EVERYWHERE DENSE SUBGROUPS OF LIE GROUPS

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A recent note by Montgomery and Zippin¹ leads one to speculate concerning the nature of everywhere dense proper subgroups of continuous groups. Such subgroups can easily be constructed. Suppose for example that G is a non-countable continuous group which admits a countable subset G_0 filling it densely. The group generated by G_0 is everywhere dense in G but is not identical with G. In the case of Lie groups, it is easy to see that an abelian G admits non-countable subgroups of the sort in question; whether or not a non-abelian G does so, appears to be a more difficult question. We shall, however, show that if G is simple, proper subgroups of G cannot, so to speak, fill Gtoo densely.

Let G be a simple² Lie group of dimension r with r > 1, and let U be a canonical nucleus of G—that is, a nucleus which can be covered by an analytic canonical coordinate system. An arbitrary point x of U is contained in the central of at least one closed proper Lie subgroup of G with non-discrete central. In fact, through x there passes a oneparameter subgroup γ ; the closure of γ is an abelian Lie subgroup and this subgroup is proper since G is simple and r > 1.

THEOREM. Let G be a simple Lie group of dimension r greater than one and let g be a proper subgroup filling G densely. There exists at least one proper closed Lie subgroup H of G such that those left- (right-) cosets of H which fail to meet g fill G densely. For H one may take any closed proper Lie subgroup of G whose central is non-discrete and contains an arbitrarily chosen point p in $g \cap U$, U being any given canonical nucleus of G.

PROOF. Let U, p, H be chosen and let us consider only the leftcosets of H. It will be sufficient to prove that there exists at least one coset, say aH, which fails to meet g. For, the cosets obtained by multiplying aH on the left by arbitrary elements of g fail to meet g and fill G densely.

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¹ Deane Montgomery and Leo Zippin, A theorem on the rotation group of the 2sphere, this Bulletin, vol. 46 (1940), pp. 520–521. Our theorem may be regarded as a generalization of the theorem of Montgomery and Zippin and the proofs of the two theorems may be regarded as being the same in principle.

 $^{^{2}}$ We use simple here in the sense of having a simple Lie algebra. A simple group need not be connected.

Let us assume the contrary, namely that every coset of H meets g. Let H^* be the totality of cosets of H and let the elements of H^* be denoted by $e^* = H$, $a^* = aH$, \cdots . Let σ be the mapping $x \rightarrow x^*$ $(x^* = xH)$ of G into H^* . Let H^* be topologized in the usual way by taking as open in H^* every set of the form σA where A is an open subset of G. The space H^* is homogeneously locally euclidean.—Now let x^* be an element of H^* and let x be a representative of the coset x^* . Then xpx^{-1} (where p is defined in the theorem) is independent of x. For if y is a second representative of x^* , then $x^{-1}y \subset H$ so that $x^{-1}yp = px^{-1}y$ since p is in the central of H. Hence $xpx^{-1} = ypy^{-1}$. Thus the formula $\tau(x^*) = xpx^{-1}$ defines a mapping τ of H^* into G which, in particular, carries e^* into p. Evidentally τ is continuous. In fact it is easy to see that τ is analytic relative to an arbitrarily chosen analytic canonical coordinate system x_1, \cdots, x_r covering U, and a suitably chosen coordinate system covering a neighborhood of e^* .

The mapping τ carries H^* into a subset of g. For, by our assumption on the cosets of H, an element y^* of H^* can be written in the form $y^* = gH$ where $g \subset g$. Hence we have $\tau(y^*) = gpg^{-1} \subset g$.—Moreover, any given neighborhood V^* of e^* contains at least one point x^* such that $\tau(x^*) \neq p$. For otherwise we have $\tau(yH) = p$ for every y in a certain nucleus V of G, that is, for every y in V and h in H we have $yhp(yh)^{-1}$ = p or $ypy^{-1} = p$. But then the one-parameter subgroup of G determined by p would be invariant, contrary to the hypothesis that Gis simple.

Let W be a nucleus of G such that $W^{-1}WW \subset U$. It follows from the last two paragraphs that there exists in H^* a point z^* near e^* such that the linear segment e^*z^* is carried by τ into an analytic arc contained in $\mathfrak{g} \cap W$ and consisting of more than a single point. A suitably chosen piece of this arc, when multiplied on the left by the inverse of one of its points, furnishes an analytic 1-cell K contained in $\mathfrak{g} \cap W$ and containing e, the identity of G. Starting with K we shall construct a dimensionally increasing sequence of analytic continua, subsets of \mathfrak{g} . In what follows, let it be understood that all functions are real, singlevalued and analytic over the domains indicated.

We may suppose that K is defined parametrically, say by $x_i = f_i(t)$ where -1 < t < 1 and f(0) = e. The set KK is in g and is defined by equations of the form $x_i = g_i(s, t)$ where -1 < s, t < 1. Suppose that dim KK>dim K; that is, suppose dim KK=2. Then being an analytic locus, KK contains points at which it is locally euclidean 2-dimensional. If b is such a point, then $b^{-1}KK$ (a subset of g) is locally euclidean at e. Hence $g \cap W$ contains a 2-cell K₂ defined say by $x_i = h_i(u, v)$ where -1 < u, v < 1 and h(0, 0) = e. We next consider the

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set K_2K_2 and suppose that its dimension exceeds that of K_2 . On continuing in this manner, we finally obtain a k-cell E in $\mathfrak{g} \cap W$ defined say by $x_i = h_i(u_1, \dots, u_k)$ where $-1 < u_i < 1$ and $h(0, \dots, 0) = e$, and such that dim $EE = \dim E = k$. We assert that E contains subsets E^* and F such that (1) E^* and F are k-cells; (2) $e \subset F \subset E^*$; (3) $FF \subset E^*$.

To prove this, we first note that by the theory of implicit functions, E contains a k-dimensional sub-cell E^* definable, after renaming the coordinates x_i if necessary, by equations

(1)
$$x_i = X_i(x_1, \cdots, x_k), \qquad i = k+1, \cdots, r,$$

where (x_1, \dots, x_k) ranges over the cube $C_{\delta}: -\delta < x_i < \delta$, and where $X_i(0, \dots, 0) = e_i = 0$. On replacing δ by a smaller number if necessary, it is easy to see that C_{δ} contains a cube $C_{\mu}: -\mu < x_i < \mu$ $(i=1,\dots, h)$ such that if F is the k-cell defined by (1) with (x_1,\dots, x_k) restricted to the cube C_{μ} , and if q is an arbitrary point of F, then qF, like F, is definable by equations of the form (1):

$$x_i = X_i^q(x_1, \cdots, x_k)$$

where (x_1, \dots, x_k) ranges over a certain open subset A^q of C_δ . Now EE is the union of k-cells qE $(q \subset E)$, hence is k-dimensional at every point. Being an analytic locus, the points q at which EE is locally euclidean k-dimensional fill it densely. Consider such a point q. The k-cells F and qF intersect at q. But since both are contained in EE which is locally euclidean k-dimensional at q, they coincide identically in the neighborhood of q. Hence the functions X_i and X_i^q are identically equal over an open subset of A^q ; hence, by the theory of analytic functions, they are equal over the whole of A^q . Hence $qF \subset E^*$, and this is true for a set of points q filling F densely. By continuity this relation holds for arbitrary q in F. Hence $FF \subset E^*$, proving our assertion.

It is easy to see that on replacing F by a smaller k-cell if necessary, we have also $F^{-1} \subset E^*$. In short F is a k-dimensional local Lie subgroup of G; hence it is an open subset of a k-dimensional linear subspace L of the linear space of the canonical coordinates x_1, \dots, x_r . If k < r, there exists in W an element a such that the linear subspace L' determined by $F' = aFa^{-1}$ is different from L; otherwise the Lie subalgebra represented by L is invariant. Since \mathfrak{g} is everywhere dense in G, we may assume, so far as the relation $L \neq L'$ is concerned, that $a \subset \mathfrak{g}$. Then $FF' \subset \mathfrak{g}$. Moreover, it is evident that dim FF' > k. We can now repeat the construction described above starting with a suitably chosen analytic cell of dimension exceeding k in FF'. We obtain

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finally an analytic r-cell contained in $\mathfrak{g} \cap W$. Hence \mathfrak{g} contains a nucleus of G and hence $\mathfrak{g} = G$, a contradiction which proves the theorem.³

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³ We have proved, incidentally, that if an everywhere dense subgroup \mathfrak{g} of a simple Lie group G_r (r>1) contains an analytic arc, then $\mathfrak{g}=G$.

VECTOR SPACES OVER RINGS

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1. Introduction. Let $\mathfrak{M} = u_1 K + \cdots + u_m K$ be a vector space (linear form modul [5, p. 111]) over a ring $K = \{0, \alpha, \beta, \cdots; \epsilon \text{ unit element}\}$. By a submodul $\mathfrak{N} \leq \mathfrak{M}$ is meant an "admissible" submodul: $\mathfrak{M}K \leq \mathfrak{N}$. Elements v_1, \cdots, v_n of a submodul \mathfrak{N} form a basis for \mathfrak{N} (notation: $\mathfrak{N} = v_1 K + \cdots + v_n K$) in case $\sum v_i \alpha_i = 0$ implies $\alpha_i = 0$, $i = 1, \cdots, n$, and if every element of \mathfrak{N} is expressible in the form $\sum v_i \alpha_i, \alpha_i \in K$. The equivalent formulations of the ascending chain condition for submoduls of a vector space, and for right ideals of a ring will be used without further comment [5, §§80, 97].

2. Basis number, linear transformations. We remark that the following holds.

(A) The ascending chain condition is satisfied by the submoduls of a vector space \mathfrak{M} over K if and only if it is satisfied by the right ideals of K.

An infinite chain of right ideals $r_1 < r_2 < \cdots$ in K yields an infinite chain of submoduls $u_1r_1 < u_1r_2 < \cdots$ in \mathfrak{M} . The other implication is proved in [5, p. 87].

[By using a lemma due to N. Jacobson (*Theory of Rings*, in publication) Theorem (A) and the corresponding theorem for descending chain condition are easily proved in a unified manner.]

Linear transformations of \mathfrak{M} on \mathfrak{M} are given by $u_i \rightarrow u'_i = \sum u_i \alpha_{ij}$. Write $(u'_1, \dots, u'_m) = (u_1, \dots, u_m)A$, $A = (\alpha_{ij})$. Under $u_i \rightarrow u'_i$, let $\mathfrak{M}_0 \rightarrow 0$. Thus $\mathfrak{M}/\mathfrak{M}_0 \cong \mathfrak{M}A \leq \mathfrak{M}$. Clearly $\mathfrak{M}_0 = 0$ if and only if Av = 0 implies v = 0, v an $m \times 1$ matrix over K, and $\mathfrak{M}A = \mathfrak{M}$ if and only if there exists an $m \times m$ matrix R with AR = I, the identity matrix.

Possibilities (i) $\mathfrak{M}_0 = 0$ and $\mathfrak{M}A = \mathfrak{M}$; (ii) $\mathfrak{M}_0 > 0$ and $\mathfrak{M}A < \mathfrak{M}$; (iii) $\mathfrak{M}_0 = 0$ and $\mathfrak{M}A < \mathfrak{M}$ are familiar. The possibility of (iv) $\mathfrak{M}_0 > 0$

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