

# ARCHIMEDEAN CLOSURES IN LATTICE-ORDERED GROUPS

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**1. Introduction.** Conrad (10) and Wolfenstein (15; 16) have introduced the notion of an archimedean extension (a-extension) of a lattice-ordered group ( $l$ -group). In this note the class  $\mathcal{N}$  of  $l$ -groups that possess a plenary subset of regular subgroups which are normal in the convex  $l$ -subgroups that cover them are studied. It is shown in § 3 (Corollary 3.4) that the class  $\mathcal{N}$  is closed with respect to a-extensions and (Corollary 3.7) that each member of the class  $\mathcal{N}$  has an a-closure. This extends (6, p. 324, Corollary II; 10, Theorems 3.2 and 4.2; 15, Theorem 1) and gives a partial answer to (10, p. 159, Question 1). The key to proving both of these results is Theorem 3.3, which asserts that if a regular subgroup is normal in the convex  $l$ -subgroup that covers it, then this property is preserved by a-extensions.

Theorem 4.1 of § 4 generalizes (8, Theorem 6.3) and (14, Theorem 6.2) by showing that the only members of  $\mathcal{N}$  which are topological groups in their interval topology are the totally ordered groups (o-groups).

My thanks are due to my advisor, Professor Paul F. Conrad.

**2. Preliminaries.** In this section, some definitions and notation are given. Throughout this note  $G$  will denote an  $l$ -group. The reader is referred to (1; 12) for the standard results concerning  $l$ -groups.

A convex  $l$ -subgroup that is maximal with respect to not containing some  $g$  in  $G$  is called a *regular subgroup*. Let  $\Gamma(G)$  be an index set for the collection of all regular subgroups  $G_\gamma$  of  $G$ . For each  $\gamma \in \Gamma(G)$  there exists a unique convex  $l$ -subgroup  $G^\gamma$  of  $G$  that covers  $G_\gamma$ . If  $g$  belongs to  $G^\gamma$  but not  $G_\gamma$ , then  $\gamma$  (or  $G_\gamma$ ) is said to be a *value* of  $g$ . A regular subgroup  $G_\gamma$  is called *special* if there exists an element  $g$  in  $G$  such that  $G_\gamma$  is the unique value of  $g$ . If this is the case, then  $g$  is also called special. For  $\gamma, \lambda \in \Gamma(G)$  we define  $\gamma \leq \lambda$  if  $G_\gamma \subseteq G_\lambda$ . With this order,  $\Gamma(G)$  is a *root system* (9, Theorem 3.3), that is, a partially ordered set in which no two incomparable elements have a common lower bound. A subset  $\Delta$  of  $\Gamma(G)$  is said to be *plenary* if

- (i) each  $0 \neq g$  in  $G$  has at least one value in  $\Delta$ ;
- (ii) if  $g \notin G_\delta$  ( $\delta \in \Delta$ ), then there exists  $\lambda \geq \delta$  ( $\lambda \in \Delta$ ) such that  $\lambda$  is a value for  $g$ .

$\Delta_g$  will denote the set of all values of  $g$  which are members of  $\Delta$ .

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If  $g$  and  $h$  are positive elements in an  $l$ -group  $H$  such that  $g \leq nh$  and  $h \leq mg$  for some positive integers  $m$  and  $n$ , then  $g$  and  $h$  are said to be *a-equivalent*.  $H$  is said to be an *a-extension* of an  $l$ -subgroup  $G$  of  $H$  if for each  $0 < h \in H$  there exists  $0 < g \in G$  such that  $g$  and  $h$  are *a-equivalent*.  $G$  is said to be *a-closed* if there does not exist a proper *a-extension* of  $G$ . An *a-extension* of  $G$  which is itself *a-closed* is called an *a-closure* of  $G$ .

Let  $G$  be an  $l$ -subgroup of an  $l$ -group  $H$  and let  $\mathcal{C}(G)$  ( $\mathcal{C}(H)$ ) denote the lattice of convex  $l$ -subgroups of  $G$  ( $H$ ). We define a mapping  $\sigma$  from  $\mathcal{C}(G)$  into  $\mathcal{C}(H)$  by

$$M\sigma = \bigcap \{J \in \mathcal{C}(H) : M \subseteq J\} \quad (M \in \mathcal{C}(G)).$$

Then  $\sigma$  is a lattice isomorphism of  $\mathcal{C}(G)$  onto  $\mathcal{C}(H)$  if and only if  $H$  is an *a-extension* of  $G$  (10, Theorem 2.1). If this is the case, then

$$J\sigma^{-1} = J \cap G \quad (J \in \mathcal{C}(H)).$$

Suppose that  $H$  is an *a-extension* of  $G$  and for  $\gamma \in \Gamma(G)$  let  $G_\gamma\sigma = H_\gamma$  and let  $G^r\sigma = H^r$ . It was shown (10, p. 137) that  $\{H_\gamma : \gamma \in \Gamma(G)\}$  is the collection of all regular subgroups of  $H$ , and hence the same index set may be chosen for the regular subgroups of  $G$  and  $H$ . In particular,  $\sigma$  maps a plenary subset onto a plenary subset.

Let  $\Lambda$  be a root system and for each  $\lambda$  in  $\Lambda$  let  $R_\lambda$  be a subgroup of the naturally ordered additive group of real numbers. Let  $\Pi$  denote the unrestricted direct sum of the  $R_\lambda$ 's and for  $v = (\dots, v_\lambda, \dots) \in \Pi$ , let

$$S_v = \{\lambda \in \Lambda : v_\lambda \neq 0\}.$$

Let  $V(\Lambda, R_\lambda) = \{v \in \Pi : S_v \text{ satisfies the maximum condition}\}$ . For  $v$  in  $V(\Lambda, R_\lambda)$ , let  $\Lambda_v = \{\lambda \in S_v : v_\alpha = 0 \text{ for all } \alpha > \lambda\}$ . If  $\lambda \in \Lambda_v$ , then  $\lambda$  is said to be a *maximal component* of  $v$ . Then  $v \in V(\Lambda, R_\lambda)$  is defined to be positive if  $v_\lambda > 0$  for each  $\lambda \in \Lambda_v$ . With this order,  $V(\Lambda, R_\lambda)$  is an abelian  $l$ -group (11, Theorems 2.1 and 2.2). The main embedding theorem in (11) asserts that every abelian  $l$ -group can be embedded as an  $l$ -subgroup in an  $l$ -group of this form. For each  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  let  $V_\lambda = \{v \in V(\Lambda, R_\lambda) : v_\alpha = 0 \text{ for all } \alpha \geq \lambda\}$ . Then it is shown in (11) that  $V_\lambda$  is a regular subgroup of  $V(\Lambda, R_\lambda)$ ,  $\Lambda$  is a plenary subset of  $\Gamma(V(\Lambda, R_\lambda))$ , and if  $\lambda \in \Lambda_v$ , then  $\lambda$  is a value of  $v$ .

If  $M \in \mathcal{C}(G)$ , then  $r(M)$  will denote the collection of right cosets of  $M$  in  $G$ . This collection is partially ordered by the relation  $M + x \leq M + y$  if and only if  $m + x \leq y$  for some  $m \in M$ . With respect to this order,  $r(M)$  is a distributive lattice in which  $(M + x) \vee (M + y) = M + x \vee y$  and dually. In particular, if  $M$  is a regular subgroup, then  $r(M)$  is a totally ordered set (9, Theorem 3.2).

If  $T \subseteq G$ , then  $[T]$  will denote the subgroup of  $G$  that is generated by  $T$  and if  $A$  and  $B$  are sets, then  $A \setminus B$  will denote the set of elements in  $A$  but not in  $B$ .

**3. Archimedean extensions.** Throughout this section we shall assume that  $H$  is an *a-extension* of  $G$ , that  $\sigma$  is defined as in § 2, that  $\Gamma(G) = \Gamma(H)$ , and that for  $\gamma \in \Gamma(G)$ ,  $G_\gamma\sigma = H_\gamma$  and  $G^r\sigma = H^r$ . If  $M \in \mathcal{C}(G)$ , let  $N_\sigma(M)$  ( $N(M\sigma)$ ) denote the normalizer of  $M$  ( $M\sigma$ ) in  $G$  ( $H$ ).

LEMMA 3.1. *If  $M \in \mathcal{C}(G)$ , then  $N_G(M) = G \cap N(M\sigma)$ .*

*Proof.* If  $x \in N_G(M)$ , then  $M = x + M - x \subseteq x + M\sigma - x$ . Thus,  $M \subseteq (x + M\sigma - x) \cap G = x + (M\sigma \cap G) - x = x + M - x = M$ . Since  $\sigma^{-1}$  is one-to-one, it follows that  $M\sigma = x + M\sigma - x$ . Conversely, if  $x \in G \cap N(M\sigma)$ , then  $x + M - x = x + (M\sigma \cap G) - x = (x + M\sigma - x) \cap G = M\sigma \cap G = M$ .

LEMMA 3.2. *If  $M$  is a maximal convex  $l$ -subgroup of  $G$ , then  $x \in N_G(M)$  if and only if  $M + x + g = M + x$  for all  $g$  in  $M$ .*

*Proof.* If for each  $g$  in  $M$ ,  $M + x + g = M + x$ , then  $M = M + x + g - x$  and it follows that  $x + M - x \subseteq M$ . Since  $x + M - x$  is also a maximal convex  $l$ -subgroup of  $G$ ,  $x + M - x = M$ . The converse is immediate.

THEOREM 3.3. *For each  $\gamma \in \Gamma(G)$ ,  $G_\gamma$  is normal in  $G^\gamma$  if and only if  $H_\gamma$  is normal in  $H^\gamma$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $H^\gamma$  is an  $a$ -extension of  $G^\gamma$  (10, p. 135, Corollary I), it suffices to take  $G_\gamma$  maximal in  $G$ . Assume that  $G_\gamma$  is normal in  $G$  and suppose (by way of contradiction) that there exists  $0 < y \in H \setminus N(H_\gamma)$ . By Lemma 3.2 there exists  $h \in H_\gamma$  such that  $H_\gamma + y < H_\gamma + y + h \leq H_\gamma + y + |h|$ , where  $|h| = h \vee -h$ . Hence, it may be assumed that  $h > 0$ . By induction it follows that

$$H_\gamma < H_\gamma + y < H_\gamma + y + h < H_\gamma + y + 2h < \dots$$

Now  $0 < y + h - y \in H$ , and since  $H$  is an  $a$ -extension of  $G$ , there exists  $0 < x \in G$  such that

$$y + h - y < x < n(y + h - y) = y + nh - y < y + nh$$

for some positive integer  $n$ . Thus, for all positive integers  $m$ ,

$$mx < mn(y + h - y) < y + mn h.$$

Since  $y + h - y \notin H_\gamma$ , it follows that  $x \notin G_\gamma$ . Again, since  $H$  is an  $a$ -extension of  $G$ ,  $y < z$  for some  $z \in G$ .

Now  $G/G_\gamma$  is an archimedean  $o$ -group, hence there is a positive integer  $m$  such that

$$G_\gamma + z < m(G_\gamma + x) = G_\gamma + mx.$$

Therefore  $H_\gamma + z \leq H_\gamma + mx$ . Since  $y < z$ , it follows that  $H_\gamma + y \leq H_\gamma + z$ . Thus

$$H_\gamma + y \leq H_\gamma + mx \leq H_\gamma + y + mn h.$$

Since  $G_\gamma$  is normal in  $G$ , it follows by Lemma 3.1 that  $mx \in N(H_\gamma)$ . If  $H_\gamma + mx = H_\gamma + y + mn h$ , then by Lemma 3.2,

$$\begin{aligned} H_\gamma + mx &= H_\gamma + mx + h = H_\gamma + y + (mn + 1)h \\ &> H_\gamma + y + mn h = H_\gamma + mx, \end{aligned}$$

a contradiction. Hence

$$H_\gamma + y \leq H_\gamma + mx < H_\gamma + y + mn h.$$

But then

$$H_\gamma + mx < H_\gamma + y + mn h \leq H_\gamma + mx + mn h = H_\gamma + mx,$$

a contradiction. Therefore  $N(H_\gamma) = H$ .

Conversely, if  $H_\gamma$  is normal in  $H$ , then

$$G = G \cap H = G \cap N(H_\gamma) = G \cap N(G_\gamma \sigma) = N_G(G_\gamma)$$

by Lemma 3.1.

An  $l$ -group  $G$  is said to be *representable* if there exists an  $l$ -isomorphism of  $G$  into an unrestricted cardinal sum of  $o$ -groups. Let  $\mathcal{N} = \{G: G \text{ is an } l\text{-group and there exists a plenary subset } \Delta(G) \subseteq \Gamma(G) \text{ such that } G_\delta \text{ is normal in } G^\delta \text{ for each } \delta \in \Delta\}$ . By (3, Corollary 3.2), if  $G$  is a representable  $l$ -group, then  $G \in \mathcal{N}$ .

**COROLLARY 3.4.**  $\mathcal{N}$  is closed with respect to  $a$ -extensions.

Let  $\Delta$  be a plenary subset of  $\Gamma(G)$  such that  $G_\delta$  is normal in  $G^\delta$  for each  $\delta$  in  $\Delta$ . It is well known that  $G^\delta/G_\delta$  is  $o$ -isomorphic to a subgroup of the real numbers. Form  $V(\Delta, G^\delta/G_\delta)$ . If  $v$  and  $w$  are elements of  $V(\Delta, G^\delta/G_\delta)$ , then  $w$  is said to be a  $\beta$ th head of  $v$  if  $\beta \in \Delta_v$  and  $w = \theta$ , the identity of  $V(\Delta, G^\delta/G_\delta)$ , or if:

- (i)  $\beta < \delta$  for some  $\delta \in \Delta_v$ ,
- (ii)  $v_\alpha \neq G_\alpha$  for some  $\alpha \leq \beta, \alpha \in \Delta$ ,
- (iii)  $w_\gamma = v_\gamma$  for all  $\gamma > \beta$ ,
- (iv)  $w_\gamma = G_\gamma$  for all  $\gamma \leq \beta$ .

Thus  $v$  has a  $\beta$ th head if and only if  $\beta \in \Delta_v$  or (i) and (ii) hold. A mapping  $\pi$  of  $G$  into  $V(\Delta, G^\delta/G_\delta)$  is said to be *value-preserving* if whenever  $\delta \in \Delta_g$ , then  $\delta \in \Delta_{g\pi}$  and  $(g\pi)_\delta = G_\delta + g$ .

The proof of the next theorem, which is patterned after the proof of (6, Lemma 1.1), is exceedingly long and will be omitted. The proof may be found in (2, pp. 65–71).

**THEOREM 3.5.** *If  $G \in \mathcal{N}$  and if  $\Delta$  is a plenary subset of  $\Gamma(G)$  such that  $G_\delta$  is normal in  $G^\delta$  for each  $\delta$  in  $\Delta$ , then there exists a one-to-one order and value-preserving mapping  $\pi$  of the set  $G$  into  $V(\Delta, G^\delta/G_\delta)$  such that for each  $g$  in  $G$ :*

- (a)  $\Delta_g = \Delta_{g\pi}$  and  $(g\pi)_\delta = G_\delta + g$  if  $\delta \in \Delta_g, 0\pi = \theta$ ;
- (b) *If  $g\pi$  has a  $\beta$ th head, then there exists  $k$  in  $G$  such that  $k\pi$  is a  $\beta$ th head of  $g\pi$  and  $(g\pi)_\beta = G_\beta + g - k$ ;*
- (c) *If  $k\pi$  is a  $\beta$ th head of  $g\pi, k \in G$ , then  $(g\pi)_\beta = G_\beta + g - k$ ;*
- (d) *If  $\alpha \in \Delta_{g-k}, k \in G$ , then  $(g\pi - k\pi)_\alpha = G_\alpha + g - k$ .*

**COROLLARY 3.6.** *Let  $G \in \mathcal{N}$  and let  $\Delta$  be a plenary subset of  $\Gamma(G)$  such that  $G_\delta$  is normal in  $G^\delta$  for each  $\delta \in \Delta$ . Then an upper bound for the number of elements in any  $a$ -extension of  $G$  is  $c^d$ , where  $c$  and  $d$  are the cardinal numbers of the set of real numbers and the set  $\Delta$ , respectively.*

*Proof.* If  $H$  is any  $a$ -extension of  $G$ , then as observed earlier,  $\Delta$  is a plenary subset of  $\Gamma(H) = \Gamma(G)$ . By Theorem 3.3,  $H_\delta$  is normal in  $H^\delta$  for each  $\delta$  in  $\Delta$ . By Theorem 3.5, there exists a one-to-one mapping of  $H$  into  $V(\Delta, H^\delta/H_\delta)$  and by (10, Theorem 4.1) there exists an isomorphism of  $V(\Delta, H^\delta/H_\delta)$  into  $V(\Delta, R_\delta)$ , where  $R_\delta$  is the group of real numbers for each  $\delta \in \Delta$ . The cardinality of  $V(\Delta, R_\delta)$  is less than or equal to  $c^d$ .

**COROLLARY 3.7.** *If  $G \in \mathcal{N}$ , then  $G$  has an  $a$ -closure and this  $a$ -closure belongs to  $\mathcal{N}$ .*

*Proof.* By Corollary 3.4, any  $a$ -extension of  $G$  belongs to  $\mathcal{N}$ . That  $G$  has an  $a$ -closure follows from the preceding corollary and (10, Lemma 2.1).

The proof of the next theorem is similar to that of (7, Theorem 4.1).

**THEOREM 3.8.** *For an  $l$ -group  $G$  and for  $\gamma \in \Gamma(G)$ , the following are equivalent:*

- (1)  $G_\gamma$  is normal in  $G^\gamma$ ;
- (2) If  $0 < x, y \in G^\gamma \setminus G_\gamma$ , then there exists a positive integer  $n$  such that  $G_\gamma + y < G_\gamma + nx$ ;
- (3) If  $0 < x \in G^\gamma \setminus G_\gamma$  and  $0 \leq g \in G_\gamma$ , then there exists  $h \in G_\gamma$  and a positive integer  $n$  such that  $h + nx - g > x$ .

*Proof.* (1) implies (2) as  $G^\gamma/G_\gamma$  is an archimedean  $o$ -group.

(2) implies (3). Let  $0 < x \in G^\gamma \setminus G_\gamma$  and let  $0 \leq g \in G_\gamma$ . Then

$$g + x - g \in G^\gamma \setminus G_\gamma,$$

and hence by (2) there exists a positive integer  $n$  such that

$$G_\gamma + x < G_\gamma + n(g + x - g) = G_\gamma + g + nx - g = G_\gamma + nx - g.$$

Thus  $x < h + nx - g$  for some  $h \in G_\gamma$ .

(3) implies (1). The proof is divided into three parts. Let  $0 < x \in G^\gamma \setminus G_\gamma$ .

(i) If  $0 < a, b \in G$  such that  $G_\gamma + a \leq G_\gamma + mx$  and  $G_\gamma + b \leq G_\gamma + nx$  for some positive integer  $m$  and  $n$ , then there exists a positive integer  $p$  such that  $G_\gamma + a + b \leq G_\gamma + px$ .

It follows from the definition of the order in  $r(G_\gamma)$  that  $a \leq g_1 + mx$  and  $b \leq g_2 + nx \leq |g_2| + nx$ , where  $g_1, g_2 \in G_\gamma$ , and it may be assumed that  $g_2 \geq 0$ . Thus,  $a + b \leq g_1 + mx + g_2 + nx$ . Now  $0 < mx \in G^\gamma \setminus G_\gamma$  and  $0 \leq g_2 \in G_\gamma$ , and hence by (3), there exists  $h$  in  $G_\gamma$  and a positive integer  $q$  such that  $mx \leq h + qmx - g_2$ , and therefore  $mx + g_2 \leq h + qmx$ . Therefore  $a + b \leq g_1 + h + qmx + nx$ .

(ii) Next we show that (2) is true.

Let  $0 < y \in G^\gamma \setminus G_\gamma$  and suppose (by way of contradiction) that

$$G_\gamma + nx \leq G_\gamma + y$$

for all positive integers  $n$ . Since  $x \in G^\gamma \setminus G_\gamma$ , it follows that  $G_\gamma + nx < G_\gamma + y$  for all  $n$ . Let  $S = \{z \in G: z \geq 0 \text{ and } G_\gamma + z \leq G_\gamma + mx \text{ for some positive}$

integer  $m$ }. Clearly,  $S$  is a convex set that contains  $0$ , and by (i),  $S$  is a semi-group. Moreover,  $x \in [S] \setminus G_\gamma, y \in G^\gamma \setminus [S]$ , and  $G_\gamma \subseteq [S]$ . By (8, Theorem 2.1),  $[S]$  is a convex  $l$ -subgroup of  $G$ . Thus  $[S]$  properly contains  $G_\gamma$  and is properly contained in  $G^\gamma$ , which is a contradiction. Therefore (ii) holds.

(iii)  $G_\gamma$  is normal in  $G^\gamma$ .

Suppose (by way of contradiction) that there exists  $0 < y \in G^\gamma \setminus G_\gamma$  such that  $-y + G_\gamma + y \neq G_\gamma$ . Thus there exists  $0 < h \in G_\gamma$  such that  $G_\gamma < G_\gamma - y + h + y$ . By (2), it follows that there exists a positive integer  $n$  such that

$$G_\gamma + y < G_\gamma + n(-y + h + y) = G_\gamma - y + nh + y.$$

Therefore  $G_\gamma < G_\gamma - y + nh$  or  $G_\gamma = G_\gamma - nh < G_\gamma - y < G_\gamma$ , a contradiction.

For  $g$  in  $G$  let  $G(g)$  denote the convex  $l$ -subgroup of  $G$  generated by  $g$ . Then, as well as the conditions given in Lemma 3.2 and Theorem 3.3, it is shown in (2, Theorem 2.7) that Theorem 3.8 (1) is equivalent to each of the following.

- (4)  $G_\gamma \cap G(g)$  is normal in  $G(g)$  for each  $0 < g \in G^\gamma \setminus G_\gamma$ .
- (5)  $G_\gamma \cap G(g)$  is normal in  $G(g)$  for some  $0 < g \in G^\gamma \setminus G_\gamma$ .

A convex  $l$ -subgroup  $M$  of  $G$  is said to be closed if whenever  $\{g_\alpha \mid \alpha \in A\} \subseteq M$  and  $\bigvee_{\alpha \in A} g_\alpha$  exists, then  $\bigvee_{\alpha \in A} g_\alpha \in M$ . The next theorem and its corollary were proven by J. T. Lloyd and me.

**THEOREM 3.9.** *If  $M \in \mathcal{C}(G)$ , then  $M$  is a closed subgroup of  $G$  if and only if  $M\sigma$  is a closed subgroup of  $H$ .*

*Proof.* If  $M \in \mathcal{C}(G)$  and if  $J = \{g \in G: g = \bigvee_\alpha g_\alpha (\alpha \in A)$  for some subset  $\{g_\alpha \mid \alpha \in A\} \subseteq M^+\}$ , then  $[J]$  is the smallest closed subgroup of  $G$  that contains  $M$  (4, Lemma 3.2). We shall denote the subgroup  $[J]$  by  $M^*$ .

Assume that  $M$  is closed and let  $0 \leq h \in M\sigma^*$ . Since  $H$  is an  $a$ -extension of  $G$ , there exists  $g$  in  $G$  such that  $h \leq g \leq nh$  for some positive integer  $n$ . Then  $g \in M\sigma^*$ , and hence  $g = \bigvee_H h_\alpha (\alpha \in A)$ , where  $\{h_\alpha: \alpha \in A\} \subseteq M\sigma^+$ . For each  $\alpha$  in  $A$  pick  $g_\alpha$  in  $G$  so that  $h_\alpha \leq g_\alpha \leq n_\alpha h_\alpha$  for some positive integer  $n_\alpha$ . Then  $g \wedge g_\alpha \in M$  and  $h_\alpha \leq g \wedge g_\alpha$  for each  $\alpha$ . Since  $g = \bigvee_H h_\alpha (\alpha \in A)$ , it follows that  $g = \bigvee_G (g \wedge g_\alpha) (\alpha \in A)$ . Thus  $g \in M$ , and hence  $h \in M\sigma$ . Therefore  $M\sigma = M\sigma^*$ .

Conversely, suppose that  $M\sigma$  is a closed subgroup of  $H$  and let

$$g = \bigvee_G g_\alpha \quad (\alpha \in A),$$

where  $\{g_\alpha: \alpha \in A\} \subseteq M^+$ . Suppose (by way of contradiction) that  $g \notin M$ . Then  $g \notin M\sigma$ , and hence  $M\sigma < M\sigma + g$ . Let  $T = \{x \in H^+: x \in M\sigma + g\}$ . By (4, Lemma 3.1) there exists  $0 < h_1 \in H$  such that  $h_1 \leq x$  for all  $x$  in  $T$ . In particular,  $h_1 \leq -g_\alpha + g$  for all  $\alpha$  in  $A$ . Let  $0 < g_1 \in G$  such that  $h_1 \leq g_1 \leq nh_1$  for some positive integer  $n$ . If  $h_1 \wedge g_\alpha = 0$  for all  $\alpha$  in  $A$ , then

$$0 = nh_1 \wedge g_\alpha \geq g_1 \wedge g_\alpha \geq 0$$

for all  $\alpha$ , but then  $0 = \bigvee_G (g_1 \wedge g_\alpha) = g_1 \wedge (\bigvee_G g_\alpha) = g_1 \wedge g \geq h_1 > 0$ , a contradiction. Thus there exists  $\beta$  in  $A$  such that  $h_2 = h_1 \wedge g_\beta > 0$ . Clearly,

$h_2 \in M\sigma$  and  $h_2 < x$  for all  $x$  in  $T$ . Let  $0 < g_2 \in G$  such that  $h_2 \leq g_2 \leq mh_2$  for some positive integer  $m$ . Then  $g_2 \in M$ . For each  $\alpha$  in  $A$  we have that  $-h_2 - g_\alpha + g \in T$ , and thus  $-h_2 - g_\alpha + g > h_2$ . Hence  $-g_\alpha + g > 2h_2$ . It follows by induction that  $-g_\alpha + g > qh_2$  for all  $\alpha$  in  $A$  and all positive integers  $q$ . In particular,  $-g_\alpha + g > mh_2 \geq g_2$  for all  $\alpha$ , but then  $g > g - g_2 \geq \bigvee_{\alpha \in A} g_\alpha = g$ , a contradiction.

In (4, p. 126) a distributive radical for an  $l$ -group  $G$  was defined and was denoted by  $D(G)$ . The main result in (4) was that for an  $l$ -group  $G$ ,  $D(G) = 0$  if and only if  $G$  is completely distributive. The following corollary shows that an  $a$ -extension of a completely distributive  $l$ -group is completely distributive.

COROLLARY 3.10.  $D(G) = G \cap D(H)$ .

*Proof.* It was shown in (4, Theorem 3.4) that  $D(G)$  is the intersection of all closed regular subgroups  $\{G_\lambda: \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  of  $G$ . Thus

$$D(G) = \bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} G_\lambda = \bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} (G \cap G_{\lambda\sigma}) = G \cap \left( \bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} G_{\lambda\sigma} \right) = G \cap D(H).$$

**4. Interval topology.** The interval topology of an  $l$ -group is defined by taking as a sub-basis for the closed sets the sets of the form  $\{g \in G: g \geq a\}$  and  $\{g \in G: g \leq a\}$  ( $a \in G$ ). It is well known that:

- (i) if  $G$  is an  $o$ -group, then  $G$  is a topological group in its interval topology, and
- (ii) if  $G$  is a topological group in its interval topology, then this topology is Hausdorff.

Choe (5), Conrad (8), and Wolk (17) found classes of  $l$ -groups such that if an  $l$ -group belonged to the class and was Hausdorff in its interval topology, then it was an  $o$ -group. Jakubik (14, Theorem 6.2) showed that a representable  $l$ -group which was Hausdorff in its interval topology must be an  $o$ -group. The class of representable  $l$ -groups contains the class of abelian  $l$ -groups, and hence the classes of Choe and Wolk. As observed in § 3, if  $G$  is a representable  $l$ -group, then  $G \in \mathcal{N}$ . Holland (13) has given an example of a non-ordered  $l$ -group that is a topological group and a topological lattice in its interval topology.

Conrad's class was the class of  $l$ -groups  $G$  that satisfy the following property:

(F) *each strictly positive element of  $G$  exceeds at most a finite number of disjoint elements.*

It can be deduced from the material in (8; 9) that an  $l$ -group that satisfies property (F) is generated by its special elements, and hence there is a plenary subset  $\Delta \subseteq \Gamma(G)$  such that  $G_\delta$  is special for each  $\delta \in \Delta$ . A regular subgroup which is special is normal in the convex  $l$ -subgroup that covers it (10, Proposition 2.4). Therefore, if  $G$  is an  $l$ -group that satisfies property (F), then  $G \in \mathcal{N}$ .

An element  $g$  in  $G$  is said to be a *non-unit* if  $g > 0$  and if  $g \wedge h = 0$  for some  $0 < h \in G$ . A strictly positive element of  $G$  which is not a non-unit is said to be

a unit. Let  $N$  be the set of all non-units of  $G$ . In (14, p. 68) Jakubik gave the following condition:

( $v_n$ ) there exists  $b_1, \dots, b_n \in N$  such that for any  $c \in N$  the relation

$$c \leq b_1 + \dots + b_n$$

holds.

Clearly,  $b_1 + \dots + b_n$  is a unit. It is shown in (14, Proposition 3.3) that if  $G$  is a non-ordered  $l$ -group which is Hausdorff in its interval topology, then there exists a positive integer  $n$  ( $n \geq 2$ ) such that the condition ( $v_n$ ) is fulfilled.

Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be the class of all  $l$ -groups  $G$  that possess a plenary subset  $\Delta$  of  $\Gamma(G)$  such that if  $\delta$  is a value of a unit in  $G$ , then  $G_\delta$  is normal in  $G^\delta$  ( $\delta \in \Delta$ ). Then  $\mathcal{N} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ .

**THEOREM 4.1.** *If  $G \in \mathcal{T}$  and if  $G$  is Hausdorff in its interval topology, then  $G$  is an o-group.*

*Proof.* Suppose (by way of contradiction) that  $G$  is not an o-group. Then there exists a positive integer  $n$  such that the condition ( $v_n$ ) is satisfied. Let  $b = b_1 + \dots + b_n$  be the element given in the condition ( $v_n$ ). Since  $N$  is not void, we may choose  $g \in N$ . Then  $b \geq g$ . If  $\delta \in \Delta_g$ , then  $G_\delta < G_\delta + g \leq G_\delta + b$ . Thus there exists an  $i$  such that  $b_i \notin G_\delta$ . Let  $\lambda = \max\{\gamma \in \Delta: \gamma \geq \delta \text{ and } \gamma \text{ is a value of some } b_j (1 \leq j \leq n)\}$ . Then  $\lambda$  is a value of some  $b_j$ , say  $b_k$ , and  $\lambda$  is a value of  $b$ . Hence  $G_\lambda < G_\lambda + b_k$  and  $G_\lambda$  is normal in  $G^\lambda$ . By Theorem 3.8, there exists a positive integer  $m$  such that  $G_\lambda + b_i < G_\lambda + mb_k$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . Since  $G_\lambda$  is normal in  $G^\lambda$ , it follows that  $G_\lambda + b = G_\lambda + b_1 + \dots + b_n < G_\lambda + nmb_k$ . This implies that  $b \not\geq nmb_k$  (9, p. 114), but this is contradictory, as  $nmb_k \in N$ . Therefore  $G$  must be an o-group.

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