# Orbits of one-parameter groups I 

# (Plays in a Lie algebra) 

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(Received Feb. 17, 1969)

## § 1. Introduction.

By an analytic group and by an analytic subgroup of a Lie group, we mean a connected Lie group and a connected Lie subgroup of a Lie group, respectively. Unless specified otherwise, an analytic subgroup and its corresponding Lie subalgebra will be denoted by the same capital script and capital Roman letter, respectively. For example, if $g$ denotes an analytic group and $\mathcal{L}$ denotes an analytic subgroup of $\mathcal{G}$, then $G$ will denote the Lie algebra of $\mathcal{G}$, and $L$ will denote the subalgebra of $G$ corresponding to $\mathcal{L}$. We make the convention that the Lie algebra of a Lie group is the tangent space of that group at the identity.

The fields of real numbers and complex numbers will be denoted by $\boldsymbol{R}$ and $\boldsymbol{C}$, respectively.

Throughout this paper, we shall adopt the terminology and utilize the theorems in
N. Jacobson, Lie algebras, Tracts in Math. 10, Interscience, 1962, and
C. Chevalley, Theory of Lie groups I, Princeton, 1946.

In particular, $\S 2$ and $\S 3$ below are connected with the former, and $\S 4$ and § 5 with the latter.

Let $\mathcal{G}$ be an analytic group, and let $\mathcal{L}$ be an analytic subgroup of $\mathcal{G}$. Let $X$ and $Y$ be elements of $G$. The purpose of this paper is to give a necessary and sufficient condition, in terms of Lie algebras, for the validity of the equality $\exp \boldsymbol{R} X \cdot \mathcal{L}=\exp \boldsymbol{R} Y \cdot \mathcal{L}$. In particular, if $\mathcal{L}$ is a closed subgroup, this equality implies that the orbits of one-parameter groups $\exp \boldsymbol{R} X$ and $\exp \boldsymbol{R} Y$, passing through the point $\mathcal{L}$, coincide in the factor space $\mathcal{G} / \mathcal{L}$.

In order to explain our results, we first adopt the notation (ad $A$ ) $B=[A, B]$ for elements $A$ and $B$ of a Lie algebra, and introduce the following

Definition. Let $G$ be a Lie algebra, and let $L$ be a subalgebra of $G$.

[^0]Let $X$ be an element of $G$. The set

$$
P(X, L)=\left\{A \in L ;(\text { ad } X)^{n} A \in L \text { for } n=1,2, \cdots\right\}
$$

is called the play of $X$ in $L$.
Obviously, $P(X, L)$ is a subalgebra of $L$, and $X$ normalizes $P(X, L)$.
Let $x$ and $y$ be independent non-commutative indeterminates over the field of rational numbers. By the Campbell-Hausdorff formula, see Jacobson loc. cit., $\ln (\exp (-x) \cdot \exp y)$ can be written as a formal Lie power series. That is, we have

$$
\exp (-x) \cdot \exp y=\exp \left\{\varphi_{1}(x, y)+\varphi_{2}(x, y)+\cdots\right\}
$$

where $\varphi_{n}(x, y)$ is a homogeneous Lie polynomial of degree $n$ over the field of rational numbers.

The significance of the notion of "play" is now made apparent by the following theorem:

Theorem 1. Let $\Phi$ be a field of characteristic 0 , and let $G$ be a Lie algebra over $\Phi$. Let $L$ be a subalgebra of $G$, and let $X$ and $Y$ be elements of $G$. Let $\varphi_{n}$ be the homogeneous Lie polynomial of $x$ and $y$, of degree $n$, such that

$$
\exp (-x) \cdot \exp y=\exp \left\{\varphi_{1}(x, y)+\varphi_{2}(x, y)+\cdots\right\}
$$

Then all the $\varphi_{n}(X, Y)$ belong to $L$ if and only if $Y-X$ belongs to $P(X, L)$.
After establishing this, it is not difficult to translate it into the following form:

Proposition 6. Let $G$ be an analytic group, and let $\mathcal{L}$ be an analytic subgroup of 9 . Let $X$ and $Y$ be elements of $G$. Then the one-parameter subgroup $\exp t Y, t \in \boldsymbol{R}$, can be written in a form

$$
\exp t Y=\exp t X \cdot l(t) \quad t \in \boldsymbol{R}
$$

where $l(t)$ is an analytic curve in the analytic group $\mathcal{L}$, if and only if $Y-X$ belongs to the play $P(X, L)$.

On the other hand, by complexifying the analytic groups $\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{L}, \exp t X$ and $\exp t Y$, and using the fact that the only conformal automorphisms of the complex plane $\boldsymbol{C}$ are linear functions, we can prove the following proposition:

Proposition 7. Let $\mathcal{G}$ be an analytic group, and let $\mathcal{L}$ be an analytic subgroup of $\mathcal{G}$. If $\exp \boldsymbol{R} X \cdot \mathcal{L}=\exp \boldsymbol{R} Y \cdot \mathcal{L}$ for $X, Y \in G$, then there exists a real number $\gamma \neq 0$ such that $Y-\gamma X \in P(X, L)$.

Combining the above two propositions, we can realize our purpose as follows:

Theorem 2. Let $\mathcal{G}$ be an analytic group, and let $\mathcal{L}$ be an analytic subgroup of $\mathfrak{G}$. Let $X$ and $Y$ be elements of $G$. Then $\exp \boldsymbol{R} X \cdot \mathcal{L}=\exp \boldsymbol{R} Y \cdot \mathcal{L}$ if and only if there exists a non-zero real number $\gamma$ such that $Y-\gamma X \in P(X, L)$. Moreover, in this case, we have $\exp (-t \gamma X) \cdot \exp t Y \in \mathcal{L}$ for $t \in \boldsymbol{R}$.

If $Q$ is an analytic group, and $\mathscr{P}$ a normal analytic subgroup of codimension one, then for any one-parameter subgroup $\mathscr{X}$ of $Q$, with the direction at the identity not in $\mathscr{P}$, we have $Q=\mathscr{X} \mathscr{P}$. Roughly speaking, Theorem 2 claims that this rather trivial situation must occur in case we have $\exp \boldsymbol{R} X \cdot \mathcal{L}$ $=\exp \boldsymbol{R} Y \cdot \mathcal{L}$ in an analytic group $G$. (Put $P=P(X, L)$ and $Q=\boldsymbol{R} X+P=\boldsymbol{R} Y$ $+P$.)

Remark. In general, $\exp \boldsymbol{R} Y \cdot \mathcal{L}$ can be a non-trivial proper part of $\exp \boldsymbol{R} X \cdot \mathcal{L}$. For example, a two-dimensional analytic group acts transitively on the straight line $\boldsymbol{R}$, by $y=\alpha x+\beta(\alpha, \beta \in \boldsymbol{R}, \alpha>0)$, and the only orbit of the translation group $y=x+t$ is $\boldsymbol{R}$ itself ; on the other hand, the open interval $(-1, \infty)$ is the orbit of the one-parameter group $y=e^{t} x+e^{t}-1$, containing 0 .

The paper is organized into five sections. In $\S 2$, we introduce the notion of the length of a Lie polynomial without a linear term, which plays an important role in the proof of Theorem 1, in §3. In $\S 4$ we develop some machinery on analytic subgroups, which we apply in $\S 5$ to obtain Proposition 6, Proposition 7 and Theorem 2. Finally, at the end of this paper, an example of a play in an infinite-dimensional Lie algebra will be given.

## § 2. Length of a Lie polynomial without a linear term.

Let $\Phi$ be a field of characteristic 0 , and let $\mathfrak{F}$ be a free associative algebra generated by a pair $\{x, y\}$ over $\Phi$. For a non-negative integer $n$, we denote by $\mathfrak{F}_{n}$ the $n$ times tensor product of the two-dimensional vector space $\Phi x+\Phi y$. Then $\mathfrak{F}$ can be identified with the direct sum of the vector spaces $\mathfrak{F}_{0}, \mathscr{F}_{1}, \mathfrak{F}_{2}, \cdots$. For $f$ and $g$ in $\mathfrak{F}$, we define the commutator $[f, g]$ by $[f, g]=f g-g f$, and obtain the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{F}_{\Omega}$. Let $\mathfrak{F} \mathbb{Z}$ be the subalgebra of $\mathfrak{F}_{\mathbb{2}}$ generated by $x$ and $y$. By a Lie polynomial (of $x$ and $y$ ) we mean an element of $\mathfrak{F}$. $\mathfrak{F R}$ is a free Lie algebra generated by the $\{x, y\}$, and $\mathfrak{F}$ is a universal enveloping algebra of $\mathfrak{F} \mathbb{R} . \mathfrak{F} \mathbb{Z}$ is the direct sum of subspaces $\mathfrak{F}_{n}=\widetilde{F}_{n} \cap \mathfrak{F} \mathbb{R}(n=1,2, \cdots)$, composed of homogeneous Lie polynomials of degree $n$.

When there is no danger of confusion, the expression $\left[a_{1},\left[a_{2},\left[\cdots,\left[a_{n-1}\right.\right.\right.\right.$, $\left.\left.\left.a_{n}\right]\right] \cdots\right]$ will be written simply as $a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n-1} a_{n}$. A Lie polynomial is a linear combination of monomials of the form $a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n-1} a_{n}$, where each $a_{i}$ is either $x$ or $y$. By a normalized monomial of degree $n \geqq 2$, we mean a monomial of the form $a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n-1} a_{n}$, with $a_{n-1}=x$ and $a_{n}=y$. Then, a Lie polynomial without a linear term, i.e. an element in $\mathfrak{F}_{2}+\mathfrak{F}_{3}+\cdots$, can be written as a linear combination of normalized monomials. Note that formally distinct normalized monomials can be identical, e. g. $x y x y=y x x y$; however, we have the following proposition:

Proposition 1. Let $f_{1}, f_{2}, \cdots, f_{k}$, and $g_{1}, g_{2}, \cdots, g_{l}$ be normalized monomials. If

$$
\alpha_{1} f_{1}+\alpha_{2} f_{2}+\cdots+\alpha_{k} f_{k}=\beta_{1} g_{1}+\beta_{2} g_{2}+\cdots+\beta_{l} g_{l}
$$

for $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \cdots, \alpha_{k}$ and $\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}, \cdots, \beta_{l}$ in $\Phi$, then $\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}+\cdots+\alpha_{k}=\beta_{1}+\beta_{2}+\cdots+\beta_{l}$.
Proof. We set

$$
X=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad Y=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Then $\{X, Y\}$ forms a basis of a two-dimensional non-abelian Lie algebra and we have

$$
[X, Y]=[X, A]=[Y, A]=A
$$

Hence, if we substitute $\{X, Y\}$ in place of $\{x, y\}$ in any normalized monomial, then it reduces to $A$. So under our assumptions we have

$$
\left(\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}+\cdots+\alpha_{k}^{\prime}\right) A=\left(\beta_{1}+\beta_{2}+\cdots+\beta_{l}\right) A . \quad \text { Q. E. D. }
$$

By the Proposition 1, we can define the length of $\alpha_{1} f_{1}+\alpha_{2} f_{2}+\cdots+\alpha_{k} f_{k}$, as follows:

$$
\left|\alpha_{1} f_{1}+\alpha_{2} f_{2}+\cdots+\alpha_{k} f_{k}\right|=\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}+\cdots+\alpha_{k}
$$

Next we extend the free algebra $\mathfrak{F}$ to the algebra $\overline{\mathfrak{F}}$ of formal power series in the $\{x, y\}$, and accordingly the free Lie algebra $\mathfrak{F} \mathbb{R}$ to the Lie algebra $\overline{\widetilde{F} \mathbb{Z}}$ of formal Lie power series in $\overline{\mathfrak{F}}$; and obtain the Campbell-Hausdorff formula

$$
\exp x \cdot \exp y=\exp \psi(x, y)
$$

where

$$
\psi(x, y)=\psi_{1}(x, y)+\psi_{2}(x, y)+\cdots \in \widetilde{\mathfrak{F} \mathbb{D}},
$$

with

$$
\psi_{1}(x, y)=x+y \in \mathfrak{F} \mathfrak{R}_{1}, \quad \psi_{2}(x, y)=\frac{1}{2}[x, y] \in \mathfrak{F} \mathbb{R}_{2}, \cdots .
$$

We set $\varphi(x, y)=\psi(-x, y)$ and $\varphi_{n}(x, y)=\psi_{n}(-x, y)$ for $n=1,2, \cdots$.
In order to compute the length of $\varphi_{n}(n \geqq 2)$, we make use of the twodimensional Lie algebra in the proof of Proposition 1 again. Retaining the notations, the equality

$$
\begin{aligned}
\exp (-t X) \cdot \exp t Y & =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
e^{-t} & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
e^{t} & e^{t}-1 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1-e^{-t} \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \\
& =\exp \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n!} t^{n}\right) A
\end{aligned}
$$

leads to the following proposition:
Proposition 2. $\left|\varphi_{n}\right|=\frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n!}$ for $n \geqq 2$.
Remark. For the length of $\psi_{n}$, we have the following formula:

$$
t \tanh \frac{t}{2}=\left|\psi_{2}\right| t^{2}+\left|\psi_{3}\right| t^{3}+\cdots
$$

## § 3. Proof of Theorem 1.

Let $G$ be a Lie algebra over the field $\Phi$ of characteristic 0 , and let $L$ be a subalgebra of $G$. Let $X$ and $Y$ be elements of $G$.

Proposition 3. If $(\operatorname{ad} X)^{m}(Y-X) \in L$ for $m=0,1, \cdots, n-1,(n \geqq 1)$, then for any normalized monomial $f(x, y)$ of degree $n+1$, we have

$$
f(X, Y)-(\operatorname{ad} X)^{n} Y \in L .
$$

Proof (by induction on $n$ ). When $n=1, x y=(a d x) y$ is the only normalized monomial of degree 2, and it is obvious.

Let us suppose that the proposition is true for $k<n$. This means all the homogeneous Lie polynomials of degree $k, 2 \leqq k \leqq n$, of the $\{X, Y\}$, belong to L. Let $f(x, y)=a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n-1} x y$ be a normalized monomial of degree $n+1$. If $a_{1}=a_{2}=\cdots=a_{n-1}=x$, there is nothing to prove. Otherwise, we can find the smallest integer $i$ such that $a_{i}=y$. When $i=1$, we set $f_{1}(x, y)=x a_{2} \cdots a_{n-1} x y$ and get $f(x, y)-f_{1}(x, y)=\left[y-x, a_{2} \cdots a_{n-1} x y\right]$. Hence by the induction hypothesis, we have that $f(X, Y)-f_{1}(X, Y) \in L$. When $i>1$, we set $a_{i+1} a_{i+2} \cdots a_{n-1} x y$ $=g(x, y)=g$. Then by Jacobi identity, we have that $x y g=y x g+[x y, g]$, from which it follows that

$$
f(x, y)=x^{i-2} x y g=x^{i-2} y x g+x^{i-2}[x y, g] .
$$

On the other hand, the last term is written as

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{i-2}\binom{i-2}{j}\left[x^{j} x y, x^{i-2-j} g\right],
$$

and by the induction hypothesis, reduces to an element of $L$, if we substitute the $\{X, Y\}$ in the $\{x, y\}$. Therefore putting $f_{2}(x, y)=x^{i-2} y x g$ we have $f(X, Y)$ $-f_{2}(X, Y) \in L$. Repeating the process, the $y$ which was in the $i$-th position can be moved to the first position; and it can be replaced by $x$ using the case when $i=1$; that is, setting $f_{3}(x, y)=x^{i} g$, we have $f(X, Y)-f_{3}(X, Y) \in L$. When there exists a $j>i$ with $a_{j}=y$, we can proceed in a similar way. Q.E.D.

Proof of Theorem 1. Suppose that $\varphi_{n}(X, Y) \in L$ for all $n$. Let us prove that $(a d X)^{n}(Y-X) \in L$ for $n=0,1,2, \ldots$, by induction on $n$. Since $\varphi_{1}(X, Y)$ $=Y-X$, it is true for $n=0$. For $n \geqq 1$, we can write $\varphi_{n+1}(x, y)$ as a linear combination of normalized monomials, $f_{1}, f_{2}, \cdots, f_{k}$, as follows:

$$
\varphi_{n+1}(x, y)=\alpha_{1} f_{1}(x, y)+\alpha_{2} f_{2}(x, y)+\cdots+\alpha_{k} f_{k}(x, y)
$$

where $\alpha_{i} \in \Phi, 1 \leqq i \leqq k$. By the induction hypothesis $(\operatorname{ad} X)^{m}(Y-X) \in L$ for $m=0,1, \cdots, n-1$. Hence by Proposition 3, $f_{i}(X, Y)-(a d X)^{n}(Y-X) \in L$, for $i=1,2, \cdots, k$, which implies that

$$
\varphi_{n+1}(X, Y)-\left|\varphi_{n+1}\right|(\operatorname{ad} X)^{n}(Y-X) \in L
$$

Since $\left|\varphi_{n+1}\right| \neq 0$ by Proposition 2, we have $(\operatorname{ad} X)^{n}(Y-X) \in L$.
Conversely, if $(\operatorname{ad} X)^{n}(Y-X) \in L$ for $n=0,1,2, \cdots$, then all Lie polynomials without a linear term, together with $Y-X$, belong to $L$, by Proposition 3.

## § 4. Propositions on analytic subgroups.

Let $\mathcal{G}$ be an analytic group of dimension $r$, and let $e$ denote the identity of $g$. Let $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathscr{B}$ be analytic groups, and let us suppose there exist continuous (analytic) one-one homomorphisms $\alpha$ and $\beta$ from $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathscr{B}$ into $\mathcal{G}$, respectively. The images $\alpha(\mathcal{A})$ and $\beta(\mathscr{B})$ are analytic subgroups of $\mathcal{G}$. We shall study the properties of the double coset $\alpha(A) g \beta(\mathscr{B})$ for $g \in G$.

We fix an element $g$ of $\mathcal{G}$, and set $\mathcal{C}=\mathcal{C}(g)=\alpha(\mathcal{A}) \cap g \beta(\mathscr{B}) g^{-1}$. Then $\mathcal{C}$ is a subgroup of $\mathcal{G}$. We consider a mapping $\rho=\rho(g)$ from the direct product group $\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B}$ into $G$, defined by

$$
\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B} \ni(a, b) \mapsto \alpha(a)^{-1} g \beta(b) \in \mathcal{G} .
$$

We set $\mathscr{G}=\mathscr{D}(g)=\left\{\left(\alpha^{-1}(c), \beta^{-1}\left(g^{-1} c g\right)\right) ; c \in \mathcal{C}\right\}$. Then $\rho$ is analytic and $\rho(a, b)=\rho\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)$ if and only if $\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right) \in \mathscr{G}(a, b)$. Hence $\mathscr{D}$ is a closed subgroup of $\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B}$ and $\rho$ induces a one-one analytic mapping $\tilde{\rho}=\tilde{\rho}(g)$ from $(\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B}) / \mathscr{D}(g)$ into $\mathcal{G}$. We denote by $d(g)$ the dimension of the manifold $(\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B}) / \mathscr{D}(g)$.

Let us denote by $A d(g)$ the automorphism of the Lie algebra $G$ induced by the inner automorphism: $G \ni h \mapsto g h g^{-1} \in \mathcal{G}$. We also denote by $\alpha(A)$ and $\beta(B)$ the Lie algebras of $\alpha(\mathcal{A})$ and $\beta(\mathscr{B})$, respectively, and we set $C=C(g)=$ $\alpha(A) \cap(A d(g)) \beta(B)$. Then $C(g)$ is a subalgebra of $G$.

Let $\mathscr{G}^{0}$ be the connected component containing the identity of $\mathscr{G}$. We denote by $\mathcal{C}^{0}=\mathcal{C}^{0}(g)$ the image by $\alpha$ of the projection of $\mathscr{D}^{0}$ into $\mathcal{A}$. Then $\mathcal{C}^{0}$ is an analytic subgroup of $\mathcal{G}$. Since $\mathcal{C}^{0} \subset \alpha(\mathcal{A}) \cap g \beta(\mathscr{B}) g^{-1}=\mathcal{C}(g)$, the Lie algebra of $\mathcal{C}^{0}$ is contained in $C(g)$. On the other hand, for any $X$ in $C(g)$, we have $\exp \boldsymbol{R} X \subset \mathcal{C}(g)$, and $\left(\alpha^{-1}(\exp t X), \beta^{-1}\left(g^{-1}(\exp t X) g\right)\right) \in \mathscr{D}^{0}$ for all $t \in \boldsymbol{R}$. Hence $\exp t X \subset \mathcal{C}^{0}$. Hence $C(g)$ is the Lie algebra of the analytic subgroup $\mathcal{C}^{0}(g)$. Since we have a continuous one-one homomorphism from $\mathscr{D}^{0}$ onto $\mathcal{C}^{0}$, we have that

$$
\operatorname{dim} \mathscr{G}=\operatorname{dim} \mathscr{D}^{0}=\operatorname{dim} \mathcal{C}^{0}=\operatorname{dim} C .
$$

This implies, in particular, that

$$
d(g)=\operatorname{dim} \mathcal{A}+\operatorname{dim} \mathscr{B}-\operatorname{dim} \mathscr{D}=\operatorname{dim}(\alpha(A)+(A d(g)) \beta(B)) .
$$

Let us take the maximum $d_{0}$ of all $d(g), g \in \mathcal{G}$, and we set $\mathcal{S}=\{g \in \mathcal{G}$; $\left.d(g)<d_{0}\right\}$. We are, now, going to prove that $\mathcal{S}$ is an analytic set in $\mathcal{G}$. For that purpose, we take a basis $\left\{X_{1}, \cdots, X_{k}\right\}$ of $\alpha(A)$, and extend it into a basis $\left\{X_{1}, \cdots, X_{k}, X_{k+1}, \cdots, X_{r}\right\}$ of $G$. Let $Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \cdots, Y_{l}$ be a basis of $\beta(B)$, and
we set

$$
A d(g) Y_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{r} \xi_{j i}(g) X_{j} \quad \text { for } \quad i=1,2, \cdots, l
$$

and consider the $(k+l) \times r$ matrix $M(g)$, whose $j$-th row is $(0, \cdots, 0,1,0, \cdots, 0)$ for $1 \leqq j \leqq k$, and $(k+i)$-th row is $\left(\xi_{1 i}(g), \xi_{2 i}(g), \cdots, \xi_{r i}(g)\right)$, for $1 \leqq i \leqq l$. Then $g \in \mathcal{S}$ if and only if all the $d_{0} \times d_{0}$ minor determinants of $M(g)$ vanish.

Let us call $g$ regular if $g \notin \mathcal{S}$. Then the set $\mathcal{G}-\mathcal{S}$ of all regular points is an open, everywhere dense, submanifold of $G$.

For $X$ in $G$, we denote by $* X$ (or $X^{*}$ ) the left (or right) invariant vector field with the value $X$ at $e$. We denote the value of a vector field $U$ at $g$ by $U(g)$, and for a vector subspace $M$ of $G$ we use the notation ${ }^{*} M=\{* X ; X \in M\}$ and ${ }^{*} M(g)=\{* X(g) ; X \in M\} . M^{*}, M^{*}(g)$ will be defined in a similar way. We define the analytic mappings $\Phi_{g}, \Psi_{g}$ and $J$ by $\Phi_{g} h=g h, \Psi_{g} h=h g$, and $J g=g^{-1}$, respectively. These are all analytic automorphisms of the analytic manifold $\mathcal{G}$ onto itself.

Since $(A d(g) X)^{*}(g)=d \Psi_{g} d \Psi_{g-1} d \Phi_{g} X^{*}(e)$ and $X^{*}(e)=X$, we have $(A d(g) X)^{*}(g)=* X(g)$, which implies that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{dim}\left(\alpha(A)^{*}(g)+* \beta(B)(g)\right) & =\operatorname{dim}\left(\alpha(A)^{*}(g)+(A d(g) \beta(B))^{*}(g)\right) \\
& =\operatorname{dim}(\alpha(A)+(A d(g)) \beta(B))=d(g)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\Phi_{g} \circ \Psi_{h}=\Psi_{h} \circ \Phi_{h}$ for every pair $(g, h)$ in $G$, we have $\left[\alpha(A)^{*}, * \beta(B)\right]$ $=0$, and since $\alpha(A)^{*}$ and $* \beta(B)$ are Lie algebras,

$$
\Delta(g)=\alpha(A)^{*}(g)+* \beta(B)(g)
$$

defines a $d_{0}$-dimensional analytic involutive distribution $\Delta$ in $\mathcal{G}-\mathcal{S}$.
Let $Y$ be in $A$, and let $* Y$ be the left invariant vector field of $\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B}$ with the value $Y$ at the identity. We extend the homomorphism $\alpha$ into the homomorphism $\tilde{\alpha}$ from $\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B}$ into $\mathcal{G}$ by $\tilde{\alpha}(a, b)=\alpha(a)$. We denote the tangential map corresponding to $\alpha$ from $A$ into $G$ by $d \alpha_{1}$, and set $d \alpha_{1}(Y)=X$. Then we have $d \tilde{\alpha}^{*} Y(a, b)=* X(\alpha(a))$. For elements in $\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B}$, we have $\rho(a, b)=$ $\left(\Psi_{g \beta(b)} \circ J \circ \tilde{\alpha}\right)(a, b)$. On the other hand, we have $d J(* X(g))=-X^{*}\left(g^{-1}\right)$. Hence we have

$$
d \rho^{*} Y(a, b)=-X^{*}\left(\alpha(a)^{-1} g \beta(b)\right)
$$

Similarly for $Y$ in $B$ and the image $d \beta_{1}(Y)=X \in \beta(B)$ we have

$$
d \rho^{*} Y(a, b)=* X\left(\alpha(a)^{-1} g \beta(b)\right)
$$

We denote by $(\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B})(a, b)$ the tangent space of $\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B}$ at $(a, b)$. Then we have

$$
d \rho \cdot(\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B})(a, b)=\Delta\left(\alpha(a)^{-1} g \beta(b)\right)
$$

Hence, changing the notations we have

Proposition 4. Let $\mathcal{G}$ be an analytic group of dimension $r$, and let $A$ and $B$ be subalgebras of $G$. Let $\mathcal{S}$ be the set of all elements $g$ in $G$ such that $\operatorname{dim}(A+A d(g) B)$ is not maximal. Then $\mathcal{S}$ is an analytic set of dimension $\leqq r-1$, and $A^{*}+* B=\Delta$ defines an analytic involutive distribution in the open submanifold $\mathcal{G}-\mathcal{S}$. For $g$ in $\mathcal{G}-\mathcal{S}$, we can define a closed subgroup $\mathscr{D}(g)$ in $\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B}$ such that

$$
\tilde{\rho}(g): \quad(\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{A}) / \mathscr{D}(g) \rightarrow \mathcal{A} g \mathscr{B}
$$

defines an integral manifold of $\Delta$ through $g$.
REmark 1. It is easy to see that $\mathcal{A} g \mathscr{B}$ is an analytic submanifold of $\mathcal{G}$, even if $g$ is in $\mathcal{S}$.

Remark 2. When $e$ is not in $\mathcal{S}$, we say that the pair $(A, B)$ is in a generic position. When $A \cap B=\{0\}$, the pair is always in a generic position.

Remark 3. If, in particular, $A=\{0\}$, then the set $\mathcal{S}$ is empty.
Proposition 5. Let $f$ be an analytic function from an open interval in $\boldsymbol{R}$ into $\mathcal{G}-\mathcal{S}$. If there exists a subinterval, for which the image of $f$ is contained in $\mathcal{A} g_{0} \mathcal{B}, g_{0} \in \mathcal{G}-\mathcal{S}$, then $f(t)$ is completely contained in $\mathcal{A} g_{0} \mathscr{B}$, and $\tilde{\rho}\left(g_{0}\right)^{-1} f(t)$ is analytic from the interval into $(\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B}) / \mathscr{G}\left(g_{0}\right)$.

Proof. Suppose it is not true, and we assume that $f(t) \in \mathcal{A} g_{0} \mathcal{B}$ if $-\varepsilon<t$ $<\varepsilon$, and $f(t) \oplus \mathcal{A} g_{0} \mathscr{B}$ for some $t>0$, without loss of generality. Let $t_{1}$ be the greatest lower bound of the set $\left\{t \in \boldsymbol{R} ; f(t) \notin \mathcal{A} g_{0} \mathcal{B}\right.$ and $\left.t>0\right\}$. Then $t_{1}$ is positive. We can find a neighborhood $\mathcal{U}$ of $f\left(t_{1}\right)=g_{1}$, and an analytic coordinate system $\left\{\xi^{1}, \xi^{2}, \cdots, \xi^{r}\right\}$ defined in $\mathcal{Q}$, such that $\xi^{d_{0}+1}=\gamma^{1}, \cdots, \xi^{r}=\gamma^{r-d_{0}}$ defines a slice for ( $\gamma^{1}, \cdots, \gamma^{r-d_{0}}$ ) sufficiently close to the origin in $\boldsymbol{R}^{r-d_{0}}$. We note that $\mathcal{A} g_{0} \mathscr{B} \cap \mathcal{U}$ is composed of at most countably many slices. We can take a positive number $\delta$, small enough, such that $f(t) \in \mathcal{Q}, t_{1}-\delta<t<t_{1}+\delta$. Then the curve $f(t), t_{1}-\delta<t<t_{1}$ is in one of the slices, and we have $\xi^{d_{0}+j}(f(t))$ $=r^{j}$ for $j=1,2, \cdots, r-d_{0}$. Hence the equation must be true for all $t$, i. e. $f(t)$ is in $\mathcal{A g} g_{0} \mathcal{B}$ for all $t$ with $t_{1}-\delta<t<t_{1}+\delta$. This contradicts the choice of $t_{1}$.

Now the last statement is obvious.
Q. E. D.

Corollary. For $g \in \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A} g \mathscr{B}$ is a maximal integral manifold of $\Delta$.
Proof. Suppose there exists a connected analytic manifold $\mathcal{M}$, containing $(\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B}) / \mathscr{D}(g)$ as a proper open submanifold, and an analytic mapping $\bar{\rho}$ which is an extension of $\tilde{\rho}$, such that ( $\mathcal{M}, \bar{\rho}$ ) defines an integral manifold of $\Delta$. Let $p$ be a point in the boundary of $(\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B}) / \mathscr{D}(g)$ in $\mathscr{M}$, and let $\mathcal{U}$ be a neighborhood of $p$ with an analytic coordinate system ( $\xi^{1}, \xi^{2}, \cdots, \xi^{d_{0}}$ ), with $\xi^{i}(p)=0$ for $i=1,2, \cdots, d_{0}$, and $-1<\xi^{1}<1, \cdots,-1<\xi^{d_{0}}<1$. Let $q$ be a point in $थ \cap(A \times \mathscr{B}) / \mathscr{D}(g)$, with $\xi^{i}(g)=r^{i}$ for $i=1,2, \cdots, d_{0}$. For $t$, with $|t|<1$, we associate a point $p_{t}$ in $U$ such that $\xi^{i}\left(p_{t}\right)=\gamma^{i} t\left(i=1,2, \cdots, d_{0}\right)$. Then $\bar{\rho}\left(p_{t}\right)$ defines an analytic curve in $\mathcal{G}-\mathcal{S}$, which satisfies the conditions in Proposition 5.

## §5. Proof of Theorem 2.

We shall prove Propositions 6 and 7 , see $\S 1$, which imply Theorem 2.
Proof of Proposition 6. If $\exp (t Y)=\exp (t X) \cdot l(t), l(t) \in \mathcal{L}$ for $t$ in $\boldsymbol{R}$, we can find a positive number $\varepsilon$ such that
(*)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \exp (-t X) \cdot \exp (t Y)=\exp \left\{\varphi_{1}(X, Y) t+\varphi_{2}(X, Y) t^{2}+\cdots\right\} \\
& \varphi_{1}(X, Y) t+\varphi_{2}(X, Y) t^{2}+\cdots \in L
\end{aligned}
$$

for $|t|<\varepsilon$. Thus we have $\varphi_{n}(X, Y) \in L$ for $n=1,2, \cdots$, and it follows that $Y-X \in P(X, L)$ by Theorem 1 .

Conversely, we assume that $Y-X \subseteq P(X, L)$ and put $\exp (-t X) \cdot \exp (t Y)$ $=l(t)$. Then for $t$, sufficiently close to $0, l(t)$ is given by the right side of $(*)$, and is contained in $\mathcal{L}$. Since $l$ is analytic, $l(t) \in \mathcal{L}$ for all $t \in \boldsymbol{R}$, by Proposition 5.
Q. E. D.

Proof of Proposition 7. Let $G^{C}$ be the complexification of $G$, i.e. $G^{\boldsymbol{C}}=G \otimes_{\boldsymbol{R}} \boldsymbol{C} . \quad G^{\boldsymbol{C}}$ is a Lie algebra over $\boldsymbol{C}$, and contains $G$ in a natural way. The complexification $L^{C}$ of $L$ can be canonically imbedded in $G^{c}$, with $G \cap L^{C}=L$.

Let $\mathcal{G C}$ be one of the complex analytic groups with the Lie algebra $G \boldsymbol{C}$. $G^{C}$ contains an analytic subgroup $\mathcal{L}^{\boldsymbol{C}}$, whose Lie algebra is $L^{C}$.

Let us suppose that $X$ is not in $L$. Then for $\mathcal{A}=\exp (\boldsymbol{R} X)$ and $\mathscr{B}=\mathcal{L}$, in the discussions of $\S 4, \mathscr{D}(e)$ is a discrete subgroup of $\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B}$. We denote by $\pi$ the homomorphism $\boldsymbol{R} \ni t \mapsto \exp (t X) \in \mathcal{A}$. Then $\sigma: \boldsymbol{R} \times \mathscr{B} \ni(t, b) \mapsto \mathscr{D}(e)(\pi(t), b)$ $\in(\mathcal{A} \times \mathscr{B}) / \mathscr{D}(e)$ is a covering mapping. Since $\exp (t Y)$ is an analytic curve in $\mathcal{A} \mathscr{B}$, we can find a unique analytic curve $(f(t), g(t))$ in $\boldsymbol{R} \times \mathscr{B}$ such that

$$
\tilde{\rho}(e) \pi(f(t), g(t))=\exp (t Y) \quad t \in \boldsymbol{R}
$$

and

$$
f(0)=g(0)=\text { the identity }
$$

i. e. we have $\exp (t Y)=\exp (f(t) X) \cdot g(t), g(t) \in \mathscr{B}$.

We denote the exponential function from $G^{C}$ into $\mathcal{G}^{C}$ also by exp. Since $f(t)$ is an analytic function defined on $\boldsymbol{R}$, it can be extended to an entire function on $\boldsymbol{C}$. We shall denote the extension also by $f$. Then $\xi(z)=$ $\exp (-f(z) X) \cdot \exp (z Y)$ is an analytic function from $\boldsymbol{C}$ into $\boldsymbol{G} \boldsymbol{c}$. Let $X_{1}, X_{2}$, $\cdots, X_{k}$ be a basis of $L$. Then for a real number $t$ sufficiently close to 0 , we have $\xi(t)=g(t)=\exp \left\{l_{1}(t) X_{1}+l_{2}(t) X_{2}+\cdots+l_{k}(t) X_{k}\right\}$, where $l_{1}(t), l_{2}(t), \cdots, l_{k}(t)$ are power series of $t$. Hence for a complex number $z$ sufficiently close to 0 , we have

$$
\xi(z)=\exp \left\{l_{1}(z) X_{1}+l_{2}(z) X_{2}+\cdots+l_{k}(z) X_{k}\right\}
$$

i. e. $\xi(z) \in \mathcal{L}^{c}$. Hence by Proposition $5, \xi(z)$ is completely contained in $\mathcal{L}^{c}$.

So we have

$$
\exp (z Y)=\exp (f(z) X) \cdot \xi(z), \quad z \in \boldsymbol{C}
$$

Similarly we have

$$
\exp (z X)=\exp (h(z) Y) \cdot \eta(z), \quad \eta(z) \in \mathcal{L}^{c}, \quad z \in \boldsymbol{C} .
$$

Hence we have

$$
\exp (z X)=\exp (f(h(z)) X) \cdot \xi(h(z)) \eta(z) .
$$

Since $X \notin L^{c}$, at least for $z$ sufficiently close to 0 , we have $z=f(h(z))$, and the functional relation must be valid for all $z$. Hence $f(z)$ must be a linear function. On the other hand, since $f(0)=0$, we have $f(z)=\gamma z$.
Q. E. D.

Example. Let $\Gamma_{n}$ denote the set composed of all germs of analytic vector fields of $\boldsymbol{R}^{n}, n \geqq 1$, at the origin $o=(0,0, \cdots, 0)$. Then $\Gamma_{n}$ is a Lie algebra of infinite dimension over $\boldsymbol{R}$. The set of elements of $\Gamma_{n}$ which vanish at $o$ forms a subalgebra $\Lambda_{n}$.

For an element $X$ of $\Gamma_{n}$ which can be expressed as

$$
X=X_{1} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{1}}+X_{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{2}}+\cdots+X_{n} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{n}},
$$

we associate the following analytic ordinary differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d x_{i}}{d t}=X_{i}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n}\right) \quad i=1,2, \cdots, n, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and consider the (germ of) solution of (1) with the initial condition

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{1}(0)=x_{2}(0)=\cdots=x_{n}(0)=0 . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

When $X$ is in $\Lambda_{n}$, the solution is trivial. If $X$ does not vanish at $o$, by choosing a suitable analytic coordinate system around $o$, we may assume that $X=\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{1}}$. Let $A$ be an element of $\Lambda_{n}: A=A_{1} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{1}}+A_{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{2}}+\cdots+A_{n} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{n}}$. If the solution $(t, 0, \cdots, 0)$ of $X$ is also a solution of $X+A$, then $A_{1}\left(x_{1}, 0, \cdots, 0\right)$ $=A_{2}\left(x_{1}, 0, \cdots, 0\right)=A_{n}\left(x_{1}, 0, \cdots, 0\right)=0$, and vice versa.

On the other hand, since we have

$$
(a d X)^{k} A=\frac{\partial^{k} A_{1}}{\partial x_{1}^{k}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{1}}+\frac{\partial^{k} A_{2}}{\partial x_{1}^{k}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{2}}+\cdots+\frac{\partial^{k} A_{n}}{\partial x_{1}^{k}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{n}}, \quad k=1,2, \cdots,
$$

$A$ is contained in the play $P\left(X, \Lambda_{n}\right)$ if and only if all $\frac{\partial^{k} A_{i}}{\partial x_{1}{ }^{k}}(0)=0$, i. e. $A_{i}\left(x_{1}, 0, \cdots, 0\right)=0$ for $i=1,2, \cdots, n$. Thus we have the following conclusion: Two germs of analytic vector fields $X$ and $Y$, at the origin of $\boldsymbol{R}^{n}$, give the same solution, with (2), if and only if $Y-X \in P\left(X, \Lambda_{n}\right)$.


[^0]:    1) Research supported in part by NSF Grant GP 4503.
