# ON NILPOTENT AND SOLVABLE POLYGROUPS 

M. JAFARPOUR, H. AGHABOZORGI AND B. DAVVAZ*

Communicated by Ali Reza Ashrafi


#### Abstract

Applications of hypergroups have mainly appeared in special subclasses. One of the important subclasses is the class of polygroups. In this paper, we study the notions of nilpotent and solvable polygroups by using the notion of heart of a polygroup. In particular, we give a necessary and sufficient condition between nilpotency (solvability) of polygroups and fundamental groups.


## 1. Introduction

The concept of a hypergroup which is based on the notion of hyperoperation was introduced by Marty in [21] and studied extensively by many mathematicians. Hypergroup theory extends some well-known results in group theory and introduces new topics leading to a wide variety of applications, as well as to broadening of the fields of investigation. Surveys of the theory can be found in the books of Corsini [5], Davvaz and Leoreanu-Fotea [12], Corsini and Leoreanu [6] and Vougiouklis [24]. Since the beginning, several relations have been considered in groupoids and hyperstructures such as $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}_{n}, \beta, \beta_{n}, \gamma$ and $\gamma_{n}$, see Koskas [18], Corsini [5, 7], Davvaz [9-11, 17], Freni [14-16], Leoreanu [19], Migliorato [22], Vougiouklis $[24,25]$ and others. We recall here some basic notions of hypergroup theory. Applications of hypergroups have mainly

[^0]appeared in special subclasses. For example, polygroups which form an important subclass of hypergroups were studied by Comer [3,4]. Quasicanonical hypergroups (called "polygroups" by Comer) were introduced for the first time in [2], as a generalization of canonical hypergroups, introduced in [23].

Let $H$ be a non-empty set and let $\mathcal{P}^{*}(H)$ be the set of all non-empty subsets of $H$. Let • be a hyperoperation (or join operation) on $H$, that is, • is a function from $H \times H$ into $\mathcal{P}^{*}(H)$. If $(a, b) \in H \times H$, its image under $\cdot$ in $\mathcal{P}^{*}(H)$ is denoted by $a \cdot b$. The join operation is extended to subsets of $H$ in a natural way, that is, for non-empty subsets $A, B$ of $H, A \cdot B=\cup\{a \cdot b \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$. The notation $a \cdot A$ is used for $\{a\} \cdot A$ and $A \cdot a$ for $A \cdot\{a\}$. Generally, the singleton $\{a\}$ is identified with its member $a$. The structure ( $H, \cdot)$ is called a semi-hypergroup if $a \cdot(b \cdot c)=(a \cdot b) \cdot c$ for all $a, b, c \in H$. Let $(H, \cdot)$ be a semi-hypergroup and let $A$ be a nonempty subset of $H$. We say that $A$ is a complete part of $H$ if for any nonzero natural number $n$ and for all $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ of $H$, the following implication holds:

$$
A \cap \prod_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \prod_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} \subseteq A
$$

Let $A$ be a nonempty part of $H$. The intersection of the parts of $H$ which are complete and contain $A$ is called the complete closure of $A$ in $H$, it will be denoted by $C(A)$. A semi-hypergroup is a hypergroup if $a \cdot H=H \cdot a=H$ for all $a \in H$. A nonempty subset $K$ of a hypergroup $(H, \cdot)$ is called a subhypergroup if it is a hypergroup. An element $e$ of $H$ is called an identity element if, for all $x \in H, x \in x \cdot e \cap e \cdot x$ and $a^{\prime} \in H$ is called an inverse of $a$ in $H$, with respect to $e$, if $e \in a \cdot a^{\prime} \cap a^{\prime} \cdot a$. Suppose that $(H, \cdot)$ and $\left(H^{\prime}, \circ\right)$ are two semi-hypergroups. A function $f: H \longrightarrow H^{\prime}$ is called a homomorphism if $f(a \cdot b) \subseteq f(a) \circ f(b)$ for all $a$ and $b$ in $H$. We say that $f$ is a good homomorphism if for all $a$ and $b$ in $H, f(a \cdot b)=f(a) \circ f(b)$.

If ( $H, \cdot)$ is a hypergroup and $\rho \subseteq H \times H$ is an equivalence relation, we set

$$
A \overline{\bar{\rho}} B \Leftrightarrow a \rho b, \quad \forall a \in A, \forall b \in B
$$

for all pairs $(A, B)$ of non-empty subsets of $H^{2}$.
The relation $\rho$ is called strongly regular on the left (on the right) if $x \rho y \Rightarrow a \cdot x \overline{\bar{\rho}} a \cdot y(x \rho y \Rightarrow x \cdot a \overline{\bar{\rho}} y \cdot a$, respectively $)$, for all $(x, y, a) \in H^{3}$. Moreover, $\rho$ is called strongly regular if it is strongly regular on the right and on the left.

Theorem 1.1. (Theorem 31, [5]). If ( $H, \cdot$ ) is a semi-hypergroup (hypergroup) and $\rho$ is a strongly regular relation on $H$, then the quotient $H / \rho$ is a semigroup (group) under the operation $\rho(x) \circ \rho(y)=\rho(z)$, for all $z \in$ $x \cdot y$.

We denote $\rho(x)$ by $\bar{x}$ and instead of $\bar{x} \circ \bar{y}$ we write $\bar{x} \bar{y}$.
For all $n>1$, we define the relation $\beta_{n}$ on a semi-hypergroup $H$, as follows:

$$
a \beta_{n} b \Leftrightarrow \exists\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in H^{n}:\{a, b\} \subseteq \prod_{i=1}^{n} x_{i},
$$

and we set $\beta=\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{n}$, where $\beta_{1}=\{(x, x) \mid x \in H\}$ is the diagonal relation on $H$. This relation was introduced by Koskas [18] and studied mainly by Corsini [5]. Suppose that $\beta^{*}$ is the transitive closure of $\beta$. The relation $\beta^{*}$ is a strongly regular relation [5]. The relation $\beta^{*}$ is the smallest equivalence relation on a hypergroup $H$, such that the quotient $H / \beta^{*}$ is a group. The heart $\omega_{H}$ of a hypergroup $H$ is the set of all elements $x$ of $H$, for which the equivalence class $\beta^{*}(x)$ is the identity of the group $H / \beta^{*}$, i.e., if $\varphi: H \longrightarrow H / \beta^{*}$ is the canonical map, then $\omega_{H}=\left\{x \in H \mid \varphi(x)=1_{H / \beta^{*}}\right\}$.

## 2. Nilpotent Polygroups

In this section, we introduce and analyze the definition of nilpotent polygroup $P$ and we present some results about this new concept.

A polygroup is a system $\wp=<P, \cdot, e,^{-1}>$, where $e \in P,{ }^{-1}$ is a unitary operation on $P, \cdot$ maps $P \times P$ into the non-empty subsets of $P$, and the following axioms hold for all $x, y, z$ in $P$ :
$\left(\mathrm{P}_{1}\right)(x \cdot y) \cdot z=x \cdot(y \cdot z)$,
$\left(\mathrm{P}_{2}\right) e \cdot x=x \cdot e=x$,
$\left(\mathrm{P}_{3}\right) x \in y \cdot z$ implies $y \in x \cdot z^{-1}$ and $z \in y^{-1} \cdot x$.
The following elementary facts about polygroups follow easily from the axioms: $e \in x \cdot x^{-1} \cap x^{-1} \cdot x, e^{-1}=e,\left(x^{-1}\right)^{-1}=x$, and $(x \cdot y)^{-1}=$ $y^{-1} \cdot x^{-1}$. Denote $A^{-1}=\left\{a^{-1} \mid a \in A\right\}$. A nonempty subset $K$ of a polygroup $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ is a subpolygroup of $P$ if (1) $x, y \in K$ implies $x \cdot y \in K$; (2) $x \in K$ implies $x^{-1} \in K$. A subpolygroup $N$ of a polygroup $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ is normal in $P$ if $x^{-1} \cdot N \cdot x \subseteq N$, for all $x \in P$. In the following we introduce a new construction of polygroups from groups.

Let $(G, \cdot)$ be a group and $P_{G}=G \cup\{a\}$, where $a \notin G$. We define on $P_{G}$ the hyperoperations o as follows:
(1) $a \circ a=e$;
(2) $e \circ x=x \circ e=x$, for every $x \in P_{G}$;
(3) $a \circ x=x \circ a=x$, for every $x \in P_{G}-\{e, a\}$;
(4) $x \circ y=x \cdot y$, for every $(x, y) \in G^{2}$ such that $y \neq x^{-1}$;
(5) $x \circ x^{-1}=\{e, a\}$, for every $x \in P_{G}-\{e, a\}$.

Proposition 2.1. If $G$ is a group, then $\left\langle P_{G}, \circ, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ is a polygroup.
Proof. First of all, we prove the associativity of o. Suppose that $(x, y, z) \in$ $P_{G}^{3}$.
(i) If $\{x, y, z\} \cap\{e, a\}=\emptyset$, then we have the following two cases.

Case 1. $x \neq y^{-1} \neq z$ and $x \neq z^{-1}$. In this case $(x \circ y) \circ z=$ $(x \cdot y) \cdot z=x \cdot(y \cdot z)=x \circ(y \circ z)$.
Case 2. There exists $\{u, v\} \subseteq\{x, y, z\}$ such that $u=v^{-1}$. Without loss of generality suppose that $x=u, y=v$. Thus, $(x \circ y) \circ z=\{e, a\} \circ z$. Hence, $\{e, a\} \circ z=z$. On the other hand, if $y=z^{-1}$, then $x \circ(y \circ z)=x \circ\{e, a\}=x=y^{-1}=z$ and if $y \neq z^{-1}$ we have $x \circ(y \circ z)=x \circ(y \cdot z)=x \cdot(y \cdot z)=\left(x \cdot x^{-1}\right) \cdot z=e \cdot z=z$.
(ii) If $\{x, y, z\} \cap\{e, a\} \neq \emptyset$. Let $e \in\{x, y, z\}$. It is easy to see that the associativity condition holds. Now suppose that $\{x, y, z\} \cap$ $\{e, a\}=\{a\}$. Without loss of generality let $x=a$. In this case we have

$$
(x \circ y) \circ z=x \circ(y \circ z)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
a & \text { if } y=a, z=a \\
z & \text { if } y=a, z \neq a \\
y & \text { if } y \neq a, z=a \\
y \cdot z & \text { if } y \neq z^{-1}, y \neq a \neq z \\
\{e, a\} & \text { if } y=z^{-1}, y \neq a \neq z
\end{array}\right.
$$

According to the structure of o we conclude that $e$ is the identity element of $P_{G}$ and the other conditions for being polygroup hold too.
Proposition 2.2. If $G$ is a group, then $P_{G} / \beta^{*} \cong G$.
Definition 2.3. (See [1]) Let $H$ be a hypergroup. We define
(1) $[x, y]_{r}=\{h \in H \mid x \cdot y \cap y \cdot x \cdot h \neq \emptyset\}$;
(2) $[x, y]_{l}=\{h \in H \mid x \cdot y \cap h \cdot y \cdot x \neq \emptyset\}$;
(3) $[x, y]=[x, y]_{r} \cup[x, y]_{l}$.

From now on we call $[x, y]_{r},[x, y]_{l}$ and $[x, y]$ right commutator $x$ and $y$, left commutator $x$ and $y$ and commutator $x$ and $y$, respectively. Also, we will denote by $[H, H]_{r},[H, H]_{l}$ and $[H, H]$, the set of all right commutators, left commutators and commutators, respectively.

Proposition 2.4. If $H$ is a commutative hypergroup, then $[x, y]_{r}=$ $[x, y]_{l}=[x, y]$, for all $(x, y) \in H^{2}$.

Definition 2.5. Let $X$ be a nonempty subset of a polygroup $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$. Let $\left\{A_{i} \mid i \in J\right\}$ be the family of all subpolygroups of $P$ which contain $X$. Then, $\cap_{i \in J} A_{i}$ is called the subpolygroup generated by $X$. This subpolygroup is denoted by $\langle X\rangle$ and we have $\langle X\rangle=\cup\left\{x_{1}^{\varepsilon_{1}} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_{k}^{\varepsilon_{k}} \mid x_{i} \in\right.$ $\left.X, k \in \mathbb{N}, \varepsilon_{i} \in\{-1,1\}\right\}$. If $X=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$. Then, the subpolygroup $<X>$ is denoted $<x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}>$. In a special case $<[P, P]_{r}>,<[P, P]_{l}>$ and $<[P, P]>$ are shown by $P_{r}^{\prime}, P_{l}^{\prime}$ and $P^{\prime}$, respectively.
Proposition 2.6. (See [1]) Let $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ be a polygroup and $(x, y) \in$ $P^{2}$. Then,
(1) $[x, y]_{r}=\left[x^{-1}, y^{-1}\right]_{l}$;
(2) $P^{\prime}=P_{r}^{\prime}=P_{l}^{\prime}$;
(3) $x \in P^{\prime} \Rightarrow x^{-1} \in P^{\prime}$.

Form now on we call $P^{\prime}$ the derived subpolygroup of $P$ which is a subpolygroup of $P$.
Example 2.7. Suppose that $P=\{e, a, b, c\}$. We consider the noncommutative polygroup $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$, where $\cdot$ is defined on $P$ as fallow:

| $\cdot$ | $e$ | $a$ | $b$ | $c$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $e$ | $e$ | $a$ | $b$ | $c$ |
| $a$ | $a$ | $a$ | $P$ | $c$ |
| $b$ | $b$ | $e, a, b$ | $b$ | $b, c$ |
| $c$ | $c$ | $a, c$ | $c$ | $P$ |

In this case we can see that $P^{\prime}=P$.
Definition 2.8. A polygroup $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,{ }^{-1}\right\rangle$ is said to be nilpotent if $\ell_{n}(P) \subseteq$ $\omega_{P}$ or equivalently $\ell_{n}(P) \cdot \omega_{P}=\omega_{P}$, for some integer $n$, where $\ell_{0}(P)=P$ and
$\ell_{k+1}(P)=\left\langle\left\{h \in P \mid x \cdot y \cap h \cdot y \cdot x \neq \emptyset\right.\right.$, such that $x \in \ell_{k}(P)$ and $\left.\left.y \in P\right\}\right\rangle$.
The smallest integer $c$ such that $\ell_{c}(P) \cdot \omega_{P}=\omega_{P}$ is called the nilpotency class or for simplicity the class of $P$.

Notice that $P=\ell_{0}(P) \supseteq \ell_{1}(P) \supseteq \ell_{2}(P) \supseteq \ldots$ that is $\left\{\ell_{k}(P)\right\}_{k \geq o}$ is a decreasing sequence which we call it the generalized descending central series.

Proposition 2.9. Every commutative polygroup is nilpotent of class 1.
Proof. Suppose that $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ is a commutative polygroup and $h \in$ $\ell_{1}(P)$. Then, there exists $(x, y) \in P^{2}$ such that $x \cdot y \cap h \cdot y \cdot x \neq \emptyset$. Since $P$ is commutative we have $x \cdot y \cap h \cdot x \cdot y \neq \emptyset$. So, $\bar{x} \bar{y}=\bar{h} \bar{x} \bar{y}$ and so $\bar{h}=e$ which means that $h \in \omega_{P}$. Therefore, $\ell_{1}(P) \cdot \omega_{P}=\omega_{P}$
Remark 2.10. The converse of the previous proposition holds for the class of groups but Example 2.7. shows that it is not valid for the class of polygroups.

A polygroup is called proper if it not a group.
Proposition 2.11. Every proper polygroup of order less than 7 is nilpotent of class 1.
Proof. Suppose that $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ is a polygroup of order less than 7. Then, $P / \beta^{*}$ is an abelian group of order less that 6 . Now, let $h \in \ell_{1}(P)$. Then, there exists $(x, y) \in P^{2}$ such that $x \cdot y \cap h \cdot x \cdot y \neq \emptyset$. Thus, $\bar{x} \bar{y}=\bar{h} \bar{y} \bar{x}=\bar{h} \bar{x} \bar{y}$ which implies that $h \in \omega_{P}$. Therefore, $\ell_{1}(P) \subseteq \omega_{P}$ and consequently $\ell_{1}(P) \cdot \omega_{P}=\omega_{P}$.
Corollary 2.12. The symmetric group $S_{3}$ is the smallest non-nilpotent polygroup.
Example 2.13. Let $P=\{e, a, b, c, d, f, g\}$. We consider the proper noncommutative polygroup $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,{ }^{-1}\right\rangle$, where $\cdot$ is defined on $P$ as follows:

| $\cdot$ | $e$ | $a$ | $b$ | $c$ | $d$ | $f$ | $g$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $e$ | $e$ | $a$ | $b$ | $c$ | $d$ | $f$ | $g$ |
| $a$ | $a$ | $e$ | $b$ | $c$ | $d$ | $f$ | $g$ |
| $b$ | $b$ | $b$ | $e, a$ | $g$ | $f$ | $d$ | $c$ |
| $c$ | $c$ | $c$ | $f$ | $e, a$ | $g$ | $b$ | $d$ |
| $d$ | $d$ | $d$ | $g$ | $f$ | $e, a$ | $c$ | $b$ |
| $f$ | $f$ | $f$ | $c$ | $d$ | $b$ | $g$ | $e, a$ |
| $g$ | $g$ | $g$ | $d$ | $b$ | $c$ | $e, a$ | $f$ |

It is easy to see that $\omega_{P}=\{e, a\}$ while $\ell_{n}(P)=\{e, a, f, g\}$ and hence $\ell_{n}(P) \cdot \omega_{P} \neq \omega_{P}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus, $P$ is not a nilpotent polygroup of order 7.

Proposition 2.14. Let $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ be a polygroup and consider the fundamental quotient as $G=\frac{P}{\beta^{*}}$. Then, for all $k \geq 1$

$$
\ell_{k}(G)=\left\langle\bar{t} \mid t \in \ell_{k}(P)\right\rangle .
$$

Proof. Suppose that $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ is a polygroup and the fundamental quotient as $G=\frac{P}{\beta^{*}}$. Then, we do the proof by induction on $k$. For $k=0$, we have $\left\langle\bar{t} \mid t \in \ell_{0}(P)=P\right\rangle=\ell_{0}(G)$. Now, suppose that $\bar{a} \in\left\langle\bar{t} \mid t \in \ell_{k+1}(P)\right\rangle$. Then, $a \in \ell_{k+1}(P)$ and so there exist $x \in \ell_{k}(P)$ and $y \in P$ such that $x y \cap a y x \neq \emptyset$. Thus, $\bar{x} \bar{y}=\bar{a} \bar{y} \bar{x}$. By the induction hypothesis we conclude that $\bar{a} \in \ell_{k+1}(G)$. Conversely, let $\bar{a} \in \ell_{k+1}(G)$. Without loss of generality suppose that $\bar{a}=\bar{x} \bar{y} \bar{x}^{-1} \bar{y}^{-1}$, where $\bar{x} \in \ell_{k}(G), \bar{y} \in G$, which implies that $\bar{x} \bar{y}=\bar{a} \bar{y} \bar{x}$. Thus, there exist $c \in x y$ and $d \in a y x$ such that $\bar{c}=\bar{d}$. Since $P$ is a polygroup there exists $u \in P$ such that $c \in x y \cap u y x$. From $\bar{x} \in \ell_{k}(G), \bar{y} \in G$ and the induction hypothesis we have $x \in \ell_{k}(P), y \in P$. Thus, $u \in \ell_{k+1}(P)$ and $\bar{a} \bar{y} \bar{x}=\bar{d}=\bar{c}=\bar{x} \bar{y}=\bar{u} \bar{y} \bar{x}$. Therefore, $\bar{a}=\bar{u} \in\left\langle\bar{t} \mid t \in \ell_{k+1}(P)\right\rangle$.

Theorem 2.15. Let $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ be a polygroup. Then, $P$ is nilpotent if and only if the fundamental quotient as $G=\frac{P}{\beta^{*}}$ is nilpotent.
Proof. Suppose that $P$ is a nilpotent polygroup so there exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\ell_{k}(P) \subseteq \omega_{p}$. According to the previous proposition, we have $\ell_{k}(G)=\left\langle\bar{t} \mid t \in \ell_{k}(P) \subseteq \omega_{p}\right\rangle=\left\{e_{G}\right\}=\omega_{G}$, and so the fundamental quotient is a nilpotent group. Similarly, we can see the converse.

Corollary 2.16. Let $G$ be a group. Then, $P_{G}$ is nilpotent if and only if $G$ is nilpotent.

Theorem 2.17. Let $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ be a polygroup and let $N$ be a normal subpolygroup of $P$. Then, $\ell_{n}\left(\frac{P}{N}\right)=\frac{\ell_{n}(P) \cdot N}{N}$, for all $n \geq 0$.
Proof. By induction on $n$ we show that $\ell_{n}\left(\frac{P}{N}\right) \subseteq \frac{\ell_{n}(P) \cdot N}{N}$ and $\frac{\ell_{n}(P) \cdot N}{N} \subseteq$ $\ell_{n}\left(\frac{P}{N}\right)$. For $n=0$, the inclusions are obvious. Now, suppose that $y N \in$ $\ell_{n+1}\left(\frac{P}{N}\right)$. Then, $y N \in[a N, b N]$, where $a N \in \ell_{n}\left(\frac{P}{N}\right)$ and $b N \in \frac{P}{N}$. By the induction hypothesis we have $a N=a^{\prime} N$, where $a^{\prime} \in \ell_{n}(P)$. Therefore, $y N=y^{\prime} N$, where $y^{\prime} \in\left[a^{\prime}, b\right]$. Thus, $y N \in \frac{\ell_{n+1}(P) \cdot N}{N}$. If $y N \in \frac{\ell_{n+1}(P) \cdot N}{N}$, then $y N=y^{\prime \prime} N$, where $y^{\prime \prime} \in \ell_{n+1}(P)$. So, there exist $a \in \ell_{n}(P)$ and $b \in P$ such that $y^{\prime \prime} \in[a, b]$. Hence, $a N=y N \in[a N, b N]$, where $a N \in \ell_{n}\left(\frac{P}{N}\right)$ which means that $y N \in \ell_{n+1}\left(\frac{P}{N}\right)$ and our proof is completed.

Corollary 2.18. If $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,{ }^{-1}\right\rangle$ is a nilpotent polygroup, then
(1) every subpolygroup of $P$ is nilpotent;
(2) if $N$ is a normal subpolygroup of $P$, then $\frac{P}{N}$ is nilpotent.

Definition 2.19. Let $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ be a polygroup. We define $Z_{0}(P)=\omega_{P}$ and $Z_{n}(P)=\left\langle\left\{x \mid x \cdot y \cdot Z_{n-1}(P)=y \cdot x \cdot Z_{n-1}(P), \forall y \in P\right\}\right\rangle$, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Notice that $\omega_{P}=Z_{0}(P) \subseteq Z_{1}(P) \subseteq Z_{2}(P) \subseteq \ldots$, that is, $\left\{Z_{m}(P)\right\}_{m \geq 0}$ is an increasing sequence which we call it the generalized ascending central series. Moreover, $Z_{n}(P)$ is a subpolygroup of $P$, for every $n \geq 0$.
Proposition 2.20. If $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ is a polygroup and $n \geq 0$, then
(1) $Z_{n}(P)$ is a complete subpolygroup of $P$;
(2) $g \cdot g^{-1} \subseteq Z_{n}(P)$, for every $g \in P$;
(3) $Z_{n}(P)$ is a normal subpolygroup of $P$.

Proof. (1) Since $\omega_{P} \subseteq Z_{n}(P)$, we conclude that $C\left(Z_{n}(P)\right)=Z_{n}(P)$. $\omega_{P}=Z_{n}(P)$, which means that $Z_{n}(P)$ is complete.
(2) Let $g \in P$. Since $e \in g \cdot g^{-1} \cap Z_{n}(P)$ and $Z_{n}(P)$ is complete, $g \cdot g^{-1} \subseteq Z_{n}(P)$.
(3) Let $g \in P$ be an arbitrary element and $x \in Z_{n}(P)$. Then, $g \cdot x$. $g^{-1} \cdot Z_{n-1}(P)=g \cdot g^{-1} \cdot x \cdot Z_{n-1}(P) \subseteq g \cdot g^{-1} \cdot Z_{n}(P)=Z_{n}(P)$. Hence, $g \cdot x \cdot g^{-1} \subseteq Z_{n}(P)$.
Theorem 2.21. Let $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ be a polygroup. Then, $P$ is nilpotent if and only if there exists $r \geq 0$ such that $Z_{r}(P)=P$.
Proof. Suppose that there exists $r \geq 0$ such that $Z_{r}(P)=P$. In order to prove $\ell_{r}(P) \subseteq \omega_{P}$, by induction we show that $\ell_{i}(P) \subseteq Z_{r-i}(P)$. For $i=0$ we have $\ell_{0}(P)=P \subseteq P=Z_{r}(P)$. Now, if $a \in \ell_{i+1}(P)$, then without loss of generality suppose that $x \cdot y \cap a \cdot y \cdot x \neq \emptyset$, where $x \in \ell_{i}(P)$ and $y \in P$. By the hypothesis of induction we conclude that $x \in Z_{r-i}(P)$. Hence, $x \cdot y \cdot Z_{r-i-1}(P)=y \cdot x \cdot Z_{r-i-1}(P)$ and so $a \in Z_{r-i-1}(P)$. Now if $i=r$, then $\ell_{r}(P) \subseteq Z_{0}(P)=\omega_{P}$. For the converse, suppose that $\ell_{r}(P) \subseteq \omega_{P}$. It is enough to show that $\ell_{r-i}(P) \subseteq Z_{i}(P)$, for all $0 \leq i \leq n$. For $i=0$, we have $\ell_{r}(P) \subseteq \omega_{P}=Z_{0}(P)$. Let $a \in \ell_{r-i-1}(P)$ and $b \in P$. Then, $[a, b] \subseteq \ell_{r-i}(P)$. By using the induction hypothesis, we have $[a, b] \subseteq Z_{i}(P)$. Therefore, $a \cdot b \cdot Z_{i}(P)=b \cdot a \cdot Z_{i}(P)$ and so $a \in Z_{i+1}(P)$ as we need. If we take $i=r$, then we get our claim.
Corollary 2.22. Let $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ be a polygroup. Then, $\ell_{c}(P) \subseteq \omega_{P}$ if and only if $Z_{c}(P)=P$, that is, $P$ is nilpotent of class $c$ if and only if $Z_{c}(P)=P$.
Definition 2.23. Let $\left\langle P_{1}, \cdot, e_{1},{ }^{-1}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle P_{2}, \circ, e_{2},{ }^{-I}\right\rangle$ be two polygroups. Then, on $P_{1} \times P_{2}$ we can define a hyperproduct as follows: $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right) *$
$\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)=\left\{(x, y) \mid x \in x_{1} \cdot x_{2}, y \in y_{1} \circ y_{2}\right\}$. We call this the direct hyperproduct of $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$. Clearly, $P_{1} \times P_{2}$ equipped with the usual direct hyperproduct becomes a polygroup.

Proposition 2.24. (See [8]) Let $\omega_{P_{1}}, \omega_{P_{2}}$ and $\omega_{P_{1} \times P_{2}}$ be the hearts of $P_{1}, P_{2}$ and $P_{1} \times P_{2}$, respectively. Then, $\omega_{P_{1} \times P_{2}}=\omega_{P_{1}} \times \omega_{P_{2}}$.

Proposition 2.25. Let $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ be two polygroups. Then, for all $k \geqslant 0$

$$
\ell_{k}\left(P_{1} \times P_{2}\right)=\ell_{k}\left(P_{1}\right) \times \ell_{k}\left(P_{2}\right) .
$$

Proof. We prove our claim by induction on $k$. For $k=0$, it is obvious. Now, suppose that $(a, b) \in \ell_{k+1}\left(P_{1} \times P_{2}\right)$. Then, there exist $(u, v) \in$ $\ell_{k}\left(P_{1} \times P_{2}\right)$ and $(s, t) \in P_{1} \times P_{2}$ such that $(u, v) *(s, t) \cap(a, b) *(s, t) *$ $(u, v) \neq \emptyset$, that is, $u \cdot s \cap a \cdot s \cdot u \neq \emptyset$ and $v \circ t \cap b \circ t \circ v \neq \emptyset$. By using the induction hypothesis, we conclude that $a \in \ell_{k+1}\left(P_{1}\right)$ and $b \in \ell_{k+1}\left(P_{2}\right)$. Thus, $(a, b) \in \ell_{k+1}\left(P_{1}\right) \times \ell_{k+1}\left(P_{2}\right)$. Similarly, we obtain the converse.

Proposition 2.26. Let $P_{1}, P_{2}$ be two polygroups. Then, $P_{1} \times P_{2}$ is nilpotent if and only if $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ are nilpotent.

Proof. If $P_{1}, P_{2}$ are nilpotent, then there exist $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$ such that $\ell_{k_{1}}\left(P_{1}\right) \subseteq \omega_{P_{1}}$ and $\ell_{k_{2}}\left(P_{2}\right) \subseteq \omega_{P_{2}}$. Suppose that $k=\operatorname{lcm}\left(k_{1}, k_{2}\right)$. Hence, $\ell_{k}\left(P_{1}\right) \subseteq \ell_{k_{1}}\left(P_{1}\right)$ and $\ell_{k}\left(P_{2}\right) \subseteq \ell_{k_{2}}\left(P_{2}\right)$ and so we obtain $\ell_{k}\left(P_{1} \times P_{2}\right)=$ $\ell_{k}\left(P_{1}\right) \times \ell_{k}\left(P_{2}\right) \subseteq \ell_{k_{1}}\left(P_{1}\right) \times \ell_{k_{2}}\left(P_{2}\right) \subseteq \omega_{P_{1}} \times \omega_{P_{2}}=\omega_{P_{1} \times P_{2}}$. Conversely, suppose that $P_{1} \times P_{2}$ is nilpotent. Then, there exists $k$ such that $\ell_{k}\left(P_{1}\right) \times$ $\ell_{k}\left(P_{2}\right)=\ell_{k}\left(P_{1} \times P_{2}\right) \subseteq \omega_{P_{1} \times P_{2}}=\omega_{P_{1}} \times \omega_{P_{2}}$. Hence, $\ell_{k}\left(P_{1}\right) \subseteq \omega_{P_{1}}$ and $\ell_{k}\left(P_{2}\right) \subseteq \omega_{P_{2}}$. Therefore, $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ are nilpotent.

Example 2.27. Let $P_{1}=\{e, a, b, c\}$ be the polygroup in Example 2.7. and let $P_{2}=\{0,1\}$ be the cyclic group of order two. Consider the noncommutative polygroup $P \cong P_{1} \times P_{2}$, where $\cdot$ is defined on $P$ as follows:

| $\cdot$ | $e$ | $a$ | $b$ | $c$ | $d$ | $f$ | $g$ | $h$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $e$ | $e$ | $a$ | $b$ | $c$ | $d$ | $f$ | $g$ | $h$ |
| $a$ | $a$ | $e$ | $c$ | $b$ | $f$ | $d$ | $h$ | $g$ |
| $b$ | $b$ | $c$ | $b$ | $c$ | $e, b, d, g$ | $a, c, f, h$ | $g$ | $h$ |
| $c$ | $c$ | $b$ | $c$ | $b$ | $a, c, f, h$ | $e, b, d, g$ | $h$ | $g$ |
| $d$ | $d$ | $f$ | $e, b, d$ | $a, c, f$ | $d$ | $f$ | $d, g$ | $f, h$ |
| $f$ | $f$ | $d$ | $a, c, f$ | $e, b, d$ | $f$ | $d$ | $f, h$ | $d, g$ |
| $g$ | $g$ | $h$ | $b, g$ | $c, h$ | $g$ | $h$ | $e, b, d, g$ | $a, c, f, h$ |
| $h$ | $h$ | $g$ | $c, h$ | $b, g$ | $h$ | $g$ | $a, c, f, h$ | $e, b, d, g$ |

It is easy to see that $\ell_{1}\left(P_{1}\right)=P_{1}^{\prime}=\omega_{P_{1}}$ and $\ell_{1}\left(P_{2}\right)=\omega_{P_{2}}=\{0\}$. Hence, $P$ is a nilpotent polygroup of class 1 .
Definition 2.28. (see [5]) Let $H$ be a regular hypergroup. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ be elements in $H$, and let $a_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, a_{n}^{\prime}$ be their inverses in $H$, respectively. The set $a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{n} a_{n}^{\prime} a_{n-1}^{\prime} \ldots a_{1}^{\prime}$ is called a product of type zero. The union of all products of type 0 is denoted by $N(0)$.
Theorem 2.29. (see [5]) If $H$ is a regular and reversible hypergroup, then the heart is the union of the products of type zero (i.e., $\omega_{H}=N(0)$ ).
Proposition 2.30. Let $\left\langle P_{1}, \cdot, e_{1},{ }^{-1}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle P_{2}, \circ, e_{2},{ }^{-I}\right\rangle$ be two polygroups, and let $\phi: P_{1} \longrightarrow P_{2}$ be a good homomorphism. Then, we have
(1) if $K_{1}$ is a subpolygroup of $P_{1}$, then $\phi\left(K_{1}\right)$ is a subpolygroup of $P_{2}$;
(2) if $K_{2}$ is a subpolygroup of $P_{2}$, then $\phi^{-1}\left(K_{2}\right)$ is a subpolygroup of $P_{1}$;
(3) if $\phi$ is one to one and $K_{1}$ is a nilpotent subpolygroup of $P_{1}$, then $\phi\left(K_{1}\right)$ is a nilpotent subpolygroup of $P_{2}$.
Proof. (1) Suppose that $u, v \in \phi\left(K_{1}\right)$. Then, there exist $x, y \in K_{1}$ such that $\phi(x)=u$ and $\phi(y)=v$. We have $u \circ v=\phi(x) \circ \phi(y)=\phi(x \cdot y) \subseteq$ $\phi\left(K_{1}\right)$. Now, suppose that $u \in \phi\left(K_{1}\right)$. Then, there exists $x \in K_{1}$ such that $\phi(x)=u$. We have $u^{-1}=\phi(x)^{-1}=\phi\left(x^{-1}\right) \in \phi\left(K_{1}\right)$. Thus, $\phi\left(K_{1}\right)$ is a subpolygroup of $P_{2}$.
(2) This is obvious.
(3) By induction on $n$ we show that $\ell_{n}\left(\phi\left(K_{1}\right)\right)=\phi\left(\ell_{n}\left(K_{1}\right)\right)$. For $n=0$ it is obvious. Let $z \in \ell_{n+1}\left(\phi\left(K_{1}\right)\right)$. Then, there exist $x \in \ell_{n}\left(\phi\left(K_{1}\right)\right)$ and $y \in \phi\left(K_{1}\right)$ such that $x \circ y \cap z \circ y \circ x \neq \emptyset$. Since $\{x, y, z\} \subseteq \phi\left(K_{1}\right)$, there exist $a \in \ell_{n}\left(\phi\left(K_{1}\right)\right), b \in K_{1}$ and $c \in K_{1}$ such that $\phi(a)=x, \phi(b)=$ $y, \phi(c)=z$. Therefore, we have
$x \circ y \cap z \circ y \circ x=\phi(a) \circ \phi(b) \cap \phi(c) \circ \phi(b) \circ \phi(a)=\phi(a \cdot b) \cap \phi(c \cdot b \cdot a) \neq \emptyset$.
Since $\phi$ is one to one, we conclude that $\phi(a \cdot b \cap c \cdot b \cdot a) \neq \emptyset$, so $a \cdot b \cap c \cdot b \cdot a \neq \emptyset$. By the induction hypothesis we have $c \in \ell_{n+1}\left(K_{1}\right)$. Thus, $z=\phi(c) \in$ $\phi\left(\ell_{n+1}\left(K_{1}\right)\right.$.

Conversely, let $z \in \phi\left(\ell_{n+1}\left(K_{1}\right)\right)$. Then, there exists $c \in \ell_{n+1}\left(K_{1}\right)$ such that $\phi(c)=z$. So, from $c \in \ell_{n+1}\left(K_{1}\right)$ we conclude that there exist $a \in \ell_{n}\left(K_{1}\right)$ and $b \in K_{1}$ such that $a \cdot b \cap c \cdot b \cdot a \neq \emptyset$. Thus, $\phi(a) \circ \phi(b) \cap \phi(c) \circ \phi(b) \circ \phi(a) \neq \emptyset$. By the induction hypothesis we have $\phi(a) \in \phi\left(\ell_{n}\left(K_{1}\right)=\ell_{n}\left(\phi\left(K_{1}\right)\right)\right.$ and $\phi(b) \in \phi\left(K_{1}\right)$. So, $z=\phi(c) \in$ $\ell_{n+1}\left(\phi\left(K_{1}\right)\right)$.

Now, let $K_{1}$ be a nilpotent subpolygroup of $P_{1}$. Then, there exists $m$ such that $\ell_{m}\left(K_{1}\right) \subseteq \omega_{K_{1}}$. By the previous theorem, we have $\ell_{m}\left(\phi\left(K_{1}\right)\right)=\phi\left(\ell_{m}\left(K_{1}\right) \subseteq \phi\left(\omega_{K_{1}}\right) \subseteq \omega_{\phi\left(K_{1}\right)}\right.$, and the proof is completed.

## 3. On solvable polygroups

In this section, we introduce and probe solvable polygroups.
Definition 3.1. A polygroup $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ is said to be solvable if $\imath_{n}(P) \subseteq$ $\omega_{P}$ or equivalently $\imath_{n}(P) \cdot \omega_{P}=\omega_{P}$, for some integer $n$, where $\imath_{0}(P)=P$ and

$$
\imath_{k+1}(P)=\left\langle\left\{h \in P \mid x \cdot y \cap h \cdot y \cdot x \neq \emptyset, \text { such that } x, y \in \imath_{k}(P)\right\}\right\rangle .
$$

The smallest integer $c$ such that $\imath_{c}(P) \cdot \omega_{P}=\omega_{P}$ is called the length of $P$. Notice that $\left\{\imath_{k}(P)\right\}_{k \geq o}$ is a decreasing sequence.
Proposition 3.2. Every commutative polygroup is solvable of length 1.
Proposition 3.3. Let $P$ be a polygroup and $G=\frac{P}{\beta^{*}}$. Then, for all $k \geq 1$

$$
\imath_{k}(G)=\left\langle\bar{t} \mid t \in \imath_{k}(P)\right\rangle .
$$

Proof. Suppose that $P$ is a polygroup and $G=\frac{P}{\beta^{*}}$. Then, we do the proof by induction on $k$. For $k=0$, we have $\left\langle\bar{t} \mid t \in \imath_{0}(P)=P\right\rangle=\imath_{0}(G)$. Now, suppose that $\bar{a} \in\left\langle\bar{t} \mid t \in \imath_{k+1}(P)\right\rangle$. Then, $a \in \imath_{k+1}(P)$ and so there exist $x, y \in \imath_{k}(P)$ such that $x y \cap a y x \neq \emptyset$. Thus, $\bar{x} \bar{y}=\bar{a} \bar{y} \bar{x}$. By the induction hypothesis we conclude that $\bar{a} \in \imath_{k+1}(G)$. Conversely, let $\bar{a} \in \imath_{k+1}(G)$. Without loss of generality suppose that $\bar{a}=\bar{x} \bar{y} \bar{x}^{-1} \bar{y}^{-1}$, where $\bar{x}, \bar{y} \in \imath_{k}(G)$, which implies that $\bar{x} \bar{y}=\bar{a} \bar{y} \bar{x}$. Thus, there exist $c \in x y$ and $d \in$ ayx such that $\bar{c}=\bar{d}$. Since $P$ is a polygroup, there exists $u \in P$ such that $c \in x y \cap u y x$. By the induction hypothesis we have $x, y \in \imath_{k}(P)$ which implies that $u \in \imath_{k+1}(P)$ and $\bar{a} \bar{y} \bar{x}=\bar{d}=\bar{c}=\bar{x} \bar{y}=$ $\bar{u} \bar{y} \bar{x}$, so $\bar{a}=\bar{u} \in\left\langle\bar{t} \mid t \in \imath_{k+1}(P)\right\rangle$.

Theorem 3.4. Let $P$ be a polygroup. Then, $P$ is solvable if and only if $G=\frac{P}{\beta^{*}}$ is solvable.
Proof. Suppose that $P$ is a solvable polygroup. Then, there exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\imath_{k}(P) \subseteq \omega_{p}$. According to the previous proposition, we have $\imath_{k}(G)=\left\langle\bar{t} \mid t \in \imath_{k}(P)\right\rangle=\left\{e_{G}\right\}=\omega_{G}$, and so $G=\frac{P}{\beta^{*}}$ is a nilpotent group. Similarly, we can see the converse.

Corollary 3.5. Every nilpotent polygroup is solvable.

Proposition 3.6. Every proper polygroup of order less than 61 is solvable.

Proof. Suppose that $\left\langle P, \cdot, e,^{-1}\right\rangle$ is a proper polygroup of order less than 61. Then, $P / \beta^{*}$ is a group of order less that 60 . Thus, $P / \beta^{*}$ is not isomorphic to the smallest non-solvable group $A_{5}$ (alternating group of degree 5). Hence, $P$ is solvable.

In the following example, we introduce one of the smallest proper polygroups of order 61 .
Example 3.7. Let $A_{5}$ be the alternating group of degree 5 and $P=$ $A_{5} \cup\{a\}$, where $a \notin A_{5}$. We define on $P$ the hyperoperations $\circ$, as follows:
(1) $a \circ a=\{e, a\}$;
(2) $e \circ x=x \circ e=x$, for every $x \in P$;
(3) $a \circ x=x \circ a=x$, for every $x \in P-\{e, a\}$;
(4) $x \circ y=x \cdot y$, for every $x, y \in A_{5}$ such that $y \neq x^{-1}$;
(5) $x \circ x^{-1}=\{e, a\}$, for every $x \in P-\{e, a\}$.

It is easy to see that $(P, \circ)$ is a polygroup. Moreover, $P / \beta^{*} \cong A_{5}$ and hence $P$ is not solvable.

## References

[1] H. Aghabozorgi, B. Davvaz and M. Jafarpour, Solvable polygroups and derived subpolygroups, Comm. Algebra, 41 (2013), no. 8, 3098-3107.
[2] P. Bonansinga and P. Corsini, On semihypergroup and hypergroup homomorphisms, (Italian) Boll. Un. Mat. Ital. B (6) 1 (1982), no. 2, 717-727.
[3] S. D. Comer, Polygroups derived from cogroups, J. Algebra 89 (1984), no. 2, 397-405.
[4] S. D. Comer, Extension of polygroups by polygroups and their representations using color schemes, Universal algebra and lattice theory (Puebla, 1982), 91-103, Lecture Notes in Math., 1004, Springer, Berlin, 1983.
[5] P. Corsini, Prolegomena of Hypergroup Theory, Aviani Editore, Tricesimo, 1993.
[6] P. Corsini and V. Leoreanu, Applications of Hyperstructure Theory, Kluwer Academical Publications, Dordrecht, 2003.
[7] P. Corsini and V. Leoreanu, About the heart of a hypergroup, Acta Univ. Carolin. Math. Phys. 37 (1996), no. 1, 17-28.
[8] B. Davvaz, Isomorphism theorems of polygroups, Bull. Malays. Math. Sci. Soc. (2) 33 (2010), no. 3, 385-392.
[9] B. Davvaz, Applications of the $\gamma^{*}$-relation to polygroups, Comm. Algebra 35 (2007), no. 9, 2698-2706.
[10] B. Davvaz and H. Karimian, On the $\gamma_{n}^{*}$-complete hypergroups, European J. Combin. 28 (2007), no. 1, 86-93.
[11] B. Davvaz and H. Karimian, On the $\gamma_{n}$-complete hypergroups and $K_{H}$ hypergroups, Acta Math. Sin. (Engl. Ser.) 24 (2008), no. 11, 1901-1908.
[12] B. Davvaz and V. Leoreanu-Fotea, Hyperring Theory and Applications, Hadronic Press, Inc., Palm Harbor, 2008.
[13] M. Dresher and O. Ore, Theory of multigroups, Amer. J. Math. 60 (1938), no. 3, 705-733.
[14] D. Freni, A new characterization of the derived hypergroup via strongly regular equivalences, Comm. Algebra 30 (2002), no. 8, 3977-3989.
[15] D. Freni, Strongly transitive geometric spaces: Applications to hypergroups and semigroups theory, Comm. Algebra 32 (2004), no. 3, 969-988.
[16] D. Freni, Une note sur le cœur d'un hypergroupe et sur la clôture transitive $\beta^{*}$ de $\beta$, Riv. Mat. Pura Appl. 8 (1991) 153-156.
[17] M. Karimian and B. Davvaz, On the $\gamma$-cyclic hypergroups, Comm. Algebra 34 (2006), no. 12, 4579-4589.
[18] M. Koskas, Groupoides, demi-hypergroupes et hypergroupes, J. Math. Pures Appl. (9) 49 (1970) 155-192.
[19] V. Leoreanu-Fotea and B. Davvaz, n-hypergroups and binary relations, Europ. J. Combin. 29 (2008), no. 5, 1207-1218.
[20] V. Leoreanu-Fotea, M. Jafarpour and S. Sh. Mousavi, The relation $\delta^{n}$ and multisemi-direct hyperproducts of hypergroups, Comm. Algebra 40 (2012), no. 10, 3597-3608.
[21] F. Marty, Sur une Generalization de la Notion de Groupe, in: $8^{t h}$ Congress Math. Scandenaves, Stockholm, 1934, 45-49.
[22] R. Migliorato, Semi-ipergruppi e Ipergruppi n-completi, Ann. Sci. Univ. Clermont II, Sèr Math. 23 (1986) 99-123.
[23] J. Mittas, Hypergroupes canoniques, Math. Balkanica 2 (1972) 165-179.
[24] T. Vougiouklis, Hyperstructures and Their Representations, Hadronic Press, Inc., Palm Harbor, 1994.
[25] T. Vougiouklis, Groups in hypergroups, Ann. Discrete Math. 37 (1988) 59-467.

## M. Jafarpour

Department of Mathematics, Vali-e-Asr University, Rafsanjan, Iran
Email: m.j@mail.vru.ac.ir
H. Aghabozorgi

Department of Mathematics, Yazd University, Yazd, Iran
Email: h_aghabozorgi1@yahoo.com

## B. Davvaz

Department of Mathematics, Yazd University, Yazd, Iran
Email: davvaz@yazd.ac.ir


[^0]:    MSC(2010): Primary: 20N20; Secondary 08A99.
    Keywords: (semi)hypergroup, polygroup, derived polygroup, nilpotent polygroup.
    Received: 2 October 2011, Accepted: 27 April 2012.
    *Corresponding author
    (c) 2013 Iranian Mathematical Society.

