

SUBALGEBRAS OF DISTRIBUTIVE SEMIGROUPS

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An Ω -algebra $A = (A; \Omega)$ is called an Ω -subalgebra of a semigroup S if $A \subseteq S$, and there is a mapping $\omega \mapsto \bar{\omega}$ from Ω in S such that:

$$\omega(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \bar{\omega}a_1 \dots a_n \quad (1)$$

for all $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in A$, $\omega \in \Omega(n)$. ($\Omega(n)$ is the set of n -ary operators belonging to Ω , i.e. Ω is a union of disjoint sets $\Omega(0), \Omega(1), \dots, \Omega(n), \dots$.) Denote by \mathcal{D} the variety of distributive semigroups, i.e. semigroups that satisfy the following distributive laws:

$$xyz = yxz, \quad xyz = xzy, \quad (2)$$

and by $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ the class of Ω -subalgebras of distributive semigroups. By a more general result (see for example [1, p. 272], or [3]), for every operator domain Ω , $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ is a quasivariety. We show in this note that $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ is a variety iff $\Omega \setminus \Omega(0)$ contains at most two operators.

1. The complete system of identities in the variety \mathcal{D} is described in [2]. Namely, if x_1, x_2, \dots are variables and p, q, i_v, j_v are positive integers, then:

$$x_{i_1} x_{i_2} \dots x_{i_p} = x_{j_1} x_{j_2} \dots x_{j_q} \quad (3)$$

is a nontrivial identity equation in \mathcal{D} (i.e. in every semigroup $S \in \mathcal{D}$) iff:

$$p, q \geq 3, \quad i_1 = j_1, \quad i_p = j_q, \quad \{i_1, \dots, i_p\} = \{j_1, \dots, j_q\}. \quad (4)$$

((3) is a trivial identity if $p=q$ and $i_v = j_v$.)

Now, we can give a description of the complete system of identity equations that hold in $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ (i.e. in every algebra $\underline{A} \in \mathcal{D}(\Omega)$). Let ξ be an Ω -term, i.e. a term in the first order language in which the operator symbols belonging to Ω are the only non-logical symbols. Then we denote by $|\xi|$ the length of ξ , by $c(\xi)$ the set of symbols that occur in ξ , by $f(\xi)$ the first symbol of ξ and by $l(\xi)$ the last symbol of ξ . Then, if ξ and η are two Ω -terms the formula $\xi = \eta$ is a non-trivial identity in $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ iff:

$$|\xi|, |\eta| \geq 3, c(\xi) = c(\eta), f(\xi) = f(\eta), l(\xi) = l(\eta). \quad (5)$$

The following propositions are obvious.

1.1. $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ is a variety iff: \underline{A} satisfies all identities of $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ implies that $\underline{A} \in \mathcal{D}(\Omega)$.

1.2. $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ is a variety iff $\mathcal{D}(\Omega \setminus \Omega(0))$ is a variety.

1.3. If $\Omega' \subseteq \Omega$, then: $\mathcal{D}(\Omega')$ is a proper quasivariety implies that $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ is a proper quasivariety.

Thus, if we have an Ω -algebra \underline{A} which satisfies all identities of $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ but does not satisfy a quasiidentity of $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$, then we can conclude, by 1.1, that $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ is a proper quasivariety. By 1.2 we can assume that $\Omega(0) = \emptyset$, and finally, by 1.3, if $\mathcal{D}(\rho, \tau)$ is a proper quasivariety, where $\rho, \tau \in \Omega$, then $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ is a proper quasivariety as well.

2. Assume that ρ and τ are two different operators, such that ρ is m -ary and τ is n -ary.

Let us show that

$$\rho(x^m) = \tau(x^n) \implies \rho^2(x^{2m-1}) = \tau^2(x^{2n-1}) \quad (6)$$

is a quasiidentity in $\mathcal{D}(\rho, \tau)$ for any $m, n \geq 1$, and that if $m, n \geq 2$, then the following quasiidentity also holds in $\mathcal{D}(\rho, \tau)$:

$$\rho(x^m) = \tau(x^n) \implies \rho^2(x^m y^{m-1}) = \tau \rho(x^m y^{n-1}). \quad (7)$$

Namely, let $\underline{A} = (A; \tau, \rho)$ be a $\{\tau, \rho\}$ -subalgebra of a distributive semigroup S and let $a \in A$ be such that $\rho(a^m) = \tau(a^n)$. Then

we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\rho^2(a^{2m-1}) &= \rho^{-2} a^{2m-1} = \bar{\rho} a^m \bar{\rho} a^m = \rho(a^m) \rho(a^m) = \tau(a^n) \tau(a^n) = \\ &= \bar{\tau} a^n \bar{\tau} a^n = \bar{\tau}^2 a^{2n-1} = \tau^2(a^{2n-1}),\end{aligned}$$

i.e. we obtain that \underline{A} satisfies the quasiidentity (6).

Assume now that $m, n \geq 2$. Then, $\rho(a^m) = \tau(a^n)$ implies that:

$$\begin{aligned}\rho^2(a^m b^{m-1}) &= \rho^{-2} a^m b^{m-1} = \bar{\rho} a^m \bar{\rho} b^{m-1} = \rho(a^m) b^{m-1} = \\ &= \tau(a^n) b^{m-1} = \bar{\tau} a^n \bar{\tau} b^{m-1} = \bar{\tau} \tau(a^n) b^{m-1} = \\ &= \bar{\tau} \rho(a^m) b^{m-1} = \bar{\tau} \bar{\rho} a^m \bar{\rho} b^{m-1} = \tau \rho(a^m b^{m-1}),\end{aligned}$$

for any $b \in A$. Therefore, if $m, n \geq 2$, then (7) holds in $\mathcal{Q}(\rho, \tau)$.

Let $n=1$, and let $\underline{A} = (\{a, b, c\}; \rho, \tau)$ be a $\{\rho, \tau\}$ -algebra such that $a \neq b \neq c \neq a$, and:

$$\rho(x_1, \dots, x_m) = b, \text{ for any } x_1, \dots, x_m \in \{a, b, c\},$$

$$\tau(a) = b, \tau(b) = \tau(c) = c.$$

The algebra \underline{A} does not satisfy (6), for $\rho(x^m) = \tau(x)$ implies $x=a$, but then:

$$\rho^2(a^{2m-1}) = b \neq c = \tau^2(a).$$

Let ξ and η be two $\{\rho, \tau\}$ -terms such that (5) holds. If the first symbol of ξ and η is ρ , then any value of ξ and η is b . If $f(\xi) = f(\eta) = \tau$ and if the symbol ρ occurs in ξ and η , then any value of ξ and η is c . And, finally if $\xi = \tau^i x$, $\eta = \tau^j x$, $i, j \geq 2$, then also any value of ξ and η is c . Therefore the algebra \underline{A} satisfies all the identities of $\mathcal{Q}(\rho, \tau)$, but it does not belong to $\mathcal{Q}(\rho, \tau)$, for it does not satisfy the quasiidentity (6).

It remains the case when $m \geq 2$, $n \geq 2$. Now we consider the following algebra $\underline{A} = (\{a, b, c\}; \rho, \tau)$, where $a \neq b \neq c \neq a$, and:

$$\rho(c^m) = \tau(c^n) = c,$$

$$\rho(x_1, \dots, x_m) = a, \quad \tau(x_1, \dots, x_n) = b,$$

if $x_i \neq c$ for some i .

The obtained algebra \underline{A} does not satisfy the quasiidentity (7), for we have $\rho(c^m) = c = \tau(c^n)$, but $\rho^2(c^m b^{m-1}) = a \neq b = \tau \rho(c^m b^{n-1})$. Therefore $\underline{A} \notin \mathcal{Q}(\rho, \tau)$ but it can be easily seen that \underline{A} satisfy all the identities of $\mathcal{Q}(\rho, \tau)$. Namely, let $\xi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p)$, $\eta(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p)$ be two $\{\rho, \tau\}$ -terms such that (5) holds. Then we have: $\xi(c^p) = c = \eta(c^p)$. And, if $(c^p) \neq (x_1, \dots, x_p)$, then $f(\xi) = f(\eta) = \rho \Rightarrow \xi(x_1, \dots, x_p) = a = \eta(x_1, \dots, x_p)$, $f(\xi) = f(\eta) = \tau \Rightarrow \xi(x_1, \dots, x_p) = b = \eta(x_1, \dots, x_p)$. From this example it follows that $\mathcal{Q}(\rho, \tau)$ is a proper quasivariety.

Thus, we have shown that if $\Omega \setminus \Omega(0)$ contains at least two operators, then $\mathcal{Q}(\Omega)$ is a proper quasivariety.

3. It remains the case when Ω consists of only one n-ary operator ω , where $n \geq 1$. In this case $\mathcal{Q}(\Omega) = \mathcal{Q}(\omega)$ is a variety.

Let $\underline{A} = (A; \omega)$ satisfy all the identities of $\mathcal{Q}(\omega)$, and let e be a symbol which does not belong to A . Consider the semigroup D which is freely generated by $B = A \cup \{e\}$ in the variety \mathcal{Q} . Thus, D consists of all "formal products" $b_1 b_2 \dots b_p$ of elements of B , and

$$b_1 b_2 \dots b_p = b_1' b_2' \dots b_q'$$

in D iff

$$q=p, b_v = b_v' \text{ or } p, q \geq 3, b_1 = b_1', b_p = b_q' \text{ and}$$

$$\{b_1, \dots, b_p\} = \{b_1', \dots, b_q'\}.$$

If $u = \dots a \dots \in D$, $a \in A$, $a = \omega(a_1, \dots, a_n)$ in \underline{A} , and $v = \dots e a_1 \dots a_n \dots$, then we say that (u, v) and (v, u) are two pairs of neighbours. Two elements $u, v \in D$ are said to be equivalent, and this is denoted by $u \approx v$, iff there is a sequence $u_0, \dots, u_t \in D$ such that $t \geq 0$, $u_0 = u$, $u_t = v$, and (u_{i-1}, u_i) is a pair of neighbours if $i \geq 1$. It is clear that \approx is a congruence on D .

We will show that the following statement is satisfied:

$$a, b \in A \Rightarrow (a \approx b \Rightarrow a = b) \quad (*)$$

and this will implies that \underline{A} can be embedded as an Ω -subalgebra in the semigroup $S = D/\omega$.

Consider first the case $n \geq 2$. An element $u \in D$ will be called an ω -word if $u \in A$, or $u = e b_1 b_2 \dots b_p a$, where $b_v \in B$, $p \geq 1$, $a \in A$. The "value" $[u]$ of an ω -word is defined in the following way. First, if $u \in A$, then $[u] = u$. And, if $u = e b_1 \dots b_p a$, then $u = e^i b_1 b_2 \dots b_p a^j$ for any $i \geq 1$, $j \geq 1$, and we can choose i, j in such a way that the term ξ , which is obtained from u by replacing any occuring of e by ω is a "continued product" in (A, ω) ; then, $[u]$ is the "value" of this "product". The fact that $(A; \omega)$ satisfies all the identities of $D(\omega)$ implies that the value $[u]$ of an ω -word is uniquely determined.

Let $a, b \in A$ and $a \approx b$. Then, there exist $u_0, u_1, \dots, u_t \in D$ such that $a = u_0$, $b = u_t$, $t \geq 0$ and (u_{i-1}, u_i) is a pair of neighbours for any $i \in \{1, \dots, t\}$. If u_i is an ω -word for any i , then $[u_{i-1}] = [u_i]$, and $a = [a] = [u_1] = \dots = [u_{t-1}] = [b] = b$.

Assume now that u_i is an ω -word if $i \in \{0, \dots, p\}$, u_j is not an ω -word if $i \in \{p+1, \dots, p+q-1\}$, and u_{p+q} is an ω -word. Put $u'_{p+v} = e u_{p+v}$, if $v \in \{1, \dots, q-1\}$. Then we have that $(u_p, u_{p+1}), \dots, (u_{p+q-1}, u_{p+q})$ are pairs of neighbours and thus we have $[u_p] = [u'_{p+1}] = \dots = [u'_{p+q-1}] = [u_{p+q}]$, and therefore we consider the sequence $a = u_0, \dots, u_p, u'_{p+1}, \dots, u'_{p+q-1}, u_{p+q}$, instead of $u_0, \dots, u_p, u_{p+1}, \dots, u_{p+q-1}, u_{p+q}$. This shows that it can be assumed that all the members of the sequence u_0, u_1, \dots, u_t are ω -words which implies that $a = b$.

It remains the case $n=1$. Let $a = u_0, u_1, \dots, u_t = b$, be as above. If $t=0$, then $a=b$, and if $t \geq 1$, then $t \geq 2$. Let $t=2$. Then $u_1 = ec$, where $c \in A$, and $a = \omega(c) = b$. Let $n \geq 3$ and $u_2 \neq a$; by a standard induction it can be shown that if $c \in A$ and $u_j = \dots c \dots$, then $a = \omega^2(c) = b$.

This completes the proof of (*).

4. From 1, 2, and 3 we obtain the following main result of this note:

Theorem. $\mathcal{A}(\Omega)$ is a variety of Ω -algebras iff $\Omega \setminus \Omega(0)$ contains at most one operator.

R E F E R E N C E S

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