A CLASSIFICATION AND EXAMPLES OF RANK ONE CHAIN DOMAINS

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ABSTRACT. A chain order of a skew field D is a subring R of D so that $d \in D \setminus R$ implies $d^{-1} \in R$. Such a ring R has rank one if $J(R)$, the Jacobson radical of R , is its only nonzero completely prime ideal. We show that a rank one chain order of D is either invariant, in which case R corresponds to a real-valued valuation of D , or R is nearly simple, in which case R , $J(R)$ and (0) are the only ideals of R , or R is exceptional in which case R contains a prime ideal Q that is not completely prime. We use the group $\mathcal{M}(R)$ of divisorial R -ideals of D with the subgroup $\mathcal{H}(R)$ of principal R -ideals to characterize these cases. The exceptional case subdivides further into infinitely many cases depending on the index k of $\mathcal{H}(R)$ in $\mathcal{M}(R)$. Using the covering group $\mathbb{G}$ of $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ and the result that the group ring $T\mathbb{G}$ is embeddable into a skew field for T a skew field, examples of rank one chain orders are constructed for each possible exceptional case.

INTRODUCTION

A subring R of a skew field D is called total if d in D and d not in R implies that the inverse d^{-1} is contained in R . It follows that for such rings R the lattice of right ideals as well as the lattice of left ideals is linearly ordered by inclusion; R is a chain domain. Conversely, any chain domain R is Ore and is a total subring of its skew field of quotients D . The total subrings of fields are exactly valuation rings, corresponding to valuation functions into linearly ordered groups. In particular, if we take nontrivial subgroups G of the additive group $(\mathbb{R}, +, \leq)$ of the reals as value groups, then we obtain the commutative valuation rings of rank one. Such a ring can also be characterized as a maximal subring of a field, or as a valuation ring with exactly one nonzero prime ideal. In the non-commutative case we must distinguish between prime ideals and completely prime ideals: An ideal $B \neq R$ of a ring R is prime if $I_1 I_2 \subseteq B$ implies $I_1 \subseteq B$ or $I_2 \subseteq B$ for ideals I_1 and I_2 of R . If $ab \in B$ implies $a \in B$ or $b \in B$ for elements a, b in R , then B is called completely prime. A total subring R of a skew field D will be called a chain domain of rank one if R has exactly one nonzero completely prime ideal. This ideal will then be $J(R)$, the Jacobson radical of R .

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We prove in Theorem 1.9 that a rank one chain domain R is either invariant, i.e., all one-sided ideals are two-sided, or it is nearly simple in which case R , $J(R)$, and (0) are its only ideals, or R is exceptional in which case R contains a prime ideal that is not completely prime. The exceptional rank one chain domains are classified further with the help of the group $\mathcal{M}(R)$ of divisorial R -ideals and the subgroup $\mathcal{H}(R)$ of $\mathcal{M}(R)$ of principal R -ideals. The lattice of two-sided R -ideals is then determined by the index k of $\mathcal{H}(R)$ in $\mathcal{M}(R)$, and we say that R is exceptional of type (C_k) .

These results are proved in the more general case of cones P in groups G where a cone P of G is a subsemigroup of G so that $g \in G \setminus P$ implies $g^{-1} \in P$.

That rank one chain domains are either invariant, nearly simple or exceptional was proved in [4]. Invariant rank one chain orders of D correspond to valuation functions from D^* into $(\mathbb{R}, +, \leq)$. Nearly simple chain domains were constructed in [8], [16], [5] and [3]. The construction of exceptional rank one chain domains, however, appeared to be elusive even though Posner in [19] hinted that such rings might exist, and the classification of hypercyclic rings by Osofsky in [18] is complete only if such rings do not exist. I. N. Herstein had considered the problem and this existence problem was also encountered in [14]. We construct in this paper exceptional rank one chain domains of any type (C_k) : Theorem 4.4 and Corollary 4.6. We do this by first constructing exceptional cones P_k of type (C_k) in subgroups H_k of the universal covering group $\mathbb{G}$ of $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$, Theorem 3.8, and then apply Dubrovin's result in [11], where he constructs an exceptional rank one chain ring of type (C_1) associated with a cone $\mathbb{P}$ in $\mathbb{G}$.

1. CHAIN DOMAINS AND CONES

1.1. Basic properties. A ring R is a *right chain ring*, if the set of all right ideals of R is linearly ordered with respect to inclusion. Left chain rings and chain rings are defined similarly. A chain domain R has a classical skew field of quotients D and can therefore be considered as a total subring of D ([7]).

A subsemigroup P of a group G is called a *cone* of G if $G = P \cup P^{-1}$ and P is a *pure cone* if in addition $P \cap P^{-1} = \{e\}$. There is a close connection between cones P in a group G and right or left orders: if P is a cone of G and $a, b \in G$, then $\leq_\ell$ defined by $a \leq_\ell b$ if and only if $a^{-1}b \in P$ defines a left preorder, and $a \leq_r b$ if and only if $ba^{-1} \in P$ defines a right preorder on G . The relations " $\leq_r$ " and " $\leq_\ell$ " are right orders and left orders on G respectively if and only if the cone P is pure. Finally, if P is pure, then the right order defined by P agrees with the left order defined by P if and only if $aP = Pa$ for all a in G , i.e., P is invariant under all inner automorphisms of G . The group G is then linearly ordered.

Let P be a cone of a group G . A nonempty subset I of G is called a left P -ideal if $PI \subseteq I$ and $I \subseteq Pa$ for a suitable element a in G . The second condition is satisfied for any $I \neq G$ provided I satisfies the first condition. If in addition $I \subseteq P$, we say I is a left ideal. Right P -ideals, P -ideals and right ideals and ideals are defined similarly. An ideal B of P is called a prime ideal if $B \neq P$ and $aPb \subseteq B$ implies $a \in B$ or $b \in B$ for $a, b \in P$. If $ab \in B$ implies $a \in B$ or $b \in B$ for the ideal $B \neq P$ of P , then B is called completely prime.

We collect elementary properties of a cone P in G . We can assume that $P \neq G$. Let $U(P) = P \cap P^{-1}$, the subgroup of units of P .

- a):** $J(P) = P \setminus U(P)$ is the maximal right and the maximal left ideal of P ; it is the Jacobson radical of P and it is a completely prime ideal of P .
- b):** The set of right (left) P -ideals in G is linearly ordered with respect to inclusion. We define $I_1 \leq I_2$ if and only if $I_1 \supseteq I_2$ for right P -ideals I_1 and I_2 .

To see this, one considers first principal right P -ideals aP and bP in G . Then either $a^{-1}b \in P$ and $bP \subseteq aP$ or $b^{-1}a \in P$ and $aP \subseteq bP$. If $I_2 \not\subseteq I_1$, then there exists a in $I_2 \setminus I_1$ and $I_1 \subset aP \subseteq I_2$ follows.

- c):** There is a one-to-one correspondence between the set of cones $P' \neq G$ in G that contain a cone P and the set of completely prime ideals B of P .

Proof. Let $P \subseteq P' \subset G$ be cones in G . Then $j' \in J(P')$ and $j' \notin P$ implies $j'^{-1} \in P$, a contradiction. Hence, $J(P') \subseteq J(P)$ and $P' = P \cup (P \setminus J(P'))^{-1}$. Conversely, if $B \subseteq J(P)$ is a completely prime ideal in P , then $P' = P \cup (P \setminus B)^{-1}$ is a cone $\neq G$ in G . $\square$

- d):** Let I be an ideal in P with $I \neq P$ and $Q = \bigcap I^n \neq \emptyset$. Then Q is a completely prime ideal.

Proof. If $c \in P \setminus Q$ and $ca \in Q$ for some a in P , then there exists n_0 with $c \notin I^{n_0}$. However, for any n there exist $a_i, b_j \in I$ with $ca = a_1 \dots a_{n_0} b_1 \dots b_n$. Then $a_1 \dots a_{n_0} = cd$ for some d in P and $a = db_1 \dots b_n \in I^n$ follows. Hence, $a \in Q$ and Q is a completely prime ideal. $\square$

- e):** A P -ideal I will be right principal and left principal if and only if $I = zP = Pz$ for some $z \in G$.

Proof. Let $I = z_1P = Pz_2$ with $z_1, z_2 \in G$. Then $z_2 = z_1a$, $z_1 = bz_2$ for some $a, b \in P$. Hence, $bz_1a = z_1$. Since I is an ideal, there exists b' in P with $bz_1 = z_1b'$ and $z_1 = z_1b'a$ follows. Therefore, $b'a = 1$ and $a \in U(P)$, and $Pz_2 = z_1P = z_1aP = z_2P$. $\square$

- f):** Let P be a cone in G . The set $\mathcal{H}(P)$ of all principal P -ideals of G forms a group with ideal multiplication as the operation. $\mathcal{H}(P)$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of $(\mathbb{R}, +, \leq)$ if $J(P)$ is the only completely prime ideal of P .

Proof. If $I_1 = z_1P = Pz_1$ and $I_2 = z_2P = Pz_2$, then $I_1I_2 = z_1Pz_2P = z_1z_2P$ and $(z_1P)^{-1} = z_1^{-1}P$. It follows that $\mathcal{H}(P)$ is a group with P as identity. To prove the second statement let $P \supset zP = Pz$. Then $\bigcap (zP)^n = \emptyset$ since otherwise $\bigcap (zP)^n$ is a completely prime ideal $\neq J(P)$ by d). $\mathcal{H}(P)$ is therefore an ordered Archimedean group and the statement follows from Hölder's Theorem (see [13]). $\square$

- g):** A right P -ideal I is a principal right P -ideal if and only if $IJ(P) \neq I$.

Proof. If $I = zP$, then $zP \supset IJ(P) = zJ(P)$. Conversely, if I is not principal as a right P -ideal, then for $a \in I$ there exists $b \in I$ with $aP \subset bP$, $a = bj \in IJ(P)$, $j \in J(P)$, and $IJ(P) = I$. $\square$

We single out cones with the property in f):

Definition 1.1. A cone P of a group G has *rank one* if $J(P)$ is the only completely prime ideal of P .

It follows from the definitions that a subring R of a skew field D is total if and only if the semigroup $R^* = (R \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ is a cone in the group D^* .

This relationship between a cone in a group and a chain domain is generalized in the next definition.

Definition 1.2. A total subring R in a skew field D is said to be *associated* with a cone P in a group G if the following conditions hold:

- i): G is a subgroup of D^* , the multiplicative group of D .
- ii): Every element d in D^* can be written as $d = g_1 u_1 = u_2 g_2$ with g_1, g_2 in G and u_1, u_2 in $U(R)$ so that $P g_1 P = P g_2 P$.
- iii): $R \cap G = P$.

We also say in this case that the cone P is associated with the chain domain R .

Proposition 1.3. Let the total subring R of the skew field D be associated with the cone P of the group G . Then:

- i): $I_0 \rightarrow I_0 R$ defines an isomorphism from the lattice of right P -ideals to the lattice of nonzero right R -ideals. The inverse of this mapping assigns $I \cap G$ to the nonzero right R -ideal I .
- ii): The correspondence defined in i) preserves the properties of being an ideal, a completely prime ideal, a prime ideal, and a principal right ideal.

Proof. i) If I_0 is a right P -ideal, then two nonzero elements a, b in $I_0 R$ have the form $a = g_1 u_1, b = g_2 u_2$ for $g_i \in I_0$ and $u_i \in U(R)$. We can assume that $g_1 P \subseteq g_2 P$, and $g_1 = g_2 p, p \in P$ follows. Therefore, $a \pm b = g_2(p u_1 \pm u_2) \in I_0 R$; this shows that $I_0 R$ is a right R -ideal, since $g I_0 \subseteq P \subseteq R$ for some $g \in G \subseteq D$. Further, if $g \in I_0 R \cap G$ for a right P -ideal I_0 , then $g = h g' u$ for $h \in I_0, g' \in P$ and $u \in U(R)$. It follows that $h g' \in I_0$ and $u \in U(R) \cap G = U(P)$; hence, $g \in I_0$ and $I_0 R \cap G = I_0$. Similarly, one can show that $I \cap G$ is a right P -ideal if I is a right R -ideal and that $(I \cap G)R = I$.

For ii) we only show that the right P -ideal I_0 is a P -ideal if and only if $I_0 R$ is an R -ideal. Let $r \in R$ and $h \in I_0$, a P -ideal. Then $r = p_1 u_1$ for $p_1 \in P, u_1 \in U(R)$ and $rh = p_1 u_1 h = p_1 k u_2$ for $u_1 h = k u_2$ with $u_2 \in U(R)$ and $h, k \in G$. By ii) of Definition 1.2 we have $PhP = PkP$; $k \in I_0$ follows and $rh \in I_0 R$, which shows that $I_0 R$ is also a left R -module and then an R -ideal. Conversely, if $I_0 R$ is an R -ideal for a right P -ideal I_0 , then $I_0 = I_0 R \cap G$ is a P -ideal. $\square$

Some variations of the results in this section can be found in [12] and [6].

1.2. Divisorial ideals. We consider certain P -ideals for a cone P which will form a group in case P has rank one.

Definition 1.4. Let P be a cone in a group G . The *divisorial closure* $\widehat{I}$ of a right P -ideal I is the intersection of all principal right P -ideals containing I :

$$\widehat{I} = \bigcap_{hP \supseteq I} hP.$$

A right P -ideal I is called *divisorial* if $\widehat{I} = I$.

If we replace the cone P by a total subring R , we obtain the definition of the *divisorial closure* of a right R -ideal and of a *divisorial* right R -ideal. In addition, we assume that a divisorial right R -ideal is nonzero.

We collect a list of properties:

Let P be a cone in a group G , I a P -right ideal. Then:

a): $\widehat{I} \supseteq I$;

b): $\widehat{\widehat{I}} = \widehat{I}$;

c): $g\widehat{I} = g\widehat{I}$ for any g in G ;

d): I is non-divisorial if and only if $J(P)$ is not a principal right ideal and there exists an element z in G with $\widehat{I} = zP$ and $I = zJ(P)$. If, in addition, I is a P -ideal and $\text{rank } P = 1$, then $\widehat{I} = zP = Pz$ and $I = zJ(P) = J(P)z$.

The properties a, b, and c follow directly from the definition. To prove d) we will write J instead of $J(P)$ and assume that $\widehat{I} \supset I$ and that $z \in \widehat{I} \setminus I$. Then $\widehat{I} \supseteq zP \supset I$ and $\widehat{I} = zP$ follows; then $I = zJ$, since $zjP \supseteq I$ for some $j \in J(P)$ leads to a contradiction. This also shows that J is not a principal right ideal. If J is not a principal right ideal, then $cP \supseteq zJ$ implies $z^{-1}cP \supseteq J$ and $z^{-1}cP \supseteq P$, $cP \supseteq zP$ for $c, z \in G$. This means that $\widehat{I} = zP$ for $I = zJ$ and hence $\widehat{I} \supset I$. If zP is a P -ideal, then certainly zJ is a P -ideal. Conversely, if zJ is an ideal, then zP is an ideal, since otherwise there is an $a \in P$ and a $j \in J$ with $azj = z$, a contradiction. Finally, we assume that $\widehat{I} \neq I$ and I is a P -ideal and that P has rank one. Then $\widehat{I} = zP$ and the left order $O_\ell(I) = \{g \in G \mid g\widehat{I} \subseteq \widehat{I}\} \neq G$ contains the cone P as well as the cone zPz^{-1} both of which are maximal. It follows that $P = zPz^{-1}$, $Pz = zP = \widehat{I}$ and $Jz = zJ = I$. $\square$

We list a property that was proved in the proof of d):

e): I is a P -ideal if and only if $\widehat{I}$ is a P -ideal.

The next result shows that in the correspondence between right R -ideals and right P -ideals, divisorial right ideals correspond to each other if the chain domain R is associated with the cone P .

Proposition 1.5. *Let R be a total subring of the skew field D associated with the cone P in a group G . Then the right P -ideal I is divisorial if and only if the right R -ideal IR is divisorial.*

Proof. Assume I is divisorial, i.e., $I = \widehat{I} = \bigcap_{hP \supseteq I} hP$. Then $IR \subseteq hR$ for all $h \in G$

with $hP \supseteq I$, and $IR \subseteq \bigcap_{hP \supseteq I} hR$. To show the reverse inclusion, let $d \in \bigcap_{hP \supseteq I} hR$

for $hP \supseteq I$ and $d = hr_h = gm$ for $g \in G$, $m \in U(R)$. Hence, $g = hr_h m^{-1} \in hR \cap G = hP$ and $g \in \bigcap_{hP \supseteq I} hP = I$, $d \in IR$ follows. Now assume that A is a divisorial right R -ideal, $A = \bigcap_{dR \supseteq A} dR$. Any such $d = gm$ for $g \in G$, $m \in U(R)$. Hence,

$A \cap G = (\bigcap_{dR \supseteq A} dR) \cap G = \bigcap_{dR \supseteq A} (gR \cap G) = \bigcap_{dR \supseteq A} gP$, which shows that $A \cap G$ is divisorial and $A \cap G$ is nonempty, since A is nonzero. $\square$

For any subset I of a group G we define the following three subsets of G : the right order $O_r(I) = \{g \in G \mid Ig \subseteq I\}$, the left order $O_\ell(I) = \{g \in G \mid gI \subseteq I\}$, and the inverse $I^{-1} = \{g \in G \mid IgI \subseteq I\}$.

It follows that $I^{-1} = \{g \in G \mid gI \subseteq O_r(I)\} = \{g \in G \mid Ig \subseteq O_\ell(I)\}$.

We have the following two properties where P is a cone in the group G :

f): If I is a right P -ideal, then $O_\ell(I)$ is a cone of G and $O_r(I)$ is an over cone of P . Further, I is a right $O_r(I)$ -ideal and a left $O_\ell(I)$ -ideal, and I^{-1} is a right $O_\ell(I)$ -ideal and a left $O_r(I)$ -ideal.

For a proof we observe that for any g in G either $gI \subseteq I$ and $g \in O_\ell(I)$ or $I \subset gI$ and $g^{-1} \in O_\ell(I)$. The rest of the statements follow immediately.

g): $O_r(J(P)) = O_\ell(J(P)) = P$, and $J(P)^2 \neq J(P)$ implies that $J(P) = zP = Pz$ for some $z \in P$.

The first statement follows from Property c) in Section 1.1 since $O_r(J(P)) \supset P$ implies that $j^{-1}J(P) \subseteq J(P)$ for some $j \in J(P)$. Hence, $J(P) \subseteq jJ(P)$, a contradiction that shows $O_r(J(P)) = P$ and similarly $O_\ell(J(P)) = P$.

The second statement follows from Property g) in Section 1.1, its left symmetric version, and Property e) in Section 1.1. $\square$

Even though one can consider the groupoid of all divisorial P -ideals for a cone P of arbitrary rank (see also [2]), we restrict ourselves to the rank one case:

Definition 1.6. Let P be a cone of rank one. Then $\mathcal{M}(P)$ is the set of all divisorial P -ideals together with the operation “ $*$ ” defined by:

$$I_1 * I_2 = \widehat{I_1 I_2} \quad \text{for } P\text{-ideals } I_1, I_2.$$

We have the following result:

Theorem 1.7. Let P be a cone of rank one in a group G . Then:

- $\alpha)$ $\mathcal{M}(P)$ is a linearly ordered group;
- $\beta)$ The inverse of an element I in $\mathcal{M}(P)$ is I^{-1} ;
- $\gamma)$ $\mathcal{H}(P)$ is a subgroup of $\mathcal{M}(P)$.

Proof. We show first that the operation defined in Definition 1.6 is associative.

On the set of all P -ideals we define a relation $I_1 \sim I_2$ if and only if $\widehat{I_1} = \widehat{I_2}$; this is an equivalence relation.

We are going to show next that for P -ideals I_1, I_2 the following equivalence holds:

$$(+) \quad I_1 I_2 \sim \widehat{I_1} \widehat{I_2}.$$

If $I_1 = \widehat{I_1}$ and $I_2 = \widehat{I_2}$, then $(+)$ is trivially true. If $I_1 \neq \widehat{I_1}$, then $\widehat{I_1} = zP \supset zJ(P) = I_1$ and $J = J(P)$ is not right principal. Also $\widehat{I_1} = zP = Pz$ is a P -ideal by Property d).

The equivalence $(+)$ holds therefore if and only if the following equivalence holds:

$$(++) \quad JI_2 \sim P\widehat{I_2} = \widehat{I_2}.$$

Hence, if $JI_2 = I_2$, we are done. Otherwise, $JI_2 \subset I_2$ and $I_2 = Pd$ follows for some d in G by the left symmetric version of Property g) in Section 1.1. Since I_2 is an ideal, we have $dP \subseteq Pd$, $P \subseteq d^{-1}Pd$ and the equality $d^{-1}Pd = P$ since P has rank one. Then $dP = Pd = I_2$, $dJ = Jd$ and $JI_2 = Jd = dJ \sim dP = I_2$ which proves the equivalence $(++)$ and hence also $(+)$ in this case.

Finally, we must prove $(+)$ if $I_1 = \widehat{I_1}$ and $\widehat{I_2} \supset I_2$. Then, as above, $\widehat{I_2} = aP = Pa \supset aJ = Ja = I_2$ for some a in G . The equivalence $(+)$ then holds if and only if the equivalence $I_1 J \sim \widehat{I_1} P = I_1$ holds. Using the right symmetric version of arguments used in the proof of $(++)$, one shows that $I_1 J \sim I_1$. This proves $(+)$.

If $I_1 \sim I'_1$ and $I_2 \sim I'_2$ for P -ideals I_1, I'_1, I_2, I'_2 , then $I_1 I_2 \sim \widehat{I_1} \widehat{I_2} = \widehat{I'_1} \widehat{I'_2} \sim I'_1 I'_2$. Hence $\mathcal{M}(P)$ is a factor monoid of the monoid of all P -ideals, and the operation $*$ given in the definition for $\mathcal{M}(P)$ is associative.

Next we show that $\widehat{II^{-1}} = P$ for I a P -ideal, and $\widehat{I^{-1}I} = P$ follows from similar arguments. Since I is a P -ideal, I^{-1} is a P -ideal.

If $II^{-1} = P$, we are done; otherwise $II^{-1} \subseteq J(P) = J$. If $II^{-1} \subseteq Pz \subseteq J$ for some $z \in J$, then $II^{-1}z^{-1} \subseteq P$ and $I^{-1}z^{-1} \in I^{-1}$ which implies $z^{-1} \in O_r(I^{-1}) = P$, since P has rank one. This is a contradiction since $z \in J$, and $II^{-1} = J$, $J \neq Pz$ for all $z \in P$ remains as the only possibility to be considered. It then follows from Property g) that $J^2 = J$, J is not a principal right ideal, and hence $\widehat{II^{-1}} = \widehat{J} = P$.

In order to complete the proof of $\alpha)$ and $\beta)$ we show that I^{-1} is a divisorial P -ideal for I a P -ideal. If on the contrary, $I^{-1} = zJ \subset zP = \widehat{I^{-1}}$ and J is not a principal right ideal, then $zJI \subseteq P$ by the definition of I^{-1} , and by (+) it follows that $z\widehat{JI} \subseteq \widehat{P} = P$. Since $\widehat{zJ} = zP$, we obtain $zI \subseteq z\widehat{I} \subseteq P$, and hence $z \in I^{-1} = zJ$, a contradiction.

This shows that $\mathcal{M}(P)$ is a group and that $\beta)$ holds. For $I_1 \supseteq I_2$ in $\mathcal{M}(P)$ we define $I_1 \leq I_2$ and $\mathcal{M}(P)$ then is a linearly ordered group with P as identity. Elements in $\mathcal{H}(P)$ have the form $I = zP = Pz$ for some z in G with $\widehat{zP} = zP$ and $(zP)^{-1} = z^{-1}P = Pz^{-1}$; see f) in Section 1.1 and $\gamma)$ follows. This proves the theorem. $\square$

Corollary 1.8. *Let P be a cone of rank one in a group G . Then $\mathcal{M}(P)$ and $\mathcal{H}(P)$ are Archimedean groups.*

Proof. Let $B \subset P$ be a divisorial ideal. If $B \subset J(P) = J$ or $B = J \neq J^2$, then $\bigcap B^n = \emptyset$ by Property d) in Section 1.1. If $J = J^2$, we have $\widehat{J} = P$ and hence $\bigcap B^n = \emptyset$ in all cases, and $B^{n+1} \subset B^n$. Then $\widehat{B^{n+1}} \subseteq B^n$, since there are no further right ideals between B^{n+1} and $\widehat{B^{n+1}}$. This implies $\bigcap \widehat{B^n} = \emptyset$, and it follows that $\mathcal{M}(P)$ and $\mathcal{H}(P)$ are Archimedean; see also Property f) in Section 1.1. $\square$

Related results can be found in [12] and [2].

1.3. The classification of rank one cones. The groups $\mathcal{M}(P)$ and $\mathcal{H}(P)$ will be used to classify rank one cones P in groups G based on the lattice of their ideals. In the following theorem and proof we will write J instead of $J(P)$.

Theorem 1.9. *Let P be a cone of rank one in a group G . Then exactly one of the following possibilities occurs:*

A) : *The cone P is Archimedean, i.e., $aP = Pa$ for all a in P . We distinguish two possibilities in this case:*

A₁): $\mathcal{M}(P) = \mathcal{H}(P) \cong (\mathbb{Z}, +, \leq)$, which is exactly the case when $J^2 \neq J$. Then every P -ideal is a power of J and the cone is called discrete.

A₂): $\mathcal{M}(P) \cong (\mathbb{R}, +, \leq)$ and $\mathcal{H}(P)$ is a dense subgroup of $\mathcal{M}(P)$.

B) : *The cone P is nearly simple; i.e., J is the only proper ideal in P . In this case $\mathcal{M}(P) = \mathcal{H}(P) = \{P\}$.*

C) : *The cone P is exceptional; i.e., there exists a prime ideal Q in P that is not completely prime. Then:*

i) : *There are no further ideals between J and Q .*

ii) : *The ideal Q is divisorial and $\mathcal{M}(P) = \text{gr}\{Q\}$ is an infinite cyclic group.*

iii) : $\bigcap Q^n = \emptyset$.

iv) : *There exists an integer $k \geq 0$ such that $\mathcal{H}(P) = \text{gr}\{\widehat{Q^k}\}$. The cone P is said to be of type (C_k) in this case.*

If P is of type (C_0) , then

$$\cdots \supset (Q^n)^{-1} \supset \cdots \supset Q^{-1} \supset P \supset J \supset Q \supset Q^2 \supset Q^3 \supset \cdots$$

is the chain of P -ideals.

If P is of type (C_1) , then

$$\begin{aligned} \cdots \supset Q^{-2} &= z^{-2}P \supset z^{-2}J \supset Q^{-1} = z^{-1}P \supset z^{-1}J \supset P \supset J \supset zP \\ &= Q \supset zJ \supset z^2P = Q^2 \supset z^2J \supset \cdots \end{aligned}$$

is the chain of P -ideals.

If P is of type (C_k) , $k \geq 2$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \cdots \supset (Q^{k+1})^{-1} \supset z^{-1}P \supset z^{-1}J \supset (Q^{k-1})^{-1} \supset \cdots \\ \supset Q^{-1} \supset P \supset J \supset Q \supset Q^2 \supset \cdots \supset Q^{k-1} \supset zP \supset zJ \\ = Q^k \supset Q^{k+1} \supset \cdots \supset Q^{2k-1} \supset z^2P \supset z^2J \\ = Q^{2k} \supset Q^{2k+1} \supset \cdots \end{aligned}$$

is the chain of all P -ideals.

Proof. If J is the only proper ideal of P , then P is of type B .

Otherwise, let $Q = \bigcup I$ be the union of ideals of P properly contained in J . If $J^2 = J$ and $J \supset Q$, then P is exceptional: for ideals $I_1 \supset Q$ and $I_2 \supset Q$ in P we have $I_1 \cdot I_2 \supseteq J^2 = J \supset Q$ and Q is a prime ideal of P , not completely prime and no further ideal exists between J and Q . The divisorial closure $\widehat{Q}$ of Q is an ideal that cannot be equal to J , since J would then be right principal. Hence, $\widehat{Q} = Q$ is the smallest positive element in the linearly ordered Archimedean group $\mathcal{M}(P)$, and $\mathcal{M}(P) = \text{gr}\{Q\}$ is an infinite cyclic group. The subgroup $\mathcal{H}(P)$ has therefore the form $\mathcal{H}(P) = \text{gr}\{\widehat{Q}^k\}$ for some $k \geq 0$; we say that P is of type (C_k) .

We can now describe the P -ideals in each case (C_k) if we recall (see Property d) in Section 1.2) that an ideal I is either divisorial or of the form $cJ = Jc$ with $\widehat{I} = cP = Pc$, some $c \in G$ and $J = J^2$. It will also follow from the rest of the proof that if P is exceptional, then $J = J^2$ and $J \supset Q = \bigcup I$, where the ideals I are properly contained in J , the prime ideal that is not completely prime.

In the case (C_0) there are no principal ideals $\neq P$ and the group $\mathcal{M}(P) = \text{gr}\{Q\}$ contains all P -ideals $\neq J$. In the case (C_1) the ideal $Q = zP = Pz$ is principal and $\mathcal{M}(P) = \mathcal{H}(P)$. In the case (C_k) , $k \geq 2$, the ideal $\widehat{Q}^k$ is principal. However, Q^k itself cannot be principal, since otherwise $Q^k = zP$ implies $Q^k J \neq Q^k$; hence, $QJ \neq Q$ and Q is principal (see Property g) in Section 1.1). Hence $\widehat{Q}^k = zP = Pz \supset Q^k = zJ = Jz$ for an element z in P .

It remains to consider the case where either $J \neq J^2$, or $J = J^2$ and $J = Q = \bigcup I$ for ideals I properly contained in J . In this case we will prove that $aP = Pa$ for all a in P . If for some a in P the right ideal aP is not a left ideal, then an element c exists in P with $caP \supset aP$ and $caj = a$ follows for an element j in J . By assumption there exists an ideal $I \subseteq J$ with $j \in I$ and $\bigcap I^n = \emptyset$; we obtain the contradiction $a = caj = c^n a j^n \in \bigcap I^n$. We have $Pa \subseteq aP$, $P \subseteq aPa^{-1}$ and $P = aPa^{-1}$ since P is of rank one. Therefore, $Pa = aP$ for all a in P and P is invariant.

If $J \neq J^2$, then $J = aP = Pa$, for some a in P , is the smallest positive element in the Archimedean group $\mathcal{M}(P)$. Hence, $\mathcal{M}(P) = \mathcal{H}(P) = \text{gr}\{J\}$ is the group of all P -ideals.

If $J = J^2$ and $J = Q$, then $\mathcal{H}(P)$ is isomorphic to a dense subgroup of $(\mathbb{R}, +, \leq)$ and $\mathcal{M}(P)$ is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{R}, +, \leq)$. $\square$

If R is a chain order of rank one in a skew field D , then $R^* = R \setminus \{0\}$ is a cone in the group D^* . We say that R has type (A) , (A_1) , (A_2) , (B) , (C) , or (C_k) if and only if the cone R^* is of the same type.

The next result follows from Propositions 1.3 and 1.5 and Theorem 1.9.

Corollary 1.10. *Let P be a cone associated with the rank one chain domain R . Then P and R have the same type.*

2. THE UNIVERSAL COVERING GROUP $\mathbb{G}$ OF $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$

2.1. The group $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$. By $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ we denote, as usual, the group of 2×2 matrices with real entries and determinant equal to 1. Then

$$\mathbb{U} = \left\{ u = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a > 0 \right\}$$

and

$$\mathbb{S} = \left\{ r(t) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos t & -\sin t \\ \sin t & \cos t \end{pmatrix} \mid t \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

are two particular subgroups of $\mathbb{G}$. Every element $s \in \mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ can be written in a unique way as

$$s = r(t)u \quad \text{for } r(t) \in \mathbb{S} \quad \text{with } 0 \leq t < 2\pi \quad \text{and } u \in \mathbb{U}.$$

To prove this claim, let $\{e_1, e_2\}$ be the standard basis of $\mathbb{R}^2$, the Euclidean plane, and let the elements of $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ be the representations of linear transformations of $\mathbb{R}^2$ with respect to the basis $\{e_1, e_2\}$. For every nonzero vector $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ there exists a unique element $t \in [0, 2\pi)$ with $\mathbf{a}/\|\mathbf{a}\| = e_1 \cos t + e_2 \sin t$; we write $\arg \mathbf{a} = t$ in this case.

Let $t = \arg s(e_1)$ for the given element $s \in \mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ and $r(-t)s = u \in \mathbb{U}$ for some element u , since $r(-t)s(e_1) = ae_1$ for $a > 0$. Hence, $s = r(t)u$ and this representation is unique, since $\mathbb{U} \cap \mathbb{S} = \{I\}$, $I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, the identity of $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$.

2.2. The group $\mathbb{G}$. We are going to construct the universal covering group $\mathbb{G}$ of the group $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ in this section. We do this first for the subgroup $\mathbb{S}$ by fixing a symbol, say x , and by rewriting the additive group of the real numbers in multiplicative form:

$$R = \{x^t \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\}; \quad x^{t_1} \cdot x^{t_2} = x^{t_1+t_2}; \quad x^{t_1} \leq x^{t_2} \Leftrightarrow t_1 \leq t_2.$$

Then R is a linearly ordered group isomorphic to $(\mathbb{R}, +, \leq)$. The mapping τ from R to $\mathbb{S}$ with $\tau(x^t) = r(t)$ is a group epimorphism with the cyclic subgroup $\mathrm{gr}\{x^{2\pi}\}$ as its kernel; τ is a cover of the Lie group $\mathbb{S}$. Next we define the covering group $\mathbb{G}$ of $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ as the set $\mathbb{G} = \{x^t u \mid x^t \in R, u \in \mathbb{U}\}$, the Cartesian product $R \times \mathbb{U}$, together with the following operation: If $x^{t_1} u_1, x^{t_2} u_2$ are two elements in $\mathbb{G}$ and $t_2 = 2\pi k + \varphi$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\varphi \in [0, 2\pi)$, then $u_1 r(\varphi) u_2 = r(\psi) u$ in $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ for $u \in \mathbb{U}$, $\psi \in [0, 2\pi)$, and the product in $\mathbb{G}$ is defined as $x^{t_1} u_1 \cdot x^{t_2} u_2 = x^{t_1+2\pi k+\psi} u$.

The mapping τ from above can be extended to a mapping from $\mathbb{G}$ to $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ by defining

$$\tau(x^t u) = r(t)u.$$

We want to prove that $\mathbb{G}$ is a group and that τ is an epimorphism from $\mathbb{G}$ onto $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$.

Lemma 2.1. *The mapping τ is onto $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$, and if $a \cdot b = c$ for elements a, b, c in $\mathbb{G}$, then $\tau(c) = \tau(a)\tau(b)$.*

Proof. The element $x^t u$ in $\mathbb{G}$ satisfies $\tau(x^t u) = r(t)u$ for the arbitrary element $r(t)u$ in $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$; τ is onto. If $a = x^{t_1} u_1$, $b = x^{t_2} u_2$ in $\mathbb{G}$, $t_2 = 2\pi k + \varphi$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\varphi \in [0, 2\pi)$ and if $u_1 r(\varphi) u_2 = r(\psi)u$, $\psi \in [0, 2\pi)$, $u_i, u \in \mathbb{U}$, then $c = x^{t_1+2\pi k+\psi} u$ and

$$\begin{aligned}\tau(c) &= r(t_1 + 2\pi k + \psi)u = r(t_1)r(\psi)u = r(t_1)u_1 r(\varphi)u_2 \\ &= \tau(a)r(2\pi k + \varphi)u_2 = \tau(a)\tau(b),\end{aligned}$$

which proves the lemma. $\square$

Several special cases of the associative law for the operation defined for $\mathbb{G}$ are proved in the next few steps. We can consider R as well as $\mathbb{U}$ as subgroups of $\mathbb{G}$ and the equations

$$(+)\quad x^t \cdot u = x^t u, \quad x^{t_1} \cdot x^t u = x^{t_1+t} u, \quad \text{and} \quad x^t u \cdot u' = x^t u u'$$

follow. We conclude also that $x^t \cdot a = x^t \cdot b$ implies $a = b$ for elements $a, b \in \mathbb{G}$.

Lemma 2.2. *For any element $g = x^t u \in \mathbb{G}$ and any $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ the product $g \cdot x^{\pi m}$ is equal to $x^{t+\pi m} u$.*

Proof. We have $\pi m = 2\pi k + \varphi$ with $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, and $\varphi = 0$ if m is even, and $\varphi = \pi$ if m is odd. In both cases $ur(\varphi) = r(\varphi)u$ follows, which proves the statement of the lemma. $\square$

Lemma 2.3. *For any $a, b \in \mathbb{G}$ and any integer $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ the following equalities hold:*

$$x^{\pi m} \cdot (a \cdot b) = (x^{\pi m} \cdot a) \cdot b = a \cdot (x^{\pi m} \cdot b).$$

Proof. Because of (+) the first equation follows, and we can assume that $a = u \in \mathbb{U}$ and $b = x^t \in R$ in the second equation.

It remains to prove the following equality:

$$(x^{\pi m} \cdot u) \cdot x^t = u \cdot (x^{\pi m} \cdot x^t)$$

where $t = 2\pi k + \varphi$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\varphi \in [0, 2\pi)$ and $ur(\varphi) = r(\psi)u'$ for $\psi \in [0, 2\pi)$, $u' \in \mathbb{U}$.

Then $(x^{\pi m} \cdot u) \cdot x^t = x^{\pi m+2\pi k+\psi} u'$. We distinguish three cases in order to compute the right-hand side of the above equation.

In the first case, $m = 2k'$ is even and the equality follows immediately.

In the second case, $\pi m = 2\pi k' + \pi$ for some $k' \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\varphi < \pi$. Then

$$u \cdot x^{2\pi(k+k')+\varphi+\pi} = x^{2\pi(k+k')} u \cdot x^{\pi+\varphi} = x^{2\pi(k+k')+\pi+\psi} u' = x^{\pi m+2\pi k+\psi} u'$$

since $ur(\pi + \varphi) = ur(\pi)r(\varphi) = r(\pi)r(\psi)u' = r(\pi + \psi)u'$ in $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$; the equation is proved in this case.

In the final case, $\pi m = 2\pi k' + \pi$ for $k' \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\varphi \geq \pi$. The right-hand side of the above equation is then equal to

$$u \cdot x^{2\pi(k+k'+1)+\varphi-\pi} = x^{2\pi(k+k'+1)-\pi+\psi} u' = x^{\pi m+2\pi k+\psi} u',$$

which proves the lemma. $\square$

Lemma 2.4. *Let $u \in \mathbb{U}$ and $t \in (\pi m, \pi(m+1))$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $u \cdot x^t = x^{t'} u'$ for $u' \in \mathbb{U}$ and $t' \in (\pi m, \pi(m+1))$.*

Proof. Let $t = 2\pi k + \varphi$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\varphi \in (0, 2\pi)$. If $m = 2k$ is even, then $\varphi \in (0, \pi)$; hence $\sin \varphi > 0$. It follows that for any $u = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{U}$; the argument ψ of $ur(\varphi)(e_1) = r(\psi)u'(e_1)$ is also in $(0, \pi)$ since $\psi = \arg \left[\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \varphi \\ \sin \varphi \end{pmatrix} \right]$ and $a^{-1} \sin \varphi > 0$. Hence $t' = 2\pi k + \psi \in (\pi m, \pi(m+1))$ as stated in the lemma.

If $m = 1 + 2k$ is odd, then $t = 2\pi k + \varphi$ and $\varphi \in (\pi, 2\pi)$. Then $\sin \varphi < 0$ and $\sin \psi$ with $ur(\varphi) = r(\psi)u'$ is also negative with the above argument; hence, $\psi \in (\pi, 2\pi)$ and $t' = 2\pi k + \psi \in (\pi m, \pi(m+1))$. $\square$

Theorem 2.5. a): $\mathbb{G}$ is a group;

- b):** The mapping τ is a homomorphism from $\mathbb{G}$ onto $\text{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$;
c): The center of $\mathbb{G}$ is the infinite cyclic group generated by x^π .

Proof. To show that the operation defined for $\mathbb{G}$ is associative we consider three elements $x^{t_i}u_i \in G$, $i = 1, 2, 3$ with $t_i \in \mathbb{R}$ and $u_i \in \mathbb{U}$ and the equation

$$(*) \quad g_1 = (x^{t_1}u_1 \cdot x^{t_2}u_2) \cdot x^{t_3}u_3 = x^{t_1}u_1 \cdot (x^{t_2}u_2 \cdot x^{t_3}u_3) = g_2.$$

By Lemmas 2.2 and 2.3 this equation holds if and only if the following equation is true:

$$(x^{t_1+\pi k}u_1 \cdot x^{t_2+\pi m}u_2) \cdot x^{t_3+\pi n}u_3 = x^{t_1+\pi k}u_1 \cdot (x^{t_2+\pi m}u_2 \cdot x^{t_3+\pi n}u_3)$$

for integers k, m and n .

It follows that it is sufficient to prove $(*)$ only in the case where $t_1, t_2, t_3 \in [0, \pi)$.

For $g_1 = x^t u'$ and $g_2 = x^{t'} u''$ with $t, t' \in \mathbb{R}$, $u', u'' \in \mathbb{U}$ we apply Lemma 2.1 and obtain

$$r(t)u' = (r(t_1)u_1 \cdot r(t_2)u_2) \cdot r(t_3)u_3$$

and

$$r(t')u'' = r(t_1)u_1 \cdot (r(t_2)u_2 \cdot r(t_3)u_3)$$

in $\text{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ where the operation is associative, and therefore $r(t)u' = r(t')u''$ follows. This implies $u' = u''$ and $t - t' = 2\pi k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. It remains to show that $k = 0$.

We apply Lemma 2.4 and obtain $u_1 x^{t_2} = x^{t'_2} u'_1$ for $u'_1 \in \mathbb{U}$, $t'_2 \in [0, \pi)$; $u'_1 u_2 \cdot x^{t_3} = x^{t'_3} \tilde{u}$ for $\tilde{u} \in \mathbb{U}$, $t'_3 \in [0, \pi)$; $u_2 x^{t_3} = x^{t'_3} u'_2$ for $u'_2 \in \mathbb{U}$, $t'_3 \in [0, \pi)$; and $u_1 x^{t_2+t'_3} = x^{t_{2,3}} u''_1$ for $u''_1 \in \mathbb{U}$ and $t_{2,3} \in [0, \pi)$.

Therefore:

$$\begin{aligned} g_1 &= (x^{t_1}u_1 \cdot x^{t_2}u_2) \cdot x^{t_3}u_3 = (x^{t_1+t'_2}u'_1 u_2) \cdot x^{t_3}u_3 \\ &= x^{t_1+t'_2+\tilde{t}_3} \tilde{u} u_3, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} g_2 &= x^{t_1}u_1 \cdot (x^{t_2}u_2 \cdot x^{t_3}u_3) = x^{t_1}u_1 \cdot x^{t_2+t'_3}u'_2 u_3 \\ &= x^{t_1+t_{2,3}} u''_1 u'_2 u_3. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $t = t_1 + t'_2 + \tilde{t}_3$ and $t' = t_1 + t_{2,3}$ and therefore

$$t - t' = t'_2 + \tilde{t}_3 - t_{2,3} = 2\pi k.$$

However, $t'_2 + \tilde{t}_3$ and $t_{2,3}$ both belong to $[0, 2\pi)$ and $k = 0$ and the associative law follows for the operation defined for $\mathbb{G}$.

Since $\mathbb{G}$ has $e = x^0 E$, for $E = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, as the identity and $x^t u$ has $u^{-1} x^{-t}$ as its inverse, $\mathbb{G}$ is indeed a group; this proves a).

The statement b) was proved in Lemma 2.1. It follows from Lemma 2.3 that $\text{gr}\{x^\pi\}$ is contained in the center $Z(\mathbb{G})$ of $\mathbb{G}$. Conversely, if $x^t u \in Z(\mathbb{G})$ for $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and $u \in \mathbb{U}$, then an application of Lemma 2.1 shows that $r(t)u$ is in $Z(\text{SL}(2, \mathbb{R}))$.

Hence $r(t)u = \pm r(0)$, $u = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, and $t = \pi k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ follows. Therefore $x^t u \in \text{gr}\{x^\pi\}$, which proves c) and the theorem. $\square$

See also [1] for the fact that $\mathbb{G}$ is right orderable, but not locally indicable.

2.3. The representation of the group $\mathbb{G}$. To each element $g = x^t u \in \mathbb{G}$ we can assign the projection $v(g) = v(x^t u) = x^t \in R$. The mapping $V : \mathbb{G} \rightarrow \text{Aut}(R, \leq)$ is defined as $V_g(x^t) = v(gx^t)$ for $g \in \mathbb{G}$, $x^t \in R$. That V_g is indeed an automorphism of $(R, \leq)$ follows from the next result.

Lemma 2.6. *For $g \in \mathbb{G}$ let V_g be defined as above. Then:*

- a) $V_{g_1 g_2} = V_{g_1} \circ V_{g_2}$ for $g_1, g_2 \in \mathbb{G}$.
- b) V_g is the identity mapping if and only if g is the identity element in $\mathbb{G}$.
- c) The stabilizer $\text{st}(x^t) = \{g \in \mathbb{G} \mid V_g(x^t) = x^t\}$ is equal to $x^t \mathbb{U} x^{-t} \cong \mathbb{U}$, which is an Ore group.
- d) V_g is an automorphism of $(R, \leq)$ for every $g \in \mathbb{G}$.

Proof. To prove a) we compute $v(g_1 g_2 x^t)$ and $v(g_1 v(g_2 x^t))$. Let $g_1 = x^{t_1} u_1$, $g_2 = x^{t_2} u_2$ for $u_i \in \mathbb{U}$. Then $g_1 g_2 x^t = x^{t_1} u_1 x^{t_2} u_2 x^t = x^{t_1} u_1 x^{t_2} x^{t'} u'$ for some $u' \in \mathbb{U}$, $t' \in \mathbb{R}$ with $u_2 x^t = x^{t'} u'$. Further, $x^{t_1} u_1 x^{t_2+t'} u' = x^{t_1+\tilde{t}} \tilde{u} u'$ for $u_1 x^{t_2+t'} = x^{\tilde{t}} \tilde{u}$ for $\tilde{u} \in \mathbb{U}$, $\tilde{t} \in \mathbb{R}$. It follows that $v(g_1 g_2 x^t) = x^{t_1+\tilde{t}}$ and that $v(g_1 v(g_2 x^t)) = v(x^{t_1} u_1 x^{t_2+t'}) = x^{t_1+\tilde{t}}$; this proves a).

To prove b), assume $g = x^{t_1} u$ and $V_g(x^t) = x^t$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. For $t = 0$ it follows that $t_1 = 0$. We consider $t = \frac{\pi}{2}$ and assume that $u = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$. Then $V_u(x^{\frac{\pi}{2}}) = x^{\frac{\pi}{2}}$ implies that

$$\arg \left[\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \arg \begin{pmatrix} b \\ a^{-1} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

Hence, $b = 0$ and $u = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$. Finally, for $t = \frac{\pi}{4}$ we must have

$$\arg \left[\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \right] = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

and $a = a^{-1} = 1$ follows; hence, $g = e$, the identity in $\mathbb{G}$, and b) follows.

To prove c) we observe that $\text{st}(x^0) = \{x^{t_1} u_1 \in \mathbb{G} \mid V_g(x^0) = x^{t_1} = x^0\}$ equals $\mathbb{U}$. Hence, $V_g(x^t) = x^t \mathbb{U} x^{-t} \cong \mathbb{U}$. These stabilizers are Ore groups in the sense that the group ring $T\mathbb{U}$ over a skew field T is an Ore domain. This is true since $\mathbb{U}$ is the semidirect product of the following two torsion free abelian groups:

$$A = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \mid 0 < a \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad B = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mid b \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

This proves c).

Finally, we want to prove d). Since V_{x^t} is an automorphism of $(R, \leq)$, it follows from a) that it is enough to show that V_u is an automorphism of $(R, \leq)$ for any $u \in \mathbb{U}$. We show first that $x^{t_2} > x^{t_1}$ implies $V_u(x^{t_2}) > V_u(x^{t_1})$ which then implies that V_u is one-to-one and order-preserving. By Lemma 2.4 and Theorem 2.5(c) we can assume $t_1, t_2 \in [0, \pi)$. It then follows that $t_2 - t_1 \in (-\pi, \pi)$, and in addition $t_2 - t_1 > 0$ if and only if

$$\sin(t_2 - t_1) = \text{Det} \begin{pmatrix} \cos t_1 & \cos t_2 \\ \sin t_1 & \sin t_2 \end{pmatrix} > 0.$$

We have $ur(t_i) = r(d_i)u_i$ for $d_i \in [0, \pi)$ and $d_i = \arg(u(\frac{\cos t_i}{\sin t_i})) \in [0, \pi)$. Then $\text{Det}(u(\frac{\cos t_i}{\sin t_i})) > 0$, since $\text{Det}(u) > 0$, and, as in the previous argument,

$d_2 > d_1$ follows. This shows that $x^{d_2} = V_u(x^{t_2}) > x^{d_1} = V_u(x^{t_1})$ for $t_2 > t_1$ and that V_u is order-preserving and one-to-one.

It remains to show that V_u is onto, and by Lemma 2.4 and Theorem 2.5(c) it is enough to show that V_u maps the interval $[x^0, x^\pi]$ onto the interval $[x^0, x^\pi]$. This, however, follows from the fact that $V_u(x^0) = x^0$, $V_u(x^\pi) = x^\pi$ and that V_u is continuous. $\square$

We will prove next a technical result which will be used several times.

Lemma 2.7. *Let $g = x^t u \in \mathbb{G}$ with $t = \pi k + t_0$ and $x^{t_1} \in R$ with $t_1 = \pi m + t_{10}$ for $k, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $t_0, t_{10} \in [0, \pi)$. Assume that $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ with $\arg\left(\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}\right) = t_{10}$.*

Then $V_g(x^{t_1}) = x^{\pi(k+m)+t'}$ for $t' = \arg(r(t_0)u(\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}))$.

Proof. By definition we have that $V_g(x^{t_1}) = v(gx^{t_1})$. Further, $gx^{t_1} = x^t u x^{t_1} = x^{\pi(k+m)} x^{t_0} u x^{t_{10}}$ since x^π is in the center of $\mathbb{G}$ by Theorem 2.5(c).

By Lemma 2.4 we have $u x^{t_{10}} = x^{\tilde{t}} \tilde{u}$ with $\tilde{u} \in \mathbb{U}$ and $\tilde{t} = \arg(ur(t_{10})(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix})) \in [0, \pi)$. Hence, $x^{t_0} u x^{t_{10}} = x^{t_0+\tilde{t}} \tilde{u}$. On the other hand, $t' = \arg(r(t_0)u(\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix})) = t_0 + \tilde{t}$, since both $t_0, \tilde{t} \in [0, \pi)$. It follows that $gx^{t_1} = x^{\pi(k+m)+t_0+\tilde{t}} \tilde{u}$ and $V_g(x^{t_1}) = x^{\pi(k+m)+t'}$. $\square$

3. EXCEPTIONAL CONES IN THE UNIVERSAL COVERING GROUP $\mathbb{G}$

In this section we construct exceptional cones of type (C_k) for every k in the universal covering group $\mathbb{G}$ of $\text{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$.

We define first two particular elements w_1, w_2 in $\mathbb{G}$ which will play an important role in this construction. The element $w_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{U} \subset \mathbb{G}$ and $\tau(w_1) = w_1$ follows. Next we consider the element $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ and $\alpha = \arg\left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right] = \arctan 2 \in (0, \pi)$ and define w_2 as $x^\alpha u$ where $u = r(-\alpha)(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}) \in \mathbb{U}$; hence, $\tau(w_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Lemma 3.1. *Let b be an element in $[0, \pi)$. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} V_{w_1^n}(x^b) = x^0$.*

Proof. We consider the real number b_n with $x^{b_n} = V_{w_1^n}(x^b)$. Since $w_1^n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\tau(w_1^n) = w_1^n$, we can apply Lemma 2.7 and obtain

$$b_n = \arg\left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos b \\ \sin b \end{pmatrix}\right] = \arg\left(\cos \frac{b+2n \sin b}{\sin b}\right).$$

If $b = 0$, then $b_n = 0$ for all $n \geq 0$ and the result follows. If $b \in (0, \pi)$, then $\sin b > 0$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\cos b + 2n \sin b) = \infty$; the statement of the lemma follows. $\square$

We are now ready to define one of the main objects of this paper:

$$\mathbb{P} = \{g \in \mathbb{G} \mid V_g(x^0) \geq x^0\}.$$

The next result shows that this is an exceptional cone of type (C_1) in $\mathbb{G}$.

Theorem 3.2. a): *The set $\mathbb{P} = \{g \in \mathbb{G} \mid V_g(x^0) \geq x^0\}$ is a cone in $\mathbb{G}$ with $U(\mathbb{P}) = \mathbb{U}$.*

b): *Any right $\mathbb{P}$ -ideal is either a principal right ideal $x^t \mathbb{P}$ or of the form $x^t J(\mathbb{P})$ for some $t \in \mathbb{R}$.*

c): *Any $\mathbb{P}$ -ideal has the form $x^{\pi m} \mathbb{P}$ or $x^{\pi m} J(\mathbb{P})$ for some m in $\mathbb{Z}$.*

d): *The cone $\mathbb{P}$ is exceptional of rank one with $Q = x^\pi \mathbb{P}$ the prime ideal that is not completely prime; $\mathbb{P}$ is exceptional of type (C_1) .*

Proof. a) If g and h are elements in $\mathbb{P}$, then $V_{gh}(x^0) = V_g(V_h(x^0)) \geq V_g(x^0) \geq x^0$ by Lemma 2.6, a) and d), and $gh \in \mathbb{P}$ follows.

If g is not in $\mathbb{P}$, then $V_g(x^0) < x^0$; hence, $x^0 < V_{g^{-1}}(x^0)$ again by Lemma 2.6, and $g^{-1} \in \mathbb{P}$ follows and $\mathbb{P}$ is a cone of $\mathbb{G}$. It also follows from the above arguments that $g, g^{-1} \in \mathbb{P}$ implies $V_g(x^0) = x^0$ and $g \in \mathbb{U}$. Conversely, $\mathbb{U} \subset \mathbb{P}$ and $U(\mathbb{P}) = \mathbb{U}$ follows. Hence, $J(\mathbb{P}) = \{g \in \mathbb{G} \mid V_g(x^0) > x^0\}$.

b) Let I be any right $\mathbb{P}$ -ideal in $\mathbb{G}$. Then it follows that $x^\alpha = \inf\{V_g(x^0) \mid g \in I\}$ exists since $I \subseteq c\mathbb{P}$ for some $c \in \mathbb{G}$. We will show that $\hat{I} = x^\alpha\mathbb{P}$ for the divisorial closure $\hat{I}$ of I , see Definition 1.4. By definition we have $x^\alpha\mathbb{P} \supseteq g\mathbb{P} = x^\beta\mathbb{P}$ for all $g \in I$ since $\alpha \leq \beta$; hence $x^\alpha\mathbb{P} \supseteq I$. Conversely, if $h \in \mathbb{G}$ with $h\mathbb{P} = x^\gamma\mathbb{P} \supseteq I$, then $\gamma \leq V_g(x^0)$ for all g in I and $\gamma \leq \alpha$ follows; hence $\hat{I} = x^\alpha\mathbb{P}$. It follows that either $I = x^\alpha\mathbb{P} = \hat{I}$ or that $\hat{I} = x^\alpha\mathbb{P}$ and $I = x^\alpha J(\mathbb{P})$; see Property d) in Section 1.2.

c) Assume that $x^t\mathbb{P}$ is a $\mathbb{P}$ -ideal. For $t = \pi m + t_0$, $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $t_0 \in [0, \pi)$ it follows that $x^{t_0}\mathbb{P}$ is also a $\mathbb{P}$ -ideal since x^π is central in $\mathbb{G}$. If $t_0 > 0$, it follows from Lemma 3.1 that there exists a power w_1^n of w_1 in $\mathbb{U}$ with $w_1^n x^{t_0}\mathbb{P} \supset x^{t_0}\mathbb{P}$, a contradiction that shows that $x^t\mathbb{P} = x^{\pi m}\mathbb{P}$. If $I = x^t J(\mathbb{P})$ is a $\mathbb{P}$ -ideal, then $\hat{I} = x^t\mathbb{P}$ is a $\mathbb{P}$ -ideal by Property d) in Section 1.2, and $t = \pi m$ by the above argument.

d) We have $\mathbb{P} \supset J(\mathbb{P}) \supset x^\pi\mathbb{P} = Q$ and Q is not a completely prime ideal of $\mathbb{P}$, since $x^{\pi/2} \cdot x^{\pi/2} \in Q$, but $x^{\pi/2} \notin Q$. However, Q is a prime ideal, since any ideals A and B of $\mathbb{P}$ that contain Q properly, also contain $J(\mathbb{P})$; hence, $AB \supseteq J(\mathbb{P})J(\mathbb{P}) = J(\mathbb{P}) \supset Q$, and it follows that Q is a prime ideal that is not completely prime. There are no further ideals between $J(\mathbb{P})$ and Q , and $\bigcap Q^n = \emptyset$. It follows that $\mathbb{P}$ is an exceptional cone of type (C_1) ; see Theorem 1.9. $\square$

We denote by F the subgroup $\text{gr}\{w_1, w_2\}$ of $\mathbb{G}$ generated by w_1 and w_2 . This subgroup is mapped by τ onto the subgroup $\text{gr}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}\right\}$ of $\text{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ generated by $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Since this subgroup of $\text{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ is free (see [15], 14.2.1), the group F is free of rank 2.

Lemma 3.2. *Let h_1 be the element $w_2 w_1^{-1} w_2$ in F . Then $V_{h_1}(x^0) = x^{\arg \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} + \pi} \in (x^\pi, x^{\pi + \frac{\pi}{2}})$.*

Proof. We have $w_2 x^0 = x^\alpha u$ for $\alpha = \arg \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \in (0, \pi)$ with

$$u = r(-\alpha) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{U}.$$

It follows from Lemma 2.7 that

$$V_{w_1^{-1}}(x^\alpha) = x^{t'} = x^{\arg \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}}, \text{ since } w_1^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{U}$$

and

$$t' = \arg \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \arg \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

By a further application of Lemma 2.7 we obtain

$$V_{h_1}(x^0) = V_{w_2} \left(x^{\arg \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}} \right) = x^{t''}$$

with

$$t'' = \arg [\tau(w_2) \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}] = \arg \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \arg \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ -4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence, $V_{h_1}(x^0) = x^{\arg \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ -4 \end{pmatrix}} = x^{\pi + \arg \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}}$, which proves the lemma. $\square$

In order to construct further cones we consider a subgroup H of $\mathbb{G}$ that contains F and define

$$P_H = H \cap \mathbb{P}.$$

It follows immediately that P_H is closed under multiplication. If $g \in H \setminus P_H$, then $g \notin \mathbb{P}$ and $g^{-1} \in H \cap \mathbb{P} = P_H$ follows; P_H is a cone of H .

Lemma 3.3. *Let $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $P_H x^t \mathbb{P} = \mathbb{P} x^t \mathbb{P}$.*

Proof. It is enough to prove this for $t \in [0, \pi)$, since $t = k\pi + t_0$, $t_0 \in [0, \pi)$ in the general case with x^π in the center of G .

If $t = 0$, then $P_H x^t \mathbb{P} = \mathbb{P} = \mathbb{P} x^t \mathbb{P}$. If $t \in (0, \pi)$, then for any $j \in J(\mathbb{P})$ there exists an n with $w_1^n x^t \mathbb{P} \supseteq j \mathbb{P}$ by Lemma 3.1. Hence, $\mathbb{P} x^t \mathbb{P} = J(\mathbb{P}) = \bigcup w_1^n x^t \mathbb{P} \subseteq P_H x^t \mathbb{P}$, and the statement in the lemma follows. $\square$

The next result shows that F contains elements of a certain type.

Lemma 3.4. *For any integer m and any $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists an element $x^t u$ in F with $u \in \mathbb{U}$ and $t \in (\pi m, \pi m + \varepsilon)$.*

Proof. Let h_1 be the element $w_2 w_1^{-1} w_2$ in F . Then, by Lemma 3.3, we have $V_{h_1^{-1}}(x^{\beta+\pi}) = x^0$ where $\beta = \arg(\frac{3}{4})$. It follows that $V_{h_1^{-1}}(x^0) < V_{h_1^{-1}}(x^\beta) = x^{-\pi}$ and that $V_{h_1^{-N}}(x^0) < x^{-\pi N}$ for any natural number N .

We conclude that for the given integer m there exists a natural number N and an integer $M < m$ with

$$V_{h_1^{-N}}(x^0) \in [x^{\pi M}, x^{\pi(M+1)}).$$

For ε the given real number, there exists by Lemma 3.3 and the continuity of V_g a δ with $0 < \delta < \varepsilon$ and

$$V_{h_1}([x^0, x^\delta]) \subseteq (x^\pi, x^{\pi+\frac{\pi}{2}})$$

and hence

$$(*) \quad V_{h_1}([x^{\pi k}, x^{\pi k+\delta}]) \subseteq (x^{\pi(k+1)}, x^{\pi(k+1)+\frac{\pi}{2}})$$

follows for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

By Lemma 3.1 there exists a natural number n_1 with

$$V_{w_1^{n_1} h}(x^0) \in [x^{\pi M}, x^{\pi M+\delta}] \quad \text{and} \quad h = h_1^{-N} \in F.$$

Hence, by $(*)$ we obtain

$$V_{h_1 w_1^{n_1} h}(x^0) \in (x^{\pi(M+1)}, x^{\pi(M+1)+\frac{\pi}{2}}).$$

By another application of Lemma 3.1, there exists a natural number n_2 with

$$V_{w_1^{n_2} h_1 w_1^{n_1} h}(x^0) \in (x^{\pi(M+1)}, x^{\pi(M+1)+\delta}) \subseteq (x^{\pi(M+1)}, x^{\pi(M+1)+\varepsilon}).$$

By repeating the last two steps $m - (M + 1)$ times, the statement of the lemma follows. $\square$

The next result shows that the cones P_H are indeed exceptional.

Proposition 3.5. *Let $H \supseteq F$ be a subgroup of $\mathbb{G}$ and $P_H = \mathbb{P} \cap H$. Then:*

- a): P_H is an exceptional rank one cone in H .
- b): The mapping $\varphi : \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{P}) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(P_H)$ with $\varphi(x^{\pi m} \mathbb{P}) = x^{\pi m} \mathbb{P} \cap H$, $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, defines an isomorphism between $\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{P})$ and $\mathcal{M}(P_H)$. The inverse of φ is given by $\varphi^{-1}(C) = \widehat{C} \mathbb{P}$ for C a divisorial P_H -ideal.

Proof. We recall that $\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{P})$ is the group of divisorial $\mathbb{P}$ -ideals in $\mathbb{G}$ (Definition 1.6) and that $\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{P}) = \text{gr}\{Q\} = \text{gr}(x^\pi \mathbb{P})$ by Theorems 1.9 and 3.2.

If C is a divisorial P_H -ideal in H , then $C\mathbb{P}$ is a $\mathbb{P}$ -ideal in $\mathbb{G}$ by Lemma 3.4. The divisorial closure $\widehat{C\mathbb{P}}$ of $C\mathbb{P}$ is therefore equal to some power of $x^\pi \mathbb{P}$ and $\widehat{C\mathbb{P}} = x^{\pi m} \mathbb{P}$ follows for some m in $\mathbb{Z}$. We want to prove that $\widehat{C\mathbb{P}} \cap H = C$ and assume that $hP_H \supseteq C$ for some $h \in H$. Then $hP_H \mathbb{P} = h\mathbb{P} \supseteq C\mathbb{P}$; hence $h\mathbb{P} \supseteq \widehat{C\mathbb{P}}$. Therefore, $hP_H = h\mathbb{P} \cap H \supseteq \widehat{C\mathbb{P}} \cap H$. It follows that $C = \widehat{C} \supseteq \widehat{C\mathbb{P}} \cap H \supseteq C$ and $C = \widehat{C\mathbb{P}} \cap H$. This shows that C being a divisorial P_H -ideal implies $C = x^{\pi m} \mathbb{P} \cap H$ for some m . We want to show next that $(x^{\pi n} \mathbb{P} \cap H) = x^{\pi n} \mathbb{P} \cap H$ for any n . Since $(x^{\pi n} \mathbb{P} \cap H)$ is divisorial, we know that $(x^{\pi n} \mathbb{P} \cap H) = x^{\pi m} \mathbb{P} \cap H$ for some m by the above argument.

By Lemma 3.5 there exist elements $x^{t_1} u_1, x^{t_2} u_2 \in F \subseteq H$ with $t_1 < t_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, $u_1, u_2 \in \mathbb{U}$ and $t_1, t_2 \in (\pi(n-1), \pi(n-1) + \frac{\pi}{2})$.

It follows that

$$x^{t_1} u_1 P_H = x^{t_1} u_1 \mathbb{P} \cap H \supseteq x^{t_2} u_2 \mathbb{P} \cap H = x^{t_2} u_2 P_H \supseteq x^{\pi n} \mathbb{P} \cap H.$$

Hence, $x^{\pi(n-1)} \mathbb{P} \cap H \supseteq (x^{\pi n} \mathbb{P} \cap H) \supseteq x^{\pi n} \mathbb{P} \cap H$.

If $x^{\pi(n-1)} \mathbb{P} \cap H = (x^{\pi n} \mathbb{P} \cap H)$, then this ideal would also be equal to $x^{t_1} u_1 P_H$ and $x^{t_2} u_2 P_H$. This would imply $x^{t_1} u_1 P_H \mathbb{P} = x^{t_1} \mathbb{P} = x^{t_2} u_2 P_H \mathbb{P} = x^{t_2} \mathbb{P}$, a contradiction that shows that $(x^{\pi n} \mathbb{P} \cap H) = (x^{\pi n} \mathbb{P} \cap H)$ for all n . This set of divisorial P_H -ideals does not contain $J(P_H)$, does not contain a completely prime ideal (Lemmas 3.3 and 3.5) and no ideal of the form $aJ(P_H) \neq J(P_H)$, $a \in P_H$, is completely prime in P_H . This shows that P_H has rank one and that $\mathcal{M}(P_H)$ is infinite cyclic with $Q_H = x^\pi \mathbb{P} \cap H$ as the positive generator of $\mathcal{M}(P_H)$. Since $J(P_H) \supset Q_H$, it follows from Theorem 1.9 that P_H is an exceptional rank one cone in H . This proves all statements in the lemma. $\square$

We consider now a condition that will guarantee that P_H is exceptional of type (C_k) .

Proposition 3.6. *Let H be a subgroup of $\mathbb{G}$ containing F with $H \cap (\text{gr}\{x^\pi\} \times \mathbb{U}) = \text{gr}\{x^{\pi k}\} \times U(P_H)$ for some integer $k \geq 0$. Then the exceptional cone P_H has type (C_k) .*

Proof. It was shown in the previous proposition that P_H is an exceptional cone with $\mathcal{M}(P_H) = \text{gr}\{(x^\pi \mathbb{P} \cap H)\}$. To prove the statement in this proposition it must be shown that $\mathcal{H}(P_H) = \text{gr}\{x^{\pi k} P_H\}$, see Theorem 1.9. Hence, let $gP_H = P_H g$ be a principal ideal in H (see property e) in Section 1.1).

Then $g\mathbb{P} = P_H g \mathbb{P} = \mathbb{P} g \mathbb{P}$ by Lemma 3.4 and $g\mathbb{P} = \mathbb{P} g$ since $\mathbb{P}$ has rank one. By Theorem 3.2, c) it follows that $g = x^{\pi m} u \in H$ for some integer m and $u \in \mathbb{U}$ and $g = x^{\pi k n} u$ for $u \in U(P_H)$ and some integer n by assumption. Therefore, $gP_H = x^{\pi k n} P_H$ and $\mathcal{H}(P_H) = \text{gr}\{x^{\pi k} P_H\} = \text{gr}\{Q^k\}$ follows for $Q = x^\pi \mathbb{P} \cap H$; P_H is exceptional of type (C_k) . $\square$

Theorem 3.7. *Let $H_k = \text{gr}\{w_1, w_2, x^{\pi k}\}$ be the subgroup of $\mathbb{G}$ generated by F and the central element $x^{\pi k}$ for an integer $k \geq 0$. Then $P_k = \mathbb{P} \cap H_k$ is an exceptional rank one cone in H_k of type (C_k) .*

Proof. It is sufficient to verify the conditions in Proposition 3.7 for H_k .

Assume that

$$(*) \quad x^{\pi kp} w_1^{\nu_1} w_2^{\mu_1} w_1^{\nu_2} w_2^{\mu_2} \cdots w_1^{\nu_n} w_2^{\mu_n} = x^{\pi m} u \in H_k \cap (\text{gr}\{x^\pi\} \times \mathbb{U})$$

for some integers p, ν_i, μ_i for $i = 1, \dots, n$, and $u \in \mathbb{U}$. We apply the mapping τ (Theorem 2.5b)) to both sides of the above equation and obtain

$$(**) \quad (-1)^{kp} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2\nu_1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2\mu_1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2\nu_n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2\mu_n & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (-1)^m \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

where $u = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$ with $b, 0 < a \in \mathbb{R}$.

Since the entries of the matrices at the left side are all integers, it follows that a and a^{-1} are integers greater than zero; hence $a = a^{-1} = 1$. By a similar argument it follows that b is an even integer, $b = 2s$ for some s in $\mathbb{Z}$ and $u = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2s \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^s = w_1^s \in \tau(F)$ follows.

If $(-1)^{kp}(-1)^m = -1$, then it follows from (**) that

$$-\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2\nu_1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2\mu_1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2\nu_n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2\mu_n & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \tau(F),$$

which is a contradiction, since the group $\tau(F)$ freely generated by $\tau(w_1)$ and $\tau(w_2)$ (see the remarks before Lemma 3.3) does not contain a nontrivial central element.

Therefore, $(-1)^{kp} = (-1)^m$ can be cancelled in (**) and, using again the fact that $\tau(w_1) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\tau(w_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ are free generators of $\tau(F)$, it follows that $n = 1$, $b = 2\nu_1$ if we ignore exponents that could be zero. With $u = w_1^{\nu_1}$ we can rewrite (*) as: $x^{\pi kp} w_1^{\nu_1} = x^{\pi m} w_1^{\nu_1}$. It follows that $\nu_1 = s$, $m = kp$ and $u = w_1^s \in U(P_k)$; the condition in Proposition 3.7 is satisfied and Theorem 3.8 follows. $\square$

4. EXAMPLES OF EXCEPTIONAL RANK ONE CHAIN DOMAINS

In this section we construct domains S_k associated with the exceptional cones P_k of type (C_k) as described in Theorem 3.8.

In Lemma 2.6(c) it was proved that $T\mathbb{U}$ is an Ore domain for any skew field T and the subgroup $\mathbb{U}$ of $\mathbb{G}$. We denote by K the skew field of quotients of $T\mathbb{U}$ for a given skew field T ; for example, $T = \mathbb{Q}$, the rationals. Let $K\{\mathbb{G}\}$ be the right K -vector space and left T -vector space consisting of all series

$$\gamma = x^{t_1} k_1 + x^{t_2} k_2 + \cdots$$

with $t_1 < t_2 < \dots$, $k_i \in K$, and $\text{supp}(\gamma) = \{x^{t_i} \mid k_i \neq 0\}$ well ordered.

We call $\text{supp}(\gamma)$ the support of the series γ . If $k_1 \neq 0$, then $v(\gamma) = x^{t_1} \in R$ is the norm of γ and $v(0) = \infty$ for $\gamma = 0$.

Let $Q = \text{End } K\{\mathbb{G}\}_K$ be the endomorphism ring of the K -vector space $K\{\mathbb{G}\}_K$. For $q \in Q$ and $\gamma \in K\{\mathbb{G}\}$ we write $q[\gamma]$ for the image of γ under q . The representation $V : \mathbb{G} \rightarrow \text{Aut}(R, \geq)$ considered in Section 2.3 can be extended to a mapping V defined on Q with

$$V_q(x^t) = v(q[x^t]), \quad V_q(\infty) = \infty$$

for $q \in Q$, $x^t \in R$, and $V_q : (R, \infty) \rightarrow (R, \infty)$. It follows that

$$V_{a+b}(x^t) \geq \min\{V_a(x^t), V_b(x^t)\}$$

for any $a, b \in Q$ and $x^t \in R$. However, V_{ab} is not equal to $V_a \circ V_b$ in general.

We recall a definition and a result given by Mathiak in [17].

Definition 4.1. Let D be a skew field and $(\Gamma, \leq)$ a linearly ordered set. Then a mapping $V : D^* \rightarrow \text{Aut}(\Gamma, \leq)$ is called an *M-valuation* if the following conditions hold:

MV1. $V_{ab} = V_a \circ V_b$ for any $a, b \in D^*$;

MV2. $V_{a+b}(h) \geq \min\{V_a(h), V_b(h)\}$ for any $a, b \in D^*$ with $a + b \neq 0$ and $h \in \Gamma$.

If we add the symbol ∞ for infinity to Γ and define $V_0(h) = \infty$ and $V_a(\infty) = \infty$ for all $h \in \Gamma$, $0, a \in D$, then MV1 and MV2 will be valid for all elements $a, b \in D$ and all $h \in \Gamma \cup \{\infty\}$.

The next result follows almost directly from the previous definition; see also [16] and [17].

Proposition 4.2. *Let $V : D^* \rightarrow \text{Aut}(\Gamma, \leq)$ be an M -valuation for a skew field D and a linearly ordered set $(\Gamma, \leq)$ and let h be an element in Γ .*

Then the set $S_h = \{d \in D \mid V_d(h) \geq h\}$ is a total subring of D . Conversely, any total subring S in a skew field D can be obtained in this way for $\Gamma = \{aS \mid a \in D^\}$, $aS \geq bS$ if and only if $aS \subseteq bS$ and $V_d(aS) = daS$. The ring S coincides with S_h for $h = S \in \Gamma$.* $\square$

The space $K\{\mathbb{G}\}$ introduced above is also a left $\mathbb{G}$ -module if we define for $g \in \mathbb{G}$ and $\gamma = \sum x^{t_i} k_i \in K\{\mathbb{G}\}$ that

$$g\gamma = x^{t'_1}(u_1 k_1) + x^{t'_2}(u_2 k_2) + x^{t'_3}(u_3 k_3) + \dots$$

where $g \cdot x^{t_i} = x^{t'_i} u_i$ for $u_i \in \mathbb{U} \subseteq K$, $t'_i \in \mathbb{R}$. It follows from Lemma 2.6(d) that $t'_1 < t'_2 < t'_3 < \dots$ is also well ordered and hence $g\gamma \in K\{\mathbb{G}\}$. The group ring $T\mathbb{G}$ can therefore be considered as a subring of Q .

If A is any subring of Q , then we define $\mathcal{D}[0, A] = A$ and $\mathcal{D}[n+1, A]$ as the subring of Q generated by $\mathcal{D}[n, A]$ and all inverses of elements of $\mathcal{D}[n, A]$ in Q . The union

$$\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{D}[n, A] = \mathcal{D}[A]$$

is called the *rational closure* of A in Q . Let $\mathbb{D} = \mathcal{D}[T\mathbb{G}]$ be the rational closure of the group ring $T\mathbb{G}$ in Q .

The following result can be found in [11] (see [10] also):

Theorem 4.3. a) *The rational closure $\mathbb{D}$ of $T\mathbb{G}$ in Q is a skew field.*

b) *The mapping V restricted to $\mathbb{D}^*$ is an M -valuation of $\mathbb{D}^*$ to $\text{Aut}(\mathbb{D}, \leq)$.*

c) *The ring $S = \{d \in \mathbb{D} \mid V_d(x^0) \geq x^0\}$ is an exceptional rank one chain order in $\mathbb{D}$ of type (C_1) associated with the exceptional cone $\mathbb{P}$ in the group $\mathbb{G}$.* $\square$

In order to construct skew fields that contain rank one exceptional chain orders of type (C_k) we consider the rational closure $D_k = \mathcal{D}[TH_k]$ of the group ring TH_k for the group $H_k = \text{gr}\{w_1, w_2, x^{\pi k}\}$ (see Theorem 3.8) in $Q = \text{End } K\{\mathbb{G}\}_K$.

Since $D_k \subseteq \mathbb{D} = \mathcal{D}[T\mathbb{G}] \subset Q$ and $\mathbb{D}$ is a skew field by the above theorem, it follows that D_k is also a skew field and $S_k = S \cap D_k$ is a total subring of D_k .

It follows from Corollary 1.10 and Theorem 3.8 that S_k is an exceptional rank one chain domain of type (C_k) if the following theorem is proved:

Theorem 4.4. *The total subring $S_k = S \cap D_k$ is associated with the cone $P_k = \mathbb{P} \cap H_k$.*

Before this theorem can be proved, we need the result in the following lemma.

Lemma 4.5. *Let $\gamma \in K\{\mathbb{G}\}$. Then*

$$(*) \quad \bigcup_{d \in D_k} \text{supp } d[\gamma] \subseteq \bigcup_{g \in H_k} V_g(\text{supp } \gamma).$$

Proof. Let Y_γ be the right side in (*). Then in order to prove (*) it is sufficient to prove

$$(**) \quad \text{supp } d[\gamma] \subseteq Y_\gamma$$

for any $\gamma \in K\{\mathbb{G}\}$ and any $d \in D_k = \bigcup \mathcal{D}[n, TH_k]$. We will prove this in five steps using induction on n for n the smallest index with $d \in \mathcal{D}[n, TH_k]$.

STEP 1. Assume that $d = x^t u \in H_k$, $u \in \mathbb{U}$ and that $\gamma = \sum_{i < \Lambda} x^{t_i} k_i \in K\{\mathbb{G}\}$, $0 \neq k_i \in K$ for all ordinals $i < \Lambda$.

Then $d\gamma = \sum_{i < \Lambda} x^{t_i'}(u_i k_i)$ for $x^t u x^{t_i} = x^{t_i'} u_i \in \mathbb{G}$, $u_i \in \mathbb{U}$. Hence, $\text{supp } d[\gamma] = \text{supp } d\gamma = \{x^{t_i'} \mid i < \Lambda\} = \{V_d(x^{t_i}) \mid i < \Lambda\} \subseteq \{V_g(x^{t_i}) \mid g \in H_k, i < \Lambda\} = Y_\gamma$.

STEP 2. The inclusion (**) follows immediately for $d \in T$.

STEP 3. Assume that $a, b \in D_k$ with $\text{supp } a[\gamma] \cup \text{supp } b[\gamma] \subseteq Y_\gamma$ for any $\gamma \in K\{\mathbb{G}\}$. Then $\text{supp } (a+b)[\gamma] \subseteq \text{supp } a[\gamma] \cup \text{supp } b[\gamma] \subseteq Y_\gamma$. Further, $V_g(Y_\gamma) = Y_\gamma$ for $g \in H_k$ and hence

$$\text{supp } (a \cdot b)[\gamma] \subseteq Y_{b[\gamma]} = \bigcup_{g \in H_k} V_g(\text{supp } b[\gamma]) \subseteq \bigcup_{g \in H_k} V_g(Y_\gamma) = Y_\gamma.$$

STEP 4. It follows from Steps 1-3 that the statement (**) is true for all $d \in TH_k = \mathcal{D}[0, TH_k]$ and any $\gamma \in K\{\mathbb{G}\}$.

STEP 5. Assume that (**) is true for elements $d \in \mathcal{D}[n-1, TH_k]$ for some $n \geq 1$ and all $\gamma \in K\{\mathbb{G}\}$.

Let $d = p^{-1} \in \mathcal{D}[n, TH_k]$ with $p \in \mathcal{D}[n-1, TH_k]$. We consider $\beta = d[\gamma]$ and decompose β into the sum $\beta = \beta_0 + \beta_1$ with $\text{supp } (\beta_0) \subseteq Y_\gamma$ and $\text{supp } (\beta_1) \cap Y_\gamma = \emptyset$.

Then $\gamma = p[\beta] = p[\beta_0] + p[\beta_1]$.

By the induction hypothesis, it follows that

$$\text{supp } (p[\beta_0]) \subseteq \bigcup_{g \in H_k} V_g(\text{supp } \beta_0) \subseteq \bigcup_{g \in H_k} V_g(Y_\gamma) \subseteq Y_\gamma.$$

Hence, $\text{supp } (p[\beta_1]) = \text{supp } (\gamma - p[\beta_0]) \subseteq \text{supp } \gamma \cup \text{supp } (p[\beta_0]) \subseteq Y_\gamma$. On the other hand, $\text{supp } (p[\beta_1]) \subseteq Y_{\beta_1}$ since $p \in \mathcal{D}[n-1, TH_k]$. If we assume that there exists an element h in $\text{supp } (p[\beta_1])$, then, on the one hand,

$$h = V_g h' \quad \text{for some } g \in H_k \quad \text{and some } h' \in \text{supp } (\gamma)$$

and on the other hand,

$$h = V_{g'}(h'') \quad \text{for some } g' \in H_k \quad \text{and some } h'' \in \text{supp } (\beta_1).$$

This implies $h'' = V_{(g')^{-1}g}(h') \in Y_\gamma \cap \text{supp } (\beta_1) = \emptyset$, a contradiction that shows that $\text{supp } (\beta_1)$ is empty and $\text{supp } (\beta) = \text{supp } (\beta_0) \subseteq Y_\gamma$.

The ring $\mathcal{D}[n, TH_k]$ is generated by $\mathcal{D}[n-1, TH_k]$ and all elements p^{-1} for $p \in \mathcal{D}[n-1, TH_k] \setminus \{0\}$, and it now follows by an application of Step 3 that (**) is true for all elements in $\mathcal{D}[n, TH_k]$ which completes the induction and proves the lemma (see also: [11]). $\square$

We now return to the proof of Theorem 4.4.

Let d be a nonzero element in D_k . Since $D_k \subseteq \mathbb{D}$ and S is associated with the cone $\mathbb{P}$, the element d can be decomposed as follows:

$$d = x^t m = q x^{t'} \quad \text{with } m, q \in U(S), \mathbb{P} x^t \mathbb{P} = \mathbb{P} x^{t'} \mathbb{P}$$

(see Definition 1.2). It follows from (*) in Lemma 4.5 with $\gamma = x^0$ that

$$\text{supp } d[x^0] \subseteq \bigcup_{g \in H_k} V_g(x^0) = \bigcup_{g \in H_k} v(g).$$

Hence, $v(d[x^0]) = V_d(x^0) = V_{x^t} \circ V_m(x^0) = V_{x^t}(x^0) = x^t$ since $m \in U(S)$, and hence $x^t = v(g)$, $g = x^t u$, $u \in \mathbb{U}$ for some element $g \in H_k$.

It follows that $d = (x^t u)(u^{-1}m)$ for $x^t u \in H_k$ and $u^{-1}m = (x^t u)^{-1}d \in D_k$. Further, $u^{-1}m \in \mathbb{U} \cdot U(S) \cap D_k = U(S_k)$, since $\mathbb{U} \subseteq U(S)$ and $S \cap D_k = S_k$.

Applying the same arguments to the element $d^{-1} = x^{-t'} q^{-1}$, we conclude that there exists an element $g' \in H_k$ with $g' = x^{-t'} w$ for some $w \in \mathbb{U}$. Hence, we obtain a decomposition

$$d^{-1} = (x^{-t'} w)(w^{-1} q^{-1}) \quad \text{for} \quad w^{-1} q^{-1} = (g')^{-1} d^{-1} \in D_k \cap U(S) = U(S_k).$$

This proves the first half of condition (ii) in Definition 1.2, if we write $d = (qw)(w^{-1}x^{t'})$, $qw \in U(S_k)$, $w^{-1}x^{t'} = (g')^{-1} \in H_k$. It remains to prove the equality

$$P_k x^t u P_k = P_k w^{-1} x^{t'} P_k.$$

Let $w^{-1}x^{t'} = x^{t''} u''$ for some $u'' \in \mathbb{U}$ and $t'' \in \mathbb{R}$. Since S is associated with $\mathbb{P}$, it follows that

$$\mathbb{P} x^{t'} \mathbb{P} = \mathbb{P} x^{t''} \mathbb{P}.$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} P_k x^t u P_k &= P_k x^t u (\mathbb{P} \cap H_k) = P_k x^t \mathbb{P} \cap H_k \\ &= \mathbb{P} x^t \mathbb{P} \cap H_k = \mathbb{P} x^{t'} \mathbb{P} \cap H_k = \mathbb{P} x^{t''} \mathbb{P} \cap H_k \\ &= P_k x^{t''} u'' \mathbb{P} \cap H_k = P_k x^{t''} u'' P_k \\ &= P_k w^{-1} x^{t'} P_k \end{aligned}$$

where we used Lemma 3.4 for the third and sixth equality.

This completes the proof of Theorem 4.4. $\square$

Corollary 4.6. *The chain domain S_k is exceptional of rank one and of type (C_k) .*

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