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# DIRECT LIMITS OF CYCLICALLY ORDERED GROUPS 

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Direct and inverse limits of groups have been dealt with by G. Higman and A. H. Stone [8] and by P. D. Hill [9], [10], [11].

Basic results on cyclically ordered groups are due to L. Rieger [18] and S. Swierczkowski [19]. For further references concerning cyclically ordered groups cf., e.g., [14]. In a recent paper, D. Gluschankof [5] describes interesting connections between cyclically ordered groups and MV-algebras.

Let us remark that the notion of cyclically ordered group can be considered a generalization of the notion of linearly ordered group.

Classes of cyclically ordered groups which are closed with respect to certain constructions (radical classes) have been studied in [15]; the analogous notion for linearly ordered groups has been introduced by Chehata and Wiegandt [2]; cf. also [4] and [12].

We denote by $\mathscr{C}$ the collection of all nonempty classes of cyclically ordered groups which are closed with respect to direct limits; this collection is partially ordered by inclusion.

In the present paper we investigate the properties of the partially ordered collection $\mathscr{C}$.

## 1. Preliminaries

For cyclically ordered groups we apply the same definitions and notation as in [14].
Recall that a mapping $f$ of a cyclically ordered group $G$ into a cyclically ordered group $G^{\prime}$ is said to be a homomorphism if the following conditions are satisfied:
(i) $f$ is a homomorphism with respect to the group operation;
(ii) whenever $x, y$ and $z$ are elements of $G$ such that $f(x), f(y)$ and $f(z)$ are distinct and $[x, y, z]$ holds, then $[f(x), f(y), f(z)]$.
For the sake completeness and for fixing the notation we also recall the notion of direct limit: in fact, we apply it for the case of cyclically ordered groups (cf., e.g.,

Kurosh [17] (p. 437-438) for the case of groups, and Grätzer [6] for the case of universal algebras).

Let $I$ be a directed set. For each $\alpha \in I$ let $G_{\alpha}$ be a cyclically ordered group. Suppose that for each pair of elements $\alpha$ and $\beta$ in $I$ with $\alpha<\beta$ we define a homomorphism $\varphi_{\alpha \beta}$ of $G_{\alpha}$ into $G_{\beta}$ such that $\alpha<\beta<\gamma$ implies that

$$
\varphi_{\alpha \gamma}=\varphi_{\alpha \beta} \cdot \varphi_{\beta \gamma} .
$$

For each $\alpha \in I$ let $\varphi_{\alpha \alpha}$ be the identity on $G_{\alpha}$.
Let $\alpha$ and $\beta$ be elements of $I$ and let $x \in G_{\alpha}, y \in G_{\beta}$. We put $x \equiv y$ if there exists $\gamma \in I$ with $\gamma \geqslant \alpha, \gamma \geqslant \beta$ such that $\varphi_{\alpha \gamma}(x)=\varphi_{\beta \gamma}(y)$. For each $z \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} G \alpha$ put

$$
\bar{z}=\left\{t \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} G_{\alpha}: z \equiv t\right\}
$$

Let $\bar{G}=\left\{\bar{z}: z \in \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} G_{\alpha}\right\}$.
If $z_{i}$ and $v_{i}(i=1,2)$ are elements of $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} G \alpha$ such that $\bar{z}_{1}=\bar{z}_{2}$ and $\bar{v}_{1}=\bar{v}_{2}$, then clearly $\overline{z_{1}+v_{1}}=\overline{z_{2}+v_{2}}$. Hence if we put $\bar{z}_{1}+\bar{v}_{1}=\overline{z_{1}+v_{1}}$, then the operation + on $\bar{G}$ is correctly defined and with respect to this operation $\bar{G}$ is a group.

Next, we define a ternary relation $[,$,$] on \bar{G}$ as follows. For $\bar{x}, \bar{y}$ and $\bar{z}$ in $\bar{G}$ we set $[\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z}]$ if the following conditions are satisfied:
(i) $\bar{x}, \bar{y}$ and $\bar{z}$ are distinct;
(ii) there are $\alpha \in I, x_{1} \in \bar{x}, y_{1} \in y$ and $z_{1} \in \bar{z}$ such that $x_{1}, y_{1}$ and $z_{1}$ belong to $G_{\alpha}$ and the relation $\left[x_{1}, y_{1}, z_{1}\right.$ ] is valid in $G_{\alpha}$.
It is easy to verify that this ternary relation on $\bar{G}$ satisfies the conditions (I)-(IV) from [12]; hence $\bar{G}$ turns out to be a cyclically ordered group. It is said to be the direct limit of the indexed system $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in I}$. We express this situation by writing

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in I} \longrightarrow \bar{G} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We denote by $\mathscr{C}$ the collection of all nonempty classes $C$ of cyclically ordered groups which are closed with respect to direct limits, i.e., which satisfy the following condition; whenever (1) holds and $G_{\alpha} \in C$ for each $\alpha \in I$, then each cyclically ordered group isomorphic to $\bar{G}$ belongs to $C$.

The collection $\mathscr{C}$ is partially ordered by inclusion. The greatest element of $\mathscr{C}$ is the class $C_{m}$ of all cyclically ordered groups.

Let $G \in C_{m}$ and let $H$ be a subgroup of $G$. Assume that there exists a homomorphism $\psi$ of $G$ onto $H$ such that $\psi(h)=h$ for each $h \in H$. Then $H$ is said to be a retract of $G$ and $\psi$ is called a retract mapping corresponding to $H$.

Retracts of abelian cyclically ordered groups were investigated in [13].

Lemma 1.1. Let $X \in \mathscr{C}$ and $G \in X$. Let $H$ be a retract of $G$. Then $H \in X$.
Proof. Let $I$ be the set of all positive integers with the natural linear order. For each $\alpha \in I$ put $G_{\alpha}=G$. Let $\psi$ be a retract mapping corresponding to $H$. For $\alpha, \beta \in I$ with $\alpha<\beta$ and for each $g \in G$ we put $\varphi_{\alpha \beta}(g)=\psi(g)$. Then (1) is valid, where $\bar{G}$ is isomorphic to $H$. Hence $H \in X$.

It is obvious that the above Lemma is not specific for cyclically ordered groups, it is valid for any direct limits of any type of algebraic systems.

The class of all one-element cyclically ordered groups will be denoted by $C_{0}$.

Lemma 1.2. Let $X \in C$. Then $C_{0} \subseteq X$.
Proof. Since $\{0\}$ is a retract of each cyclically ordered group, the assertion follows by 1.1.

Corollary 1.3. $C_{0}$ is the least element of $\mathscr{C}$.
Let $J$ be a nonempty class and for each $j \in J$ let $C_{j}$ be an element of $\mathscr{C}$. Put $C=\bigcap_{j \in J} C_{j}$. Then $C$ belongs to $\mathscr{C}$; hence $C$ is the greatest lower bound of the collection $\left\{C_{j}\right\}_{j \in J}$. Thus by applying the usual lattice theoretic notation we can write

$$
C=\bigwedge_{j \in J} C_{j}
$$

If $D$ is the intersection of all $D_{k}$ in $\mathscr{C}$ such that $D_{k} \geqslant C_{j}$ for each $j \in J$, then under analogous notation we have

$$
D=\bigvee_{j \in J} C_{j}
$$

Lemma 1.4. Let (1) be valid. Let $\alpha \in I$ and let $f_{\alpha}$ be the mapping of $G_{\alpha}$ into $\bar{G}$ such that $f_{\alpha}(x)=\bar{x}$ for each $x \in G_{\alpha}$. The $f_{\alpha}$ is a homomorphism of $G_{\alpha}$ into $\bar{G}$.

This is an immediate consequence of the definition of the relation (1).
The elements of $\mathscr{C}$ will be called direct limit classes. For $H \in C_{m}$ let $P(H)$ be the least element of $\mathscr{C}$ which contains $H$; i.e. $P(H)$ is the direct limit class which is generated by $H$.

For each cyclically ordered group $G$ we denote by $G_{\ell}$ the largest linearly ordered convex subgroup of $G$ (cf., e.g., [14]).

The symbols $C^{\ell}$ and $C^{0}$ will denote the class of all $G \in C_{m}$ such that $G_{\ell}=G$ or $G_{\ell}=\{0\}$, respectively.

Thus, in fact, $C^{\ell}$ is the class of all linearly ordered groups. Also,

$$
C^{\ell} \cap C^{0}=C_{0}
$$

Next, we denote by $C^{01}$ the class

$$
C_{0} \cup\left(C_{m} \backslash C^{\ell}\right)
$$

An important example of cyclically ordered groups is the set $K$ of reals $x$ with $0 \leqslant x<1$; the group operation in $K$ is the addition $\bmod 1$ and for $x, y, z \in K$ the relation $[x, y, z]$ is defined to be valid if some of the following inequalities holds:

$$
x<y<z ; \quad y<z<x ; \quad z<x<y
$$

The importance of $K$ is emphasized by Swierczkowski's Representation Theorem.
Let $\varphi: G \longrightarrow K_{1} \otimes L$ be a representation of a cyclically ordered group $G$ in the sense of [14], Definition 2.4. Under this notation we have

Lemma 1.5. $G$ is linearly ordered if and only if $K_{1}=\{0\}$.
Proof. If $K_{1}=\{0\}$, then $G$ is isomorphic to $L$, thus $G$ is linearly ordered. Conversely, suppose that $G$ is linearly ordered. Then Lemma 3.5 of [14] implies that $K_{1}=\{0\}$.

In [14] the notion of $c$-convexity was introduced. In the present paper we shall use the term "convexity" instead of "c-convexity".

Let us remark that Lemmas 1.2 and 1.3 [15] (given there for the case of abelian cyclically ordered groups) remain valid also for the non abelian case if we add the assumption that the subgroup $H$ under consideration is a normal subgroup of the group $G$.

Then from 1.5 and from [15] (1.1, 1.2 and 1.3) we obtain
Lemma 1.6. Let $G^{\prime}$ be a homomorphic image a cyclically ordered group $G$. Assume that $G$ is not linearly ordered and that $G^{\prime} \neq\{0\}$. Then $G^{\prime}$ is not linearly ordered.

It will be proved below that if $H$ is a subgroup of $K$ (with the inherited cyclic order) and if $f$ is a homomorphism of $H$ into $K$ with $f(H) \neq\{0\}$, then $f(x)=x$ for each $x \in H$. This result will be applied for investigating direct limit classes $X$ with $C_{0} \subseteq X \subset C^{0}$.

Let $A$ be a nonempty class of cyclically ordered groups and let us denote by $T$ the class of all ordinals. Put $A_{1}=A$. Suppose that $\tau \in T, \tau>1$ and that we have defined a subclass $A_{\tau 1}$ of $C_{m}$ for each $\tau(1)<\tau$. We denote by $A_{\tau}$ the class of all cyclically ordered groups $\bar{G}$ having the property that there exists an indexed system $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in I}$ such that

$$
\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in I} \subseteq \bigcup_{\tau(1)<\tau} A_{\tau(1)} \quad \text { and } \quad\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in I} \longrightarrow \bar{G}
$$

Put $A^{*}=\bigcup_{\tau \in T} A_{\tau}$. Then we obviously have
Lemma 1.5. $A^{*}$ is a direct limit class. If $B$ is a direct limit class and $A \subseteq B$, then $A^{*} \subseteq B$.

$$
\text { 2. The classes } C^{\ell} \text { and } C^{0}
$$

Let $K$ be as above.

Lemma 2.1. Let $g \in K$ be such that $n g \neq 0$ for each positive integer $n$. Then there exists a positive integer $m$ such that $[0, m g, g]$ is valid.

The proof is simple; it will be omitted.

Lemma 2.2. Let $g$ be an element of a cyclically ordered group $G$ such that $g \notin G_{\ell}$ and $n g \neq 0$ for each positive integer $n$. Then there is a positive integer $m$ such that [ $0, m g, g$ ] is valid.

Proof. This is a consequence of 2.1 and of Swierczkowski's Representation Theorem (cf. [19]; cf. also [15], Theorem 1.1).

Theorem 2.3. $C^{\ell} \in \mathscr{C}$.
Proof. In the way of contradiction, assume that $C^{\ell}$ does not belong to $\mathscr{C}$. Hence there exists an indexed system $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in I}$ such that (1) is valid, $G_{\alpha} \in C^{\ell}$ for each $\alpha \in I$ and $\bar{G} \notin C^{\ell}$. Thus there is $\bar{g} \in \bar{G}$ with $\bar{g} \notin \bar{G}_{\ell}$.

There are $\alpha \in I$ and $g_{1} \in G_{\alpha}$ such that $\bar{g}=\bar{g}_{1}$. The relation $-\bar{g} \notin G_{\ell}$ is also valid; hence without loss of generality we can suppose that $g_{1}>0$ holds. Consider the homomorphism $f_{\alpha}$ from 1.4. We distinguish two cases.
a) Assume that there exists a positive integer $n$ such that $n \bar{g}=0$. Hence $\overline{n g_{1}}=0$. Put $f_{\alpha}^{-1}(0)=H$. Then $H$ is a convex subgroup of the linearly ordered group $G_{\alpha}$ and $n g_{1} \in H$. Thus $g_{1}$ belongs to $H$ as well and therefore $f_{\alpha}\left(g_{1}\right)=0$, which is contradiction.
b) Now suppose that $n \bar{g} \neq 0$ for each positive integer $n$. In view of 2.2 there exists a positive integer $m$ such that $[0, m \bar{g}, \bar{g}]$ is valid. Clearly $m>1$. Because of $g_{1}>0$ we obtain that $\left[0, g_{1}, m g_{1}\right]$ and hence $\left[0, \bar{g}_{1}, m \bar{g}_{1}\right]$, i.e. $[0, \bar{g}, m \bar{g}]$, which is a contradiction.

In view of [14], Theorem 2.5 we have
Lemma 2.4. Let $G \in C^{0}$. Then $G$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of $K$.

Theorem 2.5. $C^{0} \in \mathscr{C}$.
Proof. By way of contradiction, suppose that there is an indexed system $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in I}$ such that (1) holds, $G_{\alpha} \in C^{0}$ for each $\alpha \in I$ and $\bar{G} \notin C^{0}$. Hence $G_{t} \neq\{0\}$ and thus there exists a strictly positive element $\bar{g}$ in $\bar{G}_{t}$. Therefore $[0, \bar{g}, n \bar{g}]$ is valid for each positive integer $n>1$.

There are $\alpha \in I$ and $g_{1} \in G_{\alpha}$ such that $\bar{g}=\bar{g}_{1}$. Since $G_{\alpha} \in C^{0}$, in view of 2.4 we infer that $G_{\alpha}$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of $K$. Hence according to 2.1 either
a) there is a positive integer $m$ with $m g_{1}=0$, or
b) there is a positive integer $m$ such that $\left[0, m g_{1}, g_{1}\right]$ holds.

Each of the conditions a), b) leads to the conclusion that the relation $[0, \bar{g}, m \bar{g}]$ cannot hold and so we have arrived at a contradiction.

Lemma 2.6. Let $G_{1}$ be a finite cyclically ordered group, $G_{1} \neq\{0\}$. Put $A=$ $P\left(G_{1}\right)$. Then for each $G_{2} \in A$ either $G_{2}=\{0\}$ or $G_{2}$ is isomorphic to $G_{1}$.

Proof. Let $A_{1}$ be the class of all $G_{2} \in C_{m}$ such that either $G_{2}=\{0\}$ or $G_{2}$ is isomorphic to $G_{1}$. Clearly $A_{1} \subseteq A$ and $G_{1} \in A_{1}$. Hence it suffices to verify that $A_{1}$ belongs to $C$.

Assume that (1) is valid, where each $G_{\alpha}$ belongs to $A_{1}$ and $\bar{G} \neq\{0\}$. Then $G_{\alpha} \in C^{0}$ for each $\alpha \in I$. Thus in view of 2.5 we obtain that $\bar{G} \in C^{0}$.

Let $I(1)$ be the set of all $\alpha \in I$ such that $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right) \neq\{0\}$ (where $f_{\alpha}$ is as in 1.4). If $I(1)$ is not confinal with $I$, then $\bar{G}=\{0\}$, which is a contradiction. Thus $I(1)$ is confinal with $I$ and hence without loss of generality we can suppose that $I(1)=I$.

Let $\alpha \in I$. According to $1.4, f_{\alpha}$ is a homomorphism of $G_{\alpha}$ into $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)$. Put $H=f_{\alpha}^{-1}(0)$. Then $H$ is a convex subgroup of $G_{\alpha}$. Since $G_{\alpha}$ is finite it must be isomorphic to a subgroup of $K$. Thus, if $H \neq\{0\}$, then there is $x \in H$ such that $x$ generates the group $G_{\alpha}$; this yields that $H=G_{\alpha}$ and then $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)=\{0\}$, which is a contradiction. Therefore $H=\{0\}$ and hence $f_{\alpha}$ is an isomorphism of $G_{\alpha}$ onto $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)$.

Let $\gamma \in I, \alpha \leqslant \gamma$. Since card $G_{\alpha}=\operatorname{card} G_{\gamma}$ and since this cardinal is finite, the mapping $\varphi_{\alpha \gamma}$ is onto and the kernel of $\varphi_{\alpha \gamma}$ is $\{0\}$; thus $\varphi_{\alpha, \gamma}$ is an isomorphism.

Let $\alpha, \beta \in I$; there is $\gamma \in I$ with $\alpha \leqslant \gamma$ and $\beta \leqslant \gamma$. Let $h \in f_{\beta}\left(G_{\beta}\right)$. Hence there is $g_{\beta} \in G_{\beta}$ with $h=\bar{g}_{\beta}$. Thus $h=\bar{g}_{\gamma}$, where $g_{\gamma}=f_{\beta \gamma}\left(g_{\beta}\right)$. Put $g_{\alpha}=\varphi_{\alpha \gamma}^{-1}\left(g_{\gamma}\right)$. Then $g_{\alpha} \in h$ and hence $h \in f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)$. Therefore $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)=\bar{G}$. Hence $\bar{G}$ is isomorphic to $G_{\alpha}$ and thus $A_{1} \in C$.

Corollary 2.7. Let $G_{1}$ and $A$ be as in 2.6. Then $A$ is an atom of $\mathscr{C}$ and $A \leqslant C^{0}$.
It is obvious that for each positive integer $n$ there is (up to isomorphism) exactly one cyclically ordered group $G^{(n)}$ with $\operatorname{card} G^{(n)}=n$.

If $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are finite cyclically ordered groups with card $G_{1} \neq \operatorname{card} G_{2}$, then in view of 2.6 we obtain that $P\left(G_{1}\right) \neq P\left(G_{2}\right)$. Thus according to 2.7 we have

Corollary 2.8. The number of atoms $A$ of $\mathscr{C}$ with $A<C^{0}$ is infinite.
This result will be sharpened below by performing a more detailed investigation (cf. 4.5).

## 3. Homomorphisms of subgroups of $K$ into $K$

In this section the following result on subgroups of $K$ will be proved (it will be applied in subsequent sections):

Theorem 3.1. Let $\varphi$ be a homomorphism of a subgroup $G$ of $K$ into $K$, $\varphi(G) \neq\{0\}$. Then $\varphi(x)=x$ for each $x \in G$.

We need some Lemmas. We assume that $\varphi$ and $G$ are as in 3.1.

Lemma 3.2. $\varphi$ is an isomorphism of $G$ into $K$.
Proof. The set $S=\{g \in G: \varphi(g)=0\}$ is a convex normal subgroup of $G$; since the only such subgroups are $\{0\}$ and $G$, we infer that $S=\{0\}$ and thus $\varphi$ is an isomorphism of $G$ onto $\varphi(g)$.

Lemma 3.3. Let $G$ be finite. Then $\varphi(x)=x$ for each $x \in G$.
Proof. There exists $x_{1}$ in $G$ which satisfies the following condition:
(*) $x_{1} \neq 0$ and whenever $x_{2} \in G$, then the relation $\left[0, x_{2}, x_{1}\right]$ does not hold. Moreover, $x_{1}$ generates the group $G$.
It is obvious that $n x=0$, where $n=\operatorname{card} G$. In view of $3.2, \varphi$ is an isomorphism, $\varphi\left(x_{1}\right)$ also satisfies the condition (*) (where $G$ is replaced by $\varphi(G)$ ). Thus $\varphi\left(x_{1}\right)=$ $\frac{1}{n}=x_{1}$. Let $x \in G$. There is a positive integer $m$ with $x=m x_{1}$. Therefore $\varphi(x)=m \varphi\left(x_{1}\right)=\frac{m}{n}=x$.

Lemma 3.4. Let $0 \neq x_{1} \in G$ and suppose that $x_{1}$ is a rational number. Then $\varphi\left(x_{1}\right)=x_{1}$.

Proof. Let $x_{1}=\frac{m}{n}$, where $m$ and $n$ are positive integers. Then $n x_{1}=0$. Thus the subgroup $G^{\prime}$ of $G$ which is generated by $x_{1}$ is finite. The mapping $\varphi_{1}$ defined by $\varphi_{1}(z)=\varphi(z)$ for each $z \in G^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism of $G^{\prime}$ into $K$. Thus according to 3.3, the relation $\varphi\left(x_{1}\right)=\varphi_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)=x_{1}$ is valid.

Lemma 3.5. Let $x \in G$ be irrational. Then $\varphi(x)$ is irrational as well.
Proof. By way of contradiction, suppose that $\varphi(x)=y$ is rational. In view of 3.2 , there exists a positive integer $n>1$ such that $n y=0$. Thus neither $[0, y, n y]$ nor [ $0, n y, y]$ holds. On the other hand, the elements $0, x$ and $n x$ are distinct. Therefore either $[0, x, n x]$ or $[0, n x, x]$ is valid. Hence $\varphi$ cannot be an isomorphism, which is a contradiction (cf. again, 3.2).

Let $\mathbb{N}$ be the set of all positive integers. For irrational numbers $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ in $K$ and for $k \in \mathbb{N}$ we put $x_{1} \equiv x_{2}\left(R_{k}\right)$ if there is $m \in\{0,1,2, \ldots, k-1\}$ such that both $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ belong to the interval

$$
\left[m / 2^{-k},(m+1) / 2^{-k}\right]
$$

Lemma 3.6. Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$. For each irrational number $x \in G$ the relation $x \equiv y\left(R_{k}\right)$ is valid, where $y=\varphi(x)$.

Proof. We proceed by induction on $k$. Let $k=1$. Suppose that the relation $x \equiv y\left(R_{1}\right)$ does not hold for some irrational $x \in G$. Then in view of 3.3 we have either
(a)

$$
0<x<\frac{1}{2}<y<1
$$

or

$$
0<y<\frac{1}{2}<x<1
$$

If (a) is valid, then $[0, x, 2 x]$ and $[0,2 y, y]$, hence $\varphi$ fails to be an isomorphism, which is a contradiction (cf. 3.2). In the case (b) the situation is analogous. Hence the assertion holds for $n=1$.

Let $k>1$ and suppose that the assertion holds for $1,2, \ldots, k-1$. Suppose that the relation $x \equiv y\left(R_{k}\right)$ fails to be valid for some irrational $x \in G$. There is $m^{\prime} \in$ $\{0,1,2, \ldots, k-2\}$ such that both $x$ and $y$ belong to the interval

$$
\left[m^{\prime} / 2^{1-k},\left(m^{\prime}+1\right) / 2^{1-k}\right]=\left[2 m^{\prime} / 2^{-k},\left(2 m^{\prime}+2\right) / 2^{-k}\right]
$$

Since the relation $x \equiv y\left(R_{k}\right)$ does not hold, either

$$
2 m^{\prime} / 2^{-k}<x<\left(2 m^{\prime}+1\right) / 2^{-k}<y<\left(2 m^{\prime}+2\right) / 2^{-k}
$$

or

$$
2 m^{\prime} / 2^{-k}<y<\left(2 m^{\prime}+1\right) / 2^{-k}<y<\left(2 m^{\prime}+2\right) / 2^{-k}
$$

Suppose that ( $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$ ) is valid (the method for the case ( $\mathrm{b}^{\prime}$ ) is analogous). Consider the elements $x^{\prime}=2 x$ and $y^{\prime}=2 y$ of $G$. Then $y^{\prime}=\varphi\left(x^{\prime}\right)$. The relation ( $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$ ) implies that

$$
2 x \not \equiv 2 y\left(R_{k-1}\right)
$$

which is a contradiction.

Lemma 3.7. Let $x \in G$ be irrational. Then $\varphi(x)=x$.
Proof. This is an immediate consequence of 3.6.
Now, 3.4 and 3.7 imply that 3.1 is valid.
The following assertion is an immediate consequence of 3.1.
Corollary 3.8. Let (1) be valid. Assume that $\bar{G}$ and $G_{\alpha}$ are subgroups of $K$ for each $\alpha \in I$. Then for each $\alpha, \beta \in I$ the mapping $\varphi_{\alpha, \beta}$ is an embedding of $G_{\alpha}$ into $G_{\beta}$ and $\bar{G}=\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} G_{\alpha}$.
4. The interval $\left[C_{0}, C^{0}\right]$ of $\mathscr{C}$

We will apply the results of the previous section for investigating the interval [ $C_{0}, C^{0}$ ] of the partially ordered collection $\mathscr{C}$.

Lemma 4.1. Let (1) be valid. Suppose that there is $G \in C^{0} . G \neq\{0\}$ such that for each $\alpha \in I$ either $G_{\alpha}=G$ or $G_{\alpha}=\{0\}$. Then $\bar{G}$ is isomorphic to $G$.

Proof. Since $\bar{G} \neq\{0\}$, without loss of generality we can assume that $G_{\alpha}=G$ for each $\alpha \in I$. According to $2.5, \bar{G} \in C^{0}$. In view of 2.4 there are subgroups $\bar{G}^{\prime}$ and $\bar{G}^{\prime}$ of $K$ such that
(i) $G^{\prime}$ and $\bar{G}^{\prime}$ are isomorphic to $G$ or $\bar{G}$ respectively; and
(ii) $\left\{G_{\alpha}^{\prime}\right\}_{\alpha \in I} \longrightarrow \bar{G}^{\prime}$, where $G_{\alpha}^{\prime}=G^{\prime}$ for each $\alpha \in I$.

Let $\alpha \in I$ and consider the mapping $f_{\alpha}$ of $G_{\alpha}^{\prime}$ into $G^{\prime}$ (cf. 1.4). Then according to 3.1, $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}^{\prime}\right)=G_{\alpha}^{\prime}$. Let $g \in \bar{G}^{\prime}$. There is $\beta \in I, \beta \geqslant \alpha$ such that $g \in f_{\beta}\left(G_{\beta}^{\prime}\right)$. Since $\varphi_{\alpha, \beta}$ is an isomorphism by 3.1 and $f_{\alpha}=\varphi_{\alpha, \beta} \cdot f_{\beta}$, we obtain $g \in f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)$.

We have proved that there exists a surjecture homomorphism of $G$ onto $\bar{G}$. Since any $f_{\alpha, \beta}$ is an isomorphism, this homomorphism is an isomorphism as well. Thus $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}^{\prime}\right)=\bar{G}^{\prime}$. Therefore $\bar{G}$ is isomorphic to $G$.

Theorem 4.2. Let $G \in C^{0}, G \neq\{0\}$. Let $A$ be the class of all $G^{\prime} \in C_{m}$ such that either $G^{\prime}=\{0\}$ or $G^{\prime}$ is isomorphic to $G$. Then $A$ is a direct limit class; moreover, $A$ is an atom in $\mathscr{C}$.

Proof. Both assertions follow from 4.1.
If $A$ and $G$ are as in 4.2, then clearly $A=P(G)$.
Lemma 4.3. Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be subgroups of $K, G_{1} \neq\{0\}(i=1,2), G_{1} \neq G_{2}$. Then $P\left(G_{1}\right) \neq P\left(G_{2}\right)$.

Proof. Since $G_{1} \neq G_{2}$, in view of 3.1 we conclude that $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are not isomorphic. Thus according to 4.2 the relation $P\left(G_{1}\right) \neq P\left(G_{2}\right)$ is valid.

Lemma 4.4. Let $X$ be an atom of $\mathscr{C}$ such that $X \leqslant C^{0}$. Then there is a subgroup $G \neq\{0\}$ of $K$ such that $X=P(G)$.

Proof. Since $X$ is an atom of $\mathscr{C}$ there is $G_{1} \in C_{m}$ such that $G_{1} \neq\{0\}$ and $X=P\left(G_{1}\right)$. Next, from $X \leqslant C^{0}$ we infer that $G_{1} \in C^{0}$ and hence in view of 2.4 there is a subgroup $G$ of $K$ such that $G$ is isomorphic to $G_{1}$. Therefore $X=P(G)$.

Theorem 4.5. The mapping $\psi: G \longrightarrow P(G)$ is one-to-one correspondence between the system of all nonzero subgroups of $K$ and the system of all atoms $X$ of $\mathscr{C}$ with $X \leqslant C^{0}$.

Proof. This is a consequence of 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4.
We denote by $\mathscr{S}$ the collection of all nonempty systems of subgroups of $K$ containing the one-element group $\{0\}$.

Each system $\mathscr{A}$ in $\mathscr{S}$ will be considered to be partially ordered by inclusion. We shall deal with the following condition for $\mathscr{A}$ :
(*) If $\mathscr{A}_{1}=\left\{A_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ is a nonempty subsystem of $\mathscr{A}$ such that $\mathscr{A}_{1}$ is directed, then
$\bigcup_{i \in I} A_{i}$ belongs to $\mathscr{A}$.
For $\mathscr{A} \in \mathscr{S}$ let $\psi(\mathscr{A})$ be the class of all $G_{1} \in C_{m}$ such that $G_{1}$ is isomorphic to an element of $\mathscr{A}$.

Lemma 4.6. Let $\mathscr{A} \in \mathscr{S}$. Assume that $\mathscr{A}$ satisfies the condition (*). Then $\psi(\mathscr{A})$ belongs to $\mathscr{C}$ and $\psi(\mathscr{A}) \leqslant C^{0}$.

Proof. Let (1) be valid and suppose that each $G_{\alpha}$ belongs to $\mathscr{A}$. First we shall verify that $\bar{G} \in \mathscr{A}$. The case $\bar{G}=\{0\}$ is clear; assume that $\bar{G} \neq\{0\}$. Then without loss of generality we can assume that, whenever $\alpha, \beta \in I$ and $\alpha<\beta$, then $\varphi_{\alpha, \beta}\left(G_{\alpha}\right) \neq\{0\}$. Thus according to 3.1, $G_{\alpha} \subseteq G_{\beta}$. Next, $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right) \neq\{0\}$ for each $\alpha \in I$. Clearly

$$
\bar{G}=\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} G_{\alpha}
$$

Hence in view of $(*)$ we have $\bar{G} \in \mathscr{A}$. Now by the definition of $\mathscr{C}$ we infer that $\psi(\mathscr{A})$ belongs to $\mathscr{C}$. Let $G \in \psi(\mathscr{A})$. Then $G$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of $K$, whence $G_{\ell}=\{0\}$ and so $G \in C^{0}$. Therefore $\psi(\mathscr{A}) \leqslant C^{0}$ holds.

Lemma 4.7. Let $X \in\left[C_{0}, C^{0}\right], X \neq C_{0}$. Next, let $\mathscr{A}$ be the system of all elements of $\mathscr{S}$ which belong to $X$. Then $\psi(\mathscr{A})=X$ and $\mathscr{A}$ satisfies the condition (*).

Proof. Let $A \in \psi(\mathscr{A})$. Then there is $A_{1} \in \mathscr{A}$ such that $A_{1}$ is isomorphic to $A$. Hence $A_{1} \in X$ and so $\psi(\mathscr{A}) \subseteq X$. Conversely, let $A \in X$. There exists $A_{1} \in \mathscr{S}$ with
the property that $A_{1}$ is isomorphic to $A$. Then $A_{1} \in X$, thus $A_{1} \in \mathscr{A}$. Therefore $A \in \psi(\mathscr{A})$ and hence $X \subseteq \psi(\mathscr{A})$.

Now we have to verify that $\mathscr{A}$ satisfies the condition (*). Let $\left\{A_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be as in the assumption of (*). Without loss of generality we can suppose that $A_{i(1)} \neq A_{i(2)}$ whenever $i(1)$ and $i(2)$ are distinct elements of $I$. For $i(1)$ and $i(2)$ in $I$ we put $i(1) \leqslant i(2)$ if $A_{i(1)} \subseteq A_{i(2)}$. Hence $I$ turns out to be a directed set. Put $A=\bigcup_{i \in I} A_{i}$. Thus $\left\{A_{i}\right\}_{i \in I} \longrightarrow A$. Since each $A_{i}$ belongs to $X$ and $X$ is closed with respect to direct limits we obtain that $A$ belongs to $X$ as well. Therefore $A$ belongs to $\mathscr{A}$ and hence $(*)$ is valid for $\mathscr{A}$.

From the definition of the mapping $\psi$ we immediately obtain

Lemma 4.8. Let $\mathscr{A}_{1}, \mathscr{A}_{2} \in \mathscr{S}$. Then $\mathscr{A}_{1} \subseteq \mathscr{A}_{2} \Longleftrightarrow \psi\left(\mathscr{A}_{1}\right) \subseteq \psi\left(\mathscr{A}_{2}\right)$.
Let $\mathscr{S}_{0}$ be the collection of all $\mathscr{A} \in \mathscr{S}$ which satisfy the condition $(*) ; \mathscr{S}_{0}$ is partially ordered by inclusion.

Theorem 4.9. The interval $\left[C_{0}, C^{0}\right]$ of $\mathscr{C}$ is isomorphic to $S_{0}$.
Proof. This is a consequence of 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8.

Corollary 4.10. The interval $\left[C_{0}, C^{0}\right]$ of $\mathscr{C}$ fails to be a proper class.

Corollary 4.11. The interval $\left[C_{0}, C^{0}\right]$ of $\mathscr{C}$ is atomic (in the sense that for each $X \in\left[C_{0}, C^{0}\right]$ with $X \neq C_{0}$ there exists an atom $Y$ of $\mathscr{C}$ such that $\left.Y \leqslant X\right)$.

Proof. This is a consequence of 4.5.
Below we shall show that the interval $\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$ of $\mathscr{C}$ fails to be atomic.

## 5. The class $C^{01}$

In this section we shall prove that the class $C^{01}$ belongs to $\mathscr{C}$. Next we shall investigate the relations between $C^{01}$ and $C^{\ell}$.

Lemma 5.1. The class $C^{01}$ is closed with respect to homomorphisms.
Proof. Let $G \in C^{01}$ and let $G^{\prime}$ be a homomorphic image of $G$. It suffices to consider the case $G^{\prime} \neq\{0\}$. Then $G \neq\{0\}$ and $G$ fails to be linearly ordered. Thus in view of $1.6, G^{\prime}$ is not linearly ordered. Hence $G^{\prime} \in C^{01}$.

Theorem 5.2. $C^{01}$ is a direct limit class.
Proof. Let (1) be valid, where $G_{\alpha} \in C^{01}$ for each $\alpha \in I$. The case $\bar{G}=\{0\}$ is trivial; suppose that $\bar{G} \neq\{0\}$. There is $\alpha \in I$ with $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right) \neq\{0\}$. Since $f_{\alpha}$ is a homomorphism, 5.1 yields that $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)$ fails to be linearly ordered. Thus $\bar{G}$ is not linearly ordered, and hence $\bar{G} \in C^{01}$.

Remark 5.3. The notion of direct limit class can be, in fact, defined for any type $T$ of algebraic systems which is closed with respect to homomorphism; analogously as above we can consider the collection $\mathscr{C}_{T}$ of all direct limit classes with respect to the given type $T$; for some types $T$ it is more convenient to consider the empty set as being an element of $\mathscr{C}_{T}$ (cf., e.g., [4] for the case when $T$ denotes the variety of all connected monounary algebras). It is easy to verify that in each such partially ordered collection $\mathscr{C}_{T}$ and any $X, Y, X_{i} \in \mathscr{C}_{T}(i \in I)$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
X \vee Y=X \cup Y \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bigwedge_{i \in I} X_{i}=\bigcap_{i \in I} X_{i}, \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y \vee\left(\bigwedge_{i \in I} X_{i}\right)=\bigwedge_{i \in I}\left(Y \vee X_{i}\right) \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, $\mathscr{C}_{T}$ is always a distributive lattice.
We return to the collection $\mathscr{C}$. For each $X \in \mathscr{C}$ we put

$$
X_{1}=X \cap C^{0,1}, \quad X_{2}=X \cap C^{\ell}
$$

Lemma 5.4. Let $X \in \mathscr{C}$. Then $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ belong to $\mathscr{C}$.
Proof. This is a consequence of (2.2), 5.2 and 2.3.
Next, (2.1) yields

Lemma 5.5. Let $X^{\prime} \in\left[C_{0}, C^{01}\right], X^{\prime \prime} \in\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$. Then $X^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime} \in \mathscr{C}$.

Lemma 5.6. Let $X \in \mathscr{C}$. Then $X=X_{1} \cup X_{2}$.
Proof. Since $C^{01} \cup C^{\ell}=\mathscr{C}$ we obtain $X=X \cap \mathscr{C}=X_{1} \cup X_{2}$.

Lemma 5.7. Let $X, Y \in \mathscr{C}$. Then $X \leqslant Y$ iff $X_{1} \leqslant Y_{1}$ and $X_{2} \leqslant Y_{2}$.
Proof. If $X \leqslant Y$, then clearly $X_{1} \leqslant Y_{1}$ and $X_{2} \leqslant Y_{2}$. The converse implication is a consequence of 5.6.

For each $X \in \mathscr{C}$ put $f(X)=\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right)$. Lemmas 5.5 and 5.4 yield.

Lemma 5.8. The mapping $f: \mathscr{C} \rightarrow\left[C_{0}, C^{01}\right] \times\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$ is a surjection.

Theorem 5.9. The mapping $f$ is an isomorphism of $\mathscr{C}$ onto $\left[C_{0}, C^{01}\right] \times\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$.
Proof. This is a consequence of 5.7 and 5.8.
The following example shows that the infinite distributive law dual to (2.3) does not hold in $\mathscr{C}$.

Example 5.10. Put $I=\mathbb{N}$ and for each $n \in I$ let $G_{n}$ be the subgroup of $K$ generated by the element $2^{-n}$. Next, let $\bar{G}$ be the subgroup of $K$ consisting of all elements of the form $x=m \cdot 2^{-n}$, where $m$ is an integer, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $0 \leqslant x<1$. For any $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{N}$ with $\alpha \leqslant \beta$ and for each $x \in G_{\alpha}$ we put $\varphi_{\alpha \beta}(x)=x$. Then $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in I} \rightarrow \bar{G}$. According to $4.5, P\left(G_{n}\right)(n \in \mathbb{N})$ and $P(\bar{G})$ are atoms of $\mathscr{C} ;$ moreover, $P\left(G_{n}\right) \neq P(\bar{G})$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. In view of 4.9 the relation $\bar{G} \in \bigvee_{n \in \mathbb{N}} P\left(G_{n}\right)$ is valid, whence $P(\bar{G}) \leqslant \bigvee_{n \in \mathbb{N}} P\left(G_{n}\right)$. Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P(\bar{G})=P(\bar{G}) \wedge\left(\bigvee_{n \in \mathbb{N}} P\left(G_{n}\right)\right) \\
& \bigvee_{n \in \mathbb{N}}\left(P(\bar{G}) \wedge P\left(G_{n}\right)\right)=C_{0}
\end{aligned}
$$

## 6. On DIRECT LIMIT CLASSES OF LINEARLY ORDERED GROUPS

In this section we will deal with the interval $\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$ of the partially ordered collection $\mathscr{C}$.

Let $G \in C^{\ell}$. For $0<a \in G$ and $0<b \in G$ we write $a \ll b$ if $m a<b$ for each $m \in \mathbb{N}$.

We put $\psi(G)=n$ if the following conditions are satisfied:
(i) There exist elements $0<a_{i} \in G(i=1,2, \ldots, n)$ such that $a_{1} \ll \ldots \ll a_{n}$.
(ii) If $0<b_{j} \in G(j=1,2, \ldots, m)$ and $b_{1} \ll b_{2} \ll \ldots \ll b_{m}$, then $m \leqslant n$.

For $G=\{0\}$ we set $\psi(G)=0$. If $\psi(G) \neq 0$ and $\psi(G) \neq n$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is valid, then we put $\psi(G)=\infty$.

Lemma 6.1. Let $G \in C^{\ell}, n \in \mathbb{N}, \psi(G) \leqslant n$. Let $G_{1}$ be a homomorphic image of $G$. Then $\psi\left(G_{1}\right) \leqslant n$.

Proof. The case $G_{1}=\{0\}$ is trivial; suppose that $G_{1} \neq\{0\}$. Without loss of generality we can assume that $G_{1}=G / H$, where $H$ is an $\ell$-ideal of $G$. For $g \in G$ we denote $\bar{g}=g+H$. Let $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k} \in G$ be such that $\bar{g}_{1}, \bar{g}_{2}, \ldots, \bar{g}_{k} \in G / H$ and suppose that $\overline{0}<\bar{g} \ll \bar{g}_{2} \ll \ldots \ll \bar{g}_{k}$. Then $0 \vee g_{1} \in \bar{g}_{1}$, thus we can take $0 \vee g_{1}$ for $g_{1} ;$ next, $g_{i}>0$ for $i=1,2,3, \ldots, k$. If $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, k-1\}, t \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\operatorname{tg}_{i} \geqslant g_{i+1}$ then $t \bar{g}_{i} \geqslant t \bar{g}_{i+1}$. For each $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, k-1\}$ we have arrived at a contradiction. Hence $g_{1} \ll g_{2} \ll \ldots \ll g_{k}$ and thus $k \leqslant n$. Therefore $\psi\left(G_{1}\right) \leqslant n$.

Proposition 6.2. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $X$ be the class of all linearly ordered groups $G$ such that $\psi(G) \leqslant n$. Then $X$ is a direct limit class.

Proof. Let (1) be valid and suppose that each $G_{\alpha}(\alpha \in I)$ belongs to $X$. It suffices to consider the case $\bar{G} \neq\{0\}$. Without loss of generality we can suppose that $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right) \neq\{0\}$ for each $\alpha \in I$. Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and assume that $\overline{0}<\bar{g}_{1} \ll \bar{g}_{2} \ll \ldots \ll \bar{g}_{k}$ for some elements $\bar{g}_{1}, \bar{g}_{2}, \ldots, \bar{g}_{k}$ in $\bar{G}$. There exists $\alpha \in I$ with the property that there are $h_{i} \in G_{\alpha}\{i=1,2, \ldots, k\}$ such that $f_{\alpha}\left(h_{i}\right)=\bar{g}_{i}$ for each $i=1,2, \ldots, k$. Then according to 1.4 and 6.1 the relation $k \leqslant n$ is valid. Therefore $\psi(\bar{G}) \leqslant n$.

A linearly ordered group $G$ is archimedean iff $\psi(G) \leqslant 1$; hence we obtain

Corollary 6.3.1. The class of all archimedean linearly ordered groups is a limit class.

Corollary 6.3.2. The interval $\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$ of $\mathscr{C}$ is infinite.
A stronger result will be proved below (cf. 6.25).
Let $p>1$ be a prime and let $H_{p}$ be the additive group of all reals of the form $a p^{-n}$, where $a$ is an integer and $n$ is a non-negative integer; we consider the linear order on $H_{p}$.

The following Lemma is obvious.

Lemma 6.4. (i) If $p(1)$ and $p(2)$ are distinct primes, then $H_{p(1)}$ and $H_{p(2)}$ are not isomorphic.
(ii) If $H \neq\{0\}$ is a homomorphic image of $H_{p}$, then $H$ is isomorphic to $H_{p}$.

Let $I$ be a linearly ordered set and for each $i \in I$ let $G_{i}$ be a linearly ordered group. The lexicographic product of the indexed system $\left\{G_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ will be denoted by $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{i \in I} G_{i}$. Next, let $\Gamma_{i \in I}^{0} G_{i}$ be the linearly ordered group consisting of those $g \in \Gamma_{i \in I} G_{i}$ which satisfy the condition that the set $\{i \in I: g(i) \neq 0\}$ is finite.

If $I(1)$ is a nonempty subset of $I$ and $g \in \Gamma_{i \in I(1)} G_{i}$, then the element $g$ will be identified with the element $g^{\prime}$ of $\Gamma_{i \in I} G_{i}$ such that $g^{\prime}(i)=g(i)$ for each $i \in I(1)$ and $g^{\prime}(i)=0$ for each $i \in I \backslash I(1)$.

Let $P$ be the set of all positive primes with the linear order which is dual to the natural one.

Put

$$
H=\mathbf{\Gamma}_{p \in P}^{0} H_{p}
$$

For each $p(1) \in P$ let

$$
G_{p(1)}=\Gamma_{p \geqslant p(1)}^{0} H_{p}
$$

Lemma 6.5. (i) Let $H^{\prime}$ be a homomorphic image of $H$ (or of $G_{p(1)}$, respectively). Then there is $p(2) \in P$ (with $p(2) \geqslant p(1))$ such that $H^{\prime}$ is isomorphic to $G_{p(2)}$.
(ii) Let $p(1)$ and $p(2)$ be elements of $P$ with $p(1) \leqslant p(2)$. Assume that there exists an isomorphism $\varphi$ of $G_{p(1)}$ into $G_{p(2)}$. Then $p(1)=p(2)$ and $\varphi$ is the identity on $G_{p(1)}$.

The proof is simple; it will be omitted.
Let us denote by $X$ the class of all linearly ordered groups $G$ such that either
(i) $G=\{0\}$ or
(ii) there is a prime $p(1)$ such that $G$ is isomorphic to $G_{p(1)}$.

Suppose that (1) is valid and that $G_{\alpha} \in X$ for each $\alpha \in I$; next assume that $\bar{G} \neq\{0\}$. Then we can assume that $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right) \neq\{0\}$ for each $\alpha \in I$. Hence according to 6.5 (i), for each $\alpha \in I$ the linearly ordered group $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)$ is isomorphic to some $G_{p(1)}$; let $p(0)$ be the minimal of the primes $p(1)$ with this property and let $\alpha(1)$ be the corresponding element of $I$.

Let $\bar{g} \in \bar{G}$. There is $\alpha(2) \in I$ with $\alpha(2) \geqslant \alpha(1)$ such that $\left.\bar{g} \in f_{\alpha(2)}\left(G_{\alpha(2)}\right)\right)$. Then $f_{\alpha(2)}\left(G_{\alpha(2)}\right) \supseteq f_{\alpha(1)}\left(G_{\alpha(1)}\right.$. There is $p(2) \in P$ such that $f_{\alpha(2)}\left(G_{\alpha(2)}\right)$ is isomorphic to $G_{p(2)}$. In view of the minimality of $p(1)$ we obtain that $p(1) \leqslant p(2)$. Next, there exists an isomorphism $\varphi$ of $G_{p(1)}$ into $G_{p(2)}$. Thus according to 6.5 (ii) the relation $i(1)=i(2)$ is valid. This yields that $f_{\alpha(2)}\left(G_{\alpha(2)}\right)=f_{\alpha(1)}\left(G_{\alpha(1)}\right)$. Hence $\bar{G}=f_{\alpha(1)}\left(G_{\alpha(1)}\right)$.

Therefore $\bar{G}$ is isomorphic to $G_{p(1)}$. So we have
Lemma 6.6. $X \in \mathscr{C}$ and $X \leqslant C^{\ell}$.
For $p \in P$ we denote by $X_{p}$ the collection of all $G \in C^{\ell}$ such that either $G=\{0\}$ or $G$ is isomorphic to $G_{p(1)}$ for some $p(1) \geqslant p$. By the same method as above we can prove

Lemma 6.7. Let $p \in P$. Then $X_{p} \in \mathscr{C}$ and $X_{p} \leqslant C^{\ell}$.
Lemma 6.8. Let $Y \in C^{\ell}, C_{0} \neq Y<X$. Then there is $p \in P$ such that $Y=X_{p}$.

Proof. According to the definition of $X$ there is $p \in P$ such that $G_{p} \in Y$ and $G_{p(1)} \neq Y$ whenever $p(1)<p$. Then clearly $Y=X_{p}$.

If $p(1)<p(2)$, then $X_{p(1)}>X_{p(2)}$. Thus 6.8 yields
Theorem 6.9. There is no atom $A$ in $\mathscr{C}$ with $A \leqslant X$.

Corollary 6.10. The interval $\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$ of $\mathscr{C}$ fails to be atomic.
In view of the above results the question arises whether the collection of atoms in $\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right.$ ] is nonempty. The "natural" candidates of being atoms here seem to be the limit classes $P(Z), P(Q)$ and $P(R)$, where $Z, Q$ and $R$ are additive groups of all integers, all rationals or all reals, respectively, with the natural linear order.

In what follows we perform the corresponding discussion for $P(Z), P(Q)$ and $P(R)$. It will be shown that $P(Z)$ fails to be an atom of $\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$; on the other hand, both $P(Q)$ and $P(R)$ are atoms of $\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$.

In view of $2.3, P(Z), P(Q)$ and $P(R)$ are elements of $\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$.

Lemma 6.11. Let $\psi$ be a homomorphic mapping of $Q$ into $Q, \varphi(Q) \neq\{0\}$. Then $\varphi(Q)=Q$.

Proof. If $q_{1}, q_{2} \in Q, n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n q_{1}=q_{2}$, then $n \varphi\left(q_{1}\right)=\varphi\left(q_{2}\right)$. Hence $\varphi(Q)$ is divisible. The only nonzero divisible subgroup of $Q$ is $Q$; thus $\varphi(Q)=Q$.

Lemma 6.12. Let (1) be valid. Assume that $G_{\alpha}=Q$ for each $\alpha \in I$ and $\bar{G} \neq\{0\}$. Then $\bar{G}$ is isomorphic to $Q$.

Proof. Since $\bar{G} \neq\{0\}$ we can assume that $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right) \neq\{0\}$ for each $\alpha \in I$. Next, if $\alpha, \beta \in I$ and $\alpha<\beta$, then in view of 6.11 the relation $f_{\alpha \beta}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)=G_{\beta}$ is valid.

Let $x \in \bar{G}$ and let $\alpha \in I$. There exists $\gamma \in I$ such that $\gamma \geqslant \alpha$ and $x \in f_{\gamma}\left(G_{\gamma}\right)$. Thus $x=f_{\gamma}\left(x_{1}\right)$ for some $x_{1} \in G_{\gamma}$. There is $x_{2} \in G_{\alpha}$ with $x_{1}=f_{\alpha \gamma}\left(x_{2}\right)$. Hence $f_{\alpha}\left(x_{2}\right)=x$ and so $f_{\alpha}$ is an epimorphism. We obtain that $f_{\alpha}$ is an isomorphism of $G_{\alpha}$ onto $\bar{G}$. Therefore $\bar{R}$ is isomorphic to $Q$.

Proposition 6.13. $P(Q)$ is an atom of $\mathscr{C}$ and $P(Q) \in\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$.
Proof. Since $Q \in C^{\ell}$, in view of $C^{\ell} \in \mathscr{C}$ we obtain that $P(Q) \in\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$. The fact that $P(Q)$ is an atom of $\mathscr{C}$ is a consequence of 6.12 .

Now we shall apply a similar argument for $R$. A homomorphism of a linearly ordered group $G_{1}$ into a linearly ordered group $G_{2}$ is said to be complete if, whenever $\left\{x_{i}\right\}_{i \in I} \subseteq G_{1}$ and $\bigvee_{i \in I} x_{i}$ exists in $G_{1}$, then $V_{i \in I} \varphi\left(x_{i}\right)=\varphi\left(\bigvee_{i \in I} x_{i}\right)$ holds in $G_{2}$. This condition is equivalent to the corresponding dual one.

Lemma 6.14. Let $\varphi$ be a homomorphism of $R$ into $R$. Then $\varphi$ is a complete homomorphism.

Proof. If $\varphi(R)=\{0\}$, then the assertion is trivial. Suppose that $\varphi(R) \neq\{0\}$. Then $\varphi$ is a monomorphism. Let $x, x_{i} \in R(i \in I), x=\bigvee_{i \in I} x_{i}$. Then $\varphi\left(x_{i}\right) \leqslant \varphi(x)$ for each $i \in I$. By way of contradiction, suppose that the relation $\bigvee_{i \in I} \varphi\left(x_{i}\right)=\varphi(x)$ does not hold. Then there is $y \in R$ such that $\varphi\left(x_{i}\right)<y<\varphi(x)$ for each $i \in I$. Put $\varphi(x)-y=z$.

Since $\varphi(R) \neq\{0\}$ there is $t \in R$ with $\varphi(t)>0$. For each positive integer $m$ we have $\varphi\left(\frac{1}{m} t\right)=\frac{1}{m} \varphi(t)$. If $z \leqslant \frac{1}{m} \varphi(t)$ for each $m \in \mathbb{N}$, then $m z \leqslant \varphi(t)$ for each positive integer $m$, which is impossible. Thus there is $0<z_{1} \in R$ such that $\varphi\left(z_{1}\right)<z$. Therefore $\varphi(x)>\varphi(x)-\varphi\left(z_{1}\right)>\varphi(x)-z=y>\varphi\left(x_{i}\right)$ for each $i \in I$; hence $x>x-z_{1}>x_{i}$ for each $i \in I$, which is a contradiction.

Lemma 6.15. Let $\varphi$ be a homomorphism of $R$ into $R, \varphi(R) \neq\{0\}$. Then $\varphi(R)=R$.

Proof. Let $0<y \in R$. By the same method as in the proof of 6.14 we obtain that there is $0<x \in R$ and that $\varphi(x) \leqslant y$. Thus there exist $x_{n} \in R(n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that the sequence $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ is increasing, upper bounded and $\bigvee_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \varphi\left(x_{n}\right)=y$. Then according to 6.14, $\varphi\left(\bigvee_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x_{n}\right)=y$. Therefore $\varphi(R)=R$.

Lemma 6.16. Let (1) be valid. Assume that $G_{\alpha}=R$ for each $\alpha \in I$ and $\bar{G} \in\{0\}$. Then $\bar{G}$ is isomorphic to $R$.

Proof. According to $2.3, \bar{G}$ is linearly ordered. Next, in view of 6.3. $\bar{G}$ is archimedean. Without loss of generality we can assume that $\bar{G}$ is a subgroup of $R$. Next, we can suppose that $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right) \neq\{0\}$ for each $\alpha \in I$. Thus according to 6.15, $f_{\alpha}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)=R$ for each $\alpha \in I$, whence $\bar{G}=R$.

Proposition 6.17. $P(R)$ is an atom of $\mathscr{C}$ and $P(R) \in\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$.
Proof. Since $R$ belongs to $C^{\ell}$ we obtain that $P(R) \in\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$. In view of 6.16, $P(R)$ is an atom of $\mathscr{C}$.

Lemma 6.18. $Q \in P(Z)$.
Proof. Let $I$ be the set of all positive integers; for $m(1)$ and $m(2)$ in $I$ we put $m(1) \leqslant m(2)$ if either $m(1)=m(2)$ or $m(2)$ is divisible by $m(1)$.

Next, for each $\alpha \in I$ let $G_{\alpha}$ be the additive group of all rationals of the form $\frac{n}{m}$, where $n$ runs over $Z$ and $m=\alpha$; the group $G_{\alpha}$ is linearly ordered in the natural way. Thus $G_{\alpha}$ is isomorphic to $Z$ for each $\alpha \in I$. For $\alpha, \beta \in I$ with $\alpha<\beta$ we
have $G_{\alpha} \subset G_{\beta}$; let $\varphi_{\alpha, \beta}$ be the identical mapping of $G_{\alpha}$ into $G_{\beta}$. It is clear that $\left\{G_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in I} \longrightarrow \bar{G}$, where $\bar{G}$ is isomorphic to $Q$. Thus $Q \in P(Z)$.

Corollary 6.19. $P(Q)<P(Z)$; hence $P(Z)$ fails to be an atom in $\mathscr{C}$.
Proof. In view of 6.18 we have $P(Q) \leqslant P(Z)$; according to 6.13 and 6.12 the relation $Z \notin P(Q)$ is valid. Hence $P(Q)<P(Z)$. Since $P(Q)$ is an atom in $\mathscr{C}, P(Z)$ cannot be an atom.

The proof of the following result will be omitted.
Proposition 6.20. Let $\mathscr{V}$ be a variety of lattice ordered groups. Then the class $\mathscr{V} \cap C^{\ell}$ belongs to $\mathscr{C}$.

The natural question arises how large is the interval $\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$ of $\mathscr{C}$. We will show that there exists an injective mapping of the class of all infinite cardinals into $\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$; hence $\left[C_{0}, C^{\ell}\right]$ is a proper class.

Lemma 6.21. For each infinite cardinal $\beta$ there exists a linearly ordered group $G_{\beta}$ such that
(i) $G_{\beta}$ is a simple lattice ordered group, and
(ii) $\operatorname{card} G_{\beta} \geqslant \beta$.

Proof. This is a consequence of results of Chehata [1] and Dlab [3] (cf. also [16], pp. 90-91).

Let $G \in C^{\ell}$. For $H \in C^{\ell}$ consider the following condition:
$(G)$ Let $0 \neq h \in H$. Then there is a subgroup $H_{1}$ of $H$ with $h \in H_{1}$ such that $H_{1}$ is isomorphic to $G$.

Lemma 6.22. Let $G$ be a simple linearly ordered group, $G \neq\{0\}$. Let (1) be valid and suppose that each $G_{\alpha}(\alpha \in I)$ satisfies the condition $(G)$. Then $\bar{G}$ satisfies the condition $(G)$ as well.

Proof. Let $0 \neq \bar{h} \in \bar{G}$. There exists $\alpha \in I$ and $h \in G_{\alpha}$ such that $f_{\alpha}(h)=\bar{h}$. Next, there is a subgroup $H_{1}$ of $G_{\alpha}$ with $h \in H_{1}$ such that $H_{1}$ is isomorphic to G. Put $f_{\alpha}\left(H_{1}\right)=H_{2}$. Then $H_{2}$ is a homomorphic image of $H_{1}$ and $0 \neq \bar{h} \in H_{2}$. Therefore, since $H_{2}$ is simple, $H_{2}$ is isomorphic to $H_{1}$ and so $H_{2}$ is isomorphic to $G$.

Let $G \neq\{0\}$ be a simple linearly ordered group. Put $A=\{G\}$ and let $A^{*}$ be as in 1.5.

Lemma 6.23. Each nonzero element of $A^{*}$ satisfies the condition (G).
Proof. This is a consequence of 6.22 and the definition of $A^{*}$ (cf. Section 1).

Let us denote by $M$ the class of all infinite cardinals. We define by transfinite induction an injective mapping $\varphi$ of $M$ into $C^{\ell}$ as follows. For $\beta=\aleph_{0}$ let $\varphi(\beta)=G_{\beta}$ be as in 6.21. Suppose that $\aleph_{0}<\beta \in M$ and that we have defined $\varphi(\beta(1))$ for each $\beta(1)<\beta$. There exists a cardinal $\beta^{\prime}$ with $\beta^{\prime}>\operatorname{card} G_{\beta(1)}$ for each $\beta(1)<\beta$. According to 6.21 there exists a simple linearly ordered group $G$ such that card $G>$ $\beta^{\prime}$. We put $\varphi(\beta)=G$. Then $\varphi$ is injective.

Next, for each $\beta \in M$ we set $\psi(\beta)=\{\varphi(\beta)\}^{*}$.
Proposition 6.24. Let $\beta_{1}, \beta_{2} \in M, \beta_{1}<\beta_{2}$. Then $\psi\left(\beta_{1}\right) \neq \psi\left(\beta_{2}\right)$.
Proof. Assume that $\psi\left(\beta_{1}\right)=\psi\left(\beta_{2}\right)$. Then $G_{\beta(1)} \in \psi\left(\beta_{1}\right)$ implies that $G_{\beta(1)} \in$ $\psi\left(\beta_{2}\right)$. There exists $0 \neq x \in G_{\beta(1)}$. In view of 6.23 there exists a subgroup $H$ of $G_{\beta(1)}$ such that $x \in H$ and $H$ is isomorphic to $G_{\beta(2)}$. Hence card $H=\operatorname{card} G_{\beta(2)}>$ $\operatorname{card} G_{\beta(1)}$, which is a contradiction.

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