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Theme

## UNIVERSAL ENVELOPING ALGEBRAS OF LIE ALGEBRAS AND APPLICATIONS

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## Notations and conventions

1. Let $A, B$ be arbitary sets and $f: A \rightarrow B$

- $\operatorname{imf}=\{y \in B \quad / \exists x \in A, f(x)=y\}$.
- $\operatorname{ker} f=\{x \in A \quad / f(x)=0\}$.
- coker $f=B / i m f$.
- $\operatorname{End}(A)=$ the set of the endomorphims of $A$.

2. $\otimes$ : Tensor Product.
3. $\oplus$ : Direct Sum .
4. $\mathcal{A B}$ : The abelian groups category.
5. $\Lambda$-moudule: The set of all modules of the ring $\Lambda$.
6. $I_{a b}: I /[I, I]$. Such that $I$ is an ideal.
7. $\mathcal{M}_{\Lambda}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ : The category of graded (left) modules

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## Introduction

The enveloping algebras seem to be very interesting objects for several reasons.
First,these algebras are important for statisyical mechanics, conformal field theory and passion geometry. In addition, a number of things about algebric groups, Lie algebras and their representation are now seen to be shadows from the corresponding quntized objects, and this gives new insight about them. For example,the finite dimensional irreductible representation of the quantized enveloping algebra. This fact has led to a costruction of a canonical basis of these representation with very favourable propereties.
As is well known, every associative algebra $A$ can be turned into a Lie algebra $L(A)$ by replacing its multiplication $(a, b) \mapsto a b$ by the commutator $[a, b]=a b-b a$. We consider a functor $U$, where a Lie algebra $L$ is embedded into the corresponding associative algebra $U(L)$. The algebra $U(L)$ is called the universal enveloping algebra of the Lie algebra $L$; It was first considered in the year 1899.

This work divided into three chapters:
In the first chapter, we intoduced some basic defintions and notations which we will need later. In chapter two, we present the Poincare-Brikhoff-Witt theorem, that Poincare was the first in (1900) who published a fundamental result in this theorem. In 1977, Brikhoff and Witt indepedently formulated and proved the version of the theorem that we use today. Finally, in the last chapter we discuss some aspects of the the cohomology of Lie algebras. Universal enveloping algebras permite us to move into the universe of associative algebras, in which the the theory of derived functors applies, and hence the cohomology of Lie algebras can be defined in a natural way. Some applications of Lie algebras cohomology was mentioned, like Weyl theorem and Levi-Malcev theorem are given in the last section.

## Chapter 1

## Preliminaires

Modules will be needed later (at least) to treat the cohomology of Lie algebras in its natural framework: the theory of derived functors. For this reason, a reminder on categories and functors seems necessary.
The definiton of a Lie algebra does not need advanced tools, so we decided to treat it in this chapter.

### 1.1 Modules

Throughout this section, $\Lambda$ denotes an associative unital ring, which is not necessary commutative.

### 1.1.1 Modules

Definition 1.1.1 $A$ left $\Lambda$-module is an abelian group $A$ together with an operation $\Lambda \times A \rightarrow A$, satisfying for all $a, a_{1}, a_{2} \in A, \lambda, \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2} \in \Lambda$ :

M1: $\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}\right) a=\lambda_{1} a+\lambda_{2} a$.
M2: $\left(\lambda_{1} \lambda_{2}\right) a=\lambda_{1}\left(\lambda_{2} a\right)$.
M3: $1_{\Lambda} a=a$.
M4: $\lambda\left(a_{1}+a_{2}\right)=\lambda a_{1}+\lambda a_{2}$.
Denote by $\Lambda^{o p p}$ the opposite ring of $\Lambda$. The elements $\lambda^{o p p} \in \Lambda^{o p p}$ are in one-to-one correspondance with the elements $\lambda \in \Lambda$. As abelian groups $\Lambda$ and $\Lambda^{o p p} \times A \rightarrow A$ are isomorphic under this correspondence. The product in $\Lambda^{o p p}$ is given by $\lambda_{1}^{o p p} \lambda_{2}^{o p p}=\left(\lambda_{1} \lambda_{2}\right)^{o p p}$. We naturally identify the underlying sets of $\Lambda$ and $\Lambda^{\text {opp }}$.

A right module over $\Lambda$ or right $\Lambda$-module is simply a left $\Lambda^{o p p}$-module, where $\Lambda^{o p p}$ is the opposite ring of $\Lambda$. that is, an abelian group $A$ together with an operation $\Lambda^{\text {opp }}$. Such that the following rules are satisfied for all lowing rules are satisfied for all $a, a_{1}, a_{2} \in A, \lambda, \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2} \in \Lambda$ :

M'1: $a\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}\right)=a \lambda_{1}+a \lambda_{2}$.

M'2: $a\left(\lambda_{1} \lambda_{2}\right)=\left(a \lambda_{1}\right) \lambda_{2}$.
M'3: $a 1_{\Lambda}=a$.
M'4: $\left(a_{1}+a_{2}\right) \lambda=a_{1} \lambda+a_{2} \lambda$.
Clearly, if $\Lambda$ is commutative, the notions of a left and a right module over $\Lambda$ coincide.
For convenience, we shall use the term "module" always to mean " a left module".

## Examples

1. The multiplication in $\Lambda$ defines a left operation of $\Lambda$ on the underlying abelian group of $\Lambda$, which satisfies M1, ...., M4. Thus $\Lambda$ is a left module over itself; and similarly $\Lambda$ can be viewed as a right module over itself.
Analogously, any left ideal of $\Lambda$ becomes a left module over $\Lambda$, and any right ideal of $\Lambda$ becomes a right module over $\Lambda$.
2. Let $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$, the ring of integers. Every abelian group $A$ possedes the structure of a $\mathbb{Z}$-module: for $a \in A, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ define

$$
\begin{cases}n a=0 & \text { if } n=0 \\ n a=a+\ldots+a \quad(\mathrm{n} \text { times }) & \text { if } n>0 \\ n a=-(-n a) & \text { if } n<0\end{cases}
$$

3. Let $\Lambda=K$, a field. A $K$-module is a vector space over $K$.

Definition 1.1.2 Let $A, B$ two $\Lambda$-modules. A homomorphism (or map) of $\Lambda$-modules $\varphi$ : $A \rightarrow B$ is a homomorphism of abelian groups which satisfies

$$
\varphi(\lambda a)=\lambda \varphi(a) \text { for all } a \in A, \lambda \in \Lambda .
$$

Definition 1.1.3 The identity map of $A$ is a homomorphism of $\Lambda$-modules; we denote it by $1_{A}: A \rightarrow A$.
If $\varphi$ is surjective, we call it also an epimorphism, and we use the symbol $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ to denote it. If $\varphi$ is injective, or a monomorphism, we write $\varphi: A \mapsto B$.
We call $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ an isomorphism, and write $\varphi: A \xrightarrow{\sim} B$, if $\varphi$ is surjective and injective.
Let $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B)$ denote the set of all $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms from $A$ to $B$. Clearly, this set has the structure of an abelian group; if $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ and $\psi: A \rightarrow B$ are $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms, then $\varphi+\psi: A \rightarrow B$ is defined as $(\varphi+\psi)(a)=\varphi(a)+\psi(a)$ for all $a \in A$.

Remark. $\varphi+\psi$ is a $\Lambda$-module homomorphism.
Definition 1.1.4 $A$ submodule of $A$ is a subgroup $A^{\prime}$ of $A$ with $\lambda a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$ for all $\lambda \in A$ and all $a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$.

Let $A^{\prime}$ be a submodule of A . Then the quotient group $A / A^{\prime}$ may be given the structure of a $\Lambda$ module by defining $\lambda\left(a+A^{\prime}\right)=\lambda a+A^{\prime}$ for all $\lambda \in \Lambda, a \in A$.
We have an injective homomorphism $\mu: A^{\prime} \mapsto A$ and a surjective homomorphism $\pi: A \rightarrow A / A^{\prime}$.
Definition 1.1.5 Let $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ and $\psi: B \rightarrow C$ be homomorphisms of $\Lambda$-modules. The sequence $A \xrightarrow{\varphi} B \xrightarrow{\psi} C$ is called exact (at B) if $k e r \psi=\operatorname{im\varphi }$.

If a sequence $A_{0} \rightarrow A_{1} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow A_{n} \rightarrow A_{n+1}$ is exact at $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}$, then the sequence is simply called exact.

Theorem 1 Let $A^{\prime} \stackrel{\mu}{\longrightarrow} A \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A^{\prime \prime}$ be an exact sequence of $\Lambda$-modules. For every $\Lambda$-module $B$ the induced sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \stackrel{\varepsilon^{*}}{\hookrightarrow} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B) \xrightarrow{\mu^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)
$$

is exact.
Proof. See [2].

### 1.1.2 Free, Projective and Injective Modules

## Free Module

Let $A$ be a $\Lambda$-module and let $S$ be a subset of $A$.
We consider the set $A_{0}$ of all elements $a \in A$ of the form $a=\sum \lambda_{s} s$ where $\lambda_{s} \in A$ and $\lambda_{s} \neq 0$ for only a finite number of elements $s \in S$. It is trivially seen that $A_{0}$ is a submodule of $A$; hence it is the smallest submodule of $A$ containing $S$. If for the set $S$ the submodule $A_{0}$ is the whole of $A$, we shall say that $S$ is a set of generators of $A$. If $A$ admits a finite set of generators it is said to be finitely generated. A set $S$ of generators of $A$ is called a basis of $A$ if every element $a \in A$ may be expressed uniquely in the form $a=\sum \lambda_{s} s$ with $\lambda_{s} \in \Lambda$ and $\lambda_{s} \neq 0$ for only a finite number of elements $s \in S$.
It is readily seen that a set $S$ of generators is a basis if and only if it is linearly independent, that is, if $\sum \lambda_{s} s=0$ implies $\lambda_{s}=0$ for all $s \in S$.
We should note that not every module possesses a basis.
Definition 1.1.6 A $\Lambda$-module $P$ is free on some subset $S \subseteq P$ If $S$ is form a basis of $P$.

## Projective Module

Definition 1.1.7 $A \Lambda$-module $P$ is projective if to every surjective homomorphism $\varepsilon: B \rightarrow C$ of $\Lambda$-modules and to every homomorphism $\gamma: P \rightarrow C$ there exists a homomorphism $\beta: P \rightarrow B$ with $\varepsilon \beta=\gamma$.

Equivalently, to any homomorphisms $\varepsilon, \gamma$ with $\varepsilon$ surjective in the diagram below there exists $\beta$ such that the triangle

is commutative.

## Injective modules

Definition 1.1.8 $A \Lambda$-module $I$ is called injective if for every homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow I$ and every monomorphism $\mu: A \rightarrow B$ there exists a homomorphism $\beta: B \rightarrow I$ such that $\beta \mu=\alpha$, i.e. such that the diagram

is commutative.

### 1.2 The tensor product

Definition 1.2.1 Let $A$ and $B$ be two $\Lambda$-modules. The tensor product of $A$ and $B$ over $\Lambda$ is the abelian group, $A \otimes_{\Lambda} B$, endowed by a map: $s: A \times B \rightarrow A \otimes_{\Lambda} B$ verify: For each map $f: A \times B \rightarrow G$ (with $G$ an abelian group) wich satisfy:

1. bi-additif:

$$
\begin{cases}f\left(a_{1}+a_{2}, b\right)=f\left(a_{1}, b\right)+f\left(a_{2}, b\right), & a_{1}, a_{2} \in A, b \in B \\ f\left(a, b_{1}+b_{2}\right)=f\left(a, b_{1}\right)+f\left(a, b_{2}\right), & a \in A, b_{1}, b_{2} \in B\end{cases}
$$

2. $f(a \lambda, b)=f(a, \lambda b), \quad a \in A, b \in B, \lambda \in \Lambda$.

Exists a unique group homomorphism $\tilde{f}: A \otimes_{\Lambda} B \rightarrow G$ such that the diagram:

is commutative.

### 1.3 Categories and Functors

### 1.3.1 Categories

Definition 1.3.1 To define a category $\mathcal{C}$ we must give three pieces of data:

1. $A$ class of objects $A, B, C, \ldots$.
2. To each pair of objects $(A, B)$ of $\mathcal{C}$, a set $\mathcal{C}(A, B)$ of morphisms from $A$ to $B$,
3. To each triple of objects $(A, B, C)$ of $\mathcal{C}$, a law of composition

$$
\mathcal{C}(A, B) \times \mathcal{C}(B, C) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(A, C)
$$

Before giving the axioms which a category must satisfy we introduce some auxiliary notations: this should also serve to relate our terminology and notation with ideas which are already very familiar.
If $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$ we may think of the morphism $f$ as a generalized "function" from $A$ to $B$ and write:

$$
f: A \rightarrow B \quad \text { or } \quad A \xrightarrow{f} B
$$

we call $f$ a morphism from the domain $A$ to the codomain (or range) $B$.
The set $\mathcal{C}(A, B) \times \mathcal{C}(B, C)$ consists, of course, of pairs $(f, g)$ where $f: A \rightarrow B, g: B \rightarrow C$ and we will write the composition of $f$ and $g$ as $g \circ f$ or, simply, $g f$. The rational for this notation lies in the fact that if $A, B, C$ are sets and $f, g$ are functions then the composite function from $A$ to $C$ is the function h given by:

$$
h(a)=g(f(a)) \quad a \in A .
$$

We are now ready to state the axioms.
A1: The sets $\mathcal{C}\left(A_{1}, B_{1}\right), \mathcal{C}\left(A_{2}, B_{2}\right)$ are disjoint unless $A_{1}=A_{2}, B_{1}=B_{2}$.
A2: Given $f: A \rightarrow B, g: B \rightarrow C, h: C \rightarrow D$, then

$$
h(g f)=(h g) f \quad \text { (Associativity of composition). }
$$

A3: To each object $A$ there is a morphism $1_{A}: A \rightarrow A$ such that, for any $f: A \rightarrow B, g: C \rightarrow A$,

$$
f 1_{A}=f, 1_{A} g=g \quad \text { (Existence of identities). }
$$

It is easy to see that the morphism $1_{A}$ is uniquely determined by Axiom A3.
We call $1_{A}$ the identity morphism of $A$, and we will often suppress the suffix $A$, writing simply

$$
f 1=f \quad 1 g=g .
$$

## Examples

1. The category $\mathcal{M}$ of $\Lambda$-modules and module-homomorphisms.
2. The category $\mathcal{C}$ of sets and functions.
3. The category $\mathcal{I}$ of topological spaces and continuous functions.
4. The category $\mathcal{G}$ of groups and their homomorphisms.
5. The category $\mathcal{R}$ of rings and ring-homomorphisms.

### 1.3.2 Functors

Within a category $\mathcal{C}$ we have the morphism sets $\mathcal{C}(X, Y)$ which serve to establish connections between different objects of the category.
Now the language of categories has been developed to delineate the various areas of mathematical theory; thus it is natural that we should wish to be able to describe connections between different categories.
We now formulate the notion of transformation from one category to another. Such a transformation is called a functor.

Definition 1.3.2 A functor $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is a rule which associates with:
a1: every object $X$ of $\mathcal{C}$ an object $F(X)$ of $\mathcal{D}$.
a2: every morphism $f \in \mathcal{C}(X, Y)$ a morphism $F(f) \in \mathcal{D}(F(X), F(Y))$, subject to the rules:

$$
F(f g)=F(f) F(g), \quad F\left(1_{A}\right)=1_{F(A)} .
$$

Such a functor is called covariant functor; There also exist contravariant functors wich changing the direction of the Arrows i.e. If $f \in \mathcal{C}(X, Y)$ than $F(f) \in \mathcal{D}(F(Y), F(X))$ and $F(f g)=F(g) F(f)$.

Note. We have evidently the notion of an identity functor and of the composition of functors. Composition is associative and we may thus pass to invertible functors and isomorphic categories.

## Examples

1. The embedding of a subcategory $\mathcal{C}_{0}$ in a category $\mathcal{C}$; is a functor.
2. Let $S$ be a set and let $F(S)$ be the free abelian group on $S$ as basis. This construction yields the free functor $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{A B}$. Similarly there are free functors $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}, F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}_{F}, \ldots$ etc.
3. The fundamental group may be regarded as a functor $\pi: \mathcal{I}^{0} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$, where $\mathcal{I}^{0}$ is the category of spaces-with-base-point .
It may also be regarded as a functor $\bar{\pi}: \mathcal{I}_{h}^{0} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$, where the subscript $h$ indicates that the morphisms are to be regarded as (based) homotopy classes of (based) continuous functions. Indeed there is an evident classifying functor $Q: \mathcal{I}^{0} \rightarrow \mathcal{I}_{h}^{0}$ and then $\pi$ factors as $\pi=\bar{\pi} Q$.

### 1.4 Lie Algebras

In this section $\Lambda$ denotes a commutative ring with unity.
Lie algebras are algebraic structures which arose first in Sophus Lie's theory of continuous groups. These objects form now an independent major area of research, and have important applications to many branchs of pure mathematics and physique.
We start by the definition of an algebra.
Definition 1.4.1 An algebra $A$ over $\Lambda$, or $\Lambda$-algebra $A$ is a ring on which we define the vector product $\cdot: A \times A \rightarrow A$, such that for all $x, y, z \in A$ and $\lambda \in \Lambda$ :

1. $x \cdot(y+z)=x \cdot y+x \cdot z$ and $(y+z) \cdot x=y \cdot x+z \cdot x$.
2. $\lambda(x \cdot y)=(\lambda x) \cdot y=x \cdot(\lambda y)$.

Definition 1.4.2 A Lie algebra $L$ is a module over a ring $\Lambda$, endowed with a bilinear map

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
L \times L & \rightarrow & L \\
(x, y) & \longmapsto & {[x, y]}
\end{array}
$$

satisfying the following two axioms:

1. $[x, x]=0$, for all $x \in L$.
2. For all $x, y, z \in L$, we have $[x,[y, z]]+[y,[z, x]]+[z,[x, y]]=0 .^{1}$

Remark. The condition (1) implies $[\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}]=-[\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{x}]$. Indeed, we have $0=[x+y, x+y]=[x, y]+[y, x]$.

## Examples

1. Let $\mathcal{G}$ be any $\Lambda$-module. Define $[x, y]=0$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{G}$; such a $\mathcal{G}$ is called a commutative Lie algebra.
2. Let $A$ be an associative algebra over $\Lambda$, then $A$ has a canonical structure of Lie algebra with the commutator $[x, y]=x y-y x, x, y \in A$.
3. Let $V$ be any vector space. The space of $\operatorname{End}(V)$ forms an associative algebra under function composition. It is also a Lie algebra with the commutator $[f, g]=f g-g f, f, g \in \operatorname{End}(V)$. Whenever we think of it as a Lie algebra we denote it by $\mathfrak{g l}(V)$. This is the General Linear Lie algebra.
4. Let $V$ be a finite dimentional vector space over a ring $\Lambda$. Then we identify the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g l}(V)$ with set of $n \times n$ matrices $\mathfrak{g l}_{\mathfrak{n}}(V)$, where $n$ is the dimension of $V$. The set of all matrices with the trace zero $\mathfrak{s l}_{\mathfrak{n}}(V)$ is a subalgebra of $\mathfrak{g l}_{\mathfrak{n}}(V)$.
[^0]5. Heisenberg algebra: We look at the vector space $H$ generated over $\Lambda$ by the matrices: $\left(\begin{array}{lll}0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{lll}0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{lll}0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}\right)$ This is a linear subspace of $\mathfrak{g l}_{3}(V)$ and becomes a Lie algebra under the commutator bracket.
The fact that $H$ is closed under the commutator bracket follows from the well-known commutator identity on the standard basis of $n \times n$ matrices:

$$
\left[E_{i j}, E_{k l}\right]=\delta_{j k} E_{i l}-\delta_{l i} E_{k j}
$$

where $\delta_{i j}$ is the Kronecker delta.
6. Definition 1.4.3 Let $A$ be an algebra over $\Lambda$. A derivation $D: A \rightarrow A$ is a $\Lambda$-linear map with the property $D(x . y)=D(x) \cdot y+x \cdot D(y)$.
The set $\operatorname{Der}(A)$ of all derivations of an algebra $A$ is a Lie subalgebra (we will define it next) of $\operatorname{End}(A)$ with the product

$$
\left[D, D^{\prime}\right]=D D^{\prime}-D^{\prime} D
$$

Definition 1.4.4 A Lie algebra homomorphism $f: L \rightarrow H$ is a $\Lambda$-linear map with $f([x, y])=$ $[f(x), f(y)], x, y \in L$.

Definition 1.4.5 Let L be a Lie algebra over $\Lambda$. A Lie subalgebra $S$ is a submodule $S \subset L$ such that: $[x, y] \in S$ for all $x, y \in S$.

Definition 1.4.6 Let $I$ be a submodule of a Lie algebra $L$. We say that $I$ is an ideal of $L$ if $[x, y] \in I$ whenever $x \in I$ and $y \in L$.

Definition 1.4.7 Let $U$ a non empty subset of $L$, and let:

$$
\langle U\rangle=\bigcap\{I \subset L: I \text { is a Lie subalgebra (ideal) containing } U\}
$$

we call $\langle U\rangle$ a Lie subalgebra (ideal) generated by $U$.
Definition 1.4.8 A Lie algebra $L$ is called semi-simple if $\{0\}$ is the only abelian ideal of $L$.
Definition 1.4.9 A representation of a Lie algebra $L$ is a Lie algebra homomorphism from $L$ to the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g l}(\Lambda)$ :

$$
\rho: L \rightarrow \mathfrak{g l}(\Lambda) .
$$

For a Lie algebra $L$ and any $x \in L$ we define a map:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
a d_{x}: L \rightarrow L \\
y \mapsto[x, y]
\end{array}
$$

which is the adjoint action.
Every Lie algebra has a representation on itself, the adjoint representation defined via the map:

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
a d: L & \rightarrow \mathfrak{g l}(L) \\
& x
\end{array}\right) a d_{x} .
$$

## Chapter 2

## Poincare-Brikhoff-Witt Theorem

Now, we shall talk about the main subject of our thesis wich is the universal envelopping algebra, and a very important result of it, the Poincare-Brikhoff-witt theory (often abbreviated to PBW theorem).
Before passing to this theorem, we shall speak, a little, about what's a symmetric algebra of a module and the construction of the gradued algebra.

### 2.1 Universal Algebra of a Lie Algebra

For any associative algebra we construct a Lie algebra by taking the commutator as the Lie bracket. Now let us think in the reverse direction. We want to see if we can construct an associative algebra from a given Lie algebra and its consequences. With this construction, instead of non-associative scructures;Lie algebras, we can work with nicer and better developed structures: Unital associative algebras that captures the important properties of our Lie algebra.

### 2.1.1 Universal algebra of a Lie Algebra

Let $\Lambda$ be a commutative ring and let $L$ be a Lie algebra over $\Lambda$.
Definition 2.1.1 A universal enveloping algebra of $L$ is a pair $(U(L), \iota)$, where $U(L)$ is an associative algebra with 1 over $\Lambda, \iota: L \rightarrow U(L)$ is a map satisfying:

1. $\iota$ is a Lie algebra homomorphism, and i.e., $\iota$ is $\Lambda$-linear and $\iota([x, y])=\iota(x) . \iota(y)-\iota(y) . \iota(x)$.
2. If $A$ is any associative algebra with a unit and $\alpha: L \rightarrow A$ is any Lie algebra homomorphism, there is a unique homomorphism of associative algebras $\varphi: U(L) \rightarrow A$ such that the diagram

is commutative.

The uniqueness of such a pair $(U(L), \iota)$ is easy to prove. Indeed, given another pair $\left(U^{\prime}(L), \iota^{\prime}\right)$ satisfying the same hypotheses, we get homomorphisms $\varphi: U(L) \rightarrow U^{\prime}(L), \psi: U^{\prime}(L) \rightarrow U(L)$. By definition, there is a unique dotted map making the following diagram commute:


But $1_{U(L)}$ and $\psi \circ \varphi$ both do the trick, so $\psi \circ \varphi=1_{U(L)}$. Similarly, $\varphi \circ \psi=1_{U^{\prime}(L)}$.
To prove its existence, we use the tensor algebra $T(L)$ of $L$, ie.,

$$
T(L)=\bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} T^{k}(L) \quad \text { where } \quad T^{k}(L)=\underbrace{L \otimes \ldots \otimes L}_{k-\text { times }}
$$

Now let $I$ be the two-sided ideal of $T(L)$ generated by the elements of the form

$$
x \otimes y-y \otimes x-[x, y] .
$$

Take

$$
U(L)=T(L) / I
$$

Let $\alpha$ be a Lie homomorphism of $L$ into an associative algebra $A$. Since $\alpha$ is $\Lambda$-linear, it extends to a unique homomorphism $\psi: T(L) \rightarrow A$. It is clear that $\psi(I)=0$, hence $\psi$ defines $\varphi: U(L) \rightarrow A$, and we have checked the universal property of $U(L)$.

### 2.1.2 Symmetric algebra of a module

Definition 2.1.2 Let $L$ be a $\Lambda$-module and define $[x, y]=0$ for all $x, y \in L$.
In this case, the universal algebra $U(L)$ of $L$ is called the symmetric algebra of the $\Lambda$-module $L$ and it is denoted by $S(L)$.

We can define $S(L)$ as the largest commutative quotient of $T(L)$, i.e.,

$$
S(L)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} S^{n}(L)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left(\otimes^{n} L\right) / J
$$

where $J$ is generated by the elements of the form $x \otimes y-y \otimes x$ and $x, y \in L$.
We will consider the case where $L$ is a free $\Lambda$-module with basis $\left(e_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$.
Let $\iota: L \rightarrow \Lambda\left[\left(X_{i}\right)_{i \in I}\right]$ be the homomorphism given by $\iota\left(e_{i}\right)=X_{i}$ where $\Lambda\left[\left(X_{i}\right)_{i \in I}\right]$ is the polynomial ring in the indeterminates $X_{i}, i \in I$.
Then $\left(\iota, \Lambda\left[\left(X_{i}\right)_{i \in I}\right]\right)$ has the universal property of (condition 1 in definition 2.1.1 ,p.10), i.e., $\iota$ is a $\Lambda$-linear map such that $\iota(x) \iota(y)=\iota(y) \iota(x)$ and if $f: L \rightarrow A$ is a $\Lambda$-linear map with $f(x) f(y)=f(y) f(x)$ for all $x, y \in L$ where $A$ is an associative algebra, then there exists an associative algebra homomorphism $f^{*}: \Lambda\left[\left(X_{i}\right)\right] \rightarrow A$ such that $f^{*}=f \circ \iota$. In fact if $P\left(X_{i}\right) \in \Lambda\left[\left(X_{i}\right)\right]$ then $f^{*}(P)=P\left(f\left(e_{i}\right)\right)$.
This shows that we can identify $S(L)$, with the polynomial algebra $\Lambda\left[\left(X_{i}\right)\right]$.
If we assume that $I$ is totally ordered, then $S(L)$ has for basis the set of monomials $e_{i_{1}}, \ldots, e_{i_{n}}, i_{1} \leq$ $i_{2} \leq \ldots \leq i_{n}, n \geq 0$.

### 2.1.3 Filtration of $U_{L}$

Definition 2.1.3 $A$ filtration on an algebra $\mathcal{G}$ is an increasing sequence $\left(\mathcal{G}_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ of subalgebras of $\mathcal{G}$ such that $\mathcal{G}=\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathcal{G}_{n}$

Let $L$ be a Lie algebra over $\Lambda$, and let $U(L)$ be the universal algebra of $L$. We define a filtration of $U(L)$ as follows:
Let $U_{n}(L)$ be the submodule of $U(L)$ generated by the products $\iota\left(x_{1}\right) \ldots \iota\left(x_{m}\right), m \leq n$, where $x_{i} \in I$. We have:

$$
\begin{gathered}
U_{0}(L)=\Lambda \\
U_{1}(L)=\Lambda \oplus L \\
\text { and } U_{0}(L) \subset U_{1}(L) \subset \ldots \subset U_{n}(L) \subset U_{n+1}(L) \subset \ldots
\end{gathered}
$$

Now we define

$$
\operatorname{gr} U(L)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g r_{n} U(L) \text { where } g r_{n} U(L)=U_{n}(L) / U_{n-1}(L)
$$

The map

$$
\begin{aligned}
U_{p}(L) \times U_{q}(L) & \rightarrow U_{p+q}(L) \\
(a, b) & \longmapsto a b
\end{aligned}
$$

defines, by passage to quotient, a bilinear map

$$
g r_{p}(L) \times g r_{q}(L) \rightarrow g r_{p+q}(L)
$$

We then obtain a structure of graded algebra on $\operatorname{gr} U(L)$; with this structure $\operatorname{gr} U(L)$ is called the graded algebra associated to $U(L)$. It is associative and has a unit.

### 2.2 Poincare-Brikhoff-Witt Theorem

There is usually no isomorphism of $\Lambda$-algebras, but there is often an isomorphism of $\Lambda$-modules, sometimes one of $L$-modules, and often one between the associated graded $\Lambda$-algebras. Here we are interested in the latter.

### 2.2.1 Theorem

For a Lie algebra $L$, the symmetric algebra of $L$ and graded algebra associated to $U(L)$ are isomorphic ,i.e.,

$$
S(L) \simeq \operatorname{gr} U(L)
$$

### 2.2.2 Proof

Let $\left\{x_{i}\right\}_{i \in \Omega}$ be an ordered basis for $L$. Let $y_{i}$ be the image of $x_{i} \in U(L)$ under the canonical map $\iota: L \rightarrow U(L)$. For $I=\left(i_{1}, \ldots, i_{n}\right)$, let $y_{I}$ denote $y_{i_{1}} \ldots y_{i_{n}} \in U(L)$. We say $I \leq m$ if $i_{j} \leq m$ for all $j$. Call $I$ increasing if $i_{1} \leq i_{2} \leq \ldots \leq i_{n}$.

Lemma 1 The set of all $y_{I}$ with I increasing and $I \leq n$ generates $U_{n}(L)$.
Proof. Let $\pi$ be a permuation of $n$ elements. We claim that
$\iota\left(g_{1}\right) \ldots \iota\left(g_{n}\right)-\iota\left(g_{\pi(1)}\right) \ldots \iota\left(g_{\pi(n)}\right) \in U_{n-1}(L)$. As the symmetric group is generated by the transpositions flipping $i$ and $i+1$, it suffices to check our claim in this case: Then $\iota\left(g_{1}\right) \ldots \iota\left(g_{i}\right) \iota\left(g_{i+1}\right) \ldots \iota\left(g_{n}\right)-$ $\iota\left(g_{1}\right) \ldots \iota\left(g_{i+1}\right) \iota\left(g_{i}\right) \ldots \iota\left(g_{n}\right)=\iota\left(g_{1}\right) \ldots \iota\left(\left[g_{i}, g_{i+1}\right]\right) \ldots \iota\left(g_{n}\right) \in U_{n-1}$.
Now $U_{n}(L)$ is generated by elements of the form $y_{J}=\iota\left(x_{j_{1}}\right) \ldots \iota\left(x_{j_{n}}\right)$ where $J=\left(j_{1}, \ldots, j_{n}\right)$ is not necessarily increasing.
Let $\pi$ be the permutation with $\pi\left(j_{1}\right) \leq \pi\left(j_{2}\right) \ldots \leq \pi\left(j_{n}\right)$. Then

$$
y_{J}=\iota\left(x_{j_{1}}\right) \ldots \iota\left(x_{j_{n}}\right)=\iota\left(x_{\pi\left(j_{1}\right)}\right) \ldots \iota\left(x_{\pi j(n)}\right)+r .
$$

where the first term is increasing and the second is in $U_{n-1}(L)$.
Then by induction $y_{J}$ is expressable in terms of $y_{I}$ with I increasing and $I \leq n$.
Now let $P$ be the algebra of polynomials in variables $x_{1} \ldots x_{n} \ldots$. To avoid confusion, we'll denote the variables as $z_{i}$ instead to make clear which algebra the elements lie in. Filter $P$ so $P_{n}$ is the polynomials of degree at most $n$. Set $z_{I}=z_{i_{1}} \ldots z_{i_{n}}$ for $I=\left(i_{1} \ldots i_{n}\right)$.
Lemma 2 For all $n$, there exists a unique function $f_{n}: L \otimes P_{n} \rightarrow P$ such that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{n}: & f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{I}\right)=z_{i} z_{I} \text { for } i \leq I, z_{I} \in P_{n} . \\
B_{n}: & f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{I}\right)=z_{i} z_{I} \bmod P_{q} \text { for } z_{I} \in P_{q} \text { and } q \leq n . \\
C_{n}: & f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{J}\right)\right)=f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{J}\right)\right)+f_{n}\left(\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right] \otimes z_{J}\right) \text { for } z_{J} \in P_{n-1} \\
& \text { Furthermore, the restriction of } f_{n} \text { to } L \otimes P_{n-1} \text { is } f_{n-1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. First, note that Condition $C_{n}$ is actually well defined because $f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{j}\right)$ is in $P_{n}$ by condition $B_{n}$. We will proceed by induction. The base case is when $n=0$, in which case $f_{0}$ must map $x_{i} \otimes 1$ to $z_{i}$ to satisfy $A_{0}$. Then conditions $B_{0}$ and $C_{0}$ are vacuously satisfied.
Now suppose we have a unique $f_{n-1}$ satisfying $A_{n-1}, B_{n-1}$ and $C_{n-1}$. We need to define $f_{n}$ on elements of the form $x_{i} \otimes z_{J}$ where $J$ can be of length $n$. We may as well assume $J$ is increasing since $P$ is commutative. If $i \leq J$, then $f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{J}\right)=z_{i} z_{J}$ in order to fulfil $A_{n}$.
Now suppose $J=\left(j, J^{\prime}\right)$ and $i>j$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{j} z_{J^{\prime}}\right) & =f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{J^{\prime}}\right)\right) \\
& =f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes f_{n-1}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{J^{\prime}}\right)\right) \\
& =f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes f_{n-1}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{J^{\prime}}\right)\right)+f_{n-1}\left(\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right] \otimes z_{J^{\prime}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

using the fact that $f_{n}$ and $f_{n-1}$ agree where they are both defined and trying to satisfy condition $C_{p}$. But now $j<i$ and $j \leq J^{\prime}$ so by property $B_{n-1}$

$$
f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes f_{n-1}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{J^{\prime}}\right)\right)=f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes\left(z_{i} z_{J^{\prime}}+\omega\right)\right)
$$

where $\omega \in P_{n-1}$. By property $A_{n}$, this equals $z_{j} z_{i} z_{J^{\prime}}+f_{n-1}\left(x_{j} \otimes \omega\right)$. Thus we should define $f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{J}\right)=z_{i} z_{J}$ when $i \leq J$, and otherwise

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{j} z_{J^{\prime}}\right)=z_{i} z_{J}+f_{n-1}\left(x_{j} \otimes \omega\right)+f_{n-1}\left(\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right] \otimes z_{J^{\prime}}\right) \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

If this satisfies $A_{n}, B_{n}$ and $C_{n}$ it will be the unique extension of $f_{n-1}$, for conditions $A_{n}, B_{n}$ and $C_{n}$ when restricted to $P_{n-1}$ are conditions $A_{n-1}, B_{n-1}$ and $C_{n-1}$ which are satisfied by a unique $f_{n-1}$. Property $A_{n}$ is obviously satisfied, and so is $B_{n}$, since the second and third terms are in $P_{n-1}$ by $B_{n-1}$. It remains to verify $C_{n}$.
Now we need to check $f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{J}\right)\right)=f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{J}\right)\right)+f_{n}\left(\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right] \otimes z_{J}\right)$ for $z_{J}$ in $P_{n-1}$. By the way we constructed $f_{n}, C_{n}$ is satisfied if $j<i$ and $j \leq J$ since

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes f_{n-1}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{J}\right)\right) & =f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{j} z_{J}\right) \\
& =z_{i} z_{j} z_{J}+f_{n-1}\left(x_{j} \otimes \omega\right)+f_{n-1}\left(\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right] \otimes z_{J}\right) \\
& =f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes f_{n-1}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{J}\right)\right)+f_{n-1}\left(\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right] \otimes z_{J}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Furthermore, if we flip the role of $i$ and $j$ since $\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right]=-\left[x_{j}, x_{i}\right]$ this holds as long as $i \leq J^{\prime}$ and $i<j$.
If $i=j$, there is nothing to prove.
Thus the only remaining cases are when neither $i \leq J$ or $j \leq J: J=(k, K)$ where $k<i, j$. Then by induction ( $z_{J}$ in $P_{n-1}$ )

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{J}\right) & =f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{k} \otimes z_{K}\right)\right) \\
& =f_{n}\left(x_{k} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{K}\right)\right)+f_{n}\left(\left[x_{j}, x_{k}\right] \otimes z_{K}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now $f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{K}\right)=z_{j} z_{K}+\omega$ where $\omega \in P_{n-2}$ by $B_{n-1}$. Then

$$
\left.f_{n}\left(x_{k} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{J}\right)\right)=f_{p}\left(x_{i} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{k} \otimes\left(z_{j} z_{K}+\omega\right)\right)\right)+f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes f_{n}\left(\left[x_{j}, x_{k}\right] \otimes z_{K}\right)\right)\right)
$$

Since $i>k$ and $k \leq j ; K$ and $\omega \in P_{n-2}, C_{n}$ holds for the first term. $C_{n}$ holds for the second term by induction. Thus this expands as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left.f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{k} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{K}\right)\right)\right)+f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes f_{n}\left(\left[x_{j}, x_{k}\right] \otimes z_{K}\right)\right)\right) & =f_{n}\left(x_{k} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{K}\right)\right)\right) \\
& +f_{n}\left(\left[x_{i}, x_{k}\right] \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{K}\right)\right) \\
& +f_{n}\left(\left[x_{j}, x_{k}\right] \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{K}\right)\right) \\
& +f_{n}\left(\left[x_{i},\left[x_{j}, x_{k}\right]\right] \otimes z_{K}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

A similar statement holds if interchange the role of $i$ and $j$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{J}\right)\right)-f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{J}\right)\right) & =f_{n}\left(x_{k} \otimes\left[f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes z_{K}\right)\right)-f_{n}\left(x_{j} \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{i} \otimes z_{K}\right)\right)\right]\right) \\
& +f_{n}\left(\left[x_{i},\left[x_{j}, x_{k}\right]\right] \otimes z_{K}\right)-f_{n}\left(\left[x_{j},\left[x_{i}, x_{k}\right]\right] \otimes z_{K}\right) \\
& =f_{n}\left(x_{k} \otimes f_{n}\left(\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right] \otimes z_{K}\right)\right)+f_{n}\left(\left[x_{i},\left[x_{j}, x_{k}\right]\right] \otimes z_{K}\right) \\
& -f_{n}\left(\left[x_{j},\left[x_{i}, x_{k}\right]\right] \otimes z_{K}\right) \\
& =f_{n}\left(\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right] \otimes f_{n}\left(x_{k} \otimes z_{K}\right)\right)+f_{n}\left(\left[x_{k},\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right]\right] \otimes z_{K}\right) \\
& -f_{n}\left(\left[x_{i},\left[x_{j}, x_{k}\right]\right] \otimes z_{K}\right)-f_{n}\left(\left[x_{j},\left[x_{i}, x_{k}\right]\right] \otimes z_{K}\right) \\
& =f_{n}\left(\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right] \otimes z_{J}\right)+f_{n}\left(\left(\left[x_{k},\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right]\right]+\left[x_{i},\left[x_{j}, x_{k}\right]\right]\right.\right. \\
& \left.\left.-\left[x_{j},\left[x_{i}, x_{k}\right]\right]\right) \otimes z_{K}\right) \\
& =f_{n}\left(\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right] \otimes z_{J}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

by the Jacobi identity. Thus $C_{p}$ holds in general, completing the proof.
Theorem 2 The $y_{I}$ for I increasing form a basis for $U(L)$ as a vector space.
Proof. Combining the maps for all $n$, we see there is a bilinear mapping $f: L \times P \rightarrow P$ such that $f\left(x_{i}, z_{I}\right)=z_{i} z_{I}$ for $i \leq I$ and

$$
f\left(x_{i}, f\left(x_{j}, z_{J}\right)\right)=f\left(x_{j}, f\left(x_{i}, z_{J}\right)\right)+f\left(\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right], z_{J}\right)
$$

This is a representation $\rho$ of $L$ on $P$ with the property that $\rho\left(x_{i}\right) z_{I}=z_{i} z_{I}$.
By the universal property of $U(L)$, there is a map $\psi: U(L) \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(P)$ with $\psi\left(y_{i}\right) z_{I}=z_{i} z_{I}$ for $i \leq I$. Then by induction if $I=\left(i_{1}, \ldots, i_{n}\right)$ is increasing we see

$$
\psi\left(y_{i_{1}} \ldots y_{i_{n}}\right) \cdot 1=z_{i_{1}} \ldots z_{i_{n}} .
$$

But the polynomials on the right hand side are linearly independent, so the $y_{I}$ with $I$ increasing are linearly independent as well.
We already showed they generate $U(L)$.
This then implies all the forms of the PBW theorem.
Corollary 1 The canonical mapping of $L$ to $U(L)$ is injective.
Proof. Using the construction of the universal enveloping algebra as a quotient of the tensor algebra, there is a natural filtration on $\mathrm{U}(\mathrm{L})$ where $U_{n}(L)$ is generated by products of the form $x_{1} \otimes \ldots \otimes x_{p}$ where $x_{i} \in L$ and $p \leq n$.
Remember that $g r U(L)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g r_{n} U(L)$ where $g r_{n} U(L)=U_{n}(L) / U_{n-1}(L)$ and $g r_{0} U(L)=\Lambda$. Note that $g r_{1} U(L) \simeq L$.
Multiplication in $U(L)$ makes this into a commutative ring by the first lemma.
Theorem 3 (Main Theorem) $S(L) \simeq \operatorname{grU}(L)$.

Proof. Since $\operatorname{grU}(L)$ is commutative, by the universal property of the symmetric algebra the map $L \rightarrow \operatorname{grU}(L)$ extends to a map $S(L) \rightarrow \operatorname{grU}(L)$. We know that expressions of the form $x_{1}^{v_{1}} \ldots x_{n}^{v_{n}} \ldots$ with $\sum v_{i} \leq n$ form a basis for $U_{n}(L)$.
The ones with sum exactly $n$ form a basis for $g r_{n} U(L)$. Thus elements of this form give a basis for $\operatorname{grU}(L)$, and the map $S(L) \rightarrow \operatorname{grU}(L)$ sends the standard basis for $S(L)$ to this. Thus the map is an isomorphism.

## Chapter 3

## Cohomology of Lie Algebras

In this chapter, we will introduce an other big result of studing of the universal envelopping algebra of a Lie algebra, the cohomology of Lie algebras. And we will conclude our chapter by two theorems (Weyl Theorem and Levi-Malcev Theorem), which are considered as a result of the cohomlogy of Lie algebras.

### 3.1 Extensions of Modules

### 3.1.1 Extensions

Let $A, B$ be two $\Lambda$-modules. We want to consider all possible $\Lambda$-modules $E$ such that $B$ is a submodule of $E$ and $E / B \cong A$. We then have a short exact sequence

$$
B \stackrel{k}{\longrightarrow} E \xrightarrow{v} A
$$

of $\Lambda$-modules; such a sequence is called an extension of $A$ by $B$.
Proposition 1 The extension $B \hookrightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow A$ is equivalent to the extension $B \mapsto E_{2} \rightarrow A$ if there is a homomorphism $\xi: E_{1} \rightarrow E_{2}$ such that the diagram

is commutative.

Proof (See [2] p.89)

### 3.2 Derived functors

### 3.2.1 Complexes

Let $\Lambda$ be a fixed ring with 1 . We remind of the category $\mathcal{M}_{\Lambda}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ of graded (left) modules :
An object $M \in \mathcal{M}_{\Lambda}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is a family $\left\{M_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$, of $\Lambda$-modules, a morphism $\varphi: M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ of degree $p$ is
a family $\left\{\varphi_{n}: M_{n} \rightarrow M_{n+p}^{\prime}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ of module homomorphisms.
Definition 3.2.1 A cochain complex $C=\left\{C_{n}, \sigma_{n}\right\}$ over $\Lambda$ is an object in $\mathcal{M}_{\Lambda}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ together with an endomorphism $\sigma: C \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}$ of degree +1 with $\sigma \sigma=0, \sigma$ denotes the differential in $\boldsymbol{C}$.

In other words we are given a family $\left\{C_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$, of $\Lambda$-modules and a family of $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms $\left\{\sigma_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n+1}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ such that $\sigma_{n} \sigma_{n-1}=0$ :

$$
\mathbf{C}: \ldots \rightarrow C_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\sigma_{n-1}} C_{n} \xrightarrow{\sigma_{n}} C_{n+1} \rightarrow \ldots
$$

Definition 3.2.2 A morphism of complexes or a cochain map $\varphi: C \rightarrow D$ is a morphism of degree 0 in $\mathcal{M}_{A}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ such that $\varphi \sigma=\tilde{\sigma} \varphi$ where.
Thus a chain map $\varphi$ is a family $\left\{\varphi_{n}: \boldsymbol{C}_{n} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ of homomorphisms such that, for every $n$, the diagram

is commutative.
We shall now introduce the notion of cohomology.
Let $\mathbf{C}=\left\{C_{n}, \sigma_{n}\right\}$ be a cochain complex. The condition $\sigma \sigma=0$ implies that $\operatorname{im} \sigma_{n} \subset \operatorname{ker} \sigma_{n+1}, n \in$ $\mathbb{Z}$. we can associate with $\mathbf{C}$ the graded module.

$$
H(\mathbf{C})=\left\{H^{n}(\mathbf{C})\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}, \text { where } \quad H^{n}(\mathbf{C})=\operatorname{ker} \sigma_{n+1} / \operatorname{im} \sigma_{n}, n \in \mathbb{Z} .
$$

Then $H(\mathbf{C})\left(H^{n}(\mathbf{C})\right)$ is called the $\left(n^{\text {th }}\right)$ cohomology module of $\mathbf{C}$.
By the diagram above a chain map $\varphi: \mathbf{C} \rightarrow \mathbf{D}$ induces a well defined morphism, of degree zero, $H(\varphi)=\varphi_{*}: H(\mathbf{C}) \rightarrow H(\mathbf{D})$ of graded modules. It is clear that, with this definition, $H(-)$ becomes a functor, called the cohomology functor, from the category of cochain complexes over $\Lambda$ to the category of graded $\Lambda$-modules. Also, each $H^{n}(-)$ is a functor into $\mathcal{M}_{\Lambda}$. Often, in particular in applications to topology, elements of $C_{n}$ are called $\mathbf{n}$-cochains; elements of ker $\sigma_{n}$ are called n-cocycles and $\operatorname{ker} \sigma_{n}$ is written $\mathbf{Z}_{n}=\mathbf{Z}_{n}(\mathbf{C})$; elements of im $\sigma_{n+1}$ are called $\mathbf{n}$-coboundaries and im $\sigma_{n+1}$ is written $\mathbf{B}_{n}=\mathbf{B}_{n}(\mathbf{C})$.

### 3.2.2 Homotopy

Definition 3.2.3 A homotopy $\Sigma: \varphi \rightarrow \psi$ between two chain maps $\varphi, \psi: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$ is a morphism of degree +1 of graded modules $\Sigma: C \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$ such that: $\varphi-\psi=\sigma \Sigma+\Sigma \sigma$, i.e., such that, for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$
\varphi_{n}-\psi_{n}=\sigma_{n+1} \Sigma_{n}+\Sigma_{n-1} \sigma_{n}
$$

We say that $\varphi, \psi$ are homotopic, and write $\varphi \simeq \psi$ if there exists a homotopy $\Sigma: \varphi \rightarrow \psi$.

### 3.2.3 Resolution

Definition 3.2.4 Let $A$ be a $\Lambda$-module. We call a projective resolotion of $A$ every exact sequence of $\Lambda$-module:

$$
P: P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{1} \rightarrow P_{0} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0
$$

where each $P_{i}$ is projective.

### 3.2.4 Derived functors

Let $T: \Lambda$-module $\rightarrow \mathcal{A B}(\mathcal{A B}$ is the category of the abelian groups) be an additive contravariant functor. The right derived funtors of $T$ are a sequence of functors $R^{n} T: \Lambda$-module $\rightarrow \mathcal{A B}$ defined as follow:

Definition 3.2.5 For an object $A$ in $\Lambda$-module; Every projective resolution: $\boldsymbol{P}: P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n-1} \rightarrow$ $\cdots \rightarrow P_{1} \rightarrow P_{0} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ defines a cochain complex

$$
T(\boldsymbol{P}): 0 \rightarrow T\left(P_{0}\right) \rightarrow T\left(P_{1}\right) \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow T\left(P_{n}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

So we have cohomology groups $H^{n}(T(\boldsymbol{P}))$. We set:

$$
R^{n} T(A)=H^{n}(T(\boldsymbol{P}))
$$

If $f: A \rightarrow B$ is a morphism in $\Lambda$-module, then $f$ extends to a morphism of $A$ resolutios:


Hence, we obtain a morphism of cochain complexes:


Therfore, we have for each $n \geq 0$ a morphism

$$
R^{n} T(f): R^{n} T(A) \rightarrow R^{n} T(B)
$$

Note that any two projective resolutions of a $\Lambda$-module $A$ are homotopic, so they give the same cohomology groups for the complex:

$$
\mathbf{T}(\mathbf{P}): 0 \rightarrow T\left(P_{0}\right) \rightarrow T\left(P_{1}\right) \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow T\left(P_{n-1}\right) \rightarrow T\left(P_{n}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

That is the definition of $R^{n} T$ is independant from the choice of the projective resolution.
We shall deal only with the funtors of the form

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(-, A): \Lambda \text {-module } \rightarrow \mathcal{A B} .
$$

Where $A$ is a $\Lambda$-module. The right derived functors of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(-, A)$ are denoted by: $E x t_{\Lambda}^{n}(-, A)$, that is

$$
E x t_{\Lambda}^{n}(-, A)=R^{n} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(-, A) .
$$

### 3.3 Cohomology of Lie Algebras

### 3.3.1 Definition of Cohomology $H^{0}, H^{1}$

For notational convenience we shall write $\operatorname{Hom}_{L}(-,-), \operatorname{Ext}_{L}^{n}(-,-)$, etc $\ldots$, for $\operatorname{Hom}_{U(L)}(-,-), E x t_{U(L)}^{n}(-,-)$, etc $\ldots$

Definition 3.3.1 Let $L$ be a $\Lambda$-Lie algebra, and $A$ a $\Lambda$-module. We say that $A$ is a L-module if we have a homomorphism of Lie Algebra $\rho: L \rightarrow \mathfrak{g l}(A)$.

For short, we denote $\rho(x)(a)$ by $x . a$, for $x \in L, a \in A$. We say that $A$ is a trivial $L$-module if $\rho=0$, or equivalently $x . a=0$, for all $x \in L$ and $a \in A$. We note that every $\Lambda$-module $A$ may be considered as a trivial $L$-module. In particular, we will always consider $\Lambda$ as a trivial $L$-module.
Definition 3.3.2 Given a Lie algebra $L$ over $\Lambda$ and a L-module $A$, we define the $n^{\text {th }}$ cohomology group of $L$ with coefficients in $A$ by

$$
H^{n}(L, A)=E x t_{L}^{n}(\Lambda, A), \quad n=0,1, \ldots
$$

where $\Lambda$ is regarded as a trivial L-module.
Note that each $H^{n}(L, A)$ is actually a $\Lambda$-module. We shall compute $H^{0}(L, A)$ and $H^{1}(L, A)$. As the functors $E x t_{L}^{n}(-, A)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{L}(-, A)$ are naturally equivalent, we have $H^{0}(L, A)=$ $\operatorname{Hom}_{L}(\Lambda, A)$.

Proposition 2 We have $\operatorname{Hom}_{L}(\Lambda, A) \simeq A^{L}$; where $A^{L}=\{a \in A \mid x . a=0$, for all $x \in L\} .{ }^{1}$
Proof. Let $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{L}(\Lambda, A)$; we have $x . f(\lambda)=f(x \lambda)=f(0)=0$, for all $x \in L$ and $\lambda \in \Lambda$. Hence, $f(\lambda) \in A^{L}$, and in particular $f(1) \in A^{L}$. So the map

$$
\begin{aligned}
\omega: \operatorname{Hom}_{L}(\Lambda, A) & \rightarrow A^{L} \\
f & \longmapsto f(1)
\end{aligned}
$$

is well defined. As $\omega(f+g)=(f+g)(1)=f(1)+g(1)=\omega(f)+\omega(g), \omega$ is a $\Lambda$-homomorphism. We claim that $\omega$ is an isomorphism. Indeed, if $f(1)=0$, then for all $\lambda \in \Lambda$, we have $f(\lambda)=f(\lambda .1)=$ $\lambda . f(1)=0$; from which it follows that $f=0$, that is $\omega$ is injective. Now, let $a \in A^{L}$. Define:

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
f: \Lambda & \rightarrow & A \\
\lambda & \longmapsto & \lambda a
\end{array}
$$

Then, $f$ is a homomorphism of $\Lambda$-modules, and moreover $f(x . \lambda)=x(\lambda a)=\lambda(x . a)=0=x f(\lambda)$, for all $x \in L$; therefore $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{L}(\Lambda, A)$, and $\omega(f)=f(1)=a$. Thus $\omega$ is surjective as claimed.

We conclude that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{0}(L, A)=\{a \in A \mid x \cdot a=0, \text { for all } x \in L\} . \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^1]Let $A$ be an algebra graded by $\mathbb{N}$; that is $A=\bigoplus_{n \geq 0} A_{n}$, where $A_{n}$ is a submodule of $A$ and $A_{n} A_{m} \subseteq A_{n+m}$, for all $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$. For any such a graded algebra we have an algebra epimorphism $\epsilon: A \rightarrow A_{0}$ (note here that $A_{0}$ is a subalgebra of $A$ ). This epimorphism is defined by sending each elelment of $A$ to its homogeneous component of degree 0 ; that is if $x=\sum_{n} x_{n}$, then $\epsilon(x)=x_{0}$.
Here we are interested in the tensor algebra $T(L)$. The homogeneous component of $T(L)$ of degree 0 is the base ring $\Lambda$. Thus we have $\epsilon: T(L) \rightarrow \Lambda$. For any element of $T(L)$ of the form $a=x \otimes y-y \otimes x-[x, y]$, we have $\epsilon(a)=0$, since the 0 -component of $a$ is 0 . Hence $\epsilon: T(L) \rightarrow \Lambda$ induces a morphism of associative algebras $\epsilon: U(L) \rightarrow \Lambda$. We call $\epsilon$ the augmentation map for $U(L)$, and its kernel the augmentation ideal of $U(L)$; this augmentation ideal is denoted by $I_{L}$.

Note that we have an exact sequence of associative algebras

$$
I_{L} \rightharpoondown U(L) \rightarrow \Lambda .
$$

Let $A$ be a $L$-module. We call a derivation from $L$ to $A$ every mapping $d: L \longrightarrow A$ which satisfies

$$
d([x, y])=x \cdot d(y)-y \cdot d(x)
$$

for all $x, y, z \in L$. These derivations form a $\Lambda$-module in the obvious way, which we will denote $\operatorname{Der}(L, A)$.

For any $a \in A$, we can assign a derivation

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
d_{a}: L & \rightarrow & A \\
x & \longmapsto & x . a
\end{array}
$$

the $d_{a}$ is a derivation, because

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{a}[x, y] & =[x, y] \cdot a \\
& =x \cdot(y \cdot a)-y(x \cdot a) \\
& =x \cdot d_{a}(y)-y d_{a}(x) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Such a derivation is called inner. The inner derivations in $\operatorname{Der}(L, A)$ form a $\Lambda$-submodule, which we denote by $\operatorname{Ider}(L, A)$.
For a derivation $d: L \rightarrow A$, let us define a $\Lambda$-linear map $\phi_{d}: T(L) \rightarrow A$ by sending $\Lambda$ to 0 , and each homogeneous element $x_{1} \otimes x_{2} \otimes \ldots \otimes x_{n},(n \geq 1)$ to $x_{1} \cdot\left(x_{2} \ldots . .\left(x_{n-1} \cdot d x_{n}\right) \ldots\right)$. For an element of $T(L)$ of the form $x \otimes y-y \otimes x-[x, y] \otimes t_{2}$, where $t_{2} \in T(L)$ and $x, y \in L$, we have:

$$
\phi_{d}\left(x \otimes y-y \otimes x-[x, y] \otimes t_{2}\right)=x .(y a)-y \cdot(x a)-[x, y](a)=0,
$$

where $a$ is the element of $A$ obtained from $\phi_{d}\left(t_{2}\right)$. It follows that $\phi_{d}$ vanishes on every element of the form

$$
t_{1} \otimes(x \otimes y-y \otimes x-[x, y]) \otimes t_{2}, x, y \in L, t_{1}, t_{2} \in T(L)
$$

Theorem 4 The functor $\operatorname{Der}(L,-)$ is represented by the $L$-module $I_{L}$ that is, for any L-module A there is a natural isomorphism between the functors $\operatorname{Der}(L,-)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{L}\left(I_{L},-\right)$. In particular, $\operatorname{Der}(L, A) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{L}\left(I_{L}, A\right)$, for every $L$-module $A$.

Proof. For a derivation $d: L \rightarrow A$, we have seen how to obtain a $\Lambda$-homomorphism $\Phi_{d}: T(L) \rightarrow$ $A$, which vanishes on all the elements of the form $t_{1} \otimes(x \otimes y-y \otimes x-[x, y]) \otimes t_{2}, x, y \in L, t_{1}, t_{2} \in T(L)$. It follows that $\Phi_{d}$ can be lifted to a $\Lambda$-homomorphism which we denote by the same symbol $\Phi_{d}: U(L) \rightarrow A$. Clearly, $\Phi_{d}$ vanishes on the homogeneous elements of degree 0 , hence we have a $\operatorname{map} f_{d}^{\prime}: I_{L} \rightarrow A$, which is easily seen to be a $L$-module homomorphism.
On the other hand, if $f: I_{L} \rightarrow A$ is given, we extend $f$ to $U(L)$ by setting $f(\Lambda)=0$ and then we define a derivation $d_{f}: L \rightarrow A$ by $d_{f}=f i$, where $i: L \rightarrow U(L)$ is the canonical embedding. It is easy to check that $f_{(d f)}=f$ and $d_{(f d)}=d$, and also that the map $f \longmapsto d_{f}$ is $\Lambda$-linear.

1. We check that $f_{(d f)}=f$. Viewing $I_{L}$ as an $L$-module, we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
f\left(x_{1} \otimes x_{2} \otimes \ldots \otimes x_{n}\right) & =f\left(x_{1} \otimes x_{2} \otimes \ldots \otimes i\left(x_{n}\right) \ldots\right) \\
& =x_{1} \cdot\left(x_{2} \ldots .\left(x_{n-1} \cdot f i\left(x_{n}\right)\right) \ldots\right) \\
& =x_{1} \cdot\left(x_{2} \ldots .\left(x_{n-1} \cdot d_{f}\left(x_{n}\right)\right) \ldots\right) \\
& =f_{(d f)}\left(x_{1} \otimes x_{2} \otimes \ldots \otimes x_{n}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

2. We check that $d_{(f d)}=d$. This is easily seen because $d_{(f d)}(x)=f_{d} i(x)=d(x)$ for all $x \in L$.
3. And finally, we check that the map $f \longmapsto d_{f}$ is $\Lambda$-linear. Just note that $d_{\lambda f_{1}+f_{2}}(x)=$ $\left(\lambda f_{1}+f_{2}\right) i(x)=\lambda f_{1} i(x)+f_{2} i(x)=\lambda d_{f_{1}}(x)+d_{f_{2}}(x)$ for all $x \in L$.

As we seen we have an exact sequence of $L$-modules

$$
I_{L} \mapsto U(L) \rightarrow \Lambda
$$

This gives a long exact sequence when we introduce the functor $E x t_{L}^{n}(-, A)$; and it follows from it (in low dimension) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{1}(L, A)=\operatorname{coker}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{L}(U(L), A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{L}\left(I_{L}, A\right)\right) \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence $H^{1}(L, A)$ is isomorphic to the module of derivations from $L$ into $A$ modulo those that arise from $L$-module homomorphisms $f: U(L) \rightarrow A$.
If $f\left(1_{U(L)}\right)=a$, then clearly $d_{f}(x)=x . a$, so that these are precisely the inner derivations. We obtain

Proposition $3 H^{1}(L, A) \cong \operatorname{Der}(L, A) / \operatorname{Ider}(L, A)$. If $A$ is a trivial L-module, $H^{1}(L, A) \cong$ $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(L_{a b}, A\right)$.

Proof. Only the second assertion remains to be proved.
Since $A$ is trivial, there are no non-trivial inner derivations, and a derivation $d: L \rightarrow A$ is simply a Lie algebra homomorphism, $A$ being regarded as an abelian Lie algebra.

### 3.3.2 $\quad H^{2}$ and Extensions

Let $A$ and $H$ be two Lie algebras over a field $\Lambda$. We call extension of $A$ by $H$ every Lie algebra $L$ which contains $A$ as an ideal, and $L / A$ is isomorphic to the Lie algebra $H$. This situation gives rise to an exact sequence of Lie algebra homomorphisms

$$
A \stackrel{i}{\mapsto} L \stackrel{p}{\rightarrow} H .
$$

Conversely, any such an exact sequence detremines an extension $L$ of $i(A)$ by $H$. The Lie algebra $A$ will be called the kernel of that extension. We shall deal only with abelian extensions; i.e., extensions with abelian kernels.

Two extensions $A \hookrightarrow L \rightarrow H$ and $A \hookrightarrow L^{\prime} \rightarrow H$ are said to be equivalent, if there is a Lie algebra homomorphism $f: L \rightarrow L^{\prime}$ which makes the following diagram commutative


Note that such a $f$ is automatically an isomorphism. This relation is an equivalence relation on the set of all extensions of $A$ by $H$. We denote the set of equivalence classes of these extensions by $M(H, A)$. Note that $M(H, A)$ contains at least one element: the equivalence class of the semi-direct product $A \xrightarrow{i_{A}} A \times H \xrightarrow{p_{H}} H$.

Having an abelian extension of Lie algebras $A \stackrel{i}{\longrightarrow} L \stackrel{p}{\rightarrow} H$, we can define a structure of $H$ module on $A$ as follows:

Let $s: H \rightarrow L$ be a section of $p$, that is, a $\Lambda$-linear map such that $p s=1_{L}$ (note that such a section exists because $\Lambda$ is a field; more precisely because $i(A)$ can be complemented in the $\Lambda$-vector space $L$ ). Then, we can define in $i(A)$, and hence in $A$, an action of $H$ by setting $x \cdot i(a)=[s(x), i(a)], a \in A, x \in h$, where the product $[s(x), i(a)]$ is taken in the Lie algebra $L$.

It follows that, since $A$ is abelian, the $H$-action thus defined on $A$ does not depend upon the choice of the section $s$. This $H$-module structure on $A$ is called the $H$-module structure induced by the extension. Now, we can talk about the cohomology groups $H^{n}(H, A)$.

Theorem 5 There is a one-to-one correspondence between $H^{2}(H, A)$ and the set $M(H, A)$ of equivalence classes of extensions of $H$ by $A$.
The set $M(H, A)$ therefore has a natural $\Lambda$-vector space structure and $M(H, A)$ is a (covariant) functor from $H$-modules to $\Lambda$-vector spaces.

For a proof of this result we refer the reader to [2].

### 3.3.3 Applications

Let $L$ be a finite dimensional Lie algebra and let $A$ be a finite dimensional $L$-module.
Theorem 6 (Weyl) Every (finite-dimensional) module $A$ over a semi-simple Lie algebra L is a direct sum of simple L-modules.

Proof. Using induction on the $\Lambda$-dimension of $A$, we have only to show that every non-trivial submodule $0 \neq A^{\prime} \subset A$ is a direct summand in $A$. To that end we consider the short exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
A \mapsto A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the induced sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, A) \rightarrow 0 \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is exact since $\Lambda$ is a ring. We remark that each of the modules in (3.4) is finite-dimensional and can be made into a $L$-module by the following procedure:
Let $B, C$ be $L$-modules; then $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(B, C)$ is a $L$-module by

$$
(x f)(b)=x f(b)-f(x b), x \in L, b \in B .
$$

With this under- standing, (3.4) becomes an exact sequence of $L$-modules. Note that the invariant elements in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(B, C)$ are precisely the $L$-module homomorphisms from $B$ to $C$. Now consider the long exact cohomology sequence arising from (3.4)
$0 \rightarrow H^{0}\left(L, \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, A^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow H^{0}\left(L, \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, A^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow H^{0}\left(L, \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow H^{0}\left(L, \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, A^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow \cdots$
Like $L$ is semi-simple than $H^{1}\left(L, \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, A^{\prime}\right)\right)$ is trivial (Proposition 6.1 p. 247 in [2]).Passing to the interpretation of $H^{0}$ as the group of invariant elements, we obtain an epimorphism

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right) .
$$

It follows that there is a $L$-module homomorphism $A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ inducing the identity in $A^{\prime}$; hence (3.4) splits.

Theorem 7 (Levi-Malcev). Every (finite-dimensional) Lie algebra L is the split extension of a semi-simple Lie algebra by the radical $r$ of $L$.
Proof. We proceed by induction on the derived length of $r$. If $r$ is abelian, then it is a $L / r$-module and $H^{2}(L / r, r)=0$ (Proposition 6.3 p. 249 in [2]). Since $H^{2}$ classifies extensions with abelian kernel the extension $r \mapsto L \rightarrow L / r$ splits. If $r$ is non-abelian with derived length $n \geqslant 2$, we look at the following diagram


The bottom sequence splits by the first part of the proof, say by $s: L / r \rightarrow L /[r, r]$. Let $h /[r, r]$ be the image of $L / r$ under $s$; clearly $s: L / r \xrightarrow{\sim} h /[r, r]$ and $[r, r]$ taust be the radical of $h$. Now consider the extension $[r, r] \mapsto h \rightarrow h /[r, r]$. Since $[r, r]$ has derived length $n-1$. it follows, by the inductive hypothesis, that the extension taust split, say by $q: h /[r, r] \rightarrow h$. Finally it is easy to see that the top sequence of diagramm splits by $t=q s, t: L / r \xrightarrow{\widetilde{\sim}} h /[r, r] \rightarrow h \subset L$.

## Conclusion

In this paper we aim to provide the research with an expository look at several important results in the study of finite dimensional Lie algebras. In particallar we discuss the construction of the Universal Enveloping Lie Algebra; The algebraic structure of the universal enveloping algebra $U(L)$ is not only of an associative unital algebra, but it is a Hopf algebra. That is: there is an structure of coalgebra such that the multiplication and comultiplication in $U(L)$ are compatible. This is a much richer structure. Also these structures are used for representation theory of Lie algebras. To give an example, it had used to construct faithful representations of minimal degree by certain quotients of the universal enveloping algebra; This helped us to study affine structures on nilpotent Lie groups. But in this work we just discuss about some of their results such that the Poincare-Birkhoff-Witt Theorem. It was not easy for the biginer to achieve how its proof made. In order to more discover the cathegory of Lie Algebra it was necessary to pass a Cohomologie where we try to show $H^{0}, H^{1}$ and $H^{2}$ using some of theorems. Our aim in future inchaAllah is to continus this research by turning to Lie groups and their representation.

## Abstract


#### Abstract

Our work is devoted to investigating the notion of universal enveloping algebras of Lie algebras, and some relevant results as the Poincare-Birkhoff-Witt theorem and the cohomology of Lie algebras with some applications for this last.


## Résumé

Notre travail est consacré à enquêter sur la notion de algèbre enveloppante des algèbres de Lie, et certains résultats pertinents que le théorème de Poincaré-Birkhoff-Witt et la cohomologie des algèbres de Lie avec certaines applications pour ce dernier.

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## Abstract

Our work is devoted to investigating the notion of universal enveloping algebras of Lie algebras, and some relevant results as the Poincare-Birkhoff-Witt theorem and the cohomology of Lie algebras with some applications for this last.

Cley words: algebra, Lie algebra, cohomology.

ناقشنا في هذه المذكرة المتو اضعة مفهوم الجبر العامة المغلفة لجبر لي، وبعض من نتائجها كنظرية بو انكاري بريكوف فيت، وكوهومولوحي جبر لي مع بعض التطبيقات .
كلمات مفتاحية: جبر، جبر لي، كو هومولوجي .

## Résumé

Notre travail est consacré à enquêter sur la notion de algèbre enveloppante des algèbres de Lie, et certains résultats pertinents que le théorème de Poincaré-Birkhoff-Witt et la cohomologie des algèbres de Lie avec certaines applications pour ce dernier.

Mots clés: algèbre, algèbres de Lie, cohomologie.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ This axiome is called Jacobi identity.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ we call this the subspace of invariant elements in $A$.

