# Introduction to Universal Algebra 

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## (1) Algebras, Subalgebras, Homomorphisms \& Direct Products

- Definition and Examples of Algebras
- Isomorphic Algebras and Subalgebras
- Algebraic Lattices and Subuniverses
- Congruences and Quotient Algebras
- Homomorphisms and the Homomorphism Theorems
- Direct Products and Factor Congruences
- Subdirect Products and Simple Algebras


## Subsection 1

## Definition and Examples of Algebras

## Operations

## Definition

For $A$ a nonempty set and $n$ a nonnegative integer, we define $A^{0}=\{\varnothing\}$ and, for $n>0, A^{n}$ is the set of $n$-tuples of elements from $A$.
An $n$-ary operation (or function) on $A$ is any function $f$ from $A^{n}$ to $A ; n$ is the arity (or rank) of $f$. A finitary operation is an $n$-ary operation, for some $n$.
The image of $\left\langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle$ under an $n$-ary operation $f$ is denoted by $f\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$.
An operation $f$ on $A$ is called a nullary operation (or constant) if its arity is zero; it is completely determined by the image $f(\varnothing)$ in $A$ of the only element $\varnothing$ in $A^{0}$. As such it is convenient to identify it with the element $f(\varnothing)$. Thus a nullary operation is thought of as an element of $A$. An operation $f$ on $A$ is unary, binary or ternary if its arity is 1,2 , or 3 , respectively.

## Languages and Algebras

## Definition

A language (or type) of algebras is a set $\mathscr{F}$ of function symbols such that a nonnegative integer $n$ is assigned to each member $f$ of $\mathscr{F}$. This integer is called the arity (or rank) of $f$, and $f$ is said to be an $n$-ary function symbol. The subset of $n$-ary function symbols in $\mathscr{F}$ is denoted by $\mathscr{F}_{n}$.

## Definition

If $\mathscr{F}$ is a language of algebras, then an algebra $\mathbf{A}$ of type $\mathscr{F}$ is an ordered pair $\langle A, F\rangle$, where:

- $A$ is a nonempty set;
- $F$ is a family of finitary operations on $A$ indexed by the language $\mathscr{F}$, such that corresponding to each $n$-ary function symbol $f$ in $\mathscr{F}$, there is an $n$-ary operation $f^{\mathbf{A}}$ on $A$.
The set $A$ is called the universe (or underlying set) of $\mathbf{A}=\langle A, F\rangle$. The $f^{\mathbf{A}}$ 's are called the fundamental operations of $\mathbf{A}$.


## More Algebraic Notation and Terminology

- If $\mathscr{F}$ is finite, say $\mathscr{F}=\left\{f_{1}, \ldots, f_{k}\right\}$, we often write $\left\langle A, f_{1}, \ldots, f_{k}\right\rangle$ for $\langle A, F\rangle$, usually adopting the convention:

$$
\text { arity } f_{1} \geq \operatorname{arity} f_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \text { arity } f_{k} .
$$

- An algebra $\mathbf{A}$ is unary if all of its operations are unary. It is mono-unary if it has just one unary operation.
- $\mathbf{A}$ is a groupoid if it has just one binary operation. The operation is usually denoted by + or $\cdot$, and we write $a+b$ or $a \cdot b$ (or just $a b$ ) for the image of $\langle a, b\rangle$ under this operation and call it the sum or product of $a$ and $b$, respectively.
- An algebra $\mathbf{A}$ is finite if $|A|$ is finite.
- An algebra $\mathbf{A}$ is trivial if $|A|=1$.


## Groups and Abelian Groups

- A group G is an algebra $\left\langle G, \cdot,^{-1}, 1\right\rangle$ with a binary, a unary, and a nullary operation in which the following identities are true:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { G1 } x \cdot(y \cdot z) \approx(x \cdot y) \cdot z ; \\
& \text { G2 } x \cdot 1 \approx 1 \cdot x \approx x ; \\
& \text { G3 } x \cdot x^{-1} \approx x^{-1} \cdot x \approx 1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

- A group G is Abelian (or commutative) if the following identity is true:

$$
\text { G4 } x \cdot y \approx y \cdot x
$$

## Monoids and Quasigroups

- Groups are generalized to semigroups and monoids in one direction, and to quasigroups and loops in another direction.
- A semigroup is a groupoid $\langle G, \cdot\rangle$ in which (G1) is true. It is commutative (or Abelian) if (G4) holds.
- A monoid is an algebra $\langle M, \cdot, 1\rangle$ with a binary and a nullary operation satisfying (G1) and (G2).
- A quasigroup is an algebra $\langle Q, / \cdot \cdot, \backslash\rangle$ with three binary operations satisfying the following identities:

| Q1 $x \backslash(x \cdot y) \approx y ;$ | $(x \cdot y) / y \approx x ;$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| Q2 $x \cdot(x \backslash y) \approx y ;$ | $(x / y) \cdot y \approx x$. |

- A loop is a quasigroup with identity, i.e., an algebra $\langle Q, /, \cdot\rangle, 1$,$\rangle which$ satisfies (Q1), (Q2) and (G2).


## Rings

- A ring is an algebra $\langle R,+, \cdot,-, 0\rangle$, where + and $\cdot$ are binary, - is unary and 0 is nullary, satisfying the following conditions:
R1 $\langle R,+,-, 0\rangle$ is an Abelian group;
R2 $\langle R, \cdot\rangle$ is a semigroup;
$x \cdot(y+z) \approx(x \cdot y)+(x \cdot z)$
$(x+y) \cdot z \approx(x \cdot z)+(y \cdot z)$.
- A ring with identity is an algebra $\langle R,+, \cdot,-, 0,1\rangle$, such that (R1)-(R3) and (G2) hold.


## Modules and Algebras Over a (Fixed) Ring

- Let $\mathbf{R}$ be a given ring. A (left) R-module is an algebra $\left\langle M,+,-, 0,\left(f_{r}\right)_{r \in R}\right\rangle$, where + is binary, - is unary, 0 is nullary, and each $f_{r}$ is unary, such that the following hold:
M1 $\langle M,+,-, 0\rangle$ is an Abelian group;
M2 $f_{r}(x+y) \approx f_{r}(x)+f_{r}(y)$, for $r \in R$;
M3 $f_{r+s}(x) \approx f_{r}(x)+f_{s}(x)$ for $r, s \in R$;
M4 $f_{r}\left(f_{s}(x)\right) \approx f_{r s}(x)$, for $r, s \in R$.
- Let $\mathbf{R}$ be a ring with identity. A unitary R-module is an algebra as above satisfying (M1)-(M4) and:
M5 $f_{1}(x) \approx x$.
- Let R be a ring with identity. An algebra over R is an algebra $\left\langle A,+, \cdot,-, 0,\left(f_{r}\right)_{r \in R}\right\rangle$, such that the following hold:
A1 $\left\langle A,+,-, 0,\left(f_{r}\right)_{r \in R}\right\rangle$ is a unitary $\mathbf{R}$-module;
A2 $\langle A,+, \cdot,-, 0\rangle$ is a ring;
A3 $f_{r}(x \cdot y) \approx\left(f_{r}(x)\right) \cdot y \approx x \cdot f_{r}(y)$, for $r \in R$.


## Semilattices and Lattices

- A semilattice is a semigroup $\langle S, \cdot\rangle$ which satisfies the commutative law (G4) and the idempotent law
S1 $x \cdot x \approx x$.
- A lattice is an algebra $\langle L, \vee, \wedge\rangle$, with two binary operations which satisfies

L1 (commutative laws)
(a) $x \vee y \approx y \vee x$;
(b) $x \wedge y \approx y \wedge x$;

L2 (associative laws)
(a) $x \vee(y \vee z) \approx(x \vee y) \vee z$;
(b) $x \wedge(y \wedge z) \approx(x \wedge y) \wedge z$;

L3 (idempotent laws)
(a) $x \vee x \approx x$;
(b) $x \wedge x \approx x$;

L4 (absorption laws)
(a) $x \approx x \vee(x \wedge y)$;
(b) $x \approx x \wedge(x \vee y)$.

- An algebra $\langle L, \vee, \wedge, 0,1\rangle$, with two binary and two nullary operations is a bounded lattice if it satisfies:
BL1 $\langle L, \vee, \wedge\rangle$ is a lattice;
BL2 $x \wedge 0 \approx 0 ; \quad x \vee 1 \approx 1$.


## Subsection 2

## Isomorphic Algebras and Subalgebras

## |somorphism

## Definition

Let $\mathbf{A}$ and B be two algebras of the same type $\mathscr{F}$. Then a function $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ is an isomorphism from $\mathbf{A}$ to B if:

- $\alpha$ is one-to-one and onto;
- for every $n$-ary $f \in \mathscr{F}$ and for all $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in A$, we have

$$
\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right)=f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right) .
$$

We say $A$ is isomorphic to $B$, written $A \cong B$, if there is an isomorphism from $A$ to $B$.

- The properties of algebras that are invariant under isomorphism are called algebraic properties.
- Isomorphic algebras can be regarded as equal or the same, having the same algebraic structure, and differing only in the nature of the elements: The phrase "equal up to isomorphism" is often used.


## Subalgebras and Subuniverses

## Definition

Let $A$ and $B$ be two algebras of the same type. Then $B$ is a subalgebra of A if $B \subseteq A$ and every fundamental operation of B is the restriction of the corresponding operation of $\mathbf{A}$; i.e., for each function symbol $f, f^{\mathbf{B}}$ is $f^{\mathbf{A}}$ restricted to $B$. We write simply $\mathbf{B} \leq \mathbf{A}$.
A subuniverse of $\mathbf{A}$ is a subset $B$ of $A$ which is closed under the fundamental operations of $\mathbf{A}$; i.e., if $f$ is a fundamental $n$-ary operation of A and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in B$ we would require $f\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in B$.

- Thus, if $\mathbf{B}$ is a subalgebra of $\mathbf{A}$, then $B$ is a subuniverse of $\mathbf{A}$.
- The empty set may be a subuniverse, but it is not the underlying set of any subalgebra.
- If $\mathbf{A}$ has nullary operations then every subuniverse contains them as well.


## Embeddings (or Monomorphisms)

## Definition

Let $\mathbf{A}$ and B be of the same type. A function $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ is an embedding of $\mathbf{A}$ into B if $\alpha$ is one-to-one and satisfies

$$
\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right)=f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right) .
$$

Such an $\alpha$ is also called a monomorphism. For brevity we simply say " $\alpha: \mathrm{A} \rightarrow \mathrm{B}$ is an embedding". We say A can be embedded in B if there is an embedding of $\mathbf{A}$ into $\mathbf{B}$.

## Theorem

If $\alpha: \mathrm{A} \rightarrow \mathrm{B}$ is an embedding, then $\alpha(A)$ is a subuniverse of B .

- Let $\alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{B}$ be an embedding. Then, for an $n$-ary function symbol $f$ and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in A, f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right)=\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right) \in \alpha(A)$.


## Definition

If $\alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{B}$ is an embedding, $\alpha(\mathbf{A})$ denotes the subalgebra of B with universe $\alpha(A)$.

## Structure Theorems in Algebra

- Let $K$ be a class of algebras and let $K_{1}$ be a proper subclass of $K$.
- In practice, $K$ may have been obtained from the process of abstraction of certain properties of $K_{1}$; or $K_{1}$ may be obtained from $K$ by certain additional, more desirable, properties.
- Two basic questions arise in the quest for structure theorems:
(1) Is every member of $K$ isomorphic to some member of $K_{1}$ ?
(2) Is every member of $K$ embeddable in some member of $K_{1}$ ?

Examples:

- Every Boolean algebra is isomorphic to a field of sets.
- Every group is isomorphic to a group of permutations.
- A finite Abelian group is isomorphic to a direct product of cyclic groups.
- A finite distributive lattice can be embedded in a power of the two-element distributive lattice.


## Subsection 3

## Algebraic Lattices and Subuniverses

## Generated Subuniverses

## Definition

Given an algebra $\mathbf{A}$, define, for every $X \subseteq A$,

$$
\operatorname{Sg}(X)=\bigcap\{B: X \subseteq B \text { and } B \text { is a subuniverse of } \mathbf{A}\} .
$$

We read $\operatorname{Sg}(X)$ as "the subuniverse generated by $X$ ".

## Theorem

If we are given an algebra $\mathbf{A}$, then Sg is an algebraic closure operator on $A$.

- Observe that an arbitrary intersection of subuniverses of $\mathbf{A}$ is again a subuniverse. Hence Sg is a closure operator on $A$ whose closed sets are precisely the subuniverses of $A$. Now, for any $X \subseteq A$, define

$$
\begin{gathered}
E(X)=X \cup\left\{f\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right): f \text { is a fundamental } n\right. \text {-ary operation } \\
\text { on } \left.A, n \in \omega \text {, and } a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in X\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

## Generated Subuniverses (Algebraicity)

- We defined, for $X \subseteq A$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
E(X)=X \cup\left\{f\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right): f \text { is a fundamental } n\right. \text {-ary operation } \\
\text { on } \left.A, n \in \omega \text {, and } a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in X\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Then define $E^{n}(X)$, for $n \geq 0$, by induction, as follows:

$$
E^{0}(X)=X, \quad E^{n+1}(X)=E\left(E^{n}(X)\right)
$$

As all the fundamental operations on $A$ are finitary and $X \subseteq E(X) \subseteq E^{2}(X) \subseteq \cdots$, we can show that

$$
\operatorname{Sg}(X)=X \cup E(X) \cup E^{2}(X) \cup \cdots .
$$

Therefore, if $a \in \operatorname{Sg}(X)$, then $a \in E^{n}(X)$, for some $n \in \omega$. Hence, for some finite $Y \subseteq X, a \in E^{n}(Y)$. Thus, $a \in \operatorname{Sg}(Y)$. But this says Sg is an algebraic closure operator.

## The Lattice of Subuniverses

## Corollary

If $\mathbf{A}$ is an algebra then $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{Sg}}$, the lattice of subuniverses of $\mathbf{A}$ is an algebraic lattice.

- The corollary says that the subuniverses of $\mathbf{A}$, with $\subseteq$ as the partial order, form an algebraic lattice.


## Definition

Given an algebra $\mathbf{A}, \operatorname{Sub}(\mathbf{A})$ denotes the set of subuniverses of $\mathbf{A}$, and $\operatorname{Sub}(A)$ is the corresponding algebraic lattice, the lattice of subuniverses of $A$.
For $X \subseteq A$, we say $X$ generates $\mathbf{A}$ (or $\mathbf{A}$ is generated by $X$; or $X$ is a set of generators of $\mathbf{A}$ ) if $\operatorname{Sg}(X)=A$.
The algebra $\mathbf{A}$ is finitely generated if it has a finite set of generators.

## Algebraic Lattices and Lattices of Subuniverses

- Every algebraic lattice is isomorphic to the lattice of subuniverses of some algebra:


## Theorem (Birkhoff and Frink)

If $L$ is an algebraic lattice, then $L \cong \operatorname{Sub}(A)$, for some algebra $A$.

- Let $C$ be an algebraic closure operator on a set $A$, such that $\mathbf{L} \cong \mathbf{L}_{C}$. For each finite subset $B$ of $A$ and each $b \in C(B)$, define an $n$-ary function $f_{B, b}$ on $A$, where $n=|B|$, by
$f_{B, b}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}b, & \text { if } B=\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\} \\ a_{1}, & \text { otherwise }\end{array}\right.$. Call the resulting algebra
A. Then clearly $f_{B, b}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in C\left(\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}\right)$. Hence, for $X \subseteq A$, $\mathrm{Sg}(X) \subseteq C(X)$. On the other hand,
$C(X)=\bigcup\{C(B): B \subseteq X$ and $B$ is finite $\}$ and, for $B$ finite,
$C(B)=\left\{f_{B, b}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right): B=\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}, b \in C(B)\right\} \subseteq \operatorname{Sg}(B) \subseteq \operatorname{Sg}(X)$ imply $C(X) \subseteq \operatorname{Sg}(X)$. Hence, $C(X) \subseteq \operatorname{Sg}(X)$. Thus, $\mathrm{L}_{C}=\operatorname{Sub}(\mathbf{A})$. So $\operatorname{Sub}(A) \cong L$.


## Algebras Generated by Sets of Specific Cardinality

- For a given type there cannot be "too many" algebras (up to isomorphism) generated by sets no larger than a given cardinality.
- Recall that $\omega$ is the smallest infinite cardinal.


## Corollary

If $\mathbf{A}$ is an algebra and $X \subseteq A$, then

$$
|\operatorname{Sg}(X)| \leq|X|+|\mathscr{F}|+\omega .
$$

- Using induction on $n$, one has

$$
\left|E^{n}(X)\right| \leq|X|+|\mathscr{F}|+\omega .
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - }\left|E^{0}(X)\right|=|X| \leq|X|+|\mathscr{F}|+\omega \text {; } \\
& -\left|E^{n+1}(X)\right|=\left|E\left(E^{n}(X)\right)\right| \leq\left|E^{n}(X)\right|+|\mathscr{F}|+\omega \leq|X|+|\mathscr{F}|+\omega .
\end{aligned}
$$

So the result follows from $\operatorname{Sg}(X)=X \cup E(X) \cup E^{2}(X) \cup \cdots$.

## n-ary Closure Operators

## Definition

Let $C$ be a closure operator on $A$. For $n<\omega$, let $C_{n}$ be the function defined on $\mathrm{Su}(A)$ by

$$
C_{n}(X)=\bigcup_{\{C(Y): Y \subseteq X,|Y| \leq n\} .}
$$

We say that $C$ is $n$-ary, if

$$
C(X)=C_{n}(X) \cup C_{n}^{2}(X) \cup \cdots,
$$

where:

- $C_{n}^{1}(X)=C_{n}(X)$;
- $C_{n}^{k+1}(X)=C_{n}\left(C_{n}^{k}(X)\right)$.


## Generation and $n$-ary Closure Operators

## Lemma

Let $\mathbf{A}$ be an algebra all of whose fundamental operations have arity at most $n$. Then Sg is an $n$-ary closure operator on $A$.

- Recall the definition

$$
\begin{gathered}
E(X)=X \cup\left\{f\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right): f \text { is a fundamental } n\right. \text {-ary operation } \\
\text { on } \left.A, n \in \omega \text {, and } a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in X\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Note that $E(X) \subseteq \operatorname{Sg}_{n}(X) \subseteq \operatorname{Sg}(X)$. Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Sg}(X) & =X \cup E(X) \cup E^{2}(X) \cup \cdots \\
& \subseteq \operatorname{Sg}_{n}(X) \cup \operatorname{Sg}_{n}^{2}(X) \cup \cdots \\
& \subseteq \operatorname{Sg}(X)
\end{aligned}
$$

So $\operatorname{Sg}(X)=\operatorname{Sg}_{n}(X) \cup \operatorname{Sg}_{n}^{2}(X) \cup \cdots$.

## Subsection 4

## Congruences and Quotient Algebras

## The Compatibility Condition

## Definition

Let $\mathbf{A}$ be an algebra of type $\mathscr{F}$ and let $\theta \in \mathrm{Eq}(A)$. Then $\theta$ is a congruence on $\mathbf{A}$ if $\theta$ satisfies the following compatibility property:
CP For each $n$-ary function symbol $f \in \mathscr{F}$, and elements $a_{i}, b_{i} \in A$, if $a_{i} \theta b_{i}$ holds, for $1 \leq i \leq n$, then $f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \theta f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)$ holds.

- The compatibility property allows introducing an algebraic structure on the set of equivalence classes $A / \theta$ :
If $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ are elements of $A$ and $f$ is an $n$-ary symbol in $\mathscr{F}$, then the easiest choice of an equivalence class to be the value of $f$ applied to $\left\langle a_{1} / \theta, \ldots, a_{n} / \theta\right\rangle$ is $f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) / \theta$.
This will indeed define a function on $A / \theta$ iff (CP) holds.


## Illustration of the Algebraic Structure on $A / \theta$

- The Compatibility Condition for a binary operation is illustrated below:

$A$ is subdivided into the equivalence classes of $\theta$.
Then selecting $a_{1}, b_{1}$ in the same equivalence class and $a_{2}, b_{2}$ in the same equivalence class, we want $f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)$ and $f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(b_{1}, b_{2}\right)$ to be in the same equivalence class.


## Quotient Algebras

## Definition

The set of all congruences on an algebra $\mathbf{A}$ is denoted by $\operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}$. Let $\theta$ be a congruence on an algebra $\mathbf{A}$. Then the quotient algebra of $\mathbf{A}$ by $\theta$, written $\mathbf{A} / \theta$, is the algebra whose universe is $A / \theta$ and whose fundamental operations satisfy

$$
f^{\mathbf{A} / \theta}\left(a_{1} / \theta, \ldots, a_{n} / \theta\right)=f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) / \theta
$$

where $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in A$ and $f$ is an $n$-ary function symbol in $\mathscr{F}$.

- Note that quotient algebras of $\mathbf{A}$ are of the same type as $\mathbf{A}$.


## Group Congruences and Normal Subgroups

- Let G be a group.

Then one can establish the following connection between congruences on $\mathbf{G}$ and normal subgroups of $\mathbf{G}$ :
(a) If $\theta \in \operatorname{ConG}$, then $1 / \theta$ is the universe of a normal subgroup of $\mathbf{G}$;

For $a, b \in G$, we have $\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta$ iff $\left\langle a \cdot b^{-1}, 1\right\rangle \in \theta$ iff $a \cdot b^{-1} \in 1 / \theta$.
(b) If $\mathbf{N}$ is a normal subgroup of $\mathbf{G}$, then the binary relation defined on $G$ by

$$
\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta \quad \text { iff } \quad a \cdot b^{-1} \in N
$$

is a congruence on $\mathbf{G}$, with $1 / \theta=N$.
Thus, the mapping $\theta \mapsto 1 / \theta$ is an order-preserving bijection between congruences on $\mathbf{G}$ and normal subgroups of $\mathbf{G}$.

## Ring Congruences and Ideals

- Let R be a ring.

The following establishes a similar connection between the congruences on R and ideals of R :
(a) If $\theta \in \operatorname{Con} \mathbf{R}$, then $0 / \theta$ is an ideal of $\mathbf{R}$;

For $a, b \in R$, we have $\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta$ iff $\langle a-b, 0\rangle \in \theta$ iff $a-b \in 0 / \theta$.
(b) If $I$ is an ideal of $\mathbf{R}$, then the binary relation $\theta$ defined on $R$ by

$$
\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta \quad \text { iff } \quad a-b \in I
$$

is a congruence on $\mathbf{R}$, with $0 / \theta=1$.
Thus the mapping $\theta \mapsto 0 / \theta$ is an order-preserving bijection between congruences on $\mathbf{R}$ and ideals of $\mathbf{R}$.

## Lattice Congruences

- In the preceding two examples any congruence on the algebra (group or ring) was determined by a single equivalence class of the congruence ( $1 / \theta$ and $0 / \theta$, respectively).
- The next example shows this need not be the case:

Let $\mathbf{L}$ be a lattice which is a chain, and let $\theta$ be an equivalence relation on $L$, such that the equivalence classes of $\theta$ are convex subsets of $L$ (i.e., if $a \theta$ and $a \leq c \leq b$, then $a \theta$ c.) Then $\theta$ is a congruence on $L$.

## Lattice Structure of ConA

## Theorem

$\langle$ Con $\mathbf{A}, \subseteq\rangle$ is a complete sublattice of $\langle\mathrm{Eq}(A), \subseteq\rangle$, the lattice of equivalence relations on $A$.

- ConA is closed under arbitrary intersections. For arbitrary joins in ConA suppose $\theta_{i} \in \operatorname{ConA}$ for $i \in I$. Then, if $f$ is a fundamental $n$-ary operation of $\mathbf{A}$ and

$$
\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle \in \bigvee_{i \in I} \theta_{i}
$$

where V is the join of $\mathrm{Eq}(A)$, then, there exist $i_{0}, \ldots, i_{k} \in I$, for some $k \in \omega$, such that

$$
\left\langle a_{j}, b_{j}\right\rangle \in \theta_{i_{0}} \circ \theta_{i_{1}} \circ \cdots \circ \theta_{i_{k}}, \quad 1 \leq j \leq n .
$$

That is, for all $j=1, \ldots, n$, there exist $c_{j 0}, \ldots, c_{j(k-1)} \in A$, such that

$$
a_{j} \theta_{i_{0}} c_{j 0} \theta_{i_{1}} \cdots \theta_{i_{k-1}} c_{j(k-1)} \theta_{i_{k}} b_{j}
$$

## Lattice Structure of ConA (Cont'd)

- For all $j=1, \ldots, n$, there exist $c_{j 0}, \ldots, c_{j(k-1)} \in A$, such that

$$
a_{j} \theta_{i_{0}} c_{j 0} \theta_{i_{1}} \cdots \theta_{i_{k-1}} c_{j(k-1)} \theta_{i_{k}} b_{j} .
$$

Since $\theta_{i} \in \operatorname{ConA}$, for all $i \in I$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \theta_{i_{0}} f\left(c_{10}, \ldots, c_{n 0}\right) \theta_{i_{1}} \ldots \\
& \quad \theta_{i_{k-1}} f\left(c_{1(k-1)}, \ldots, c_{n(k-1)}\right) \theta_{i_{k}} f\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence

$$
\left\langle f\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right), f\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)\right\rangle \in \theta_{i_{0}} \circ \theta_{i_{1}} \circ \cdots \circ \theta_{i_{k}} \subseteq \bigvee_{i \in I} \theta_{i}
$$

Therefore, $\bigvee_{i \in I} \theta_{i}$ is a congruence relation on $\mathbf{A}$.

## Definition

The congruence lattice of $\mathbf{A}$ denoted by ConA, is the lattice whose universe is ConA, and meets and joins are calculated the same as when working with equivalence relations.

## Congruence Lattices of Algebras

## Theorem

For $\mathbf{A}$ an algebra, there is an algebraic closure operator $\Theta$ on $A \times A$, such that the closed subsets of $A \times A$ are precisely the congruences on $\mathbf{A}$. Hence ConA is an algebraic lattice.

- We define an algebraic structure on $A \times A$. For each $n$-ary function symbol $f$ in the type of $\mathbf{A}$, define a corresponding $n$-ary function $f$ on $A \times A$ by $f\left(\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right)=\left\langle f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right), f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)\right\rangle$. Then we add:
- the nullary operations $\langle a, a\rangle$, for each $a \in A$;
- a unary operation $s$, defined by $s(\langle a, b\rangle)=\langle b, a\rangle$;
- a binary operation $t$ defined by $t(\langle a, b\rangle,\langle c, d\rangle)= \begin{cases}\langle a, d\rangle, & \text { if } b=c \\ \langle a, b\rangle, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}$ Now we can verify that $B$ is a subuniverse of this new algebra iff $B$ is a congruence on A . Let $\Theta$ be the Sg closure operator on $A \times A$ for the algebra we have just described. Thus, ConA is an algebraic lattice.


## Compact Elements of ConA and Congruence Generation

- The compact members of ConA are the finitely generated members $\Theta\left(\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right)$ of ConA.


## Definition

For $\mathbf{A}$ an algebra and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in A$, let $\Theta\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ denote the congruence generated by $\left\{\left\langle a_{i}, a_{j}\right\rangle: 1 \leq i, j \leq n\right\}$, i.e., the smallest congruence such that $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ are in the same equivalence class. The congruence $\Theta\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)$ is called a principal congruence. For arbitrary $X \subseteq A$, let $\Theta(X)$ be defined to mean the congruence generated by $X \times X$.

## The Case of Groups and Rings

(1) If $\mathbf{G}$ is a group and $a, b, c, d \in G$, then $\langle a, b\rangle \in \Theta(c, d)$ iff $a b^{-1}$ is a product of conjugates of $c d^{-1}$ and conjugates of $d c^{-1}$.
This follows from the fact that the smallest normal subgroup of G containing a given element $u$ has as its universe the set of all products of conjugates of $u$ and conjugates of $u^{-1}$.
(2) If $\mathbf{R}$ is a ring with unity and $a, b, c, d \in R$, then $\langle a, b\rangle \in \Theta(c, d)$ iff $a-b$ is of the form $\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} r_{i}(c-d) s_{i}$, where $r_{i}, s_{i} \in R$.
This follows from the fact that the smallest ideal of R containing a given element $e$ of $R$ is precisely the set $\left\{\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} r_{i} e s_{i}: r_{i}, s_{i} \in R, n \geq 1\right\}$.

## Properties of Congruences

## Theorem

Let $\mathbf{A}$ be an algebra, and suppose $a_{1}, b_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{n} \in A$ and $\theta \in$ ConA. Then:
(a) $\Theta\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)=\Theta\left(b_{1}, a_{1}\right)$;
(b) $\Theta\left(\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right)=\Theta\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right) \vee \cdots \vee \Theta\left(a_{n}, b_{n}\right)$;
(c) $\Theta\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=\Theta\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right) \vee \Theta\left(a_{2}, a_{3}\right) \vee \cdots \vee \Theta\left(a_{n-1}, a_{n}\right)$;
(d) $\theta=\bigcup\{\Theta(a, b):\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta\}=\bigvee\{\Theta(a, b):\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta\}$;
(e) $\theta=\bigcup\left\{\Theta\left(\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right):\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle \in \theta, n \geq 1\right\}$.
(a) $\left\langle b_{1}, a_{1}\right\rangle \in \Theta\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$. Hence, $\Theta\left(b_{1}, a_{1}\right) \subseteq \Theta\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)$. By symmetry, $\Theta\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)=\Theta\left(b_{1}, a_{1}\right)$.
(b) For $1 \leq i \leq n,\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle \in \Theta\left(\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right)$. Hence $\Theta\left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right) \subseteq \Theta\left(\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right)$, whence
$\Theta\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right) \vee \cdots \vee \Theta\left(a_{n}, b_{n}\right) \subseteq \Theta\left(\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right)$.

## Properties of Congruences (Cont'd)

On the other hand, for $1 \leq i \leq n$,
$\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle \in \Theta\left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right) \subseteq \Theta\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right) \vee \cdots \vee \Theta\left(a_{n}, b_{n}\right)$. So
$\left\{\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right\} \subseteq \Theta\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right) \vee \cdots \vee \Theta\left(a_{n}, b_{n}\right)$. Hence,
$\Theta\left(\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right) \subseteq \Theta\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right) \vee \cdots \vee \Theta\left(a_{n}, b_{n}\right)$. So
$\Theta\left(\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right)=\Theta\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right) \vee \cdots \vee \Theta\left(a_{n}, b_{n}\right)$.
(c) For $1 \leq i \leq n-1,\left\langle a_{i}, a_{i+1}\right\rangle \in \Theta\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$. So $\Theta\left(a_{i}, a_{i+1}\right) \subseteq \Theta\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$. Hence, $\Theta\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right) \vee \cdots \vee \Theta\left(a_{n-1}, a_{n}\right) \subseteq \Theta\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$.
Conversely, for $1 \leq i<j \leq n,\left\langle a_{i}, a_{j}\right\rangle \in \Theta\left(a_{i}, a_{i+1}\right) \circ \cdots \circ \Theta\left(a_{j-1}, a_{j}\right)$. So, $\left\langle a_{i}, a_{j}\right\rangle \in \Theta\left(a_{i}, a_{i+1}\right) \vee \cdots \vee \Theta\left(a_{j-1}, a_{j}\right)$. Hence, $\left\langle a_{i}, a_{j}\right\rangle \in \Theta\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right) \vee \cdots \vee \Theta\left(a_{n-1}, a_{n}\right)$. By Part (a), $\Theta\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \subseteq \Theta\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right) \vee \cdots \vee \Theta\left(a_{n-1}, a_{n}\right)$. Therefore, $\Theta\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=\Theta\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right) \vee \cdots \vee \Theta\left(a_{n-1}, a_{n}\right)$.

## Properties of Congruences (Conclusion)

(d) For $\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta,\langle a, b\rangle \in \Theta(a, b) \subseteq \theta$. So
$\theta \subseteq \bigcup\{\Theta(a, b):\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta\} \subseteq \bigvee\{\Theta(a, b):\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta\} \subseteq \theta$. Hence $\theta=\bigcup\{\Theta(a, b):\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta\}=\bigvee\{\Theta(a, b):\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta\}$.
(e) For $\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta$,
$\langle a, b\rangle \in \Theta(a, b) \subseteq \bigcup\left\{\Theta\left(\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right):\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle \in \theta, n \geq 1\right\}$. So $\theta \subseteq \bigcup\left\{\Theta\left(\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right):\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle \in \theta, n \geq 1\right\}$.
Conversely, if $n \geq 1$ and $\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle \in \theta$, for all $1 \leq i \leq n$, then $\Theta\left(\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right) \subseteq \theta$. Hence, $\cup\left\{\Theta\left(\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right):\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle \in \theta, n \geq 1\right\} \subseteq \theta$.
Therefore, $\theta=\bigcup\left\{\Theta\left(\left\langle a_{1}, b_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, b_{n}\right\rangle\right):\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle \in \theta, n \geq 1\right\}$.

## On Properties of Congruence Lattices

- In 1963 Grätzer and Schmidt proved:

For every algebraic lattice $\mathbf{L}$, there is an algebra $\mathbf{A}$, such that $\mathbf{L} \cong$ ConA.

- For particular classes of algebras one might find that some additional properties hold for the corresponding classes of congruence lattices:
- The congruence lattices of lattices satisfy the distributive law;
- The congruence lattices of groups (or rings) satisfy the modular law.


## Congruence-Distributivity and Congruence-Permutability

## Definition

An algebra $\mathbf{A}$ is congruence-distributive (congruence-modular) if ConA is a distributive (modular) lattice.
If $\theta_{1}, \theta_{2} \in \operatorname{ConA}$ and

$$
\theta_{1} \circ \theta_{2}=\theta_{2} \circ \theta_{1},
$$

then we say $\theta_{1}$ and $\theta_{2}$ are permutable, or $\theta_{1}$ and $\theta_{2}$ permute.
$\mathbf{A}$ is congruence-permutable if every pair of congruences on $\mathbf{A}$ permutes. A class $K$ of algebras is congruence-distributive, congruence-modular, respectively congruence-permutable iff every algebra in $K$ has the desired property.

## Characterization of Congruence Permutability

## Theorem

Let $\mathbf{A}$ be an algebra and suppose $\theta_{1}, \theta_{2} \in \operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}$. Then the following are equivalent:
(a) $\theta_{1} \circ \theta_{2}=\theta_{2} \circ \theta_{1}$;
(b) $\theta_{1} \vee \theta_{2}=\theta_{1} \circ \theta_{2}$;
(c) $\theta_{1} \circ \theta_{2} \subseteq \theta_{2} \circ \theta_{1}$.
(a) $\Rightarrow(\mathrm{b})$ : Recall that

$$
\theta_{1} \vee \theta_{2}=\theta_{1} \cup\left(\theta_{1} \circ \theta_{2}\right) \cup\left(\theta_{1} \circ \theta_{2} \circ \theta_{1}\right) \cup \cdots
$$

By hypothesis, since, for any equivalence relation $\theta$, we have $\theta \circ \theta=\theta$, we get $\theta_{1} \vee \theta_{2}=\theta_{1} \cup\left(\theta_{1} \circ \theta_{2}\right)=\theta_{1} \circ \theta_{2}$.

## Characterization of Congruence Permutability (Cont'd)

(c) $\Rightarrow$ (a): Suppose $\theta_{1} \circ \theta_{2} \subseteq \theta_{2} \circ \theta_{1}$. Apply the relational inverse operation ${ }^{\vee}$ to get $\left(\theta_{1} \circ \theta_{2}\right)^{\vee} \subseteq\left(\theta_{2} \circ \theta_{1}\right)^{\vee}$. Hence, we get
$\theta_{2}^{\vee} \circ \theta_{1}^{\vee} \subseteq \theta_{1}^{\vee} \circ \theta_{2}^{\vee}$. But the inverse of an equivalence relation is just that equivalence relation, whence $\theta_{2} \circ \theta_{1} \subseteq \theta_{1} \circ \theta_{2}$. We conclude that $\theta_{1} \circ \theta_{2}=\theta_{2} \circ \theta_{1}$.
(b) $\Rightarrow(c)$ : We have $\theta_{2} \circ \theta_{1} \subseteq \theta_{1} \vee \theta_{2}$. Thus, from (b) we deduce $\theta_{2} \circ \theta_{1} \subseteq \theta_{1} \circ \theta_{2}$. Then, from (c) $\Rightarrow(\mathrm{a})$ it follows that $\theta_{2} \circ \theta_{1}=\theta_{1} \circ \theta_{2}$. Hence (c) holds.

## Congruence-Permutability Implies Congruence-Modularity

## Theorem (Birkhoff)

If $\mathbf{A}$ is congruence-permutable, then $\mathbf{A}$ is congruence-modular.

- Let $\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \theta_{3} \in \operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}$, with $\theta_{1} \subseteq \theta_{2}$. We want to show that

$$
\theta_{2} \cap\left(\theta_{1} \vee \theta_{3}\right) \subseteq \theta_{1} \vee\left(\theta_{2} \cap \theta_{3}\right)
$$

Suppose $\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta_{2} \cap\left(\theta_{1} \vee \theta_{3}\right)$. Then, since $\theta_{1} \vee \theta_{3}=\theta_{1} \circ \theta_{3}$, there is a $c$, such that $a \theta_{1} c \theta_{3} b$. By symmetry, $\langle c, a\rangle \in \theta_{1}$. Hence $\langle c, a\rangle \in \theta_{2}$. Then, by transitivity, $\langle c, b\rangle \in \theta_{2}$. Thus, $\langle c, b\rangle \in \theta_{2} \cap \theta_{3}$. So we get a $\theta_{1} c\left(\theta_{2} \cap \theta_{3}\right) b$. Therefore,

$$
\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta_{1} \circ\left(\theta_{2} \cap \theta_{3}\right) \subseteq \theta_{1} \vee\left(\theta_{2} \cap \theta_{3}\right) .
$$

## Subsection 5

## Homomorphisms and the Homomorphism Theorems

## Homomorphisms

## Definition

Suppose $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ are two algebras of the same type $\mathscr{F}$. A mapping $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ is called a homomorphism from A to B if

$$
\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right)=f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right),
$$

for each $n$-ary $f$ in $\mathscr{F}$ and each sequence $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ from $A$.
If, in addition, the mapping $\alpha$ is onto, then $\alpha$ is called an epimorphism and $\mathbf{B}$ is said to be a homomorphic image of $\mathbf{A}$. In this terminology an isomorphism is a homomorphism which is one-to-one and onto.
In case $\mathbf{A}=\mathbf{B}$, a homomorphism is also called an endomorphism and an isomorphism is referred to as an automorphism.
The phrase " $\alpha: \mathrm{A} \rightarrow \mathrm{B}$ is a homomorphism" is often used to express the fact that $\alpha$ is a homomorphism from $\mathbf{A}$ to $\mathbf{B}$.

Example: Lattice, group, ring, module, and monoid homomorphisms are all special cases of homomorphisms as defined above.

## Equality of Homomorphisms

## Theorem

Let $\mathbf{A}$ be an algebra generated by a set $X$. If $\alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{B}$ and $\beta: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{B}$ are two homomorphisms which agree on $X$ (i.e., $\alpha(a)=\beta(a)$, for $a \in X$ ), then $\alpha=\beta$.

- Recall the definition of $E$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
E(X)=X \cup\left\{f\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right): f \text { is a fundamental } n\right. \text {-ary operation } \\
\text { on } \left.A, n \in \omega \text {, and } a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in X\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Note that if $\alpha$ and $\beta$ agree on $X$, then $\alpha$ and $\beta$ agree on $E(X)$ : If $f$ is an $n$-ary function symbol and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in X$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right) & =f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right) \\
& =f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(\beta\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \beta\left(a_{n}\right)\right) \\
& =\beta\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, by induction, if $\alpha$ and $\beta$ agree on $X$, then they agree on $E^{n}(X)$, for $n<\omega$. Hence, they agree on $\operatorname{Sg}(X)$.

## Images and Inverse Images of Subuniverses

## Theorem

Let $\alpha: \mathrm{A} \rightarrow \mathrm{B}$ be a homomorphism. Then the image of a subuniverse of A under $\alpha$ is a subuniverse of $B$, and the inverse image of a subuniverse of $B$ is a subuniverse of $\mathbf{A}$.

- Let $S$ be a subuniverse of A. Let $f$ be an $n$-ary member of $\mathscr{F}$ and let $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in S$. Then $f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right)=\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right) \in \alpha(S)$. So $\alpha(S)$ is a subuniverse of B . If $S$ is a subuniverse of B and $\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(a_{n}\right) \in S$, then, by the preceding equation, $\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right) \in S$. So $f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ is in $\alpha^{-1}(S)$. Thus, $\alpha^{-1}(S)$ is a subuniverse of $\mathbf{A}$.


## Definition

If $\alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{B}$ is a homomorphism and $\mathbf{C} \leq \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{D} \leq \mathbf{B}$, let $\alpha(\mathbf{C})$ be the subalgebra of B , with universe $\alpha(C)$, and let $\alpha^{-1}(\mathrm{D})$ be the subalgebra of A, with universe $\alpha^{-1}(D)$, provided $\alpha^{-1}(D) \neq \varnothing$.

## Composition of Homomorphisms

## Theorem

Suppose $\alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{B}$ and $\beta: \mathbf{B} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}$ are homomorphisms. Then the composition $\beta \circ \alpha$ is a homomorphism from $\mathbf{A}$ to $\mathbf{C}$.

- For $f$ an $n$-ary function symbol and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in A$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\beta \circ \alpha)\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right) & =\beta\left(\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right)\right) \\
& =\beta\left(f^{\mathrm{B}}\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right)\right) \\
& =f^{\mathrm{C}}\left(\beta\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right)\right), \ldots, \beta\left(\alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right)\right) \\
& =f^{\mathrm{C}}\left((\beta \circ \alpha)\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots,(\beta \circ \alpha)\left(a_{n}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Homomorphisms and Generation

## Theorem

If $\alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{B}$ is a homomorphism and $X$ is a subset of $\mathbf{A}$, then

$$
\alpha(\operatorname{Sg}(X))=\operatorname{Sg}(\alpha(X))
$$

- We have, for all $Y \subseteq A$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha(E(Y)) & =\alpha\left(Y \cup\left\{f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right): f \in \mathscr{F}_{n}, n \in \omega, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in Y\right\}\right) \\
& =\alpha(Y) \cup\left\{\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right): f \in \mathscr{F}_{n}, n \in \omega, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in Y\right\} \\
& =\alpha(Y) \cup\left\{f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right): f \in \mathscr{F}_{n}, n \in \omega, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in Y\right\} \\
& =\alpha(Y) \cup\left\{f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right): f \in \mathscr{F}_{n}, n \in \omega, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n} \in \alpha(Y)\right\} \\
& =E(\alpha(Y)) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, by induction on $n, \alpha\left(E^{n}(X)\right)=E^{n}(\alpha(X))$, for $n \geq 1$. Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha(\operatorname{Sg}(X)) & =\alpha\left(X \cup E(X) \cup E^{2}(X) \cup \cdots\right) \\
& =\alpha(X) \cup \alpha(E(X)) \cup \alpha\left(E^{2}(X)\right) \cup \cdots \\
& =\alpha(X) \cup E(\alpha(X)) \cup E^{2}(\alpha(X)) \cup \cdots=\operatorname{Sg}(\alpha(X)) .
\end{aligned}
$$

## The Kernel of a Homomorphism

## Definition

Let $\alpha: \mathrm{A} \rightarrow \mathrm{B}$ be a homomorphism. Then the kernel of $\alpha$, written $\operatorname{ker}(\alpha)$, and sometimes just $\operatorname{ker} \alpha$, is defined by

$$
\operatorname{ker}(\alpha)=\left\{\langle a, b\rangle \in A^{2}: \alpha(a)=\alpha(b)\right\}
$$

## Theorem

Let $\alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{B}$ be a homomorphism. Then $\operatorname{ker}(\alpha)$ is a congruence on $\mathbf{A}$.

- If $\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle \in \operatorname{ker}(\alpha)$, for $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $f$ is $n$-ary in $\mathscr{F}$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right) & =f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right) \\
& =f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(\alpha\left(b_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(b_{n}\right)\right) \\
& =\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $\left\langle f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right), f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)\right\rangle \in \operatorname{ker}(\alpha)$. Clearly $\operatorname{ker}(\alpha)$ is an equivalence relation. Thus, $\operatorname{ker}(\alpha)$ is actually a congruence on A .

## The Natural Map

## Definition

Let $\mathbf{A}$ be an algebra and let $\theta \in \operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}$. The natural map $v_{\theta}: A \rightarrow A / \theta$ is defined by

$$
v_{\theta}(a)=a / \theta
$$

When there is no ambiguity we write simply $v$ instead of $v_{\theta}$.

- The figure shows how one might visualize the natural map:



## The Natural Homomorphism

## Theorem

The natural map from an algebra to a quotient of the algebra is an onto homomorphism.

- Let $\theta \in \operatorname{ConA}$ and let $v: A \rightarrow A / \theta$ be the natural map. Then, for $f$ an $n$-ary function symbol and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in A$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
v\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right) & =f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) / \theta \\
& =f^{\mathbf{A} / \theta}\left(a_{1} / \theta, \ldots, a_{n} / \theta\right) \\
& =f^{\mathbf{A} / \theta}\left(v\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, v\left(a_{n}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

So $v$ is a homomorphism. Clearly $v$ is onto.

## Definition

The natural homomorphism from an algebra to a quotient of the algebra is given by the natural map.

## The Homomorphism Theorem

## Theorem (Homomorphism Theorem)

Suppose $\alpha: \mathrm{A} \rightarrow \mathrm{B}$ is a homomorphism onto $\mathbf{B}$. Then there is an isomorphism $\beta$ from $\mathrm{A} / \operatorname{ker}(\alpha)$ to $\mathbf{B}$ defined by $\alpha=\beta \circ v$, where $v$ is the natural homomorphism from $\mathbf{A}$ to $\mathrm{A} / \operatorname{ker}(\alpha)$.


- First note that if $\alpha=\beta \circ v$, then we must have $\beta(a / \theta)=\alpha(a)$. The second of these equalities does indeed define a function $\beta$ and $\beta$ satisfies $\alpha=\beta \circ v$. We verify that $\beta$ is a bijection:
- If $b \in B$, exists $a \in A$, such that $b=\alpha(a)$. Then $\beta(a / \operatorname{ker} \alpha)=\alpha(a)=b$;
- Suppose $a, a^{\prime} \in A$. Then $\beta(a / \operatorname{ker} \alpha)=\beta\left(a^{\prime} / \operatorname{ker} \alpha\right)$ iff $\alpha(a)=\alpha\left(a^{\prime}\right)$ iff $\left\langle a, a^{\prime}\right\rangle \in \operatorname{ker} \alpha$ iff $a / \operatorname{ker} \alpha=a^{\prime} / \operatorname{ker} \alpha$.


## The Homomorphism Theorem (Cont'd)

- To show that $\beta$ is actually an isomorphism, suppose $f$ is an $n$-ary function symbol and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in A$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\beta\left(f^{\mathbf{A} / \theta}\left(a_{1} / \theta, \ldots, a_{n} / \theta\right)\right) & =\beta\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) / \theta\right) \\
& =\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right) \\
& =f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right) \\
& =f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(\beta\left(a_{1} / \theta\right), \ldots, \beta\left(a_{n} / \theta\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

- An algebra is a homomorphic image of an algebra $\mathbf{A}$ iff it is isomorphic to a quotient of the algebra $\mathbf{A}$.
Thus, the "external" problem of finding all homomorphic images of $\mathbf{A}$ reduces to the "internal" problem of finding all congruences on $\mathbf{A}$.
- The Homomorphism Theorem is also called "The First Isomorphism Theorem".


## Quotient of a Congruence by a Smaller Congruence

## Definition

Suppose $\mathbf{A}$ is an algebra and $\phi, \theta \in \operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}$, with $\theta \subseteq \phi$. Then, let

$$
\phi / \theta=\left\{\langle a / \theta, b / \theta\rangle \in(A / \theta)^{2}:\langle a, b\rangle \in \phi\right\} .
$$

## Lemma

If $\phi, \theta \in \operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}$ and $\theta \subseteq \phi$, then $\phi / \theta$ is a congruence on $\mathbf{A} / \theta$.

- Let $f$ be an $n$-ary function symbol and suppose $\left\langle a_{i} / \theta, b_{i} / \theta\right\rangle \in \phi / \theta$, for $1 \leq i \leq n$. Then $\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle \in \phi$. So $\left\langle f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right), f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)\right\rangle \in \phi$, and, thus, $\left\langle f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) / \theta, f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right) / \theta\right\rangle \in \phi / \theta$. Therefore, $\left\langle f^{\mathbf{A} / \theta}\left(a_{1} / \theta, \ldots, a_{n} / \theta\right), f^{\mathbf{A} / \theta}\left(b_{1} / \theta, \ldots, b_{n} / \theta\right)\right\rangle \in \phi / \theta$.


## Second Isomorphism Theorem

## Theorem (Second Isomorphism Theorem)

If $\phi, \theta \in \operatorname{ConA}$ and $\theta \subseteq \phi$, then the map $\alpha:(A / \theta) /(\phi / \theta) \rightarrow A / \phi$, defined by

$$
\alpha((a / \theta) /(\phi / \theta))=a / \phi
$$

is an isomorphism from
$(\mathbf{A} / \theta) /(\phi / \theta)$ to $\mathbf{A} / \phi$.
equivalence classes of $\phi / \theta$

$(\mathbf{A} / \theta) /(\phi / \theta)$
dashed lines for equivalence classes of $\phi$
dotted and dashed lines for equivalence classes of $\theta$


- Let $a, b \in A$. From $(a / \theta) /(\phi / \theta)=(b / \theta) /(\phi / \theta)$ iff $a / \phi=b / \phi$, it follows that $\alpha$ is a well-defined bijection.


## Second Isomorphism Theorem (Cont'd)

- For $f$ an $n$-ary function symbol and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in A$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha\left(f^{(\mathbf{A} / \theta)} /(\phi / \theta)\right. & \left.\left(\left(a_{1} / \theta\right) /(\phi / \theta), \ldots,\left(a_{n} / \theta\right) /(\phi / \theta)\right)\right) \\
& =\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A} / \theta}\left(a_{1} / \theta, \ldots, a_{n} / \theta\right) /(\phi / \theta)\right) \\
& =\alpha\left(\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) / \theta\right) /(\phi / \theta)\right) \\
& =f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) / \phi \\
& =f^{\mathbf{A} / \phi}\left(a_{1} / \phi, \ldots, a_{n} / \phi\right) \\
& =f^{\mathbf{A} / \phi}\left(\alpha\left(\left(a_{1} / \theta\right) /(\phi / \theta)\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(\left(a_{n} / \theta\right) /(\phi / \theta)\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

So $\alpha$ is an isomorphism.

## Restriction of a Congruence to a Subset

## Definition

Let $\mathbf{A}$ be an algebra. Suppose $B$ is a subset of $A$ and $\theta$ is a congruence on A. Let

$$
B^{\theta}=\{a \in A: B \cap a / \theta \neq \varnothing\} .
$$

Let $\mathbf{B}^{\theta}$ be the subalgebra of $\mathbf{A}$ generated by $B^{\theta}$. Also define $\theta \upharpoonright_{B}$ to be $\theta \cap B^{2}$, the restriction of $\theta$ to $B$.


The dashed-line subdivisions of $A$ are the equivalence classes of $\theta$.

## Lemma on the Restriction of a Congruence to a Subset

## Lemma

If $\mathbf{B}$ is a subalgebra of $\mathbf{A}$ and $\theta \in \operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}$, then
(a) The universe of $\mathbf{B}^{\theta}$ is $B^{\theta}$.
(b) $\theta \upharpoonright_{B}$ is a congruence on $B$.
(a) Suppose $f$ is an $n$-ary function symbol. Let $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in B^{\theta}$. Then one can find $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n} \in B$, such that $\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle \in \theta, 1 \leq i \leq n$. Hence, $\left\langle f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right), f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)\right\rangle \in \theta$, so $f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in B^{\theta}$. Thus, $B^{\theta}$ is a subuniverse of $A$.
(b) To verify that $\theta \upharpoonright_{B}$ is a congruence on $\mathbf{B}$, let $f$ be an $n$-ary function symbol in $\mathscr{F}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n} \in B$, such that $\left\langle a_{i}, b_{i}\right\rangle \in \theta, 1 \leq i \leq n$. Then

$$
f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \theta f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)=f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right) .
$$

Hence, $\left\langle f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right), f^{\mathbf{B}}\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)\right\rangle \in \theta \upharpoonright_{B}$.

## The Third Isomorphism Theorem

## Theorem (Third Isomorphism Theorem)

If $\mathbf{B}$ is a subalgebra of $\mathbf{A}$ and $\theta \in$ ConA, then

$$
\mathrm{B} / \theta \upharpoonright_{B} \cong \mathrm{~B}^{\theta} / \theta \upharpoonright_{B^{\theta}} .
$$



- We can verify that the map $\alpha$ which is defined by

$$
\alpha\left(b / \theta \upharpoonright_{B}\right)=b / \theta \upharpoonright_{B^{\theta}}
$$

gives the desired isomorphism.

## The Correspondence Theorem

- If $\mathbf{L}$ is a lattice and $a, b \in L$, with $a \leq b$, then the interval $[a, b]$ is a subuniverse of $L$.


## Definition

For $[a, b]$ a closed interval of a lattice $\mathbf{L}$, where $a \leq b$, let $[a, b$ ] denote the corresponding sublattice of $\mathbf{L}$.

## Theorem (Correspondence Theorem)

Let $\mathbf{A}$ be an algebra and let $\theta \in \operatorname{ConA}$. Then the mapping $\alpha$ defined on $\left[\theta, \nabla_{A}\right]$ by

$$
\alpha(\phi)=\phi / \theta
$$

is a lattice isomorphism from $\left[\theta, \nabla_{A}\right]$ to ConA/ $\theta$, where $\left[\theta, \nabla_{A}\right]$ is a sublattice of ConA.


## Proof of the Correspondence Theorem

- To see that $\alpha$ is one-to-one, let $\phi, \psi \in\left[\theta, \nabla_{A}\right]$, with $\phi \neq \psi$. Then, without loss of generality, we can assume that there are elements $a, b \in A$, with $\langle a, b\rangle \in \phi-\psi$. Thus, $\langle a / \theta, b / \theta\rangle \in(\phi / \theta)-(\psi / \theta)$. So $\alpha(\phi) \neq \alpha(\psi)$.
To show that $\alpha$ is onto, let $\psi \in \operatorname{ConA} / \theta$. Define $\phi$ to be $\operatorname{ker}\left(v_{\psi} v_{\theta}\right)$. Then for $a, b \in A$,

$$
\langle a / \theta, b / \theta\rangle \in \phi / \theta \text { iff }\langle a, b\rangle \in \phi \text { iff }\langle a / \theta, b / \theta\rangle \in \psi
$$

So $\phi / \theta=\psi$.
Finally, we will show that $\alpha$ is an isomorphism. If $\phi, \psi \in\left[\theta, \nabla_{A}\right]$, then it is clear that

$$
\phi \subseteq \psi \text { iff } \phi / \theta \subseteq \psi / \theta \text { iff } \alpha(\phi) \subseteq \alpha(\psi)
$$

## Subsection 6

## Direct Products and Factor Congruences

## Direct Products

- Subalgebras and quotient algebras, do not give a means of creating algebras of larger cardinality than what we start with, or of combining several algebras into one.


## Definition

Let $\mathbf{A}_{1}$ and $\mathbf{A}_{2}$ be two algebras of the same type $\mathscr{F}$. Define the (direct) product $\mathbf{A}_{1} \times \mathbf{A}_{2}$ to be the algebra whose universe is the set $A_{1} \times A_{2}$ and such that for $f \in \mathscr{F}_{n}$ and $a_{i} \in A_{1}, a_{i}^{\prime} \in A_{2}, 1 \leq i \leq n$,

$$
f^{\mathbf{A}_{1} \times \mathbf{A}_{2}}\left(\left\langle a_{1}, a_{1}^{\prime}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, a_{n}^{\prime}\right\rangle\right)=\left\langle f^{\mathbf{A}_{1}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right), f^{\mathbf{A}_{2}}\left(a_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, a_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right\rangle .
$$

- In general neither $\mathbf{A}_{1}$ nor $\mathbf{A}_{2}$ is embeddable in $\mathbf{A}_{1} \times \mathbf{A}_{2}$; In special cases, e.g., groups, this is possible because there is always a trivial subalgebra.


## Definition

The mapping $\pi_{i}: A_{1} \times A_{2} \rightarrow A_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, defined by $\pi_{i}\left(\left\langle a_{1}, a_{2}\right\rangle\right)=a_{i}$, is called the projection map on the $i$-th coordinate of $A_{1} \times A_{2}$.

## Properties of Projection Maps

## Theorem

For $i=1$ or 2 , the mapping $\pi_{i}: A_{1} \times A_{2} \rightarrow A_{i}$ is a surjective homomorphism from $\mathbf{A}=\mathbf{A}_{1} \times \mathbf{A}_{2}$ to $\mathbf{A}_{i}$. Furthermore, in $\operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}_{1} \times \mathbf{A}_{2}$ we have:
(a) $\operatorname{ker} \pi_{1} \times \operatorname{ker} \pi_{2}=\Delta$;
(b) ker $\pi_{1}$ and ker $\pi_{2}$ permute;
(c) $\operatorname{ker} \pi_{1} \vee \operatorname{ker} \pi_{2}=\nabla$.

- Clearly $\pi_{i}$ is surjective. If $f \in \mathscr{F}_{n}$ and $a_{i} \in A_{1}, a_{i}^{\prime} \in A_{2}, 1 \leq i \leq n$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\pi_{1}\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(\left\langle a_{1}, a_{1}^{\prime}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n}, a_{n}^{\prime}\right\rangle\right)\right. & =\pi_{1}\left(\left\langle f^{\mathbf{A}_{1}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right), f^{\mathbf{A}_{2}}\left(a_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, a_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right\rangle\right) \\
& =f^{\mathbf{A}_{1}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \\
& =f^{\mathbf{A}_{1}}\left(\pi_{1}\left(\left\langle a_{1}, a_{1}^{\prime}\right\rangle\right), \ldots, \pi_{1}\left(\left\langle a_{n}, a_{n}^{\prime}\right\rangle\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

So $\pi_{1}$ is a homomorphism. Similarly, $\pi_{2}$ is a homomorphism.

## Properties of Projection Maps (Cont'd)

- We have

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\left\langle\left\langle a_{1}, a_{2}\right\rangle,\left\langle b_{1}, b_{2}\right\rangle\right\rangle \in \operatorname{ker} \pi_{i} & \text { iff } & \pi_{i}\left(\left\langle a_{1}, a_{2}\right\rangle\right)=\pi_{i}\left(\left\langle b_{1}, b_{2}\right\rangle\right) \\
& \text { iff } \quad a_{i}=b_{i} .
\end{array}
$$

Thus, ker $\pi_{1} \cap \operatorname{ker} \pi_{2}=\Delta$.
Also, if $\left\langle a_{1}, a_{2}\right\rangle,\left\langle b_{1}, b_{2}\right\rangle$ are any two elements of $A_{1} \times A_{2}$, then

$$
\left\langle a_{1}, a_{2}\right\rangle \operatorname{ker} \pi_{1}\left\langle a_{1}, b_{2}\right\rangle \operatorname{ker} \pi_{2}\left\langle b_{1}, b_{2}\right\rangle .
$$

So $\nabla=\operatorname{ker} \pi_{1} \circ \operatorname{ker} \pi_{2}$. But then $\operatorname{ker} \pi_{1}$ and $\operatorname{ker} \pi_{2}$ permute, and their join is $\nabla$.

## Factor Congruences

## Definition

A congruence $\theta$ on $\mathbf{A}$ is a factor congruence if there is a congruence $\theta^{*}$ on $\mathbf{A}$, such that

$$
\theta \cap \theta^{*}=\Delta, \quad \theta \vee \theta^{*}=\nabla, \quad \theta \text { permutes with } \theta^{*} .
$$

The pair $\theta, \theta^{*}$ is called a pair of factor congruences on $\mathbf{A}$.

## Theorem

If $\theta, \theta^{*}$ is a pair of factor congruences on $\mathbf{A}$, then $\mathbf{A} \cong \mathbf{A} / \theta \times \mathbf{A} / \theta^{*}$ under the map $\alpha(a)=\left\langle a / \theta, a / \theta^{*}\right\rangle$.

- If $a, b \in A$, and $\alpha(a)=\alpha(b)$, then $a / \theta=b / \theta$ and $a / \theta^{*}=b / \theta^{*}$, so $\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta$ and $\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta^{*}$, whence $a=b$. Therefore, $\alpha$ is injective. Next, given $a, b \in A$, there is a $c \in A$, with $a \theta c \theta^{*} b$. Hence, $\alpha(c)=\left\langle c / \theta, c / \theta^{*}\right\rangle=\left\langle a / \theta, b / \theta^{*}\right\rangle$, whence $\alpha$ is onto.


## Factor Congruences (Cont'd)

- Finally, for $f \in \mathscr{F}_{n}$ and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in A$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right) & =\left\langle f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) / \theta, f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) / \theta^{*}\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle f^{\mathbf{A} / \theta}\left(a_{1} / \theta, \ldots, a_{n} / \theta\right), f^{\mathbf{A} / \theta^{*}}\left(a_{1} / \theta^{*}, \ldots, a_{n} / \theta^{*}\right)\right\rangle \\
& =f^{\mathbf{A} / \theta \times \mathbf{A} / \theta^{*}}\left(\left\langle a_{1} / \theta, a_{1} / \theta^{*}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle a_{n} / \theta, a_{n} / \theta^{*}\right\rangle\right) \\
& =f^{\mathbf{A} / \theta \times \mathbf{A} / \theta^{*}}\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $\alpha$ is indeed an isomorphism.

## Direct Indecomposability

## Definition

An algebra $\mathbf{A}$ is (directly) indecomposable if $\mathbf{A}$ is not isomorphic to a direct product of two nontrivial algebras.

Example: Any finite algebra A , with $|A|$ a prime number must be directly indecomposable.

## Corollary

A is directly indecomposable iff the only factor congruences on $\mathbf{A}$ are $\Delta$ and $\nabla$.

## Direct Products in General

## Definition

Let $\left(\mathbf{A}_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ be an indexed family of algebras of type $\mathscr{F}$. The (direct) product $\mathbf{A}=\prod_{i \in I} \mathbf{A}_{i}$ is an algebra with universe $\prod_{i \in I} A_{i}$ and such that for $f \in \mathscr{F}_{n}$ and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in \prod_{i \in I} A_{i}$,

$$
f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)(i)=f^{\mathbf{A}_{i}}\left(a_{1}(i), \ldots, a_{n}(i)\right), \quad i \in I
$$

i.e., $f^{\mathbf{A}}$ is defined coordinate-wise.

The empty product $\Pi \varnothing$ is the trivial algebra with universe $\{\varnothing\}$.
As before, we have projection maps $\pi_{j}: \prod_{i \in I} A_{i} \rightarrow A_{j}$, for $j \in I$, defined by $\pi_{j}(a)=a(j)$, which give surjective homomorphisms $\pi_{j}: \prod_{i \in I} \mathbf{A}_{i} \rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{j}$. If $I=\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$, we also write $\mathbf{A}_{1} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{A}_{n}$.
If $I$ is arbitrary but $\mathbf{A}_{i}=\mathbf{A}$, for all $i \in I$, then we usually write $\mathbf{A}^{\prime}$ for the direct product, and call it a (direct) power of $\mathbf{A} . \mathbf{A}^{\varnothing}$ is a trivial algebra.

## Visualization and Basic Properties of Direct Products

- A direct product $\prod_{i \in I} A_{i}$ of sets is often visualized as a rectangle with base $I$ and vertical cross sections $A_{i}$.


An element $a$ of $\prod_{i \in I} A_{i}$ is then a curve.

## Theorem

If $\mathbf{A}_{1}, \mathbf{A}_{2}$ and $\mathbf{A}_{3}$ are of type $\mathscr{F}$, then:
(a) $\mathbf{A}_{1} \times \mathbf{A}_{2} \cong \mathbf{A}_{2} \times \mathbf{A}_{1}$ under $\alpha\left(\left\langle a_{1}, a_{2}\right\rangle\right)=\left\langle a_{2}, a_{1}\right\rangle$.
(b) $\mathbf{A}_{1} \times\left(\mathbf{A}_{2} \times \mathbf{A}_{3}\right) \cong \mathbf{A}_{1} \times \mathbf{A}_{2} \times \mathbf{A}_{3}$ under $\alpha\left(\left\langle a_{1},\left\langle a_{2}, a_{3}\right\rangle\right\rangle\right)=\left\langle a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}\right\rangle$.

## Direct Product Decomposition of Finite Algebras

## Theorem

Every finite algebra is isomorphic to a direct product of directly indecomposable algebras.

- Let $\mathbf{A}$ be a finite algebra. We proceed by induction on $|A|$.
- If $\mathbf{A}$ is trivial, then $\mathbf{A}$ is indecomposable.
- Suppose $\mathbf{A}$ is a nontrivial finite algebra such that for every $\mathbf{B}$, with $|B|<|A|$, we know that $\mathbf{B}$ is isomorphic to a product of indecomposable algebras.
- If $\mathbf{A}$ is indecomposable we are finished.
- If not, then $\mathbf{A} \cong \mathbf{A}_{1} \times \mathbf{A}_{2}$, with $1<\left|A_{1}\right|,\left|A_{2}\right|$. Then, $\left|A_{1}\right|,\left|A_{2}\right|<|A|$. So, by the induction hypothesis, $\mathbf{A}_{1} \cong \mathbf{B}_{1} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{B}_{m} ; \mathbf{A}_{2} \cong \mathbf{C}_{1} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{C}_{n}$, where the $\mathbf{B}_{i}$ and $\mathbf{C}_{j}$ are indecomposable. Consequently, $\mathrm{A} \cong \mathrm{B}_{1} \times \cdots \times \mathrm{B}_{m} \times \mathrm{C}_{1} \times \cdots \times \mathrm{C}_{n}$.


## Combining Homomorphisms Using Products

- Using direct products there are two obvious ways of combining families of homomorphisms into single homomorphisms.


## Definition

(i) If we are given maps $\alpha_{i}: A \rightarrow A_{i}, i \in I$, then the natural map $\alpha: A \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} A_{i}$ is defined by $(\alpha(a))(i)=\alpha_{i}(a)$.
(ii) If we are given maps $\alpha_{i}: A_{i} \rightarrow B_{i}, i \in I$, then the natural map $\alpha: \prod_{i \in I} A_{i} \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} B_{i}$ is defined by $(\alpha(a))(i)=\alpha_{i}(a(i))$.

## Theorem

(a) If $\alpha_{i}: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{i}, i \in I$, is an indexed family of homomorphisms, then the natural map $\alpha$ is a homomorphism from $\mathbf{A}$ to $\mathbf{A}^{*}=\prod_{i \in 1} \mathbf{A}_{i}$.
(b) If $\alpha_{i}: \mathbf{A}_{i} \rightarrow \mathbf{B}_{i}, i \in I$, is an indexed family of homomorphisms, then the natural map $\alpha$ is a homomorphism from $\mathbf{A}^{*}=\prod_{i \in I} \mathbf{A}_{i}$ to $\mathbf{B}^{*}=\prod_{i \in I} \mathbf{B}_{i}$.

## Proof of the Natural Map Theorem

- Suppose $\alpha_{i}: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{i}$ is a homomorphism for $i \in I$. Then for $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in A$ and $f \in \mathscr{F}_{n}$, we have, for $i \in I$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right)\right)(i) & =\alpha_{i}\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right) \\
& =f^{\mathbf{A}_{i}}\left(\alpha,\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha_{i}\left(a_{n}\right)\right) \\
& =f^{\mathbf{A}_{i}}\left(\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right)\right)(i), \ldots,\left(\alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right)(i)\right) \\
& =f^{\mathbf{A}^{*}}\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right)(i) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, $\alpha\left(f^{\mathbf{A}}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right)=f^{\mathbf{A}^{*}}\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha\left(a_{n}\right)\right)$, so $\alpha$ is indeed a homomorphism.
Case (b) is a consequence of (a) using the homomorphisms $\alpha_{i} \circ \pi_{i}$ :

## Separation of Points

## Definition

If $a_{1}, a_{2} \in A$ and $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ is a map, we say $\alpha$ separates $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$ if

$$
\alpha\left(a_{1}\right) \neq \alpha\left(a_{2}\right)
$$

The maps $\alpha_{i}: A \rightarrow A_{i}, i \in I$, separate points if for each $a_{1}, a_{2} \in A$, with $a_{1} \neq a_{2}$, there is an $\alpha_{i}$, such that $\alpha_{i}\left(a_{1}\right) \neq \alpha_{i}\left(a_{2}\right)$.

## Lemma

For an indexed family of maps $\alpha_{i}: A \rightarrow A_{i}, i \in I$, the following are equivalent:
(a) The maps $\alpha_{i}$ separate points.
(b) The natural map $\alpha: A \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} A_{i}$ is injective.
(c) $\bigcap_{i \in I} \operatorname{ker} \alpha_{i}=\Delta$.

## Proof of the Separation of Points Lema

(a) $\Rightarrow(\mathrm{b})$ : Suppose $a_{1}, a_{2} \in A$ and $a_{1} \neq a_{2}$. Then, for some $i$, $\alpha_{i}\left(a_{1}\right) \neq \alpha_{i}\left(a_{2}\right)$. Hence $\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right)\right)(i) \neq\left(\alpha\left(a_{2}\right)\right)(i)$. So $\alpha\left(a_{1}\right) \neq \alpha\left(a_{2}\right)$.
(b) $\Rightarrow(\mathrm{c})$ : For $a_{1}, a_{2} \in A$, with $a_{1} \neq a_{2}$, we have $\alpha\left(a_{1}\right) \neq \alpha\left(a_{2}\right)$, hence $\left(\alpha\left(a_{1}\right)\right)(i) \neq\left(\alpha\left(a_{2}\right)\right)(i)$, for some $i$; so $\alpha_{i}\left(a_{1}\right) \neq \alpha_{i}\left(a_{2}\right)$, for some $i$; and this implies $\left\langle a_{1}, a_{2}\right\rangle \notin \operatorname{ker} \alpha_{i}$, so $\bigcap_{i \in I} \operatorname{ker} \alpha_{i}=\Delta$.
(c) $\Rightarrow(\mathrm{a})$ : For $a_{1}, a_{2} \in A$, with $a_{1} \neq a_{2},\left\langle a_{1}, a_{2}\right\rangle \notin \bigcap_{i \in I} \operatorname{ker} \alpha_{i}$ so, for some $i,\left\langle a_{1}, a_{2}\right\rangle \notin \operatorname{ker} \alpha_{i}$, hence $\alpha_{i}\left(a_{1}\right) \neq \alpha_{i}\left(a_{2}\right)$.

## Theorem

If we are given an indexed family of homomorphisms $\alpha_{i}: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{i}, i \in I$, then the natural homomorphism $\alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} \mathbf{A}_{i}$ is an embedding iff $\bigcap_{i \in I} \operatorname{ker} \alpha_{i}=\Delta$ iff the maps $\alpha_{i}$ separate points.

- This is immediate from the lemma.


## Subsection 7

## Subdirect Products and Simple Algebras

## Subdirect Products and Subdirect Embeddings

## Definition

An algebra $\mathbf{A}$ is a subdirect product of an indexed family $\left(\mathbf{A}_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ of algebras if:
(i) $\mathbf{A} \leq \prod_{i \in I} \mathbf{A}_{i}$;
(ii) $\pi_{i}(\mathbf{A})=\mathbf{A}_{i}$, for each $i \in I$.

An embedding $\alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} \mathbf{A}_{i}$ is subdirect if $\alpha(\mathbf{A})$ is a subdirect product of the $\mathbf{A}_{i}$.

- If $I=\varnothing$, then $\mathbf{A}$ is a subdirect product of $\varnothing$ iff $\mathbf{A}=\Pi \varnothing$, a trivial algebra.


## The Subdirect Embedding Lemma

## Lemma

If $\theta_{i} \in \operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}$, for $i \in I$, and $\bigcap_{i \in I} \theta_{i}=\Delta$, then the natural homomorphism $v: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} \mathbf{A} / \theta_{i}$, defined by

$$
v(a)(i)=a / \theta_{i}
$$

is a subdirect embedding.

- Let $v_{i}$ be the natural homomorphism from $\mathbf{A}$ to $\mathbf{A} / \theta_{i}$, for $i \in I$.
- Since ker $v_{i}=\theta_{i}$ and $\bigcap_{i \in I} \theta_{i}=\Delta$, it follows that $v$ is an embedding.
- Since each $v_{i}$ is surjective, $v$ is a subdirect embedding.


## Subdirect Irreducibility

## Definition

An algebra $\mathbf{A}$ is subdirectly irreducible if, for every subdirect embedding

$$
\alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} \mathbf{A}_{i},
$$

there is an $i \in I$, such that $\pi_{i} \circ \alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{i}$ is an isomorphism.

## Theorem

An algebra $\mathbf{A}$ is subdirectly irreducible iff $\mathbf{A}$ is trivial or there is a minimum congruence in $\operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}-\{\Delta\}$. In the latter case the minimum element is $\cap(\operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}-\{\Delta\})$, a principal congruence, and the congruence lattice of $\mathbf{A}$ looks as in the diagram.


## Subdirect Irreducibility (Cont'd)

$(\Rightarrow)$ : If $\mathbf{A}$ is not trivial and $\operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}-\{\Delta\}$ has no minimum element, then $\cap(\operatorname{Con} A-\{\Delta\})=\Delta$. Let $I=\operatorname{Con} A-\{\Delta\}$. Then the natural map $\alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \prod_{\theta \epsilon I} \mathbf{A} / \theta$ is a subdirect embedding by the lemma. The natural $\operatorname{map} \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{A} / \theta$ is not injective for $\theta \in I$, whence $\mathbf{A}$ is not subdirectly irreducible.
$(\Leftarrow)$ : If $\mathbf{A}$ is trivial and $\alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} \mathbf{A}_{i}$ is a subdirect embedding then each $\mathrm{A}_{i}$ is trivial. Hence, each $\pi_{i} \circ \alpha$ is an isomorphism.
So suppose $\mathbf{A}$ is not trivial, and let $\theta=\cap(\operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}-\{\Delta\}) \neq \Delta$. Choose $\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta, a \neq b$. If $\alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} \mathbf{A}_{i}$ is a subdirect embedding, then for some $i,(\alpha(a))(i) \neq(\alpha(b))(i)$. Hence $\left(\pi_{i} \circ \alpha\right)(a) \neq\left(\pi_{i} \circ \alpha\right)(b)$. Thus, $\langle a, b\rangle \notin \operatorname{ker}\left(\pi_{i} \circ \alpha\right)$ so $\theta \nsubseteq \operatorname{ker}\left(\pi_{i} \circ \alpha\right)$. This implies $\operatorname{ker}\left(\pi_{i} \circ \alpha\right)=\Delta$ so $\pi_{i} \circ \alpha: \mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{A}_{i}$ is an isomorphism. Consequently, $\mathbf{A}$ is subdirectly irreducible.
If $\operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}-\{\Delta\}$ has a minimum element $\theta$, then for $a \neq b$ and $\langle a, b\rangle \in \theta$, we have $\Theta(a, b) \subseteq \theta$, whence $\theta=\Theta(a, b)$.

## Subdirect Irreducibility and Direct Indecomposability

## Examples:

(1) A finite Abelian group $\mathbf{G}$ is subdirectly irreducible iff it is cyclic and $|G|=p^{n}$, for some prime $p$.
(2) Given a prime number $p$, the Prüfer $p$-group $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\infty}}$, the group of $p^{n}$-th roots of unity, $n \in \omega$, is subdirectly irreducible.
(3) Every simple group is subdirectly irreducible.
(4) A vector space over a field $F$ is subdirectly irreducible iff it is trivial or one-dimensional.
(5) Any two-element algebra is subdirectly irreducible.

- A directly indecomposable algebra need not be subdirectly irreducible for example, a three-element chain as a lattice.


## Theorem

A subdirectly irreducible algebra is directly indecomposable.

- Clearly the only factor congruences on a subdirectly irreducible algebra are $\Delta$ and $\nabla$. Such an algebra is directly indecomposable.


## Subdirect Decomposability

## Theorem (Birkhoff)

Every algebra $\mathbf{A}$ is isomorphic to a subdirect product of subdirectly irreducible algebras (which are homomorphic images of $\mathbf{A}$ ).

- As trivial algebras are subdirectly irreducible, we only need to consider the case of nontrivial $\mathbf{A}$. For $a, b \in A$, with $a \neq b$, we can find, using Zorn's lemma, a congruence $\theta_{a, b}$ on $\mathbf{A}$ which is maximal with respect to the property $\langle a, b\rangle \notin \theta_{a, b}$. Then clearly $\Theta(a, b) \vee \theta_{a, b}$ is the smallest congruence in $\left[\theta_{a, b}, \nabla\right]-\left\{\theta_{a, b}\right\}$, so we see that $\mathbf{A} / \theta_{a, b}$ is subdirectly irreducible. As $\cap\left\{\theta_{a, b}: a \neq b\right\}=\Delta$, we can apply a preceding result to show that $\mathbf{A}$ is subdirectly embeddable in the product of the indexed family of subdirectly irreducible algebras $\left(\mathbf{A} / \theta_{a, b}\right)_{a \neq b}$.


## Corollary

Every finite algebra is isomorphic to a subdirect product of a finite number of subdirectly irreducible finite algebras.

## Simple Algebras

## Definition

An algebra $\mathbf{A}$ is simple if $\operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}=\{\Delta, \nabla\}$. A congruence $\theta$ on an algebra $\mathbf{A}$ is maximal if the interval $[\theta, \nabla]$ of $\operatorname{Con} A$ has exactly two elements.

- We do not require that a simple algebra be nontrivial.
- Just as the quotient of a group by a normal subgroup is simple and nontrivial iff the normal subgroup if maximal, we have a similar result for arbitrary algebras.


## Theorem

Let $\theta \in \operatorname{Con} \mathbf{A}$. Then $\mathbf{A} / \theta$ is a simple algebra iff $\theta$ is a maximal congruence on $\mathbf{A}$ or $\theta=\nabla$.

- We know that ConA/ $\theta \cong\left[\theta, \nabla_{A}\right]$. So the theorem is an immediate consequence of the definition.

