

ON A NEW NOTION OF INDEPENDENCE
IN UNIVERSAL ALGEBRAS

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1. Introduction. Two different notions of independence are used in abelian group theory. The classical notion is the following: the elements a_1, \dots, a_k of an abelian group are independent if

$$(1.1) \quad \sum_{i=1}^k n_i a_i = 0 \text{ implies } n_1 = n_2 = \dots = n_k = 0;$$

hence a single element a is independent if and only if it is torsion free.

In recent papers a new notion of independence (introduced by T. Szele) has frequently been used:

the elements a_1, \dots, a_k are independent if

$$(1.2) \quad \sum_{i=1}^k n_i a_i = 0 \text{ implies } n_1 a_1 = \dots = n_k a_k = 0.$$

Hence a single element a is always independent (see e.g. [2]).

The first notion is connected with the notion of free abelian groups.

The notion of a free universal algebra was introduced by Birkhoff [1] and based on this Marczewski [4] gave a general notion of independence in universal algebras.

In this note an attempt will be made to generalize Marczewski's notion of independence in such a way that when applied to abelian groups it should be identical with (1.2).

This will be achieved by defining the order of an element in a universal algebra.

The basic notions are given in § 2, the order of an element is defined in § 3 while in § 4 the new notion of independence is given. The characterization theorem of weak independence is proved in § 5. Some of its consequences and several unsolved problems are listed in § 6.

It should be noted that all the notions introduced in § 2 are standard ones and are given here only for completeness sake. However, the

notion of the order of an element — however evident it is — seems to be new.

Most of the results of this paper were contained in my mimeographed note [3], which had a limited distribution in 1962.

2. Some notions and notation. An *algebra* is a couple $(A; F)$ where A is a set and F is a collection of fundamental operations. Every operation $f \in F$ is finitary, $f = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ (n is an integer and depends on f), which means that if (a_1, \dots, a_n) is an n -tuple of elements of A , then $f(a_1, \dots, a_n)$ is a well defined element of A .

Let $B \subseteq A$; we call $(B; F)$ a *subalgebra* of $(A; F)$ if $a_1, \dots, a_n \in B$ and $f = f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in F$ imply $f(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in B$.

Let $(A; F)$ and $(B; F)$ be algebras and $h: x \rightarrow xh$ a many-one mapping of A into B . The mapping h is called a *homomorphism* if

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n)h = f(x_1h, \dots, x_nh)$$

holds identically for every $f \in F$. Accordingly, an *isomorphism* h is a homomorphism which is one-to-one and onto ($Ah = B$); an *endomorphism* is a homomorphism of $(A; F)$ into itself, an *automorphism* is an isomorphism of $(A; F)$ with itself.

A congruence relation Θ on $(A; F)$ is an equivalence relation on A which has the substitution property:

(SP) if $a_i \equiv b_i(\Theta)$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, then $f(a_1, \dots, a_n) \equiv f(b_1, \dots, b_n)(\Theta)$ for every $f \in F$.

Let A/Θ denote the set of equivalence classes modulo Θ and a/Θ ($a \in A$) the equivalence class represented by a . Then $(A/\Theta; F)$ is an algebra where for every $f \in F$ we put

$$f(a_1/\Theta, \dots, a_n/\Theta) = f(a_1, \dots, a_n)/\Theta.$$

The set of all congruence relations on $(A; F)$ is denoted by $C(A; F)$.

Let $\Theta_1, \Theta_2 \in C(A; F)$. We put $\Theta_1 \leq \Theta_2$ if $x \equiv y(\Theta_1)$ implies $x \equiv y(\Theta_2)$. This makes $C(A; F)$ a partially ordered set; it can be easily proved that the l.u.b.: $\Theta_1 \cup \Theta_2$ and g.l.b.: $\Theta_1 \cap \Theta_2$ always exist. $\mathfrak{C}(A; F) = (C(A; F); \cup, \cap)$ is a lattice, it is called the *congruence lattice* of $(A; F)$.

The class $A^{(n)}$ ($n = 1, 2, \dots$) of algebraic operation of n -variables is the smallest class satisfying the following two conditions:

(2.1) the trivial operations e_i^n defined by $e_i^n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = x_i$ ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n$) are in $A^{(n)}$;

(2.2) if $g_1, \dots, g_k \in A^{(n)}$ and $f = f(x_1, \dots, x_k) \in F$, then $f(g_1, \dots, g_k) = f(g_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, g_k(x_1, \dots, x_n))$ is also in $A^{(n)}$.

Let \mathcal{K} be a fixed class of algebras $(A; F)$.

An equivalence relation on $A^{(n)}$ is defined as follows: let $f, g \in A^{(n)}$; we write $f \equiv g$ if $f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = g(a_1, \dots, a_n)$ for every $a_1, \dots, a_n \in A$, $(A; F) \in \mathcal{K}$.

Let $A_{\mathcal{K}}^{(n)}$ describe the equivalence classes under this equivalence relation. We can define the operations on $A_{\mathcal{K}}^{(n)}$ in a natural way; formula (2.2) shows that $(A_{\mathcal{K}}^{(n)}; F)$ is an algebra; this will be denoted by $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(n)}$.

We put $A^{(\omega)} = A^{(0)} \cup A^{(1)} \cup A^{(2)} \cup \dots$ and we define an equivalence: by $j \equiv g$ ($f \in A^{(k)}, g \in A^{(l)}$) if for every $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{\max(k,l)} \in A$, $(A; F) \in \mathcal{K}$ the equality $f(a_1, \dots, a_k) = g(a_1, \dots, a_l)$ holds. The equivalence classes will be denoted by $A_{\mathcal{K}}^{(\omega)}$ and the corresponding algebra $(A_{\mathcal{K}}^{(\omega)}; F)$ by $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(\omega)}$.

Let $H \subseteq A$; we define the subset $[H]$ of A by $a \in [H]$ if there exists an integer n , and $f \in A^{(n)}$ and $h_1, \dots, h_n \in H$ such that $f(h_1, \dots, h_n) = a$.

Then $([H]; F)$ is a subalgebra of $(A; F)$; it is the subalgebra generated by H .

If A, B are sets, $A - B$ denotes the set theoretical difference. $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ denotes the set whose elements are a_1, \dots, a_n . The notation $[\{a_1, \dots\}]$ is replaced by $[a_1, \dots]$.

3. The order of an element. Let \mathcal{K} be a class of algebras, $(A; F) \in \mathcal{K}$, $a \in A$. The order of a is defined as follows:

Consider the mapping

$$e_1^1 \rightarrow a;$$

this has a unique extension to a homomorphism h of $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}$ into $(A; F)$; let $O(a)$ denote the congruence relation induced by h ; we call $O(a)$ the order of a .

It is obvious that $O(a)$ is uniquely determined by a , $(A; F)$ and \mathcal{K} . Further, $O(a) \in C(A_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}; F) = C(\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)})$.

We first give a few examples:

3.1. Let \mathcal{K} be the class of all additive groups. Then $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}$ is isomorphic to the group \mathfrak{I} of integers, let $e_1^1 \rightarrow 1$ under this isomorphism. Let $\mathfrak{G} \in \mathcal{K}$, $a \in G$. Then the mapping $1 \rightarrow a$ has a unique extension to a homomorphism of \mathfrak{I} into \mathfrak{G} . It is easy to see, $O(a)$ is the congruence modulo n , where n is the least integer with $na = 1$. This $O(a)$ is completely described if we give this n , which is usually called the order of a .

3.2. Let \mathcal{K} be the class of all semi-groups. Now $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}$ is isomorphic to \mathfrak{N} , the (additive) semi-group of positive integers, again $e_1^1 \rightarrow 1$ under this isomorphism. In this case $O(a)$ can be described by a pair of non-negative integers (m, n) as follows: $x \equiv y (O(a))$ ($x, y \in I$) if and only if $x = y$ or $x > m$, $y > m$ and n divides $x - y$.

3.3. \mathcal{K} is the class of all right modules over a ring $(R; +, \cdot)$. This may also be included in the above discussion in the usual way by making every element $r \in R$ correspond to a unary operation f_r and put F

$= \{+, f_r\}_{r \in R}$ and considering a right-module M as an algebra $(M; F)$. Then $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}$ is isomorphic to $(R; F)$ and $O(a)$ may be identified with the class containing the zero of \mathfrak{R} , which is an ideal I_a . Usually, this ideal I_a is called the order of a .

These examples show that the notion of an order of an element is a natural generalization of known concepts.

The following propositions show the usefulness of this notion:

3.4. *Let $(A; F), (B; F) \in \mathcal{K}$ and h be a homomorphism of $(A; F)$ into $(B; F)$, $a \in A$.*

Then

$$(3.5) \quad O(a) \leq O(ah).$$

To prove this we consider the homomorphisms:

$$h_1: \mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)} \rightarrow (A; F); e_1^1 \rightarrow a;$$

$$h_2: \mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)} \rightarrow (B; F); e_1^1 \rightarrow ah.$$

Then

$$h_1 h = h_2,$$

which implies that $x \equiv y(O(ah))$ if and only if $xh_2 = yh_2$, i.e. if $(xh_1)h = (yh_1)h$. Thus $xh_1 = yh_1$, implies $xh_2 = yh_2$, i.e. $x \equiv y(O(a))$ implies $x \equiv y(O(ah))$.

A partial converse of 3.4 holds too:

3.6. *Let $(A; F), (B; F) \in \mathcal{K}$, $a \in A$, $b \in B$ and suppose $O(a) \leq O(b)$. Then there exists a homomorphism*

$$h: ([a]; F) \rightarrow ([b]; F),$$

carrying a into b ($b = ah$).

To prove this consider the homomorphism:

$$h_1: \mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)} \rightarrow (A; F), e_1^1 \rightarrow a;$$

$$h_2: \mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)} \rightarrow (B; F), e_1^1 \rightarrow b.$$

We define h as follows: let $a_1 \in [a]$, then there exists an $a_2 \in A_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}$ with $a_1 = a_2 h_1$; let $a_1 h = a_2 h_2$.

First we have to prove that h is uniquely defined. Indeed, if $a_2 h_1 = a_3 h_1$ ($a_3 \in A_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}$), then $a_2 \equiv a_3(O(a))$, which implies $a_2 \equiv a_3(O(b))$, i.e. $a_2 h_2 = a_3 h_2$.

To show the substitution property let $f \in F$, $f = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, take $a_1, \dots, a_n \in [a]$; then

$$a_i = p_i(a), \quad p_i \in A^{(1)}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

We want to show

$$f(a_1, \dots, a_n)h = f(a_1h, \dots, a_nh).$$

Let

$$\begin{aligned} a'_i \in A_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}, \quad a'_i h_1 &= a_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \\ c \in A_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}, \quad ch_1 &= f(a_1, \dots, a_n). \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$c \equiv f(a'_1, \dots, a'_n)(O(a)),$$

thus

$$c \equiv f(a'_1, \dots, a'_n)(O(b)),$$

and also

$$ch_2 = f(a'_1, \dots, a'_n)h_2.$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} f(a_1, \dots, a_n)h &= ch_2 = f(a'_1, \dots, a'_n)h_2 = f(a'_1h_2, \dots, a'_nh_2) \\ &= f(a_1h, \dots, a_nh). \end{aligned}$$

It should be noted that 3.6 is new only in this form. In fact it is a special case of the so called Second Isomorphism Theorem, which is a part of the folklore.

3.7. The order of an element (a, b) , in the direct product of $(A; F)$ and $(B; F)$, can be computed as follows:

$$(3.8) \quad O(a, b) = O(a) \cap O(b),$$

if (A, F) , (B, F) and $(A \times B, F)$ are in \mathcal{K} .

Let $p_1, p_2 \in A_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}$. (3.8) means that $p_1 \equiv p_2(O(a, b))$ if and only if $p_1 \equiv p_2(O(a))$ and $p_1 \equiv p_2(O(b))$. Since $p_1 \equiv p_2(O(a, b))$ means $p_1((a, b)) = p_2((a, b))$ and so on, we get that we have to prove the following: $p_1((a, b)) = p_2((a, b))$ if and only if $p_1(a) = p_2(a)$ and $p_1(b) = p_2(b)$, which holds by definition.

4. Independence and weak independence. Marczewski's notion of independence is defined as follows:

4.1. Let \mathcal{K} be a class of algebras, $(A; F) \in \mathcal{K}$, $a_1, \dots, a_n \in A$. We say that the sequence a_1, \dots, a_n is *independent* if

$$p_1(a_1, \dots, a_n) = p_2(a_1, \dots, a_n), \quad p_1, p_2 \in A^{(n)},$$

imply

$$p_1 \equiv p_2.$$

It may be remarked that Marczewski's definition is restricted to the case when \mathcal{K} consists only of $(A; F)$; some of his results, however, remain true for an arbitrary class \mathcal{K} . The characterization theorem of independent sequences is the following:

4.2. Let $a_1, \dots, a_n \in A$, $(A; F) \in \mathcal{K}$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

(4.2.1) a_1, \dots, a_n is an independent sequence;

(4.2.2) let $b_1, \dots, b_n \in B$, $(B; F) \in \mathcal{K}$ and $p: a_i \rightarrow b_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Then p can be extended to a homomorphism of $([a_1, \dots, a_n]; F)$ into $(B; F)$;

(4.2.3) the mapping $p: e_i^n \rightarrow a_i$ can be extended to an isomorphism h of $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(n)}$ onto $([a_1, \dots, a_n]; F)$.

The equivalence of (4.2.1) and (4.2.2) is stated in [4]; I am sure that Marczewski knows that they are equivalent to (4.2.3) as well, however, I cannot give a reference.

An important corollary of 4.2 (which is also due to Marczewski) is:

4.3. If a_1, \dots, a_n is independent, then so is a_{i_1}, \dots, a_{i_n} , where $j \rightarrow i_j$ is any permutation of $1, \dots, n$.

Thus we can speak of an independent set a_1, \dots, a_n , because the ordering does not matter.

4.4. An element a is independent if and only if a is torsion free, i.e. $O(a) = \omega$.

This is trivial by (4.2.3) and the definition of $O(a)$.

Now we give the definition of weak independence.

4.5. Let $a_1, \dots, a_n \in A$, $(A; F) \in \mathcal{K}$. We say that the sequence a_1, \dots, a_n is weakly independent if

$$(4.5.1) \quad p_1(a_1, \dots, a_n) = p_2(a_1, \dots, a_n), \quad p_1, p_2 \in A^{(n)},$$

imply

$$(4.5.2) \quad p_1(b_1, \dots, b_n) = p_2(b_1, \dots, b_n)$$

for every $b_1, \dots, b_n \in B$, $(B; F) \in \mathcal{K}$, for which

$$(4.5.3) \quad O(a_i) \leq O(b_i), \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

First, let us see some trivial consequences of this definition.

4.6. Suppose a_1, \dots, a_n are torsion free elements. Then a_1, \dots, a_n is independent if and only if it is weakly independent.

The difference between independence and weak independence is condition (4.5.3). However, if $O(a_1) = \dots = O(a_n) = \omega$, then (4.5.3) is no restriction on the choice of the b_i and hence in this case the two notions are equivalent.

4.7. If \mathcal{K} is a subclass of lattices, independence and weak independence are equivalent.

Obviously, since in a lattice every element is torsion free.

5. Characterizations of weak independence. We would like to get a result analogous to 4.2. In order to achieve that we need some notation.

The algebra $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(n)}$ is generated by e_1^n, \dots, e_n^n , and the subalgebra \mathfrak{A}_i generated by e_i^n is isomorphic to $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}$. Suppose we are given n congruence relations $\Theta_1, \dots, \Theta_n$ of $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}$. Consider Θ_i as a congruence relation on \mathfrak{A}_i .

Take a congruence relations Θ of $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(n)}$ having the following properties:

(5.1) the restriction of Θ to \mathfrak{A}_i is $\geq \Theta_i$ ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n$);

(5.2) $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(n)}/\Theta$ is isomorphic to a subalgebra of an algebra in \mathcal{K} .

If there exists a congruence relation which is the smallest one having properties (5.1) and (5.2), then it will be denoted by $\Sigma\Theta_i$.

5.3. Let $a_1, \dots, a_n \in A$, $(A; F) \in \mathcal{K}$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

(5.3.1) a_1, \dots, a_n is a weakly independent sequence;

(5.3.2) let $b_1, \dots, b_n \in B$, $(B; F) \in \mathcal{K}$, and $O(a_i) \leq O(b_i)$; then the mapping $p: a_i \rightarrow b_i$ ($i = 1, \dots, n$) can be extended to a homomorphism of $([a_1, \dots, a_n]; F)$ into $(B; F)$;

(5.3.3) $\Sigma O(a_i)$ exists and

$$\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(n)} / \Sigma O(a_i) \cong ([a_1, \dots, a_n]; F), \quad e_i^n / \Sigma O(a_i) \rightarrow a_i.$$

Suppose that a_1, \dots, a_n is weakly independent and the p of (5.3.2) is given. Define h as follows:

$$q(a_1, \dots, a_n)h = q(b_1, \dots, b_n) \quad \text{for every } q \in A^{(n)}.$$

Obviously, h maps $[a_1, \dots, a_n]$ into $(B; F)$. This mapping is well-defined since $q_1(a_1, \dots, a_n) = q_2(a_1, \dots, a_n)$ ($q_1, q_2 \in A^{(n)}$) implies by 4.5 that $p(b_1, \dots, b_n) = q(b_1, \dots, b_n)$.

The mapping h is an extension of p since $a_i h = e_i^n(a_1, \dots, a_n)h = e_i^n(b_1, \dots, b_n) = b_i$.

Finally, h is a homomorphism. The proof of this is very similar to 3.6, so it can be omitted.

Thus (5.3.1) implies (5.3.2).

Next suppose that (5.3.2) holds and consider the mapping $e_i^n \rightarrow a_i$; this can be extended to a homomorphism h of $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(n)}$ into $(A; F)$. Let Θ be the congruence relation induced by h . Then Θ satisfies (5.1) and (5.2). Indeed, if we restrict h to \mathfrak{A}_i , then we get a homomorphism of \mathfrak{A}_i into $(A; F)$ carrying e_i^n into a_i . Since $\mathfrak{A}_i \cong \mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}$, we get that the congruence

relation induced by the restriction of h on \mathcal{A}_i is $\geq O(a_i)$. Thus (5.1) is verified; (5.2) is obvious. Now we prove that Θ is the smallest one satisfying (5.1) and (5.2). Indeed, if Φ satisfies (5.1) and (5.2), then consider $(B; F) \in \mathcal{K}$ of which $\mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{X}}^{(n)}/\Phi$ is a subalgebra and let b_i denote the homomorphic image of e_i^n . Then by (5.1) $O(b_i) \geq O(a_i)$, Thus by (5.3.2) the mapping $p: a_i \rightarrow b_i$ can be extended to a homomorphism k . Since the homomorphism which induces Φ equals the product hk , it follows that $\Theta \leq \Phi$. Therefore $\Theta = \Sigma O(a_i)$ and we arrive at the isomorphism statement of (5.3.3).

Finally, suppose that (5.3.3) holds and let $p_1, p_2 \in A^{(n)}$, $p_1(a_1, \dots, a_n) = p_2(a_1, \dots, a_n)$ and let b_1, \dots, b_n be given as in 4.5.

Let h_1 and h_2 be the homomorphisms induced by the mappings $e_i^n \rightarrow a_i$ and $e_i^n \rightarrow b_i$ ($n = 1, \dots, n$), respectively, and Θ_1, Θ_2 the congruence relation of $\mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{X}}^{(n)}$ induced by h_1 and h_2 respectively.

Then by (5.5.3) $\Theta_1 = \Sigma O(a_i)$ and (4.5.3) imply that Θ_2 satisfies (5.1) and, obviously, it satisfies (5.2) as well. Hence by the definition of $\Sigma O(a_i)$ we get $\Theta_1 \leq \Theta_2$.

By the same argument as in 3.6 we get that there exists a homomorphism

$$h: ([a_1, \dots, a_n]; F) \rightarrow ([b_1, \dots, b_n]; F)$$

such that

$$a_i h = b_i \quad (i = 1, \dots, n).$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} p_1(b_1, \dots, b_n) &= p_1(a_1 h, \dots, a_n h) = p_1(a_1, \dots, a_n) h \\ &= p_2(a_1, \dots, a_n) h = p_2(a_1 h, \dots, a_n h) = p_2(b_1, \dots, b_n), \end{aligned}$$

which was to be proved.

The proof of 5.3 is completed.

The only difficult notion involved in 5.3 is that of $\Sigma \theta_i$. It should be remarked that in case \mathcal{K} has special properties $\Sigma \theta_i$ can be more simply characterized.

5.4. *Suppose \mathcal{K} contains the homomorphic images and subalgebras of algebras in \mathcal{K} . Then $\Sigma \Theta_i$ always exists.*

6. Consequences and problems.

6.1. *A single element a is always weakly independent.*

Proof. Use the characterization given by (5.3.3) and 3.6.

6.2. *The elements a_1, \dots, a_n of an abelian group are independent if and only if $\Sigma k_i a_i = 0$ implies $k_1 a_1 = \dots = k_n a_n = 0$.*

In this case $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(n)}$ is the free abelian group on n generators, thus (5.5.3) gives the isomorphism:

$$([a_1, \dots, a_n]; +) = \sum ([a_i]; +),$$

which is equivalent to the statement of 6.2. The same result is true for an arbitrary module over a ring.

6.3. *In lattices independence and weakly independence is the same. This is true by 4.6.*

6.4. *If a_1, \dots, a_n is a weakly independent sequence, then a_{i_1}, \dots, a_{i_n} is also weakly independent, where i_1, \dots, i_n is any permutation of $1, \dots, n$.*

Thus we can speak of a weakly independent set I , which in the finite case means that any ordering of I gives a weakly independent sequence while in the infinite case it means that every finite subset of I is weakly independent.

A *basis* H of an algebra $(A; F) \in \mathcal{K}$ is a set which is weakly independent and generates $(A; F)$.

6.5. *To every integer n there corresponds a class \mathcal{K} and an algebra $(A; F) \in \mathcal{K}$ such that $(A; F)$ has a basis of k elements if and only if $k \leq n$.*

Let p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n be distinct primes, $\mathfrak{C}_i = (C_i; +)$ be the cyclic group of order p_i , $\mathfrak{C} = \sum \mathfrak{C}_i$, $\mathcal{K} = \{\mathfrak{C}\}$. Then \mathcal{K} is effective in 6.5.

One of the unpleasant surprises about weak independence is that it is possible that a_1, \dots, a_n be independent and $a_1 \in [a_2, \dots, a_n]$ as it is shown by the following example:

6.6. Let $A = \{a_1, a_2\}$, $F = \{f, g\}$ and $f(a_1) = a_1, f(a_2) = a_1; g(a_1) = a_2, g(a_2) = a_2$, and $\mathcal{K} = \{(A, F)\}$. Then $\mathfrak{A}_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}$ consists of three elements x, y, z and $f(x) = f(y) = f(z) = z$ and $g(x) = g(y) = g(z) = y$. It is easy to see that $x \equiv z(O(a_1))$, while $x \not\equiv z(O(a_1))$ and $x \equiv y(O(a_2))$ while $x \not\equiv y(O(a_2))$. Hence neither $O(a_1) \leq O(a_2)$ nor $O(a_1) \geq O(a_2)$ hold. Therefore, the only mapping p satisfying the assumption of (5.3.2) is $p: a_1 \rightarrow a_1, a_2 \rightarrow a_2$, whence a_1, a_2 is an independent sequence and $a_1 \in [a_2], a_2 \in [a_1]$.

Some of the problems, which arise very naturally, are the following:

PROBLEM 1. Let n_1, n_2, \dots be a (finite or infinite) sequence of integers. Construct a class \mathcal{K} and an algebra $(A; F) \in \mathcal{K}$ such that $(A; F)$ has a basis of k elements if and only if $k = n_i$ for some i (**P 602**).

PROBLEM 2. Let A be a set and J a hereditary family of finite subsets of A including all one element subsets. Prove the existence of an algebra $(A; F)$ (with $\mathcal{K} = \{(A; F)\}$) such that a subset in $(A; F)$ is weakly independent if and only if it is contained in J (**P 603**).

PROBLEM 3. Is it possible that an algebra without constant algebraic operations has a finite and also an infinite basis? Even if F is finite (P 604)?

PROBLEM 4. Find sufficient conditions on the class \mathcal{K} under which $a_1 \in [a_2, \dots, a_n]$ implies that a_1, \dots, a_n is not independent and not all elements are torsion free (P 605).

PROBLEM 5. Prove that if \mathcal{K} is an equational class of algebras with anullary operation that determines a one-element subalgebra in every algebra in \mathcal{K} , and a_1, \dots, a_n is independent if and only if $[a_1, \dots, a_n] = [a_1] \times \dots \times [a_n]$, then \mathcal{K} is equivalent to the class of all modules over a ring. (If this is not the case, what additional conditions are needed?) (P 606)

PROBLEM 6. Work out the notion which corresponds to the notion of p -rank in Abelian groups (P 607).

Remark. The role of elements of order p should be taken by elements whose order $O(a)$ is a dual atom in $\mathfrak{C}(A_{\mathcal{K}}^{(1)}; F)$.

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