# FINITELY-VALUED $f$-MODULES 

Stuart A. Steinberg

Let $M$ be a right $f$-module over the directed po-ring $R$ (i.e., $M$ is a lattice-ordered $R$-module that is a subdirect product of a family of totally ordered $R$-modules), and let $g$ be a nonzero element of $M$. There is a natural one-to-one correspondence between the set of $R$-values of $g$ in $M$ and the set of $Z$-values of $g$ in $M$. This basic fact enables one to obtain all of the local structure theory for $f$-modules that Conrad [Czechoslovak Math. J. 15 (1965)] has obtained for $\ell$-groups. There is, in addition, the interaction between the two structures. For example, a special element $g$ has the same value in $C_{R}(g)$, the convex $\ell$-submodule generated by $g$, that it has in $C_{Z}(g)$. Using this structure theory and the fact that a special element is basic in a Johnson semisimple $f$-ring, it is shown that a finitely-valued Johnson semisimple $f$-ring is a direct sum of unital $\ell$-simple $f$ rings.

It is well-known that an abelian lattice-ordered group ( $\iota$-group) can be represented as a subdirect product of a family of totally ordered groups. In this paper we begin the study of those latticeordered modules ( $\ell$-modules) that can be represented as subdirect products of totally ordered modules. An $\ell$-module that can be so represented is called an $f$-module. ${ }^{1}$ We will continue this study in a later paper, considering the problem of supplying the injective hull of an $f$-module with a lattice order so that it becomes an $f$-module extension, and considering the related problem of characterizing relative injectives in the category of $f$-modules (see [16] and [19]). Here we are concerned with the structure of $f$-modules.

We wish to mention that many of the results in this paper hold in the more general situation where $M$ is a not-necessarily abelian $\ell$-group with appropriate operator set $R$. Appropriate means, here, that the mapping induced by each $r \in R$ preserves all polars and sends positive elements to positive elements.

Throughout $Z$ and $Q$ will denote the totally ordered rings of integers and rational numbers respectively.

1. Characterizations of $f$-modules. Let $R$ be a partially ordered ring (po-ring). An (right) $\ell$-module over $R$ is a right $R$-module

[^0]$M$ that is also an $\ell$-group for which $M^{+} R^{+} \cong M^{+}$. The $\ell$-module $M$ will be called an $f$-module if it is isomorphic to a subdirect product of a family of totally ordered modules. A convex l-submodule of the $\ell$-module $M$ is a convex $\ell$-subgroup $N$ that is also an $R$ submodule. The set of convex $\ell$-submodules of $M$, partially ordered by inclusion, is a distributive lattice. If $M / N$ is totally ordered, then $N$ is called a prime submodule of $M$. A minimal prime submodule of $M$ is a prime submodule that does not contain any other prime submodule of $M$. When $R=Z$, these definitions agree with the usual definitions for $\ell$-groups. The following theorem is just a translation of the theorem about representable $\ell$-groups.

Theorem 1.1. Let $M$ be an $\ell$-module over the directed po-ring R. The following statements are equivalent.
(a) $M$ is an $f$-module.
(b) If $x$ and $y$ are in $M$ and $r$ is in $R^{+}$, then $x \wedge y=0$ implies $x r \wedge y=0$.
(c) Every minimal prime subgroup is a submodule.
(d) Every polar of $M$ is a submodule.

Proof. That (a) implies (b) and (c) implies (a) is trivial. That (b) implies (c) follows from the fact that if $N$ is a minimal prime subgroup and $x \in N$, then the polar of $x$ is not contained in $N[14$, Theorem 6.5]. Finally, (c) and (d) are equivalent since each minimal prime subgroup is the union of principal polars, and each polar is the intersection of minimal prime subgroups.

The proof of (b) implies (c) is essentially the proof of the fact that a polar preserving endomorphism preserves minimal prime subgroups [8].

If $R$ is not directed, then Theorem 1.1 is false. In particular, let $R=D_{2}$ be the two-by-two matrix ring over a totally ordered division ring $D$. Then $R$ is a po-ring if its positive cone is defined by $R^{+}=\left\{\binom{x 0}{0 y}: x, y \in D^{+}\right\}$. Let $M=\left\{\binom{a b}{00}: a, b \in D\right\} \quad$ and $\quad M^{+}=$ $\left\{\binom{a b}{00}: a, b \in D^{+}\right\}$. Then $\left(M, M^{+}\right)$is an $\epsilon$-module over $R$ that satisfies (b), but neither (a), nor (c), nor (d).

If $R$ is a po-ring, then $S=R^{+}-R^{+}$is the largest directed posubring of $R$. Thus, if $M$ is an $\ell$-module over $R$, then $M$ is an $f$-module over $S$ if and only if $M$ satisfies (b). For this reason and for the sake of simplicity, unless specified otherwise, all po-rings will be directed for the remainder of this paper.

It is known that an $f$-ring can be characterized as an $\ell$-ring for which every subdirectly irreducible homomorphic image is totally
ordered. An $f$-module can be characterized in an analogous manner.
For a non-empty subset $S$ of the $\ell$-module $M_{R}$ let $C_{R}(S)$ be the convex $\ell$-submodule generated by $S$.

Proposition 1.2. Let $M_{R}$ be an $\ell$-module, and let $a \in M$. Then $C_{R}(a)=\left\{x \in M:|x| \leqq n|a|+|a| r\right.$ for some $r \in R^{+}$and some $\left.n \in Z^{+}\right\}$.

Proof. Let $N$ be the set defined in the proposition. Since $a \in N \subseteq C_{R}(\alpha)$, we only have to verify that $N$ is a convex $\ell$-submodule. If $x, y \in N$, then $|x-y| \leqq|x|+|y| \leqq(n|a|+|a| r)+(m|a|+|a| s)=$ $(n+m)|a|+|a|(r+s)$. Therefore $N$ is a subgroup, and hence it is a convex $\ell$-subgroup. If $x \in N^{+}$and $r \in R^{+}$, then $x r \in N$, and it follows that $N$ is a convex $\ell$-submodule.

Corollary 1.3. If $M_{R}$ is an f-module, then $x \wedge y=0$ implies $C_{R}(x) \cap C_{R}(y)=0$.

Proof. If $0 \leqq a \in C_{R}(x) \cap C_{R}(y)$, then $a \leqq(n x+x r) \wedge(m y+y s)=$ 0 , since $M$ is an $f$-module.

Corollary 1.4. An $\iota$-module $M$ is an $f$-module if and only if each of its subdirectly irreducible homomorphic images is totally ordered.

Proof. Since a homomorphic image of an $f$-module is an $f$-module, a subdirectly irreducible homomorphic image of an $f$-module is totally ordered, by 1.3.

The converse follows from the fact that an $\ell$-module is a subdirect product of its subdirectly irreducible homomorphic images.

It is sometimes convenient to work with unital modules, so we will show that this can always be arranged. For a po-ring $R$ let $R_{*}$ be the po-ring obtained by freely adjoining an identity to $R$. Thus, $R_{*}=R \oplus Z$ as a po-group with multiplication given by $(r, n)(s, m)=$ $(r s+m r+n s, n m)$. Then $R_{*}$ is a po-ring with a positive identity element ( 0,1 ). If $M$ is an $\ell$-module over $R$, then $M$ becomes a unital $\ell$-module over $R_{*}$ if we define $x(r, n)=x r+n x$ for $x \in M$ and $(r, n) \in R_{*}$.

An $\ell$-module $M_{R}$ is called a distributive $\ell$-module if for $x, y \in M$ and $r \in R^{+},(x \vee y) r=x r \vee y r$. This is, of course, equivalent to saying that multiplication by $r \in R^{+}$is a lattice homomorphism of $M$. Not every distributive $\ell$-module is an $f$-module. The following proposition is well known for $\ell$-rings [4, p. 59].

Proposition 1.5. If $M_{R}$ is a distributive $\ell$-module and if $x \in M$
and $x R=0$ implies $x=0$, then $M$ is an $f$-module.

Proof. Suppose that $x \wedge y=0$ in $M$. Let $a, b \in R^{+}$and let $c \in R^{+}$ with $c \geqq a b, b$. Then $0 \leqq(x a \wedge y) b \leqq x a b \wedge y b \leqq x c \wedge y c=0$. Therefore $(x a \wedge y) R=0$, so $x a \wedge y=0$.

Corollary 1.6. The following statements are equivalent for the $\ell$-module $M_{R}$.
(a) $M$ is an f-module over $R$.
(b) $M$ is a distributive $\ell$-module over $R_{*}$.
(c) $M$ is an f-module over $R_{*}$.

Proof. The equivalence of (b) and (c) follows from 1.5. That (a) and (c) are equivalent follows from the fact that the $R$-submodules and the $R_{*}$-submodules of $M$ are the same.

We mention next a special type of $f$-module that arises frequently. Suppose that $\phi: M \rightarrow \Pi_{i \in I} M_{i}$ is a representation of the $f$-module $M_{R}$ as a subdirect product of the family of totally ordered $R$-modules $\left\{M_{i}: i \in I\right\}$. The representation is irredundant (and $M$ is called an irredundant $f$-module) if, for each $i \in I$, the map $\phi_{i}: M \rightarrow \Pi_{j \neq i} M_{j}$ that is induced by $\phi$ has nonzero kernel. Using [12, p. 40] and Theorem 1.1 we immediately get

Proposition 1.7. The $f$-module $M$ is an irredundant $f$-module if and only if its Boolean algebra of polars is atomic. If this is the case, then $M$ is an irredundant subdirect product of the family of totally ordered modules $\{M / N: N$ a maximal polar of $M\}$, and this is the unique (up to isomorphism) irredundant representation of $M$.

We close this section with a negative observation.
Proposition 1.8. Let $R$ be a (not necessarily directed) po-ring with a set of positive matrix units $\left\{e_{i j}: i, j=1, \cdots, n\right\}$ of degree $n>1$. If $M$ is an f-module over $R$, then $M e_{i j}=0$ for all $i, j$.

Proof. Since $M$ is a subdirect product of totally ordered $R$ modules we may assume that $M$ is itself totally ordered. If $x \in M$, then $N=R / r(x)$ is isomorphic to $x R$ as an $R$-module. $\quad(r(x)=$ $\{r \in R: x r=0\}$.) Thus $N$ can be made into a totally ordered $R$ module.

Let $x_{i j}=e_{i j}+r(x) \in N$. Suppose $x_{i j}>0$ for some $i, j$. Then $x_{i k}=x_{i j} e_{j k}>0$ for all $k=1, \cdots, n$. Since $x_{i_{1}}-x_{i_{2}} \geqq 0$ or $x_{i_{1}}-x_{i_{2}} \leqq 0$,
$-x_{i_{1}}=\left(x_{i_{1}}-x_{i_{2}}\right) e_{21}>0$ or $-x_{i_{1}}=\left(x_{i_{1}}-x_{i_{2}}\right)\left(-e_{11}\right)>0$, which is a contradiction. Similarly, $x_{i j}<0$ for some $i, j$ leads to a contradiction. Therfore $x_{i j}=0$ for all $i, j$; i.e., $\left\{e_{i j}: i, j=1, \cdots, n\right\} \subseteq r(x)$. Since $x$ was arbitrary we are done.

If $R$ is a po-ring, then the $n$-by- $n$ matrix ring over $R, R_{n}$, becomes a po-ring if its positive cone is defined by $R_{n}^{+}=\left\{\left(a_{i j}\right): a_{i j} \in R^{+}\right.$ for all $i, j\}$. The module $M_{R}$ is said to be non-trivial if $M R \neq 0$.

Corollary 1.9. If $R$ is a (not necessarily directed) po-ring with a positive identity element and $n>1$, then $R_{n}$ has no nontrivial $f$ modules.

If the matrix units are not positive, then 1.8 is false. For let

$$
R=Z_{2}, R^{+}=\left\{\binom{00}{0 a}: a \in Z^{+}\right\}, M=\{(a, b): a, b \in Z\},
$$

and

$$
M^{+}=\{(a, b): b>0 \text { or } b=0 \text { and } a \geqq 0\}
$$

Then $M$ is a totally ordered $R$-module.
2. Finitely-valued $f$-modules. In this section we obtain all of the local structure theory for $f$-modules that Conrad [6] has obtained for $\ell$-groups. In addition, it will be seen that there is a strong interaction between the $\iota$-group and $f$-module structures of an $f$ module. Many of the arguments used in this section are modelled after those used by Conrad for the $\ell$-group case.

The $f$-module $M_{R}$ is a lexicographic extension of its convex $<-$ submodule $N$ if $N$ is a prime submodule of $M$, and $g \in M^{+} \backslash N$ implies $g>N$ [5]. We write $M=\operatorname{lex} N$. The convex $\ell$-submodule $N$ of $M$ is called a lower submodule if there is an $x \in M$ such that $N$ is a maximal element in the set of convex $\ell$-submodules not containing $x$. $N$ is then called an $R$-value of $x$. It is clear that $N$ is a lower submodule if and only if it is covered by some convex $\ell$-submodule $K$; i.e., $K$ is the smallest convex $\ell$-submodule of $M$ properly containing $N$. Also, $K=N+C_{R}(x)$ for any $x \in K \backslash N$, and $N$ is an $R$ value of $x \in M$ if and only if $x \in K \backslash N$.

If $N$ is a lower submodule covered by $K$, then $K / N$ is an $\ell-$ simple $f$-module; i.e., $K / N$ has exactly two convex $\ell$-submodules. It is well kown that an $\ell$-simple $\ell$-group is isomorphic to an $\ell$ subgroup of the reals (see [18, p. II 41] or [10, p. 74]). No such nice characterization of an $\ell$-simple $f$-module is available, in general. If $R$ is a commutative totally ordered integral domain with an identity
element, Viswanathan [17] has given necessary and sufficient conditions for an $\ell$-simple totally ordered $R$-module to be isomorphic to an $\ell$-submodule of the completion of the quotient field of $R$.

A po-set is said to be rooted if the set of all elements which exceed a given element is totally ordered. A maximal totally ordered subset of a rooted po-set is called a root. By the trunk of a rooted po-set we shall mean the intersection of its roots.

Since a prime submodule is a prime subgroup, the po-set $\Gamma_{R}$ of lower submodules of an $f$-module is rooted. $\Gamma_{R}$ will be called the $R$ value set of $M$. Let $M_{0}(R)$ be the intersection of all of the elements of the trunk of $\Gamma_{R}$. For $\Gamma_{Z}$ and $M_{0}(Z)$ we will write $\Gamma$ and $M_{0}$, respectively. Weinberg [18, p. II 74] has shown that $M=\operatorname{lex} M_{0}$ and that $M_{0}$ is trunkless for any $\ell$-group $M$.

Another description of $M_{0}$ has been given by Conrad [6]. An element $g>0$ of the $f$-module $M$ is called a nonunit if its polar $g^{\perp} \neq 0$. Let $N_{0}$ be the subgroup of $M$ generated by the set of nonunits of $M$. Then $M$ is a lexicogaphic extension of a convex $\ell$-subgroup $K$ if and only if $K \supseteqq N_{0}$; and $N_{0}$ is the smallest convex $\ell$-subgroup that is comparable with every convex $\iota$-subgroup of $M$ (smallest is to be understood as smallest nonzero if $N_{0} \neq 0$ ). Since $M_{0}$ also has these properties, $M_{0}=N_{0}$. It can be shown that $M$ is a lexicographic extension of a convex $\ell$-submodule $K$ if and only if $K \supseteqq M_{0}(R)$. Since $N_{0}$ is a submodule of $M, M_{0}=M_{0}(R)$. We collect this information in the following theorem.

Theorem 2.1. If $M$ is an f-module over the po-ring $R$, then $M_{0}(R)=M_{0}=N_{0}$. If $K$ is a convex $<$-submodule of $M$, then $M=$ lex $K$ if and only if $K \supseteqq M_{0}$. If $K$ is a nonzero convex l-subgroup of $M$, then $M=$ lex $K$ if and only if $K$ is comparable with every convex l-submodule of $M$.

Theorem 2.2. Let $g$ be a nonzero element of the $f$-module $M$ over the directed po-ring $R$. If $N$ is a value of $g$, then the largest convex $l$-submodule of $M$ contained in $N$ is an $R$-value of $g$. This induces a natural one-to-one correspondence between the value set of $g$ and the $R$-value set of $g$.

Proof. Let $N_{1}$ be an $R$-value of $g$. Since $g \notin N_{1}$ and $N_{1}$ is a prime submodule, $g$ has a unique value $N$ containing $N_{1}$. Therefore, the correspondence $N_{1} \rightarrow N$ is a well-defined mapping from the $R$ value set of $g$ into its value set. Clearly $N_{1}$ is the largest convex $\ell$-submodule of $M$ contained in $N$, since $N_{1}$ is an $R$-value of $g$. Thus the mapping $N_{1} \rightarrow N$ is one-to-one.

Now suppose that $N$ is a value of $g$. Then $N$ is a prime subgroup, and hence contains a minimal prime subgroup (the intersection of a maximal chain of prime subgroups contained in $N$ ). By Theorem 1.1 every minimal prime subgroup is a submodule, and hence $N_{1}$, the largest convex $\ell$-submodule of $M$ contained in $N$, is prime. If $K$ is any convex $\ell$-submodule of $M$ properly containing $N_{1}$, then $K$ properly contains $N$. For $K$ and $N$ are comparable, be primeness of $N_{1}$, and $K \not \equiv N$, by maximality of $N_{1}$. Thus $g \in K$, and $N_{1}$ is an $R$-value of $g$.

Notice that, in general, there is no one-to-one correspondence between $\Gamma$ and $\Gamma_{R}$. For let $R$ be an $\ell$-simple nonarchimedean $f$ ring, and let $M_{R}=R_{R}$. Then $\Gamma_{R}=\{0\}$, whereas $\Gamma$ can be infinite.

We next show that, just as for $\ell$-groups [6], there is a one-toone correspondence between the $R$-values of $g$ in $M$ and the maximal convex $\ell$-submodules of $C_{R}(g)$.

Theorem 2.3. For $0 \neq g \in M$ the $\operatorname{map} \sigma: A \rightarrow A \cap C_{R}(g)$ is a one-to-one correspondence between the set of $R$-values of $g$ in $M$ and the set of maximal convex l-submodules of $C_{R}(g)$. If $N$ is a maximal convex l-submodule of $C_{R}(g)$, then

$$
\sigma^{-1}(N)=\left\{x \in M:|x r| \wedge|g| \in N \text { for all } r \in R_{*}\right\} \cdot
$$

Proof. First note that $N$ is a maximal convex $\ell$-submodule of $C_{R}(g)$ if and only if $N$ is an $R$-value of $g$ in $C_{R}(g)$. Let $\left\{K_{\alpha}: \alpha \in A\right\}$ be the value set of $g$ in $M$, and let $\left\{L_{\alpha}: \alpha \in A\right\}$ be the $R$-value set of $g$ in $M$ (where, of course, $L_{\alpha}$ is the largest convex $l$-submodule of $M$ contained in $K_{\alpha}$ ). Now we have the theorem when $R=Z$ [6, Theorem 3.5]. Thus, $\left\{K_{\alpha} \cap C(g): \alpha \in A\right\}$ is the set of maximal convex $\ell$-subgroups of $C(g)$, and $K_{\alpha}=\left\{x \in M:|x| \wedge|g| \in K_{\alpha} \cap C(g)\right\}$. Again, using this theorem with $M=C_{R}(g),\left\{K_{\alpha}^{\prime}: \alpha \in A\right\}$ is the set of values of $g$ in $C_{R}(g)$, where $K_{\alpha}^{\prime}=\left\{x \in C_{R}(g):|x| \wedge|g| \in K_{\alpha} \cap C(g)\right\}$. Thus, $\left\{K_{\alpha} \cap C_{R}(g): \alpha \in A\right\}$ is the set of values of $g$ in $C_{R}(g)$. Clearly, $L_{\alpha} \cap C_{R}(g)$ is the largest convex $\ell$-submodule of $C_{R}(g)$ contained in $K_{\alpha} \cap C_{R}(g)$, and so $\sigma$ is one-to-one and onto by 2.2.

Finally, $L_{\alpha}^{\prime}=\left\{x \in M:|x r| \wedge|g| \in L_{\alpha} \cap C_{R}(g)\right.$ for all $\left.r \in R_{*}\right\}$ is a convex $\iota$-submodule of $M$ since $R$ is directed. Since $1 \in R_{*}, L_{\alpha}^{\prime} \subseteq K_{\alpha}$. But if $x \in L_{\alpha}$ and $r \in R_{*}$, then $|x r| \wedge|g| \in L_{\alpha} \cap C_{R}(g)$. Thus $L_{\alpha} \subseteq L_{\alpha}^{\prime}$, so $L_{\alpha}=L_{\alpha}^{\prime}$ by maximality of $L_{\alpha}$.

A nonzero element $g$ of $M$ is called $R$-special (special) if it has exactly one $R$-value (value) in $M$. Theorem 2.2 says that $g$ is $R$ special exactly when it is special. If $N \in \Gamma_{R}(N \in \Gamma)$ is the unique $R$ value (value) of $g$ in $M$, then $N$ is called $R$-special (special) also.

The nonzero element $g$ is called basic if $C_{R}(g)$ is totally ordered. Note that $g$ is basic in $M_{R}$ exactly when $g$ is basic in $M_{z}$.

Theorem 2.4. Let $g$ be a nonzero element of the $f$-module $M$. The following statements are equivalent.
(a) $g$ is $R$-special in $M$.
(b) $g$ is $R$-special in $C_{R}(g)$.
(c) $C_{R}(g)$ is a lexicographic extension of a proper convex l-submodule.
(d) $g$ is special in $M$.
(e) $g$ is special in $C(g)$.
(f) $g$ is special in $C_{R}(g)$.
(g) $C(g)$ is a lexicographic extension of a proper convex $\ell$-subgroup.

If this is the case and if $K$ (respectively $N$ ) is the unique $R$-value of $g$ in $M$ (respectively $C_{R}(g)$ ), then $N=K \cap C_{R}(g), C_{R}(g)=$ lex $N$, and $K=N \oplus g^{\perp}$.

Proof. The equivalence of (a) and (b) comes from 2.3. In [6] Conrad has proven that (d), (e), and (g) are equivalent, and thus that (e) and (f) are equivalent. The equivalence of (a) and (d) follows from 2.2.

If (b) is true, then $C_{R}(g)$ has a unique maximal convex $\ell$-submodule $N$. Hence $C_{R}(g)=$ lex $N$, since $N$ is comparable to every convex $\ell$-submodule of $C_{R}(g)$. Thus (b) implies (c). Conversely, if $C_{R}(g)=$ lex $I$, then $I$ is comparable to every convex $\ell$-submodule of $C_{R}(g)$, and hence $C_{R}(g)$ has only one maximal convex $\ell$-submodule.

Finally, Conrad has proven [5, Lemma 6.1] that if $B$ is a convex $\ell$-subgroup of $M$ which is a lexicographic extension of a proper convex $l$-subgroup, then $\left(B \oplus B^{\perp}\right)^{+}=\left\{x \in M^{+}: x\right.$ does not exceed every element of $B\}$. Since $M$ is an $f$-module, $C_{R}(g)^{\perp}=g^{\perp}$. Thus, $\left(C_{R}(g) \oplus g^{\perp}\right)^{+}=\left\{x \in M^{+}: x\right.$ does not exceed every element of $\left.C_{R}(g)\right\}$. Hence $K \subseteq C_{R}(g) \oplus g^{\perp}$. But $g^{\perp} \subseteq K$, so, by the modularity of the lattice of convex $\ell$-submodules, $K=\left(K \cap C_{R}(g)\right) \oplus g^{\perp}=N \oplus g^{\perp}$.

Corollary 2.5. Let $g$ be a special element of the f-module $M$, and let $N$ be the unique value of $g$ in $C_{R}(g)$. Then $N$ is the largest convex l-subgroup of $C(g)$. Thus $g$ has the same value in $C(g)$ as it has in $C_{R}(g)$.

Proof. By $2.4 N \cap C(g)$ is the largest convex $\ell$-subgroup of $C(g)$, and $N=[N \cap C(g)] \oplus\left[g^{\perp} \cap C_{R}(g)\right]$. But $g^{\perp} \cap C_{R}(g)=0$ since $M$ is an $f$-module, so $N=N \cap C(g)$.

Corollary 2.6. Suppose that $g$ is special in $M$. Let $K$ and $N$ be the values of $g$ in $M$ and $C_{R}(g)$, respectively, and let $K_{1}$ and $N_{1}$ be the $R$-values of $g$ in $M$ and $C_{R}(g)$, respectively. Then $K / K_{1}$ and $N / N_{1}$ are isomorphic $<-g r o u p s$, and $K / N$ and $K_{1} / N_{1}$ are isomorphic e-groups.

Proof. $K=N \oplus g^{\perp}$ and $K_{1}=N_{1} \oplus g^{\perp}$ by 2.5 and 2.4.
Corollary 2.7. If $g$ is special but $C(g)$ is not totally ordered, then $C(g)$ contains a nonzero convex l-submodule of $M$.

Proof. If $N$ is the value of $g$ in $C_{R}(g)$ and $N_{1}$ is the $R$-value of $g$ in $C_{R}(g)$, then $N_{1} \subseteq N \subseteq C(g)$ by 2.5. Since $N_{1}$ is prime in $C_{R}(g)$ and thus in $C(g), N_{1} \neq 0$.

Corollary 2.8. If $g$ is special and $N$ (respectively $N_{1}$ ) is the value (respectively $R$-value) of $g$ in $C_{R}(g)$, then $C_{R}(g)=$ lex $N, C_{R}(g)=$ lex $C(g)$, and $C(g)=$ lex $N_{1}$.

Proof. $\quad N_{1} \subseteq N \subseteq C(g) \subseteq C_{R}(g)$ by 2.5 , and $C_{R}(g)=$ lex $N_{1}$. So $C_{R}(g)=$ lex $N$ and $C(g)=$ lex $N_{1}$.

If $g$ is special, then $C(g) / N$ is isomorphic to an $\ell$-subgroup of the reals. In general, $C_{R}(g) / N_{1}$ and $C_{R}(g) / C(g)$ could be large. For instance, let $R$ be an $\ell$-simple $f$-ring, $M=R_{R}$, and $0 \neq g \in M$. Then $N_{1}=0, C_{R}(g)=M$, and so $C_{R}(g) / N_{1}=M, C_{R}(g) / C(g)=M / C(g)$. In particular, if $R=Q[x]$ is ordered lexicographically with the highest term dominating, then $R$ is $\ell$-simple. If

$$
0 \neq g=\alpha_{0}+\alpha_{1} x+\cdots+\alpha_{n} x^{n}
$$

with $\alpha_{n} \neq 0$, then $C(g)=C\left(x^{n}\right)$. Thus, $C_{R}(g) / C(g)=R / C\left(x^{n}\right) \cong M$ as an $\ell$-group.

The following result follows from Theorem 2.2 and from the known case $R=Z$ ([6, Theorem 3.7] and [7, p. 90]) (for a special case of the definition of lex-sum, see below; for the general definition see [7, p. 95]).

Theorem 2.9. A nonzero element $g$ of the f-module $M$ has only a finite number of $R$-values if and only if it is the finite sum of pairwise disjoint $R$-special elements. If $K_{1}, \cdots, K_{n}$ are the $R$-values of $g$ in $M$, then $g=g_{1}+\cdots+g_{n}$ where $g_{i}$ is special with $R$-value $K_{i}$, and $\left|g_{i}\right| \wedge\left|g_{j}\right|=0$ for $i \neq j$. This decomposition of $g$ into disjoint special elements is unique. Finally,

$$
C_{R}(g)=C_{R}\left(g_{1}\right) \oplus \cdots \oplus C_{R}\left(g_{n}\right)
$$

and $g^{\perp \perp}$ is the lex-sum of $g_{1}^{\perp \perp}, \cdots, g_{n}^{\perp \perp}$.
Note that if $g$ has only a finite number of $R$-values but is not $R$-special, then the values of $g$ in $C(g)$ and in $C_{R}(g)$ need not be the same. Thus, 2.5 does not generalize. Theorem 2.9 implies that if $g$ has only a finite number of $R$-values, then each $R$-value of $g$ is special. Just as for $\ell$-groups, the converse of this statement is true.

Theorem 2.10. A nonzero element $g$ of the $f$-module $M$ has only a finite number of $R$-values if and only if each $R$-value of $g$ is $R$ special.

Proof. For a family $\left\{K_{\alpha}: \alpha \in A\right\}$ of convex $\ell$-submodules of $M$ let $V_{R}\left\{K_{\alpha}\right\}=\left\{x \in M\right.$ : each $R$-value of $x$ is a submodule of $K_{\alpha}$ for some $\alpha \in A\} \cup\{0\}$. Then $V_{R}\left\{K_{\alpha}\right\}$ is a convex $\ell$-submodule of $M$. Also, $K \in \Gamma_{R}$ is $R$-special if and only if $V_{R}(K) \nsubseteq K$. For if $K$ is the unique $R$-value of $x$, then clearly $x \in V_{R}(K) \backslash K$. Conversely, if $x \in V_{R}(K) \backslash K$, then $x$ has an $R$-value containing $K$, which must be $K$, since every $R$-value of $x$ is contained in $K$. Thus, $K$ is the only $R$-value of $x$.

Now suppose that each element of $\Gamma_{R}(g)=\left\{K_{\alpha}: \alpha \in A\right\}$ is $R$-special. Let $L=\sum_{\alpha \in A} V_{R}\left(K_{\alpha}\right)$. If $g \notin L$, then $g$ has an $R$-value containing $L$, i.e., $L \subseteq K_{\alpha}$ for some $\alpha \in A$. Thus $V_{R}\left(K_{\alpha}\right) \subseteq K_{\alpha}$, which contradicts the hypothesis that $K_{\alpha}$ is $R$-special. So $g \in L$, and

$$
g \in V_{R}\left(K_{\alpha_{1}}\right)+\cdots+V_{R}\left(K_{\alpha_{n}}\right) \cong V_{R}\left(K_{\alpha_{1}}, \cdots, K_{\alpha_{n}}\right) .
$$

Thus, every $R$-value of $g$ is contained in one of the $K_{\alpha_{i}}$, so $K_{\alpha_{1}}, \cdots, K_{\alpha_{n}}$ are the only $R$-values of $g$.

Following Conrad [6], we say that a lattice $L$ is generated by its set of meet irreducible elements $S$ if every element of $L$ is the greatest lower bound of a dual ideal of $S . \quad L$ is freely generated by $S$ if every element of $L$ is the greatest lower bound of a unique dual ideal of $S$. Conrad has shown that the lattice of convex $\ell$-subgroups of an $\ell$-group $M$ is freely generated by $\Gamma$ if and only if $M$ is finitely-valued, i.e., each element of $M$ has at most a finite number of values. It is, of couse, no surprise that this result holds for $f$ modules.

A lattice $L$ is completely distributive if the following equation and its dual hold in $L$, provided the indicated joins and meets exist:

$$
\bigwedge_{i \in I} \bigvee_{j \in J} x_{i j}=\bigvee_{\phi \in J I} \bigwedge_{i \in I} x_{i \phi(i)} .
$$

Theorem 2.11. For an f-module $M$ with lattice of convex $<-$ submodules $\mathscr{L}\left(M_{R}\right)$ the following statements are equivalent.
(a) $\Gamma_{R}$ freely generates $\mathscr{L}\left(M_{R}\right)$.
(a') $\Gamma$ freely generates $\mathscr{C}\left(M_{z}\right)$.
(b) $\mathscr{L}\left(M_{R}\right)$ is completely distributive.
(b') $\mathscr{P}\left(M_{Z}\right)$ is completely distributive.
(c) $\quad\left(B \vee\left(\bigwedge_{\alpha} A_{\alpha}\right)=\bigwedge_{\alpha}\left(B \vee A_{\alpha}\right)\right.$ for every subset $\left\{A_{\alpha}, B\right\}$ of $\Gamma_{R}$.
(c') $B \vee\left(\bigwedge_{\alpha} A_{\alpha}\right)=\bigwedge_{\alpha}\left(B \vee A_{\alpha}\right)$ for every subset $\left\{A_{\alpha}, B\right\}$ of $\Gamma$.
(d) Each element of $\Gamma_{R}$ is special.
(d') Each element of $\Gamma$ is special.
(e) Each element of $M$ has at most a finite number of $R$-values.
(e') Each element of $M$ has at most a finite number of values.
(f) Each element of $M$ has a unique representation as the sum of a finite number of pairwise disjoint $R$-special elements.
(f') The same as (f) with $R$ replaced by $Z$.

Proof. The equivalence of (a), (b), and (c), and that of (a'), (b'), $\left(c^{\prime}\right)$, $\left(d^{\prime}\right)$, ( $\left.e^{\prime}\right)$, and ( $f^{\prime}$ ) is proven in [6]. The equivalence of (d), (e), and (f) follows from 2.10 and 2.9. Theorem 2.2 implies that (e) and (e') are equivalent. Since $\mathscr{P}\left(M_{R}\right)$ is a complete sublattice of $\mathscr{L}\left(M_{Z}\right)$, (b') implies (b).

Now suppose that (a) is true and let $K \in \Gamma_{R}$. Then $\Delta_{1}=\left\{N \in \Gamma_{R}\right.$ : $N \not \equiv K\}$ and $\Delta_{2}=\Delta_{1} \cup\{K\}$ are distinct dual ideals of $\Gamma_{R}$. If $\cap\{N$ : $N \in \Delta\} \subseteq K$, then $\cap\left\{N: N \in \Delta_{1}\right\}=\cap\left\{N: N \in \Delta_{2}\right\}$, contradicting (a). Thus there exists $g \in \cap\left\{N: N \in A_{1}\right\} \backslash K$. Let $L$ be an $R$-value of $g$ containing $K$. If $L \supseteqq K$, then $L \in \Delta_{1}$ and $g \in L$. Thus $L=K$. If $P$ is any other $R$ value of $g$, then $P \in \Delta_{1}$, so $g \in P$. Thus $K$ is $R$-special, and (a) implies (d).

The concept of finitely-valued is strongly related to that of direct sum.

Theorem 2.12. The f-module $M_{R}$ is a direct sum of totally ordered $R$-modules if and only if it is finitely-valued and each special element is basic.

Proof. Suppose that $M$ is finitely-valued and each special element is basic. If $g$ is a basic element, then $g^{\perp \perp}$ is totally ordered ([7, p. 88] or [1, Lemma 1]). Thus $M$ is the sum of its totally ordered convex $\ell$-submodules. Since two totally ordered convex $\ell$-submodules are disjoint or comparable [7, 3.1], $M$ is the direct sum of totally ordered $R$-modules.

The converse is trivial.
The following theorem shows that finitely-rooted $f$-modules can be built up from a finite family of totally ordered modules by means of direct sums and lexicographic extensions. When $R=Z$ and when the lattice of convex $\ell$-subgroups of $M$ has finite length the theorem is
due to Birkhoff. It has been generalized to non-abelian $\ell$-groups (without the assumption of finite length) by Conrad. Our proof is modelled after a proof that Weinberg [18, p. II 75] has given for the non-abelian case.

Observe that the $f$-module $M_{R}$ has at most a finite number of roots exactly when $M_{z}$ has at most a finite number of roots. More generally, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the roots of $\Gamma$ and the roots of $\Gamma_{R}$. For there is a one-to-one correspondence between the roots of $\Gamma_{R}$ and the minimal prime submodules of $M_{R}$ given by $M_{\alpha} \rightarrow \cap\left\{C: C \in M_{\alpha}\right\}$. Since each minimal prime subgroup of $M$ is a submodule (1.1), the above correspondence establishes a bijection between the roots of $\Gamma$ and those of $\Gamma_{R}$.

An $f$-module $M_{R}$ is a lexicosum of the family of totally ordered $R$-modules $\left\{M_{\alpha}: \alpha \in A\right\}$ if it is in the smallest class $\mathscr{L}$ of $f$-modules containing $\left\{M_{\alpha}: \alpha \in A\right\}$ and satisfying
(1) If $A, B \in \mathscr{L}$, then $A \oplus B \in \mathscr{L}$.
(2) If $K=\operatorname{lex} L$, where $L$ and $K / L \in \mathscr{L}$, then $K \in \mathscr{L}$.

Lemma 2.13. (Weinberg). Let $\Gamma$ be a rooted po-set with only a finite number of roots. If the trunk of $\Gamma$ is empty, then $\Gamma$ is the cardinal sum of two nonempty subsets.

Theorem 2.14. Let $M$ be an f-module over the directed po-ring $R$, and suppose that $\Gamma_{R}$ has only a finite number of roots. Then $M$ is a lexicosum of a finite number of totally ordered modules, and only a finite number of extensions are needed to get to $M$.

Proof. Suppose that $\Gamma_{R}$ has $n$ roots. If $n=1$, then $M$ is totally ordered. Suppose that $n>1$ and the theorem is true for $M$ with less than $n$ roots. If the trunk of $\Gamma_{R}$ is empty, then $\Gamma_{R}$ is the cardinal sum of non-empty subsets $A$ and $B$, by 2.13. Let $M_{1}=\cap\left\{C_{\alpha}\right.$ : $\alpha \in A\}, \quad M_{2}=\cap\left\{C_{\beta}: \beta \in B\right\}$. Then $\quad M_{1}+M_{2}=\bigcap_{\alpha} C_{\alpha}+\bigcap_{\beta} C_{\beta}=\bigcap_{\alpha} \bigcap_{\beta}$ $\left(C_{\alpha}+C_{\beta}\right)$, by 2.11. If $C_{\alpha}+C_{\beta} \cong M$, then $C_{\alpha}+C_{\beta} \subseteq D$ for some $D \in \Gamma_{R}=A \cup B$. This clearly cannot happen, so $M=C_{\alpha}+C_{\beta}$. Thus $M=M_{1} \oplus M_{2}$. Since $\Gamma_{R}(M)$ is the cardinal sum of $\Gamma_{R}\left(M_{1}\right)$ and $\Gamma_{R}\left(M_{2}\right), \Gamma_{R}\left(M_{1}\right)$ and $\Gamma_{R}\left(M_{2}\right)$ each has less than $n$ roots. So we are done, by induction.

If the trunk of $\Gamma_{R}$ is not empty, then $M=$ lex $M_{0}$ and $M_{0}$ is trunkless by 2.1. Since every minimal prime submodule of $M$ is contained in $M_{0}, M_{0}$ has $n$ roots, also. Thus the previous case applies to $M_{0}$.
3. Applications to $f$-rings. An $f$-ring is a lattice-ordered ring $S$ such that $S_{S}$ and ${ }_{s} S$ are both $f$-modules. (If $S_{S}$ is an $f$-module,
then ${ }_{s} S$ need not be an $f$-module.) This two-sided condition may be reduced to a one-sided one. For $a \in S$ let $L_{a}$ be the map defined by (s) $L_{a}=a s$, and let $T_{a}$ be the map defined by (s) $T_{a}=s a$. Then the subring $R$ of $\operatorname{Hom}_{z}(S, S)$ generated by the set $\left\{T_{a}, L_{a}: a \in S\right\}$ is a directed po-ring if its positive cone is defined by

$$
R^{+}=\left\{f \in R: S^{+} f \subseteq S^{+}\right\}
$$

Now $S$ is an $f$-ring if and only if $S_{R}$ is an $f$-module. The convex $\ell$-submodules of $S_{R}$ are, of course, the $\ell$-ideals of $S$. All of the preceding theory now applies to $S_{R}$.

Using Theorem 2.12 and Proposition 1.7 we can obtain generalizations of the results in [1]. In that paper Anderson studied $f$-rings $S$ that satisfy the ascending chain condition for polars. Since Polar $(S)$ is a Boolean algebra, this condition is equivalent to Polar (S) being finite, which is a special case of Polar ( $S$ ) being atomic. In particular, we have that the $f$-ring $S$ is an irredundant subdirect product of totally ordered rings exactly when Polar ( $S$ ) is atomic. If $S$ is semiprime, then it is an irredundant subdirect product of totally ordered domains exactly when Polar ( $S$ ) is atomic. (This also follows from [13, Theorem 3.2].) Also, a finitely-valued semiprime $f$-ring is a direct sum of totally ordered domains if and only if each special element is basic. An example due to Anderson [1, p. 718] shows that a semiprime finitely-rooted $f$-ring need not have this latter property.

A more interesting situation arises if we assume that $S$ is Johnson semisimple, i.e., that $J(S)$, the intersection of the regular maximal $\ell$-ideals of $S$, is zero (see [13] for the theory of the Johnson radical for $f$-rings). The following theorem, and also Proposition 3.3, have analogues in the theory of archimedean $\ell$-groups.

Theorem 3.1. The following statements are equivalent for an $f$ ring $S$.
(a) $S$ is isomorphic to an f-subring of a direct product of a family of $\epsilon$-simple unital f-rings that contains their direct sum.
(b) $S$ is Johnson semisimple and its Boolean algebra of polars is atomic.

Proof. Suppose that (b) holds, and let $\left\{P_{\alpha}: \alpha \in A\right\}$ be the set of maximal polars of $S$. By $1.7 \cap\left\{P_{\alpha}: \alpha \in A\right\}=0$. By [1, Lemma 6], $S=P_{\alpha} \oplus P_{\alpha}^{\perp}$ and $P_{\alpha}^{\perp}$ is an $\ell$-simple unital $f$-ring. We have the isomorphism $\phi: S \rightarrow \prod_{\alpha \in A} P_{\alpha}^{\perp}$ which is induced by the projections $p_{\alpha}: S \rightarrow P_{\alpha}^{\perp}$. Clearly, $\sum_{\alpha \in A} \oplus P_{\alpha}^{\perp} \subseteq \phi(S)$. Thus (b) implies (a).

That (a) implies (b) follows from 1.7 and from the fact that the Johnson radical is a radical.

Note that in an $f$-ring satisfying the conditions of 3.1 a regular maximal $\ell$-ideal need not be a polar. For an example, let $R_{\alpha}$ be an $\ell$-simple unital $f$-ring for each $\alpha$ in the infinite set $A$. Then $\sum_{\alpha \in A} \oplus R_{\alpha}$ is a regular maximal $\iota$-ideal of the $f$-ring

$$
\sum_{a \in A} \oplus R_{\alpha}+Q 1 \cong \prod_{\alpha \in A} R_{\alpha},
$$

but it is not a polar.
Lemma 3.2. If $S$ is a unitable $f$-ring and $e$ is an idempotent of $S$, then $S e$ and $S(1-e)$ are l-ideals of $S$.

Proof. Since $e$ is central [11, 2.1], $S e$ is an ideal. Since (re) ${ }^{+}=$ $r^{+} e$, $S e$ is a sublattice. Suppose that $0 \leqq x \leqq r e$, and let $\phi(S)$ be a totally ordered image of $S$. Then [11, 2.1] $\phi(e)=0$ or 1 , so $\phi(x)=$ $\phi(x) \phi(e)$. Thus $x=x e \in S e$, and $S e$ is an 九-ideal. Since $S(1-e)$ is the annihilator of $e$, it is an $\iota$-ideal, also.

Proposition 3.3. If $J(S)=0$, then every special element of $S$ is basic.

Proof. Let $g \in S$ be special. Then, by $2.4, C_{R}(g)=\operatorname{lex} N$, where $N$ is the maximal $\iota$-ideal of $S$ contained in $C_{R}(g)$. If $K$ is a regular maximal $\ell$-ideal of $C_{R}(g)$, then $K$ is an $\ell$-ideal of $S$, since $C_{R}(g) / K$ is semiprime [9, Lemma 61]. Thus $K=N$, and $J\left(C_{R}(g)\right)=N$. But $J\left(C_{R}(g)\right)=C_{R}(g) \cap J(S)=0$ [13, Theorem 4.16]. Thus $N=0$, and $g$ is basic.

Corollary 3.4. If $J(S)=0$ and $g$ is special in $S$, then there is an idempotent $e \in S$ such that $C_{R}(g)=S e$. Also, $S e$ is an $\ell$-simple $f$ ring.

Proof. By $3.3 C_{R}(g)$ is a totally ordered Johnson semisimple $f$ ring, hence a unital $\ell$-simple $f$-ring. Let $e$ be the identity of $C_{R}(g)$. Since $S$ is unitable [13, Theorem 3.6], $S e$ is an $\ell$-ideal. Thus $S e=$ $C_{R}(g)$.

The following corollary follows immediately from 2.12 and 3.3.
Corollary 3.5. An f-ring is the direct sum of unital <-simple $f$-rings if and only if it is finitely-valued and Johnson semisimple.

## References

1. F. W. Anderson, On f-rings with the ascending chain condition, Proc. Amer. Math. Soc., 13(1962), 715-721.
2. A. Bigard, Contribution a la theorie des groupes reticules, Ph. D. Thesis, University of Paris, 1969.
3. G. Birkhoff, Lattice Theory, New ed., Colloquim Publications No. 25, Amer. Math. Soc., Providence, 1967.
4. G. Birkhoff and R. S. Pierce, Lattice-ordered rings, An. Acad. Brasil. Cr., 28 (1956), 41-69.
5. P. Conrad, Some structure theorems for lattice-ordered groups, Trans. Amer. Math. Soc., 99 (1961), 212-240.
6. The lattice of all convex l-groups of a lattice-ordered group, Czechoslovak Math. J., 15 (1965), 101-123.
7. —, Lex-subgroups of lattice-ordered groups, Czechoslovak Math. J., 18(1968), 86-103.
8. P. Conrad and J. E. Diem, The ring of polar preserving endomorphisms of an abelian lattice-ordered group, Illinois J. Math., 15 (1971) 222-240.
9. N. Divinsky, Rings and Radicals, University of Toronto Press, Toronto, 1965.
10. L. Fuchs, Teilweise geordnete algebraische Strukturen, Vandenhoeck and Ruprecht in Gottingen, 1966.
11. M. Henriksen and J. Isbell, Lattice-ordered rings and function rings, Pacific, J. Math., 12 (1962), 533-565.
12. P. Jaffard, Les Systemes d' Ideaux, Dunod, Paris, 1960.
13. D. G. Johnson, A structure theory for a class of lattice-ordered rings, Acta. Math., 104 (1960), 163-215.
14. D. G. Johnson and J. Kist, Prime ideals in vector lattices, Canad, J. Math., 14 (1962) 517-528.
15. L. S. Levy, Unique subdirect sums of prime rings, Trans. Amer. Math. Soc., 106 (1963), 64-76.
16. P. Ribenboim, On ordered modules, J. fur die reine und angew. Math., 225 (1967), 120-146.
17. T. M. Viswansthan, Ph.D. Thesis, Queens University, Kingston, Canada, 1967.
18. E. C. Weinberg, Lectures on Ordered Groups and Rings, Lecture notes, University of Illinois, Urbana, 1968.
19. E. C. Weinberg, Relative injectives and universals for categories of ordered structures, to appear in Trans. Amer. Math. Soc.

Received November 25, 1970 and in revised form October 12, 1971. The author would like to thank the referee for his many helpful suggestions. Most of this work represents a portion of the author's dissertation written at the University of Illinois under the direction of Professor Elliot Weinberg.

University of Missouri-St. Louis


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ We have recently learned that Bigard [2] has defined an $f$-module (he calls it an $\ell$-module) and has proven the equivalence of (a) and (b) of 1.1 for the case that $R$ is an $\ell$-ring with a positive identity element.

