

CONTACT INFORMATION

Andriy Romaniv

Pidstryhach Institute for Applied Problems of Mechanics and Mathematics NAS of Ukraine,
Lviv, Ukraine

Email address: romaniv_a@ukr.net

Key words and phrases. Reduction of nonsingular matrices, rings almost stable range 1

On the conjugate sets of IP-quasigroups

TATIANA ROTARI

A quasigroup (Q, A) is called quasigroup with the property of invertibility (*an IP-quasigroup*) if there exist two mappings I_l and I_r on the set Q into Q that $A(I_l x, A(x, y)) = y$ and $A(A(y, x), I_r x) = y$ for any $x, y \in Q$ [1]. The mappings I_l and I_r are permutations and $I_l^2 = I_r^2 = \varepsilon$.

It is known that the system Σ of six (not necessarily distinct) conjugates (or parastrophes): $A, {}^rA, {}^lA, {}^{lr}A, {}^sA, A$, where ${}^rA(x, y) = z \Leftrightarrow A(x, z) = y$, ${}^lA(x, y) = z \Leftrightarrow A(z, y) = x$, ${}^sA(x, y) = A(y, x)$ (${}^rA = {}^r({}^lA)$) corresponds to a quasigroup (Q, A) .

It is known [2] that the number of distinct conjugates in Σ can be 1, 2, 3 or 6.

Using suitable Belousov's designation of conjugates of a quasigroup (Q, A) from [1] we have the following system Σ of conjugates:

$$\Sigma = \{A, {}^rA, {}^lA, {}^{lr}A, {}^sA\},$$

where ${}^lA = A$, ${}^rA = A^{-1}$, ${}^lA = {}^{-1}A$, ${}^{lr}A = {}^{-1}(A^{-1})$, ${}^sA = A^*$.

Note that

$$({}^{-1}(A^{-1}))^{-1} = {}^{rlr}A = {}^{-1}({}^{-1}A)^{-1} = {}^{lrl}A = {}^sA$$

and ${}^{rr}A = {}^{ll}A = A$, ${}^{\sigma r}A = {}^{\sigma}({}^rA)$.

The conjugates of IP-quasigroup have the following form [1, 4]:

$${}^lA(x, y) = A(x, I_r y), {}^rA(x, y) = A(I_l x, y), {}^{lr}A(x, y) = I_l A(x, I_l y),$$

$${}^{rl}A(x, y) = I_r A(I_l x, y), {}^sA(x, y) = I_l A(I_r x, I_r y).$$

The following Theorem 1 of [3, 4] describes all possible conjugate sets for quasigroups and points out the only possible variants of equality of conjugates:

THEOREM 1. *The following conjugate sets of a quasigroups (Q, A) are only possible:*
 $\bar{\Sigma}_1(A) = \{A\}$, $\bar{\Sigma}_2 = \{A, {}^sA\} = \{A = {}^{lr}A = {}^{rl}A, {}^lA = {}^rA = {}^sA\}$, $\bar{\Sigma}_6 = \{A, {}^lA, {}^rA, {}^{lr}A, {}^{rl}A, {}^sA\}$,
 $\bar{\Sigma}_3 = \{A, {}^{lr}A, {}^{rl}A\}$ and three cases are only possible: $\bar{\Sigma}_3^1 = \{A = {}^rA, {}^lA = {}^{lr}A, {}^{rl}A = {}^sA\}$;
 $\bar{\Sigma}_3^2 = \{A = {}^lA, {}^rA = {}^{rl}A, {}^{lr} = {}^sA\}$; $\bar{\Sigma}_3^3 = \{A = {}^sA, {}^rA = {}^{lr}A, {}^lA = {}^{rl}A\}$.

We study the conjugate sets on the distinct conjugates of IP-quasigroups and IP-loops.

THEOREM 2. *Let a quasigroup (Q, A) be an IP-quasigroup. Then*

$\Sigma(A) = \bar{\Sigma}_1(A)$ if and only if $I_r = I_l = I = \varepsilon$;

$\Sigma(A) = \bar{\Sigma}_2(A)$ if and only if $I_l = I_r = I \neq \varepsilon$, $A(x, y) \neq A(y, x)$ and $IA(x, y) = A(y, x)$;

$\Sigma(A) = \bar{\Sigma}_3^1(A)$ if and only if $I_l = \varepsilon \neq I_r$;

$\Sigma(A) = \bar{\Sigma}_3^2(A)$ if and only if $I_r = \varepsilon \neq I_l$;

$\Sigma(A) = \bar{\Sigma}_3^3(A)$ if and only if $I_l = I_r = I \neq \varepsilon$ and $A(x, y) = A(y, x)$;

$\Sigma(A) = \bar{\Sigma}_6(A)$ if and only if $I_l = I_r = I \neq \varepsilon$, $A(x, y) \neq A(y, x)$ and $IA(x, y) \neq A(y, x)$;

A special case of IP-loops is a Moufang loop defined by the identity

$$A(x, A(y, A(x, z))) = A(A(A(x, y), x), z).$$

From the Theoreme the following corollary easy follow.

COROLLARY 1. *Let (Q, A) be an IP-loop (a Moufang loop), then*

$\Sigma(A) = \overline{\Sigma}_1(A)$ *if and only if* $I = \varepsilon$;

$\Sigma(A) = \overline{\Sigma}_3^3(A)$ *if and only if* (Q, A) *is commutative and* $I \neq \varepsilon$;

$\Sigma(A) = \overline{\Sigma}_6(A)$ *if and only if* (Q, A) *is noncommutative.*

Note that the case $\Sigma(A) = \overline{\Sigma}_2(A)$ ($\overline{\Sigma}_3^1(A)$ or $\overline{\Sigma}_3^2(A)$) for any IP-loops is impossible.

References

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CONTACT INFORMATION

Tatiana Rotari

Department of Mathematics and Informatics, University of City „Alec Russo”, Bălți, Moldova
Email address: rotari.tatiana@usarb.md

Key words and phrases. Quasigroup, IP-quasigroup, IP-loop, Conjugate sets of IP-quasigroups, Conjugate sets of IP-loops.

On sublattices of the lattice of multiply saturated formations of finite groups

INNA N. SAFONOVA, VASILY G. SAFONOV

All groups considered are finite. We use terminology and notations from [1]–[3].

Let σ be some partition of the set of all primes \mathbb{P} , that is, $\sigma = \{\sigma_i | i \in I\}$, where $\mathbb{P} = \bigcup_{i \in I} \sigma_i$ and $\sigma_i \cap \sigma_j = \emptyset$ for all $i \neq j$; $\Pi \subseteq \sigma$ and $\Pi' = \sigma \setminus \Pi$. If n is an integer, the symbol $\sigma(n)$ denotes the set $\{\sigma_i | \sigma_i \cap \pi(n) \neq \emptyset\}$, if G is a finite group, then $\sigma(G) = \sigma(|G|)$, and if \mathfrak{F} is a class of groups, then $\sigma(\mathfrak{F}) = \bigcup_{G \in \mathfrak{F}} \sigma(G)$.

A function f of the form $f : \sigma \rightarrow \{\text{formations of groups}\}$ is called a *formation σ -function*. For any formation σ -function f the symbol $LF_\sigma(f)$ denotes the class

$$LF_\sigma(f) = \{G \mid G = 1 \text{ or } G \neq 1 \text{ and } G/O_{\sigma'_i, \sigma_i}(G) \in f(\sigma_i) \text{ for all } \sigma_i \in \sigma(G)\}.$$

If for some formation σ -function f we have $\mathfrak{F} = LF_\sigma(f)$, then we say, that the class \mathfrak{F} is σ -local and f is a σ -local definition of \mathfrak{F} .

We suppose that every formation of groups is 0 -multiply σ -local; for $n \geq 1$, we say that the formation \mathfrak{F} is n -multiply σ -local provided either $\mathfrak{F} = (1)$ is the formation of all identity groups or $\mathfrak{F} = LF_\sigma(f)$, where $f(\sigma_i)$ is $(n-1)$ -multiply σ -local for all $\sigma_i \in \sigma(\mathfrak{F})$. The formation \mathfrak{F} is said to be *totally σ -local* provided \mathfrak{F} it is n -multiply σ -local for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

In the classical case, when $\sigma = \sigma^1 = \{\{2\}, \{3\}, \dots\}$, a formation σ -function, a σ -local formation and an n -multiply σ -local formation are, respectively, a formation function, a local formation (a saturated formation), and an n -multiply local formation (an n -multiply saturated formation) in the usual sense [4]–[6].