

ON EUCLIDEAN LOCAL GROUPS SATISFYING CERTAIN CONDITIONS

MASATAKE KURANISHI

Let G be a euclidean local group, that is, a topological local group the space of which is homeomorphic to a euclidean space. The purpose of this note is to prove the following theorem:

THEOREM. *Let G have a neighborhood U of identity e , in which a metric $\rho(x, y)$ can be introduced satisfying the following conditions:*

(A) *If $x, y, xy \in U$,¹ then $K_2\rho(y, e) \leq \rho(xy, x) \leq K_1\rho(y, e)$.*

(B) *If $x, x^2, \dots, x^{2^{n-1}}, x^{2^n} \in U, y, y^2, \dots, y^{2^{n-1}}, y^{2^n} \in U$, then $K_4 2^n \rho(x, y) \leq \rho(x^{2^n}, y^{2^n}) \leq K_3 2^n \rho(x, y)$, with positive constants $K_i, i=1, 2, 3, 4$.*

Then G is a local Lie group, and vice versa.

P. A. Smith [2]² has obtained a necessary and sufficient condition for G to be a local Lie group. He says that if we can introduce into a neighborhood of e a coordinate system a^1, \dots, a^r , with respect to which the product function ab is expressible in the form, written vectorially,

$$ab = a + b + |a|F(a, b)$$

where $|a| = (\sum (a^i)^2)^{1/2}$ and where F satisfies the sole condition that $F \rightarrow 0$ as $a \rightarrow e, b \rightarrow e$, then G is a local Lie group and vice versa. A coordinate system satisfying this condition is called by him (right) regular. It is shown [1; 2] that a coordinate system in which the product function ab is of class C^1 with respect to b fixing a is regular and that the euclidean metric of a regular coordinate system satisfies our conditions (A) and (B).

Our assumptions (A) and (B) are mainly used to select a uniformly convergent subsequence from the function family $P_n(x, y) = (x^{1/2^n} \cdot y^{1/2^n})^{2^n}, n=1, 2, \dots$, which, in some sense, corresponds to differentiating the product function at the identity e .

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LEMMA 1. *Let U be a neighborhood of e in G which contains no sub-*

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¹ In details, we must write—instead of $xy \in U$ — xy exists and is contained in U . But we shall often omit “exists” in such a case in the following for simplicity.

² Numbers in brackets refer to the references cited at the end of the paper.

group in the large except $\{e\}$. Then there exists a neighborhood V of e such that $x, y, x^2=y^2 \in V$ implies $x=y$.

PROOF.³ We can assume without loss of generality that \bar{U} is compact and for any arbitrary three elements x, y, z of U the products $(xy)z$ and $x(yz)$ exist. Take W such that $U \supset W^2, W=W^{-1}$. As \bar{U} is compact, there exists a neighborhood V of e such that for any $g \in \bar{U}$, we have $g^{-1}Vg \subset W$. Now if $x, y, x^2=y^2 \in V$, put $x^{-1}y=a$. Then $axa=x, a \in V^2 \subset W \subset U$, and it follows that if $a, a^2, \dots, a^m \in U$, then $a^{2^m} = x^{-1}a^{-m}xa^m \in x^{-1}W \subset W^2 \subset U, a^{2^{m+1}} = a^{2^m} \cdot a \in W^2W^2 \subset U$. This means that for any integer $n, a^n \in U$; consequently from the assumption $a=e, x=y$.

REMARK. In Lemma 1 the assumption that G is euclidean is not necessary. Let σ be a mapping $y \rightarrow y^2$. If G is euclidean and if U is sufficiently small, then $\sigma(U)$ is an open subset of G and σ is a homeomorphism between U and $\sigma(U)$. The proof is clear from the Brouwer's theorem on the invariance of domain and from the fact that \bar{U} is compact and that σ is one-to-one.

LEMMA 2. Let G have a neighborhood U of e such that for any element y of $U - \{e\}$ there exists an integer n satisfying $y^{2^n} \notin \bar{U}$. Then, if V is a sufficiently small neighborhood of e , we can construct a real-valued continuous function $f(y)$ defined on V satisfying the following conditions:

- (i) If $y, y^2 \in V$, then $f(y^2) \geq f(y)$.
- (ii) $f(y) = 0$ if and only if $y=e$ provided $y \in V$.

PROOF. If $y, y^2, y^{2^2}, \dots, y^{2^n} \in \bar{V}, y^{2^{n+1}} \notin \bar{V}$, we put $n = \delta_V(y)$. Take an element p of V , we note that if $k \leq \delta_V(p)$, then $p \neq p^{2^k}$. Consequently if we take a sufficiently small neighborhood W of e , then for any $i < j \leq \delta_V(p)$, we have $\sigma^i(Wp) \cap \sigma^j(Wp) = \emptyset, \sigma^{2^i \delta_V(p)+1}(Wp) \cap \bar{V} = \emptyset$, where $\sigma^0(y) = y, \sigma^2(y) = y^2, \sigma^{i+1}(y) = \sigma^1(\sigma^i(y))$.

Construct a continuous function $f_p^0(y)$ defined on V such that

$$0 \leq f_p^0(y) \leq 1; \text{ if } y \notin Wp, \text{ then } f_p^0(y) = 0; \text{ and } f_p^0(p) = 1.$$

For any integer $k \leq \delta_V(p)$ put

$$\begin{aligned} \text{if } y \notin \sigma^k(Wp), & \quad f_p^k(y) = 0, \\ \text{if } y \in \sigma^k(Wp), & \quad f_p^k(y) = f_p^0(y^{1/2^k}), \text{ where } (y^{1/2^k})^{2^k} = y. \end{aligned}$$

If V is sufficiently small, by the remark to Lemma 1, $f_p^k(y)$ is a continuous function defined on V . Put

³ This simple proof was suggested to the author by T. Hayashida. The author's original proof is more complicated.

$$f_p(y) = \sum_{k=0}^{\delta_V(p)} f_p^k(y).$$

It is easy to see that $f_p(y)$ is a continuous function defined on V and $0 \leq f_p(y) \leq 1$, $f_p(p) = 1$, $f_p(y^2) \geq f_p(y)$. As $\bigcup_{p \in -V\{e\}} V_p = V - \{e\}$, where $V_p = \{y; f_p(y) > 0\}$, we can select a countable set $\{p_n\}$ such that $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} V_{p_n} = V - \{e\}$. Put

$$f(y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} f_{p_n}(y).$$

It is clear that $f(y)$ satisfies our conditions (i) and (ii).

LEMMA 3. *Under the same assumption as in Lemma 2, there exists a neighborhood W of e such that for an arbitrary element x of W , W contains a unique element $x^{1/2}$ satisfying $(x^{1/2})^2 = x$.*

PROOF. Take a sufficiently small neighborhood V of e , where we can construct the function $f(y)$ as stated in Lemma 2. Put $V_\epsilon = \{y; f(y) < \epsilon\}$. If V is sufficiently small, by the Remark to Lemma 1, $\sigma(V)$ is an open set. From the condition (ii) which $f(y)$ satisfies, there exists $\epsilon > 0$, $V_\epsilon \subset \sigma(V) \cap V$. This means that for any element y of V_ϵ there exists $y^{1/2} \in V$ such that $(y^{1/2})^2 = y$. But since $f(y^{1/2}) \leq f(y) < \epsilon$, $y^{1/2} \in V_\epsilon$. The uniqueness of $y^{1/2}$ has already been proved in Lemma 1.

By Lemma 3, there exists $x^{1/2^n}$ such that $(x^{1/2^n})^{2^n} = x$ and $x^{1/2^n} \in W$ for any element x of W . We can assume without loss of generality $W \subset U$, where U is a neighborhood of e satisfying the assumption of our theorem. We shall write $|x|$ instead of $\rho(x, e)$. Then by (B), $|x^{1/2^n}| \leq (1/K_4)(1/2^n)|x|$. We can prove, by induction, the existence of $(x^{1/2^n})^m$ and

$$(*) \quad |(x^{1/2^n})^m| \leq \frac{K_1}{K_4} \frac{m}{2^n} |x|$$

for any arbitrary integer $m \leq 2^n$. Assume, in fact, $|(x^{1/2^n})^m| \leq (K_1/K_4)(m/2^n)|x|$ for some $m < 2^n$, then

$$\begin{aligned} |(x^{1/2^n})^{m+1}| &= |(x^{1/2^n})^m x^{1/2^n}| \leq K_1 |x^{1/2^n}| + |(x^{1/2^n})^m| \\ &\leq \frac{K_1}{K_4} \frac{1}{2^n} |x| + \frac{K_1}{K_4} \frac{m}{2^n} |x| \\ &= \frac{K_1}{K_4} \frac{m+1}{2^n} |x|, \end{aligned}$$

as we can see easily from (A) that

$$(C) \quad |xy| \leq K_1 |y| + |x|.$$

By using the uniqueness of $x^{1/2}$, it is easy to see that $m/2^n = m'/2^{n'}$ implies $(x^{1/2^n})^m = (x^{1/2^{n'}})^{m'}$. Now we put $f(m/2^n) = (x^{1/2^n})^m$; then $f(m/2^n)f(m'/2^{n'}) = f(m/2^n + m'/2^{n'})$, and from these and from the inequality (*) follow the uniform continuity of the function f on the set $\{m/2^n; m \leq 2^n\}$, which is everywhere dense in the interval $[0, 1]$. Therefore f can be extended to a continuous function \bar{f} defined on $[0, 1]$. If we put $x^\lambda = \bar{f}(\lambda)$, $x^{-\lambda} = (x^{-1})^\lambda$, for any $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$, then $|x^\lambda| \leq (K_1/K_4)|x|$ and $x^\lambda \cdot x^\mu = x^{\lambda+\mu}$ if both sides have meaning. This proves the following lemma.

LEMMA 4. *Under the same assumption as in the theorem, there exist neighborhoods W_1 and W_2 of e such that for any element x of W_1 , there exists a unique one-parameter subgroup x^λ contained in W_2 .*

From (A),

$$(D') \quad \rho(ax, ay) \leq K_1 \rho((ay)^{-1} \cdot ax, e) = K_1 \rho(y^{-1} \cdot x, e) \leq \frac{K_1}{K_2} \rho(x, y).$$

Take a sufficiently small neighborhood V of e , and put

$$\Sigma = \{x; x \in V, X^2 \notin V\}, \quad C = \min_{x \in \Sigma} |x|,$$

$$\Omega = \{w; w = a^{-1}xa, x \in \Sigma, a \in V\}, \quad D = \max_{x \in \Omega} |x|.$$

Then $\bar{\Sigma} \ni e, C > 0, D > 0$, and

$$(**) \quad |a^{-1}xa| \leq \frac{D}{C} |x| \quad \text{for } x \in \Sigma, a \in V.$$

Take $y \in V$, then for some integer $n, y^{2^n} \in \Sigma$ and for every integer $0 \leq m \leq n, y^{2^m} \in V$. From (B) and (**)

$$|a^{-1}ya| \leq \frac{1}{2^n} \frac{1}{K_4} |a^{-1}y^{2^n}a| \leq \frac{1}{2^n} \frac{1}{K_4} \frac{D}{C} |y^{2^n}| \leq \frac{K_3 D}{K_4 C} |y|,$$

$$(D'') \quad \rho(xa, ya) \leq K_1 \rho(a^{-1}y^{-1}xa, e) \leq \frac{K_1 K_3 D}{K_4 C} \rho(y^{-1}x, e)$$

$$\leq \frac{K_1 K_3 D}{K_2 K_4 C} \rho(x, y),$$

if x, y, a is sufficiently near to e .

From (D') and (D'') we can see that for a sufficiently small neigh-

neighborhood V of e , there exists $A > 0$ such that

$$(D)^4 \quad \text{if } x, y, x', y' \in \bar{V}, \rho(xy, x'y') \leq A \{ \rho(x, x') + \rho(y, y') \}.$$

If we take a sufficiently small neighborhood V of e , from (C), (B), and (D) we can easily prove the existence of $P_n(x, y) = (x^{1/2^n} y^{1/2^n})^{2^n}$ and

$$(E) \quad |P_n(x, y)| = |(x^{1/2^n} y^{1/2^n})^{2^n}| \leq \frac{K_1 K_3}{K_4} (|x| + |y|),$$

$$(F) \quad \rho(P_n(x, y), P_n(x', y')) \leq \frac{K_3 A}{K_4} \{ \rho(x, x') + \rho(y, y') \}$$

for arbitrary $x, y, x', y' \in \bar{V} \subset U$.

Therefore $P_n(x, y), n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, is an equi-continuous and uniformly bounded family of functions defined on $\bar{V} \times \bar{V}$, and consequently a uniformly convergent subsequence $\{P_{n'}(x, y)\}$ can be selected from $\{P_n(x, y)\}$. Put $P(x, y) = \lim_{n' \rightarrow \infty} P_{n'}(x, y)$.

Now we shall prove that if we define the product $x \circ y = P(x, y)$, V becomes an abelian local Lie group. We denote this local group by H .

(1) Commutativity is clear from $(x^{1/2^n} y^{1/2^n})^{2^n} = x^{1/2^n} (y^{1/2^n} x^{1/2^n})^{2^n} (x^{1/2^n})^{-1}$.

(2) Associative law: Put $P(x, y) = \epsilon_n P_{n'}(x, y)$, then $\lim_{n' \rightarrow \infty} \epsilon_n = e$. Using (D), (E), and (F),

$$\rho(P_{n'}(P(x, y), w), P_{n'}(P_{n'}(x, y), w)) \leq \frac{K_3 A^2}{K_4} \rho(\epsilon_{n'}, e),$$

from the definition $P_{n'}(P_{n'}(x, y), w) = P_{n'}(x, P_{n'}(y, w))$. From these we can see $(x \circ y) \circ w = x \circ (y \circ w)$.

(3) $x^\lambda \circ x^\mu = x^{\lambda+\mu}$, which shows the existence of the inverse, and that every one-parameter subgroup of G is also that of H .

(4) As H is abelian, we can find easily x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r of H (where r is the dimension of G) such that $W = \{y; y = x_1^{\lambda_1} \circ x_2^{\lambda_2} \circ \dots \circ x_r^{\lambda_r}, |\lambda_i| \leq 1, i = 1, 2, \dots, r\}$ is a neighborhood of e and mapping $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_r) \rightarrow x_1^{\lambda_1} \circ x_2^{\lambda_2} \circ \dots \circ x_r^{\lambda_r}$ is topological. Moreover

$$(x_1^{\lambda_1} \circ \dots \circ x_r^{\lambda_r}) \circ (x_1^{\lambda'_1} \circ \dots \circ x_r^{\lambda'_r}) = (x_1^{\lambda_1 + \lambda'_1} \circ \dots \circ x_r^{\lambda_r + \lambda'_r}).$$

Thus we can see that H is a Lie group.

LEMMA 5. Under the same assumptions as in the theorem the local group consisting of inner automorphisms of G is a linear group.

PROOF. From the uniqueness of $x^{1/2}$, it is easy to see $p x^{1/2} p^{-1}$

⁴ The proof of this inequality is essentially due to P. A. Smith [2].

$= (pxp^{-1})^{1/2}$, for arbitrary $x, y, p \in V$. From this and from the sufficient smallness of $|P_n(x, y)|$, we can deduce immediately that for arbitrary $p, x, y \in V, P_n(p^{-1}xp, p^{-1}yp) = p^{-1} \cdot P_n(x, y)p$, which implies $(p^{-1}xp) \circ (p^{-1}yp) = p^{-1}(x \circ y)p$. Thus $x \rightarrow p^{-1}xp$ is an automorphism of the abelian Lie group H , which proves the lemma.

LEMMA 6.⁵ *Let N be a closed local normal subgroup of G , satisfying the following conditions:*

- (1) *N is an abelian local Lie group,*
- (2) *G/N is a local Lie group,*
- (3) *there exists a set M such that for any a sufficiently near to e , Na contains one and only one element a' of M depending continuously on G/N .*

If G contains N satisfying the above conditions, G is a local Lie group.

PROOF. As N is an abelian Lie group, we can introduce a coordinate system $u(\xi^1, \dots, \xi^n)$ in N satisfying $u(\xi^1, \dots, \xi^n) \cdot u(\xi'^1, \dots, \xi'^n) = u(\xi^1 + \xi'^1, \dots, \xi^n + \xi'^n)$. The transformation by an element a of G induces an automorphism in N , given by

$$au(\xi^1, \dots, \xi^n)a^{-1} = u(\xi'^1, \dots, \xi'^n),$$

$$(\xi'^1, \dots, \xi'^n) = (\xi^1, \dots, \xi^n)A_a,$$

where (A_a^i) is a real matrix of degree n . As $G = NM$, we can put for arbitrary elements $p, q \in M$ sufficiently near to e ,

$$pq = \Psi(p, q)(p \circ q),$$

$$\Psi(p, q) = u(\Psi^1(p, q), \dots, \Psi^n(p, q)) \in N, \quad p \circ q \in M,$$

where, by (3), both $p \circ q$ and $\Psi(p, q)$ are continuous functions on $M \times M$. Then by the product $p \circ q, M$ is a local Lie group isomorphic with G/N , and $M \ni p \rightarrow A_p$ is a representation of the local Lie group M . Consequently, introducing the canonical coordinate $v(\eta^1, \dots, \eta^m)$ in $M, A_v(\eta^1, \dots, \eta^m)_j^i$ are analytic functions of (η^1, \dots, η^m) .

From the associative law of the product of G , if p, q, r are sufficiently near to e , we can see easily that

$$(1) \Psi^i(p, q) + \Psi^i(p \circ q, r) = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{p,j}^i \Psi^j(q, r) + \Psi^i(p, q \circ r), \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

Let $\phi(p)$ be an arbitrary continuous function defined on M and

⁵ In the proof of this lemma, the fact that the space of G is euclidean is not used. To prove our theorem we need only the case when N is the center of G . But we state the lemma in this general form, because this lemma is applicable to some theorem on locally compact groups (cf. [3]).

taking values in N . $M_\phi = \{p_\phi; p_\phi = \phi(p)p, p \in M\}$ also satisfies the condition (3), if M is replaced by M_ϕ . We can put

$$\begin{aligned} p_\phi \cdot q_\phi &= \Psi_\phi(p, q)(p_\phi \circ q_\phi), \\ \Psi_\phi(p, q) &\in N, \quad p_\phi \circ q_\phi \in M_\phi. \end{aligned}$$

As $p_\phi \circ q_\phi = (p \circ q)_\phi = \phi(p \circ q)(p \circ q)$, the relation between Ψ^i and Ψ_ϕ^i is given by

$$(2) \quad \Psi_\phi^i(p, q) = \phi^i(p) + \sum_{j=1}^n A_{p, \phi^j}^i(q) + \Psi^i(p, q) - \phi^i(p \circ q), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

Take two sufficiently small numbers α and β such that $U = \{v(\eta^1, \dots, \eta^m); |\eta^i| < \alpha\}$ and $V = \{v(\eta^1, \dots, \eta^m); |\eta^i| < \beta\}$ satisfy $U \supset V \circ V \circ V$ and such that if $p, q, r \in U$, equalities (1) and (2) have meanings. Take a real function $c(p)$ defined on U such that $c(v(\eta^1, \dots, \eta^m))$ is of class C^3 with respect to η^1, \dots, η^m and which satisfies the following conditions:

If $p \in V$, then $c(p) = 0$,

$$\int_V c(v(\eta^1, \dots, \eta^m)) d\eta^1 \cdots d\eta^m = \int_V c(v(\eta)) d\eta = \int_U c(v(\eta)) d\eta = 1.$$

Put

$$\phi_0^i(p) = - \int_V \Psi^i(p, v(\eta)) c(v(\eta)) d\eta = - \int_U \Psi^i(p, v(\eta)) c(v(\eta)) d\eta$$

and $\phi_0(p) = u(\phi_0^1(p), \dots, \phi_0^n(p)) \in N$. Then from (1) and (2), if $p, q \in V$

$$\begin{aligned} (3) \quad \Psi_{\phi_0}^i(p, q) &= \int_V \Psi^i(p, q \circ v(\eta)) c(v(\eta)) d\eta - \int_V \Psi^i(p, v(\eta)) c(v(\eta)) d\eta \\ &= F_1^i(p, q) - F_2^i(p), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n. \end{aligned}$$

Put $q \circ v(\eta^1, \dots, \eta^m) = v(\eta'^1, \dots, \eta'^m)$, and changing the integral variable η by η' , we can see

$$\begin{aligned} F_1^i(p, q) &= \int_V \Psi^i(p, q \circ v(\eta)) c(v(\eta)) d\eta \\ &= \int_{q \circ V} \Psi^i(p, v(\eta')) c(q^{-1} \circ v(\eta')) J(\eta') d\eta' \\ &= \int_U \Psi^i(p, v(\eta')) c(q^{-1} \circ v(\eta')) J(\eta') d\eta', \end{aligned}$$

because $\eta \rightarrow \eta'$ is an analytic function of η and $q \circ V \subset U$. As $c(v(\eta'))$, $q \circ r$, and q^{-1} are functions of class C^3 , the above equality shows that $F_1^i(p, v(\eta))$ are functions of class C^3 with respect to η when p is fixed. Consequently, by (3), $\Psi_{\phi_0}^i(p, v(\eta))$ are functions of class C^3 with respect to η when p is fixed. From (1), we can get

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ \int_U A_{p,i} c(p) dp \right\} \Psi^i(q, r) \\
 (4) \qquad \qquad \qquad &= \int_U \Psi^i(p, q) c(p) dp + \int_U \Psi^i(p \circ q, r) c(p) dp \\
 &\quad - \int_U \Psi^i(p, q \circ r) c(p) dp.
 \end{aligned}$$

From the fact that if U is sufficiently small, A_p ($p \in U$) is sufficiently near to the identity matrix and that $\int_U c(p) dp = 1$, it follows that the determinant $|\int_U A_{p,i} c(p) dp|$ is not zero. Consequently, using the same argument as above on $\int_U \Psi^i(p \circ q, r) c(p) dp$, we can deduce from (4) that if $\Psi^i(p, q)$ is of class C^3 with respect to q when p is fixed, $\Psi^i(p, q)$ is of class C^3 with respect to p when q is fixed. Thus we have proved that $\Psi_{\phi_0}^i(p, q)$ is of class C^3 with respect to both p and q in the coordinate system $v(\eta^1, \dots, \eta^m)$. As any element p of G is written uniquely as $p = nm_\phi$, $n \in N$, $m_\phi \in M$, we can introduce a coordinate system $w(\zeta^1, \dots, \zeta^{n+m})$ in G by

$$\begin{aligned}
 w(\zeta^1, \dots, \zeta^{n+m}) \\
 = u(\zeta^1, \dots, \zeta^n) \phi_0(v(\zeta^{n+1}, \dots, \zeta^{n+m})) v(\zeta^{n+1}, \dots, \zeta^{n+m}).
 \end{aligned}$$

As $\phi_0(v(\eta)) \in N$ and N is abelian, we can easily verify that the product function $f^i(\zeta^1, \dots, \zeta^{n+m}; \zeta'^1, \dots, \zeta'^{n+m})$ ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n+m$) of G with respect to this coordinate system is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 f^i(\zeta^1, \dots, \zeta^{n+m}; \zeta'^1, \dots, \zeta'^{n+m}) &= \zeta^i + A_{v(\zeta^{n+1}, \dots, \zeta^{n+m})}^i \zeta'^i \\
 &\quad + \Psi_{\phi_0}^i(v(\zeta^{n+1}, \dots, \zeta^{n+m}), v(\zeta'^{n+1}, \dots, \zeta'^{n+m})) \\
 &\qquad \qquad \qquad (i = 1, 2, \dots, n), \\
 f^i(\zeta^1, \dots, \zeta^{n+m}; \zeta'^1, \dots, \zeta'^{n+m}) \\
 &= g^i(\zeta^{n+1}, \dots, \zeta^{n+m}; \zeta'^{n+1}, \dots, \zeta'^{n+m}) \\
 &\qquad \qquad \qquad (i = n+1, \dots, n+m),
 \end{aligned}$$

where $g^{i-n}(\zeta^{n+1}, \dots, \zeta^{n+m}; \zeta'^{n+1}, \dots, \zeta'^{n+m})$ is the product function of $p \circ q$ with respect to $v(\zeta^{n+1}, \dots, \zeta^{n+m})$.

Thus, with respect to the coordinate system $w(\zeta)$, the product function of G is of class C^3 and hence G is a local Lie group.

PROOF OF THE THEOREM. When G has the discrete center, Lemma 5 shows that G is a local Lie group.

When G has the non-discrete center N , by Lemma 4, N is an abelian Lie group, and by Lemma 5 again, G/N is a local Lie group. Then we can introduce a canonical coordinate of the second kind by $x_1^{*\lambda_1} \cdots x_m^{*\lambda_m}$, where $x_i^{*\lambda_i}$ ($i=1, 2, \dots, m$) are one-parameter subgroups of G/N . Take x_i of G from the coset x_i^* for each i , we can easily show that the set $M = \{y; y = x_1^{\lambda_1} \cdots x_m^{\lambda_m}, |\lambda_i| \leq 1\}$ satisfies the condition (3) of Lemma 6. Consequently, by Lemma 6, G is a local Lie group. This completes our proof.

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TOKYO INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

NOTE ON A THEOREM OF KOKSMA

WM. J. LEVEQUE¹

In 1935 Koksma [2]² showed, among other things, that the sequence x, x^2, x^3, \dots is uniformly distributed (mod 1) for almost all $x > 1$; that is, that if $N(n, \alpha, \beta, x)$ denotes the number of elements x^j of the sequence x, x^2, \dots, x^n for which

$$0 \leq \alpha \leq x^j - [x^j] < \beta \leq 1,$$

then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N(n, \alpha, \beta, x)}{n} = \beta - \alpha$$

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² Numbers in brackets refer to the bibliography at the end of the paper.