# ON FULL SUBGROUPS OF CHEVALLEY GROUPS* 

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Introduction. Let $G$ be a split algebraic absolutely almost simple group defined over a field $k$. For a split maximal $k$-subtorus $T$ of $G$ let $\Sigma=\Sigma(G, T)$ denote the root system of $G$ with respect to $T$. Let $\left\{x_{\mathrm{t}}\right.$, $\varepsilon \in \Sigma\}$ be a system of isomorphisms, normalized as usual (see, for example, Steinberg [4]), from the additive group onto the root subgroups with respect to $T$.

We say (in the spirit of O'Meara [2, 3]) that a subgroup $H$ of $G(k)$ is full if for every $g$ in $G(k)$ and $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$ there exists a non-zero $c=c(g, \varepsilon)$ in $k$ such that $g^{-1} x_{\varepsilon}(c) g \in H$. Thus, $H$ is full if and only if its intersection with any root subgroup (relative to any maximal split $k$-torus) contains at least two elements.

For a subset $R$ of $k$ we denote by $G^{E}(R)$ the subgroup of $G(k)$ generated by all $x_{\varepsilon}(\alpha)$, where $\varepsilon \in \Sigma$ and $a \in R$. Here " $E$ " stands for "elementary".

A subset $R$ of $k$ is called full (cf., Vaserstein [7]) if for every $y$ in $k$ there is a non-zero $r$ in $R$ such that $y r \in R$. For a subring $R$ it means that $k$ is its field of fractions. Note that in this paper a ring is not required to have identity.

The results of the present paper are modeled on the results of Vaserstein [7], the methods are also similar. However the situation for groups of type $C_{n}$ in characteristic 2 turns out to be more complicated.

We assume throughout (except in the last section) that the rank of $G$ is greater than one. If $\operatorname{rank}(G)=1$, i.e., $G$ is of type $\boldsymbol{A}_{1}$, then the conclusions of Theorems 1-5 below are false, see [7] and the last section, where we also discuss possible generalizations of our results.

The following Theorems 1-5 summarize our main results. More precise and detailed statements are given in the corresponding sections.

Theorem 1. For every full subring $R$ of $k$, the subgroup $G^{E}(R)$ of $G(k)$ is full.

Theorem 2. ("Arithmeticity Theorem"). Every full subgroup $H$ of $G(k)$ contains $G^{E}(A)$ for some full subring $A$ of $k$ with the exception of

[^0]the case when $G$ is of type $\boldsymbol{C}_{n}(n \geqq 2)$, $\operatorname{char}(k)=2$ and the dimension of $k$ over $k^{2}$ is uncountable.

Here, for a field $k$ of characteristic $2, k^{2}$ denotes the subfield of $k$, consisting of all squares. In the exceptional case we will show that not every full subgroup $H$ contains $G^{E}(A)$ for a full subring $A$ (see Sections 8 and 9 for details).

Theorem 3. If $H$ is a full subgroup of $G(k)$ and $g_{1}, \cdots, g_{m}$ are in $G(k)$ then the intersection of all $g_{i} H g_{i}^{-1}$ is a full subgroup of $G(k)$.

Theorem 4. Assume that $k$ does not consist of 2 elements when $G$ is of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$ or $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$. If $H$ is a full subgroup of $G(k)$ and $M$ is a subgroup of $G(k)$ normalized by $H$ then either $H \cap M$ is full or $M$ lies in the center of $G$.

Theorems 1-4 for $G=S L_{n}$ were proved by Vaserstein [7]. According to [10], Serezhkin considered subgroups $H$ of $G(k)=S L_{n}(k), n \geqq 3$, more general than full subgroups. Assuming that $H$ is irreducible (in the standard representation) he proves that a conjugate of $H$ either contains $G^{E}(A)=E_{n}(A)$ for a full subring $A$ of $k$ or is contained in $H S p_{n}(k)$, the group of symplectic similitudes. Since a full $H$ is irreducible and $H S p_{n}(k)$ is not full, this result combined with our Theorem 8.4 gives Theorem 2 for $G=S L_{n}, n \geqq 3$. He also tried to prove Theorem 2 for $G=S p_{2 n}$ with $\operatorname{char}(k) \neq 2$, see [11].

Theorem 5. Let $H$ be a subgroup of $G(k)$. Set $R_{\varepsilon}(H):=\left\{t \in k: x_{\varepsilon}(t) \in\right.$ $H$ \}. Suppose that $R_{\varepsilon}:=R_{s}(H) \neq 0$ for every root $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$. Suppose further that $G$ is not of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{n}, \boldsymbol{C}_{n}$, or $\boldsymbol{F}_{4}$ when $\operatorname{char}(k)=2$, and that $G$ is not of type $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$ when $\operatorname{char}(k)=3$. Then there is a non-zero subring $A$ of $k$ such that $R_{\varepsilon} A \subset R_{\varepsilon}$ (i.e. $R_{\varepsilon}$ is an $A$-module) and $\left(A R_{\varepsilon}\right)\left(A R_{-\varepsilon}\right) \subset A$ for every root $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$.

We do not assume here that $H$ is full. Here and throughout the paper $B C:=\{b c: b \in B, c \in C\}$ for any subsets $B, C \subset k$. About the cases excluded from Theorem 5 , see the next section.

The groups $H$ in Theorem 5 are similar to "tableau", "carpet" or "net" groups considered in many papers including Riehm [12], [13], James [14], Borevich [15], Vavilov [16]. The main two differences are that our $R_{\varepsilon}(H)$ need not be ideals of $A$ and are not allowed to be 0 .

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Notations and conventions. If all roots in $\Sigma$ have the same length, we set $\Sigma_{l}:=\Sigma_{s}:=\Sigma$. Otherwise there are roots of only two lengths in $\Sigma$ (see, for example, [4]). We denote then by $\Sigma_{l}$ (resp., $\Sigma_{s}$ ) the set of long (resp., short) roots in $\Sigma$. Always, $\Sigma_{l}$ is a subsystem of $\Sigma$.

Let $e(\Sigma)$ be the square ratio of lengths of long and short roots. Recall that $e(\Sigma)=1$ when $\Sigma$ is of type $\boldsymbol{A}_{n}, \boldsymbol{D}_{n}$, or $\boldsymbol{E}_{n} ; e(\Sigma)=2$ when $\Sigma$ is of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{n}, \boldsymbol{C}_{n}$ or $\boldsymbol{F}_{4} ; e(\Sigma)=3$ when $\Sigma$ is of type $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$.

We say that a subset of $\Sigma$ is connected if it is not a union of two orthogonal non-empty subsets.

If $\alpha, \beta$ are in $\Sigma$ and $\alpha \neq \beta \neq-\alpha$, then we have a commutation relation of the form $\left[x_{\alpha}(t), x_{\beta}(u)\right]=\Pi x_{i \alpha+j \beta}\left( \pm p_{\alpha, \beta, i, j} t^{i} u^{j}\right)$ for all $t, u$ in $k$, where the product is taken over all roots $i \alpha+j \beta$ in $\Sigma$ with natural $i, j \geqq 1$, the factors in the product are ordered lexicographically ( $i$ and, for fixed $i$, also $j$ increase from the left to the right), $p_{\alpha, \beta, i, j}$ are natural numbers, and the signs $\pm$ do not depend on $t$ and $u$ but only on $\alpha, \beta, i, j$ (once the parametrizations $x_{\varphi}$ were chosen). When $\alpha+\beta$ is not a root, the product is taken over an empty set and equals 1.

For a subset $A \subset k$ and an integer $n$ we set $A^{n}:=\left\{a^{n}: a \in A\right\}$. For $A, B \subset k$ we set $A B:=\{a b: a \in A, b \in B\}$.

We define $p$ as follows: if $\operatorname{char}(k) \neq e(\Sigma)$, then $p:=1$; otherwise, $p:=\operatorname{char}(k)=e(\Sigma)$.

For a subgroup $H$ of $G(k)$ and a root $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$ we set $R_{\varepsilon}(H):=\{t \in k$ : $\left.x_{\varepsilon}(t) \in H\right\}$.

## 1. A generalization of Theorem 5.

1.1. Theorem. Let $H$ be a subgroup of $G(k)$ such that $R_{\varepsilon}(H) \neq\{0\}$ for every root $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$. Set $R_{\varepsilon}:=R_{\varepsilon}(H)$. Then there exist additive subgroups $A$ and $B$ of $k$ and (for every root $\varepsilon$ ) non-zero $a_{\varepsilon}$, $b_{\varepsilon}$ in $k$ such that:
(i) $a_{\hat{\delta}} B \subset R_{\dot{\delta}} \subset b_{\delta} B, R_{\hat{\delta}} A^{p} \subset R_{\delta}$, and $A R_{\delta} R_{-\delta} \subset A$ for every long root $\delta$ in $\Sigma$;
(ii) $a_{r} A \subset B_{r} \subset b_{r} A, R_{r} B \subset R_{r}$, and $B^{\prime}\left(R_{r} R_{-r}\right)^{p} \subset B$ for every short root $\gamma$ in $\Sigma$, where $B^{\prime}:=B B$ when $\operatorname{char}(k)=2=e(\Sigma)-1, B^{\prime}:=e(\Sigma)!B$ when $\operatorname{char}(k)=0$, and $B^{\prime}:=B$ otherwise;
(iii) $A B \subset A, B A^{p} \subset B$, and $A^{p} \subset B \subset A$;
(iv) $B$ is a subring of $k$ (i.e. $B B \subset B$ ) when $\Sigma_{l}$ is connected; $A$ is a subring of $k$ when $\Sigma_{s}$ is connected.

The case $p=1$ of this theorem contains Theorem 5 (indeed, (iii) with $p=1$ implies that $A=B$ is a subring, and to obtain $A A R_{r} R_{-r} \subset A$ when $\operatorname{char}(k)=0$, we replace $A$ by $e(\Sigma)!A)$. Note that $R_{\varepsilon} A \subset R_{\varepsilon}$ and $A A R_{\varepsilon} R_{-\varepsilon} \subset A$
imply $c_{\varepsilon} A \subset R_{\varepsilon} \subset c_{-\varepsilon}^{-1} A$ for any $c_{\varepsilon}$ in $R_{\varepsilon}$ and $c_{-\varepsilon} \neq 0$ in $A A R_{-\varepsilon}$. When $p \neq 1$ and $k$ is not algebraic over its prime subfield, the conclusion of Theorem 5 is false for some $H$ with $R_{\varepsilon}(H) \neq 0$ for all $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$, see Theorem 6.1 below (namely, for $H=G^{E}\left(k_{0}, k_{0}^{p}\right.$ ) with subfields $k_{0}^{p} \subset k_{0} \subset k$ ).

We will prove Theorem 1.1 in Sections 2, 3-4, and 5 in cases $e(\Sigma)=$ 1,2 and 3 respectively. The following technical lemmas will be used in our proof of Theorem 1.1.
1.2. Lemma. Let $m \geqq 2$ be an integer; $A, B \subset k ; A B \subset A, A^{m} B \subset B$. Then:
(i) if $a$ is in the multiplicative set generated by $A$ and $b$ is in the multiplicative set generated by $B$, then $B a^{m} \subset B$ and $A b \subset A$; therefore, for $A_{1}:=A a, B_{1}:=B b$ we have $A_{1} B_{1} \subset A_{1}, A_{1}^{m} B_{1} \subset B_{1}$;
(ii) if $a \in A, b \in B$, then for $A_{2}:=A a^{m-1} b, B_{2}:=B a^{m} b$ we have $A_{2} B_{2} \subset A_{2}, A_{2}^{m} B_{2} \subset B_{2}$, and $B_{2} \subset A_{2}$;
(iii) if $b \in B \subset A$, then for $A_{3}:=A b, B_{3}:=B b^{m-1}$ we have $A_{3} B_{3} \subset A_{3}$, $A_{3}^{m} B_{3} \subset B_{3}$, and $A_{3}^{m} \subset B_{3} \subset A_{3} ;$
(iv) if $B \neq 0 \neq c A A \subset A$ for some $c$ in $k$, then there is a non-zero $a_{0}$ in $A$ such that $\left(a_{0}^{m-1} A\right)\left(a_{0}^{m-1} A\right) \subset a_{0}^{m-1} A$;
(v) if $A \neq 0 \neq c B B \subset B$ for some $c$ in $k$, then there is a non-zero $b_{0}$ in $B$ such that $\left(b_{0}^{m-1} B\right)\left(b_{0}^{m-1} B\right) \subset b_{0}^{m-1} B$.

Proof. (i) We write $a=a_{1} \cdots a_{n}$ with $\alpha_{i} \in A$. Then $B a_{1}^{m} \subset B A^{m} \subset B$ and, by induction on $n, B a^{m}=B\left(a_{1} \cdots a_{n-1}\right)^{m} a_{n}^{m} \subset B a_{n}^{m} \subset B$. Similarly $A b \subset A$.
(ii) Since $a^{m-1} b=a^{m-2} a b \in a^{m-2} A B \subset a^{m-2} A$ and $a^{m} b \in A^{m} B \subset B$, by (i) we have $A_{2} B_{2}=A_{2}$ and $A_{2}^{m} B_{2} \subset B_{2}$. Moreover, $B_{2}=B a^{m} b=(B a) a^{m-1} b \subset$ $A a^{m-1} b=A_{2}$.
(iii) Again, the first two inclusions follow from (i), which implies also that $b^{m-2} B \subset A$. Hence $B_{3}=b^{m-1} B \subset A b=A_{3}$. Finally, $A_{3}^{m}=A^{m} b^{m}=$ $A^{m} b b^{m-1} \subset A^{m} B b^{m-1} \subset B b^{m-1}=B_{3}$.
(iv) We have $(c A)(c A) \subset c A$, that is, $c A$ is a multiplicative set in $k$. In particular, $(c A)^{2 m} \subset((c A)(c A))^{m} \subset(c A)^{m}$, so $B(c A)^{2 m} A \subset B(c A)^{m} A=c^{m} B A^{m} A \subset$ $c^{m} B A \subset c^{m} A$.

On the other hand, $B(c A)^{2 m} A=c^{2 m}\left(B A^{2 m}\right) A \subset c^{2 m} B A \subset c^{2 m} A$.
Therefore $c^{m} A \cap c^{2 m} A \neq 0$, i.e., there are non-zero $a_{0}$ and $a$ in $A$ such that $c^{m}=a_{0} / a$. Then $a_{0}^{m-1}=a_{0}^{m-2} a_{0}=a_{0}^{m-2} a c^{m}=\left(a_{0} c\right)^{m-2}(a c) c \in(c A)^{m-2}(c A) c \subset$ $(c A) c=c^{2} A$. Hence $A\left(a_{0}^{m-1} A\right) \subset A\left(c^{2} A\right) A=A c(c A A) \subset A c A \subset A$. Multiplying both sides by $a_{0}^{m-1}$, we get $\left(a_{0}^{m-1} A\right)\left(a_{0}^{m-1} A\right) \subset a_{0}^{m-1} A$.
(v) From $(c B)(c B) \subset c B$ we deduce that $A(c B)^{2} \subset A c B=c A B \subset c A$. On the other hand, $A(c B)^{2}=c^{2} A B^{2} \subset c^{2}(A B) B \subset c^{2} A B \subset c^{2} A$.

Therefore, $c A \cap c^{2} A \supset A(c B)^{2} \neq 0$, hence $a_{0}=a c$ for some non-zero $a$,
$a_{0}$ in $A$. Pick a non-zero $b^{\prime}$ in $B$. Then $0 \neq b:=a^{m} b^{\prime} \in A^{m} B \subset B, 0 \neq b_{0}:=$ $a_{0}^{m} b^{\prime} \in A^{m} B \subset B$, and $b_{0}=c^{m} b$.

We have $b_{0}^{m-1}=c^{m} b b_{0}^{m-2}=(b c)\left(b_{0} c\right)^{m-2} c \in(B c)(B c)^{m-2} c \subset(B c) c=B c^{2}$. Therefore, $B\left(b_{0}^{m-1} B\right) \subset B\left(B c^{2}\right) B=B c(B c B) \subset B c B \subset B$. Multiplying this with $b_{0}^{m-1}$, we get $\left(b_{0}^{m-1} B\right)\left(b_{0}^{m-1} B\right) \subset b_{0}^{m-1} B$.
1.3. Lemma. Let $n, m, N$ be natural numbers. Let non-empty $A, B, R_{i} \subset k$, and $c_{i}, d_{i} \in k$ for $i=1, \cdots, N$. Assume that $0 \neq A B^{n} \subset A$, $A^{m} B \subset B, \quad 0 \neq c_{i} A \subset R_{i} \subset d_{i} A(i=1, \cdots, N)$. Then there is a non-zero $b$ in $B$ such that $d_{i} A(b B)^{n} \subset c_{i} A$ and, therefore, $R_{i}(b B)^{n} \subset R_{i}$ for $i=1, \cdots, N$.

Proof. From $c_{i} A \subset d_{i} A$ it follows that $A\left(c_{i} / d_{i}\right) \subset A$. Therefore $A\left(c_{i} / d_{i}\right)^{r} \subset A$ for every integer $r \geqq 0$. Pick non-zero $a_{0}$ in $A$ and $b^{\prime}$ in $B$. Set $a_{i}:=a_{0} c_{i} / d_{i} \in A, \quad b_{i}:=b^{\prime} a_{i}^{m} \in B A^{m} \subset B$ for $i=1, \cdots, N$, and $b_{0}:=$ $b^{\prime} a_{0}^{m} \in B$.

We have: $\quad\left(c_{i} / d_{i}\right)^{m}=\left(a_{i} / a_{0}\right)^{m}=b_{i} / b_{0} \quad$ and $\quad b_{i}^{n} A \subset b_{i}^{n} A / b_{0}^{n}=A\left(b_{i} / b_{0}\right)^{n}=$ $A\left(c_{i} / d_{i}\right)^{m n} \subset A c_{i} / d_{i}$ for $i=1, \cdots, N$.

Let $a$ be the product of all $a_{i}, i=1, \cdots, N$, and $b:=b^{\prime} a^{m} \in B A^{m} \subset B$. We have: $b B=b_{1} B$ when $N=1$, and $b B \subset b_{i} A^{m} B \subset b_{i} B$ for $i=1, \cdots, N$ when $N>1$.

Therefore, $A(b B)^{n} \subset A\left(b_{i} B\right)^{n}=A B^{n} b_{i}^{n} \subset A b_{i}^{n} \subset A c_{i} / d_{i}$. Hence $d_{i} A(b B)^{n} \subset$ $A c_{i}$ and $R_{i}(b B)^{n} \subset d_{i} A(b B)^{n} \subset A c_{i} \subset R_{i}$ for $i=1, \cdots, N$.
2. Proof of Theorem 1.1 for groups $G$ of type $A_{n}(n \geqq 2)$, $D_{n}$ $(n \geqq 3)$, and $\boldsymbol{E}_{n}(n=6,7,8)$. Recall that $H$ is a subgroup of $G(k)$ and that the $R_{\varepsilon}:=R_{\varepsilon}(H):=\left\{t \in k: x_{\varepsilon}(t) \in H\right\}$ are assumed to be non-zero for all roots $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$. In this section we consider the case when $\Sigma=\Sigma_{l}=\Sigma_{s}$.
2.1. Lemma. (i) If $\gamma, \delta, \gamma+\delta \in \Sigma$ then $R_{r} R_{\dot{\delta}} \subset R_{\gamma+\delta}$;
(ii) for any $\alpha, \beta$ in $\Sigma$ there exists a non-zero $c_{\alpha, \beta}$ in $k$ such that $c_{\alpha, \beta} R_{\beta} \subset R_{\alpha}$.

Proof. (i) We have $\left[x_{r}(t), x_{i}(u)\right]=x_{r+\delta}( \pm t u)$ for all $t, u$ in $k$ (see, e.g., [4, Examples to Lemma 14]). Taking here $t \in R_{r}, u \in R_{\delta}$ we see that $R_{\gamma} R_{\delta} \subset R_{\gamma+\delta}$.
(ii) There exist $\gamma_{1}, \cdots, \gamma_{m}$ in $\Sigma$ such that $\beta+\gamma_{1}+\cdots+\gamma_{i} \in \Sigma$ for all $i \leqq m$ and $\alpha=\beta+\gamma_{1}+\cdots+\gamma_{m}$. Let us proceed by induction on $m$. If $m=0$, then $R_{\alpha}=R_{\beta}$ and we can take $c_{\alpha, \beta}=1$. For $m \geqq 1$, we set $\gamma:=\gamma_{m}, \delta=\beta+\gamma_{1}+\cdots+\gamma_{m-1}$. Pick a non-zero $c_{r}$ in $R_{r}$. Applying (i) and the inductive assumption to $\delta$, we have: $R_{\gamma+\delta}=R_{\alpha} \supset R_{\gamma} R_{\dot{\delta}} \supset c_{\delta, \beta} R_{\beta} R_{\gamma} \supset$ $c_{r} c_{\delta, \beta} R_{\beta}=c_{\alpha, \beta} R$ with $c_{\alpha, \beta}:=c_{\gamma} c_{\delta, \beta} \neq 0$.

Now we can complete our proof of Theorem 1.1 in the case $\Sigma=\Sigma_{l}$.

For every pair $\alpha, \beta$ of roots in $\Sigma$ we fix a non-zero $c_{\alpha, \beta} \in k$ such that $c_{\alpha, \beta} R_{\beta} \subset R_{\alpha}$ (see, Lemma 2.1 (ii)).

Pick roots $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ in $\Sigma$ such that $\gamma=\alpha-\beta$. By Lemma 2.1, $R_{\alpha} \supset$ $R_{\beta} R_{r} \supset c_{\beta, \alpha} R_{\alpha} c_{r, \alpha} R_{\alpha}=c R_{\alpha} R_{\alpha}$, where $c:=c_{\beta, \alpha} c_{r, \alpha} \neq 0$, hence $A:=c R_{\alpha} \supset$ $c R_{\alpha} c R_{\alpha}=A A$ is a subring of $k$.

For any root $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$ set $a_{\varepsilon}:=c^{-1} c_{\varepsilon, \alpha}, \quad b_{\varepsilon}:=c^{-1} c_{\alpha, \varepsilon}^{-1} \neq 0$, hence $R_{\varepsilon} \supset$ $c_{\varepsilon, \alpha} R_{\alpha}=c_{\varepsilon, \alpha} c^{-1} A=a_{\varepsilon} A$ and $R_{\varepsilon} \subset c_{\alpha, \varepsilon}^{-1} R_{\alpha}=c^{-1} c_{\alpha, \varepsilon}^{-1} A=b_{\varepsilon} A$.

By Lemma 1.3 (with $A=B, m=n=1, N:=\operatorname{card}(\Sigma)),(a A) R_{\varepsilon} \subset R_{\varepsilon}$ for all $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$ with some non-zero $a$ in $A$. Replace $A$ by $a A$ and $a_{\varepsilon}, b_{\varepsilon}$ by $a_{\varepsilon} a^{-1}, b_{\varepsilon} a^{-1}$ respectively. Then $A R_{\varepsilon} \subset R_{\varepsilon}$ for all $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$ and still $a_{\varepsilon} A \subset R_{\varepsilon} \subset b_{\varepsilon} A$ for all $\varepsilon$.

Now for every $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$ we can find $\delta$ in $\Sigma$ such that $\varepsilon+\delta \in \Sigma$. Then $R_{\delta} R_{\varepsilon} R_{-\varepsilon} \subset R_{\delta+\varepsilon} R_{-\varepsilon} \subset R_{\delta}$ by Lemma 2.1 (i). Take the product $R$ of all $R_{\delta}$ over $\delta \in \Sigma$. Then $R R_{\varepsilon} R_{-\varepsilon} \subset R$ for all $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$.

Since $R_{\varepsilon} \subset b_{\varepsilon} A$ for all $\varepsilon$, we have $R \subset b A$, where $b \neq 0$ is the product of all $b_{\varepsilon}$. Replacing $A$ by its subring generated by $R b^{-1}$, we have $R_{\varepsilon} A \subset R_{\varepsilon}$ and $A R_{\varepsilon} R_{-\varepsilon} \subset A$ for every root $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$.
3. Proof of Theorem 1.1 for $G$ of type $B_{2}$. Since $G$ is split over $k$, it is isogenous to the symplectic group of a non-singular alternating form in dimension 4.

The root system (see, Figure 1) consists of 8 roots. Four of them $( \pm \alpha, \pm(\alpha+2 \beta))$ are long, and four ( $\pm \beta, \pm(\alpha+\beta)$ ) are short.

Let us call a pair $(\gamma, \delta)$ of roots admissible, if $\gamma \in \Sigma_{s}, \delta \in \Sigma_{l}$, and $\delta-\gamma \in \Sigma_{8}$. In other words, $\gamma$ is short and $\delta$ makes an angle $\pm 45^{\circ}$ with $\gamma$. Every root is contained therefore in exactly two admissible pairs.

As in Theorem 1.1, $R_{s}:=R_{\varepsilon}(H) \neq\{0\}$. For any pair ( $\gamma, \delta$ ) of roots we set $R_{r, \delta}:=R_{r, \delta}(H):=\left\{(t, u) \in k \oplus k: x_{r}(t) x_{\delta}(u) \in H\right\}$. Let $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime}$ (resp., $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime \prime}$ ) be the projection of $R_{r, \delta}$ on the first (resp., second) factor. Clearly,


Figure 1. System of roots of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$.
$R_{r, \dot{\delta}}^{\prime} \supset R_{r}$ and $R_{r, \dot{\delta}}^{\prime \prime} \supset R_{\dot{\delta}}$.
3.1 Lemma. Let $(\gamma, \delta)$ be an admissible pair of roots, $a \in R_{2 r-\delta}, b \in$ $R_{\delta-2 r},(c, d) \in R_{r, \delta}$, and $t_{1}, t_{2} \in R_{r-\delta}$. Then (i) $\left(a b c, a b^{2} c^{2}\right) \in R_{r, \delta}$; (ii) $2 t_{1} t_{2} d \in$ $R_{2 \gamma_{-\delta} .}$.

Proof. Set $\varepsilon:=\delta-2 \gamma$.
(i) Since both $x_{s}(k)$ and $x_{-\varepsilon}(k)$ commute with $x_{\dot{\delta}}(k)$, we have: $H \ni$ $\left[x_{-\varepsilon}(a),\left[x_{\varepsilon}(b), x_{\gamma}(c) x_{\dot{\delta}}(d)\right]\right]=\left[x_{-\varepsilon}(a), x_{\delta-\gamma}( \pm b c) x_{\dot{\delta}}\left( \pm b c^{2}\right)\right]=x_{r}( \pm a b c) x_{\delta}\left( \pm a b^{2} c^{2}\right)$. Since $R_{ \pm \varepsilon}$ are additive subgroups of $k$, we can, changing if necessary signs of $a$ and $b$, obtain that $R_{r, \delta} \ni\left(a b c, a b^{2} c^{2}\right)$, as claimed.
(ii) We have $H$ э $y(t):=\left[x_{r-\delta}(t), x_{r}(c) x_{\delta}(d)\right]=x_{r}( \pm t d) x_{2 \gamma-\delta}\left( \pm t^{2} d \pm 2 c t\right)$ for any $t$ in $R_{r-\beta}$, hence $H \ni y\left(t_{1}+t_{2}\right) y\left(-t_{1}\right) y\left(-t_{2}\right)=x_{2 \gamma_{-\delta}}\left( \pm 2 t_{1} t_{2} d\right)$. Thus, $R_{2 \gamma_{-\delta}}=-R_{2 \gamma_{-\mathrm{s}}}$ Э $2 t_{1} t_{2} d$.
3.2. Corollary. In the notation of Lemma 3.1:
(i) $R_{r} \supset 2 R_{\varepsilon} R_{-\varepsilon} R_{\gamma, \delta}^{\prime}$ and $R_{\dot{\delta}} \supset 8 R_{\varepsilon} R_{\varepsilon} R_{-\varepsilon} R_{\gamma} R_{\gamma, \delta}^{\prime}$, where $\varepsilon:=\delta-2 \gamma$;
(ii) $R_{\dot{\delta}} C_{\gamma_{-\delta}} C_{\gamma_{-\delta}} \subset R_{\dot{\delta}} \supset 4 R_{\dot{\delta}} C_{\gamma_{-\delta}} C_{\gamma_{-j}} C_{\gamma_{-\delta}}$, where $C_{\gamma_{-\delta}}:=2 R_{\gamma_{-\delta}} R_{\delta-\gamma}$.

Proof. (i) Let $a, b, c, d$ be as in Lemma 3.1, and $c^{\prime} \in R_{r}, b^{\prime} \in R_{\varepsilon}$. By Lemma 3.1, $R_{r, \delta} \ni z(c):=\left(a b c, a b^{2} c^{2}\right) \in k \oplus k$. Since $x_{r}(k)$ and $x_{\delta}(k)$ commute, $R_{r, \delta}$ is an additive subgroup of $k \oplus k$. Therefore, $R_{r, \delta} \ni z(c)-z(-c)=$ ( $2 a b c, 0$ ), so $R_{\dot{\delta}} \supset 2 R_{-\varepsilon} R_{\varepsilon} R_{r, \delta}^{\prime}$, which proves the first inclusion.

Similarly, $R_{r, \delta} \ni z(c)+z(-c)=\left(0,2 a b^{2} c^{2}\right)$, hence $R_{\dot{\delta}} \ni 2 a b^{2} c^{2}$. Therefore $R_{\text {万 }}$ Э $2 a b^{2}\left(c+c^{\prime}\right)^{2}-2 a b^{2} c^{2}-2 a b^{2} c^{\prime 2}=4 a b^{2} c c^{\prime}$ and $R_{\delta}$ Э $4 a\left(b+b^{\prime}\right)^{2} c c^{\prime}-4 a b^{2} c c^{\prime}-$ $4 a b^{\prime 2} c c^{\prime}=8 a b b^{\prime} c c^{\prime}$. This establishes the second inclusion in Corollary 3.2(i).
(ii) By Lemma 3.1 (ii), $R_{\gamma, \delta}^{\prime \prime}\left(2 R_{\gamma-\delta} R_{\gamma-\delta}\right) \subset R_{2 \gamma-\delta}$. Replacing here ( $\gamma, \delta$ ) by the admissible pair $(\gamma, 2 \gamma-\delta)$, we get $R_{\gamma, 2 \gamma-\delta}^{\prime \prime}\left(2 R_{\delta-\gamma} R_{\delta-\gamma}\right) \subset R_{\delta}$. Combining the last two inclusions we get $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime \prime} C_{r_{-\delta}} C_{r_{-\delta}} \subset R_{2 T_{-\delta}}\left(2 R_{\dot{\delta}-\gamma} R_{\delta-r}\right) \subset R_{\dot{\delta}}$.

To prove the second inclusion in (ii) we take arbitrary $u$ in $R_{r_{-\delta}}, v$ in $R_{\delta-\gamma}$, and $t$ in $R_{\dot{\delta}}$. Then $H \ni\left[\left[x_{\delta}(t), x_{r-\delta}(u)\right], x_{\dot{\delta}-\gamma}(v)\right]=x_{r}\left( \pm t u^{2} v\right) x_{\delta}( \pm 2 t u v$ $\pm t u^{2} v^{2}$ ), hence (changing if necessary signs of $t$ and $u$ ) $R_{r, \dot{\delta}}^{\prime \prime} \ni 2 t u v+u^{2} v^{2} t$. Since $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime \prime} \supset R_{\dot{\delta}} \supset R_{\delta} C_{r-\delta} C_{r-\delta} \ni 4 u^{2} v^{2} t$, it follows that $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime \prime} \ni 8 t u v$. Thus, $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime \prime} \supset 4 R_{\dot{j}} C_{\tau-\delta}$. Combining this with $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime \prime} C_{\gamma-\dot{\delta}} C_{\gamma-\delta} \subset R_{\dot{\delta}}$, we get Corollary 3.2 (ii).

Proof of Theorem 1.1 for type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$ when $\operatorname{char}(k) \neq 2$. For every root $\varphi$ in $\Sigma$ we pick a non-zero $c_{\varphi}$ in $R_{\varphi}$.

By Corollary 3.2 (i), $R_{\gamma} \supset c_{r, \varepsilon} R_{\varepsilon}, R_{r} \supset c_{r,-\varepsilon} R_{-\varepsilon}$, where $c_{r, \varepsilon}:=2 c_{r} c_{-\varepsilon}, c_{r,-\varepsilon}:=$ $2 c_{\gamma} c_{\varepsilon}$. Similarly, $R_{\delta} \supset c_{\delta, \varepsilon} R_{\varepsilon}, c_{\delta,-\varepsilon} R_{-\varepsilon}, c_{\delta, r} R_{\gamma}$ with $c_{\delta, \varepsilon}:=8 c_{-\varepsilon} c_{\gamma}^{2} c_{\varepsilon}, c_{\delta,-\varepsilon}:=8 c_{\varepsilon}^{2} c_{r}^{2}$, $c_{\delta, r}:=8 c_{\varepsilon}^{2} c_{-\varepsilon} c_{\gamma}$.

Applying the above inclusions (with other admissible pairs of roots) successively, one easily establishes that for any $\varphi, \psi$ in $\Sigma$ there is a
non-zero $c_{\varphi, \psi}$ in $k$ such that $R_{\varphi} \supset c_{\varphi, \psi} R_{\psi}$. Fix such $c_{\varphi, \psi}$.
Let $A$ be the subring of $k$ generated by $2 R_{\alpha} R_{-\alpha}$. We have $A \supset 2 c_{-\alpha} R_{\alpha}$. Applying Corollary 3.2 (i) with $\gamma:=\beta, \delta:=\alpha+2 \beta, \varepsilon:=\delta-2 \gamma=\alpha$, we get $R_{\beta} \supset A R_{\beta}$ hence $R_{\beta} \supset c_{\beta} A$. Therefore $a_{\varphi} A \subset R_{\varphi} \subset b_{\varphi} A$ for every root $\varphi$ in $\Sigma$, where $a_{\varphi}:=c_{\varphi, \beta} c_{\beta}, b_{\varphi}:=\left(2 c_{-\alpha} c_{\alpha, \varphi}\right)^{-1}$. Using Lemma 1.3 with $m=$ $n=1, A=B$, we find a non-zero $a$ in $A$ such that all $R_{\varphi}$ are $a A$-modules.

Replacing $A$ by $a A$ and changing $a_{\varphi}, b_{\varphi}$ accordingly, we have $R_{\varphi} A \subset R_{\varphi}$ for all $\varphi$ and still $a_{\varphi} A \subset R_{\varphi} \subset b_{\varphi} A$ for all $\varphi$ with non-zero $a_{\varphi}, b_{\varphi}$.

By Lemma 3.1 (i), $R_{\varepsilon} R_{-\varepsilon} R_{\gamma, \delta}^{\prime} \subset R_{\gamma, \delta}^{\prime}$ for any admissible pair ( $\gamma, \delta$ ), where $\varepsilon:=\delta-2 \gamma$. Consider the product $A_{1}$ of all $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime}$. Then $A_{1} R_{\varepsilon} R_{-\varepsilon} \subset A_{1}$ for every long root $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$. Using Corollary 3.2 (i) and $A A \subset A$, we see that $0 \neq c A_{1} \subset A$ for some $c$ in $k$. Replacing $A$ by its subring generated by $c A A_{1}$, we get $A R_{\delta} R_{-\delta} \subset A$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$. We still have $R_{\varepsilon} A \subset R_{\varepsilon}$ for all $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$ and $R_{\varepsilon} \subset b_{\varepsilon}^{\prime} A$ for all $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$ with some $b_{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \neq 0$ in $k$.

Let now ( $\gamma, \delta$ ) be an admissible pair. Using $R_{\varepsilon} \subset b_{\varepsilon}^{\prime} A$ for $\varepsilon=\delta-\gamma$ and $\varepsilon=\gamma-\delta$, we get $u C_{\gamma_{-\delta}} \subset A$, where $u:=\left(b_{\gamma-\delta}^{\prime} b_{\delta-\gamma}^{\prime}\right)^{-1} \neq 0$. Multiplying the inclusions in Corollary 3.2 (ii) by $u^{2}$ and $u^{3}$ accordingly, we get $R_{\delta} \cap R_{\delta} u^{2} \neq 0 \neq R_{\delta} \cap 4 R_{\dot{\delta}} u^{3}$. Since $R_{\dot{\delta}} \subset b A$ for some $b$ in $k$ (it follows from $\left.A R_{\dot{\delta}} R_{-\delta} \subset A \neq 0\right), u A \cap A \neq 0$. Therefore, $0 \neq v C_{r_{-\delta}} \subset A$ for some $v$ in $A$. We have $\left(R_{\delta} \cup R_{\delta} C_{\gamma-\delta}\right) C_{r_{-\delta}} \subset R_{\delta} \cup R_{\delta} C_{r_{-\delta}}$ and $R_{\delta} \cup R_{\delta} C_{r_{-\delta}} \subset b A \cup b A C_{r_{-\delta}} \subset b(A \cup$ $\left.C_{r-\delta}\right) \subset b v^{-1} A$, hence $w_{r, \delta}\left(R_{\delta} \cup R_{\delta} C_{r-\delta}\right) \subset A$, where $w_{r, \delta}:=v b^{-1}$.

Let $A_{2}$ be the product of all $w_{r, \delta}\left(R_{\dot{\delta}} \cup R_{\dot{\delta}} C_{r-\delta}\right)$. Then $A_{2} C_{r} \subset A_{2} \subset A$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$. Replacing $A$ by its subring generated by $A A_{2}$, we get $A C_{\gamma} \subset A$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$. We still have $A\left(R_{\delta} R_{-\delta}\right) \subset A$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$ and $R_{\varepsilon} A \subset R_{\varepsilon}$ for all $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$.

Thus, Theorem 1.1 is proved for $G$ of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$ when $\operatorname{char}(k) \neq 2$. For the rest of this section we assume that $\operatorname{char}(k)=2$. Then $\left[x_{ \pm \beta}(k)\right.$, $\left.x_{ \pm(\alpha+\beta)}(k)\right]=1$.
3.3. Lemma. Let $(\gamma, \delta)$ be an admissible pair of roots. Then (rs, $\left.r s^{2}\right) \in R_{\dot{\delta}-\gamma, \delta}$ for any $s$ in $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime}$ and $r$ in $R_{\dot{\delta}-\gamma, \delta-2 r}^{\prime \prime}$. In particular,
(i) $R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta}^{\prime} \supset R_{r, \delta}^{\prime} R_{\delta-r, \delta-2 \gamma}^{\prime \prime}$
(ii) $R_{\dot{\delta}-\gamma, \dot{\delta}}^{\prime \prime} \supset R_{\dot{\delta}-r, \delta-2 r}^{\prime \prime}\left(R_{r, \delta}^{\prime}\right)^{2}$.

Proof. Let $(s, t) \in R_{r, \delta},(q, r) \in R_{\delta-r, \delta-2 r}$. Then $H \ni\left[x_{r}(s) x_{\delta}(t), x_{\delta-r}(q) \times\right.$ $\left.x_{\dot{\delta}-2 r}(r)\right]=\left[x_{r}(s), x_{\dot{\delta}-r}(q) x_{\dot{\delta}-2 r}(r)\right]=\left[x_{r}(s), x_{\delta-2 r}(r)\right]=x_{\delta-r}(s r) x_{\dot{\delta}}\left(r s^{2}\right)$, as claimed.
3.4. Notation. For a long root $\delta$ in $\Sigma$ denote by $A_{\delta}$ the subring of $k$ generated by $R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta-2 \gamma}^{\prime \prime} R_{r, 2 \gamma-\delta}^{\prime \prime}$, where $(\delta-\gamma, \delta-2 \gamma)$ and ( $\gamma, 2 \gamma-\delta$ ) are the admissible pairs ( $\gamma^{\prime}, \delta^{\prime}$ ) such that $2 \gamma^{\prime}-\delta^{\prime}=\delta$. For a short root $\gamma$ in $\Sigma$ we denote by $A_{\gamma}$ the subring of $k$ generated by $R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta}^{\prime} R_{\gamma-\delta, 2 \gamma-\delta}^{\prime}$, where $(\delta-\gamma, \delta)$ and ( $\gamma-\delta, 2 \gamma-\delta$ ) are the admissible pairs ( $\gamma^{\prime}, \delta^{\prime}$ ) with

## $\delta^{\prime}-\gamma^{\prime}=\gamma$.

3.5. Corollary. Let $(\gamma, \delta)$ be an admissible pair. Then:
(i) $R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta}^{\prime}$ and $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime}$ are $A_{\delta}$-modules;
(ii) $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime \prime}$ and $R_{r, 2 r-\delta}^{\prime \prime}$ are $A_{r}^{2}$-modules;
(iii) $A_{\delta}$ and $A_{2 r_{-\delta}}$ are $A_{\gamma}^{2}$-modules;
(iv) $A_{r}$ and $A_{\delta-r}$ are $A_{\delta}$-modules.

Proof. Applying Lemma 3.3 (i) to the pair ( $\delta-\gamma, \delta$ ) instead of $(\gamma, \delta)$ we obtain $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime} \supset R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta}^{\prime} R_{r, 2 \gamma-\delta}^{\prime \prime}$. When we substitute this in the inclusion 3.3 (i), we obtain $R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta}^{\prime} \supset R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta}^{\prime}\left(R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta-2 \gamma}^{\prime \prime} R_{\gamma, 2 \gamma-\delta}^{\prime \prime}\right)$. Thus, $R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta}^{\prime}$ is an $A_{\delta}$-module. Replacing here ( $\delta-\gamma, \delta$ ) by ( $\gamma, \delta$ ) we prove (i).

To prove (ii) we apply Lemma 3.3 (ii) to the pair ( $-\gamma, \delta-2 \gamma$ ) instead of $(\gamma, \delta)$. We get $R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta-2 \gamma}^{\prime \prime} \supset R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta}^{\prime \prime}\left(R_{-7, \delta-2 \gamma}^{\prime}\right)^{2}$. Substituting this in 3.3 (ii) we obtain $R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta}^{\prime \prime} \supset R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta}^{\prime \prime}\left(R_{-r, \delta-2 r}^{\prime} R_{\gamma, \delta}^{\prime}\right)^{2}$. Thus $R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta}^{\prime \prime}$ is an $A_{\delta-\gamma-\text {-module. Re- }}^{2}$ placing here $(\delta-\gamma, \delta)$ by ( $\delta-\gamma, \delta-2 \gamma$ ) we see that $R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta-2 \gamma}^{\prime \prime}$ is also an $A_{\delta-\gamma}^{2}$-module. Now it remains to replace $\delta-\gamma$ by $\gamma$ (and keep $\delta$ the same) to obtain (ii).

Statements (iii) and (iv) are direct consequeces of (ii) and (i) respectively and the definition of the rings $A_{\varepsilon}$ (see Notation 3.4).
3.6. Lemma. Let $(\gamma, \delta)$ be an admissible pair. Then there exist non-zero $c_{1}$ and $c_{2}$ in $k$ such that
(i) $R_{\dot{\delta}} \supset c_{1}^{2} R_{\delta-r, \delta-2 r}^{\prime \prime}\left(R_{r, \delta}^{\prime}\right)^{2}$.
(ii) $R_{\delta-\gamma} \supset c_{2} R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta-2 r}^{\prime \prime} R_{\gamma, \delta}^{\prime}$.

Proof. Assume first that $\operatorname{card}\left(A_{\varepsilon}\right)=2$ for some root $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$. Since $A_{\varepsilon}$ is a ring this implies that $A_{\varepsilon}=\{0,1\}$. By Corollary 3.5 (iii) and (iv), $A_{\varepsilon}$ is a module over $A_{\varphi}^{2}$, where $\varphi$ is the root making an angle $45^{\circ}$ with $\varepsilon$. Since $A_{\varepsilon}=\{0,1\}$, it follows that $A_{\varphi}^{2}=\{0,1\}$, hence $A_{\varphi}=\{0,1\}$. Applying now the same argument to $A_{\varphi}$ instead of $A_{\varepsilon}$ and repeating it 7 times, we obtain that $A_{\psi}=\{0,1\}$ for all roots $\psi$ in $\Sigma$. The definition of $A_{\psi}$ now implies that $\operatorname{card}\left(R_{\gamma, \delta}^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{card}\left(R_{r, \delta}^{\prime \prime}\right)=2$ for all admissible pairs $(\gamma, \delta)$. Since $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime} \supset R_{r} \neq 0$ and $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime \prime} \supset R_{\delta} \neq 0$ we see that $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime}=R_{r}$ and $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime \prime}=R_{\delta}$ for all admissible pairs ( $\gamma, \delta$ ). Therefore Lemma 3.3 reduces to our claim with $c_{1}=c_{2}=1$.

Now we can assume that $\operatorname{card}\left(A_{\delta-\gamma}\right)>2$. Pick $a \neq 0,1$ in $A_{\dot{\delta}-\gamma}$ and $b \neq 0$ in $A_{\delta}$. By Corollary 3.5 (iii), $b a^{2} \in A_{\delta}\left(A_{\delta-r}\right)^{2} \subset A_{\dot{\delta}} . \quad$ By Corollary 3.5 (i) and (ii), for any $r$ in $R_{\delta-r, \delta-2 r}^{\prime \prime}$ and any $s$ in $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime}$, we have: $r a^{2}, r a^{4} \in$ $R_{\delta-r, \delta-2 \gamma}^{\prime \prime}$ and $s b, s b a^{2} \in R_{r, \delta}^{\prime}$.

Set $y(u, t):=\left(u t, t u^{2}\right) \in k \oplus k$. By Lemma 3.3, $y(u, t) \in R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta}$ if $u \in R_{r, \delta}^{\prime}$, $t \in R_{\delta-r, \delta-2 r}^{\prime \prime}$. Therefore $y\left(s b a^{2}, r\right), y\left(s k, r a^{2}\right), y\left(s b, r a^{4}\right) \in R_{\delta-r, \delta}$. Since $x_{\delta-r}(k)$
and $x_{j}(k)$ commute, $R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta}$ is an additive subgroup of $k \oplus k$. Therefore, $R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta} \ni y\left(s b a^{2}, r\right)+y\left(s b, r a^{2}\right)=\left(0, r s^{2} a^{2} b^{2}(1+a)^{2}\right)$ and $R_{\delta-\gamma, \delta} \ni y\left(s b a^{2}, r\right)+$ $y\left(s b, r a^{4}\right)=\left(r s b a^{2}\left(1+a^{2}\right), 0\right)$. Thus, our claim holds with $c_{1}:=a b(1+a) \neq 0$ and $c_{2}:=b a^{2}\left(1+a^{2}\right) \neq 0$.
3.7. Corollary. For each pair $(\varphi, \psi)$ of roots of the same length there exists a non-zero $c_{\varphi, \psi}$ in $k$ such that
(i) $R_{\varphi} \supset c_{\varphi, \psi}^{2} R_{\psi}$ if $\varphi, \psi \in \Sigma_{l}$,
(ii) $R_{\varphi} \supset c_{\varphi, \psi} R_{\psi}$ if $\varphi, \psi \in \Sigma_{s}$.

Proof. (i) Lemma 3.6 (i) applied to ( $\gamma, \delta$ ) gives $R_{\delta} \supset c_{1}^{2} c_{r}^{2} R_{\delta-27}$, where $0 \neq c_{r} \in R_{r} \subset R_{r, \delta}^{\prime}$ (we used also the inclusion $R_{j-2 \gamma} \subset R_{\delta-T, \delta-2 r}^{\prime \prime}$ ).

This shows that $c_{\partial, \delta-2 r}$ exists (and can be taken to be $c_{1} c_{r}$ ). Note that $\delta$ was an arbitrary long root and $\delta-2 \gamma$ makes an angle $\pm 90^{\circ}$ with $\delta$ if $\gamma$ makes an angle $\pm 45^{\circ}$ with $\delta$. Thus, repeating the argument 3 times, we obtain (i).
(ii) We apply Lemma 3.6 (ii) to $(\delta-\gamma, \delta)$ to get that $R_{\gamma} \supset c_{2} c_{2 \tau-\delta} R_{\delta-\gamma}=$ : $c_{r, \delta-r} R_{\delta-r}$. Similarly, $R_{\delta-r} \supset c_{\delta-r,-r} R_{-r}, R_{-r} \supset c_{-r, \gamma-\delta} R_{\gamma-\delta}, R_{r-\delta} \supset c_{\gamma-\delta, r} R_{r}$.

Now we are prepared to complete our Proof of Theorem 1.1 for $G$ of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$.

Proof of Theorem 1.1 for $G$ of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$ when $\operatorname{char}(k)=2$. For every root $\varphi$ we pick a non-zero $c_{\varphi}$ in $R_{\varphi}$.

By Lemma 3.6 and Corollary 3.7, $R_{\alpha} \supset c_{1}^{2} R_{\alpha+2 \beta}\left(R_{-\beta}\right)^{2} \supset c_{1}^{2} c_{\alpha+2 \beta, \alpha}^{2} c_{-\beta, \alpha+\beta}^{2} R_{\alpha}\left(R_{\alpha+\beta}\right)^{2}$ and $R_{\alpha+\beta} \supset c_{2} R_{\alpha+2 \beta} R_{-\beta} \supset c_{2} c_{\alpha+2 \beta, \alpha}^{2} c_{-\beta, \alpha+\beta} R_{\alpha} R_{\alpha+\beta}$.

Set $d_{1}=: c_{1} c_{\alpha+2 \beta, \alpha} c_{-\beta, \alpha+\beta}, \quad d_{2}:=c_{2} c_{\alpha+2 \beta, \alpha}^{2} c_{-\beta, \alpha+\beta}, \quad A:=d_{1} R_{\alpha+\beta}, \quad B:=d_{2} R_{\alpha}$. Then the above inclusions become $d_{2}^{-1} B \supset d_{2}^{-1} B A^{2}$ and $d_{1}^{-1} A \supset d_{1}^{-1} A B$. Thus, $B \supset B A^{2}, A \supset A B$.

By Corollary 3.7, $d_{2}^{-1} c_{\dot{\delta}, \alpha}^{2} B \subset R_{\dot{\delta}} \subset c_{\alpha, \beta}^{-2} d_{2}^{-1} B$ for $\delta \in \Sigma_{l}$ and $d_{1}^{-1} c_{r, \alpha+\beta} A \subset R_{r} \subset$ $c_{\alpha+\beta, \gamma}^{-1} d_{1}^{-1} A$ for $\gamma \in \Sigma_{s}$. This proves the existence of $a_{\varepsilon}, b_{\varepsilon}$ for all $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$.

Consider now $\quad A^{\prime}:=A A_{\alpha} A_{\alpha+2 \beta} A_{-\alpha} A_{-\alpha-2 \beta}, \quad B^{\prime}:=B\left(A_{\beta} A_{\alpha+\beta} A_{-\beta} A_{-\alpha-\beta}\right)^{2}$. Using Corollary 3.5 (iii) and (iv), we see that $B^{\prime} \supset B^{\prime} A^{\prime 2}$ and $A^{\prime} \supset A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$. It is clear that $A^{\prime} \supset a_{1} A$ and $B^{\prime} \supset a_{2} B$ for some non-zero $a_{i}$ in $k$. Using Corollary 3.5 (i), (ii), Lemma 3.6 , and the inclusions $B \supset B A^{2}, A \supset A B$, we see that $A^{\prime} \subset b_{1} A$ and $B^{\prime} \subset b_{2} B$ for non-zero $b_{i}$ in $k, i=1,2$.

Replacing $A, B$ by $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}$, we get $A A_{\delta} \subset A, B A_{r}^{2} \subset B$ for all $\delta \in \Sigma_{l}$, $\gamma \in \Sigma_{s}$, and we still have $A^{2} B \subset B, A B \subset A$ and (after appropriate change of $a_{s}, b_{\varepsilon}$ ) $A a_{\tau} \subset R_{T} \subset A b_{r}, B a_{\delta} \subset R_{\dot{\delta}} \subset B b_{\delta}$ for all $\gamma \in \Sigma_{s}, \delta \in \Sigma_{l}$.

Using Lemma 1.3 with $N=4, n=1, m=2$ and with $N=4, n=2$, $m=1$, we find non-zero $a \in A, b \in B$ such that $R_{\delta}(a A)^{2} \subset R_{\delta}$ and $B_{r}(b B) \subset R_{r}$ for all $\delta \in \Sigma_{l}, \gamma \in \Sigma_{s}$. Replacing $A, B$ by $a A, b B$ (and changing accordingly $a_{s}, b_{\varepsilon}$ ) we gain the additional property: $R_{\delta} A^{2} \subset R_{\delta}, R_{r} B \subset R_{r}$ for all $\gamma \in \Sigma_{s}$,
$\delta \in \Sigma_{l}$.
Now it is time to use Lemma 1.2 (ii) and then (iii) with $m=2$ to obtain new $A, B$ satisfying $A^{2} \subset B \subset A$.

We do not loose the property that $A A_{\dot{\delta}} \subset A$ and $B A_{r}^{2} \subset B$ for all $\delta \in \Sigma_{l}$, $\gamma \in \Sigma_{s}$. Since $A_{\gamma} \supset R_{\delta-2 \gamma} R_{2 T_{-\delta}}$ and $A_{\gamma} \supset R_{\delta-\gamma} R_{\gamma-\delta}$, we have, in particular, that $A R_{\delta} R_{-\delta} \subset A$ and $B R_{\gamma}^{2} R_{-r}^{2} \subset B$ for all $\gamma \in \Sigma_{s}, \delta \in \Sigma_{l}$.
4. Proof of Theorem 1.1 for $G$ of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{n}(n \geqq 3), \boldsymbol{C}_{n}(n \geqq 3)$, and $\boldsymbol{F}_{4}$.
4.1. Lemma. Let $\varphi, \psi \in \Sigma$ have the same length. Then there exists a non-zero $c_{\varphi, \psi}$ in $k$ such that $R_{\varphi} \supset c_{\varphi, \psi} R_{\psi}$. When $G$ is of type $\boldsymbol{C}_{n}, \varphi, \psi \in \Sigma_{l}$, and $p=2$, we can choose $c_{\varphi, \psi}$ in $k^{2}$.

Proof. If both $\varphi$ and $\psi$ lie in a subsystem of type $\boldsymbol{A}_{2}$ or $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$, the first claim was established in Lemma 2.1 (ii) and Theorem 1.1 for $G$ of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$, respectively. In the general case there exist roots $\gamma_{1}, \cdots, \gamma_{m}$ in $\Sigma$ of the same length as $\varphi$ and $\psi$ such that $\varphi=\gamma_{1}, \psi=\gamma_{m}$ and $\gamma_{i}$, $\gamma_{i+1}$ lie in a subsystem $\Sigma_{i}$ of type $\boldsymbol{A}_{2}$ or $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$ for $i=1,2, \cdots, m-1$. Since the claim holds in every $\Sigma_{i}$, it holds in $\Sigma$ as well, by induction on $m$. When $G$ is of type $\boldsymbol{C}_{n}, \varphi, \psi \in \Sigma_{l}$, and $p=2$, we can use Lemma 3.7 (i).
4.2. Now we pick $\alpha \in \Sigma_{l}$ and $\beta \in \Sigma_{s}$ which are simple roots in a subsystem of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$. By Theorem 1.1, there are additive subgroups $A$ and $B$ of $k$ and elements $a_{\alpha}, b_{\alpha}, a_{\beta}, b_{\beta}$ of $k$ such that $a_{\alpha} B \subset R_{\alpha} \subset b_{\alpha} B, a_{\beta} A \subset$ $R_{\beta} \subset b_{\beta} A$ and, moreover,

$$
\begin{gather*}
A R_{\alpha} R_{-\alpha} \subset A, \quad B(e(\Sigma) / p)\left(R_{\beta} R_{-\beta}\right)^{p} \subset B,  \tag{4.3}\\
A B \subset A, \quad B A^{p} \subset B, \tag{4.4}
\end{gather*}
$$

where $e(\Sigma)=2$, and $p=1$ or 2 (are integers depending on $\operatorname{char}(k)$ ).
By Lemma 4.1, $a_{\delta} B \subset R_{\delta} \subset b_{\delta} B$ and $a_{r} A \subset R_{r} \subset b_{r} A$ for all $\delta \in \Sigma_{l}$ and $\gamma \in \Sigma_{s}$, where $a_{r}:=a_{\beta} c_{r, \beta} \neq 0, b_{r}:=b_{\beta} c_{\beta, r}^{-1}, \quad a_{\delta}:=a_{\alpha} c_{\delta, \alpha} \neq 0, b_{\delta}:=b_{\alpha} c_{\alpha, \delta}^{-1}$.

Applying Lemma 1.3 with $N:=\operatorname{card}\left(\Sigma_{s}\right), n=1, m=p$ and with $N:=\operatorname{card}\left(\Sigma_{l}\right), n=p, m=1$, we find non-zero $a$ in $A$ and $b$ in $B$ such that $R_{\delta}(a A)^{p} \subset R_{\delta}$ and $R_{r}(b B) \subset R_{r}$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$ and $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$.

Replacing $A$ and $B$ by $A a$ and $B b$ and changing $a_{\varepsilon}$ and $b_{\varepsilon}$, we have (4.3), (4.4), and:

$$
\begin{align*}
& a_{\delta} B \subset R_{\delta} \subset b_{\delta} B \text { and } R_{\delta} A^{p} \subset R_{\delta} \text { for all } \delta \text { in } \Sigma_{l} ;  \tag{4.5}\\
& a_{\gamma} A \subset R_{\gamma} \subset b_{\gamma} A \text { and } R_{\gamma} B \subset R_{r} \text { for all } \gamma \text { in } \Sigma_{s} . \tag{4.6}
\end{align*}
$$

Since every short root $\gamma$ in $\Sigma$ can be included as a simple root in a subsystem of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$ or $\boldsymbol{A}_{2}$, we have $B_{r}(2 / p)\left(R_{r} R_{-\gamma}\right)^{p} \subset B_{r}$ for an additive subgroup $B_{r}$ of $k$ such that $u_{r} B \subset B_{r} \subset v_{r} B$ with non-zero $u_{r}, v_{r}$ in $k$ (for
$\gamma=\beta$ we can take $B_{\gamma}=B$, see (4.3)). It follows that $B_{\gamma} C_{r} \subset B_{r}$, where $C_{\gamma}$ is the subring of $k$ generated by $(2 / p)\left(R_{r} R_{-r}\right)^{p}$. Let $C_{s}$ be the product of all $C_{\gamma}, \gamma \in \Sigma_{s}$. Then $\left(B C_{s}\right) C_{\gamma} \subset B C_{s}$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$. Replacing $B$ by its additive subgroup generated by $B C_{s} c$ for some $c \neq 0$ (and changing $a_{\delta}, b_{\delta}$ ), we get $B C_{\gamma} \subset B$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$, and we still have (4.3)-(4.6).

Similarly, for every long root $\delta$ in $\Sigma$ there are non-zero $u_{j}, v_{\dot{\delta}}$ in $k$ and an additive subgroup $A_{\delta}$ of $k$ such that $A_{\delta}\left(R_{\delta} R_{-\delta}\right) \subset A_{\delta}$ and $u_{\delta} A \subset A_{\delta} \subset$ $v_{\dot{\delta}} A$, hence $A_{\dot{\delta}} C_{\dot{\delta}} \subset A_{\dot{\delta}}$, where $C_{\delta}$ is the subring of $k$ generated by $R_{\dot{\delta}} R_{-\dot{\delta}}$. Let $C_{l}$ be the product of all $C_{\delta}, \delta \in \Sigma_{l}$. Then $\left(A C_{l}\right) C_{\dot{\delta}} \subset\left(A C_{l}\right)$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$. Moreover, $u_{l} A \subset A C_{l} \subset v_{l} A$ for non-zero $u_{l}, v_{l}$ in $k$. Replacing $A$ by the additive subgroup generated by $A C_{l} v_{l}^{-1}$ (and changing $a_{r}, b_{r}$ ), we get $A C_{\dot{\delta}} \subset A$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$ and we still have (4.3)-(4.6) and $B C_{r} \subset B$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$.

If $\Sigma_{l}$ is connected (type $\boldsymbol{B}_{n}, n \geqq 3$, or $\boldsymbol{F}_{4}$ ), then there are long roots $\varphi$ and $\psi$ in $\Sigma$ such that $\varphi+\psi$ is also in $\Sigma_{l}$. We have $\left[x_{\varphi}(t), x_{\psi}(u)\right]=$ $x_{\varphi+\psi}( \pm t u)$ for all $t, u$ in $k$, hence $R_{\varphi+\psi} \supset R_{\varphi} R_{\psi}$. By (4.5), $B b_{\varphi+\psi} \supset R_{\varphi+\psi} \supset$ $R_{\varphi} R_{\psi} \supset a_{\varphi} a_{\psi} B B$, so $c B B \subset B$ with $c:=a_{\varphi} a_{\psi} / b_{\varphi+\psi} \neq 0$. By Lemma 1.2 (v) with $m:=2$, we can find a non-zero $b_{0}$ in $B$ such that $\left(b_{0} B\right)\left(b_{0} B\right) \subset\left(b_{0} B\right)$. Replacing $B$ by $b_{0} B$ (and changing $a_{\dot{\delta}}, b_{\dot{\delta}}$, we can assume that $B B \subset B$ (when $\Sigma_{l}$ is connected).

Similarly, if $\Sigma_{s}$ is connected (type $\boldsymbol{C}_{n}, n \geqq 3$, or $\boldsymbol{F}_{4}$ ), then there are $\varphi, \psi, \varphi+\psi \in \Sigma_{s}$, hence $R_{\varphi+\psi} \supset R_{\varphi} R_{\psi}$, so $A \supset c A A$ with $c:=a_{\varphi} a_{\psi} / b_{\varphi+\psi} \neq 0$. By Lemma 1.2 (iv) with $m=2,\left(a_{0} A\right)\left(a_{0} A\right) \subset a_{0} A \neq 0$ for some $a_{0}$ in $A$. Replacing $A$ by $a_{0} A$ (and changing $a_{r}, b_{r}$ ) we have $A A \subset A$.

Still (4.3)-(4.6) hold and so do Theorem 1.1 (i) and (ii). To get the last part of Theorem 1.1 (iii), we use Lemma 1.2 (ii) and (iii) with $m=2$ when $p=2$, and we just replace both $A$ and $B$ by $A B$ when $p=1$ (and change $\left.a_{\varepsilon}, b_{\varepsilon}\right)$.
5. Proof of Theorem 1.1 for $G$ of type $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$. The root system $\Sigma$ of type $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$ consists of 6 short roots $( \pm \beta, \pm(\alpha+\beta), \pm(2 \beta+\alpha)$ ) and 6 long roots $( \pm \alpha, \pm(\alpha+3 \beta), \pm(2 \alpha+3 \beta))$, see Figure 2.

We use, sometimes without explicit reference, commutation relations given in [4, §10, after Lemma 57].

For every root $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$, we fix a non-zero $c_{\varepsilon}$ in $R_{\varepsilon}:=R_{\varepsilon}(H)$.
5.1. Lemma. There is a subring $B$ of $k$ such that $0 \neq R_{\delta} B \subset R_{\delta}$ and $B R_{\delta} R_{-\delta} \subset B$ for every $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$.

Proof. It is a direct consequence of the results of Section 2 (namely, Theorem 1.1 for $G$ of type $\boldsymbol{A}_{2}$ ) applied to the algebraic group generated by all long root subgroups (which is of type $\boldsymbol{A}_{2}$ ).


Figure 2. Root system of type $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$.
5.2. Lemma. For every short root $\gamma$ in $\Sigma$ there exist non-zero $a_{r}$, $b_{r}, d_{r}$ in $k$ such that:
(i) $3 b_{r} R_{r} \subset B$; (ii) $a_{r} B \subset R_{r}$; (iii) $4 d_{r} R_{r}^{3} \subset B$.

Proof. Let $\delta$ be a long root forming angle $30^{\circ}$ with $\gamma$. Pick a nonzero $b$ in $B$.

We have $\left[x_{r}(t), x_{i-r}(u)\right]=x_{j}( \pm 3 t u)$ for all $t, u$ in $k$. Therefore, $R_{\delta} \supset 3 R_{\gamma} R_{\dot{\delta}-\gamma} \supset 3 c_{\delta-\gamma} R_{\gamma}$. By Lemma 5.1, $B \supset B R_{-\delta} R_{\dot{\delta}} \supset b c_{-\delta} R_{\delta}$. Thus, (i) holds with $b_{r}:=b c_{-\delta} c_{\delta-r} \neq 0$.

Part (ii) will be proved separately in the following three cases: $\operatorname{char}(k) \neq 2 ; \operatorname{card}(B)=2 ; \operatorname{char}(k)=2$ and $\operatorname{card}(B)>2$.

When $\operatorname{char}(k) \neq 2$, we take any $t$ in $R_{37-2 \delta}$ and $u$ in $R_{\delta-r}$. Then $H \ni$ $y(t, u):=\left[x_{37-2 \delta}(t), x_{\delta-\gamma}(u)\right]=x_{2 \gamma_{-\delta}}( \pm t u) x_{r}\left( \pm t u^{2}\right) x_{\delta}\left( \pm t u^{3}\right) x_{3 \gamma_{-\delta}}\left( \pm t^{2} u^{3}\right)$, hence $H \ni z(t, u):=y(-t,-u)^{-1} y(t, u)=x_{r}\left( \pm 2 t u^{2}\right) x_{3 r_{-\delta}}\left( \pm 2 t^{2} u^{3}\right)$ and $H \ni z(t, u) z(t$, $-u)=x_{r}\left( \pm 4 t u^{2}\right)$. Therefore, $R_{r} \supset 4 R_{3 r_{-2}} R_{\delta-r}^{2} \supset 4 B c_{3 \gamma_{-2}} c_{\delta-r}^{2}$, so (ii) holds with $a_{r}:=4 c_{3 T-\delta} c_{\delta-r}^{2} \neq 0$.

When $\operatorname{card}(B)=2$, then $B=\{0,1\}$ and we have (ii) with $a_{r}:=c_{r}$.
When $\operatorname{char}(k)=2$ and $\operatorname{card}(B)>2$, we pick $b \neq 0,1$ in $B$. For any $a$ in $R_{-\delta}, d$ in $R_{\delta}$ and $u$ in $R_{r}$ we have: $H \ni y_{1}(a, d):=\left[x_{\delta}(d),\left[x_{-\delta}(a), x_{r}(u)\right]\right]=$ $\left[x_{\delta}(d), x_{T-\delta}(u a) x_{2 \gamma_{-\delta}}\left(u^{2} a\right) x_{3 T_{-\delta}}\left(u^{3} a\right) x_{3 T-2 \delta}\left(u^{3} a^{2}\right)\right]=\left[x_{\delta}(d), x_{\gamma-\delta}(u a)\right]\left[x_{\delta}(d), x_{3 T-2 \delta}\left(u^{3} a^{2}\right)\right]=$ $x_{r}(u a d) x_{2 \gamma_{-\delta}}\left(u^{2} a^{2} d\right) x_{3 \gamma_{-2 \delta}}\left(u^{3} a^{3} d\right) x_{3 \gamma_{-\delta}}\left(u^{3} a^{3} d^{2}\right) x_{3 r_{-\delta}}\left(u^{3} a^{2} d\right)$, hence $H$ э $y_{2}(a, d):=y_{1}(a b$, d) $y_{1}\left(a, d b^{2}\right)^{-1}=x_{r}\left(u a d\left(b+b^{2}\right)\right) x_{3 \uparrow-2 \delta}\left(u^{3} a^{3} d\left(b^{3}+b^{2}\right)\right) x_{3 T-\delta}\left(u^{3} a^{3} d^{2}\left(b^{3}+b^{4}\right)\right)$, and, finally, $H$ э $y_{2}\left(a b^{3}, d\right) y_{2}\left(a b^{2}, d b^{3}\right) y_{2}\left(a b, d b^{3}\right) y_{2}\left(a, d b^{6}\right)=x_{r}\left(u a d\left(b+b^{2}\right)\left(b^{3}+b^{5}+b^{4}+b^{6}\right)\right)=$ $x_{r}\left(u a d b^{4}\left(1+b^{4}\right)\right)$.

Thus, $\quad R_{r} \supset R_{r} R_{\delta} R_{-\delta} b^{4}\left(1+b^{4}\right) \supset c_{r}\left(B c_{\delta}\right) c_{-\delta} b^{4}\left(1+b^{4}\right)=B a_{r}, \quad$ where $\quad a_{r}:=$ $c_{T} c_{\delta} c_{-\delta} b^{4}\left(1+b^{4}\right) \neq 0$.

To prove (iii) we consider the same $z(t, u)=x_{r}\left( \pm 2 t u^{2}\right) x_{3 r_{-\delta}}\left( \pm 2 t^{2} u^{3}\right) \in H$ as in the proof of (ii). Then $H \ni z(t, u) z(-t, u)=x_{3 \gamma_{-\delta}}\left( \pm 4 t^{2} u^{3}\right)$. Therefore,
$R_{3 T-\delta} \supset 4 R_{3 \gamma-2 \delta}^{2} R_{\delta-\gamma}^{3} \supset 4 c_{3 \gamma-2 \delta}^{2} R_{\delta-\gamma}^{3}$. Since $b c_{\delta-3 \gamma} R_{3 T-\delta} \subset B R_{3 T-\delta} R_{\delta-3 \gamma} \subset B$ by Lemma 5.1, we get $4 d_{\delta-r} R_{\delta-r}^{3} \subset B$ with $d:=b c_{\delta-3 r} C_{3 r-2 \delta}^{2}$. Similarly, $4 d_{r} R_{r}^{3} \subset B$ with some $d_{r} \neq 0$ in $k$.
5.3. Lemma. Let $\gamma$ be a short root in $\Sigma$ and $\delta$ form angle $\pm 150^{\circ}$ with $\gamma$. Let $C_{r}:=6 R_{r} R_{-r}$. Then $R_{\delta} C_{\gamma} C_{\gamma} C_{r} \subset R_{\delta}$.

Proof. Let $t, t_{i} \in R_{r}, u \in R_{\delta}, \quad s, s_{i} \in R_{-r}$. Then $H \ni z_{1}(t):=\left[x_{\delta}(u)\right.$, $\left.x_{r}(t)\right]=x_{\delta+r}( \pm t u) x_{\delta+2 r}\left( \pm t^{2} u\right) x_{\dot{\delta}+3 r}\left( \pm t^{3} u\right) x_{2 \delta+3 r}\left( \pm t^{3} u^{2}\right)$, hence $H \ni z_{2}\left(t_{1}\right):=z_{1}\left(t_{1}\right)^{-1} \times$ $z_{1}\left(t_{2}\right)^{-1} z_{1}\left(t_{1}+t_{2}\right)=x_{\delta+3 r}\left( \pm 3\left(t_{1}+t_{2}\right) t_{1} t_{2} u\right) x_{\delta+2 r}\left( \pm 2 t_{1} t_{2} u\right) x_{2 \delta+3 r}\left( \pm u^{2} 3 t_{1} t_{2}\left(t_{1}+t_{2}\right)\right) \times$ $x_{2 \sigma+3 r}\left( \pm 3 u^{2} t_{1} t_{2}^{2}\right)$, hence $H$ Э $z_{3}:=z_{2}\left(t_{1}+t_{3}\right) z_{2}\left(t_{1}\right)^{-1} z_{2}\left(t_{3}\right)^{-1}=x_{i+3 r}\left( \pm 6 t_{1} t_{2} t_{3} u\right) \times$ $x_{2 \delta+37}\left( \pm 6 t_{1} t_{2} t_{3} u^{2}\right)=x_{\delta+37}\left(u^{\prime}\right) x_{2 \delta+37}\left( \pm u^{\prime} u\right)$, where $u^{\prime}:= \pm 6 t_{1} t_{2} t_{3} u$. Similarly, $H \ni z_{4}(s):=\left[z_{3}, x_{-r}(s)\right]=\left[x_{\delta+3 r}\left(u^{\prime}\right), x_{-r}(s)\right]$, hence $H \ni z_{5}\left(s_{1}\right):=z_{4}\left(s_{1}\right)^{-1} z_{4}\left(s_{2}\right)^{-1} \times$ $z_{4}\left(s_{1}+s_{2}\right), H \ni z_{8}(u):=z_{5}\left(s_{1}+s_{3}\right) z_{5}\left(s_{1}\right)^{-1} z_{5}\left(s_{3}\right)^{-1}=x_{\delta}\left( \pm 6 s_{1} s_{2} s_{3} u^{\prime}\right) x_{2 \delta+3 r}\left( \pm 6 s_{1} s_{2} s_{3} u^{\prime 2}\right)$. Finally, $H \ni z_{8}(u) z_{8}(-u)^{-1}=x_{\delta}\left( \pm 12 s_{1} s_{2} s_{3} u^{\prime}\right)$, hence $R_{\delta} \ni 12 s_{1} s_{2} s_{3} u^{\prime}= \pm 72 s_{1} s_{2} s_{3} \times$ $t_{1} t_{2} t_{3} u$. Since we have this for arbitrary $t_{i} \in R_{r}, s_{i} \in R_{-r}, u \in R_{\delta}$, it follows that $R_{s} \supset C_{r} C_{r} C_{r} R_{\delta}$.

Proof of Theorem 1.1 for $G$ of type $G_{2}$ when $\operatorname{char}(k) \neq 3$. By Lemma 5.2 (i), (ii), $a_{r} B \subset R_{r} \subset\left(3 b_{r}\right)^{-1} B$ for all short roots $\gamma$ in $\Sigma$. By Lemma 1.3 with $A:=B, n=m=1, N:=\operatorname{card}\left(\Sigma_{s}\right)=6$, we have: $R_{r}(b B) \subset R_{r}$ for all short $\gamma$ with some $b \neq 0$ in $B$. Replacing $B$ by $B b$ and $\left(3 b_{r} b\right)^{-1}$ by $b_{r}^{\prime}$, we get $R_{r} B \subset R_{r}, R_{r} \subset b_{r}^{\prime} B$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$ and we still have $R_{\delta} B \subset R_{\delta}$ and $B R_{\delta} R_{-\delta} \subset B$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$.

Let $\gamma$ be in $\Sigma_{s}$ and $\delta$ make an angle $30^{\circ}$ with $\gamma$. Then $3 c_{\delta-2 \gamma} c_{\delta-\gamma} \in$ $3 R_{\delta-2 r} R_{\delta-\gamma} \subset R_{2 \delta-37}, 3 c_{\gamma} c_{\delta-r} \subset R_{\delta}$, and $3 c_{-r} c_{\delta-2 \gamma} \in R_{\delta-37}$, hence $\left(3 c_{\gamma} c_{\delta-\gamma}\right)\left(3 c_{-\gamma} c_{\delta-2 \gamma}\right) \in$ $R_{\delta} R_{\delta-3 r} \subset R_{2 \delta-37}$. So both $3 c_{\delta-2 r} c_{\delta-\gamma}$ and $\left(3 c_{\delta-2 r} c_{\delta-\gamma}\right)\left(3 c_{\gamma} c_{-r}\right)$ are in $R_{2 \delta-37}$. Since $B R_{2 \delta-3 r} R_{3 r-2 \delta} \subset B$, we have $R_{2 \delta-3 r} \subset B d_{1}$ for some $d_{1} \neq 0$ in $k$. Writing $3 c_{\delta-2 r} c_{\delta-r}=b_{1} d_{1}$ and $\left(3 c_{\delta-2 r} c_{j-r}\right)\left(3 c_{r} c_{-r}\right)=b_{2} d_{1}$ with $b_{1}$ and $b_{2}$ in $B$, we see that $c_{r} c_{-r}=b_{2} / 3 b_{1}$. Since $c_{r} c_{-r} B \subset R_{r} R_{-r} \subset R d_{2}$ for some $d_{2} \neq 0$ in $k$, we can use Lemma 1.3 with $n=m=N=1, A=B$ and get $b_{3} R_{r} R_{-r} \subset b_{3} d_{2} B \subset c_{r} c_{-r} B$ for some $b_{3} \neq 0$ in $B$. Therefore $3 b_{1} b_{3} R_{r} R_{-r} \subset 3 b_{1} c_{r} c_{-r} B \subset b_{2} B \subset B$, hence $u_{r} R_{r} R_{-r} \subset B$ for $0 \neq u_{r}:=3 b_{1} b_{3} \in B$.

Let $u$ be the product of all $u_{r}, \gamma \in \Sigma_{s}$. Then $u R_{r} R_{-r} \subset B$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$ and $0 \neq u \in B$. Replacing $B$ by $u B$, we have $B B R_{r} R_{-r} \subset B$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{8}$. Still we have $R_{\varepsilon} B \subset R_{\varepsilon}$ for all $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$ and $B R_{\delta} R_{-\delta} \subset B$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$.

If $\operatorname{char}(k)=2$, we are done. Otherwise, $C_{r}:=6 R_{r} R_{-r} \neq 0$, and $R_{\delta} C_{\gamma} C_{\gamma} C_{r} \subset R_{\delta}$ by Lemma 5.3, where $\delta$ makes angle $150^{\circ}$ with $\gamma$, for any short root $\gamma$ in $\Sigma$. Let $B_{r}:=R_{\delta} \cup R_{\delta} C_{r} \cup R_{\delta} C_{r} C_{\gamma}$. Then $B_{r} C_{r} \subset B_{r}$. Since $R_{\delta} \subset d_{3} B$ for some $d_{3} \neq 0$ in $k$, we have $B^{4} B_{r} \subset d_{3} B \cup d_{3} B \cup d_{3} B=d_{3} B$, hence $e_{r} B_{r} \subset B$ for some $e_{r} \neq 0$ in $k$.

Let $B^{\prime}$ be the product of all $e_{r} B_{r}, \gamma \in \Sigma_{s}$. Then $B^{\prime} \subset B$ and $B^{\prime} C_{r} \subset B^{\prime}$
for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$. Replacing $B$ by its subring generated by $B B^{\prime}$ we have $B C_{r} \subset B$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{8}$. Still we have $R_{\varepsilon} B \subset R_{\varepsilon}$ for all $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$ and $B R_{\delta} R_{-\delta} \subset B$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$.

Proof of Theorem 1.1 for $G$ of TYPe $G_{2}$ when $\operatorname{char}(k)=3$. Let $B$ be as in Lemma 5.1. Since $3=0$ in $k$, the algebraic subgroup of $G$ generated by all short root subgroups is also of type $A_{2}$. So $R_{r} A \subset R_{r}$ and $A R_{\gamma} R_{-\gamma} \subset A$ for some non-zero subring $A$ of $k$ and all short roots $\gamma$ in $\Sigma$.

Using $R_{\beta} A \subset R_{\beta}, A R_{\beta} R_{-\beta} \subset A$, and Lemma 5.2 (ii), (iii) with $\gamma=\beta$, we get $A \supset c_{1} B$ and $B \supset c_{2} A^{3}$ with non-zero $c_{i}$ in $k$.

Let $B_{0}$ (resp. $A_{0}$ ) be the additive subgroup of $k$ generated by $B A^{3}$ (resp., by BA). Then $A_{0} R_{\varepsilon} R_{-\varepsilon} \subset A_{0}, B_{0} R_{\delta} R_{-\delta} \subset B_{0} \supset B_{0}\left(R_{r} R_{-r}\right)^{3}$ for all $\varepsilon \in \Sigma$, $\delta \in \Sigma_{l}, \gamma \in \Sigma_{s}$.

Since $(B A)^{3} \subset B A^{3} \subset B A$, it follows that $A_{0}^{3} \subset B_{0} \subset A_{0}$. From $c_{1} B \subset A$ and $c_{2} A^{3} \subset B$ it follows that $B A \subset A A c_{1}^{-1} \subset A c_{1}^{-1}$ and $B A^{3} \subset B B c_{2}^{-1} \subset B c_{2}^{-1}$, hence $c_{2} B_{0} \subset B, c_{1} A_{0} \subset A$. Since $A$ and $B$ are subrings of $k$, so are $A_{0}$ and $B_{0}$.

Using Lemma 1.3 with $N=6, m=3, n=1, A=A_{0}, B=B_{0}$ and then with $N=6, m=1, n=3, A=B_{0}, B=A_{0}$, we find non-zero $a$ in $A_{0}, b$ in $B_{0}$ such that $R_{r}\left(b B_{0}\right) \subset R_{r}$ and $R_{\delta}\left(a A_{0}\right)^{3} \subset R_{\delta}$ for all $\gamma \in \Sigma_{s}, \delta \in \Sigma_{l}$. Let $c:=a^{3} b \in A_{0}^{3} B_{0} \subset B_{0} B_{0} \subset B_{0} \subset A_{0}$. Then $R_{\delta}\left(A_{0} c\right)^{3} \subset R_{\delta}\left(A_{0} a\right)^{3} \subset R_{\delta}$ and $R_{r}\left(c B_{0}\right) \subset R_{r}\left(b B_{0}\right) \subset R_{r}$. Moreover, $\left(A_{0} c\right)^{3} \subset B_{0} c \subset A_{0} c$.

Replacing $A$ and $B$ by $A_{0} c$ and $B_{0} c$, we get $A^{3} \subset B \subset A, B B \subset B, A A \subset A$, $R_{\delta} A^{3} \subset R_{\delta}$ for all $\delta \in \Sigma_{l}$ and $R_{\gamma} B \subset R_{\gamma}$ for all $\gamma \in \Sigma_{s}$. Moreover, $B\left(R_{\gamma} R_{-\gamma}\right)^{3} \subset B$ and $A\left(R_{\varepsilon} R_{-\varepsilon}\right) \subset A$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$ and $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$.
6. Existence of groups described by Theorem 1.1. For any subsets $A$ and $B$ of $k$ let $G^{E}(A, B)$ denote the subgroup of $G(k)$ generated by all $x_{\gamma}(a)$ and $x_{\delta}(b)$ with $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}, \gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}, a$ in $A$, and $b$ in $B$. In particular, $G^{E}(A, A)=G^{E}(A), \quad$ Evidently, $R_{r}\left(G^{E}(A, B)\right) \supset A$ and $R_{\delta}\left(G^{E}(A, B)\right) \supset B$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$ and $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$.
6.1. Theorem. Let $A$ and $B$ be additive subgroups of $k$ satisfying Theorem 1.1 (iii), (iv). Then $R_{r}\left(G^{E}(A, B)\right)=A$ and $R_{\delta}\left(\left(G^{E}(A, B)\right)=B\right.$ for all long roots $\delta$ in $\Sigma$ and short roots $\gamma$ in $\Sigma$.

To prove this theorem, we will exhibit a certain subgroup $G(A, B)$ of $G(k)$ such that $G(A, B) \supset G^{E}(A, B)$ and $R_{r}(G(A, B))=A$ and $R_{\delta}(G(A, B))=B$ for all $\gamma \in \Sigma_{s}$ and $\delta \in \Sigma_{l}$.

We use here that $G$ defined in the introduction over $k$ may be defined as a Chevalley group scheme over the integers $\boldsymbol{Z}$ (see [17]). There is a matrix representation $G \subset S L_{N}$ such that $G$ is defined by polynomial equa-
tions in the matrix entries with integral coefficients.
Given any commutative ring $R$ (with or without 1) we define $G(R)$ as the group of all ring morphisms from the ring of regular functions on $G$ vanishing at the identity of $G$ to the ring $R$. If $R$ is an ideal of a ring $R^{\prime}$ then $G(R)$ is the kernel of $G\left(R^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow G\left(R^{\prime} / R\right)$. If $R$ is a subring of $k$, the group $G(R)$ can be also defined as $G(k) \cap S L_{N}(R)$, where $S L_{N}(R)$ is the group of all matrices ( $a_{i, j}$ ) with the determinant 1 such that $a_{i, j}$, $a_{i, i}-1 \in R$ for all $i \neq j$.

The monomorphisms $x_{\varepsilon}(\varepsilon \in \Sigma)$ are also defined over $\boldsymbol{Z}$. Moreover, the corresponding maps of the rings of regular functions are ring morphisms onto the polynomial ring $\boldsymbol{Z}[t]$. Therefore we have
6.2. Lemma. For any subring $R$ of $k$ and any root $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$, we have $G^{E}(R) \subset G(R)$ and $R_{\varepsilon}(G(R))=R$.

This lemma implies Theorem 6.1 in the case $A=B$. In particular, the theorem holds when $p=1$. To prove it when $p \neq 1$, we consider a few cases separately.

Proof of Theorem 6.1 for $G$ of types $\boldsymbol{F}_{4}$ and $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$. We assume that $\operatorname{char}(k)=2$ in the case of type $\boldsymbol{F}_{4}$ and $\operatorname{char}(k)=3$ in the case of type $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$. Then there is a bijection $\rho: \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma$ and a non-central isogeny (defined over $\boldsymbol{Z} / p \boldsymbol{Z}) \quad \iota: G \rightarrow G$ such that $\rho\left(\Sigma_{l}\right)=\Sigma_{s}, \rho\left(\Sigma_{s}\right)=\Sigma_{l}, \quad c x_{\delta}(t)=x_{\rho_{s}}( \pm t)$, and $\iota x_{r}(t)=x_{\rho r}\left( \pm t^{p}\right)$ for all $\delta \in \Sigma_{l}, \gamma \in \Sigma_{s}$, and $t \in k$ (see, for example, [4]).

For any subrings $A$ and $B$ of $k$ such that $A^{p} \subset B \subset A$, let $G(A, B)$ be the set of all $g$ in $G(A)$ such that $\iota(g) \in G(B)$. Then $G(A, B) \supset G^{E}(A, B)$, $R_{\delta}(G(A, B))=B$ (since $\left.B \subset A\right)$, and $R_{r}(G(A, B))=A$ (since $A^{p} \subset B$ ), for all $\gamma \in \Sigma_{s}$ and $\delta \in \Sigma_{l}$.

Therefore $R_{\delta}\left(G^{E}(A, B)\right)=B$ and $R_{r}\left(G^{E}(A, B)\right)=A$.
6.3. "PSEUDO-ORTHOGONAL" GROUPS. To prove Theorem 6.1 for $G$ of types $\boldsymbol{B}_{n}$ and $\boldsymbol{C}_{n}$ (with $p=2$ ) we use some of ( ${ }^{*}, \varepsilon, A$ )-orthogonal groups of [8].

Namely, let $n \geqq 1, Q$ a $n$ by $n$ integral matrix, $A$ a commutative ring (with or without 1 ), $B$ an $A^{2}$-submodule of $A$ containing $2 A$. Then let $O(Q ; A, B)$ denote the set of matrices $g$ in $G L_{n}(A)$ such that $g^{*} Q g-$ $Q \in \mathscr{D}$, where ${ }^{*}$ means transposition and $\mathscr{D}$ is the set of all symmetric matrices over $A$ with the diagonal entries in $B$.

Since $\mathscr{D}$ is an additive subgroup and $a^{*} b a \in \mathscr{D}$ for any $b \in \mathscr{D}$ and any matrix $a$ over $A$, the set $O(Q ; A, B)$ is a subgroup of $G L_{n}(A)$.
6.4. Proof of Theorem 6.1 for $G$ of types $B_{2}$ With $A A \subset A$ and $\boldsymbol{C}_{n}(n \geqq 3)$. Consider the ring of $2 n$ by $2 n$ integral matrices with the usual matrix units $e_{i, j}$ and the matrix $Q:=\sum_{i=1}^{n} e_{i, 2 n+1-i}$. The group
$S p_{2 n}=\left\{g \in S L_{2 n}: g^{*}\left(Q-Q^{*}\right) g=Q-Q^{*}\right\}$ can be considered as an affine group scheme over $\boldsymbol{Z}$. It is a simply connected almost simple Chevalley group scheme of type $\boldsymbol{C}_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{C}_{2}=\boldsymbol{B}_{2}\right.$ when $\left.n=2\right)$. The root elements with respect to the torus of diagonal matrices are $y_{i, 2 n+1-1}(t):=1_{2 n}+t e_{i, 2 n+1-i}$ (correspond to the long roots) and $y_{i, j}(t):=1_{2 n}+t e_{i, j} \pm t e_{2 n+1-j, 2 n+1-i}$ with $i+j<2 n+1$ (correspond to the short roots).

Let now $A$ and $B$ be as in Theorem 6.1 and $\operatorname{char}(k)=2$.
For any $G$ of type $C_{n}$ there is a bijection $\rho$ from $\Sigma$ to the set $\{(i, j)$ : $1 \leqq i, j \leqq 2 n, i+j \leqq 2 n+1\}$ and a central isogeny $c: S p_{2 n} \rightarrow G$ over $\boldsymbol{Z}$ such that $c y_{\rho_{\varepsilon}}(t)=x_{\varepsilon}(t)$ for all $\varepsilon$ in and all $t$. The kernel of $c$ is either trivial or isomorphic to the algebraic group of square roots of 1.

Let now $A$ and $B$ be as in Theorem 6.1, $A A \subset A$, and $\operatorname{char}(k)=2$. Set $G(A, B):=\iota\left(S p_{2 n}(A, B)\right)$, where $S p_{2 n}(A, B):=O(Q ; A, B)$ (see 6.3). Then $G(A, B) \supset G^{E}(A, B), \quad R_{r}(G(A, B))=\left\{t \in k: y_{\rho r}(t) \in O(Q ; A, B)\right\}=A, \quad$ and $R_{\delta}(G(A, B))=\left\{t \in k: y_{\rho \delta}(t) \in O(Q ; A, B)\right\}=B$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$ and $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$.
6.5. Proof of Theorem 6.1 for $G$ of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$ with $B B \subset B$ and TYPE $\boldsymbol{B}_{n}(n \geqq 3)$. Let $Q:=\sum_{i=1}^{n} e_{i, 2 n+1-i}+e_{2 n+1,2 n+1}$. For any commutative ring $R$, let $S O_{2 n+1}(R):=O(Q ; R, 0) \cap S L_{2 n+1}(R)$ (see 6.3).

Then $S O_{2 n+1}$ can be considered as an affine group scheme over $\boldsymbol{Z}$. It is a simple Chevalley group of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{n}$. The root elements with respect to the torus of diagonal matrices are

$$
z_{i, 2 n+1-i}(t):=1_{2 n+1}-t^{2} e_{i, 2 n+1-i}+t e_{2 n+1,2 n+1-i}-2 t e_{i, 2 n+1}
$$

(correspond to the short roots) and

$$
z_{i, j}(t):=1_{2 n+1}+t e_{i, j}-t e_{2 n+1-j, 2 n+1-i} \quad \text { with } \quad i+j<2 n+1
$$

(correspond to the long roots).
For any $G$ of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{n}$ there is a bijection $\rho$ from $\Sigma$ to the set $\{(i, j): 1 \leqq i, j \leqq 2 n, i+j \leqq 2 n+1\}$ and a central isogeny $c: G \rightarrow S O_{2 n+1}$ over $\boldsymbol{Z}$ such that $\iota z_{\rho_{\varepsilon}}(t)=x_{\varepsilon}(t)$ for all $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$ and all $t$. The kernel of $\iota$ is either trivial or isomorphic to the algebraic group of square roots of 1.

For any commutative ring $R$ of characteristic 2, every matrix in $S O_{2 n+1}(R)$ has the form $\left(\begin{array}{ll}g & 0 \\ u & 1\end{array}\right)$, where $g$ is in $S p_{2 n}(R)$ and $u$ is a $2 n$-row over $R$. It gives a non-central isogeny $\iota^{\prime}: S O_{2 n+1} \rightarrow S p_{2 n}$ over $\boldsymbol{Z} / 2 \boldsymbol{Z}$. We have

$$
\iota^{\prime} z_{i, j}(t)= \begin{cases}y_{i, j}(t) & \text { when } \quad i+j<2 n+1 \\ y_{i, j}\left(t^{2}\right) & \text { when } \quad i+j=2 n+1\end{cases}
$$

for all $t$ in $k$.
Let now $A$ and $B$ be as in Theorem 6.1 and $p=2 . \quad \operatorname{char}(k)=2$ and
$B B \subset B$. Set $G(A, B):=\left\{g \in G(A): c^{\prime} \varepsilon(g) \in S p_{2 n}\left(B, A^{2}\right)\right\}$ (see 6.4).
Then $G(A, B) \supset G^{E}(A, B), R_{r}(G(A, B))=A$, and $R_{j}(G(A, B))=B$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$ and $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$.
6.6. Proof of Theorem 6.1 for $G$ of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$ With $p=2$. Let $A^{\prime}$ (resp. $B^{\prime}$ ) be the subring of $k$ generated by $A$ (resp. $B$ ). By 6.4, there is a subgroup $H_{1}$ of $G(k)$ such that $H_{1} \supset G^{E}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right), R_{r}\left(H_{1}\right)=A^{\prime}$, and $R_{\delta}\left(H_{1}\right)=B$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$ and $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$. By 6.5, there is a subgroup $H_{2}$ of $G(k)$ such that $H_{2} \supset G^{E}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right), R_{r}\left(H_{2}\right)=A$, and $R_{\delta}\left(H_{2}\right)=B^{\prime}$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$ and $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$.

Set $G(A, B):=H_{1} \cap H_{2} . \quad$ Then $G(A, B) \supset G^{E}(A, B), R_{r}(G(A, B))=A$, and $R_{j}(G(A, B))=B$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$ and $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$.
7. Full subsets of $k$. The following lemmas will be used in next sections.
7.1. Lemma. (i) If $R$ is a full subset of $k$, then so is $t R$ for any non-zero $t$ in $k$;
(ii) if $C$ is a full subring of $k$ and $t_{1}, \cdots, t_{m}$ are non-zero elements of $k$, then there exists a non-zero $c$ in $C$ such that $t_{i} C \supset c C$ for $i=1, \cdots, m$.

Proof. The statement (i) is evident; (ii) is contained in [7, Lemma 4].
7.2. Lemma. Let $A$ and $B$ be subsets of $k$ such that $A$ is full, $B A^{2} \subset B$, and $B k^{2}=k$. Then:
(i) $B$ is a full subset of $k$;
(ii) for any non-zero $t_{1}, \cdots, t_{m}$ in $k$, the intersection $B^{\prime}$ of all $B t_{i}$ is full and $B^{\prime} k^{2}=k$.

Proof. (i) Fix a non-zero $b_{0}$ in $B$. Given any $t$ in $k$, we can write $t b_{0}=b u^{2}$ with $b$ in $B$ and $u$ in $k$. Since $A$ is full in $k$, we can write $u=a_{1} / a_{2}$ with $a_{i}$ in $A$ and $a_{2} \neq 0$. Then $t=b a_{1}^{2} / b_{0} a_{2}^{2}$ with both $b a_{1}^{2}$ and $b_{0} a_{2}^{2}$ in $B$. Thus, $B$ is full.
(ii) Let $z$ be in $k$. Since $B k^{2}=k$, we can write $z / t_{i}=b_{i} u_{i}^{2}$ for $i=$ $1, \cdots, m$ with $b_{i}$ in $B$ and $u_{i}$ in $k$. Since $A$ is full, $u_{i}=v_{i} / w_{i}$ with $v_{i}$, $w_{i}$ in $A$. Let $w$ be the product of all $w_{i}$. Then $z w^{2}=t_{i} b_{i} v_{i}^{2}\left(w / w_{i}\right)^{2} \in t_{i} B$ for all $i=1, \cdots, m$, so $z w^{2} \in B^{\prime}$, hence $z \in B^{\prime} k^{2}$. Thus, $k=B^{\prime} k^{2}$. It is clear that $B^{\prime} A^{2} \subset B^{\prime} . \quad$ By (i), $B^{\prime}$ is full.
7.3. Lemma. Let $F$ be a field but not an algebraic extension of a finite field. Then there exists a full subring $A$ of $k$ and a non-trivial homomorphism $N$ of the multiplicative group of $F$ into the additive group $\boldsymbol{Q}$ of the rational numbers such that $N(a) \geqq 0$ for all $a$ in $A$.

Proof. Let $X$ be a trancendence basis of $F$ over its prime subfield
$F_{0}$. Let $A_{0}$ be the integers when $X$ is empty, and $A_{0}=F_{0}[X]$, the polynomial ring, otherwise. Let $A$ be the integral closure of $A_{0}$ in $F$, i.e. the set of all roots in $F$ of all monic polynomials in $t$ with coefficients in $A_{0}$.

Fix $x \in X$ when $X$ is not empty and set $x=2 \in A_{0}$ otherwise. We define $N_{0}(a)=n$ for $0 \neq a \in A_{0}$, if $x^{n}$ is the maximal power of $x$ dividing $a$ in $A_{0}$. We define $N_{0}\left(a_{1} / a_{2}\right):=N_{0}\left(a_{1}\right)-N_{0}\left(a_{2}\right)$ for non-zero $a_{i}$ in $A_{0}$.

For any $z$ in $F, z \neq 0$, let $f_{z}(t)$ be the monic polynomial in $t$, with coefficients in the field of fractions of $A_{0}$, of the minimal degree $\operatorname{deg}(z)$ such that $f_{z}(z)=0$. We define $N(z):=N_{0}\left(f_{z}(0)\right) / \operatorname{deg}(z)$; it is a rational number.

If $a \in A$, then $f_{a}(t) \in A_{0}[t]$, so $f_{a}(0) \in A$ hence $N(a)=N_{0}\left(f_{a}(0)\right) / \operatorname{deg}(a) \geqq$ 0.

For any non-zero $z, z^{\prime}$ in $F$ we have $f_{z}(0)^{d / \operatorname{deg}(z)} f_{z^{\prime}}(0)^{d / \operatorname{deg}\left(z^{\prime}\right)}=f_{z z^{\prime}}(0)^{d / \operatorname{deg}\left(z z^{\prime}\right)}$ with some $d \neq 0$ divisible by $\operatorname{deg}(z), \operatorname{deg}\left(z^{\prime}\right), \operatorname{deg}\left(z z^{\prime}\right)$, so $N\left(z z^{\prime}\right)=N(z)+$ $N\left(z^{\prime}\right)$. The homomorphism $N$ is not trivial, because $N(x)=1 \neq 0$.

Let us check now that $A$ is full in $F$. For any $z \neq 0$ in $F$ we can find a non-zero $a_{0}$ in $A_{0}$ such that $a_{0} f_{z}(t) \in A_{0}[t]$. Let $a$ be the leading coefficient of $a_{0} f_{z}(t)$. Then $0 \neq a \in A$ and $a^{\operatorname{deg}(z)-1} f_{z}(t / a) a_{0}$ is a monic polynomial in $t$ with coefficients from $A_{0}$ with a root $z a$, so $z a \in A$. Thus, $A$ is full and Lemma 7.3 is proved.

For the rest of this section, $\operatorname{char}(k)=2$.
7.4. Notation. For any finite subset $S \subset k$, let $v_{s}$ denote the product of all $y$ in $S$. In particular, $v_{S}=1$ for the empty subset $S$.
7.5. Lemma. There is a set $Y_{0} \subset k$ such that the all $v_{S}$, finite $S \subset Y_{0}$, form a basis for the vector space $k$ over $k^{2}$.

Proof. We call a subset $Y \subset k$ algebraically almost independent (AAI), if all $v_{S}, S$ a finite subset of $Y$, are linearly independent over $k^{2}$. (Note that $k$ is an algebraic extension of $k^{2}$.) It is clear, that the union of any chain of AAI subsets of $k$ is again AAI. Also the empty subset of $k$ is AAI. By Zorn's lemma, there is a maximal AAI $Y_{0} \subset k$.

Let $V$ be the linear subspace of $k$ over $k^{2}$ spanned by all $v_{S}$ with finite $S \subset Y_{0}$. We have to prove that $V=k$.

Since $Y_{0}$ is a maximal AAI subset, for every $z \notin Y_{0}$ in $k$ we have a linear relation (because $Y_{0} \cup\{z\}$ is not AAI): $\sum a_{s} v_{s}+z \sum b_{s} v_{s}=0$ with coefficients $a_{s}$, $b_{s}$ in $k^{2}$, only finitely many of them $\neq 0$, both sums are taken over all finite $S \subset Y_{0}$, and the second sum $\neq 0$ (because $Y_{0}$ is AAI). Then $z=\sum a_{s} v_{s} / \sum b_{s} v_{s}=\left(\sum a_{s} v_{S}\right)\left(\sum b_{s} v_{s}\right) / a^{2} \in V V k^{2} \subset V k^{2} \subset V$, where $a:=$ $\sum b_{s} v_{s} \in V \subset k$. Thus, $V=k$.
7.6. Lemma. The following two statements are equivalent:
(a) $R=k$ for every full vector subspace $R \subset k$ over $k^{2}$;
(b) the dimension of $k$ over $k^{2}$ is 1 or 2.

Proof. Implication $(\mathrm{b}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{a})$. Since $R$ is full in $k, R \ni y_{1} \neq 0$. If $k^{2}=k$, then $R=R k^{2}=R k \supset y_{1} k=k$. When $k \neq k^{2}, R \ni y_{2}$ outside $y_{1} k^{2}$ (otherwise, only elements of $k^{2}$ can be written as $r_{1} / r_{2}$ with $r_{i} \in R=y_{1} k^{2}$ ). Therefore, $k^{2} y_{1}+k^{2} y_{2}=k$ when the dimension of $k$ over $k^{2}$ is 2 .

Implication $(\mathrm{a}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{b})$. We assume that the dimension of $k$ over $k^{2}$ is larger than 2 and will find a full vector subspace $R \neq k$. First, we find $Y_{0}$ as in Lemma 7.5. Pick distinct $x, y$ in $Y_{0}$, and let $Y$ be the complement of $\{x, y\}$ in $Y_{0}$. Consider the linear subspace $V$ spanned by all $v_{S}$ with finite $S \subset Y ; V$ is a subfield of $k$, containing $k^{2}$.

Put $R:=V+x V+y V ; R \neq k$, because $x y$ is outside $R$. We have to prove that $R$ is full in $k$. Every $z$ in $k-R$ can be written as $z=c_{0}\left(x y+c_{1} x+c_{2} y+c_{3}\right)$ with $c_{i} \in V, c_{0} \neq 0$. Then $0 \neq r_{1}:=x+c_{2} \in R$, $r_{2}:=c_{0}\left(y r_{1}^{2}+x\left(c_{3}+c_{1} c_{2}\right)+c_{1} r_{1}^{2}+c_{2}\left(c_{3}+c_{1} c_{2}\right)\right) \in R$, and $z=r_{2} / r_{1}$.
7.7. Lemma. (i) If the dimension of $k$ over $k^{2}$ is finite or countable, then, for any full subring $C$ of $k$ and any $C^{2}$-submodule $B$ of $k$ such that $B k^{2}=k, B$ contains a full subring of $k$.
(ii) If the dimension of $k$ over $k^{2}$ is uncountable, then there is a full subring $A$ of $k$ and an $A^{2}$-submodule $B$ in $A$ such that $B k^{2}=k, B \supset A^{2}$, and $B$ does not contain any full subset of $k$ closed under multiplication.

Proof. (i) Let $X \subset B$ be a basis for $k$ over $k^{2}$. For every finite $S \subset X$ we can find a non-zero $a_{s}$ in $C$ such that $v_{S} a_{S}^{2} \in B \cap C$ (see, Notation 7.4).

If $X$ is finite, let $c$ be the product of all $a_{S}^{2}$. Then $0 \neq c \in C^{2}$ and $v_{s} c \in B \cap C$ for all $S \subset X$ (recall that $B C^{2} \subset B$ ). The $C^{2}$-submodule $R$ of $B$ generated by all $v_{s} c^{2}$ is a subring of $k$ (namely, $\left(v_{S} c^{2}\right)\left(v_{S^{\prime}} c^{2}\right)=\left(v_{S+S^{\prime}} c^{2}\right)\left(v_{S \cap S^{\prime}} c\right)^{2} \in$ $v_{S+S^{\prime}} c^{2} C^{2} \subset R$, where $\left.S+S^{\prime}:=S \cup S^{\prime}-S \cap S^{\prime}\right)$.

We claim that $R$ is full. Indeed, every $y$ in $k$ can be written as $y=\sum x t_{x}^{2}$ with $t_{x}$ in $k$, where the summation is taken over $x$ in $X$. Since $C$ is full, we can find a non-zero $a_{0}$ in $C$ such that $t_{x} a_{0} \in C$ for all $x$ in $X$ (see, Lemma 7.1 (ii)). Then $y c^{2} a_{0}^{2} \in R$ and $0 \neq c^{2} a_{0}^{2} \in R$. So $R$ is full.

If $X$ is infinite, let us enumerate it, $X=\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}, \cdots\right\}$. For any $i \geqq 1$, let $a_{i}$ be the product of all $a_{T}$ with $T \subset\left\{u_{1}, \cdots, u_{i}\right\}$. Then, for any finite $S \subset X$, we have $\Pi_{u_{i} \in S}\left(u_{i} a_{i}^{2}\right)=v_{S} \Pi_{u_{i} \in S} a_{i}^{2} \in B$, because $\Pi a_{i} \in a_{S} C$ and $B C^{2} \subset B$.

Therefore, the $C^{2}$-submodule $R$ of $B$ generated by $a_{0}^{2}$ and all $u_{i} a_{i}^{2}$
with $u_{i}$ in $X$ lies in $B$. As before, we see that $R$ is full in $k$.
(ii) Find $Y_{0}$ as in Lemma 7.5. Since the dimension of $k$ over $k^{2}$ is uncountable $Y_{0}$ is uncountable. By Jech [1], there is a function $r: Y_{0} \times Y_{0} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{Q}$ (with values in the rational numbers) with the property that for every function $t: Y_{0} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{Q}$ there are $x, y$ in $Y_{0}$ such that $r(x, y)>t(x)$ and $r(x, y)>t(y)$.

Find $A$ and $N$ as in Lemma 7.3 with $F=k$. For any finite $S \subset Y_{0}$ choose a non-zero $a_{s}$ in $A$ such that $v_{s} a_{s} \in A$ and $N\left(a_{s}\right)>2 r(x, y)$ in the case $S=\{x, y\}$ consisting of two distinct elements. Define $B$ as the $A^{2}$ submodule in $k$ generated by all $v_{s} a_{S}^{2}$ and $A^{2}$.

Let us check that $B k^{2}=k$. If we write any $z$ in $k$ as $\sum b_{s}^{2} v_{s}$ with $b_{s}$ in $k$ and only finitely many $b_{s} \neq 0$, then we see that $z a^{2} \in R$ for some non-zero $a$ in $A$ hence $z \in B k^{2}$.

Let now $C$ be a full subset of $k$ closed under multiplication. Since it is full in $k$, every $x$ in $Y_{0}$ can be written as $x=c / c_{x}=c c_{x} / c_{x}^{2}$, where $c$ and $c_{x}$ are in $C$. So $C \ni c c_{x}=x c_{x}^{2}$ with $0 \neq c_{x} \in C$. Let $t(x):=N\left(c_{x}\right)$.

By the choice $r: Y_{0} \times Y_{0} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{Q}$ above, there are $x, y$ in $Y_{0}$ such that $r(x, y)>t(x), t(y)$. For these $x, y$ we have $N\left(c_{x} c_{y}\right)=N\left(c_{x}\right)+N\left(c_{y}\right)=t(x)+$ $t(y)<2 r(x, y)$ and $C \supset C C \ni x c_{x}^{2} y c_{y}^{2}=x y\left(c_{x} c_{y}\right)^{2}$, so $x y\left(c_{x} c_{y}\right)^{2}$ is not in $B$ by the definition of $B$, but it is in $C$. Thus, $C$ is not contained in $B$.

## 8. Proof of Theorem 1.

8.1. Lemma. Let $A$ and $B$ be additive subgroups of $k$ such that $A^{p} \subset B \subset A, B A^{p} \subset B, B A \subset A$, where $p$ is as in Section 1. Assume that $B B \subset B$ when $\Sigma_{l}$ is connected. Let $u \in k, b \in B$, and $\varphi, \varepsilon \in \Sigma$. Assume that $b u \in B^{2}$. Set $D_{\varepsilon}:=B$ when $\varepsilon$ is long and $D_{\varepsilon}:=A$ otherwise. For any $t$ in $k$ we set $y(t):=\left[x_{\varphi}(u), x_{\varepsilon}(t)\right]$. Then:
(i) $y(t) \in G^{E}(A, B)$ if $\varphi+\varepsilon \neq 0$ and $t$ is in $b^{4} D_{\varepsilon}$;
(ii) $y(t) \in G^{E}(A, B)$ if $t$ is in $b^{18}(b-1)^{2}\left(b^{2}-1\right) D_{\varepsilon}$.

Proof. We can assume that $y(t) \neq 1$ for some $t$ in $k$ (otherwise the statement is trivial). Pick a connected subsystem $\Sigma^{\prime} \subset \Sigma$ of rank 2 containing both $\varphi$ and $\varepsilon$. Then $\varphi+\varepsilon$ is in $\Sigma^{\prime}$ or else $\varphi+\varepsilon=0$. We will prove (i) (and then (ii)) for the three possible cases, when $\Sigma^{\prime}$ is of type $A_{2}, B_{2}$, or $G_{2}$, separately.

Type $\boldsymbol{A}_{2}$ with $\varepsilon+\varphi \neq 0$. Then $y\left(b^{2} t\right)=x_{\varepsilon+\varphi}\left( \pm b^{2} t u\right)=\left[x_{\varphi}(b), x_{\varepsilon}(t b u)\right] \in$ $G^{E}(A, B)$ for all $t$ in $D_{\varepsilon}$, because $b \in B \subset D_{\varphi}$ and $t b u \in D_{\varepsilon} B^{2} \subset D_{\varepsilon}$ for all $t$ in $D_{\varepsilon}$. Thus, $y\left(b^{2} D_{\varepsilon}\right) \subset G^{E}(A, B)$, hence $y\left(b^{4} D_{\varepsilon}\right) \subset y\left(b^{2} D\right) \subset G^{E}(A, B)$.

Type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$ with $\varepsilon+\varphi \neq 0$. If $\varepsilon, \varphi \in \Sigma_{s}$, then $y(t)=x_{\varepsilon+\varphi}( \pm 2 t u) \in G^{E}(B)$ provided $t \in b A=b D_{\varepsilon}$. In particular, we can take any $t$ in $b^{4} D_{\varepsilon}=b^{4} A \subset b A$ (the last inclusion follows from $B A \subset A$ ).

If $\varepsilon \in \Sigma_{s}$ and $\varphi \in \Sigma_{l}$, then $y(t)=x_{\varphi+\varepsilon}( \pm t u) x_{\varphi+2 \varepsilon}\left( \pm t^{2} u\right) \in G^{E}(A, B)$ provided $t \in b A=b D_{\varepsilon}$ (because $A b u \subset A B^{2} \subset A$ and $(b A)^{2} u=b A^{2} b u \subset B A^{2} B^{2} \subset B=D_{\varphi+2 \varepsilon}$ ). In particular, $y(t) \in G^{E}(A, B)$ for any $t$ in $b^{4} A \subset b A$.

If $\varepsilon \in \Sigma_{l}$ and $\varphi \in \Sigma_{s}$, then $y(t)=x_{\varphi+\varepsilon}( \pm t u) x_{2 \varphi+\varepsilon}\left( \pm t u^{2}\right) \in G^{E}(A, B)$ provided $t \in b^{2} B=b^{2} D_{\varepsilon} \quad$ (because $\quad\left(b^{2} B\right) u=b B b u \subset B B B^{2} \subset A=D_{\varphi+\varepsilon} \quad$ and $\quad\left(b^{2} B\right) u^{2}=$ $\left.B(b u)^{2} \subset B B^{4} \subset B B^{2} \subset B=D_{2 \varphi+\varepsilon}\right)$. In particular, $y(t) \in G^{E}(A, B)$ for any $t$ in $b^{4} D_{\varepsilon}=b^{4} B \subset b^{2} B$.

Type $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$ with $\varphi+\varepsilon \neq 0$. If $\varphi$ and $\varepsilon$ are long, they lie in $\Sigma_{l}^{\prime}$ of type $\boldsymbol{A}_{2}$. Therefore, as shown above, $y\left(b^{4} D_{\varepsilon}\right) \subset y\left(b^{2} D_{\varepsilon}\right) \subset G^{E}(A, B)$.

If $\varphi$ and $\varepsilon$ are short and make the angle $\pm 60^{\circ}$ then $y(t)=x_{\varphi_{+\varepsilon}}( \pm 3 u t) \in$ $G^{E}(B)$ provided $t \in b A \supset b^{4} A=b^{4} D_{\varepsilon}$ (recall that $3 A \subset B$ ).

If $\varphi$ and $\varepsilon$ are short and make the angle $\pm 120^{\circ}$, then $y(t)=$ $x_{\varphi+\varepsilon}( \pm 2 t u) x_{2 \varphi+\varepsilon}\left( \pm 3 t u^{2}\right) x_{\varphi+2 \varepsilon}\left( \pm 3 t^{2} u\right) \in G^{E}(B) \subset G^{E}(A, B)$ provided $t \in b^{2} A \supset b^{4} A=$ $b^{4} D_{\epsilon}$ (because then $t u \in B, 3 t u^{2} \subset 3 A \subset B$, and $3 t^{2} u \subset 3 A \subset B$ ).

If $\varphi$ is short and $\varepsilon$ is long, then $y(t)^{-1}=x_{\varphi+\varepsilon}( \pm t u) x_{2 \varphi+\varepsilon}\left( \pm u^{2} t\right) x_{3 \varphi+\varepsilon}\left( \pm u^{3} t\right) \times$ $x_{3 \varphi+2 \varepsilon}\left( \pm u^{3} t^{2}\right) \in G^{E}(B) \subset G^{E}(A, B)$ provided $t \in b^{3} B$ (because then $t u \in B B^{2} \subset B$, $\left.u^{2} t \subset B^{4} B B \subset B, u^{3} t \in B^{8} B \subset B, u^{3} t^{2} \in B^{3} B^{3} B \subset B\right)$. In particular, $y(t) \in G^{E}(A, B)$ when $t \in b^{4} B \subset b^{3} B$.

Finally, if $\varphi$ is long and $\varepsilon$ is short, then $y(t)=x_{\varphi+\varepsilon}( \pm t u) x_{\varphi+2 \varepsilon}\left( \pm t^{2} u\right) \times$ $x_{\varphi+3 \varepsilon}\left( \pm u t^{3}\right) x_{2 \varphi+3 \varepsilon}\left( \pm u^{2} t^{3}\right) \in G^{E}(A, B)$ provided $t \in b^{3} A$ (because then $t u \in A=$ $D_{\varphi+\varepsilon}, t^{2} u \in A=D_{\varphi+2 \varepsilon}, t^{3} u \in B=D_{\varphi+3 c}$, and $t^{3} u^{2} \in b^{3} B \subset B=D_{2 \varphi+3 \varepsilon}$ ). In particular, we can take any $t$ in $b^{4} D_{\varepsilon}=b^{4} A \subset b^{3} A$.

Thus, (i) is proved in all cases. Since $b^{4} D_{\varepsilon} \subset D_{\varepsilon}$ for all $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$, (i) can be stated also as follows: the subgroup $H:=x_{\varphi}(u)^{-1} G^{E}(A, B) x_{\varphi}(u)$ contains all $x_{\varepsilon}\left(b^{4} D_{\varepsilon}\right)$ with $\varepsilon \neq-\varphi$. Now we want to prove (ii), i.e., $H \supset x_{\varepsilon}\left(b^{18}(b-\right.$ $1)^{2}\left(b^{2}-1\right) D_{\epsilon}$ ) for all $\varepsilon$. When $\varepsilon+\varphi \neq 0$, this has been proved, because $b^{18}(b-1)^{2}\left(b^{2}-1\right) D_{\varepsilon} \subset b^{4} D_{\varepsilon}$. So we assume that $\varepsilon=-\varphi$ and consider again separately the cases when $\Sigma^{\prime}$ is of type $\boldsymbol{A}_{2}, \boldsymbol{B}_{2}$, or $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$.

Type $\boldsymbol{A}_{2}$ with $\varepsilon=-\varphi$. Pick $\alpha$ and $\beta$ in $\Sigma^{\prime}$ such that $\alpha+\beta=\varepsilon$. From $H \supset x_{\alpha}\left(b^{4} D_{\alpha}\right), x_{\beta}\left(b^{4} D_{\beta}\right) \quad$ it follows that $H \supset\left[x_{\alpha}\left(b^{4} D_{\beta}\right), x_{\beta}\left(b^{4} D_{\beta}\right)\right]=$ $x_{\varepsilon}\left(b^{8} D_{\alpha} D_{\beta}\right)=x_{\varepsilon}\left(b^{8} D_{\varepsilon} D_{\varepsilon}\right) \supset x_{\varepsilon}\left(b^{9} D_{\varepsilon}\right) \supset x_{\varepsilon}\left(b^{18}(b-1)^{2}\left(b^{2}-1\right) D_{\varepsilon}\right)$.

Type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$ with $\varepsilon=-\varphi$. Pick $\alpha$ in $\Sigma_{l}^{\prime}$ and $\beta$ in $\Sigma_{s}^{\prime}$ such that $\varepsilon=\alpha+\beta$ when $\varepsilon$ is short and $\varepsilon=\alpha+2 \beta$ when $\varepsilon$ is long. Then $H \ni z(v, w):=$ $\left[x_{\alpha}(v), x_{\beta}(w)\right]=x_{\alpha+\beta}( \pm v w) x_{\alpha+2 \beta}\left( \pm v w^{2}\right)$ provided $v \in b^{4} B=b^{4} D_{\alpha}$ and $w \in b^{4} A=$ $b^{4} D_{\beta}$. Therefore, $H \ni z\left(b^{4} c, b^{7}\right) z\left(b^{6} c, b^{5}\right)^{-1}=x_{\alpha+2 \beta}\left( \pm c\left(b^{18}-b^{18}\right)\right)$ for all $c$ in $B$ and $H \ni z\left(b^{7}, d b^{4}\right) z\left(b^{5}, d b^{5}\right)^{-1}=x_{\alpha+\beta}\left( \pm d\left(b^{11}-b^{10}\right)\right)$ for all $d$ in $A$.

Thus, $\quad R_{\alpha+2 \beta}(H) \supset B\left(b^{18}-b^{18}\right)=D_{\alpha+2 \beta} b^{18}\left(b^{2}-1\right) \supset D_{\alpha+2 \beta} b^{18}\left(b^{2}-1\right)(b-1)^{2}$ and $R_{\alpha+\beta}(H) \supset A\left(b^{11}-b^{10}\right)=D_{\alpha+\beta} b^{10}(b-1) \supset D_{\alpha+\beta} b^{18}(b-1)^{2}\left(b^{2}-1\right)$.

Type $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$ with $\varepsilon=-\varphi$. If $\varepsilon$ is long, we can include $\varepsilon$ and $\varphi$ in a subsystem of type $\boldsymbol{A}_{2}$ (namely, $\left.\Sigma_{l}^{\prime}\right)$, so $H \supset x_{\varepsilon}\left(B b^{\theta}\right)=x_{\varepsilon}\left(D_{\varepsilon} b^{9}\right) \supset x_{\varepsilon}\left(D_{\varepsilon}(b-\right.$
$\left.1)^{2}\left(b^{2}-1\right) b^{16}\right)$.
If $\varepsilon$ is short, we find $\alpha$ in $\Sigma_{l}^{\prime}$ and $\beta$ in $\Sigma_{s}^{\prime}$ such that $\varepsilon=\alpha+\beta$. Then $H \supset x_{\alpha}\left(b^{4} B\right), x_{\beta}\left(A b^{4}\right)$, hence $H \ni z_{1}(v, w):=\left[x_{\alpha}(v), x_{\beta}(w)\right]=x_{\alpha+\beta}( \pm v w) \times$ $x_{\alpha+2 \beta}\left( \pm v w^{2}\right) x_{\alpha+3 \beta}\left( \pm v w^{3}\right) x_{2 \alpha+3 \beta}\left( \pm v^{2} w^{3}\right)$ for any $v$ in $b^{4} B$ and $w$ in $b^{4} A$. Therefore, for such $v$ and $w$, we have $H \ni z_{2}(v, w):=z_{1}\left(v b^{2}, w\right) z_{1}(v, w b)^{-1}=$ $x_{\alpha+\beta}\left( \pm v w\left(b^{2}-b\right)\right) x_{\alpha+3 \beta}\left( \pm v w^{3}\left(b^{2}-b^{3}\right)\right) x_{2 \alpha+3 \beta}\left( \pm v^{2} w^{3}\left(b^{4}-b^{3}\right)\right)$, so $H \ni z_{3}(v, w):=$ $z_{2}\left(v b^{3}, w\right) z_{2}\left(v, w b^{2}\right)^{-1}=x_{\alpha+\beta}\left( \pm v w\left(b^{2}-b\right)\left(b^{3}-b^{2}\right)\right) x_{\alpha+3 \beta}\left( \pm v w^{3}\left(b^{2}-b^{3}\right)\left(b^{3}-b^{\beta}\right)\right)$, hence $H$ э $z_{3}\left(v b^{3}, w\right) z_{3}(v, w b)^{-1}=x_{\alpha+\beta}\left( \pm v w\left(b^{2}-b\right)\left(b^{3}-b^{2}\right)\left(b^{3}-b\right)\right)$.

Thus, $R_{\varepsilon}(H) \supset\left(b^{4} B\right)\left(b^{4} A\right)\left(b^{2}-b\right)\left(b^{3}-b^{2}\right)\left(b^{3}-b\right)=A B b^{12}(b-1)^{2}\left(b^{2}-1\right) \supset$ $D_{\varepsilon} b^{16}(b-1)^{2}\left(b^{2}-1\right)$, because $A B \supset A b^{4}=D_{\varepsilon} b^{4}$.
8.2. Corollary. Let $A$ and $B$ be as in Lemma 8.1. Assume that $B$ is full and $B k^{2}=k$. Then for any $g$ in $G^{E}(k)$ there is a non-zero $b_{g}$ in $B$ such that $g G^{E}(A, B) g^{-1} \supset G^{E}\left(A b_{g}^{2}, B b_{g}^{2}\right)$.

Proof. If $\operatorname{card}(B) \leqq 9$, then $B=A=k$ and $G^{E}(k)=G^{E}(A, B) \ni g$, so we can take $b_{g}=1$.

Otherwise we pick some $b_{1} \neq b_{1}^{9}$ in $B$.
Consider first the case $g=x_{\varphi}(u)$ with $\varphi$ in $\Sigma$ and $u$ in $k$. Since $B k^{2}=k$ and $B$ is full, we can find $b_{i}$ in $B$ such that $u=b_{2}\left(b_{3} / b_{4}\right)^{2}$ and $b_{2} b_{4} \neq 0$. For $b_{5}:=b_{2}^{3} b_{4}^{2} \in B B^{2} B^{2} \subset B B^{2} \subset B$ we have $b_{5} \neq 0$ and $b_{5} u=\left(b_{3} b_{2}^{2}\right)^{2} \in B^{2}$.

Let $b:=b_{5}$ when $b_{5} \neq \pm 1$ and $b:=b_{5} b_{1}^{4}$ otherwise. Then $b u \in B^{2}$ and $0 \neq b \in B$. Set $b_{0}:=b^{8}(b-1)\left(b^{2}-1\right) \in B$. Then $b_{0} \neq 0$ and, by Lemma 8.1, $g G^{E}(A, B) g^{-1}=: H \supset G^{E}\left(A b_{0}^{2} /\left(b^{2}-1\right), B b_{0}^{2} /\left(b^{2}-1\right)\right)$. Since $B\left(b^{2}-1\right) \subset B$ and $A\left(b^{2}-1\right) \subset A$, it follows that $H \supset G^{E}\left(A b_{0}^{2}, B b_{0}^{2}\right)$. Thus, we can take $b_{g}=b_{0}$ in the case $g=x_{\varphi}(u)$.

In the general case we write $g=g_{1} \cdots g_{m}$ and proceed by induction on $m$, where every $g_{i}$ is a root element. The case $m=1$ has been considered, so let $m \geqq 2$. By induction, for $g^{\prime}=g_{1}^{-1} g$ there is a non-zero $b^{\prime}$ in $B$ such that $g^{\prime} G^{E}(A, B) g^{\prime-1} \supset G^{E}\left(A b^{\prime 2}, B b^{\prime 2}\right)$. Since $A b^{\prime 2}$ and $B b^{\prime 2}$ enjoy the same properties as $A$ and $B$, there is a non-zero $b^{\prime \prime}$ in $B b^{\prime 2}$, such that $g_{1} G^{E}\left(A b^{\prime 2}, B b^{\prime 2}\right) g_{1}^{-1} \supset G^{E}\left(A b^{\prime 2} b^{\prime \prime 2}, B b^{\prime 2} b^{\prime 2}\right)$. Set $b_{g}:=b^{\prime 2} b^{\prime \prime} \in b^{\prime 4} B \subset B$ to obtain the statement. $g G^{E}(A, B) g^{-1} \supset G^{E}\left(A b^{\prime 2} b^{\prime 2}, B b^{\prime 2} b^{\prime 2}\right) \supset G^{E}\left(A b_{g}^{2}, B b_{g}^{2}\right)$.
8.3. Lemma. In the situation of Theorem 1.1, assume that $B$ is full and $B k^{2}=k$ (both conditions evidently do not depend on the choice of $A$ and $B$ ). Then there is a non-zero $b_{0}$ in $B$ such that $b_{0} B \subset R_{\delta} \subset b_{0}^{-1} B$ and $b_{0} A \subset R_{r} \subset b_{0}^{-1} A$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$ and $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$.

Proof. If $B B \subset B$, then, by Lemma 7.1 (ii) with $C=B$, we can find a non-zero $b_{0}$ in the intersection of $B$ with all $B a_{\varepsilon} \cap B b_{\varepsilon}^{-1}$, where $\varepsilon \in \Sigma$. Therefore, $b_{0} B \subset a_{\dot{\delta}} B \subset R_{\dot{\delta}} \subset B b_{\dot{\delta}} \subset B b_{0}^{-1}$ and $b_{0} A \subset a_{r} A \subset R_{r} \subset A b_{r} \subset A b_{0}^{-1}$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$ and $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$.

If $B B$ is not contained in $B$, then $\Sigma$ is of type $C_{n}(n \geqq 2)$, and $p=2$. Fix a long root $\alpha$ in $\Sigma$. By Lemma 1.3, $b_{\alpha} B(a A)^{2} \subset a_{\alpha} B \subset R_{\alpha}$ for some $a \neq 0$ in $A$. In particular, $a^{4} b_{\alpha} B \subset R_{\alpha}$.

By Lemma 4.1, $R_{\varphi} \supset c_{\varphi, \psi} R_{\psi}$ with $0 \neq c_{\varphi, \psi} \in k^{2}$ for all $\varphi$, $\psi$ in $\Sigma_{l}$. Let $C$ be the ring generated by $B$. Then $B \subset C \subset A, C A \subset A$, and $B C^{2} \subset B$.

Since $C$ is full in $k, C^{2}$ is full in $k^{2}$. By Lemma 7.1 (ii) there is a non-zero $c$ in $C$ such that $c^{2} \in c_{\delta, \alpha} a^{4} C^{2} \cap c_{\alpha}{ }_{\delta} C^{2}$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$ and $c^{2} \in a_{r}^{2} C^{2} \cap$ $b_{r}^{-2} C^{2}$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$.

So for such $\delta$ and $\gamma$ we have $c A \subset\left(a_{r} C\right) A \subset a_{r} A \subset R_{r} \subset b_{r} A \subset\left(c^{-1} C\right) A \subset c^{-1} A$ and $\quad b_{\alpha} c^{2} B \subset b_{\alpha}\left(c_{\delta, \alpha} a^{4} C^{2}\right) B \subset b_{\alpha} c_{\delta, \alpha} a^{4} B \subset c_{\delta, \alpha} R_{\alpha} \subset R_{\dot{\delta}} \subset c_{\alpha, \delta}^{-1} R_{\alpha} \subset B b_{\alpha} / c_{\alpha, \dot{\delta}} \subset B b_{\alpha}\left(C^{2} c^{-2}\right) \subset$ $B b_{\alpha} c^{-2}$.

Since $B k^{2}=B$ and $B$ is full, there are non-zero $b_{i}$ in $B$ such that $b_{\alpha}=b_{1}\left(b_{2} / b_{3}\right)^{2}=b_{4} / b_{3}^{2}$, where $b_{4}:=b_{1} b_{2}^{2} \in B B^{2} \subset B$. Set $b_{0}:=b_{4} c^{2} b_{3}^{2} \in B C^{2} B^{2} \subset B$. Then $b_{0} A \subset c A \subset R_{r} \subset c^{-1} A \subset b_{0}^{-1} A$ for all $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$ and $b_{0} B=b_{\alpha} b_{3}^{4} c^{2} B \subset b_{\alpha} e^{2} B \subset$ $R_{\delta} \subset B b_{\alpha} c^{-2}=B b_{4}^{2} b_{0}^{-1} \subset B b_{0}^{-1}$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$.
8.4. Theorem. Let $A$ and $B$ be additive subgroups of $k$ satisfying Theorem 1.1 (iii), (iv). Assume that $B$ is full and $B k^{2}=k$. Then for any $g$ in $G(k)$ there is a non-zero $b_{0}$ in $B$ such that $g G^{E}(A, B) g^{-1} \supset G^{E}\left(A b_{0}, B b_{0}\right)$. In particular, $G^{E}(A, B)$ is full.

Proof. Every $g$ in $G(k)$ can be written as $g=h g^{\prime}$ with $h$ in $T(k)$ and $g^{\prime}$ in $G^{E}(k)$ (see, Tits [5] and Borel-Tits [9, Prop. 6.2]). Set $H^{\prime}:=$ $g^{\prime} G^{E}(A, B) g^{\prime-1}$ and $H:=g G^{E}(A, B) g^{-1}=h H^{\prime} h^{-1}$.

By Corollary 8.2, $H^{\prime} \supset G^{E}\left(A b^{2}, B b^{2}\right)$ with $0 \neq b \in B$. Since $h \in T(k)$, we have $R_{\varepsilon}(H)=R_{\varepsilon}\left(H^{\prime}\right) t_{\varepsilon}$ for all $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$ with non-zero $t_{\varepsilon}$ in $k$. Therefore $R_{\varepsilon}(H) \supset D_{\varepsilon} b^{2} t_{\varepsilon}$, where $D_{\varepsilon}:=B$ when $\varepsilon \in \Sigma_{l}$ and $D_{\varepsilon}:=A$ when $\varepsilon \in \Sigma_{s}$.

Applying Lemma 8.3 to $H$, we find additive subgroups $A^{\prime}$ and $B^{\prime}$ of $k$ and a non-zero $b^{\prime}$ in $B^{\prime}$ such that $b^{\prime} B^{\prime} \subset R_{\delta}(H) \subset B^{\prime} b^{\prime-1}$ and $b^{\prime} A^{\prime} \subset R_{r}(H) \subset$ $A^{\prime} b^{\prime-1}$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$ and $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$.

Fix $\alpha$ in $\Sigma_{l}$ and $\beta$ in $\Sigma_{s}$. Then $R_{\delta}(H) \supset b^{\prime} B^{\prime} \supset b^{\prime 2} R_{\alpha}(H) \supset b^{\prime 2} b^{2} t_{\alpha} B$ and $R_{\gamma}(H) \supset b^{\prime} A^{\prime} \supset b^{\prime 2} R_{\beta}(H) \supset b^{\prime 2} b^{2} t_{\beta} A$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$ and $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$.

Since $B$ is full and $B k^{2}=k$, there are non-zero $b_{1}$ and $b_{2}$ in $B$ such that $b_{3}:=b_{1} b^{\prime 2} t_{\beta} \in B$ and $b_{4}:=b_{2}^{2} b^{\prime 2} t_{\alpha} \in B$. Set $b_{0}:=b_{4} b_{3}^{2} b^{2} \in B B^{2} B^{2} \subset B B^{2} \subset B$.

Then $\quad R_{\delta}(H) \supset b^{\prime 2} b^{2} t_{\alpha} B \supset b^{\prime 2} b^{2} t_{\alpha}\left(b_{2}^{2} b_{3}^{2} B\right)=b_{0} B \quad$ and $\quad R_{r}(H) \supset b^{\prime 2} b^{2} t_{\beta} A \supset$ $b^{\prime 2} b^{2} t_{\beta}\left(b_{3} b_{4} b_{1} A\right)=b_{0} A$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$ and $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$. Thus $H \supset G^{E}\left(A b_{0}, B b_{0}\right)$ with $0 \neq b_{0} \in B$.

Proof of Theorem 1. Let $A$ be a full subring of $k$. Set $B:=A$. Then Theorem 1.1 (iii), (iv) are satisfied. Moreover, given any $u$ in $k$ we can write $u=b_{1} / b_{2}$ with $b_{i}$ in $B$ and $b_{2} \neq 0$, hence $u=b_{1} b_{2} b_{2}^{-2} \in B k^{2}$. Thus, $B k^{2}=k$. By Theorem 8.4, $G^{E}(A)=G^{E}(A, B)$ is full.

## 9. Proof of Theorems 2 and 3.

9.1. Lemma. Let $H$ be a full subgroup of $G(k)$. Then
(i) $R_{\varepsilon}(H)$ is full, if $\varepsilon$ lies in a subsystem $\Sigma^{\prime} \subset \Sigma$ of type $\boldsymbol{A}_{2}$;
(ii) $R_{r}(H)$ is full for any short root $\gamma$ in $\Sigma$.

Proof. (i) We apply an argument of [7]. Namely, we find a root $\varphi$ in $\Sigma^{\prime}$ such that $\varphi+\varepsilon$ is in $\Sigma^{\prime}$ too. Fix non-zero $c_{1}$ in $R_{-\varphi}(H)$ and $c_{2}$ in $R_{\varphi}(H)$. Take an arbitrary $t$ in $k$. Since $H$ is full, $H \ni x_{\varphi}(t) x_{\varepsilon}(u) x_{\varphi}(t)^{-1}=$ $x_{\varepsilon+\varphi}( \pm t u) x_{\varepsilon}(u)=: g$ for a non-zero $u$ in $k$. Therefore, $H \ni\left[g, x_{-\varphi}\left(c_{1}\right)\right]=$ $x_{\varepsilon}\left( \pm t u c_{1}\right)$ and $H$ э $\left[\left[g, x_{\varphi}\left(c_{2}\right)\right], x_{-\varphi}\left(c_{1}\right)\right]=\left[x_{\varepsilon+\varphi}\left(u c_{2}\right), x_{-\varphi}\left(c_{1}\right)\right]=x_{\varepsilon}\left( \pm u c_{1} c_{2}\right)$. Thus, $R_{\varepsilon}(H)$ contains both $t u c_{1}:=a_{1}$ and $u c_{1} c_{2}:=a_{2} \neq 0$. Since $a_{1} a_{2}^{-1}=t c_{2}^{-1}$ can be an arbitrary element of $k, R_{s}(H)$ is full in $k$.
(ii) If $\Sigma$ contains a system of type $\boldsymbol{A}_{2}$, then we can use (i) and, by Theorem 1.1, conclude that $A$ and all $R_{r}(H)$ with $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$ are full. Otherwise, $\Sigma$ is of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$.

Let $\delta$ in $\Sigma$ make an angle $45^{\circ}$ with $\gamma$. Since $H$ is full, for any $t$ in $k$ there exists a non-zero $u$ in $k$ such that $H \ni x_{\dot{\delta}-2 r}(t) x_{r}(u) x_{\delta-2 r}(-t)=$ $x_{r}(u) x_{\delta-r}( \pm t u) x_{\dot{\delta}}\left( \pm t u^{2}\right)=: g$, where the signs $\pm$ depend on $\gamma$ and $\delta$.

Now we pick non-zero $c_{1}$ in $R_{\delta-2 r}(H)$ and $c_{2}$ in $R_{2 \gamma_{-\delta}}(H)$. We have successively $\quad H \ni\left[x_{\delta-2 r}\left(c_{1}\right), g\right]=\left[x_{\delta-2 r}\left(c_{1}\right), x_{r}(u)\right]=x_{\delta-r}\left( \pm c_{1} u\right) x_{\delta}\left( \pm c_{1} u^{2}\right)=: g^{\prime}$; $H \ni\left[x_{2 \tau-\delta}\left(c_{2}\right), g^{\prime}\right]=x_{r}\left( \pm c_{1} c_{2} u\right) x_{\dot{\delta}}\left( \pm c_{1}^{2} c_{2} u^{2}\right) ;$ and $H \ni\left[x_{2 \tau-\delta}\left(c_{2}\right), g\right]=x_{r}\left( \pm c_{2} t u\right) \times$ $x_{\delta}\left( \pm c_{2} t^{2} u^{2}\right)$.

Thus, $R_{\gamma, \delta} \ni\left(c_{2} c_{1} u, \pm c_{2} c_{1}^{2} u^{2}\right),\left(c_{2} t u, \pm c_{2} t^{2} u^{2}\right)$, hence $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime} \ni c_{2} c_{1} u=: a_{2}$ and $R_{r, \delta}^{\prime} \ni c_{2} t u=: a_{1}$ (see, the beginning of Section 3 for notation). Since $a_{1} / a_{2}=t / c_{1}$ is arbitrary, $R_{\gamma, \delta}^{\prime}$ is full.

By Corollary 3.2 (i) it follows that $R_{r}(H)$ is full when $2 \neq 0$ in $k$. If $\operatorname{char}(k)=2, R_{\delta-r}(H)$ is full by Lemma 3.6 (ii). Replacing here $(\gamma, \delta)$ by ( $\delta-\gamma, \delta$ ), we obtain that $R_{r}(H)$ is full.
9.2. Lemma. Let $H$ be a full subgroup of $G(k)$. Then $R_{\varepsilon}(H)$ is full and $R_{\varepsilon}(H) k^{2}=k$ for any root $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$.

Proof. Find $A$ and $B$ as in Theorem 1.1. Since $a_{\varepsilon} B \subset R_{\varepsilon}(H)$ for every $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$ with $a_{\varepsilon} \neq 0$, the statement of Lemma 9.2 will follow from: $B$ is full and $B k^{2}=k$. By Lemma 9.1 (ii), $A$ is full.

If $B=A$ (for example, $p=1$ ), then $B B=B A \subset A=B$, so $B$ is a subring of $k$. When $B$ is a full subring of $k$ (for example, if $B=A$ ), every $t$ in $k$ can be written as $t=b_{1} / b_{2}=\left(b_{1} b_{2}\right)\left(b_{2}\right)^{-2} \in B k^{2}$ with $b_{i}$ in $B$, $b_{2} \neq 0$, hence $k=B k^{2}$.

If $B$ is not a full subring of $k$, then (using Lemma 9.1 (i) to exclude type $\boldsymbol{D}_{n}$ and $\left.\boldsymbol{G}_{2}\right) G$ is of type $\boldsymbol{C}_{n}(n \geqq 2)$ and $p=2$.

Then we pick a subsystem $\Sigma^{\prime} \subset \Sigma$ of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$ and an admissible pair $(\gamma, \delta)$ in $\Sigma^{\prime}$. Take an arbitrary $t$ in $k$ and set $g:=x_{\delta}(t)$.

Applying Theorem 1.1 to $H^{\prime}:=g H g^{-1}$, we find a non-zero $u$ in $k$ such that $R_{r}\left(H^{\prime}\right) \subset u R_{-r}\left(H^{\prime}\right)$. Then $a_{r} A \subset R_{r}(H)=R_{\gamma}\left(H^{\prime}\right) \subset u R_{-r}\left(H^{\prime}\right)$. Since $A$ is full, $a_{-r} u / a_{r}=a_{1} / a_{2}$ with non-zero $a_{i}$ in $A$. Then $0 \neq v:=a_{r} a_{1} / u=$ $a_{2} a_{-r} \in A a_{r} / u \cap A a_{-r} \subset R_{-r}\left(H^{\prime}\right) \cap R_{-r}(H)$, hence $x_{-r}(v) \in H \cap H^{\prime}$.

Therefore $H=g^{-1} H^{\prime} g \ni g^{-1} x_{-\gamma}(v) g=: g^{\prime}$ and $H \ni g^{\prime} x_{-r}(v)^{-1}=\left[g^{-1}, x_{-r}(v)\right]=$ $x_{\dot{\delta}-r}(t v) x_{\dot{\delta}-2 r}\left(t v^{2}\right)$, hence $R_{\dot{\delta}-r, \delta-2 r}^{\prime \prime} \ni t v^{2}$.

By Lemma 3.6 (i), $R_{\delta}(H) \ni c^{2} t$ for some $c \neq 0$ in $k$ ( $c$ depends on $H$ and $t$ ), so $t \in R_{\delta}(H) k^{2}$. Thus, $R_{\delta}(H) k^{2}=k$, i.e. $B k^{2}=k$. By Lemma 7.2 (using that $B$ is a module over the ring generated by $A^{2}$ ), $B$ is full, so $R_{\varepsilon}(H)$ is full for every root $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$.
9.3. Theorem. Let $H$ be a full subgroup of $G(k)$. Then there are additive subgroups $A$ and $B$ of $k$ and a non-zero $c$ in $B$ such that $B$ is full, $B k^{2}=k$, and Theorem 1.1 (i)-(iv) hold with $a_{\varepsilon}=1$ and $b_{\varepsilon}=c^{-1}$ for all $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$.

Proof. Find $A$ and $B$ by Theorem 1.1. By Lemma $9.2, B$ is full and $B k^{2}=k$. By Lemma 8.3, there is a non-zero $b_{0}$ in $B$ such that $b_{0} B \subset R_{\dot{\delta}} \subset B b_{0}^{-1}$ and $b_{0} A \subset R_{r} \subset A b_{0}^{-1}$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$ and $\gamma$ in $\Sigma_{s}$. Set $A^{\prime}:=$ $A b_{0}, B^{\prime}:=B b_{0}$, and $c:=b_{0}^{2} \in B^{\prime}$. Replacing $A$ and $B$ by $A^{\prime}$ and $B^{\prime}$, we obtain our statement.
9.4. Corollary. Let $H$ be a subgroup of $G(k)$. Then the following three statements are equivalent: (a) $H$ is full; (b) $H \supset G^{E}(B)$ for a full additive subgroup $B$ of $k$ such that $B B^{2} \subset B$ and $B k^{2}=k$; (c) $H \supset G^{E}(R)$ for a full subset $R$ of $k$ such that $R k^{2}=k$.

Proof. By Theorem 9.3, (a) implies (b). Clearly, (b) implies (c). Now assume (c). Find $A$ and $B$ as in Theorem 1.1. Since $R \subset R_{\delta}(H) \subset b_{\delta} B$ for any $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$ with $b_{\delta} \neq 0$, our assumption on $R$ implies that $B$ is full and $B k^{2}=k$. By Lemma $8.3, H \supset G^{E}\left(A b_{0}, B b_{0}\right)$ with $0 \neq b_{0} \in B$. By Theorem 8.4, $H$ is full. Thus, (c) implies (a).
9.5. Corollary. Let $H$ be a subgroup of $G(k)$. If $G$ is of type $\boldsymbol{C}_{n}$, assume that $\operatorname{char}(k) \neq 2$. Then the following three statements are equivalent:
(a) $H$ is full;
(b) $H \supset G^{E}(B)$ for a full subring $B$ of $k$;
(c) $H \supset G^{E}(R)$ for a full subset $R$ of $k$.

Proof. By Theorem 9.3, (a) implies (b). The implication (b) $\Rightarrow$ (c) is trivial. Now assume (c). Since we excluded type $C_{n}$ with $p=2$, we
can find $A, B$ as in Theorem 1.1 with $B B \subset B$. Since $R \subset R_{\delta}(H) \subset b_{\dot{\delta}} B$ with $\delta \in \Sigma_{l}, b_{\delta} \neq 0$, it follows that $B$ is a full subring of $k$. So $B k^{2}=k$. In view of the implication 9.4 (c) $\Rightarrow 9.4$ (a), $H$ is full.
9.6. Corollary. Assume that $G$ is of type $\boldsymbol{C}_{n}(n \geqq 2)$ and $\operatorname{char}(k)=$ 2. Then:
(i) every full subgroup $H$ of $G(k)$ contains $G^{E}(B)$ for a full subring $B$ of $k$, if and only if the dimension of $k$ over $k^{2}$ is finite or countable;
(ii) $G^{E}(R)$ is full in $G(k)$ for every full subset $R$ of $k$, if and only if the dimension over $k^{2}$ is 1 or 2.

Proof. (i) Assume first that $H$ is full. By Theorem 9.3, $H \supset$ $G^{E}(A, B)$ with full $B$ such that $B k^{2}=k, B A^{2} \subset B \subset A$. By Lemma 7.7 (i), $B$ contains a full subring $R$ of $k$, provided the dimension of $k$ over $k^{2}$ is countable. So, $H \supset G^{E}(R)$.

Assume now that the dimension is uncountable. Then we can find $A$ and $B$ as in Lemma 7.7 (ii). Then for $H:=G^{E}(A ; B)$ we have $R_{\delta}(H)=B$ for all $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$ (see, Theorem 6.1). So, by Lemma 7.7 (ii), $H$ does not contain $G^{E}(C)$ for any subring $C$.
(ii) Let first $R$ be full. By Lemma 7.6, then $R k^{2}=k$ provided the dimension is 1 or 2. By Corollary 9.4, $G^{E}(R)$ is full.

Assume now that the dimension is larger than 2. By Lemma 7.6, we find a proper full subspace $R$ of $k$. Replacing $R$ by $R y^{-1}$ with $0 \neq y$ in $R$, we can assume that $R \ni$. By Theorem 6.1, $R_{\delta}\left(G^{E}(k, R)\right)=R$ for any $\delta$ in $\Sigma_{l}$. By Theorem 9.3, $G^{E}(k, R)$ is not full. So its subgroup $G^{E}(R)$ is not full.

Remark. Theorem 2 is contained in Corollaries 9.5 and 9.6.
Proof of Theorem 3. Let $H$ and $g_{i}$ be as in Theorem 3. By Theorem 9.3, $H \supset G^{E}(A, B)$, where $B$ is full and $B k^{2}=k$. By Theorem 8.4, $H_{i}:=g_{i} H g_{i}^{-1} \supset G^{E}\left(A b_{i}, B b_{i}\right)$ for $i=1, \cdots, m$ with $0 \neq b_{i} \in B$. By Lemma 7.2 (i), the intersection $B^{\prime}$ of all $B b_{i}$ is full and $B^{\prime} k^{2}=k$. Since $A \supset B$, we have $H_{i} \supset G^{E}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ for all $i=1, \cdots, m$. By Corollary 9.4, $G^{E}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ is full, so the intersection of $H_{i}$ is full.

Remark. If all $g_{i} \in G^{E}(k)$, then the intersection of all $H_{i}$ contains $G^{E}\left(A b_{0}, B b_{0}\right)$ for some $b_{0} \neq 0$ in $B$, see Corollary 8.2.

## 10. Proof of Theorem 4.

10.1. Theorem. Assume that $k$ contains at least 3 elements, if $G$ is of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$ or $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$. Let $A$ and $B$ be additive subgroups of $k$ satisfying Theorem 1.1 (iii), (iv). Assume that $B$ is full and $B k^{2}=k$. Let $M$ be a
non-central subgroup of $G(k)$ normalized by $G^{E}(A, B)$. Then $M \supset G^{E}(d A, d B)$ for a non-zero $d$ in $B$.

In view of Corollary 9.4, this theorem implies Theorem 4. Indeed, let $M$ be a non-central subgroup of $G(k)$ normalized by a full subgroup $H$ of $G(k)$. By Theorem 9.3, $H \supset G^{E}(A, B)$, where $A$ and $B$ are as in Theorem 10.1. By Theorem 10.1, there is a non-zero $d$ in $B$ such that $M \supset G^{E}(A d, B d)$. By Lemma 7.2 (ii), $B \cap B d:=B^{\prime}$ is a full additive subgroup of $k$ such that $B^{\prime} B^{2} \subset B^{\prime}$ and $B^{\prime} k^{2}=k$. By Corollary $9.4, G^{E}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ is full in $G(k)$, Thus, $H \cap M \supset G^{E}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$ is full.

Remark. If $G$ is of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}=\boldsymbol{C}_{2}$ or $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$ and $k=\{0,1\}$, then $G^{E}(k)$ contains a normal subgroup $M$ of index 2 (see, for example, [4, Remark after Theorem 5]). Since $G^{E}(k)$ is the smallest full subgroup of $G(k), M$ is not full (and $M$ does not sit in the center of $G(k)$ ).

### 10.2. Lemma. Theorem 10.1 holds if $k$ is finite.

Proof. Any full subring of a finite $k$ is $k$ itself. In particular, if $B$ and $A$ are as in Theorem 10.1, then the subring of $k$ generated by $B$ is $k$. It follows easily that $A=k$ and $B=k$.

Therefore, $G^{E}(A, B)=G^{E}(k)$. By Theorem 8.4, $G^{E}(k)$ is normal in $G(k)$. It is well-known (see, for example, [5]) that every non-central subgroup $M$ of $G(k)$ normalized by $G^{E}(k)$ contains $G^{E}(k)$. In particular, $M \supset G^{E}(k)=G^{E}(d A, d B)$ for any $d \neq 0$ in $B=k$.

For the rest of this section we assume that $k$ is infinite.
10.3. Lemma. Fix an ordering on $\Sigma$. Let $\alpha$ be the maximal root and $U$ the algebraic subgroup of $G$ generated by all $x_{\epsilon}(k)$ with positive $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$. Then there are $w$ in $G^{E}(k)$ and $c$ in $k$ such that UwTU is Zariski open in $G$ and $w x_{\alpha}(t) w^{-1}=x_{-\alpha}(c t)$ for all $t$ in $k$.

Proof. Let $U^{\prime}$ be the algebraic subgroup of $G$ generated by all $x_{\varepsilon}(k)$ with negative $\varepsilon$. Then $U^{\prime} T U$ is open in $G$ (see, for example, [4, Theorem 7 (a)]).

We pick any $w$ in $G^{E}(k)$ such that $w T w^{-1}=T$ and $w U^{\prime} w^{-1}=U$. Then $w x_{\alpha}(t) w^{-1}=x_{-\alpha}(c t)$ for some $c$ in $k$.
10.4. Lemma. In the conditions of Theorem 10.1, $M$ is Zariski dense in $G$.

Proof. Since $k$ is infinite, so is $B$. Therefore $x_{s}(B)$ is Zariski dense in $x_{\varepsilon}(k)$ for each root $\varepsilon$ in $\Sigma$ and $H:=G^{E}(A, B) \supset G^{E}(B)$ is Zariski dense in $G$. Since $H$ normalizes $M$, it follows that $G$ normalizes the Zariski closure of $M$ in $G$. Since $G$ is almost simple and $M$ is not central, the
closure is $G$, so $M$ is dense in $G$.
10.5. Lemma. In the conditions of Theorem 10.1, let $\alpha \in \Sigma_{l}$. Then there are $g$ in $G^{E}(k)$ and $u$ in $k$ such that $g$ commutes with $x_{\alpha}(k)$ and $x_{\alpha}(b) x_{-\alpha}(u b) \in g M g^{-1}$ for all $b$ in $B$.

Proof. We can choose an ordering on $\Sigma$ in such a way that $\alpha$ becomes the maximal root (because the maximal root is always long and the Weyl group acts transitively on the long roots). Let $U, w$, and $c$ be as in Lemma 10.3.

Since $U w T U$ is open in $G$ and $M$ is dense in $G$ (see, Lemma 10.4), there is some $m$ in $U w T U \cap M$. We write $m=g^{-1} w h g^{\prime}$ with $g, g^{\prime} \in U(k)$ and $h \in T(k)$. Since $\left[U, x_{\alpha}(k)\right]=1$ and $h x_{\alpha}(t) h^{-1}=x_{\alpha}(\alpha(h) t)$ for all $t$ in $k$, we have $M$ э $\left[x_{\alpha}(b), m\right]=x_{\alpha}(b) g^{-1} w h g^{\prime} x_{\alpha}(-b) g^{\prime-1} h^{-1} w^{-1} g=x_{\alpha}(b) g^{-1} x_{-\alpha}(-c \alpha(h) b) g=$ $g^{-1}\left(x_{\alpha}(b) x_{-\alpha}(-c \alpha(h) b)\right) g$ for all $b$ in $B$. Thus, $g M g^{-1} \ni x_{\alpha}(b) x_{-\alpha}(u b)$ for all $b$ in $B$ with $u:=-c \alpha(h)$.
10.6. Corollary. In the conditions of Lemma 10.5, there is a nonzero $d_{\alpha}$ in $k$ such that $M \supset x_{\alpha}\left(d_{\alpha} B\right)$.

Proof. Let $g$ and $u$ be as in Lemma 10.5. Let $b_{g} \in B$ be as in Corollary 8.2. Then $g M g^{-1}=: M^{\prime}$ is normalized by $g G^{E}(A, B) g^{-1} \supset G^{E}\left(A b_{g}^{2}\right.$, $B b_{g}^{2}$ ). Pick a $b^{\prime} \neq b^{\prime 3}$ in $B b_{g}^{2}$.

If $\alpha$ belongs to a subsystem $\Sigma^{\prime} \subset \Sigma$ of type $\boldsymbol{A}_{2}$, we find $\delta \in \Sigma^{\prime}$ such that $\alpha+\delta \in \Sigma^{\prime}$. Since $g M g^{-1}$ contains $x_{\alpha}(b) x_{\alpha}(b u)$ for all $b$ in $B$ and is normalized by $x_{\dot{\delta}}\left(B b_{g}^{2}\right)$ and $x_{-\delta}\left(B b_{g}^{2}\right)$, we have $M^{\prime} \ni y:=\left[x_{\dot{\delta}}\left(b^{\prime}\right), x_{\alpha}(b) x_{-\alpha}(b u)\right]=$ $x_{\delta+\alpha}\left( \pm b b^{\prime}\right)$ and $\quad M^{\prime} \ni\left[x_{-\delta}\left(b^{\prime}\right), y\right]=x_{\alpha}\left( \pm b^{\prime 2} b\right)$. So, $\quad M^{\prime} \supset x_{\alpha}\left(b^{\prime 2} B\right)$. $\quad$ Since $\left[g, x_{\alpha}(k)\right]=1$, it follows that $M \supset x_{\alpha}\left(b^{\prime 2} B\right)$. Thus, we can take $d:=b^{\prime 2}$.

If $\alpha$ does not belong to a subsystem of type $\boldsymbol{A}_{2}$, then it belongs to a subsystem $\Sigma^{\prime}$ of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$. We pick a short root $\beta$ in $\Sigma^{\prime}$ such that $\alpha+\beta \in \Sigma^{\prime}$. Then $\left[x_{\beta}(k), x_{-\alpha}(k)\right]=1$.

Since $M^{\prime}$ is normalized by $x_{\beta}\left(B b_{g}^{2}\right)$, we have $M^{\prime} \ni z_{1}(v, t):=\left[x_{\beta}(v)\right.$, $\left.x_{\alpha}(b) x_{-\alpha}(b u)\right]=x_{\beta+\alpha}( \pm v t) x_{2 \beta+\alpha}\left( \pm v^{2} b\right)$ for all $v$ in $B b_{g}^{2}$ and $b$ in $B$, hence $M^{\prime} \ni z_{1}\left(b^{\prime 3}, b\right) z_{1}\left(b^{\prime}, b^{\prime 2} b\right)^{-1}=x_{\alpha+2 \beta}\left( \pm b^{\prime 4}\left(b^{\prime 2}-1\right) b\right)$ for all $b$ in $B$. So, $M^{\prime} \supset$ $x_{\alpha+2 \beta}\left(B b^{\prime 4}\left(b^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime 2}-1\right)\right)\right.$.

Since $M^{\prime}$ is normalized by $x_{-\beta}\left(b_{g}^{2} B\right)$, we have $M^{\prime} \ni z_{2}(v, t)=\left[x_{-\beta}(v)\right.$, $\left.x_{2 \beta+\alpha}(t)\right]=x_{\beta+\alpha}( \pm v t) x_{\alpha}\left( \pm v^{2} t\right)$ for all $v$ in $b_{g}^{2} B$ and $t$ in $b^{\prime 4}\left(b^{\prime 2}-1\right) B$, hence $M^{\prime} \ni z_{2}\left(b^{\prime 3}, t\right) z_{2}\left(b^{\prime}, b^{\prime 2} t\right)^{-1}=x_{\alpha}\left( \pm b^{\prime 4}\left(b^{\prime 2}-1\right) t\right)$ for all $t$ in $b^{\prime 4}\left(b^{\prime 2}-1\right) B$. Thus, $M^{\prime} \supset x_{\alpha}\left(d_{\alpha} B\right)$ for $d_{\alpha}:=b^{\prime 8}\left(b^{\prime 2}-1\right)^{2} \neq 0$, hence $M \supset x_{\alpha}\left(d_{\alpha} B\right)$.
10.7. Lemma. For any $\beta \in \Sigma_{\text {s }}$ there is a non-zero $d_{\beta}$ in $k$ such that $M \supset x_{\beta}\left(d_{\beta} A\right)$.

Proof. If $\beta$ is long, we can use Corollary 10.6. Otherwise, $\beta$ lies
in a subsystem $\Sigma^{\prime} \subset \Sigma$ of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$ or $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$. Pick $b \neq b^{3}$ in $B$.
If $\Sigma^{\prime}$ is of type $\boldsymbol{B}_{2}$, we pick a short root $\gamma$ in $\Sigma^{\prime}$ such that $\gamma+\beta \in \Sigma_{l}^{\prime}$. Since $M$ is normalized by $G^{E}(A, B)$ and $M \supset x_{r+\beta}\left(d_{\gamma+\beta} B\right)$ (see, Corollary 10.6), we have $M \ni z(u, t):=\left[x_{-r}(u), x_{r+\beta}(t)\right]=x_{\beta}( \pm u t) x_{\beta-r}\left( \pm u^{2} t\right)$ for all $u$ in $A$ and $t$ in $d_{\gamma+\beta} B$. Therefore, $M \ni z\left(u, b^{3} d_{\gamma+\beta}\right) z\left(u b, b d_{\gamma+\beta}\right)^{-1}=x_{\beta}\left( \pm u\left(b^{3}-b^{2}\right) d_{\gamma+\beta}\right)$. Thus, $M \supset x_{\beta}\left(d_{\beta} A\right)$ with $d_{\beta}:=b^{2}(b-1) d_{r+\beta} \neq 0$.

If $\Sigma^{\prime}$ is of type $\boldsymbol{G}_{2}$, then we find a long $\alpha$ in $\Sigma^{\prime}$ such that $\alpha+\beta \in \Sigma_{s}^{\prime}$. Since $M \supset x_{-\alpha}\left(d_{-\alpha} B\right)$ and $M$ is normalized by $G^{E}(A, B) \supset x_{\alpha+\beta}(A)$, we have $M \ni z_{1}(t, u):=\left[x_{-\alpha}(t), x_{\alpha+\beta}(u)\right]=x_{\beta}( \pm t u) x_{\alpha+2 \beta}\left( \pm t u^{2}\right) x_{2 \alpha+3 \beta}\left( \pm t u^{3}\right) x_{\alpha+3 \beta}\left(t^{2} u^{3}\right)$ for all $t$ in $d_{-\alpha} B$ and $u$ in $A$.

Therefore, $M \ni z_{2}(t, u):=z_{1}(t, u b) z_{1}\left(t b^{3}, u\right)^{-1}=x_{\beta}\left( \pm t u\left(b-b^{3}\right) x_{\alpha+2 \beta}\left( \pm t u^{2} \times\right.\right.$ $\left.\left(b^{2}-b^{3}\right)\right) x_{\alpha+3 \beta}\left( \pm t^{2} u^{3}\left(b^{3}-b^{6}\right)\right)$, hence, $\quad M \ni z_{3}(t, u):=z_{2}\left(t b^{3}, u\right) z_{2}\left(t, u b^{2}\right)^{-1}=$ $x_{\beta}\left( \pm t u\left(b-b^{3}\right)\left(b^{3}-b^{2}\right)\right) x_{\alpha+2 \beta}\left( \pm t u^{2}\left(b^{2}-b^{3}\right)\left(b^{3}-b^{4}\right)\right)$, so $M$ э $z_{3}\left(t b^{2}, u\right) z_{3}(t, u b)^{-1}=$ $x_{\beta}\left( \pm t u\left(b-b^{3}\right)\left(b^{3}-b^{2}\right)\left(b^{2}-b\right)\right)$ for all $t \in d_{-\alpha} B$ and $u \in A$.

Thus, $M \supset x_{\beta}\left(A d_{\beta}\right)$ with $d_{\beta}:=d_{-\alpha} b^{4}\left(b^{2}-1\right)(b-1)^{2} \neq 0$.
Proof of Theorem 10.1. Now we are ready to complete our Proof of Theorem 10.1 (for infinite $k$ ).

By Theorem 1.1, Lemma 8.3, and Corollaries 10.6 and 10.7, $M \supset G^{E}\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)$ with additive subgroups $A^{\prime}$ and $B^{\prime}$ of $k$ satisfying $A^{\prime} \subset d_{1} A$ and $B^{\prime} \subset d_{1} B$, where $0 \neq d_{1}, d_{2} \in k$.

Since $B k^{2}=k$, we have $d_{2}=b_{1} c^{2}$ with $0 \neq b_{1} \in B$ and $0 \neq c \in k$. Since $B$ is full, $c=b_{2} / b_{3}$ and $d_{1}=b_{4} / b_{5}$ with non-zero $b_{i}$ in $B$. Therefore, $A^{\prime} \supset$ $d_{1} A=b_{4} A / b_{5} \supset b_{4} A \supset b_{4}^{2} b_{1} b_{2}^{2} A$ (since $B A \subset B$ ) and $B^{\prime} \supset d_{2} B=b_{1} c^{2} B=b_{1} b_{2}^{2} B / b_{3}^{2} \supset$ $b_{1} b_{2}^{2} B \supset b_{4}^{2} b_{1} b_{2}^{2} B$ (since $B B^{2} \subset B$ ).

Thus, $A^{\prime} \supset d A$ and $B^{\prime} \supset d B$, where $0 \neq d:=b_{4}^{2} b_{1} b_{2}^{2} \in B$, hence $M \supset$ $G^{E}(A d, B d)$.
11. Type $A_{1}$ and non-split groups. First we give counter examples to Theorems 1-4 for $G=S L_{2}$.
11.1. A counter example to Theorem 1. See [7, the last section].
11.2. A counter example to Theorems 2 and 9.3. Let $k$ be a field such that $\operatorname{char}(k)=2$ and $k \neq k^{2}$. Let $T(k)$ be the subgroup of diagonal matrices in $S L_{2}(k)$. Here is our choice of parametrizations of the root subgroups: $x_{\alpha}(t)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}1 & t \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)$ and $x_{\beta}(t)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ t & 1\end{array}\right)$ for all $t$ in $k$.

Set $H:=\left\{h g: h \in T(k), g \in S L_{2}\left(k^{2}\right)\right\}$. Since $T(k)$ normalizes $S L_{2}\left(k^{2}\right), H$ is a subgroup of $S L_{2}(k)$. We claim that it is a full subgroup. Indeed, given any $g=\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right)$ in $S L_{2}(k)$, we set $u:=1 /(1+a c)$ when $a c \neq 1$ and $u:=1 /\left(1+z^{2}\right)$ with any $z \neq 0,1$ when $a c=1$. Then $v:=u /(1+a u c) \in k^{2}$, hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
g\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & u \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) g^{-1} & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1+a u c & a u a \\
c u c & 1+c u a
\end{array}\right) \\
& =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
u / v & 0 \\
0 & v / u
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & a v a \\
u c u c / v & (u / v)^{2}
\end{array}\right) \in T(k) S L_{2}\left(k^{2}\right)=H .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly, there is a non-zero $u^{\prime}$ in $k$ such that $H \ni g x_{\beta}\left(u^{\prime}\right) g^{-1}$. Thus, $H$ is full.

But $R_{\alpha}(H)=k^{2}$ is not full when $k \neq k^{2}$. Therefore, $H$ does not contain $E_{2}(R)$ with a full subset $R$ of $k$.
11.3. A counter example to Theorem 3. Let $k$ and $H$ be as in 11.2. Take any $w$ in $k$ outside $k^{2}$. Set $g:=x_{\alpha}(w)$. Then $H$ is full, but $H \cap g H g^{-1} \cap x_{\beta}(k)$ is trivial, so $H \cap g H g^{-1}$ is not full.
11.4. A counter example to Theorem 4. Let $k$ and $H$ be as in 11.2. Then $S L_{2}\left(k^{2}\right)$ is normalized by full $H$, but $S L_{2}\left(k^{2}\right)$ is not full and is not contained in the center of $S L_{2}(k)$.

Now we will discuss extensions of our results to non-split groups. Let $G$ be an almost simple algebraic group defined over a field $k$. Fixing a maximal $k$-split torus $T$ and a matrix representation $G \subset S L_{N}$, we have "root" subgroups $U_{\varepsilon}$. Given any subset $R$ of $k$, we can define $G^{E}(R)$ to be the subgroup of $G(k)$ generated by all root elements with (non-diagonal) entries in $R$. We can call a subgroup $H$ of $G(k)$ full, if for any $g$ in $G(k)$ the intersection of $g H^{-1}$ with each root subgroup is not trivial. I believe that Theorems 1-5 hold (for this more general class of G's), if the $k$-rank of $G$ is at least 2 and $G$ is absolutely (almost) simple, and have checked this for all classical $G$. For some groups it follows from results of [7].

Remark. It is easy to see that when $k$ is a number field every arithmetic (or, more generally, $S$-arithmetic) subgroup of $G(k)$ is full. I believe that, conversely, every full subgroup contains an arithmetic subgroup, and have checked this for all classical $G$.

Remark. Some of our groups $G^{E}(A, B)$ for Chevalley groups $G$ were introduced by Abe [18] and studied by Abe-Suzuki [19].

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