## CLASSIFIGATION OF FINITE SPACES OF ORDERINGS

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1. Introduction. A space of orderings will refer to what was called a "set of quasi-orderings" in [5]. That is, a space of orderings is a pair $(X, G)$ where $G$ is an elementary 2 -group (i.e. $x^{2}=1$ for all $x \in G$ ) with a distinguished element $-1 \in G$, and $X$ is a subset of the character group $\chi(G)=$ Hom ( $G,\{1,-1\}$ ) satisfying the following properties:
$0_{1}: X$ is a closed subset of $\chi(G)$.
$0_{2}: \sigma(-1)=-1$ holds for all $\sigma \in X$.
$0_{3}: X^{\perp}=\{a \in G \mid \sigma a=1$ for all $\sigma \in X\}=1$.
$0_{4}$ : If $f$ and $g$ are forms over $G$ and it $x \in D_{f \oplus g}$, then there exist $y \in D_{f}$ and $z \in D_{0}$ such that $x \in D_{\langle y, z\rangle}$.

Property $0_{4}$ contains some undefined terms which are defined below:
Terminology. A form (of dimension $n$ ) over $G$ is a symbol $f=\left\langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle$ with $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in G$. The signature of such a form at $\sigma \in X$ is the integer $\sigma f$ defined by $\sigma f=\sum_{1}^{n} \sigma\left(a_{i}\right)$. Two forms $f, g$ are said to be congruent (denoted $f \equiv g$, or $f \equiv g(\bmod X))$ if they have the same dimension and the same signature at each $\sigma \in X$. We say a form $f$ represents $x \in G$ if there exist $x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n} \in G$ such that $f \equiv\left\langle x, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle . D_{f}$ denotes the set of all elements of $G$ represented by $f$. If $f=\left\langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle$ and $g=\left\langle b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}\right\rangle$, their sum and product are $f \oplus g=\left\langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}\right\rangle$ and

$$
f \otimes g=\left\langle a_{1} b_{1}, \ldots, a_{1} b_{m}, \ldots, a_{n} b_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} b_{m}\right\rangle
$$

For $a \in G$, af will denote the form $\langle a\rangle \otimes f$, and $-a$ will denote the element of $G$ defined by $-a=(-1) a$, where -1 is the distinguished element of $G$.

For $S$ any subset of $G, S^{\perp}$ will denote the group of all characters of $G$ satisfying $\sigma(s)=1$ for all $s \in S$. Similarly, if $T \subseteq \chi(G)$,

$$
T^{\perp}=\{a \in G \mid \sigma(a)=1 \quad \text { for all } \sigma \in T\}
$$

Two spaces of orderings $(X, G)$ and $\left(X^{\prime}, G^{\prime}\right)$ are considered equivalent (denoted $(X, G) \backsim\left(X^{\prime}, G^{\prime}\right)$ ) if there exists a group isomorphism $\alpha: G \cong G^{\prime}$ such that the dual isomorphism $\alpha^{*}: \chi\left(G^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \chi(G)$ carries $X^{\prime}$ onto $X$.

Note. For more details on equivalence, see [5]. There, the concept of the Witt ring of a space of orderings is defined, and it is proved that two spaces of orderings are equivalent if and only if their corresponding Witt rings are isomorphic. (In fact $0_{4}$ is not needed in the proof of this.)

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Example 1. Any formally real field $F$ has a space of orderings associated to it, namely ( $X_{F}, G_{F}$ ) where $X_{F}$ is the set of all orderings of $F$ and $G_{F}=F^{\times} / \Sigma F^{2 \times}$. ( $\Sigma F^{2 \times}$ denotes the subgroup of $F^{\times}$consisting of sums of squares.). This follows from classical results in [6]. The Witt ring in this case is the reduced Witt ring of $F$, i.e. the classical Witt ring of $F[7]$, factored by its torsion ideal.

Example 2. Let $A$ be a semi-local commutative ring, $A^{\times}$the unit group of $A$, $\Sigma A^{2 \times}$ the elements of $A^{\times}$which are sums of squares in $A$. Assume no residue class field of $A$ has only two elements. Let $X_{A}$ denote the set of all signatures of $A$ in the sense of [4], and let $G_{A}=A^{\times} / \Sigma A^{2 \times}$. It follows from results in [4] together with the Transversality Theorem 2.7 in [1] that ( $X_{A}, G_{A}$ ) is a space of orderings.
(This example was pointed out to me by M. Knebusch and E. Becker.)
A space of orderings is said to be finite if $X$ is finite (or equivalently, if $G$ is finite). The main Theorem (Theorem 4.11) in this paper can now be stated:

Every finite space of orderings is equivalent to the space of orderings ( $X_{F}, G_{F}$ ) of some Pythagorian Field F.

Remarks. 1. This theorem is already known $[\mathbf{2}, \mathbf{3}]$ for finite spaces of orderings of type ( $X_{K}, G_{K}$ ), $K$ formally real.
2. The proof of this theorem is somewhat indirect. Finite spaces of orderings coming from Pythagorian fields have already been classified (see [2], and [3]). The technique here is essentially to classify finite spaces of orderings in general, and then compare the two classifications.
3. The theorem may be interpreted as giving a simple system of axioms for the reduced theory of quadratic forms (at least in the finite case).
4. It is perhaps worthwhile to dispose of one trivial case immediately. One verifies that for a space of orderings $(X, G)$ the following are equivalent:
i) $X=\emptyset$
ii) $-1=1 \in G$
iii) $G=\{1\}$

For such a space we have $(X, G) \sim\left(X_{F}, G_{F}\right)$ where $F$ is any field satisfying $F^{2}=F$. This case is excluded in the remainder of our considerations.
2. Subspaces. Throughout we assume that $(X, G)$ is a finite space of orderings. For $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{m} \in X$ we can consider all linear combinations
(1) $\sigma=\sigma_{1}{ }^{\epsilon_{1}} \ldots \sigma_{m}{ }^{\epsilon_{m}}, \epsilon_{1}, \ldots, \epsilon_{m} \in\{0,1\}$
in $\chi(G)$. We are more interested in linear combinations which are in $X$. By $0_{2}$ a necessary condition for a linear combination (1) to be in $X$ is

$$
\epsilon_{1}+\ldots+\epsilon_{m} \equiv 1(\bmod 2) .
$$

Let $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{m}$ be arbitrary elements of $X$, and define $Y, \Delta$ by:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& Y=\left\{\sigma \in X \mid \sigma \text { is a linear combination of } \sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{m}\right\}, \\
& \Delta=\left\{a \in G \mid \sigma_{i}(a)=1 \text { for all } i=1,2, \ldots, m\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $Y, \Delta$ satisfy the duality condition
(2) $\Delta=Y^{\perp}, Y=\Delta^{\perp} \cap X$.

The system $(Y, G / \Delta)$ is referred to as the subspace of $(X, G)$ generated by $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{m}$. More generally, a subspace of $(X, G)$ is any system $(Y, G / \Delta)$ where $Y \subseteq X, \Delta \subseteq G$ satisfy the duality condition (2).

Conversely suppose we begin with $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m} \in G$, let $f$ denote the Pfister form $\left\langle 1, a_{1}\right\rangle \otimes \ldots \otimes\left\langle 1, a_{m}\right\rangle$, and let $X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)$ denote the Harrison Basic set

$$
\left\{\sigma \in X \mid \sigma\left(a_{i}\right)=1 \text { for all } i=1,2, \ldots, m\right\} .
$$

Lemma 2.1. $Y=X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)$ and $\Delta=D_{f}$ satisfy the duality condition (2).
Proof. Let $a \in D_{f}, \sigma \in X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)$. Then $\sigma f=2^{m}=\operatorname{dim} f$, so $\sigma(a)=1$. Thus $D_{f} \subseteq X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)^{\perp}$, and $X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right) \subseteq D_{f}^{\perp} \cap X$. Since $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$ $\in D_{f}$, it is clear that $D_{f} \perp \cap X=X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)$. Now let $a \in G$ satisfy $\sigma(a)=1$ for all $\sigma \in X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)$. Consider the forms af and $f$. $f$ represents 1 , so af represents $a$. Comparing signatures at $\sigma \in X$, we see that

$$
\sigma(a f)=\sigma(f)= \begin{cases}2^{m} & \text { if } \sigma \in X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right) \\ 0 & \text { if } \sigma \notin X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right) .\end{cases}
$$

Thus $f \equiv a f$, so $f$ represents $a$. Thus $X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)^{\perp} \subseteq D_{f}$.
Theorem 2.2. Let $(Y, G / \Delta)$ be any subspace of $(X, G)$. Then $(Y, G / \Delta)$ is also a space of orderings.

Proof. There exist $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m} \in G$ such that $Y=X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)$, and by Lemma $2.1 \Delta=D_{f}$ where $f$ is the Pfister form associated to $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}$. Everything is clear except $0_{4}$. This follows from the following:

Lemma 2.3. A form $g$ over $G$ represents $x \in G$ modulo $X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)$ if and only if $f \otimes g$ represents $x$ modulo $X$.

Assuming this lemma, we complete the proof of the theorem. Suppose $g, h$ are forms over $G$ such that $g \oplus h$ represents $x \in G$ modulo $Y$. Thus, by Lemma 2.3 the form $f \otimes(g \oplus h)=(f \otimes g) \oplus(f \otimes h)$ represents $x$ modulo $X$. Since $(X, G)$ satisfies $0_{4}$, there exist $y, z$ represented by $f \otimes g$ and $f \otimes h$ respectively $(\bmod X)$ such that $\langle y, z\rangle$ represents $x(\bmod X)$. Thus, by the lemma, $y$ and $z$ are represented by $g$ and $h$ respectively $(\bmod Y)$, and clearly $\langle y, z\rangle$ represents $x(\bmod Y)$.

Proof of Lemma 2.3. Suppose $g \equiv h \bmod X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)$ where $h$ has $x$ appearing in its diagonal representation. Since $f$ has 1 appearing in its diagonal
representation, it follows that $x$ appears in the diagonal representation of $f \otimes h$. Now $\sigma g=\sigma h$ hoids for all $\sigma \in X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)$. Also $\sigma f=0$ holds, for at $\sigma \in X, \sigma \notin X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)$. It follows that $\sigma(f \otimes g)=\sigma f \sigma g=\sigma f \sigma h=\sigma(f \otimes h)$ holds for all $\sigma \in X$. Thus $f \otimes g \equiv f \otimes h(\bmod X)$. Thus $f \otimes g$ represents $x(\bmod X)$.

Conversely, suppose $f \otimes g$ represents $x(\bmod X)$. Write $g=\left\langle y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}\right\rangle$. Thus $f \otimes g \equiv y_{1} f \oplus \ldots \oplus y_{k} f(\bmod X)$, so by $0_{4}$, there exist $s_{1}, \ldots, s_{k} \in D_{f}$ such that $\left\langle y_{1} s_{1}, \ldots, y_{k} s_{k}\right\rangle$ represents $x(\bmod X)$. But $\left\langle y_{1} s_{1}, \ldots, y_{k} s_{k}\right\rangle \equiv$ $\left\langle y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}\right\rangle\left(\bmod X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)\right)$. It follows that $g$ represents $x \bmod X\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)$.
3. Decomposition into connected components. By $0_{3}$ there is a basis $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{n}$ of $\chi(G)$ consisting entirely of elements of $X$. We will refer to such a basis as a basis for $X$. $n$ will be referred to as the rank (or dimension) of $X$. Clearly if $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{n}$ is a basis of $X$, then any element of $X$ is the product of an odd number of $\left\{\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{n}\right\}$.

Basic Lemma 3.1. Suppose $X$ consists of $n$ independent orders ( $n$ odd, $n \geqq 5$ ) together with their product $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \ldots \sigma_{n}$ together with some (possibly empty) subset of $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{3} \sigma_{4}, \sigma_{1} \sigma_{3} \sigma_{5}, \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3} \sigma_{4}, \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3} \sigma_{5}$. Then $X$ is not a space of orderings.

Proof. Let $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ be the dual basis of $G$, i.e.

$$
\sigma_{i}\left(a_{j}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{rl}
1 & \text { if } i \neq j \\
-1 & \text { if } i=j
\end{array}, i, j=1, \ldots, n .\right.
$$

Consider the forms

$$
\begin{aligned}
f & =\left\langle 1, a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}, a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{5}\right\rangle \quad \text { and } \\
g & =\left\langle a_{1} a_{2} a_{4} a_{5}, a_{2} a_{3}, a_{3} a_{1}\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

A straightforward verification shows that $\sigma f=\sigma g$ holds for all $\sigma \in X$, so $f \equiv g$. Now if $X$ were a space of orderings then by $0_{4}$ there would exist an element $b$ represented by $\left\langle a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}, a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{5}\right\rangle \equiv a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}\left\langle 1, a_{4} a_{5}\right\rangle$ such that $\langle 1, b\rangle$ represents $a_{1} a_{2} a_{4} a_{5}$. Now $a_{4} a_{5}$ is positive at $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \sigma_{3}, \sigma_{6}, \ldots, \sigma_{n}$ and $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \ldots \sigma_{n}(n-1$ independent orders). It follows from Lemma 2.1 that the Pfister form $\left\langle 1, a_{4} a_{5}\right\rangle$ only represents 1 and $a_{4} a_{5}$, so $\left\langle a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}, a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{5}\right\rangle$ only represents $a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}$ and $a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{5}$. Thus $b$ would be either $a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}$ or $a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{5}$.

Now $\sigma_{5}$ is positive at $a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}$ but negative at $a_{1} a_{2} a_{4} a_{5}$, so $\left\langle 1, a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}\right\rangle$ cannot represent $a_{1} a_{2} a_{4} a_{5}$. Similarly $\sigma_{4}$ is positive at $a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{5}$ but negative at $a_{1} a_{2} a_{4} a_{5}$, so $\left\langle 1, a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{5}\right\rangle$ cannot represent $a_{1} a_{2} a_{4} a_{5}$. Thus we see that no such $b$ exists, so $X$ is not a space of orderings.

We will say two orders $\sigma, \sigma^{\prime} \in X$ are simply connected in $X$ (denoted $\sigma \sim_{s} \sigma^{\prime}$ ) if there exist orders $\tau, \tau^{\prime} \in X,\left\{\sigma, \sigma^{\prime}\right\} \neq\left\{\tau, \tau^{\prime}\right\}$ such that $\sigma \sigma^{\prime}=\tau \tau^{\prime}$. (We say two orders $\sigma, \sigma^{\prime} \in X$ are connected in $X$ (denoted $\sigma \backsim \sigma^{\prime}$ ) if either $\sigma=\sigma^{\prime}$ or if there exists a sequence of orders $\sigma=\sigma_{0}, \sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{k}=\sigma^{\prime}$ in $X$ such that $\sigma_{i-1} \sim_{s} \sigma_{i}$ for $i=1, \ldots, k$.)

Notes (1). If $Y$ is a subspace of $X$ and $\sigma, \sigma^{\prime} \in Y$, then it is concievable that $\sigma, \sigma^{\prime}$ could be connected in $X$ without being connected in $Y$.
(2) We will see later that $\sigma \backsim \sigma^{\prime}$ implies either $\sigma \sim s \sigma^{\prime}$ or $\sigma=\sigma^{\prime}$.

Lemma 3.2. If $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{m} \in X$ are independent and $\sigma=\sigma_{1} \ldots \sigma_{m} \in X$ then $\sigma \backsim \sigma_{i}$ holds for each $i=1, \ldots, m$.

Proof. It is enough to show $\sigma \backsim \sigma_{1}$. The proof is by induction on $m$. If $m=3$, there is nothing to show. Assume $m \geqq 5$, Consider the subspace generated by $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{m}$. This is a space of orderings, so by the Basic Lemma it must consist of more than $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{m}, \sigma$. Thus there exists an order $\sigma^{\prime}$ which is the product of at least 3 and at most $m-2$ of $\left\{\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{m}\right\}$. There are two cases to consider:
(a) $\sigma_{1}$ appears in $\sigma^{\prime}$. Then without loss of generality $\sigma^{\prime}=\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \ldots \sigma_{l}$, $3 \leqq l \leqq m-2$. By induction $\sigma^{\prime} \backsim \sigma_{1}$. Also $\sigma=\sigma^{\prime} \sigma_{l+1} \ldots \sigma_{m}$. so again by induction, $\sigma \backsim \sigma^{\prime}$. Thus, by transitivity of $\backsim, \sigma \backsim \sigma_{1}$.
(b) $\sigma_{1}$ does not appear in $\sigma^{\prime}$. Then without loss of generality, $\sigma^{\prime}=\sigma_{2} \ldots \sigma_{l}$, $4 \leqq l \leqq m-1$. In this case, $\sigma=\sigma_{1} \sigma^{\prime} \sigma_{l+1} \ldots \sigma_{m}$ so by induction, $\sigma \sim \sigma_{1}$.

Let $X=X_{1} \cup \ldots \cup X_{k}$ denote the decomposition of $X$ determined by the equivalence relation $\sim$. The classes $X_{i}, i=1, \ldots, k$ will be referred to as the connected components of $X$. If $X$ has only one component, we will say $X$ is connected. An ordering $\sigma \in X$ will be called Archimedian (in $X$ ) if $\{\sigma\}$ is a component of $X$.

Theorem 3.3 (Decomposition Theorem). Suppose $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{k}$ are the connected components of $X$. Then each $X_{i}$ is a subspace of $X$ and

$$
\operatorname{rank} X=\sum_{1}^{k} \operatorname{rank} X_{i} .
$$

Proof. Let $\Delta_{i}=X_{i}{ }^{\perp}$. Then clearly $X_{i}$ generates $\Delta_{i} \perp \cap X$. To show $X_{i}$ is a subspace we must show that $X_{i}=\Delta_{i}{ }^{\perp} \cap X$. This is clear by Lemma 3.2.

Let $\sigma_{i j}, j=1, \ldots, l_{i}$ be a basis for each $X_{i}, i=1, \ldots, k$. We wish to show that the complete set $\left\{\sigma_{i j} \mid i=1, \ldots, k ; j=1, \ldots, l_{i}\right\}$ is a basis for $X$. It is clear this set spans $X$. If these elements were independent we could find a relation

$$
\prod_{i, j} \sigma_{i j}^{\epsilon i j}=1 \quad \epsilon_{i j} \in\{0,1\}
$$

with not all $\epsilon_{i j}=0$. Of all such relations pick the one with the minimal number of non-zero $\epsilon_{i j}$. By Lemma 3.2 each $\sigma_{i j}$ appearing with a non-zero exponent is equivalent to every other such $\sigma_{i j}$. Thus, all such $\sigma_{i j}$ lie in the same component.

Thus, there exists $i$ such that $\epsilon_{r j}=0$ for $r \neq i$. Thus our assumed relation has the form

$$
\Pi_{j} \sigma_{i j}{ }^{\epsilon i j}=1
$$

This would contradict the independence of $\sigma_{i 1}, \ldots, \sigma_{i l i}$.
Remarks. 1. Let $G_{i}=G / \Delta_{i}$ where $\Delta_{i}=X_{i}^{\perp}, i=1, \ldots, k$. By the above theorem, the natural injection of $G$ into $G_{1} \times G_{2} \times \ldots \times G_{k}$ is an isomorphism.

If we identify $G$ with $G_{1} \times \ldots \times G_{k}$ via this isomorphism, we see that $\Delta_{i}$ is identified with $\prod_{j \neq i} G_{j}$ for $i=1, \ldots, k$. Also $X$ is identified with $\cup_{1}^{k} Y_{i}$ where $Y_{i}$ is obtained from $X_{i}$ by extending each element by the identity character on $\prod_{j \neq i} G_{j}$. Thus, the structure of $(X, G)$ is completely determined by the structure of the subspaces $\left(X_{i}, G_{i}\right), i=1, \ldots, k$. We will express this by writing

$$
(X, G)=\bigoplus_{i=1}^{k}\left(X_{i}, G_{i}\right)
$$

and will refer to $(X, G)$ as the direct sum of the spaces $\left(X_{i}, G_{i}\right), 1 \leqq i \leqq k$.
2. Let $W, W_{i}, \ldots, W_{k}$ be the Witt rings associated to $X, X_{1}, \ldots, X_{k}$ respectively. Then there is a canonical ring embedding of $W$ into the product ring $W_{1} \times \ldots \times W_{k}$. The image consists of those $k$-triples $\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{k}\right)$ whose entries have the same dimension modulo 2 .
4. The connected case. The results of the previous section reduce the study of finite spaces of orderings to finite connected spaces of orderings. In this section we study the structure of such spaces.

Theorem 4.1. Suppose $\sigma$ is a character of $G, \sigma \neq 1$, satisfying the following property:

$$
x \in \operatorname{kern} \sigma \Rightarrow D_{(1, x\rangle} \subseteq \operatorname{kern} \sigma
$$

Then $\sigma \in X$.
Proof. It is enough to show that for each finite subset $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k} \in \operatorname{kern} \sigma$, there exists $\sigma^{\prime} \in X$ such that $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k} \in \operatorname{kern} \sigma^{\prime}$.

If no such $\sigma^{\prime} \in X$ exists, and if $f=\left\langle 1, a_{1}\right\rangle \otimes \ldots \otimes\left\langle 1, a_{k}\right\rangle$, then $\sigma^{\prime} f=0$ for all $\sigma^{\prime} \in X$, so $f \equiv\langle 1,-1\rangle \otimes \ldots \otimes\langle 1,-1\rangle$, and hence $D_{f}=G$. Thus, it is enough to prove that $D_{f} \subseteq \operatorname{kern} \sigma$.

This is proved by induction on $k$, the result being true by hypothesis for $k=1$. For $k>1$, let $g=\left\langle 1, a_{2}\right\rangle \otimes \ldots \otimes\left\langle 1, a_{k}\right\rangle$, and suppose $x$ is represented by $f \equiv g \oplus a_{1} g$. Thus, by $0_{4}$, there exist $y, z \in D_{g}$ such that $x$ is represented by $\left\langle y, a_{1} z\right\rangle$. Thus $x y$ is represented as $\left\langle 1, a_{1} y z\right\rangle$. Now $a_{1} \in \operatorname{kern} \sigma$, and $y, z \in D_{o}$ $\subseteq \operatorname{kern} \sigma$ by induction. Thus $a_{1} y z \in \operatorname{kern} \sigma$. Thus, by hypothesis, $x y \in \operatorname{kern} \sigma$. Finally $y \in \operatorname{kern} \sigma$, so $x=(x y) y \in \operatorname{kern} \sigma$.

We use this theorem to prove the following:
Lemma 4.2. Suppose $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{n} \in X$ is a basis of $X$, that $\alpha \in \chi(G)$, and that $\alpha \sigma_{1}, \ldots, \alpha \sigma_{n} \in X$. Then $\alpha X=X$,

Proof. Since $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{1} \alpha \in X$ we have $\sigma_{1}(-1)=\left(\sigma_{1} \alpha\right)(-1)=-1$ by $0_{2}$. Thus $\alpha(-1)=1$. We wish to show that if $\sigma \in X$, then $\sigma \alpha \in X$. Suppose $x \in G$ is such that $(\sigma \alpha)(x)=1$, and suppose $\langle 1, x\rangle$ represents $y$. By the above theorem we are done if we show $(\sigma \alpha)(y)=1$. There are three cases to consider.

Case 1. $\alpha(x)=-1$. Then for each $i, \sigma_{i}(x)$ and $\left(\sigma_{i} \alpha\right)(x)$ have opposite sign. Thus, we can find $\epsilon_{1}, \ldots, \epsilon_{n} \in\{0,1\}$ such that $\sigma_{1} \alpha^{\epsilon_{1}}, \ldots, \sigma_{n} \alpha^{\epsilon_{n}}$ are all 1 at $x$ (and hence at $y$ ). The space generated by these is $n-1$ dimensional at least. Thus $\bigcap_{1}^{n}$ kern $\left(\sigma_{i} \alpha^{\epsilon_{i}}\right)$ is at most one dimensional. Since $D_{\langle 1, x\rangle}$ is in this intersection, it follows that $D_{\langle 1, x\rangle}=\{1, x\}$. Thus $y=1$ or $x$. In either case we have $(\sigma \alpha)(y)=1$.

Case 2. $\alpha(y)=-1$. Then $\alpha(-y)=-1($ since $\alpha(-1)=1)$, so by the above argument $D_{\langle 1,-y\rangle}$ is at most one dimensional. Since $y \in D_{\langle 1, x\rangle}$ it follows that $-x \in D_{\langle 1,-y\rangle}$. Thus, $-x=1$ or $-y$. Now $x \in \operatorname{kern} \sigma \alpha$, so $x \neq-1$. Thus $x=y$, so $(\sigma \alpha)(y)=1$.

Case 3. $\alpha(x)=1, \alpha(y)=1$. Thus $\sigma(x)=1$, and $\langle 1, x\rangle$ represents $y, \sigma \in X$, so $\sigma(y)=1$. Thus $(\sigma \alpha)(y)=1$.

We are interested in subspaces $Y$ of $X$ which satisfy $\alpha Y=Y$ for some $\alpha \in \chi(G), \alpha \neq 1$. For $\alpha \in \chi(G)$ let $X_{\alpha}$ denote the set $\{\sigma \in X \mid \sigma \alpha \in X\}=$ $\alpha X \cap X$. Then clearly $X_{\alpha}$ is the maximal subset of $X$ satisfying $\alpha X_{\alpha}=X_{\alpha}$. $X_{\alpha}$ is in fact a subspace of $X$. This is the content of the following lemma:

Lemma 4.3. Let $\alpha$ be a character of $G$, and let $X_{\alpha}$ be defined as above. Then $X_{\alpha}$ is a (possibly trivial) subspace of $X$.

Proof. Let $\Delta_{\alpha}=X_{\alpha}^{\perp}$. We must show that $X_{\alpha}=\Delta_{\alpha} \perp \cap X$. Now $X_{\alpha}$ generates $\Delta_{\alpha} \perp \cap X$, and $\alpha X_{\alpha}=X_{\alpha}$. Thus, applying the previous lemma to the space $\left(\Delta_{\alpha} \perp \cap X, G / \Delta_{\alpha}\right)$, we see that $\alpha\left(\Delta_{\alpha} \perp \cap X\right)=\Delta_{\alpha} \perp \cap X$. It follows, by definition of $X_{\alpha}$, that $\Delta_{\alpha} \perp \cap X=X_{\alpha}$.

In the following few lemmas we examine the lattice of subspaces $X_{\alpha}, \alpha \in \chi(G)$. The major goal is the proof of Theorem 4.7.

Lemma 4.4. Suppose $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{1} \alpha, \sigma_{1} \beta, \sigma_{1} \alpha \beta \in X$. Then either $X_{\alpha} \subseteq X_{\beta}$ or $X_{\beta} \subseteq X_{\alpha}$.
Proof. Suppose $X_{\alpha} \nsubseteq X_{\beta}, X_{\beta} \nsubseteq X_{\alpha}$. Choose $\sigma_{2} \in X_{\alpha}, \sigma_{2} \notin X_{\beta}, \sigma_{3} \in X_{\beta}$, $\sigma_{3} \notin X_{\alpha}$. Consider the elements:

| $\sigma_{1}$ | $\sigma_{2}$ | $\sigma_{3}$ | $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sigma_{1} \alpha$ | $\sigma_{2} \alpha$ | $\sigma_{3} \alpha$ | $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3} \alpha$ |
| $\sigma_{1} \beta$ | $\sigma_{2} \beta$ | $\sigma_{3} \beta$ | $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3} \beta$ |
| $\sigma_{1} \alpha \beta$ | $\sigma_{2} \alpha \beta$ | $\sigma_{3} \alpha \beta$ | $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3} \alpha \beta$ |

in $\chi(G)$. The elements in the first column are all in $X$ by assumption. Also $\sigma_{2}, \sigma_{2} \alpha \in X, \sigma_{2} \beta \notin X$ by assumptions on $\sigma_{2}$. What about $\sigma_{2} \alpha \beta$ ? If $\sigma_{2} \alpha \beta \in X$ then consider just the first two columns and the element $\gamma=\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \alpha \in \chi(G)$. We have $\sigma_{1} \gamma=\sigma_{2} \alpha$, $\left(\sigma_{1} \alpha\right)(\gamma)=\sigma_{2},\left(\sigma_{1} \beta\right) \gamma=\sigma_{2} \alpha \beta$. Thus by Lemma 4.2, the space spanned by $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \sigma_{1} \alpha, \sigma_{1} \beta$ is invariant under $\gamma$. In particular, $\left(\sigma_{1} \alpha \beta\right) \gamma=$ $\sigma_{2} \beta \in X$. This is a contradiction. Thus $\sigma_{2} \alpha \beta \notin X$. Similarly in the third column we have $\sigma_{3}, \sigma_{3} \beta \in X, \sigma_{3} \alpha, \sigma_{3} \alpha \beta \notin X$. If any of the 4 th column are in $X$, we may
assume (by replacing $\sigma_{2}$ by $\sigma_{2} \alpha$ or $\sigma_{3}$ by $\sigma_{3} \beta$ if necessary) that $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3} \in X$. We have $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2} \in X_{\alpha}$. If $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3} \in X_{\alpha}$ then $\sigma_{3}=\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2}\left(\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3}\right) \in X_{\alpha}$ by Lemma 4.2. But $\sigma_{3} \notin X_{\alpha}$. Thus $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3} \notin X_{\alpha}$, i.e. $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3} \alpha \notin X$. Similarly one shows that $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3} \beta \notin X$. Thus of the list of elements, only

are in $X$. This list can be viewed as the ( 5 dimensional) subspace of $X$ generated by
$\sigma_{1} \alpha, \sigma_{1} \beta, \sigma_{2}, \sigma_{2} \alpha$, and $\sigma_{3}$.
In terms of this basis we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma_{1} & =\left(\sigma_{2} \alpha\right)\left(\sigma_{1} \alpha\right)\left(\sigma_{2}\right) \\
\sigma_{3} \beta & =\left(\sigma_{1} \alpha\right)\left(\sigma_{1} \beta\right)\left(\sigma_{2}\right)\left(\sigma_{2} \alpha\right)\left(\sigma_{3}\right) \\
\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3} & =\left(\sigma_{1} \alpha\right)\left(\sigma_{2} \alpha\right)\left(\sigma_{3}\right) \\
\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3} \alpha \beta & =\left(\sigma_{1} \beta\right)\left(\sigma_{2} \alpha\right)\left(\sigma_{3}\right) \\
\sigma_{1} \alpha \beta & =\left(\sigma_{1} \beta\right)\left(\sigma_{2} \alpha\right)\left(\sigma_{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

But, according to Lemma 3.1 this is not a space of orderings, a contradiction.
Lemma 4.5. Suppose $X_{\alpha}, X_{\beta}$ have rank $\geqq 3$. Then either $X_{\alpha} \cap X_{\beta}=\emptyset$, or $\left|X_{\alpha} \cap X_{\beta}\right| \geqq 2$.

Proof. Suppose the result is false, i.e. $X_{\alpha} \cap X_{\beta}=\left\{\sigma_{1}\right\}$. Then $X_{\alpha} \nsubseteq X_{\beta}$, $X_{\beta} \nsubseteq X_{\alpha}$. Thus there exists $\sigma_{2} \in X_{\alpha}, \sigma_{2} \notin X_{\beta}$. We may further assume $\sigma_{2} \neq \sigma_{1} \alpha$; for if $\sigma_{1} \alpha$ were the only element of $X_{\alpha}$ not in $X_{\beta}$ then (since $\left|X_{\alpha}\right|>\operatorname{rank} X_{\alpha}$ ) $X_{\alpha}$ would have a basis in $X_{\beta}$ so by Lemma $4.2 X_{\alpha} \subseteq X_{\beta}$. Similarly there exists $\sigma_{3} \in X_{\beta}, \sigma_{3} \notin X_{\alpha}, \sigma_{3} \neq \sigma_{1} \beta$.

Now consider the same list of elements as in Lemma 4.4. We have $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{1} \alpha$, $\sigma_{1} \beta \in X$, but $\sigma_{1} \alpha \beta \notin X$ by Lemma 4.4 , since $X_{\alpha} \nsubseteq X_{\beta}, X_{\beta} \nsubseteq X_{\alpha}$. Also $\sigma_{2}$, $\sigma_{2} \alpha \in X, \sigma_{2} \beta \notin X$. If $\sigma_{2} \alpha \beta$ were in $X$, then $\sigma_{2} \alpha \in X_{\alpha} \cap X_{\beta}, \sigma_{2} \alpha \neq \sigma_{1}$. This is a contradiction. Thus $\sigma_{2} \alpha \beta \notin X$. Similarly $\sigma_{3}, \sigma_{3} \beta \in X, \sigma_{3} \alpha, \sigma_{3} \alpha \beta \notin X$. The same argument used in Lemma 4.4 shows that the elements in the last column in $X$, if any, have the form $\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3}, \sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3} \alpha \beta$ by suitable change in notation. From this point on, the proof parallels exactly the latter part of the proof of Lemma 4.4.

Lemma 4.6. Suppose $\alpha \neq 1, \beta \neq 1$, and that $X_{\alpha} \cap X_{\beta} \neq \emptyset$, rank $X_{\alpha}, X_{\beta} \geqq 3$. Then there exists $\gamma \in \chi(G), \gamma \neq 1$ such that $X_{\alpha}, X_{\beta} \subseteq X_{\gamma}$.

Proof. If either $X_{\alpha} \subseteq X_{\beta}$ or $X_{\beta} \subseteq X_{\alpha}$ we are done. Thus we may assume $X_{\alpha} \nsubseteq X_{\beta}, X_{\beta} \nsubseteq X_{\alpha}$. By Lemma 4.5 there exist $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2} \in X_{\alpha} \cap X_{\beta}, \sigma_{1} \neq \sigma_{2}$. Take $\gamma=\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2}$. Then $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{1} \alpha, \sigma_{1} \gamma=\sigma_{2}, \sigma_{1} \alpha \gamma=\sigma_{2} \alpha$ are all in $X$, so by Lemma 4.4 either $X_{\alpha} \subseteq X_{\gamma}$ or $X_{\gamma} \subseteq X_{\alpha}$. Now $\sigma_{1} \beta \gamma=\sigma_{2} \beta \in X$ so $\sigma_{1} \beta \in X_{\gamma}$. On the
other hand, $\sigma_{1} \beta \alpha \notin X$ by Lemma 4.4, so $\sigma_{1} \beta \notin X_{\alpha}$. Thus $X_{\alpha} \subseteq X_{\gamma}$. A similar argument shows $X_{\beta} \subseteq X_{\gamma}$.

Theorem 4.7. Let $X$ be a connected space, rank $X \neq 1$. Then there exist $\alpha \in \chi(G), \alpha \neq 1$ such that $\alpha X=X$.

Proof. Since rank $X \neq 1$ and $X$ is connected there exists $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2} \in X, \sigma_{1} \neq \sigma_{2}$, $\sigma_{1} \sim_{S} \sigma_{2}$. Take $\alpha=\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2}$. Then $X_{\alpha}$ has rank $\geqq 3$. Of all $\alpha \in \chi(G)$ satisfying $\alpha \neq 1$, rank $X_{\alpha} \geqq 3$, pick one such that $X_{\alpha}$ is maximal. If $X_{\alpha} \neq X$, then there exist (since $X$ is connected) elements $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2} \in X, \sigma_{1} \in X_{\alpha}, \sigma_{2} \notin X_{\alpha}, \sigma_{1} \sim_{s} \sigma_{2}$. Let $\beta=\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2}$. Then $\sigma_{1} \in X_{\alpha} \cap X_{\beta}$ so by Lemma 4.6, there exists $\gamma \neq 1$, $\gamma \in \chi(G)$ such that $X_{\alpha} \subseteq X_{\gamma}, X_{\beta} \subseteq X_{\gamma}$. Since $\sigma_{2} \in X_{\beta} \subseteq X_{\gamma}$ it follows that $X_{\gamma}$ contains $X_{\alpha}$ properly. This is a contradiction and $X_{\alpha}=X$.

Now let $T$ denote the set of all $\alpha \in \chi(G)$ such that $\alpha X=X . T$ is clearly a subgroup of $\chi(G)$, and will be referred to as the translation group of $X$. Since we are assuming $X$ is connected, we have, by the above theorem, that $T \neq 1$, if rank $X \neq 1$. Let $G^{\prime}=T^{\perp}$ and let $X^{\prime}$ denote the set of all restrictions $\sigma_{\mid G^{\prime}}, \sigma \in X$.

Theorem 4.8. Let $X$ be a connected space, and define $X^{\prime}, G^{\prime}$ as above. Then ( $X^{\prime}, G^{\prime}$ ) is a space of orderings.

Proof. It is clear that $-1 \in G^{\prime}$ and that $X^{\prime}$ is a subset of $\chi\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ satisfying $0_{1}, 0_{2}$, and $0_{3} .0_{4}$ follows from the following lemma.

Lemma 4.9. Let $f$ be a form over $G^{\prime}$ which is not isotropic $\left(\bmod X^{\prime}\right)$. Then as a form over $G$, $f$ only represents elements of $G^{\prime}$.

Assuming this lemma, let $f, g$ be forms over $G^{\prime}$ such that $f \oplus g$ represents $x \in G^{\prime}\left(\bmod X^{\prime}\right)$. We may assume neither $f$ nor $g$ is isotropic $\left(\bmod X^{\prime}\right)$. By $0_{4}$ for $X$, there exist $y, z \in G$ represented by $f, g$ re:spectively $(\bmod X)$ such that $\langle y, z\rangle$ represents $x(\bmod X)$. By the lemma it follows that $y, z \in G^{\prime}$ and that $f, g$, in fact, represent $y, z$ respectively $\bmod X^{\prime}$. Also it is clear that $\langle y, z\rangle$ represents $x\left(\bmod X^{\prime}\right)$.

Proof of Lemma 4.9. The proof is by induction on the dimension $n$ of $f$. The result is clear if $n=1$, so we may assume $f=\left\langle a, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle, n \geqq 2$. Let $x \in D_{f}$. By $0_{4}$ there exist $b, b_{3}, \ldots, b_{n} \in G$ such that $\left\langle a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle \equiv$ $\left\langle b, b_{3}, \ldots, b_{n}\right\rangle(\bmod X)$, and such that $\langle a, b\rangle$ refresents $x(\bmod X)$. By induction $b, b_{3}, \ldots, b_{n} \in G^{\prime}$ so $f \equiv\left\langle a, b, b_{3}, \ldots, b_{n}\right\rangle\left(\bmod X^{\prime}\right)$. We are assuming $f$ is not isotropic $\left(\bmod X^{\prime}\right)$, so $b \neq-a$. Thus $-a b \neq 1$, so there exists an order $\sigma \in X$ such that $\sigma(a b)=1$. Now suppose $x \notin G^{\prime}$. Then there exists $\alpha \in T$ such that $\alpha(x)=-1$. Thus $\alpha(a x)=-1$, so $\sigma(a x)=-(\sigma \alpha)(a x)$. Thus, by replacing $\sigma$ by $\sigma \alpha$ if necessary, we may assume $\sigma(a x)=-1$. But $\langle a, b\rangle$ represents $x$, so $\langle 1, a b\rangle$ represents $a x$. Thus, since $\sigma(a b)=1$, we must have $\sigma(a x)=1$. This is a contradiction.

Remarks. 1. The space ( $X, G$ ) is completely determined (up to equivalence) by the space ( $X^{\prime}, G^{\prime}$ ) and the rank of the group $T$ : For $G$ can be identified with the group $G^{\prime} \times T$ and, under this identification, $X$ is identified with the set of all extensions of $X^{\prime}$ to $G^{\prime} \times T$.
2. Let $r=\operatorname{rank} T$. Thus $r>0$ if rank $X \neq 1$. Also rank $X=\operatorname{rank} X^{\prime}+r$. Thus, except in the trivial case rank $X=1, X^{\prime}$ has strictly lower rank than $X$ so its structure is known inductively. An additional property of $X^{\prime}$ is known. Namely, the translation group of $X^{\prime}$ is trivial (for if $X^{\prime}$ had a non-trivial translation group, then we could enlarge $T$ ). Thus, either rank $X^{\prime}=1$, or $X^{\prime}$ is a disconnected space of rank $\geqq 3$.
3. One can show that the Witt ring of $(X, G)$ is just the group ring $W^{\prime}[T]$, where $W^{\prime}$ denotes the Witt ring of ( $X^{\prime}, G^{\prime}$ ).
4. Let us combine the above structure results. Let $(X, G)$ be any finite space of orderings. Then ( $X, G$ ) decomposes canonically as the sum of its connected components:

$$
(X, G)=\bigoplus_{i=1}^{k}\left(X_{i}, G_{i}\right) \quad k \geqq 1 .
$$

Let $T_{i}$ be the translation group of $X_{i}, G_{i}{ }^{\prime}=T_{i}{ }^{\perp}, X_{i}{ }^{\prime}=X_{i \mid G^{\prime}}$, and $r_{i}=\operatorname{rank} T_{i}$. Then $(X, G)$ is completely described in terms of the spaces $\left(X_{i}{ }^{\prime}, G_{i}{ }^{\prime}\right)$, $i=1, \ldots, k$ together with the integers $r_{1}, \ldots, r_{k}$. Moreover, either $\left(X_{i}{ }^{\prime}, G_{i}{ }^{\prime}\right)$ has rank $\geqq 3$ and has more than one component and $r_{i}>0$, or ( $X_{i}{ }^{\prime}, G_{i}{ }^{\prime}$ ) has rank 1 , and $r_{i} \geqq 0$. Thus, we have an inductive description of all finite spaces of orderings, and can even "count" the number of non-equivalent spaces of any given rank.

Theorem 4.10. Let $(X, G)$ be a finite space of orderings. Then there exists a Pythagorian Field $F$ such that $(X, G) \sim\left(X_{F}, G_{F}\right)$.

Proof. This is clear when the above results are combined with the results in [2] or [3]. For completeness we give the following proof, by induction on the rank $n$ of $X$. The case $n=1$ is clear. For $n>1$, there are two cases:
(i) $(X, G)$ is not connected. Then $(X, G) \backsim\left(X_{1}, G_{1}\right) \oplus\left(X_{2}, G_{2}\right)$ where ( $\left.X_{i}, G_{i}\right) i=1,2$ are spaces of lower rank. By induction there exist Pythagorian fields $F_{i}$ such that $\left(X_{F_{i}}, G_{F_{i}}\right) \backsim\left(X_{i}, G_{i}\right), i=1,2$. By [3] (also implicit in [2]) there exists a Pythagorian Field $F$ such that $\left(X_{F}, G_{F}\right) \backsim\left(X_{F_{1}}, G_{F_{1}}\right) \oplus$ $\left(X_{F_{2}}, G_{F_{2}}\right)$. It follows that $(X, G) \backsim\left(X_{F}, G_{F}\right)$.
(ii) $(X, G)$ is connected. Let $T$ denote the translation group of $G, G^{\prime}=T^{\perp}$, $X^{\prime}=\left\{\sigma_{\left|G_{i}\right|} \mid \sigma \in X\right\}$. Now $T \neq 1$ by Theorem 4.8 , so ( $X^{\prime}, G^{\prime}$ ) has strictly lower rank than $(X, G)$. Thus, by induction, there exists a Pythagorian field $K$ such that $\left(X^{\prime}, G^{\prime}\right) \backsim\left(X_{K}, G_{K}\right)$. Then it is clear that $(X, G) \backsim\left(X_{F}, G_{F}\right)$ where $F$ denotes the power series field

$$
K\left(\left(t_{1}\right)\right) \ldots\left(\left(t_{r}\right)\right), \quad r=\operatorname{rank} T .
$$

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