

Logarithmetics of Finite Quasigroups (II)

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1. Introduction.

In the first paper of this series (L.Q.I)¹ we have shown that the logarithmic L_Q of a finite quasigroup Q is a quasigroup with respect to addition and that it is a subdirect union of the logarithmetics of the elements of Q .

In this second part we shall discuss further the structure of L_Q in its additive aspect, and obtain results concerning the order N of L_Q . For plain quasigroups (§3) the structure of $L_Q(+)$ is studied in more detail and it is shown that N is a power of n , the order of Q .

2. The structure of $L_Q(+)$.

Let $Q = (1, 2, \dots, n)$ be a quasigroup of order n . As in L.Q.I an element of L_Q is called a quasi-integer.

If r is the index of a power x^r , the corresponding quasi-integer is represented as the column vector $\{1^r, 2^r, \dots, n^r\}$. Such columns form the additive quasigroup $L_Q(+)$ in which vectors are added by forming products in Q of their corresponding elements:

$$\{i, \dots\} + \{j, \dots\} = \{ij, \dots\}. \quad (1)$$

Let the element 1 of Q generate a subquasigroup $Q_1 = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n_1})$ of order n_1 , where $a_i a_j = a_{ij}$ ($i, j = 1, \dots, n_1$). Since 1^r generates Q_1 as r varies, L_Q must possess quasi-integers with a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n_1} in the first row. Let the quasi-integers be collected into classes, $A_{a_1}, A_{a_2}, \dots, A_{a_{n_1}}$, where A_{a_i} is the class of integers with a_i in the first row; and let $A_{a_i} + A_{a_j}$ denote the class of sums $\{a_i, \dots\} + \{a_j, \dots\}$. Let the orders of $A_{a_i}, A_{a_j}, A_{a_i} + A_{a_j}$ be p, q, t respectively.

¹ H. Popova, "Logarithmetics of finite quasigroups (I)", *Proc. Edinburgh Math. Soc.* (2), 9 (1954), 74-81.

It follows from (1) that $A_{a_i} + A_{a_j} \subset A_{a_{ij}}$; and also, by keeping $\{a_i, \dots\}$ fixed, and letting $\{a_j, \dots\}$ run through A_{a_j} , that $q \leq t$.

But since $L_Q(+)$ is a quasigroup

$$\{a_i, \dots\} + \{x, \dots\} = \{a_{ij}, \dots\}$$

has a unique solution of the form $\{x, \dots\} = \{a_j, \dots\}$, and hence

$$A_{a_{ij}} \subset A_{a_i} + A_{a_j}, \quad q \geq t.$$

Consequently, the addition table (1) of L_Q can be partitioned into

$$A_{a_{ij}} = A_{a_i} + A_{a_j}; \tag{2}$$

and (by similar reasoning comparing p and t)

$$p = q = t.$$

The same argument can be applied to any row, and the result may be formulated as follows :

THEOREM 1. *Let Q be a quasigroup $(1, \dots, n)$ and let the element m of Q generate a subquasigroup $Q_m = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n_m})$, of order n_m . Then if A_{a_i} denotes the set of all quasi-integers having a_i in their m -th row*

(i) L_Q is homomorphic to Q_m by the correspondence

$$(all\ quasi-integers\ of\ A_{a_i}) \rightarrow a_i;$$

(ii) all A_{a_i} are of the same order, say P_m ;

(iii) the order of L_Q is $N = n_m P_m$.

It follows that

(iv) N is a multiple of the least common multiple of all the n_m :

$$[n_1, n_2, \dots, n_m] | N.$$

As before, let 1 generate $Q_1 = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n_1})$, and let A_{a_i} denote the class of quasi-integers represented by vectors whose first element is a_i , say $\{a_i, b_{is}, \dots\}$. Keeping a_i fixed suppose that the element b_{is} takes k_i distinct values, and let B^{a_i} denote the corresponding class of k_i subvectors $\{a_i, b_{is}\}$. We may define

$$\{a_i, b_{is}\} + \{a_j, b_{js}\} = \{a_i a_j, b_s b_{js}\}$$

and define $B^{a_i} + B^{a_j}$ as the class of such sums. Then a repetition of an argument which led to Theorem 1 shows that

$$B^{a_i} + B^{a_j} = B^{a_{ij}}, \quad k_i = k_j = \dots = k. \tag{3}$$

We have seen that all A_{a_i} are of the same order (Theorem 1) and that their quasi-integers have the same number, say k , of distinct elements in their second rows. We shall next show that the order of each A_{a_i} is a multiple of k . In other words, if $A_{a_i, b_{is}}$ denotes the class of all quasi-integers with $\{a_i, b_{is}, \dots\}$ in their first two rows, then all $A_{a_i, b_{is}}$ are of the same order, and have the same number of distinct elements in their third rows.

Consider the classes $A_{a_1}, A_{a_{11}}$. Let their quasi-integers be classified according to their second element b_{1s}, b_{11t} into classes

$$C^s, F^t$$

respectively. By the same method it can be shown that

$$C^i + C^j = F^{ij}$$

and that these classes are all of the same order, say p_1 . Thus,

LEMMA 1. *The order of A_1 is*

$$p_1 = kq_1 \tag{4}$$

where k is the number of distinct elements of Q in the second row of all vectors representing the quasi-integers of A_1 , and q_1 is the number of quasi-integers having $\{1, 2, \dots\}$ in their first two rows.

The last lemma may be generalised as follows:

LEMMA 2. *Let there be just p quasi-integers of L_Q for which the first m rows are the same row by row; then for any other quasi-integer there are p (including itself) whose first m rows are identical with it row by row.*

The lemma is true if any m rows are chosen.

We denote by B_i the set $a_{i1}, a_{i2}, \dots, a_{ik}$ of all distinct elements in the second rows of the vectors representing the quasi-integers of A_{a_i} . If the element 2 generates Q_2 of order n_2 then

$$(B_1, B_2, \dots, B_{n_2}) = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{n_2})$$

where $(\)$ denotes union. If $k = 1$, B_i have no elements in common; but if $k > 1$, there must exist B_i with common elements, for otherwise (B_1, \dots, B_{n_2}) would have kn_2 distinct elements, which is impossible, the

order of Q_2 being n_2 . The product of B_i and B_j may be defined as the set of distinct products of their elements. Then by (3)

$$B_i B_j = B_{ij}, \tag{5}$$

a multiplication table which is isomorphic to Q .

THEOREM 2. *If B_r and B_s have an element in common, they have all elements in common.*

Let $B_r = B_{1m} = B_1 B_m$, $B_s = B_{1l} = B_1 B_l$ (which is always possible by quasigroup properties), and let $a_{1\alpha} a_{m\beta} = d_{\alpha\beta}$, $a_{1\alpha} a_{l\beta} = c_{\alpha\beta}$ ($\alpha, \beta = 1, \dots, k$).

There being only k distinct elements d_{ij} , forming the set B_r , these by quasigroup properties must appear in each row and column of the $k \times k$ matrix $[d_{\alpha\beta}]$, which is thus a latin square. Similarly, $[c_{\alpha\beta}]$ is a $k \times k$ latin square formed from the k elements of B_s .

Now, if B_r, B_s have one common element, say $d_{1i} = c_{1j}$, then we must have $a_{mi} = a_{lj}$, and consequently

$$d_{1i} = c_{1j}, \quad d_{2i} = c_{2j}, \quad \dots, \quad d_{ki} = d_{kj},$$

that is, $B_r = B_s$.

THEOREM 3. *If amongst B_1, B_2, \dots, B_{n_2} there are r and only r which are the same as B_1 , then for every B_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n_2$), there exist r and only r B_j 's which are the same as B_i .*

This follows from the multiplication table (5). For if (say) B_1, \dots, B_r are the same, then so are $B_i B_1, \dots, B_i B_r$, that is B_{i1}, \dots, B_{ir} ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n_2$). Thus there exist at least r B_{ij} 's which are the same as B_{i1} . Suppose there are $r+1$ such, say $B_{i1}, \dots, B_{i,r+1}$; then

$$B_s B_{i1} = B_s B_{i2} = \dots = B_s B_{i,r+1} \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, n_2)$$

and consequently

$$B_x B_{i1} = B_x B_{i2} = \dots = B_x B_{i,r+1} \text{ where } B_x B_{i1} = B_{i1}.$$

Thus, there are $r+1$ B_i 's which are the same as B_1 — a contradiction. Therefore each B_{i1} ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n_2$) has r and only r B_{ij} 's which consist of the same elements; and since B_{i1}, \dots, B_{in} is a permutation of B_1, \dots, B_n , the theorem is proved.

3. Plain quasigroups.

According to Bruck¹, a quasigroup $Q = (1, 2, \dots, n)$ is *simple* if it has

¹ R. H. Bruck, "Simple quasigroups", *Bull. American Math. Soc.*, 50 (1944), 769–781.

no proper homomorph. A simple quasigroup which has no subquasigroups except itself will be called *plain*. If Q is plain, every element is a generator of Q , for otherwise it would generate a subquasigroup.

Let Q be a plain quasigroup, and let N be the order of L_Q . We know that $N \leq n^n$ (a stronger result was proved in L.Q.I), and we shall prove that N is always some power of n . As examples, the plain quasigroups with multiplication tables

	1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4
1	2 4 3 1	1	4 2 3 1	1	3 1 4 2	1	3 1 2 4
2	3 1 2 4	2	1 3 2 4	2	4 2 1 3	2	4 3 1 2
3	1 3 4 2	3	2 4 1 3	3	1 3 2 4	3	1 2 4 3
4	4 2 1 3	4	3 1 4 2	4	2 4 3 1	4	2 4 3 1

have logarithmetics of orders 4, 4², 4³, 4⁴. This was found by actually constructing the logarithmetics. On the other hand the simple (not plain) quasigroup given by

	1 2 3 4 5
1	2 1 4 5 3
2	1 2 5 3 4
3	4 5 3 1 2
4	5 3 2 4 1
5	3 4 1 2 5

has logarithmic of order 2, all powers x^r being equal to either x or x^2 ($x = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$).

If Q is plain Theorem 1 becomes:

THEOREM 4. *If $Q = (1, 2, \dots, n)$ is a plain quasigroup of order n , and A_i denotes the set of all quasi-integers having i in their m -th row, then*

(i) $L_Q(+)$ is homomorphic to Q by
 (all quasi-integers of A_i) $\rightarrow i$;

(ii) all A_i are of the same order, say p ;

(iii) the order of L_Q is $N = np$.

THEOREM 5. *In a plain quasigroup the orders of B_i are either 1 or n .*

Since Q is plain, 2 is a generator of Q . Consequently, the elements of the classes B_1, \dots, B_n exhaust Q . It follows at once that if all B_i are mutually exclusive, then each B_i consists of one and only one element.

Suppose B_i are of order $k > 1$; then there exist at least two B_i 's, say B_1 and B_2 , with elements in common. By Theorem 2, B_1 and B_2 are the same. Let r be the number of B_i 's which are the same as B_1 say

$$B_1 = B_2 = \dots = B_r.$$

If $r = n$, all B_i are the same; consequently $Q = B_i$ and the order of B_i is n . So suppose $r < n$. Then there exists at least one B_j distinct from B_1, \dots, B_r , and, by Theorem 3, r such: say

$$B_{r+1} = \dots = B_{2r}, \quad B_{r+1} \neq B_1.$$

It follows from Theorem 3 that $B_i \cap B_j = 0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, r$ and $j = r+1, \dots, 2r$. Continuing this process we find that r divides n :

$$n = rs,$$

and that all B_i 's fall into s mutually exclusive classes, each consisting of r identical B_i 's:

$$D_1 = (B_1, \dots, B_r), \quad D_2 = (B_{r+1}, \dots, B_{2r}), \quad \dots, \quad D_s = (B_{n-r+1}, \dots, B_n).$$

The same classification divides the n elements of Q into s classes, so that r must be the same as k , the order of each B_i .

Hence the multiplication table (5) can be replaced by

$$D_\alpha D_\beta = D_{\alpha\beta} \quad (\alpha, \beta = 1, \dots, s),$$

showing that the D_α 's form a homomorph of Q . Since Q is simple, $s = n$ or $s = 1$, and $k = r = 1$ or n .

THEOREM 6. *Let $Q = (1, 2, \dots, n)$ be a plain quasigroup of prime order n , such that 2 generates Q . If B_1 and B_2 are the same, then all B_i ($i = 1, \dots, n$) are the same.*

If the order k of B_i is less than n , then by the proof of Theorem 5,

$$n = ks$$

and this, since n is prime, is only possible if $k = 1$ or $k = n$. Since 2 generates Q , the B_i 's exhaust Q , and if two B_i 's are the same, k cannot equal 1. Consequently $k = n$, and each of the B_i 's consists of all the n elements of Q .

THEOREM 7. *The order of the logarithmic of a plain quasigroup is a power of the order of the quasigroup.*

By combining $N = np$ (Theorem 4) and Lemma 1, the order of L_Q can be expressed as $N = nkq$ where N, n, k are the orders of L_Q, Q, B_i respectively and q is the order of the class of all the quasi-integers with $\{1, 2, \dots\}$ in the first two rows. We denote by $B_{1,2,\dots,k-1}$ the set of all distinct elements of Q in the k -th row of the quasi-integers $\{1, 2, \dots, k-1, \dots\}$ ($k = 2, \dots, n$). Then if the orders of $B_{1,\dots,i}$ are m_i we have (Lemma 2)

$$N = n m_1 m_2 \dots m_{n-1}$$

where, by Theorem 5, m_i are either 1 or n . The theorem follows.

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