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นางสาวภัททิรา เรืองสินทรัพย์



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UNIQUE FACTORIZATION OF  
PSEUDO-ARITHMETIC FUNCTIONS



A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
for the Degree of Master of Science in Mathematics

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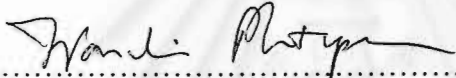
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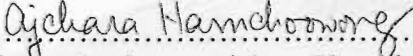
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By                                      Miss Pathira Ruengsinsup  
Department                        Mathematics  
Thesis Advisor                    Assistant Professor Patanee Udomkavanich , Ph.D.  
Thesis Co-advisor               Associate Professor Vichian Laohakosol , Ph.D.

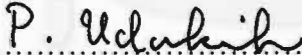
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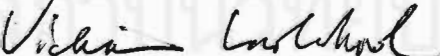
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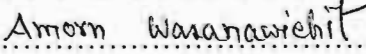
  
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## บทคัดย่อวิทยานิพนธ์

ภัททิรา เรื่องสินทรัพย์ : การแยกตัวประกอบได้อย่างเดียวของฟังก์ชันเลขคณิตเทียม(UNIQUE FACTORIZATION OF PSEUDO-ARITHMETIC FUNCTIONS) อ.ที่ปรึกษา : ผศ.ดร.พัฒน์ อุดมกะวานิช, อ.ที่ปรึกษาร่วม : รศ. ดร. วิเชียร เลานโกศล , 29 หน้า. ISBN 974-334-063-7.

ในปี ค.ศ.1959 แคชเวลล์ และ เอเวอเรต ได้พิสูจน์ว่าเซตของฟังก์ชันเลขคณิตค่าเชิงซ้อนประกอบกันเป็นโดเมนที่มีการแยกตัวประกอบได้อย่างเดียว ภายใต้การบวกและสังวัตนาการ ในวิทยานิพนธ์นี้เราขยายผลนี้ไปในสองทิศทาง

ทิศทางที่หนึ่ง เราแทนเซตของจำนวนธรรมชาติและสนามจำนวนเชิงซ้อนด้วยกึ่งกลุ่มเชิงเลขคณิตและโดเมน  $D$  ซึ่งแยกตัวประกอบได้อย่างเดียว ตามลำดับ และพิสูจน์ว่าเมื่อวงของอนุกรมกำลังรูปนัยในตัวไม่กำหนดจำนวนจำกัดเหนือ  $D$  เป็นโดเมนซึ่งแยกตัวประกอบได้อย่างเดียวแล้ว เซตของฟังก์ชันเลขคณิตเทียมทั้งหมดจาก  $S$  ไปยัง  $D$  เป็นโดเมนซึ่งแยกตัวประกอบได้อย่างเดียวภายใต้การบวกและสังวัตนาการ

ทิศทางที่สอง เราแทนสนามจำนวนเชิงซ้อนด้วย วงที่มีการแยกตัวประกอบได้อย่างเดียว  $\mathcal{R}$  ซึ่งมีตัวหารของศูนย์ และพิสูจน์ว่าเมื่อวงของอนุกรมกำลังรูปนัยในตัวไม่กำหนดจำนวนจำกัดเหนือ  $\mathcal{R}$  เป็นวงที่มีการแยกตัวประกอบได้อย่างเดียวซึ่งมีตัวหารของศูนย์ และ วงของอนุกรมกำลังรูปนัยในตัวไม่กำหนดจำนวนอนันต์นับได้เหนือ  $\mathcal{R}$  เป็นวงกระชับแล้ว เซตของฟังก์ชันเลขคณิตค่าเหนือ  $\mathcal{R}$  เป็นวงที่มีการแยกตัวประกอบได้อย่างเดียวซึ่งมีตัวหารของศูนย์ ภายใต้การบวกและสังวัตนาการ

วิธีการพิสูจน์ที่ใช้มาจากการวิเคราะห์วิธีการของ แคชเวลล์ และ เอเวอเรต (1959) และ ลู (1965) อย่างละเอียด โดยมีการปรับปรุงเพิ่มเติม พร้อมด้วยแนวคิดเพิ่มเติมได้แก่ กฎการตัดออกอย่างอ่อน และความกระชับ

ภาควิชา คณิตศาสตร์  
สาขาวิชา คณิตศาสตร์  
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ลายมือชื่อนิสิต .....  
ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา .....  
ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาร่วม .....

## AN ABSTRACT

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PATHIRA RUENGINSUP : UNIQUE FACTORIZATION OF PSEUDO-ARITHMETIC FUNCTIONS. THESIS ADVISOR : ASST. PROF. PATANEE UDOMKAVANICH, PH.D., THESIS COADVISOR : ASSOC. PROF. VICHIAN LAOHAKOSOL, Ph.D., 29 PP. ISBN 974-334-063-7.

In 1959, Cashwell and Everett proved that the set of complex-valued arithmetic functions forms a unique factorization domain under addition and convolution. In this thesis we further this result in two directions.

In the first direction, we replace the set of all natural numbers and the complex field by an arithmetical semigroup  $S$  and a unique factorization domain  $D$ , respectively, and prove that when the ring of formal power series in any finite number of indeterminates over  $D$  is a unique factorization domain, then the set of all pseudo-arithmetic functions from  $S$  into  $D$  is a unique factorization domain under addition and convolution.

In the latter direction, we replace the complex field by a unique factorization ring  $\mathcal{R}$  with zero divisors and prove that when the ring of formal power series over  $\mathcal{R}$  in any finite number of indeterminates is a unique factorization ring with zero divisors and the ring of formal power series over  $\mathcal{R}$  in a countably infinite number of indeterminates is compact, then the set of all arithmetic functions over  $\mathcal{R}$  is a unique factorization ring with zero divisors under addition and convolution.

The proofs employed come from a detailed analysis of those used by Cashwell and Everett (1959), and Lu(1965) with a number of modifications together with an introduction of concepts such as weak cancellation law and compactness.

ภาควิชา คณิตศาสตร์  
สาขาวิชา คณิตศาสตร์  
ปีการศึกษา 2542

ลายมือชื่อนิสิต ..... Pathira Ruenginsup .....  
ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา ..... P. Udomkavanich .....  
ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาร่วม ..... Vichian Laohakosol .....



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จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

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## INTRODUCTION

The set of all functions from an arithmetical semigroup  $S$  into a commutative ring  $R$  with identity, denoted by  ${}_S\Omega_R$ , forms a commutative ring with identity under addition and convolution, see e.g. Berberian[1]. It was proved by Cashwell and Everett [3] in 1959 that when  $S$  is the set of all natural numbers and  $R$  the complex field,  ${}_N\Omega_{\mathbb{C}}$  is a unique factorization domain. The proof was based on the fact that  ${}_N\Omega_{\mathbb{C}}$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{C}[[x_1, x_2, \dots]]$ , the ring of formal power series over  $\mathbb{C}$  in countably many indeterminates and that the rings of formal power series over  $\mathbb{C}$  in a finite number of indeterminates are unique factorization domains. In the sixties, Cashwell and Everett [4], Lu[10] considered instead the case where the complex field is replaced by an integral domain  $D$  and proved that  ${}_N\Omega_D$  is a unique factorization domain if  $D$  is a unique factorization domain such that the rings of formal power series over  $D$  in a finite number of indeterminates are unique factorization domains.

In Chapter I, we introduce notation, definitions and prove auxiliary theorems used throughout this thesis.

In Chapter II, we prove subject to certain conditions the unique factorization theorem in  ${}_S\Omega_D$ , where  $S$  is an arithmetical semigroup and  $D$  a unique factorization domain. This extends the original works of Cashwell and Everett [3] in the direction of the domain involved. The proof is divided into two parts. First, the case where the range is the complex field, it is proved that such arithmetical semigroup is isomorphic to the set of natural numbers and the result then follows from Cashwell and Everett theorem. This is essentially the proof adopted by Knopfmacher[8]. Second, the case where the range is any unique factorization domain, the proof is a modification of that used by Cashwell and Everett in [3].

In Chapter III, we prove subject to appropriate conditions the unique factorization theorem in  ${}_N\Omega_{\mathcal{R}}$ , where  $\mathcal{R}$  is a unique factorization ring with zero divisors. This also extends the result of Cashwell and Everett in the direction of the



range involved. The main proof is a combination of ideas used in Cashwell and Everett[3] , and Lu[10] . First , a characterization of unique factorization ring with zero divisors as a ring with greatest common divisors satisfying weak cancellation law is established. Passing to isomorphic setting in the ring of formal power series , a concept of compactness is introduced which enables us to complete the proof.



จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

# CHAPTER I

## PRELIMIANRIES

In this chapter we give notation , definitions and theorems used in this thesis.  
The following symbols will be standard :

$\mathbb{Z}$  is the set of all integers,

$\mathbb{N}$  is the set of all positive integers,

$\mathbb{N}_0 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ ,

$\mathbb{C}$  is the complex field.

### §1. ARITHMETICAL SEMIGROUPS

We take the same definition and examples of arithmetical semigroups as in Knopfmacher[9].

**Definition 1.1** Let  $(S, \cdot)$  be a commutative semigroup with identity  $1_S$ ,  $S$  is called an **arithmetical semigroup** if and only if

- (i)  $S$  has a finite or countably infinite subset  $P$  (whose elements are called the primes of  $S$ ) such that every element  $s \neq 1_S$  in  $S$  has a unique factorization of the form  $s = p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \cdots p_k^{n_k}$ , where the  $p_i$  are distinct elements of  $P$ , the  $n_i$  are positive integers,  $k$  may be arbitrary, and uniqueness is up to the order of the factors indicated
- (ii) there exists a non-negative real-valued norm mapping  $|\cdot|$  on  $S$  such that

(1)  $|1_S| = 1$ ,  $|p| > 1$  for  $p \in P$ ,

(2)  $|ab| = |a||b|$  for all  $a, b \in S$ ,

(3) the total number  $N_S(x)$  of elements  $a \in S$  of norm  $|a| \leq x$  is finite, for each real  $x > 0$ .

**Note** For all  $a \in S$ ,  $|a| \geq 1$  and the only one factor of  $1_S$  is itself.

**Example 1.2** Define a norm on  $\mathbb{N}$  by  $|n| = n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then for all real  $x > 0$ ,  $N_{\mathbb{N}}(x) = [x]$ , the greatest integer not exceeding  $x$ . Thus  $(\mathbb{N}, \cdot)$  with its subset  $P$  of all rational primes is an arithmetical semigroup.

**Example 1.3** Let  $D$  be an integral domain. Then the set  $G_D$  of all associate classes  $\bar{a}$  of nonzero element  $a \in D$  forms a commutative semigroup with identity under the multiplication  $\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = \overline{ab}$ .

In the case when  $D$  is a principal ideal domain, the content of the unique factorization for  $D$  is that each element  $\bar{a} \neq \bar{1}$  of  $G_D$  admits unique factorization into power of the classes  $\bar{p}$  of prime elements  $p \in D$ .

If  $D$  is a Euclidian domain with norm function  $|\cdot|$ , then define a norm on  $G_D$  satisfying conditions (1) and (2) above by letting  $|\bar{a}| = |a|$ . In certain interesting cases this norm satisfies condition (3) above, and  $G_D$  forms an arithmetical semigroup. The followings are illustrations.

1.3.1) Let  $D$  be the ring  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  of all Gaussian integers  $m+ni$  ( $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ). This ring is a Euclidian domain with the norm  $|m+ni| = m^2+n^2$ . Since  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  has only four units  $1, -1, i,$  and  $-i$ ,

$$N_{G_D}(x) = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{k \leq x} r(k) < \infty,$$

where  $r(k)$  denotes the total number of lattice points  $(a, b)$  ( $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ) on the circle  $y^2 + z^2 = k$  ( $k \geq 1$ ) in the Euclidian plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Thus  $G_D$  forms an arithmetical semigroup.

1.3.2) Let  $F$  be a field and  $x$  an indeterminate. Then the polynomial ring  $F[x]$  is a Euclidian domain with the norm  $|f| = 2^{\deg f}$  for  $0 \neq f \in F[x]$ ,  $|0| = 0$ . The units in  $F[x]$  are nonzero constant polynomials. In the case when  $F$  is a finite (Galois) field  $GF(q)$ , the total number of units in  $F[x]$  is  $q-1$ . Let  $f = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0 \in F[x]$ ,  $a_n \neq 0$ . Then  $\bar{f} = \{af : a \in F - \{0\}\}$  and  $|\bar{f}| = |f| = 2^n$ . Thus  $\#\{\bar{g} \in G_{F[x]} : |\bar{g}| = 2^n\} = \#\{g = a_n x^n + b_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + b_0 : b_i \in F\} = q^n$ . Let  $r$  be a positive real number. Thus

$$N_{G_{F[x]}}(r) = \sum_{n=0}^{[\log_2 r]} q^n.$$

Hence  $G_{F[x]}$  forms an arithmetical semigroup.

**Proposition 1.4** *If  $S$  is an arithmetical semigroup then for all  $a \in S$ ,*

$$\{ (x,y) \in S \times S : xy = a \} \text{ is finite.}$$

**Proof** Let  $a \in S$ . For  $x,y \in S$ , if  $xy = a$  then  $|x||y| = |xy| = |a|$ , so  $|x| \leq |a|$  and  $|y| \leq |a|$ . Since  $N_S(|a|)$  is finite,  $\{ (x,y) \in S \times S : xy = a \}$  is finite. #

## §2. POWER SERIES

We first recall some general definitions. Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with identity 1. An element  $u \in R$  is a unit if there is  $v \in R$  such that  $uv = 1$ . For  $r,s \in R$ ,  $r$  divides  $s$ , written  $r|s$ , if there exists  $t \in R$  such that  $rt = s$ . Two elements  $r$  and  $s$  are associate, written  $r \sim s$ , if there is a unit  $u$  of  $R$  such that  $ru = s$ . An element  $r \neq 0$  is a zero divisor if there is  $s \neq 0$  in  $R$  such that  $rs=0$ . Let  $r$  be a nonzero non-unit element of  $R$ ;  $r$  is prime if, whenever  $r|ab$  where  $ab \neq 0$ , then  $r|a$  or  $r|b$ ;  $r$  is reducible if there are nonzero non-unit  $a,b \in R$  such that  $r = ab$ ;  $r$  is irreducible if  $r$  is not reducible. It is easy to shown that if  $r$  and  $s$  are irreducible, then  $r$  divides  $s$  if and only if  $r$  and  $s$  are associates. An element  $d \in R - \{0\}$  is called a greatest common divisor of  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in R$ , not all zero, if  $d|a_i$  for all  $i \in \{1,2, \dots, n\}$ , and if  $c \in R - \{0\}$  is such that  $c|a_i$  for all  $i \in \{1,2, \dots, n\}$ , then  $c|d$ . If  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  are two greatest common divisors of  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in R$  then  $d_1 \sim d_2$ . Denote by  $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  a greatest common divisor of  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in R$ .

Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with identity 1. Denote by  $R_\omega = R[[x_1, x_2, \dots]]$  the set of all formal power series in a countably infinite number of indeterminates  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  over  $R$  and for  $j \geq 1$ , by  $R_j = R[[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_j]]$  the set of all formal power series in  $j$  indeterminates over  $R$ .

**Definition 1.5** *We say that a nonzero monomial  $c x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \dots x_k^{n_k}$ ,  $c \in R$  is of weight  $r$  if*

$$1 \cdot n_1 + 2 \cdot n_2 + \dots + k \cdot n_k = r.$$

It is easy to see that the product of two monomials, whose weights are  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  respectively and whose coefficients are not zero divisors, is of weight  $t_1 + t_2$ .

Every element  $f$  of  $R_\omega$  can be expressed in the form  $f = (f_0, f_1, \dots, f_n, \dots)$ , where each  $f_n$  is either zero or a finite or an infinite sum of monomials of weight  $n$ .

**Definition 1.6** Define addition and multiplication of two power series

$f = (f_0, f_1, \dots, f_n, \dots)$  and  $g = (g_0, g_1, \dots, g_n, \dots)$  as follows :

$$f+g = (f_0 + g_0, f_1 + g_1, \dots, f_n + g_n, \dots)$$

$$fg = (h_0, h_1, \dots, h_n, \dots) \quad , \quad \text{where } h_n = \sum_{i+j=n} f_i g_j .$$

With these definitions of addition and multiplication ,  $R_\omega$  becomes a commutative ring with identity 1 .

**Theorem 1.7** An element  $f = (f_0, f_1, \dots, f_n, \dots)$  of  $R_\omega$  is a unit if and only if  $f_0$  is a unit of  $R$  .

Proof Let  $f = (f_0, f_1, \dots, f_n, \dots) \in R_\omega$  . Assume that  $f$  is a unit of  $R_\omega$  . Then  $fg = 1$  for some  $g = (g_0, g_1, \dots, g_n, \dots) \in R_\omega$  . Thus  $f_0 g_0 = 1$  , so  $f_0$  is a unit of  $R$  .

Conversely , assume that  $f_0$  is a unit of  $R$  . We will construct an element  $g = (g_0, g_1, \dots, g_n, \dots)$  of  $R_\omega$ , where each  $g_n$  is either zero or a form of weight  $n$ , such that  $\sum_{i+j=n} f_i g_j = 0$  for all  $n \neq 0$  .

Define  $g_0 = f_0^{-1}$  . Let  $n \geq 1$  . Assume that  $g_0, g_1, \dots, g_{n-1}$  have been defined and that each  $g_i$  is either zero or a form of weight  $i$  for  $0 \leq i \leq n-1$  . Define  $g_n = -f_0^{-1} \left( \sum_{i+j=n, j \neq n} f_i g_j \right)$ . It is clear that  $g_n$  is then either zero or a form of weight  $n$  and  $\sum_{i+j=n} f_i g_j = 0$  . Now set  $g = (g_0, g_1, \dots, g_n, \dots)$  . Then  $g \in R_\omega$  and  $fg = 1$  , so  $f$  is a unit of  $R_\omega$  . #

**Definition 1.8** Define an order function  $\mathcal{O}$  on  $R_\omega$  as follows :

$$\mathcal{O}(0) = \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{O}(f) = \min \{ n \in \mathbb{N}_0 : f_n \neq 0 \} \quad \text{if } f \neq 0 .$$

**Theorem 1.9** Let  $f$  and  $g$  be power series in  $R_\omega$  . Then

$$(i) \quad \mathcal{O}(f+g) \geq \min \{ \mathcal{O}(f) , \mathcal{O}(g) \}$$

$$(ii) \quad \mathcal{O}(fg) \geq \mathcal{O}(f) + \mathcal{O}(g) .$$

Proof If  $f$  or  $g$  is zero , then there is nothing to prove . Assume that  $f$  and  $g$  are both nonzero . Then  $\mathcal{O}(f) = n$  and  $\mathcal{O}(g) = m$  for some  $n, m \in \mathbb{N}_0$  .

- (i) If  $f+g=0$ , then the result is trivial. Assume that  $f+g \neq 0$ . Then  $\mathcal{O}(f+g) = k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ , so  $f_k + g_k \neq 0$ . Thus  $f_k \neq 0$  or  $g_k \neq 0$ , so  $k \geq \min\{n, m\} = \min\{\mathcal{O}(f), \mathcal{O}(g)\}$ .
- (ii) If  $fg=0$ , then the result is trivial. Assume that  $fg \neq 0$ . Then  $\mathcal{O}(fg) = s$  for some  $s \in \mathbb{N}_0$ , so  $\sum_{i+j=s} f_i g_j \neq 0$ . Thus  $f_i \neq 0$  and  $g_j \neq 0$  for some  $i, j$  such that  $i+j = s$ , so  $i \geq n$  and  $j \geq m$ . Hence  $\mathcal{O}(fg) = s = i+j \geq n+m = \mathcal{O}(f) + \mathcal{O}(g)$ . #

**Notation** Let  $\mathcal{B} = \{B_t(f) : f \in R_\omega \text{ and } t \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$ , where  $B_t(f) = \{g \in R_\omega : \mathcal{O}(g-f) \geq t\}$ .

Clearly,  $R_\omega = B_0(0)$ , so  $R_\omega$  is the union of the elements of  $\mathcal{B}$ .

**Proposition 1.10** Let  $f, g \in R_\omega$  and  $s, t \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . Assume that  $B_s(f) \cap B_t(g) \neq \emptyset$  and  $s \leq t$ . Then

- (i)  $f_i = g_i$  for all  $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, s-1\}$ .  
(ii)  $B_t(g) \subseteq B_s(f)$ .

**Proof** (i) Let  $h \in B_s(f) \cap B_t(g)$ . Then  $\mathcal{O}(h-f) \geq s$  and  $\mathcal{O}(h-g) \geq t$ . Thus for all  $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, s-1\}$ ,  $h_i = f_i$  and for all  $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, t-1\}$ ,  $h_j = g_j$ . Hence for all  $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, s-1\}$ ,  $f_i = g_i$ .

(ii) Let  $p \in B_t(g)$ . Then for all  $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, t-1\}$ ,  $p_i = g_i$ , so for all  $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, s-1\}$ ,  $p_i = g_i = f_i$ . Then  $\mathcal{O}(p-f) \geq s$ , so  $p \in B_s(f)$ . Thus  $B_t(g) \subseteq B_s(f)$ . #

By Proposition 1.10,  $\mathcal{B}$  satisfies the condition: if  $U$  and  $V$  are any elements of  $\mathcal{B}$  and if  $x$  is any point of  $U \cap V$  then there is an element  $W$  of  $\mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in W \subseteq U \cap V$ . Then by Theorem 2.2(c) of Gautam and Narayan [6], The class  $\tau$  of all subset  $X$  of  $R_\omega$  such that  $X$  is the union of a family of elements of  $\mathcal{B}$  is a topology for  $R_\omega$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis of  $\tau$ . This topology is called **the weight topoloty**.

**Definition 1.11** A sequence  $(f^{(n)})$  of elements in  $R_\omega$  is called a **Cauchy sequence** if for every  $i \geq 0$  there exists a positive integer  $T(i)$  such that for  $n, m \geq T(j)$ ,  $\mathcal{O}(f^{(m)} - f^{(n)}) > i$ .

**Definition 1.12** We say that sequence  $(f^{(n)})$  of elements in  $R_\omega$  **converges** to an element  $f \in R_\omega$  if for every  $i \geq 0$  there exists a positive integer  $T(i)$  such that for all  $n \geq T(i)$ ,  $\mathcal{O}(f^{(n)} - f) > i$ .

**Theorem 1.13**([10])  $R_\omega$  is complete under the weight topology.

Proof Let  $(f^{(n)})$  be a Cauchy sequence of elements in  $R_\omega$ . Then for every integer  $j \geq 0$ , there exists an integer  $T(j)$  such that  $\mathcal{O}(f^{(m)} - f^{(n)}) > j$  if  $n, m \geq T(j)$ . Then  $f_k^{(m)} = f_k^{(n)}$  for all  $k \leq j$ . Put  $f = (f_0^{(T(0))}, f_1^{(T(1))}, \dots, f_n^{(T(n))}, \dots)$ . Then  $f \in R_\omega$  and for every  $j$ ,  $f_k = f_k^{(n)}$  for all  $k \leq j$  if  $n \geq T(j)$ . Thus  $\mathcal{O}(f^{(n)} - f) > j$  if  $n \geq T(j)$ . Therefore  $(f^{(n)})$  converges to  $f$ . Hence  $R_\omega$  is complete. #

**Lemma 1.14** If  $u \in R_\omega$  is a limit of a convergent sequence of units in  $R_\omega$  then  $u$  is a unit.

Proof Let  $(u^{(n)})$  be a convergent sequence of units in  $R_\omega$  with a limit  $u \in R_\omega$ . Then for every integer  $j \geq 0$ , there exists an integer  $T(j)$  such that for all  $n \geq T(j)$ ,  $\mathcal{O}(u^{(n)} - u) > j$ . Therefore  $u_0 = u_0^{(n)}$  for  $n$  sufficiently large, so  $u_0$  is a unit of  $R$ . Hence  $u$  is a unit of  $R_\omega$ . #

**Definition 1.15** Let  $f = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_j, \dots) \in R_\omega$ ; then for any integer  $j \geq 0$ , the formal power series  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_j, 0, 0, \dots)$  in  $R_j$ , denoted by  $(f)_j$ , is called **the projection** of  $f$  on  $R_j$ . We set  $R = R_0$ .

Clearly, the mapping  $f \rightarrow (f)_j$  is a ring homomorphism from  $R_\omega$  to  $R_j$ , i.e.,  $(f+g)_j = (f)_j + (g)_j$  and  $(fg)_j = (f)_j(g)_j$ .

**Definition 1.16** A sequence  $(f^{(0)}, f^{(1)}, \dots, f^{(i)}, \dots)$ , where  $f^{(i)} \in R_i$  is said to be a **telescopic chain** if  $f^{(i)} = (f^{(i+1)})_i$  for each  $i$ .

**Lemma 1.17**([10]) *Every infinite telescopic chain  $(f^{(0)}, f^{(1)}, \dots, f^{(i)}, \dots)$  is a Cauchy sequence for the weight topology, and hence has a limit in  $R_\omega$ .*

Proof Since the sequence is telescopic, for every integer  $i \geq 0$  and  $j > 0$ , each monomial of  $f^{(i+j)} - f^{(i)}$  is either zero or contains at least one  $x_k$  with  $k > i$  as a factor. Hence  $\vartheta(f^{(i+j)} - f^{(i)}) > i$ . Thus the sequence is a Cauchy sequence. Since  $R_\omega$  is complete, the sequence has a limit in  $R_\omega$ . #

**Note** *Every  $f \in R_\omega$  is a limit of a finite or an infinite telescopic chain  $((f)_0, (f)_1, \dots, (f)_i, \dots)$ .*

**Definition 1.18**  $R_\omega$  is said to be **compact** (with respect to weight topology) if every sequence of units in  $R_\omega$  has a convergent subsequence.

**Definition 1.19** A sequence  $(f^{(0)}, f^{(1)}, \dots, f^{(i)}, \dots)$ , where  $f^{(i)} \in R_i$  is said to be a **pseudo-telescopic chain** if  $(f^{(i+1)})_i$  is associate to  $f^{(i)}$  in  $R_i$  for every  $i$ .

**Lemma 1.20** *If  $R_\omega$  is compact, then any pseudo-telescopic chain has a convergent subchain.*

Proof Let  $(f^{(0)}, f^{(1)}, \dots, f^{(i)}, \dots)$ , where  $f^{(i)} \in R_i$  be a pseudo-telescopic chain. Then for each  $j \geq 0$ ,  $f^{(j)} = u^{(j)}(f^{(j+1)})_j = (u^{(j)}f^{(j+1)})_j$ , where  $u^{(j)}$  is a unit in  $R_j$ . Put  $F^{(0)} = f^{(0)}$ ,  $F^{(1)} = u^{(0)}f^{(1)}$ ,  $F^{(2)} = u^{(0)}u^{(1)}f^{(2)}$ , ...,  $F^{(j)} = u^{(0)}u^{(1)}\dots u^{(j-1)}f^{(j)}$ . Then  $f^{(j)} = v^{(j)}F^{(j)}$ , where  $v^{(j)} = (u^{(0)}u^{(1)}\dots u^{(j-1)})^{-1}$  is a unit in  $R_j$  and  $(F^{(0)}, F^{(1)}, \dots)$  is a telescopic chain, which has a limit in  $R_\omega$ , say  $F$ . Since  $R_\omega$  is compact, there is a subsequence  $(v^{(j_k)})$  of  $(v^{(j)})$  which converges to a unit  $v$  in  $R_\omega$ . Therefore  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^{(j_k)} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} v^{(j_k)}F^{(j_k)} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} v^{(j_k)} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} F^{(j_k)} = vF$ . Hence the  $(f^{(j_k)})$  is a convergent subchain of  $(f^{(j)})$ . #



**Lemma 1.21**([3]) *Let  $f$  be a nonzero non-unit element in  $R_\omega$ . Then there is a least positive integer  $L = L(f)$ , hereby called **the index of  $f$** , for which  $(f)_j$  is a nonzero non-unit element in  $R_j$ , for all  $j \geq L$ .*

Proof Since  $f$  is a nonzero non-unit element of  $R_\omega$ , then  $f$  must contain some monomial term  $x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \cdots$  with nonzero coefficient and  $n_i$  not all zero. If in this term  $x_k$  is the last variable with  $n_k > 0$ , then  $(f)_k \neq 0$ . Hence there is a least positive integer  $L$  with  $(f)_L \neq 0$ , so  $(f)_j$  is a nonzero non-unit element in  $R_j$  for  $j \geq L$ . #

**Lemma 1.22**([3]) *Let  $f$  be a nonzero non-unit element in  $R_\omega$  with index  $L$ . If  $(f)_j$  is irreducible in  $R_j$  for some  $j \geq L$ , then  $(f)_m$  is irreducible in  $R_m$  for all  $m \geq j$ , and  $f$  is irreducible in  $R_\omega$ .*

Proof Assume that  $(f)_j$  is irreducible for some  $j \geq L$ . Let  $m \geq j$ . Let  $g^{(m)}, h^{(m)} \in R_\omega$  be such that  $(f)_m = g^{(m)} h^{(m)}$ . Then  $(f)_j = ((f)_m)_j = (g^{(m)} h^{(m)})_j = (g^{(m)})_j (h^{(m)})_j$ . Thus  $(g^{(m)})_j$  or  $(h^{(m)})_j$  is a unit in  $R_j$ , so  $g^{(m)}$  or  $h^{(m)}$  is a unit in  $R_m$ . Hence  $(f)_m$  is irreducible in  $R_m$ . Similarly, we can show that  $f$  is irreducible in  $R_\omega$ . #

**Definition 1.23** *Let  $f$  be a nonzero non-unit in  $R_\omega$ . A **true factor** of  $(f)_j$ ,  $j \in \mathbb{N}_0$ , is a non-unit proper divisor of  $(f)_j$  in  $R_j$ .*

**Definition 1.24** *A nonzero non-unit element  $f$  in  $R_\omega$  is said to be **finitely irreducible** if there is a least integer  $P \geq$  the index  $L$  of  $f$  such that  $(f)_j$  is irreducible in  $R_j$  for all  $j \geq P$ .*

### §3. PSEUDO-ARITHMETIC FUNCTION

In this section  $S$  stands for an arithmetical semigroup and  $R$  for a commutative ring with identity.

**Definition 1.25** *A **pseudo-arithmetic function** is a function from  $S$  to  $R$ . Let  ${}_s\Omega_R$  be the set of all pseudo-arithmetic functions. Define addition and multiplication  $*$ , which is called a **convolution**, in  ${}_s\Omega_R$  as follows :*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } \alpha, \beta \in {}_S\Omega_R, (\alpha + \beta)(a) &= (\alpha)(a) + (\beta)(a) & \text{and} \\ (\alpha * \beta)(a) &= \sum_{xy=a} \alpha(x)\beta(y) & \text{for all } a \in S. \end{aligned}$$

The summation is well-defined by Proposition 1.4 .

It is easy to show that  $({}_S\Omega_R, +, *)$  is a commutative ring with identity . The zero  $\theta$  and additive inverse  $-\alpha$  of  $\alpha \in {}_S\Omega_R$  are the pseudo-arithmetic functions defined by  $\theta(a) = 0$  and  $(-\alpha)(a) = -\alpha(a)$  for all  $a \in S$  . The convolution identity  $\varepsilon$  is defined by  $\varepsilon(1) = 1$  and  $\varepsilon(a) = 0$  for all  $a \in S - \{1\}$  .

**Definition 1.26** Define the order function  $\langle \cdot \rangle$  on  ${}_S\Omega_R$  by ,

$$\langle \theta \rangle = 0 \text{ and } \langle \alpha \rangle = \min \{ |a| : \alpha(a) \neq 0 \} \text{ if } \alpha \neq \theta .$$

**Proposition 1.27** (i) For  $\alpha \in {}_S\Omega_R$  ,  $\langle \alpha \rangle \geq 0$  and  $\langle \alpha \rangle = 0$  if and only if  $\alpha = \theta$  .

(ii) For  $\alpha, \beta \in {}_S\Omega_R$  ,  $\langle \alpha * \beta \rangle \geq \langle \alpha \rangle \langle \beta \rangle$  . In particular , if  $R$  has no zero divisor then  $\langle \alpha * \beta \rangle = \langle \alpha \rangle \langle \beta \rangle$  for all  $\alpha, \beta \in {}_S\Omega_R$  .

Proof (i) is obvious from the definition.

(ii) Let  $\alpha, \beta \in {}_S\Omega_R$  . The case  $\alpha = \theta$  or  $\beta = \theta$  is trivial . Assume that  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are nonzero. Then  $\langle \alpha \rangle = |a|$  and  $\langle \beta \rangle = |b|$  for some  $a, b \in S$  . Then for all  $c \in S$  such that  $|c| < |ab|$  ,  $(\alpha * \beta)(c) = \sum_{xy=c} \alpha(x)\beta(y) = 0$  and  $(\alpha * \beta)(ab) = \sum_{xy=ab} \alpha(x)\beta(y) = \alpha(a)\beta(b)$  .

Then  $\langle \alpha * \beta \rangle \geq |ab|$  . If  $R$  has no zero divisor then  $\alpha(a)\beta(b) \neq 0$  , so  $\langle \alpha * \beta \rangle = \langle \alpha \rangle \langle \beta \rangle$  . #

**Proposition 1.28** Let  $\alpha \in {}_S\Omega_R$  . Then  $\alpha$  is a unit if and only if  $\alpha(1)$  is a unit in  $R$  .

Proof Assume that  $\alpha$  is a unit. Then there is a nonzero element  $\beta$  in  ${}_S\Omega_R$  such that  $\alpha * \beta = \varepsilon$  . Thus  $1 = \varepsilon(1) = (\alpha * \beta)(1) = \alpha(1)\beta(1)$  , so  $\alpha(1)$  is a unit in  $R$  .

Conversely, assume that  $\alpha(1)$  is a unit in  $R$  . We will construct a nonzero element  $\beta$  in  ${}_S\Omega_R$  such that  $\alpha * \beta = \varepsilon$  . Define  $\beta(1) = \alpha(1)^{-1}$  . Let  $a \in S$  be such that  $a \neq 1$  . Assume that for all  $b \in S$  such that  $|b| < |a|$  ,  $\beta(b)$  has been defined and satisfied the condition  $(\alpha * \beta)(b) = \varepsilon(b)$  . Define  $\beta(a) = \alpha(1)^{-1} (- \sum_{bc=a} \alpha(b)\beta(c))$  . Then

$$(\alpha * \beta)(a) = \sum_{bc=a} \alpha(b)\beta(c) = \sum_{bc=a, b \neq 1} \alpha(b)\beta(c) + \alpha(1)\beta(a) = 0 + \alpha(1)\beta(a) = \alpha(1)\beta(a) = \varepsilon(a) . \text{ Thus } (\alpha * \beta)(a) = \varepsilon(a)$$

for all  $a \in S$  , so  $\alpha * \beta = \varepsilon$  . Hence  $\alpha$  is a unit. #

Now let the primes  $p$  of  $S$  be listed in the order  $p_1, p_2, \dots$  , where  $|p_i| \leq |p_{i+1}|$  . Then every element  $a$  of  $S$  may be written uniquely in the form  $a = p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \cdots p_k^{n_k}$  for some  $k$  , where each  $n_i$  is a non-negative integer. Hence every pseudo-arithmetic function  $\alpha$  may be associated with a definite formal power series in  $R_\omega$  by means of the correspondence :

$$(*) \quad \alpha \rightarrow f^{(\alpha)} = \sum \alpha(a) x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \cdots x_k^{n_k} ,$$

where the summation extends over all  $a = p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \cdots p_k^{n_k}$  of  $S$  ; obviously the sum  $f^{(\alpha)}$  can be identified with some formal power series in  $R_\omega$  . It is easy to verify that the correspondence is an isomorphism between  ${}_s\Omega_R$  and  $R_\omega$  .

**Definition 1.29** Define  $S_k$  to be the set consisting of all elements of  $S$  of the form  $p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \cdots p_k^{n_k}$  ,  $n_i \geq 0$  for each  $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k$ .

Then clearly  $S_1 \subset S_2 \subset S_3 \subset \dots \subset S_k \subset \dots$  and  $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} S_k = S$  .

Let  $({}_s\Omega_R)_k$  be the subset of  ${}_s\Omega_R$  consisting of those pseudo-arithmetic functions  $\alpha$  such that  $\alpha(a) = 0$  for all  $a \notin S_k$ . Then , the set is a collection of all functions on  $S_k$  into  $R$  . It can easily verified that  $({}_s\Omega_R)_k \cong R[[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k]]$  under the correspondence (\*).

#### §4. UNIQUE FACTORIZATION RINGS WITH ZERO DIVISORS.

We take essentially the same definition of unique factorization rings with zero divisors as in Galovich[5] .

**Definition 1.30** A commutative ring  $R$  with identity and zero divisors is a **unique factorization ring with zero divisors (UFRZ)** if

(i) every nonzero non-unit of  $R$  can be written as a finite product of irreducible factors and

(ii) if  $a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n = b_1 b_2 \cdots b_m$  , where each of the elements  $a_i$  and  $b_j$  is irreducible , then  $n = m$  and  $a_i$  can be renumbered so that  $a_i \sim b_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n$ ).

**Example 1.31**  $\mathbb{Z} / p^m \mathbb{Z}$ , where  $p$  is a rational prime and  $m$  is a positive integer  $\geq 2$ , is a UFRZ, see Billis[2].

**Definition 1.32** A commutative ring  $R$  with identity is said to satisfy a **weak cancellation law** whenever  $ax = ay \neq 0$ , where  $a, x, y \in R$ , then  $x \sim y$ .

**Proposition 1.33** UFRZ  $R$  satisfies a weak cancellation law.

Proof Let  $a, x, y \in R$ . Assume that  $ax = ay \neq 0$ . Then  $a, x$  and  $y$  are nonzero elements. By the unique factorization property on  $R$ ,  $a = a_1 a_2 \cdots a_s$ ,  $x = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n$  and  $y = y_1 y_2 \cdots y_m$ , where each of the elements  $a_i, x_j$  and  $y_k$  is irreducible, so  $a_1 a_2 \cdots a_s x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n = a_1 a_2 \cdots a_s y_1 y_2 \cdots y_m$ . Then  $n = m$  and after some renumbering  $x_i \sim y_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n$ ), so  $x \sim y$ . #

**Lemma 1.34**([7]) Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with identity and zero divisors. Assume that any two elements of  $R$ , not both zero, have a greatest common divisor and  $R$  satisfies a weak cancellation law. Then

- (i) For  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in R$ , a greatest common divisor of  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  exists.
- (ii) For  $a, b, c \in R$ ,  $((a, b), c) \sim (a, (b, c))$ .
- (iii) For  $a, b, c \in R$ ,  $c(a, b) \sim (ca, cb)$ .
- (iv) For  $a, b, c \in R$ , if  $(a, b) \sim 1$  and  $(a, c) \sim 1$  then  $(a, bc) \sim 1$ .

Proof (i) Let  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in R$ . Let  $d_1 = (a_1, a_2)$ ,  $d_{i+1} = (d_i, a_{i+1})$   $1 \leq i \leq n-1$  and  $d = d_n$ . Then  $d | d_{n-1}$  and  $d | a_n$ , so  $d | a_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Let  $e$  be a common divisor of  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ . Then  $e | d_i$ , so  $e | d_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Thus  $e | d_n = d$ . Hence  $d$  is a greatest common divisor of  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ .

(ii) Let  $a, b, c \in R$  and  $g = ((a, b), c)$ . Then  $g | (a, b)$  and  $g | c$ . Thus  $g | a$ ,  $g | b$  and  $g | c$ , so  $g$  is common divisor of  $a, b$  and  $c$ . Let  $d$  be a common divisor of  $a, b$  and  $c$ . Then  $d | a$ ,  $d | b$  and  $d | c$ . Thus  $d | (a, b)$ , so  $d | ((a, b), c)$ . Thus  $((a, b), c) = g \sim (a, b, c)$ . Similarly, we can show that  $(a, (b, c)) \sim (a, b, c)$ . Hence  $((a, b), c) \sim (a, (b, c))$ .

(iii) Let  $a, b, c \in R$ ,  $d = (a, b)$  and  $g = (ca, cb)$ . Then  $d | a$  and  $d | b$ , so  $cd | ca$  and  $cd | cb$ . Then  $cd | g$ , so  $g = cdx$  for some  $x \in R$ . Since  $g | ca$ ,  $ca = gy$  for some  $y \in R$ . Then  $ca = gy = cdxy$ . Since  $R$  satisfies a weak cancellation law,  $a = dxy$  for some

unit  $u \in R$ , so  $dx \mid a$ . Similarly, we can show that  $dx \mid b$ , so  $dx \mid d$ . Then  $x$  is a unit and  $(ca, cb) = g \sim cd = c(a, b)$ .

(iv) Let  $a, b, c \in R$ . Assume that  $(a, b) \sim 1$  and  $(a, c) \sim 1$ . By (iii),  $(ac, bc) \sim c$  and  $(a, ac) \sim a$ . Then  $1 \sim (a, c) \sim (a, (ac, bc)) \sim ((a, ac), bc) \sim (a, bc)$ . #

**Proposition 1.35** *Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with identity and zero divisors. Assume that every nonzero non-unit element of  $R$  can be written as a finite product of irreducible elements of  $R$ . Then the following assertions are equivalent :*

(i)  $R$  is a UFRZ .

(ii) Any two elements of  $R$ , not both zero, have a greatest common divisor and  $R$  satisfies a weak cancellation law .

Proof Assume that (i) holds. By Proposition 1.33,  $R$  satisfies a weak cancellation law.

Let  $x, y \in R$ . Since  $R$  is a UFRZ, we can write  $x = r_1^{n_1} r_2^{n_2} \cdots r_k^{n_k}$  and  $y = r_1^{m_1} r_2^{m_2} \cdots r_k^{m_k}$ , where  $r_i$  are distinct irreducible elements of  $R$  and  $n_i, m_i$  are non-negative integers. Let  $d = r_1^{\min\{n_1, m_1\}} r_2^{\min\{n_2, m_2\}} \cdots r_k^{\min\{n_k, m_k\}}$ . Then  $d \mid a$  and  $d \mid b$ , so  $d$  is a common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$ . Let  $e$  be any other common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$ . Then  $e = r_1^{s_1} r_2^{s_2} \cdots r_k^{s_k}$ , where  $0 \leq s_i \leq n_i$  and  $0 \leq s_i \leq m_i$ . Thus  $s_i \leq \min\{n_i, m_i\}$ , so  $e \mid d$ . Hence  $d$  is a greatest common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$ .

Assume that (ii) holds. We will show that every irreducible element of  $R$  is a prime. Let  $p$  be an irreducible element of  $R$  such that  $p \mid ab$ ,  $a, b \in R$ . Suppose that  $p$  does not divide  $a$  and  $b$ . Then  $(p, a) \sim 1 \sim (p, b)$ . For, if there is a non-unit  $d \in R$  such that  $d = (p, a)$ , then  $p = dx$  for some  $x \in R$ , since  $p$  is irreducible, we have  $x$  is a unit, so  $p \mid d$ ; hence  $p \mid a$ , a contradiction. By Proposition 1.34(iv),  $(p, ab) \sim 1$  which contradicts  $p \mid ab$ . Hence  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$ , so  $p$  is a prime in  $R$ .

Now we will show the uniqueness of factorization in  $R$ . Let  $a$  be a nonzero non-unit element of  $R$ . Suppose that  $r_1 r_2 \cdots r_n = a = s_1 s_2 \cdots s_m$ , where  $r_i$  and  $s_j$  are irreducible. Since irreducible elements are primes,  $r_1 \mid s_j$  for some  $j$ , say  $s_1$ . Since  $r_1$  and  $s_1$  are irreducible,  $r_1 \sim s_1$ , so  $r_1 = u_1 s_1$  for some unit  $u_1$  in  $R$ . Then  $u_1 s_1 r_2 \cdots r_n = s_1 s_2 \cdots s_m$ . Since  $R$  satisfies a weak cancellation law,  $u_1 r_2 \cdots r_n = s_2 \cdots s_m$  for some unit  $v_1$ . Continue this process. If  $n \neq m$ , we have a product of irreducible elements equal to a unit, which is impossible. Then  $n = m$  and after renumbering  $r_i \sim s_j$  for all  $i$ . #

## CHAPTER II

### CASE OF NO ZERO DIVISORS

E.D.Cashwell and C.J.Everett [3] have proved that the ring of complex-valued arithmetic functions is a unique factorization domain. In this chapter, we consider the case where the set of natural numbers and the complex field are replaced by an arithmetical semigroup  $S$  and a unique factorization domain  $D$ , respectively, and call such functions pseudo-arithmetic functions. We shall prove that the ring of all pseudo-arithmetic functions from  $S$  to  $D$  is a unique factorization domain. The proofs is divides into two parts. First, the case where the range is the complex field. Second, the case where the range is any unique factorization domain.

Throughout this chapter,  $S$  denotes an arithmetical semigroup and  $D$  a unique factorization domain.

**Proposition 2.1** *If the set  $P$  of all primes of  $S$  is countably infinite, then  $S$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{N}$ .*

Proof Since  $P$  is countably infinite, we can write  $P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots\}$  where  $|p_i| \leq |p_{i+1}|$ . Let the primes of  $\mathbb{N}$  be listed in any definite order  $q_1, q_2, \dots$ . Define  $\varphi : S \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  as follows: for  $1 \neq s \in S$ ,  $s = p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \dots p_k^{n_k}$  for some  $k \geq 1$ ,  $n_i \geq 0$ , let  $\varphi(s) = q_1^{n_1} q_2^{n_2} \dots q_k^{n_k}$  and  $\varphi(1) = 1$ .

Since the unique factorization holds in  $S$  and  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $\varphi$  is well-defined and one-to-one. Clearly,  $\varphi$  is onto. Let  $s, t \in S$ . If  $s = 1$  or  $t = 1$  then  $\varphi(st) = \varphi(s)\varphi(t)$ . Assume that  $s \neq 1$  and  $t \neq 1$ . Then  $s = p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \dots p_k^{n_k}$  and  $t = p_1^{m_1} p_2^{m_2} \dots p_r^{m_r}$  for some  $k, r \geq 1$ ,  $n_i, m_j \geq 0$ . Suppose that  $k \leq r$ . Then  $\varphi(st) = \varphi(p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \dots p_k^{n_k} p_1^{m_1} p_2^{m_2} \dots p_r^{m_r}) = \varphi(p_1^{n_1+m_1} p_2^{n_2+m_2} \dots p_k^{n_k+m_k} p_{k+1}^{m_{k+1}} \dots p_r^{m_r}) = q_1^{n_1+m_1} q_2^{n_2+m_2} \dots q_k^{n_k+m_k} q_{k+1}^{m_{k+1}} \dots q_r^{m_r} = q_1^{n_1} q_2^{n_2} \dots q_k^{n_k} q_1^{m_1} q_2^{m_2} \dots q_r^{m_r} = \varphi(s)\varphi(t)$ . Thus  $\varphi$  is a homomorphism. Hence  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism. #

**Corollary 2.2** ([8]) *The set of all pseudo-arithmetic functions from  $S$  to  $\mathbb{C}$  is a unique factorization domain .*

Proof If the set  $P$  of all primes of  $S$  is countably infinite , then  $S \cong \mathbb{N}$  by proposition 2.1, so  ${}_S\Omega_{\mathbb{C}} \cong {}_{\mathbb{N}}\Omega_{\mathbb{C}}$  ; hence  ${}_S\Omega_{\mathbb{C}}$  is a unique factorization domain. On the other hand if the set  $P$  is finite, say  $P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k\}$ , then by chapter I §3 ,  ${}_S\Omega_{\mathbb{C}}$  is isomorphic to a formal power series of the form  $\mathbb{C}[[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k]]$  which is a unique factorization domain , so  ${}_S\Omega_{\mathbb{C}}$  is a unique factorization domain. #

Next , we shall prove that  ${}_S\Omega_D$  is a unique factorization domain.

**Proposition 2.3**  ${}_S\Omega_D$  is an integral domain.

Proof Since  $D$  has no zero divisors ,  $\langle \alpha * \beta \rangle = \langle \alpha \rangle \langle \beta \rangle$  for all  $\alpha, \beta \in {}_S\Omega_D$  by Proposition 1.27(ii) . Let  $\alpha, \beta \in {}_S\Omega_D$  be such that  $\alpha * \beta = 0$ . Then  $\langle \alpha \rangle \langle \beta \rangle = \langle \alpha * \beta \rangle = 0$ . Then  $\langle \alpha \rangle = 0$  or  $\langle \beta \rangle = 0$  , so  $\alpha = 0$  or  $\beta = 0$  . #

The next corollary follows directly from Proposition 2.3 and  ${}_S\Omega_D \cong D_{\omega}$  .

**Corollary 2.4**  $D_{\omega}$  is an integral domain.

Recall that a commutative ring  $R$  with identity is said to satisfy the ascending chain condition for principal ideals (ACCP) if for every ascending chain  $(a_1) \subseteq (a_2) \subseteq \dots$  of principal ideals of  $R$  there is an integer  $n$  such that  $(a_i) = (a_n)$  for all  $i \geq n$  .

**Theorem 2.5** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with identity. Assume that  $R$  satisfies the ACCP. Then every nonzero non-unit element in  $R$  is a product of a finite number of irreducible factors.

Proof Let  $a$  be a nonzero non-unit element in  $R$ . If  $a$  is irreducible , we are done. Assume that  $a$  is reducible. Then there exist nonzero non-unit elements  $b_1, c_1$  in  $R$  such that  $a = b_1 c_1$  , so  $(a) \subset (b_1)$ . If both  $b_1$  and  $c_1$  are irreducible , we are done. If not

at least one of them is reducible, say  $b_1$ . By definition, there are nonzero non-unit  $b_2, c_2$  in  $R$  such that  $b_1 = b_2 c_2$ , so  $(b_1) \subset (b_2)$ . Continuing this process, we get a strictly ascending chain of principal ideals  $(a) \subset (b_1) \subset (b_2) \subset \dots$ . By the ACCP of  $R$ , this chain terminates at some  $(b_n)$ , and  $b_n$  must then be irreducible.

We have proved that for an element  $a$  which is neither zero nor a unit in  $R$ , either  $a$  is irreducible or  $a = r_1 s_1$  for  $r_1$  an irreducible and  $s_1$  is not a unit. By an argument similar to the one just made, in the latter case we can conclude  $(a) \subset (s_1)$ . If  $s_1$  is reducible, then  $s_1 = r_2 s_2$  for an irreducible element  $r_2$  with  $s_2$  not a unit. Continuing, we get a strictly ascending chain  $(a) \subset (s_1) \subset (s_2) \subset \dots$ . By assumption the chain must terminate at some  $(s_m)$  and  $s_m$  must be irreducible. Then  $a = r_1 r_2 \dots r_m s_m$ , where  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_m, s_m$  are irreducible. #

**Lemma 2.6**  *$D$  satisfies the ACCP.*

Proof Let  $(a_1) \subseteq (a_2) \subseteq (a_3) \subseteq \dots$  be an ascending chain of principal ideals of  $D$ . Without loss of generality we may assume that  $a_i \neq 0$ ; then  $a_i \neq 0$  for all  $i \geq 1$ . Then  $a_i | a_{i+1}$  for all  $i \geq 1$ . Since unique factorization holds in  $D$ , the number of factors of  $a_i$  is finite, so the chain terminates. #

**Lemma 2.7** *Every nonzero non-unit element of  ${}_s\Omega_D$  is a product of a finite number of irreducible factors.*

Proof First we shall show that  ${}_s\Omega_D$  satisfies the ACCP. Let  $(\alpha_1) \subseteq (\alpha_2) \subseteq (\alpha_3) \subseteq \dots$  be an ascending chain of principal ideals of  ${}_s\Omega_D$ . Without loss of generality we may assume that  $\alpha_i \neq 0$ ; then  $\alpha_i \neq 0$  for all  $i \geq 1$ . Fix  $i \geq 1$ . Since  $(\alpha_i) \subseteq (\alpha_{i+1})$ ,  $\alpha_i = \alpha_{i+1} * \beta_i$  for some nonzero element  $\beta_i$  of  ${}_s\Omega_D$ . Then  $\langle \alpha_i \rangle = \langle \alpha_{i+1} * \beta_i \rangle = \langle \alpha_{i+1} \rangle \langle \beta_i \rangle \geq \langle \alpha_{i+1} \rangle$ . Since  $\langle \alpha_i \rangle = |a_i|$  for some  $a_i \in S$ , we have a nonincreasing chain  $|a_1| \geq |a_2| \geq |a_3| \geq \dots$ . Since  $N_S(x)$  is finite for all  $x > 0$ ,  $N_S(|a_1|)$  is finite, so there is  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$  such that for  $j \geq n$ ,  $|a_j| = |a_n|$  i.e.  $\langle \alpha_j \rangle = \langle \alpha_n \rangle = |a_n|$ . Let  $j \geq n$ . Then  $0 \neq \alpha_j(a_n) = (\alpha_{j+1} * \beta_j)(a_n) = \sum_{xy=a_n} \alpha_{j+1}(x) \beta_j(y) = \sum_{\substack{xy=a_n \\ y=1}} \alpha_{j+1}(x) \beta_j(y) + \alpha_{j+1}(a_n) \beta_j(1) = \alpha_{j+1}(a_n) \beta_j(1)$ . Thus  $(\alpha_j(a_n)) \subseteq (\alpha_{j+1}(a_n))$ . Then we have an ascending chain  $(\alpha_n(a_n)) \subseteq (\alpha_{n+1}(a_n)) \subseteq \dots$  of nonzero principal ideals of  $D$ . By Lemma 2.6,  $D$  satisfies the ACCP, so there is an integer  $m$



such that  $(\alpha_m(a_n)) = (\alpha_j(a_n))$  for all  $j \geq m$ . Let  $j \geq m$ . Then  $\alpha_m(a_n) = u_j \cdot \alpha_j(a_n)$  for some unit  $u_j$  of  $D$ . Since  $(\alpha_m) \subseteq (\alpha_j)$ , there is a nonzero element  $\gamma_j$  of  ${}_s\Omega_D$  such that  $\alpha_m = \alpha_j * \gamma_j$ . Then  $u_j \cdot \alpha_j(a_n) = \alpha_m(a_n) = \sum_{xy=a_n} \alpha_j(x)\gamma_j(y) = \alpha_j(a_n)\gamma_j(1)$ . By unique factorization in  $D$ ,  $u_j = \gamma_j(1)$ . By Proposition 1.28,  $\gamma_j$  is a unit of  ${}_s\Omega_D$ . Then  $(\alpha_j) = (\alpha_m)$ . Then  ${}_s\Omega_D$  satisfies the ACCP. By Theorem 2.5, every nonzero non-unit element of  ${}_s\Omega_D$  is a product of a finite number of irreducible factors. #

**Theorem 2.8** *If unique factorization property fails in  ${}_s\Omega_D$ , there exists an element of the form  $\alpha * \beta = \gamma * \delta$ , where  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$  are irreducible elements having the same order and  $\alpha$  not associated with either  $\gamma$  or  $\delta$ .*

Proof Assume that unique factorization property fails in  ${}_s\Omega_D$ . Let  $A$  be the set of all nonzero non-unit elements of  ${}_s\Omega_D$  whose factorization into irreducible elements is unique and let  $B$  be the set of all nonzero non-unit elements of  ${}_s\Omega_D$  which can be factored into irreducible elements into two essentially different ways. Clearly every irreducible element of  ${}_s\Omega_D$  is in  $A$  by definition.

We shall prove that if  $\alpha$  is an element of  $B$  of minimum order  $\langle \alpha \rangle$ , and  $\alpha = \beta_1 * \beta_2 * \dots * \beta_n = \gamma_1 * \gamma_2 * \dots * \gamma_m$  are two essentially different factorizations of  $\alpha$  into irreducible elements, then necessarily  $n = m = 2$  and  $\beta_1, \beta_2, \gamma_1, \gamma_2$  all have the same order.

Note first that neither  $n$  nor  $m$  is 1 since an irreducible element is in  $A$ . Moreover, no  $\beta_i$  is the associate of any  $\gamma_j$ , for if so, cancellation would produce an element in  $B$  of order less than  $\langle \alpha \rangle$ . Without loss of generality, we may assume that  $\langle \beta_1 \rangle \leq \langle \beta_2 \rangle \leq \dots \leq \langle \beta_n \rangle$ ,  $\langle \beta_1 \rangle \leq \langle \gamma_1 \rangle$  and  $\langle \gamma_1 \rangle \leq \langle \gamma_2 \rangle \leq \dots \leq \langle \gamma_m \rangle$ . Then  $\langle \beta_1 * \gamma_1 \rangle = \langle \beta_1 \rangle \langle \gamma_1 \rangle \leq \langle \gamma_1 \rangle \langle \gamma_1 \rangle \leq \langle \gamma_1 \rangle \langle \gamma_2 \rangle \leq \langle \alpha \rangle$ . Suppose that  $\langle \beta_1 * \gamma_1 \rangle < \langle \alpha \rangle$ . Let  $\delta = \alpha - \beta_1 * \gamma_1$ . If  $\alpha = \beta_1 * \gamma_1$  then  $\beta_2 * \dots * \beta_n = \gamma_1$  and since  $\gamma_1$  is irreducible,  $n = 2$  and  $\gamma_1 \sim \beta_2$ , a contradiction. Then  $\alpha \neq \beta_1 * \gamma_1$  i.e.  $\delta \neq 0$ . Since  $\beta_1$  is irreducible and  $\beta_1 \mid \delta$ ,  $\delta$  is a non-unit. Let  $a \in S$  be such that  $|a| = \langle \beta_1 * \gamma_1 \rangle < \langle \alpha \rangle$ . Then  $(\beta_1 * \gamma_1)(a) \neq 0$  and  $\alpha(a) = 0$ , so  $\delta(a) = \alpha(a) - (\beta_1 * \gamma_1)(a) = -(\beta_1 * \gamma_1)(a) \neq 0$ . For all  $b \in S$  such that  $|b| < |a|$ ,  $(\beta_1 * \gamma_1)(b) = 0 = \alpha(b)$ , so  $\delta(b) = 0$ . Thus  $\langle \delta \rangle = |a| < \langle \alpha \rangle$ , so  $\delta \in A$ . Since the non associates  $\beta_1, \gamma_1$  both divide  $\delta$ ,  $\lambda_1 \beta_1 = \delta = \lambda_2 \gamma_1$  for some  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in {}_s\Omega_D$ . Since  $\delta \in A$ ,  $\beta_1 \sim \lambda_2$ , so  $\delta = \mu \beta_1 \gamma_1$

for some unit  $\mu \in {}_s\Omega_D$ . Then  $\beta_1 * \gamma_1 \mid \delta$ , so  $\beta_1 * \gamma_1 \mid \alpha$  i.e.  $\alpha = \beta_1 * \gamma_1 * \sigma$  for some  $\sigma \in {}_s\Omega_D$ . Thus  $\beta_2 * \dots * \beta_n = \gamma_1 * \sigma$ . But  $\langle \beta_2 * \dots * \beta_n \rangle < \langle \alpha \rangle$  and  $\beta_2 * \dots * \beta_n$  is nonzero non-unit so  $\beta_2 * \dots * \beta_n = \gamma_1 * \sigma$  is in  $A$  and  $\gamma_1$  is associated with some  $\beta_i$ , a contradiction. Then  $\langle \beta_1 * \gamma_1 \rangle = \langle \alpha \rangle$ . Thus  $\langle \beta_1 * \gamma_1 \rangle = \langle \beta_1 \rangle \langle \gamma_1 \rangle = \langle \gamma_1 \rangle \langle \gamma_1 \rangle = \langle \gamma_1 \rangle \langle \gamma_2 \rangle = \langle \alpha \rangle$ , so  $\langle \beta_1 \rangle = \langle \gamma_1 \rangle = \langle \gamma_2 \rangle$  and  $m = 2$ . Thus  $\langle \gamma_1 \rangle^2 = \langle \alpha \rangle = \langle \beta_1 \rangle \langle \beta_2 \rangle \dots \langle \beta_n \rangle \geq \langle \beta_1 \rangle^n = \langle \gamma_1 \rangle^n$  implies  $n \leq 2$ . But  $n > 1$ , so  $n = 2$  and  $\langle \beta_1 \rangle = \langle \beta_2 \rangle$ . Hence  $\beta_1 * \beta_2 = \alpha = \gamma_1 * \gamma_2$ . #

**Lemma 2.9** *Let  $D$  be a unique factorization domain. Assume that  $D_j$  is a unique factorization domain for all  $j \geq 1$ . Then all irreducible elements of  $D_\omega$  are finitely irreducible.*

Proof We first show that if  $f$  is a nonzero non-unit element in  $D_\omega$  and  $(f)_j$  reducible in  $D_j$  for all  $j \geq$  the index  $L$  of  $f$ , then  $f$  is reducible in  $D_\omega$ .

Let  $f$  be a nonzero non-unit element in  $D_\omega$  with index  $L$  and suppose that for every  $j \geq L$ ,  $(f)_j = g_j h_j$  where  $g_j$  and  $h_j$  are true factors of  $(f)_j$  in  $D_j$ . Now observe that any true factorization  $(f)_m = g_m h_m$ ,  $m > L$  induces a true factorization of  $(f)_{m-1} = (f_m)_{m-1} = (g_m)_{m-1} (h_m)_{m-1} = g_{m-1} h_{m-1}$  and so down to  $(f)_L = g_L h_L$ , where the sequence of true factors  $(g_L, g_{L+1}, \dots, g_m)$  is telescopic. From the assumption of  $f$ , we have the existence of a sequence  $K_0 = (g_{00})$ ,  $K_1 = (g_{10}, g_{11})$ ,  $K_2 = (g_{20}, g_{21}, g_{22})$ , ... of telescopic chains  $K_i$  of true factors  $g_{ij}$  ( $j = 0, 1, \dots, i$ ) of  $(f)_{L+j}$ . Since unique factorization holds in  $D_j$  for all  $j \geq 1$ , the number of true factors of  $(f)_j$  is finite. Then there is a true factor  $T_0$  of  $(f)_L$  such that there is an infinite set of the chains  $K_i$  having their first entries associate to  $T_0$ . Choose one of this set and call it  $K'_0$ . Of this infinite set, there is an infinite subset of  $K_i$  whose second entries are associate to some one true factor  $T_1$  of  $(f)_{L+1}$ . Choose one and call it  $K'_1$ . Continuing in this way we have a sequence of telescopic chains  $K'_0 = (g'_{00}, \dots)$ ,  $K'_1 = (g'_{10}, g'_{11}, \dots)$ , ... each of which extends at least to the main diagonal, such that the entries on the diagonal and below have the property that, for each  $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ,  $g'_{ij} \sim T_j$  for all  $i \geq j$ .

Now we construct a telescopic infinite chain  $K^*$  working only with the main diagonal and the diagonal next below it, as follows:

Define  $G^{(L)} = g'_{00}$ . Since  $g'_{10} \sim T_0 \sim g'_{00}$  in  $D_L$ , there is a unit  $u_L$  of  $D_L$  such that  $G^{(L)} = g'_{10} u_L = (g'_{11} u_L)_L$ . Define  $G^{(L+1)} = g'_{11} u_L$  in  $D_{L+1}$ . Then  $G^{(L)} = (G^{(L+1)})_L$ ,

$G^{(L+1)}$  is a true factor of  $(f)_{L+1}$ , and  $G^{(L+1)} \sim T_1$  in  $D_{L+1}$ . Since  $g'_{21} \sim T_1 \sim G^{(L+1)}$  in  $D_{L+1}$ , there is a unit  $u_{L+1}$  in  $D_{L+1}$  such that  $G^{(L+1)} = g'_{21} u_{L+1} = (g'_{22} u_{L+1})_{L+1}$ . Define  $G^{(L+2)} = g'_{22} u_{L+1}$  in  $D_{L+2}$ . Then  $G^{(L+1)} = (G^{(L+2)})_{L+1}$ ,  $G^{(L+2)}$  is a true factor of  $(f)_{L+2}$  and  $G^{(L+2)} \sim T_2$  in  $D_{L+2}$ . Continuing in this way, we have an infinite telescopic chain of true factors  $K^* = (G^{(L)}, G^{(L+1)}, G^{(L+2)}, \dots)$ . Then for all  $j \geq 0$ ,  $(f)_{L+j} = G^{(L+j)} H^{(L+j)}$ , where  $H^{(L+j)}$  is a nonzero non-unit element in  $D_{L+j}$ . Thus for all  $j \geq 0$ ,  $G^{(L+j)} H^{(L+j)} = (f)_{L+j} = ((f)_{L+j+1})_{L+j} = (G^{(L+j+1)})_{L+j} (H^{(L+j+1)})_{L+j} = G^{(L+j)} (H^{(L+j+1)})_{L+j}$ , so  $H^{(L+j)} = (H^{(L+j+1)})_{L+j}$  by unique factorization of  $D_{L+j}$  and  $G^{(L+j)} \neq 0$ . Then the sequence  $(H^{(L)}, H^{(L+1)}, H^{(L+2)}, \dots)$  is also a telescopic chain. By Lemma 1.17, the chains  $(G^{(L)}, G^{(L+1)}, G^{(L+2)}, \dots)$  and  $(H^{(L)}, H^{(L+1)}, H^{(L+2)}, \dots)$  have limits in  $D_\omega$ , say  $G$  and  $H$ , respectively. Then  $(G)_j = G^{(j)}$  or  $(G^{(L)})_j$ , and  $(H)_j = H^{(j)}$  or  $(H^{(L)})_j$ , according as  $j \geq L$  or  $j < L$  for  $j \geq 0$ . Then for  $j \geq L$ ,  $(f)_j = G^{(j)} H^{(j)} = (G)_j (H)_j = (GH)_j$ , and for  $j < L$ ,  $(f)_j = ((f)_L)_j = (G^{(L)} H^{(L)})_j = (G^{(L)})_j (H^{(L)})_j = (G)_j (H)_j = (GH)_j$ . Hence for every  $j \geq 0$ ,  $(f)_j = (GH)_j$ . It follows that  $f = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} (f)_j = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} (GH)_j = GH$  for the weight topology. Clearly,  $G$  and  $H$  are non-units of  $D_\omega$ , so  $f$  is reducible in  $D_\omega$ . Therefore if  $f$  is irreducible in  $D_\omega$  then there is a least integer  $P \geq L$  such that  $(f)_P$  is irreducible in  $D_P$  and for all  $j \geq P$ ,  $(f)_j$  is irreducible in  $D_j$  by Lemma 1.22, so  $f$  is finitely irreducible. #

**Theorem 2.10** *Let  $D$  be a unique factorization domain. Assume that  $D_j$  is a unique factorization domain for all  $j \geq 1$ . Then  ${}_s\Omega_D$  is a unique factorization domain.*

**Proof** Suppose that unique factorization into irreducible elements fails in  ${}_s\Omega_D$  which is isomorphic to  $D_\omega$ . By Theorem 2.8, we must have an element in  $D_\omega$  of the form  $fg = pq$  where  $f, g, p, q$  are irreducible in  $D_\omega$  and  $f$  is not associated with  $p$  or  $q$ . By Lemma 2.9,  $f, g, p, q$  are finitely irreducible, so there exists an integer  $k \geq 0$  such that  $(f)_j (g)_j = (fg)_j = (pq)_j = (p)_j (q)_j$ , where  $(f)_j, (g)_j, (p)_j$ , and  $(q)_j$  are irreducible in  $D_j$  for all  $j \geq k$ . Since unique factorization holds in  $D_j$  for all  $j \geq k$ ,  $(f)_j$  must be associated with either  $(p)_j$  or  $(q)_j$  in  $D_j$ . Then there is an infinite increasing subsequence  $\mathcal{M}$  of integers  $m \geq k$  such that either  $(f)_m \sim (p)_m$  or  $(f)_m \sim (q)_m$  in  $D_m$  for all  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ . Without loss of generality, we may assume the first case. Then for each  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ ,  $(f)_m = u_m (p)_m$ , where  $u_m$  is a unit of  $D_m$ . If  $m < n$  are any two integers in  $\mathcal{M}$ ,

then  $u_m(p)_m = (f)_m = ((f)_n)_m = (u_n)_m((p)_n)_m = (u_n)_m(p)_m$ , so  $u_m = (u_n)_m$  by unique factorization of  $D_m$ . Thus the sequence  $(u_m)_{m \in \mathcal{M}}$ , is telescopic and so has a limit in  $D_\omega$ , say  $u$ . Clearly,  $u$  is a unit of  $D_\omega$ . Then  $f = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} (f)_m = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} (up)_m = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} (u)_m \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} (p)_m = up$ . Therefore  $f \sim p$ , a contradiction. Hence unique factorization holds in  $D_\omega$ , so does  ${}_s\Omega_D$ . #

The next corollary follows from Theorem 2.10 and  $({}_s\Omega_D)_k \cong D[[x_1, \dots, x_k]] = D_k$ .

**Corollary 2.11** *Let  $D$  be a unique factorization domain such that the subrings  $({}_s\Omega_D)_k$  of  ${}_s\Omega_D$  are unique factorization domains for all  $k \geq 1$ . Then  ${}_s\Omega_D$  is a unique factorization domain.*



## CHAPTER III

### CASE OF ZERO DIVISORS

Chin Pi-Lu[10] has proved that under appropriate conditions the ring of all arithmetic functions over a unique factorization domain is a unique factorization domain. In this chapter, we consider the case where the unique factorization domain is replaced by a unique factorization ring  $\mathcal{R}$  with zero divisors. We shall prove that under similar conditions the ring of all arithmetic function over  $\mathcal{R}$  is a unique factorization ring with zero divisors.

**Proposition 3.1**  ${}_{\mathbb{N}}\Omega_{\mathcal{R}}$  has zero divisors.

Proof Let  $x$  be a zero divisor of  $\mathcal{R}$ . Then there exists a  $y \in \mathcal{R} - \{0\}$  such that  $xy = 0$ . Define two functions  $\alpha, \beta \in {}_{\mathbb{N}}\Omega_{\mathcal{R}}$  by  $\alpha(1) = x$ ,  $\beta(1) = y$  and  $\alpha(a) = 0 = \beta(a)$  for all  $a \neq 1$ . Then  $(\alpha * \beta)(1) = \alpha(1)\beta(1) = xy = 0$  and for all  $a \neq 1$ ,  $(\alpha * \beta)(a) = \sum_{bc=a} \alpha(b)\beta(c) = 0$ . Thus  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are nonzero elements in  ${}_{\mathbb{N}}\Omega_{\mathcal{R}}$  and  $\alpha * \beta = 0$ . Hence  ${}_{\mathbb{N}}\Omega_{\mathcal{R}}$  has zero divisors. #

**Proposition 3.2** The ring  $\mathcal{R}_{\omega}$  of formal power series over  $\mathcal{R}$  has zero divisors.

Proof Since  $\mathcal{R}$  is a subring of  $\mathcal{R}_{\omega}$ , zero divisors in  $\mathcal{R}$  are zero divisors in  $\mathcal{R}_{\omega}$  too. #

**Lemma 3.3** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be any commutative rings with identity. Assume that  $A$  is isomorphic to  $B$ . If  $A$  satisfies the ACCP then so does  $B$ .

Proof Let  $\varphi$  be an isomorphism between  $A$  and  $B$ . Let  $(\beta_1) \subseteq (\beta_2) \subseteq (\beta_3) \subseteq \dots$  be an ascending chain of principal ideals in  $B$ . Since  $\beta_{i+1} \mid \beta_i$  in  $B$ , there is  $\delta_i \in B$  such that  $\beta_i = \beta_{i+1} \delta_i$ . Since  $\varphi$  is onto,  $\beta_i = \varphi(\alpha_i)$  and  $\delta_i = \varphi(\gamma_i)$  for some  $\alpha_i, \gamma_i \in A$ . Then  $\varphi(\alpha_i) = \beta_i = \beta_{i+1} \delta_i = \varphi(\alpha_{i+1}) \varphi(\gamma_i) = \varphi(\alpha_{i+1} \gamma_i)$ . By injectivity of  $\varphi$ ,  $\alpha_i = \alpha_{i+1} \gamma_i$ . Then for all  $i \geq 1$ ,  $(\alpha_i) \subseteq (\alpha_{i+1})$ . By the ACCP in  $A$ , there is an  $r \geq 1$  such that for all  $i \geq 0$ ,  $(\alpha_r) = (\alpha_{r+i})$ . Then for all  $i \geq 0$ ,  $\alpha_{r+i} = \alpha_r \mu_i$  for some unit  $\mu_i$  in  $A$ . Thus for

$i \geq 0$ ,  $\beta_{r+i} = \varphi(\alpha_{r+i}) = \varphi(\alpha_r \mu_i) = \varphi(\alpha_r) \varphi(\mu_i) = \beta_r \varphi(\mu_i)$ ; obviously,  $\varphi(\mu_i)$  is a unit in  $B$ . Then  $(\beta_r) = (\beta_{r+i})$  for all  $i \geq 0$ . Hence  $B$  satisfies the ACCP. #

**Lemma 3.4**  *$\mathcal{R}$  satisfies the ACCP.*

Proof Let  $(a_1) \subseteq (a_2) \subseteq (a_3) \subseteq \dots$  be an ascending chain of principal ideals of  $\mathcal{R}$ . Without loss of generality we may assume that  $a_1 \neq 0$ ; then  $a_i \neq 0$  for all  $i \geq 1$ . Then  $a_i \mid a_1$  for all  $i \geq 2$ . Since unique factorization holds in  $\mathcal{R}$ , the number of factors of  $a_1$  is finite, so the chain is finite. #

**Proposition 3.5** *Every nonzero non-unit element in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  is a product of a finite number of irreducible factors.*

Proof First we shall show that  ${}_{\mathbb{N}}\Omega_{\mathcal{R}}$  satisfies the ACCP. Let  $(\alpha_1) \subseteq (\alpha_2) \subseteq (\alpha_3) \subseteq \dots$  be an ascending chain of principal ideals of  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$ . Without loss of generality we may assume that  $\alpha_1 \neq 0$ ; then  $\alpha_i \neq 0$  for all  $i \geq 1$ . Fix  $i \geq 1$ . Since  $(\alpha_i) \subseteq (\alpha_{i+1})$ ,  $\alpha_i = \alpha_{i+1} * \beta_i$  for some nonzero element  $\beta_i$  of  ${}_{\mathbb{N}}\Omega_{\mathcal{R}}$ . Then  $\langle \alpha_i \rangle = \langle \alpha_{i+1} * \beta_i \rangle \geq \langle \alpha_{i+1} \rangle \langle \beta_i \rangle \geq \langle \alpha_{i+1} \rangle$ . Thus we have a descending chain of positive integers  $\langle \alpha_1 \rangle \geq \langle \alpha_2 \rangle \geq \dots$ , so there are  $n, k \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for  $j \geq n$ ,  $\langle \alpha_j \rangle = \langle \alpha_n \rangle = k$ . Let  $j \geq n$ . Then  $0 \neq \alpha_j(k) = (\alpha_{j+1} * \beta_j)(k) = \sum_{\substack{xy=k \\ y \neq 1}} \alpha_{j+1}(x) \beta_j(y) = \sum_{\substack{xy=k \\ y \neq 1}} \alpha_{j+1}(x) \beta_j(y) + \alpha_{j+1}(k) \beta_j(1) = \alpha_{j+1}(k) \beta_j(1)$ . Thus  $(\alpha_j(k)) \subseteq (\alpha_{j+1}(k))$ .

Then we have the ascending chain  $(\alpha_n(k)) \subseteq (\alpha_{n+1}(k)) \subseteq \dots$  of nonzero principal ideals of  $\mathcal{R}$ . By Lemma 3.4,  $\mathcal{R}$  satisfies the ACCP, so there is an integer  $m$  such that  $(\alpha_m(k)) = (\alpha_j(k))$  for all  $j \geq m$ . Let  $j \geq m$ . Then  $\alpha_m(k) = u_j \cdot \alpha_j(k)$  for some unit  $u_j$  of  $\mathcal{R}$ . Since  $(\alpha_m) \subseteq (\alpha_j)$ , there is a nonzero element  $\gamma_j$  of  ${}_{\mathbb{N}}\Omega_{\mathcal{R}}$  such that  $\alpha_m = \alpha_j * \gamma_j$ . Then  $u_j \cdot \alpha_j(k) = \alpha_m(k) = \sum_{xy=k} \alpha_j(x) \gamma_j(y) = \alpha_j(k) \gamma_j(1)$ . Since  $\mathcal{R}$  satisfies a weak cancellation law,  $u_j \sim \gamma_j(1)$ , so  $\gamma_j$  is a unit of  ${}_{\mathbb{N}}\Omega_{\mathcal{R}}$  by Proposition 1.28. Thus  $(\alpha_j) = (\alpha_m)$ . Then  ${}_{\mathbb{N}}\Omega_{\mathcal{R}}$  satisfies the ACCP, so  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  satisfies the ACCP by Lemma 3.3. By Theorem 2.5, every nonzero non-unit element of  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  is a product of a finite number of irreducible factors. #

**Lemma 3.6** *Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be a UFRZ such that  $\mathcal{R}_j$  is a UFRZ for all  $j \geq 1$  and  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  is compact. Then all irreducible elements of  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  are finitely irreducible .*

Proof We claim that if  $f$  is a nonzero non-unit element in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  and  $(f)_j$  reducible in  $\mathcal{R}_j$  for all  $j \geq$  the index  $L$  of  $f$ , then  $f$  is reducible in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$ .

Let  $f$  be a nonzero non-unit element in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  with index  $L$  and suppose that for every  $j \geq L$ ,  $(f)_j$  is reducible in  $\mathcal{R}_j$ . Then we can construct an infinite telescopic chain  $(G^{(L)}, G^{(L+1)}, G^{(L+2)}, \dots)$ , where  $G^{(L+j)}$  is a true factor of  $(f)_{L+j}$  in  $\mathcal{R}_{L+j}$ , by the same method as in Lemma 2.9. This chain has a limit in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$ , say  $G$ . Then for all  $j \geq 0$ ,  $(f)_{L+j} = G^{(L+j)}H^{(L+j)}$ , where  $H^{(L+j)}$  is a nonzero non-unit element in  $\mathcal{R}_{L+j}$ , so  $G^{(L+j)}H^{(L+j)} = (f)_{L+j} = ((f)_{L+j+1})_{L+j} = (G^{(L+j+1)})_{L+j}(H^{(L+j+1)})_{L+j} = G^{(L+j)}(H^{(L+j+1)})_{L+j}$ . Then  $H^{(L+j)} \sim (H^{(L+j+1)})_{L+j}$  by the weak cancellation law of  $\mathcal{R}_{L+j}$ . Thus the sequence  $(H^{(L)}, H^{(L+1)}, H^{(L+2)}, \dots)$  is a pseudo-telescopic chain. By Lemma 1.20, there is a subchain  $(H^{(L+j_k)})$  of  $(H^{(L+j)})$  which converges to a  $H \in \mathcal{R}_\omega$ . Then  $f = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (f)_{j_k} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (G^{(L+j_k)}H^{(L+j_k)}) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} G^{(L+j_k)} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} H^{(L+j_k)} = GH$ . Clearly,  $G$  and  $H$  are non-units of  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$ , so  $f$  is reducible in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$ . Thus we have the claim. Therefore if  $f$  is irreducible in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  then there is a least integer  $P \geq L$  such that  $(f)_P$  is irreducible in  $\mathcal{R}_P$  and for all  $j \geq P$ ,  $(f)_j$  is irreducible in  $\mathcal{R}_j$  by Lemma 1.22, so  $f$  is finitely irreducible. #

**Lemma 3.7** *Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be a UFRZ such that  $\mathcal{R}_j$  is a UFRZ for all  $j \geq 1$ ,  $f, g$  any elements of  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  and  $D^{(j)}$  a greatest common divisor of  $(f)_j$  and  $(g)_j$  in  $\mathcal{R}_j$ . Then  $(D^{(j+1)})_j \sim D^{(j)}$  for all  $j \geq$  a certain non-negative integer,  $J(f, g)$ .*

Proof If  $f$  or  $g$  is zero then the assertion is trivial. Assume that  $f$  and  $g$  are nonzero. Let  $n$  be the least positive integer such that  $(f)_n \neq 0$ ,  $(g)_n \neq 0$  and  $i$  any integer  $\geq n$ . Since  $\mathcal{R}_i$  is a UFRZ, we can represent  $D^{(i)}$  as a finite product of irreducible elements of  $\mathcal{R}_i$ ; denote by  $\lambda(D^{(i)})$  the number of all irreducible factors (not necessarily distinct) of  $D^{(i)}$ . Since  $(D^{(i+1)})_i$  is a factor of  $D^{(i)}$ ,  $\lambda(D^{(i)}) \geq \lambda(D^{(i+1)})$ . Note that the projection

of each irreducible factor of  $D^{(i+1)}$  on  $\mathcal{R}_i$  may not be irreducible in  $\mathcal{R}_i$ . Thus we have the following descending chain of non-negative integers :

$\lambda(D^{(n)}) \geq \lambda(D^{(n+1)}) \geq \dots$ . Then there exists integers  $j$  and  $k$  such that  $k = \lambda(D^{(n+j+m)})$  for all  $m \geq 0$ . This means that for every  $m \geq n+j$ , the projection of each irreducible factor of  $D^{(m+1)}$  on  $\mathcal{R}_m$  is also irreducible and moreover  $(D^{(m+1)})_m \sim D^{(m)}$ . We denote  $n+j$  by  $J(f,g)$ . #

**Theorem 3.8** *Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be a UFRZ such that  $\mathcal{R}_j$  is a UFRZ for all  $j \geq 1$  and  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  is compact. Then  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  is a UFRZ.*

Proof Since  $\mathcal{R}$  is a UFRZ,  $\mathcal{R}$  satisfies the ACCP by Lemma 3.4. By Theorem 2.5, every nonzero non-unit element of  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  is a finite product of irreducible factors. We shall apply Proposition 1.35 to show that  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  is a UFRZ. First we shall prove that any two elements  $f$  and  $g$  of  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$ , not both zero, have a greatest common divisor. Since the assertion is trivial for the case where either  $f = 0$  or  $g = 0$ , we assume that  $f$  and  $g$  are nonzero. Let  $n$  be the least positive integer such that  $(f)_n \neq 0$  and  $(g)_n \neq 0$ . Let  $D^{(i)}$  be a greatest common divisor of  $(f)_i$  and  $(g)_i$  for all  $i \geq n$ . We construct an infinite telescopic chain  $(E^{(J)}, E^{(J+1)}, \dots)$  with the initial term in  $\mathcal{R}_J$ , where  $J = J(f,g)$  is as in Lemma 3.7, as follows. Put  $E^{(J)} = D^{(J)}$ . By Lemma 3.7,  $D^{(J)} \sim (D^{(J+1)})_J$  in  $\mathcal{R}_J$ , so there exists a unit  $u^{(J)}$  in  $\mathcal{R}_J$  such that  $D^{(J)} = u^{(J)}(D^{(J+1)})_J = (u^{(J)}D^{(J+1)})_J$ , we take  $E^{(J+1)} = u^{(J)}D^{(J+1)}$ . Then  $(E^{(J+1)})_J = E^{(J)}$  and  $E^{(J+1)}$  is a greatest common divisor of  $(f)_{J+1}$  and  $(g)_{J+1}$  in  $\mathcal{R}_{J+1}$ . By Lemma 3.7,  $E^{(J+1)} \sim (D^{(J+2)})_{J+1}$  in  $\mathcal{R}_{J+1}$ , so there exists a unit  $u^{(J+1)}$  in  $\mathcal{R}_{J+1}$  such that  $E^{(J+1)} = u^{(J+1)}(D^{(J+2)})_{J+1} = (u^{(J+1)}D^{(J+2)})_{J+1}$ . We take  $E^{(J+2)} = u^{(J+1)}D^{(J+2)}$ . Then  $(E^{(J+2)})_{J+1} = E^{(J+1)}$  and  $E^{(J+2)}$  is a greatest common divisor of  $(f)_{J+2}$  and  $(g)_{J+2}$  in  $\mathcal{R}_{J+2}$ . Continuing in this way, we have a telescopic chain  $(E^{(J)}, E^{(J+1)}, E^{(J+2)}, \dots)$ . This chain has a limit  $E$  in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$ . Let  $F^{(j)}$  and  $G^{(j)}$  be two elements in  $\mathcal{R}_j$  such that  $(f)_j = E^{(j)}F^{(j)}$  and  $(g)_j = E^{(j)}G^{(j)}$  for all  $j \geq J$ ; then  $E^{(j)}F^{(j)} = (f)_j = ((f)_{j+1})_j = (E^{(j+1)})_j(F^{(j+1)})_j = E^{(j)}(F^{(j+1)})_j$ , so  $(F^{(j+1)})_j \sim F^{(j)}$  by the weak cancellation law in  $\mathcal{R}_j$ . Similarly, we have  $(G^{(j+1)})_j \sim G^{(j)}$  for all  $j \geq J$ . Then the sequences  $(F^{(J)}, F^{(J+1)}, F^{(J+2)}, \dots)$  and  $(G^{(J)}, G^{(J+1)}, G^{(J+2)}, \dots)$  are pseudo-telescopic



chains . Since  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  is compact , there are convergent subchains  $(F^{(J+ j_k)})$  and  $(G^{(J+ i_k)})$  of  $(F^{(J+j)})$  and  $(G^{(J+i)})$  , respectively. These two subchains have limits in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  , say  $F$  and  $G$  , respectively. Then  $f = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (f)_{j_k} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (E^{(J+ j_k)} F^{(J+ j_k)}) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} E^{(J+ j_k)} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} F^{(J+ j_k)} = EF$  and  $g = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (g)_{i_k} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (E^{(J+ i_k)} G^{(J+ i_k)}) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} E^{(J+ i_k)} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} G^{(J+ i_k)} = EG$  . Thus  $E$  is a common divisor of  $f$  and  $g$  . To show that  $E$  is a greatest common divisor of  $f$  and  $g$  in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$ , we let  $E^*$  be any common divisor of  $f$  and  $g$  in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  . Let  $j \geq J$ . Then  $(E^*)_j$  is a common divisor of  $(f)_j$  and  $(g)_j$  in  $\mathcal{R}_j$  . Since  $(E)_j$  is a greatest common divisor  $(f)_j$  and  $(g)_j$  in  $\mathcal{R}_j$  ,  $(E)_j = h^{(j)}(E^*)_j$  , where  $h^{(j)} \in \mathcal{R}_j$  . Then  $h^{(j)}(E^*)_j = (E)_j = ((E)_{j+1})_j = (h^{(j+1)}(E^*)_{j+1})_j = (h^{(j+1)})_j(E^*)_j$  , so  $h^{(j)} \sim (h^{(j+1)})_j$  by the weak cancellation law in  $\mathcal{R}_j$ . Thus we get a pseudo-telescopic chain  $(h^{(J)}, h^{(J+1)}, \dots)$  , so by compactness this chain has a subchain  $(h^{(J+ j_k)})$  which converges to a limit  $h$  in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  by Lemma 1.20 . Then  $E = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (E)_{j_k} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (h^{(J+ j_k)}(E^*)_{j+ j_k}) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} h^{(J+ j_k)} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (E^*)_{j+ j_k} = hE^*$  . Hence  $E$  is a greatest common divisor of  $f$  and  $g$  in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$ . Lastly we show that  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  satisfies a weak cancellation law. Let  $f, g$  and  $h \in \mathcal{R}_\omega$  be such that  $fg = fh \neq 0$ . Then there are integers  $n$  and  $k$  for which  $(fg)_j = (fh)_j \neq 0$  for all  $j \geq n$  and  $(f)_i \neq 0$  for all  $i \geq k$  . Choose  $m = \max\{n, k\}$ . Let  $j \geq m$  . Then we get  $(f)_j(g)_j = (fg)_j = (fh)_j = (f)_j(h)_j \neq 0$  . By the weak cancellation law in  $\mathcal{R}_j$  ,  $(g)_j \sim (h)_j$  , so there is a unit  $u^{(j)}$  in  $\mathcal{R}_j$  such that  $(g)_j = u^{(j)}(h)_j$  . Thus we get a sequence  $(u^{(m)}, u^{(m+1)}, \dots)$  of units in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$ . The definition of compactness of  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  implies that this sequence have a subsequence  $(u^{(m+ j_k)})$  , which converges to a unit  $u$  in  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$ . Then  $g = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (g)_{j_k} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (u^{(m+ j_k)}(h)_{m+ j_k}) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} u^{(m+ j_k)} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (h)_{m+ j_k} = uh$ . Therefore  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  satisfies a weak cancellation law . By Proposition 1.35 ,  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  is a UFRZ . #

The following Corollaries are consequences of Theorem 3.8 .

**Corollary 3.9** *If  $\mathcal{R}$  is a UFRZ such that  $\mathcal{R}_j$  is a UFRZ for each positive integer  $j$  and  $\mathcal{R}_\omega$  is compact , then  ${}_N\Omega_{\mathcal{R}}$  is a UFRZ .*

**Corollary 3.10** *If  $\mathcal{R}$  is a UFRZ such that the subring  $({}_N\Omega_{\mathcal{R}})_k$  of  ${}_N\Omega_{\mathcal{R}}$  is a UFRZ for each positive integer  $k$ , then  ${}_N\Omega_{\mathcal{R}}$  is a UFRZ.*



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## VITA

Name Pathira Ruengsinsup



Degree B.Sc.(Mathematics) , 1996  
Kasetsart University , Bangkok , Thailand .

Scholarship University Development Commission (U.D.C.) ,  
Thai Government , 1997-1998

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