УДК 512.12

O. V. RAVSKY

PARATOPOLOGICAL GROUPS I

O. V. Ravsky. Paratopological groups, I, Matematychni Studii, 16 (2001) 37–48.

We consider properties of paratopological groups, in particular, related to cardinal invariants, metrization, and minimality. An example of a regular paratopological group admitting no weaker Hausdorff group topology is presented.

А. В. Равский. Паратопологические группы, І // Математичні Студії. – 2001. – Т.16, №1. – С.37–48.

Рассматриваются свойства паратопологических групп, в частности, связанные с кардинальными инвариантами, метризацией и минимальностью. Приводится пример регулярной партопологической группы, не допускающей более слабой хаусдорфовой топологии.

1. General properties

A group G with topology τ is called a paratopological group if the multiplication on the group G is continuous. In this case the topology τ is called a paratopology. If the inversion on the group G is continuous then (G,τ) is a topological group. Hence, all translations and interior automorphisms of a paratopological group are homeomorphisms.

Proposition 1.1. For a group with topology (G, τ) the following conditions are equivalent:

- I. (G, τ) is a paratopological group.
- II. The following Pontrjagin conditions [1] are satisfied for basis $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_{\tau}$ at the unit e of G.
 - 1. $(\forall U, V \in \mathcal{B})(\exists W \in \mathcal{B}) : W \subset U \cap V$.
 - 2. $(\forall U \in \mathcal{B})(\exists V \in \mathcal{B}): V^2 \subset U$.
 - 3. $(\forall U \in \mathcal{B})(\forall x \in U)(\exists V \in \mathcal{B}): xV \subset U$.
 - 4. $(\forall U \in \mathcal{B})(\forall x \in G)(\exists V \in \mathcal{B}): x^{-1}Vx \subset U$. The paratopological group G is Hausdorff if and only if
 - 5. $\bigcap \{UU^{-1}: U \in \mathcal{B}\} = \{e\}.$ The paratopological group G is a topological group if and only if
 - 6. $(\forall U \in \mathcal{B})(\exists V \in \mathcal{B}): V^{-1} \subset U$.
- III. Let $\mathcal S$ be a subbase of the topology τ and for every points $x,y\in G$ and every neighborhood $U\in \mathcal S$ of the point xy there exist neighborhoods $V,W\in \mathcal S$ of the points x,y respectively such that $VW\subset U$.

 $^{2000\} Mathematics\ Subject\ Classification:\ 22A15,\ 22A30.$

For a group G, by $\mathcal{P}(G)$ we denote the set of all paratopologies on the group G. For paratopologies $\tau_1, \tau_2 \in \mathcal{P}(G)$ put $\tau_1 \wedge \tau_2 = \sup\{\tau \in \mathcal{P}(G) : \tau \subset \tau_1 \cap \tau_2\}, \ \tau_1 \vee \tau_2 = \inf\{\tau \in \mathcal{P}(G) : \tau \supset \tau_1 \cup \tau_2\}.$

Proposition 1.2. Let τ_1, τ_2 be paratopologies on a group G with bases at the unit $\mathcal{B}_1, \mathcal{B}_2$ respectively. Then $\mathcal{B}_1 \vee \mathcal{B}_2 = \{U_1 \cap U_2 : U_i \in \mathcal{B}_i\}$ is a base at the unit of the paratopology $\tau_1 \vee \tau_2$.

A paratopological group G with a base at the unit \mathcal{B} is a SIN-group (Small Invariant Neighborhoods), if $(\forall U \in \mathcal{B})(\exists V \in \mathcal{B})(\forall x \in G) : x^{-1}Vx \subset U$.

Proposition 1.3. Let τ_1, τ_2 be paratopologies on a group G with bases at the unit $\mathcal{B}_1, \mathcal{B}_2$ respectively. If τ_1 is a SIN-paratopology then $\mathcal{B}_1 \wedge \mathcal{B}_2 = \{U_1U_2 : U_i \in \mathcal{B}_i\}$ is a base at the unit of the paratopology $\tau_1 \wedge \tau_2$. Moreover, if τ_2 is a SIN-paratopology then $\tau_1 \wedge \tau_2$ is a SIN-paratopology.

For $\tau \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{G})$ put $\tau^{-1} = \{U^{-1} : U \in \tau\}$. Then $\tau^* = \tau \wedge \tau^{-1}$ is the finest group topology weaker than τ on the group G, which is called the *corresponding to* τ group topology. Proposition 1.3 implies that if τ is a Hausdorff SIN-paratopology then τ^* is a Hausdorff SIN-group topology.

Remark. If τ is a Hausdorff paratopology then τ^* is not necessarily a Hausdorff paratopology (see Section 4).

For a topology τ , by \overline{A}^{τ} we denote the closure of a set A in the topology τ .

Proposition 1.4. Let τ_1 and τ_2 be paratopologies on a group G and τ_1 a SIN-paratopology such that τ_1^*, τ_2^* are Hausdorff and $\tau_1^* \vee \tau_2^*$ is discrete. Then the topology $\tau_1 \wedge \tau_2$ is Hausdorff. Moreover, if τ_1 and τ_2 are regular then $\tau_1 \wedge \tau_2$ is regular.

Proof. We show that the topology $\tau_1^* \wedge \tau_2^*$ is Hausdorff. Let $U_i \in \mathcal{B}_{\tau_i^*}$ and $U_1^{-1}U_1 \cap U_2U_2^{-1} = \{e\}$. Let $x \in U_1U_2 \setminus \{e\}$. Then $x = u_1u_2$, where $u_i \in U_i$. Then there exist neighborhoods $W_i \in \mathcal{B}_{\tau_i^*}, W_i \subset U_i$ such that $u_1 \notin W_1$ or $u_2 \notin W_2$. Suppose that $x \in W_1W_2$ then $x = w_1w_2$, where $w_i \in W_i$. Hence $U_1^{-1}U_1 \cap U_2U_2^{-1} \ni u_1^{-1}w_1 = u_2w_2^{-1} = e$. Thus $u_1 = w_1$ and $u_2 = w_2$, a contradiction. Hence the topology $\tau_1 \wedge \tau_2$ is Hausdorff.

Suppose that the paratopologies τ_1 and τ_2 are regular. Let $U_i \in \mathcal{B}_{\tau_i}$ and $(U_1U_1^{-1})^2 \cap (U_2U_2^{-1})^2 = \{e\}$. It suffices to show that $\overline{U_1U_2}^{\tau_1\tau_2} \subset \overline{U_1}^{\tau_1}\overline{U_2}^{\tau_2}$. Suppose that $x \in \overline{U_1U_2}^{\tau_1\tau_2}$. Then $x \in \bigcap \{U_1U_2V_2^{-1}V_1^{-1}: V_i \in \mathcal{B}_{\tau_i}\} \subset \bigcup \{U_1V_1^{-1}U_2V_2^{-1}: V_i \in \mathcal{B}_{\tau_i}\}$, since τ_1 is a SIN-paratopology. If $x \notin \overline{U_1}^{\tau_1}\overline{U_2}^{\tau_2}$ then there exist two different representations $x = u_1u_2 = w_1w_2$, where $u_i, w_i \in U_iU_i^{-1}$ Hence $(U_1^{-1}U_1)^2 \cap (U_2U_2^{-1})^2 \ni u_1^{-1}w_1 = u_2w_2^{-1} = e$. Thus $u_1 = w_1$ and $u_2 = w_2$, a contradiction. Hence the topology $\tau_1 \wedge \tau_2$ is regular.

Question 1.1. Let τ_1 and τ_2 be Hausdorff group topologies on a group G such that $\tau_1 \vee \tau_2$ is discrete. Is the topology $\tau_1 \wedge \tau_2$ Hausdorff?

A subsemigroup S of a group G is said to be *normal* if $x^{-1}Sx \subset S$ for every $x \in G$. For every normal submonoid S of the group G by τ_S we denote the paratopology with the base $\{xS : x \in G\}$. Then $\tau_S = \inf\{\tau \in \mathcal{P}(G) : S \in \tau\}$.

Example 1.1. Sorgenfrey arrow. $(\mathbb{R}, \tau_s) = (\mathbb{R}, \tau_{\mathbb{R}_+} \wedge \tau)$, where τ is the standard topology on \mathbb{R} and $\mathbb{R}_+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \geq 0\}$.

Example 1.2. Let $G = (\mathbb{R}^2, +)$. Put $\mathcal{B} = \{\{(0,0)\} \cup \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : (x-1/n)^2 + y^2 < 1/n^2\} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Then \mathcal{B} is a base at the zero of a paratopology on the group G.

Example 1.3. The p-arrow. Let p be a natural number. Put $(\mathbb{Z}, \tau) = (\mathbb{Z}, \tau_{Z_+} \wedge \tau_p)$, where τ_p has a base at the unit $\mathcal{B}_p = \{p^n\mathbb{Z} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and $\mathbb{Z}_+ = \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$.

Example 1.4. The set-set topology. Let (X, τ) be a topological space, H(X) be the group of all homeomorphisms of the space X. Let \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} be families of subsets of the space X. For $U \in \mathcal{U}, V \in \mathcal{V}$ put $(U, V) = \{f \in H(X) : f(U) \subset V\}$. Put $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V}) = \{(U, V) : U \in \mathcal{U}, V \in \mathcal{V}\}$. If $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$ is a subbase for some paratopology $T(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$ on the group H(X) then $T(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$ is called a set-set topology.

Proposition 1.5. Let $(H(X), T(\mathcal{U}, \tau))$ is a paratopological group. If \mathcal{U} is a π -network of the space (X, τ) then for every $U \in \mathcal{U}, V \in \tau$ we have $\overline{(U, V)} \subset (U, \overline{V})$.

Proof. Let $U \in \mathcal{U}, V \in \tau$ and $f \notin (U, \overline{V})$. Then $f^{-1}(X \setminus \overline{V}) \cap U \neq \emptyset$ and therefore there exists a set $W \in \mathcal{V}$ such that $W \subset f^{-1}(X \setminus \overline{V}) \cap U$. Then $f \in (W, X \setminus \overline{V})$ and $(W, X \setminus \overline{V}) \cap (U, V) = \emptyset$.

We shall use the following definitions. Let \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} be families of subsets of a set X. Let $f: X \to Y, g: Z \to X$ be maps then $f(\mathcal{U}) = \{\{(\mathcal{U}): \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{U}\}, g^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) = \{g^{-1}(\mathcal{U}): \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{U}\}.$

Proposition 1.6. If one of the following conditions is satisfied then $(H(X), T(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V}))$ is a paratopological group.

- 1. $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{V}$ and $f(\mathcal{U}) \subset \mathcal{U}$ for every $f \in H(X)$. Moreover, if X is T_1 -space and $\mathcal{U} = \tau$ then the topology $T(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$ is zero dimensional.
- 2. The space X is normal and \mathcal{U} is the family $\exp X$ of all closed subsets in (X, τ) , $\mathcal{V} = \tau$. The topology $T(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$ is regular.
- 3. The space X is locally compact and \mathcal{U} is the family $\exp_c X$ of all compact sets in (X, τ) , $\mathcal{V} = \tau$. Moreover, if X is either compact or locally connected then $(H(X), T(\exp_c X, \tau))$ is a topological group [2].

Proof. By Proposition 1.1 it suffices to show that for every maps $f_1, f_2 \in H(X)$ and for every neighborhood $(U_1, V_2) \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$ of $f_1 f_2$ there exist sets $V_1 \in \mathcal{V}, U_2 \in \mathcal{U}$ such that $f_i \in (U_i, V_i)$ and $(U_1, V_1)(U_2, V_2) \subset (U_1, V_2)$.

- 1. Put $V_1 = U_2 = f_2^{-1}(V_2)$. Let $\mathcal{U} = \tau$, $f \notin (U, V) \in \mathcal{S}(\tau, \tau)$. Let $x \in U$ be such that $f(x) \notin V$. Then $f \in (X \setminus \{x\}, X \setminus \{f(x)\})$ and $(U, V) \cap (X \setminus \{x\}, X \setminus \{f(x)\}) = \emptyset$.
- 2. There exists a neighborhood V_1 of $f_1(U_1)$ such that $f_2(\overline{V}_1) \subset V_2$. Put $U_2 = \overline{V}_1$. Let $U \in \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} \in \tau$ and $f \in (U, V)$. There exists a neighborhood $W \in \tau$ such that $f(U) \subset W \subset \overline{W} \subset V$. Then Proposition 1.4 implies that $f \in (U, f(U)) \subset (U, W) \subset \overline{(U, W)} \subset (U, \overline{W}) \subset (U, V)$.
- 3. For every point $t \in f_1(U_1)$ there exists a neighborhood V_t of t such that \overline{V}_t is compact and $f_2(\overline{V}_t) \subset V_2$. Thus there exist $t_1, \ldots, t_m \in f_1(U_1)$ such that $V_1 = \bigcup V_{t_i} \supset f_1(U_1)$. Therefore $U_2 = \overline{V}_1$ is compact and $f_2(U_2) \subset V_2$.

Example 1.5. Let τ be the standard topology on \mathbb{R} . Consider a set-set topology $T(\exp_1 \mathbb{R}, \tau)$ on $H(\mathbb{R})$ where $\exp_1 \mathbb{R}$ is the family of all singletons in \mathbb{R} . Then $T(\exp_1 \mathbb{R}, \tau) = T(\exp_2 \mathbb{R}, \tau)$.

It is well known that every T_0 topological group is completely regular. For paratopological groups the situation with the separation axioms is worse.

Example 1.6. $T_0 \not\Rightarrow T_1$. Put $G = (\mathbb{R}, +)$ and $\tau = \{x + [0; \infty) : x \in \mathbb{R}\}.$

Example 1.7. $T_1 \not\Rightarrow T_2$. Put $G = (\mathbb{R}, +)$ and $\tau = \{x + [y; \infty) : x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}.$

Example 1.8. $T_2 \not\Rightarrow T_3$ Put $G = \mathbb{R}^2$. Define a base \mathcal{B} at the unit of the group G putting $\mathcal{B} = \{\{(0,0)\} \cup \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 0 < x,y < 1/n\} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Also the space of Example 1.2 is Hausdorff non regular.

Question 1.2. Is every regular paratopological group completely regular?

Proposition 1.7. For every disjoint compact subsets K_1, K_2 of a Hausdorff paratopological group G there exists a neighborhood U of the unit such that $UK_1 \cap UK_2 = \emptyset$.

Proof. For every points $x \in K_1, y \in K_2$ there exists a neighborhood V(x,y) of the unit such that $V(x,y)x \cap V(x,y)y = \emptyset$. Let U(x,y) be a neighborhood of the unit such that $U(x,y)^2 \subset V(x,y)$. For every $x \in K_1$ choose a finite family $\mathcal{Y}(x)$ such that $K_2 \subset \bigcup \{U(x,y)y : y \in \mathcal{Y}(x)\}$. Put $U(x) = \bigcap \{U(x,y) : y \in \mathcal{Y}(x)\}$. There exists a finite family \mathcal{X} such that $K_1 \subset \bigcup \{U(x)x : x \in \mathcal{X}\}$. Put $U = \bigcap \{U(x) : x \in \mathcal{X}\}$. Then $UK_1 \cap UK_2 \subset U \bigcup \{U(x)x : x \in \mathcal{X}\} \cap UK_2 \subset \bigcup \{U(x)^2x : x \in \mathcal{X}\} \cap UK_2 = \bigcup \{U(x)^2x \cap UK_2 : x \in \mathcal{X}\} \subset \bigcup \{U(x)^2x \cap U(x,y)^2y : x \in \mathcal{X}, y \in \mathcal{Y}(x)\} = \emptyset$. \square

Proposition 1.8. Let G be a paratopological group, $K \subset G$ be a compact subspace, $F \subset G$ be a closed set and $K \cap F = \emptyset$. Then there exists a neighborhood U of the unit such that $UK \cap F = \emptyset$.

Proof. For every point $x \in K$ there exists a neighborhood V(x) of the unit such that $V(x)x \cap F = \emptyset$. Let U(x) be a neighborhood of the unit such that $U(x)^2 \subset V(x)$. There exists a finite family \mathcal{X} such that $K \subset \bigcup \{U(x)x : x \in \mathcal{X}\}$. Put $U = \bigcap \{U(x) : x \in \mathcal{X}\}$. Then $UK \cap F \subset U \bigcup \{U(x)x : x \in \mathcal{X}\} \cap F \subset \bigcup \{U(x)^2x : x \in \mathcal{X}\} \cap F = \emptyset$.

Example 1.9. Let G be the Sorgenfrey arrow, $F = \{-1/n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Then F is a closed subset of G but $U \cap U + F \neq \emptyset$ for every neighborhood U of the zero.

A subgroup of a paratopological group G is a subgroup of G endowed with the induced from G topology. Clearly, any subgroup of a paratopological group is again a paratopological group.

Proposition 1.9. Every open subgroup of a paratopological group is closed.

Proposition 1.10. The center of a Hausdorff paratopological group is a closed normal subgroup.

Proposition 1.11. The component of the unit of a paratopological group is a closed normal subgroup.

Proof. Let C be the component of the unit of a paratopological group G. Since a connected component is closed in every topological space, C is closed. Let $x \in C$. Then $x^{-1}C \subset C$, because $x^{-1}C$ is a connected set containing the unit of the group G. Then $\bigcup \{x^{-1}C : x \in C\} = C^{-1}C \subset C$ hence C is a group. The subgroup C is normal, because for every $x \in G$ a set $x^{-1}Cx$ is a connected set containing the unit of the group G.

Remark. The closure of a subgroup of a paratopological group in general is not a paratopological group [3].

Let H be a subgroup of a paratopological group (G, τ) . Define a topology $\tilde{\tau}$ on the space of left cosets G/H of the group G in the following way. A set U is open in G/H if and only if $\pi^{-1}(U)$ is open in G, where $\pi \colon G \to G/H$ is the natural projection, $\pi(x) = xH$.

Proposition 1.12. The map π is continuous and open, the space $(G/H, \tilde{\tau})$ is homogeneous. Moreover, if the subgroup H is normal then the multiplication xHyH = xyH in G/H is continuous and $(G/H, \tilde{\tau})$ is a paratopological group.

Proof. The continuity of the map π is obvious. If $U \subset G$ is an open set then $\pi^{-1}\pi(U) = UH$ and hence $\pi(U)$ is open. The space G/H is homogeneous, because the translations $l_a \colon xH \to axH$ are homeomorphisms.

Now let H be a normal subgroup of the group G. If \tilde{U} is a neighborhood of the point $\tilde{c} = \tilde{a}\tilde{b}$ then c = ab for some representatives a, b, c from the classes $\tilde{a}, \tilde{b}, \tilde{c}$ respectively. For a neighborhood $U = \pi^{-1}(\tilde{U}) \ni c$ there exist neighborhoods $V_1(a)$ and $V_2(b)$ such that $V_1(a)V_2(b) \subset U$. Thus $\pi(V_1(a))\pi(V_2(b)) \subset \tilde{U}$ and G/H is a paratopological group. \square

Proposition 1.13. If H is compact then the map π is closed. If the space (G, τ) is Hausdorff then the space $(G/H, \tilde{\tau})$ is Hausdorff. If the space (G, τ) is regular then the space $(G/H, \tilde{\tau})$ is regular.

Proof. Let F be a closed subset of the group G. Let $\tilde{x} \in G/H \setminus \pi(F)$. Consider an arbitrary point $x \in \pi^{-1}(\tilde{x})$. Then $xH \cap F = \emptyset$. By Proposition 8 there exists on open neighborhood U of the unit such that $UxH \cap F = \emptyset$. Then $\tilde{x} \in \pi(Ux)$ and $\pi(Ux) \cap \pi(F) = \emptyset$ thus the map π is closed.

Let G be Hausdorff and $\tilde{x}_1, \tilde{x}_2 \in G/H$. Consider arbitrary points $x_i \in \pi^{-1}(\tilde{x}_i)$. Then $x_1H \cap x_2H = \emptyset$. By Proposition 1.7 there exists on open neighborhood U of the unit such that $Ux_1H \cap Ux_2H = \emptyset$. Then $\tilde{x}_i \in \pi(Ux_i)$ and $\pi(Ux_1) \cap \pi(Ux_2) = \emptyset$ thus the space G/H is Hausdorff.

Let G be regular, \tilde{F} be a closed subset of G/H and $\tilde{x} \in G/H \setminus \tilde{F}$. Consider an arbitrary point $x \in \pi^{-1}(\tilde{x})$. Then $x \notin \pi^{-1}(\tilde{F})$. Proposition 8 and regularity of G imply that there exists on open neighborhood U of the unit such that $\overline{U}x \cap \pi^{-1}(\tilde{F}) = \emptyset$. Then $\tilde{x} \in \pi(Ux)$ and $\overline{\pi(Ux)} \cap \tilde{F} = \emptyset$, thus the space G/H is regular.

Corollary 1.1. Let H be a compact subgroup of a paratopological group G, F be a closed subset of G. Then FH is a closed subset of G.

Proof. Let $\pi: G \to G/H$ be the standard projection. Then $FH = \pi^{-1}\pi(F)$ is a closed subset of G.

The product of a family of paratopological groups $\{G_{\alpha} : \alpha \in A\}$ is the product $\prod G_{\alpha}$ endowed with the Tychonov product topology. The box product of a family of paratopological groups $\{G_{\alpha} : \alpha \in A\}$ is the product $\prod G_{\alpha}$ endowed with the box product topology. It is easy to see that both the product and the box product of a family of paratopological groups is again a paratopological group.

Example 1.11. Let $G = (\mathbb{Q}, \tau_s | \mathbb{Q})^2$, where (R, τ_s) is the Sorgenfrey arrow. Let Q be an arbitrary dense proper subgroup of \mathbb{Q} . Then $H = \{(x, -x) : x \in Q\}$ is a closed subgroup of G. Let $\pi : G \to G/H$ be the standard projection. If $x \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus Q$ then the points $\pi(x, -x)$ and $\pi(0,0)$ have no disjoint neighborhoods in the quotient topology of G/H.

Let $K = \{(0,0)\} \cup \{(1/n,0) : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Then K is a compact subset of G but H + K is not closed.

Proposition 1.14. Let G_1, G_2 be paratopological groups, $f: G_1 \to G_2$ be a homeomorphism. Then f is continuous (open) if and only if f is continuous (open) at the unit of the group G_1 .

Theorem on continuous epimorphism. Let G and H be paratopological groups, $\varphi \colon G \to H$ be a continuous epimorphism, $N = \ker \varphi$. Let a map $\sigma \colon G/N \to H$ be defined as $\sigma(xN) = \varphi(x)$. Then the diagram

$$G \xrightarrow{\varphi} H$$

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is commutative and σ is a continuous isomorphism. Moreover, if the map φ is open then σ is a topological isomorphism.

Proof. The map φ is well-defined, because $\{\varphi(y)\} = \varphi(x)\varphi(N) = \{\varphi(x)\}$ for every $y \in xN$. It is clear that σ is a bijection. If U is a neighborhood of the unit in H then $\varphi^{-1}(U)$ is a neighborhood of the unit in G and $\sigma\pi\varphi^{-1}(U) \subset U$. Hence σ is a continuous isomorphism. Similarly we can show that the map σ is open provided the map φ is open.

We shall write $G_1 \simeq G_2$ if paratopological groups G_1 and G_2 are topologically isomorphic.

Corollary 1.2. Let N and L be normal subgroups of a paratopological group G and $L \subset N$. Then $G/N \simeq (G/L)/(N/L)$.

Proof. Consider the commutative diagram:

$$G \xrightarrow{\pi_N} G/N$$

$$\pi_L \downarrow \qquad \varphi \qquad \qquad \uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad$$

Define a map $\varphi \colon G/L \to G/N$ putting $\varphi(xL) = xN$. The Theorem on continuous epimorphism implies that φ is a continuous open epimorphism with the kernel G/L. Using once again the Theorem on continuous epimorphism we obtain that $G/N \simeq (G/L)/(N/L)$.

Theorem on isomorphism. Let G be a paratopological group, H be a subgroup of G and N be a normal subgroup of G. Then HN is a subgroup of G, N is a normal subgroup of G and the map $\sigma \colon H/(H \cap N) \to (NH)/N$ defined as $\sigma(h(H \cap N)) = hN$ is a homomorphic compression.

Proof. Let $\varphi = \pi | H$. Then $\varphi(H) = (HN)/N$ and $\ker \varphi = \{h \in H : hN = N\} = H \cap N$. Therefore $H \cap N$ is a normal subgroup of the group H. It remains to apply to H and φ the Theorem on continuous epimorphism.

Example 1.12. Let $G = (\mathbb{R}^2, +)$. Let τ_1 be the topology on the group G from Example 1.2, τ_2 has the base at the zero $\{\{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 0 \le x < 1/n, |y| \le x\} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}\}$. Let $H = (\mathbb{R}, 0)$. Then $\tau_1 \subset \tau_2$, $\tau_1|H = \tau_2|H$ and $\tau_1/H = \tau_2/H$ but $\tau_1 \ne \tau_2$.

Example 1.13. For a paratopological group G by $\operatorname{Aut}(G)$ we denote the group of automorphisms of the group G. Let H be a subgroup of the group $\operatorname{Aut}(G)$ and the map $\sigma\colon H\times G\to G,\ (h,x)\mapsto h(x)$ is continuous. Then the topological product $G\times_{\sigma}H$ with multiplication $(x_1,h_1)(x_2,h_2)=(x_1h_1(x_2),h_1h_2)$ for every $(x_1,h_1),(x_2,h_2)\in G\times H$ is a paratopological group. This group is called the semidirect product of the groups G and H.

2. Cardinal invariants

A function φ defined on the class \mathcal{C} of paratopological groups is called a *cardinal function* if it assigns to each member $G \in \mathcal{C}$ an infinite cardinal number $\varphi(G)$. Now we shall list the cardinal functions to be examined in what follows. Remark that in the below definitions $\min^*\{\cdot\} = \omega \cdot \min\{\cdot\}$ and $\sup^*\{\cdot\} = \omega \cdot \sup\{\cdot\}$.

Boundedness: Let λ be an ordinal. A paratopological group is left (right) λ -bounded if for every open set U there exists a set $A \subset G$ such that $|A| \leq \lambda$ and AU = G (UA = G). A paratopological group is left (right) totally bounded if for every open set U there exists a finite set $A \subset G$ such that AU = G (UA = G). $bn(G) = \min^* \{\lambda \in \text{Card} : G \text{ is } \lambda\text{-bounded}\}$.

Question 2.1. (I. Guran) Is every left totally $(\omega$ -)bounded paratopological group a right totally $(\omega$ -)bounded?

Cellurarity: $c(G) = \sup^* \{ |\mathcal{U}| : \mathcal{U} \text{ is a disjoint family of open subsets of } G \}.$

Character: $\chi(G) = \min^* \{ |\mathcal{B}| : \mathcal{B} \text{ is a neighborhood base at unit of } G \}.$

Density: $d(G) = \min^* \{ |S| : S \subset G, \overline{S} = G \}.$

Network weight: $nw(G) = \min^* \{ |\mathcal{U}| : \mathcal{U} \text{ is a network for } G \}.$

Pseudocharacter: $\psi(G) = \min^* \{ |\mathcal{U}| : \mathcal{U} \text{ is a family of open sets and } \bigcap \mathcal{U} = \{e\} \}.$

Spread: $s(G) = \sup^* \{ |S| : S \subset G, S \text{ is discrete as a subspase} \}.$

Weakly Lindelöf degree: $wl(G) = \min^* \{ \lambda \in \text{Card} : \text{in every open cover } \mathcal{V} \text{ there exists a subfamily } \mathcal{U} \subset \mathcal{V} \text{ such that } \overline{\mathcal{U}} = G \text{ and } |\mathcal{U}| \leq \lambda \}.$

Weight: $w(G) = \min^* \{ |\mathcal{U}| : \mathcal{U} \text{ is an open base for } G \}.$

Proposition 2.1. (I. Guran) Let G be a paratopological group such that int $U^{-1} \neq \emptyset$ for every open set $U \subset G$. Then $bn(G) \leq wl(G)$.

Question 2.2. (I. Guran) Let G be a paratopological group and $c(G) \leq \omega$ (respectively $wl(G) \leq \omega$). Is G ω -bounded?

Proposition 2.2. Let G be a paratopological group, H be a subgroup of G. Then $\varphi(G) \leq \varphi(H)\varphi(G/H)$ where $\varphi \in \{d, \psi\}$.

Proof. Let $\varphi = \psi$. Let $\{e\} = H \cap \bigcap \mathcal{U}$ and $\pi(e) \bigcup \tilde{\mathcal{U}}$, where \mathcal{U} and $\tilde{\mathcal{U}}$ are families of open sets of H and G/H respectively and $|\mathcal{U}| \leq \psi(H), |\tilde{\mathcal{U}}| \leq \psi(G/H)$. Then $\{e\} = \bigcap \mathcal{U} \cap \bigcap \pi^{-1}(\tilde{\mathcal{U}})$.

Let $\varphi = d$. Let $D \subset H$, $\overline{D} = H$ and |D| = d(H). Let $\tilde{D} \subset G$, $\pi(\tilde{D}) = G/H$ and $|\tilde{D}| = d(G/H)$. Consider an arbitrary nonempty open set $U \subset G$. There exists a point $x \in \tilde{D}$ such that $\pi(x) \in \pi(U)$. Then $x^{-1}U \cap H \neq \emptyset$ and hence there exists a point $y \in D$ such that $y \in x^{-1}U \cap H$. Therefore the set $\tilde{D}D$ is dense in G and $|\tilde{D}D| \leq d(H)d(G/H)$. \square

If \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} are families of subsets of a semigroup then we put $\mathcal{U}\mathcal{V} = \{UV : U \in \mathcal{U}, V \in \mathcal{V}\}.$

Proposition 2.3. If M is a monoid with continuous multiplication and open translations then $w(M) = nw(M)\chi(M)$.

Proof. Clearly, $w(M) \geq nw(M)\chi(M)$. Let \mathcal{B} be a base at the unit of the monoid M, $|\mathcal{B}| \leq \chi(M)$. Let \mathcal{N} be a network of the monoid M, $|\mathcal{N}| \leq nw(M)$. Then $\mathcal{B}\mathcal{N}$ is a base of the monoid M and $|\mathcal{B}\mathcal{N}| \leq nw(M)\chi(M)$.

Example 2.1. Let $G = (\mathbb{R}, \tau_s)$ be the Sorgenfrey arrow. Then $s(G) = \omega$ but $s(G^2) = 2^{\omega}$.

3. Memorization

Let X be a topological space, $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}_+$ be a function. Consider the following conditions

M1.
$$(\forall x \in X) : d(x, x) = 0$$
.

M2.
$$(\forall x, y \in X) : d(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y$$
.

M3.
$$(\forall x, y \in X) : d(x, y) = d(y, x)$$
.

M4.
$$(\forall x, y, z \in X) : d(x, z) \le d(x, y) + d(y, z)$$
.

If the function d satisfies all the conditions then it is called a *metric*. If the function d satisfies all the conditions but M2 then it is called a *pseudometric*. If the function d satisfies all the conditions but M3 then it is called a *quasimetric*. If the function d satisfies all the conditions but M2 and M3 then it is called a *pseudoquasimetric*.

Let $x \in X$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. The set $B_d(x,\varepsilon) = \{y \in X : d(x,y) < \varepsilon\}$ is called a *ball* with center at the point x and radius ε . A topological space (X,τ) is *pseudoquasimetrizable* if there is a metric on X such that the balls $\{B_d(x,\varepsilon) : x \in X, \varepsilon > 0\}$ form a base of the topology τ . The notions of *metrizable*, *quasimetrizable* and *pseudometrizable* spaces are defined similarly.

Let G be a group with the unit e. A function $d: G \times G \to \mathbb{R}_+$ is left (two-side) invariant if for arbitrary elements x, y, a, b of the group G we have d(ax, ay) = d(x, y) (d(axb, ayb) = d(x, y)).

Let $d: G \times G \to \mathbb{R}_+$ be a left invariant function. Define a function $f_d: G \to \mathbb{R}_+$ putting $f_d(x) = d(e, x)$. Conversely, every function $f: G \to \mathbb{R}_+$ defines a left invariant function $d_f: G \times G \to \mathbb{R}_+$ as $d_f(x, y) = f(x^{-1}y)$. The function $d = d_f$ is two-side invariant if and only if $f_d(y^{-1}xy) = f_d(x)$ for every $x, y \in G$. The function $d = d_f$ satisfies one of the conditions M1-M4 if and only if $f = f_d$ satisfies the respective condition.

N1.
$$f(e) = 0$$
.

N2.
$$(\forall x \in X) : f(x) = 0 \iff x = e$$
.

N3.
$$(\forall x \in X) : f(x) = f(x^{-1}).$$

N4.
$$(\forall x, y \in X) : f(xy) \le f(x) + f(y)$$
.

If $d = d_f$ is a left (two-side) invariant metric then the function $f = f_d$ is an (invariant) norm. The notions of pseudonorm, quasinorm and pseudoquasinorm are defined similarly. The topology on the group G generated by the pseudoquasinorm d_f is denoted by τf . The family $\{\{x \in G : f(x) < \varepsilon\} : \varepsilon > 0\}$ is a base at the unit of the group $(G, \tau f)$.

Lemma 3.1. Let $\{U_k|k \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be a sequence of neighborhoods of the unit e of a paratopological group G such that $U_{k+1}^2 \subset U_k, k \in \mathbb{N}$, and let $H = \bigcap \{U_k|k \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Then there exists a pseudoquasinorm g on the group G such that

1.
$$g(x) = 0 \iff x \in H$$
.

2.
$$g(x) \le 2^{-k+2}$$
, if $x \in U_k$.

3.
$$g(x) \ge 2^{-k}$$
, if $x \notin U_k$.

4. If
$$(\forall x \in G)(\forall k \in \mathbb{N}) : U_k^x = U_k$$
, then g is invariant.

Proof. Put $V_{2^{-k}} = U_k, k \in \mathbb{N}$. Define sets V_r for every binary rational number r, 0 < r < 1 as follows. If $r = 2^{-l_1} + 2^{-l_2} + \cdots + 2^{-l_n}, \ 0 < l_1 < l_2 < \cdots < l_n$, then put $V_r = V_{2^{-l_1}} + V_{2^{-l_2}} + \cdots + V_{2^{-l_n}}$. If $r \geq 1$ then put $V_r = G$. Remark that $V_r \subset V_s$ for every binary rational r < s. Indeed if $s \geq 1$ then $V_r \subset G = V_s$. Suppose that r, s < 1. Let $r = \sum_{i=1}^n 2^{-l_i}, \ s = \sum_{j=1}^p 2^{-m_j}, \ \text{where } 0 < m_1 < m_2 < \cdots < m_p$. There exists a unique number k such that $l_j = m_j$ for j < k and $l_k > m_k$. Let $W = V_{2^{-l_1}} \cdots V_{2^{-l_{k-1}}}$. Then

$$V_{r} = WV_{2^{-l_{k}}} \cdots V_{2^{-l_{n}}} \subset WV_{2^{-l_{k}}} \cdots V_{2^{-l_{n}}} V_{2^{-l_{n}}} \subset WV_{2^{-l_{k}}} \cdots V_{2^{-l_{n+1}}} \subset WV_{2^{-l_{k}}} \cdots V_{2^{-l_{n-1}}} V_{2^{-l_{n-1}}} \subset WV_{2^{-m_{k}}} = V_{2^{-m_{1}}} \cdots V_{2^{-m_{k}}} \subset V_{2^{-m_{1}}} \cdots V_{2^{-m_{k}}} V_{2^{-m_{k+1}}} \cdots V_{2^{-m_{p}}} = V_{s}.$$

Remark that for every natural l and $r = 2^{-l_1} + 2^{-l_2} + \cdots + 2^{-l_n}$ we have

$$V_r V_{2^{-l}} \subset V_{r+2^{-l+2}}.$$
 (*)

Indeed if $r + 2^{-l+2} \ge 1$ then embedding (*) is trivial. Suppose that $r + 2^{-l+2} < 1$. If $l > l_n$ then embedding (*) is obvious. Let $l \le l_n$. Select a number k such that $l_{k-1} < l \le l_k$. Let $r_1 = 2^{-l+1} - 2^{-l_k} - 2^{-l_{k+1}} - \cdots - 2^{-l_n}$ and $r_2 = r + r_1$. Then $r < r_2 < r + 2^{-l+1}$ and

$$V_r V_{2^{-l}} \subset V_{r_2} V_{2^{-l}} \subset V_{r_2+2^{-l}} \subset V_{r+2^{-l+1}+2^{-l}} \subset V_{r+2^{-l+2}}.$$

Define a function $\varphi \colon G \to \mathbb{R}_+$ putting $\varphi(x) = \inf\{r \colon x \in V_r\}$ and a function $g \colon G \to \mathbb{R}$ putting $g(x) = \sup\{\varphi(zx) - \varphi(z) \colon z \in G\}$. It is easy to see that for every elements $x, y \in G$ the following conditions hold (a) $\varphi(x) = 0 \iff x \in H$; (b) $g(x) \geq 0$ and g(e) = 0; (c) $g(xy) \leq g(x) + g(y)$.

Now we check that the function q satisfies the conditions of the theorem.

Let k be a natural number and $x \in V_{2^{-k}}$. Let z be an arbitrary element of the group G. If $z \in V_r$ then condition (*) implies that $zx \in V_{r+2^{-k+2}}$ hence $\varphi(zx) - \varphi(z) \le 2^{-k+2}$. Therefore $g(x) \le 2^{-k+2}$ and condition 2 is satisfied. Condition 3 is satisfied, because for every $x \in U_k$ we have $g(x) \ge \varphi(x) - \varphi(e) = 2^{-k}$. Condition 1 is an implication of conditions 2 and 3.

Suppose now that all neighborhoods U_k are invariant. Then $\varphi(y^{-1}xy) = \varphi(x)$ for every $x, y \in G$ and thus

$$g(y^{-1}xy) = \sup\{\varphi(zy^{-1}xy) - \varphi(z) : z \in G\} = \sup\{\varphi(yzy^{-1}x) - \varphi(yzy^{-1}) : z \in G\} = \sup\{\varphi(tx) - \varphi(t) : t \in G\} = g(x).$$

Proposition 3.1. A paratopological group is quasimetrizable by a left invariant metric if and only if it is first countable. A paratopological group is quasimetrizable by two-side invariant metric if and only if it is a first countable SIN-group.

Proof. The necessity is obvious. We prove the sufficiency. Let $\{V_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be a countable base at the unit of the group G. By induction we can construct a sequence $\{U_k\}$ of open neighborhoods of the unit such that $U_{k+1}^2 \subset U_k \cap V_1 \cap \cdots \cap V_k$ and if G is a SIN-group then all neighborhoods U_k are invariant. Then the sequence $\{U_k\}$ satisfies the conditions of the previous proposition and therefore there exists an (invariant) quasinorm g on the group G. Since

$${x \in G : g(x) < 2^{-k}} \subset U_k \subset {x \in G : g(x) < 2^{-k+2}},$$

the topology of the group G is generated by the quasinorm q.

Example 3.1. Let (G,τ) be a p-arrow. Then the topology of G can be generated by the quasinorm

$$g(n) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n = 0\\ 1, & \text{if } n < 0\\ p^{-s}, & \text{where } s \text{ is the maximal degree of } p \text{ dividing } n, \text{ if } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

but the quasinorm g is not continuous on the group (G, τ) .

Question 3.1. Is every first countable Tikhonov paratopological group quasimetrizable by a continuous left invariant quasimetric?

Proposition 3.2. If a paratopological group G is metrizable by a left invariant metric then G is a topological group.

Proof. Let d be a norm generating the paratopology of the group G. Then $\mathcal{B} = \{\{x \in G : f(x) < \varepsilon\} : \varepsilon > 0\}$ is a base of the unit of the group G consisting of symmetric neighborhoods, hence G is a topological group.

Example 3.2. The rational points of the Sorgenfrey arrow is a regular space with countable base, hence it is a metrizable paratopological group which is not a topological group.

Question 3.2. Is every Moore paratopological group metrizable?

4. Minimality

Proposition 1.3 implies that every Hausdorff SIN-paratopology on a group can be weakened to a Hausdorff group SIN-topology. In [4] I. Guran asks: can every Hausdorff paratopology on a group be weakened to a Hausdorff group topology? The following example gives the negative answer to this question.

Let F be a free semigroup over a set X. A word $w = y_1 \cdots y_n \in F$, $y_i \in X$ is reduced if there is no pair $y_i y_{i+1}$ such that $y_i^{-1} = y_{i+1}$. A reduced word is cyclic reduced if $y_1^{-1} \neq y_n$.

Lemma 4.1. [5, Theorem 5.5] Let G be a group generated by an alphabet $A = \{t, b, c, \ldots\}$ with a relation $r^n = 1$ where r is cyclic reduced and n > 1. Let w, v be words over the alphabet A and w = v in the group G. Let the word w be reduced and there exists a letter $a \in A$ which is contained in the word w but which is not contained in the word v. Then there exists a subword s of the word w which also is a subword of the word $r^{\pm n}$ such that $l(s) > (n-1)l(r^n)/n$, where l(s) and $l(r^n)$ denote the lengths of the words s and r^n respectively.

Let G be a group, $A \subset G$ be a set. Then the normal closure of the set A is the smallest normal subgroup of the group G containing the set A.

Corollary 4.1. Let F^2 be a free group over $\{x,y\}$, N be a normal closure of the element $r^2 = (xy^{-1})^2$. Let $S \subset G$ be a semigroup generated by the elements x an y. Then $SS^{-1} \cap N = \{e\}$.

Proof. Let $w \in SS^{-1} \cap N$ be a nontrivial reduced word. Then Lemma 4.1 implies that w must contain the subword s of length 3 such that $s \notin SS^{-1}$, which is impossible. \square

Example 4.1. Let n be a natural number and F_n^2 be a free group over $\{x_n, y_n\}$. Let G be the direct product of the groups F_n^2 . Let $S_n \subset F_n^2$ be the semigroup generated by the elements x_n and y_n . Denote the direct product $\prod_{m\geq n} S_m$ by U_n .

We show that the family $\mathcal{B} = \{U_n : \bar{n} \in \mathbb{N}\}$ satisfies Pontrjagin conditions 1-4. Condition 1 is satisfied because $U_n \cap U_m \supset U_{\max(m,n)}$. Conditions 2 and 3 are satisfied since U_n are semigroups. Let $U_n \in \mathcal{B}$ and $w \in G$. There exists a number m such that $w \in \prod_{i=1}^m F_i^2$. Then $w^{-1}U_{\max(m,n)+1}w = U_{\max(m,n)+1} \subset U_n$. Hence condition 4 is satisfied. Therefore \mathcal{B} is a base at the unit of some (not necessarily Hausdorff) paratopology on the group G.

Let F_n be a factor group of the group F_n^2 by the relation $r_n^2 = (x_n y_n^{-1})^2$, $\varphi_n \colon F_n^2 \to F_n$ be the canonical homomorphism and $N_n = \ker \varphi_n$. Let $\mathbb{Z}_3 = \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ and $\psi_n \colon F_n^2 \to \mathbb{Z}_3$ be a homomorphism such that $\psi_n(x_n) = 0$ and $\psi_n(y_n) = 1$. Define a map $\psi \colon G \to \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \prod F_n$ as follows. Let $w = w_1 \cdots w_n \in G$ where $w_i \in F_i^2$. Put $\psi(w) = (\sum \psi_i(w_i), \prod \varphi_i(w_i))$. Let $G' = \psi(G)$ and τ' be the quotient topology on the group G'.

We show that τ' is a Hausdorff topology. Let $\mathcal{B}' = \{\psi(U_n) : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Therefore \mathcal{B}' is a base at the unit of the paratopology τ' . Verify condition 5 for the family \mathcal{B}' . Let $w \in G \setminus \text{ker } \psi$. If $w \in G \setminus \prod N_n$ then there exists a number n such that $w \in \prod_{i=1}^n F_i^2$. Then $\psi(U_{n+1}) \cap \psi(wU_{n+1}) = \emptyset$. Suppose that $w \in \prod N_n$. Let $w = w_1 \cdots w_n$, where $w_i \in F_i^2$. Since $\psi(w) \neq e$, we see that $\sum \psi_i(w_i) \neq 0$. Therefore there exists a number i such that $\psi(w_i) \neq 0$. Since $w_i \in N_i$, Corollary implies that $w_i \notin S_i S_i^{-1}$. Then $\psi(U_1) \cap \psi(wU_1) = \emptyset$. Therefore the topology τ' is Hausdorff.

We show that $\psi(U_n)$ is a clopen subset of the group G' for every n and hence τ' is a zero-dimensional topology. Let $w \in G$ and $\psi(w) \in \overline{\psi(U_n)}$. Let $w = w_1 \cdots w_m$, where $w_i \in F_i^2$. There exist elements $u \in U_{m+1}, v \in U_n$ such that $wuv^{-1} \in \ker \psi$. Let $u = u_{m+1} \cdots u_k, v = v_n \cdots v_k$, where $u_i, v_i \in F_i^2$. Then $u_i v_i^{-1} \in N_i$ for $i \geq m+1$. Since $u_i v_i^{-1} \in S_i S_i^{-1}$ for every i, Corollary implies that $u_i = v_i$ for $i \geq m+1$. Therefore $w \prod_{i=n}^m v_i^{-1} = wuv^{-1} \in \ker \psi$ and $\psi(w) = \psi(v_n \cdots v_m) \in \psi(U_n)$

The topology τ' cannot be weakened to a Hausdorff group topology on the group G', because $(\psi(U_n)\psi(U_n)^{-1})^2 \ni (\psi(x_n)\psi(y_n)^{-1})^2 = (1,e)$ for every natural n.

A topology on a quasifield is called a *ring topology* if the multiplication, the addition, and the subtraction on the quasifield are continuous, that is the additive group of the quasifield is a topological group and the multiplicative group of the quasifield is a paratopological group. If the multiplicative group of the quasifield is a paratopological SIN-group then the topology is called a *SIN-topology*. A topology on a quasifield is called a *quasifield topology* if the additive and multiplicative groups of the quasifield are topological groups. Recall that the following problem is still open: can every Hausdorff ring topology on a quasifield be weakened to a Hausdorff quasifield topology?

Proposition 4.1. Every Hausdorff ring SIN-topology on a quasifield can be weakened to a Hausdorff quasifield SIN-topology.

Proof. Let (K, τ) be such a quasifield. Let K^* be the multiplicative group of the quasifield K. We can expose Pontrjagin conditions for the base $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_{\tau}$ at the unit 1 of K in the following form.

- 1. $(\forall U, V \in \mathcal{B})(\exists W \in \mathcal{B}) : W \subset U \cap V$.
- 2. $(\forall U \in \mathcal{B})(\exists V \in \mathcal{B}): V^2 \subset U$.
- 3. $(\forall U \in \mathcal{B})(\forall x \in U)(\exists V \in \mathcal{B}) : xV \subset U$.
- 4. $(\forall U \in \mathcal{B})(\exists V \in \mathcal{B})(\forall x \in K^*): x^{-1}Vx \subset U$.

- 5. $\bigcap \{UU^{-1} : U \in \mathcal{B}\} = \{1\}.$
- 6. $(\forall U \in \mathcal{B})(\exists V \in \mathcal{B}): V V + V \subset U$.
- 7. $(\forall U \in \mathcal{B})(\forall x \in K)(\exists V \in \mathcal{B}) : x(V V) \subset U U$.

These conditions show that we can choose a base \mathcal{B} consisting of invariant neighborhoods, that is such that xU = Ux for every $U \in \mathcal{B}$ and $x \in K$. Put $\mathcal{B}' = \{UU^{-1} : U \in \mathcal{B}\}$. Clearly, the family \mathcal{B}' satisfies conditions 1-5 and that $U' = (U')^{-1}$ for every neighborhood $U' \in \mathcal{B}'$. Therefore we must show only that the family \mathcal{B}' satisfies conditions 6 and 7. Let $U \in \mathcal{B}$. Select a neighborhood $V \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $V^3 - V^3 + V^3 \subset U$. Then $VV^{-1} - VV^{-1} + VV^{-1} \subset (V^3 - V^3 + V^3)V^{-3} \subset UU^{-1}$, hence condition 6 is satisfied. Let $U \in \mathcal{B}$ and $x \in K$. Select a neighborhood $V \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x(V^2 - V^2)U - U$ and V^2U . Then $x(VV^{-1} - VV^{-1})x(V^2 - V^2)V^{-2}U - UU^{-1}UU^{-1}UU^{-1} - UU^{-1}$.

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Faculty of Mechanics and Mathematics, Lviv National University, Universytetska 1, Lviv, 79000, Ukraine

Received 20.04.2001