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ON FREE GROUPOIDS WITH $(xy)^n = x^n y^n$

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We investigate free objects in the variety of groupoids which satisfy the identity $(xy)^n = x^n y^n$. Under certain condition for the groupoid power x^n , i.e. for simple groupoid powers, a canonical description for free groupoids in such varieties is given and they are characterized by the injective groupoids in these varieties.

Key words: variety of groupoids, free groupoid, groupoid powers

INTRODUCTION

In the papers [3,5,6,8,9], Čupona and coauthors investigated free objects in varieties of groupoids satisfying some identities among groupoid powers. Free objects in the variety of groupoids satisfying the law $(xy)^2 = x^2 y^2$ are investigated in [4]. Almost 20 years ago, together with Professor Čupona, we obtained a canonical description of free objects in the variety of groupoids satisfying the identity $(xy)^n = x^n y^n$ for some groupoid powers x^n . This result was not published, and the question of finding a canonical description of free objects for an arbitrary groupoid power x^n is still open. In this paper we present a slight improvement of the above mentioned, canonical description.

First, we state some necessary preliminaries.

Let $\mathbf{G} = (G, \cdot)$ be a *groupoid*, i.e. an algebra with a binary operation $(x, y) \rightarrow xy$ on G . If $a = bc$ for $a, b, c \in G$, we say that b, c are *divisors* of a in \mathbf{G} . A sequence a_1, a_2, \dots of elements of G is said to be a *divisor chain* in \mathbf{G} if a_{i+1} is a divisor of a_i . We say that $a \in G$ is a *prime* in \mathbf{G} if the set of divisors of a in \mathbf{G} is empty. A groupoid $\mathbf{G} = (G, \cdot)$ is said to be *injective* if $xy = uv$ implies $(x, y) = (u, v)$, for any $x, y, u, v \in G$. By a “free groupoid” we mean “free groupoid in the variety of groupoids” (i.e. an “absolutely free groupoid”).

The following characterization of free groupoids is well known (see for example [1], I.1.)

Theorem. 1.1 *A groupoid $\mathbf{F} = (F, \cdot)$ is free if and only if (iff) it satisfies the following conditions.*

(1) *Every divisor chain in \mathbf{F} is finite.*

(2) *\mathbf{F} is injective.*

Then the set B of primes in \mathbf{F} is nonempty and it is the unique basis of \mathbf{F} . ■

Throughout the paper, a free groupoid with basis B will be denoted by \mathbf{F} or $\mathbf{F}(B)$. For any $v \in F$, we define the *length* $|v|$ and the *set $P(v)$ of parts of v* by:

$$|b| = 1, \quad |tu| = |t| + |u| \\ P(b) = \{b\}, \quad P(tu) = \{tu\} \cup P(t) \cup P(u) \\ \text{for every } b \in B, t, u \in F.$$

GROUPOID POWERS

We recall some definitions, notions and statements from [7].

Let $\mathbf{E} = (E, \cdot)$ be a free groupoid with one-element basis $\{e\}$. The elements of E will be denoted by f, g, h, \dots and called *groupoid powers*.

If $\mathbf{G} = (G, \cdot)$ is a groupoid, then each $f \in E$ induces a transformation $f^{\mathbf{G}}$ of G (called the *interpretation* of f in \mathbf{G}) defined by:

$$f^{\mathbf{G}}(x) = \varphi_x(f) \\ \text{where } \varphi_x: E \rightarrow G \text{ is the unique homomorphism from } \mathbf{E} \text{ to } \mathbf{G} \text{ such that } \varphi_x(e) = x. \text{ In other words}$$

$$e^{\mathbf{G}}(x) = x, \quad (fh)^{\mathbf{G}}(x) = f^{\mathbf{G}}(x)h^{\mathbf{G}}(x), \\ \text{for any } f, h \in E, x \in G. \text{ (For a fixed groupoid } \mathbf{G} \text{ we usually write } f(x) \text{ instead of } f^{\mathbf{G}}(x).)$$

Each $f \in E$ induces a transformation $f^{\mathbf{E}}$ of E . We define a new operation “ \circ ” on E by:

$$f \circ g = f^{\mathbf{E}}(g) = f(g).$$

So, we obtain an algebra (E, \circ, \cdot) with two operations, such that for any $f, g, h \in E$:

$$\begin{aligned} e \circ f &= f \circ e = f \\ (fg) \circ h &= (f \circ h)(g \circ h). \end{aligned}$$

A power $f \in E$ is said to be *irreducible* if $f \neq e$ and $f = g \circ h$ implies $g = e$ or $h = e$.

The following facts for any $f, g, p, q \in E$, $t, u \in F$ can be shown by induction on lengths.

2.1 $|f(t)| = |f||t|$.

2.2 $t \in P(f(t))$.

2.3 $(f(t) = g(u) \text{ and } |t| = |u|) \text{ iff } (f = g \text{ and } t = u)$.

2.4 $(f(t) = g(u) \text{ and } |t| \geq |u|) \text{ iff } (\exists! h \in E)(t = h(u) \text{ and } g = h(f))$.

2.5 (E, \circ, e) is a cancellative monoid.

2.6 If the length of a power f is a prime integer, then the power f is irreducible.

2.7 If $f \circ p = g \circ q$ and p, q are irreducible, then $f = g$ and $p = q$.

2.8 For $f \neq e$ there is a unique sequence of irreducible powers p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k such that

$$f = p_1 \circ p_2 \circ \dots \circ p_k.$$

2.9 The monoid (E, \circ, e) is a free monoid, with a basis the countable set of irreducible powers.

For a fixed groupoid power $f \in E$ of length n we will write x^n instead of $f(x)$. For $n = 2$ there is only one power, $x^2 = x \cdot x$, but for $n \geq 3$ there are different n -th powers. For example, $x^3 = x^2 \cdot x$ and $x^3 = x \cdot x^2$ are different powers, and they are the only powers of length three. There are five different powers of length four: $x^4 = x^3 \cdot x$, $x^4 = x^2 \cdot x^2$, $x^4 = x \cdot x^3$, $x^4 = (x \cdot x^2) \cdot x$ and $x^4 = x \cdot (x \cdot x^2)$. It is well known that there are $\frac{(2n-2)!}{n!(n-1)!}$ groupoid powers of length n , i.e. n -th powers (see, for example [2] page 125, or [7] (1.8)).

A CLASS OF GROUPOIDS DETERMINED BY GROUPOID POWERS

Let $f \in E$ be a groupoid power of length n and let B be a nonempty set. We will present a specific construction of a groupoid, denoted by $R(f, B)$, determined by f and B .

If $G = (G, \cdot)$ is a given groupoid, for any nonnegative integer k we define a transformation $(k): x \rightarrow x^{(k)}$ of G as the k -th power of f in the monoid (E, \circ, e) , i.e.

$$x^{(0)} = x, \quad x^{(k+1)} = f(x^{(k)}).$$

Using the notion x^n instead of f , we have:

$$x^{(0)} = x, \quad x^{(k+1)} = (x^{(k)})^n.$$

Since a free groupoid F is injective, it follows that the transformation (k) is injective on F , for any $k \geq 0$. Thus, for each $k \geq 0$, there exists an injective partial transformation $(-k): x \rightarrow x^{(-k)}$ on F defined by:

$$y^{(-k)} = x \text{ iff } x^{(k)} = y.$$

For any $u \in F$, there exists a largest integer m , such that $u^{(-m)} \in F$. We denote this integer by $[u]$ and call it the *exponent* of u in F .

It is easy to show that the following facts are true for all $u, v \in F$ and all integers t and s .

3.1 $u^{(t)} \in F$ iff $t + [u] \geq 0$.

3.2 If $t + [u] \geq 0$, then $|u^{(t)}| = n^t |u|$.

3.3 If $t + [u] \geq 0$ and $t + s + [u] \geq 0$, then $(u^{(t)})^{(s)} = u^{(t+s)}$.

3.4 If $t + [u] \geq 0$ and $s - t + [v] \geq 0$, then $(u^{(t)} = v^{(s)})$ iff $u = v^{(s-t)}$.

Definition 3.1 We define $R(f, B)$, as the least subset of F such that $B \subseteq R(f, B)$ and:

$$vw \in R(f, B) \text{ iff}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &[(vw = f(u) \text{ for some } u \in R(f, B)) \text{ or} \\ &(v, w \in R(f, B) \text{ and } \min\{|v|, |w|\} = 0)]. \end{aligned}$$

We will often write R instead of $R(f, B)$.

$$\text{Let } S = R \setminus \{u^{(1)} = f(u) | u \in R\}.$$

Proposition 3.5 For every $h \in E$ and $x \in F$, $h(x) \in S$ implies $x \in R$.

Proof. The proof is by induction on the length $|h|$ of h . For $|h| = 1$, $h(x) = x \in S$ implies $x \in R$.

Assume that for any $g \in E$ with $|g| < k$, $g(x) \in S$ implies $x \in R$. Let $h = h_1 h_2$ and $|h| = k$. Then $h(x) = h_1(x) h_2(x) \in S \subseteq R$ implies that $h_1(x), h_2(x) \in R$ and $\min\{|h_1(x)|, |h_2(x)|\} = 0$, i.e. $[h_i(x)] = 0$ for some $i \in \{1, 2\}$. This implies that $h_i(x) \in S$, and the inductive hypothesis, since $|h_i| < k$, implies that $x \in R$. ■

Proposition 3.6 For every $u \in F$,

$$u^{(1)} = f(u) \in R \text{ iff } u \in R.$$

Proof. The definition of R implies that, if $u \in R$, then $u^{(1)} = f(u) \in R$.

Let $u^{(1)} \in R$. If $u^{(1)} = v^{(1)}$ for some $v \in R$, then, since the transformation (1) is injective, it follows that $u = v \in R$. If $u^{(1)} \neq v^{(1)}$ for every $v \in R$, i.e. $u^{(1)} \in S$, then Proposition 3.5 implies that $u \in R$. ■

Proposition 3.7 If for an integer t and $u \in F$, $t + [u] \geq 0$, then $(u^{(t)} \in R \text{ iff } u \in R)$.

Proof. The proof is by induction on t , starting from $-[u]$, using the fact 3.3 and Proposition 3.6. ■

Proposition 3.8 For every $u, v \in R(f, B)$,

$$(u^{(-m)}v^{(-m)})^{(m)} \in R(f, B),$$

where $m = \min\{[u], [v]\}$.

Proof. The fact that $m = \min\{[u], [v]\}$ implies that $-m + [u] \geq 0$ and $-m + [v] \geq 0$, and so, Proposition 3.7 implies that $u^{(-m)}, v^{(-m)} \in R$. Since $m = [u]$ or $m = [v]$, we have $[u^{(-m)}] = 0$ or $[v^{(-m)}] = 0$, and the definition of R implies that

$$(u^{(-m)}v^{(-m)})^{(m)} \in R(f, B). \blacksquare$$

If for $u, v \in R(f, B)$ we define $u * v$ by:

$$u * v = (u^{(-m)}v^{(-m)})^{(m)},$$

where $m = \min\{[u], [v]\}$, then $\mathbf{R} = (R(f, B), *)$ is a groupoid.

Proposition 3.9 For every $u, v \in R(f, B)$,

$$u^{(1)} * v^{(1)} = (u * v)^{(1)}.$$

Proof. If $m = \min\{[u], [v]\}$, then

$$\min\{[u^{(1)}], [v^{(1)}]\} = m + 1.$$

The definition of $*$ and the fact 3.3 imply:

$$\begin{aligned} u^{(1)} * v^{(1)} &= ((u^{(1)})^{(-m+1)}(v^{(1)})^{(-m+1)})^{(m+1)} \\ &= ((u)^{(-m)}(v)^{(-m)})^{(m+1)} \\ &= (((u)^{(-m)}(v)^{(-m)})^{(m)})^{(1)} \\ &= (u * v)^{(1)}. \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

Let \mathcal{M} be a variety of groupoids. If $\mathbf{G} \in \mathcal{M}$, we say that \mathbf{G} is an \mathcal{M} -groupoid, and if it is free in \mathcal{M} , we say that it is \mathcal{M} -free.

For a groupoid power $f \in E$, i.e. x^n , we denote by \mathcal{M}_f the variety of all the groupoids satisfying the identity

$$\begin{aligned} f(xy) &= f(x)f(y), \text{ i.e.} \\ (xy)^n &= x^n y^n. \end{aligned}$$

For the groupoid power $e^2 = ee$, i.e. for the groupoid power x^2 , we denote \mathcal{M}_{e^2} by \mathcal{M}_2 .

We state the following theorems, proven in [4] in their original forms.

Theorem 1. $\mathbf{R} = (R(e^2, B), *)$ is \mathcal{M}_2 -free and the set B is the unique basis for \mathbf{R} .

Theorem 2. An \mathcal{M}_2 -groupoid $\mathbf{H} = (H, \cdot)$ is \mathcal{M}_2 -free iff the following conditions hold.

- (i) Every divisor chain in \mathbf{H} is finite.
- (ii) If $x^2 = y^2$, then $x = y$.
- (iii) If $xy = uv$, $x \neq y$ and $u \neq v$, then $x = u$ and $y = v$.
- (iv) If $x^2 = yz$ and $y \neq z$, then there are u, v such that $x = uv$, $y = u^2$ and $z = v^2$.

Then the set P of primes in \mathbf{H} is nonempty and the unique basis for \mathbf{H} .

Theorem 3. If \mathbf{H} is an \mathcal{M}_2 -free groupoid, then there exist subgroupoids \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{Q} of \mathbf{H} , such that \mathbf{G} is not \mathcal{M}_2 -free, and \mathbf{Q} is \mathcal{M}_2 -free with an infinite rank.

In [4], for any positive integer n , the groupoid power e^n , i.e. x^n , is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} e^1 &= e, \quad e^{k+1} = e^k e, \text{ i.e.} \\ x^1 &= e, \quad x^{k+1} = x^k x. \end{aligned}$$

For the groupoid power e^n , we denote \mathcal{M}_{e^n} by \mathcal{M}_n .

The generalizations of Theorems 1 – 3, are also discussed in [4]. **Theorem 1'** and **Theorem 3'** are the same as Theorem 1 and Theorem 3, where 2 is replaced by n . **Theorem 2'** is obtained from Theorem 2 by replacing 2 by n and by replacing (ii), (iii) and (iv) by:

(ii') If $x^n = y^n$, then $x = y$.

(iii') If $xy = uv$, $x \neq y^{n-1}$ and $u \neq v^{n-1}$, then $x = u$ and $y = v$.

(iv') If $x^n = yz$ and $y \neq z^{n-1}$, then there are u, v such that $x = uv$, $y = u^n$ and $z = v^n$.

We note that Theorems 2 and 2' characterize \mathcal{M}_2 -free and \mathcal{M}_n -free groupoids in the same way as Theorem 1.1 characterizes free groupoids.

It is easy to check that if $uv \in R(e^2, B)$, then $u, v \in R(e^2, B)$, but this is not the case for $R(e^n, B)$ when $n \geq 3$. For example, if $b \in B$ and $n = 3$, then

$$b^{(2)} \in (b^{(1)})^{(1)} = (b^{(1)})^2 \cdot b^{(1)} \in R(e^3, B),$$

but $(b^{(1)})^2 \notin R(e^3, B)$.

From now on, for a groupoid power $g \in E$, of length p , we will often write: $g^F(x) = x^p$ for $x \in F$, and $g^R(x) = x_*^p$ for $x \in R(f, B)$.

The following examples will show that in general, for a groupoid power $f \in E$, $\mathbf{R} = (R(f, B), *)$ does not have to belong to \mathcal{M}_f , and there are $u \in R$ such that $[u_*^n] = 0$, where $f(x) = x^n$.

Example 3.1. Let $f = e^2 \circ ((e^2)^2 e) \in E$ and let $B = \{a\}$. The length of f is 10, and we write $f(x) = x^{10} = ((x^2)^2 x)^2 = (x^5)^2 = x^{(1)}$.

Let $u = a^5 = (a^2)^2 a$. Since $a \in B \subseteq R$, and $[a] = 0$, we have that $a^2 \in R$ and $[a^2] = 0$. This implies that $(a^2)^2 \in R$ and $[(a^2)^2] = 0$. Next, we obtain that $(a^2)^2 a \in R$ and $[(a^2)^2 a] = 0$. All this implies that $u \in R$ and $[u] = 0$.

Now, we calculate $u_*^{10} = ((u_*^2)_*^2 * u)_*^2$, as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} u_*^2 &= u^2 = (a^5)^2 = a^{10} = a^{(1)}; \\ (u_*^2)_*^2 &= a^{(1)} * a^{(1)} = (a * a)^{(1)} = (a^2)^{(1)}; \\ (u_*^2)_*^2 * u &= (a^2)^{(1)} * a^5 = (a^2)^{(1)} a^5; \text{ and} \\ u_*^{10} &= (a^2)^{(1)} a^5 * (a^2)^{(1)} a^5 = ((a^2)^{(1)} a^5)^2. \end{aligned}$$

We see that $[u_*^{10}] = 0$.

Next, let $v = u$. Then:

$$(u * v)_*^{10} = (u_*^2)_*^{10} = (a^{(1)})_*^{10} = a^{(2)}; \text{ and}$$

$$u_*^{10} * v_*^{10} = (((a^2)^{(1)} a^5)^2)^2.$$

$$\text{Thus, } u_*^{10} * v_*^{10} \neq (u * v)_*^{10}.$$

Example 3.2. Let $f = e^3 \circ e^2 \circ e^3 \in E$ and let $B = \{a, b\}$. The length of f is 18, and we write $f(x) = x^{18} = ((x^3)^2)^3 = x^{(1)}$. Let $u = ((a^3)^3)^2$. Since $a \in B \subseteq R$, and $[a] = 0$, we have that $a^2 \in R$ and $[a^2] = 0$. This implies that $a^3 = a^2 a \in R$ and $[a^3] = 0$. Next, $(a^3)^2 \in R$ and $[(a^3)^2] = 0$. This, together with $a^3 \in R$, implies that $((a^3)^3) \in R$ and $[(a^3)^3] = 0$, and so, $u \in R$ and $[u] = 0$.

Now, we calculate $u_*^{18} = ((u_*^3)_*^2)^3$ as follows:

$$u_*^2 = u * u = u^2 \text{ and } [u^2] = 0;$$

$$u_*^3 = u_*^2 * u = u^2 * u = u^3$$

$$= (((a^3)^3)^2)^3 = (a^3)^{(1)};$$

$$(u_*^3)_*^2 = (a^3)^{(1)} * (a^3)^{(1)} = ((a^3)^2)^{(1)};$$

$$((u_*^3)_*^2)_*^2 = ((a^3)^2)^{(1)} * ((a^3)^2)^{(1)}$$

$$= (((a^3)^2)^2)^{(1)};$$

$$((u_*^3)_*^2)_*^3 = (((a^3)^2)^2)^{(1)} * ((a^3)^2)^{(1)}$$

$$= (((a^3)^2)^3)^{(1)} = (a^{(1)})^{(1)} = a^{(2)}.$$

We see that $[u_*^{18}] = 2$, while $[u] = 0$.

In the same way, for $v = ((b^3)^3)^2$, we obtain that $v_*^{18} = b^{(2)}$.

The previous calculations imply that

$$u_*^{18} * v_*^{18} = a^{(2)} * b^{(2)} = (ab)^{(2)}.$$

In the calculation of $(u * v)_*^{18}$, we have:

$$u * v = uv; \quad (u * v)_*^3 = (uv)_*^3 = (uv)^3;$$

$$((u * v)_*^3)_*^2 = ((uv)_*^3)_*^2 = ((uv)^3)^2; \text{ and}$$

$$(u * v)_*^{18} = (((uv)_*^3)_*^2)_*^3 = (((uv)^3)^2)^3 = (uv)^{(1)}.$$

Since $(ab)^{(2)} \neq (uv)^{(1)}$, it follows that

$$u_*^{18} * v_*^{18} \neq (u * v)_*^{18}.$$

We see that the groupoid powers in the previous examples are not irreducible, and moreover, the groupoid power $x^n = (x^p)^q$ has $(x^q)^2$ as its part, i.e. $(x^q)^2 \in P(x^n)$. That is why we consider a special class of groupoid powers, called simple.

We say that a groupoid power x^n is *complex*, if $x^n = ((x^p)^r)^q$ for some $p, q \geq 2$ and $r \geq 1$, and $P(x^n)$ contains $(x)^q (x^r)^q$ or $(x^r)^q (x)^q$. We say that a power x^n is *simple*, if it is not complex.

Irreducible groupoid powers are simple. Since any power x^n , for a prime n , is irreducible, it follows that it is simple.

\mathcal{M}_f -FREE GROUPOIDS

Let $f = gh \in E \setminus \{e\}$. For a given groupoid $G = (G, \cdot)$ let $T(f, G) \subseteq G \times G$ be defined as:

$$T(f, G) = \{(g(u), h(u)) | u \in G\}.$$

With the notation $f(x) = x^n = x^p x^q$,

$$T(f, G) = \{(u^p, u^q) | u \in G\}.$$

Theorem 4.1 Let $f = gh$, $g, h \in E \setminus \{e\}$ and with the notation $f(x) = x^n = x^p x^q$, let a groupoid $H = (H, \cdot)$ satisfies the following conditions.

- (i) Every divisor chain in H is finite.
- (ii) If $x^n = y^n$ in H , then $x = y$.
- (iii) If $xy = uv$ in H , and $xy \neq z^n$ for each $z \in G$, then $x = u$ and $y = v$.
- (iv) If $x^n = yz$ in H and $(y, z) \notin T(f, H)$, then there are $u, v \in H$, so that $x = uv$, $y = u^n$ and $z = v^n$.

Then, the groupoid H is \mathcal{M}_f -free and the set B of primes in H is nonempty and is the unique basis of H .

Proof. The proof is almost the same as the proof of Proposition 2.3 from [4], which is in fact Theorem 4.1 for $f = e^2$, i.e. for the power x^2 . The only difference is the following.

The conditions (ii), (iii) and (iv), imply that, for the power x^2 , any element $u \in H$ has at most three divisors (shown in [4]), while for any other power, any element $u \in H$ has at most four divisors. The proof of this for a power different than x^2 is as follows. Let $u \in H$.

If u is prime, then it has 0 divisors. If u is not prime, we consider two cases.

Case 1. For any $x \in H$, $u \neq x^n$. Then, the condition (iii) implies that u has at most two divisors.

Case 2. For some $x \in H$, $u = x^n = x^p x^q$. The condition (ii) implies that the element x is unique. If x is prime and $u = yz$, then $(y, z) \notin T(f, H)$ would imply that there are $v, w \in H$, so that $x = vw$, that is not possible. Hence, for x prime, u has at most two divisors. If x is not prime, i.e. if $x = vw$, then $u = x^n = x^p x^q = v^n w^n$, and conditions (ii) and (iv) imply that u has at most four divisors. ■

Theorem 4.2 If $f(x) = x^n$, and $u_*^n = u^n$ for every $u \in (R(f, B), *)$, then $(R(f, B), *)$ satisfies the conditions (i) to (iv), from Theorem 4.2, and so it is \mathcal{M}_f -free with basis B .

Proof. Let $x^n = x^p x^q$.

If $x * y = z$, then $|z| > |x|$, $|z| > |y|$, and this implies that R satisfies (i).

If $x_*^n = y_*^n$, then $x^n = y^n$ in F , and so $x = y$. Hence, R satisfies (ii).

If $x * y = u * v$ and $x * y \neq z_*^n$ for any $z \in R$, then $\min\{[x], [y]\} = 0 = \min\{[u], [v]\}$. This implies that $x * y = xy$, $u * v = uv$, and $xy = uv$ in F . So, $x = u$ and $y = v$. Hence, R satisfies the condition (iii).

Let $x_*^n = y * z$ and $(y, z) \notin T(f, R)$.

If $\min\{[y], [z]\} = 0$, then

$$x^p x^q = x^n = x_*^n = y * z = yz$$

and so, $(y, z) \in T(f, R)$. Hence, $\min\{[y], [z]\} > 0$, and this implies that there are $u, v \in R$, such that $y = u^n = u_*^n$, $z = v^n = v_*^n$, and $x^n = (u * v)^n$, i.e. $x = u * v$. Hence, R satisfies (iv). ■

Theorem 4.3 Let $f \in E$ be a simple groupoid power, with $f(x) = x^n$. Then, for every $u \in (R(f, B), *)$,

$$u_*^n = u^n.$$

Proof. By Proposition 3.9 it is enough to consider $x \in R$ with $[x] = 0$. We will show that $x_*^t = x^t$, for any part x^t of x^n .

(1) Since $[x] = 0$, it follows that $x_*^t = x * x = x^2$.

(2) Let $x_*^t = x^t$, for any part x^t of x^n with $t < k$.

(2.1) Let $x^k = x^q x^s$ be a part of x^n with $q < s$.

$$\text{Then, } x_*^k = x_*^q * x_*^s = x^q * x^s.$$

We will show that $\min\{[x^q], [x^s]\} = 0$, which implies that $x_*^k = x^k$. Assume contrary, that, $x^q = u^n$ and $x^s = v^n$ for some $u, v \in R$. Since $[x] = 0$ and $k \leq n$, it follows that $2 \leq q, s < n$. This, implies that, $x = u^m$ and $x = v^p$ for some $m, p \geq 2$, and $u^n = (u^m)^q$, $v^n = (v^p)^s$, and we obtain that

$$z^n = (z^m)^q = (z^p)^s.$$

Since $q < s$, it follows that $z^n = (z^m)^q = (z^p)^s$, $z^m = (z^p)^r$ and $z^s = (z^r)^q$. With all this, we have: $x^n = ((x^p)^r)^q$ and $x^q x^s = x^q (x^r)^q$ is a part of x^n , i.e. the power x^n is not simple. This is a contradiction.

(2.2) The proof that $x_*^k = x^k$, for $x^k = x^s x^q$ with $q < s$ is the same as the proof in (2.1).

(2.3) Let $x^k = x^q x^s$ be a part of x^n with $q = s$, but possibly different powers x^q, x^s , and let $x^q = u^n$ and $x^s = v^n$ for some $u, v \in R$. Similarly as in (2.2), we obtain that, $x = u^m = v^p$, for some $m, p \geq 2$, and $u^n = (u^m)^q$, $v^n = (v^p)^s$. Now, $q = s$ and $sp = n = qm$, imply that $p = m$. This, together with $u^m = v^p$ in F implies that $u = v$ and z^m, z^p are the same powers. Next, $(u^m)^q = (v^p)^s$ in F implies that z^q, z^s are the same powers. All this implies

that, $x^n = ((x^p)^1)^q$ and $x^q x^q = x^q (x^1)^q$ is a part of x^n , i.e. x^n is not simple. Hence, $[x^q] = 0$ or $[x^s] = 0$, and $x_*^k = x^k$. ■

The following generalization of Theorem 1 from [4], follows from Theorems 4.2 and 4.3.

Theorem 4.4 If $f \in E$ is a simple groupoid power, then $(R(f, B), *)$ is \mathcal{M}_f -free with basis B , and satisfies the conditions (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv) from Theorem 4.1. ■

The next theorem characterizes \mathcal{M}_f -free groupoids, for a simple power f , and it is a generalization of Theorem 2 from [4] and Theorem 1.1. Its proof follows from Theorems 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3.

Theorem 4.5 Let $f \in E$ be a simple groupoid power. A groupoid $H = (H, \cdot)$ is \mathcal{M}_f -free if and only if it satisfies the conditions (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv) from Theorem 4.1. Then, the set B of primes in H is non-empty and is the unique basis of H . ■

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ЗА СЛОБОДНИ ГРУПОИДИ СО $(xy)^n = x^n y^n$ **Дончо Димовски, Горѓи Чупона**

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Во трудовите [3,5,6,8,9], Чупона со соработниците ги истражува слободните објекти во многуобразија групоиди кои задоволуваат некои идентитети меѓу групоидни степени. Слободни објекти во многуобразието групоиди дефинирано со идентитетот $(xy)^2 = x^2 y^2$ се разгледувани во трудот [4]. Пред повеќе од 20 години, заедно со професор Чупона, добивме каноничен опис на слободни објекти во многуобразието групоиди кои го задоволуваат идентитетот $(xy)^n = x^n y^n$ за некои групоидни степени x^n . Овој резултат не беше публикуван, а прашањето за наоѓање каноничен опис на слободни групоиди за произволен групоиден степен x^n е сеуште отворено. Во овој труд е дадено мало подобрување на резултатот од пред 20 години, односно е даден каноничен опис на слободни групоиди во многуобразието групоиди дефинирано со идентитетот $(xy)^n = x^n y^n$, за едноставни групоидни степени x^n . За такви степени, слободните групоиди се карактеризирани со помош на инјективните групоиди од тоа многуобразије.

Клучни зборови: многуобразије групоиди, слободен групоид, групоидни степени