

NON-ALTERNATING HAMILTONIAN
ALGEBRA $P(n, m)$ OF CHARACTERISTIC TWO

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ABSTRACT. Over a field F of characteristic $p = 2$, a class of Lie algebras $P(n, m)$, called non-alternating Hamiltonian algebras, is constructed, where n is a positive integer and $m = (m_1, \dots, m_n)$ is an n -tuple of positive integers. $P(n, m)$ is a graded and filtered subalgebra of the generalized Jacobson-Witt algebra $W(n, m)$ and bears resemblance to the Lie algebras of Cartan type. $P(n, m)$ is shown to be simple unless $m=1$ and $n < 4$. The dimension of $P(n, m)$ is $2^{|m|} - 2$ if $m=1$, $2^{|m|} - 1$ if $m \neq 1$, where $|m| = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i$. Different from the Lie algebras of Cartan type, all $P(n, m)$ are nonrestrictable. The derivation algebra of $P(n, m)$ is determined, and the natural filtration of $P(n, m)$ is proved to be invariant. It is then determined that $P(n, m)$ is a new class of simple Lie algebras if (n, m) satisfies some condition.

§1. CONSTRUCTION

In the paper, we assume the ground field F to be of characteristic $p = 2$. If S is a subset of a linear space, $\langle S \rangle$ will denote the subspace spanned by S .

Let $\mathfrak{gl}(n)$ be the Lie algebra of all $n \times n$ matrices over F and E_{ij} the matrix in $\mathfrak{gl}(n)$ with (i, j) -entry 1 and other entries 0. Let $A(n)$ be the set of n -tuple of nonnegative integers, $\varepsilon_i = (\delta_{1i}, \dots, \delta_{ni}) \in A(n)$. For $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in A(n)$, set

$$|\alpha| = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i.$$

If $m = (m_1, \dots, m_n)$ is an n -tuple of positive integers, we put $A(n, m) = \{\alpha \in A(n) \mid 0 \leq \alpha \leq \pi\}$, where $\pi = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_n) := (2^{m_1} - 1, \dots, 2^{m_n} - 1)$. Set $\mathfrak{A} = \mathfrak{A}(n)$ be the commutative associative F -algebra of all formal sums $\sum \alpha_\alpha x^\alpha$ with multiplication

$$x^\alpha x^\beta = \binom{\alpha + \beta}{\alpha} x^{\alpha + \beta},$$

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where $\binom{\alpha+\beta}{\alpha} = \prod_{i=1}^n \binom{\alpha_i+\beta_i}{\alpha_i}$. Let $\mathfrak{A}_{[i]} = \langle x^\alpha \mid \alpha \in A(n), |\alpha| = i \rangle$, then $\mathfrak{A} = \sum \mathfrak{A}_{[i]}$ is a graded algebra. If $0 \neq f \in \mathfrak{A}_{[i]}$, write $\deg f = i$. Set $\mathfrak{A}(n, \mathfrak{m}) = \langle x^\alpha \mid \alpha \in A(n, \mathfrak{m}) \rangle$, then $\mathfrak{A}(n, \mathfrak{m})$ is a subalgebra of $\mathfrak{A}(n)$. Define derivations D_i :

$$D_i(x^\alpha) = x^{\alpha - \epsilon_i}, \quad \alpha \in A(n), \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

Let $W(n) = \sum \langle a_i D_i \mid a_i \in \mathfrak{A}(n) \rangle$. Then $W(n) = \sum W(n)_{[i]}$ is a graded Lie algebra, where $W(n)_{[i]} = \langle \sum a_j D_j \mid a_j \in \mathfrak{A}(n)_{[i+1]} \rangle$. $W(n)$ is also a filtered Lie algebra with a filtration $\{W(n)_i\}$ associated with the gradation, and

$$W(n, \mathfrak{m}) = \left\{ \sum a_i D_i \mid a_i \in \mathfrak{A}(n, \mathfrak{m}) \right\}$$

is a graded and filtered subalgebra of $W(n)$. Let $P_0 = \{A \in \mathfrak{gl}(n) \mid A = A^t\}$, then P_0 is a Lie subalgebra of $\mathfrak{gl}(n)$. Let $P(n)$ be the extension of P_0 in $W(n)$ (cf. [5, Definition 1.1]), that is

$$P(n) := \left\{ \sum a_i D_i \in W(n) \mid \sum_{i,j} D_i(a_j) \otimes E_{i,j} \in \mathfrak{A} \otimes P_0 \right\}.$$

By [5, Theorem 1.1], $P(n)$ is a Lie subalgebra of $W(n)$ and an elementary computation shows that

$$P(n) = \left\{ \sum a_i D_i \in W(n) \mid D_i(a_j) = D_j(a_i), \quad i, j = 1, \dots, n \right\}.$$

Define

$$P''(n, \mathfrak{m}) := P(n) \cap W(n, \mathfrak{m}),$$

then $P''(n, \mathfrak{m})$ is a subalgebra of $W(n, \mathfrak{m})$. We define $D_P : \mathfrak{A}(n) \rightarrow W(n)$ by means of

$$D_P(f) := \sum_{j=1}^n D_j(f) D_j, \quad f \in \mathfrak{A}(n).$$

Clearly, $D_P(\mathfrak{A}(n, \mathfrak{m})) \subset W(n, \mathfrak{m})$. Let $P'(n, \mathfrak{m})$ denote the image of $\mathfrak{A}(n, \mathfrak{m})$ under D_P . Note that $x^{\pi_i \epsilon_i} D_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$, are elements of $P''(n, \mathfrak{m})$ which do not lie in $P'(n, \mathfrak{m})$. We put

$$P(n, \mathfrak{m}) := P'(n, \mathfrak{m})^{(1)}.$$

Lemma 1.1. (1) The linear map D_P has degree -2 .

(2) $P'(n, \mathfrak{m})$ is contained in $P''(n, \mathfrak{m})$.

(3) $\ker D_P = F1$.

(4) Let $D = \sum f_j D_j, E = \sum g_j D_j$ be elements of $P''(n, \mathfrak{m})$ (or $P(n)$); then

$$[D, E] = D_P \left(\sum_{i=1}^n f_i g_i \right). \tag{1.1}$$

(5) $P(n) = D_P(\mathfrak{A}(n))$.

Proof. The proof of (1)-(4) is very similar to that of [1, Chap. 4, Lemma 4.1].

(5) Similar to the proof of (2), we have $D_P(\mathfrak{A}(n)) \subset P(n)$. Given $D = \sum f_i D_i \in P(n)$, we have $D_i(f_j) = D_j(f_i), 1 \leq i, j \leq n$, thanks to [7, Lemma 1.2], there is $f \in \mathfrak{A}(n)$, such that $D_i(f) = f_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$. Hence $D = D_P(f)$ and $P(n) = D_P(\mathfrak{A}(n))$. \square

Proposition 1.2. $P(n, m)$ is an ideal of $P''(n, m)$.

Definition. The Lie algebras $P(n, m)$ (resp. $P(n)$) are called the finite (resp. infinite) non-alternating Hamiltonian algebras.

Lemma 1.3. The following results hold:

$$(1) [D_P(f), D_P(g)] = D_P(D_P(f)(g)), \quad f, g \in \mathfrak{A}(n). \tag{1.2}$$

$$(2) [D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^\beta)] = \sum_{i=1}^n \binom{\alpha+\beta-2\varepsilon_i}{\alpha-\varepsilon_i} D_P(x^{\alpha+\beta-2\varepsilon_i}). \tag{1.3}$$

$$(3) [D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i})] = D_P(x^{\alpha-\varepsilon_i}). \tag{1.4}$$

$$(4) [D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{2\varepsilon_i})] = \alpha_i D_P(x^\alpha). \tag{1.5}$$

$$(5) P(n, m) \text{ (resp. } P(n)) \text{ is a graded and filtered subalgebra of } W(n, m) \text{ (resp. } W(n)).$$

Proposition 1.4. Suppose that $m \neq 1 := (1, 1, \dots, 1)$ or $m = 1$ and $n \geq 3$, then we have

$$(1) P(n, 1) = \langle D_P(x^\alpha) \mid 0 < \alpha < \pi \rangle.$$

$$(2) \text{ If } m \neq 1, \text{ then } P(n, m) = P'(n, m).$$

$$(3) P(n, m)_{[-1]} = W(n, m)_{[-1]}.$$

$$(4) \text{ The representation}$$

$$\varphi_P : P(n)_{[0]} \longrightarrow \mathfrak{gl}(\mathfrak{A}(n)_{[1]})$$

which is induced by the canonical representation of $W(n)_{[0]}$ in $W(n)_{[-1]}$, defines an isomorphism $P(n)_{[0]} \simeq P_0$, and $\varphi_P|_{P(n, 1)_{[0]}}$ defines an isomorphism $P(n, 1)_{[0]} \simeq P_0^{(1)}$.

Proof. (1) From Lemma 1.3 (3) it follows that $D_P(x^\alpha) \in P(n, 1)$, for $0 < \alpha < \pi$. Note that if $m = 1$, for $0 < \alpha, \beta \leq \pi, \alpha + \beta - 2\varepsilon_i \neq \pi, 1 \leq i \leq n$. Hence, by virtue of (1.3)(2), $[D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^\beta)] \in \langle D_P(x^\gamma) \mid 0 < \gamma < \pi \rangle$.

(2) If $m \neq 1$, there exists $m_i > 1$, so $x^{2\varepsilon_i} \in \mathfrak{A}(n, m)$, (1.3)(4) shows that $D_P(x^\pi) = [D_P(x^\pi), D_P(x^{2\varepsilon_i})] \in P(n, m)$. Therefore $P(n, m) = P'(n, m)$.

(3) Note that $D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i}) = D_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$. The assertion now follows from (1) and (2).

(4) $P(n)_{[0]} = \langle D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j}) \mid 1 \leq i, j \leq n \rangle$. By Lemma 1.1 (3), we have $\dim P(n)_{[0]} = \frac{n}{2}(n+1) = \dim P_0$. We also note that for $1 \leq i < j \leq n$,

$$\varphi_P(D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j})) = \varphi_P(x^{\varepsilon_i} D_j + x^{\varepsilon_j} D_i);$$

and

$$\varphi_P(D_P(x^{2\varepsilon_i})) = \varphi_P(x^{\varepsilon_i} D_i),$$

for $1 \leq i \leq n$. The matrices representing these endomorphisms with respect to the basis $\{x^{\varepsilon_1}, x^{\varepsilon_2}, \dots, x^{\varepsilon_n}\}$ are given by $E_{ij} + E_j$; in the former case, and E_{ii} in the latter case. These matrices belong to P_0 . Consequently, $P(n)_{[0]} \simeq P_0$. Observe that if $n \geq 3$, $P(n, 1)_{[0]} = P(n)_{[0]}^{(1)}$, thus, $P(n, 1)_{[0]} \simeq P_0^{(1)}$. \square

§2. SIMPLICITY

Lemma 2.1. (1) $P(n, m)_{[-1]}$ is an irreducible $P(n, m)_{[0]}$ -module unless $m = 1$ and $n < 3$.

(2) $P(n)_{[-1]}$ is an irreducible $P(n)_{[0]}$ -module. \square

Theorem 2.2. (1) Suppose that $m \neq 1$, then $P(n, m)$ is simple and $\dim P(n, m) = 2^{|m|} - 1$.

(2) Suppose that $m = 1$, then $P(n, m)$ is simple if and only if $n \geq 4$ and $\dim P(n, 1) = 2^n - 2$.

Proof. The assertions concerning the dimension of $P(n, m)$ follow from Lemma 1.1 (3) and Proposition 1.4 (1), (2). The simplicity of $P(n, m)$ will be proven by applying [1, Chap. 3, Theorem 3.7]. The only work we have to do is to verify that the conditions (a)-(e) in the simplicity theorem hold.

As $P(n, m)_{[-1]}$ coincides with $W(n, m)_{[-1]}$, $P(n, m)$ is admissibly graded. The assumption that $m = 1$ implies that $n \geq 4$ guarantees that condition (a) holds. (b) is trivially met. Thanks to Lemma 2.1 (c) is also met. Checking (d) is a small exercise. According to Lemma 1.3 (2),

$$D_P(x^{\pi-\epsilon_i}) = [D_P(x^{\pi-\epsilon_j}), D_P(x^{\epsilon_i+\epsilon_j})], \text{ for } i \neq j.$$

Therefore, (e) is fulfilled. Since $P(n, 1)_{[1]} \neq 0$ implies that $n \geq 4$, $P(n, 1)$ is not simple when $n < 4$. Now the asserted results follow from the simplicity theorem. \square

§3. NONRESTRICTABILITY

Theorem 3.1. *Suppose that $m \neq 1$ or $m = 1$ and $n \geq 4$, then all algebras $P(n, m)$ are not restrictable.*

Proof. Let $m \neq 1$, then there exists i , such that $m_i > 1$. Hence $D_P(x^{3\epsilon_i}) \in P(n, m)$, and $(\text{ad}D_i)^2(D_P(x^{3\epsilon_i})) = D_i \neq 0$. Thus, $(\text{ad}D_i)^2 \neq 0$. But $(\text{ad}D_i)^2$ is not an inner derivation. Consequently, $P(n, m)$ is not restrictable.

Let $m = 1$ and $n \geq 4$. Suppose $(P(n, 1), [p])$ is restricted, then for any $D \in P(n, 1)_{[0]}$, $D^{[2]} \in P(n, 1)_{[0]}$. Choose $D = D_P(x^{\epsilon_1+\epsilon_2})$ and put $E = D^{[2]}$, then

$$(\text{ad}E)(D_1) = D_1, (\text{ad}E)(D_2) = D_2, (\text{ad}E)(D_i) = 0, 2 < i \leq n.$$

But such element E does not exist. Therefore, $P(n, 1)$ is not restrictable. \square

§4. DERIVATION ALGEBRA

In this section, we will determine the derivation algebra of $P(n, m)$.

Theorem 4.1. *If $n \geq 4$, then $P(n, 1)$ is generated by $P(n, 1)_{[-1]} \oplus P(n, 1)_{[1]}$.*

Proof. Given $D_P(x^\alpha) \in P(n, 1)_{[0]}$, there is i , such that $\alpha_i = 0$. We obtain

$$D_P(x^\alpha) = [D_P(x^{\alpha+\epsilon_i}), D_i],$$

and $P(n, 1)_{[0]} = [P(n, 1)_{[-1]}, P(n, 1)_{[1]}]$. For $0 \neq D_P(x^\alpha) \in P(n, 1)_{[1+t]}$, where $t > 0$, choose $i \neq j$, such that $\alpha_i = \alpha_j = 1$. Since $\alpha < \pi$, there is k , such that $\alpha_k = 0$. Now we have

$$D_P(x^\alpha) = [D_P(x^{\alpha+\epsilon_k-\epsilon_i-\epsilon_j}), D_P(x^{\epsilon_i+\epsilon_j+\epsilon_k})].$$

Hence, $P(n, 1)_{[1+t]} = [P(n, 1)_{[t]}, P(n, 1)_{[1]}]$. By induction on t , we obtain

$$P(n, 1)_{[1+t]} = P(n, 1)_{[1]}^{(t)}.$$

The assertion holds. \square

Let L be a Lie algebra, $\text{Der}(L)$ the derivation algebra of L . If $L = \bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} L_{[i]}$ is graded, then $\text{Der}(L) = \bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \text{Der}(L)_{[i]}$ is also graded, where

$$\text{Der}(L)_{[i]} := \{\phi \in \text{Der}(L) \mid \phi L_{[j]} \subset L_{[i+j]}, \forall j \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

An element ϕ is called a derivation of degree t if $\phi \neq 0$ and $\phi \in \text{Der}(L)_{[t]}$.

Let M be a Lie algebra, L its subalgebra. $\text{Nor}_M(L)$ denotes the normalizer of L in M .

Proposition 4.2. Let $L = \bigoplus_{i=-1}^t L \cap W(n, m)_{[i]}$ be a graded subalgebra that contains $W(n, m)_{[-1]}$. Suppose that $\phi : L \rightarrow L$ is a derivation of degree $t \geq 0$. Then there exists $E \in \text{Nor}_{W(n, m)}(L)$ such that $\phi = (\text{ad}E)|_L$.

Proof. When the base field F is of characteristic $p > 2$, this is Proposition 8.3 of [1, Chap. 4]. But we find that the assumption $p > 2$ is in fact unnecessary. \square

Lemma 4.3. Suppose that L is a graded subalgebra of $W(n, m)$ and $L_{[-1]} = W(n, m)_{[-1]}$. Let $G = \text{Der}(L)$ be the derivation algebra of L . Let $t > 0$ and $\phi \in G_{[-t]}$. If $\phi L_{[-1]} = 0$, then $\phi = 0$.

Proof. Clearly, $\phi L_{[k]} = 0$, $\forall k \leq t-1$. Assume that $\phi L_{[k-1]} = 0$, for some $k > t-1$, then for any $D \in L_{[k]}$ and $1 \leq s \leq n$, $[D, D_s] \in L_{[k-1]}$. Hence $\phi[D, D_s] = 0$. Let $\phi(D) = \sum g_i D_i \in L_{[k-i]}$, then

$$0 = \phi[D, D_s] = [\phi(D), D_s] = \left[\sum g_i D_i, D_s \right] = \sum D_s(g_i) D_i.$$

Thus, $D_s(g_i) = 0$, $\forall 1 \leq i, s \leq n$. Consequently, $g_i \in F1$, $1 \leq i \leq n$. But $g_i \in \mathfrak{A}(n, m)_{[k-t+1]}$ and $k > t-1$. Hence, $k-t+1 > 0$ and $g_i \in \mathfrak{A}(n, m)_1$. This yields $g_i = 0$, $1 \leq i \leq n$. Consequently, $\phi(D) = 0$ and $\phi L_{[k]} = 0$. By induction on k , we obtain $\phi = 0$. \square

In the following discussion, let $D_1 = \text{ad}_{P(n, m)}(P''(n, m))$, $D_2 = \langle (\text{ad}D_i)^{2^i} \mid 0 < s_i < m_i, 1 \leq i \leq n \rangle$, $G = \text{Der}(P(n, m))$, and $I_k = \{i \mid m_i > k\}$, $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$.

Theorem 4.4. Suppose that $m \neq 1$ or $m = 1$ and $n \geq 5$, then $G = D_1 \oplus D_2$.

Proof. We divide the proof into several steps.

(1) For any $t > 0$, $G_{[t]} \subset D_1$.

Given $\phi \in G_{[t]}$, by Proposition 4.2, there exists $E = \sum g_i D_i \in W(n, m)_{[t]}$, such that $\phi = (\text{ad}E)|_{P(n, m)}$. We have $[D_i, E] \in P(n, m)$, $1 \leq i \leq n$. Thus, there are $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n \in \mathfrak{A}(n, m)$, such that $[D_i, E] = D_P(f_i)$, $1 \leq i \leq n$. Hence, $D_i(g_j) = D_j(f_i)$. But $D_P(D_i(f_j)) = D_P(D_j(f_i))$. According to Lemma 1.1 (3), $\ker D_P = F1$, so $D_i(f_j) + D_j(f_i) \in F1$. Because of $t > 0$, we have $D_i(g_j) = D_j(g_i)$. Consequently, $E \in P''(n, m)$.

(2) $G_{[0]} \subset D_1$.

Given $\phi \in G_{[0]}$, according to Proposition 4.2, there is $E \in W(n, m)_{[0]}$, such that $\phi = \text{ad}(E)|_{P(n, m)}$. Let $E = \sum a_{ij} x^{\epsilon_i} D_j$, we want to prove that $E \in P''(n, m)$. If $n = 1$, this is obvious. Suppose $n \geq 2$. Set $h_i = x^{\epsilon_i} D_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$. Rewrite E as following

$$E = \sum_i a_{ii} h_i + \sum_{i>j} a_{ij} D_P(x^{\epsilon_i + \epsilon_j}) + \sum_{i<j} (a_{ij} + a_{ji}) x^{\epsilon_i} D_j. \quad (4.1)$$

Since the first two summands of the right hand side belong to $P''(n, m)$, we may harmlessly assume that $E = \sum_{i<j} b_{ij} x^{\epsilon_i} D_j$. If $n = 2$, then $E = b_{12} x^{\epsilon_1} D_2$. By the assumption $m \neq 1$, we may assume that $m_1 > 1$. Then $[E, D_P(x^{2\epsilon_1})] \in P(n, m)$, thus $b_{12} = 0$, and $E = 0$. If $n \geq 3$, put $b_{ij} = 0$, for $i \geq j$. Then for any $1 \leq k < l \leq n$, we have $\sum f_j D_j := [E, D_P(x^{\epsilon_k + \epsilon_l})] \in P(n, m)_{[0]}$, and

$$\sum_{j=1}^n f_j D_j = \sum_{i=1}^n b_{ik} x^{\epsilon_i} D_l + \sum_{i=1}^n b_{il} x^{\epsilon_i} D_k + \sum_{j=1}^n b_{lj} x^{\epsilon_k} D_j + \sum_{j=1}^n b_{kj} x^{\epsilon_l} D_j. \quad (4.2)$$

Hence, $D_i(f_j) = D_j(f_i)$, $1 \leq i, j \leq n$. Then for any $j \neq k, l$, $D_l(f_j) = b_{kj}$, $D_j(f_l) = b_{jk}$. Thus, $b_{kj} = b_{jk} = 0$. Similarly, it follows from $D_k(f_j) = D_j(f_k)$ that $b_{jl} = b_{lj}$. Consequently, $b_{ij} = 0$, $1 \leq i, j \leq n$, that is $E = 0$.

(3) $G_{[-1]} \subset D_1$.

We first assume that $\mathfrak{m} \neq 1$. We also assume that $n > 1$. Given $i \in I_1$ and $\phi \in G_{[-1]}$, we can show that $\phi(D_P(x^{2\epsilon_i})) \in \langle D_i \rangle$. Thus, there is $\phi' = \phi - \sum_{i \in I_1} c_i(\text{ad}D_i)$, where $c_i \in F$, such that $\phi'(D_P(x^{2\epsilon_i})) = 0$, for any $j \in I_1$. Given $i \in I_1$ and $i \neq j$, we have $[D_P(x^{2\epsilon_i}), D_P(x^{\epsilon_i+\epsilon_j})] = D_P(x^{\epsilon_i+\epsilon_j})$, which implies that $\phi'(D_P(x^{\epsilon_i+\epsilon_j})) \in \langle D_i \rangle$, thus $\phi'(D_P(x^{\epsilon_i+\epsilon_j})) = 0$, if $i, j \in I_1$. Fix some $i \in I_1$, and assume that $\phi'(D_P(x^{\epsilon_i+\epsilon_j})) = b_j D_i$, $\forall j \neq i$. Put

$$\psi := \phi' - \sum_{s \neq i} b_s(\text{ad}D_s),$$

then $\psi(D_P(x^{\epsilon_i+\epsilon_j})) = 0$, for all j . Consequently, $\psi P(n, \mathfrak{m})_{[0]} = 0$ if $n = 2$. If $n \geq 3$, then from the identity

$$D_P(x^{\epsilon_j+\epsilon_k}) = [D_P(x^{\epsilon_i+\epsilon_j}), D_P(x^{\epsilon_i+\epsilon_k})],$$

we have $\psi(D_P(x^{\epsilon_j+\epsilon_k})) = 0$. Hence $\psi P(n, \mathfrak{m})_{[0]} = 0$. Now Lemma 4.3 yields $\psi = 0$. Consequently, $G_{[-1]} \subset D_1$.

Now we suppose that $\mathfrak{m} = 1$ and $n > 4$. For any $\phi \in G_{[-1]}$, we can prove that $\phi(D_P(x^{\epsilon_i+\epsilon_j})) \in \langle D_i, D_j \rangle$. Fix some l and let

$$\phi(D_P(x^{\epsilon_i+\epsilon_l})) = a_i D_l + b_i D_i, \quad a_i, b_i \in F, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n, \quad i \neq l.$$

A direct computation shows that $b_i = b_j$, $\forall i, j \neq l$. Set $b = b_i$ and $D = \sum_{i \neq l} a_i D_i + b D_l$, then $(\text{ad}D + \phi)P(n, 1)_{[0]} = 0$. Also Lemma 4.3 yields $\text{ad}D + \phi = 0$, that is $\phi = \text{ad}D \in D_1$.

(4) Suppose that $t \geq 2$. If $t = 2^u$, then

$$G_{[-t]} = \langle (\text{ad}D_i)^t \mid i \in I_u \rangle.$$

Otherwise $G_{[-t]} = 0$.

Let $\phi \in G_{[-t]}$. Given $D_P(x^\alpha) \in L_{[t-1]}$, let $\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) = \sum_{s=1}^n a_s D_s$.

(4-i) There exists i such that $\alpha_i \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, $\alpha_i > 0$ and $|\alpha| - \alpha_i \geq 2$.

In this case, we have

$$D_P(x^\alpha) = [D_P(x^{(\alpha_i+1)\epsilon_i}), D_P(x^{\alpha+(1-\alpha_i)\epsilon_i})], \tag{4.3}$$

where $D_P(x^{(\alpha_i+1)\epsilon_i}) \in L_{[\alpha_i-1]}$, $D_P(x^{\alpha+(1-\alpha_i)\epsilon_i}) \in L_{[|\alpha|-\alpha_i-1]}$. Since $|(\alpha_i+1)\epsilon_i|$, $|\alpha+(1-\alpha_i)\epsilon_i| \geq 3$ and $|\alpha| = t+1$, α_i-1 , $|\alpha|-\alpha_i-1 < t-1$. But $\phi L_{[k]} = 0$ for any $k < t-1$, so we have

$$\phi(D_P(x^{(\alpha_i+1)\epsilon_i})) = \phi(D_P(x^{\alpha+(1-\alpha_i)\epsilon_i})) = 0. \tag{4.4}$$

(4.3) and (4.4) yield $\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) = 0$.

(4-ii) For any s , $\alpha_s = 0$ or $\alpha_s \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$, and there are $i \neq j$, such that $\alpha_i > 1$ and $\alpha_j > 0$.

In this case, we have $\alpha_i \geq 3$ and

$$D_P(x^\alpha) = [D_P(x^{\alpha_i\epsilon_i}), D_P(x^{\alpha+(2-\alpha_i)\epsilon_i})]. \tag{4.5}$$

Since $|\alpha_i \varepsilon_i|, |\alpha + (2 - \alpha_i) \varepsilon_i| \geq 3$, we obtain

$$\phi(D_P(x^{\alpha_i \varepsilon_i})) = \phi(D_P(x^{\alpha + (2 - \alpha_i) \varepsilon_i})) = 0. \tag{4.6}$$

(4.5) and (4.6) yield $\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) = 0$.

(4-iii) All $\alpha_s \leq 1$.

Since $t \geq 2$ and $D_P(x^\alpha) \in L_{[t-1]}$, $|\alpha| \geq 3$. For any $i \neq j$ such that $\alpha_i = \alpha_j = 1$, we have

$$[D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j})] = 0.$$

Thus, $0 = \phi[D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j})] = a_i D_j + a_j D_i$. Hence, $a_s = 0$ for any s such that $\alpha_s = 1$.

Suppose that $m \neq 1$. If there is i , such that $\alpha_i = 1$ and $m_i > 1$, then $a_i = 0$ and

$$D_P(x^\alpha) = [D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{2\varepsilon_i})].$$

Hence, $\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) = a_i D_i = 0$. Otherwise, there exists j , such that $\alpha_j = 0$ and $m_j > 1$. Then,

$$[D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{2\varepsilon_j})] = 0,$$

thus $a_j = 0$. If there is $k \neq j$, such that $\alpha_k = 0$, then for any such k , we have

$$[D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{\varepsilon_j + \varepsilon_k})] = 0,$$

which implies that $a_j D_k + a_k D_j = 0$, that is, $a_k = 0$. Consequently, $\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) = 0$.

Suppose that $m = 1$ and $n > 4$. Then by virtue of Theorem 4.1, we have $G_{[-t]} = 0$, for any $t > 2$. Therefore we assume that $t = 2$. Choose i, j such that $\alpha_i = 0$ and $\alpha_j = 1$. Since

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(D_P(x^{\alpha + \varepsilon_i - \varepsilon_j})) &= \phi[D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j})] \\ &= a_i D_j + a_j D_i \\ &= a_i D_j, \end{aligned}$$

we have

$$\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) = \phi[D_P(x^{\alpha + \varepsilon_i - \varepsilon_j}), D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j})] = a_i D_j.$$

$|\alpha| = 3$ and $n > 4$ implies that we have at least two choices for i . Therefore $\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) = 0$.

(4-iv) $\alpha = t\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j$, for some $i \neq j$, where $t \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$.

If $t \geq 4$, let $t = 2^u + v$, $0 \leq v < 2^u$. Thus, $u \geq 2$ and v is even. Suppose that $v \neq 0$, then $v \geq 2$ and

$$D_P(x^\alpha) = [D_P(x^{(v+1)\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j}), D_P(x^{(2^u+1)\varepsilon_i})]. \tag{4.7}$$

But $|(v+1)\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j|, |(2^u+1)\varepsilon_i| > 3$, thus, we have

$$\phi(D_P(x^{(v+1)\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j})) = \phi(D_P(x^{(2^u+1)\varepsilon_i})) = 0. \tag{4.8}$$

(4.7) and (4.8) yield $\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) = 0$.

If $t = 2^u$, where $u \geq 1$, then

$$[D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{2\varepsilon_i})] = 0$$

yields $a_i = 0$. If $n \geq 3$, then $\forall k \neq i, j$, and we get

$$[D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_k})] = D_P(x^\beta),$$

where $\beta = (t-1)\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j + \varepsilon_k$ satisfies condition (ii) or (iii). Hence, $\phi(D_P(x^\beta)) = 0$ and $a_i D_k + a_k D_i = 0$, that is, $a_k = 0$. Consequently, $\phi(D_P(x^{2^u \varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j})) \in \langle D_j \rangle$.

(4-v) $\alpha = (t+1)\varepsilon_i$, for some i , where $t \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$.

In this case, $[D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{2\varepsilon_i})] = 0$. Hence, $a_i = 0$. For any $j \neq i$,

$$[D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j})] = D_P(x^{t\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j}).$$

By virtue of (ii), $\phi(D_P(x^{t\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j})) = 0$. Hence, $a_i D_j + a_j D_i = 0$ and $a_j = 0$. Therefore, $\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) = 0$.

(4-vi) $\alpha = (t+1)\varepsilon_i$ for some i , where $t \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$.

Assume that $t \geq 4$. Let $t = 2^u + v$, where $0 \leq v < 2^u$. Then $u \geq 2$ and v is even. If $v > 0$, then we have

$$D_P(x^\alpha) = [D_P(x^{(2^u+1)\varepsilon_i}), D_P(x^{(v+2)\varepsilon_i})].$$

On the other hand, $|(2^u+1)\varepsilon_i|, |(v+2)\varepsilon_i| > 3$, hence

$$\phi(D_P(x^{(2^u+1)\varepsilon_i})) = \phi(D_P(x^{(v+2)\varepsilon_i})) = 0.$$

Consequently, $\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) = 0$. If $t = 2^u$, for some $u \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$D_P(x^\alpha) = [D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{2\varepsilon_i})].$$

Hence, $\phi(D_P(x^{(2^u+1)\varepsilon_i})) \in \langle D_i \rangle$.

According to above (i)-(vi), we have

(4-vii) $\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) = 0, \forall D_P(x^\alpha) \in L_{[t-1]}$, unless

(A) $\alpha = 2^u \varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j$, for some $i \neq j$ and $u \in \mathbb{N}$. In this case, $\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) \in \langle D_j \rangle$.

(B) $\alpha = (2^u + 1)\varepsilon_i$, for some i and $u \in \mathbb{N}$. In this case, $\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) \in \langle D_i \rangle$.

Hence, if $t \neq 2^u$, then $\phi L_{[t-1]} = 0$. By virtue of Lemma 4.3, we have $\phi = 0$. Consequently, $G_{[-t]} = 0$.

(4-viii) Let $\alpha = 2^u \varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j, \beta = 2^u \varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_k$. According to (vii), let

$$\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) = aD_j, \phi(D_P(x^\beta)) = bD_k, a, b \in F.$$

Since $D_P(x^\beta) = [D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_k})]$, we have $bD_k = \phi(D_P(x^\alpha), D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_k})) = aD_k$, that is, $a = b$.

(4-ix) If $\alpha = 2^u \varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j$ and $\beta = (2^u + 1)\varepsilon_i$. According to (vii), let $\phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) = aD_j, \phi(D_P(x^\beta)) = bD_i, a, b \in F$. Then $aD_j = \phi(D_P(x^\alpha)) = \phi([D_P(x^\beta), D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j})]) = bD_j$, hence $a = b$.

(4-x) According to (vii)-(ix), if $t = 2^u$, we may assume that $\phi(D_P(x^{(t+1)\varepsilon_i})) = a_i D_i$ for $i \in I_u$, where $a_i \in F$. Put $\psi := \phi - \sum a_i (\text{ad} D_i)^{2^u} \in G_{[-t]}$, then $\psi L_{[t-1]} = 0$. Thanks to Lemma 4.3, we obtain $\psi = 0$. Thus, $\phi = \sum a_i (\text{ad} D_i)^{2^u} \in \langle (\text{ad} D_i)^t \mid i \in I_u \rangle$.

It is easy to verify that $D_1, D_2 \subset G$. On the other hand, $D_1 \cap D_2 = \{0\}$ is clear. Therefore $D_1 \oplus D_2 \subset G$. According to (1)-(4), we have $G \subset D_1 \oplus D_2$. Consequently, $G = D_1 \oplus D_2$. \square

Corollary 4.5. If $m \neq 1$, the dimension of the outer derivation algebra of $P(n, m)$ is $|m|$.

Theorem 4.6. $\text{Der}P(4, 1) = \text{ad}_{P(4,1)} P''(4, 1) \oplus \langle \theta \rangle$, where θ is a homogeneous derivation of degree -2 defined by:

$$\theta(D_P(x^{\pi - \varepsilon_i})) = D_i, 1 \leq i \leq 4.$$

§5. FILTRATION

If L is a Lie algebra, $\phi \in \text{Der}(L)$, let $I(\phi) = \dim(\text{Im}\phi)$. Clearly, $I(\phi) = I(a\phi)$, $\forall a \in F^*$. If M is a subalgebra of $\text{Der}(L)$, let $I(M) = \min_{0 \neq \phi \in M} I(\phi)$ (cf. [6]). If L is a graded Lie algebra, $0 \neq x \in L$, let $\lambda(x)$ denote the nonzero homogeneous part of x with the least degree.

Lemma 5.1. *Let L be any graded Lie algebra, $w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k \in L$. If $\{w_i\}$ is linearly dependent, then $\{\lambda(w_i)\}$ is also linearly dependent. \square*

In the following discussion, we assume that $L = P(n, 1)$ and $n \geq 5$. By virtue of Theorem 4.4, $\xi := \text{ad}_L(D_P(x^n)) \in \text{Der}(L)$.

Recall that $P(n, m)$ is a filtered algebra with filtration $\{P(n, m)_i\}$, where $P(n, m)_i = \sum_{j \geq i} P(n, m)_{[j]}$, for $i \geq -1$. we have

Theorem 5.2. *Let $n \geq 5$, then the following statements hold:*

- (1) $I(\text{Der}(P(n, 1))) = n$.
- (2) $I(\phi) = n$ if and only if $0 \neq \phi \in \langle \xi \rangle$.
- (3) If $\mathfrak{C} = \ker \xi$, then $\mathfrak{C} = P(n, 1)_0$.

Proof. At first, a direct computation shows that if $0 \neq \phi \in \langle \xi \rangle$, then $I(\phi) = n$. We shall prove that if $\phi_0 \notin \langle \xi \rangle$, then $I(\phi_0) > n$.

Recall that $\lambda(\phi_0)$ is the nonzero homogeneous part of ϕ_0 with the least degree. According to Theorem 4.4

$$\text{Der}(P(n, 1)) = \text{ad}P(n, 1) \bigoplus (\text{ad}_{P(n,1)} h_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n) \bigoplus \langle \xi \rangle.$$

Hence,

$$\text{Der}(P(n, 1)) = \sum_{i=-1}^{n-2} \text{Der}(P(n, 1))_{[i]}.$$

As $\phi_0 \notin \langle \xi \rangle$, $\lambda(\phi_0) \in \text{Der}(P(n, 1))_{[i]}$, for some $i \leq n - 3$. Let $\phi = \lambda(\phi_0)$. Then there exist $n + 1$ homogeneous elements E_1, \dots, E_{n+1} of $P(n, 1)$, such that $\{\phi(E_i)\}$ is linearly independent. We list the $n + 1$ elements in the following

- (1) Let $\phi = \text{ad}(\sum a_i D_i)$, where $a_i \in F$.

By symmetry, we may assume that $a_1 \neq 0$. Put

$$E_j = D_P(x^{\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_j + 1}), \quad 1 \leq j \leq n - 1; \quad E_n = D_P(x^{\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 + \epsilon_3}), \quad E_{n+1} = D_P(x^{\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 + \epsilon_4}).$$

- (2) Let $\phi = \text{ad}D$, where $D \in L_{[t-2]}$, $t > 2$.

Let $D = D_P(x^\alpha) + \sum_{\beta \neq \alpha} a_\beta D_P(x^\beta)$. By symmetry, we may assume that $\alpha = \sum_{i=1}^t \epsilon_i$, for some $2 < t < n$. Put

$$\begin{aligned} E_i &= D_i, \quad 1 \leq i \leq t, \\ E_{t+j} &= D_P(x^{\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_{t+1} + \epsilon_{t+2} + \dots + \epsilon_{t+j+1}}), \quad 1 \leq j \leq n - t - 1, \\ E_n &= D_P(x^{\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_n}), \\ E_{n+1} &= D_P(x^{\epsilon_2 + \epsilon_n}). \end{aligned}$$

- (3) Let $\phi = \text{ad}_L(\sum a_i h_i) \in \text{Der}(L)$.

It is harmless to assume that there exists $t \geq 1$, such that $a_i \neq 0$ for all $i \leq t$ and $a_j = 0$, for all $j > t$.

- (3-i) $t = 1$. Put $E_1 = D_1$, $E_j = D_P(x^{\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_j})$, $2 \leq j \leq n$, $E_{n+1} = D_P(x^{\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 + \epsilon_3})$.

(3-ii) $1 < t < n$. In this case, put $E_i = D_i$, $1 \leq i \leq t$; $E_{ij} = D_P(x^{\epsilon_i + \epsilon_j})$, $1 \leq i \leq t, j > t$. As $t(n-t) \geq n+1-t$, we can choose $n+1-t$ different elements $E_{i+s} \in \{E_{ij}\}$, $1 \leq s \leq n+1-t$.

(3-iii) $t = n$. If $a_i = a_j, \forall i, j$, then put $E_i = D_i, 1 \leq i \leq n, E_{n+1} = D_P(x^{\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 + \epsilon_3})$. Otherwise, there are i, j , such that $a_i \neq a_j$. Put $E_s = D_s, 1 \leq s \leq n$ and $E_{n+1} = D_P(x^{\epsilon_i + \epsilon_j})$.

(4) Let $\phi = \phi_1 + \phi_2$, where $\phi_1 = \text{ad}_L(\sum a_i h_i), 0 \neq \phi_2 = \text{ad}D, D = D_P(\sum a_\beta x^\beta) \in L_{[0]}$.

According to the assumption, there is β such that $a_\beta \neq 0$. We may assume that $\beta = \epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2$. Thus, put $E_1 = D_P(x^{\epsilon_2 + \epsilon_3 + \epsilon_4}), E_2 = D_P(x^{\epsilon_2 + \epsilon_3 + \epsilon_4 + \epsilon_5}), E_j = D_P(x^{\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_j}), 3 \leq j \leq n$, and $E_{n+1} = D_1$.

As $\phi(E_i) = \lambda(\phi_0)(E_i) = \lambda(\phi_0(E_i)), 1 \leq i \leq n+1$, it follows from Lemma 5.1 that $\{\phi_0(E_i)\}$ is also linearly independent. Consequently, $I(\phi_0) > n$. Thus, (1) and (2) hold.

(3) is obvious. \square

Corollary 5.3. $P(n, 1)_0$ is an invariant subalgebra of $P(n, 1)$. \square

Theorem 5.4. The natural filtration $\{P(n, 1)_i\}$ of $P(n, 1)$ is intrinsically determined.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{L}_{-1} = P(n, 1)$ and $\mathcal{L}_0 = \mathcal{C}$. Following Kač and Weisfeiler we define

$$\mathcal{L}_i = \{D \in \mathcal{L}_{i-1} \mid [D, \mathcal{L}_{-1}] \subset \mathcal{L}_{i-1}\}, \text{ for } i \geq 1. \tag{5.1}$$

It is directly verified that $\mathcal{L}_i = P(n, 1)_i, -1 \leq i \leq n-3$. Hence, the natural filtration

$$P(n, 1) = \mathcal{L}_{-1} \supset \mathcal{L}_0 \supset \dots \supset \mathcal{L}_{n-3} \supsetneq 0 \tag{5.2}$$

is intrinsically determined by Corollary 5.3, and the Theorem follows. \square

Now we assume that

$$n > 1, \mathbf{m} = (m_1, \dots, m_n), \text{ and } m_i \geq 1 + \log_2(n+2), \forall i. \tag{5.3}$$

Let $L = P(n, \mathbf{m})$ and $\xi = \text{ad}D_P(x^\pi)$.

Lemma 5.5. if $0 \neq \phi \in \langle \xi \rangle$, then $I(\phi) = n+1$.

Proof. It is evident that $\phi(L_1) = 0$. Moreover, $\phi(D_P(x^{\epsilon_i + \epsilon_j})) = 0, \forall i \neq j$. According to Lemma 1.3 (4), $0 \neq \phi(D_P(x^{2\epsilon_i})) \in \langle D_P(x^\pi) \rangle$. Hence, $\{\phi(D_1), \dots, \phi(D_n), D_P(x^\pi)\}$ consists of a basis of $\text{Im}(\phi)$. Consequently, $I(\phi) = n+1$. \square

Lemma 5.6. If $0 \neq D \in L_{[1]}, -1 \leq t < |\pi| - 2$, then there exist $n+2$ homogeneous elements $E_1, \dots, E_{n+2} \in L$, such that $\{[D, E_1], [D, E_2], \dots, [D, E_{n+2}]\}$ is linearly independent.

Proof. (1) $t = -1$. Let $D = \sum a_i D_i$, then there is j such that $a_j \neq 0$. Put $E_i = D_P(x^{(1+i)\epsilon_j}), 1 \leq i \leq n+2$. The assumption $m_j \geq 1 + \log_2(n+2)$ implies that $n+2 < 2^{m_j}$, thus $E_1, \dots, E_{n+2} \in L$ and $\{[D, E_i]\}$ is linearly independent.

(2) $t > -1$. Let $D = \sum k_\alpha D_P(x^\alpha)$. Set $J = \{0 \neq \alpha \in A(n, \mathbf{m}) \mid k_\alpha \neq 0\}$, then $D = \sum_{\alpha \in J} k_\alpha D_P(x^\alpha)$.

(a) There is $\alpha \in J$, such that $\alpha_j = 0$ for some j . By symmetry, we may assume that $\alpha_n = 0$ and $\alpha_1 > 0$. Put $E_i = D_P(x^{\epsilon_1+2(i-1)\epsilon_n})$, $1 \leq i \leq n+2$, then $\{E_i\} \subset L$ and $\{[D, E_i]\}$ is linearly independent.

(b) $\forall \alpha \in J$, $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n \neq 0$. Put $E_i = D_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$. If $\forall \alpha \in J$, $\alpha_i \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, $\forall i$, then $\alpha_i \geq 2$, $\forall i$. Fix some $\alpha \in J$. Put $E_{n+1} = D_P(x^{(\pi_1-\alpha_1+2)\epsilon_1})$, $E_{n+2} = D_P(x^{(\pi_2-\alpha_2+2)\epsilon_2})$. If there exists $\alpha \in J$ such that $\alpha_i \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ for some i . Put $E_{n+1} = D_P(x^{2\epsilon_i})$. As $\alpha < \pi$, there is j such that $\alpha_j < \pi_j$. If $\alpha_j = 1$, put $E_{n+2} = D_P(x^{\pi_j\epsilon_j})$. If $\alpha_j \geq 2$, put $E_{n+2} = D_P(x^{(\pi_j-\alpha_j+2)\epsilon_j})$. Thus, $E_1, \dots, E_{n+2} \in L$ and it is directly verified that $\{[D, E_i]\}$ is linearly independent. \square

Theorem 5.7. *If $P(n, m)$ satisfies (5.3), then the following statements hold:*

- (1) $I(\text{ad}(P(n, m))) = n + 1$.
- (2) $I(\text{ad}D) = n + 1$ if and only if $0 \neq D \in \langle D_P(x^\pi) \rangle$.
- (3) If $0 \neq D \in \langle D_P(x^\pi) \rangle$, \mathfrak{C} and \mathfrak{N} are the centralizer and normalizer of D in $P(n, m)$ respectively, then $\dim \mathfrak{N}/\mathfrak{C} = 1$.

Proof. (1), (2). By direct computation we have if $0 \neq \text{ad}D \in \langle \xi \rangle$, then $I(\text{ad}D) = n + 1$. We shall prove that if $D \in P(n, m)$ and $D \notin \langle D_P(x^\pi) \rangle$, then $I(\text{ad}D) > n + 1$. Clearly, $\lambda(D) \notin \langle D_P(x^\pi) \rangle$, thus, by virtue of Lemma 5.6, there are $n + 2$ homogeneous elements $E_1, \dots, E_{n+2} \in P(n, m)$, such that $\{[\lambda(D), E_i] \mid 1 \leq i \leq n + 2\}$ is linearly independent. But $[\lambda(D), E_i] = \lambda([D, E_i])$, $1 \leq i \leq n + 2$. Hence, $\{[D, E_i] \mid 1 \leq i \leq n + 2\}$ is also linearly independent by Lemma 5.1. Therefore, $I(\text{ad}D) \geq n + 2 > n + 1$.

(3). It is evident that

$$\mathfrak{C} = \langle D_P(x^\alpha) \mid \alpha \in A(n, m), |\alpha| \geq 2 \text{ and } \alpha \neq 2\epsilon_i \rangle \oplus \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n a_i h_i \mid \sum_{i=1}^n a_i = 0 \right\}$$

and $\mathfrak{N} = \mathfrak{C} \oplus \langle h_1 \rangle$. \square

Corollary 5.8. $\langle D_P(x^\pi) \rangle$ is an invariant subspace of $P(n, m)$. \square

Corollary 5.9. \mathfrak{C} and \mathfrak{N} are invariant subalgebras of $P(n, m)$. \square

Theorem 5.10. *If $P(n, m)$ satisfies (5.3), then the natural filtration of $P(n, m)$ is intrinsically determined.*

Proof. Let $\mathcal{L}_{-1} = P(n, m)$, $\mathcal{L}_0 = \mathfrak{N}$. We define $\{\mathcal{L}_i\}$ as (5.1), then we have $\mathcal{L}_i = P(n, m)_i$, $\forall i$. Hence, the natural filtration

$$P(n, m) = \mathcal{L}_{-1} \supset \mathcal{L}_0 \supset \dots \supset \mathcal{L}_s \supseteq 0,$$

where $s = \sum_{i=1}^n 2^{m_i} - (n + 2)$ is the length of $P(n, m)$, is intrinsically determined by Corollary 5.9. \square

Theorem 5.11. *Let $P(n, m)$ and $P(n', m')$ both satisfy (5.3). Then $P(n, m) \simeq P(n', m')$, if and only if $n = n'$ and $\{m_1, \dots, m_n\} = \{m'_1, \dots, m'_n\}$.*

Proof. Thanks to Theorem 5.7 (1), n is an invariant of $P(n, m)$, hence, the assumption $P(n, m) \simeq P(n', m')$ implies $n = n'$. Set $S = \{m_1, \dots, m_n\}$. Let $V_i = (\text{ad}P(n, m) +$

$(\text{ad}P(n, \mathbf{m}))^2 + \dots + (-1)^t (\text{ad}P(n, \mathbf{m}))^{2^t} / \text{ad}P(n, \mathbf{m})$, $t = 1, 2, \dots$. Set $d_t = \dim V_t$, $t = 1, 2, \dots$, which are invariants of $P(n, \mathbf{m})$. By Theorem 4.4 we have $d_t = \sum_{j=1}^t |S_j|$, where $S_j := \{x \in S \mid x > j\}$, $j = 1, \dots$. Thus, $|S_1| = d_1$, and $|S_t| = d_t - d_{t-1}$ for $t > 1$. Consequently, all $|S_t|$ are invariants. For $P(n', \mathbf{m}')$ we can define V'_t, d'_t , and S'_t analogously. Thus, $|S_t| = |S'_t|$, $t = 1, 2, \dots$. Hence, $\{m_1, \dots, m_n\} = \{m'_1, \dots, m'_n\}$. \square

Let $B_n = F[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, $x_i^2 = 0$, be the truncated polynomial algebra over F , then $\mathfrak{A}(n, 1) \simeq B_n$. Set $y_i = 1 + x_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, then $y_i^2 = 1$. For $\alpha \in A(n, 1)$, put $y^\alpha := y_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots y_n^{\alpha_n}$. Then $\{y^\alpha \mid \alpha \in A(n, 1)\}$ is a basis of B_n . It is easy to prove that $\{D_P(y^\alpha) \mid 0 < \alpha < \pi\}$ is a basis of $P(n, 1)$. Before proving the following theorem, let's recall the definition of the first class of algebras $G(n)$ given by I. Kaplansky in [3].

Let $n \geq 4$, V an n -dimensional vector space over \mathbb{Z}_2 equipped with a symmetric inner product $(\ , \)$ which is nonsingular and nonalternate, and e_1, \dots, e_n an orthonormal basis of V . $G(n)$ is a Lie algebra over F with basis $\{x_\alpha \mid \alpha \in V, \alpha \neq 0, e_1 + e_2 + \dots + e_n\}$ and Lie multiplication

$$[x_\alpha, x_\alpha] = 0, \quad [x_\alpha, x_\beta] = (\alpha, \beta)x_{\alpha+\beta}, \quad \alpha \neq \beta.$$

Theorem 5.12. *Let $n \geq 4$, then the Lie algebras $P(n, 1)$ and $G(n)$ are isomorphic.*

Proof. Define a linear map $\eta : P(n, 1) \rightarrow G(n)$ as follow:

$$\eta(D_P(y^\alpha)) = x_{\bar{\alpha}}, \quad \forall 0 < \alpha < \pi,$$

where $\bar{\alpha} = \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{\alpha}_i e_i$ and $n \mapsto \bar{n}$ is the canonical homomorphism from \mathbb{Z} to \mathbb{Z}_2 . It is directly verified that η is an isomorphism of Lie algebras. \square

Let $R(P(n, 1))$ be the subalgebra of $P(n, 1)$ generated by "Kostrikin elements", i.e., these nonzero elements D with $(\text{ad}D)^2 = 0$. Then we have

Theorem 5.13. *Let $n \geq 4$, then $R(P(n, 1)) = P(n, 1)$.*

Proof. It is easy to prove that $(\text{ad}D_P(x^\alpha))^2 = 0$, $\forall 0 < \alpha < \pi$ and $\alpha \neq \varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j$, thus $D_P(x^\alpha) \in R(P(n, 1))$, $\forall 0 < \alpha < \pi$ and $\alpha \neq \varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j$. However,

$$D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j}) = [D_k, D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j + \varepsilon_k})], \quad k \neq i, j.$$

Hence, $D_P(x^{\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j}) \in R(P(n, 1))$. Consequently, $R(P(n, 1)) = P(n, 1)$. \square

Remark 5.14. According to Theorem 5.12 and Theorem 5.13, we correct an error occurring in [3, Remarks 2 (c)], where Kaplansky declared that $G(n)$ do not possess Kostrikin elements.

Remark 5.15. All the known simple Lie algebras over a field of characteristic 2 with dimension $2^N - 1$ are:

- (1) $W(1, N)^{(1)}$ ($= P(1, N)$);
- (2) some $K(n, \mathbf{m}, \mu_i)$ with $n = 2r + 1$ and $r \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, (for the definition, see [2]);
- (3) the Lie algebra $L(N)$, which is one of the second class of Lie algebras defined in [3];
- (4) $P(n, \mathbf{m})$, for $n \geq 2$ and $|\mathbf{m}| = N$.

According to [8] and Theorem 5.10, if N is big enough and $P(n, m)$ satisfies (5.3), then $P(n, m)$ is not isomorphic to $K(n, m, \mu_i)$. Thus, for a fix n , there are infinitely many m , such that $P(n, m)$ are new simple Lie algebras.

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