# Classification of complete left-invariant affine structures on the oscillator group* 

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#### Abstract

The goal of this paper is to provide a method, based on the theory of extensions of left-symmetric algebras, for classifying left-invariant affine structures on a given solvable Lie group of low dimension. To illustrate our method better, we shall apply it to classify all complete left-invariant affine structures on the oscillator group.


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## 1. Introduction

It is a well known result (see $[1,19]$ ) that a simply connected Lie group $G$ which admits a complete left-invariant affine structure, or equivalently $G$ acts simply transitively by affine transformations on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, must be solvable. It is also well known that not every solvable (even nilpotent) Lie group can admit an affine structure [3].

The goal of this paper is to provide a method for classifying all complete leftinvariant affine structures on a given solvable Lie group of low dimension. Since the classification has been completely achieved up to dimension four in the nilpotent case (see $[10,14,17]$ ), we will illustrate our method by applying it to the remarkable solvable non-nilpotent 4-dimensional Lie group $O_{4}$ known as the oscillator group. Since complete left-invariant affine structures on a Lie group $G$ are in one-to-one correspondence with complete (in the sense of [22]) left-symmetric structures on its Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}$ [14], we will carry out the classification in terms of complete leftsymmetric structures on the oscillator algebra $\mathcal{O}_{4}$.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we will recall the notion of extensions of Lie algebras and its relationship to the notion of $\mathcal{G}$-kernels. In Section 3, we will give some necessary definitions and basic results on left-symmetric algebras and their extensions. In Section 4, given a complete left-symmetric algebra $A_{4}$ whose associated Lie algebra is $\mathcal{O}_{4}$, we will use the complexification of $A_{4}$ and some results in [5] and [15] to show first that $A_{4}$ is not simple. Precisely, we will show that $A_{4}$ has a proper two-sided ideal whose associated Lie algebra is isomorphic to the
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center $Z\left(\mathcal{O}_{4}\right) \cong \mathbb{R}$ or the commutator ideal $\left[\mathcal{O}_{4}, \mathcal{O}_{4}\right] \cong \mathcal{H}_{3}$ of $\mathcal{O}_{4}$. In the latter case, we will show that the so-called center of $A_{4}$ is nontrivial, and therefore we can get $A_{4}$ as a central extension (in some sense that we will define later) of a complete 3dimensional left-symmetric algebra $A_{3}$ by the trivial left-symmetric algebra $\mathbb{R}$ (i.e., the vector space $\mathbb{R}$ with the trivial left-symmetric product). In Section 5, we will show that in both cases we have a short exact sequence (which turns out to be central) of left-symmetric algebras of the form $0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \xrightarrow{i} A_{4} \xrightarrow{\pi} A_{3} \rightarrow 0$, where here $A_{3}$ is a complete left-symmetric algebra whose Lie algebra is isomorphic to the Lie algebra $\mathcal{E}(2)$ of the group of Euclidean motions of the plane. We will then show that, up to left-symmetric isomorphism, there are only two non-isomorphic complete left-symmetric structures on $\mathcal{E}(2)$, and we will use these to carry out all complete left-symmetric structures on $\mathcal{O}_{4}$. We will see that one of these two leftsymmetric structures on $\mathcal{E}(2)$ yields exactly one complete left-symmetric structure on $\mathcal{O}_{4}$. However, the second one yields a two-parameter family of complete leftsymmetric algebras $A_{4}(s, t)$ whose associated Lie algebra is $\mathcal{O}_{4}$, and the conjugacy class of $A_{4}(s, t)$ is given as follows: $A_{4}\left(s^{\prime}, t^{\prime}\right)$ is isomorphic to $A_{4}(s, t)$ if and only if $\left(s^{\prime}, t^{\prime}\right)=(\alpha s, \pm t)$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{*}$. By using the Lie group exponential maps, we will deduce the classification of all complete left-invariant affine structures on the oscillator group $O_{4}$ in terms of simply transitive actions of subgroups of the affine group $\operatorname{Aff}\left(\mathbb{R}^{4}\right)=G L\left(\mathbb{R}^{4}\right) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^{4}$ (see Theorem 3).

Throughout this paper, all vector spaces, Lie algebras, and left-symmetric algebras are supposed to be over the field $\mathbb{R}$, unless otherwise specified. We shall also suppose that all Lie groups are connected and simply connected.

## 2. Extensions of Lie algebras

The notion of extensions of a Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}$ by an abelian Lie algebra $\mathcal{A}$ is well known (see, for instance, books [8] and [13]). In light of [21], we will briefly describe here the notion of extension $\widetilde{\mathcal{G}}$ of a Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}$ by a Lie algebra $\mathcal{A}$ which is not necessarily abelian.

Suppose that a vector space extension $\widetilde{\mathcal{G}}$ of a Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}$ by another Lie algebra $\mathcal{A}$ is known, and we want to define a Lie structure on $\widetilde{\mathcal{G}}$ in terms of the Lie structures of $\mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{A}$. Let $\sigma: \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \widetilde{\mathcal{G}}$ be a section, that is, a linear map such that $\pi \circ \sigma=i d$. Then the linear map $\Psi:(a, x) \mapsto i(a)+\sigma(x)$ from $\mathcal{A} \oplus \mathcal{G}$ onto $\widetilde{\mathcal{G}}$ is an isomorphism of vector spaces. For $(a, x)$ and $(b, y)$ in $\mathcal{A} \oplus \mathcal{G}$, a commutator on $\widetilde{\mathcal{G}}$ must satisfy

$$
\begin{align*}
{[i(a)+\sigma(x), i(b)+\sigma(y)]=} & i([a, b])+[\sigma(x), i(b)]  \tag{1}\\
& +[i(a), \sigma(y)]+[\sigma(x), \sigma(y)]
\end{align*}
$$

Now we define a linear map $\phi: \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(\mathcal{A})$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi(x) a=[\sigma(x), i(a)] \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, since $\pi([\sigma(x), \sigma(y)])=\pi(\sigma([x, y]))$, it follows that there exists an alternating bilinear map $\omega: \mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ such that $[\sigma(x), \sigma(y)]=\sigma[x, y]+$ $\omega(x, y)$.

To sum up, by means of the isomorphism above, $\widetilde{\mathcal{G}} \cong \mathcal{A} \oplus \mathcal{G}$ and its elements may be denoted by $(a, x)$ with $a \in \mathcal{A}$ and $x$ is simply characterized by its coordinates in $\mathcal{G}$. The commutator defined by (1) is now given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
[(a, x),(b, y)]=([a, b]+\phi(x) b-\phi(y) a+\omega(x, y),[x, y]) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $(a, x) \in \widetilde{\mathcal{G}} \cong \mathcal{A} \oplus \mathcal{G}$.
It is easy to see that this is actually a Lie bracket (i.e, it verifies the Jacobi identity) if and only if the following three conditions are satisfied

1. $\phi(x)[b, c]=[\phi(x) b, c]+[b, \phi(x) c]$,
2. $[\phi(x), \phi(y)]=\phi([x, y])+a d_{\omega(x, y)}$,
3. $\omega([x, y], z)-\omega(x,[y, z])+\omega(y,[x, z])=\phi(x) \omega(y, z)+\phi(y) \omega(z, x)+\phi(z) \omega(x, y)$.

Remark 1. We see that condition (1) above is equivalent to say that $\phi(x)$ is a derivation of $\mathcal{A}$. In other words, $\mathcal{G}$ is actually acting by derivations, that is, $\phi$ : $\mathcal{G} \rightarrow \operatorname{Der}(\mathcal{A})$. Condition (2) indicates clearly that if $\mathcal{A}$ is supposed to be abelian, then $\mathcal{A}$ becomes a $\mathcal{G}$-module in a natural way, because in this case the linear map $\phi: \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \operatorname{Der}(\mathcal{A})$ given by $\phi(x) a=[\sigma(x), i(a)]$ is well defined. Condition (3) is equivalent to the fact that, if $\mathcal{A}$ is abelian, $\omega$ is a 2 -cocycle (i.e., $\delta_{\phi} \omega=0$, where $\delta_{\phi}$ refers to the coboundary operator corresponding to the action $\phi$ ).

If now $\sigma^{\prime}: \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \widetilde{\mathcal{G}}$ is another section, then $\sigma^{\prime}-\sigma=\tau$ for some linear map $\tau: \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$, and it follows that the corresponding morphism and the 2-cocycle are $\phi^{\prime}=\phi+a d \circ \tau$ and $\omega^{\prime}=\omega+\delta_{\phi} \tau+\frac{1}{2}[\tau, \tau]$, respectively, where $a d$ stands here and below (if there is no ambiguity) for the adjoint representation in $\mathcal{A}$, and where $[\tau, \tau]$ has the following meaning: Given two linear maps $\alpha, \beta: \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$, we define $[\alpha, \beta](x, y)=[\alpha(x), \beta(y)]-[\alpha(y), \beta(x)]$. In particular, we have $\frac{1}{2}[\tau, \tau](x, y)=$ $[\tau(x), \tau(y)]$. Note here that the Lie algebra $\mathcal{A}$ is not necessarily abelian. Therefore, $\omega^{\prime}-\omega$ is a 2 -coboundary if and only if $[\tau(x), \tau(y)]=0$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{G}$. Equivalently, $\omega^{\prime}-\omega$ is a 2 -coboundary if and only if $\tau$ has its range in the center $Z(\mathcal{A})$ of $\mathcal{A}$. In that case, we get $\omega^{\prime}-\omega=\delta_{\phi} \tau \in B_{\phi}^{2}(\mathcal{G}, Z(\mathcal{A}))$, the group of 2-coboundaries for $\mathcal{G}$ with values in $Z(\mathcal{A})$.

To overcome all these difficulties, we proceed as follows. Let $C^{2}(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{A})$ be the abelian group of all 2-cochains, i.e., alternating bilinear mappings $\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$. For a given $\phi: \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \operatorname{Der}(\mathcal{A})$, let $T_{\phi} \in C^{2}(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{A})$ be defined by

$$
T_{\phi}(x, y)=[\phi(x), \phi(y)]-\phi([x, y]), \quad \text { for all } x, y \in \mathcal{G}
$$

If there exists some $\omega \in C^{2}(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{A})$ such that $T_{\phi}=a d \circ \omega$ and $\delta_{\phi} \omega=0$, then the pair $(\phi, \omega)$ is called a factor system for $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{A})$. Let $Z^{2}(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{A})$ be the set of all factor systems for $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{A})$. It is well known that the equivalence classes of extensions of a Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}$ by a Lie algebra $\mathcal{A}$ are in one-to-one correspondence with the elements of the quotient space $Z^{2}(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{A}) / C^{1}(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{A})$, where $C^{1}(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{A})$ is the space of linear maps from $\mathcal{G}$ into $\mathcal{A}$ (see, for instance, [21], Theorem II.7). Note that if we assume that $\mathcal{A}$ is abelian, then we meet the well known result (see, for instance, [7]) stating
that for a given action $\phi: \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(\mathcal{A})$, the equivalence classes of extensions of $\mathcal{G}$ by $\mathcal{A}$ are in one-to-one correspondence with the elements of the second cohomology group

$$
H_{\phi}^{2}(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{A})=Z_{\phi}^{2}(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{A}) / B_{\phi}^{2}(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{A})
$$

In the present paper, we will be concerned with the special case where $\mathcal{A}$ is nonabelian and $\mathcal{G}$ is $\mathbb{R}$, and henceforth the cocycle $\omega$ is identically zero.

Remark 2. It is worth noticing that the construction above is closely related to the notion of $\mathcal{G}$-kernels considered for Lie algebras firstly in [20].

## 3. Left-symmetric algebras

The notion of a left-symmetric algebra arises naturally in various areas of mathematics and physics. It originally appeared in the works of Vinberg [23] and Koszul [16] concerning convex homogeneous cones and bounded homogeneous domains, respectively. It also appears, for instance, in connection with Yang-Baxter equation and integrable hydrodynamic systems (cf. [4, 12, 18]). A left-symmetric algebra ( $A,$. ) is a finite-dimensional algebra $A$ in which the products, for all $x, y, z \in A$, satisfy the identity

$$
\begin{equation*}
(x \cdot y) \cdot z-x \cdot(y \cdot z)=(y \cdot x) \cdot z-y \cdot(x \cdot z) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is clear that an associative algebra is a left-symmetric algebra. Actually, if $A$ is a left-symmetric algebra and $(x, y, z)=(x \cdot y) \cdot z-x \cdot(y \cdot z)$ is the associator of $x, y, z$, then we can see that (4) is equivalent to $(x, y, z)=(y, x, z)$. This means that the notion of a left-symmetric algebra is a natural generalization of the notion of an associative algebra. If $A$ is a left-symmetric algebra, then the commutator

$$
\begin{equation*}
[x, y]=x \cdot y-y \cdot x \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

defines the structure of a Lie algebra on $A$, called the associated Lie algebra. Conversely, if $\mathcal{G}$ is a Lie algebra with a left-symmetric product • satisfying (5), then we say that the left-symmetric structure is compatible with the Lie structure on $\mathcal{G}$.

On the other hand, let $G$ be a Lie group with a left-invariant flat affine connection $\nabla$, and define a product • on the Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}$ of $G$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
x \cdot y=\nabla_{x} y, \text { for all } x, y \in \mathcal{G} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, conditions on the connection $\nabla$ for being flat and torsion-free are now equivalent to conditions (4) and (5), respectively. Conversely, suppose that $\mathcal{G}$ is endowed with a left-symmetric product • which is compatible with the Lie bracket of $\mathcal{G}$. In this case, in order to obtain a left-invariant flat affine structure on $G$, we can define an operator $\nabla$ on $\mathcal{G}$ according to identity (6) and then extend it by left-translations to the whole Lie group $G$. To sum up, the left-invariant flat affine structures on $G$ are in one-to-one correspondence with the left-symmetric structures on $\mathcal{G}$ compatible with the Lie structure.

Let now $A$ be a left-symmetric algebra, and let $L_{x}$ and $R_{x}$ be the left and right multiplications by the element $x$, that is, $L_{x} y=x \cdot y$ and $R_{x} y=y \cdot x$. We say that
$A$ is complete if $R_{x}$ is a nilpotent operator, for all $x \in A$. It turns out that, for a given simply connected Lie group $G$ with Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}$, the complete left-invariant flat affine structures on $G$ are in one-to-one correspondence with the complete leftsymmetric structures on $\mathcal{G}$ compatible with the Lie structure (see, for example, [14]). It is also known that an $n$-dimensional simply connected Lie group admits a complete left-invariant flat affine structure if and only if it acts simply transitively on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ by affine transformations (see [14]). A simply connected Lie group acting simply transitively on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ by affine transformations must be solvable according to [1], but it is worth noticing that there exist solvable (even nilpotent) Lie groups which do not admit affine structures (see [3]).

We close this section by fixing some notations which we will use in what follows. For a left-symmetric algebra $A$, we can easily check that the subset

$$
\begin{equation*}
T(A)=\left\{x \in A: L_{x}=0\right\} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a two-sided ideal in $A$. Geometrically, if $G$ is a Lie group which acts simply transitively on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ by affine transformations, then $T(\mathcal{G})$ corresponds to the set of translational elements in $G$, where $\mathcal{G}$ is endowed with the complete left-symmetric product corresponding to the action of $G$ on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. It has been conjectured in [1] that every nilpotent Lie group $G$ which acts simply transitively on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ by affine transformations contains a translation which lies in the center of $G$, but this conjecture turned out to be false (see [9]).

### 3.1. Extensions of left-symmetric algebras

In this section, we will briefly discuss the problem of an extension of a left-symmetric algebras. To our knowledge, this notion has been considered for the first time in [14]. Suppose we are given a vector space $A$ as an extension of a left-symmetric algebra $K$ by another left-symmetric algebra $E$. We want to define a left-symmetric structure on $A$ in terms of the left-symmetric structures given on $K$ and $E$. In other words, we want to define a left-symmetric product on $A$ for which $E$ becomes a two-sided ideal in $A$ such that $A / E \cong K$; or equivalently, $0 \rightarrow E \rightarrow A \rightarrow K \rightarrow 0$ becomes a short exact sequence of left-symmetric algebras.

Theorem 1 (See [14]). There exists a left-symmetric structure on A extending a left-symmetric algebra $K$ by a left-symmetric algebra $E$ if and only if there exist two linear maps $\lambda, \rho: K \rightarrow E n d(E)$ and a bilinear map $g: K \times K \rightarrow E$ such that, for all $x, y, z \in K$ and $a, b \in E$, the following conditions are satisfied.
(i) $\lambda_{x}(a \cdot b)=\lambda_{x}(a) \cdot b+a \cdot \lambda_{x}(b)-\rho_{x}(a) \cdot b$,
(ii) $\rho_{x}([a, b])=a \cdot \rho_{x}(b)-b \cdot \rho_{x}(a)$,
(iii) $\left[\lambda_{x}, \lambda_{y}\right]=\lambda_{[x, y]}+L_{g(x, y)-g(y, x)}$, where $L_{g(x, y)-g(y, x)}$ denotes the left multiplication in $E$ by $g(x, y)-g(y, x)$,
(iv) $\left[\lambda_{x}, \rho_{y}\right]=\rho_{x \cdot y}-\rho_{y} \circ \rho_{x}+R_{g(x, y)}$, where $R_{g(x, y)}$ denotes the right multiplication in $E$ by $g(x, y)$,
(v) $g(x, y \cdot z)-g(y, x \cdot z)+\lambda_{x}(g(y, z))-\lambda_{y}(g(x, z))-g([x, y], z)-\rho_{z}(g(x, y)-$ $g(y, x))=0$.

If the conditions of Theorem 1 are fulfilled, then the extended left-symmetric product on $A \cong K \times E$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
(x, a) \cdot(y, b)=\left(x \cdot y, a \cdot b+\lambda_{x}(b)+\rho_{y}(a)+g(x, y)\right) . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is remarkable that if the left-symmetric product of $E$ is trivial, then the conditions of Theorem 1 simplify to the following three conditions:
(i) $\left[\lambda_{x}, \lambda_{y}\right]=\lambda_{[x, y]}$, i.e., $\lambda$ is a representation of Lie algebras,
(ii) $\left[\lambda_{x}, \rho_{y}\right]=\rho_{x \cdot y}-\rho_{y} \circ \rho_{x}$,
(iii) $g(x, y \cdot z)-g(y, x \cdot z)+\lambda_{x}(g(y, z))-\lambda_{y}(g(x, z))-g([x, y], z)-\rho_{z}(g(x, y)-$ $g(y, x))=0$.

In this case, $E$ becomes a $K$-bimodule and the extended product given in (8) simplifies, too. Recall that if $K$ is a left-symmetric algebra and $V$ is a vector space, then we say that $V$ is a $K$-bimodule if there exist two linear maps $\lambda, \rho: K \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(V)$ which satisfy conditions (i) and (ii) stated above.

Let $K$ be a left-symmetric algebra, and let $V$ be a $K$-bimodule. Let $L^{p}(K, V)$ be the space of all $p$-linear maps from $K$ to $V$, and define two coboundary operators $\delta_{1}: L^{1}(K, V) \rightarrow L^{2}(K, V)$ and $\delta_{2}: L^{2}(K, V) \rightarrow L^{3}(K, V)$ as follows: For a linear map $h \in L^{1}(K, V)$ we set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta_{1} h(x, y)=\rho_{y}(h(x))+\lambda_{x}(h(y))-h(x \cdot y), \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

and for a bilinear map $g \in L^{2}(K, V)$ we set

$$
\begin{align*}
\delta_{2} g(x, y, z)= & g(x, y \cdot z)-g(y, x \cdot z)+\lambda_{x}(g(y, z))-\lambda_{y}(g(x, z))  \tag{10}\\
& -g([x, y], z)-\rho_{z}(g(x, y)-g(y, x)) .
\end{align*}
$$

It is straightforward to check that $\delta_{2} \circ \delta_{1}=0$. Therefore, if we set $Z_{\lambda, \rho}^{2}(K, V)=$ $\operatorname{ker} \delta_{2}$ and $B_{\lambda, \rho}^{2}(K, V)=\operatorname{Im} \delta_{1}$, we can define a notion of second cohomology for the actions $\lambda$ and $\rho$ by simply setting $H_{\lambda, \rho}^{2}(K, V)=Z_{\lambda, \rho}^{2}(K, V) / B_{\lambda, \rho}^{2}(K, V)$. As in the case of extensions of Lie algebras, we can prove that for given linear maps $\lambda, \rho: K \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{End}(V)$, the equivalence classes of extensions $0 \rightarrow V \rightarrow A \rightarrow K \rightarrow 0$ of $K$ by $V$ are in one-to-one correspondence with the elements of the second cohomology group $H_{\lambda, \rho}^{2}(K, V)$. We close this subsection with the following lemma on completeness of left-symmetric algebras (see [6, Proposition 3.4]).

Lemma 1. Let $0 \rightarrow E \rightarrow A \rightarrow K \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence of left-symmetric algebras. Then, $A$ is complete if and only if $E$ and $K$ are so.

### 3.2. Central extensions of left-symmetric algebras

The notion of central extensions known for Lie algebras may analogously be defined for left-symmetric algebras. Let $A$ be a left-symmetric extension of a left-symmetric algebra $K$ by another left-symmetric algebra $E$, and let $\mathcal{G}$ be the Lie algebra associated to $A$. Define the center of $A$ to be $C(A)=T(A) \cap Z(\mathcal{G})$, that is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
C(A)=\{x \in A: x \cdot y=y \cdot x=0, \text { for all } y \in A\} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Z(\mathcal{G})$ is the center of the Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}$ and $T(A)$ is the two-sided ideal of $A$ defined by (7).

Definition 1. The extension $0 \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{i} A \xrightarrow{\pi} K \rightarrow 0$ of left-symmetric algebras is said to be central (resp. exact) if $i(E) \subseteq C(A)$ (resp. $i(E)=C(A)$ ).

Remark 3. It is not difficult to show that if the extension $0 \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{i} A \xrightarrow{\pi} K \rightarrow 0$ is central, then both the left-symmetric product and the $K$-bimodule on $E$ are trivial (i.e., $a \cdot b=0$ for all $a, b \in E$, and $\lambda=\rho=0$ ). It is also easy to show that if $[g]$ is the cohomology class associated to this extension, and if

$$
I_{[g]}=\{x \in K: x \cdot y=y \cdot x=0 \text { and } g(x, y)=g(y, x)=0, \text { for all } y \in K\}
$$

then the extension is exact if and only if $I_{[g]}=0$ (see [14]). We note here that $I_{[g]}$ is well defined because any other element in $[g]$ takes the form $g+\delta_{1} h$, with $\delta_{1} h(x, y)=-h(x \cdot y)$.

Let now $K$ be a left-symmetric algebra, and $E$ a trivial $K$-bimodule. Denote by $(A,[g])$ the central extension $0 \rightarrow E \rightarrow A \rightarrow K \rightarrow 0$ corresponding to the cohomology class $[g] \in H^{2}(K, E)$. Let $(A,[g])$ and $\left(A^{\prime},\left[g^{\prime}\right]\right)$ be two central extensions of $K$ by $E$, and let $\mu \in \operatorname{Aut}(E)=G L(E)$ and $\eta \in \operatorname{Aut}(K)$, where $\operatorname{Aut}(E)$ and Aut ( $K$ ) are the groups of left-symmetric automorphisms of $E$ and $K$, respectively. It is clear that if $h \in L^{1}(K, E)$, then the linear mapping $\psi: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ defined by $\psi(x, a)=(\eta(x), \mu(a)+h(x))$ is an isomorphism provided $g^{\prime}(\eta(x), \eta(y))=$ $\mu(g(x, y))-\delta_{1} h(x, y)$ for all $(x, y) \in K \times K$, i.e. $\eta^{*}\left[g^{\prime}\right]=\mu_{*}[g]$. This allows us to define an action of the group $G=A u t(E) \times A u t(K)$ on $H^{2}(K, E)$ by setting

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\mu, \eta) \cdot[g]=\mu_{*} \eta^{*}[g], \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

or equivalently, $(\mu, \eta) \cdot g(x, y)=\mu(g(\eta(x), \eta(y)))$ for all $x, y \in K$.
Denoting the set of all exact central extensions of $K$ by $E$ by

$$
H_{e x}^{2}(K, E)=\left\{[g] \in H^{2}(K, E): I_{[g]}=0\right\},
$$

and the orbit of $[g]$ by $G_{[g]}$, it turns out that the following result is valid (see [14]).
Proposition 1. Let $[g]$ and $\left[g^{\prime}\right]$ be two classes in $H_{e x}^{2}(K, E)$. Then, the central extensions $(A,[g])$ and $\left(A^{\prime},\left[g^{\prime}\right]\right)$ are isomorphic if and only if $G_{[g]}=G_{\left[g^{\prime}\right]}$. In other words, the classification of the exact central extensions of $K$ by $E$ is, up to leftsymmetric isomorphism, the orbit space of $H_{e x}^{2}(K, E)$ under the natural action of $G=A u t(E) \times A u t(K)$.

### 3.3. Complexification of a real left-symmetric algebra

Let $A$ be a real left-symmetric algebra of dimension $n$, and let $A^{\mathbb{C}}$ denote the real vector space $A \oplus A$. Let $J: A \oplus A \rightarrow A \oplus A$ be the linear map on $A \oplus A$ defined by $J(x, y)=(-y, x)$. For $\alpha+i \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ and $x, x^{\prime}, y, y^{\prime} \in A$, we define

$$
\begin{align*}
(\alpha+i \beta)(x, y) & =(\alpha x-\beta y, \alpha y+\beta x),  \tag{13}\\
(x, y) \cdot\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right) & =\left(x x^{\prime}-y y^{\prime}, x y^{\prime}+y x^{\prime}\right) . \tag{14}
\end{align*}
$$

We endow the set $A^{\mathbb{C}}$ with the componentwise addition, multiplication by complex numbers defined by (13), and the product defined by (14). It is then straightforward to verify that $A^{\mathbb{C}}$, when endowed with the product defined by (14), becomes a complex left-symmetric algebra called the complexification of $A$. The left-symmetric algebra $A$ can be identified with the set of elements in $A^{\mathbb{C}}$ of the form $(x, 0)$, where $x \in A$. If $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$ is a basis of $A$, then the elements $\left(e_{1}, 0\right), \ldots,\left(e_{n}, 0\right)$ form a basis of the complex vector space $A^{\mathbb{C}}$. It follows that $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{C}}\left(A^{\mathbb{C}}\right)=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{R}}(A)$.

Since $A^{\mathbb{C}}$ is a left-symmetric algebra, we know that the commutator $\left[(x, y),\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)\right]$ $=(x, y) \cdot\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)-\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right) \cdot(x, y)$ defines a Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}^{\mathbb{C}}$ on $A^{\mathbb{C}}$. Computing this commutator, we get the following lemma.

Lemma 2. The complex Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}^{\mathbb{C}}$ associated to the complex left-symmetric algebra $A^{\mathbb{C}}$ is isomorphic to the complexification of the Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}$ associated to the left-symmetric algebra $A$.

Therefore, if $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$ is a basis of $A$, then the elements $\left(e_{1}, 0\right), \ldots,\left(e_{n}, 0\right)$ form a basis of $\mathcal{G}^{\mathbb{C}}$, and the structural constants of $\mathcal{G}^{\mathbb{C}}$ are real since they coincide with the structural constants of $\mathcal{G}$ in the basis $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$.

## 4. Left-symmetric structures on the oscillator algebra

Recall that the Heisenberg group $H_{3}$ is the 3-dimensional Lie group diffeomorphic to $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{C}$ with the group law

$$
\left(v_{1}, z_{1}\right) \cdot\left(v_{2}, z_{2}\right)=\left(v_{1}+v_{2}+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Im}\left(\overline{z_{1}} z_{2}\right), z_{1}+z_{2}\right)
$$

for all $v_{1}, v_{2} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $z_{1}, z_{2} \in \mathbb{C}$. Let $\lambda>0$, and let $G=\mathbb{R} \ltimes H_{3}$ be equipped with the group law

$$
\left(t_{1}, v_{1}, z_{1}\right) \cdot\left(t_{2}, v_{2}, z_{2}\right)=\left(t_{1}+t_{2}, v_{1}+v_{2}+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Im}\left(\overline{z_{1}} z_{2} e^{i \lambda t_{1}}\right), z_{1}+z_{2} e^{i \lambda t_{1}}\right)
$$

for all $t_{1}, t_{2} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\left(v_{1}, z_{1}\right),\left(v_{2}, z_{2}\right) \in H_{3}$. This is a 4-dimensional Lie group with Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}$ having a basis $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}, e_{4}\right\}$ such that

$$
\left[e_{1}, e_{2}\right]=e_{3},\left[e_{4}, e_{1}\right]=\lambda e_{2},\left[e_{4}, e_{2}\right]=-\lambda e_{1}
$$

and all the other brackets are zero. It follows that the derived series is given by

$$
\mathcal{D}^{1} \mathcal{G}=[\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{G}]=\operatorname{span}\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}\right\}, \mathcal{D}^{2} \mathcal{G}=\operatorname{span}\left\{e_{3}\right\}, \mathcal{D}^{3} \mathcal{G}=\{0\}
$$

and therefore $\mathcal{G}$ is a (non-nilpotent) 3 -step solvable Lie algebra. When $\lambda=1, G$ is known as the oscillator group. We will denote it by $O_{4}$, and we shall denote its Lie algebra by $\mathcal{O}_{4}$ and call it the oscillator algebra.

From now on, $A_{4}$ will be a complete real left-symmetric algebra whose associated Lie algebra is $\mathcal{O}_{4}$. We begin by proving the following proposition which will be crucial to the classification of complete left-symmetric structures on $\mathcal{O}_{4}$.

Proposition 2. $A_{4}$ is not simple (i.e., $A_{4}$ contains a proper two-sided ideal).
Proof. Assume to the contrary that $A_{4}$ is simple, and let $A_{4}^{\mathbb{C}}$ be its complexification. By [15], Lemma 2.10, it follows that $A_{4}^{\mathbb{C}}$ is either simple or a direct sum of two simple ideals having the same dimension. If $A_{4}^{\mathbb{C}}$ is simple, then we can apply Proposition 5.1 in [5] to deduce that, being simple and complete, $A_{4}^{\mathbb{C}}$ is necessarily isomorphic to the complex left-symmetric algebra $B_{4}$ having a basis $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}, e_{4}\right\}$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& e_{1} \cdot e_{2}=e_{2} \cdot e_{1}=e_{4}, e_{2} \cdot e_{3}=2 e_{1}, \\
& e_{3} \cdot e_{2}=e_{4} \cdot e_{1}=e_{1}, e_{4} \cdot e_{2}=-e_{2}, e_{4} \cdot e_{3}=2 e_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

and all other products are zero. It follows that the Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}_{4}$ associated to $B_{4}$ admits a basis $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}, e_{4}\right\}$ such that

$$
\left[e_{2}, e_{3}\right]=\left[e_{4}, e_{1}\right]=e_{1}, \quad\left[e_{2}, e_{4}\right]=e_{2}, \quad\left[e_{3}, e_{4}\right]=-2 e_{3}
$$

This leads to a contradiction since, according to Lemma 2, $\mathcal{G}_{4}$ should be isomorphic to the complexification of the Lie algebra $\mathcal{O}_{4}$, but this is obviously not the case. This contradiction shows that $A_{4}^{\mathbb{C}}$ cannot be simple.

If $A_{4}^{\mathbb{C}}$ is a direct sum of two simple ideals having the same dimension, say $A_{4}^{\mathbb{C}}=$ $A_{1} \oplus A_{2}$, it follows that $\operatorname{dim} A_{1}=\operatorname{dim} A_{2}=\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{dim} A_{4}^{\mathbb{C}}=2$. In this case, by Corollary 4.1 in [5], $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ are both isomorphic to the unique two-dimensional complex simple left-symmetric algebra having a basis

$$
B_{2}=\left\langle e_{1}, e_{2}: e_{1} \cdot e_{1}=2 e_{1}, e_{1} \cdot e_{2}=e_{2}, e_{2} \cdot e_{2}=e_{1}\right\rangle
$$

This is a contradiction, since $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ are complete but $B_{2}$ is not. This contradiction shows that $A_{4}^{\mathbb{C}}$ cannot be direct sum of two simple ideals. We deduce that $A_{4}$ is not simple, and this completes the proof of the proposition.

Before we return to the algebra $A_{4}$, we need to give the following lemmas.
Lemma 3. Let $A$ be a left-symmetric algebra with Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}$, and $R$ a two-sided ideal in $A$. Then, the Lie algebra $\mathcal{R}$ associated to $R$ is an ideal in $\mathcal{G}$.

Proof. Let $x \in \mathcal{R}$ and $y \in \mathcal{G}$. Since $R$ is a two-sided ideal, then $x \cdot y$ and $y \cdot x$ belong to $R$. It follows that $[x, y]=x \cdot y-y \cdot x \in R$, and therefore $\mathcal{R}$ is an ideal in $\mathcal{G}$.

Lemma 4. The oscillator algebra $\mathcal{O}_{4}$ contains only two proper ideals which are $Z\left(\mathcal{O}_{4}\right) \cong \mathbb{R}$ and $\left[\mathcal{O}_{4}, \mathcal{O}_{4}\right] \cong \mathcal{H}_{3}$.

Proof. It is clear that $\mathcal{Z}\left(\mathcal{O}_{4}\right) \cong \mathbb{R}$ and $\left[\mathcal{O}_{4}, \mathcal{O}_{4}\right] \cong \mathcal{H}_{3}$ are proper ideals in $\mathcal{O}_{4}$. If $\mathcal{I}$ is a proper ideal in $\mathcal{O}_{4}$, then $\mathcal{I}$ should be unimodular. If $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{I})=1$, then $\mathcal{I}$ is isomorphic to $\mathcal{Z}\left(\mathcal{O}_{4}\right) \cong \mathbb{R}$. If $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{I})=2$, then being unimodular, $\mathcal{I}$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. In particular, $\mathcal{I}$ contains $\mathcal{Z}\left(\mathcal{O}_{4}\right)$ and thus $\mathcal{O}_{4} / \mathcal{I}$ is abelian, a contradiction since $\mathcal{O}_{4}$ is not nilpotent. Hence, $\mathcal{O}_{4}$ contains no two-dimensional ideals. If $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{I})=3$, then being unimodular and solvable, $\mathcal{I}$ is isomorphic to either $\mathcal{H}_{3}$, the Lie algebra $\mathcal{E}(2)$ of the group of the rigid motions of the plane, or the Lie algebra $\mathcal{E}(1,1)$ of the group of the rigid motions of the Minkowski plane. However, it is straightforward to show that $\mathcal{O}_{4}$ cannot be obtained as an extension of $\mathcal{E}(2)$ or $\mathcal{E}(1,1)$. We have therefore proved the lemma.

By the above proposition, $A_{4}$ is not simple and hence it has a proper two-sided ideal $I$, so we get a short exact sequence of complete left-symmetric algebras

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow I \xrightarrow{i} A_{4} \xrightarrow{\pi} J \rightarrow 0 \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

In fact, according to Lemma 1 , the completeness of $I$ and $J$ comes from that of $A_{4}$. If $\mathcal{I}$ is the Lie subalgebra associated to $I$ then, by Lemma $3, \mathcal{I}$ is an ideal in $\mathcal{O}_{4}$. From Lemma 4, it follows that there are two cases to consider according to whether $\mathcal{I}$ is isomorphic to $\mathcal{H}_{3}$ or $\mathbb{R}$. Next, we will focus on the case where $\mathcal{I}$ is isomorphic to $\mathcal{H}_{3} \cong\left[\mathcal{O}_{4}, \mathcal{O}_{4}\right]$. In this case, the short exact sequence (15) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow I_{3} \xrightarrow{i} A_{4} \xrightarrow{\pi} I_{0} \rightarrow 0, \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $I_{3}$ is a complete 3 -dimensional left-symmetric algebra whose Lie algebra is $\mathcal{H}_{3}$, and $I_{0}=\left\{e_{0}: e_{0} \cdot e_{0}=0\right\}$ the trivial one-dimensional real left-symmetric algebra. It is easy to prove the following proposition (cf. [10, Theorem 3.5]).

Proposition 3. Up to left-symmetric isomorphism, the complete left-symmetric structures on the Heisenberg algebra $\mathcal{H}_{3}$ are classified as follows: There is a basis $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{H}_{3}$ relative to which the left-symmetric product is given by one of the following classes:
(i) $e_{1} \cdot e_{1}=p e_{3}, e_{2} \cdot e_{2}=q e_{3}, e_{1} \cdot e_{2}=\frac{1}{2} e_{3}, e_{2} \cdot e_{1}=-\frac{1}{2} e_{3}$, where $p, q \in \mathbb{R}$.
(ii) $e_{1} \cdot e_{2}=m e_{3}, e_{2} \cdot e_{1}=(m-1) e_{3}, e_{2} \cdot e_{2}=e_{1}$, where $m \in \mathbb{R}$.

Remark 4. It is noticeable that the left-symmetric products on $\mathcal{H}_{3}$ belonging to class (i) in Proposition 3 are obtained by central extensions (in the sense of fixed in Subsection 3.1) of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ endowed with some complete left-symmetric structure by $I_{0}$. However, the left-symmetric products on $A_{3}$ belonging to class (ii) are obtained by central extensions of the non-abelian two-dimensional Lie algebra $\mathcal{G}_{2}$ endowed with its unique complete left-symmetric structure by $I_{0}$.

Now we return to the short exact sequence (16). First, let $\sigma: I_{0} \rightarrow A_{4}$ be a section, and set $\sigma\left(e_{0}\right)=x_{0} \in A_{4}$. Define two linear maps $\lambda, \rho \in \operatorname{End}\left(I_{3}\right)$ by putting $\lambda(y)=x_{0} \cdot y$ and $\rho(y)=y \cdot x_{0}$, and put $e=x_{0} \cdot x_{0}$ (clearly $e \in I_{3}$ ). Let $g: I_{0} \times I_{0} \rightarrow I_{3}$ be the bilinear map defined by $g\left(e_{0}, e_{0}\right)=e$. It is obvious, using the notation of Subsection 3.1, to verify that $\delta_{2} g=0$, i.e. $g \in Z_{\lambda, \rho}^{2}\left(I_{0}, I_{3}\right)$. The extended
left-symmetric product on $I_{3} \oplus I_{0}$ given by (8) turns out to take the simplified form $\left(x, a e_{0}\right) \cdot\left(y, b e_{0}\right)=(x \cdot y+a \lambda(y)+b \rho(x)+a b e, 0)$, for all $x, y \in I_{3}$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. The conditions in Theorem 1 can be simplified to the following conditions:

$$
\begin{align*}
\lambda(x \cdot y) & =\lambda(x) \cdot y+x \cdot \lambda(y)-\rho(x) \cdot y  \tag{17}\\
\rho([x, y]) & =x \cdot \rho(y)-y \cdot \rho(x)  \tag{18}\\
{[\lambda, \rho]+\rho^{2} } & =R_{e} \tag{19}
\end{align*}
$$

Let $\phi: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}\left(\mathcal{H}_{3}\right)$ be the linear map defined by formula (2). As we mentioned in Remark 1, $\mathbb{R}$ acts on $\mathcal{H}_{3}$ by derivations, that is, $\phi: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \operatorname{Der}\left(\mathcal{H}_{3}\right)$. In particular, we deduce in view of (3) that $\lambda=D+\rho$ for some derivation $D$ of $\mathcal{H}_{3}$. The derivations of $\mathcal{H}_{3}$ are given by the following lemma, whose proof is straightforward and is therefore omitted.

Lemma 5. In a basis $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{H}_{3}$ satisfying $\left[e_{1}, e_{2}\right]=e_{3}$, a derivation $D$ of $\mathcal{H}_{3}$ takes the form

$$
D=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
a_{1} & b_{1} & 0 \\
a_{2} & b_{2} & 0 \\
a_{3} & b_{3} & a_{1}+b_{2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

On the other hand, observe that $\left(x, a e_{0}\right) \in T\left(A_{4}\right)$ if and only if $\left(x, a e_{0}\right) \cdot\left(y, b e_{0}\right)=$ $(0,0)$ for all $\left(y, b e_{0}\right) \in I_{3} \oplus I_{0}$, or equivalently, $x \cdot y+a \lambda(y)+b \rho(x)+a b e=0$ for all $\left(y, b e_{0}\right) \in I_{3} \oplus I_{0}$. Since $y$ and $b$ are arbitrary, we conclude that this is also equivalent to say that $\left(L_{x}\right)_{\left.\right|_{A_{3}}}=-a \lambda$ and $\rho(x)=-a e$. In particular, an element $x \in I_{3}$ belongs to $T\left(A_{4}\right)$ if and only if $\left(L_{x}\right)_{\left.\right|_{I_{3}}}=0$ and $\rho(x)=0$, or equivalently,

$$
\begin{equation*}
I_{3} \cap T\left(A_{4}\right)=T\left(I_{3}\right) \cap \operatorname{ker} \rho \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

The following lemma will be crucial for the next section.
Lemma 6. The center $C\left(A_{4}\right)=T\left(A_{4}\right) \cap Z\left(\mathcal{O}_{4}\right)$ is non-trivial.
Proof. In view of Proposition 3, we have to consider two cases.
Case 1. Assume that there is a basis $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{H}_{3}$ relative to which the left-symmetric product of $I_{3}$ is given by : $e_{1} \cdot e_{1}=p e_{3}, e_{2} \cdot e_{2}=q e_{3}, e_{1} \cdot e_{2}=\frac{1}{2} e_{3}$, $e_{2} \cdot e_{1}=-\frac{1}{2} e_{3}$, where $p, q \in \mathbb{R}$. Substituting $x=e_{1}$ and $y=e_{2}$ into (18), we find that the operator $\rho$ takes the form

$$
\rho=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\alpha_{1} & \beta_{1} & 0 \\
\alpha_{2} & \beta_{2} & 0 \\
\alpha_{3} & \beta_{3} & \gamma_{3}
\end{array}\right)
$$

with $\gamma_{3}=p \beta_{1}-q \alpha_{2}+\frac{1}{2}\left(\alpha_{1}+\beta_{2}\right)$. Since $\lambda=D+\rho$ for some $D \in \mathcal{H}_{3}$, we use Lemma 5 to deduce that

$$
\lambda=\left(\begin{array}{lc}
\alpha_{1}+a_{1} \beta_{1}+b_{1} & 0 \\
\alpha_{2}+a_{2} \beta_{2}+b_{2} & 0 \\
\alpha_{3}+a_{3} \beta_{3}+b_{3} \gamma_{3}+a_{1}+b_{2}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Since $\left(L_{e_{3}}\right)_{I_{I_{3}}}=0$ and $e \in I_{3}$, then (19), when applied to $e_{3}$, gives

$$
\gamma_{3}^{2} e_{3}=e_{3} \cdot e=0
$$

from which we get $\gamma_{3}=0$, i.e., $\rho\left(e_{3}\right)=0$. It follows from (20) that $e_{3} \in T\left(A_{4}\right)$. Since $Z\left(\mathcal{O}_{4}\right)=\mathbb{R} e_{3}$, we deduce that $C\left(A_{4}\right)=T\left(A_{4}\right) \cap Z\left(\mathcal{O}_{4}\right) \neq 0$, as required.

Case 2. Assume now that there is a basis $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{H}_{3}$ relative to which the left-symmetric product of $I_{3}$ is given by : $e_{1} \cdot e_{2}=m e_{3}, e_{2} \cdot e_{1}=(m-1) e_{3}$, $e_{2} \cdot e_{2}=e_{1}$, where $m$ is a real number.

Substituting successively $x=e_{1}, y=e_{2}$ and $x=e_{2}, y=e_{3}$ into equation (18), we find that the operator $\rho$ takes the form

$$
\rho=\left(\begin{array}{lc}
\alpha_{1} \beta_{1} & -\alpha_{2}  \tag{21}\\
\alpha_{2} \beta_{2} & 0 \\
\alpha_{3} \beta_{3} & m \beta_{2}
\end{array}-(m-1) \alpha_{1} .()\right.
$$

with $(m-1) \alpha_{2}=0$.
We claim that $\alpha_{2}=0$. To prove this, let us assume to the contrary that $\alpha_{2} \neq 0$. It follows that $m=1$, and therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
\rho\left(e_{3}\right) & =-\alpha_{2} e_{1}+\beta_{2} e_{3} \\
\rho^{2}\left(e_{3}\right) & =-\alpha_{2}\left(\alpha_{1}+\beta_{2}\right) e_{1}-\alpha_{2}^{2} e_{2}+\left(\beta_{2}^{2}-\alpha_{2} \alpha_{3}\right) e_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\alpha_{2} \neq 0$, we deduce that $e_{3}, \rho\left(e_{3}\right), \rho^{2}\left(e_{3}\right)$ form a basis of $I_{3}$. Since $\rho$ is nilpotent (by completeness of the left-symmetric structure), it follows that $\rho^{3}\left(e_{3}\right)=$ 0 . In other words, $\rho$ has the form

$$
\rho=\left(\begin{array}{rrr}
0 & 0 & 1 \\
-1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right),
$$

with respect to the basis $e_{1}^{\prime}=-\rho\left(e_{3}\right), e_{2}^{\prime}=\rho^{2}\left(e_{3}\right), e_{3}^{\prime}=-e_{3}$.
Using the fact that $\alpha_{1}+2 \beta_{2}=0$ which follows from the identity $\rho^{3}\left(e_{3}\right)=0$, we see that $e_{1}^{\prime} \cdot e_{2}^{\prime}=\alpha_{2}^{3} e_{3}^{\prime}, e_{2}^{\prime} \cdot e_{2}^{\prime}=\alpha_{2}^{3} e_{1}^{\prime}$, and all other products are zero.

For simplicity, assume without loss of generality that $\alpha_{2}=1$. Since $\lambda=D+\rho$ for some $D \in \mathcal{H}_{3}$, Lemma 5 tells us that, with respect to the basis $e_{1}^{\prime}, e_{2}^{\prime}, e_{3}^{\prime}$, the operator $\lambda$ takes the form

$$
\lambda=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
a_{1} & b_{1} & 1 \\
a_{2}-1 & b_{2} & 0 \\
a_{3} & b_{3} & a_{1}+b_{2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Applying formula (19) to $e_{3}^{\prime}$ and recalling that $e_{3}^{\prime} \cdot e=0$ since $\mathbf{e} \in I_{3}$, we deduce that $a_{2}=1$ and $b_{2}=a_{3}=0$. Then, substituting $x=y=e_{2}^{\prime}$ into equation (17), we get $a_{1}=b_{1}=0$. Thus, the form of $\lambda$ reduces to

$$
\lambda=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & b_{3} & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

Now, by setting $\mathbf{e}=a e_{1}+b e_{2}+c e_{3}$ and applying (19) to $e_{1}$, we get that $b_{3}=-b$. By using (8), we deduce that the nonzero left-symmetric products are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& e_{1}^{\prime} \cdot e_{2}^{\prime}=e_{3}^{\prime}, \quad e_{2}^{\prime} \cdot e_{2}^{\prime}=e_{1}^{\prime} \\
& e_{1}^{\prime} \cdot e_{4}^{\prime}=-e_{2}^{\prime}, \quad e_{4}^{\prime} \cdot e_{2}^{\prime}=-b e_{3}^{\prime} \\
& e_{3}^{\prime} \cdot e_{4}^{\prime}=e_{4}^{\prime} \cdot e_{3}^{\prime}=e_{1}^{\prime}, \quad e_{4}^{\prime} \cdot e_{4}^{\prime}=\mathbf{e}
\end{aligned}
$$

This implies, in particular, that $\operatorname{dim}\left[\mathcal{O}_{4}, \mathcal{O}_{4}\right]=\operatorname{dim}\left[A_{4}, A_{4}\right]=2$, a contradiction. It follows that $\alpha_{2}=0$, as desired.

We now return to (21). Since $\alpha_{2}=0$, we have

$$
\rho=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\alpha_{1} & \beta_{1} & 0 \\
0 & \beta_{2} & 0 \\
\alpha_{3} & \beta_{3} & m \beta_{2}
\end{array}-(m-1) \alpha_{1} .(\right.
$$

and since $\lambda=D+\rho$ for some $D \in \mathcal{H}_{3}$ then, in view of Lemma 5 , the operator $\lambda$ takes the form

$$
\lambda=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\alpha_{1}+a_{1} & \beta_{1}+b_{1} & 0 \\
a_{2} & \beta_{2}+b_{2} & 0 \\
\alpha_{3}+a_{3} & \beta_{3}+b_{3} & a_{1}+b_{2}+m \beta_{2}-(m-1) \alpha_{1}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Once again, by applying (19) to $e_{3}$ and recalling that $e_{3} \cdot e=0$ since $\mathbf{e} \in I_{3}$, we deduce that $\left(m \beta_{2}-(m-1) \alpha_{1}\right)^{2}=0$, thereby showing that $\rho\left(e_{3}\right)=0$. Now, in view of $(20)$ we get $e_{3} \in T\left(A_{4}\right)$, and since $Z\left(\mathcal{O}_{4}\right)=\mathbb{R} e_{3}$ we deduce that $C\left(A_{4}\right)=$ $T\left(A_{4}\right) \cap Z\left(\mathcal{O}_{4}\right) \neq 0$, as desired. This completes the proof of the lemma.

## 5. Classification

We know from Section 4 that $A_{4}$ has a proper two-sided ideal $I$ which is isomorphic to either the trivial one-dimensional real left-symmetric algebra $I_{0}=\left\{e_{0}: e_{0} \cdot e_{0}=0\right\}$ or a 3 -dimensional left-symmetric algebra $I_{3}$ (as described in Proposition 3) whose associated Lie algebra is the Heisenberg algebra $\mathcal{H}_{3}$. In the case where $I \cong I_{3}$, we know by Lemma 6 that $C\left(A_{4}\right) \neq\{0\}$. Since in our situation $\operatorname{dim} Z\left(\mathcal{O}_{4}\right)=1$, it follows that $C\left(A_{4}\right) \cong I_{0}$, so that we have a central short exact sequence of leftsymmetric algebras of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow I_{0} \rightarrow A_{4} \rightarrow I_{3} \rightarrow 0 \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

In general, one has that the center of a left-symmetric algebra is a part of the center of the associated Lie algebra, and therefore the following lemma is proved.

Lemma 7. The Lie algebra associated to $I_{3}$ is isomorphic to the Lie algebra $\mathcal{E}$ (2) of the group of Euclidean motions of the plane.

Recall that $\mathcal{E}(2)$ is solvable non-nilpotent and has a basis $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}\right\}$ which satisfies $\left[e_{1}, e_{2}\right]=e_{3}$ and $\left[e_{1}, e_{3}\right]=-e_{2}$.

In the case where $I \cong I_{0}$, we know by Lemma 3 that the associated Lie algebra is $\mathcal{I} \cong \mathbb{R}$. Since, by Lemma $4, \mathcal{O}_{4}$ has only two proper ideals which are $Z\left(\mathcal{O}_{4}\right) \cong \mathbb{R}$ and
$\left[\mathcal{O}_{4}, \mathcal{O}_{4}\right] \cong \mathcal{H}_{3}$, it follows that $\mathcal{I} \cong \mathbb{R}$ coincides with the center $Z\left(\mathcal{O}_{4}\right)$. We deduce from this that, if $\mathcal{J}$ denotes the Lie algebra of the left-symmetric algebra $J$ in the short exact sequence (15), then $\mathcal{J}$ is isomorphic to $\mathcal{E}(2)$. Therefore, we have a short sequence of left-symmetric algebras which looks like (22), except that it would not necessarily be central. But, as we will see a little later, this is necessarily a central extension (i.e., $I \cong C\left(A_{4}\right) \cong I_{0}$ ).

To summarize, each complete left-symmetric structure on $\mathcal{O}_{4}$ may be obtained by an extension of a complete 3 -dimensional left-symmetric algebra $A_{3}$ whose associated Lie algebra is $\mathcal{E}(2)$ by $I_{0}$. Next, we shall determine all the complete left-symmetric structures on $\mathcal{E}(2)$. These are described by the following lemma that we state without proof (see [10], Theorem 4.1).

Lemma 8. Up to left-symmetric isomorphism, any complete left-symmetric structure on $\mathcal{E}(2)$ is isomorphic to the following one which is given in a basis $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{E}(2)$ by the relations $e_{1} \cdot e_{2}=e_{3}, e_{1} \cdot e_{3}=-e_{2}, e_{2} \cdot e_{2}=e_{3} \cdot e_{3}=\varepsilon e_{1}$.

There are exactly two non-isomorphic conjugacy classes according to whether $\varepsilon=0$ or $\varepsilon \neq 0$.

From now on, $A_{3}$ will denote the vector space $\mathcal{E}(2)$ endowed with one of the complete left-symmetric structures described in Lemma 8. The extended Lie bracket on $\mathcal{E}(2) \oplus \mathbb{R}$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
[(x, a),(y, b)]=([x, y], \omega(x, y)) \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\omega \in Z^{2}(\mathcal{E}(2), \mathbb{R})$. The extended left-symmetric product on $A_{3} \oplus I_{0}$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x, a e_{0}\right) \cdot\left(y, b e_{0}\right)=\left(x \cdot y, b \lambda_{x}\left(e_{0}\right)+a \rho_{y}\left(e_{0}\right)+g(x, y)\right), \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\lambda, \rho: A_{3} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}\left(I_{0}\right)$ and $g \in Z_{\lambda, \rho}^{2}\left(A_{3}, I_{0}\right)$.
As we have noticed in Section $3, I_{0}$ is an $A_{3}$-bimodule, or equivalently, the conditions in Theorem 1 simplify to the following conditions:
(i) $\lambda_{[x, y]}=0$,
(ii) $\rho_{x \cdot y}=\rho_{y} \circ \rho_{x}$,
(iii) $g(x, y \cdot z)-g(y, x \cdot z)+\lambda_{x}(g(y, z))-\lambda_{y}(g(x, z))-g([x, y], z)-\rho_{z}(g(x, y)-$ $g(y, x))=0$.

By using (23) and (24), we deduce from $[(x, a),(y, b)]=\left(x, a e_{0}\right) \cdot\left(y, b e_{0}\right)-\left(y, b e_{0}\right)$. ( $x, a e_{0}$ ) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\omega(x, y)=g(x, y)-g(y, x) \text { and } \lambda=\rho . \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

By applying identity (ii) above to $e_{i} \cdot e_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq 3$, we deduce that $\rho=0$, and a fortiori $\lambda=0$. In other words, the extension $A_{4}$ is always central (i.e., $I \cong C\left(A_{4}\right)$ even in the case where $\mathcal{I} \cong \mathbb{R}$ ). In fact, we have

Claim 1. The extension $0 \rightarrow I_{0} \rightarrow A_{4} \rightarrow A_{3} \rightarrow 0$ is exact.

Proof. We recall from Subsection 3.1 that the extension given by the short sequence (22) is exact, i.e., $i\left(I_{0}\right)=C\left(A_{4}\right)$, if and only if $I_{[g]}=0$, where

$$
I_{[g]}=\left\{x \in A_{3}: x \cdot y=y \cdot x=0 \text { and } g(x, y)=g(y, x)=0, \text { for all } y \in A_{3}\right\} .
$$

To show that $I_{[g]}=0$, let $x$ be an arbitrary element in $I_{[g]}$, and put $x=a e_{1}+b e_{2}+$ $c e_{3} \in I_{[g]}$. Now, by computing all the products $x \cdot e_{i}=e_{i} \cdot x=0,1 \leq i \leq 3$, we easily deduce that $x=0$.

Our aim is to classify complete left-symmetric structures on $\mathcal{O}_{4}$, up to leftsymmetric isomorphisms. By Proposition 1, the classification of exact central extensions of $A_{3}$ by $I_{0}$ is nothing but the orbit space of $H_{e x}^{2}\left(A_{3}, I_{0}\right)$ under the natural action of $G=\operatorname{Aut}\left(I_{0}\right) \times \operatorname{Aut}\left(A_{3}\right)$. Accordingly, we must compute $H_{e x}^{2}\left(A_{3}, I_{0}\right)$. Since $I_{0}$ is a trivial $A_{3}$-bimodule, we see first from (9) and (10) that the coboundary operator $\delta$ simplifies as follows:

$$
\delta_{1} h(x, y)=-h(x \cdot y), \quad \delta_{2} g(x, y, z)=g(x, y \cdot z)-g(y, x \cdot z)-g([x, y], z),
$$

where $h \in L^{1}\left(A_{3}, I_{0}\right)$ and $g \in L^{2}\left(A_{3}, I_{0}\right)$.
In view of Lemma 8 , there are two cases to be considered.
Case 1. $A_{3}=\left\langle e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}: e_{1} \cdot e_{2}=e_{3}, e_{1} \cdot e_{3}=-e_{2}\right\rangle$.
In this case, using the first formula above for $\delta_{1}$, we get

$$
\delta_{1} h=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & h_{12} & h_{13} \\
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right),
$$

where $h_{12}=-h\left(e_{3}\right)$ and $h_{13}=h\left(e_{2}\right)$. Similarly, using the second formula above for $\delta_{2}$, we verify easily that if $g$ is a cocycle (i.e. $\delta_{2} g=0$ ) and $g_{i j}=g\left(e_{i}, e_{j}\right)$, then

$$
g=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
g_{11} & g_{12} & g_{13} \\
0 & g_{22} & g_{23} \\
0 & -g_{23} & g_{22}
\end{array}\right)
$$

that is, $g_{21}=g_{31}=0, g_{32}=-g_{23}$, and $g_{33}=g_{22}$. We deduce that, in the basis above, the class $[g] \in H^{2}\left(A_{3}, \mathbb{R}\right)$ of a cocycle $g$ takes the simplified form

$$
g=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\alpha & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \beta & \gamma \\
0 & -\gamma & \beta
\end{array}\right)
$$

We can now determine the extended left-symmetric structure on $A_{4}$. By setting $\widetilde{e}_{i}=\left(e_{i}, 0\right), 1 \leq i \leq 3$, and $\widetilde{e}_{4}=(0,1)$, and using formula (24) which (since $\lambda=\rho=0$ ) reduces to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x, a e_{0}\right) \cdot\left(y, b e_{0}\right)=(x \cdot y, g(x, y)), \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

we obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
& \widetilde{e}_{1} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{1}=\alpha \widetilde{e}_{4}, \widetilde{e}_{2} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{2}=\widetilde{e}_{3} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{3}=\beta \widetilde{e}_{4} \\
& \widetilde{e}_{1} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{2}=\widetilde{e}_{3}, \widetilde{e}_{1} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{3}=-\widetilde{e}_{2},  \tag{27}\\
& \widetilde{e}_{2} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{3}=\gamma \widetilde{e}_{4}, \quad \widetilde{e}_{3} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{2}=-\gamma \widetilde{e}_{4},
\end{align*}
$$

and all the other products are zero. We observe here that we should have $\gamma \neq 0$, given that the underlying Lie algebra is $\mathcal{O}_{4}$. We denote by $A_{4}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ the Lie algebra $\mathcal{O}_{4}$ endowed with the above complete left-symmetric product.

Let now $A_{4}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ and $A_{4}\left(\alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime}\right)$ be two arbitrary left-symmetric structures on $\mathcal{O}_{4}$ given as above, and let $[g]$ and $\left[g^{\prime}\right]$ be the corresponding classes in $H_{e x}^{2}\left(A_{3}, I_{0}\right)$. By Proposition 1, we know that $A_{4}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ is isomorphic to $A_{4}\left(\alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime}\right)$ if and only if the exists $(\mu, \eta) \in \operatorname{Aut}\left(I_{0}\right) \times \operatorname{Aut}\left(A_{3}\right)$ such that for all $x, y \in A_{3}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{\prime}(x, y)=\mu(g(\eta(x), \eta(y))) . \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

We shall first determine $\operatorname{Aut}\left(I_{0}\right) \times \operatorname{Aut}\left(A_{3}\right)$. We have $\operatorname{Aut}\left(I_{0}\right) \cong \mathbb{R}^{*}$, and it is easy too to determine $A u t\left(A_{3}\right)$. Indeed, recall that the unique left-symmetric structure of $A_{3}$ is given by $e_{1} \cdot e_{2}=e_{3}, \quad e_{1} \cdot e_{3}=-e_{2}$, and let $\eta \in \operatorname{Aut}\left(A_{3}\right)$ be given in the basis $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}\right\}$ by

$$
\eta=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
a_{1} & b_{1} & c_{1} \\
a_{2} & b_{2} & c_{2} \\
a_{3} & b_{3} & c_{3}
\end{array}\right)
$$

From the identity $\eta\left(e_{3}\right)=\eta\left(e_{1} \cdot e_{2}\right)=\eta\left(e_{1}\right) \cdot \eta\left(e_{2}\right)$, we get $c_{1}=0, c_{2}=-a_{1} b_{3}$, and $c_{3}=a_{1} b_{2}$. From the identity $-\eta\left(e_{2}\right)=\eta\left(e_{1} \cdot e_{3}\right)=\eta\left(e_{1}\right) \cdot \eta\left(e_{3}\right)$ we get $b_{1}=0$, $b_{2}=a_{1} c_{3}$, and $b_{3}=-a_{1} c_{2}$. Since $\operatorname{det} \eta \neq 0$, we deduce that $a_{1}= \pm 1$. It follows, by setting $\varepsilon= \pm 1$, that $b_{3}=-\varepsilon c_{2}$ and $c_{3}=\varepsilon b_{2}$. From the identity $\eta\left(e_{1}\right) \cdot \eta\left(e_{1}\right)=$ $\eta\left(e_{1} \cdot e_{1}\right)=0$, we obtain $a_{2}=a_{3}=0$. Therefore, $\eta$ takes the form

$$
\eta=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\varepsilon & 0 & 0 \\
0 & b_{2} & c_{2} \\
0 & -\varepsilon c_{2} & \varepsilon b_{2}
\end{array}\right), \quad b_{2}^{2}+c_{2}^{2} \neq 0 .
$$

We now apply formula (28). For this we recall first that in the basis above the classes $[g]$ and $\left[g^{\prime}\right]$ corresponding to $A_{4}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ and $A_{4}\left(\alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime}\right)$, respectively, have the forms

$$
g=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\alpha & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \beta & \gamma \\
0 & -\gamma & \beta
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad g^{\prime}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\alpha^{\prime} & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \beta^{\prime} & \gamma^{\prime} \\
0 & -\gamma^{\prime} & \beta^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

respectively. From $g^{\prime}\left(e_{1}, e_{1}\right)=\mu g\left(\eta\left(e_{1}\right), \eta\left(e_{1}\right)\right)$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha^{\prime}=\mu \alpha \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

and from $g^{\prime}\left(e_{2}, e_{2}\right)=\mu g\left(\eta\left(e_{2}\right), \eta\left(e_{2}\right)\right)$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta^{\prime}=\mu\left(b_{2}^{2}+c_{2}^{2}\right) \beta \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, from $g^{\prime}\left(e_{2}, e_{3}\right)=\mu g\left(\eta\left(e_{2}\right), \eta\left(e_{3}\right)\right)$ we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma^{\prime}=\mu \varepsilon\left(b_{2}^{2}+c_{2}^{2}\right) \gamma \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Recall here that $\mu \neq 0, \gamma \neq 0$, and $b_{2}^{2}+c_{2}^{2} \neq 0$.
Claim 2. Each $A_{4}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ is isomorphic to some $A_{4}\left(\alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}, 1\right)$. Precisely, $A_{4}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ is isomorphic to $A_{4}\left(\varepsilon \frac{\alpha}{\gamma}, \varepsilon \frac{\beta}{\gamma}, 1\right)$.

Proof. By (29), (30), and (31), $A_{4}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ is isomorphic to $A_{4}\left(\alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}, 1\right)$ if and only if there exists $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^{*}$ and $b, c \in \mathbb{R}$, with $b^{2}+c^{2} \neq 0$, such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha^{\prime} & =\mu \alpha, \beta^{\prime} \\
& =\mu\left(b^{2}+c^{2}\right) \beta, 1 \\
& =\mu \varepsilon\left(b^{2}+c^{2}\right) \gamma .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, by taking $b^{2}+c^{2}=1$ (for instance, $b=\cos \theta_{0}$ and $c=\sin \theta_{0}$ for some $\theta_{0}$ ), the third equation yields $\mu=\frac{\varepsilon}{\gamma}$. Substituting the value of $\mu$ in the two first equations, we deduce that $\alpha^{\prime}=\varepsilon \frac{\alpha}{\gamma}$ and $\beta^{\prime}=\varepsilon \frac{\beta}{\gamma}$. Consequently, each $A_{4}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ is isomorphic to $A_{4}\left(\varepsilon \frac{\alpha}{\gamma}, \varepsilon \frac{\beta}{\gamma}, 1\right)$.

Case 2. $A_{3}=\left\langle e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}: e_{1} \cdot e_{2}=e_{3}, e_{1} \cdot e_{3}=-e_{2}, e_{2} \cdot e_{2}=e_{3} \cdot e_{3}=e_{1}\right\rangle$.
Similarly to the first case, we get

$$
\delta_{1} h=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & h_{12} & h_{13} \\
0 & h_{22} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & h_{22}
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad g=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & g_{12} & g_{13} \\
0 & g_{22} & g_{23} \\
0 & -g_{23} & g_{22}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $h_{12}=-h\left(e_{3}\right), h_{13}=h\left(e_{2}\right), h_{22}=-h\left(e_{1}\right)$, and $g_{i j}=g\left(e_{i}, e_{j}\right)$. It follows that in this case the class $[g] \in H^{2}\left(A_{3}, \mathbb{R}\right)$ of a cocycle $g$ takes the reduced form

$$
g=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \gamma \\
0 & -\gamma & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad \gamma \neq 0
$$

By setting $\widetilde{e}_{i}=\left(e_{i}, 0\right), 1 \leq i \leq 3$, and $\widetilde{e}_{4}=(0,1)$, and using formula (26) we find that the nonzero relations are

$$
\begin{align*}
& \widetilde{e}_{1} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{2}=\widetilde{e}_{3}, \widetilde{e}_{1} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{3}=-\widetilde{e}_{2}, \widetilde{e}_{2} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{2}=\widetilde{e}_{3} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{3}=\widetilde{e}_{1}  \tag{32}\\
& \widetilde{e}_{2} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{3}=\gamma \widetilde{e}_{4}, \quad \widetilde{e}_{3} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{2}=-\gamma \widetilde{e}_{4}, \quad \gamma \neq 0 .
\end{align*}
$$

We can now state the main result of this paper.
Theorem 2. Let $A_{4}$ be a complete non-simple real left-symmetric algebra whose associated Lie algebra is $\mathcal{O}(4)$. Then $A_{4}$ is isomorphic to one of the following leftsymmetric algebras:
(i) $A_{4}(s, t)$ : There exist real numbers $s, t$, and a basis $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}, e_{4}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{O}(4)$ relative to which the nonzero left-symmetric relations are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& e_{1} \cdot e_{1}=s e_{4}, \quad e_{2} \cdot e_{2}=e_{3} \cdot e_{3}=t e_{4} \\
& e_{1} \cdot e_{2}=e_{3}, \quad e_{1} \cdot e_{3}=-e_{2} \\
& e_{2} \cdot e_{3}=\frac{1}{2} e_{4}, \quad e_{3} \cdot e_{2}=-\frac{1}{2} e_{4} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The conjugacy class of $A_{4}(s, t)$ is given as follows: $A_{4}\left(s^{\prime}, t^{\prime}\right)$ is isomorphic to $A_{4}(s, t)$ if and only if $\left(s^{\prime}, t^{\prime}\right)=(\alpha s, \pm t)$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{*}$.
(ii) $B_{4}$ : There is a basis $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}, e_{4}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{O}(4)$ relative to which the nonzero leftsymmetric relations are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& e_{1} \cdot e_{2}=e_{3}, \quad e_{1} \cdot e_{3}=-e_{2}, \quad e_{2} \cdot e_{2}=e_{3} \cdot e_{3}=e_{1} \\
& e_{2} \cdot e_{3}=\frac{1}{2} e_{4}, \quad e_{3} \cdot e_{2}=-\frac{1}{2} e_{4} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. According to the discussion above, there are two cases to be considered.
Case 1. $A_{3}=\left\langle e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}: e_{1} \cdot e_{2}=e_{3}, e_{1} \cdot e_{3}=-e_{2}\right\rangle$.
In this case, Claim 2 asserts that $A_{4}$ is isomorphic to some $A_{4}(\alpha, \beta, 1)$; and according to equations (27), we know that there is a basis $\left\{\widetilde{e}_{1}, \widetilde{e}_{2}, \widetilde{e}_{3}, \widetilde{e}_{4}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{O}_{4}$ relative to which the nonzero relations for $A_{4}(\alpha, \beta, 1)$ are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \widetilde{e}_{1} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{1}=\alpha \widetilde{e}_{4}, \widetilde{e}_{2} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{2}=\widetilde{e}_{3} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{3}=\beta \widetilde{e}_{4} \\
& \widetilde{e}_{1} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{2}=\widetilde{e}_{3}, \widetilde{e}_{1} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{3}=-\widetilde{e}_{2} \\
& \widetilde{e}_{2} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{3}=\widetilde{e}_{4}, \quad \widetilde{e}_{3} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{2}=-\widetilde{e}_{4} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, it is clear that by setting $s=\frac{\alpha}{2}, t=\frac{\beta}{2}, e_{i}=\widetilde{e}_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq 3$, and $e_{4}=2 \widetilde{e}_{4}$, we get the desired two-parameter family $A_{4}(s, t)$. On the other hand, we see from (29), (30), and (31) that $A_{4}\left(s^{\prime}, t^{\prime}\right)$ is isomorphic to $A_{4}(s, t)$ if and only if there exists $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{*}$ and $b, c \in \mathbb{R}$, with $b^{2}+c^{2} \neq 0$, such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
s^{\prime} & =\alpha s \\
t^{\prime} & =\alpha\left(b^{2}+c^{2}\right) t \\
1 & =\alpha \varepsilon\left(b^{2}+c^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

From the third equation, we get $b^{2}+c^{2}=\frac{\varepsilon}{\alpha}$; and by substituting the latter into the second equation, we get $t^{\prime}=\varepsilon t$. In other words, we have shown that $A_{4}\left(s^{\prime}, t^{\prime}\right)$ and $A_{4}(s, t)$ are isomorphic if and only if there exists $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{*}$ such that $s^{\prime}=\alpha s$ and $t^{\prime}= \pm t$.

Case 2. $A_{3}=\left\langle e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}: e_{1} \cdot e_{2}=e_{3}, e_{1} \cdot e_{3}=-e_{2}, e_{2} \cdot e_{2}=e_{3} \cdot e_{3}=e_{1}\right\rangle$.
In this case, by (32), there is a basis $\left\{\widetilde{e}_{1}, \widetilde{e}_{2}, \widetilde{e}_{3}, \widetilde{e}_{4}\right\}$ of $\mathcal{O}_{4}$ relative to which the nonzero relations in $A_{4}$ are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \widetilde{e}_{1} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{2}=\widetilde{e}_{3}, \widetilde{e}_{1} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{3}=-\widetilde{e}_{2}, \widetilde{e}_{2} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{2}=\widetilde{e}_{3} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{3}=\widetilde{e}_{1} \\
& \widetilde{e}_{2} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{3}=\gamma \widetilde{e}_{4}, \quad \widetilde{e}_{3} \cdot \widetilde{e}_{2}=-\gamma \widetilde{e}_{4}, \gamma \neq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

By setting $e_{i}=\widetilde{e}_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq 3$, and $e_{4}=2 \gamma \widetilde{e}_{4}$, we see that $A_{4}$ is isomorphic to $B_{4}$. This finishes the proof of the main theorem.

Remark 5. Recall that a left-symmetric algebra $A$ is called Novikov if it satisfies the condition $(x \cdot y) \cdot z=(x \cdot z) \cdot y$, for all $x, y, z \in A$.

Novikov left-symmetric algebras were introduced in [2] (see also [24] for some important results concerning this). We note here that $A_{4}(s, 0)$ is Novikov and that $B_{4}$ is not.

We can explicitly compute the exponential map exp : $\mathcal{O}_{4} \rightarrow O_{4}$ of the oscillator group in the parametrization given in Section 4. Details of the argument are left to the reader (see [11]). It is given by

$$
\exp (v, z, t)= \begin{cases}\left(v+\frac{|z|^{2}}{4 t}\left(1-\frac{\sin 2 t}{2 t}\right), z \frac{\sin t}{t}, t\right), & t \neq 0 \\ (v, z, 0), & t=0\end{cases}
$$

On the other hand, we note that the mapping $X \mapsto\left(L_{X}, X\right)$ is a Lie algebra representation of $\mathcal{O}_{4}$ in $\mathfrak{a f f}\left(\mathbb{R}^{4}\right)=E n d\left(\mathbb{R}^{4}\right) \oplus \mathbb{R}^{4}$. By using the exponential map of the affine group $\operatorname{Aff}\left(\mathbb{R}^{4}\right)=G L\left(\mathbb{R}^{4}\right) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^{4}$, Theorem 2 can now be stated, in terms of simply transitive actions of subgroups of $\operatorname{Aff}\left(\mathbb{R}^{4}\right)$, as follows. To state it, define the continuous functions

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\sin x}{x}, & x \neq 0 \\
1, & x=0
\end{array}, \quad g(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{1-\cos x}{x}, & x \neq 0 \\
0, & x=0\end{cases} \right. \\
& h(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{x-\sin x}{x^{2}}, & x \neq 0 \\
0, & x=0
\end{array}, \quad k(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{1-\cos x}{x^{2}}, & x \neq 0 \\
0, & x=0\end{cases} \right.
\end{aligned}
$$

and set

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Phi_{t}(x)=\left(\frac{y}{2}+t z\right) g(x)-\left(\frac{z}{2}-t y\right) f(x), \\
& \Psi_{t}(x)=\left(\frac{y}{2}+t z\right) f(x)+\left(\frac{z}{2}-t y\right) g(x) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem 3. Suppose that the oscillator group $O_{4}$ acts simply transitively by affine transformations on $\mathbb{R}^{4}$. Then, as a subgroup of $\operatorname{Aff}\left(\mathbb{R}^{4}\right)=G L\left(\mathbb{R}^{4}\right) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^{4}, O_{4}$ is conjugate to one of the following subgroups:
(i)

$$
\left.G_{4}=\left\{\begin{array}{lccc}
1 y f(x)+z g(x) z f(x)-y g(x) & 0 \\
0 & \cos x & -\sin x & 0 \\
0 & \sin x & \cos x & 0 \\
0 & \Phi_{0}(x) & \Psi_{0}(x) & 1
\end{array}\right] \times\left[\begin{array}{c}
x+\left(y^{2}+z^{2}\right) k(x) \\
y f(x)-z g(x) \\
z f(x)+y g(x) \\
w+\frac{\left(y^{2}+z^{2}\right)}{2} h(x)
\end{array}\right]\right\}
$$

(ii)
$G_{4}(s, t)=\left\{\begin{array}{c}{\left[\begin{array}{cccc}1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos x & -\sin x & 0 \\ 0 & \sin x & \cos x & 0 \\ s x & \Phi_{t}(x) & \Psi_{t}(x) & 1\end{array}\right] \times\left[\begin{array}{c}x \\ y f(x)-z g(x) \\ z f(x)+y g(x) \\ x, y, z, w \in \mathbb{R}\end{array}\right\}, \frac{s}{2} x^{2}+\left(y^{2}+z^{2}\right)\left(\frac{h(x)}{2}+t k(x)\right)}\end{array}\right\}$
where $s, t \in \mathbb{R}$. The only pairs of conjugate subgroups in $\operatorname{Aff}\left(\mathbb{R}^{4}\right)$ are $G_{4}(s, t)$ and $G_{4}(\alpha s, \pm t)$ where $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{*}$.

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