SEMISIMPLE MALCEV-ADMISSIBLE MUTATION ALGEBRAS

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1. Introduction

In this paper we investigate the relationships between an alternative algebra A and its (p, q)-mutation algebra A(p, q) in terms of simplicity and semisimplicity. The present discussion is a continuation of an earlier work by Myung and Shin [4] which concerns with nonassociative identities satisfied by A(p, q).

We first recall some basic facts from [4]. Let B denote an (nonassociative) algebra over a field F with multiplication xy. The commutator [x, y], anticommutator $\{x, y\}$ and associator (x, y, z) in B are defined by [x, y] = xy - yx, $\{x, y\} = xy + yx$ and (x, y, z) = (xy)z - x(yz). For a multiplication denoted by x*y, these will be expressed by $[x, y]^*$, $\{x, y\}^*$ and $(x, y, z)^*$, respectively. Also, the commutative center K(B), nucleus N(B) and center Z(B) of B are defined by $K(B) = \{x \in B \mid [x, B] = 0\}$, $N(B) = \{x \in B \mid (x, B, B) = (B, x, B) = (B, B, x) = 0\}$ and $Z(B) = K(B) \cup N(B)$. Thus, if $x \in N(B)$ then we can write xyz for (xy)z = x(yz) for all $x, y, z \in B$. Attached to B are the anticommutative algebra B^- and the commutative algebra B^+ with multiplications [x, y] and $\{x, y\}$ defined on the vector space B. The algebra B is called Malcev-admissible if B^- is a Malcev algebra, that is, the product [x, y] satisfies the Malcev identity

(1) [[x, y], [x, z]] = [[[x, y], z], x] + [[[y, z], x], x] + [[[z, x], x], y] for all $x, y, z \in B$, and B is called Lie-admissible if B is a Lie algebra, i. e., B satisfies the Jacobi identity [[x, y], z] + [[y, z], x] + [[z, x], y] = 0. It is well known that any Lie-admissible algebra is Malcevadmissible and that an octonion algebra is Malcevadmissible but not

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Lie-admissible (see Myung [3]).

An algebra A over F is termed alternative if it satisfies the alternative laws $x^2y=x(xy)$ and $yx^2=(yx)x$ for all $x, y \in A$. Thus, any associative algebra is alternative, and it is well known that an octonion algebra is alternative but not associative [3]. Following Santilli's introduction of the (p,q)-mutation of an associative algebra, Myung [2] introduced the (left) (p,q)-mutation A(p,q) of an alternative algebra A as the algebra with multiplication x*y=(xp)y-(yq)x defined on the vector space A, where p and q are fixed elements in A. If p and q are in the nucleus N(A), then x*y is described by

$$(2) x*y=xpy-yqx.$$

As note in [2], A(p,q) is not in general alternative but is Malcev-admissible, that is, identity (1) holds for A(p,q) with product $[x,y]^* = x*y-y*x$. As shown in [4], when p and q are in N(A), the existence of a unit element e (i.e., x*e=e*x=x for all $x \in A$) in A(p,q) implies many of the well known identities for nonassociative algebras. The following result proved in [4] is instrumental for our investigation.

Theorem 1. Let A be an alternative algebra over a field F and let p, q be elements in the nucleus N(A) of A such that A(p, q) has a unit element e. Then

- (i) A has a unit element 1.
- (ii) p-q is invertible in A and $e=(p-q)^{-1}$.
- (iii) $s=(p-q)^{-1}q$ is an element in the center Z(A).
- (iv) The (s+1, s)-mutation A(s+1, s) is isomorphic to A(p, q) by the map

(3)
$$f(x) = x(p-q)^{-1}, x \in A.$$

(v) A(p, q) is power-associative, that is, every element in A(p, q) generates an associative subalgebra.

2. Simplicity in A(p,q)

By a theorem of Jacobson [5], the center Z(B) of any simple algebra B over a field F is either zero or a field. In the latter case, B has a unit element e. Recall that an algebra B over F is called central simple over F if the scalar extension of B to any extension field K of F is

simple over K. If B has a unit element e, then B is central simple over F if and only if B is simple and $Z(B) = Fe \lceil 5 \rceil$.

In the remainder of this paper, A will denote an alternative algebra over a field F of characteristic $\neq 2, 3$ with multiplication denoted by xy and p, q are fixed elements in the nucleus N(A), so that the multiplication x*y in the (p, q)-mutation A(p, q) is given by relation (2). We begin with

Theorem 2. Assume that A(p,q) has a unit element e. Then, A is simple over F if and only if A(p,q) is simple over F.

Proof. It is clear that if A(p,q) is simple, then so is A, since an ideal of A is also an ideal of A(p,q) by (2). Conversely, assume that A is simple. Denote by A(p-q) the algebra with multiplication $x \cdot y = x(p-q)y$ defined on the vector—space A. Since p-q is invertible in A by Theorem 1, we can consider the map f given by (3) which is easily shown to be an isomorphism of A to A(p-q). Thus, A(p-q) is an alternative algebra also. Since $\{x,y\}^* = x(p-q)y + y(p-q)x$ by (2), we have the isomorphisms $A(p,q)^+ \cong A(p-q)^- \cong A^+$. It follows from [6] that A is simple if and only if A^+ is simple. Hence, $A(p,q)^+$ is simple and so is A(p,q).

For the relationship between Z(A) and Z(A(p,q)), and for central simplicity in A(p,q), we can show

Theorem 3. Assume that A(p,q) has a unit element e. Then

- (i) $K(A(p,q)) = \{x \in A \mid (p+q)[x(p-q), A] = 0\}$, and if p+q is not a zero divisor in A, then K(A(p,q)) = Z(A)e.
- (ii) $Z(A)e \subset Z(A(p,q))$, and if p+q is not a zero divisor in A then Z(A)e = Z(A(p,q)) = K(A(p,q)).

In addition, let $p+q\neq 0$. Then,

- (iii) if A is simple then Z(A)e=Z(A(p,q))=K(A(p,q)).
- (iv) A is central simple over F if and only if A(p,q) is central simple over F.

Proof. Note from Theorem 1 that the element $s = (p-q)^{-1}q$ is in the center Z(A) and A(s+1,s) is isomorphic to A(p,q) under the map f defined by (3). Denote the multiplication, commutator and associator in A(s+1,s) by $x \circ y$, $[x,y]^{\circ} = x \circ y - y \circ x$ and $(x,y,z)^{\circ} = (x \circ y) \circ z - x \circ (y \circ z)$. Using (2) with p and q replaced by s+1 and s, we have

$$(4) \qquad \qquad \lceil x, y \rceil^{\circ} = (2s+1) \lceil x, y \rceil,$$

(5)
$$(x, y, z)^{\circ} = (s+1)^{2}(x, y, z) - s^{2}(z, y, x) + s(s+1) [x(zy) + (yz)x - (yx)z - z(xy)].$$

We also note that

(6)
$$2s+1=(p-q)^{-1}(p+q)$$
.

If $x \in K(A(p,q))$, then $[x,A]^*=0$ and so $f^{-1}([x,A]^*)=[f^{-1}(x),$ $A \rceil^{\circ} = (2s+1)[x(p-q), A] = 0$ by (4), hence by (6) (p+q)[x(p-q), A]=0. Similarly, the converse follows and this proves the first part of (i). We note from [6] that $3K(A) \subset N(A)$ for any alternative algebra A and hence $Z(A) = K(A) \cap N(A) = K(A)$, since the characteristic of F is not three. Let $xe \in Z(A)e$ for $x \in Z(A)$. Then, $f^{-1}([xe, A]^*)$ $=\lceil f^{-1}(xe), A\rceil^{\circ} = \lceil x, A\rceil^{\circ} = (2s+1)\lceil x, A\rceil = 0$ by (6), and so $\lceil xe, A\rceil^{*}$ =0 to show that $Z(A)e \subset K(A(p,q))$. Since $x \in Z(A)$, from (5) we have $(x, y, z)^{\circ} = s(s+1) \lceil \lceil x, z \rceil, y \rceil = 0$ for all $y, z \in A$ and similarly $(A, x, A)^{\circ} = (A, A, x)^{\circ} = 0$. Thus, $f^{-1}(x) = xe$ is in N(A(p, q)) for all $x \in Z(\Lambda)$, and this proves the first part of (ii). Assume now that p+qis not a zero divisor in A. For $x \in K(A(p,q))$, we have $f^{-1}(x)$ =x(p-q) in K(A(s+1,s)) and hence by (4), (6) [x(p-q), A]=0, so $x(p-q) \in Z(A)$ to show that Z(A)e = K(A(p,q)). In view of part (i), it suffices to show that $K(A(p,q)) \subset N(A(p,q))$. Thus, $x \in K(A(p,q))$, we have $f^{-1}(x) = x(p-q)$ in K(A(s+1,s)) and by (4) $x(p-q) \in K(A) = Z(A)$. As before, by (5) this implies that x(p-q)is in N(A(s+1,s)) and hence $f(x(p-q)) = x \in N(A(p,q))$, to show that $K(A(p,q)) \subset N(A(p,q))$ which proves part (ii).

Assume that $p+q\neq 0$. If A is simple, then Z(A) is a field and $2s+1=(p-q)^{-1}(p+q)\in Z(A)$ is invertible, so is p+q. Hence, part (iii) follows from (ii). If A is central simple over F, then Z(A)=F1 and by part (iii) Z(A(p,q))=Fe, which shows that A(p,q) is central simple over F, since A(p,q) is simple over F by Theorem 1. Conversely, if A(p,q) is central simple, then $Z(A)e\subset Z(A(p,q))=Fe$, hence Z(A)=F1 and A is central simple over F.

Theorem 3 has been proved in [1] for the associative case. When A is a finite-dimensional simple alternative algebra over F, one can prove Theorem 3 without restrictions on p+q.

THEOREM 4. Let $K_2(A) = \{x \in A \mid [[x, A], A] = 0\}$. Suppose that A is finite-dimensional simple over F and that A(p, q) has a unit element e.

Then

- (i) $Z(A)e=Z(A(p,q))=K_2(A)e$.
- (ii) A is central simple over F if and only if A(p,q) is central simple over F.

Proof. Since A is simple, Z(A) is a field containing F1. Let K=Z(A). Then, the scalar extension $K\otimes_F A=A_K$ of A to K is central simple over K[5]. Since $Z(A_K) = Z(A)_K$ and $K_2(A_K) = K_2(A)_K$, to show that Z(A) = K(A) it suffices to assume that A is central simple over F. By the same argument, we can further assume that F is algebraically closed. We first contend that $K_2(A)$ is an ideal of A^- for any alternative algebra A. For this, recall that a linearized form of Malcev identity (1) is given by [[x, z], [y, t]] = [[[x, y], z], t] + [[[y, y], z], t]z], t], x] + [[[z, t], x], y] + [[[t, x], y], z] for all x, y, z, $t \in A$ (see [3]). From this identity, it is easily seen that $K_2(A)$ is an ideal of A^- . Owing to the known classification of finite-dimensional simple alternative algebra over F [5, 6], we find that A is isomorphic either to the split octonion algebra C over F or to the $n \times n$ matrix algebra M(n, F) over F. Let C_0 and sl(n, F) be the sets of trace zero elements in C and M(n, F). Then, it easily follows that F1, C_0 and sl(n, F) are the only proper ideals of C^- and $M(n, F)^-$. Thus, it must be that $K_2(A) = F1$ in either case. Since Z(A) = F1, we have that $Z(A) = K_2(A)$.

If $p+q\neq 0$ then it follows from Theorem 3 (iii) that Z(A)e=Z(A(p,q)), and hence part (i) is proved in this case. Suppose then that p+q=0. Thus, $e=(p-q)^{-1}=(2p)^{-1}=(-2q)^{-1}$, and so p and q are invertible in A. The product x*y in A(p,q) is given by x*y=xpy+yqx and hence $A(p,q) \simeq A(p)^+$, where as in the proof of Theorem 2 A(p) is the algebra with multiplication $x\cdot y=xpy$ defined on the vector space A(A(p)) is called the p-isotope of A). Since the map $g:A\to A(p)$ defined by $g(x)=xp^{-1}$ is an algebra isomorphism, A(p) is an alternative algebra also. Letting $(x,y,z)^+$ denote the associator in A^+ , we have from [6, p. 53] the identity

(7)
$$(x, y, z)^+ = -2(x, y, z) + [y, [x, z]]$$

holding for any alternative algebra A. Note first that $g((x, y, z)^+) = (x, y, z)^*$, the associator in A(p, q), since $A(p, q) \simeq A(p)^+$. If $xp \in Z(A)$, so that $x \in Z(A)e$, then by (7) $g((x, A, A)^+) = g((A, x, A)^+) = g((A, A, x)^+) = 0$ and so $x \in N(A(p, q))$. Since K(A(p, q)) = A(p, q)

by Theorem 3 (i), this shows that $Z(A)e \subset Z(A(p,q))$. Conversely, let $x \in N(A(p,q))$. Then, $g^{-1}(x) = xp$ is in $N(A^+)$ and hence by (7)

(8)
$$(xp, u, v) = \frac{1}{2} [u, [xp, v]]$$

for all $u, v \in A$. Since A is alternative, when u=xp in (8), we have [xp, [xp, v]] = 0 for all $v \in A$. But by our assumption, A = C or A = M(n, F) which implies that xp is in F1 = Z(A). Thus, $x \in Z(A)e$ and $N(A(p, q)) \subset Z(A)e$, so Z(A)e = Z(A(p, q)). Therefore, we have established part (i). Part (ii) follows immediately from part (i) and Theorem 2.

Theorem 4 has been proved in [1] for the associative case.

3. Semisimplicity in A(p,q)

For a power-associative algebra B, an element x in B is called nilpotent if $x^n=0$ for some n>0. A nil ideal of B is an ideal of B in which every element is nilpotent. There exists a unique maximal nil ideal of B, which is defined to be the *nilradical* of B. We denote the nilradical by NR(B). If NR(B)=0 then B is said to be (nil) semisimple.

We retain the assumptions that A denotes a finite-dimensional alternative algebra over a field F of characteristic $\neq 2, 3$ with multiplication denoted by xy and p, q are in N(A). Thus, as is well known [5, 6], the nilradical NR(A) of A coincides with the solvable radical of A which is shown to be nilpotent also. In fact, NR(A) equals several other radicals (see [5, 6]). Note also that if A is semisimple then A is a direct sum of simple ideals in A[5]. As before, assuming that A(p, q) has a unit element e, by Theorem 1(v) A(p, q) is power–associative, so that NR(A(p, q)) is definable. The principal result in this section is to show that NR(A(p, q)) = NR(A), and hence A is semisimple if and only if A(p, q) is semisimple. We proceed as for the associative case [1].

Lemma 5. Assume that A(p,q) has a unit element e.

- (i) If $A = A_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus A_n$ is a direct sum of ideals A_i in A then $A(p,q) \simeq A_1(p_1, q_1) \oplus \cdots \oplus A_n(p_n, q_n)$ and each $A_i(p_i, q_i)$ has a unit element e_i , where p_i , q_i , e_i are the A_i -components of p, q, e.
- (ii) If I is an ideal of A (so an ideal of A(p,q)) then A(p,q)/I is isomorphic to the (p+I,q+I)-mutation (A/I)(p+I,q+I) of A/I.

Proof. (i) Since $A_iA_j=0$ for $i\neq j$, if $x=x_1+\cdots+x_n$ with $x_i\in A_i$ then $x*y=xpy-yqx=\sum_{i=1}^n(x_ip_iy_i-y_iq_ix_i)$. This gives the desired isomorphism, and clearly each e_i is a unit element of $A_i(p_i,q_i)$. Part(ii) is straightforward.

Extending a result in [1] for the associative case, we prove

THEOREM 6. Assume that A(p, q) has a unit element e. Then,

- (i) NR(A) = NR(A(p,q)).
- (ii) A is semisimple if and only if A(p,q) is semisimple.

Proof. Assume first that A is semisimple. Then, A is a direct sum $A = A_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus A_n$ of simple ideals A_i in A [5]. By Lemma 6(i), $A(p,q) \cong A_1$ $(p_1, q_1) \oplus \cdots \oplus A_n(p_n, q_n)$, where each $A_i(p_i, q_i)$ is simple by Theorem 2. Thus, A(p, q) is semisimple also. Next, we show that $NR(A) \subseteq NR(A(p,q))$. Let x be any element of NR(A). Then, $x(p-q) \in NR(A)$ and hence $(x(p-q))^n = 0$ for some n > 0. Let x^{*m} denote the mth power in A(p,q). Then, $x^* = x(p-q)x$ and by induction on m we have $x^{*m} = [x(p-q)]^{m-1}x$ for $m \ge 1$ using (2). Hence, $x^{*(n+1)} = 0$, and this shows that NR(A) is a nilideal of A(p,q), which must be contained in NR(A(p,q)).

Let I=NR(A). Since A/I is semisimple, (A/I)(p+I,q+I) is semisimple also. But, by Lemma 5 (ii) (A/I)(p+I,q+I) is isomorphic to A(p,q)/I and hence A(p,q)/I is semisimple. Since $I \subset NR(A(p,q))$, NR(A(p,q))/I is a nil ideal of A(p,q)/I and so NR(A(p,q))/I=0. Therefore, we have established I=NR(A(p,q)), showing part(i). Part (ii) is an immediate consequence of part (i).

REMARKS. It is not known whether NR(A(p,q)) coincides with the solvable radical of A(p,q). However, we conjecture that this is the case. In relation to Theorem 2, it is shown in [1] that if A is an associative algebra, then A is prime if and only if A(p,q) is prime. For an alternative algebra, this is an open problem.

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