

SURJECTIVE STABILITY IN DIMENSION 0 FOR K_2 AND RELATED FUNCTORS

BY

MICHAEL R. STEIN

ABSTRACT. This paper continues the investigation of generators and relations for Chevalley groups over commutative rings initiated in [14]. The main result is that if A is a semilocal ring generated by its units, the groups $L(\Phi, A)$ of [14] are generated by the values of certain cocycles on $A^* \times A^*$. From this follows a surjective stability theorem for the groups $L(\Phi, A)$, as well as the result that $L(\Phi, A)$ is the Schur multiplier of the elementary subgroup of the points in A of the universal Chevalley-Demazure group scheme with root system Φ , if Φ has large enough rank. These results are proved via a Bruhat-type decomposition for a suitably defined relative group associated to a radical ideal. These theorems generalize to semilocal rings results of Steinberg for Chevalley groups over fields, and they give an effective tool for computing Milnor's groups $K_2(A)$ when A is semilocal.

Let Φ_l be a reduced irreducible root system of rank l and A a commutative ring with 1. There is an exact sequence

$$(1) \quad 1 \rightarrow L(\Phi_l, A) \rightarrow \text{St}(\Phi_l, A) \rightarrow E(\Phi_l, A) \rightarrow 1$$

where $\text{St}(\Phi_l, A)$ is the Steinberg group [14, (3.7)] and $E(\Phi_l, A)$ is the elementary subgroup of the points in A of the universal Chevalley-Demazure group scheme with root system Φ_l [14, (3.3)]. If Φ_m is a second such root system, containing Φ_l as a subsystem generated by a connected subgraph of the Dynkin diagram of Φ_m , there are induced homomorphisms $\theta(l, m): L(\Phi_l, A) \rightarrow L(\Phi_m, A)$, and Steinberg [17] has shown these are surjective for all $m \geq l \geq 1$ when A is a field. In this paper I will prove that this is true for any semilocal ring A with at most one residue field isomorphic to \mathbb{F}_2 . I will also show, in this case, that the groups $L(\Phi_l, A)$ are generated by the values of certain cocycles on $A^* \times A^*$ and that (1) is a central extension (and not just stably central; cf. [14, (5.1)]), theorems again due to Steinberg [17] when A is a field. These results were announced in [13].

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In general one conjectures that $\theta(l, m)$ is surjective for all $m \geq l \geq d$, where d is a fixed positive integer related to the dimension of the maximal ideal space of A ; the theorem proved here may thus be thought of as the dimension 0 case of a surjective stability theorem for $L(\Phi_l, \cdot)$. If Φ_l belongs to one of the infinite families A_l, B_l, C_l, D_l , one deduces, under the same hypotheses, the surjectivity of

$$\theta(l, \infty): L(\Phi_l, A) \rightarrow L(\Phi_\infty, A) = \lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} L(\Phi_l, A).$$

This reveals one motivation of the present research, since $L(A_\infty, \cdot)$ is Milnor's algebraic K_2 functor [9].

The paper proceeds as follows. Let $q \subset A$ be an ideal, and write $(1 + q)^*$ for the units congruent to 1 modulo q . In §1 I define pairings ('relative Steinberg symbols')

$$\{ , \} : A^* \times (1 + q)^* \rightarrow L(\Phi_l, q)$$

and recall some of their properties. In §2 I prove, when $q \subset \text{rad } A$, a normal form for the relative group $\text{St}(\Phi, q)$ analogous to the Bruhat decomposition of the Chevalley groups over fields [17, 7.6]. This implies that the groups $L(\Phi_l, q)$ are generated by the relative symbols of §1, and, therefore, that $L(\Phi_l, q) \rightarrow L(\Phi_m, q)$ is surjective for all $m \geq l \geq 1$. Combining this with Steinberg's theorem for fields yields the above-mentioned results for semilocal rings. In addition the theorems of this section allow one to deduce a presentation for $E(\Phi, A)$ of such a semilocal ring.

In §3 I compute $L(\Phi_l, A)$ for various local rings, using the results of §§1 and 2. In §4 I apply these results to the problem of surjective stability for the maps

$$H_2(\text{SL}_2(A), \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_2(E(\Phi_l, A), \mathbb{Z}).$$

The reader primarily interested in K_2 should note the following. Milnor's groups $E_{n+1}(A), \text{St}_{n+1}(A)$ are the groups $E(A_n, A), \text{St}(A_n, A)$ of this paper ($n \geq 2$), and $K_2(A) = L(A_\infty, A)$. The symbols $\{ , \}_\alpha$ are always bilinear in this case. A positive root $\alpha \in A_n$ is to be identified with a pair (ij) , $1 \leq i < j \leq n+1$; $-\alpha$ then corresponds to (ji) .

Milnor's K_2 theory exists for noncommutative rings as well, and most of the results of §2 remain true in this case, provided certain elements in A^* lie in $[A^*, A^*]$. I have omitted a discussion of these points since the surjective stability theorem for K_2 of noncommutative semilocal rings has recently been obtained by Dennis [3], based on work of Silvester [12].

When $A = K$ is a field, Matsumoto [8] has shown that the maps $\theta(l, m)$ are *injective* as well. This injective stability theorem remains true for radical ideals in the semilocal rings considered here, and will be the subject of a subsequent paper [15].

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Notation and terminology. The definitions, notations and terminology regarding root systems, Chevalley groups, Steinberg groups and their subgroups and relations are to be found in [14, §3]. However in this paper we always assume that the Chevalley-Demazure group schemes in question are *universal* [14, (3.3)]. If $\Phi_l \subset \Phi_m$ are reduced irreducible root systems, we say they are *of the same type* if they satisfy

- (a) Φ_l is generated by a connected subgraph of the Dynkin diagram of Φ_m .
- (b) If Φ_m is symplectic, then Φ_l is also symplectic and at least one long root of Φ_m occurs in Φ_l .

The inclusions $D_l \subset B_l$ violate (a) and the inclusions $A_{l-1} \subset C_l$, $l > 2$, violate (b).

The reader is reminded that the relative groups used in this paper differ from those of [9] and [16] (cf. the warnings following [14, (3.13)]). However the results of this paper *do* apply to the relative groups of [16], as follows from [16, (1.1), (2.5) and (2.6)].

All rings are commutative with 1; all homomorphisms *preserve* 1. If A is a ring, $\text{rad } A$ is its *Jacobson radical* and A^* is its *multiplicative group of units*. A pair (A, q) consists of a ring A together with an ideal $q \subset A$; if $q \subset \text{rad } A$ we say (A, q) is a *radical pair*. We write $(1 + q)^* = (1 + q) \cap A^*$. If T is a subset of A , the *subring of A generated by T* is denoted $\mathbb{Z}[T]$.

Let G be a group. For $\sigma, \tau \in G$ we write $\tau\sigma = \tau\sigma\tau^{-1}$, $[\tau, \sigma] = \tau\sigma \cdot \sigma^{-1} = \tau\sigma\tau^{-1}\sigma^{-1}$.

If H, K are subgroups of G , $[H, K]$ is the subgroup generated by $\{[h, k], h \in H, k \in K\}$; in particular the *commutator subgroup* of G is $[G, G]$. We write $G^{ab} = G/[G, G]$. If G is finite, $|G|$ is its *order*.

Finally, \mathbb{Z} denotes the *rational integers* and \mathbb{F}_q a *finite field with q elements*.

1. Relative Steinberg symbols and the subgroup $L(\Phi, A) \cap \hat{K}(\Phi, q)$. Recall [14, (3.12)] that $\hat{H}(\Phi, q)$ is the smallest *normal* subgroup of $\hat{H}(\Phi, A)$ containing all $\hat{h}_\alpha(v)$, $\alpha \in \Phi$, $v \in (1 + q)^*$. $\hat{H}(\Phi, q)$ is a subgroup of $\text{St}(\Phi, q)$ (cf. (2.7)(a)).

Definition. Let $\alpha \in \Phi$, $u, v \in A^*$, and set

$$(1) \quad \{u, v\}_\alpha = \hat{h}_\alpha(uv) \hat{h}_\alpha(u)^{-1} \hat{h}_\alpha(v)^{-1}.$$

The subgroup of $\hat{H}(\Phi, A)$ generated by all $\{u, w\}_\alpha$, $\{w, u\}_\alpha$, where $u \in A^*$, $w \in (1 + q)^*$ and α ranges over Φ is denoted $D(\Phi, q)$. $D(\Phi, q)$ is a subgroup of $\text{St}(\Phi, q)$ (cf. (2.7)(a)).

It follows from relation (R8) that for all $\alpha, \beta \in \Phi$,

$$(2) \quad \{u^{\langle \beta, \alpha \rangle}, v\}_{\beta} = [\hat{b}_{\alpha}(u), \hat{b}_{\beta}(v)].$$

Thus if there is an $\alpha \in \Phi$ with $\langle \beta, \alpha \rangle = 1$, we have $\{u, v\}_{\beta} \in [\hat{H}(\Phi, A), \hat{H}(\Phi, q)] \subset \hat{H}(\Phi, q)$. This will be the case *except* when Φ is symplectic and β is long.

The following proposition summarizes various well-known identities satisfied by $\{, \}_{\alpha}$. Proofs may be found in [8, 5.5–5.7], [10, 3.2, 3.9, Appendix] and [18, Lemma 39 and Theorem 12].

(1.1) **Proposition.** *Let $\alpha \in \Phi$, $u, v, w \in A^*$. Then $\{u, v\}_{\alpha}^{-1} = \{v, u\}_{-\alpha}$. Writing $\{, \} = \{, \}_{\alpha}$, the following identities hold in $D(\Phi, A)$:*

$$(S1) \quad \{u, 1\} = \{1, u\} = 1.$$

$$(S2) \quad \{u, v\}\{uv, w\} = \{u, vw\}\{v, w\}.$$

$$(S3) \quad \{u, v\} = \{u^{-1}, v^{-1}\}.$$

$$(S4) \quad \{u, v\} = \{u, -uv\}.$$

$$(S5) \quad \{u, v\} = \{u, (1-u)v\} \text{ if } 1-u \in A^*.$$

$$(S6) \quad \{u, v^2w\} = \{u, v^2\}\{u, w\}; \{u^2, vw\} = \{u^2, v\}\{u^2, w\}; \{u^2, v\} = \{u, v^2\}; \{u, v\} = \{v^{-1}, u\}; \{u, -1\} = \{u, v\}\{u, -v^{-1}\}.$$

$$(S7) \quad \text{If } u, v \text{ generate a cyclic subgroup of } A^*, \text{ then } \{u, v\} = \{v, u\}.$$

$$(S8) \quad \text{If } \{u, v\} = \{v, u\}, \text{ then } \{u, v^2\} = 1.$$

Moreover, if Φ is nonsymplectic or if α is short,

$$(S^{\circ}2) \quad \{u, vw\} = \{u, v\}\{u, w\}.$$

$$(S^{\circ}3) \quad \{u, v\} = \{v, u\}^{-1}.$$

Remarks. 1. The above identities are not independent. For example, (S1)–(S4) imply (S6)–(S8), and if Φ is nonsymplectic or if α is short, (S1)(S5)(S[°]2)(S[°]3) imply the others. (Cf. [10, Appendix].)

2. Identity (S5), which is of great importance for computations when A is a field, is valueless when $u \in (1+q)^*$ (since in that case $1-u \notin A^*$ if $q \neq A$). A new identity which can sometimes be used to replace (S5) in such computations when $q \subset \text{rad } A$ will be proved in (2.8).

(1.2) **Definition.** A relative Steinberg symbol on the pair (A, q) with values in an abelian group C is a mapping

$$\{, \}: A^* \times (1+q)^* \rightarrow C$$

satisfying (S1)–(S5) of (1.1) and (2.8). When $q = A$, we call $\{, \}$ a Steinberg symbol. If (S[°]2) holds, we call $\{, \}$ a (relative) bilinear Steinberg symbol. We sometimes abbreviate “Steinberg symbol” to “symbol.”

In this paper the word symbol will always refer to one of the symbols $\{, \}$ with values in $D(\Phi, q)$ constructed above.

Let $\hat{K}(\Phi, q)$ be the subgroup of $\text{St}(\Phi, q)$ generated by $D(\Phi, q)$ and all $\hat{b}_{\alpha}(v)$, $\alpha \in \Phi$, $v \in (1+q)^*$.

(1.3) **Proposition.** (a) $D(\Phi, q)$ is a central subgroup of $\text{St}(\Phi, A)$.

(b) $\hat{H}(\Phi, q) \subset \hat{K}(\Phi, q)$, and

$$[\hat{H}(\Phi, A), \hat{H}(\Phi, q)] \subset L(\Phi, A) \cap \hat{H}(\Phi, q) \subset L(\Phi, A) \cap \hat{K}(\Phi, q) \subset D(\Phi, q),$$

with equality if Φ is nonsymplectic or if every element of $(1 + q)^*$ is a square.

(c) $D(\Phi, q)$ is generated by all $\{u, v\}_\alpha$, $u \in A^*$, $v \in (1 + q)^*$ for any fixed long root α . Hence if $\Phi_l \subset \Phi_m$ are reduced irreducible root systems of the same type, the homomorphism $D(\Phi_l, q) \rightarrow D(\Phi_m, q)$ is surjective for all $m \geq l \geq 1$, including $m = \infty$ if Φ is classical.

Since $H(A)$ is an abelian subgroup of $E(\Phi, A)$ [18, Lemma 28(b)], $D(\Phi, q)$ is a subgroup of $\hat{H}(\Phi, A) \cap L(\Phi, A)$, and the latter group is central in $\text{St}(\Phi, A)$ [18, p. 39, Corollary 1]. This also proves $[\hat{H}(\Phi, A), \hat{H}(\Phi, q)] \subset L(\Phi, A) \cap \hat{H}(\Phi, q)$, since $\hat{H}(\Phi, q)$ is normal in $\hat{H}(\Phi, A)$.

If $u \in A^*$, $v \in (1 + q)^*$, then

$$\hat{h}_\alpha(u)\hat{h}_\beta(v)\hat{h}_\alpha(u)^{-1} = \hat{h}_\beta(u^{\langle \beta, \alpha \rangle}v)\hat{h}_\beta(u^{\langle \beta, \alpha \rangle})^{-1} = \{u^{\langle \beta, \alpha \rangle}, v\}_\beta \hat{h}_\beta(v) \in \hat{K}(\Phi, q).$$

Since $D(\Phi, q)$ is central in $\text{St}(\Phi, q)$ by (a), this shows that $\hat{K}(\Phi, q)$ is a normal subgroup of $\hat{H}(A)$ containing all $\hat{h}_\alpha(v)$; hence $\hat{H}(\Phi, q) \subset \hat{K}(\Phi, q)$. Thus $L(\Phi, A) \cap \hat{H}(\Phi, q) \subset L(\Phi, A) \cap \hat{K}(\Phi, q)$.

Given $\hat{h} \in \hat{K}(\Phi, q)$, it follows from [17, 7.7] that we may write $\hat{h} = d\hat{h}_1(u_1) \cdots \hat{h}_l(u_l)$ where $d \in D(q)$, $\hat{h}_i(u_i) = \hat{h}_{\alpha_i}(u_i)$, $\alpha_i \in \Delta$, and $u_i \in (1 + q)^*$. Then if

$$1 = \pi(\hat{h}) = b_1(u_1) \cdots b_l(u_l)$$

we must have $u_i = 1$ for all i , since $E(\Phi, A)$ is a subgroup of a *universal* Chevalley group [18, Corollary to Lemma 28]. Hence $\hat{h}_i(u_i) = 1$ for all i ; that is, $\hat{h} = d \in D(q)$ proving the last inclusion of (b).

Now if Φ is nonsymplectic, it follows from (2) that $D(\Phi, q) \subset [\hat{H}(\Phi, A), \hat{H}(\Phi, q)]$, and the inclusions in (b) are equalities. If Φ is symplectic, we may assume $\langle \beta, \alpha \rangle = 2$ and (2) becomes

$$(3) \quad \{u^2, v\}_\beta = [\hat{h}_\alpha(u), \hat{h}_\beta(v)].$$

By (1.1), $\{u^2, v\}_\beta = \{u, v^2\}_\beta$; thus it follows from (3) that if every $v \in (1 + q)^*$ is a square, again

$$D(\Phi, q) \subset [\hat{H}(\Phi, A), \hat{H}(\Phi, q)]$$

which completes the proof of (b).

For fixed β , let D_β be the subgroup of $D(\Phi, q)$ generated by all $\{u, v\}_\beta$, $u \in A^*$, $v \in (1 + q)^*$. Let $\sigma = \sigma_\alpha$ be an element of the Weyl group of Φ . Then relation (R5) and (a) imply

$$\begin{aligned}
\{u, v\}_\beta &= \hat{w}_\alpha(1) \cdot \{u, v\}_\beta \cdot \hat{w}_\alpha(-1) \\
&= \hat{w}_\alpha(1) \cdot \hat{h}_\beta(uv) \hat{h}_\beta(u)^{-1} \hat{h}_\beta(v)^{-1} \cdot \hat{w}_\alpha(-1) \\
&= \hat{h}_{\sigma\beta}(\eta uv) \hat{h}_{\sigma\beta}(\eta)^{-1} \hat{h}_{\sigma\beta}(\eta) \hat{h}_{\sigma\beta}(\eta u)^{-1} \hat{h}_{\sigma\beta}(\eta) \hat{h}_{\sigma\beta}(\eta v)^{-1} \\
&= \hat{h}_{\sigma\beta}(\eta uv) \hat{h}_{\sigma\beta}(\eta u)^{-1} \hat{h}_{\sigma\beta}(v)^{-1} \hat{h}_{\sigma\beta}(v) \hat{h}_{\sigma\beta}(\eta) \hat{h}_{\sigma\beta}(\eta v)^{-1} \\
&= \{\eta u, v\}_{\sigma\beta} \{\eta, v\}_{\sigma\beta}^{-1}
\end{aligned}$$

for some $\eta = \pm 1$. This proves $D_\beta \subset D_{\sigma\beta}$, and, by symmetry, $D_\beta = D_{\sigma\beta}$. Since the Weyl group acts transitively on roots of the same length, we have shown that if α and β have the same length, $D_\alpha = D_\beta$.

Suppose then that β is short and choose a long root α such that $\langle \beta, \alpha \rangle = 1$. Then by (2)

$$(4) \quad \{u, v\}_\beta = [\hat{h}_\alpha(u), \hat{h}_\beta(v)] = [\hat{h}_\beta(v), \hat{h}_\alpha(u)]^{-1} = \{v, u\}_\alpha^{-1} = \{v, u\}_\alpha^{-1}$$

which proves $D_\beta \subset D_\alpha$. Since by (1.1)(S6) $\{v, u\}_\alpha = \{u^{-1}, v\}_\alpha$, we have shown $D_\alpha = D(\Phi, q)$, proving the first part of (c); the rest of (c) is now an easy corollary.

Remark. In view of (1.3) we will usually write $\{, \}$ for $\{, \}_\alpha$; in that case it is to be understood that the symbol in question is taken with respect to a fixed long root α .

2. The relative Bruhat decomposition for a radical ideal.

(2.1) **Lemma.** Let $\alpha \in \Delta$.

- (a) $\hat{U}(\Phi, q) = \hat{U}(\Phi_+ - \{\alpha\}, q) \cdot \hat{U}(\alpha, q)$.
- (a-) $\hat{U}^-(\Phi, q) = \hat{U}(\Phi_- - \{-\alpha\}, q) \cdot \hat{U}(-\alpha, q)$.
- (b) $\hat{U}(\Phi_+ - \{\alpha\}, q)$ is normalized by $\text{St}_\alpha(A)$.
- (b-) $\hat{U}(\Phi_- - \{-\alpha\}, q)$ is normalized by $\text{St}_\alpha(A)$.

The set of roots $\Phi_+ - \{\alpha\}$ (resp. $\Phi_- - \{-\alpha\}$) is an ideal in the closed sets of roots Φ_+ and $(\Phi_+ - \{\alpha\}) \cup \{-\alpha\}$ (resp. Φ_- and $(\Phi_- - \{-\alpha\}) \cup \{\alpha\}$). The lemma thus follows from [18, Lemmas 16, 17, 18, 36].

Definition. Set $\hat{M}(\Phi, q) = \hat{U}^-(\Phi, q) \hat{K}(\Phi, q) \hat{U}(\Phi, q)$, a subset of $\text{St}(\Phi, q)$ (cf. (2.7)). Recall from (1.3) that if Φ is nonsymplectic or if $((1 + q)^*)^2 = (1 + q)^*$, then $\hat{K}(\Phi, q) = \hat{H}(\Phi, q)$, and that in any case, $\hat{K}(\Phi, q)$ is the product of the central subgroup $D(\Phi, q)$ with the group generated by all $\hat{h}_\alpha(v)$, $v \in (1 + q)^*$. Thus $\pi(\hat{K}(\Phi, q)) = H(\Phi, q)$.

$$(2.2) \text{ Lemma. } \hat{U}^-(\Phi, q) \hat{K}(\Phi, q) \hat{M}(\Phi, q) = \hat{M}(\Phi, q) = \hat{M}(\Phi, q) \hat{K}(\Phi, q) \hat{U}(\Phi, q).$$

This follows from relation (R6) which shows that $\hat{H}(\Phi, q)$, and therefore also $\hat{K}(\Phi, q)$, normalizes $\hat{U}^-(\Phi, q)$ and $\hat{U}(\Phi, q)$.

(2.3) **Theorem.** (a) *The product map*

$$\hat{U}^-(\Phi, q) \times \hat{K}(\Phi, q) \times \hat{U}(\Phi, q) \rightarrow \text{St}(\Phi, q)$$

is injective.

(b) $L(\Phi, A) \cap \hat{M}(\Phi, q) \subset \hat{K}(\Phi, q)$.

(c) $\hat{M}(\Phi, q) = \text{St}(\Phi, q)$ implies $q \subset \text{rad } A$.

Suppose $\hat{u}, \hat{u}' \in \hat{U}(q)$, $\hat{v}, \hat{v}' \in \hat{U}^-(q)$ and $\hat{k}, \hat{k}' \in \hat{K}(q)$. Then if $\hat{v}\hat{k}\hat{u} = \hat{v}'\hat{k}'\hat{u}'$, we have

$$\pi(\hat{v}'\hat{v}^{-1}) = \pi(\hat{k}'\hat{u}'\hat{u}^{-1}\hat{k}^{-1}) \in U^-(A) \cap U(A)H(A) = \{1\}$$

by [18, Lemma 21]. Hence $\hat{v} = \hat{v}'$, since $\pi|_{\hat{U}^-(A)}$ is an isomorphism [18, Lemma 36]. Similarly $\hat{u} = \hat{u}'$, and therefore $\hat{k} = \hat{k}'$, proving (a).

Now suppose $\pi(\hat{v}\hat{k}\hat{u}) = 1$. Then $\pi(\hat{v}) = \pi(\hat{u}^{-1}\hat{k}^{-1}) \in U^-(A) \cap U(A)H(A) = \{1\}$ implies $\hat{v} = 1$; hence $\hat{u} = 1$ also, proving (b).

Finally, it is easily checked in $\text{SL}(2, A)$ that $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in U^{-1}HU$ implies $a \in A^*$. Moreover, $\phi_\alpha^{-1}(U^{-1}HU) \subset U^{-1}HU$, where the decomposition on the right is in $\text{SL}(2, A)$ and $\phi_\alpha: \text{SL}(2, A) \rightarrow E_\alpha(A)$ is the homomorphism of [14, (3.6)].

Applying these remarks to

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1+q & -q \\ q & 1-q \end{pmatrix} \in \phi_\alpha^{-1}(\pi(x_\alpha(1)x_{-\alpha}(q)x_\alpha(-1)))$$

for any $q \in q$, we see that $\hat{M}(q) = \text{St}(q)$ implies $(1+q) \subset A^*$ and therefore, $q \subset \text{rad } A$. This proves (c).

The key result of this section is the following partial converse to (2.3)(c):

(2.4) **Theorem.** *Let (A, q) be a radical pair and assume $A = \mathbf{Z}[A^*]$. Then $\text{St}(\Phi, q) = \hat{M}(\Phi, q)$.*

(2.5) **Theorem.** *Let (A, q) be a radical pair with $A = \mathbf{Z}[A^*]$, and suppose $\Phi_l \subset \Phi_m$ are reduced irreducible root systems of the same type. Then $L(\Phi_m, q)$ is generated by all $\{u, v\}_\alpha$, $u \in A^*$, $v \in (1+q)^*$ for any fixed long root α , and the homomorphisms $L(\Phi_l, q) \rightarrow L(\Phi_m, q)$ are surjective for all $m \geq l \geq 1$, including $m = \infty$ if Φ_m is classical.*

If, in addition, Φ_m and A satisfy one of the hypotheses of [14, Theorem 5.3], $\text{St}(\Phi_m, (0, q))$ is the universal $E(\Phi_m, A)$ -covering [14, §2] of $E(\Phi_m, q)$.

This theorem is a corollary of (2.3)(b), (2.4) and (1.3).

Note. The hypothesis $A = \mathbf{Z}[A^*]$ is innocent. It is fulfilled, for example, by semilocal rings having at most one residue field with 2 elements [14, (4.2)] (in particular, by local rings) and by group rings.

The proof of (2.4) will be based on a series of lemmas.

(2.6) **Lemma.** Let $\alpha \in \pm \Delta$, $t \in A$. Then $x_\alpha(t)$ normalizes $M(q)$ if and only if $x_\alpha(t)\hat{U}(-\alpha, q)x_\alpha(-t) \subset \hat{M}(q)$.

The "only if" is clear. For the converse, we assume $\alpha \in \Delta$ (the case $\alpha \in -\Delta$ is similar). By (2.1)(a⁻), we have

$$\hat{M}(q) = \hat{U}(\Phi_- - \{-\alpha\}, q) \cdot \hat{U}(-\alpha, q) \cdot \hat{K}(q) \cdot \hat{U}(q).$$

Since $x_\alpha(t)$ normalizes $\hat{U}(\Phi_- - \{-\alpha\}, q)$ by (2.1)(b⁻) and also normalizes $\hat{U}(q)$, it suffices to prove

$$x_\alpha(t) \cdot \hat{U}(-\alpha, q) \hat{K}(q) \cdot x_\alpha(-t) \subset \hat{M}(q)$$

and, in view of the hypothesis and (2.2), that would follow from

$$x_\alpha(t) \cdot \hat{K}(q) \cdot x_\alpha(-t) \subset \hat{K}(q)U(q)$$

which is true since $\hat{K}(q) \subset \hat{H}(A)$ and $\hat{H}(A)$ normalizes $\hat{U}(q)$ by relation (R6).

(2.7) **Proposition.** Let $u, v \in A^*$, $\alpha \in \Phi$. The following identities hold in $\text{St}(\Phi, A)$:

$$\begin{aligned} & \{u, v\}_\alpha \hat{b}_\alpha(v) \\ (a) \quad &= x_{-\alpha}(u^{-1}(1 - v^{-1})) \cdot x_{-\alpha}(-u^{-1}) x_\alpha(u(v - 1)) \cdot x_\alpha(u(v^{-1} - 1)), \\ & x_{-\alpha}(-u^{-1}) x_\alpha(u(v - 1)) \\ (b) \quad &= x_{-\alpha}(u^{-1}(v^{-1} - 1)) \{u, v\}_\alpha \hat{b}_\alpha(v) x_\alpha(u(1 - v^{-1})), \\ & x_\alpha(-u) x_{-\alpha}(u^{-1}(1 - v)) \\ (c) \quad &= x_{-\alpha}(u^{-1}(v^{-1} - 1)) \{u, v\}_\alpha \hat{b}_\alpha(v) x_\alpha(u(1 - v^{-1})). \end{aligned}$$

Proof. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} \{u, v\}_\alpha \hat{b}_\alpha(v) &= \hat{b}_\alpha(uv) \hat{b}_\alpha(u)^{-1} = \hat{w}_\alpha(uv) \hat{w}_\alpha(-u) \\ &= \hat{w}_{-\alpha}(-u^{-1}v^{-1}) \hat{w}_\alpha(-u) \\ &= x_{-\alpha}(-u^{-1}v^{-1}) x_\alpha(uv) x_{-\alpha}(-u^{-1}v^{-1}) \hat{w}_\alpha(-u) \\ &= x_{-\alpha}(-u^{-1}v^{-1}) \cdot x_\alpha(uv) \hat{w}_\alpha(-u) \cdot \hat{w}_\alpha^{(u)} x_{-\alpha}(-u^{-1}v^{-1}) \\ &= x_{-\alpha}(-u^{-1}v^{-1}) \cdot x_\alpha(uv) x_\alpha(-u) x_{-\alpha}(u^{-1}) x_\alpha(-u) \cdot x_\alpha(uv^{-1}) \\ &= x_{-\alpha}(u^{-1}(1 - v^{-1})) x_{-\alpha}(-u^{-1}) \cdot x_\alpha(u(v - 1)) x_{-\alpha}(u^{-1}) x_\alpha(u(v^{-1} - 1)) \\ &= x_{-\alpha}(u^{-1}(1 - v^{-1})) \cdot x_{-\alpha}(-u^{-1}) x_\alpha(u(v - 1)) \cdot x_\alpha(u(v^{-1} - 1)). \end{aligned}$$

(b) follows immediately from (a).

(c) In (b) exchange α with $-\alpha$ and u with u^{-1} ; then take the inverse of each side. The identities $\hat{b}_{-\alpha}(v)^{-1} = \hat{b}_\alpha(v)$ and $\{u^{-1}, v\}_{-\alpha}^{-1} = \{v, u^{-1}\}_\alpha = \{u, v\}_\alpha$ complete the proof.

(2.8) **Corollary.** Let $\alpha \in \Phi$, $q \in \text{rad } A$. For all $u, v, u', v' \in \Lambda^*$ such that $u + v = u' + v'$, the symbol $\{, \}_\alpha$ satisfies the identity

$$\begin{aligned} & \{u, (1 + qz)/(1 + qv)\}_\alpha \{v, 1 + qv\}_\alpha \{1 + qv, -(1 + qz)\}_\alpha^{-1} \\ \text{(Sq)} \quad &= \{u', (1 + qz)/(1 + qv')\}_\alpha \{v', 1 + qv'\}_\alpha \{1 + qv', -(1 + qz)\}_\alpha^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

where $z = u + v = u' + v'$. Moreover if $z \in \Lambda^*$, both sides of (S9) equal $\{z, 1 + qz\}_\alpha$.

Since $u + v = u' + v'$, we must have

$$(1) \quad x_\alpha(-u)x_\alpha(-v)x_{-\alpha}(q) = x_\alpha(-z)x_{-\alpha}(q) = x_\alpha(-u')x_\alpha(-v')x_{-\alpha}(q).$$

We will use (2.7) to put (1) into $\hat{M}(q)$; (S9) will then follow by comparing the terms in $\hat{K}(q)$ which are uniquely determined according to (2.3)(a).

Write $w = 1 - qv \in \Lambda^*$. Then $q = v^{-1}(1 - w)$ and $w^{-1} - 1 = qvw^{-1}$; applying (2.7)(c) with $u = v$, $v = w$ yields

$$(2) \quad x_\alpha(-v)x_{-\alpha}(q) = x_{-\alpha}(qw^{-1})\{v, w\}_\alpha \hat{b}_\alpha(w)x_\alpha(-qv^2u^{-1}).$$

Similarly write $x = 1 - quw^{-1} = w^{-1}(1 - qz) \in \Lambda^*$; then $qw^{-1} = u^{-1}(1 - x)$, $x^{-1} - 1 = qu(1 - qz)^{-1}$ and we have

$$(3) \quad x_\alpha(u)x_{-\alpha}(qw^{-1}) = x_{-\alpha}(q(1 - qz)^{-1})\{u, x\}_\alpha \hat{b}_\alpha(x)x_\alpha(-qu^2(1 - qz)^{-1}).$$

Combining (2) and (3), and simplifying using relation (R6) and the definition of $\{, \}_\alpha$ gives the identity

$$\begin{aligned} & x_\alpha(-u)x_\alpha(-v)x_{-\alpha}(q) \\ \text{(4)} \quad &= x_{-\alpha}(q(1 - qz)^{-1})\{u, x\}_\alpha \{v, w\}_\alpha \{v, x\}_\alpha^{-1} \hat{b}_\alpha(1 - qz)x_\alpha(-qz^2(1 - qz)^{-1}). \end{aligned}$$

(It should be noted that in deriving (4) we need only the weaker hypotheses $u, v, 1 - qv, 1 - qu, 1 - qz \in \Lambda^*$; this will be important in (2.9) below.) We perform a similar calculation for $x_\alpha(-u')x_\alpha(-v')x_{-\alpha}(q)$; the identity follows by comparing the terms in $\hat{K}(q)$ (noting that $\hat{b}_{-\alpha}(1 - qz)$ depends only on z) and replacing q by $-q$.

Finally if $z \in \Lambda^*$, we may use (2.7)(c) to compute $x_\alpha(z)x_{-\alpha}(q)$ directly; comparing $\hat{K}(q)$ terms, we see that $\{z, 1 + qz\}_\alpha$ must equal both sides of (S9).

(2.9) **Corollary.** Let $u, v \in \Lambda^*$, $\alpha \in \Phi$ and write $p = u - 1$, $q = v - 1$. Then if $pq = 0$, $\{1 + q, 1 + p\}_\alpha = [x_{-\alpha}(q), x_\alpha(p)]$.

We will compute the right-hand side using (4) above. Make the substitutions $-u = u$, $-v = -1$, $q = -q$ in (4); then $z = -p$, $1 - qz = 1 - qp = 1$, $x^{-1} = w = 1 + q$, and

$$x_{-\alpha}^{x_{\alpha}(p)}(-q) = x_{\alpha}^{x_{\alpha}(u)x_{\alpha}(-1)}(-q) = x_{-\alpha}(-q)\{-u, x\}_{\alpha}\{x^{-1}, x\}_{\alpha}^{-1}.$$

Therefore

$$[x_{-\alpha}(q), x_{\alpha}(p)] = \{-u, x\}_{\alpha}\{x^{-1}, x\}_{\alpha}^{-1}.$$

But (1.1) implies

$$\{-u, x\}_{\alpha}\{u^{-1}, x\}_{\alpha} = \{-1, x\}_{\alpha} = \{x^{-1}, x\}_{\alpha}$$

and therefore

$$[x_{-\alpha}(q), x_{\alpha}(p)] = \{u^{-1}, x\}_{\alpha}^{-1} = \{x, u^{-1}\}_{-\alpha} = \{x^{-1}, u\}_{-\alpha} = \{1+q, 1+p\}_{-\alpha}$$

which yields the desired result by interchanging α and $-\alpha$.

(2.10) **Proposition.** *Let (A, q) be a radical pair. Then $\hat{M}(q)$ is a normal subgroup of $\text{St}(\Phi, Z[A^*])$.*

Let us first show that (2.10) completes the proof of (2.4). The hypotheses of (2.4) imply that $\text{St}(\Phi, A) = \text{St}(\Phi, Z[A^*])$; thus by (2.10), $\hat{M}(q)$ is a normal subgroup of $\text{St}(\Phi, A)$ containing all $\hat{U}(\alpha, q)$. Therefore $\text{St}(\Phi, q) \subset \hat{M}(q)$. But $\hat{M}(q) \subset \text{St}(\Phi, q)$, whence (2.4).

Now let us prove (2.10). $\text{St}(\Phi, Z[A^*])$ is generated by all $x_{\alpha}(t)$, $\alpha \in \pm \Delta$, $t \in A^*$. By (2.6), the set $\hat{M}(q)$ is normalized by $\text{St}(\Phi, Z[A^*])$ if and only if $x_{\alpha(t)}x_{-\alpha}(q) \in \hat{M}(q)$ for all $\alpha \in \pm \Delta$, $t \in A^*$, $q \in q$. Since $q \in Z[A^*]$, this follows from (2.7)(b) and (c).

Now since $\hat{U}^-(q) \subset \text{St}(\Phi, Z[A^*])$, we have

$$\hat{M}(q)\hat{M}(q) = \hat{M}(q)\hat{U}^-(q)\hat{K}(q)\hat{U}(q) = \hat{U}^-(q)\hat{M}(q)\hat{K}(q)\hat{U}(q) = \hat{M}(q)$$

by (2.2). Therefore $\hat{M}(q)$, being the monoid generated by 3 groups, is a group.

Remark. In showing $\hat{M}(q) = \text{St}(\Phi, q)$ for a radical pair (A, q) , the restriction $A = Z[A^*]$ was needed only in verifying (2.6). In $\text{SL}(2, A)$, however, it is easy to show that

$$e_{\alpha}(t)U(-\alpha, q)e_{\alpha}(-t) \subset U^-(q)H(q)U(q);$$

this is simply the matrix equation

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ q & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -t \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ qu^{-1} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u & 0 \\ 0 & u^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -t^2 qu^{-1} \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

where $u = 1 + tq \in A^*$, since $q \in \text{rad } A$. We conclude

(2.11) **Corollary.** *Let (A, q) be a radical pair. Then*

$$E(\Phi, q) = U^-(q)H(q)U(q).$$

(2.12) **Lemma.** *If $\text{rk } \Phi \geq 2$, $\text{St}(\Phi, \cdot)$ preserves finite products. If $\text{rk } \Phi = 1$, $\text{St}(\Phi, A) \times \text{St}(\Phi, B) \approx \text{St}(\Phi, A \times B)/C$, where C is the normal subgroup generated by all $[x_\alpha((a, 0)), x_{-\alpha}((0, b))]$.*

There is always a surjective homomorphism $p: \text{St}(\Phi, A \times B) \rightarrow \text{St}(\Phi, A) \times \text{St}(\Phi, B)$ induced by the projections of $A \times B$ onto its factors. Now $\text{St}(\Phi, A) \times \text{St}(\Phi, B)$ is generated by all $(x_\alpha(a), 1)$, $(1, x_\alpha(b))$, and we may define a map s backwards by

$$(x_\alpha(a), 1) \mapsto x_\alpha((a, 0)), \quad (1, x_\alpha(b)) \mapsto x_\alpha((0, b)).$$

To show this defines an inverse isomorphism to p , we must check that the defining relations of $\text{St}(\Phi, A) \times \text{St}(\Phi, B)$ are preserved by s . These relations are

- (i) the defining relations of $\text{St}(\Phi, A)$ applied to the generators $(x_\alpha(a), 1)$,
- (ii) the defining relations of $\text{St}(\Phi, B)$ applied to the generators $(1, x_\alpha(b))$,
- (iii) $[(x_\alpha(a), 1), (1, x_\beta(b))] = 1$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in \Phi$, $a \in A$, $b \in B$.

It is clear that s preserves (i) and (ii). Moreover relation (R2) in $\text{St}(\Phi, A \times B)$ shows that s preserves (iii) whenever $\beta \neq -\alpha$. Hence the induced map $\bar{s}: \text{St}(A) \times \text{St}(B) \rightarrow \text{St}(A \times B)/C$ is an isomorphism, since $p(C) = 1$. This completes the proof when $\text{rk } \Phi = 1$.

If $\text{rk } \Phi \geq 2$, there exist $\beta, \gamma \in \Phi$, $\beta, \gamma \neq -\alpha$, such that

$$x_{-\alpha}((0, b)) = [x_\beta((0, 1)), x_\gamma((0, b))]_y$$

where $y \in \hat{U}(S, (0, B))$, for some $S \subset \Phi$ with $-\alpha \notin S$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} [x_\alpha((a, 0)), x_{-\alpha}((0, b))] \\ = [x_\alpha((a, 0)), [x_\beta((0, 1)), x_\gamma((0, b))]_y] = 1 \end{aligned}$$

which proves $C = 1$ and the lemma.

(2.13) **Theorem.** *Let A be a semilocal ring with at most one residue field isomorphic to \mathbb{F}_2 , and suppose $\Phi_l \subset \Phi_m$ are reduced irreducible root systems of the same type. Then the homomorphisms $\theta(l, m): L(\Phi_l, A) \rightarrow L(\Phi_m, A)$ are surjective for all $m \geq l \geq 1$, including $m = \infty$ if Φ_m is classical.*

If $l \geq 2$, $L(\Phi_l, A)$ is the central subgroup generated by all $\{u, v\}_\alpha$, $u, v \in A^*$, for any fixed long root α . This is also true when $l = 1$, provided either that A has no residue field isomorphic to \mathbb{F}_2 or that A is a local ring.

If, in addition, Φ_l and A satisfy one of the hypotheses of [14, Theorem 5.3], $\text{St}(\Phi_l, A)$ is the universal covering of $E(\Phi_l, A)$ and $L(\Phi_l, A) \approx H_2(E(\Phi_l, A), \mathbb{Z})$.

Write $\bar{A} = A/\text{rad } A$, a finite product of fields. Steinberg [17] has shown that $L(\Phi, k) = D(\Phi, k)$ when k is a field. Since $E(\Phi, \cdot)$ preserves finite products, it follows from (2.12) that $L(\Phi, \bar{A}) = D(\Phi, \bar{A})$ if $\text{rk } \Phi \geq 2$, and that $L(\Phi, \bar{A})$ is generated by $D(\Phi, \bar{A})$ and C when $\text{rk } \Phi = 1$, where C is the normal subgroup generated by all

$$[x_\alpha((0, \dots, k_i, \dots, 0)), x_{-\alpha}((0, \dots, k_j, \dots, 0))]$$

(the appropriate generalization of the subgroup C of (2.12) when \bar{A} is a product of more than 2 factors).

Now suppose $\text{rk } \Phi = 1$. Then if A is local, $L(\Phi, \bar{A}) = D(\Phi, \bar{A})$ by Steinberg [17]. If A is semilocal but has no residue field isomorphic to F_2 , we want to show $C \subset D(\Phi, \bar{A})$, and it clearly suffices to consider the case $\bar{A} = k \times k'$, a product of two fields. Then by (2.9),

$$[x_\alpha((a, 0)), x_{-\alpha}((0, b))] = \{(1 + a, 1), (1, 1 + b)\}_{-\alpha} \in D(\Phi, \bar{A})$$

provided neither a nor b equals -1 . But even if $a = -1$,

$$\begin{aligned} [x_\alpha((-1, 0)), x_{-\alpha}((0, b))] &= x_\alpha((-1, 0)) [x_{-\alpha}((0, b)), x_\alpha((1, 0))] \\ &= \{(1, 1 + b), (2, 1)\}_\alpha \in D(\Phi, \bar{A}) \end{aligned}$$

and a similar argument applies if $b = -1$. Hence if $-1 \neq 1$, $C \subset D(\Phi, \bar{A})$.

Thus our hypotheses imply $L(\Phi_I, \bar{A}) = D(\Phi_I, \bar{A})$; since $A^* \rightarrow \bar{A}^*$ is surjective, so is $D(\Phi_I, A) \rightarrow L(\Phi_I, \bar{A})$. But our hypotheses also imply (2.5) for $q = \text{rad } A$; therefore $L(\Phi_I, q) = D(\Phi_I, q)$ and the second part of the theorem follows from the exact sequence

$$1 \rightarrow L(\Phi_I, q) \rightarrow L(\Phi_I, A) \rightarrow L(\Phi_I, \bar{A}) \rightarrow 1$$

together with (1.3).

The first part of the theorem is a consequence of the second and (1.3), and the last part follows from [14, (5.3)].

(2.14) Corollary. *Let A be a semilocal ring with at most one residue field isomorphic to F_2 . If $\text{rk } \Phi = 1$, assume further that either A is local, or that A has no residue field isomorphic to F_2 . Then $E(\Phi, A)$ has a presentation by generators $e_\alpha(t)$, $\alpha \in \Phi$, $t \in A$, and relations (R1), (R2) (resp. (R3) if $\text{rk } \Phi = 1$) and*

$$(C) b_\alpha(u) b_\alpha(v) = b_\alpha(uv), \quad u, v \in A^*, \alpha \in \Phi.$$

The proof is the same as [18, Theorem 8(b)] in view of (2.13).

Note. Theorems related to (2.14) have been proved by Silvester [11], [12], and Wardlaw [19].

(2.15) Proposition. *Let \mathfrak{p}, q be ideals of A .*

(a) *If $\text{rk } \Phi = 1$, assume $L(\Phi, q)$ is central in $\text{St}(\Phi, A)$. Then if $\text{St}(\Phi, q)$ is generated by $\hat{M}(q)$,*

$$[\text{St}(\Phi, A), [\text{St}(\Phi, q), \text{St}(\Phi, \mathfrak{p})]] \subset \text{St}(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}q).$$

(b) Suppose $\text{rk} > 1$ and that $2 \in A^*$ if $\Phi = C_2$. If either $\text{St}(\Phi, q)$ is generated by $\hat{M}(q)$ or $\text{St}(\Phi, p^2)$ is generated by $\hat{M}(p^2)$, then

$$[\text{St}(\Phi, q), \text{St}(\Phi, p^2)] \subset \text{St}(\Phi, pq).$$

Suppose M, N are normal subgroups of a group G , and define

$$(M : N) = \{g \in G \mid [g, N] \subset M\}.$$

It follows from the commutator formulas of [14, (2.1)] that $(M : N)$ is a normal subgroup of G . The conclusions of the proposition are thus equivalent to

$$(a') \text{St}(p) \subset ((\text{St}(pq) : \text{St}(A)) : \text{St}(q)),$$

$$(b') \text{St}(p^2) \subset (\text{St}(pq) : \text{St}(q)).$$

The groups on the right in (a') and (b') are normal in $\text{St}(\Phi, A)$; therefore by [14, (2.1)] it suffices to prove

$$(a'') \hat{U}(\alpha, p) \subset ((\text{St}(pq) : \text{St}(A)) : \text{St}(q)),$$

$$(b'') \hat{U}(\alpha, p^2) \subset (\text{St}(pq) : \text{St}(q))$$

for one root α of each length.

If $\beta \neq -\alpha$, (R2) implies that

$$(5) \quad [\hat{U}(\alpha, p), \hat{U}(\beta, q)] \subset \text{St}(pq).$$

Suppose $\text{rk} \Phi > 1$ and that $2 \in A^*$ if $\Phi = C_2$. Then (R2) implies the existence of $\beta, \gamma \in \Phi$ such that

$$\hat{U}(\alpha, p^2) \subset [\hat{U}(\beta, p), \hat{U}(\gamma, p)] \cdot \hat{U}(S, p^2)$$

where $S \subset \Phi$ and $\alpha \notin S$. Therefore

$$(6) \quad [\hat{U}(\alpha, p^2), \hat{U}(-\alpha, q)] \subset [[\hat{U}(\beta, p), \hat{U}(\gamma, p)] \cdot \hat{U}(S, p^2), \hat{U}(-\alpha, q)] \subset \text{St}(pq).$$

(The last inclusion follows from [14, (2.1)] and (5).)

Finally, $\hat{K}(\Phi, q)$ is generated by elements of the form $\{u, v\}_\beta \hat{h}_\beta(v)$, $u \in A^*$, $v \in (1 + q)^*$. Therefore since $\{u, v\}_\beta$ is central, relation (R6) implies

$$[x_\alpha(p), \{u, v\}_\beta \hat{h}_\beta(v)] = [x_\alpha(p), \hat{h}_\beta(v)] = x_\alpha(p'q')$$

for some $p' \in p$, $q' \in q$, which implies that

$$(7) \quad [\hat{U}(\alpha, p), \hat{K}(q)] \subset \text{St}(pq).$$

Clearly (b'') is a consequence of (5), (6), (7); this is true under either hypothesis of (b) since (b') is equivalent to

$$\text{St}(q) \subset (\text{St}(pq) : \text{St}(p^2)).$$

From (5) and (7) we also conclude that

$$[\hat{U}(\alpha, \mathfrak{p}), \text{St}(q)] = \text{St}(\mathfrak{p}q) \cdot [\hat{U}(\alpha, \mathfrak{p}), \hat{U}(-\alpha, q)].$$

It is easily checked, moreover, that in $\text{SL}(2, A)$

$$[U(\alpha, \mathfrak{p}), U(-\alpha, q)] \subset E(\mathfrak{p}q)$$

and therefore

$$[\hat{U}(\alpha, \mathfrak{p}), \text{St}(q)] \subset \text{St}(\mathfrak{p}q) \cdot (L(\Phi, q) \cap \text{St}_\alpha(A)).$$

Since $L(\Phi, A) \cap \text{St}_\alpha(A)$ is central in $\text{St}(\Phi, A)$ (by [14, (5.1)] if $\text{rk } \Phi > 1$ and by hypothesis if $\text{rk } \Phi = 1$), (a) is proved.

(2.16) **Corollary.** *Let (A, q) be a radical pair and assume $A = \mathbb{Z}[A^*]$. If $\mathfrak{p} \subset A$ is an ideal such that $\mathfrak{p}q = 0$, then $[\text{St}(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}), \text{St}(\Phi, q)]$ is central in $\text{St}(\Phi, A)$.*

Moreover if $\text{rk } \Phi > 1$ and $2 \in A^$ if $\Phi = C_2$, then for all $i \geq 2$,*

$$[\text{St}(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}^i), \text{St}(\Phi, q)] = [\text{St}(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}), \text{St}(\Phi, q^i)] = \{1\}.$$

(2.17) **Corollary.** *Let (A, q) be as in (2.15) and suppose further that $q^{n+1} = 0$. Then $\Gamma = [\text{St}(\Phi, q^i), \text{St}(\Phi, q^j)]$ is central in $\text{St}(\Phi, A)$ if $i + j \geq n + 1$.*

If $\text{rk } \Phi > 1$ and if $2 \in A^$ if $\Phi = C_2$, Γ is trivial when $i + j \geq n + 2$.*

3. Some computations for local rings.

(3.1) **Proposition.** *For any pair (A, q) , the sequence*

$$1 \rightarrow L(\Phi, q) \rightarrow L(\Phi, A) \rightarrow L(\Phi, A/q)$$

is exact.

Except for the "1" on the left, this is just [16, (3.2)]. Exactness at the left holds because the group $L(\Phi, q)$ used here is the image under the natural homomorphism of the group $L(\Phi, q)$ of [16], and is therefore a subgroup of $L(\Phi, A)$.

(3.2) **Proposition** [17, 3.3]. *If k is an algebraic extension of a finite field, $L(\Phi, k) = 1$.*

(3.3) **Proposition.** (a) *For every positive integer m not divisible by 4, $L(\Phi, \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}) = 1$, provided $\text{rk } \Phi \geq 2$.*

(b) *For every integer $n \geq 2$, the groups $L(\Phi, \mathbb{Z}/2^{n+1}\mathbb{Z})$ and $L(\Phi, \mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z})$ are isomorphic and are generated by the symbol $\{-1, -1\}$, which has order at most 2 if Φ is nonsymplectic.*

Proof. (a) Since $L(\Phi,)$ commutes with finite products, the Chinese remainder theorem implies we may assume $m = p^n$, p a prime; we may further assume $n > 1$ and $p \neq 2$ by (3.2). Since $\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z}$ satisfies the hypotheses of (2.13), it follows from (3.2) and from (3.1) with $q = \text{rad}(\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z}) = p\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z}$ that $L(\Phi, \mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z})$ is isomorphic

to $L(\Phi, p\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z})$ which, according to (2.5), is generated by all $\{u, v\}$, $u \in (\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z})^*$, $v \in (1 + p\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z})$.

Now $(\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z})^*$ is a cyclic group of order $(p-1)p^{n-1}$, isomorphic to the direct product $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \times (1 + p\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z})$. Hence (1.1)(S7), (S8) imply $\{u, v^2\} = 1$ (u, v as above). Since p is odd, every element of $1 + p\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z}$ is a square, which proves (a).

(b) Again the hypotheses of (2.13) are satisfied. It follows from (1.1)(S1) that $\{-1, -1\}$ is the only possibly nontrivial symbol in $L(\Phi, \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})$, and if Φ is non-symplectic, (1.1)(S $^{\circ}2$) implies that the order of this symbol is at most 2. Since $(\mathbb{Z}/2^{n+1}\mathbb{Z})^* \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z})^*$ is surjective, we have, by (2.13) and (3.1), an exact sequence

$$1 \rightarrow L(\Phi, 2^n\mathbb{Z}/2^{n+1}\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow L(\Phi, \mathbb{Z}/2^{n+1}\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow L(\Phi, \mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow 1$$

for all $n \geq 1$ and all Φ . Thus to complete the proof of (b) it suffices to show

$$L(\Phi, 2^n\mathbb{Z}/2^{n+1}\mathbb{Z}) = 1 \quad \text{for } n \geq 2.$$

Let $n \geq 2$. According to (2.5), $L(\Phi, 2^n\mathbb{Z}/2^{n+1}\mathbb{Z})$ is generated by the symbols $\{1 + 2^n, u\}$, $u \in (\mathbb{Z}/2^{n+1}\mathbb{Z})^*$. Now $(\mathbb{Z}/2^{n+1}\mathbb{Z})^*$ is the direct product of the group $\{\pm 1\}$ with the cyclic group of order 2^{n-1} generated by the residue class of 5 modulo 2^{n+1} . Moreover, an easy induction argument shows that for all $n \geq 2$,

$$(1) \quad 1 + 2^n \equiv 5^s \pmod{2^{n+1}}, \quad s = 2^{n-2}.$$

Now assume $n \geq 3$. Then $1 + 2^n$ is a square and (1.1)(S6) implies that $L(\Phi, 2^n\mathbb{Z}/2^{n+1}\mathbb{Z})$ is generated by the two symbols $\{1 + 2^n, -1\}$, $\{1 + 2^n, 5\}$; since $\{1 + 2^n, -1\} = \{1 + 2^n, 1 + 2^n\} = \{1 + 2^n, 5\}^s$ by (1), this group is generated by the single symbol $\{1 + 2^n, 5\}$. Again applying (1) and computing in $L(\Phi, \mathbb{Z}/2^{n+1}\mathbb{Z})$, we have $\{1 + 2^n, 5\} = \{5^s, 5\} = 1$ by (1.1)(S8).

Now suppose $n = 2$. Then it follows from (2.5) and (1.1)(S1) and (S4) that $L(\Phi, 4\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})$ is also generated by $\{5, -1\}$. Take $q = 2$, $u = v' = -1$, $u' = v = 5$ in (2.8) to conclude that, in $L(\Phi, \mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})$, $1 = \{5, -1\}$.

Note. For the functor $K_2 = \lim_{I \rightarrow \infty} L(A_I, \cdot)$, this proposition was proved by Milnor [9] using his computation of $K_2(\mathbb{Z})$ (cf. [11], [19]) and results of Mennicke, Bass, Lazard and Serre [1] on the congruence subgroup problem.

(3.4) Proposition. *Let A be an artinian ring such that A^* is cyclic, and suppose $\text{rk } \Phi \geq 2$. Then $L(\Phi, A) = 1$, except possibly when A has a direct factor isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$.*

Eldridge and Fischer [4] have shown that if A is artinian and A^* is finitely generated, then A is finite. Moreover, a finite ring is a finite product of primary rings A_1, \dots, A_n (rings with a unique prime ideal); if A^* is cyclic, A_i^* must also be cyclic for $i = 1, \dots, n$ with $|A_i^*|$ and $|A_j^*|$ relatively prime for $i \neq j$. Gilmer

[5] has determined all primary rings with cyclic groups of units; they are

- (a) F_q , q a prime power,
- (b) $\mathbb{Z}/p^m\mathbb{Z}$, p an odd prime, $m > 1$,
- (c) $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$,
- (d) $F_p[X]/(X^2)$, p prime,
- (e) $F_2[X]/(X^3)$,
- (f) $\mathbb{Z}[X]/(4, 2X, X^2 - 2)$.

Since $L(\Phi, \cdot)$ commutes with finite products, it suffices to compute $L(\Phi, A)$ when A is one of the rings in (a)–(f) and we may apply (2.13). Propositions 3.2 and 3.3 above settle cases (a)–(c). In (d), (e), (f) we let x denote the residue class of X in A .

In (d) we use (3.1), with $q = \text{rad } A = 1 + Ax$, and (3.2) to conclude that $L(\Phi, A) \approx L(\Phi, 1 + Ax)$. If ζ is a generator of F_p^* , A^* is the product of the cyclic group $\langle \zeta \rangle$ of order $p - 1$ with the cyclic group $\langle 1 + x \rangle = 1 + Ax$ of order p . If p is odd, $1 + x$ is a square, and $L(\Phi, 1 + Ax)$ is generated by $\{\zeta, 1 + x\}$ and $\{1 + x, 1 + x\}$ according to (2.5) and (1.1)(S6). That these symbols are trivial follows from (1.1)(S6), (S8).

If $p = 2$ in (d), $\zeta = 1$ and $L(\Phi, 1 + Ax)$ is generated by

$$\{1 + x, 1 + x\} = \{1 + x, -(1 + x)\} = 1$$

by (S4) of (1.1).

In (e) and (f), A^* is cyclic of order 4, generated by $1 + x$, and $L(\Phi, A)$ is generated by $\{1 + x, 1 + x\}$. In (e) we have

$$\{1 + x, 1 + x\} = \{1 + x, -(1 + x)\} = 1,$$

and in (f)

$$\{1 + x, 1 + x\} = \{1 + x, (1 + x)^{-1}\} = \{1 + x, -(1 + x)\} = 1,$$

which completes the proof of (3.4).

Our next objective is to generalize Proposition 3.3. *Throughout the rest of this section we will assume A is a local ring whose maximal ideal \mathfrak{p} is principal and generated by μ . We further assume that A/\mathfrak{p} is a finite field containing $q = p^s$ elements.*

For $n \geq 0$, the group of units $(A/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})^*$ is the direct product $\langle \zeta \rangle \times (1 + \mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})$, where $\zeta \in (A/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})^*$ is of order $q - 1$ and maps to a generator of $(A/\mathfrak{p})^* \approx (F_q)^*$. Since A and A/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1} are local, they are generated by their units.

(3.5) **Lemma.** *For all $n \geq 0$ and $1 \leq i \leq n + 1$, the additive group $\mathfrak{p}^i/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ and the multiplicative group $1 + \mathfrak{p}^i/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ have exponent p^{n-i+1} . Hence if p is odd, every element of $1 + \mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ is a square.*

The map $a \mapsto \bar{a}\bar{\mu}^n$ induces, for all $n \geq 0$, an isomorphism of additive groups

$$A/\mathfrak{p} \approx \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$$

where we write \bar{a} for the residue class of $a \in A$ modulo \mathfrak{p}^{n+1} . Since $(\mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})^2 = 0$, $1 + \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1} \approx \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ and both, therefore, have exponent p . The lemma follows by descending induction on i and the exact sequences

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \rightarrow \mathfrak{p}^{i+1}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathfrak{p}^i/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathfrak{p}^i/\mathfrak{p}^{i+1} \rightarrow 0, \\ 1 \rightarrow (1 + \mathfrak{p}^{i+1}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}) \rightarrow (1 + \mathfrak{p}^i/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}) \rightarrow (1 + \mathfrak{p}^i/\mathfrak{p}^{i+1}) \rightarrow 1. \end{aligned}$$

(3.6) **Lemma.** *Let k be a finite field. Every element of k is a sum of squares. Every element of k is a sum of fourth powers if and only if $k \neq \mathbb{F}_9$.*

Let $k = \mathbb{F}_q$, $q = p^n$, and let d be a positive nonzero integer. The subset S of k consisting of sums of d th powers is closed under addition, multiplication and subtraction, since $-1 = p - 1 = 1^d + \dots + 1^d$. Hence S , being a subdomain of a finite field, is a subfield of k , and $S = \mathbb{F}_r$, $r = p^m$ for some m dividing n . In particular, $p^m - 1$ divides $p^n - 1$ with quotient c .

Choose an $x \in k^*$ of order $p^n - 1$. Then $x^d \in S$ and thus $x^{d(p^m - 1)} = 1$, which implies $p^n - 1 \mid d(p^m - 1)$. Hence $c(p^m - 1) \mid d(p^m - 1)$ and $c \mid d$. If $d = 2$, then $c = 1$ or 2 . If $c = 2$, then

$$2p^m - 2 = p^n - 1, \quad p^m(2 - p^{n-m}) = 1, \quad p = 1.$$

Thus $c = 1$ and $n = m$.

If $d = 4$ we must have $c = 1, 2$ or 4 , and we have seen above that $c = 2$ leads to a contradiction. If $c = 4$, then

$$p^m(4 - p^{n-m}) = 3, \quad p = 3, \quad m = 1, \quad n = 2,$$

and it is easily checked that $(\mathbb{F}_9)^4 = \mathbb{F}_3$.

Note. I would like to thank Armand Brumer who supplied the neat proof of this lemma.

(3.7) **Corollary.** *The symbols $\{1 + s, 1 + t\}$, $s \in \mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$, $t \in \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ generate $D(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})$.*

Recall from (1.3) that $D(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})$ is the subgroup of $L(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})$ generated by all $\{u, 1 + t\}$, $u \in (A/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})^*$, $t \in \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$. Write $u = \zeta^i(1 + s)$, $s \in \mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$, where ζ is of order $q - 1$. Then if p is odd, $1 + s$ is a square by (3.5), and if $p = 2$, ζ^i is a square. In either case (1.1)(S6) implies

$$\{u, 1 + t\} = \{\zeta^i, 1 + t\}\{1 + s, 1 + t\}$$

and we must show $\{\zeta^i, 1 + t\} = 1$. Suppose $1 + t$ is a square and let $v \in 1 + \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$, $v^2 = 1 + t$. Then v has exponent p by (3.5) and ζ^i has order prime to p . Hence ζ^i and v generate a cyclic subgroup of $(A/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})^*$ and $\{\zeta^i, 1 + t\} = 1$ by (1.1)(S7) and (S8). If $1 + t$ is not a square, we must have $p = 2$ and ζ^i is a square; a similar argument applied to $(\zeta^i)^{1/2}$ and $1 + t$ again yields $\{\zeta^i, 1 + t\} = 1$.

(3.8) **Lemma.** *If $\text{rk } \Phi = 1$, assume $A/\mathfrak{p} \neq \mathbb{F}_9$. Then $L(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})$ is generated by all*

$$\{1 + u\bar{\mu}^i, 1 + u\bar{\mu}^n\}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n,$$

where u is a power of ζ and $\bar{\mu}$ denotes the image of μ in A/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1} .

Moreover if $\Phi \neq A_1, C_2$, or if $\Phi = C_2$ and p is odd, then these symbols are trivial except possibly when $i = 1$.

We begin by proving that the additive group $\mathfrak{p}^m/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ is generated by all $\xi\bar{\mu}^k$, $m \leq k \leq n$, where ξ is an even power of ζ (resp. ξ is a fourth power of ζ if $A/\mathfrak{p} \neq \mathbb{F}_9$). By (3.6) this is true if $m = n$, for $\mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ is isomorphic to A/\mathfrak{p} . By definition of ζ , $\mathfrak{p}^{m-1}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ is generated by all $v\bar{\mu}^k$, $m-1 \leq k \leq n$, where v is a power of ζ . According to (3.6), $v \equiv a_1 + \dots + a_r$ modulo $\mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ where the a_i are even (resp. fourth) powers of ζ . Therefore $v\bar{\mu}^k = a_1\bar{\mu}^k + \dots + a_r\bar{\mu}^k + b$ for some $b \in \mathfrak{p}^m/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$; by descending induction on m , b is of the desired form.

Our hypothesis on p assures us, by (2.5), that $L(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}) = D(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})$ and is generated, according to (3.7), by all

$$(2) \quad \{1 + s, 1 + \xi\bar{\mu}^n\}_\alpha, \quad s \in \mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1},$$

where $\xi = b_1 + \dots + b_r$ is a sum of even (resp. fourth) powers of ζ , and α is any fixed long root. (The "resp." statements hold under the hypothesis $A/\mathfrak{p} \neq \mathbb{F}_9$.)

Now if Φ is nonsymplectic, there is a $\beta \in \Phi$ with $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = 1$, where α is the root occurring in (2). We now show that the same is true if $\Phi = C_l$, $l \geq 2$, and p is odd. In that case $1 + s = (1 + s')^2$ for some $s' \in \mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ by (3.5), and we have, by (4) of §1 and (1.1)(S°3),

$$\begin{aligned} \{1 + s, 1 + t\}_\alpha &= \{(1 + s')^2, 1 + t\}_\alpha \\ &= \{1 + t, 1 + s'\}_\gamma^{-1} = \{1 + s', 1 + t\}_\gamma \end{aligned}$$

where $\gamma \in \Phi$ is a short root such that $\langle \alpha, \gamma \rangle = 2$, $\langle \gamma, \alpha \rangle = 1$. Replacing α by γ in (2), we are done.

Because $(\mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})(\mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}) = 0$, we may apply (2.9), (2.17), and the commutator identities of [14, (2.1)] to conclude

$$\begin{aligned} \{1 + s, 1 + \xi\bar{\mu}^n\}_\alpha &= [x_{-\alpha}(s), x_\alpha(\xi\bar{\mu}^n)] \\ (3) \quad &= [x_{-\alpha}(s), x_\alpha(b_1\bar{\mu}^n) \cdot \dots \cdot x_\alpha(b_r\bar{\mu}^n)] \\ &= [x_{-\alpha}(s), x_\alpha(b_1\bar{\mu}^n)] \cdot \dots \cdot [x_{-\alpha}(s), x_\alpha(b_r\bar{\mu}^n)] \\ &= \{1 + s, 1 + b_1\bar{\mu}^n\}_\alpha \cdot \dots \cdot \{1 + s, 1 + b_r\bar{\mu}^n\}_\alpha \end{aligned}$$

which shows we may assume in (2) that ξ itself is an even (resp. fourth) power of ζ (and not just a sum of such powers).

Conjugating

$$\{1 + s, 1 + \xi \bar{\mu}^n\}_\alpha = [x_{-\alpha}(s), x_\alpha(\xi \bar{\mu}^n)]$$

by $\hat{h}_{-\alpha}(\xi^{1/2})$ yields

$$\{1 + s, 1 + \xi \bar{\mu}^n\}_\alpha = [x_{-\alpha}(\xi s), x_\alpha(\bar{\mu}^n)] = \{1 + \xi s, 1 + \bar{\mu}^n\}_\alpha,$$

and $L(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})$ is thus generated by all

$$(4) \quad \{1 + s, 1 + \bar{\mu}^n\}_\alpha, \quad s \in \mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}.$$

Now we may write $s = a_1 \bar{\mu} + \dots + a_n \bar{\mu}^n$, where each a_i is a sum of even (resp. fourth) powers of ζ . Arguing as for (3) above, we have

$$(5) \quad \begin{aligned} \{1 + s, 1 + \bar{\mu}^n\}_\alpha &= [x_{-\alpha}(s), x_\alpha(\bar{\mu}^n)] \\ &= [x_{-\alpha}(a_1 \bar{\mu}), x_\alpha(\bar{\mu}^n)] \cdot \dots \cdot [x_{-\alpha}(a_n \bar{\mu}^n), x_\alpha(\bar{\mu}^n)] \\ &= \{1 + a_1 \bar{\mu}, 1 + \bar{\mu}^n\}_\alpha \cdot \dots \cdot \{1 + a_n \bar{\mu}^n, 1 + \bar{\mu}^n\}_\alpha, \end{aligned}$$

and a further argument of this type shows we may assume each a_i is itself an even (resp. fourth) power of ζ . We conclude, therefore, from (4) and (5) that $L(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})$ is generated by the symbols

$$(6) \quad \{1 + a \bar{\mu}^i, 1 + \bar{\mu}^n\}_\alpha = [x_{-\alpha}(a \bar{\mu}^i), x_\alpha(\bar{\mu}^n)], \quad 1 \leq i \leq n,$$

where a is an even (resp. fourth) power of ζ .

Now if Φ is nonsymplectic, or if p is odd and $\Phi = C_l$, $l \geq 2$, take β so that $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = 1$ and let v be a power of ζ such that $v^2 = a$. If $\Phi = A_1$, or if $p = 2$ and $\Phi = C_l$, $l \geq 2$, take $\beta = \alpha$ and let v be a power of ζ such that $v^4 = a$ (these choices are possible by our hypotheses and the previous discussion). Conjugating (6) by $\hat{h}_\beta(v)$ yields

$$\begin{aligned} \{1 + a \bar{\mu}^i, 1 + \bar{\mu}^n\}_\alpha &= \hat{h}_\beta(v) [x_{-\alpha}(a \bar{\mu}^i), x_\alpha(\bar{\mu}^n)] \\ &= [x_{-\alpha}(u \bar{\mu}^i), x_\alpha(u \bar{\mu}^n)] = \{1 + u \bar{\mu}^i, 1 + u \bar{\mu}^n\}_\alpha \end{aligned}$$

where $u = v^{\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}$ is a power of ζ as desired.

Finally if $\Phi \neq A_1, C_2$, or if $\Phi = C_2$ and p is odd, it follows from (2.9) and (2.17) that for $i > 1$,

$$\{1 + u \bar{\mu}^i, 1 + u \bar{\mu}^n\} = [x_{-\alpha}(u \bar{\mu}^i), x_\alpha(u \bar{\mu}^n)] = 1.$$

(3.9) **Lemma.** For every $u \in A^*$ and all $n \geq 1$,

$$(1 + u \mu^k)^{\mathfrak{p}^{n-k}} \equiv 1 + u \mathfrak{p}^{n-k} \mu^k \pmod{\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}}, \quad 2 \leq k \leq n.$$

If $p \neq 2$, this congruence holds for $k = 1$ as well.

If $k = n$ the congruence is clearly true, and we will prove the remaining cases by induction on $(n - k, n + 1)$ (lexicographically ordered).

Our induction hypothesis implies

$$(1 + u\mu^k)^{p^{n-k-1}} \equiv 1 + up^{n-k-1}\mu^k \pmod{\mathfrak{p}^n}$$

and, therefore, for some $s \in \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$,

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + u\mu^k)^{p^{n-k-1}} &\equiv 1 + up^{n-k-1}\mu^k + s \\ &\equiv (1 + up^{n-k-1}\mu^k)(1 + s) \pmod{\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}} \end{aligned}$$

since $s\mu^k = 0$.

Thus modulo \mathfrak{p}^{n+1} we have

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + u\mu^k)^{p^{n-k}} &\equiv ((1 + u\mu^k)^{p^{n-k-1}})^p \\ &\equiv (1 + up^{n-k-1}\mu^k)^p(1 + s)^p \\ &\equiv (1 + up^{n-k-1}\mu^k)^p \\ &\equiv 1 + up^{n-k}\mu^k + \sum_{i=2}^p \binom{p}{i} (up^{n-k-1}\mu^k)^i \end{aligned}$$

since $1 + \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ has exponent p by (3.5), and it suffices to show

$$\binom{p}{i} p^{ni-ki-i} \mu^{ki} \equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}}$$

for $2 \leq i \leq p$.

According to (3.5), $\mathfrak{p}^{ki}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ has additive exponent p^{n-ki+1} . Since $\binom{p}{i}$ is divisible by p if $2 \leq i \leq p-1$, we must have

$$ni - ki - i + 1 \geq n - ki + 1, \quad 2 \leq i \leq p-1,$$

$$np - kp - p \geq n - kp + 1.$$

That is, we must have

$$i \geq n/(n-1), \quad 2 \leq i \leq p-1,$$

$$p \geq (n+1)/(n-1).$$

These identities are satisfied *except* when $n = 1$ (in which case the lemma is trivial) and when $p = 2, n = 2$.

This completes the proof when p is odd. If $p = 2$, the lemma holds for $n = 2, k = 2$ and hence by induction for all (n, k) with $n \geq 2, k \geq 2$. The cases $(n, 1), n \geq 1$ are true exceptions.

(3.10) Theorem. *Let A be a local ring whose residue field is a finite field with $q = p^s$ elements and whose maximal ideal \mathfrak{p} is principal, generated by $\bar{p} = \mu$, the image of p in A . If $\text{rk } \Phi = 1$, assume that $A/\mathfrak{p} \neq \mathbb{F}_9$. Then for all $n \geq 0$ and all odd primes p , $L(\Phi, A/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}) = 1$. Moreover, if $p = 2$, the groups $L(\Phi, A/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})$ and $L(\Phi, A/\mathfrak{p}^n)$ are isomorphic for all $n \geq 2$ and are generated by the $2^s - 1$ symbols $\{1 + \zeta^i \bar{\mu}, 1 + \zeta^i \bar{\mu}^{-1}, 1 \leq i \leq 2^s - 1, \text{ where } \zeta \in (A/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})^* \text{ has}$*

order $2^s - 1$ and maps to a generator of A/\mathfrak{p} . Each of these symbols has order at most 2.

Since $\bar{p} = \bar{\mu}$ generates $\mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ (we identify $\bar{p} \in A$ with its image in A/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}), (3.9) implies, for p odd, that

$$1 + u\bar{\mu}^n = 1 + u\bar{p}^{n-i}\bar{\mu}^i = (1 + u\bar{\mu}^i)^{p^{n-i}}$$

and it follows from (3.8) that $L(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})$ is generated by all

$$(7) \quad \{1 + u\bar{\mu}^i, (1 + u\bar{\mu}^i)^{p^{n-i}}\}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n,$$

where u is a power of ζ . Since p is odd, (3.5) implies that $1 + u\bar{\mu}^i$ is a square, and

$$\{1 + u\bar{\mu}^i, (1 + u\bar{\mu}^i)^{p^{n-i}}\} = \{1 + u\bar{\mu}^i, 1 + u\bar{\mu}^i\}^{p^{n-i}} = 1$$

by (1.1)(S6), (S7) and (S8). The first part of the theorem now follows by induction on n from (3.2) and the exact sequence

$$(8) \quad 1 \rightarrow L(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}) \rightarrow L(A/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}) \rightarrow L(A/\mathfrak{p}^n) \rightarrow 1.$$

Suppose, then, that $p = 2$. The above argument still applies if $2 \leq i \leq n$, and we conclude that

$$\{1 + u\bar{\mu}^i, 1 + u\bar{\mu}^n\} = \{1 + u\bar{\mu}^i, (1 + u\bar{\mu}^i)^{2^{n-i}}\} = 1$$

so long as $2 \leq i \leq n$ and $(1 + u\bar{\mu}^i)^{2^{n-i}}$ is a square; that is, when $n - i \geq 1$. Thus these symbols are trivial whenever $n \geq i + 1 \geq 3$ and $i \geq 2$.

If $i = 1$, it follows from the argument of (3.8) that we may assume $u = \zeta^{2k}$ is an even power of ζ . Then, since we may take $\bar{\mu} = 2$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \{1 + \zeta^{2k}\bar{\mu}, 1 + \zeta^{2k}\bar{\mu}^n\} &= [x_{-\alpha}(\zeta^{2k}\bar{\mu}), x_{\alpha}(\zeta^{2k}\bar{\mu}^n)] \\ &= x_{-\alpha}^{(-\bar{\mu})} \hat{h}_{\alpha}(\zeta^k) [x_{-\alpha}(\zeta^{2k}\bar{\mu}), x_{\alpha}(\zeta^{2k}\bar{\mu}^n)] \\ (9) \quad &= x_{-\alpha}^{(-\bar{\mu})} [x_{-\alpha}(\bar{\mu}), x_{\alpha}(\zeta^{4k}\bar{\mu}^n)] = [x_{\alpha}(\zeta^{4k}\bar{\mu}^n), x_{-\alpha}(-\bar{\mu})] \\ &= \{1 + \zeta^{4k}\bar{\mu}^n, 1 - \bar{\mu}\}^{-1} = \{(1 + \zeta^{4k}\bar{\mu}^2)^{2^{n-2}}, -1\}^{-1} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

if $n - 2 \geq 1$; that is if $n \geq 3$. Thus we have shown that $L(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}) = 1$ for all $n \geq 3$.

Finally suppose $n = 2$, and continue to take $\bar{\mu} = 2$. Then the characteristic of A/\mathfrak{p}^3 is 8, and for any $u \in A^*$,

$$\begin{aligned} \{1 + 4u, 1 + 4u\} &= [x_{-\alpha}(4u), x_{\alpha}(4u)] \\ (10) \quad &= \hat{w}_{\alpha}^{(1)} [x_{-\alpha}(4u), x_{\alpha}(4u)] = [x_{\alpha}(4u), x_{-\alpha}(4u)] = \{1 + 4u, 1 + 4u\}^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\{1 + 4u, 1 + 4u\}^2 = 1$ for any $u \in A^*$. Now $L(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}^2/\mathfrak{p}^3)$ is generated by the symbols $\{1 + 4u, 1 + 4u\}, \{1 + 2u, 1 + 4u\}$. But

$$(11) \quad \begin{aligned} \{1 + 4u, 1 + 4u\} &= [x_{-\alpha}(4u), x_{\alpha}(4u)] \\ &= [x_{-\alpha}(2u), x_{\alpha}(4u)]^2 = \{1 + 2u, 1 + 4u\}^2 \end{aligned}$$

and we may take the symbols $\{1 + 2u, 1 + 4u\}, u = \zeta^{2k}$, as generators. But (9), (10), (11) then imply

$$\begin{aligned} \{1 + 2\zeta^{2k}, 1 + 4\zeta^{2k}\} &= \{1 + 4\zeta^{4k}, -1\}^{-1} \\ &= \{1 + 4\zeta^{4k}, 1 + 4\zeta^{4k}\}^{-1} = \{1 + 4\zeta^{4k}, 1 + 4\zeta^{4k}\} \\ &= [x_{-\alpha}(4\zeta^{4k}), x_{\alpha}(4\zeta^{4k})] = [x_{-\alpha}(2\zeta^{4k}), x_{\alpha}(4\zeta^{4k})]^2 \\ &= \{1 + 2\zeta^{4k}, 1 + 4\zeta^{4k}\}^2 = \{1 + 4\zeta^{8k}, -1\}^{-2} = 1. \end{aligned}$$

(Note that the last 3 lines of this computation follow from (9) by substituting $2k$ for k .)

Thus by (8), $L(\Phi, A/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}) \approx L(\Phi, A/\mathfrak{p}^n)$ for all $n \geq 2$ as stated. If $n = 1$, then (8) and (3.2) imply $L(\Phi, A/\mathfrak{p}^2) \approx L(\Phi, \mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^2)$ is generated by the symbols $\{1 + u\bar{\mu}, 1 + u\bar{\mu}\}$ where $u = \zeta^i, 1 \leq i \leq 2^s - 1$. Since the characteristic of A/\mathfrak{p}^2 is 4, an argument similar to (10) shows that each of these symbols has order at most 2.

(3.11) Corollary. *Under the hypothesis of (3.10) assume further that \mathfrak{p} is nilpotent. Then if p is odd, $L(\Phi, A) = 1$, and if $p = 2$, $L(\Phi, A)$ is generated by the $2^s - 1$ symbols $\{1 + \zeta^i \bar{\mu}, 1 + \zeta^i \bar{\mu}\}, 1 \leq i \leq 2^s - 1$, which have order at most 2.*

The corollary follows from the theorem, since if $\mathfrak{p}^{n+1} = 0, A/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1} = A$.

(3.12) Corollary. *Let \mathfrak{O} be the ring of integers in an algebraic number field and let $0 \neq \mathfrak{p} \subset \mathfrak{O}$ be a prime ideal which is unramified over $p\mathbb{Z} = \mathfrak{p} \cap \mathbb{Z}$. If $\text{rk } \Phi = 1$, assume that $\mathfrak{O}/\mathfrak{p} \neq \mathbb{F}_9$. Then if p is odd, $L(\Phi, \mathfrak{O}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}) = 1$ for all $n \geq 0$. Moreover, if $p = 2$, the groups $L(\Phi, \mathfrak{O}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})$ are isomorphic for all $n \geq 1$ and are generated by the $2^s - 1$ symbols $\{1 + 2\zeta^i, 1 + 2\zeta^i\}, 1 \leq i \leq 2^s - 1$, where $|\mathfrak{O}/\mathfrak{p}| = 2^s$ and $\zeta \in (\mathfrak{O}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1})^*$ has order $2^s - 1$ and maps to a generator of $(\mathfrak{O}/\mathfrak{p})^*$. These symbols have order at most 2.*

This follows from (3.11) with $A = \mathfrak{O}/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$.

Note. For the groups of type $A_l, l \geq 2$, this corollary is due to Christofides [2].

4. Stability for $H_2(E(\Phi, A), \mathbb{Z})$. Throughout this section, A denotes a local ring with maximal ideal \mathfrak{p} . We set $k = A/\mathfrak{p}$, but do not assume that k is finite or that \mathfrak{p} is principal, as in §3.

We fix an $l > 1$ (depending on Φ and A) such that $L(\Phi_l, A) \approx H_2(E(\Phi_l, A), \mathbb{Z})$

and write $\Phi = \Phi_j$. It follows from [14, Theorem 5.3] that for a given A and Φ there is an $l_0 \geq 1$ such that every $l \geq l_0$ satisfies this condition, and it is clear that l_0 depends only on Φ and $A/\text{rad } A = k$.

We abbreviate the functors $\text{St}(A_1, \cdot)$ and $L(A_1, \cdot)$ by $\text{St}_1(\cdot)$ and $L_1(\cdot)$ and we write $H_i(G)$ for the homology groups $H_i(G, \mathbb{Z})$ of the group G , $i = 1, 2$. Recall that the functor $E(A_1, \cdot)$ is $\text{SL}_2(\cdot)$.

(4.1) **Theorem.** $H_2(\text{SL}_2(A)) \rightarrow H_2(E(\Phi, A))$ is surjective whenever $|k| \geq 4$.

Apply the homology spectral sequence [6] to the diagram of group extensions

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 1 & \rightarrow & L_1(A) & \rightarrow & \text{St}_1(A) & \rightarrow & \text{SL}_2(A) \rightarrow 1 \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ 1 & \rightarrow & L(\Phi, A) & \rightarrow & \text{St}(\Phi, A) & \rightarrow & E(\Phi, A) \rightarrow 1 \end{array}$$

to obtain the following commutative diagram with exact rows:

$$(1) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} H_2(\text{SL}_2(A)) & \xrightarrow{\phi} & L_1(A) & \rightarrow & \text{St}_1(A)^{\text{ab}} & \rightarrow & \text{SL}_2(A)^{\text{ab}} \rightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ & & H_2(E(\Phi, A)) & \xrightarrow{\approx} & L(\Phi, A) & & \\ & & & & \downarrow & & \\ & & & & 1 & & \end{array}$$

The surjectivity of $L_1(A) \rightarrow L(\Phi, A)$ is a consequence of (2.13). If $|k| \geq 4$, there exists $u \in A^*$ with $u^2 - 1 \in A^*$ and by [14, (4.4)], $\text{St}_1(A)^{\text{ab}} = 0$. Thus the theorem follows from (1).

We shall require the following unpublished result of Bass.

(4.2) **Lemma.** Let $q \subset A$ be the ideal generated by all $u^2 - 1$, $u \in A^*$. If $k = \mathbb{F}_2$, assume that \mathfrak{p} is principal, generated by μ . Then $\text{St}_1(A)^{\text{ab}} \approx \text{St}_1(A/q)^{\text{ab}}$ and both groups are quotients of A/q . Moreover, $q = A$ except in the following cases:

$$\begin{aligned} k &= \mathbb{F}_3, & q &= \mathfrak{p}, & A/q &= \mathbb{F}_3, \\ k &= \mathbb{F}_2, & \mu A &= 2A, & q &= 8A, & A/q &= \mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z}, & n &= 1, 2 \text{ or } 3, \\ k &= \mathbb{F}_2, & 2 &\in \mu^2 A, & q &= \mu^2 A, & A/q &\approx \mathbb{F}_2[X]/(X^2). \end{aligned}$$

Denote the image in $\text{St}_1(A)^{\text{ab}}$ of $g \in \text{St}_1(A)$ by $[g]$, and set $\langle t \rangle = [x_\alpha(t)]$ for $t \in A$. It follows from relation (R1) that $t \mapsto \langle t \rangle$ is a homomorphism $A^+ \rightarrow \text{St}_1(A)^{\text{ab}}$. By relation (R3)

$$\hat{w}_\alpha(u)x_{-\alpha}(t)\hat{w}_\alpha(-u) = x_\alpha(-u^2t), \quad u \in A^*,$$

we have $[x_{-\alpha}(t)] = \langle -u^2t \rangle$; hence $t \mapsto \langle t \rangle$ is surjective. Moreover by (R6)

$$[\hat{h}_\alpha(u), x_\alpha(t)] = x_\alpha((u^2 - 1)t)$$

and therefore $\langle t \rangle = 0$ for $t \in q$. This proves that $\text{St}_1(A)^{\text{ab}}$ is a quotient of A/q and that $\text{St}_1(q) \subset [\text{St}_1(A), \text{St}_1(A)]$. Hence there is a surjective homomorphism $\text{St}_1(A/q) \rightarrow \text{St}_1(A)^{\text{ab}}$ which factors through $\text{St}_1(A/q)^{\text{ab}}$; the projection $\text{St}_1(A)^{\text{ab}} \rightarrow \text{St}_1(A/q)^{\text{ab}}$ is an inverse to this induced homomorphism.

Now let us determine the ideal q . Since A is local, $q = A$ if and only if $|k| \geq 4$. If $k = F_3$, we have $A^* = \{1 + x, x - 1, x \in \mathfrak{p}\}$. Hence if $u \in A^*$, $u^2 - 1 = x(2 + x)$ or $x(x - 2)$ for some $x \in \mathfrak{p}$; since $2 + x, 2 - x \in A^*$, this proves $q = \mathfrak{p}$.

If $k = F_2$, write $2A = \mu^e A$ with $e = \infty$ if $2A = 0$. If $e = 1$ we may assume $\mu = 2$, and $(1 + 2x)^2 - 1 = 4x + 4x^2 = 0 \pmod{8A}$. Taking $x = 1$, we see that $q = 8A$ and, therefore, that $A/q \approx \mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z}$, $n = 1, 2$ or 3 . If $e > 1$, write $2 = \mu^e v$, $v \in A^*$. Then

$$(1 + \mu)^2 - 1 = 2\mu + \mu^2 = v\mu^{e+1} + \mu^2 = \mu^2(1 + v\mu^{e-1}).$$

Since $1 + v\mu^{e-1} \in A^*$, $q = \mu^2 A$ and $A/q \approx F_2[X]/(X^2)$ as desired.

(4.3) **Theorem.** *The map*

$$H_2(\text{SL}_2(A)) \rightarrow H_2(E(\Phi, A))$$

is surjective if $k \approx F_3$.

It suffices, by (1), to show that $L_1(A) \rightarrow \text{St}_1(A)^{\text{ab}}$ is 0, and this map factors, by (4.2), as

$$\begin{array}{ccc} L_1(A) & \rightarrow & \text{St}_1(A)^{\text{ab}} \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \text{"} \\ L_1(A/q) & \rightarrow & \text{St}_1(A/q)^{\text{ab}} \end{array}$$

But $L_1(A/q) = L_1(F_3) = 1$ by (3.2).

(4.4) **Lemma.** *Let $\{u, v\} \in L_1(A)$. Then $[\{u, v\}] = \langle 3(u-1)(v-1) \rangle$ in $\text{St}_1(A)^{\text{ab}}$. Moreover, $\{u, v\}$ lies in the image of $H_2(\text{SL}_2(A))$ if and only if $[\{u, v\}] = 1$.*

Since $[x_{-\alpha}(t)] = \langle -u^2 t \rangle$ (cf. the proof of (4.2)), taking $t = -u^{-1}$, we have $[x_{-\alpha}(-u^{-1})] = \langle u \rangle$. Hence $[\hat{w}_{\alpha}(u)] = [x_{\alpha}(u)x_{-\alpha}(-u^{-1})x_{\alpha}(u)] = \langle 3u \rangle$ and $[\hat{b}_{\alpha}(u)] = [\hat{w}_{\alpha}(u)\hat{w}_{\alpha}(-1)] = \langle 3(u-1) \rangle$. Finally,

$$\begin{aligned} [\{u, v\}] &= [\hat{b}_{\alpha}(uv)\hat{b}_{\alpha}(u)^{-1}\hat{b}_{\alpha}(v)^{-1}] \\ &= \langle 3(uv-1) - 3(u-1) - 3(v-1) \rangle = \langle 3(uv-1-u+1-v+1) \rangle = \langle 3(u-1)(v-1) \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Now consider the commutative diagram

$$(2) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} 1 & \rightarrow & L_1(A) & \longrightarrow & \text{St}_1(A) & \longrightarrow & \text{SL}_2(A) \longrightarrow 1 \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ & & 1 & & 1 & & 1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 1 & \rightarrow & L_1(A)/\phi(H_2(\text{SL}_2(A))) & \rightarrow & \text{St}_1(A)^{\text{ab}} & \rightarrow & \text{SL}_2(A)^{\text{ab}} \longrightarrow 1 \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ & & 1 & & 1 & & 1 \end{array}$$

Its columns and top row are clearly exact. Since the bottom row is obtained by factoring out the image of $H_2(\mathrm{SL}_2(A))$ from the top row of (1), it too is exact. The second part of the lemma follows easily from (2).

(4.5) **Proposition.** *The map $H_2(\mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z})) \rightarrow L_1(\mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z})$ is surjective for $n = 1, 2$ but not for $n \geq 3$. Therefore the map*

$$H_2(\mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})) \rightarrow H_2(E(\Phi, \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}))$$

is surjective.

It is clear from (1) that the second statement is implied by the first. For $n = 1$, the first assertion is trivial since $L_1(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) = 1$ by (3.2). Now $L_1(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})$ is generated by the symbol $\{-1, -1\}$ whose image in $\mathrm{St}_1(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})^{\mathrm{ab}}$ is $\langle 3(-1-1)(-1-1) \rangle = 1$. This completes the proof for $n = 2$ by (4.4).

Now suppose $n \geq 3$. According to (4.2), $\mathrm{St}_1(\mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z})^{\mathrm{ab}} \approx \mathrm{St}_1(\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})^{\mathrm{ab}}$ for all $n \geq 3$; thus (1) implies that

$$\phi: H_2(\mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z})) \rightarrow L_1(\mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z})$$

is surjective for $n = 3$ if and only if ϕ is surjective for all $n \geq 3$.

Suppose that this is the case. Then from (1) we have

$$\mathrm{St}_1(\mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z})^{\mathrm{ab}} \approx \mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z})^{\mathrm{ab}}$$

for all $n \geq 3$, and the same must be true for the 2-adic integers

$$\mathrm{St}_1(\hat{\mathbb{Z}}_2)^{\mathrm{ab}} \approx \mathrm{SL}_2(\hat{\mathbb{Z}}_2)^{\mathrm{ab}}.$$

Hence $H_2(\mathrm{SL}_2(\hat{\mathbb{Z}}_2)) \rightarrow L_1(\hat{\mathbb{Z}}_2) \rightarrow L_\infty(\hat{\mathbb{Z}}_2) = K_2(\hat{\mathbb{Z}}_2)$ is surjective by (1) and (2.13).

Dualizing, we have

$$\mathrm{Hom}(H_2(\mathrm{SL}_2(\hat{\mathbb{Z}}_2)), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \approx H^2(\mathrm{SL}_2(\hat{\mathbb{Z}}_2), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$$

by the universal coefficient theorem [7, p. 77]. But $H^2(\mathrm{SL}_2(\hat{\mathbb{Z}}_2), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = 0$ [1, Proposition 2]. Therefore if ϕ is surjective, we conclude that $K_2(\hat{\mathbb{Z}}_2) = 0$; in particular $\{-1, -1\} = 0$ in $K_2(\hat{\mathbb{Q}}_2)$. But it follows from results of Moore [10] and Matsumoto [8] that $\{-1, -1\} \neq 0$ in $K_2(\hat{\mathbb{Q}}_2)$, whence the proposition.

(4.6) **Corollary.** *The symbol $\{-1, -1\}$ is nontrivial in $L_1(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})$.*

Since $\{-1, -1\}$ generates $L_1(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})$, if it is 1 we conclude from (3.1) that $L_1(\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}) \approx L_1(4\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})$ is generated by the symbols $\{1 + 4a, 1 + 2b\}$, $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. But in $\mathrm{St}_1(\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})^{\mathrm{ab}}$, $\{1 + 4a, 1 + 2b\} = \langle 3(4a)(2b) \rangle = 0$, which implies that $H_2(\mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})) \rightarrow L_1(\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})$ is surjective by (4.4). This contradicts (4.5).

Note. Despite (4.6), we cannot conclude that $\{-1, -1\} \neq 0$ in $K_2(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})$ since $K_2(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})$ is a quotient of $L_1(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})$ by (2.13).

Added in proof. Much more extensive information on the functor $K_2 = \lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} L(A_l)$ has been obtained since this paper was written. Dennis ([20], [21]) has proved the conjecture of the Introduction, showing that when Φ is of type A_l , the maps $\theta(l, m)$ are surjective for all $m \geq l \geq d + 3$, where d is the dimension of the maximal ideal space of A .

The results concerning K_2 of a semilocal ring (Theorem 2.13) have been completed by Stein and Dennis [24]. They have also proved ([22], [23]) that for nonsymplectic Φ , the maps $\theta(l, m)$ are injective (and hence isomorphisms) when A is a discrete valuation ring or a quotient thereof, and they have given a presentation of the K_2 of such a ring. These papers also compute K_2 of a ring of algebraic integers modulo any nonzero ideal, generalizing the results of §3. Among the consequences of this computation is the nontriviality of the symbol $\{-1, -1\} \in K_2(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})$ (see the Note at the end of §4).

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DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY, EVANSTON, ILLINOIS
60201