

ON A FAMILY OF LIE ALGEBRAS OF CHARACTERISTIC p

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Introduction. We study a family of Lie algebras of characteristic p which are defined as subalgebras of the derivation algebra of the group algebra of an elementary p -group. In particular we show that simple Lie algebras of dimensions $m(p^n-1)$, mp^n , p^n-2 , where m and n are arbitrary integers such that $1 \leq m < n$, and where $p > 2$ only for the dimensions p^n and p^n-2 , are associated with this family. The algebras studied by M. S. Frank [2] are included in our family, but those of dimension $m(p^n-1)$ in general appear to be new.

Since this paper was written, the paper of A. A. Albert and M. S. Frank [1] has been published. The relation between the algebras studied in [1] and those in this paper will be mentioned in §9, although it is not thoroughly clarified yet.

1. Definition of the family \mathfrak{F} . Let Φ be an algebraically closed field of characteristic $p > 0$, and \mathfrak{A} the group algebra over Φ of an abelian group \mathfrak{G} of type (p, p, \dots, p) and order p^n . Let D_0, \dots, D_m be derivations⁽²⁾ of \mathfrak{A} such that $D_i \circ D_j = 0$ for all i, j , and let $a_0, \dots, a_m \in \mathfrak{A}$ be such that

$$(1.0.1) \quad D_i a_j = D_j a_i \quad (i, j = 0, 1, \dots, m).$$

Consider the set $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}(D_i, a_i)$ of all derivations of the form $D = f_0 D_0 + \dots + f_m D_m$, where $f_i \in \mathfrak{A}$ satisfy $\sum D_i f_i = \sum a_i f_i$. By an elementary computation, we see easily that \mathfrak{L} is a subalgebra of the derivation algebra⁽²⁾ of \mathfrak{A} . (The case when $m+1=n$, $a_0 = \dots = a_m = 0$, $D_i = \partial/\partial g_i$, where g_0, \dots, g_m is a set of independent generators of the group \mathfrak{G} , was considered by M. S. Frank [2], and the case $m+1=n$, $a_i = 1$, $D_i = \partial/\partial g_i$, by A. A. Albert and M. S. Frank [1].)

In this paper, we study the family \mathfrak{F} of algebras $\mathfrak{L}(D_i, a_i)$, where D_0, \dots, D_m satisfy the following conditions:

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⁽²⁾ By a *derivation* D of an algebra \mathfrak{A} over a field Φ we mean a linear mapping of \mathfrak{A} , regarded as a vector space over Φ , into itself such that $D(fg) = (Df)g + f(Dg)$ for all f, g in \mathfrak{A} . If D_1, D_2 are derivations of \mathfrak{A} , then $D_1 \circ D_2 = D_1 D_2 - D_2 D_1$ is easily seen to be a derivation of \mathfrak{A} . The totality of derivations of \mathfrak{A} forms a Lie algebra over Φ with the ordinary addition and the multiplication \circ . It is called the *derivation algebra* of \mathfrak{A} .

$$(1.0.2) \quad D_i \circ D_j = 0 \text{ for all } i, j;$$

$$(1.0.3) \quad \sum f_i D_i = 0, \text{ where } f_i \in \mathfrak{A}, \text{ implies } f_i = 0 \text{ for all } i;$$

$$(1.0.4) \quad D_i f = 0 \text{ for all } i \text{ implies } f \in \Phi;$$

$$(1.0.5) \quad \text{If } f \in \mathfrak{A} \text{ is such that } D_i f = \lambda_i f, \text{ where } \lambda_i \in \Phi, \text{ for all } i, \text{ then } f = 0 \text{ or } f \text{ is a unit in } \mathfrak{A}.$$

The elements a_0, \dots, a_m of \mathfrak{A} will be always assumed to be chosen such that (1.0.1) is satisfied. An ordered set (D_0, \dots, D_m) of derivations of \mathfrak{A} will be called a *semi-system* if (1.0.2)–(1.0.4) are satisfied, and a *system* if (1.0.2)–(1.0.5) are satisfied^(*). Since we fix $m > 0$ throughout this paper, a semi-system or a system (D_0, \dots, D_m) will usually be denoted by the notation (D_i) . It is shown in [4] that $m < n$ must hold for a system. The following lemma is also shown in [4]:

LEMMA 1.1. *For a system (D_i) , if f and $a_i \in \mathfrak{A}$ are such that $D_i f = a_i f$ for all i , then $f = 0$ or f is a unit in \mathfrak{A} .*

2. Equivalent systems. Two semi-systems (D_i) and (D'_i) are said to be *equivalent* if there exist $c_{ij} \in \mathfrak{A}$ such that

$$(2.0.1) \quad D'_i = \sum_{s=0}^m c_{is} D_s$$

for $i = 0, \dots, m$, and such that $\det (c_{ij})$ is a unit in \mathfrak{A} . From the properties (1.0.2)–(1.0.3) for (D'_i) it follows easily that

$$(2.0.2) \quad D'_i c_{jk} = D'_j c_{ik}$$

for all i, j , and k .

LEMMA 2.1. *A semi-system equivalent to a system is a system.*

Proof. Let (D_i) be a semi-system equivalent to a system (D'_i) , and let the relation (2.0.1) hold. Suppose $f \in \mathfrak{A}$ and $\lambda_i \in \Phi$ are such that $D_i f = \lambda_i f$ for all i . Then (2.0.1) yields $D'_i f = (\sum_s c_{is} \lambda_s) f$ for all i . Then from Lemma 1.1 it follows that $f = 0$ or f is a unit in \mathfrak{A} . Therefore (D'_i) is a system.

Let (D_i) and (D'_i) be equivalent systems related by (2.0.1). Let $(c_{ij})^{-1} = (c'_{ij})$. Then $D_i = \sum_s c'_{is} D'_s$, and $\sum f_i D_i = \sum f'_i D'_i$, where $f'_i = \sum_s f_s c'_{si}$. It may be readily verified that $\sum D_i f_i = \sum a_i f_i$ if and only if $\sum D'_i f'_i = \sum a'_i f'_i$, where

$$(2.2.1) \quad a'_i = \sum_s (a_s c'_{si} - D_s c'_{is}), \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

Thus we may state

^(*) *Semi-system* and *system* in this paper may be called in the language of [4] "orthogonal system satisfying (1.0.4)" and "orthogonal system satisfying (1.0.4)–(1.0.5)," respectively.

THEOREM 2.2. *If the system (D'_i) is given by (2.0.1), then $\mathfrak{L}(D_i, a_i) = \mathfrak{L}(D'_i, a'_i)$, where a'_i are given by (2.2.1).*

The following lemma is useful in changing the formula (2.2.1).

LEMMA 2.3. *Let (D_i) be a system, and let $a_{ij} \in \mathfrak{A}$ be such that $D_i a_{jk} = D_j a_{ik}$ for all $i, j, k = 0, 1, \dots, m$. Let \bar{a}_{ij} be the cofactor of a_{ji} in the determinant of the $(m+1) \times (m+1)$ matrix (a_{ij}) . Then $\sum_{s=0}^m D_s \bar{a}_{is} = 0$ for all i .*

Proof. For simplicity we assume that $i=0$. The other cases may be proved similarly. Since

$$\det(a_{ij}) = \sum \epsilon(s_0 s_1 \dots s_m) a_{s_0 0} a_{s_1 1} \dots a_{s_m m},$$

where $\epsilon(s_0 s_1 \dots s_m)$ denotes $+1$ if the permutation

$$\pi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & \dots & m \\ s_0 & s_1 & \dots & s_m \end{pmatrix}$$

is even, -1 if π is odd, therefore

$$\bar{a}_{0s} = \sum' \epsilon(ss_1 \dots s_m) a_{s_1 1} \dots a_{s_m m},$$

where the summation \sum' runs over all permutations π such that $s_0 = s$. Since D_s is a derivation, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum D_s \bar{a}_{0s} \\ = \sum \epsilon(ss_1 \dots s_m) [(D_s a_{s_1 1}) a_{s_2 2} \dots a_{s_m m} + a_{s_1 1} (D_s a_{s_2 2}) \dots a_{s_m m} + \dots], \end{aligned}$$

where the summation on the right runs over all permutations

$$\pi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & \dots & m \\ s & s_1 & \dots & s_m \end{pmatrix}.$$

By hypothesis $D_s a_{s_1 1} = D_{s_1} a_{s 1}$. Since $\epsilon(ss_1 \dots s_m) = -\epsilon(s_1 s \dots s_m)$, the two terms $\epsilon(ss_1 \dots s_m) (D_s a_{s_1 1}) a_{s_2 2} \dots a_{s_m m}$ and $\epsilon(s_1 s \dots s_m) (D_{s_1} a_{s 1}) a_{s_2 2} \dots a_{s_m m}$ cancel each other. Similarly all the other terms are divided into such pairs. Thus we see that $\sum D_s \bar{a}_{0s} = 0$. Similarly $\sum D_s \bar{a}_{is} = 0$ for all i . Thus Lemma 2.3 is proved.

Using Lemma 2.3, we can change (2.2.1) into a more convenient form. We set $a_{ij} = c'_{ij}$. Then the formula corresponding to (2.0.2) shows that a_{ij} satisfy the condition of Lemma 2.3. Let $f = \det(c'_{ij})$. Then $\bar{a}_{ij} = f c_{ij}$. Hence by Theorem 2.2 we have $\sum_s D_s (f c_{is}) = 0$ for all i . Therefore $f \sum D_s c_{is} + \sum c_{is} D_s f = 0$, and we obtain

$$(2.3.1) \quad \sum D_s c_{is} + \sum c_{is} (f^{-1} D_s f) = 0.$$

From (2.3.1) and (2.2.1) we see that

$$(2.3.2) \quad a'_i = \sum_s c_{is} (a_s + f^{-1} D_s f), \quad f = \det(c_{ij})^{-1}, \text{ for all } i.$$

3. Principal systems. A system (D_i) is called *principal* if $D_i f \in \Phi$ for all i implies $f \in \Phi$. Elements $g_1, \dots, g_n \in \mathfrak{A}$ are said to form a set of *principal generators* of \mathfrak{A} if $g_i^p = 1$ for all i and if the p^n elements $g_1^{u_1} \dots g_n^{u_n}$, where $0 \leq u_i < p$, $g_i^0 = 1$, form a basis of \mathfrak{A} over Φ . The following Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2 are proved in [4].

LEMMA 3.1. *Any system is equivalent to a principal system.*

LEMMA 3.2. *For any principal system (D_i) , there exists a set of principal generators g_1, \dots, g_n of \mathfrak{A} such that*

$$(3.2.1) \quad D_i = \sum_{s=1}^n \alpha_{is} G_s$$

for all i , where $\alpha_{ij} \in \Phi$ and where $G_i = g_i \partial / \partial g_i$ are derivations of \mathfrak{A} such that $G_i g_j = \delta_{ij} g_j$ for all i, j and δ_{ij} is the Kronecker delta. The principal generators (g_i) will be said to belong to the principal system (D_i) .

From (1.0.3)–(1.0.4) we see easily that the α_{ij} in (3.2.1) must satisfy (3.2.2)–(3.2.3) below:

(3.2.2) If u_1, \dots, u_n are integers such that $\sum_i \alpha_{ii} u_i = 0$ for all i , then

$$u_i \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \text{ for all } i;$$

(3.2.3) If $\xi_0, \dots, \xi_m \in \Phi$ are such that $\sum_{s=0}^m \xi_s \alpha_{si} = 0$ for all i , then $\xi_i = 0$

for all i .

Conversely if elements $\alpha_{ij} \in \Phi$ satisfy (3.2.2)–(3.2.3) and if D_i are defined by (3.2.1) with an arbitrary set of principal generators g_1, \dots, g_n of \mathfrak{A} , then (D_i) is a system, as is proved in §9 of [4]. We shall now show that the system (D_i) is principal. Let $D_i f \in \Phi$ for all i , where $f = \sum \gamma_u g^u$, $\gamma_u \in \Phi$. Then $\gamma_u(e_i \cdot u) = 0$ for all $u \neq 0$ and i , and hence by (3.2.4) we have $\gamma_u = 0$ for all $u \neq 0$. Therefore $f \in \Phi$, and hence (D_i) is shown to be principal.

For any integers m and n such that $0 \leq m < n$, there exist $\alpha_{ij} \in \Phi$ such that (3.2.2)–(3.2.3) hold, since Φ is assumed to be algebraically closed and hence infinite.

Suppose that the system (D_i) is given by (3.2.1). Consider the $(m+1)$ -dimensional vector space \mathfrak{R} over Φ consisting of all $(m+1)$ -tuples $x = (\xi_0, \dots, \xi_m)$, $\xi_i \in \Phi$, and also the n -dimensional vector space \mathfrak{B} over Φ consisting of all n -tuples $u = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$, $u_i \in \Phi$. Let \mathfrak{B} be the subset of \mathfrak{B} consisting of all u such that $u_i \in GF(p) \subset \Phi$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Define a bilinear function $x \cdot u$, where $x \in \mathfrak{R}$, $u \in \mathfrak{B}$, with values in Φ by setting $x \cdot u = \sum_{i,j} \xi_i \alpha_{ij} u_j$. Then (3.2.2) and (3.2.3) are equivalent to (3.2.4) and (3.2.5), below, respectively:

(3.2.4) If $x \cdot u = 0$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{X}$ and if $u \in \mathfrak{B}$ then $u = 0$;

(3.2.5) $x \cdot u = 0$ for all $u \in \mathfrak{B}$ implies $x = 0$.

Suppose now that g_1, \dots, g_n are principal generators belonging to the principal system (D_i) . For $u = (u_1, \dots, u_n) \in \mathfrak{B}$ we shall write $g^u = g_1^{u_1} \cdots g_n^{u_n}$. Let $e_i \in \mathfrak{X}$ be a vector whose $(i+1)$ th component is 1 and whose other components are all 0. Then $D_i g^u = (e_i \cdot u) g^u$, and, more generally,

(3.2.6) $(\xi_0 D_0 + \cdots + \xi_m D_m) g^u = (x \cdot u) g^u$, where $x = (\xi_0, \dots, \xi_m) \in \mathfrak{X}$.

The notations introduced in this section will be preserved in what follows.

4. Type and dimension of \mathfrak{L} . For a derivation D and an element $a \in \mathfrak{A}$ we define a linear mapping $D - a$ of \mathfrak{A} , regarded as a vector space over Φ , into itself by $(D - a)f = Df - af$. Then the condition $D_i a_j = D_j a_i$ is equivalent to saying that the linear mappings $D_i - a_i$ and $D_j - a_j$ are commutative. Therefore, if $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}(D_i; a_i) \in \mathfrak{F}$, then there exist a nonzero element $b \in \mathfrak{A}$ and $\alpha_i \in \Phi$ such that

$$(4.0.1) \quad (D_i - a_i)b = \alpha_i b$$

for all i ; b will be called a *proper element* of $(D_i; a_i)$ and $(\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_m)$ *proper root* belonging to b .

LEMMA 4.1. *If (D_i) is a principal system and if b is a proper element of $(D_i; a_i)$, then b is a unit in \mathfrak{A} and all the other proper elements of $(D_i; a_i)$ are, up to a constant factor, of the form bg^u , where g_1, \dots, g_n is any fixed set of principal generators of \mathfrak{A} belonging to (D_i) and where u runs over \mathfrak{B} . If $(\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_m)$ is the proper root belonging to b , then $(\alpha_0 - (e_0 \cdot u), \dots, \alpha_m - (e_m \cdot u))$ is the proper root belonging to bg^u .*

Proof. The fact that b is a unit follows immediately from Lemma 1.1, since $D_i b = (a_i - \alpha_i)b$ for all i .

Let $D_i b' = (a_i - \alpha'_i)b'$ for all i . Then $D_i(b^{-1}b') = (\alpha_i - \alpha'_i)b^{-1}b'$. We may suppose that $b^{-1}b' = \sum_{u \in \mathfrak{B}} \gamma_u g^u$, where $\gamma_u \in \Phi$. Then $(e_i \cdot u)\gamma_u = (\alpha_i - \alpha'_i)\gamma_u$ for all i . Therefore if $\gamma_u \neq 0$ then $e_i \cdot u = \alpha_i - \alpha'_i$ for all i . Furthermore, if $\gamma_u \neq 0$ then $e_i \cdot u = \alpha_i - \alpha'_i = e_i \cdot u'$, and hence $(e_i \cdot u - u') = 0$ for all i . Hence we have $u = u'$. Therefore, any proper element of $(D_i; a_i)$ is, up to a constant factor, of the form bg^u , and the proper root belonging to bg^u is $(\alpha_0 - (e_0 \cdot u), \dots, \alpha_m - (e_m \cdot u))$.

It is easily seen that bg^u is a proper element of $(D_i; a_i)$ for any $u \in \mathfrak{B}$. Thus Lemma 4.1 is proved.

By Theorem 2.2 and Lemma 3.1, every $\mathfrak{L} \in \mathfrak{F}$ can be expressed as $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}(D_i; a_i)$ with some principal system (D_i) . If there exists a proper element b of $(D_i; a_i)$ such that the proper root belonging to b is zero, i.e. $\alpha_i = 0$ for all i , then we shall say that \mathfrak{L} is of *type I*. Otherwise, \mathfrak{L} is said to be of *type II*. We will show that the above definition of the type of $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}(D_i; a_i)$ is independent

of the principal system (D_i) used to form \mathfrak{L} . This will be done by computing the dimension of \mathfrak{L} over Φ as follows.

Let b be a proper element of $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}(D_i; a_i)$ and let $(\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_m)$ be the proper root belonging to b . Since b is a unit in \mathfrak{A} , every element $D \in \mathfrak{L}$ can be written in the form $D = b \sum f_i D_i$, with $f_i \in \mathfrak{A}$. An elementary computation shows that the condition $\sum D_i(bf_i) = \sum a_i bf_i$ is equivalent to $\sum D_i f_i = \sum \alpha_i f_i$. Hence we have $\mathfrak{L}(D_i; a_i) = b\mathfrak{L}(D_i; \alpha_i)$ where $b\mathfrak{L} = \{bD \mid D \in \mathfrak{L}\}$. In particular, $\dim \mathfrak{L}(D_i; a_i) = \dim \mathfrak{L}(D_i; \alpha_i)$. Suppose now that (D_i) is a principal system and the g_1, \dots, g_n form a set of principal generators belonging to (D_i) . Consider $D = \sum f_i D_i \in \mathfrak{L}(D_i; \alpha_i)$. We may write $f_i = \sum_{u \in \mathfrak{B}} \phi_{i,u} g^u$, where $\phi_{i,u} \in \Phi$. Then the condition $\sum D_i f_i = \sum \alpha_i f_i$ is easily seen to be equivalent to

$$\sum_i (e_i \cdot u) \phi_{i,u} = \sum_i \alpha_i \phi_{i,u} \quad (\text{for all } u).$$

We set $D_u = g^u \sum_i \phi_{i,u} D_i$. Then $D = \sum D_u$, $D_u \in \mathfrak{L}(D_i; \alpha_i)$. Thus the vector space $\mathfrak{L}(D_i; \alpha_i)$ over Φ is a direct sum of the vector spaces \mathfrak{L}_u , $u \in \mathfrak{B}$, where \mathfrak{L}_u consists of elements of the form $g^u \sum_i \xi_i D_i$, $\xi_i \in \Phi$. Now $g^u \sum_i \xi_i D_i \in \mathfrak{L}_u$ if and only if

$$(4.2.1) \quad \sum_i (e_i \cdot u) \xi_i = \sum_i \alpha_i \xi_i.$$

Suppose that $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}(D_i; a_i)$ is of type I. Then we may assume $\alpha_i = 0$ for all i . From (3.2.4) and (4.2.1) it follows easily that $\dim \mathfrak{L}_u = m$ for $u \neq 0$ and that $\dim \mathfrak{L}_0 = m + 1$. Hence $\dim \mathfrak{L} = mp^n + 1$.

Suppose that $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}(D_i; a_i)$ is of type II. By (3.2.5), we may set $\alpha_i = e_i \cdot k$, where $k \in \overline{\mathfrak{B}}$. Then by Lemma 4.1 we see that

$$(4.2.2) \quad ((e_0 \cdot k - u), \dots, (e_m \cdot k - u)) \neq 0$$

for all $u \in \mathfrak{B}$. Now (4.2.1) can be expressed in the form $(x \cdot k - u) = 0$, where $x = (\xi_0, \dots, \xi_m)$. Therefore, because of (4.2.2), we have $\dim \mathfrak{L}_u = m$ for all $u \in \mathfrak{B}$. Hence $\dim \mathfrak{L} = mp^n$. Thus we have proved

THEOREM 4.2. *If \mathfrak{L} is of type I, then $\dim \mathfrak{L} = mp^n + 1$. If \mathfrak{L} is of type II, then $\dim \mathfrak{L} = mp^n$.*

5. Another characterization of \mathfrak{F} . Let $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}(D_i; a_i) \in \mathfrak{F}$ be defined by a principal system (D_i) . Let b be a proper element, and $(\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_m)$ the proper root belonging to b . We set $\alpha_i = e_i \cdot k$, $k \in \overline{\mathfrak{B}}$, as before. (If L is of type I, then, by Lemma 4.1, we may take k in $\mathfrak{B}^{(4)}$.) It was shown in the course of the proof of Theorem 4.2 that \mathfrak{L} is spanned by the elements of the form $bg^u(\sum \xi_i D_i)$, where $(x \cdot u - k) = 0$, $x = (\xi_0, \dots, \xi_m)$.

Introduce the symbol $(x, u) = bg^u(\sum \xi_i D_i)$. Then:

(4) The idea of considering the case $k \neq 0$ for algebras of type I will become clear when the reader reaches §7.

- (5.0.1) \mathfrak{L} consists of elements of the form $\sum_{u \in \mathfrak{B}} (x_u, u)$, where $(x_u \cdot u - k) = 0$ for all $u \in \mathfrak{B}$;
- (5.0.2) $\sum (x_u, u) = \sum (y_u, u)$ if and only if $x_u = y_u$ for all $u \in \mathfrak{B}$;
- (5.0.3) $\lambda \sum (x_u, u) = \sum (\lambda x_u, u)$ if $\lambda \in \Phi$;
- (5.0.4) $\sum (x_u, u) + \sum (y_u, u) = \sum (x_u + y_u, u)$;
- (5.0.5) $(x, u) \circ (y, v) = \sum_{w \in \mathfrak{B}} \beta_w ((x \cdot v + w)y - (y \cdot u + w)x, u + v + w)$.

The coefficients β_w in (5.0.5) are those in the representation $b = \sum_{w \in \mathfrak{B}} \beta_w g^w$. Note that $\sum \beta_w \neq 0$ since b is a unit in \mathfrak{A} . Note also that $(x \cdot u - k) = (y \cdot v - k) = 0$ implies $((x \cdot v + w)y - (y \cdot u + w)x) \cdot (u + v + w - k) = 0$. Conversely if we start with a bilinear function $x \cdot u$, $x \in \mathfrak{R}$, $u \in \mathfrak{B}$, satisfying (3.2.4)–(3.2.5), an element $k \in \mathfrak{B}$, and arbitrary elements $\beta_u \in \Phi$, then by (5.0.1)–(5.0.5) we can define an algebra \mathfrak{L} over Φ . It can be easily verified that the multiplication \circ is skew-symmetric and satisfies the Jacobi-identity. Therefore \mathfrak{L} is a Lie algebra. If $\sum_{w \in \mathfrak{B}} \beta_w \neq 0$ then \mathfrak{L} is isomorphic to an algebra in \mathfrak{F} . This can be seen as follows: Let g_1, \dots, g_n be a set of principal generators of \mathfrak{A} . We define linear mappings D_i , $0 \leq i \leq m$, by $D_i g^u = (e_i \cdot u)g^u$. It is easily verified that D_i are derivations of \mathfrak{A} and that (D_0, \dots, D_m) is a system. If $b = \sum_{w \in \mathfrak{B}} \beta_w g^w$, then $\sum \beta_w \neq 0$ implies that b is a unit in \mathfrak{A} . Set $a_i = b^{-1} D_i b + e_i \cdot k$ for all i . Then $D_i a_j = D_j a_i$, and we have $\mathfrak{L} \simeq \mathfrak{L}(D_i; a_i)$, where (x, u) corresponds to $bg^u \sum \xi_i D_i$, $x = (\xi_0, \dots, \xi_m)$.

In the above formulation (5.0.1)–(5.0.5), \mathfrak{L} is of type I if and only if there exists $k' \in \mathfrak{B}$ such that $x \cdot k = x \cdot k'$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{R}$.

Suppose that \mathfrak{L} is of type I. Then we may assume $k \in \mathfrak{B}$. Consider the first derived algebra \mathfrak{L}' of \mathfrak{L} . In the right hand side of (5.0.5), if $u + v + w = k$, then for $x \in \mathfrak{L}_u$ and $y \in \mathfrak{L}_v$, $(x \cdot v + w) = -(x \cdot u - k) = 0$, $(y \cdot u + w) = -(y \cdot v - k) = 0$. Therefore, if $\sum (x_u, u) \in \mathfrak{L}'$ then $x_k = 0$. Thus we have proved

THEOREM 5.1. *If the algebra $\mathfrak{L} \in \mathfrak{F}$ is of type I, then \mathfrak{L}' is contained, as an ideal, in the subalgebra of \mathfrak{L} consisting of all $\sum (x_u, u) \in \mathfrak{L}$ such that $x_k = 0$. In particular, $\dim \mathfrak{L}' \leq m(p^n - 1)$.*

Consider now the special case where $m = 1$, $0 \neq k \in \mathfrak{B}$, $\beta_0 = 1$, $\beta_w = 0$ for all $w \neq 0$. If \mathfrak{L} is of type I, and if $\sum (x_u, u) \in \mathfrak{L}'$ then $x_k = 0$, so that (5.0.5) becomes

$$(5.2.1) \quad (x, u) \circ (y, v) = ((x \cdot v)y - (y \cdot u)x, u + v).$$

Suppose $u + v = 2k$. Then $(x \cdot u - k) = (y \cdot u - k) = 0$. Therefore, if $u \neq k$, $x \neq 0$, then $y = \lambda x$ with $\lambda \in \Phi$ since $m = 1$. Hence

$$(x \cdot v)y - (y \cdot u)x = \lambda(x \cdot v)x - \lambda(x \cdot u)x = 0.$$

Thus we see that if $\sum (x_u, u) \in \mathfrak{L}''$, the second derived algebra of \mathfrak{L} , then $x_k = x_{2k} = 0$. In other words, \mathfrak{L}'' is contained, as an ideal, in the subalgebra con-

sisting of all $\sum (x_u, u) \in \mathfrak{L}$ such that $x_k = x_{2k} = 0$. In particular, $\dim \mathfrak{L}'' \leq p^n - 2$. Later we shall see that \mathfrak{L}'' is simple and of dimension $p^n - 2$, provided $p \neq 2$.

6. Reduction theorems. We define a subfamily \mathfrak{F}_e of \mathfrak{F} as follows: $\mathfrak{L} \in \mathfrak{F}_e$ if and only if there exists a principal system (D_i) and elements $\lambda_i \in \Phi$ such that $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}(D_i; \lambda_i)$. As we shall see later, algebras in \mathfrak{F}_e can be discussed fairly easily. It is an open question whether $\mathfrak{F} = \mathfrak{F}_e$ or not.

THEOREM 6.1. *Let $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}(D_i; a_i)$ be defined by a principal system (D_i) . Then $\mathfrak{L} \in \mathfrak{F}_e$ if and only if there exists $c_0, \dots, c_m \in \mathfrak{A}$ and $\lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_m \in \Phi$ such that $f = \det(\delta_{ij} + D_i c_j)$ is a unit in \mathfrak{A} and such that*

$$(6.1.1) \quad a_i = -f^{-1}D_i f + D_i(\sum \lambda_s c_s) + \lambda_i \text{ for all } i=0, \dots, m.$$

For the proof of Theorem 6.1 we need the following

LEMMA 6.2. *Suppose (D_i) is a principal system. If $h_0, \dots, h_m \in \mathfrak{A}$ are such that $D_i h_j = D_j h_i$ for all i, j , then there exist $h \in \mathfrak{A}$ and $\gamma_0, \dots, \gamma_m \in \Phi$ such that $h_i = D_i h + \gamma_i$ for all i .*

Proof of Lemma 6.2. Let g_1, \dots, g_n be a set of principal generators of \mathfrak{A} belonging to (D_i) , and let $h_i = \sum_{u \in \mathfrak{B}} \eta_{iu} g^u$, $\eta_{iu} \in \Phi$. Then $D_i h_j = D_j h_i$ implies $(e_i \cdot u) \eta_{ju} = (e_j \cdot u) \eta_{iu}$ for all $u \in \mathfrak{B}$. From (3.2.4) we have $((e_0 \cdot u), \dots, (e_m \cdot u)) \neq 0$ if $u \neq 0$. Hence there exists $\rho_u \in \Phi$, for all $u \neq 0$, such that $\eta_{iu} = (e_i \cdot u) \rho_u$ for all i . Put $h = \sum_{u \in \mathfrak{B}} \rho_u g^u$, $\gamma_i = \eta_{i0}$. Then $h_i = D_i h + \gamma_i$ for all i , as required.

Proof of Theorem 6.1. Suppose $\mathfrak{L} \in \mathfrak{F}_e$. Then there exist a principal system (D'_i) equivalent to (D_i) and a $\lambda_i \in \Phi$ such that $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}(D'_i; \lambda_i)$. Let (D_i) and (D'_i) be related as in (2.0.1). Then (2.3.2) yields

$$(6.1.2) \quad \lambda_i = \sum_s c_{is}(a_s + f^{-1}D_s f), \quad f = \det(c'_{ij}).$$

By a formula corresponding to (2.0.2) and Lemma 6.2, we see that there exist $c_i \in \mathfrak{A}$ and $\gamma_{ij} \in \Phi$ such that

$$(6.1.3) \quad c'_{ij} = D_i c_j + \gamma_{ij}, \quad i, j = 0, \dots, m,$$

where γ_{ij} are uniquely determined by c'_{ij} , since (D_i) is principal. We shall show that $\det(\gamma_{ij}) \neq 0$. Suppose $\xi_i \in \Phi$ are such that $\sum_{s=0}^m \gamma_{is} \xi_s = 0$ for all i . Then (6.1.3) yields $\sum_s c'_{is} \xi_s = D_i c$, where $c = \sum_s c_s \xi_s$, and hence $D'_i c = \xi_i \in \Phi$ for all i . Since (D'_i) is principal, we have $c \in \Phi$, and hence $\xi_i = 0$ for all i . Thus $\det(\gamma_{ij}) \neq 0$ is proved. Let (γ'_{ij}) be the inverse matrix of (γ_{ij}) , and let $\bar{\lambda}_i = \sum_s \gamma_{is} \lambda_s$, $\bar{c}_i = \sum_s c_s \gamma'_{si}$, $\bar{f} = \det(D_i \bar{c}_j + \delta_{ij})$, $\gamma = \det(\gamma_{ij})$. Then $\bar{f} = f\gamma$, and from (6.1.2) and (6.1.3) we have easily $a_i = -\bar{f}^{-1}D_i \bar{f} + D_i(\sum \bar{\lambda}_s \bar{c}_s) + \bar{\lambda}_i$ for all i .

Suppose conversely, that there exist $c_i \in \mathfrak{A}$ and $\lambda_i \in \Phi$ such that $f = \det(D_i c_j + \delta_{ij})$ is a unit in \mathfrak{A} and such that (6.1.1) holds. We set $c'_{ij} = D_i c_j + \delta_{ij}$, $(c_{ij}) = (c'_{ij})^{-1}$, $D'_i = \sum_s c_{is} D_s$. First, we shall show that (D'_i) is a system. Since (D_i) is already a system, by Lemma 2.1 it is sufficient to show that $D'_i \circ D'_j = 0$ for all i, j . Since $D_i = \sum_s c'_{is} D'_s$ for all i , we have

$$\begin{aligned}
0 &= D_i \circ D_j = \sum_{s,t} (c'_{is} D'_s c'_{jt}) D'_t - \sum_{s,t} (c'_{jt} D'_t c'_{is}) D'_s + \sum_{s,t} c'_{is} c'_{jt} (D'_s \circ D'_t) \\
&= \sum_t [(D_i c'_{jt}) D'_t - (D_j c'_{it}) D'_t] + \sum_{s,t} c'_{is} c'_{jt} (D'_s \circ D'_t).
\end{aligned}$$

Now $D_i c'_{jt} = D_j c'_{it}$ for all i, j, t , so that $\sum_{s,t} c'_{is} c'_{jt} (D'_s \circ D'_t) = 0$ for all i, j . Finally since $\det(c'_{ij})$ is a unit in \mathfrak{A} , we have $D'_s \circ D'_t = 0$ for all s and t . Thus (D'_i) is proved to be a system. We shall show that (D'_i) is principal. Suppose $D'_i f = \xi_i \in \Phi$ for all i . Then $D_i = \sum_s c'_{is} D'_s$ implies $D_i(f - \sum_s \xi_s c_s) = \xi_i \in \Phi$ for all i . Since (D_i) is principal we have $f - \sum_s \xi_s c_s \in \Phi$, $\xi_i = 0$ for all i , and hence $f \in \Phi$. Thus (D'_i) is a principal system. The fact that $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}(D'_i; \lambda_i)$ follows easily from (6.1.1) and (2.3.2), and Theorem 6.1 is proved.

Define a subfamily \mathfrak{F}_0 of \mathfrak{F}_e as follows: $\mathfrak{L} \in \mathfrak{F}_0$ if and only if there exists a principal system (D_i) such that $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}(D_i; 0)$. Clearly every algebra in \mathfrak{F}_0 is of type I. Later we shall show that the first derived algebras \mathfrak{L}' of \mathfrak{L} in \mathfrak{F}_0 are simple for any prime $p > 0$. The following theorem may be proved just like Theorem 6.1.

THEOREM 6.3. *Let $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}(D_i; a_i)$ be defined by a principal system (D_i) . Then $\mathfrak{L} \in \mathfrak{F}_0$ if and only if there exist $c_0, \dots, c_m \in \mathfrak{A}$ such that $f = \det(D_i c_j + \delta_{ij})$ is a unit in \mathfrak{A} and such that $a_i = -f^{-1} D_i f$ for all i .*

Let (D_i) be a principal system, and (g_1, \dots, g_n) a set of principal generators belonging to (D_i) . For convenience an element $h \in \mathfrak{A}$ will be called "unitary" with respect to (D_i) if η_0 in the expression $h = \sum_{u \in \mathfrak{B}} \eta_u g^u$, $\eta_u \in \Phi$, is not zero. This property does not depend on the choice of principal generators belonging to (D_i) .

COROLLARY 6.4. *Let (D_i) be a principal system, and let f be a unit in \mathfrak{A} which is unitary with respect to (D_i) . Then $\mathfrak{L}(D_i; -f^{-1} D_i f) \in \mathfrak{F}_0$.*

Proof. In view of Theorem 6.3 it is sufficient to show that there exist $c_0, \dots, c_m \in \mathfrak{A}$ such that $f = \gamma \det(D_i c_j + \delta_{ij})$ with a nonzero element γ in Φ .

It was proved in §9 of [4] that for any principal system (D_i) , there exist elements $\alpha_i \in \Phi$ such that the derivation $D = \sum \alpha_i D_i$ satisfy the condition:

$$(6.4.1) \quad Dh = 0 \text{ implies } h \in \Phi.$$

Let (g_1, \dots, g_n) be a set of principal generators belonging to (D_i) , and $Dg^u = \delta_u g^u$, $\delta_u \in \Phi$. Then (6.4.1) yields $\delta_u \neq 0$ for all $u \neq 0$. Now let $f = \sum_{u \in \mathfrak{B}} \gamma_u g^u$, $\gamma_u \in \Phi$, where $\gamma_0 \neq 0$ by hypothesis. Put $c = \gamma_0^{-1} \sum_{u \neq 0} \gamma_u \delta_u^{-1} g^u$, $c_i = \alpha_i c$. Then $f = \gamma_0(1 + Dc)$, and we have $\det(D_i c_j + \delta_{ij}) = 1 + \sum D_i c_i = 1 + Dc$, and hence $f = \gamma_0 \det(D_i c_j + \delta_{ij})$. Thus Corollary 6.4 is proved.

7. Some lemmas. Algebras in \mathfrak{F}_e are those obtained by setting $b = \sum \beta_w g^w = 1$ in the characterization (5.0.1)–(5.0.5), and will be considered in this section and the one following. For our purposes, however, it is more convenient to consider the algebra $\bar{\mathfrak{L}}$ which is defined as follows: Assuming always that

$\beta_0 = 1, \beta_u = 0$ for $w \neq 0$ in (5.0.1)–(5.0.5), then

- (i) if $\mathfrak{L} \in \mathfrak{F}_e$ is of type II, then we set $\bar{\mathfrak{L}} = \mathfrak{L}$;
- (ii) if $\mathfrak{L} \in \mathfrak{F}_e$ is of type I and if either $m > 1$ or $k = 0$, then we set $\bar{\mathfrak{L}}$ to be the algebra consisting of all $\sum (x_u, u) \in \mathfrak{L}$ such that $x_k = 0$;
- (iii) if $\mathfrak{L} \in \mathfrak{F}_e$ is of type I, if $m = 1$, and if $k \neq 0$, then we set $\bar{\mathfrak{L}}$ to be the algebra consisting of all $\sum (x_u, u) \in \mathfrak{L}$ such that $x_k = x_{2k} = 0$.

We shall assume $p \neq 2$ in case (iii) and also in case (i) if $m = 1$. With this assumption we shall prove that $\bar{\mathfrak{L}}$ is simple. Then we see from the result in §5 that $\bar{\mathfrak{L}}$ in case (i), $\bar{\mathfrak{L}}'$ in case (ii), and $\bar{\mathfrak{L}}''$ in case (iii) are simple and of dimensions mp^n , $m(p^n - 1)$, and $p^n - 2$, respectively. In this section we shall prepare for the proof of the simplicity of $\bar{\mathfrak{L}}$.

LEMMA 7.1. *If nonzero elements u, v in \mathfrak{B} are such that $x \cdot u = 0$, where $x \in \mathfrak{K}$, implies $x \cdot v = 0$, and vice versa, then there exists a nonzero $\lambda \neq 0$ in Φ such that $x \cdot u = \lambda x \cdot v$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{K}$.*

Proof. There exist $\alpha_{ij} \in \Phi$ such that $x \cdot u = \sum_{i=0}^m \sum_{j=1}^n \xi_i \alpha_{ij} u_j$, where $x = (\xi_0, \dots, \xi_m)$, $u = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$. Set $\beta_i = \sum_j \alpha_{ij} u_j$, $\gamma_i = \sum_j \alpha_{ij} v_j$. Then our hypothesis implies that $\xi_0 \beta_0 + \dots + \xi_m \beta_m = 0$ if and only if $\xi_0 \gamma_0 + \dots + \xi_m \gamma_m = 0$. Therefore, there exists a nonzero $\lambda \in \Phi$ such that $\beta_i = \lambda \gamma_i$ for all i , so that $x \cdot u = \lambda x \cdot v$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{K}$.

An element $(x, u) \in \bar{\mathfrak{L}}$ will be called a *u-term* or simply a term. Let \mathfrak{J} be a nonzero ideal of $\bar{\mathfrak{L}}$, and let $A = \sum_{i=1}^r (x_i, u_i)$, where $x_i \neq 0$, $i = 1, \dots, r$, and where u_1, \dots, u_r are distinct, be a nonzero element in \mathfrak{J} such that the number r of nonzero terms is as small as possible. Such an element A will be called a *minimal* element in \mathfrak{J} .

LEMMA 7.2. *Suppose $k \neq 0$. If $A = \sum (x_i, u_i)$ is a minimal element in an ideal $\mathfrak{J} \neq 0$, then, for any distinct i and $j \leq r$ there exists a nonzero $\lambda \in \Phi$ such that $x \cdot (u_j - u_i) = \lambda x \cdot k$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{K}$.*

Proof. By Lemma 7.1, it is sufficient to show that $y \cdot k = 0$ implies $y \cdot (u_i - u_j) = 0$. Consider $A' = A \circ (y, 0) = \sum_{i=1}^r ((y \cdot u_i) x_i, u_i)$. Since $A' \in \mathfrak{J}$, $A' - (y \cdot u_j) A$ is also in \mathfrak{J} and has less than r nonzero terms. Hence $A' = (y \cdot u_j) A$, from which it follows that $(y \cdot u_i) x_i - (y \cdot u_j) x_i = 0$. Therefore $y \cdot (u_i - u_j) = 0$.

LEMMA 7.3. *Suppose $k = 0$. If $A = \sum (x_i, u_i)$ is a minimal element in \mathfrak{J} , then, for any i and j , there exists a nonzero $\lambda \in \Phi$ such that $x \cdot u_i = \lambda x \cdot u_j$ for all $x \in R$.*

Proof. By Lemma 7.1, it is sufficient to show that $y \cdot u_1 = 0$ if and only if $y \cdot u_i = 0$. Let $y \cdot u_1 = 0$. Then $A' = A \circ (y, -u_1) \in \mathfrak{J}$, and A' contains less than r terms, so that $A' = 0$. Therefore

$$(7.3.1) \quad (x_i \cdot u_1) y + (y \cdot u_i) x_i = 0$$

for all i . Since $x_i \cdot u_i = 0$, (7.3.1) yields $(x_i \cdot u_1)(y \cdot u_i) = 0$. Suppose $y \cdot u_i \neq 0$.

Then $x_i \cdot u_1 = 0$, and hence (7.3.1) yields $y \cdot u_i = 0$, a contradiction. Thus $y \cdot u_i = 0$, and Lemma 7.3 is proved.

LEMMA 7.4. *If $A = \sum (x_i, u_i)$ is a minimal element in \mathfrak{F} , then $x_i \cdot u_j = 0$ for any $i \neq j$.*

Proof. Since $A \circ (x_i, u_i)$ contains less than r terms, we have $(x_j, u_j) \circ (x_i, u_i) = 0$ for any i and j . Hence

$$(7.4.1) \quad (x_i \cdot u_j)x_j - (x_j \cdot u_i)x_i = 0.$$

Therefore $(x_i \cdot u_j)(x_j \cdot u_j) - (x_j \cdot u_i)(x_i \cdot u_j) = 0$. Suppose $x_i \cdot u_j \neq 0$. Then (7.4.1) yields

$$(7.4.2) \quad x_j \cdot (u_j - u_i) = 0.$$

If $k = 0$ then Lemma 7.4 follows immediately from Lemma 7.3. Hence we assume $k \neq 0$. Then by Lemma 7.2 there exists $\lambda \neq 0$ such that $x_j \cdot (u_j - u_i) = \lambda x_j \cdot k$. Therefore (7.4.2) gives $x_j \cdot k = 0$, and hence $x_j \cdot u_j = 0$. Then by (7.4.2) we have $x_j \cdot u_i = 0$. But then (7.4.1) yields $x_i \cdot u_j = 0$, since $x_j \neq 0$. This is a contradiction, and Lemma 7.4 is proved.

LEMMA 7.5. *If $r > 1$ for a minimal element in \mathfrak{F} , then \mathfrak{F} contains a minimal element $\sum (x_i, u_i)$ such that $u_1 \neq 0$, $u_2 \neq 0$.*

Proof. If $k = 0$, then every $u_i \neq 0$, and hence the lemma is clear. Suppose that $k \neq 0$, $u_1 \neq 0$, $u_2 = 0$. Since $x_2 \neq 0$, there exists $v \in \mathfrak{F}$ such that $x_2 \cdot v \neq 0$. If $u_1 + v = 0$ then $x_2 \cdot v = -x_2 \cdot u_1 = 0$ by Lemma 7.4, which is a contradiction. Hence

$$(7.5.1) \quad u_1 + v \neq 0, \quad v \neq 0.$$

There exists a nonzero element $y \in \mathfrak{R}$ such that $y \cdot (v - k) = 0$. Consider $A' = A \circ (y, v) \in \mathfrak{F}$. Then $A' = \sum (x'_i, u'_i)$ contains a term $((x_2 \cdot v)y, v) \neq 0$. Therefore A' is a minimal element, and $u'_1 = u_1 + v \neq 0$, $u'_2 = v \neq 0$ by (7.5.1).

LEMMA 7.6. *Suppose $m > 1$. If $A = \sum (x_i, u_i)$ is a minimal element in \mathfrak{F} , and if $u_i \neq 0$ for some i , then $x_j \cdot k = 0$ for all $j \neq i$.*

Proof. The subspace \mathfrak{R}' of \mathfrak{R} consisting of all x' such that $x' \cdot u_i = 0$ is of dimension $m > 1$. Hence there exists $y \in \mathfrak{R}'$ such that y and x_j are linearly independent. The element $A' = A \circ (y, k - u_i)$ is in \mathfrak{F} and contains less than r terms. Hence $A' = 0$, and we have $(x_j, u_i) \circ (y, k - u_i) = (x_j \cdot (k - u_i))y - (y \cdot u_j)x_j = 0$ for $j \neq i$. Since y and x_j are linearly independent, we have $x_j \cdot (k - u_i) = 0$. Then, by Lemma 7.4, we have $x_j \cdot k = 0$, as required.

LEMMA 7.7. *Suppose $m = 1$, $p > 2$, $k \neq 0$. If $\sum_{i=1}^p (x_i, u_i)$ is a minimal element in $\mathfrak{F} \neq 0$, and if $r > 1$, then $x_i \cdot k = 0$ for all i .*

Proof. We may assume $i = 1$. We have $x_1 \cdot (u_1 - k) = 0$, and $x_1 \cdot u_2 = 0$ by

Lemma 7.4. Hence $x_1 \cdot (u_1 - u_2 - k) = 0$. On the other hand, there exists a nonzero $\lambda \in \Phi$ such that

$$(7.7.1) \quad x \cdot (u_1 - u_2) = \lambda x \cdot k$$

for all $x \in \mathfrak{R}$. By setting $x = x_1$ in (7.7.1), we have $(\lambda - 1)x_1 \cdot k = 0$. If $\lambda \neq 1$ then $x_1 \cdot k = 0$, as required. Suppose $\lambda = 1$. Then by (7.7.1) we have $x \cdot (u_1 - u_2) = x \cdot k$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{R}$. Therefore \mathfrak{R} is of type I, and we may assume $u_1 - u_2 = k$. Hence $u_2 \neq 0$, and we have $x_2 \cdot (u_2 + k) = 0$, $x_2 \cdot (u_2 - k) = 0$. Since $p \neq 2$, we have $x_2 \cdot u_2 = x_2 \cdot k = 0$. By Lemma 7.4, $x_1 \cdot u_2 = 0$. Now the subspace \mathfrak{R}' consisting of all x' such that $x' \cdot u_2 = 0$ is of dimension $m = 1$, since $0 \neq u_2 \in \mathfrak{B}$. Hence $x_1 = \mu x_2$ with some $\mu \in \Phi$. Then $x_1 \cdot k = \mu x_2 \cdot k = 0$, as required.

LEMMA 7.8. If $A = \sum_{i=1}^r (x_i, u_i)$, $x_i \neq 0$, is a minimal element in a nonzero ideal \mathfrak{J} in $\bar{\mathfrak{R}}$, where p is assumed $\neq 2$ if both of $k \neq 0$ and $m = 1$ hold, then $r = 1$.

Proof. Suppose $r > 1$. We shall derive a contradiction.

First consider the case $k \neq 0$. By Lemma 7.5, we may assume that $u_1 \neq 0$, $u_2 \neq 0$. Then, by Lemmas 7.6 and 7.7, we have $x_i \cdot u_i = x_i \cdot k = 0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, r$. Since $x_1 \neq 0$, there exists an element $v \in \mathfrak{B}$ with $x_1 \cdot v \neq 0$. Then $x_1 \cdot (v - k) \neq 0$, since $x_1 \cdot k = 0$. The subspaces $\mathfrak{R}' = \{x' \mid x' \cdot (v - k) = 0\}$ and $\mathfrak{R}'' = \{x'' \mid x'' \cdot k = 0\}$ are both of dimension m . Since $x_1 \notin \mathfrak{R}'$, $x_1 \in \mathfrak{R}''$ we have $\mathfrak{R}' \neq \mathfrak{R}''$. Let $y \in \mathfrak{R}'$, $y \notin \mathfrak{R}''$. Then $y \cdot (v - k) = 0$, $y \cdot k \neq 0$, and also $u_i + v \neq 0$ for all i . Since

$$(7.8.1) \quad A' = A \circ (y, v) = \sum ((x_i \cdot v)y - (y \cdot u_i)x_i, u_i + v)$$

is a minimal element, by Lemmas 7.6 and 7.7, we have $(x_i \cdot v)(y \cdot k) - (y \cdot u_i)(x_i \cdot k) = 0$ for all i . Since $x_i \cdot k = 0$, $y \cdot k \neq 0$, we have $x_i \cdot v = 0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, r$, a contradiction. Therefore $r = 1$, as required.

Next consider the case $k = 0$. Choose $v \in \mathfrak{B}$, as before, such that $x_1 \cdot v \neq 0$, and $y \in \mathfrak{R}$ such that $y \cdot v = 0$, $y \cdot u_1 \neq 0$. Consider A' given by (7.8.1). By Lemma 7.4, we have $(x_1 \cdot v)y - (y \cdot u_1)x_1 \cdot (u_i + v) = 0$ for all i , and hence $(x_1 \cdot v)(y \cdot u_i) = (y \cdot u_1)(x_1 \cdot v)$, which yields $y \cdot (u_i - u_1) = 0$, since $x_1 \cdot v \neq 0$. By Lemma 7.3, there exists a nonzero $\lambda \in \Phi$ such that $y \cdot u_i = \lambda y \cdot u_1$. Then $(\lambda - 1)(y \cdot u_1) = 0$. Since $y \cdot u_1 \neq 0$, $\lambda = 1$. Then $x \cdot u_i = x \cdot u_1$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{R}$, and hence $u_i = u_1$, $r = 1$. Thus Lemma 7.8 is proved.

In the following, we shall denote by $\mathfrak{R}(u)$, where $u \in \bar{\mathfrak{B}}$, the subspace $\mathfrak{R}' = \{x' \mid x' \cdot u = 0\}$ of R , provided there exists at least one element $x \in \mathfrak{R}$ such that $x \cdot u \neq 0$. Note that $\mathfrak{R}(u)$, if it exists, is always of dimension m . If \mathfrak{R} is of type II and if $u \in \mathfrak{B}$ then by (4.2.2) there exists $x \in \mathfrak{R}$ such that $x \cdot (u - k) \neq 0$, and hence we can always define $\mathfrak{R}(u - k)$.

LEMMA 7.9. If $0 \neq (x, u) \in \mathfrak{J}$, an ideal of $\bar{\mathfrak{R}}$, and if $x \notin \mathfrak{R}(v - k)$, $x \notin \mathfrak{R}(v - 2k)$, then all v -terms are contained in \mathfrak{J} .

Proof. Since $x \notin \mathfrak{R}(v - 2k)$, we have $v - u \neq k$. Let y_1, \dots, y_m be a basis

of $\Re(v-u-k)$. Then $(z_i, v) = (x, u) \circ (y_i, v-u) \in \mathfrak{F}$, where $z_i = (x \cdot v - u)y_i - (y_i \cdot u)x$. It is sufficient to show that z_1, \dots, z_m are linearly independent. Suppose $\sum \lambda_i z_i = 0$ with $\lambda_i \in \Phi$. Then

$$(7.9.1) \quad (x \cdot v - u) \sum \lambda_i y_i - (\sum \lambda_i y_i \cdot u)x = 0.$$

Since $y_i \in \Re(v-u-k)$, (7.9.1) yields $(\sum \lambda_i y_i \cdot u)(x \cdot v - u - k) = 0$. However, $(x \cdot v - u - k) = (x \cdot v - 2k) \neq 0$. Hence $\sum \lambda_i y_i \cdot u = 0$. Then (7.9.1) gives $\sum \lambda_i y_i = 0$, because $(x \cdot v - u) = (x \cdot v - k) \neq 0$, and since y_1, \dots, y_m are linearly independent, $\lambda_i = 0, i = 1, \dots, m$.

LEMMA 7.10. *If all u -terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} and if $\Re(u-k) \neq \Re(v-k)$, $\Re(u-k) \neq \Re(v-2k)$, then all v -terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} .*

Proof. By Lemma 7.9, it is sufficient to show that there exists $x \in \Re(u-k)$ such that $x \notin \Re(v-k)$, $x \notin \Re(v-2k)$. Suppose that every $x \in \Re(u-k)$ is either in $\Re(v-k)$ or in $\Re(v-2k)$. Let $x_i \in \Re(u-k)$ be such that $x_i \in \Re(v-ik)$, $i = 1, 2$. Then $x_1 \in \Re(v-2k)$ and $x_2 \in \Re(v-k)$. Then $x = x_1 + x_2 \in \Re(v-ik)$, $i = 1, 2$, and $x \in \Re(u-k)$.

LEMMA 7.11. *Suppose $k \neq 0$. If $0 \neq (x, 0) \in \mathfrak{F}$ and if $x \cdot v \neq 0$, then all v -terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} . If all 0 -terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} and if $\Re(k) \neq \Re(v)$ then all v -terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} .*

Proof. Lemma 7.11 follows immediately from Lemmas 7.9 and 7.10, since $x \cdot k = 0$.

LEMMA 7.12. *Suppose $p \neq 2$. If $0 \neq x \in \Re$ then there exists $u \in \mathfrak{B}$ such that $x \notin \Re(u-k)$, $x \notin \Re(u-2k)$.*

Proof. If $x \cdot (u' - k) = 0$ for all $u' \in \mathfrak{B}$, then $x \cdot u' = 0$ for all $u' \in \mathfrak{B}$, and hence $x = 0$. Therefore there exists $u' \in \mathfrak{B}$ such that $x \cdot (u' - k) \neq 0$. If $x \cdot (u' - 2k) \neq 0$, then $u = u'$ is the required element. Suppose $x \cdot (u' - 2k) = 0$. Then $x \cdot (u' - k) = x \cdot k \neq 0$. Hence $k \neq 0$ and $u = 0$ is the required element of \mathfrak{B} , since $x \cdot 2k \neq 0$ follows from $p \neq 2$.

LEMMA 7.13. *Suppose that $k \neq 0$ and that $p > 2$ if $m = 1$. Then all 0 -terms are contained in any ideal $\mathfrak{F} \neq 0$ of $\bar{\mathfrak{R}}$.*

Proof. First consider the case $p \neq 2$. By Lemma 7.8 there exists a nonzero element (x', u') in \mathfrak{F} . Since $x' \neq 0$, by Lemma 7.12 there exists $u \in \mathfrak{B}$ such that $x' \notin \Re(u-k)$, $x' \notin \Re(u-2k)$. Then, by Lemma 7.9, all u -terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} . Let $0 \neq x \in \Re(u-k)$. Then, again by Lemma 7.12, there exists $v \in \mathfrak{B}$ such that $x \notin \Re(v-ik)$, $i = 1, 2$. Thus by Lemma 7.9 all v -terms are in \mathfrak{F} , and clearly $\Re(u-k) \neq \Re(v-k)$. Now $\Re(-k) = \Re(-2k)$, since $p \neq 2$. Since $\Re(u-k) \neq \Re(v-k)$, we see that either $\Re(u-k)$ or $\Re(v-k)$ is different from $\Re(-k) = \Re(-2k)$. Then by Lemma 7.10 all 0 -terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} .

Next consider the case $p = 2, m > 1$. Let $0 \neq (x, u) \in \mathfrak{F}$. If $x \cdot k = 0$ then take

$v \in \mathfrak{B}$ such that $x \cdot v \neq 0$. Hence $x \cdot (v - k) \neq 0$. Since $\mathfrak{R}(k)$ and $\mathfrak{R}(v - k)$ are different and both of dimension m , there exists $y \in \mathfrak{R}(v - k)$ such that $y \notin \mathfrak{R}(k)$. Consider $(x', u + v) = (x, u) \circ (y, v) = ((x \cdot v)y - (y \cdot u)x, u + v)$. Then $(x', u + v) \in \mathfrak{F}$, and $x' \cdot k = ((x \cdot v)y - (y \cdot u)x) \cdot k = (x \cdot v)(y \cdot k) \neq 0$. Therefore we may assume that there exists a nonzero element (x, u) in \mathfrak{F} such that $x \cdot k \neq 0$. Let $x_1 = x, x_2, \dots, x_m$ be a basis of $\mathfrak{R}(u - k)$. Put $(y_i, 0) = (x_1, u) \circ (x_i, u)$. Then $(y_i, 0) \in \mathfrak{F}$ and $y_i = (x_1 \cdot k)x_i - (x_i \cdot k)x_1$. Since $x_1 \cdot k \neq 0$, the elements y_2, \dots, y_m form a basis of $\mathfrak{R}(u - k) \cap \mathfrak{R}(k)$. Set $y_2 = y$. Then there exists $v \in \mathfrak{B}$ such that $y \cdot v \neq 0$. Since $y \cdot k = 0$, we have $y \cdot (v - k) \neq 0$. Since $\mathfrak{R}(k) \neq \mathfrak{R}(v - k)$, there exists $z \in \mathfrak{R}(v - k)$ such that $z \notin \mathfrak{R}(k)$. Now $(y, 0) \circ (z, v) = ((y \cdot v)z, v) \in \mathfrak{F}$. Since $y \cdot v \neq 0$, we have $(z, v) \in \mathfrak{F}$. Now $z \cdot k \neq 0$ implies, as before, that $(z', 0) \in \mathfrak{F}$ for any $z' \in \mathfrak{R}(v - k) \cap \mathfrak{R}(k)$. We have $(y, 0) \in \mathfrak{F}$ with $y \notin \mathfrak{R}(v - k) \cap \mathfrak{R}(k)$. Since $\mathfrak{R}(v - k) \cap \mathfrak{R}(k)$ is of dimension $m - 1$, we see that all 0-terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} .

8. **Simplicity of $\bar{\mathfrak{L}}$.** We are now ready to prove the following

THEOREM 8.1. *If $\mathfrak{L} \in \mathfrak{F}_0$, then the first derived algebra \mathfrak{L}' is simple for any prime $p > 0$. \mathfrak{L}' is of dimension $m(p^n - 1)$, where $1 \leq m < n$.*

Proof. If $\mathfrak{L} \in \mathfrak{F}_0$ then \mathfrak{L} belongs to the case(ii) of §7 with $k = 0$. Therefore, by Theorem 5.1, it is sufficient to show that $\bar{\mathfrak{L}}$ is simple for this case.

Let \mathfrak{F} be a nonzero ideal of $\bar{\mathfrak{L}}$. By Lemma 7.8, \mathfrak{F} contains an element of the form $(x, u) \neq 0$. Since $x \neq 0$ there exists $v \in \mathfrak{B}$ such that $x \cdot v \neq 0$. Then by Lemma 7.9 all v -terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} . Now, let nonzero $w \in \mathfrak{B}$ be such that $x \cdot w = 0$. Since $x \cdot v \neq 0$, we have $\mathfrak{R}(w) \neq \mathfrak{R}(v)$. Hence there exists $y \in \mathfrak{R}(v)$ such that $y \notin \mathfrak{R}(w)$. Since (y, v) is a v -term, we have $(y, v) \in \mathfrak{F}$. Then, by Lemma 7.9, $y \in \mathfrak{R}(w)$ implies that all w -terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} . Therefore $\mathfrak{F} = \bar{\mathfrak{L}}$, and hence $\bar{\mathfrak{L}} = \mathfrak{L}'$ is simple.

In the following, we shall denote by \mathfrak{F}_I , and \mathfrak{F}_{II} , the subfamilies of \mathfrak{F} consisting of all algebras of types I and II respectively. Then $\mathfrak{F}_0 \subset \mathfrak{F}_I$. Let $\mathfrak{F}_I - \mathfrak{F}_0$ be the set-theoretical difference of \mathfrak{F}_I and \mathfrak{F}_0 .

THEOREM 8.2. *If $m > 1$ then the first derived algebra \mathfrak{L}' of any algebra \mathfrak{L} in $\mathfrak{F}_0 \cap (\mathfrak{F}_I - \mathfrak{F}_0)$ is simple and of dimension $m(p^n - 1)$, where $1 < m < n$, for any prime $p > 0$.*

Proof. As in the proof of Theorem 8.1, it is sufficient to show that $\bar{\mathfrak{L}}$ is simple for the case (ii) of §7 when $k \neq 0$.

Let \mathfrak{F} be a nonzero ideal of $\bar{\mathfrak{L}}$. By Lemma 7.13, all 0-terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} . Hence by Lemma 7.11, if $\mathfrak{R}(u) \neq \mathfrak{R}(k)$ then all u -terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} .

Suppose that $\mathfrak{R}(u) = \mathfrak{R}(k)$, with $u \neq k, 2k$. Then $\mathfrak{R}(u - k) = \mathfrak{R}(u - 2k) = \mathfrak{R}(k)$. Let $0 \neq x \in \mathfrak{R}(k)$, $x \cdot v \neq 0$, $v \in \mathfrak{B}$. Then $\mathfrak{R}(k) \neq \mathfrak{R}(v)$ and hence by Lemma 7.11 all v -terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} . We have $x \cdot (v - k) = x \cdot (v - 2k) = x \cdot v \neq 0$. Hence $\mathfrak{R}(v - k) \neq \mathfrak{R}(u - k) = \mathfrak{R}(u - 2k)$. Then by Lemma 7.10 all u -terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} .

Suppose now $u = 2k \neq 0$. Then $p \neq 2$. Choose $v \in \mathfrak{B}$ such that $\mathfrak{R}(v) \neq \mathfrak{R}(k)$. Then $\mathfrak{R}(2k-v) \neq \mathfrak{R}(k)$. Therefore by Lemma 7.11 all v -terms and all $2k-v$ terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} . Let x_1, \dots, x_m be a basis of $\mathfrak{R}(v-k)$, and let $x_1 \cdot k \neq 0$. We set $(y_i, 2k) = (x_i, v) \circ (x_i, 2k-v)$. Then $(y_i, 2k) \in \mathfrak{F}$ and y_2, \dots, y_m are linearly independent. Hence $(y, 2k) \in \mathfrak{F}$ for any $y \in \mathfrak{R}(v-k) \cap \mathfrak{R}(k)$. Let $0 \neq y \in \mathfrak{R}(v-k) \cap \mathfrak{R}(k)$, which is possible since $m > 1$, and let $y \cdot v' \neq 0$. Then $\mathfrak{R}(v') \neq \mathfrak{R}(k)$, and as before $(y', 2k) \in \mathfrak{F}$ for any $y' \in \mathfrak{R}(v'-k) \cap \mathfrak{R}(k)$. Since $y \notin \mathfrak{R}(v'-k) \cap \mathfrak{R}(k)$, all $2k$ -terms are contained in \mathfrak{F} . Thus $\mathfrak{F} = \bar{\mathfrak{F}}$, which proves the simplicity of $\bar{\mathfrak{F}} = \mathfrak{F}'$.

The following two theorems may be proved similarly.

THEOREM 8.3. *Suppose $m = 1$, $p > 2$. Then the second derived algebra \mathfrak{F}'' of any algebra \mathfrak{F} in $\mathfrak{F}_c \cap (\mathfrak{F}_I - \mathfrak{F}_0)$ is simple and of dimension $p^n - 2$, where $n > 1$.*

THEOREM 8.4. *Suppose $p > 2$ if $m = 1$. Then any algebra \mathfrak{F} in $\mathfrak{F}_c \cap \mathfrak{F}_{II}$ is simple and of dimension mp^n , where $1 \leq m < n$.*

9. Remarks. Let g_1, \dots, g_n be a set of principal generators of \mathfrak{A} . The algebra considered by M. S. Frank [2] is obtained as $\mathfrak{F} = \mathfrak{F}(D_1, \dots, D_n; a_1, \dots, a_n)$ by setting $D_i = \partial/\partial g_i$, $a_1 = \dots = a_n = 0$. Put $D'_i = g_i \partial/\partial g_i$. Then (D'_i) is a principal system equivalent to (D_i) , and $\mathfrak{F}(D_i; 0) = \mathfrak{F}(D'_i; a'_i)$, where $a'_i = \dots = a'_n = -1$, as is easily seen from (2.2.3). Put $k = (-1, \dots, -1) \in \mathfrak{B}$. Then $a'_i = e_i \cdot k$ for all i . Hence \mathfrak{F} falls into the family considered in Theorem 8.2. \mathfrak{F}' is simple and of dimension $(n-1)(p^n-1)$ if $n > 2$.

The algebra denoted by the notation \mathfrak{F}_n in [1] is obtained as $\mathfrak{F}(D_i, a_i)$ by setting $D_i = \partial/\partial g_i$, $a_i = 1$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Set $D'_i = g_i \partial/\partial g_i$ as before. Then (2.2.3) yields $a'_i = g_i - 1$. Suppose that $\mathfrak{F} = \mathfrak{F}(D'_i, a'_i)$ is of type I. Then there exists a nonzero $b \in \mathfrak{A}$ such that $(D'_i - a_i)b = 0$ for all i , from which it follows easily that $\partial(bg_i)/\partial g_i = bg_i$ for all i . Hence we have $bg_i = 0$, $b = 0$, a contradiction. Thus \mathfrak{F}_n is of type II, and hence of dimension $(n-1)p^n$. The authors have been unable to decide whether or not $\mathfrak{F} \in \mathfrak{F}_c$. If $\mathfrak{F} \in \mathfrak{F}_c$ then \mathfrak{F} will fall into the family considered in Theorem 8.4.

Consider now any simple algebra \mathfrak{F} of dimension $p^n - 1$ obtained by setting $m = 1$ in our Theorem 8.1. It is spanned by elements of the form $g^u(\xi_0 D_0 + \xi_1 D_1)$, where g_1, \dots, g_n is a set of principal generators belonging to the principal system (D_0, D_1) and where $\xi_0, \xi_1 \in \Phi$ are such that $\xi_0 D_0 g^u + \xi_1 D_1 g^u = 0$. Therefore we may take as a basis of \mathfrak{F} elements of the form $e_u = (D_1 g^u) D_0 - (D_0 g^u) D_1$, u running over all elements $\neq 0$ in \mathfrak{B} . Set

$$D_1 g^u = \phi_i(u) g^u, \quad i = 0, 1; \quad \phi(u, v) = \phi_1(u) \phi_0(v) - \phi_0(u) \phi_1(v).$$

Then it is easily seen that $e_u \circ e_v = \phi(u, v) e_{u+v}$ for all u and v . The function $\phi(u, v)$ is a skew-symmetric bilinear form with respect to u and v . Therefore the algebra \mathfrak{F} becomes a special case of the algebras considered in Theorem 11 of [1] if $\phi(u, v)$ satisfies the condition:

(9.0.1) $\phi(u, v) = 0$ if and only if u and v are linearly dependent over $GF(p)$.

However, an arbitrary principal system (D_0, D_1) , which can be used to define a simple algebra of dimension $p^n - 1$ as in Theorem 8.1, does not always satisfy the condition (9.0.1).

Similar remarks may be made about the connection between simple algebras of dimension $p^n - 2$ given in our Theorem 8.3 and those in Theorem 12 of [1].

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