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ISOMORPHISMS OF ω -GROUPS

CHARLES H. APPLEBAUM

1. Introduction* Let ε stand for the set of non-negative integers (numbers), V for the class of all subcollections of $\varepsilon(sets)$, and Λ for the set of isols. A function has as its domain and range subsets of ε . If f is a function we write δf and ρf for its domain and range respectively. The relation of inclusion is denoted by \subset and the sets α and β are recursively equivalent (written: $\alpha \simeq \beta$), if $\delta f = \alpha$ and $\rho f = \beta$ for some function f with a one-to-one partial recursive extension. We denote the recursive equivalence type of α , $\{\sigma \in V | \sigma \simeq \alpha\}$, by Req(α). The reader is assumed to be familiar with the contents of [3].

The concept of an ω -group was studied by Hassett. He defined two ω -groups to be recursively isomorphic if there is an isomorphism between them which has a one-to-one partial recursive extension. In this paper we will reserve the term recursive isomorphism for a mapping between two r.e. groups and for arbitrary ω -groups we will refer to a recursive isomorphism as an ω -isomorphism (written: $G_1 \cong_{\omega} G_2$, for ω -groups G_1 and G_2).

It is natural to ask if the partial recursive extension of an ω -isomorphism is itself a recursive isomorphism from a r.e. group onto a r.e. group. For arbitrary ω -groups this question remains open. However, this question can be settled positively in the case of ω -groups of the form $P(\sigma)$ for an isolated set σ . In Proposition P4 we present a proof of this result. It is also of interest to consider when an ω -automorphism of an ω -group can be extended to a recursive automorphism of a r.e. group. This question can also be answered positively, P3, in the case of ω -groups of the form $P(\sigma)$ for σ an isolated set. Finally we show in P8 that every ω -automorphism of $P(\sigma)$, for an immune set σ , is an inner ω automorphism if and only if Req (σ) is multiple-free.

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- 2. Basic concepts We need the following theorem [1, Prop. 1].
- (1) f has a one-to-one partial recursive extension if and only if f and f^{-1} have partial recursive extensions and f is one-to-one.

Definition. An ω -isomorphism ϕ from an ω -group G_1 onto an ω -group G_2 is regular if there exist r.e. supergroups G_1' and G_2' of G_1 and G_2 respectively and a recursive isomorphism ϕ_0 from G_1' onto G_2' such that ϕ_0 is an extension of ϕ .

Definition. A recursive automorphism of a r.e. group G is a recursive isomorphism from G onto itself.

Definition. Let ϕ be an automorphism of the π -group $P(\alpha)$. Then ϕ is called

(i) an ω -automorphism of $P(\alpha)$, if ϕ is an ω -isomorphism from $P(\alpha)$ onto itself,

(ii) a strong ω -automorphism of $P(\alpha)$, if ϕ can be extended to a recursive automorphism ϕ_0 of a π -group of the form $P(\alpha_0)$, where α_0 is some r.e. superset of α .

The question of whether every ω -automorphism of an isolated π -group can be extended to a recursive ω -automorphism of a r.e. supergroup will be settled if we can show that every ω -automorphism of an isolated π -group is strong. This is what we will do. For this purpose we introduce the following concepts.

Definition. A recursive permutation is a partial recursive function g such that g is a permutation of the r.e. set δg .

Definition. Let f be a permutation of the set α . Then f is called

(i) an ω -permutation of α , if f has a one-to-one partial recursive extension,

(ii) a regular ω -permutation of α , if f can be extended to a recursive permutation f_0 of some r.e. superset α_0 of α .

Proposition P1. Let f be a permutation of the set α . If α is isolated, f is a regular ω -permutation of α if and only if f is an ω -permutation of α .

Proof. Left to reader.

Notation. In this paper we will denote the group of all finite permutations of a set σ , i.e., those permutations which move only finitely many elements of σ , by $\mathcal{P}(\sigma)$. Also if $f, g \in \mathcal{P}(\sigma)$ and $n \in \sigma$ then we denote f applied to n by (n)f and (n)(fg) = ((n)f)g.

Remark. We recall from [3] that a permutation f of a set σ is a member of $\mathcal{P}(\sigma)$ if f moves finitely many elements of σ and $\delta f = \varepsilon$. In the following discussion we will run across permutations, f, whose domain is not all of ε . However, if such permutations move only finitely many elements of σ then it is clear that they can be extended to a member of $\mathcal{P}(\sigma)$. Thus when we say $f \in \mathcal{P}(\sigma)$ we really mean the extension of f to ε , which moves the same

elements as f moves, is a member of $\mathcal{P}(\sigma)$; and that the Gödel number f^* of such a permutation f is the Gödel number of this extension to ε .

3. Strong ω -automorphisms

Notation. We let $\eta = \{f * | f \in \mathcal{P}(\varepsilon)\}.$

Notation. Let $\mathcal{G} \subset \mathcal{P}(\varepsilon)$, then $\mathcal{G}^* = \{f^* \in \eta \mid f \in \mathcal{G}\}.$

Notation. Let ϕ be a function from a subfamily \mathcal{F} of $\mathcal{P}(\varepsilon)$ into $\mathcal{P}(\varepsilon)$. Then ϕ^* is the function from a subset of η into η such that

(i)
$$\delta \phi^* = \mathcal{J}^*$$
, and

(ii) for $f \in \mathcal{G}$, $\phi(f) = g$ if and only if $\phi^*(f^*) = g^*$.

Definition. A function ϕ from a subfamily of $\mathcal{P}(\varepsilon)$ into $\mathcal{P}(\varepsilon)$ is effectively computable if the function ϕ^* from a subset of η into η is partial recursive.

Proposition P2. Let α be an immune set. (a) If σ is an ω -permutation of α and

(2)
$$\psi^*[f^*] = (\sigma^{-1}f\sigma)^*, \text{ for } f^*\epsilon P(\alpha),$$

then ψ^* is a strong ω -automorphism of $P(\alpha)$. (b) For every ω -automorphism ψ^* of $P(\alpha)$, there is exactly one ω -permutation σ of α such that (2) holds.

Proof: Let $G(\alpha)$ be the group of all permutations of α and $\mathcal{G}(\alpha)$ the group of all restrictions to α of functions in $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$. Suppose that $\sigma \in G(\alpha)$. Then the mapping

$$\phi: f \to \sigma^{-1} f \sigma$$
, for $f \in \mathcal{G}(\alpha)$,

is an inner automorphism of $G(\alpha)$. Since $\mathcal{F}(\alpha)$ is a normal subgroup of $G(\alpha)$, we see that the restriction of ϕ to $\mathcal{F}(\alpha)$ is an automorphism of $\mathcal{F}(\alpha)$. Thus the mapping

$$\phi_{\sigma}: f \to \sigma^{-1} f \sigma$$
, for $f \in \mathcal{P}(\alpha)$,

is an automorphism of $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$, while the mapping ψ^* defined by (2) is an automorphism of $P(\alpha)$. We now make the additional assumption that the set α is immune and σ is an ω -permutation of α . By P1 there exists an extension σ' of σ which is a recursive permutation of a r.e. superset α' of α . Define

$$\phi_{\sigma'}[f] = (\sigma')^{-1} f \sigma', \text{ for } f \in \mathcal{P}(\alpha'),$$

$$(\psi')^*[f] = ((\sigma')^{-1} f \sigma')^*, \text{ for } f^* \in \mathcal{P}(\alpha').$$

Then $\phi_{\sigma'}$ is an automorphism of $P(\alpha')$ which is an extension of ϕ_{σ} , while $(\psi')^*$ is a recursive automorphism of $P(\alpha')$ which is an extension of ψ^* . Hence ψ^* is a strong ω -automorphism of $P(\alpha)$.

(b) We shall first prove that for every automorphism ψ^* of $P(\alpha)_2$, there is at most one permutation σ of α related to ψ^* by (2). Let σ_1 and σ_2 be permutations of α . Consider the corresponding automorphisms of $\mathcal{G}(\alpha)$, the mappings ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 such that for $f \in \mathcal{G}(\alpha)$,

$$\phi_1(f) = \sigma_1^{-1} f \sigma_1, \ \phi_2(f) = \sigma_2^{-1} f \sigma_2.$$

We shall use the following lemma, whose proof is left to the reader.

Lemma. Let σ be a permutation of α and ϕ the automorphism of $\mathcal{F}(\alpha)$ such that

$$\phi: f \to \sigma^{-1} f \sigma, \text{ for } f \in \mathcal{F}(\alpha).$$

If ϕ is the identity mapping on $\mathcal{G}(\alpha)$, then σ is the identity permutation of α .

Now assume $\phi_1 = \phi_2$, i.e., $\phi_1(f) = \phi_2(f)$, for $f \in \mathcal{G}(\alpha)$. Then it follows by the lemma that $\sigma_1 \sigma_2^{-1}$ is the identity permutation of α , i.e., that $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2$. Thus for every ω -automorphism ψ^* of $P(\alpha)$, there is at most one ω permutation σ of α such that (2) holds.

Let, for any ω -permutation σ of α ,

$$(\phi_{\sigma})^*: f \to (\sigma^{-1} f \sigma)^*, \text{ for } f^* \in P(\alpha).$$

We proceed to prove that for every ω -automorphism ψ^* of $P(\alpha)$, there is at least one ω -permutation σ of α such that $\psi^* = (\phi_{\sigma})^*$. Our proof is suggested by Kent's proof of a related but different theorem, [4, p. 360].

Assume that ψ^* is an ω -automorphism of $P(\alpha)$. Then ψ^* has a one-to-one partial recursive extension, say $(\psi_0)^*$. Since the set of all Gödel numbers of finite permutations is recursive, we may assume without loss of generality that $\delta(\psi_0)^*$ and $\rho(\psi_0)^*$ consist of Gödel numbers of finite permutations. Let

for
$$f^* \in P(\alpha)$$
, $\psi(f) = g$ mean: $\psi^*(f^*) = g^*$,
for $f^* \in \delta(\psi_0)^*$, $\psi_0(f) = g$ mean: $\psi_0^*(f^*) = g^*$.

Thus ψ is an automorphism of $\boldsymbol{\rho}(\alpha)$ and ψ_0 is a one-to-one extension of ψ which is effectively computable. We point out three properties of the mapping ψ .

(i) Let the order, o(f), of a finite permutation f be the unique number n such that $f^n = i$, $f^m \neq i$, for $0 \le m \le n$, where i is the identity permutation. Then $o(\psi(f)) = o(f)$, for $f \in \mathcal{P}(\alpha)$.

(ii) Let $M_1, M_2 \subset \mathcal{P}(\alpha)$. If $\psi(M_1) \subset M_2$ and $\psi^{-1}(M_2) \subset M_1$, then $\psi(M_1) = M_2$. (iii) If \mathcal{C} is the conjugacy class of $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$, so is $\psi(\mathcal{C})$.

Let C_t be the conjugacy class of $P(\alpha)$ which consists of all transpositions of elements in α (completed to functions defined on ε). We say that a subset S of $P(\alpha)$ has property Γ , if

$$(f_1, f_2, g_1, g_2 \in \mathcal{S})$$
 and $(o(f_1g_1) = o(f_2g_2))$ then f_1g_1 is conjugate to f_2g_2 .

We claim that C_t is the one and only conjugacy class of $P(\alpha)$ which has property Γ and consists of elements of order 2. First of all, it is readily seen that C_t has property Γ , and C_t trivially consists of elements of order 2. Now suppose \mathfrak{D} is a conjugacy class of $P(\alpha)$ which contains only elements of order 2 and such that $\mathfrak{D} \neq C_t$. Let $f \in \mathfrak{D}$ and $f = \gamma_1 \ldots \gamma_k$ be the decomposition of f into disjoint cycles. Then o(f) = 2 implies $o(\gamma_t) = 2$, for $1 \leq i \leq k$. Also $\mathfrak{D} \neq C_t$ entails $k \geq 2$. Let h_n be the principal function of α , i.e., the function which enumerates α in increasing order. Put

$$f_{1} = (h_{1}, h_{2}) (h_{3}, h_{4}) \dots (h_{2k-1}, h_{2k}),$$

$$g_{1} = (h_{2k+1}, h_{2k+2}) \dots (h_{4k-1}, h_{4k}),$$

$$f_{2} = f_{1},$$

$$g_{2} = (h_{1}, h_{2}) (h_{2k+1}, h_{2k+2}) \dots (h_{4k-3}, h_{4k-2})$$

Hence $f_1, f_2, g_1, g_2 \in \mathcal{B}$, since they belong to the same cycle class as f. However,

$$f_1 \cdot g_1 = (h_{1}, h_2) \dots (h_{4k-1}, h_{4k}),$$

$$f_2 \cdot g_2 = (h_3, h_4) \dots (h_{4k-3}, h_{4k-2})$$

both have order 2, but are not conjugate. Thus $\boldsymbol{\mathcal{D}}$ does not have property $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$.

We now consider $\psi(\mathcal{C}_t)$. This is a conjugacy class of $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$ by (iii) and consists of elements of order 2 by (i). It is easily seen that property Γ is preserved under ψ , hence $\psi(\mathcal{C}_t)$ has property Γ . Therefore $\psi(\mathcal{C}_t) = \mathcal{C}_t$. Define

$$T_n = \{(n, x) \mid x \in \alpha \text{ and } x \neq n\}, \text{ for } n \in \alpha.$$

We observe that

(a) the product of any two distinct elements of T_n has order 3,

(b) if the product of two transpositions is of order 3, they have exactly one element in common.

Using (a), (b) and (ii) we obtain

 $n \in \alpha \Rightarrow (\exists m) [m \in \alpha \text{ and } \psi(T_n) = T_m].$

Let, for $n \in \alpha$, $(n) \sigma = m$ mean: $\psi(T_n) = T_m$. It follows that σ maps α into itself. For $p, q \in \alpha$,

$$p \neq q \Rightarrow T_p \neq T_q \Rightarrow \psi(T_p) \neq \psi(T_q) \Rightarrow T_{(p)\sigma} \neq T_{(q)\sigma} \Rightarrow (p)\sigma \neq (q)\sigma.$$

Moreover, since ψ^{-1} is also an automorphism of $P(\alpha)$,

$$m \ \epsilon \ \alpha \Rightarrow (\exists n) \ [n \ \epsilon \ \alpha \text{ and } T_n = \psi^{-1}(T_m)]$$

$$\Rightarrow (\exists n) \ [n \ \epsilon \ \alpha \text{ and } \psi(T_n) = T_m]$$

$$\Rightarrow m \ \epsilon \ (\alpha) \sigma.$$

Hence σ is a permutation of α . Let x_1, x_2, x_3 be three distinct elements of α . Suppose any number $n \in \alpha$ is given. Then at least two of the three numbers x_1, x_2, x_3 are different from n. We may assume without loss of generality that $n \neq x_1$ and $n \neq x_2$. Since ψ has an effectively computable extension, namely ψ_0 , we can compute

$$\psi[(n, x_1)] = (m, y_1), \psi[(n, x_2)] = (m, y_2),$$

where m_1, y_1, y_2 are distinct elements of α . Then

 $(n)\sigma = m = \text{common element of } (m, y_1) \text{ and } (m, y_2),$

can be effectively found. It is readily proved that σ has a partial recursive extension. Note that ψ^{-1} also has an effectively computable extension, namely ψ_0^{-1} . Thus given any number $m \in \alpha$ we can (assuming without loss of generality that $m \neq x_1$, $m \neq x_2$) compute

$$\psi^{-1}[(m, x_1)] = (n, y_3), \ \psi^{-1}[(m, x_2)] = (n, y_4),$$

(m) $\sigma^{-1} = n$ = the common element of (n, y_3) and (n, y_4) .

It can be proved (in the same way as for σ) that σ^{-1} has a partial recursive extension. We conclude by (1) that the permutation σ of α has a one-to-one partial recursive extension, i.e., that σ is an ω -permutation of α .

It remains to be shown that

$$\psi^*(f^*) = (\sigma^{-1}f\sigma)^*, \text{ for } f^* \in P(\alpha),$$

or equivalently that

(3)
$$\psi(f) = \sigma^{-1} f \sigma, \text{ for } f \in \mathcal{P}(\alpha).$$

Define $\theta(f) = \sigma \psi(f) \sigma^{-1}$, for $f \in \mathcal{P}(\alpha)$. Let f be a transposition of α , say f = (n, x). Suppose that $\psi(f) = (m, y)$, then $(n)\sigma = m$, $(x)\sigma = y$ or vice versa. We will assume $(n)\sigma = m$, $(x)\sigma = y$. Then

$$(n)\,\theta(f) = (n)[\sigma\psi(f)\sigma^{-1}] = (m)[\psi(f)\sigma^{-1}] = (y)\sigma^{-1} = x, (x)\,\theta(f) = (x)[\sigma\psi(f)\sigma^{-1}] = (y)[\psi(f)\sigma^{-1}] = (m)\sigma^{-1} = n.$$

Moreover, if $z \in \alpha$, but $z \notin \{x, n\}$,

$$(z)\theta(f) = (z)[\sigma\psi(f)\sigma^{-1}] = (z)\sigma\sigma^{-1} = z.$$

We have therefore proved that $\theta(f) = f$, for every transposition f of α . The definition of θ implies that θ is an automorphism of $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$. Thus, since every element of $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$ can be expressed as a product of finitely many transpositions of α , θ must be the identity mapping. Hence $\sigma \psi(f) \sigma^{-1} = f$, for $f \in \mathcal{P}(\alpha)$ and $\psi(f) = \sigma^{-1} f \sigma$, for $f \in \mathcal{P}(\alpha)$. Thus (3) holds and this completes the proof.

Proposition P3. Let α be a non-empty isolated set. Then every ω -automorphism of $P(\alpha)$ is strong.

Proof: Let α be finite. Then every automorphism of $P(\alpha)$ is a recursive automorphism, hence we are through. If, on the other hand, α is immune, the desired result follows from the two parts of P2.

4. Regular ω -isomorphisms

Proposition P4. Let α and β be non-empty isolated sets. Then every ω -isomorphism from $P(\alpha)$ onto $P(\beta)$ is regular.

Proof: Let ψ^* be an ω -isomorphism from $P(\alpha)$ onto $P(\beta)$, then ψ^* has a one-to-one partial recursive extension, say ψ^*_{δ} . We may assume without loss of generality that both $\delta\psi^*_{\delta}$ and $\rho\psi^*_{\delta}$ consist of Gödel numbers of finite permutations. Define $\delta = \delta\psi^*_{\delta}$, $\rho = \rho\psi^*_{\delta}$, $\boldsymbol{D} = \{f \in \boldsymbol{P}(\varepsilon) | f^* \in \delta\}$, and

for
$$f \in \mathcal{P}(\alpha)$$
, $\psi(f) = g$ means: $\psi^*(f^*) = g^*$,
for $f \in \mathcal{D}$, $\psi_0(f) = g$ means: $\psi_0^*(f^*) = g^*$.

Then ψ is an isomorphism from $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$ onto $\mathcal{P}(\beta)$ which has an effectively computable one-to-one extension, namely ψ_0 . Let $A = \operatorname{Req}(\alpha)$, $B = \operatorname{Req}(\beta)$, then $\circ(P(\alpha)) = A!$, $\circ(P(\beta)) = B!$. The fact that ψ_0^* maps $P(\alpha)$ onto $P(\beta)$ implies that A! = B!. Since A, B > 0, it follows that A = B, i.e., $\alpha \simeq \beta$, say by p. Define $\mathcal{X}(g) = pgp^{-1}$, for $g \in \mathcal{P}(\beta)$, and $\mathcal{X}_0(g) = pgp^{-1}$, for $g \in \mathcal{P}(\rho p)$. Note that for $g \in \mathcal{P}(\beta)$,

$$n \in \alpha \Rightarrow (n) \not p \in \beta \Rightarrow (n) \not pg \in \beta \Rightarrow (n) \not pg \not p^{-1} \in \alpha \Rightarrow (n) [X(g)] \in \alpha.$$

Since g changes at most finitely many elements of β , X(g) changes at most finitely many elements of α . Thus $g \in \mathcal{P}(\beta)$ implies that $X(g) \in \mathcal{P}(\alpha)$. It is readily proved that X is an isomorphism from $\mathcal{P}(\beta)$ onto $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$. Similarly, one can prove that X_0 is an isomorphism from $\mathcal{P}(\rho p)$ onto $\mathcal{P}(\delta p)$. Moreover, X_0 is an effectively computable extension of X. Put $\theta = X\psi$,

$$\boldsymbol{\mathcal{D}}_{0} = \{ f \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \, \boldsymbol{\mathcal{D}} | \boldsymbol{\psi}_{0}(f) \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \, \boldsymbol{\mathscr{P}}(\rho \, p) \}, \\ \boldsymbol{\theta}_{0}(f) = \boldsymbol{\mathcal{X}}_{0} \boldsymbol{\psi}_{0}(f), \text{ for } f \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \, \boldsymbol{\mathcal{D}}_{0}.$$

Then θ is an automorphism of $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$ which has an effectively computable one-to-one extension, namely θ_0 . Define

for
$$f^* \in P(\alpha)$$
, $\theta^*(f^*) = g^*$ means: $\theta(f) = g$,
for $f^* \in \mathfrak{D}^*_0$, $\theta^*_0(f^*) = g^*$ means: $\theta_0(f) = g$.

It follows that θ^* is an automorphism of $P(\alpha)$ which has a partial recursive one-to-one extension, namely θ_0^* . Hence θ^* is an ω -automorphism of $P(\alpha)$. Applying P2 we conclude that there exists an ω -permutation σ of α such that $\theta(f) = \sigma^{-1} f \sigma$, for $f \in \mathcal{P}(\alpha)$. Substituting $\mathcal{X} \psi$ for θ and using the definition of \mathcal{X} , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} & \boldsymbol{\chi}\psi(f) = \sigma^{-1}f\sigma, \text{ for } f \in \boldsymbol{P}(\alpha), \\ & p\psi(f)p^{-1} = \sigma^{-1}f\sigma, \text{ for } f \in \boldsymbol{P}(\alpha), \\ & \psi(f) = (\sigma p)^{-1}f(\sigma p), \text{ for } f \in \boldsymbol{P}(\alpha). \end{aligned}$$

The ω -permutation σ of α has a partial recursive one-to-one extension, say σ_0 . Define

$$\alpha_0 = \{x \in \delta\sigma_0 | (x) \sigma_0 \in \delta p\},\$$

(x)q = (x) \sigma_0 p, for x \epsilon \alpha_0,
\begin{aligned} & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & &

Then $\alpha \subset \alpha_0 \subset \delta p$, where α_0 is r.e. Since q is the composition of two partial recursive one-to-one functions, it is itself a partial recursive one-to-one function. Moreover, q is an extension of σp . While σp maps α onto β , q maps the r.e. superset α_0 of α onto the r.e. superset β_0 of β . Define $\psi_1(f) = q^{-1}fq$, for $f \in \mathcal{P}(\alpha_0)$. Then ψ_1 is an extension of ψ , an isomorphism from $\mathcal{P}(\alpha_0)$ onto $\mathcal{P}(\beta_0)$ and an effectively computable mapping. Let for $f^* \in P(\alpha_0), \psi_1^*(f^*) = g^*$ mean: $\psi_1(f) = g$. It follows that ψ_1^* is a recursive isomorphism from the r.e. supergroup $P(\alpha_0)$ of $P(\alpha)$ onto the r.e. supergroup

 $P(\beta_0)$ of $P(\beta)$. Since ψ_1^* is also an extension of ψ^* , the ω -isomorphism ψ^* is regular.

5. Inner ω -automorphisms

Definition. Let ϕ be an automorphism of the ω -group G. Then ϕ is an *inner* (or *outer*) ω -automorphism of G, if ϕ is both an inner (respectively outer) automorphism of G and an ω -automorphism of G.

Notations. For an ω -group $G_{,}$

Aut(G) = the group of all automorphisms of G,

ln(G) = the group of all inner automorphisms of G_{i} ,

 $\operatorname{Aut}_{\omega}(G)$ = the group of all ω -automorphisms of G,

 $\ln_{\omega}(G)$ = the group of all inner ω -automorphisms of G.

Notation. We write $H \leq G$ for *H* is a subgroup of the group *G*.

Remark. We immediately see that for an ω -group G, we have $\operatorname{Aut}_{\omega}(G) \leq \operatorname{Aut}(G)$ and $\ln_{\omega}(G) \leq \ln(G)$. The second relation can be strengthened.

Proposition P5. Let G be an ω -group. Then every inner automorphism of G is an ω -automorphism of G, i.e., $\ln(G) = \ln_{\omega}(G)$.

Proof: Left to reader.

Proposition P6. Let α be an infinite set. Then the ω -group $P(\alpha)$ has exactly c automorphisms. Among them exactly \aleph_0 are inner automorphisms and exactly c are outer automorphisms.

Proof: For every permutation σ of α , the mapping

$$\phi_{\sigma}: f \to \sigma^{-1} f \sigma$$
, for $f \in \mathcal{P}(\alpha)$

is an automorphism of $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$. In our proof of P2 we showed (only using the fact that α is infinite) that for permutations σ , τ of α ,

$$\sigma \neq \tau \Longrightarrow \phi_{\sigma} \neq \phi_{\tau}.$$

Taking into account that α has exactly c permutations, since α is denumerable, it follows that $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$ has at least c automorphisms. However, there are only c mappings from $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$ into itself, hence $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$ has exactly c automorphisms. If σ ranges without repetition over the denumerable family of all finite permutations of α , ϕ_{σ} ranges without repetition over the family of all inner automorphisms of $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$. Hence there are exactly \aleph_0 inner automorphisms of $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$. The remaining c automorphisms of $\mathcal{P}(\alpha)$ must be outer ones.

Remark. Let α be an infinite set and $G = P(\alpha)$. In view of P6, $\ln_{\omega}(G) \leq \operatorname{Aut}_{\omega}(G) \leq \operatorname{Aut}_{\omega}(G)$. We wish to find out for which immune sets α , $\ln_{\omega}(G) \leq \operatorname{Aut}_{\omega}(G)$. This clearly depends only on $\operatorname{Reg}(\alpha)$.

Definition. An isol A is multiple-free if for every isol B, $2B \le A \Rightarrow B \in \varepsilon$.

It is readily seen that c isols are multiple-free while c are not. For if

X is an infinite indecomposable isol. X is multiple-free, but 2X is not. Moreover, there are exactly c infinite indecomposable isols.

Notation. (1) The cardinality of the set α will be denoted by card(α).

(2) For two sets α and β , $\alpha \mid \beta$ means α is separable from β .

The following proposition is due to B. Cole.

Proposition P7. Let $T \in \Lambda - \varepsilon$ and $\tau \in T$. Then there is an ω -permutation of τ which moves infinitely many elements of τ if and only if T is not multiple-free.

Proof: Let $T \in \Lambda - \varepsilon$ and $\tau \in T$. Suppose that f is an ω -permutation of τ which moves infinitely many elements of τ . Define

 $\gamma_x = \{x, f(x), f^2(x), \dots\}, \text{ for } x \in \delta f, \\ D = \{\gamma_x | \gamma_x \text{ is finite}\}, \\ \delta = \text{ union of all sets in } D, \\ c(x) = \min \gamma_{xy} d(x) = \max \gamma_{xy}, \text{ for } x \in \delta. \end{cases}$

Then $\tau \subset \delta \subset \delta f$, where δ is an r.e. set. Also c(x) and d(x) are partial recursive functions. Put

$$\sigma' = \{x \in \delta \mid \text{card} \mid \gamma_x \geq 2\}, \sigma = \{x \in \tau \mid \text{card} \mid \gamma_x \geq 2\},\$$

then $\sigma \subset \sigma'$ where σ' is r.e. Define

$$\alpha' = c(\sigma'), \ \beta' = d(\sigma'), \ \alpha = c(\sigma), \ \beta = d(\sigma), \ A = \operatorname{Req}(\alpha).$$

Note that $\alpha \subset \alpha'$, $\beta \subset \beta'$, where α' and β' are disjoint r.e. sets. Hence $\alpha \mid \beta$. Moreover

$$c(x) \rightarrow d(x)$$
, for $x \in \sigma'$

is a partial recursive one-to-one function which maps α onto β . It follows that $\alpha \simeq \beta$ and

(4)
$$\operatorname{Req}(\alpha \cup \beta) = \operatorname{Req}(\alpha) + \operatorname{Req}(\beta) = A + A = 2A.$$

Observe that $x \in \sigma'$ if and only if $c(x) \neq d(x)$, for $x \in \delta$, and $x \in \alpha' \cup \beta'$ if and only if x = c(x) or x = d(x), for $x \in \sigma'$. We conclude that for $x \in \delta$,

$$x \notin \alpha' \cup \beta' \Leftrightarrow c(x) \neq d(x) \text{ and } [x = c(x) \text{ or } x = d(x)],$$

$$x \notin \alpha' \cup \beta' \Leftrightarrow c(x) = d(x) \text{ or } [x \neq c(x) \text{ and } x \neq d(x)].$$

Since c(x) and d(x) are defined on δ , the sets $\alpha' \cup \beta'$ and $\delta(\alpha' \cup \beta')$ are disjoint and r.e. Thus $\alpha \cup \beta \subseteq \alpha' \cup \beta'$, $\tau(\alpha \cup \beta) \subset \delta(\alpha' \cup \beta')$, and

(5)
$$\alpha \cup \beta | \tau - (\alpha \cup \beta), \operatorname{Reg}(\alpha \cup \beta) \leq T.$$

Combining (4) and (5) we obtain $2A \le T$. The set σ is infinite because f moves infinitely many elements of τ . This implies that the set α and the isol A are infinite. Hence T is not multiple-free.

To prove the converse we suppose that the infinite isol T is not multiple-free. Let A be an infinite isol such that $2A \leq T$. Suppose that $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in A$ and $\alpha_1 | \alpha_2$. Let α_1' and α_2' be disjoint r.e. sets and h(x) a partial recursive one-to-one function such that

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$$\alpha_1 \subset \alpha_1', \ \alpha_2 \subset \alpha_2', \ \alpha_1 \subset \delta h, \ h(\alpha_1) = \alpha_2.$$

We may assume that $\delta h = \alpha_1'$, $\rho h = \alpha_2'$. In view of the fact that $2A \leq T$, we may also suppose that

$$\alpha_1 \cup \alpha_2 \subset \tau$$
, $\alpha_1 \cup \alpha_2 \mid \tau - (\alpha_1 \cup \alpha_2)$.

Let γ and δ be disjoint r.e. sets such that $\alpha_1 \cup \alpha_2 \subset \gamma$ and $\tau - (\alpha_1 \cup \alpha_2) \subset \delta$. Define the functions f(x), $f_0(x)$ by

$$\delta f = \tau, \ \delta f_0 = \delta \cup (\alpha_1' \cup \alpha_2') \cdot \gamma,$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x &, \text{ if } x \notin \alpha_1 \cup \alpha_2, \\ h(x) &, \text{ if } x \in \alpha_1, \\ h^{-1}(x), \text{ if } x \in \alpha_2, \end{cases}$$

$$f_0(x) = \begin{cases} x &, \text{ if } x \in \delta, \\ h(x) &, \text{ if } x \in \alpha_1' \cap \gamma, \\ h^{-1}(x), \text{ if } x \in \alpha_2' \cap \gamma. \end{cases}$$

First of all, f(x) is a permutation of τ and $f_0(x)$ a partial recursive one-toone extension of f(x). Thus f(x) is an ω -permutation of τ . Moreover, fmoves all elements of the subset α_1 of τ , while α_1 is infinite, since $\alpha_1 \in A$. It follows that f moves infinitely many elements of τ .

Remark. Proposition P7 enables us to characterize all immune sets α for which the ω -group $P(\alpha)$ has \aleph_0 outer ω -automorphisms.

Proposition P8. Let α be an immune set. Then $P(\alpha)$ has \aleph_0 outer ω -automorphisms if and only if the isol Req (α) is not multiple-free.

Proof: Let for every ω -permutation σ of α , the ω -automorphism ϕ_{σ}^{*} be defined by

$$\phi_{\sigma}^*: f^* \to (\sigma^{-1}f\sigma)^*, \text{ for } f^* \in P(\alpha).$$

According to P2 every ω -automorphism of $P(\alpha)$ is of the form ϕ_{σ}^* for some σ and the mapping $\sigma \rightarrow \phi_{\sigma}^*$ is one-to-one. Clearly, ϕ_{σ}^* is an outer ω -automorphism of $P(\alpha)$ if and only if σ moves infinitely many elements of α . Thus by P7, $P(\alpha)$ has an outer ω -automorphism if and only if the isol Req (α) is not multiple-free. But $P(\alpha)$ has at least one outer ω -automorphism implies $P(\alpha)$ has \aleph_0 outer ω -automorphisms since there are \aleph_0 distinct inner ω -automorphisms of $P(\alpha)$ and the composition of an outer ω -automorphism. This completes the proof.

Remark. Proposition P8 can also be phrased as follows: for an immune set α , $\operatorname{Aut}_{\omega}P(\alpha) = \ln_{\omega}P(\alpha)$ if and only if $\operatorname{Req}(\alpha)$ is multiple-free and $\operatorname{card}(\operatorname{Aut}_{\omega}P(\alpha) - \ln_{\omega}P(\alpha)) = \aleph_0$ if and only if $\operatorname{Req}(\alpha)$ is not multiple-free.

CHARLES H. APPLEBAUM

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Bowling Green State University Bowling Green, Ohio