

CLIFFORD ELEMENTS IN LIE ALGEBRAS

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ABSTRACT. Let L be a Lie algebra over a field \mathbb{F} of characteristic zero or $p > 3$. An element $c \in L$ is called Clifford if $\text{ad}_c^3 = 0$ and its associated Jordan algebra L_c is the Jordan algebra $\mathbb{F} \oplus X$ defined by a symmetric bilinear form on a vector space X over \mathbb{F} . Roughly speaking, we prove in this note that c is a Clifford element if and only if there exists a centrally closed prime ring R with involution $*$ such that $c \in \text{Skew}(R, *)$, $c^3 = 0$, $c^2 \neq 0$ and $c^2kc = ckc^2$ for all $k \in \text{Skew}(R, *)$.

1. INTRODUCTION

Let L be a Lie algebra over a field \mathbb{F} of characteristic not 2 or 3. An element $a \in L$ is called a *Jordan element* if $\text{ad}_a^3 L = 0$. In [8], a Jordan algebra was attached to any Jordan element $a \in L$. This Jordan algebra, denoted by L_a , inherits most of the properties of the Lie algebra L , as well as the nature of the Jordan element in question is reflected in the structure of the attached Jordan algebra. For instance, if L is nondegenerate ($\text{ad}_x^2 L = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$) so is the Jordan algebra L_a , and in this case, L_a is unital if and only if a is *von Neumann regular* ($a \in \text{ad}_a^2 L$).

By a *Clifford element* of L we mean a Jordan element $c \in L$ such that L_c is the Jordan algebra $J = \mathbb{F} \oplus X$ defined by a symmetric bilinear form on a vector space X over \mathbb{F} (we do not discard the case $X = 0$, i.e., $J = \mathbb{F}1$). Suppose now that L is nondegenerate, $\text{char}(\mathbb{F}) = 0$ or $p > 5$, and c is a Clifford element of L . Since L_c is then unital, c is von Neumann regular (see 2.6), and hence, by the Jacobson-Morozov Lemma (see [5, Proposition 1.18], L has a 5-grading $L = L_{-2} \oplus L_{-1} \oplus L_0 \oplus L_1 \oplus L_2$ such that the Jordan pair $V = (L_{-2}, L_2)$

Key words and phrases. Lie algebra, ring with involution, Jordan algebra, inner ideal, Jordan element.

¹ Supported by the Spanish MEC through the FPU grant AP2009-4848.

^{2,3} Supported by the Spanish MEC and Fondos FEDER, MTM2010-19482.

is isomorphic to the Clifford Jordan pair defined by the Jordan algebra L_c , whose Tits-Kantor-Koecher algebra $TKK(V)$ is a finitary orthogonal Lie algebra (see [6, 5.11]), that is, $TKK(V) \cong \text{Skew}(R, *)$, where R is a simple ring coinciding with its socle and $*$ is an involution of the first kind and transpose type. Thus every Clifford element c actually lives in a ring, and in this associative context verifies $c^3 = 0$ and $c^2 \neq 0$, except for the case that R is the algebra of 2×2 matrices over a field with the transpose involution (see [7, Lemma 3.7(ii)]). In this paper we prove the following converse of the above result:

Let R be a centrally closed prime ring of characteristic zero or greater than three, let $$ be an involution of R and let c be a Jordan element of the Lie algebra $K = \text{Skew}(R, *)$ such that $c^3 = 0$ and $c^2 \neq 0$. Then $*$ is of the first kind and c is a Clifford element of K .*

2. PRELIMINARIES

Throughout this section Φ will denote a ring of scalars, i.e., a commutative ring with 1, and \mathbb{F} will stand for a field. An *algebra over Φ* (in short, a Φ -algebra) is a Φ -module A with a product (bilinear operation). Thus no associativity condition is assumed; neither it is supposed the existence of a unit in A . According to this definition, a ring is an associative \mathbb{Z} -algebra.

Jordan algebras and Lie algebras.

2.1. Suppose that 2 is invertible in Φ . A (linear) *Jordan algebra* is a Φ -algebra J whose product, denoted by \bullet , is commutative and satisfies the identity $x^2 \bullet (y \bullet x) = (x^2 \bullet y) \bullet x$, for all $x, y \in J$, where $x^2 = x \bullet x$. For each $x \in J$, the U-operator $U_x : J \rightarrow J$, defined by $U_x y = 2x \bullet (x \bullet y) - x^2 \bullet y$, $y \in J$, satisfies the identity $U_{U_x y} = U_x U_y U_x$, for all $x, y \in J$. A Jordan algebra is said to be *nondegenerate* if $U_x = 0$ implies $x = 0$.

2.2. Suppose that 2 is invertible in Φ and that A is an associative Φ -algebra, whose product is denoted by juxtaposition. In the Φ -module A , we define a new product by $x \circ y := xy + yx$. The resulting algebra is a Jordan algebra denoted by A^+ , with $U_x y = 2xyx$. Note that A is semiprime if and only if A^+ is nondegenerate. A Jordan algebra J is called *special* if it is

isomorphic to a subalgebra of A^+ for some associative algebra A . As usual, we denote by A^- the Lie algebra defined in the Φ -module A by the bracket-product: $[x, y] = xy - yx$.

2.3. Let \mathbb{F} be a field of characteristic not 2 and let X be an \mathbb{F} -vector space with a symmetric bilinear form $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$. Then the vector space $J = \mathbb{F} \oplus X$ is endowed with a structure of Jordan algebra by defining

$$(\alpha, x) \bullet (\beta, y) = (\alpha\beta + \langle x, y \rangle, \beta x + \alpha y),$$

for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$ and $x, y \in X$. This Jordan algebra is unital, with $(1, 0)$ as unit element, and special; in fact, it is isomorphic to a Jordan subalgebra of the Clifford (associative) algebra defined by $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ (see [9, II.3]). For this reason, $J = \mathbb{F} \oplus X$ is sometimes called a *Clifford* Jordan algebra.

2.4. Let L be a Lie algebra over Φ , with $[x, y]$ denoting the product and ad_x the adjoint map determined by x (sometimes we will use capital letters instead, i.e., X by ad_x). An *inner ideal* of L is a Φ -submodule B of L such that $[[B, L], B] \subseteq B$. An *abelian inner ideal* is an inner ideal B which is also an abelian subalgebra, i.e., $[B, B] = 0$. For example, if $L = \bigoplus_{-n \leq i \leq n} L_i$ is a finite \mathbb{Z} -grading, then L_{-n} and L_n are easily checked to be abelian inner ideals of L . An element $a \in L$ is said to be a *Jordan element* whenever $\text{ad}_a^3 L = 0$; every element in an abelian inner ideal is easily shown to be a Jordan element, and conversely, if L is 3-torsion free and $a \in L$ is Jordan, then $B = \Phi a + \text{ad}_a^2 L$ is an abelian inner ideal of L (see [2, Lemma 1.8]).

The following identities (see [2, Lemma 1.7]) will be used in what follows. Let L be a 3-torsion free Lie algebra and $a, x \in L$, where a is a Jordan element. Then:

$$(JE1) \quad A^2 X A = A X A^2,$$

$$(JE2) \quad \text{ad}_{A^2 x}^2 = A^2 X^2 A^2.$$

where $A = \text{ad}_a$ and $X = \text{ad}_x$.

2.5. Suppose that 2 and 3 are invertible in Φ . Let L be a Lie Φ -algebra and let $a \in L$ be a Jordan element. In the Φ -module L a new product is defined by $x \bullet y = [[x, a], y]$,

$x, y \in L$. Denote by $L^{(a)}$ the resulting algebra. Then $\text{Ker}(a) := \{x \in L : \text{ad}_a^2 x = 0\}$ is an ideal of $L^{(a)}$ and the quotient algebra $L_a := L^{(a)}/\text{Ker}(a)$ is a Jordan algebra (with product $\bar{x} \bullet \bar{y} = \overline{[[x, a], y]}$, where \bar{x} stands for the coset of x , for any $x \in L$), called the *Jordan algebra of L at a* (see [8, Theorem 2.4]).

2.6. If a is *von Neumann regular*, i.e., a is Jordan and $a \in \text{ad}_a^2 L$, then L_a is unital with \bar{b} as unit element for any $b \in L$ such that $a = [[a, b], a]$. In this case, L_a is isomorphic to the Jordan algebra $J(a, b)$ defined in the Φ -module $\text{ad}_a^2 L$ by the product $x \bullet y = [[x, b], y]$ for all $x, y \in \text{ad}_a^2 L$. We provide here a proof of these results under conditions less restrictive than those required in [8].

Proof. (i) Proving that L_a is unital with \bar{b} as unit element it is equivalent to show that $A^2[B, A] = A^2BA = A^2$ (since $A^3 = 0$). Now $a = [[a, b], a]$ implies

$$A = \text{ad}_{[[a, b], a]} = [[A, B], A] = 2ABA - A^2B - BA^2,$$

and hence, by (JE1), $A^2 = 2A^2BA - ABA^2 = A^2BA$ (since $A^3 = 0$), as required.

(ii) Let us now show that the map $\varphi : L_a \rightarrow J(a, b)$ defined by $\varphi(\bar{x}) := -A^2x$ is an algebra-isomorphism. Clearly, φ is a linear isomorphism, and since both algebras are commutative and $\frac{1}{2} \in \Phi$, it suffices to check that $\varphi(\bar{x})^2 = \varphi(\bar{x}^2)$.

$$\varphi(\bar{x})^2 = [[A^2x, b], A^2x] = -\text{ad}_{A^2x}^2 b = -A^2X^2A^2b = A^2X^2a = -A^2XAx = \varphi(\bar{x}^2),$$

where we have used (JE2) and $XAx = [x, [a, x]] = -X^2a$. □

Prime rings.

2.7. Let R be a prime ring. The *extended centroid* \mathcal{C} of R (see ([1, Section 2.2])) is a field containing the centroid Γ of R , and the *central closure* $\mathcal{C}R$ of R is a prime associative algebra over the field \mathcal{C} . A prime ring R is *centrally closed* if it coincides with its central closure.

The following lemma (see [3, Theorem A.7]) will play a fundamental role in the proof of our main result.

Lemma 2.8 (Martindale). *Let R be a prime ring with extended centroid \mathcal{C} . Let $a_i, b_i \in R$ with $b_1 \neq 0$ be such that $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i x b_i = 0$ for every $x \in R$. Then $a_1 \in \sum_{i=2}^n \mathcal{C} a_i$.*

Involutions.

2.9. Let A be an associative Φ -algebra with an involution $*$, that is, $*$: $A \rightarrow A$ is a Φ -linear map satisfying $*^2 = \text{Id}_A$ and $(ab)^* = b^* a^*$ for all $a, b \in A$. Denote by H (respectively by K) the set of the symmetric (respectively, skew-symmetric) elements of A , i.e., $H := \{x \in A : x = x^*\}$ and $K = \{x \in A : x = -x^*\}$. Then K is a subalgebra of the Lie Φ -algebra A^- , and if $\frac{1}{2} \in \Phi$, then H is a subalgebra of the Jordan Φ -algebra A^+ (so it is a special Jordan algebra) and $A = H \oplus K$.

2.10. Set $\kappa(x) := x - x^* \in K$ for every $x \in R$. Note that the mapping $x \mapsto \kappa(x)$ is Φ -linear and it satisfies $\kappa(axa^*) = a\kappa(x)a^*$ for all $a, x \in R$. Note also that for $h \in H, k \in K$, $h \circ k := hk + kh = hk - (hk)^* = \kappa(hk) \in K$, a simple identity that will show up frequently.

If M is a Φ -submodule of R which is $*$ -invariant, i.e., $M^* = M$, then $\kappa(M) = \text{Skew}(M, *)$, since if $k \in \text{Skew}(M, *)$ then $k = \frac{1}{2}(k + k) = \frac{1}{2}(k - k^*) = \frac{1}{2}\kappa(k)$ and $\kappa(x) = x - x^* \in M \cap K = \text{Skew}(M, *)$ for every $x \in M$. In particular $\kappa(R) = K$. If M is not $*$ -invariant, then $\kappa(M) = \kappa(M^*)$ implies that $\kappa(M) = \kappa(M) + \kappa(M^*) = \kappa(M + M^*) = (M + M^*) \cap K$.

2.11. Let A be an associative Φ -algebra with involution $*$. If $a \in A$ is von Neumann regular, i.e., $a = axa$ for some $x \in A$, then, by replacing x by $b = xax$, we obtain $a = aba$ and $b = bab$. If a is also symmetric and $\frac{1}{2} \in \Phi$, then b can be chosen to be symmetric by replacing x by $\frac{1}{2}(x + x^*)$. The following lemma is a further step in the choice of b .

Lemma 2.12. *Let A be an associative Φ -algebra and let $c \in A$ be a von Neumann regular element such that $c^2 = 0$. Then there exists $d \in A$ such that $c = cdc$, $d = dcd$ and $d^2 = 0$. Moreover, if A has an involution $*$, $\frac{1}{2} \in \Phi$ and c is symmetric (skew-symmetric), then d can be chosen to be symmetric (respectively, skew-symmetric).*

Proof. Let c be a von Neumann regular element of A . By above, there exists $b \in A$ such that $cbc = c$ and $b = bcb$. We claim that $d := b - b^2c$ satisfies the required properties. Indeed,

$$d^2 = (b - b^2c)(b - b^2c) = b^2 - b^3c - b(bcb) + b(bcb)bc = b^2 - b^3c - b^2 - b^3c = 0,$$

$$cdc = c(b - b^2c)c = cbc = c, \text{ and}$$

$$bcb = (b - b^2c)c(b - b^2c) = bc(b - b^2c) = bcb - (bcb)bc = b - b^2c = d.$$

Suppose now that c is symmetric. Since $\frac{1}{2} \in \Phi$, we can take $b \in H$ such that $cbc = b$ and $b = bcb$. We claim that $d := b - \frac{1}{2}(cb^2 + b^2c) + \frac{1}{4}cb^3c$ satisfies the required properties. It is clear that $d^* = d$. Moreover, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} d^2 &= \left(b - \frac{1}{2}(cb^2 + b^2c) + \frac{1}{4}cb^3c \right) \left(b - \frac{1}{2}(cb^2 + b^2c) + \frac{1}{4}cb^3c \right) = b^2 - \frac{1}{2}(bcb)b \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2}b^3c + \frac{1}{4}(bcb)b^2c - \frac{1}{2}cb^3 + \frac{1}{4}cb(bcb)b + \frac{1}{4}cb^4c - \frac{1}{8}cb(bcb)b^2c - \frac{1}{2}b(bcb) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{4}b(bcb)bc + \frac{1}{4}cb^2(bcb) - \frac{1}{8}cb^2(bcb)bc = b^2 - \frac{1}{2}b^2 - \frac{1}{2}b^3c + \frac{1}{4}b^3c - \frac{1}{2}cb^3 \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{4}cb^3 + \frac{1}{4}cb^4c - \frac{1}{8}cb^4c - \frac{1}{2}b^2 + \frac{1}{4}b^3c + \frac{1}{4}cb^3 - \frac{1}{8}cb^4c = 0, \end{aligned}$$

$$cdc = c\left(b - \frac{1}{2}(cb^2 + b^2c)\right)c = cbc = c, \text{ and}$$

$$\begin{aligned} dcd &= \left(b - \frac{1}{2}(cb^2 + b^2c) \right) c \left(b - \frac{1}{2}(cb^2 + b^2c) \right) = \left(b - \frac{1}{2}cb^2 \right) c \left(b - \frac{1}{2}b^2c \right) \\ &= bcb - \frac{1}{2}(bcb)bc - \frac{1}{2}cb(bcb) + \frac{1}{4}cb(bcb)bc = bcb - \frac{1}{2}b^2c - \frac{1}{2}cb^2 + \frac{1}{4}cb^3c = d. \end{aligned}$$

If c is skew-symmetric, then the same d works taking $b \in K$. □

2.13. Let R be a centrally closed prime ring with involution $*$ such that $\text{char}(R) \neq 2$. Then $*$ naturally extends to an involution of the extended centroid \mathcal{C} of R , also denoted by $*$. If $*$ acts trivially on \mathcal{C} , then it is called *of the first kind*. In this case, K can be regarded as a Lie algebra over \mathcal{C} .

3. CLIFFORD ELEMENT OF A PRIME RING

Throughout this section R will denote a centrally closed prime ring of characteristic not 2 or 3 which is endowed with an involution $*$. Then K , the set of skew-symmetric element

of R , is a Lie algebra over the field $\text{Sym}(\mathcal{C}, *)$. It follows from [4, Propostion 6.2] that if K is not abelian and $*$ is of the first kind, then any Jordan element a of K is zero-cube. This leads us to the following.

Definition 3.1. By a *Clifford element* of R we mean a Jordan element c of K such that $c^3 = 0$ and $c^2 \neq 0$.

The square of a Clifford element of R .

Proposition 3.2. *Let $c \in K$ be a Clifford element of R . Then:*

- (1) $c^2kc = ckc^2$ for all $k \in K$
- (2) $c^2Kc^2 = 0$.
- (3) $(c^2xc^3)^* = c^2x^*c^2 = c^2xc^2$ for all $x \in R$.
- (4) $c^2Rc^2 = \mathcal{C}c^2$.
- (5) The involution $*$ is of the first kind.
- (6) R has nonzero socle with division ring isomorphic to \mathcal{C} and $*$ is of the transpose type.

Proof. (1) Since c is a Jordan element of K , for every $k \in K$ we have $0 = ad_c^3k = c^3k - 3c^2kc + 3ckc^2 - kc^3 = -3(c^2kc - ckc^2)$. Since $\text{char}(R) \neq 3$, this implies that $ckc^2 = c^2kc$.

(2) By (1), $c^2kc^2 = c(ckc^2) = c(c^2kc) = c^3kc = 0$.

(2) It follows from (2).

(4) Let $x, y \in R$. Since c^2 is symmetric, it follows from (3) that

$$c^2xc^2yc^2 = c^2(xc^2y)^*c^2 = (c^2y^*c^2)x^*c^2 = c^2y(c^2x^*c^2) = c^2yc^2xc^2.$$

Thus, fixed x , for every $y \in R$, we get $(c^2xc^2)y(c^2) - (c^2)y(c^2xc^2) = 0$, with $c^2 \neq 0$. Then, by Martindale's Lemma (2.8), for each $x \in R$ there is a $\lambda_x \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $c^2xc^2 = \lambda_x c^2$. Since $c^2 \neq 0$ and R is prime, $c^2Rc^2 \neq 0$ and hence $c^2Rc^2 = \mathcal{C}c^2$, since \mathcal{C} is a field.

(5) by (4), given $\alpha \in \mathcal{C}$ there exists $x \in R$ such that $\alpha c^2 = c^2xc^2$. Then, by (3), $\alpha^*c^2 = c^2x^*c^2 = c^2xc^2 = \alpha c^2$, so $\alpha^* = \alpha$, proving that $*$ is of the first kind.

(6) By (4), $c^2 = c^2ac^2$ for some $a \in R$, and hence $c^2R = eR$ where $e = c^2a$ is an idempotent of R . Then $eRe = c^2Rc^2a = \mathbb{C}c^2a = \mathbb{C}e$, which proves ([1, Proposition 4.3.3]) that eR is a minimal right ideal of R , so R has nonzero socle with associated division ring isomorphic to the field \mathbb{C} ([1, Theorem 4.3.7]). Now it follows from Kaplansky's Theorem ([1, Theorem 4.6.8]) that the involution $*$ of R is either of transpose type or of symplectic type; but the latter cannot occur because c^2 is a symmetric rank-one element, so $*$ is of transpose type. \square

3.3. Let c be a Clifford element of R . Since c^2 is a symmetric zero-square element which is also von Neumann regular 3.2(4), we have by (2.12) that there exists $d \in R$ such that

$$d^* = d, d^2 = 0, c^2dc^2 = c^2 \text{ and } d = dc^2d.$$

Such an element d will be called a *regular partner* of c^2 . Then $e := dc^2$ is a **-orthogonal idempotent*, i.e., $e^2 = e$ and $ee^* = e^*e = 0$.

Proposition 3.4. *Let c be a Clifford element of R , let d be a regular partner of c^2 and set $e := dc^2$. Then:*

- (1) $dKd = 0$.
- (2) $dRd = \mathbb{C}d$.
- (3) $eRe = \mathbb{C}e$, $e^*Re = \mathbb{C}c^2$, $eRe^* = \mathbb{C}d$ and $eKe^* = e^*Ke = 0$.
- (4) $ec = ce^* = 0$, $e^*c^2 = c^2e = c^2$ and $de^* = ed = d$.
- (5) $[K, K] \neq 0$.
- (6) $e + e^* \neq 1$ in the unital hull $\hat{R} = \mathbb{C}1 + R$ of R .

Proof. We will frequently use the fact that $c^2Mc^2 = \mathbb{C}c^2$ for any abelian subgroup M of R such that $c^2Mc^2 \neq 0$, which follows from 3.2(3).

(1) $dKd = dc^2(dKd)c^2d = 0$, where we have used 3.2(2) and the fact that dkd is skew-symmetric for every $k \in K$. Similarly, we have:

(2) $dRd = (dc^2d)R(dc^2d) = dc^2(dRd)c^2d = d\mathbb{C}c^2d = \mathbb{C}dc^2d = \mathbb{C}d$, since $c^2 = c^2dc^2$ and $d = dc^2d$ imply that $c^2(dRd)c^2 \neq 0$.

(3) $eRe = dc^2(Rd)c^2 = d\mathcal{C}c^2 = \mathcal{C}e$, since $c^2 = c^2(dc^2d)c^2 \in c^2(Rd)c^2$ and therefore the latter is nonzero. In a similar way it is proved that $e^*Re = \mathcal{C}c^2$ and $eRe^* = \mathcal{C}d$. Now $eKe^* = dc^2Kc^2d = 0$ by 3.2(2), and $e^*Ke = 0$ is obtained in a similar way.

(4) The identities of this item follow straightforward from the very definition of e .

(5) By (4), $[c, e - e^*] = ce + e^*c = cdc^2 + c^2dc \neq 0$. Otherwise $cdc^2 = -c^2dc$ would lead to the contradiction $c^2 = c^2dc^2 = -c^3dc = 0$. Since $[c, e - e^*] \in [K, K]$, $[K, K] \neq 0$.

(6) It follows from (3) and (4) that $(e + e^*)c(e + e^*) = 0$, so $e + e^* \neq 1$. \square

Remark 3.5. Regular partners d for c^2 are not unique. In fact, the elements

$d_\lambda := d + \lambda(dc - cd) - \lambda^2cdc + \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2(dc^2 + c^2d) + \frac{1}{2}\lambda^3(c^2dc - cdc^2) + \frac{1}{4}\lambda^4c^2$, where λ ranges in \mathcal{C} , are proved to be distinct regular partners for c^2 .

As we have seen in the above proposition, any Clifford element c of R gives rise to two nonzero orthogonal elements e and e^* , associated to any regular partner d of c^2 . Moreover, the idempotent $e + e^*$ is no complete (3.4(6)), i.e., the symmetric idempotent $g := 1 - e - e^*$ in the unital hull $\hat{R} = \mathcal{C}1 + R$ of R is nonzero. We next prove that the complete system $\{e, e^*, g\}$ induces a 3-grading in the Lie algebra K .

Proposition 3.6. *Let c be a Clifford element of R , $e = dc^2$ and $g = 1 - e - e^*$, where d is a regular partner of c^2 . Then $K = K_{-1} \oplus K_0 \oplus K_1$ is a 3-grading of K , with $K_{-1} = \kappa((1 - e)Ke) = \kappa((1 - e)Re) = \kappa(gRe)$, $K_0 = \kappa(eRe) \oplus gKg$ and $K_1 = \kappa(eK(1 - e)) = \kappa(eR(1 - e)) = \kappa(eRg)$.*

Proof. Consider the complete system $\{e_0 := e^*, e_1 := g, e_2 := e\}$ of orthogonal idempotents of \hat{R} and set $R_i = \bigoplus_{m-n=i} e_m R e_n$, $-2 \leq i \leq 2$. Then (see [10, p.174] for instance), $R = \bigoplus_{-2 \leq i \leq 2} R_i$ is an (associative) 5-grading of R . Explicitly,

$$R = e^*Re \oplus (e^*Rg \oplus gRe) \oplus (e^*Re^* \oplus gRg \oplus eRe) \oplus (gRe^* \oplus eRg) \oplus eRe^*.$$

Since all the components R_i are $*$ -invariant subspaces, $K = \bigoplus_{-2 \leq i \leq 2} K_i$, where $K_i := R_i \cap K = \text{Skew}(R_i, *)$ for each index i and $[K_i, K_j] \subseteq [R_i, R_j] \cap [K, K] \subseteq R_{i+j} \cap K = K_{i+j}$. Thus

$K = \bigoplus_{-2 \leq i \leq 2} K_i$ is (a priori) a 5-grading of the Lie algebra K . But $K_{-2} = \kappa(e^*Re) = e^*\kappa(R)e = e^*Ke = 0$ and similarly $K_2 = e^*Ke = 0$. Moreover, the i -th homogenous component k_i of any $k \in K$ coincides with $\bigoplus_{m-n=i} \kappa(e_m k e_n)$, so $k \in K_{-1}$ if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} k g k e + e^* k g &= (1 - e - e^*)k e + e^*k(1 - e - e^*) = (1 - e)k e + e^*k(1 - e^*) \\ (1 - e)k e - ((1 - e)k e)^* &= \kappa((1 - e)k e), \end{aligned}$$

since $e^*Ke = 0$ by 3.4(4), which proves that $K_{-1} = \kappa(gRe) = \kappa((1 - e)Ke)$. Similarly, $K_1 = \kappa(eRg) = \kappa(eK(1 - e))$. Therefore $K = \kappa((1 - e)Ke) \oplus (\kappa(eRe) \oplus gKg) \oplus \kappa(eK(1 - e))$ is a 3-grading of K . Now, for any $x \in R$,

$$\kappa(gxe) = \kappa((1 - e)xe) - \kappa(e^*xe) = \kappa((1 - e)xe) - e^*\kappa(x)e = \kappa((1 - e)xe)$$

since $e^*\kappa(x)e \in e^*Ke = 0$, which proves that $K_{-1} = \kappa((1 - e)Re)$. Similarly we obtain that $K_1 = \kappa(eR(1 - e))$. \square

Although the 3-grading of K has been defined by choosing a regular partner d of c^2 , it will be seen now that the component $K_{-1} = \kappa((1 - e)Ke)$ only depends on the Clifford element c .

Proposition 3.7. *Let c be a Clifford element of R , $e := dc^2$, where d is a regular partner of c^2 , and $B = \kappa((1 - e)Ke)$. Then:*

- (1) *If $b \in B$ then $eb = 0$ and $b = e^*b + be$.*
- (2) *$B = c^2 \circ K$.*
- (3) *$c = e^*c + ce = c^2dc + cdc^2$.*
- (4) *$c \in B$.*
- (5) *$cKc = \mathcal{C}c$.*

Proof. (1) Let $b = (1 - e)ke + e^*k(1 - e^*) \in B$. Then $eb = e((1 - e)ke + e^*k(1 - e^*)) = 0$ and $e^*b = e^*k(1 - e^*)$, since $e^*e = 0$ and $e^*Ke = 0$. Similarly, $be = (1 - e)ke$. Thus $b = e^*b + be$.

(2) $c^2 \circ k = c^2k + kc^2 = \kappa(kc^2) = \kappa(ke^*c^2) - (eke^*)c^2 = \kappa((1-e)k(e^*c^2)) = \kappa((1-e)k(c^2e)) \in \kappa((1-e)Re) = B$. Conversely, let $b \in B$. Then $bc^2 = (1-e)bec^2 + e^*b(1-e^*)c^2 = 0$, since $ec^2 = dc^2c^2 = 0$ and $(1-e^*)c^2 = (1-e^*)e^*c^2 = 0$. Hence $c^2b = -(bc^2) = 0$. Now we have $b = e^*b + be = c^2db + bdc^2 = c^2(db + bd) + (bd + db)c^2 \in c^2 \circ K$.

(3) As in the proof of (3.6), set $g = 1 - e - e^*$. We have

$$c = (e + e^* + g)c(e + e^* + g) = e^*c + ce + gcg$$

since $ec = ce^* = 0$ by 3.4(4). Thus all we need to prove it is that $gcg = 0$. Set $z := gcg$, which is a skew-symmetric element and let $k \in K$. Recall that $c^2 = c^2e$ and e, e^*, g are orthogonal idempotents. As $c^2kc = ckc^2$, $(c^2kc)g = (ckc^2)g = ck(c^2e)g = (ckc^2)(eg) = 0$. But since $ec = 0$, $c^2 = c^2e$ and $eKe^* = 0$, we have $c^2kz = (c^2kg)gz = c^2k(1-e-e^*)cg = c^2kcg - c^2k(ec)g - c^2ke^*cg = 0$. Hence $c^2Kz = 0$, and therefore $zKc^2 = (c^2Kz)^* = 0$. So $c^2xz = c^2x^*z$ and $zxc^2 = zx^*c^2$ for every $x \in R$. Now pick $x, y \in R$. Then $c^2\kappa(xzy)c^2 = 0$ since $c^2Kc^2 = 0$, so that $0 = c^2(xzy + y^*zx^*)c^2 = c^2xzyc^2 + c^2y^*zx^*c^2 = c^2xzyc^2 + c^2yzxc^2 = (c^2xz)y(c^2) + (c^2)y(zxc^2) = 0$, with $c^2 \neq 0$. By Martindale's Lemma (2.8), for every $x \in R$ there is $\lambda_x \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $c^2xz = \lambda_x c^2$. But since $z = gcg$ and $g = g(1-e)$, we have $c^2xz = c^2xz(1-e) = \lambda_x c^2(1-e) = 0$, so $c^2Rz = 0$. But R is prime and $c^2 \neq 0$; therefore $z = 0$. Thus $c = e^*c + ce = c^2dc + cdc^2$, as required.

(4) By (3), $c = c^2dc + cdc^2 = c^2(dc + cd) + (dc + cd)c^2 \in c^2 \circ K = B$ by (2). Another proof of this result: $ec = dc^3 = 0$ implies $c = e^*c + ce = (1-e)ce + e^*c(1-e^*) \in \kappa((1-e)Ke) = B$.

(5) We know that $c = ce + e^*c$, $e^*Ke = 0 = eKe^*$, $ckc \in K$ and $eRe = \mathcal{C}e$; moreover, for every $x \in R$ it is true that if $exe = \lambda_x e$, then $e^*xe^* = (ex^*e)^* = (\lambda_{x^*}e)^* = \lambda_{x^*}e^*$. Pick $k \in K$. Then we have $ckc = (ce + e^*c)k(ce + e^*c) = c(ekce) + c(eke^*)c + e^*(ckc)e + (e^*kce)^*c = \lambda_{kc}ce + \lambda_{(ck)^*}e^*c = \lambda_{kc}(ce + e^*c) = \lambda_{kc}c$, which proves that $cKc \subseteq \mathcal{C}c$. The equality follows because $c(cd + dc)c = c^2dc + cdc^2 = c$ by (3), with $cd + dc \in K$ since $c \in K$ and $d \in H$. \square

The square root of d .

3.8. Given a Clifford element c of R and a regular partner d of c^2 , we set $\sqrt{d} := cd + dc$. As will be seen now, the square-root notation is absolutely justified.

Proposition 3.9. *Let c be a Clifford element of R and let d be a regular partner for c^2 . Then:*

- | | |
|---|---|
| (1) $\sqrt{d} \in K_1$ in the 3-grading of Theorem 3.6. In particular \sqrt{d} is a Jordan element. | |
| (2) $(\sqrt{d})^2 = d$. | (7) $c^2 \circ \sqrt{d} = c$. |
| (3) $(\sqrt{d})^3 = 0$. | (8) $d \circ c = \sqrt{d}$. |
| (4) $\sqrt{d}K\sqrt{d} = \mathcal{C}\sqrt{d}$. | (9) $[[c, \sqrt{d}], c] = c$. |
| (5) $\sqrt{d}c\sqrt{d} = \sqrt{d}$. | (10) $[[\sqrt{d}, c], \sqrt{d}] = \sqrt{d}$. |
| (6) $c\sqrt{d}c = c$. | (11) $[[c, \sqrt{d}], b] = b$ for every $b \in B_e$. |

Proof. (1) Since $c \in K$ and $d \in H$, $\sqrt{d} = cd + dc \in K$. Now we have

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa(e\sqrt{d}(1-e)) &= e(cd + dc)(1-e) + (1-e^*)(dc + cd)e^* = edc(1-e) \\ &\quad + (1-e^*)cde^* = edc - edce + cde^* - e^*cde^* = (dc^2d)c \\ &\quad - e(dcd)c^2 + c(dc^2d) - c^2(dcd)e^* = dc + cd = \sqrt{d}, \end{aligned}$$

since $ec = dc^2c = dc^3 = 0$, $dc^2d = d$ and $dcd \in dKd = 0$. We have thus proved (see 3.6) that $\sqrt{d} \in \kappa(eK(1-e)) = K_1$. And since K_1 is an abelian inner ideal (because is the extreme of a finite grading), \sqrt{d} is a Jordan element of K .

- (2) $(\sqrt{d})^2 = (cd + dc)(cd + dc) = c(dcd) + cd^2c + dc^2d + (dcd)c = dc^2d = d$.
- (3) $(\sqrt{d})^3 = (\sqrt{d})^2\sqrt{d} = d(cd + dc) = dcd + d^2c = 0$.
- (4) It follows from (1), (2) and (3) that \sqrt{d} is a Clifford element of R . Hence, by 3.7(3), $\sqrt{d}K\sqrt{d} = \mathcal{C}\sqrt{d}$.
- (5) $\sqrt{d}c\sqrt{d} = (cd + dc)c(cd + dc) = c(dc^2d) + c(dcd)c + dc^3d + (dc^2d)c = cd + dc = \sqrt{d}$.
- (6) $c\sqrt{d}c = c(cd + dc)c = c^2dc + cdc^2 = c$, by 3.7(1).
- (7) $c^2 \circ \sqrt{d} = c^2(cd + dc) + (cd + dc)c^2 = c^2dc + cdc^2 = c$.
- (8) $d \circ c = dc + cd = \sqrt{d}$.

$$(9) \quad [[c, \sqrt{d}], c] = 2c\sqrt{d}c - c^2 \circ \sqrt{d} = 2c - c = c, \text{ by (6) and (7).}$$

$$(10) \quad [[\sqrt{d}, c], \sqrt{d}] = 2\sqrt{d}c\sqrt{d} - (\sqrt{d})^2 \circ c = 2\sqrt{d} - \sqrt{d} = \sqrt{d}, \text{ by (2), (5) and (8).}$$

$$(11) \quad [[c, \sqrt{d}], b] = [[c, cd + dc], b] = [c^2d - dc^2, b] = [e^* - e, b] = e^*b + be = b \text{ by 3.7(1). } \quad \square$$

4. THE THEOREM

As in the previous section, R will denote a centrally closed prime ring of characteristic not 2 or 3 which is endowed with an involution $*$. We prove here that if c is a Clifford element of R , then the abelian inner ideal $c^2 \circ K = \kappa((1 - e)Ke)$ (see 3.7) can be endowed with a structure of Jordan algebra of Clifford type (see 2.3) and that this Jordan algebra is isomorphic to K_c . We begin by defining a linear form and a symmetric bilinear form on the \mathcal{C} -vector space K (recall that $*$ is of the first kind by 3.2(5)).

4.1. By Proposition 3.7(4), there exists a linear map $\text{tr} : K \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ such that

$$\text{tr}(k)c = ckc$$

for every $k \in K$. Note that

$$(1) \quad \text{tr}(\sqrt{d}) = 1 \text{ since } c\sqrt{d}c = c \text{ by Proposition 3.9(6), and hence}$$

$$(2) \quad K = \mathcal{C}\sqrt{d} \oplus \text{Ker}(\text{tr}).$$

4.2. Since $c^2Rc^2 = \mathcal{C}c^2$ (3.2(4)) with $c^2k_1k_2c^2 = c^2k_2k_1c^2$ for all $k_1, k_2 \in K$ (3.2(2)), we have a symmetric bilinear form $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : K \times K \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ defined by

$$\langle k_1, k_2 \rangle c^2 = c^2k_1k_2c^2$$

for all $k_1, k_2 \in K$.

Remarks 4.3. The trace can be realized from the bilinear form and vice versa. Let $k, k' \in K$:

$$(1) \quad \langle \sqrt{d}, k \rangle c^2 = c^2\sqrt{d}kc^2 = c^2(cd + dc)kc^2 = c^3dkc^2 + c^2dckc^2 = c^2dckc^2 = c^2d(ckc)c = \text{tr}(k)c^2dc^2 = \text{tr}(k)c^2, \text{ since } c^3 = 0 \text{ and } c^2dc^2 = c^2. \text{ Thus } \text{tr}(k) = \langle k, \sqrt{d} \rangle.$$

$$(2) \quad \text{tr}(\kappa(ckk'))c^2 = (c\kappa(ckk')c)c = c^2kk'c^2 + ck'kc^3 = c^2kk'c^2 = \langle k, k' \rangle c^2. \text{ Thus } \langle k, k' \rangle = \text{tr}(\kappa(ckk')).$$

Proposition 4.4. *Let c be a Clifford element of R and $B = c^2 \circ K$. Then:*

- (1) $B = \mathbb{C}c \oplus X$, where $X := \{c^2 \circ k : k \in \text{Ker}(\text{tr})\}$.
- (2) $B = \text{ad}_c^2 K$.

Proof. (1) By 4.1(2), $K = \text{Ker}(\text{tr}) \oplus \mathbb{C}\sqrt{d}$. Hence

$$B = c^2 \circ K = c^2 \circ \text{Ker}(\text{tr}) + \mathbb{C}c^2 \circ \sqrt{d} = c^2 \circ \text{Ker}(\text{tr}) + \mathbb{C}c$$

since $c^2 \circ \sqrt{d} = c$ by 3.9(7). But this sum is direct since $c^2 \circ k_0 = \alpha c$, with $\text{tr}(k_0) = 0$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$, implies $\alpha c^2 = c(c^2 k_0 + k_0 c^2) = (ck_0 c)c = \text{tr}(k_0)c = 0$, and hence $\alpha = 0$, since $c^2 \neq 0$ by the very definition of Clifford element.

(2) For any $k \in K$, we have $\text{ad}_c^2 k = c^2 k - 2ckc + kc^2 = c^2 \circ k - 2\text{tr}(k)c \in B$. Conversely, let $c^2 \circ k_0 + \mu c \in B$, with $k_0 \in \text{Ker}(\text{tr})$ and $\mu \in \mathbb{C}$. Taking $k = k_0 - \mu\sqrt{d}$, we have

$$c^2 \circ k = c^2 \circ k_0 - \mu c^2 \circ \sqrt{d} = \text{ad}_c^2 k_0 - \mu c = \text{ad}_c^2 (k_0 + \mu\sqrt{d})$$

since $c^2 \circ \sqrt{d} = c$ by 3.9(7), $ck_0 c = 0$ and $\text{ad}_c^2 \sqrt{d} = -c$ by 3.9(9). □

Lemma 4.5. *The symmetric \mathbb{C} -bilinear form defined on X by*

$$\langle c^2 \circ k, c^2 \circ k' \rangle_0 := -\langle k, k' \rangle$$

is well defined.

Proof. Suppose that $c^2 \circ k_1 = c^2 \circ k'_1$. By multiplying the two members of this equality on the right by $k_2 c^2$, we obtain $c^2 k_1 k_2 c^2 = c^2 k'_1 k_2 c^2$ since $c^2 K c^2 = 0$. This proves that $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_0$ is well defined. □

Remarks 4.6. Consider the 3-grading $K = K_{-1} \oplus K_0 \oplus K_1$ due to $e := dc^2$ (3.6(3)), with $K_{-1} = B$, $K_0 = \kappa(eKe) \oplus gKg$ and $K_1 = \kappa(eKg)$.

- (1) It follows from the symmetry of the previous theorem, that

$$K_1 = d \circ K = \{d \circ k : k \in K, \sqrt{d}k\sqrt{d} = 0\} \oplus \mathbb{C}\sqrt{d} = \text{ad}_{\sqrt{d}}^2 K.$$

- (2) B_0 can be zero and therefore $B = \mathbb{C}c$. But this can only happen if R is 3-dimensional over \mathbb{C} . Let $X = H \oplus \mathbb{F}z$ be the orthogonal sum of a hyperbolic plane $H = \mathbb{F}x \oplus \mathbb{F}y$ and the line $\mathbb{F}z = H^\perp$ with z being an anisotropic vector, and let R the simple ring $\text{End}(X)$ with the adjoint as involution. For any $u, v \in X$, let $u \otimes v$ be the linear map defined by $w(u \otimes v) = \langle w, u \rangle v$ for all $w \in X$. Then $(u \otimes v)^* = v \otimes u$ and hence $c := x \otimes z - z \otimes x$ is in the Lie algebra $K = \text{Skew}(R, *)$. It is easy to check that c is a Clifford element of R such that $\text{ad}_c^2 K = \mathbb{F}c$.

Theorem 4.7. *Let R be a centrally closed ring of characteristic not 2 or 3, let $*$ be an involution of R and let c be a Jordan element of the Lie algebra K such that $c^3 = 0$ and $c^2 \neq 0$. Then:*

- (1) *The involution $*$ is of the first kind.*
- (2) *The \mathbb{C} -vector space $X = \{c^2 \circ k : ckc = 0\}$ is endowed with a symmetric bilinear form denoted by $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_0$.*
- (3) *K_c is isomorphic to the Clifford Jordan algebra $\mathbb{C} \oplus X$ defined by $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_0$.*

Proof. That the involution $*$ is of the first kind was proved in 3.2(5), and that $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_0$ is a well defined symmetric bilinear form on the \mathbb{C} -vector space X follows from 4.5. Thus only the item (3) needs to be proved. But since $c = [[c, \sqrt{d}], c]$ (3.9(9)), we have by (2.6) that $K_c \cong J(c, \sqrt{d})$, the Jordan algebra defined on the \mathbb{C} -vector space $\text{ad}_c^2 K = c^2 \circ K = B = \mathbb{C}c \oplus X$ (4.4) by the product $(\alpha_1 c + c^2 \circ k_1) \bullet (\alpha_2 c + c^2 \circ k_2) = [[\alpha_1 c + c^2 \circ k_1, \sqrt{d}], \alpha_2 c + c^2 \circ k_2]$, for all $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ and $k_1, k_2 \in K$ such that $ck_1c = ck_2c = 0$. Let us then see that the linear isomorphism $(\alpha c + c^2 \circ k) \mapsto (\alpha, c^2 \circ k)$ of $J(c, \sqrt{d})$ onto $\mathbb{C} \oplus X$ is actually an isomorphism of Jordan algebras. Since $\frac{1}{2} \in \Phi$, it suffices to check the identity

$$(\alpha c + c^2 \circ k)^2 = [[\alpha c + c^2 \circ k, \sqrt{d}], \alpha c + c^2 \circ k] = \alpha^2 c + \langle c^2 \circ k, c^2 \circ k \rangle_0 + 2\alpha(c^2 \circ k).$$

Using the bilinearity of the bracket-product reduces the checking to three products: (i) scalar by scalar, (ii) scalar by vector, and (iii) vector by vector.

- (i) $[[\alpha c, \sqrt{d}], \alpha c] = \alpha^2 [[c, \sqrt{d}], c] = \alpha^2 c$, by 3.9(9).

(ii) $[[\alpha c, \sqrt{d}], c^2 \circ k] = \alpha[[c, cd + dc], c^2k + kc^2] = \alpha[c^2d - dc^2, c^2k + kc^2] = \alpha(c^2 \circ k)$, where we have used $c^2dc^2 = c^2$, $c^4 = 0$ and $c^2kc^2 = c^2(dk + kd)c^2 = 0$, the latter because $c^2Kc^2 = 0$ and $(dk + kd)^* = -(kd + dk)$, since $d^* = d$ and $k^* = -k$.

$$(iii) \quad [[c^2 \circ k, \sqrt{d}], c^2 \circ k] = 2(c^2 \circ k)\sqrt{d}(c^2 \circ k) - (c^2 \circ k)^2 \circ \sqrt{d},$$

with

$$(c^2 \circ k)\sqrt{d}(c^2 \circ k) = (c^2k + kc^2)(cd + dc)((c^2k + kc^2)) = (c^2kdc + kc^2dc)(c^2k + kc^2) = 0,$$

since $c^3 = 0$ and $ckc = 0$ ($\text{tr}(k) = 0$), and

$$(c^2 \circ k)^2 \circ \sqrt{d} = c^2k^2c^2(cd + dc) + (cd + dc)c^2k^2c^2 = c^2k^2c^2dc + cdc^2k^2c^2 = \langle k, k \rangle (c^2dc + cdc^2) = \langle k, k \rangle c$$

since $c = c^2dc + cdc^2$ by 3.7(1). Therefore, $(c^2 \circ k) \bullet (c^2 \circ k) = -\langle k, k \rangle c = \langle c^2 \circ k, c^2 \circ k \rangle_0 c$, which completes the proof. \square

Remark 4.8. Since \sqrt{d} is a Clifford element of R (see 3.9), the theorem above also proves that $K_{\sqrt{d}}$ is a Clifford Jordan algebra with \sqrt{d} as unit element and symmetric bilinear $\langle k, k' \rangle_d d := -dkk'd$ for every $k, k' \in K$.

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