

# BASES IN COMPLETELY DISTRIBUTIVE LATTICE-ORDERED GROUPS

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

An element  $s$  of a lattice-ordered group ( $\ell$ -group)  $G$  is *basic* (see [4]) if  $s > 0$  and the closed interval  $[0, s]$  is totally ordered. An  $\ell$ -group  $G$  has a *basis* if every element  $g > 0$  exceeds some basic element (every maximal disjoint set of basic elements is then a *basis*). An  $\ell$ -group  $G$  is *completely distributive* (see [2], [3], [11], [12]) if the relation

$$\bigwedge \left\{ \bigvee \{g_{ij} \mid j \in J\} \mid i \in I \right\} = \bigvee \left\{ \bigwedge \{g_{i(if)} \mid i \in I\} \mid f \in J^I \right\}$$

holds whenever  $\{g_{ij} \mid i \in I, j \in J\} \subseteq G$  is such that all the indicated joins and meets exist. By [8, p. 5.18, Theorem 5.8], every  $\ell$ -group that has a basis is completely distributive. We wish to investigate the converse of this result for representable  $\ell$ -groups. To this end, we define the bi-prime group of an  $\ell$ -group (Section 2), which we characterise as the unique convex  $\ell$ -subgroup of  $G$  that is maximal with respect to being generated by its intersections with any two minimal prime subgroups. For each  $\ell$ -group, the bi-prime group contains all the basic elements (Section 2), but it may be the whole group, even if the group is nontrivial and abelian and contains no basic elements. For a completely distributive, representable  $\ell$ -group, however, the latter situation cannot happen: that is, the bi-prime group of such a group has a basis (Theorem 3.1). In Section 4, we consider some examples, including one of an  $\ell$ -group that is abelian and completely distributive and contains no basic elements.

*Notation and Terminology.* For terminology and notation left undefined, see G. Birkhoff [1], L. Fuchs [10], or P. Conrad [8].

A poset in which every pair of elements is comparable is a *totally ordered set*; a totally ordered group is an *o-group*. We write functions on the right, and denote the empty set by  $\square$ . We use  $N$ ,  $Z$ , and  $R$  to denote, respectively, the natural numbers, the integers, and the real numbers. An *L-isomorphism* of  $\ell$ -groups,  $\ell: G \rightarrow H$ , is a one-to-one function such that both it and its inverse  $\ell^{-1}: G \rightarrow H$  preserve the group operations and arbitrary meets and joins.

We denote the cardinal product of a collection  $\{T_\gamma \mid \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  of  $\ell$ -groups by  $\prod \{T_\gamma \mid \gamma \in \Gamma\}$ ; if  $\Gamma$  is finite, say  $\Gamma = \{1, 2\}$ , then we write  $T_1 \times T_2$ . The *lexicographic product*  $L \overleftarrow{\times} T$  of an  $\ell$ -group  $L$  by an  $o$ -group  $T$  is the group  $L \times T$  ordered by  $(x, y) \leq (a, b)$  if  $y < b$  or  $y = b$  and  $x \leq a$ . Under this ordering,  $L \overleftarrow{\times} T$  is an  $\ell$ -group.

Now let  $G$  be an  $\ell$ -group. If  $A, B \subseteq G$ , then we denote the convex  $\ell$ -subgroup generated by  $A$  by  $\langle A \rangle$ ;  $\langle A, B \rangle \equiv \langle A \cup B \rangle$ . For  $A \subseteq G$ , we write

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$$A^+ \equiv \{a \in A \mid a \geq 0\},$$

$$A^\perp \equiv \{x \in G \mid |x| \wedge |a| = 0 \text{ for all } a \in A\}.$$

Then  $A^\perp$  is a convex  $\ell$ -subgroup of  $G$  (see [7]). If  $A = \{a\}$ , we let  $A^\perp = a^\perp$ . If  $M \subseteq G$  is a convex  $\ell$ -subgroup of  $G$ , then  $L(M)$ , the set of left cosets of  $M$ , forms a lattice under the operations

$$(a + M) \vee (b + M) = (a \vee b) + M, \quad (a + M) \wedge (b + M) = (a \wedge b) + M.$$

The convex  $\ell$ -subgroup  $M$  of  $G$  is *prime* if and only if  $L(M)$  is totally ordered; if  $M$  is normal, then  $M$  is prime if and only if  $G/M$  is an o-group. Let  $\{P_\phi \mid \phi \in \Phi(G)\}$  be the set of minimal prime subgroups of  $G$ . If each  $P_\phi$  is normal, then  $G$  is said to be *representable*. A subset  $X \subseteq G$  is *closed* if, whenever  $\{x_\alpha\} \subseteq X$  is such that  $\bigvee_G x_\alpha \in G$ , then  $\bigvee_G x_\alpha = \bigvee_X x_\alpha \in X$ , and similarly for meets. For each  $\phi \in \Phi(G)$ , let

$$P_\phi^* = \left\langle \left\{ g \in G \mid g = \bigvee_G g_\alpha \text{ for some subset } \{g_\alpha\} \subseteq P_\phi^+ \right\} \right\rangle.$$

Then by [3, Lemma 3.2], for each  $\phi \in \Phi(G)$ ,  $P_\phi^*$  is a closed, convex  $\ell$ -subgroup of  $G$  that is normal if  $P_\phi$  is normal. An important result of R. D. Byrd and J. T. Lloyd [3, Corollary 2.8] states that  $G$  is completely distributive if and only if  $\bigcap \{P_\phi^* \mid \phi \in \Phi(G)\} = \{0\}$ . Thus, if  $G$  is completely distributive and representable, the function  $\rho: G \rightarrow \prod \{G/P_\phi^* \mid \phi \in \Phi(G)\}$ , defined by  $(\phi)(g\rho) = g + P_\phi^*$ , is an L-isomorphism of  $G$  into the cardinal product of the o-groups  $\{G/P_\phi^* \mid \phi \in \Phi(G)\}$  (see [8, p. 5.16, Corollary]).

*Convention.* Recall that if  $\{P_\alpha \mid \alpha \in A\}$  is an indexed set of subsets of a set  $X$ , and if  $A = \square$ , then  $\bigcap \{P_\alpha \mid \alpha \in A\} = X$ .

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## 2. THE BI-PRIME GROUP OF AN $\ell$ -GROUP

In this section we define a convex  $\ell$ -subgroup of an  $\ell$ -group  $G$  in terms of the lattice of prime subgroups of  $G$ . This  $\ell$ -subgroup may be characterised as the unique convex  $\ell$ -subgroup that is maximal with respect to being generated by its intersections with any two minimal prime subgroups, and it must contain all the basic elements of  $G$ .

Let  $G$  be an  $\ell$ -group. As in Section 1, let  $\{P_\phi \mid \phi \in \Phi(G)\}$  be the set of minimal prime subgroups of  $G$ . We let

$$B(G) = \bigcap \{ \langle P_\phi, P_\omega \rangle \mid \phi, \omega \in \Phi(G), \phi \neq \omega \}$$

be the *bi-prime group* of  $G$ . Although, as is well known,  $\bigcap P_\phi = \{0\}$ ,  $B(G)$  may be quite large: for instance,  $B(\mathbb{R} \mid \times \mid \mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R} \mid \times \mid \mathbb{R}$ , and  $B((\mathbb{R} \mid \times \mid \mathbb{R}) \overline{\times} \mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \{0\}$ .

**PROPOSITION 2.1.**  $B(G)$  is unique among maximal convex  $\ell$ -subgroups  $H$  of  $G$  that satisfy the condition

(\*) for all  $\alpha, \beta \in \Phi(G)$  such that  $\alpha \neq \beta$ ,

$$H = \langle H \cap P_\alpha, H \cap P_\beta \rangle.$$

*Proof.* It is easy to see that if  $H$  is a convex  $\ell$ -subgroup of  $G$  satisfying (\*), then  $H \subseteq B(G)$ . Thus, it suffices to show that  $B(G)$  satisfies (\*). By [8, p. 1.6, Theorem 1.4], the set of convex  $\ell$ -subgroups of  $G$  is a distributive lattice when ordered by inclusion. Thus, if  $\alpha \neq \beta$  in  $\Phi(G)$ ,

$$\langle B(G) \cap P_\alpha, B(G) \cap P_\beta \rangle = B(G) \cap \langle P_\alpha, P_\beta \rangle.$$

But by definition of  $B(G)$ ,

$$B(G) \cap \langle P_\alpha, P_\beta \rangle = B(G),$$

and hence  $B(G)$  satisfies (\*).

**COROLLARY 2.2.** Let  $G$  be an  $\ell$ -group. Let  $\alpha, \beta \in \Phi(G)$  be such that  $\alpha \neq \beta$ . Then

$$B(G) = \langle B(G) \cap P_\alpha^*, B(G) \cap P_\beta^* \rangle.$$

*Proof.* Clearly,  $B(G) \supseteq \langle B(G) \cap P_\alpha^*, B(G) \cap P_\beta^* \rangle$ . Since  $P_\alpha \subseteq P_\alpha^*$  and  $P_\beta \subseteq P_\beta^*$ , by Proposition 2.1,

$$B(G) = \langle B(G) \cap P_\alpha, B(G) \cap P_\beta \rangle \subseteq \langle B(G) \cap P_\alpha^*, B(G) \cap P_\beta^* \rangle.$$

**PROPOSITION 2.3.** If  $s$  is a basic element of an  $\ell$ -group  $G$ , then  $s \in B(G)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $s$  be a basic element of  $G$ . By [8, p. 3.13, Theorem 3.1],  $s^\perp$  is a minimal prime subgroup of  $G$ . Thus, there exists  $\omega \in \Phi(G)$  such that  $s^\perp = P_\omega$ . If  $G$  is totally ordered,  $\Phi(G)$  has only one element, and hence  $s \in G = B(G)$ , by definition of  $B(G)$ . Otherwise, suppose that  $\phi \in \Phi(G) \setminus \{\omega\}$  is such that  $s \notin P_\phi$ . If  $t \wedge s = 0$ , then  $t \in P_\phi$ , since  $P_\phi$  is prime. Thus  $P_\omega = s^\perp \subseteq P_\phi$ . Since  $P_\phi$  is minimal and  $P_\omega$  is prime, this implies that  $P_\phi = P_\omega$ . This contradicts our choice of  $\phi$ , and thus  $s \in P_\phi$ . Therefore, for all  $\alpha, \beta \in \Phi(G)$  with  $\alpha \neq \beta$ ,  $s \in \langle P_\alpha, P_\beta \rangle$ ; that is,  $s \in B(G)$ .

*Example 2.4.* We construct an  $\ell$ -group  $E$  such that  $B(E) = E$  contains no basic elements.

Let  $L = \prod \{Z \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ , and let

$$E = \{f \in L \mid \text{there exists } k \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } (k+n)f = (n)f \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

Clearly,  $E$  is an  $\ell$ -subgroup of  $L$ , and it is easy to see [9, p. 165, Example 1] that  $E$  contains no basic elements. Furthermore, since each  $g \in E$  is periodic, there exists  $m_g \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $(n)g \leq m_g$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Thus, if  $f, g \in G^+ \setminus \{0\}$ , then  $(n)g \leq m_g(n)f$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $(n)f \neq 0$ . By [8, p. 2.17, Theorem 2.4], this

implies that each proper prime subgroup is both maximal and minimal. Therefore,  $B(E) = E$ .

### 3. COMPLETELY DISTRIBUTIVE, REPRESENTABLE $\ell$ -GROUPS

This section is devoted to showing that the pathology of Example 2.4 disappears in completely distributive, representable  $\ell$ -groups. Specifically, we shall prove the following result.

**THEOREM 3.1.** *If  $G$  is a completely distributive, representable  $\ell$ -group, then  $B(G)$  has a basis.*

If  $G$  is an o-group, then  $G$  is representable and completely distributive, and  $B(G) = G$  has a basis. Thus, we may assume for the proof of Theorem 3.1 that  $G$  is not an o-group. In particular, this means that  $\Phi(G)$  has at least two distinct elements.

The proof of Theorem 3.1 then relies on the notation described in Section 1.

Thus, recall that if  $F = \prod \{G/P_\phi^* \mid \phi \in \Phi(G)\}$ , then  $\rho: G \rightarrow F$  is an L-isomorphism of  $G$  into  $F$ . If  $h \in G^+$  and  $\omega \in \Phi(G)$ , we define  $h^\omega \in F$  by

$$(\phi)h^\omega = \begin{cases} h + P_\omega^* & \text{if } \phi = \omega, \\ P_\phi^* & \text{if } \phi \neq \omega, \end{cases}$$

and  $H(h, \omega) \subseteq G$  by

$$H(h, \omega) = \{f \in G^+ \mid (\omega)(f\rho) \geq h + P_\omega^*\}.$$

**LEMMA 3.2.** *Let  $G$  be a completely distributive, representable  $\ell$ -group that is not an o-group. Then, for all  $\omega \in \Phi(G)$ , and for all  $h \in B(G)^+$ ,*

$$\bigwedge_F [H(h, \omega)\rho] = h^\omega.$$

*Proof.* Clearly,  $h^\omega \leq f\rho$  for all  $f \in H(h, \omega)$ . Conversely, suppose that  $\ell \in F$  is such that  $\ell \leq f\rho$  for all  $f \in H(h, \omega)$ . Since  $h \in H(h, \omega)$ ,

$$\omega\ell \leq (\omega)(h\rho) = h + P_\omega^* = \omega h^\omega.$$

Let  $\phi \in \Phi(G) \setminus \{\omega\}$ . By Corollary 2.2,  $B(G) = \langle P_\phi^* \cap B(G), P_\omega^* \cap B(G) \rangle$ , and since  $G$  is representable, both  $P_\phi^* \cap B(G)$  and  $P_\omega^* \cap B(G)$  are normal in  $B(G)$ . Thus, since  $h \in B(G)$ ,

$$h = k + t \quad \text{for some } k \in P_\phi^* \cap B(G) \text{ and some } t \in P_\omega^* \cap B(G).$$

Therefore

$$h + P_\omega^* = k + P_\omega^* = (\omega)(k\rho),$$

and hence  $k \in H(h, \omega)$ . Thus,  $\ell \leq k\rho$ , and hence

$$\phi\ell \leq (\phi)(k\rho) = P_\phi^* = \phi h^\omega.$$

Therefore,  $\ell \leq h^\omega$ , and the result follows.

*Proof of Theorem 3.1.* Let  $G$  be a completely distributive, representable  $\ell$ -group that is not an  $o$ -group, and suppose that  $h \in B(G)^+ \setminus \{0\}$ . Since  $G$  is completely distributive,  $\bigcap \{P_\phi^* \mid \phi \in \Phi(G)\} = \{0\}$  (see Section 1). Thus,  $h \notin P_\omega^*$  for some  $\omega \in \Phi(G)$ . Suppose that  $\bigwedge_G H(h, \omega) = 0$ . Since  $\rho$  is an  $L$ -isomorphism, this implies by Lemma 3.2 that

$$h^\omega = \bigwedge_F [H(h, \omega)\rho] = \left[ \bigwedge_G H(h, \omega) \right]\rho = 0\rho.$$

This contradicts our choice of  $h$  and  $\omega$ , and hence there exists  $s \in G$  such that  $0 < s \leq f$  for all  $f \in H(h, \omega)$ . Therefore  $0\rho < s\rho \leq f\rho$  for all  $f \in H(h, \omega)$ , and thus by Lemma 3.2,

$$0\rho < s\rho \leq \bigwedge_F [H(h, \omega)\rho] = h^\omega.$$

Since  $G/P_\omega^*$  is totally ordered,  $[0\rho, h^\omega]$  is totally ordered, and hence  $[0\rho, s\rho]$  is totally ordered. Thus, since  $\rho$  is an  $\ell$ -isomorphism,  $[0, s]$  is totally ordered; that is,  $s$  is a basic element of  $G$ . Since  $h \in H(h, \omega)$ ,  $s \leq h$ , and hence  $h$  exceeds a basic element. Therefore,  $B(G)$  has a basis.

**PROPOSITION 3.3.** *Let  $G$  be an  $\ell$ -group. If  $G$  has a basis, then  $B(G)^\perp = \{0\}$ . Conversely, if  $B(G)^\perp = \{0\}$ , and if  $G$  is completely distributive and representable, then  $G$  has a basis.*

*Proof.* If  $G$  has a basis, then every  $g > 0$  exceeds a basic element  $s \in G$ . By Proposition 2.3,  $s \in B(G)$ , and hence, since  $s > 0$ ,  $g \notin B(G)^\perp$ . Therefore,  $B(G)^\perp = \{0\}$ . Conversely, suppose that  $G$  is completely distributive and representable and that  $B(G)^\perp = \{0\}$ . Then each  $g \in G^+ \setminus \{0\}$  is not in  $B(G)^\perp$  and hence exceeds some  $b \in B(G)^+ \setminus \{0\}$ . Since by Theorem 3.1,  $b$  exceeds a basic element of the convex  $\ell$ -subgroup  $B(G)$ ,  $g$  exceeds a basic element of  $G$ . Therefore,  $G$  has a basis.

**COROLLARY 3.4.** *A completely distributive, representable  $\ell$ -group  $G$  has a basis if and only if  $B(G)^\perp = \{0\}$ .*

#### 4. EXAMPLES

*Example 4.1.* We noted in Section 2 that the bi-prime group can be very large in the cases of  $R \mid \times \mid R$  and the group  $E$  of Example 2.4. Now,  $R \mid \times \mid R$  is representable and completely distributive, and it has a basis. Since  $B(R \mid \times \mid R) = R \mid \times \mid R$ , the last two properties are derivable from each other via Theorem 3.1. The  $\ell$ -group  $E$  is certainly representable but has no basic elements. Thus, by Theorem 3.1, since  $B(E) = E$ ,  $E$  is not completely distributive.

*Example 4.2* (see [9, p. 166, Example 5]). We construct a completely distributive, abelian (and hence representable)  $\ell$ -group  $G$  that contains no basic elements and such that  $P_\phi = \bigcap \{ \langle P_\phi, P_\omega \rangle \mid \omega \in \Phi(G) \setminus \{\phi\} \}$  for all  $\phi \in \Phi(G)$ .

*Note.* We shall use much of the terminology from [6] and [9] without explanation.

Let  $\Lambda$  be a root system in which each element covers exactly two elements and such that  $\{x \in \Lambda \mid x \geq \lambda\}$  is finite for all  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ . Let  $G = W(\Lambda, R)$ . (That is, let  $G$

be the group  $\sum \{R \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  with lattice-order determined as follows:  $f \geq 0$  in  $G$  if and only if  $\lambda f \geq 0$  for all  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  such that  $\lambda f \neq 0$  but  $\alpha f = 0$  for all  $\alpha > \lambda$ .) For each  $g \in G^+ \setminus \{0\}$ , it is easy to find  $s, t \in G^+ \setminus \{0, g\}$  such that  $s \vee t = g$  and  $s \wedge t = 0$ , and therefore  $G$  contains no basic elements. Let  $\Gamma(G)$  ( $\Gamma_1(G)$ ) be the set of all (regular) convex  $\ell$ -subgroups of  $G$ . Then, by [6, Lemma 4.1], there exists a unique minimal plenary subset of  $\Gamma_1(G)$ , and hence by [9, Theorem 5.4] and [5, Theorem],  $G$  is completely distributive.

It remains to show that  $P_\phi = T_\phi \equiv \bigcap \{ \langle P_\phi, P_\omega \rangle \mid \omega \in \Phi(G) \setminus \{\phi\} \}$  for all  $\phi \in \Phi(G)$ . Note first that  $B(G) = \{0\}$ , by Theorem 3.1. By [6, Section 2],  $\Lambda$  may be considered as the set of completely meet-irreducible elements of the set  $\Lambda'$  of all dual ideals of  $\Lambda$ , and furthermore, in this case,  $\Lambda$  freely generates  $\Lambda'$ . Thus, by [6, Theorem 4.2],  $\Gamma_1(G)$  is lattice-isomorphic to  $\Lambda$  and freely generates  $\Gamma(G)$ . Therefore  $\{C \in \Gamma_1(G) \mid C \supseteq M\}$  is finite for all  $M \in \Gamma_1(G)$ , and hence every nonregular prime subgroup of  $G$  must be a minimal prime subgroup (see [8, p. 1.14, Theorem 1.7(7)]). Suppose now that  $P_\phi \neq T_\phi$  for some  $\phi \in \Phi(G)$ . Then  $T_\phi \in \Gamma_1(G)$ , and hence there exists  $H \in \Gamma_1(G)$  such that  $P_\phi \subseteq H \subseteq T_\phi$  and  $H \neq T_\phi$ . Suppose that  $T_\omega \subseteq H$  for some  $\omega \in \Phi(G) \setminus \{\phi\}$ . Then  $P_\omega \subseteq T_\omega \subseteq H$ , and thus

$$T_\phi \subseteq \langle P_\phi, P_\omega \rangle \subseteq H.$$

This contradicts our choice of  $H$ , and thus  $T_\omega \not\subseteq H$  for all  $\omega \in \Phi(G)$ . Let

$$\Delta = \{F \in \Gamma_1(G) \mid T_\omega \subseteq F \text{ for some } \omega \in \Phi(G)\}.$$

Then  $H \not\subseteq \Delta$ . Clearly,  $\Delta$  is a dual ideal of  $\Gamma_1(G)$ , and since each  $T_\omega$  is prime,  $T_\omega = \bigcap \{F \in \Delta \mid T_\omega \subseteq F\}$  (see [8, Theorem 1.7 (7)] again). Thus

$$\{0\} = B(G) = \bigcap \{T_\omega \mid \omega \in \Phi(G)\} = \bigcap \Delta.$$

Since  $\Gamma_1(G)$  freely generates  $\Gamma(G)$ ,  $\Gamma_1(G)$  is itself the only dual ideal  $\Xi \subseteq \Gamma_1(G)$  such that  $\bigcap \Xi = \{0\}$ , and therefore  $\Delta = \Gamma_1(G)$ . Since  $H \not\subseteq \Delta$ , this means that  $H \notin \Gamma_1(G)$ , which is a contradiction. We conclude that  $P_\phi = T_\phi$  for all  $\phi \in \Phi(G)$ .

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