

that $x < b_0 * x < b_1 * x < b_2 * x < \dots < 1$. Let F be the filter generated by $\{b_i \mid i < \omega\}$, i.e. $F = \{s \mid \exists i < \omega: s \geq b_i\}$. By (ii) F is comonomial, so let $f \in F$ such that $f * x = \max[x]_F$. Firstly $f \geq b_i$ for some $i < \omega$. Then $f * x \leq b_i * x < b_{i+1} * x$. On the other hand $b_{i+1} \in F$ and so $b_{i+1} * x \leq f * x$. This is a contradiction and so our assumption on x must be false. This proves the theorem.

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PROJECTIONS OF MIXED LIE RINGS

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Introduction

The aim of this article is the study of the lattice isomorphisms (projections) of Lie rings. We will make use of generally accepted terminology (see, for example, [6], [2]).

Notation. $S(\mathcal{L})$ is the lattice of all subrings of \mathcal{L} ; $\varphi: S(\mathcal{L}) \rightarrow S(\mathcal{L}^\varphi)$ will denote a lattice isomorphism; $\mathcal{A}^\varphi \subseteq \mathcal{L}^\varphi$ will denote the image of the subalgebra $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{L}$ under φ ; $N(\mathcal{A})$, $[\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}]$ will denote the normalizer and the commutator, respectively, of $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{L}$; $Z(\mathcal{L})$ is the centre of \mathcal{L} ; $C_{\mathcal{A}}(X)$ is the centralizer of X in $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{L}$; \mathbf{Z} is the ring of real integers; $\langle X \rangle$ denotes the subring generated by X .

An element $a \in \mathcal{L}$ will be called *proper* if $aa \neq 0$ for every $a \in \mathbf{Z}$ ($a \neq 0$); otherwise, it will be called *periodic*. The ring \mathcal{L} is *proper* if all its elements are proper; it will be called *mixed* (or *nonperiodic*) if it contains both the proper and periodic elements, and it will be called *periodic* if all its elements are periodic. The set of all the periodic elements of \mathcal{L} will be denoted by $t(\mathcal{L})$. It is clear that $t(\mathcal{L})$ is an ideal in \mathcal{L} . The *dimension* of \mathcal{L} , denoted by $\dim \mathcal{L}$, is defined to be the maximal number of linearly independent elements. It is clear that $\dim(\mathcal{L}/t(\mathcal{L})) = \dim \mathcal{L}$.

We say that the ring \mathcal{L} is *determined* (strictly determined) by $S(\mathcal{L})$ if $\varphi: S(\mathcal{L}) \rightarrow S(\mathcal{L}^\varphi)$ implies $\mathcal{L} \cong \mathcal{L}^\varphi$ (φ is induced by an isomorphism between \mathcal{L} and \mathcal{L}^φ).

A lattice isomorphism $\varphi: S(\mathcal{L}) \rightarrow S(\mathcal{L}^\varphi)$ is called *normal* if $N(\mathcal{A}) = N(\mathcal{A}^\varphi)$ for each subring $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{L}$.

In Section 1 we prove an analogy of a theorem of A. S. Pekelis [1]. In Sections 2 and 3, with the help of some ideas from [1], [4], we construct examples which give negative answers to natural questions in connection with the theorem of Section 1 and theorems from [3], [4].

1. Projections of mixed 2-nilpotent Lie rings

THEOREM. *Let $\varphi: S(\mathcal{L}) \rightarrow S(\mathcal{L}^\nu)$ be a lattice isomorphism between 2-nilpotent Lie rings. If \mathcal{L} contains a proper non-abelian subring, then φ is induced by an isomorphism.*

It is clear that for the proof it is sufficient to consider only the case where \mathcal{L} is finitely generated. The lattice isomorphism φ is induced by the one-to-one mappings φ_1 and $\varphi_2 = -\varphi_1$, which are isomorphisms on any abelian subring $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{L}$, and $\mathcal{A}^\nu \subseteq \mathcal{L}^\nu$.

The proof of this fact is the same as the proof of a similar fact in the group case (see [5]); we must only remark that φ is normal [3] and that this fact implies that φ preserves the nilpotency class of subrings [1].

Note that from the condition of theorem it follows that there exist elements $x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{L}$ such that

$$\{x_1\} \cap \{x_2\} = 0, \quad nx_1x_2 \neq 0,$$

for every integer $n \neq 0$. Clearly, $\dim \mathcal{L} \geq 3$. On the subring $\{x_1, x_2\}$ the projection φ is induced by only one isomorphism [3].

Of two mappings φ_1 and φ_2 let us take that one which coincides with φ on $\{x_1\}$ and let us denote it by φ . Let $\varphi(x) = y$ in \mathcal{L}^ν for each $x \in \mathcal{L}$. It is clear that $\varphi(kx) = k\varphi(x)$ for any $x \in \mathcal{L}$.

Let us show that for each $x \in \mathcal{L}$

$$(A) \quad \varphi(x_1 + x) = \varphi(x_1) + \varphi(x).$$

Consider the following cases:

1. x is a proper element and $\{x_1\} \cap \{x\} = 0$, $kx_1x \neq 0$ for each $k \in \mathbf{Z}$;
2. x is a proper element and $\{x_1\} \cap \{x\} = 0$, $kx_1x = 0$, $nx_2x \neq 0$ for each $n \in \mathbf{Z}$;
3. x is a proper element and $\{x_1\} \cap \{x\} = 0$, $kx_1x = 0$, $k_0x_2x = 0$;
4. x is a proper element and $\{x_1\} \cap \{x\} \neq 0$;
5. x is a periodic element.

We shall prove (A) for each case.

1. In this case the subring $\{x_1, x\}$ is proper and (A) is evident [3].
2. If $n(x_2 + x)x_1 = 0$ for a certain $n \geq 1$, then

$$0 = kn(x_2 + x)x_1 = knx_2x_1 \neq 0 \Rightarrow n(x_2 + x)x_1 \neq 0$$

for each $n \geq 1$. On the other hand, if

$$\{x_2\} \cap \{x_1 + x\} \neq 0,$$

then

$$k_1(x_1 + x) = k_2x_2 \Rightarrow 0 = k_1k(x_1 + x)x_1 = k_2kx_2x_1 \neq 0.$$

Consequently, if $n(x_1 + x)x_2 \neq 0$, we have

$$\varphi[x_1 + (x_2 + x)] = \varphi[x_2 + (x_1 + x)] = y_2 + \varphi(x_1 + x) = y_1 + y_2 + y \Rightarrow (A).$$

If $k_0(x_1 + x)x_2 = 0$ ($k_0 > 1$), then $n(x + k_0x_2)x_1 \neq 0$ because

$$0 = kn(x + k_0x_2)x_1 = knk_0x_2x_1 \neq 0.$$

Consequently, we have

$$\varphi[(x + x_1) + k_0x_2] = \varphi[(x + k_0x_2) + x_1] = y + k_0y_2 + y_1 = \varphi(x_1 + x) + k_0y_2 \Rightarrow (A).$$

3. In this case $n(x_1 + x)k_0x_2 \neq 0$ for each $n \in \mathbf{Z}$ because

$$0 = n(x_1 + x)k_0x_2 = nk_0x_1x_2 \neq 0.$$

On the other hand, $n(x + k_0x_2)x_1 \neq 0$ because $knx_1x + knx_2x_1 = 0$ otherwise. As in the previous case, we conclude that (A) is true.

4. Element $z = x_1x_2$ is proper and $z \in Z(\mathcal{L})$. Then

$$\varphi[z + (x_1 + x)] = \bar{z} + \varphi(x_1 + x) \quad (\bar{z} \in Z(\bar{\mathcal{L}})).$$

On the other hand, $z + x_1$ is a proper element and

$$\{z + x_1\} \cap \{x_2\} = 0, \quad n(z + x_1)x_2 \neq 0.$$

If $\{z + x_1\} \cap \{x\} = 0$, then using case 3 we get

$$\varphi[(z + x_1) + x] = \bar{z} + y_1 + y \Rightarrow (A).$$

5. It is clear that there is an integer $k_0 > 1$ such that $k_0x_2 \in C_{\mathcal{L}}(\{x\})$.

On the other hand, $\{x_1 + x\} \cap \{k_0x_2\} \neq 0$ and $n(x_1 + x)k_0x_2 \neq 0$ because $0 = k_0nx_1x_2 + nk_0xx_2 \neq 0$ otherwise.

Similarly, $nx_1(x + k_0x_2) \neq 0$. From this we find (as in case 4) that (A) is true.

Proof of the theorem. Suppose that x_4 and x_5 are arbitrary elements of \mathcal{L} . From the previous considerations we conclude that it is sufficient to consider the situation where there exists an element $x \in \mathcal{L}$ such that $mx_4x \neq 0$, $nx_5x \neq 0$ for each $m, n \in \mathbf{Z}$.

Suppose that for some $k, k_1, k_2, k_3 \in \mathbf{Z}$ we have

$$kx_4x_5 = 0, \quad k_1x_1x_5 = 0, \quad k_2x_1x_4 = 0, \quad k_3x_4x_2 = 0.$$

Then for $\bar{k} = k_1k_2$ we have $\bar{k}x \in C_{\mathcal{L}}(\{x_4, x_5\})$. If $n(\bar{k}x_1 + x_4)x_2 \neq 0$ for each $n \geq 1$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(\bar{k}x_1 + x_4 + x_5) &= \varphi[(\bar{k}x_1 + x_4) + x_5] = \bar{k}y_1 + y_4 + y_5 \\ &= \bar{k}y_1 + \varphi(x_4 + x_5) \Rightarrow \varphi(x_4 + x_5) = y_4 + y_5. \end{aligned}$$

To end the proof we must show that

$$\varphi(x_4x_5) = \varphi(x_4)\varphi(x_5), \quad \forall x_4, x_5 \in \mathcal{L}.$$

If \mathcal{L} is 2-nilpotent and φ is normal, we have

$$\varphi(x_4x_5) = \alpha\varphi(x_4)\varphi(x_5),$$

where α is an integer. The ring $\{x_1, x_4+x_5\}$ is proper.

Consequently, from the previous considerations we have

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi[x_1(x_4+x_5)] &= \varphi(x_1x_4+x_1x_5) = \varphi(x_1)\varphi(x_4+x_5) \\ &= \varphi(x_1)\varphi(x_4) + \varphi(x_1)\varphi(x_5) = \varphi(x_1x_4) + \varphi(x_1)\varphi(x_5) \\ &\Rightarrow \varphi(x_1x_4) = \varphi(x_1)\varphi(x_4) \Rightarrow \varphi[x_4(x_1+x_5)] \\ &= \varphi(x_4x_1+x_4x_5) = \varphi(x_4)\varphi(x_1) + \varphi(x_4x_5) = \varphi(x_4)(x_1+x_5) \\ &= \varphi(x_4)\varphi(x_1) + \varphi(x_4)\varphi(x_5) \Rightarrow \varphi(x_4x_5) = \varphi(x_4)\varphi(x_5). \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof of the theorem.

2. IIS-isomorphisms of 2-nilpotent Lie rings

The following questions arise naturally in connection with the theorem of Section 1 and Theorem 6.2 from [3].

1. Is every normal lattice isomorphism of a 2-nilpotent Lie ring \mathcal{L} ($\dim \mathcal{L} \geq 2$) induced by an isomorphism?

2. If \mathcal{L} is a mixed n -nilpotent ($n \geq 3$) Lie ring which contains a proper n -nilpotent subring, then is every normal lattice isomorphism of \mathcal{L} induced by an isomorphism?

On the other hand, one might consider a more rich lattice than $S(\mathcal{L})$.

A subset \mathcal{L}_0 of a ring \mathcal{L} is called *subsemiring* if

$$x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{L}_0 \Rightarrow x_1+x_2 \in \mathcal{L}_0, \quad x_1x_2 \in \mathcal{L}_0.$$

It is clear that the collection $IIS(\mathcal{L})$ of all subsemirings of \mathcal{L} is a lattice and that $S(\mathcal{L}) \subset IIS(\mathcal{L})$. An isomorphism

$$\varphi: IIS(\mathcal{L}) \rightarrow IIS(\mathcal{L}^e)$$

is called a *IIS-isomorphism*. Isomorphisms of a subsemiring lattice are analogous to *IIS-isomorphisms* for groups. From group theory we have the theorem of M. N. Aršinov [1]: Every *IIS-isomorphism* of a non-periodic nilpotent group is induced either by an isomorphism or by an anti-isomorphism.

It is therefore natural to pose the question:

3. Is an analogous theorem true for Lie rings?

Below we give examples which answer all these questions in the negative. In constructing these examples we use some ideas from [1], [4].

EXAMPLE 1. Let the Lie ring $\mathcal{A} = \{x_1, x_2, k\}$ have the defining relations

$$x_1x_2 = k, \quad kx_1 = 0, \quad kx_2 = 0, \quad pk = 0$$

(p is a prime number different from 2). The elements x_1 and x_2 are proper.

It is clear that $\mathcal{A} = \{x_1, x_2\}$, $[\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}] = \{k\}$, \mathcal{A} is a 2-nilpotent ring and $\dim \mathcal{A} = 2$. Each element l of \mathcal{A} has a unique expression in the form

$$l = \alpha_1x_1 + \alpha_2x_2 + \beta k \quad (0 \leq \beta < p).$$

Define a one-to-one relation $f: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ as follows:

$$(1) \quad l' = f(l) = \begin{cases} l & \text{if } \alpha_1\alpha_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}, \\ l+sk & \text{if } \alpha_1\alpha_2 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}, \end{cases}$$

$$\text{where } 0 \leq s < p, \text{ and } s + \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{p},$$

and let us show that f induces a *IIS-automorphism* of \mathcal{A} , i.e., that for each $l_1, l_2 \in \mathcal{A}$

$$f(l_1+l_2) = \omega(f(l_1), f(l_2)),$$

where ω is a two-variable polynomial with positive coefficients. This fact implies that f associates a subsemiring with a subsemiring and f induces a *IIS-automorphism*.

There is no need to check the same fact for the product because

$$l_1l_2 \in [\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}] = \{k\} \Rightarrow \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 0 \Rightarrow f(l_1l_2) = f(l_1)f(l_2) = l_1l_2.$$

The subsemiring generated by the set $X \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ we shall denote by $\{X\}_+$.

Now suppose that

$$l_1 = \alpha_{11}x_1 + \alpha_{12}x_2 + \beta_1k \quad (0 \leq \beta_1 < p),$$

$$l_2 = \alpha_{21}x_1 + \alpha_{22}x_2 + \beta_2k \quad (0 \leq \beta_2 < p).$$

Consider two situations:

(a) Suppose that

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} \alpha_{11} & \alpha_{12} \\ \alpha_{21} & \alpha_{22} \end{vmatrix} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

In this case

$$\begin{aligned} l_1l_2 &= (\alpha_{11}x_1 + \alpha_{12}x_2 + \beta_1k)(\alpha_{21}x_1 + \alpha_{22}x_2 + \beta_2k) \\ &= \alpha_{11}\alpha_{22}x_1x_2 + \alpha_{12}\alpha_{21}x_2x_1 = \Delta k. \end{aligned}$$

If $\Delta \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, then it is clear that $k \in \{f(l_1), f(l_2)\}_+$. On the other

hand,

$$\begin{aligned} f(l_1 + l_2) &= l_1 + l_2 + s\bar{k} = (l_1 + s_1\bar{k}) + (l_2 + s_2\bar{k}) + s\bar{k} - (s_1 + s_2)\bar{k} \\ &= f(l_1) + f(l_2) + s\bar{k} \in \{f(l_1), f(l_2)\}_+ \quad (\bar{s} = s - s_1 - s_2). \end{aligned}$$

(b) Suppose that

$$(2) \quad \Delta = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Let us show that

$$(3) \quad f(l_1 + l_2) = f(l_1) + f(l_2).$$

The proof of this fact we shall split into a few steps.

(b₁) If $a_{11}a_{12} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, then either $a_{11} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ or $a_{12} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. If $a_{1i} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ ($i = 1, 2$) for only one of the a_{1i} , then we have $a_{2i} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ ($i = 1, 2$) for one of the a_{2i} ; then we conclude from (1) that (3) is true.

Now if

$$a_{11} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}, \quad a_{12} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}, \quad a_{21}a_{22} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p},$$

then we have

$$f(l_1) = l_1, \quad f(l_2) = l_2 + s_2\bar{k}, \quad a_{21} + a_{22} + s_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

So $(a_{11} + a_{21}) + (a_{12} + a_{22}) + s_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, and consequently (3) is true.

(b₂) Suppose that $a_{11}a_{12} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Then, if all the considerations of the previous case are true, only l_1 and l_2 change their parts.

(b₃) Now if $a_{11}a_{12} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and $a_{21}a_{22} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, then

$$(4) \quad f(l_1) = l_1 + s_1\bar{k}, \quad a_{11} + a_{12} + s_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p},$$

$$(5) \quad f(l_2) = l_2 + s_2\bar{k}, \quad a_{21} + a_{22} + s_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

From (4) and (5) we find that $s_2 = s_1q \pmod{p}$. So

$$(a_{11} + a_{21}) + (a_{12} + a_{22}) + (s_1 + s_2) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

On the other hand,

$$\begin{aligned} (a_{11} + a_{21})(a_{12} + a_{22}) &\equiv 0 \pmod{p} \Leftrightarrow (1+q)^2 a_{11}a_{12} \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \\ &\Leftrightarrow 1 + \lambda \equiv 0 \pmod{p}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus $s_1 + s_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Consequently, (3) is true. We have shown that f induces a *IIS*-automorphism on \mathcal{A} and it is clear that f is neither an automorphism nor an anti-automorphism.

Example 1 gives negative answers to questions 1 and 3.

3. Answers to questions 2 and 3

Now we give an example of an n -nilpotent Lie ring which contains a proper n -nilpotent subring and the *IIS*-automorphism of which is not induced either by an automorphism or by an anti-automorphism.

EXAMPLE 2. Let the Lie ring

$$\mathcal{B} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n+1}, k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{n-3}, k\}$$

have the defining relations

$$x_i x_1 = x_{i+1}, \quad x_3 x_2 = k_1, \quad p k = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

$$k_j x_2 = k_{j+1}, \quad k_{n-3} x_2 = k, \quad p k_j = 0, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n-3$$

($n \geq 3$ and p is a prime number different from 2). We assume also that the relations which we have not written are trivial. All elements x_i are proper.

It is clear that \mathcal{B} is an n -nilpotent ring, and $\{x_1, p x_2\}$ is a proper n -nilpotent subring of \mathcal{B} .

Each element l of \mathcal{B} has a unique expression in the form $l = \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + y$, where $y \in [\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{B}]$. Define a one-to-one mapping $f: \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ by formula (1), and let us show that f induces a *IIS*-automorphism of \mathcal{B} , i.e. let us check that for each $l_1, l_2 \in \mathcal{B}$

$$f(l_1 + l_2) = \omega(f(l_1), f(l_2)),$$

where ω is a two-variable polynomial with positive coefficients. This fact implies that f associates a subsemiring with a subsemiring, and f induces a *IIS*-automorphism.

As in the previous example, there is no need to check the same for the product, because

$$l_1 l_2 \in [\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{B}] \Rightarrow f(l_1 l_2) = f(l_1) f(l_2) = l_1 l_2.$$

Suppose that

$$l_1 = \alpha_{11} x_1 + \alpha_{12} x_2 + y_1, \quad y_1 \in [\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{B}],$$

$$l_2 = \alpha_{21} x_1 + \alpha_{22} x_2 + y_2, \quad y_2 \in [\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{B}].$$

The situation where $\Delta = \alpha_{11}\alpha_{22} - \alpha_{12}\alpha_{21} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ is the same as situation (b) in Example 1, and in this case

$$f(l_1 + l_2) = f(l_1) + f(l_2).$$

Now consider the situation where

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} \alpha_{11} & \alpha_{12} \\ \alpha_{21} & \alpha_{22} \end{vmatrix} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Let us consider n -products ⁽¹⁾

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 &= l_1 l_2 l_1 \dots l_1 = (\alpha_{11} x_1 + \alpha_{12} x_2 + y_1)(\alpha_{21} x_1 + \alpha_{22} x_2 + y_2) \times \\ &\quad \times (\alpha_{11} x_1 + \alpha_{12} x_2 + y_1) \dots (\alpha_{11} x_1 + \alpha_{12} x_2 + y_1) \\ &= (\alpha_{11} \alpha_{22} x_1 x_2 + \alpha_{12} \alpha_{22} x_2 x_1)(\alpha_{11} x_1 + \alpha_{12} x_2) (\dots (\alpha_{11} x_1 + \alpha_{12} x_2)) \\ &= (-\alpha_{11}^2 \alpha_{22} x_3 x_1 - \alpha_{12} \alpha_{22} \alpha_{12} x_3 x_2 + \alpha_{12} \alpha_{21} \alpha_{11} x_3 x_1 + \alpha_{12} \alpha_{21} \alpha_{12} x_3 x_2) \times \\ &\quad \times (\alpha_{11} x_1 + \alpha_{12} x_2) \dots (\alpha_{11} x_1 + \alpha_{12} x_2) \\ &= -\alpha_{11}^{n-1} \alpha_{22} x_{n+1} - \alpha_{11} \alpha_{22} \alpha_{12}^{n-2} k_{n-2} + \alpha_{12} \alpha_{21} \alpha_{11}^{n-2} x_{n+1} + \alpha_{12} \alpha_{21} \alpha_{12}^{n-2} k_{n-2} \\ &= -\alpha_{11}^{n-2} \Delta x_{n+1} + \alpha_{12}^{n-2} \Delta k_{n-2}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} c_2 &= l_1 l_2 l_2 \dots l_2 \\ &= (\alpha_{11} x_1 + \alpha_{12} x_2 + y_1)(\alpha_{21} x_1 + \alpha_{22} x_2 + y_2) \dots (\alpha_{21} x_1 + \alpha_{22} x_2 + y_2) \\ &= -\alpha_{21}^{n-2} \alpha_{22} \alpha_{11} x_{n+1} - \alpha_{22}^{n-1} \alpha_{11} k_{n-2} + \alpha_{21}^{n-1} \alpha_{12} x_{n+1} + \alpha_{22}^{n-2} \alpha_{21} \alpha_{11} k_{n-2} \\ &= -\alpha_{21}^{n-2} \Delta x_{n+1} - \alpha_{22}^{n-2} \Delta k_{n-2}. \end{aligned}$$

Let us consider the determinant

$$\Delta_1 = \begin{vmatrix} \alpha_{11}^{n-2} & \alpha_{12}^{n-2} \\ \alpha_{21}^{n-2} & \alpha_{22}^{n-2} \end{vmatrix}.$$

If $\Delta_1 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} -c_1 \alpha_{21}^{n-2} &= \Delta (\alpha_{11}^{n-2} \alpha_{21}^{n-2} x_{n+1} + \alpha_{12}^{n-2} \alpha_{21}^{n-2} k_{n-2}), \\ -c_2 \alpha_{11}^{n-2} &= \Delta (\alpha_{21}^{n-2} \alpha_{11}^{n-2} x_{n+1} + \alpha_{22}^{n-2} \alpha_{11}^{n-2} k_{n-2}), \\ c_1 \alpha_{21}^{n-2} - c_2 \alpha_{11}^{n-2} &= \Delta (\alpha_{11}^{n-2} \alpha_{22}^{n-2} - \alpha_{12}^{n-2} \alpha_{21}^{n-2}) k_{n-2} = \Delta \Delta_1 k_{n-2}. \end{aligned}$$

Using the anticommutativity of a Lie ring we have $-c_2, -c_1 \in \{l'_1, l'_2\}_+$. Consequently,

$$\Delta \Delta_1 k_{n-2} \in \{f(l_1), f(l_2)\}_+.$$

Because the order of k_{n-2} is a prime number, we have

$$k_{n-2} \in \{f(l_1), f(l_2)\}_+.$$

On the other hand,

$$\begin{aligned} f(l_1 + l_2) &= l_1 + l_2 + s k_{n-2} \\ &= (l_1 + s_1 k_{n-2}) + (l_2 + s_2 k_{n-2}) + [s - (s_1 + s_2)] k_{n-2} \\ &= f(l_1) + f(l_2) + \bar{s} k_{n-2}, \end{aligned}$$

where $\bar{s}, s, s_1, s_2 \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$, $\bar{s} \equiv [s - (s_1 + s_2)] \pmod{p}$.

⁽¹⁾ The brackets are omitted.

Now let $\Delta_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Then

$$\alpha_{ik} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p} \quad (i = 1, 2; k = 1, 2).$$

In fact, let $\alpha_{11} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. From (7) we have

$$\alpha_{22} \alpha_{11} - \alpha_{21} \alpha_{12} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p} \Rightarrow \alpha_{21} \alpha_{12} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p} \Rightarrow \alpha_{21} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}, \\ \alpha_{12} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

On the other hand,

$$\alpha_{11}^{n-2} \alpha_{22}^{n-2} - \alpha_{21}^{n-2} \alpha_{12}^{n-2} \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \Rightarrow \alpha_{21}^{n-2} \alpha_{12}^{n-2} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

So we get a contradiction.

Let us consider the n -product

$$\begin{aligned} c_3 &= l_1 l_2 l_2 \dots l_2 l_1 \\ &= (\alpha_{11} x_1 + \alpha_{12} x_2 + y_1)(\alpha_{21} x_1 + \alpha_{22} x_2 + y_2) \times \dots \\ &\quad \dots \times (\alpha_{21} x_1 + \alpha_{22} x_2 + y_2)(\alpha_{11} x_1 + \alpha_{12} x_2 + y_1) \\ &= -\alpha_{11} \alpha_{22} \alpha_{21}^{n-3} \alpha_{11} x_{n+1} - \alpha_{11} \alpha_{22}^{n-2} \alpha_{12} k_{n-2} + \alpha_{12} \alpha_{21}^{n-2} \alpha_{11} x_{n+1} + \alpha_{12} \alpha_{21} \alpha_{22}^{n-3} \alpha_{12} k_{n-2} \\ &= \alpha_{11} \alpha_{21}^{n-3} \Delta x_{n+1} + \alpha_{22}^{n-3} \alpha_{11} \Delta k_{n-2}. \end{aligned}$$

Let us consider the difference

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{21}^{n-3} c_3 - \alpha_{21}^{n-3} \alpha_{11} c_2 \\ &= \alpha_{21}^{n-2} (\alpha_{11} \alpha_{21}^{n-3} \Delta x_{n+1} + \alpha_{22}^{n-2} \alpha_{12} \Delta k_{n-2}) - \alpha_{21}^{n-3} \alpha_{11} (\alpha_{21}^{n-2} \Delta x_{n+1} + \alpha_{22}^{n-2} \Delta k_{n-2}) \\ &= \alpha_{21}^{n-2} \alpha_{22}^{n-2} \alpha_{12} \Delta k_{n-2} - \alpha_{21}^{n-3} \alpha_{11} \alpha_{22}^{n-2} \Delta^2 k_{n-2} \\ &= \alpha_{21}^{n-3} \alpha_{22}^{n-3} \Delta k_{n-2}. \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, $k_{n-2} \in \{c_2, c_3\}_+$ and moreover

$$k_{n-2} \in \{f(l_1), f(l_2)\}_+.$$

In a similar way we conclude that

$$f(l_1 + l_2) = f(l_1) + f(l_2) + \bar{s} k_{n-2}, \quad 0 \leq \bar{s} < p.$$

So f associates each subsemiring with a subsemiring, i.e., induces a *IIS*-automorphism, and it is clear that f is neither an automorphism nor an anti-automorphism.

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HOW MANY FOUR-GENERATED SIMPLE LATTICES?

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We call a lattice L *simple* if $|L| > 1$ and L has no nontrivial congruence relations.

For which partially ordered sets P is there a simple lattice generated by P ? There is, for instance, precisely one simple lattice generated by the two-element chain, namely, the two-element chain itself. This is the smallest simple lattice. On the other hand, the lattice generated by an n -element chain is not simple if $n \geq 3$. Still, a partially ordered set consisting of n elements pairwise noncomparable can generate a simple lattice just as long as $n \geq 3$ (for example, the $(n+2)$ -element modular lattice of length two).

Let P be the partially ordered set consisting of pairwise noncomparable elements a, b, c and let L be a simple lattice generated by P . If $a \not\leq b \vee c$, say, then L is the disjoint union of $\{x \in L \mid x \geq a\}$ and $\{x \in L \mid x \leq b \vee c\}$, whence L has a homomorphism onto the two-element chain. It follows that $a \leq b \vee c$. By symmetry and duality L must be the five-element modular lattice of length two. This observation, first recorded by R. Wille [14], shows that there is precisely *one* simple lattice generated by a three-element unordered set (antichain).

Interest in simple lattices generated by an antichain was revitalized by H. Strietz [12] who showed that every lattice of partitions on a finite set with at least four elements is generated by a four-element antichain. There are then at least countably many simple lattices generated by a four-element antichain. Actually there are more.

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