# The Riccati differential equation and non-associative algebras<sup>[1\)](#page-0-0)</sup>

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#### Introduction

<span id="page-0-1"></span>1 The *Riccati differential equation*, that is, systems of differential equations of the form

$$
\dot{x}_i = \sum_{k,l=1}^n \alpha_{ikl} x_k x_l, \quad \alpha_{ikl} \in \mathbb{R}, i = 1, \dots, n,
$$
\n<sup>(\*)</sup>

often appears in problems regarding the behaviour of closed systems in biology, genetics, ecology, chemistry etc. Aside from the fact that the corresponding initial value problem has a unique solution, in the general case very little is known about the solutions  $x_i = x_i(\xi)$ .

In vector notation, the system  $(*)$  can be written

$$
\dot{x} = p(x), \qquad \qquad (**)
$$

where  $p : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is a given vector-valued homogeneous polynomial of degree 2.

The homogeneous polynomial  $p : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$  of degree 2 correspond bijectively to the commutative algebra structures on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ : If p is such a polynomial, we obtain via

$$
xy = \frac{1}{2}(p(x + y) - p(x) - p(y))
$$

an R-bilinear and symmetric map  $(x, y) \mapsto xy$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Thus we assign to every p a commutative (but not necessarily associative) algebra  $\mathfrak{A} = \mathfrak{A}_p$ on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $p(x) = x^2$  holds. Conversely, if  $\mathfrak{A}$  is an algebra on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $p(x) =$  $x^2$  is a homogeneous polynomial of degree 2.

Subsequently, we take the following "algebraic" point of view when studying the properties of the system  $(*)$  and  $(**)$ , respectively:

<span id="page-0-0"></span> $1$ <sup>1)</sup>Extended version of a talk given at the Festkolloquium in honour of the 60<sup>th</sup> birthday of Helene Braun on the June 12, 1974.

Let  $\mathfrak A$  with the product  $(x, y) \mapsto xy$  be a commutative R-algebra on  $\mathbb R^n$ . The associated Riccati differential equation is the system

$$
\dot{x} = x^2. \tag{***}
$$

Every solution  $x = x(\xi)$  that is differentiable in a neighborhood of  $\xi = 0$  is called an A*-solution*.

2 Define the R-vector space  $\mathfrak{R}_n$  of power series f that converge in a neighborhood of 0 in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$
f(u) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} f_m(u),
$$

where  $f_m \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  are homogeneous polynomials of degree m. In addition, define the subset

$$
\mathfrak{S}_n = \{ f \in \mathfrak{R}_n \mid f(u) = u + \text{higher order terms} \}
$$

of  $\mathfrak{R}_n$ . It is well-known that every  $f \in \mathfrak{S}_n$  is invertible in a neighborhood of 0 and that  $\mathcal{G}_n$  is a group with respect to  $(f, g) \mapsto f \circ g$ . Moreover, it is clear that  $\mathfrak{S}_n$  acts on  $\mathfrak{R}_n$  as a group of endomorphisms via

$$
\Re_n \times \mathfrak{S}_n \to \mathfrak{R}_n, \quad (q, f) \mapsto q \circ f.
$$

For  $p, q \in \mathfrak{R}_n$ , define  $p \bullet q \in \mathfrak{R}_n$  by

$$
((p \bullet q)(u))_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial p_i(u)}{\partial u_j} q_j(u),
$$

where the indices denote indicate the components of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Geometrically,  $p \bullet q$  is the *directional derivative of* p *in the direction of* q. Clearly,  $\mathcal{R}_n$  together with the product  $(p, q) \mapsto p \bullet q$  is a (non-associative) R-algebra.

3 As in 1, let  $\mathfrak A$  be a commutative R-algebra on  $\mathbb R^n$ . As usual, the powers of  $\mathfrak A$ are defined recursively by  $u^{m+1} = uu^m$ ,  $u^1 = u$ . Define recursively

$$
g_{m+1} = g_m \bullet p, \quad g_0(u) = u,
$$

where p is given by  $p(u) = u^2$ , and verifies that

$$
g_{\mathfrak{A}}(u) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m!} g_m(u)
$$

defines an element  $g_{\mathfrak{A}}$  of  $\mathfrak{S}_n$ . Verify that

$$
g_{\mathfrak{A}}(u) = u + u^2 + u^3 + \frac{1}{3}(2u^4 + u^2u^2) + \frac{1}{6}(2u^5 + u(u^2u^2) + 3u^2u^3) + \dots
$$

To the algebra  $\mathfrak A$  is now assigned a subset  $\mathfrak{G}(\mathfrak A)$  of those  $f \in \mathfrak{S}_n$  for which  $f(x(\xi))$  is an  $\mathfrak{A}$ -solution if  $x = x(\xi)$  is. The elements of  $\mathfrak{G}(\mathfrak{A})$  preserve solutions of the associated Riccati equation of  $\mathfrak{A}$ . One can prove that  $\mathfrak{S}(\mathfrak{A})$  is a subgroup of  $\mathcal{G}_n$  that contains  $g_{\mathfrak{A}}$ . Thus  $\mathfrak{G}(\mathfrak{A})$  does not consist of the identity element only.

4 From the theory of Jordan algebras it is known that certain algebras derived from  $\mathfrak A$  play an important role: For  $a \in \mathfrak A$  define a new product on  $\mathbb R^n$ ,

$$
u \perp_a v = u(va) + v(ua) - a(uv), \quad u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n.
$$

We call this algebra  $\mathfrak{A}_a$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  defined by the product  $(u, v) \mapsto u \perp_a v$  the *mutation of*  $\mathfrak A$  *with respect to a.* Clearly,  $\mathfrak A_a$  is also commutative.

In studying the group  $\mathcal{G}(\mathfrak{A})$  one necessarily encounters the vector subspace

$$
\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A}) = \{ a \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid 2u(u(ua)) + u^3 a = 2u(u^2a) + u^2(ua) \text{ for } u \in \mathbb{R}^n \}
$$

of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . In other places it has been shown:

**Theorem A** If  $\mathfrak A$  has an identity element, then

$$
a \mapsto g_{\mathfrak{B}}, \quad \mathfrak{B} = \mathfrak{A}_a,
$$

is an isomorphism of the additive group of  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$  onto  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$ .

Due to this isomorphism the seemingly arbitrarily defined vector subspace  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$ of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has to play an exceptional role. In the present note we will show (Theorem [2.3\)](#page-11-0) that  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$  is indeed algebraically exceptional:

**Theorem B** For every commutative algebra  $\mathfrak{A}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathfrak{J}(\mathfrak{A})$  is a Jordan subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{A}$ .

The proof uses standard arguments from the theory of Jordan and Lie algebras (compare Meyberg  $[2, 3, 4]$  $[2, 3, 4]$  $[2, 3, 4]$ ). The restriction to real algebras  $\mathfrak A$  is not essential.

5 A simple special case shall be mentioned: If the commutative R-algebra  $\mathfrak A$  is also associative (or more generally power-associative), then the differential equation  $(* * *)$  can be solved explicitely. With elementary arguments we can see that the power series  $g_{\mathfrak{A}}$  defined in 3 is given by

$$
g_{\mathfrak{A}}(u) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} u^m.
$$

So if  $\mathfrak A$  has an identity element  $e$ , it follows that

$$
g_{\mathfrak{A}}(u)=u(e-u)^{-1}.
$$

Thus  $g_{\mathfrak{A}}$  is birational. The solution of the initial value problem  $x(0) = u$  of the differential equation  $(* * *)$  is then give by

$$
x(\xi) = u(e - \xi u)^{-1}.
$$

We obtain a global solution whose asymptotic behaviour is easy to determine.

In the special case of a commutative and associative algebra  $\mathfrak A$  discussed here, it follows that  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A}) = \mathfrak{A}$ , so that  $\mathfrak{G}(\mathfrak{A})$  is an *n*-dimensional vector group.

#### §1 Lie algebras and Jordan tripel systems

In this paragraph, let  $\mathbb k$  always be a commutative ring with identity element. All k-modules appearing here are k-left-modules of rings with identity ("unitary leftmodules").

1 Let  $\Omega$  be a Lie algebra over k with the following properties:

 $(Q.1)$   $\Omega = \mathfrak{F} \oplus \mathfrak{D} \oplus \mathfrak{N}$  is the direct sum of the subalgebras  $\mathfrak{F}, \mathfrak{D}$  and  $\mathfrak{N}$ .

 $(Q.2)$   $\tilde{\gamma}$  and  $\mathfrak{N}$  are abelian.

 $(Q.3) \quad [\mathfrak{F}, \mathfrak{D}] \subset \mathfrak{F}, [\mathfrak{F}, \mathfrak{N}] \subset \mathfrak{D}, [\mathfrak{D}, \mathfrak{N}] \subset \mathfrak{N}.$ 

We then have  $[\mathfrak{F}, \mathfrak{Q}] \subset \mathfrak{F} \oplus \mathfrak{X}$  and  $[\mathfrak{N}, \mathfrak{Q}] \subset \mathfrak{F} \oplus \mathfrak{N}$ , so that

$$
[\mathfrak{F}, [\mathfrak{F}, \mathfrak{L}]]] = [\mathfrak{N}, [\mathfrak{N}, [\mathfrak{N}, \mathfrak{Q}]]] = \mathbf{0}.
$$
 (1.1)

By

$$
\{a, p, b\} = [a, [b, p]] \quad \text{for } a, b \in \mathfrak{F}, p \in \mathfrak{N},
$$
  

$$
\{p, a, q\} = [p, [q, a]] \quad \text{for } a \in \mathfrak{F}, p, q \in \mathfrak{N},
$$

two k-trilinear maps

<span id="page-4-2"></span><span id="page-4-0"></span>
$$
\mathfrak{F} \times \mathfrak{N} \times \mathfrak{F} \to \mathfrak{F}, \quad (a, p, b) \mapsto \{a, p, b\},
$$
  

$$
\mathfrak{N} \times \mathfrak{F} \times \mathfrak{N} \to \mathfrak{N}, \quad (p, a, q) \mapsto \{p, a, q\},
$$
 (1.2)

are defined. From the composition rules (Q.3) we infer that the images are indeed contained in  $\mathfrak F$  and  $\mathfrak R$ , respectively. By (Q.2) both maps are symmetrical in the first and third argument. Using the Jacobi identity we verify

$$
[t, \{b, q, c\}] = \{[t, b], q, c\} + \{b, [t, q], c\} + \{b, q, [t, c]\}
$$
(1.3)

for  $t \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $b, c \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $q \in \mathcal{R}$ . Analogously,

<span id="page-4-1"></span>
$$
[t, \{q, b, r\}] = \{[t, q], b, r\} + \{q, [t, b], r\} + \{q, b, [t, r]\}
$$
(1.4)

for  $t \in \mathcal{X}, b \in \mathcal{X}$  and  $q, r \in \mathcal{X}$ . As in [\[3,](#page-13-1) p. 19] we see:

<span id="page-4-3"></span>**Lemma 1.1** For  $a, b, c \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $p, q, r \in \mathcal{R}$ :

(a)  $\{b, \{p, a, q\}, c\} = \{b, q, \{a, p, c\}\} + \{c, q, \{a, p, b\}\} - \{a, p, \{b, q, c\}\},\$ 

(b) 
$$
\{q, \{a, p, b\}, r\} = \{q, b, \{p, a, r\}\} + \{r, b, \{p, a, q\}\} - \{p, a, \{q, b, r\}\}.
$$

PROOF: Set  $t = [a, p]$  in [\(1.3\)](#page-4-0) and [\(1.4\)](#page-4-1).  $\diamondsuit$ 

A pair  $(\mathfrak{F}, \mathfrak{N})$  of k-modules together with two trilinear maps [\(1.2\)](#page-4-2) that are symmetric in the first and third argument and satisfy the identities in Lemma [1.1](#page-4-3) are called a *Jordan tripel system* (or *connected pair* in the sense of Meyberg [\[2\]](#page-13-0)). From [\[2,](#page-13-0) Satz 2.2, Satz 2.3] we obtain:

**Lemma 1.2** If  $\Omega = \mathcal{F} \oplus \mathcal{F} \oplus \mathcal{R}$  is a k-Lie algebra satisfying (Q.1), (Q.2) and  $(Q.3)$ , and if the k-module  $\Omega$  is divisible by 2 and 3, then:

(a) For every  $p \in \mathfrak{N}, \mathfrak{F}$  with the product

$$
(a,b)\mapsto\{a,p,b\}=[a,[b,p]]
$$

is a k-Jordan algebra.

(b) For every  $a \in \mathfrak{F}$ ,  $\mathfrak{R}$  with the product

$$
(p,q) \mapsto \{p,a,q\} = [p,[q,a]]
$$

is a k-Jordan algebra.

(c) The two "fundamental formulas"

$$
{a, {p, {a, q, a}, p}, a} = {a, p, a}, q, {a, p, a},
$$
  

$$
{p, {a, {p, b, p}, a}, p} = {p, a, p}, b, {p, a, p}
$$

hold for all  $a, b \in \mathfrak{F}$ ,  $p, q \in \mathfrak{N}$ .

2 We now present a class of examples to illustrate the relation between certain Lie algebras and Jordan tripel systems from 1:

Let  $\&$  be a k-Lie algebra with the following properties:

- (L.1)  $\mathfrak{L} = \bigoplus_{\nu=0}^{\infty} \mathfrak{L}_{\nu}$  is the direct sum of submodules  $\mathfrak{L}_{\nu}$ ,  $\nu = 0, 1, \dots$
- (L.2)  $[\mathfrak{L}_{\nu}, \mathfrak{L}_{\mu}] \subset \mathfrak{L}_{\nu+\mu-1}$  for all  $\nu, \mu \geq 0, \mathfrak{L}_{-1} = 0$ .

After a change of indices  $\mathcal{L}$  is then a graded Lie algebra. In particular,  $\mathcal{L}_0$  and  $\mathcal{L}_1$ are subalgebras, and  $\mathfrak{L}_0$  is abelian.

For  $p \in \mathcal{L}_2$  define

$$
\mathfrak{N}_p = \{q \in \mathfrak{L}_2 \mid [p, q] = 0\},\
$$
  

$$
\mathfrak{D}_p = \{t \in \mathfrak{L}_1 \mid [p, [p, t]] = 0\},\
$$
  

$$
\mathfrak{D}_p = \{a \in \mathfrak{L}_0 \mid [p, [p, [p, a]]] = 0\}.
$$

<span id="page-5-0"></span>As  $\mathfrak{N}_p$  is restricted to elements of  $\mathfrak{L}_2$ , it is not necessarily a subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{L}$ .

**Lemma 1.3** Let  $p \in \mathcal{R}_2$  and assume  $\mathcal{R}_p$  is an abelian subalgebra of  $\mathcal{R}$ . Then:

(a)  $\mathfrak{D}_p$  is a subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{L}$ , and for  $t \in \mathfrak{L}_1$ , the following are equivalent:

$$
[p, t] \in \mathfrak{N}_p,\tag{1}
$$

$$
[\mathfrak{N}_p, t] \subset \mathfrak{N}_p. \tag{2}
$$

(b)  $\mathfrak{F}_p$  is an abelian subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{L}$ , and for  $a \in \mathfrak{L}_0$ , the following are equivalent:

$$
[p, a] \in \mathfrak{D}_p,\tag{1}
$$

$$
[\mathfrak{N}_p, a] \subset \mathfrak{D}_p. \tag{2}
$$

(c)  $\mathfrak{Q}_p = \mathfrak{F}_p \oplus \mathfrak{D}_p \oplus \mathfrak{N}_p$  is a subalgebra of  $\mathfrak L$  that satisfies (Q.1), (Q.2) and  $(Q.3)$ .

PROOF: (a) For  $t \in \mathcal{L}_1$ ,  $t \in \mathcal{L}_p$  is equivalent to (1) by (L.2). Moreover, (1) follows directly from (2) since  $p \in \mathfrak{N}_p$ . Now let  $t \in \mathfrak{L}_1$  with  $[p, t] \in \mathfrak{N}_p$  be given. For  $q \in \mathfrak{N}_p$ ,  $[p, [q, t]] = [[p, q], t] + [q, [p, t]]$ . Here,  $[p, q] = 0$  and  $[p, t] \in \mathfrak{N}_p$ by (1). As  $\mathfrak{N}_p$  was assumed to be abelian, it follows that  $[q, [p, t]] = 0$  and hence  $[p, [q, t]] = 0$ . Then  $[q, t] \in \mathfrak{N}_p$ , so that (2) holds. By (2),  $\mathfrak{S}_p$  is a subalgebra of  $\mathcal{L}$ .

(b) As a submodule of  $\mathfrak{L}_0$ ,  $\mathfrak{F}_p$  is an abelian subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{L}$ . Again  $a \in \mathfrak{F}_p$ is equivalent to (1), and (1) follows from (2). To prove (2), let  $a \in \mathcal{L}_0$  with  $[p, a] \in \mathfrak{S}_p$  be given. By (1) of part (a),  $[p, [p, a]] \in \mathfrak{N}_p$ . Since  $\mathfrak{N}_p$  abelian, it follows for all  $q \in \mathfrak{N}_p$  that

$$
0 = [q, [p, [p, a]]] = [[q, p], [p, a]] + [p, [q, [p, a]]] = [p, [q, [p, a]]].
$$

As  $[q, [p, a]] \in \mathcal{L}_2$ , it follows that  $[q, [p, a]] = [p, [q, a]] \in \mathcal{R}_p$ , so that by (1) of part (a),  $[q, a] \in \mathfrak{S}_p$ . Thus (2) holds.

(c) Conditions (Q.1) and (Q.2) have already been shown. In light of parts(2) in (a) and (b), we only need to show  $[\mathfrak{F}_p, \mathfrak{F}_p] \subset \mathfrak{F}_p$  for  $(Q.3)$ . For  $a \in \mathfrak{F}_p$  and  $t \in \mathfrak{F}_p$ ,  $[a, t] \in \mathfrak{L}_0$  and we have

$$
[p,[a,t]] = [[p,a],t] + [a,[p,t]].
$$

By (b),  $[p, a] \in \mathfrak{D}_p$ , and by (a),  $[p, t] \in \mathfrak{N}_p$ , so that by (b) both summands lie in  $\mathfrak{D}_p$ . Thus  $[a, t] \in \mathfrak{J}_p$  by (1) of part (b).  $\diamondsuit$ 

3 For later applications we summarize the results of 1 and 2:

<span id="page-6-0"></span>**Theorem 1.4** Let  $\mathcal{L} = \bigoplus_{\nu=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{L}_{\nu}$  be a k-Lie algebra that satisfies conditions (L.1) and (L.2), and let  $p \in \mathcal{L}_2$  be given such that  $\mathcal{R}_p$  is an abelian subalgebra of  $\mathcal{R}$ . If the  $\&$ -module  $\&$  is divisible by 2 and 3, then:

(a)  $(\mathfrak{F}_p, \mathfrak{N}_p)$  together with the two maps

$$
(a, q, b) \mapsto \{a, q, b\} = [a, [b, q]],
$$

$$
(r, a, q) \mapsto \{r, a, q\} = [r, [q, a]]
$$

is a linear Jordan tripel system.

- (b) For every  $q \in \mathfrak{N}_p$ ,  $\mathfrak{F}_p$  together with the product  $(a, b) \mapsto \{a, q, b\}$  is a Jordan algebra.
- (c) For every  $a \in \mathfrak{J}_p$ ,  $\mathfrak{N}_p$  together with the product  $(q, r) \mapsto \{q, a, r\}$  is a Jordan algebra.

PROOF: By (c) of Lemma [1.3,](#page-5-0) we can apply all the results from 1.  $\diamond$ 

4 The construction of the Lie algebra  $\Omega_p$  in 2 is based on the following: Let  $\mathcal R$ be a k-Lie algebra and  $\mathfrak{N}$  a subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{L}$ . If we put

$$
\mathfrak{D} = \{ t \in \mathfrak{L} \mid [\mathfrak{N}, t] \subset \mathfrak{N} \},
$$
  

$$
\mathfrak{J} = \{ a \in \mathfrak{L} \mid [\mathfrak{N}, a] \subset \mathfrak{D} \},
$$

then  $\mathfrak F$  and  $\mathfrak F$  are subalgebras of  $\mathfrak L$ , and

$$
\mathfrak{Q} = \mathfrak{J} + \mathfrak{D} + \mathfrak{N}
$$

satisfies (Q.3). In general, this is not a direct sum.

However, if conditions (L.1) and (L.2) are satisfied by  $\mathcal{L}$  and if  $\mathcal{R}$  is an abelian subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{L}_2$ , then we can define

$$
\mathfrak{T}(\mathfrak{N}) = \{t \in \mathfrak{L}_1 \mid [\mathfrak{N}, t] \subset \mathfrak{N}\},\
$$
  

$$
\mathfrak{J}(\mathfrak{N}) = \{a \in \mathfrak{L}_0 \mid [\mathfrak{N}, a] \subset \mathfrak{T}(\mathfrak{N})\},\
$$

and

$$
\mathfrak{Q}(\mathfrak{N}) = \mathfrak{J}(\mathfrak{N}) \oplus \mathfrak{T}(\mathfrak{N}) \oplus \mathfrak{N}.
$$

Then  $\mathfrak{Q}(\mathfrak{N})$  satisfies (Q.2) and (Q.3), so we can again apply the results from 1.

### §2 Commutative algebras

Throughout this paragraph, let  $\Bbbk$  be an infinite field of characteristic different from 2 and 3.

1 Let  $\mathfrak V$  be a vector space of finite dimension  $n > 0$  over k. An element x in a base field extension of V is called a *generic element* of V if the components of x with respect to a basis of  $\mathfrak V$  are algebraically independent over k. Clearly this definition does not depende on the choice of the basis.

Let us now choose *n* elements  $\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n$  in an extension field of k that are algebraically independent over k, and form the field

$$
\widetilde{\mathbb{k}} = \mathbb{k}(\tau_1,\ldots,\tau_n).
$$

For an arbitrary vector space  $\mathfrak W$  over  $\Bbbk$  let  $\widetilde{\mathfrak W}$  denote the  $\widetilde{\Bbbk}$ -vector space obtained from  $\mathfrak W$  by extension of the base field k to  $\widetilde{\mathbb R}$ . After choosing a basis  $b_1, \ldots, b_n$ of V,

$$
x = \tau_1 b_1 + \ldots + \tau_n b_n
$$

is a generic element of  $\mathfrak V$  that is contained in  $\widetilde{\mathfrak V}$ .

If f is an element of  $\widetilde{\mathfrak{W}}$ , then we write  $f(x)$  instead of f and call  $f(x)$  a *rational function* in x. The function  $f(x)$  is called a *polynomial* in x, if all components of  $f(x)$  with respect to a basis of  $\mathfrak W$  over k are polynomials in  $\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n$ .

If u is an element in a base field extension of  $\mathfrak V$  and  $f \in \widetilde{\mathfrak V}$ , then

$$
\Delta_x^u f(x) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} f(x + \tau u)|_{\tau \to 0}
$$

defines a differential operator  $\Delta$ . Compare [\[1,](#page-13-3) Chapter II, §1].

2 For  $f, g \in \widetilde{\mathfrak{V}}$ ,

<span id="page-8-0"></span>
$$
[f, g](x) = \Delta_x^{g(x)} f(x) - \Delta_x^{f(x)} g(x)
$$
 (2.1)

defines an anti-commutative product  $(f, g) \mapsto [f, g]$  on  $\widetilde{\mathfrak{B}}$ . In [\[3,](#page-13-1) I, §1.3] and in [\[4\]](#page-13-2) it was shown that  $\widetilde{\mathfrak{B}}$  together with the product  $(f, g) \mapsto [f, g]$  is a k-Lie algebra Rat V.

Let Pol  $\mathfrak V$  denote the subspace of Rat  $\mathfrak V$  of all polynomials and  $\mathfrak P_\nu(\mathfrak V)$  the subspace of homogeneous polynomials of degree  $\nu$ . Then

$$
\operatorname{Pol} \mathfrak{V} = \bigoplus_{\nu=0}^\infty \mathfrak{P}_\nu(\mathfrak{V})
$$

is a subalgebra of Rat  $\mathfrak V$  that satisfies (L.1) and (L.2) for  $\mathfrak{L}_{\nu} = \mathfrak{P}_{\nu}(\mathfrak{V})$ . In the following we study elements of  $\mathfrak{P}_2(\mathfrak{V})$ , that is, homogeneous polynomials of degree 2, for which

$$
\mathfrak{N}_p = \{q \in \mathfrak{P}_2(\mathfrak{V}) \mid [p, q] = 0\}
$$

is an abelian subalgebra of Pol  $\mathfrak{V}$ , compare §1.2.

3 If  $\mathfrak A$  together with the product  $(a, b) \mapsto ab$  is a commutative algebra defined on the vector space  $\mathfrak{V}$ , then

$$
p_{\mathfrak{A}}(x) = x^2
$$

defines an element  $p_{\mathfrak{A}}$  of  $\mathfrak{P}_2(\mathfrak{B})$ . Conversely, for every  $q \in \mathfrak{P}_2(\mathfrak{B})$  there exists an algebra  $\mathfrak A$  on  $\mathfrak V$  with  $q = p_{\mathfrak A}$ . Therefore,

$$
\mathfrak{P}_2(\mathfrak{V}) = \{ p_{\mathfrak{A}} \mid \mathfrak{A} \text{ is a commutative algebra on } \mathfrak{V} \}.
$$

Now fix a commutative algebra  $\mathfrak A$  with product  $(a, b) \mapsto ab$  on  $\mathfrak A$ . For  $p =$  $p_{\mathfrak{A}} \in \mathfrak{B}_2(\mathfrak{B})$ , that is  $p(x) = x^2$ , we write  $\mathfrak{R}(\mathfrak{A})$  for  $\mathfrak{R}_p$ , and obtain by [\(2.1\)](#page-8-0) for  $q \in \mathfrak{P}_v(\mathfrak{V}), v \leq 3$ ,

<span id="page-9-0"></span>
$$
[p_{\mathfrak{A}}, q](x) = \Delta_x^{q(x)} x^2 - \Delta_x^{x^2} q(x).
$$

This q defines a v-linear and symmetric map  $(a_1, \ldots, a_\nu) \mapsto q(a_1, \ldots, a_\nu)$  from  $\mathfrak{V} \times \mathfrak{V}$  to  $\mathfrak{V}$  via  $q(a, \ldots, a) = q(a)$ . Using the chain rule, it follows that

$$
[p_{\mathfrak{A}}, q](x) = 2xq(x) - \nu q(x, \dots, x, x^2). \tag{2.2}
$$

In particular,

$$
\mathfrak{N}(\mathfrak{A}) = \{ q \in \mathfrak{P}_2(\mathfrak{B}) \mid xq(x) = q(x, x^2) \}. \tag{2.3}
$$

<span id="page-9-2"></span>**Lemma 2.1** Suppose the commutative algebra  $\mathfrak{A}$  on  $\mathfrak{B}$  has an identity element e. If  $[p_{\mathfrak{A}}, q] = 0$  for some  $q \in \mathfrak{P}_3(\mathfrak{V})$ , then  $q = 0$ .

PROOF: Let the symmetric trilinear map  $q : \mathfrak{V} \times \mathfrak{V} \times \mathfrak{V} \rightarrow \mathfrak{V}$  be given by  $q(x, x, x) = q(x)$ . By [\(2.2\)](#page-9-0),

<span id="page-9-1"></span>
$$
2xq(x) = 3q(x, x, x^2).
$$

In particular, for  $x = e$  it follows that  $q(e) = 0$ . By linearization,

$$
yq(x) + 3xq(x, x, y) = 3q(y, x, x^2) + 3q(x, x, xy).
$$
 (2.4)

For  $x = e$ ,  $q(e, e, y) = 0$  follows. Another linearization yields

$$
2yq(x, x, y) + 2xq(x, y, y) = q(y, y, x^2) + 2q(y, x, xy) + 2q(x, y, xy) + q(x, x, y^2).
$$

For  $x = e$  it follows that  $q(e, y, y) = 0$ . Finally, let  $y = e$  in [\(2.4\)](#page-9-1) and obtain  $q(x) = 0$ , that is,  $q = 0$ .

**Remark 1** If k has characteristic 0, we can show analogously that  $[p, q] = 0$ ,  $q \in \mathfrak{P}_v(\mathfrak{V}), v \geq 3$ , already implies  $q = 0$ .

**Corollary 1**  $\mathfrak{N}(\mathfrak{A})$  is an abelian subalgebra of Pol  $\mathfrak{B}$ .

PROOF: For  $q, r \in \mathfrak{N}(\mathfrak{V}), [p, [q, r]] = 0$  follows from the Jacobi identity. As the [q, r] belong to  $\mathfrak{P}_3(\mathfrak{V})$ , we obtain [q, r] from Lemma [2.1.](#page-9-2)  $\diamond$ 

4 By the corollary to Lemma [2.1](#page-9-2) and the fact that Pol  $\mathfrak V$  satisfies (L.1) and (L.2), we can apply the results from §1 to algebras  $\mathfrak A$  on  $\mathfrak A$ . Write  $\mathfrak T(\mathfrak A), \mathfrak J(\mathfrak A)$  for  $\mathfrak T_p$ ,  $\mathfrak{F}_p$ , respectively, and obtain from §1.2

$$
\mathfrak{T}(\mathfrak{V}) = \{ T \in \text{End } \mathfrak{V} \mid [p_{\mathfrak{A}}, [p_{\mathfrak{A}}, T]] = 0 \},
$$
  

$$
\mathfrak{J}(\mathfrak{V}) = \{ a \in \mathfrak{V} \mid [p_{\mathfrak{A}}, [p_{\mathfrak{A}}, [p_{\mathfrak{A}}, a]]] = 0 \},
$$

where we identify the elements of  $\mathfrak{P}_1(\mathfrak{V})$  and End  $\mathfrak{V}$  and those of  $\mathfrak{P}_0(\mathfrak{V})$  and  $\mathfrak{V}$ . Since  $p_{\mathfrak{A}}(x) = x^2$ ,

$$
[p_{\mathfrak{A}}, T](x) = 2x(Tx) - Tx^{2},
$$
  

$$
[p_{\mathfrak{A}}, a](x) = 2ax.
$$

As usual, left-multiplication on  $\mathfrak A$  is denoted by  $L : \mathfrak A \to \text{End } \mathfrak B$ , that is,

$$
xy = L(x)y.
$$

In particular,

$$
[p_{\mathfrak{A}}, a] = 2L(a),
$$

and we see that  $a \in \mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$  if and only if  $L(a) \in \mathfrak{X}(\mathfrak{A})$ . Now verify that

$$
\mathfrak{D}(\mathfrak{A}) = \{ T \in \text{End } \mathfrak{B} \mid 2x(x \cdot Tx) + Tx^3 = 2x \cdot Tx^2 + x^2 \cdot Tx \},\tag{2.5}
$$

$$
\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A}) = \{a \in \mathfrak{B} \mid 2x(x \cdot xa) + ax^3 = 2x(ax^2) + x^2(ax)\}.
$$
 (2.6)

<span id="page-10-0"></span>**Lemma 2.2** If the commutative algebra  $\mathfrak A$  on  $\mathfrak A$  has an identity element e, then

$$
\mathfrak{N}(\mathfrak{A}) = \{ q \mid q(x) = 2x(xa) - ax^2 \text{ for all } a \in \mathfrak{J}(\mathfrak{A}) \}
$$

and  $a \mapsto 2x(ax) - ax^2$  is a linear bijection of  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$  onto  $\mathfrak{R}(\mathfrak{A})$ .

PROOF: The defining condition  $[p_{\mathfrak{A}}, q] = 0$  for  $\mathfrak{N}(\mathfrak{A})$  means by [\(2.2\)](#page-9-0) the identity

$$
xq(x) = q(x, x^2).
$$

Linearization leads to

$$
yq(x) + 2xq(x, y) = q(y, x^2) + 2q(x, xy),
$$

so that  $x = e$  or  $y = e$  with  $a = q(e)$  yields

$$
q(e, y) = ay
$$
 or  $q(x) = 2xq(e, x) - q(e, x^2)$ 

respectively. This implies

$$
q(x) = 2x(xa) - ax^2,
$$

that is,  $q = [p_{\mathfrak{A}}, L(a)]$ . As  $[p_{\mathfrak{A}}, q] = 0, L(a) \in \mathfrak{X}(\mathfrak{A})$ , that is,  $a \in \mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$ . Conversely, if  $a \in \mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$ , then  $q = [p_{\mathfrak{A}}, L(a)] \in \mathfrak{R}(\mathfrak{A})$ . 5 In addition to the left-multiplication L of  $\mathfrak A$  consider the quadratic representation

$$
P(x) = 2L(x)^2 - L(x^2)
$$

and its linearized form  $P(x, y)$ . By Lemma [2.2](#page-10-0)  $\mathfrak{N}(\mathfrak{A})$  consists precisely of those polynomials q with  $q(x) = P(x)a$  with  $a \in \mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$ .

By the corollary of Lemma [2.1,](#page-9-2) Theorem [1.4](#page-6-0) can be applied. From part (c) we obtain for  $q = p_{\mathfrak{A}}$  that  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$  together with the product

$$
(a, b) \mapsto \{a, p_{\mathfrak{A}}, b\} = -[a, [p_{\mathfrak{A}}, b]] = 2[L(b), a] = 2ab
$$

<span id="page-11-0"></span>is a Jordan algebra.

**Theorem 2.3** If  $\mathfrak{A}$  is a finite-dimensional commutative algebra over a field of characteristic other than 2 and 3, then  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$  is a Jordan subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{A}$ .

**PROOF:** First assume that  $\mathfrak A$  contains an identity element. Then we just saw that  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$  is a Jordan algebra with the product  $(a, b) \mapsto 2ab$ , hence also with the product  $(a, b) \mapsto ab$ . The general case now follows by adjunction of an identity  $\bullet$  element.

**Remark 2** In general,  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A}) = 0$ .

#### §3 Some examples

Let  $\mathbb k$  be an infinite field of characteristic other than 2 and 3, and let  $\mathfrak A$  be a finitedimensional commutative k-algebra.

1 As in Theorem [2.3](#page-11-0) we consider the Jordan subalgebra

$$
\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A}) = \{ a \in \mathfrak{A} \mid 2x(x \cdot xa) + ax^3 = 2x(ax^2) + x^2(ax) \}
$$

of A. As examples we study the following classes of algebras:

- (a)  $\mathfrak{A}$  is *power-associative*, that is,  $x^m x^n = x^{m+n}$  for all  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- (b)  $\mathfrak A$  is a *Lie triple algebra*, that is, for  $x, y, z \in \mathfrak A$ ,

$$
w(x, y, z) + y(x, w, z) = (x, yw, z),
$$

where the *associator* is defined by  $(x, y, z) = (xy)z - x(yz)$ . Compare Osborn [\[5\]](#page-13-4) and Petersson [\[6\]](#page-13-5).

(c)  $\mathfrak{A}$  has a non-degenerate symmetric bilinear form  $\sigma$  that is associative, that is,  $\sigma(xy, z) = \sigma(x, yz)$  for all  $x, y, z \in \mathfrak{A}$ .

**Lemma 3.1** If  $\mathfrak{A}$  is of type (a), (b) or (c), then

$$
\mathfrak{J}(\mathfrak{A}) = \{ a \in \mathfrak{A} \mid x^2(ax) = x(ax^2) \}.
$$

PROOF: Type (a): By linearization of  $x^2x^2 = x^4$  we obtain

$$
4(ax)x^{2} = ax^{3} + x(ax^{2}) + 2x(x \cdot ax)
$$

for  $a, x \in \mathfrak{A}$ . Thus  $a \in \mathfrak{J}(\mathfrak{A})$  is equivalent to  $x^2(ax) = x(ax^2)$ .

Type (b):  $a \in \mathfrak{J}(\mathfrak{A})$  is equivalent to  $2x(a, x, x) = x^2(ax) - ax^3$ . The claim follows since  $2x(a, x, x) = (a, x^2, x) = (ax^2)x - ax^3$ .

Type (c): By assumption,  $L(x)$  is self-adjoint with respect to  $\sigma$ . By linearization of the defining identity for  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$  we find that

$$
2L(x \cdot xa) + 2L(x)L(xa) + L(x)^{2}L(a) + L(a)L(x^{2}) + 2L(a)L(x)^{2}
$$
  
= 2L(x<sup>2</sup>a) + 4L(x)L(a)L(a) + 2L(xa)L(x) + L(x<sup>2</sup>)L(a)

holds for  $a \in \mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$ . Taking the adjoint with respect to  $\sigma$  and subtracting yields

$$
2[L(x), L(xa)] + [L(a), L(x2)] = 0
$$

and application to  $x$  yields

$$
2x(x \cdot ax) - 2x^2(xa) + ax^3 - x^2 \cdot xa = 0.
$$

Comparing this with the definition of  $\mathfrak{J}(\mathfrak{A})$ , it follows that  $x^2(ax) = x(ax^2)$  for all  $a \in \mathfrak{X}(\mathfrak{A})$ .

Conversely, if  $x^2(ax) = x(ax^2)$ , we obtain by linearization

$$
2L(xa)L(x) + L(x2)L(a) = L(x2a) + 2L(x)L(a)L(x).
$$

Again it follows that

$$
2[L(x), L(xa)] + [L(a), L(x2)] = 0
$$

and application to x yields  $a \in \mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A})$ .

By (a),  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A}) = \mathfrak{A}$  is holds precisely for Jordan algebras. In the case of a Lie triple algebra, the defining relations immediately imply that  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{A}) = \{a \in \mathfrak{A} \mid$  $(x, a, x^2) = 0$ } is a Jordan algebra.

2 Let  $\mathfrak B$  be an arbitrary k-algebra with product  $(x, y) \mapsto xy$ , and let  $\mathfrak B^+$  the corresponding commutative algebra with product  $(x, y) \mapsto x \cdot y = \frac{1}{2}(xy + yx)$ . Verify that the defining identity for  $\mathfrak{F}(\mathfrak{B}^+)$  can be written in the form

$$
2\{(xa, x, x) - (x, x, ax) + (x, x^2, a) - (a, x^2, x)\} + (ax, x, x) - (x, x, xa)
$$
  
+ (x, a, x<sup>2</sup>) - (x<sup>2</sup>, a, x) + (x, x, x)a - a(x, x, x) + x(a, x, x) - (x, x, a)x  
- (x, a, x)x + x(x, a, x) = 0.

If B is flexible, then Theorem [2.3](#page-11-0) implies the curious result that the set of  $a \in \mathcal{B}$ satisfying

 $3(xa, x, x) + 3(ax, x, x) + 4(x, x^2, a) + 2(x, a, x^2) + x(a, x, x) + (a, x, x)x = 0$ 

is a Jordan subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{B}^+$ .

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