

EMBEDDING OF ALGEBRAS IN DISTRIBUTIVE SEMIGROUPS

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Abstract. Subalgebras of different kinds of distributive semigroups are considered in [11], [8] and [9]. Here we make corresponding investigations concerning left (right) semigroups. We also establish some connections between ω -subalgebras and n -subsemigroups of each of the classes of distributive semigroups, whereas ω is an n -ary operator.

0. PRELIMINARIES

Necessary preliminary definitions and results will be stated first.

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

$$(1) \quad \omega(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = \bar{\omega} a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$$

for every $\omega \in \Omega(n)$, $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in A$ ($\Omega(i)$ denotes the set of all i -ary operators in Ω).

If $\{\omega\} = \Omega(n) = \Omega$, then instead of " Ω -(sub)algebra" we say " ω -(sub)algebra". An ω -algebra $\underline{A} = (A; \omega)$ is called an n -subsemigroup of a semigroup $\underline{S} = (S; \cdot)$ if $\omega \in \Omega(n)$, $n \geq 3$, $A \subseteq S$ and

$$(2) \quad \omega(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$$

for all $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in A$.

Let V be a variety of semigroups. Then $V(\Omega)(V(n))$ denotes the class of Ω -subalgebras (n -subsemigroups, resp.) of semigroups in V and $\tilde{V}(\Omega)$ ($\tilde{V}(n)$) denotes the variety of Ω -algebras (ω -algebras, resp.) defined by the set of all identities valid in $V(\Omega)$ ($V(n)$, resp.). If $V(\Omega)$ ($V(n)$) is a variety then clearly $\tilde{V}(\Omega) = V(\Omega)$ ($\tilde{V}(n) = V(n)$, resp.). But in general $V(\Omega)$ ($V(n)$) is a quasivariety [10, pg.254]. In several papers ([2], [3], [4], [6], [7], [8], [9], [11], [12], [13]) special varieties V are considered and the corresponding answers whether $V(\Omega)$ ($V(n)$) is a proper quasivariety or a variety are given. One of the first results is that $SEM(\Omega)$ is the variety of all Ω -algebras [1],

and the other is that $SEM(n)$ is the variety of all n -semigroups [4], whereas SEM denotes the variety of all semigroups.

Here we are dealing with the following four varieties of semigroups: The variety \mathcal{D}^e (\mathcal{D}^r) of left (right, resp.) distributive semigroups, i.e. the variety defined by the left (right, resp.) distributive law

$$(3) \quad xyz = yxz \quad ((3') \quad xyz = xzyz) ,$$

the variety $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}^e \cap \mathcal{D}^r$ of distributive semigroups and the variety \mathcal{D}^c of commutative distributive semigroups.

It is shown in [11] that $\mathcal{D}(n)$ is a variety and that $\mathcal{D}^e(n)$, $\mathcal{D}^r(n)$ are proper quasivarieties of n -semigroups. We also know ([3]) that \mathcal{D}^c is a member of an infinite set of varieties \mathcal{M} of commutative semigroups such that $\mathcal{M}(n)$ is a variety. Concerning Ω -subalgebras, we have ([8]) that $\mathcal{D}^c(\Omega)$ is a variety of Ω -algebras for any operator domain Ω and ([9]) that $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ is a variety iff $|\Omega \setminus \Omega(0)| \leq 1$.

In this paper we are going to prove the following theorems:

THEOREM 1. $\mathcal{D}^e(\Omega)$ is a variety iff $\Omega = \Omega(0) \cup \Omega(1)$.

THEOREM 2. $\mathcal{D}^r(\Omega)$ is a variety iff $\Omega = \Omega(0) \cup \Omega(1)$ and $|\Omega(1)| \leq 1$.

THEOREM 3. Let ω be an n -ary operator ($n \geq 3$). The following relations are satisfied:

- i) $\mathcal{D}^c(n) = \mathcal{D}^c(\omega)$
- ii) $\mathcal{D}(\omega) \subset \mathcal{D}(n)$, the inclusion is strict
- iii) if $p \in \{l, r\}$, then neither of the classes $\mathcal{D}^p(n), \mathcal{D}^p(\omega)$ is a subclass of the other.

Before giving the proofs of the theorems we shall state some lemmas which are obvious or easy to prove.

LEMMA 0.1. Let V be an arbitrary variety of semigroups. If $\Omega = \Omega(0)$, then $V(\Omega)$ is a variety. If $\Omega \neq \Omega(0)$, then $V(\Omega)$ is a variety iff $V(\Omega \setminus \Omega(0))$ is a variety.

Further on we assume that $\Omega(0) = \emptyset$ and that $\Omega \neq \emptyset$.

LEMMA 0.2. If $\Omega \subseteq \Omega'$ and $\mathcal{D}^e(\Omega)$ ($\mathcal{D}^r(\Omega)$) is a proper quasivariety, then $\mathcal{D}^e(\Omega')$ ($\mathcal{D}^r(\Omega')$) is a proper quasivariety.

Let ξ be a word in an arbitrary alphabet. Denote the number of occurrences of symbols in ξ by $d(\xi)$, the set of symbols

occurring in ξ by $c(\xi)$ and the i -th symbol in ξ from left to the right (the right to the left) by $\xi(i)$ ($(i)\xi$, resp.).

Two words ξ and η in an arbitrary alphabet are said to be \mathcal{W}^e -correlated if:

- a) $c(\xi) = c(\eta)$, $\xi(i) = \eta(i)$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, (1)\xi = (1)\eta$
- b) the sequences of the first occurrences of the symbols in ξ and η are equal (whereas $\xi(i)$ is the first occurrence of the symbol $\xi(i)$ in ξ if $\xi(j) \neq \xi(i)$ for every $j, j < i$)
- c) if $\xi(k) \neq (1)\xi$ for every k , $0 < k \leq d(\xi)$, then $\eta(k) \neq (1)\eta$ for every k , $0 < k \leq d(\eta)$.

A word ξ is said to be the inverse of a word η if $d(\xi) = d(\eta)$ and $\xi(i) = (i)\eta$ for every i , $0 < i \leq d(\xi) = d(\eta)$.

Two words ξ and η are said to be \mathcal{W}^r -correlated if their inverses are \mathcal{W}^e -correlated.

LEMMA 0.3. ([11]) A semigroup identity $\xi = \eta$ is valid in $\mathcal{W}^e(\mathcal{W}^r)$ iff ξ and η are \mathcal{W}^e -correlated (\mathcal{W}^r -correlated).

LEMMA 0.4. An Ω -identity $\xi = \eta$ is valid in $\mathcal{W}^e(\Omega)$ ($\mathcal{W}^r(\Omega)$) iff ξ and η are \mathcal{W}^e -correlated (\mathcal{W}^r -correlated).

1. PROOF OF THEOREM 1

First, let $\Omega = \Omega(1)$.

Let $\underline{A} = (A; \Omega)$ belong to the variety $\tilde{\mathcal{W}}^e(\Omega)$. We shall show that $\underline{A} \in \mathcal{W}^e(\Omega)$, so that $\tilde{\mathcal{W}}^e(\Omega) = \mathcal{W}^e(\Omega)$.

Let $\bar{\Omega} = \{\bar{\omega}; \omega \in \Omega\}$ be a set of symbols such that $A \cap \bar{\Omega} = \emptyset$ and $\omega \neq \tau \Rightarrow \bar{\omega} \neq \bar{\tau}$ for every $\omega, \tau \in \Omega$. Let $F(\cdot)$ be the free semigroup in the variety \mathcal{W}^e generated by the set $\bar{\Omega} \cup A$. Say that $u, v \in F(\cdot)$ are ω -neighbours or simply neighbours if $u = u_1 \cdot \bar{\omega} \cdot b \cdot u_2$, $v = u_1 \cdot a \cdot u_2$, for $\omega(b) = a$ in \underline{A} . Let \approx be the transitive and reflexive extension of the relation of neighbourhood in $F(\cdot)$.

LEMMA 1.1. Relation \approx is a congruence on $F(\cdot)$.

Proof Let $u_1 \approx v_1$ and $u_2 \approx v_2$. Then $u_1 u_2 \approx u_1 v_2 \approx v_1 v_2$. \therefore

Let $D(\cdot) = F(\cdot)/\approx$. We shall show that \underline{A} is a subalgebra of $D(\cdot)$.

Define a value, denoted by $[]$, as a partial mapping from $F(\cdot)$ into A by: $[\bar{\omega}_1 \bar{\omega}_2 \dots \bar{\omega}_s a] = \omega_1 \omega_2 \dots \omega_s(a)$.

It is easy to see that:

- 1°. $[\]$ is a well defined mapping, and that
 2°. if u, v are neighbours and u is in the domain of $[\]$, then v is also in the domain of $[\]$ and $[u] = [v]$.

The set A can be considered as a subset of D . For, if $a \approx b$ for some $a, b \in A$, then there is a sequence $a = u_0, u_1, \dots, u_{t-1}, u_t = b$ such that u_i, u_{i+1} are neighbours ($0 \leq i \leq t-1$) and $a = [a] = [u_1] = \dots = [u_{t-1}] = [b] = b$.

The fact that $\omega(a) = \bar{\omega}a$ for every $\omega \in \Omega$, $a \in A$ is obvious.

Let $\Omega \neq \Omega(1)$.

If ω is an n -ary operator in Ω ($n \geq 2$), then the quasiidentity

$$(4) \quad \omega x^n = \omega y^{n-1} x \rightarrow \omega x z^{n-1} = \omega y^{n-1} \omega x z^{n-1}$$

is valid in $\mathcal{D}^e(\Omega)$. Namely, for an arbitrary subalgebra $\underline{A} = (A; \Omega)$ of a semigroup $S(\cdot)$ belonging to \mathcal{D}^e whose elements a, b satisfy the relation $\omega(a^n) = \omega(b^{n-1}a)$, we have: $\omega(ac^{n-1}) = \bar{\omega}.a.c^{n-1} = \bar{\omega}.a^n.c^{n-1} = (\omega(a^n)).c^{n-1} = (\omega(b^{n-1}a)).c^{n-1} = \bar{\omega}.b^{n-1}.a.c^{n-1} = \bar{\omega}.b^{n-1}.a.c^{n-1} = \bar{\omega}.b^{n-1}.\bar{\omega}.a.c^{n-1} = \bar{\omega}.b^{n-1}.\omega(ac^{n-1}) = \omega(b^{n-1}\omega(ac^{n-1}))$ for every $c \in A$. On the other hand, the quasiidentity (4) is not a consequence of the identities in $\mathcal{D}^e(\Omega)$. To prove that, consider the algebra $\underline{A} = (A; \{\omega\})$, belonging to the variety $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}^e(\omega)$ and generated by the set $\{a, b, c\}$, with one defining relation between the generators: $\omega(a^n) = \omega(b^{n-1}a)$. The relation $\omega(b^{n-1}\omega(ac^{n-1})) = \omega(ac^{n-1})$ is not valid in \underline{A} . Roughly speaking, starting with $\omega(ac^{n-1})$, the element a remains in the second and the element c in the last place after using the identities in $\mathcal{D}^e(\omega)$. So, the defining relation can not be used to change the element a in the second place, because of the element c in the last.

Thus, by Lemma 0.2 we have shown Theorem 1.

2. PROOF OF THEOREM 2

Let $\Omega = \{\omega\} = \Omega(1)$. Utilizing Lemma 0.4, we see that $\xi = \eta$ is an identity in $\mathcal{D}^F(\Omega)$ iff $(1)\xi = (1)\eta$. On the other hand, the class of Ω -algebras defined by the identity of that type is precisely $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ (see [9]). Thus, if $\underline{A} \in \tilde{\mathcal{D}}^F(\Omega)$, then $\underline{A} \in \mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ and because $\mathcal{D}(\Omega) \subseteq \mathcal{D}^F(\Omega)$, $\underline{A} \in \mathcal{D}^F(\Omega)$. We can now conclude that $\mathcal{D}^F(\Omega) = \mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ and that $\mathcal{D}^F(\Omega)$ is a variety.

Let $\Omega = \{\omega, \tau\} = \Omega(1)$. The quasiidentity

$$(5) \quad \omega x = \tau x \rightarrow \omega^2 x = \tau^2 x$$

is valid in $\mathcal{D}^r(\Omega)$ (proceed as for the quasiidentity (4)). An example of an algebra $\underline{A} = (A; \{\omega, \tau\})$ belonging to $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}^r(\Omega)$ and not satisfying (5) is the following: $A = \{a, b, c\}$, $\omega(x) = b$ for every $x \in A$, $\tau(a) = b$, $\tau(b) = c = \tau(c)$. We have $\omega(a) = \tau(a)$, but $\omega^2(a) = b \neq c = \tau^2(a)$. The algebra \underline{A} belongs to $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}^r(\Omega)$ because every Ω -term ξ , with $d(\xi) \geq 3$, has an interpretation in \underline{A} equal to c for $\xi(1) = \tau$ and to b for $\xi(1) = \omega$.

Finally, let $\Omega = \{\omega\} = \Omega(n)$, $n \geq 2$. The quasiidentity

$$(6) \quad \omega xy^{n-1} = \omega x^n \rightarrow \omega xy^{n-1} = \omega y^{n-1} x$$

is valid in $\mathcal{D}^r(\Omega)$. To check that consider an Ω -algebra \underline{A} belonging to $\mathcal{D}^r(\Omega)$ and its elements a and b satisfying the relation $\omega(ab^{n-1}) = \omega(a^n)$. We have: $\omega(ab^{n-1}) = \omega(a^n) = \bar{\omega}.a^n = \bar{\omega}.a^n.a = \omega(a^n).a = \omega(ab^{n-1}).a = \bar{\omega}.a.b^{n-1}.a = \bar{\omega}.b^{n-1}.a = \omega(b^{n-1}.a)$.

In order to prove that the quasiidentity (6) is not a consequence of the identities valid in $\mathcal{D}^r(\Omega)$ define an ω -algebra $\underline{A} = (A; \omega)$ as follows: $A = \{a, b, c\}$,

$$\omega(d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } d_n = c \text{ or } d_n = d_{n-1} = b \\ a & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

We have $\omega(bc^{n-1}) = c = \omega(b^n)$ and $\omega(bc^{n-1}) = c \neq a = \omega(c^{n-1}.b)$. Thus (6) is not valid in \underline{A} and it is obvious that $\underline{A} \in \tilde{\mathcal{D}}^r(\Omega)$.

Now we can use Lemma 0.2 and the proof of Theorem 2 is completed.

3. PROOF OF THEOREM 3

1°. It is easy to see that $u = v$ is an identity in \mathcal{D}^c iff $c(u) = c(v)$ and $d(u), d(v) \geq 3$ or it is a trivial one. Thus $\xi = \eta$ is an identity in $\mathcal{D}^c(\omega)$ or $\mathcal{D}^c(n)$ iff $c(\xi) = c(\eta)$ or it is a trivial one. So, bearing in mind that both $\mathcal{D}^c(\omega)$ and $\mathcal{D}^c(n)$ are varieties ([8], [11]) we have proved the first part of Theorem 3.

2°. An identity $u = v$ is valid in \mathcal{D} iff it is trivial or $c(u) = c(v)$, $u(1) = v(1)$, $(1)u = (1)v$ and $d(u), d(v) \geq 3$. Thus:

$$a) \quad \xi = \eta \text{ is valid in } \mathcal{D}(\omega) \text{ iff } c(\xi) = c(\eta), (1)\xi = (1)\eta$$

and $d(\xi), d(\eta) \geq 3$, or it is trivial.

b) $\xi = \eta$ is valid in $\mathcal{D}(n)$ iff $c(\xi) = c(\eta)$, $(1)\xi = (1)\eta$, $d(\xi), d(\eta) \geq 3$ and $\xi(i) = \eta(j)$ where $\xi(i)$ and $\eta(j)$ are the first variable symbols occurring in ξ and η respectively, or it is trivial.

We can see that every identity valid in $\mathcal{D}(n)$ is valid in $\mathcal{D}(\omega)$. Thus, because both classes are varieties ([9],[11]), every algebra belonging to $\mathcal{D}(\omega)$ belongs to $\mathcal{D}(n)$. The converse assertion is evidently not true. For example, the identity $\omega xy^{n-1} = \omega yx^{n-2}$ is valid in $\mathcal{D}(\omega)$ but not in $\mathcal{D}(n)$.

3°. For an ω -term ξ , denote by $\bar{\xi}$ the semigroup term obtained from ξ by deleting every occurrence of an operator symbol in ξ . An analogue of Lemma 0.4 is the following assertion: an identity $\xi = \eta$ is valid in $\mathcal{D}^e(n)$ ($\mathcal{D}^r(n)$) iff $\bar{\xi}$ and $\bar{\eta}$ are \mathcal{D}^e -correlated (\mathcal{D}^r -correlated, resp.). Thus, it is easy to check that:

a) The identity $\omega xy^{n-1} = \omega x^{n-1} \omega xy^{n-1}$ is valid in $\mathcal{D}^e(\omega)$ and not in $\mathcal{D}^e(n)$. Conversely, $\omega x^n = \omega^2 x^{2n-1}$ is valid in $\mathcal{D}^e(n)$ but not in $\mathcal{D}^e(\omega)$.

b) The identity $\omega x \omega yx^{2n-3} = \omega^2 yx^{2n-2}$ is valid in $\mathcal{D}^r(\omega)$ but not in $\mathcal{D}^r(n)$. Conversely, $\omega x \omega y^{2n-2} = \omega^2 xy^{2n-2}$ is valid in $\mathcal{D}^r(n)$ but not in $\mathcal{D}^r(\omega)$.

Theorem 3 is proved.

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