quad \text { for } \quad z \in \mathbb{C},|z|<\log 2
$$

Proof. If $|z|<\log 2$, then $\left|e^{z}-1\right|<1$ and we obtain from $\log \left(e^{z}\right)=z$ :

$$
\Psi\left(e^{z}\right) \Phi(z)=\frac{e^{z} z}{e^{z}-1} \frac{1-e^{-z}}{z}=1
$$

In view of the Composition Formula (1.1) (Proposition II.1.6), the same identity as in Lemma II.4.3 holds if we insert linear maps $L \in \operatorname{End}\left(M_{n}(\mathbb{K})\right)$ with $\|L\|<\log 2$ into the power series $\Phi$ and $\Psi$ :

$$
\Psi(\exp L) \Phi(L)=(\Psi \circ \exp )(L) \Phi(L)=((\Psi \circ \exp ) \cdot \Phi)(L)=\operatorname{id}_{M_{n}(\mathbb{K})}
$$

Here we use that $\|L\|<\log 2$ implies that all expressions are defined and in particular that $\|\exp L-\mathbf{1}\|<1$, as a consequence of the estimate

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|\exp L-\mathbf{1}\| \leq e^{\|L\|}-1 \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The derivation of the BCH formula follows a similar scheme as the proof of Proposition II.4.2. Here we consider $x, y \in V_{o}:=B(0, \log \sqrt{2})$. For $\|x\|,\|y\|<r$ the estimate (4.1) leads to

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \|\exp x \exp y-\mathbf{1}\|=\|(\exp x-\mathbf{1})(\exp y-\mathbf{1})+(\exp y-\mathbf{1})+(\exp x-\mathbf{1})\| \\
& \quad \leq\|\exp x-\mathbf{1}\| \cdot\|\exp y-\mathbf{1}\|+\|\exp y-\mathbf{1}\|+\|\exp x-\mathbf{1}\| \\
& \quad<\left(e^{r}-1\right)^{2}+2\left(e^{r}-1\right)=e^{2 r}-1
\end{aligned}
$$

For $r<\log \sqrt{2}=\frac{1}{2} \log 2$ and $|t| \leq 1$ we obtain in particular

$$
\|\exp x \exp t y-\mathbf{1}\|<e^{\log 2}-1=1
$$

Therefore $\exp x \exp t y$ lies for $|t| \leq 1$ in the domain of the logarithm function (Lemma II.3.1). We therefore define for $t \in[-1,1]$ :

$$
F(t)=\log (\exp x \exp t y)
$$

To estimate the norm of $F(t)$, we note that for $g:=\exp x \exp t y,|t| \leq 1$, and $\|x\|,\|y\|<r$ we have
$\|\log g\| \leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\|g-1\|^{k}}{k}=-\log (1-\|g-\mathbf{1}\|)<-\log \left(1-\left(e^{2 r}-1\right)\right)=-\log \left(2-e^{2 r}\right)$.
For $r:=\frac{1}{2} \log \left(2-\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\right)<\frac{\log 2}{2}=\log \sqrt{2}$ this leads for $\|x\|,\|y\|<r$ to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|F(t)\|<-\log \left(2-e^{2 r}\right)=\log \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{2}}\right)=\log (\sqrt{2}) \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next we calculate $F^{\prime}(t)$ with the goal to obtain the BCH formula as $F(1)=F(0)+\int_{0}^{1} F^{\prime}(t) d t$. For the derivative of the curve $t \mapsto \exp F(t)$ we get with Proposition II.4.2:

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\mathrm{d} \exp )(F(t)) F^{\prime}(t) & =\frac{d}{d t} \exp (F(t))=\frac{d}{d t} \exp x \exp t y \\
& =(\exp x \exp t y) y=(\exp F(t)) y
\end{aligned}
$$

Using Proposition II.4.2 again, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=(\exp F(t))^{-1}(\mathrm{~d} \exp )(F(t)) F^{\prime}(t)=\frac{\mathbf{1}-e^{-\operatorname{ad} F(t)}}{\operatorname{ad} F(t)} F^{\prime}(t) \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The next step is to rewrite (4.3) with the function $\Phi$ from Lemma II.4.3 as

$$
\Phi(\operatorname{ad} F(t)) F^{\prime}(t)=y
$$

We claim that $\|\operatorname{ad}(F(t))\|<\log 2$. From $\|a b-b a\| \leq 2\|a\|\|b\|$ we derive

$$
\|\operatorname{ad} a\| \leq 2\|a\| \quad \text { for } \quad a \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})
$$

Therefore

$$
\|\operatorname{ad} F(t)\| \leq 2\|F(t)\|<2 \log (\sqrt{2})=\log 2
$$

so that the discussion above and (4.3) lead to

$$
\begin{equation*}
F^{\prime}(t)=\Psi(\exp (\operatorname{ad} F(t))) y \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proposition II.4.4. For $x, y \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ with $\|x\|,\|y\|<\frac{1}{2} \log \left(2-\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\right)$ we have

$$
\log (\exp x \exp y)=x+\int_{0}^{1} \Psi(\exp (\operatorname{ad} x) \exp (t \operatorname{ad} y)) y d t
$$

with $\Psi$ as in Lemma II.4.3.
Proof. With (4.4) and the preceding remarks we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
F^{\prime}(t) & =\Psi(\exp (\operatorname{ad} F(t))) y \\
& =\Psi(\operatorname{Ad}(\exp F(t))) y=\Psi(\operatorname{Ad}(\exp x \exp t y)) y \\
& =\Psi(\operatorname{Ad}(\exp x) \operatorname{Ad}(\exp t y)) y=\Psi(\exp (\operatorname{ad} x) \exp (\operatorname{ad} t y)) y
\end{aligned}
$$

Moreover, we have

$$
F(0)=\log (\exp x)=x
$$

By integration we therefore obtain the formula.

Proposition II.4.5. For $x, y \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ and $\|x\|,\|y\|<\frac{1}{2} \log \left(2-\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\right)$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x * y:=\log (\exp x \exp y) \\
& =x+ \\
& \sum_{\substack{k, m \geq 0 \\
p_{i}+q_{i}>0}} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{(k+1)\left(q_{1}+\ldots+q_{k}+1\right)} \frac{(\operatorname{ad} x)^{p_{1}}(\operatorname{ad} y)^{q_{1}} \ldots(\operatorname{ad} x)^{p_{k}}(\operatorname{ad} y)^{q_{k}}(\operatorname{ad} x)^{m}}{p_{1}!q_{1}!\ldots p_{k}!q_{k}!m!} y .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. We only have to rewrite the expression in Proposition II.4.4:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{0}^{1} \Psi(\exp (\operatorname{ad} x) \exp (\operatorname{ad} t y)) y d t \\
= & \int_{0}^{1} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k}(\exp (\operatorname{ad} x) \exp (\operatorname{ad} t y)-\mathrm{id})^{k}}{(k+1)}(\exp (\operatorname{ad} x) \exp (\operatorname{ad} t y)) y d t \\
= & \int_{0}^{1} \sum_{\substack{k \geq 0 \\
p_{i}+q_{i}>0}} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{(k+1)} \frac{(\operatorname{ad} x)^{p_{1}}(\operatorname{ad} t y)^{q_{1}} \ldots(\operatorname{ad} x)^{p_{k}}(\operatorname{ad} t y)^{q_{k}}}{p_{1}!q_{1}!\ldots p_{k}!q_{k}!} \exp (\operatorname{ad} x) y d t \\
= & \sum_{\substack{k, m \geq 0 \\
p_{i}+q_{i}>0}} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{(k+1)} \frac{(\operatorname{ad} x)^{p_{1}}(\operatorname{ad} y)^{q_{1}} \ldots(\operatorname{ad} x)^{p_{k}}(\operatorname{ad} y)^{q_{k}}(\operatorname{ad} x)^{m}}{p_{1}!q_{1}!\ldots p_{k}!q_{k}!m!} y \int_{0}^{1} t^{q_{1}+\ldots+q_{k}} d t \\
= & \sum_{\substack{k, m \geq 0 \\
p_{i}+q_{i}>0}} \frac{(-1)^{k}(\operatorname{ad} x)^{p_{1}}(\operatorname{ad} y)^{q_{1}} \ldots(\operatorname{ad} x)^{p_{k}}(\operatorname{ad} y)^{q_{k}}(\operatorname{ad} x)^{m} \cdot y}{(k+1)\left(q_{1}+\ldots+q_{k}+1\right) p_{1}!q_{1}!\ldots p_{k}!q_{k}!m!} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The power series in Proposition II. 4.5 is called the Dynkin Series. We observe that it does not depend on the size $n$ of the matrices we consider. For practical purposes it often suffices to know the first terms of the Dynkin series:

Corollary II.4.6. Let $x, y \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ and $\|x\|,\|y\|<\frac{1}{2} \log \left(2-\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\right)$. Then we have

$$
x * y=x+y+\frac{1}{2}[x, y]+\frac{1}{12}[x,[x, y]]+\frac{1}{12}[y,[y, x]]+\ldots
$$

Proof. One has to collect the summands in Proposition II.4.5 corresponding to $p_{1}+q_{1}+\ldots+p_{k}+q_{k}+m \leq 2$.

## Product and Commutator Formula

We have seen in Lemma II.1.1 that the exponential image of a sum $x+y$ can be computed easily if $x$ and $y$ commute. In this case we also have for the commutator $[x, y]:=x y-y x=0$ the formula $\exp [x, y]=\mathbf{1}$. The following proposition gives a formula for $\exp (x+y)$ and $\exp ([x, y])$ in the general case.

If $g, h$ are elements of a group $G$, then $(g, h):=g h g^{-1} h^{-1}$ is called their commutator. On the other hand we call for two matrices $A, B \in M_{n}(\mathbb{K})$ the expression

$$
[A, B]:=A B-B A
$$

their commutator bracket.
Proposition II.4.7. For $x, y \in M_{d}(\mathbb{K})$ the following assertions hold:
(i) (Trotter Product Formula)

$$
\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty}\left(e^{\frac{1}{k} x} e^{\frac{1}{k} y}\right)^{k}=e^{x+y}
$$

(ii) (Commutator Formula)

$$
\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty}\left(e^{\frac{1}{k} x} e^{\frac{1}{k} y} e^{-\frac{1}{k} x} e^{-\frac{1}{k} y}\right)^{k^{2}}=e^{x y-y x}
$$

Proof. (i) From Corollary II.4.6 we derive

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} k \cdot\left(\frac{x}{k} * \frac{y}{k}\right)=x+y \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Applying the exponential function, we obtain (i).
(ii) We consider the function

$$
\gamma(t):=t x * t y *(-t x) *(-t y)
$$

which is defined for sufficiently small $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and smooth. In view of

$$
\exp (x * y *(-x))=\exp x \exp y \exp (-x)=\exp (\operatorname{Ad}(\exp x) y)=\exp \left(e^{\operatorname{ad} x} y\right)
$$

(Lemma II.4.1), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
x * y *(-x)=e^{\operatorname{ad} x} y \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

and therefore the Chain Rule for Taylor Polynomials yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma(t) & =t x * t y *(-t x) *(-t y)=e^{t \operatorname{ad} x} t y *(-t y) \\
& =\left(t y+t^{2}[x, y]+\frac{t^{3}}{2}[x,[x, y]]+\ldots\right) *(-t y) \\
& =t y+t^{2}[x, y]-t y+[t y,-t y]+t^{2} r(t)=t^{2}[x, y]+t^{2} r(t)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\lim _{t \rightarrow 0} r(t)=0$. We therefore have

$$
\gamma(0)=\gamma^{\prime}(0)=0 \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{\gamma^{\prime \prime}(0)}{2}=[x, y]
$$

This leads to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} k^{2} \cdot\left(\frac{1}{k} x\right) *\left(\frac{1}{k} y\right) *\left(-\frac{1}{k} x\right) *\left(-\frac{1}{k} y\right)=\frac{\gamma^{\prime \prime}(0)}{2}=[x, y] . \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Applying exp leads to the Commutator Formula.

## Exercises for Section II. 4 .

Exercise II.4.1. If $(V, \cdot)$ is an associative algebra, then we have $\operatorname{Aut}(V, \cdot) \subseteq$ $\operatorname{Aut}(V,[\cdot, \cdot])$.

Exercise II.4.2. (a) $\operatorname{Ad}: \mathrm{GL}_{n}(\mathbb{K}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}\left(M_{n}(\mathbb{K})\right)$ is a group homomorphism. (b) For each Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ the map ad: $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \operatorname{der}(\mathfrak{g}), \operatorname{ad} x(y):=[x, y]$ is a homomorphism of Lie algebras.

Exercise II.4.3. Let $V$ be a finite-dimensional vector space, $F \subseteq V$ a subspace and $\gamma:[0, T] \rightarrow V$ a continuous curve with $\gamma([0, T]) \subseteq F$. Then for all $t \in[0, T]$ :

$$
I_{t}:=\int_{0}^{t} \gamma(\tau) d \tau \in F
$$

Hint: Use the linearity of the integral to see that every linear functional vanishing on $F$ vanishes on $I_{t}$. Why does this imply the assertion?

Exercise II.4.4. On each finite-dimensional Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ there exists a norm with

$$
\|[x, y]\| \leq\|x\|\|y\| \quad \forall x, y \in \mathfrak{g}
$$

i.e., $\|\operatorname{ad} x\| \leq\|x\|$. Hint: If $\|\cdot\|_{1}$ is any norm on $\mathfrak{g}$, then the continuity of the bracket implies that $\|[x, y]\|_{1} \leq C\|x\|_{1}\|y\|_{1}$. Modify $\|\cdot\|_{1}$ to obtain $\|\cdot\|$.

Exercise II.4.5. Let $\mathfrak{g}$ be a Lie algebra with a norm as in Exercise II.4.4. Then for $\|x\|+\|y\|<\ln 2$ the Dynkin series

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x * y=x+ \\
& \sum_{\substack{k, m \geq 0 \\
p_{i}+q_{i}>0}} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{(k+1)\left(q_{1}+\ldots+q_{k}+1\right)} \frac{(\operatorname{ad} x)^{p_{1}}(\operatorname{ad} y)^{q_{1}} \ldots(\operatorname{ad} x)^{p_{k}}(\operatorname{ad} y)^{q_{k}}(\operatorname{ad} x)^{m}}{p_{1}!q_{1}!\ldots p_{k}!q_{k}!m!} y
\end{aligned}
$$

converges absolutely. Hint: Show that

$$
\|x * y\| \leq\|x\|+e^{\|x\|}\|y\| \sum_{k>0} \frac{1}{k+1}\left(e^{\|x\|+\|y\|}-1\right)^{k}
$$

Exercise II.4.6. Prove Corollary II.4.6.
Exercise II.4.7. Let $V$ and $W$ be vector spaces and $q: V \times V \rightarrow W$ a skew-symmetric bilinear map. Then

$$
\left[(v, w),\left(v^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right)\right]:=\left(0, q\left(v, v^{\prime}\right)\right)
$$

is a Lie bracket on $\mathfrak{g}:=V \times W$. For $x, y, z \in \mathfrak{g}$ we have $[x,[y, z]]=0$.

Exercise II.4.8. Let $\mathfrak{g}$ be a Lie algebra with $[x,[y, z]]=0$ for $x, y, z \in \mathfrak{g}$. Then

$$
x * y:=x+y+\frac{1}{2}[x, y]
$$

defines a group structure on $\mathfrak{g}$. An example for such a Lie algebra is the threedimensional Heisenberg algebra

$$
\mathfrak{g}=\left\{\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & x & y \\
0 & 0 & z \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right): x, y, z \in \mathbb{K}\right\} .
$$

