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Matematický časopis, Vol. 23 (1973), No. 3, 223--230

Persistent URL: <http://dml.cz/dmlcz/126892>

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ROT-QUASIGROUPS

JÁN DUPLÁK, Prešov

Let \mathcal{E}^2 be an oriented Euclidean plane and let $(.)$ be a binary operation defined in \mathcal{E}^2 by $a . b = c$, if c is the image of b under the rotation $R[a, +90^\circ]$. We find easily that the groupoid $\mathcal{E}^2 (.)$ is a medial, idempotent, elastic and transitive quasigroup. Moreover, the groupoid $\mathcal{E}^2 (.)$ satisfies the interesting identity $x . (x . y) = z . [(x . z) . y]$. This identity will be taken as an axiom in the description of certain quasigroups, rot-quasigroups, which we are going to study.

We remark that a groupoid with the law of composition (A) in a set \mathcal{Q} is denoted by $\mathcal{Q}(A)$. Let a, b be arbitrary elements of \mathcal{Q} and let there exist uniquely determined $y \in \mathcal{Q}$ such that $A[a, x] = b, A[y, a] = b$. Then $\mathcal{Q}(A)$ is a quasigroup. We shall denote $A^{-1}[a, b] = x, {}^{-1}A[b, a] = y$ if and only if $A[a, x] = b, b = A[y, a]$, respectively. It is clear that if $\mathcal{Q}(A)$ is a quasigroup, then $\mathcal{Q}(A^{-1})$ and $\mathcal{Q}({}^{-1}A)$ are quasigroups (see [1]).

Definition 1. *A rot-quasigroup is such a quasigroup which satisfies the identity*

$$(1) \quad x . xy = z(xz . y)^{(1)}$$

In the following the symbol $\mathcal{Q}(A) = \mathcal{Q}(.)$ or \mathcal{Q} denotes a rot-quasigroup. This paper considers elementary properties of rot-quasigroups $\mathcal{Q}(.)$ and groups of all their automorphisms, denoted by $(\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{Q}), \circ) = \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{Q})$.

Theorem 1. *For any $x, y \in \mathcal{Q}$*

$$x . x = x \quad (\text{idempotency}),$$

$$(2) \quad x(yx . y) = y,$$

$$x . yx = xy . x \quad (\text{elasticity}),$$

$$(3) \quad x . xy = yxy . y,$$

$$(4) \quad A^{-1}[x, y] = yxy.$$

(1) The expression $x . y$ will be usually written in the abbreviation xy . Thus $x . yz = x . (y . z)$ and $xyx = x . yx = xy . x$.

Proof. The proof is straightforward. From (1) we have the idempotency, (2) for $x = z$, $x = y$, respectively. Now we prove the elasticity. Since $\mathcal{Q}(\cdot)$ is a quasigroup there exists $t \in \mathcal{Q}$ such that $x = yt$ for arbitrary $x, y \in \mathcal{Q}$. It follows from the idempotency and (1) that $x \cdot yx = x(yx \cdot yx) = t(yt \cdot yx) = t(x \cdot yx)$. Thus $x \cdot yx = t(x \cdot yx)$, which implies $t = x \cdot yx$. Hence $x = yt = y(x \cdot yx)$ and so $x = y(x \cdot yx)$. From the last identity and (2) we obtain $x \cdot yx = xy \cdot x = xyx$. To prove (3) assume $y = z$ in (1). Then with respect to the elasticity we obtain (3). Finally, we prove (4). It follows from (2) that $A^{-1}[x, y] = yx \cdot y$ and because of the elasticity we obtain (4).

We recall that the right (left) translation with respect to $a \in \mathcal{Q}$ is the map $R_a : \mathcal{Q} \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}$, $x \rightarrow x \cdot a$ ($L_a : \mathcal{Q} \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}$, $x \rightarrow a \cdot x$).

Theorem 2. For any $x, y \in \mathcal{Q}$

- (5) $L_x^2 = L_y L_{xy}$,
- (6) $L_x L_y = L_z^2$, where $z = {}^{-1}A[y, x]$,
- (7) $L_x^3 y = yxy$,
- (8) $L_x^4 = 1$,
- (9) $(L_x^2 L_y^2)^{-1} = L_y^2 L_x^2$,
- (10) $L_x L_y = L_y^{-1} L_x^{-1}$, i. e. $(L_x L_y)^2 = 1$,
- (11) $L_x^{-1} = L_x^3 = L_y L_x L_y$,
- (12) $L_{xy}^3 = L_x^2 L_y$.

Proof. It is clear that (1) \Rightarrow (5) \Rightarrow (6). From (1) the identity $x(x \cdot xy) = z(xz \cdot xy)$ follows and so $L_x^3 y = y(xy \cdot xy)$, if $y = z$. Hence $L_x^3 y = yxy$. Further (2) and (7) \Rightarrow (8) \Rightarrow (9); (6) and (8) \Rightarrow (10); 10 and (8) \Rightarrow (11). By (11) and (5), $L_{xy}^3 = L_y L_{xy} L_y = L_x^2 L_y$. This completes the proof.

We recall that a medial quasigroup is such a quasigroup which satisfies the identity $xy \cdot wz = xw \cdot yz$.

Theorem 3. A rot-quasigroup is medial.

Proof. Choose $x, y, z, w \in \mathcal{Q}$. By (11), (12) and (5), $L_y = L_{xz} L_y \cdot L_{xz}^3 = L_x^2 L_z = L_y L_{xy} L_z$. Hence $L_{xz} L_y w = L_{xy} L_z w$ and so $xz \cdot yw = xy \cdot zw$.

Combining Th 3 (i. e. Theorem 3) with Th 2.6 and Th 8.3 from [1] we obtain the following results.

Corollary 1. Every rot-quasigroup is transitive, i. e. each loop isotopic to a rot-quasigroup is necessarily a group.

Corollary 2. For any $x \in \mathcal{Q}$, L_x and R_x are automorphisms of a rot-quasigroup $\mathcal{Q}(\cdot)$, i. e. $L_x, R_x \in \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{Q})$.

Corollary 3. Every rot-quasigroup $\mathcal{Q}(\cdot)$ is distributive, i. e. $\mathcal{Q}(\cdot)$ satisfies the identities $x \cdot yz = xy \cdot xz$, $xy \cdot z = xz \cdot yz$.

Definition 2. For any $x, y \in \mathcal{Q}$, the map $V_{x,y} = L_x^2 L_y^2$ is called a left transfer.

Theorem 4. For any $x, y \in \mathcal{Q}$

$$(13) \quad L_x^2 L_y^{-1} = V_x \cdot {}^{-1}A[x, y].$$

Proof. It follows from (11) that $L_y^{-1} = L_x L_y L_x$. Then $L_x L_y^{-1} = L_x L_x L_y L_x$ and with respect to (6) we have (13).

The following result is the immediate consequence of (4) and Th 4.

Corollary. For any $x, y \in \mathcal{Q}$

$$(14) \quad V_{x,y} = L_x L_{xyz}^{-1}.$$

Theorem 5. $L_a^2 t = L_b^2 t$ for some t if and only if $a = b$; $L_a^2 x = x$ if and only if $a = x$; $V_{a,b} = 1$ if and only if $a = b$; $V_{a,b} \neq 1$ has no invariant points.

Proof. It follows from (1) that $L_a^2 t = L_b^2 t \Rightarrow a \cdot at = b \cdot bt \Rightarrow z(az \cdot t) = z(bz \cdot t) \Rightarrow az \cdot t = bz \cdot t \Rightarrow a = b$. By (3) $L_a^2 x = x \Leftrightarrow a \cdot ax = x \Leftrightarrow xax \cdot x = x \Leftrightarrow a = x$. Because of the statement (8) and the first assertion of the theorem, $V_{a,b} = 1 \Leftrightarrow a = b$. Let $V_{a,b}c = c$. Since $L_a^{-2} = L_a^2$, $L_b^2 c = L_a^2 c$. Hence $a = b$ by the first assertion of this theorem. It follows that $V_{a,b} = 1$. The proof is complete.

Theorem 6. For any $x, y, z \in \mathcal{Q}$ there exists a unique point $u \in \mathcal{Q}$ such that $L_x^2 L_y^2 L_z^2 = L_u^2$. The point u is given by

$$(15) \quad u = {}^{-1}A[x(zv \cdot y \cdot zv), v],$$

where $v \in \mathcal{Q}$ is an arbitrary element.

Proof. It follows from (5) that for any $t, v \in \mathcal{Q}$

$$L_x^2 L_y^2 L_z^2 = L_t L_{xt} L_t L_{yt} L_v L_{zv}$$

and according to (10)

$$L_x^2 L_y^2 L_z^2 = L_{xt}^{-1} L_{yt} L_{zv}^{-1} L_v^{-1}.$$

If $L_{yt} = L_{zv}$ (i. e. $yt = zv$, $t = A^{-1}[y, zv] = zv \cdot y \cdot zv$), then

$$L_x^2 L_y^2 L_z^2 = L_{xt}^{-1} L_v^{-1} = L_v L_{xt}$$

and by (6), $L_x^2 L_y^2 L_z^2 = L_u^2$, where $u = {}^{-1}A[xt, v] = {}^{-1}A[x(zv \cdot y \cdot zv), v]$. The unicity of u follows directly from Th 5.

There are two interesting simplifications of (15), namely

$$(16) \quad u = {}^{-1}A[x . zyz, z] \quad \text{for } v = z,$$

$$(17) \quad u = {}^{-1}A[xy, yzy] \quad \text{for } v = yzy.$$

Since $L_u^{-2} = L_u^2$, $L_x^2 L_y^2 L_z^2 = (L_x^2 L_y^2 L_z^2)^{-1} = L_z^2 L_y^2 L_x^2$. Hence for any $x, y, z \in \mathcal{Q}$

$$(18) \quad L_x^2 L_y^2 L_z^2 = L_z^2 L_y^2 L_x^2.$$

Combining (18) with (16) we obtain the identity

$$(19) \quad {}^{-1}A[x . zyz, z] = {}^{-1}A[z . xyx, x].$$

Definition 3. For any $a, b \in \mathcal{Q}$ a map $P_{a,b} = R_a R_b^{-1}$ is called a right transfer.

Theorem 7. For any $a, b, c \in \mathcal{Q}$

$$(20) \quad P_{a,b} = V_{R_b^{-2}a,b},$$

$$(21) \quad V_{c,b} = P_{R_b^2 c, b}.$$

Proof. It is clear that for any $a, b \in \mathcal{Q}$ there exists a unique element $d \in \mathcal{Q}$ such that $bd = R_b^{-2}a$, i. e. $bdb \cdot b = a$, $a = d \cdot db$. Similarly, for any $b, d \in \mathcal{Q}$ there exists a unique element $a \in \mathcal{Q}$ such that $bd = R_b^{-2}a$. To complete the proof it suffices to show

$$(22) \quad P_{a.ab,b} = V_{ba,b}.$$

From (2) there follows the identity $b = x \cdot bxb$. Since $L_b \in \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{Q})$, $L_b^3 b = L_b^3(x \cdot bxb) = L_b^3 x \cdot L_b^3(bxb) = L_b^3 x \cdot L_b^4(xb) = L_b^3 x \cdot xb$. Hence $b = L_b^3 x \cdot xb$ and by (11), $b = L_a L_b L_a x \cdot xb = d(b \cdot dx) \cdot xb$. According to (2) and Corollary 3 of Th 3, $b = (b \cdot dbd)(b \cdot dx) \cdot xb = [b \cdot d(bd \cdot x)] \cdot xb$. If $u = bd \cdot x$ and $z = du$, then $b = bz \cdot xb$, $zb = z(bz \cdot xb)$, $du \cdot b = z(bz \cdot xb)$. By (1) we have $du \cdot b = b(b \cdot xb) = b \cdot bxb$ and so $u(du \cdot b) = u(b \cdot bxb)$, $u(du \cdot b) = (bd \cdot x)(b \cdot bxb)$, $d \cdot db = (bd \cdot x)(b \cdot bxb)$, $x(d \cdot db) = x \cdot (bd \cdot x)(b \cdot bxb)$, i. e. $R_{a.ab}x = x \cdot (bd \cdot x)(b \cdot bxb)$. By (1) have $R_{a.ab}x = bd \cdot [bd \cdot (b \cdot bxb)]$ and so $R_{a.bax} = L_{ba}^2 L_b^2 R_b x$, hence $R_{a.ab} = L_{ba}^2 L_b^2 R_b$, $R_{a.ab} R_b^{-1} = L_{ba}^2 L_b^2$, which is the identity (20). If $c = R_b^{-2}a$, then from (20) we obtain (21).

Corollary. Each left transfer is a right transfer and each right transfer is a left transfer.

With respect to the last result, we shall speak about a transfer. To express a transfer more precisely we have to use either a right or a left transfer notation.

Next we shall consider the structure of the group $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{Q})$ and of its subgroups. We list five of them:

- \mathcal{G} — the group generated by all left and right translations of $\mathcal{Q}(\cdot)$,
- \mathcal{G}_L — the group generated by all left translations,
- \mathcal{G}_R — the group generated by all right translations,

\mathcal{G}_T — the group generated by all transfers,
 \mathcal{G}_S — the group generated by all involutions L_x^2 .

Theorem 8. *The set of all transfers forms an Abelian group which is identical with the group \mathcal{G}_T .*

Proof. By Th 6 there exists $u \in \mathcal{L}$ such that $V_{x,y}V_{z,t} = V_{u,t}$ for any $x, y, z, t \in \mathcal{L}$. It follows from (9) that $V_{y,x} = V_{x,y}^{-1}$. Hence the set of all transfers forms the group \mathcal{G}_T . By (18) we have $V_{x,y}V_{z,t} = V_{z,y} V_{x,y,t} = V_{z,t} V_{x,y}$. Hence \mathcal{G}_T is an Abelian group.

We recall that \mathcal{H} is a normal subgroup of a group \mathcal{G} , denoted by $\mathcal{H} \triangleleft \mathcal{G}$, if $f\mathcal{H}f^{-1} = \mathcal{H}$ for each element f of some set generators of \mathcal{G} .

Theorem 9. $\mathcal{G}_T \triangleleft \mathcal{G}_S \triangleleft \mathcal{G}_L$; $\mathcal{G}_T \triangleleft \mathcal{G}_L$.

Proof. It is clear that for any $a, x, y \in \mathcal{L}$.

$$L_a^2 V_{x,y} L_a^{-2} = L_a^2 L_x^2 L_y^2 L_a^2 = L_y^2 L_x^2 L_a^2 L_a^2 = L_y^2 L_x^2 = V_{y,x}.$$

Hence $\mathcal{G}_T \triangleleft \mathcal{G}_S$. Further, from (6), (13) and Th 6 it follows that

$$L_a L_x^2 L_a^{-1} = L_a L_x L_x L_a^{-1} = L_{-1A[x,a]}^2 L_x^2 L_{-1A[x,a]}^2 = L_u^2$$

where u is given by (15), therefore $\mathcal{G}_S \triangleleft \mathcal{G}_L$. Similarly for any $a, x, y \in \mathcal{L}$

$$L_a V_{x,y} L_a^{-1} = L_a L_x^2 L_y^2 L_a^{-1} = L_a L_x \cdot L_x L_y \cdot L_y L_a^{-1}$$

$$L_{-1A[x,a]}^2 L_{-1A[x,a]}^2 L_y^2 L_{-1A[y,a]}^2 = V_{u, -1A[y,a]},$$

where u is given by (15). This completes the proof.

Theorem 10. $\mathcal{G}_T \triangleleft \mathcal{G}_R$.

Proof. From the mediality there follows the identity $R_x t \cdot L_y s = R_y t \cdot L_x s$. If $u = R_y t$, $z = L_y s$ (i. e. $t = R_y^{-1}u$, $s = L_y^{-1}z$), then $R_x R_y^{-1}u \cdot z = u \cdot L_x L_y^{-1}z$. Hence $R_z R_x R_y^{-1}u = R_{L_x L_y^{-1}z} u$. It is obvious that $L_x L_y^{-1}z = x \cdot A^{-1}[y, z] = x \cdot zy z$, therefore

$$(23) \quad R_z R_x R_y^{-1} = R_{x \cdot zy z}.$$

If $y = z$, then from (23) we have

$$(24) \quad R_x R_y^{-1} = R_y^{-1} R_{xy}.$$

Further, by (24) we have $R_a P_{x,y} R_a^{-1} = R_a R_x R_y^{-1} R_a^{-1} = R_a R_y^{-1} R_{xy} R_a^{-1} = P_{a,y} P_{xy,a}$. Hence $\mathcal{G}_T \triangleleft \mathcal{G}_R$. This completes the proof.

Theorems 9 and 10 lead to the question: What do the factor-groups $\mathcal{G}_S/\mathcal{G}_T$, $\mathcal{G}_L/\mathcal{G}_S$, $\mathcal{G}_L/\mathcal{G}_T$ and $\mathcal{G}_R/\mathcal{G}_T$ look like? The following theorems show it.

Theorem 11. $\mathcal{G}_S/\mathcal{G}_T \approx \mathcal{L}_2$ (i. e. the group $\mathcal{G}_S/\mathcal{G}_T$ is isomorphic to the group of remainders modulo 2).

Proof. It follows from Th 6 that each element $f \in \mathcal{G}_S$ can be written in the form $f = L_x^2$ or $f = L_x^2 L_y^2$. If $f = L_x^2 L_y^2$, then $f \in \mathcal{G}_T$. If $f = L_x^2$, then $f = L_a^2 L_a^2 L_x^2 = L_a^2 V_{a,x} \in L_a^2 \mathcal{G}_T$. Clearly $(\mathcal{G}_T \cup L_a^2 \mathcal{G}_T) \subset \mathcal{G}_S$. Hence $\mathcal{G}_T \cup L_a^2 \mathcal{G}_T = \mathcal{G}_S$. According to Th 5, $f \in \mathcal{G}_T, f \neq 1$ has no invariant point and $f \in L_a^2 \mathcal{G}_T$ has exactly one invariant point. This implies $\mathcal{G}_T \cap L_a^2 \mathcal{G}_T = \emptyset$ and the proof is completed.

Theorem 12. $\mathcal{G}_L / \mathcal{G}_S \approx \mathcal{L}_2$.

Proof. Similarly to the proof of Th 11 we shall show that $\mathcal{G}_S \cup L_a \mathcal{G}_S$ is a disjoint decomposition of the group \mathcal{G}_L . It follows from (6), (11) and Th 6 that each element $f = L_{a_1}^{n_1} \dots L_{a_k}^{n_k} \in \mathcal{G}_L$ can be rewritten in the form

$$f = L_a^2 \text{ or } f = L_a^2 L_b^2 \text{ or } f = L_a \text{ or } f = L_a L_b^2.$$

If $f = L_a^2$ or $f = L_a^2 L_b^2$, then $f \in \mathcal{G}_S$. If $f = L_a$ or $f = L_a L_b^2$, then $f \in L_a \mathcal{G}_S$. Hence $\mathcal{G}_L \subset (\mathcal{G}_S \cup L_a \mathcal{G}_S)$. Since $(\mathcal{G}_S \cup L_a \mathcal{G}_S) \subset \mathcal{G}_S$, we have $\mathcal{G}_L = \mathcal{G}_S \cup L_a \mathcal{G}_S$, which is a disjoint decomposition of \mathcal{G}_L , because $L_a \notin \mathcal{G}_S$.

Theorem 13. $\mathcal{G}_L / \mathcal{G}_T \approx \mathcal{L}_4$.

Proof. It is easy to show that $\mathcal{G}_T \cup L_a \mathcal{G}_T \cup L_a^2 \mathcal{G}_T \cup L_a^3 \mathcal{G}_T$ is the disjoint decomposition of \mathcal{G}_L .

Lemma 1. Let n be a positive integer. If $R_a^n = 1$ for some element $a \in \mathcal{Q}$, then $R_z^n = 1$ for all $z \in \mathcal{Q}$.

Proof. From (24) we have $R_x = R_y^{-1} R_{xy} R_y$. If $xy = z$ (i. e. $y = A^{-1}[x, z] = zAx$), then

$$R_x = R_{A^{-1}[x,z]}^{-1} R_z R_{A^{-1}[x,z]} = R_{zAz}^{-1} R_z R_{zAz}.$$

Thus

$$R_a^n = (R_{zAz}^{-1} R_z R_{zAz})^n = R_{zAz}^{-1} R_z^n R_{zAz}.$$

Since $R_a^n = 1, R_{zAz} = R_z^n R_{zAz}$. Hence $R_z^n = 1$.

Lemma 2. Each element $f \in \mathcal{G}_R$ can be written in the form

$$R_{a_1} R_{a_2} \dots R_{a_n} \text{ or } R_{a_1}^{-1} R_{a_2}^{-1} \dots R_{a_n}^{-1} \text{ or } P_{a_1, a_2},$$

where a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are suitable elements of \mathcal{Q} and n is a positive integer.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{L} = \{R_x : x \in \mathcal{Q}\} \cup \{R_x^{-1} : x \in \mathcal{Q}\}$ be the base to the group \mathcal{G}_R . We proceed by induction on the length of a word $f \in \mathcal{G}_R$. Clearly, the assertion is valid for $n = 1$ and $n = 2$ (see (24)). Assume that $g \in \mathcal{G}_R$ is of the length $n + 1 > 2$. If $g = R_a f$, where

$$f = R_{a_1}^{-1} \dots R_{a_n}^{-1} = R_{a_1}^{-1} R_{a_2}^{-1} \circ h, h = R_{a_3}^{-1} \dots R_{a_n}^{-1},$$

then by (23),

$$g = R_a R_{a_1}^{-1} R_{a_2}^{-1} \circ h = R_{a_1 a_2 a_3}^{-1} \circ h,$$

which is the required form of g . Similarly we do the rest of the proof.

Theorem 14. *Let $a \in \mathcal{Q}$ be a fixed element and let $\langle R_a \rangle$ be the subgroup of $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{Q})$ generated by $R_a \in \mathcal{G}_R$. Then $\mathcal{G}_R/\mathcal{G}_T \approx \langle R_a \rangle$.*

Proof. It follows from (23) and (24) that

$$R_x \cdot zyz = R_z R_x R_y^{-1} = R_z R_y^{-1} R_{xy} = R_y^{-1} R_{zy} R_{xy}.$$

If $zy = t$, $xy = u$ (i. e. $z = {}^{-1}A[t, y]$, $x = {}^{-1}A[u, y]$), then $R_y^{-1} R_t R_u = R_{\bar{d}}$, where $\bar{d} = {}^{-1}A[u, y] \cdot {}^{-1}A[t, y] y^{-1} A[t, y]$. Thus for arbitrary elements $a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_n, a, b$ there exist $e, f \in \mathcal{Q}$ such that

$$P_{e,f} = R_{a_n}^{-1} \dots R_{a_1}^{-1} R_{b_1} \dots R_{b_n} P_{a,b},$$

i. e.

$$R_{a_1} \dots R_{a_n} P_{e,f} = R_{b_1} \dots R_{b_n} P_{a,b}.$$

Hence the decompositions $R_{a_1} \dots R_{a_n} \mathcal{G}_T, R_{b_1} \dots R_{b_n} \mathcal{G}_T$ are not disjoint and so they are equal. Analogously

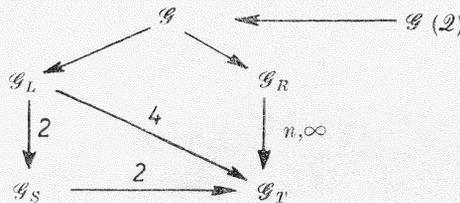
$$R_{a_1}^{-1} \dots R_{a_n}^{-1} \mathcal{G}_T = R_{b_1}^{-1} \dots R_{b_n}^{-1} \mathcal{G}_T.$$

Thus

$$\mathcal{G}_R/\mathcal{G}_T = \bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{N}} R_a^i \mathcal{G}_T,$$

where \mathcal{N} is the set of all integers. Therefore $\mathcal{G}_R/\mathcal{G}_T \approx \langle R_a \rangle$. Clearly, the map $R_a^i \mathcal{G}_T \rightarrow R_a^i$ is an isomorphism.

The results are summarized in the diagram



in which $\mathcal{A} \xrightarrow{n} \mathcal{B}$ denotes that \mathcal{B} is a normal subgroup of \mathcal{A} of the index n and $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ denotes that \mathcal{B} is a subgroup of \mathcal{A} .

Now we shall consider the finite rot-quasigroups.

Theorem 15. *If $\mathcal{Q}(\cdot)$ is a finite rot-quasigroup, then $\text{card } \mathcal{Q} = 4p - 3$, where p is a positive integer.*

Proof. Let $\mathcal{Q} = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$. It is obvious that $\mathcal{H} = \{L_{a_1}^4, L_{a_1}, L_{a_1}^2, L_{a_1}^3\}$ is a subgroup of \mathcal{G}_L which acts on the set \mathcal{Q} by

$$\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}, (x, L_{a_1}^i) \rightarrow L_{a_1}^i x.$$

This action leads to the orbit decomposition \mathcal{Q}/\mathcal{H} of \mathcal{Q} :

$$\mathcal{Q} = \mathcal{H}(a_1) \cup \mathcal{H}(a_2) \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{H}(a_n).$$

Clearly, $\text{card } \mathcal{H}(a_i) = 4$ for $i = 2, 3, \dots, n$ and $\mathcal{H}(a_1) = \{a_1\}$. Therefore, $\text{card } \mathcal{Q} = 4(\text{card } \mathcal{Q}/\mathcal{H} - 1) + 1 = 4p - 3$, where $p = \text{card } \mathcal{Q}/\mathcal{H}$.

Example. Let $(\mathcal{Z}_p, +)$ be an Abelian group of remainders modulo p and $\mathcal{Q} = \mathcal{Z}_p \times \mathcal{Z}_p$. Define the binary operation by

$$\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{Q} \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}, (a, b) \cdot (c, d) = (a + b - d, -a + c + b).$$

If p is odd, then $\mathcal{Q}(\cdot)$ is a rot-quasigroup. It can be easily shown that the last assertion is true.

Acknowledgement

I would like to express my thanks to M. Hejný, for his valuable advice by which he helped me to solve problems concerning the subject.

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Received June 2, 1971

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