



## Application Groupoids in the algebra

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### ABSTRACT

A groupoid is medial if it satisfies the identity  $wx \cdot yz = wy \cdot xz$ . A groupoid is trimedial if every subgroupoid generated by 3 elements is medial. Medial groupoids and quasigroups have also been called abelian, entropic, and other names, while trimedial quasigroups have also been called triabelian, terentropic, etc. (See [5], especially p. 120, for further background). The notion of variety of algebras having the property  $(k, n)$  was given in [6] and equationally defined classes of cancellative groupoids having the property  $(2, 4)$  and  $(2, 5)$  were considered there. This notion was generalized in [7], where it was shown that the condition of the cancellativity is superfluous, that is, any variety of groupoids with the property  $(2, n)$  is a variety of quasigroups. Let  $k$  and  $n$  be two positive integers and  $k \leq n$ . An algebra  $A$  is said to have the property  $(k, n)$  if every subalgebra of  $A$  generated by  $k$  distinct elements has exactly  $n$  elements. We also say that  $A$  is a  $(k, n)$ -algebra. A class  $K$  of algebras is said to be a  $(k, n)$ -class if every algebra in  $K$  is a  $(k, n)$ -algebra. A variety is called a  $(k, n)$ -variety if it is a  $(k, n)$ -class of algebras. Trivially, the variety of Steiner quasigroups ( $xx = x$ ,  $xy = yx$ ,  $x \cdot xy = y$ ) is a  $(2, 3)$ -variety. It is the unique variety of groupoids with the stated property, and the same holds for the  $(2, 4)$ -variety ( $x \cdot xy = yx$ ,  $xy \cdot yx = x$ ) given by Padmanabhan in [6]. He has also constructed two  $(2, 5)$ -varieties. One of them is commutative ( $xy = yx$ ,  $x(y \cdot xy) = y$ ,  $x(x \cdot xy) = y \cdot xy$ ), while the other one ( $x \cdot xy = y$ ,  $xy \cdot y = yx$ )

consists of anticommutative quasigroups. It is an verify the existence of  $(2, n)$ -varieties for  $n \geq 10$

### Introduction

Definition (1): A non-empty set  $G$ , together with a mapping  $\ast : G \times G \rightarrow G$  is called a groupoid. The mapping  $\ast$  is called a binary operation on the set  $G$ .

Remark: A binary groupoid  $(G, A)$  is understood to be a non-empty set  $G$  together with a binary operation  $A$ .

Often one uses different symbols to denote a binary operation, for example,  $\circ, \cdot, \bullet$ , i.e. we may write  $x \circ y$  instead  $A(x, y)$

An  $n$ -ary groupoid  $(G, A)$  is understood to be a non-empty set  $G$  together with an  $n$ -ary operation  $A$ .

There exists a bijection (1-1 correspondence) between the set of all binary ( $n$ -ary, arity is fixed) operations defined on a set  $Q$  and the set of all groupoids, defined on the set  $Q$ . Really,  $A \leftrightarrow (Q, A)$  As usual an  $a_1^n = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$

$\overline{1, n} = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . We shall say that operations  $A$  and  $B$  coincide, if  $A(a_1^n) = B(a_1^n)$  for all  $a_i \in Q$ ,

$i \in \overline{1, n}$

The order of any  $n$ -ary groupoid  $(Q, A)$  is cardinality  $|Q|$  ( $Q^-$ ) of the carrier set  $Q$ . An  $n$ -ary groupoid  $(Q, .)$  is said to be finite whenever its order is finite. Any finite  $n$ -ary groupoid (not a very big size)  $(Q, A)$  it is possible to define as a set of  $(n + 1)$ -tuples  $(a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, A(a_1^n))$  In binary case any finite binary groupoid it is possible to define as a set of triplets or with help of square table, for example, as:

Table (1)


where  $a \bullet c = b$ . This table is called Cayley table of groupoid  $(Q, \bullet)$ , where

$Q = \{a, b, c\}$ .

Note. Usually it is supposed that elements of carried set  $Q$  are arranged. So the groupoid  $(Q, \circ)$  defined with help of the following Cayley table.

**Cayley Table (2)**


is equal (as set of triplets) to the groupoid  $(Q, \bullet)$ , but  $(Q, \bullet) = (Q, *)$ , where groupoid  $(Q, *)$  has the following Cayley table

**Cayley Table(3)**


Definition (2). An  $n$ -ary groupoid  $(Q, A)$  with  $n$ -ary operation  $A$  such that in the equality  $A(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = x_{n+1}$  knowledge of any  $n$  elements of  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}$  uniquely specifies the remaining one is called  $n$ -ary quasigroup ([14]).

In binary case this definition is equivalent to the following.

Definition( 2). Binary groupoid  $(Q, \circ)$  is called a quasigroup if for all ordered pairs  $(a, b) \in Q^2$  there exist unique solutions  $x, y \in Q$  to the equations  $x \circ a = b$  and  $a \circ y = b$  ([2]).

Let  $(G, \bullet)$  be a groupoid and let  $a$  be a fixed element in  $G$ . The so-called translation maps  $L_a$  and  $R_a$  can be defined by  $L_a x = a \bullet x$ ,  $R_a x = x \bullet a$  for all  $x \in G$ . It follows that  $L_a : G \rightarrow G$  and  $R_a : G \rightarrow G$  for each  $a \in G$ .

These maps will play a prominent role in much of what we do.

Example of quasigroup and its left and right translations.

**Table (4)**


For this quasigroup we have the following left and right translations:  $L_A = (bc)$ ;  $L_B = (ac)$ ;  $L_C = (ab)$ ;  $R_a = (bc)$ ;  $R_B = (ac)$ ;  $R_C = (ab)$ .

It is easy to see that in Cayley table (4) of a quasigroup  $(Q, \bullet)$  each row and each column is a permutation of the set  $Q$ . So we may give the following definition of a quasigroup.

Theorem. Let  $G$  be a right solvable Ward groupoid,  $H$  a  $R$  associative right solvable subward groupoid of  $G$  and  $A$  is a  $R$  associative subset of  $G$ . Let  $G/H$  denotes the collection of all left cosets of  $H$  in  $G$ . Let

$$R_A = \{(xH, yH) \in G/H \times G/H : z \in HAH\}$$

Definition (4). A groupoid  $(G, \bullet)$  is called a quasigroup if the maps  $L_a : G \rightarrow G$ ,  $R_a : G \rightarrow G$  are bijections for all  $a \in G$  (95)

These two varieties together with the variety whose defining identities  $(x \bullet xy = yx, xy \bullet y = x)$  are dual to the identities of the preceding variety are the only (2, 5)-varieties of groupoid The non-existences of a (2, 6)-variety can be deduced from the correspondence between the  $(k, n)$ -varieties and Steiner systems  $S(k, n, v)$  [7].

Here we present  $(2, n)$ -varieties of groupoids for  $n = 7, 8$  and  $9$ . Their construction is given in Sections 2, 3 and 4 respectively.

### Result:

(1). A quasigroup satisfying the following three identities must be trimedial.

$$xx \cdot yz = xy \cdot xz \quad (1) \qquad yz \cdot xx = yx \cdot zx \quad (2) \qquad (x \cdot xx) \cdot uv = xu \cdot (xx \cdot v) \quad (3)$$

The converse is trivial, and so these three identities characterize trimedial quasigroups,

(2). Ward groupoid is a quasigroup.

(3). If groupoid satisfying the following identity then every groupoid is trimedial quasigroups:

$$[(xy \cdot uu)][(w \cdot ww) \cdot zv] = [(xu \cdot yu)][wz \cdot (ww \cdot v)]:$$

(Proof. In the result (2). To obtain set  $z = ww$  and use right cancellation. To obtain (3)

set  $y = u$  and use left cancellation).

(4). we present  $(2, n)$ -varieties of groupoids for  $n = 7, 8$  and  $9$ . Their construction is given in Sections 2, 3 and 4 respectively. It is an open problem the existence of  $(2, n)$ -varieties for  $n \geq 10$ , as well as the answer of the question whether the set of integers  $\{n \mid \text{There exists a } (2, n)\text{-variety of groupoids}\}$  is finite.

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