

NOTES ON THE LATTICE ORDERED GROUPS

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Introduction. A set L of the elements is called a lattice-ordered group, if L forms a group and lattice at the same time, and in L is order $x \geq y$, preserved under the multiplication:

$$x \geq y \text{ implies } xz \geq yz \text{ and } zx \geq zy \text{ for all } z \text{ in } L.$$

They have been discussed mainly by G. Birkhoff [1], and T. Nakayama [3], and they have already proved the followings:

- (1) A lattice-ordered group is a distributive lattice as a lattice
- (2) The order of any element of lattice-ordered group except for the identity is zero.
- (3) There is no greatest and least elements in a lattice-ordered group etc.

In this paper, we shall consider the relation between an infinite cyclic group or, in general, a free abelian group and a lattice-ordered group in Theorem 1, 2, and 3, secondly under the interval topology [Definition 1] introduced to a lattice-ordered group L , L is always a discrete topological space or the topological space or the topological space which is composed only of the accumulating points of L in Theorem 4, and finally, prove that if there is no element in a lattice-ordered group which covers the identity then it can be a topological lattice-ordered group [Definition] 2 in Theorem 5.

We recollect some notations, which will be used in this paper.

(A) The notations $A \cup B$, $A \cap B$ for the subsets A, B of lattice-ordered group L means that $\{a \cup b \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$, $\{a \cap b \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$ respectively.

(B) The notations $A \vee B$, $A \wedge B$ means that set-union, set-intersection of A and B respectively.

(C) The notation $a \lessdot b$ means that the element b covers the element a .

(D) The notation $a \# b$ means that the elements a, b are incomparable, i. e., neither $a \leq b$ nor $b < a$.

The other notations are the same in [2].

1. Free abelian groups and lattice-ordered groups

LEMMA 1. *If for some element a of a lattice-ordered group L there exist the*

element x_i ($i=1, 2, \dots, n$) which $x_i \leq a$ for any i and $y \geq x_i$ for some i and any element y such that $y > a$ in L , then for arbitrary element b of L , we have $x_i a^{-1} b \leq b$ for any i and $z \geq x_i a^{-1} b$ for some i and any element z such that $z > b$ in L .

PROOF $x_i \leq a$ follows $x_i a^{-1} \leq e$, for, $x_i a^{-1} > p > e$ implies $x_i > pa > a$. And $x_i a^{-1} b \leq b$ for any i . Since $z > b$ implies $zb^{-1}a > a$, there exists some x_i such that $zb^{-1}a \geq x_i$, i.e., $z \geq x_i a^{-1} b$, which completes the proof.

Accordingly, in particular, we have the result of Lemma 1 for $b=e$, the identity of L , which will be used in the following Theorems.

THEOREM 1 *If for some element a of a lattice-ordered group L there exists x which $x \leq a$ and $y \geq x$ for any y such that $y > a$ in L , then L is a chain as a lattice and infinite cyclic group as a group, and vice versa.*

PROOF. By Lemma 1, there exists the element p which $p \leq e$ and $y \geq px$ for any $x \in Z$ and any y such that $y > x$ in L . We shall show now that L is a chain. If there exist the elements x, y that $x \# y$ in L , then $p(x \cap y) \leq x \cap y$, $x > x \cap y$ and $y > x \cap y$, hence $x \geq p(x \cap y)$ and $y \geq p(x \cap y)$. And $e \geq p$, which is contrary.

Next, we shall show that L is an infinite cyclic group. From $e \leq p$ it is clear $p^{-1} \leq (p^{-1})^2 = p^{-2}$, and hence we have

$$p^2 \leq p \leq e \leq p^{-1} \leq p^{-2}.$$

Let x be an arbitrary element of L , then either $x \geq e$ or $x < e$. We shall consider the case of $x \geq e$, the another case $x < e$ by the same way. It is easily seen that there exists the subchain $\{x_\alpha\}$ of L such that $e = x_\alpha \leq x_\beta \leq \dots \leq x_\lambda = x$, and that $\{x_\alpha\}$ is a well-ordered.

Suppose x_α is expressed by a integer power of p for any x_α such that $x_\alpha < x$ in L . Since $x p^{-1} < x$, we see $x p^{-1} = p^m$ for some integer m , i.e. $x = p^{m+1}$, hence, by induction, all elements of L are expressed by a integer power of p .

And order of any element except for the identity is zero [3].

Conversly, we can easily seen that given infinite cyclic group $L = \{g\}$ be a lattice-ordered group which satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem, if one defines $g^m \geq g^n$ to mean $m \geq n$ as integers.

Moreover, we have the following theorem.

THEOREM 2. *If for the identity e of a lattice-ordered group L there exist the elements p, q of L such that $x \geq p$ or $x \geq q$ for any $x > e$ in L and $p \leq e, q \leq e$, then L is a free abelian group with two generators p, q and in L $p^m \cdot q^n \geq p^a \cdot q^b$ if and*

only if $m \geq a$ and $n \geq b$ as integers, where $p \neq q$. And vice versa.

PROOF. p, q are commutative. In fact, from $e \leq p$, $e \leq q^{-1}pq$ we see $q^{-1}pq = p$ or $q^{-1}pq = q$. If $q^{-1}pq = q$ then $p = q$ which is contrary, Hence $q^{-1}pq = p$.

We have $p^{-1} \leq e, q^{-1} \leq ep \leq p^2$ and $p \leq pq$ from $p q \leq e$. Similarly $q \leq pq, p^{-1} \leq p^{-1}q, q^{-1} \leq pq^{-1}$ and $q^{-2} \leq q^{-1}$ etc. In general, $x = p^a q^b$ for arbitrary element x of L which $x \geq e$ where a, b are integers. In fact, there exists a sub-chain $\{x_\alpha\}$ of L such that

$$e = x_\alpha \leq x_\beta \leq \dots \leq x_\lambda = x.$$

Since for an arbitrary element x_λ of $\{x_\alpha\}$ we can find the elements x_μ, x_ν such that $x_\mu \leq x_\nu, x_\lambda \leq x_\nu$, respectively, and $\{x_\alpha\}$ is well-ordered.

Suppose x_α is expressed by the form $p^a q^b$ for any x_α such that $x_\alpha < x$ in $\{x_\alpha\}$.

We get $xp^{-1} \in \{x_\alpha\}$ or $xq^{-1} \in \{x_\alpha\}$ because $xp^{-1} \leq x$ and $xq^{-1} \leq x$, and $xp^{-1} = p^m q^n$ or $xq^{-1} = p^m q^n$, hence $x = p^a q^b$.

Now, let y be arbitrary element of L , and we consider the element $y \cup e$, then we see $y \cup e = p^m q^n \geq y$ from $e \leq y \cup e$ therefore $p^m q^n x^{-1} = p^s q^t$ for some integers s, t which follows $y = p^{m-s} q^{n-t}$.

Here we have $p^m \# q^n$ for every $m, n > 0$. In fact, if $p^m \geq q^n$ then $p^m \geq q$ since $q^n \geq q$, accordingly $p^m \geq p \cup q$, and from $p < p \cup q \leq pq$ we get $p \cup q = pq$.

Hence it follows $p^{m-1} \geq q$. Here if $m-1 > 1$, by repeating this method, we have $p \geq q$, which is contrary, and $p^m \# q^n$.

Therefore, it is easily seen that $p^m q^n = e$ if and only if $m=0$ and $n=0$ and that $p^a q^b \leq p^c q^d$ if and only if $a \geq c$ and $b \geq d$.

Conversely, on given free abelian group L with two generators p, q if one defines $p^a q^b \geq p^c q^d$ to mean $a \geq c$ and $b \geq d$, then L is a partly ordered set, and a lattice, since $p^m q^n \wedge p^a q^b = p^{\min(m,a)} q^{\min(n,b)}$, where a, b, m and n are integers.

Moreover, it is easily seen that $x \geq y$ implies $xz \geq zy$ for all z .

And given a free abelian group L is a lattice-ordered group, which satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem because $p \leq e, q \leq e$.

We can easily extend above arguments general case by the method as was done in Theorem 2.

THEOREM 3. *If for the identity e of a lattice-ordered group L there exist the elements x_i ($i=1, 2, \dots, n$) which $x_i \leq e$ for all i and $y \geq x_i$ for some i and any y such that $y > e$ in L , then L is a free abelian group with n generators x_i ($i=1, 2, \dots, n$), and in L $x_1^{a_1} x_2^{a_2} \dots x_n^{a_n} \geq x_1^{b_1} x_2^{b_2} \dots x_n^{b_n}$, if and only if $a_i \geq b_i$ ($i=1, 2, \dots, n$). And vice versa.*

2. Interval topology

Let us, first of all, introduce topological space to given lattice-ordered group L . We denote by $(a]$, $[a)$ and (a, b) the open intervals $\{x \in L | x < a\}$, $\{x \in L | x > a\}$ and $\{x \in L | a < x < b\}$ respectively.

DEFINITION 1. *By the interval topology of a partly ordered set L (in fact, L is a lattice-ordered group), we mean that define by taking the open intervals $(a]$, $[a)$ and (a, b) as a subbase of open sets.*

That is, the family of open intervals

$$S = \{ \bigwedge_i \bigvee_\alpha P_i \mid P_i \in \Phi \}, \text{ where } \Phi = \{ (a), [a), (a, b) \mid a, b \in L \},$$

satisfies (1) $\bigvee_\alpha O_\alpha \in S$ for $O_\alpha \in S$,

(2) $\bigwedge_i O_i \in S$ for $O_i \in S$,

(3) $L \in S$,

(4) Empty set $\phi \in S$,

where the suffix i runs on a finite set, and the suffix α on an arbitrary set.

And let M be subset of L . By \bar{M} which $\bar{M} = (\bigvee_\alpha M_\alpha)'$ where $M_\alpha \in S$ and $M_\alpha \in M^{\wedge}$ (=the complement of M) we call closure of M .

We also see that if one defines open set O of L to mean $O' = \bar{O}'$ then the family of all open sets of L coincide with S .

And $S = \{ \bigwedge_i \bigvee_\alpha (x_{i\alpha}, y_{i\alpha}) \mid x_{i\alpha}, y_{i\alpha} \in L \}$

In fact, let y be an arbitrary element of (x) , there exists no greatest element,

we can find at least one element y_α or y_β in L such that $y < y_\alpha$ or $y \# y_\beta$.

From $y < y \cup y_\beta$ we have $(x) \subset \bigvee_{x < y} (x, y_\alpha)$, and $(x) = \bigvee_{x < y} (x, y_\alpha)$.

Similarly $(x] = \bigwedge_{x < y} (y_\alpha, x)$.

Let E be a subset of L . A point a is called an accumulating point of E , if $a \in \overline{E - a}$, we call a an isolated point of E , if it is not.

On the other hand, we can easily prove the followings.

LEMMA 2. *If $A = \bigwedge_\alpha (x_\alpha, y_\alpha)$, $B = \bigvee_\alpha (x_\alpha, y_\alpha)$, then $Aa = \bigwedge_\alpha (x_\alpha a, y_\alpha a)$, $Ba = \bigvee_\alpha (x_\alpha a, y_\alpha a)$ for every $a \in L$ where $Aa = \{xa \mid x \in A\}$.*

LEMMA 3. *Let A and B be two subsets of L , then*

$$(A - B)a = Aa - Ba, \quad a(A - B) = aA - aB \text{ for every } a \in L,$$

COROLLARY. *Let A be a subset of L , then $(Aa)' = A'a$ for every $a \in L$.*

And we have also

LEMMA 4. *Let A be a subset of L , then $Aa = \overline{A}a$ for every $a \in L$.*

PROOF. $\overline{A} = L - \bigvee_{\alpha} B_{\alpha}$, for all $B_{\alpha} \in S$ and $B_{\alpha} \subset A'$.

By Lemma 2, 3, $\overline{A}a = L - \bigvee_{\alpha} (B_{\alpha}a)$.

While $\overline{A}a = L - \bigvee_{\beta} C_{\beta}$ for all $C_{\beta} \in S$ and $C_{\beta} \subset (Aa)'$, and it is sufficient to show that $\bigvee_{\alpha} (B_{\alpha}a) = \bigvee_{\beta} C_{\beta}$.

Since $B_{\alpha} \subset A'$, we see that $B_{\alpha}a \subset A'a = (Aa)'$ by Corollary 1.

And since $B_{\alpha} \in S$, $B_{\alpha} = \bigwedge_i \bigvee_{\gamma} (x_{i\gamma}, y_{i\gamma})$ for some $x_{i\gamma}$ and $y_{i\gamma} \in L$, and hence $B_{\alpha}a = \bigwedge_i \bigvee_{\gamma} (x_{i\gamma}a, y_{i\gamma}a)$ by Lemma 2, 3.

Consequently, $B_{\alpha}a \in S$. Therefore, we obtain $B_{\alpha}a \subset \bigvee_{\beta} C_{\beta}$ for any α , i.e., $\bigvee_{\alpha} (B_{\alpha}a) \subset \bigvee_{\beta} C_{\beta}$.

Conversely, $C_{\beta}a^{-1} \subset A'$ because $C_{\beta} \subset A'a$.

Here, by the same way above, we have $C_{\beta}a^{-1} \in S$.

Hence, we obtain $C_{\beta}a^{-1} \subset \bigvee_{\alpha} B_{\alpha}$ namely $C_{\beta} \subset \bigvee_{\alpha} (B_{\alpha}a)$ for any β , i.e., $\bigvee_{\beta} C_{\beta} \subset \bigvee_{\alpha} (B_{\alpha}a)$, which completes the proof.

Now, we prove the following.

THEOREM 4. *L is a lattice-ordered group in which interval topology is introduced. If there is at least one isolated point of L , then L is discrete.*

PROOF. Let a be an isolated point of L , then $a \in (\overline{L-a})'$. It follows, by Lemma 4, 3,

$$e \in (\overline{L-a})' a^{-1} = ((\overline{L-a})a^{-1})' = ((\overline{L-a})a^{-1})' = (\overline{L-e})'$$

hence the identity e is isolated point of L .

Similarly, $x \in (\overline{L-x})'$ for every element x of L .

COROLLARY 2. *A lattice-ordered group in which interval topology is introduced, is a discrete topological space or the topological space which is composed only of the accumulating points of L .*

3. Topological lattice-ordered group

DEFINITION 2. *A set L of elements is called a topological lattice-ordered group, if*

- (1) L is a lattice-ordered group.
- (2) L is a topological space.
- (3) The lattice operations and group operations in L are continuous in the topo-

logical space.

And by a neighborhood of an element $p \in L$ is meant the subset including an open set $\ni p$.

Then, we have the following.

THEOREM 5 *If there is no element x in a lattice-ordered group L such that $x \leq^* e$, then L is a topological lattice-ordered group under its interval topology.*

PROOF. It is sufficient to show that the condition (3) of Definition 2 is satisfied in L .

For a neighborhood $U(ab)$ of the element ab of L there exists an open set $O(ab) \ni ab$ such that $O(ab) \subset U(ab)$, and

$$O(ab) = \bigwedge_i \bigvee_{\alpha} (x_{i\alpha}, y_{i\alpha}),$$

therefore $ab \in (x_{i\alpha}, y_{i\alpha})$ for some α and every i ,

$$\text{i. e., } x_{i\alpha} < ab < y_{i\alpha}.$$

On the other hand, there exist the elements $c_{i\alpha}$ and $d_{i\alpha}$ such that $x_{i\alpha} < c_{i\alpha} < ab < d_{i\alpha} < y_{i\alpha}$.

For, if $x_{i\alpha} \leq^* ab$ then $(ab)x_{i\alpha}^{-1} \leq^* e$ which is contrary to the hypothesis of Theorem.

If we consider the open intervals $U(a) = (x_{i\alpha}(a^{-1}c_{i\alpha})^{-1}, y_{i\alpha}(a^{-1}d_{i\alpha})^{-1})$ and $U(b) = (a^{-1}c_{i\alpha}, a^{-1}d_{i\alpha})$, then $U(a)$, $U(b)$ can be neighborhoods of the elements a and b respectively.

In fact, since $x_{i\alpha} < c_{i\alpha}$ and $d_{i\alpha} < y_{i\alpha}$, $x_{i\alpha}(a^{-1}c_{i\alpha})^{-1} > a$, and $a < y_{i\alpha}(a^{-1}d_{i\alpha})^{-1}$ hence $a \in U(a)$ and from $c_{i\alpha} < ab < d_{i\alpha}$, $b \in (a^{-1}c_{i\alpha}, a^{-1}d_{i\alpha})$. Moreover, let x and y be arbitrary elements of $U(a)$ and $U(b)$ respectively, then $xy \in (x_{i\alpha}, y_{i\alpha})$ by transitive law, and it follows $U(a)U(b) \subset U(ab)$, where $U(a) \cdot U(b) = \{xy | x \in U(a), y \in U(b)\}$. Now, for a neighborhood $U(x^{-1})$ of the element x^{-1} of L , we have open set $O(x^{-1}) = \bigwedge_i \bigvee_{\alpha} (x_{i\alpha}, y_{i\alpha}) \ni x^{-1}$ such that $O(x^{-1}) \subset U(x^{-1})$. And $x^{-1} \in (x_{i\alpha}, y_{i\alpha})$ for some α and any i , therefore, $x \in (y_{i\alpha}^{-1}, x_{i\alpha}^{-1}) = U(x)$ which is also a neighborhood of the element x , finally $U^{-1}(x) \subset U(x^{-1})$, where $U^{-1}(x) = \{y^{-1} | y \in U(x)\}$. Hence, the group operations in L are continuous in the topological space L .

Finally, in order to show that the lattice operations in L are continuous, let $O(a \cup b) = \bigwedge_i \bigvee_{\alpha} (x_{i\alpha}, y_{i\alpha}) \ni a \cup b$ be a open subset of a neighborhood $U(a \cup b)$ of the element $a \cup b$ of L . And $a \cup b \in (x_{i\alpha}, y_{i\alpha})$ for some α and any i .

By the above method, we obtain that for the elements $x_{i\alpha}$, $y_{i\alpha}$ there exist the elements $c_{i\alpha}$ and $d_{i\alpha}$ of L such that

$$x_{i\alpha} < c_{i\alpha} < a \cup b < d_{i\alpha} < y_{i\alpha}.$$

And if we consider the open intervals $U(a) = (c_{i\alpha} b^{-1}(a \cap b), d_{i\alpha})$, and $U(b) = (c_{i\alpha} a^{-1}(a \cup b), d_{i\alpha})$, then we also see that $U(a), U(b)$ can be neighborhoods of the elements a, b respectively. For, since $c_{i\alpha} < a \cup b$ implies $a^{-1} c_{i\alpha} b^{-1} < b^{-1} \cup a^{-1} = (a \cap b)^{-1}$, $c_{i\alpha} b^{-1}(a \cap b) < a < d_{i\alpha}$, and $c_{i\alpha} a^{-1}(a \cap b) < b < d_{i\alpha}$.

Moreover, $U(a) \cup U(b) \subset U(a \cup b)$, in fact, let x, y be the elements of $U(a)$ and $U(b)$ respectively, then

$$\begin{aligned} c_{i\alpha} b^{-1}(a \cap b) \cup c_{i\alpha} a^{-1}(a \cap b) &\leq x \cup y \leq d_{i\alpha}, \\ c_{i\alpha} (b^{-1} \cup a^{-1})(a \cap b) &\leq x \cup y \leq d_{i\alpha}, \\ \text{i. e., } c_{i\alpha} &\leq x \cup y \leq d_{i\alpha}, \end{aligned}$$

and hence $x \cup y \in \bigwedge_i \bigvee_\alpha (x_{i\alpha}, y_{i\alpha}) \subset U(a \cup b)$.

Hence the lattice operations in L are continuous in the topological space L .

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