

Representation Theory of Polyadic Groups

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Abstract In this article, we introduce the notion of representations of polyadic groups and we investigate the connection between these representations and those of retract groups and covering groups.

Keywords Polyadic groups · Representations · Retract of n -ary groups · Covering groups

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1 Introduction

A non-empty set G together with an n -ary operation $f : G^n \rightarrow G$ is called an n -ary *groupoid* and is denoted by (G, f) . We will assume that $n > 2$.

According to the general convention used in the theory of n -ary systems, the sequence of elements x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_j is denoted by x_i^j . In the case $j < i$ it is the

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empty symbol. If $x_{i+1} = x_{i+2} = \dots = x_{i+t} = x$, then instead of x_{i+1}^{i+t} we write $\overset{(t)}{x}$. In this convention $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(x_1^n)$ and

$$f\left(x_1, \dots, x_i, \underbrace{x, \dots, x}_t, x_{i+t+1}, \dots, x_n\right) = f\left(x_1^i, \overset{(t)}{x}, x_{i+t+1}^n\right).$$

An n -ary groupoid (G, f) is called (i, j) -associative, if

$$f\left(x_1^{i-1}, f\left(x_i^{n+i-1}\right), x_{n+i}^{2n-1}\right) = f\left(x_1^{j-1}, f\left(x_j^{n+j-1}\right), x_{n+j}^{2n-1}\right) \tag{1.1}$$

holds for all $x_1, \dots, x_{2n-1} \in G$. If this identity holds for all $1 \leq i < j \leq n$, then we say that the operation f is associative and (G, f) is called an n -ary semigroup.

If, for all $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n \in G$ and fixed $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, there exists an element $z \in G$ such that

$$f\left(x_1^{i-1}, z, x_{i+1}^n\right) = x_0, \tag{1.2}$$

then we say that this equation is i -solvable or solvable at the place i . If this solution is unique, then we say that Eq. 1.2 is uniquely i -solvable.

An n -ary groupoid (G, f) uniquely solvable for all $i = 1, \dots, n$, is called an n -ary quasigroup. An associative n -ary quasigroup is called an n -ary group or a polyadic group. In the binary case (i.e., for $n = 2$) it is a usual group.

Now, such and similar n -ary systems have many applications in different branches. For example, in the theory of automata, (cf. [11]), n -ary semigroups and n -ary groups are used, some n -ary groupoids are applied in the theory of quantum groups (cf. [15]). Different applications of ternary structures in physics are described by R. Kerner (cf. [13]). In physics there are used also such structures as n -ary Filippov algebras (cf. [16]) and n -Lie algebras (cf. [18]).

The idea of investigations of such groups seems to be going back to E. Kasner’s lecture [12] at the fifty-third annual meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in 1904. But the first paper concerning the theory of n -ary groups was written (under inspiration of Emmy Noether) by W. Dörnte in 1928 (see [2]). In this paper Dörnte observed that any n -ary groupoid (G, f) of the form $f(x_1^n) = x_1 \circ x_2 \circ \dots \circ x_n \circ b$, where (G, \circ) is a group and b is its fixed element belonging to the center of (G, \circ) , is an n -ary group. Such n -ary groups, called b -derived from the group (G, \circ) , are denoted by $der_b(G, \circ)$. In the case when b is the identity of (G, \circ) we say that such n -ary group is reducible to the group (G, \circ) or derived from (G, \circ) . But for every $n > 2$ there are n -ary groups which are not derived from any group. An n -ary group (G, f) is derived from some group iff it contains an element e (called an n -ary identity) such that

$$f\left(\overset{(i-1)}{e}, x, \overset{(n-i)}{e}\right) = x \tag{1.3}$$

holds for all $x \in G$ and $i = 1, \dots, n$.

It is worthwhile to note that in the definition of an n -ary group, under the assumption of the associativity of the operation f , it suffices only to postulate the existence of a solution of Eq. 1.2 at the places $i = 1$ and $i = n$ or at one place i other than 1 and n (cf. [17], p. 213). Other useful characterizations of n -ary groups one can find in [3] and [6].

From the definition of an n -ary group (G, f) , we can directly see that for every $x \in G$, there exists only one $z \in G$ satisfying the equation

$$f\left(\overset{(n-1)}{x}, z\right) = x. \tag{1.4}$$

This element is called *skew* to x and is denoted by \bar{x} . In a ternary group ($n = 3$) derived from the binary group (G, \circ) the skew element coincides with the inverse element in (G, \circ) . Thus, in some sense, the skew element is a generalization of the inverse element in binary groups. Dörnte proved (see [2]) that in ternary groups we have $f(x, y, z) = f(\bar{z}, \bar{y}, \bar{x})$ and $\bar{\bar{x}} = x$, but for $n > 3$ this is not true. For $n > 3$ there are n -ary groups in which one fixed element is skew to all elements (cf. [4]) and n -ary groups in which any element is skew to itself.

Nevertheless, the concept of skew elements plays a crucial role in the theory of n -ary groups. Namely, as Dörnte proved (see also [6]), the following theorem is true.

Theorem 1.1 *In any n -ary group (G, f) the following identities*

$$f\left(\overset{(i-2)}{x}, \bar{x}, \overset{(n-i)}{x}, y\right) = f\left(y, \overset{(n-j)}{x}, \bar{x}, \overset{(j-2)}{x}\right) = y, \tag{1.5}$$

$$f\left(\overset{(k-1)}{x}, \bar{x}, \overset{(n-k)}{x}\right) = x \tag{1.6}$$

hold for all $x, y \in G$, $2 \leq i, j \leq n$ and $1 \leq k \leq n$.

One can prove (cf. [3]) that for $n > 2$ an n -ary group can be defined as an algebra $(G, f, \bar{})$ with one associative n -ary operation f and one unary operation $\bar{} : x \rightarrow \bar{x}$ satisfying for some $2 \leq i, j \leq n$ the identities (1.5). This means that a non-empty subset H of an n -ary group (G, f) is its subgroup iff it is closed with respect to the operation f and $\bar{x} \in H$ for every $x \in H$.

Fixing in an n -ary operation f all inner elements a_2, \dots, a_{n-1} we obtain a new binary operation

$$x * y = f(x, a_2^{n-1}, y).$$

Such obtained groupoid $(G, *)$ is called a *retract* of (G, f) . Choosing different elements a_1, \dots, a_{n-1} we obtain different retracts. Retracts of n -ary groups are groups. Retracts of a fixed n -ary group are isomorphic (cf. [8]). So, we can consider only retracts of the form

$$x * y = f\left(x, \overset{(n-2)}{a}, y\right).$$

Such retracts will be denoted by $Ret_a(G, f)$, or simply by $Ret_a(G)$. The identity of the group $Ret_a(G)$ is \bar{a} . One can verify that the inverse element to x has the form

$$x^{-1} = f\left(\bar{a}, \overset{(n-3)}{x}, \bar{x}, \bar{a}\right). \tag{1.7}$$

Binary retracts of an n -ary group (G, f) are commutative only in the case when there exists an element $a \in G$ such that

$$f\left(x, \overset{(n-2)}{a}, y\right) = f\left(y, \overset{(n-2)}{a}, x\right)$$

holds for all $x, y \in G$. An n -ary group with this property is called *semiabelian*. It satisfies the identity

$$f(x_1^n) = f(x_n, x_2^{n-1}, x_1) \tag{1.8}$$

(cf. [3]).

One can prove (cf. [9]) that a semiabelian n -ary group is *medial*, i.e., it satisfies the identity

$$f(f(x_{11}^{1n}), f(x_{21}^{2n}), \dots, f(x_{n1}^{nn})) = f(f(x_{11}^{n1}), f(x_{12}^{n2}), \dots, f(x_{1n}^{nn})). \tag{1.9}$$

In such n -ary groups

$$\overline{f(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n)} = f(\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, \bar{x}_3, \dots, \bar{x}_n) \tag{1.10}$$

for all $x_1, \dots, x_n \in G$.

Any n -ary group can be uniquely described by its retract and some automorphism of this retract. Namely, the following Hosszú-Gluskin Theorem (cf. [5] or [7]) is valid.

Theorem 1.2 *An n -ary groupoid (G, f) is an n -ary group iff*

- (1) *on G one can define an operation \cdot such that (G, \cdot) is a group,*
- (2) *there exist an automorphism φ of (G, \cdot) and $b \in G$ such that $\varphi(b) = b$,*
- (3) *$\varphi^{n-1}(x) = b \cdot x \cdot b^{-1}$ for every $x \in G$,*
- (4) *$f(x_1^n) = x_1 \cdot \varphi(x_2) \cdot \varphi^2(x_3) \cdot \dots \cdot \varphi^{n-1}(x_n) \cdot b$ for all $x_1, \dots, x_n \in G$.*

One can prove that $(G, \cdot) = Ret_a(G, f)$ for some $a \in G$. In connection with this we say that an n -ary group (G, f) is (φ, b) -derived from the group (G, \cdot) .

The main aim of this article is to introduce *representations* of n -ary groups and to investigate their main properties, with a special focus on ternary groups. Note that, this is not the first attempt to study representations of n -ary groups, because there are some other articles, with different point of views concerning representations on n -ary groups, (cf. [1, 10, 17] and [19]). However, our method seems to be the most natural generalization of the notion of representation from binary to n -ary groups.

2 Action of an n -ary Group on a Set

Suppose that (G, f) is an n -ary group and A is a non-empty set. We say that (G, f) *acts* on A if for all $x \in G$ and $a \in A$ corresponds a unique element $x.a \in A$ such that

- (i) $f(x_1^n).a = x_1.(x_2.(x_3. \dots .(x_n.a) \dots))$ for all $x_1, \dots, x_n \in G$,
- (ii) for all $a \in A$, there exists $x \in G$ such that $x.a = a$,
- (iii) the map $a \mapsto x.a$ is a bijection for all $x \in G$.

For $a \in A$, we define the *stabilizer* G_a of a as follows

$$G_a = \{x \in G : x.a = a\}.$$

Proposition 2.1 G_a is an n -ary subgroup of (G, f) .

Proof By condition (ii) of the above definition G_a is non-empty. Since for $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in G_a$ we have

$$f(x_1^n).a = x_1.(x_2.(x_3. \dots .(x_n.a)) \dots) = a,$$

$f(x_1^n) \in G_a$. Hence G_a is closed with respect to the operation f .

Now if $x \in G_a$, then by Eq. 1.6 we obtain

$$a = x.a = f\left(\bar{x}, \overset{(n-1)}{x}\right).a = \bar{x}.(x. \dots .x.(x.a)) \dots = \bar{x}.a,$$

which implies $\bar{x} \in G_a$. This completes the proof. □

Proposition 2.2 If an n -ary group (G, f) acts on a set A , then the relation \sim defined on A by

$$a \sim b \iff \exists x \in G : x.a = b$$

is an equivalence relation.

Proof For each $a \in A$ there is $x \in G$ such that $x.a = a$, so $a \sim a$. If $a \sim b$ for $a, b \in A$, then $z.a = b$ for some $z \in G$. Let y be the unique solution of the equation

$$f\left(y, z, \overset{(n-2)}{x}\right) = x,$$

where $x \in G$ is such that $x.a = a$. For this y we have $y.b = a$ since

$$a = x.a = f\left(y, z, \overset{(n-2)}{x}\right).a = y.z.a = y.b.$$

Thus $b \sim a$. Finally, let $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$. Then there are $x, y, z \in G$ such that $x.a = b$, $y.b = c$ and $z.b = b$. In this case for $u = f(y, \overset{(n-2)}{z}, x)$ we have

$$u.a = f\left(y, \overset{(n-2)}{z}, x\right).a = y.b = c,$$

which proves $a \sim c$. □

Theorem 2.3 The formula $x.a = f(x, a, \overset{(n-3)}{x}, \bar{x})$ defines an action of an n -ary group G on itself.

Proof The last condition of Theorem 1.2 can be written in the form

$$f(x_1^n) = x_1 \cdot \varphi(x_2) \cdot \varphi^2(x_3) \cdot \dots \cdot \varphi^{n-2}(x_{n-1}) \cdot b \cdot x_n.$$

Thus $\bar{x} = (\varphi(x) \cdot \varphi^2(x) \cdot \dots \cdot \varphi^{n-2}(x) \cdot b)^{-1}$. Consequently

$$x.a = x \cdot \varphi(a) \cdot \varphi(x^{-1}). \tag{2.1}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} y.(x.a) &= y \cdot \varphi(x) \cdot \varphi^2(a) \cdot \varphi^2(x^{-1}) \cdot \varphi(y)^{-1} \\ &= y \cdot \varphi(x) \cdot \varphi^2(a) \cdot \varphi((y \cdot \varphi(x))^{-1}). \end{aligned}$$

Iterating this procedure we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} &x_1.(x_2.(x_3 \dots .(x_n.a)) \dots) \\ &= x_1 \cdot \varphi(x_2) \cdot \varphi^2(x_3) \cdot \dots \cdot \varphi^{n-1}(x_n) \cdot \varphi^n(a) \cdot \varphi\left(\left(x_1 \cdot \varphi(x_2) \cdot \varphi^2(x_3) \cdot \dots \cdot \varphi^{n-1}(x_n)\right)^{-1}\right). \end{aligned}$$

Since $\varphi^n(a) = b \cdot \varphi(a) \cdot b^{-1}$ from the above we obtain

$$x_1.(x_2.(x_3 \dots .(x_n.a)) \dots) = f(x_1^n) \cdot \varphi(a) \cdot \varphi\left(f(x_1^n)^{-1}\right).$$

This by Eq. 2.1 gives $f(x_1^n).a = x_1.(x_2.(x_3 \dots .(x_n.a)) \dots)$. □

Proposition 2.4 *In semiabelian n -ary groups the relation*

$$a \sim b \iff \exists x \in G : f\left(x, a, \overset{(n-3)}{x}, \bar{x}\right) = b$$

is a congruence.

Proof Indeed, by Proposition 2.2 it is an equivalence relation. To prove that it is a congruence let $a_i \sim b_i$, i.e., $f(x_i, a_i, \overset{(n-3)}{x_i}, \bar{x}_i) = b_i$ for some $x_i \in G$ and all $i = 1, \dots, n$. Then

$$f(b_1^n) = f\left(f\left(x_1, a_1, \overset{(n-3)}{x_1}, \bar{x}_1\right), f\left(x_2, a_2, \overset{(n-3)}{x_2}, \bar{x}_2\right), \dots, f\left(x_n, a_n, \overset{(n-3)}{x_n}, \bar{x}_n\right)\right),$$

which by the mediality and Eq. 1.10 gives

$$f(b_1^n) = f\left(f(x_1^n), f(a_1^n), \underbrace{f(x_1^n), \dots, f(x_1^n)}_{n-3}, \overline{f(x_1^n)}\right).$$

Thus $f(a_1^n) \sim f(b_1^n)$. □

Remark 2.5 The formula (2.1) says that in n -ary groups b -derived from a group (G, \cdot) the above relation coincides with the conjugation in (G, \cdot) . Thus in non-semiabelian n -ary groups it may not be a congruence.

Elements belonging to the same equivalence class are called *conjugate*. The equivalence classes are called *conjugate classes* of an n -ary group G and have the form

$$Cl_G(a) = \left\{ f\left(x, a, \overset{(n-3)}{x}, \bar{x}\right) : x \in G \right\}.$$

As a simple consequence of Eqs. 1.9 and 1.10 we obtain

Proposition 2.6 *In semiabelian n -ary group the set containing all elements of G conjugated with elements of a given n -ary subgroup also is an n -ary subgroup.*

For $a \in G$, we define the *centralizer* of a , as follows

$$C_G(a) = \left\{ x \in G : f \left(x, a, \overset{(n-3)}{x}, \bar{x} \right) = a \right\}.$$

From Theorem 1.1 it follows that in n -ary groups b -derived from a group (G, \cdot) the centralizer of any $a \in G$ coincides with the centralizer of a in (G, \cdot) .

Proposition 2.7 *For every $x \in C_G(a)$ and every $0 \leq i, j, k \leq n - 2$ such that $i + j + k = n - 2$ we have*

$$f \left(\overset{(i)}{x}, a, \overset{(j)}{x}, \bar{x}, \overset{(k)}{x} \right) = f \left(\overset{(i)}{x}, \bar{x}, \overset{(j)}{x}, a, \overset{(k)}{x} \right) = a.$$

Proof For every $x \in C_G(a)$, we have $f(x, a, \overset{(n-3)}{x}, \bar{x}) = a$. Multiplying this equation on the left by x and on the right by x, \dots, x, \bar{x} ($n - 2$ elements), we obtain

$$f \left(x, f \left(x, a, \overset{(n-3)}{x}, \bar{x} \right), \overset{(n-3)}{x}, \bar{x} \right) = f \left(x, a, \overset{(n-3)}{x}, \bar{x} \right) = a,$$

which in view of the associativity of the operation f and Eq. 1.6 gives

$$f \left(x, x, a, \overset{(n-4)}{x}, \bar{x} \right) = a.$$

Repeating this procedure we obtain

$$f \left(\overset{(i)}{x}, a, \overset{(n-i-2)}{x}, \bar{x} \right) = a$$

for every $1 \leq i \leq n - 2$. Theorem 1.1 completes the proof. □

3 G-modules and Representations

All vector spaces in this section are defined over the field of complex numbers and have finite dimension.

Definition 3.1 Suppose that an n -ary group G acts on a vector space V and we have

- (1) $x.(\lambda v + u) = \lambda x.v + x.u,$
- (2) $\exists p \in G \forall v \in V : p.v = v.$

Then we call (V, p) , or simply V , a G -module.

Notions, such as G -submodule, G -homomorphism, irreducibility and so on, are defined by the ordinary way.

Definition 3.2 A map $\Lambda : G \rightarrow GL(V)$ with the property

$$\Lambda \left(f \left(x_1^n \right) \right) = \Lambda(x_1)\Lambda(x_2) \dots \Lambda(x_n)$$

is a *representation* of G , provided that $\ker \Lambda$ is non-empty. The function

$$\chi(x) = \text{Tr } \Lambda(x)$$

is called the corresponding *character* of Λ .

Remark 3.3 If V is a G -module, then Λ defined by

$$\Lambda(x)(v) = x.v$$

is a representation of G . The converse is also true.

Example 3.4 Let A be an arbitrary binary group with a normal subgroup H . Let $a \in A \setminus H$ be an involution. Then $G = aH$ with the operation

$$f(x, y, z) = xyz$$

is a ternary group. If Λ is an ordinary representation of A with the property $a \in \ker \Lambda$, then, clearly Λ is also a representation of G . For example, suppose $A = GL_n(\mathbb{C})$ and $H = SL_n(\mathbb{C})$. Let $a = \text{diag}(-1, 1, \dots, 1)$ and define $G = aH$. Then, every representation of A in which $a \in \ker \Lambda$ is also a representation of a ternary group G .

Example 3.5 For any subgroup H of an ordinary group A and any element $a \in Z(A) \setminus H$ with the order n we define on $G = aH$ an n -ary operation by

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = ax_1x_2 \dots x_n.$$

This operation is associative, because $a \in Z(A)$. Also, G is closed under this operation, since $o(a) = n$. So, G is an n -ary group. Any A -representation Λ with $a \in \ker \Lambda$ is also a G -representation.

Example 3.6 The set $G = \mathbb{Z}_n$ with the ternary operation

$$f(x, y, z) = x - y + z \pmod{n}$$

is, by Theorem 1.2, a ternary group. We want to classify all representations of G .

Let $\Lambda : G \rightarrow GL_m(\mathbb{C})$ be any representation. Then we have

$$\Lambda(f(x, y, z)) = \Lambda(x)\Lambda(y)\Lambda(z),$$

equivalently,

$$\Lambda(x - y + z) = \Lambda(x)\Lambda(y)\Lambda(z).$$

We have

$$\Lambda(x + y) = \Lambda(x)\Lambda(0)\Lambda(y), \quad \Lambda(x - y) = \Lambda(x)\Lambda(y)\Lambda(0).$$

Suppose $A = \Lambda(0)$. We have

$$\Lambda(x + y) = \Lambda(x)A\Lambda(y).$$

It is easy to see that $A^2 = I$. Now, define $\Lambda'(x) = A\Lambda(x)$. Then

$$\Lambda'(x + y) = \Lambda'(x)\Lambda'(y),$$

and so, Λ' is an ordinary representation of $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$. Hence, every representation of the ternary group G is of the form $\Lambda(x) = A\Lambda'(x)$, where A is an involution and Λ' is an ordinary representation of $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$.

Similarly, we can classify all representations of ternary groups of the form $G = (A, f)$, where A is an ordinary abelian group and

$$f(x, y, z) = x - y + z.$$

Theorem 3.7 (Maschke) *Let G be a finite n -ary group. Then every G -module is completely reducible.*

Proof Let (V, p) be a G -module and $W \leq_G V$. Suppose $V = W \oplus X$, where X is just a subspace. Let $\varphi : V \rightarrow W$ be the corresponding projection. Define a new map $\theta : V \rightarrow V$ as

$$\theta(v) = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{x \in G} \bar{x} \cdot \varphi(x.v).$$

It is easy to see that

$$\theta(x.v) = x.p. \dots .p.\theta(v) = x.\theta(v).$$

So θ is a G -homomorphism and hence its kernel is a G -submodule. For all $w \in W$, we have $\theta(w) = w$ and so $\theta^2 = \theta$. Now, we have $V = W \oplus \ker \theta$. □

Remark 3.8 Any G -module (V, p) is also an ordinary $Ret_p(G)$ -module, because

$$(x * y).v = f\left(x, \binom{(n-2)}{p}, y\right).v = x.p. \dots .p.y.v = x.y.v.$$

From now on, we will assume that $e \in G$ is an arbitrary fixed element. For all $p \in G$, we have $Ret_e(G) \cong Ret_p(G)$ and further the isomorphism is given by the following rule

$$h(x) = f\left(\binom{(n-2)}{e}, x, \bar{p}\right).$$

By \hat{G} we denote the binary group $Ret_e(G)$. If (V, p) is a G -module, then we can define a \hat{G} -module structure on V by $x \circ v = h(x).v$. So, we have

$$x \circ v = f\left(\binom{(n-2)}{e}, x, \bar{p}\right).v = e. \dots .e.x.\bar{p}.v.$$

But, we have $\bar{p}.v = \bar{p}.p. \dots .p.v = f(\bar{p}, \binom{(n-1)}{p}).v = p.v = v$. Hence

$$x \circ v = \underbrace{e. \dots .e}_{n-2}.x.v.$$

Now, every G -module is also a \hat{G} -module, but the converse is not true in general. During this article, we will give some necessary and sufficient conditions for a \hat{G} -module to be also a G -module. The next proposition is the first condition of this type.

Proposition 3.9 *Let V be a \hat{G} -module. Then V is a G -module iff*

$$\forall x_2, \dots, x_{n-1} \in G \forall v : f(\bar{e}, x_2^{n-1}, \bar{e}) \cdot v = x_2 \cdot x_3 \cdot \dots \cdot x_{n-1} \cdot v.$$

Proof We have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1^n) &= f\left(f\left(x_1, \binom{n-2}{e}, \bar{e}\right), x_2^n\right) \\ &= f\left(x_1, \binom{n-2}{e}, f(\bar{e}, x_2^n)\right) \\ &= x_1 * f(\bar{e}, x_2^n) \\ &= x_1 * f\left(\bar{e}, x_2^{n-1}, f\left(\bar{e}, \binom{n-2}{e}, x_n\right)\right) \\ &= x_1 * f(\bar{e}, x_2^{n-1}, \bar{e}) * x_n. \end{aligned}$$

So, the equality

$$f(x_1^n) \cdot v = x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdot \dots \cdot x_{n-1} \cdot x_n \cdot v$$

holds, iff

$$f(\bar{e}, x_2^{n-1}, \bar{e}) \cdot v = x_2 \cdot x_3 \cdot \dots \cdot x_{n-1} \cdot v$$

for all x_2, \dots, x_{n-1} and v . □

Remark 3.10 Suppose that V is a G -module in which the corresponding representation is Λ . We know that V is also a \hat{G} -module. The corresponding representation of this last module is

$$\hat{\Lambda}(x) = \underbrace{\Lambda(e) \dots \Lambda(e)}_{n-2} \Lambda(x).$$

Because in \hat{G} , the identity element is \bar{e} , we have

$$\hat{\Lambda}(\bar{e}) = id.$$

So $\Lambda(e)^{n-2} \Lambda(\bar{e}) = id$ and hence

$$\Lambda(\bar{e}) = \Lambda(e)^{2-n}.$$

In the sequel, the corresponding character of $\hat{\Lambda}$, will be denoted by $\hat{\chi}$.

Proposition 3.11 *Suppose that Λ is a representation of G with the character χ . Then χ is constant on the conjugate classes of G .*

Proof Indeed, for every $b \in Cl_G(a)$ we have

$$\Lambda(b) = \Lambda \left(f \left(x, a, \binom{n-3}{x}, \bar{x} \right) \right) = \Lambda(x)\Lambda(a)\Lambda(x)^{n-3}\Lambda(\bar{x}),$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} \chi(b) &= Tr \left(\Lambda(x)\Lambda(a)\Lambda(x)^{n-3}\Lambda(\bar{x}) \right) \\ &= Tr \left(\Lambda(x)\Lambda(a)\Lambda(e)^{n-2}\Lambda(\bar{e})\Lambda(x)^{n-3}\Lambda(\bar{x}) \right) \\ &= Tr \left(\Lambda(a)\Lambda(e)^{n-2}\Lambda(\bar{e})\Lambda(x)^{n-3}\Lambda(\bar{x})\Lambda(x) \right) \\ &= Tr \left(\Lambda(a)\Lambda(e)^{n-2}\Lambda \left(f \left(\bar{e}, \binom{n-3}{x}, \bar{x}, x \right) \right) \right) \\ &= Tr \left(\Lambda(a)\Lambda(e)^{n-2}\Lambda(\bar{e}) \right) \\ &= Tr \Lambda(a) \\ &= \chi(a). \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof. □

Proposition 3.12 *Suppose that $\Lambda : (G, f) \rightarrow GL(V)$ is a representation of the finite n -ary group (G, f) with the corresponding character χ . Let*

$$\ker \chi = \{x \in G : \chi(x) = \dim V\}.$$

Then $\ker \chi = \ker \Lambda$.

Proof Let $\dim V = m$. It is clear that $\ker \Lambda \subseteq \ker \chi$. Moreover, for each $x \in G$ of order k we have

$$\Lambda(x)^{m^k} = \Lambda(x).$$

Hence $\Lambda(x)$ is a root of the polynomial $T^{m^k} - 1$. But, this polynomial has distinct roots in \mathbb{C} , so $\Lambda(x)$ can be diagonalized, i.e.,

$$\Lambda(x) \sim \text{diag}(\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_m),$$

where all ε_i are roots of unity. Now, we have

$$\chi(x) = \varepsilon_1 + \dots + \varepsilon_m.$$

If $\chi(x) = m$, then $\varepsilon_i = 1$ for all i . Hence $\Lambda(x) = id$ and so $x \in \ker \Lambda$. This completes the proof. □

In the next proposition, we obtain the explicit form of the character $\hat{\chi}$.

Proposition 3.13 *Let χ be a character of an n -ary group (G, f) . Then for any $p \in \ker \chi$ we have*

$$\hat{\chi}(x) = \chi \left(f \left(e^{\binom{n-2}{x}}, x, \bar{p} \right) \right).$$

Proof We know that χ is a character of $Ret_p(G)$. On the other hand there is an isomorphism

$$h : Ret_e(G) \rightarrow Ret_p(G),$$

where $h(x) = f\left(\begin{smallmatrix} (n-2) \\ e \end{smallmatrix}, x, \bar{p}\right)$. So, the composite map $\chi \circ h$ is a character of $Ret_e(G)$. Let Λ be the corresponding representation of χ . Now, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \chi(h(x)) &= Tr \left(\Lambda(e)^{n-2} \Lambda(x) \Lambda(\bar{p}) \right) \\ &= Tr \left(\Lambda(e)^{n-2} \Lambda(x) \right) \\ &= Tr \hat{\Lambda}(x). \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\hat{\chi}(x) = \chi\left(f\left(\begin{smallmatrix} (n-2) \\ e \end{smallmatrix}, x, \bar{p}\right)\right)$. □

Remark 3.14 Now, for any irreducible character χ of an n -ary group (G, f) , we have an ordinary irreducible character $\hat{\chi}$ of the binary group $\hat{G} = Ret_e(G)$. So, we obtain the following orthogonality relation for the irreducible characters of G :

$$\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{x \in G} \chi_1 \left(f \left(\begin{smallmatrix} (n-2) \\ e \end{smallmatrix}, x, \bar{p}_1 \right) \right) \overline{\chi_2 \left(f \left(\begin{smallmatrix} (n-2) \\ e \end{smallmatrix}, x, \bar{p}_2 \right) \right)} = \delta_{\hat{\chi}_1, \hat{\chi}_2},$$

where $p_1 \in \ker \chi_1$ and $p_2 \in \ker \chi_2$ are arbitrary elements.

Proposition 3.15 *If a representation $\Gamma : Ret_e(G, f) \rightarrow GL(V)$ is also a representation of the n -ary group (G, f) , then*

$$\Gamma(\bar{x}) = \Gamma(x)^{2-n}$$

for every $x \in G$.

Proof Indeed, $f\left(\begin{smallmatrix} (n-1) \\ x \end{smallmatrix}, \bar{x}\right) = x$ implies $\Gamma(x)^{n-1} \Gamma(\bar{x}) = \Gamma(x)$, which gives $\Gamma(\bar{x}) = \Gamma(x)^{2-n}$. □

Corollary 3.16 *Let (G, f) be a ternary group. Then a representation $\Gamma : Ret_e(G, f) \rightarrow GL(V)$ is also a representation of (G, f) iff*

$$\Gamma(\bar{x}) = \Gamma(x)^{-1}$$

for every $x \in G$.

Proof From Proposition 3.9 it follows that $\Gamma : Ret_e(G, f) \rightarrow GL(V)$ is a representation of a ternary group (G, f) iff it satisfies the identity

$$\Gamma(f(\bar{e}, x, \bar{e})) = \Gamma(x).$$

If $\Gamma(\bar{x}) = \Gamma(x)^{-1}$ holds for all $x \in G$, then, in view of Eq. 1.7, for all $x \in G$ we have

$$\Gamma(f(\bar{e}, x, \bar{e})) = \Gamma\left(f\left(\bar{e}, \bar{x}, \bar{e}\right)\right) = \Gamma(\bar{x}^{-1}) = \Gamma(\bar{x})^{-1} = \Gamma(x).$$

Hence Γ is a representation of (G, f) .

The converse statement is a consequence of Proposition 3.15. \square

Remark 3.17 We can use the above proposition to obtain some deeper results in the case when G has a central element. Note that, according to [8], an n -ary group (G, f) has a central element iff it is b -derived from a binary group (G, \cdot) and $b \in Z(G, \cdot)$. Obviously, in this case $Z(G, f) = Z(G, \cdot)$.

Proposition 3.18 *Let e be a central element of an n -ary group $(G, f) = der_b(G, \cdot)$. Then a representation $\Gamma : Ret_e(G) \rightarrow GL(V)$ is a representation of (G, f) iff*

$$\Gamma(x_2 x_3 \dots x_n e^{2-n}) = \Gamma(x_2) \Gamma(x_3) \dots \Gamma(x_n)$$

for all $x_2, \dots, x_n \in G$.

Proof Since $(G, f) = der_b(G, \cdot)$ the binary operation in $Ret_e(G, f)$ has the form

$$x * y = f\left(x, \overset{(n-2)}{e}, y\right) = xye^{n-2}b.$$

For a representation Γ of $Ret_e(G, f)$, we have

$$\Gamma(x * y) = \Gamma(x)\Gamma(y). \quad (3.1)$$

Now, for Γ to be a representation of (G, f) , it is necessary and sufficient that

$$\Gamma\left(f\left(x_1^n\right)\right) = \Gamma(x_1 x_2 \dots x_n b) = \Gamma(x_1) \Gamma(x_2) \dots \Gamma(x_n).$$

If we replace in Eq. 3.1, y by $x_2 \dots x_n e^{2-n}$, we obtain

$$\Gamma(x_1 x_2 \dots x_n b) = \Gamma(x_1) \Gamma(x_2 \dots x_n e^{2-n}).$$

So Γ is a representation of (G, f) , iff

$$\Gamma(x_2 x_3 \dots x_n e^{2-n}) = \Gamma(x_2) \Gamma(x_3) \dots \Gamma(x_n)$$

for all $x_2, \dots, x_n \in G$. \square

In an n -ary group $(G, f) = der_b(G, \cdot)$ we have $\bar{x} = x^{2-n}b^{-1}$. Hence, comparing the above result with Proposition 3.15 we obtain

Corollary 3.19 *Let e be a central element of an n -ary group $(G, f) = der_b(G, \cdot)$. If a representation $\Gamma : Ret_e(G) \rightarrow GL(V)$ is a representation of (G, f) , then $\Gamma(x^{2-n}b^{-1}) = \Gamma(x)^{2-n}$ for every $x \in G$.*

In the case of ternary groups, by Corollary 3.16, we obtain stronger result.

Corollary 3.20 *Let $(G, f) = der_b(G, \cdot)$ be a ternary group. Then a representation $\Gamma : Ret_e(G, f) \rightarrow GL(V)$ is also a representation of (G, f) , iff $\Gamma((bx)^{-1}) = \Gamma(x)^{-1}$ for every $x \in G$.*

Proposition 3.21 *Let e be a central element of an ternary group $(G, f) = der_b(G, \cdot)$. Then a character χ of $Ret_e(G, f)$ is a character of (G, f) iff for all $x \in G$ we have $\chi(\bar{x}) = \overline{\chi(x)}$.*

Proof Let $\Gamma : Ret_e(G, f) \rightarrow GL(V)$ be a representation corresponding to χ . If χ is a character of (G, f) , then Γ is also a representation of (G, f) and so $\Gamma(\bar{x}) = \Gamma(x)^{-1}$. Hence we have $\chi(\bar{x}) = \overline{\chi(x)}$.

Conversely, if $\chi(\bar{x}) = \overline{\chi(x)}$ holds for all $x \in G$, then in particular $\overline{\chi(e)} = \chi(\bar{e})$. Thus $\chi(e) = \chi(\bar{e})$ because $\chi(\bar{e})$ is real. Now, for all $x \in G$, we have $x * \bar{x} = f(x, e, \bar{x}) = f(e, x, \bar{x}) = e$, so $\chi(x * \bar{x}) = \chi(e) = \chi(\bar{e})$. Hence,

$$x * \bar{x} \in \ker \chi = \ker \Gamma.$$

This shows that $\Gamma(x^{-1}) = \Gamma(\bar{x})$ and so Γ is a representation of G . Hence χ is also a character of G . □

Proposition 3.22 *Let e be a central element of a ternary group $(G, f) = der_b(G, \cdot)$. If χ is a common character of (G, f) and $Ret_e(G, f)$, then $\hat{\chi} = \chi$.*

Proof We have $\chi(\bar{e}) = \overline{\chi(e)}$, so $\chi(e)$ is real, and hence $\chi(e) = \chi(\bar{e})$. So $e \in \ker \chi$. Now, suppose $p = e$. Then

$$\hat{\chi}(x) = \chi(f(e, x, \bar{p})) = \chi(f(e, x, \bar{e})) = \chi(f(x, e, \bar{e})) = \chi(x),$$

which completes the proof. □

In the remaining part of this section, we try to answer the problem: when $\hat{\Lambda}_1 \sim \hat{\Lambda}_2$? We give an answer to this question for n -ary groups with some central elements.

Proposition 3.23 *For an n -ary group (G, f) with a central element e the following assertions are true:*

- (1) *Let (V, p) be a G -module and $h : V \rightarrow V$ be a \hat{G} -homomorphism. Then h is also a G -homomorphism.*
- (2) *Let (V_1, p_1) and (V_2, p_2) be two G -modules and $h : V_1 \rightarrow V_2$ be a \hat{G} -homomorphism. Then h is a G -homomorphism, iff $h(e.v) = e.h(v)$.*

- (3) Let (V_1, p_1) and (V_2, p_2) be two G -modules and $h : V_1 \rightarrow V_2$ be a \hat{G} -homomorphism. Then h is a G -homomorphism, iff $p_1.h(v) = h(v)$ for every $v \in V_1$.
- (4) Let (V_1, p_1) and (V_2, p_2) be two G -modules and

$$V_1 \cong_{\hat{G}} V_2.$$

Then $V_1 \cong_G V_2$, iff for all $u \in V_2$, $p_1.u = u$.

Proof

- (1) In view of $x * y = f(x, \binom{(n-2)}{e}, y)$, for a G -module (V, p) , we have

$$\begin{aligned} h(e.v) &= h\left(f\left(\binom{(n-1)}{e}, \bar{e}\right).v\right) \\ &= h\left(f\left(f\left(\binom{(n-1)}{e}, \bar{e}\right), \binom{(n-1)}{p}\right).v\right) \\ &= h\left(f\left(f\left(e, \binom{(n-2)}{p}, \bar{e}\right), \binom{(n-2)}{e}, p\right).v\right) \\ &= h\left(f\left(e, \binom{(n-2)}{p}, \bar{e}\right) \circ v\right) \\ &= f\left(e, \binom{(n-2)}{p}, \bar{e}\right) \circ h(v) \\ &= f\left(f\left(e, \binom{(n-2)}{p}, \bar{e}\right), \binom{(n-2)}{e}, p\right).h(v) \\ &= f\left(e, \binom{(n-2)}{p}, f\left(\bar{e}, \binom{(n-2)}{e}, p\right)\right).h(v) \\ &= f\left(e, \binom{(n-1)}{p}\right).h(v) \\ &= e.p. \dots .p.h(v) \\ &= e.h(v). \end{aligned}$$

Now for all $x \in G$, we have $h(x \circ v) = x \circ h(v)$, so

$$h(\underbrace{e \dots e}_{n-2}.x.v) = e \dots e.x.h(v).$$

Hence

$$\underbrace{e \dots e}_{n-2}.h(x.v) = e \dots e.x.h(v).$$

Since the map $u \mapsto e.u$ is bijection, we have $h(x.v) = x.h(v)$.

- (2) The proof of this part is just as the above.
- (3) Suppose h is a G -homomorphism. Then $p_1.h(v) = h(p_1.v) = h(v)$ for every $v \in V_1$.

Conversely, assume that for all $v \in V_1$ holds $p_1.h(v) = h(v)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 h(e.v) &= h\left(f\left(\begin{matrix} (n-1) \\ e \end{matrix}, \bar{e}\right) \cdot \underbrace{p_1 \dots p_1}_{n-2} \cdot v\right) \\
 &= h\left(\underbrace{e \dots e}_{n-1} \cdot \bar{e} \cdot \underbrace{p_1 \dots p_1}_{n-2} \cdot v\right) \\
 &= h\left(f\left(e, \begin{matrix} (n-2) \\ p_1 \end{matrix}, \bar{e}\right) \cdot \underbrace{e \dots e}_{n-2} \cdot v\right) \\
 &= h\left(f\left(e, \begin{matrix} (n-2) \\ p_1 \end{matrix}, \bar{e}\right) \circ v\right) \\
 &= f\left(e, \begin{matrix} (n-2) \\ p_1 \end{matrix}, \bar{e}\right) \circ h(v) \\
 &= f\left(e, \begin{matrix} (n-2) \\ p_1 \end{matrix}, \bar{e}\right) \cdot \underbrace{e \dots e}_{n-2} \cdot h(v) \\
 &= f\left(e, \begin{matrix} (n-2) \\ p_1 \end{matrix}, \bar{e}\right) \cdot \underbrace{e \dots e}_{n-2} \cdot p_1 \cdot h(v) \\
 &= f\left(f\left(e, \begin{matrix} (n-2) \\ p_1 \end{matrix}, \bar{e}\right), \begin{matrix} (n-2) \\ e \end{matrix}, p_1\right) \cdot h(v) \\
 &= f\left(e, \begin{matrix} (n-2) \\ p_1 \end{matrix}, f\left(\bar{e}, \begin{matrix} (n-2) \\ e \end{matrix}, p_1\right)\right) \cdot h(v) \\
 &= f\left(e, \begin{matrix} (n-1) \\ p_1 \end{matrix}\right) \cdot h(v) \\
 &= e.h(v).
 \end{aligned}$$

- (4) Let $h : V_1 \rightarrow V_2$ be a G -isomorphism. Then h is also a \hat{G} -homomorphism, and hence $p_1.h = h$. Because h is onto, we obtain $p_1.u = u$, for all $u \in V_2$.
 Conversely, suppose $p_1.u = u$, for all $u \in V_2$. Let $h : V_1 \rightarrow V_2$ be a \hat{G} -isomorphism. Then $p_1.h = h$, and so h is a G -isomorphism.

□

Proposition 3.24 *Let (G, f) be an n -ary group with a central element and let $\Lambda_1, \Lambda_2 : G \rightarrow GL(V)$ be two representations of (G, f) , such that $\hat{\Lambda}_1 \sim \hat{\Lambda}_2$. Then $\Lambda_1 \sim \Lambda_2$, iff $\ker \Lambda_1 = \ker \Lambda_2$.*

Proof Let $p \in \ker \Lambda_1 = \ker \Lambda_2$. We define two G -modules V_1 and V_2 , as follows: V_1 is the vector space V with the action $x.v = \Lambda_1(x)(v)$, V_2 is the vector space V with the action $x.v = \Lambda_2(x)(v)$. Then $\hat{\Lambda}_1 \sim \hat{\Lambda}_2$ implies

$$V_1 \cong_G V_2,$$

and $p.u = u$, for all $u \in V_2$. So, $V_1 \cong_G V_2$. This proves $\Lambda_1 \sim \Lambda_2$.

Conversely, let $\Lambda_1 \sim \Lambda_2$. Hence, we have $V_1 \cong_G V_2$. By the previous proposition, for $p \in \ker \Lambda_1$ and $u \in V_2$, we have $p.u = u$. Thus $\Lambda_2(p) = id$. Therefore, $\ker \Lambda_1 = \ker \Lambda_2$. □

Corollary 3.25 *Let Λ_1 and Λ_2 be two representations of an n -ary group (G, f) with a central element e . If $\hat{\Lambda}_1 \sim \hat{\Lambda}_2$, then $\Lambda_1 \sim \Lambda_2$ iff $\Lambda_1(\bar{e}) \sim \Lambda_2(\bar{e})$.*

Proof By the above proposition, $\Lambda_1 \sim \Lambda_2$, iff $\ker \Lambda_1 = \ker \Lambda_2$. But, we have

$$\ker \Lambda_1 = \left\{ x \in G : \hat{\Lambda}_1(x) = \Lambda_1(e)^{n-2} \right\},$$

$$\ker \Lambda_2 = \left\{ x \in G : \hat{\Lambda}_2(x) = \Lambda_2(e)^{n-2} \right\}.$$

Hence $\Lambda_1 \sim \Lambda_2$, iff $\Lambda_1(e)^{n-2} \sim \Lambda_2(e)^{n-2}$. But we have $\Lambda_1(e)^{n-2} = \Lambda_1(\bar{e})^{-1}$ and similarly for Λ_2 . So $\Lambda_1 \sim \Lambda_2$, iff $\Lambda_1(\bar{e})^{-1} \sim \Lambda_2(\bar{e})^{-1}$. □

Remark 3.26 In the last two propositions and Corollary 3.25 the assumption that e is a central element can be replaced by the assumption that the n -ary group (G, f) is semiabelian.

4 Connection with the Representations of the Covering Group

According to Post’s Coset Theorem (cf. [17] or [14]) for any n -ary group (G, f) there exists a binary group (G^*, \cdot) and its normal subgroup H such that $G^*/H \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{n-1}$ and $G \subseteq G^*$ and

$$f(x_1^n) = x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdot x_3 \cdot \dots \cdot x_n$$

for all $x_1, \dots, x_n \in G$.

The group (G^*, \cdot) is called the *covering group* for (G, f) . We know several methods of a construction of such group. The smallest covering group has the form $G_a^* = G \times \mathbb{Z}_{n-1}$, where

$$\langle x, r \rangle \cdot \langle y, s \rangle = \left\langle f_* \left(x, \overset{(r)}{a}, y, \overset{(s)}{a}, \bar{a}, \overset{(n-2-r \diamond s)}{a} \right), r \diamond s \right\rangle,$$

$r \diamond s = (r + s + 1) \pmod{(n - 1)}$ and $a \in G$ an arbitrary but fixed element. The symbol f_* means that the operation f is used one or two times (depending on the value s and t). Clearly fixing various element a of G , we obtain various groups but all these groups are isomorphic (cf. [14]).

The element $\langle \bar{a}, n - 2 \rangle$ is the identity of the group (G_a^*, \cdot) . The inverse element has the form

$$\langle x, t \rangle^{-1} = \left\langle f_* \left(\bar{a}, \binom{n-2-t}{a}, \bar{x}, \binom{n-3}{x}, \bar{a}, \binom{t+1}{a} \right), k \right\rangle,$$

where $k = (n - 3 - t) \pmod{(n - 1)}$.

The set G is identified with the subset $\{\langle x, 0 \rangle : x \in G\}$. Every retract of (G, f) is isomorphic to the normal subgroup

$$H = \{\langle x, n - 2 \rangle : x \in G\}.$$

Suppose that V is a G_a^* -module. Then for $x_1, \dots, x_n \in G$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdot x_3 \cdot \dots \cdot x_n \cdot v &= \langle x_1, 0 \rangle \cdot \langle x_2, 0 \rangle \cdot \langle x_3, 0 \rangle \cdot \dots \cdot \langle x_n, 0 \rangle \cdot v \\ &= \left\langle f \left(x_1, x_2, \bar{a}, \binom{n-3}{a} \right), 1 \right\rangle \cdot \langle x_3, 0 \rangle \cdot \dots \cdot \langle x_n, 0 \rangle \cdot v \\ &= \left\langle f \left(f \left(x_1^2, \bar{a}, \binom{n-3}{a} \right), a, x_3, \bar{a}, \binom{n-4}{a} \right), 2 \right\rangle \cdot \dots \cdot \langle x_n, 0 \rangle \cdot v \\ &= \left\langle f \left(x_1^2, f \left(\bar{a}, \binom{n-2}{a}, x_3 \right), \bar{a}, \binom{n-4}{a} \right), 2 \right\rangle \cdot \dots \cdot \langle x_n, 0 \rangle \cdot v \\ &= \left\langle f \left(x_1^3, \bar{a}, \binom{n-4}{a} \right), 2 \right\rangle \cdot \dots \cdot \langle x_n, 0 \rangle \cdot v \\ &\vdots \\ &= \langle f(x_1^n), 0 \rangle \cdot v \\ &= f(x_1^n) \cdot v \end{aligned}$$

So, we obtain

Proposition 4.1 *Let (G_a^*, \cdot) be the covering group for an n -ary group (G, f) . Then for a G_a^* -module V to be a G -module it is necessary and sufficient that*

$$\exists p \in G \forall v \in V : p \cdot v = v.$$

Hence, we proved

Proposition 4.2 *Let (G_a^*, \cdot) be the covering group for an n -ary group (G, f) . A representation Γ of G_a^* is a representation of G , iff $\ker \Gamma \cap G \neq \emptyset$. If Γ is irreducible G^* -representation, then it is also irreducible as a representation of G .*

Now, suppose (V, p) is a G -module. For the covering group (G_p^*, \cdot) of (G, f) we can define an action of G_p^* on V as

$$\langle x, k \rangle \cdot v = x \cdot v.$$

Then, it can be easily verified that V is a G_p^* -module. But, we know that $G_a^* \cong G_p^*$, so let $h : G_a^* \rightarrow G_p^*$ be any isomorphism. For any $x \in G_a^*$, define $x.v = h(x).v$. Hence V becomes a G_a^* -module. Further, if W is a G -submodule of G , then it is also a G_p^* -submodule and so a G_a^* -submodule. Hence, we proved

Theorem 4.3 *There is a bijection between the set of all irreducible representations of (G, f) and the set of all irreducible representations of G_a^* with kernels not disjoint from G .*

5 Normal Subgroups in Polyadic Groups

In this section, we show that the representation theory of n -ary groups reduces to the representation theory of binary groups. For this we introduce the concept of normal n -ary subgroup.

Definition 5.1 An n -ary subgroup H of an n -ary group (G, f) is called *normal* if

$$f\left(\binom{(n-3)}{a}, \bar{a}, h, a\right) \in H$$

for all $h \in H$ and $a \in G$. A normal subgroup $H \neq G$ containing at least two elements is called *proper*. If G has no any proper normal subgroup, then we say that it is *simple*. If $H = G$ is the only simple subgroup of G , then we say it is *strongly simple*.

Definition 5.2 For any n -ary subgroup H of an n -ary group (G, f) we define the relation \sim_H on G , by

$$a \sim_H b \iff \exists x, y \in H : b = f\left(a, \binom{(n-2)}{x}, y\right).$$

Lemma 5.3 $a \sim_H b \iff \exists x_2, \dots, x_n \in H : b = f(a, x_2^n)$.

Proof Indeed, if $b = f(a, x_2^n)$ for some $x_2, \dots, x_n \in H$, then, in view of Theorem 1.1, for every $x \in H$ we have

$$b = f(a, x_2^n) = f\left(a, f\left(\binom{(n-2)}{x}, \bar{x}, x_2\right), x_3^n\right) = f\left(a, \binom{(n-2)}{x}, y\right),$$

where $y = f(\bar{x}, x_2^n) \in H$, so $a \sim_H b$. The converse is obvious. \square

Now it is easy to see that such defined relation is an equivalence on G . The equivalence class of G , containing a is denoted by aH and is called the *left coset* of H with the representative a . By Lemma 5.3 it has the form

$$aH = \left\{ f\left(a, \binom{(n-2)}{x}, y\right) : x, y \in H \right\} = \left\{ f(a, h_2^n) : h_2, \dots, h_n \in H \right\}.$$

The n -ary group (G, f) is partitioned by cosets of H .

Proposition 5.4 *If H is a finite n -ary subgroup of (G, f) , then for all $a \in G$, we have $|aH| = |H|$.*

Proof By Theorem 1.2, for an n -ary group (G, f) there is a binary group (G, \cdot) , $\varphi \in \text{Aut}(G, \cdot)$ and an element $b \in G$ such that

$$f(x_1^n) = x_1 \cdot \varphi(x_2) \cdot \varphi^2(x_3) \dots \cdot \varphi^{n-1}(x_n) \cdot b,$$

for all $x_1, \dots, x_n \in G$. So, we have

$$aH = \{a \cdot \varphi(x_2) \cdot \varphi^2(x_3) \dots \cdot \varphi^{n-1}(x_n) \cdot b : x_2, \dots, x_n \in H\}.$$

But, clearly this set is in one-one correspondence with the set

$$\{\varphi(x_2) \cdot \varphi^2(x_3) \dots \cdot \varphi^{n-1}(x_n) \cdot b : x_2, \dots, x_n \in H\},$$

which does not depend on a . So, we have $|aH| = |H|$. □

On the set $G/H = \{aH : a \in G\}$ we introduce the operation

$$f_H(a_1H, a_2H, \dots, a_nH) = f(a_1^n)H.$$

Proposition 5.5 *If H is a normal n -ary subgroup of (G, f) , then $(G/H, f_H)$ is an n -ary group derived from the group $\text{Ret}_H(G/H)$.*

Proof First we show that the operation f_H is well-defined. For this let $a_iH = b_iH$ for some $a_i, b_i \in G, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Then

$$b_1 = f(a_1, x_2^n), \quad b_2 = f(a_2, y_2^n), \quad \dots, \quad b_n = f(a_n, z_2^n)$$

for some $x_i, y_i, \dots, z_i \in H$

Now, using Theorem 1.2 we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} f(b_1^n) &= f(f(a_1, x_2^n), f(a_2, y_2^n), \dots, f(a_n, z_2^n)) \\ &= f\left(f\left(f\left(a_1, x_2^{n-1}, f\left(\overset{(n-2)}{a_2}, \bar{a}_2, x_n\right)\right)\right), f(a_2, y_2^n), \dots, f(a_n, z_1^n)\right) \\ &= f\left(f\left(f\left(a_1, x_2^{n-1}, a_2\right), f\left(f\left(\overset{(n-3)}{a_2}, \bar{a}_2, x_n, a_2\right), y_2^n\right), \dots, f(a_n, z_n^n)\right)\right) \\ &= f\left(f\left(f\left(a_1, x_2^{n-1}, a_2\right), f(w_n, y_2^n), \dots, f(a_n, z_1^n)\right)\right) \\ &= f\left(f\left(f\left(a_1, x_2^{n-2}, f\left(\overset{(n-2)}{a_2}, \bar{a}_2, x_{n-1}\right), a_2\right), f(w_n, y_2^n), \dots, f(a_n, z_2^n)\right)\right) \\ &= f\left(f\left(f\left(a_1, x_2^{n-2}, a_2, f\left(\overset{(n-3)}{a_2}, \bar{a}_2, x_{n-1}, a_2\right)\right)\right), f(w_n, y_2^n), \dots, f(a_n, z_2^n)\right) \\ &= f\left(f\left(f\left(a_1, x_2^{n-2}, a_2, w_{n-1}\right), f(w_n, y_2^n), \dots, f(a_n, z_2^n)\right)\right) \\ &\vdots \\ &= f\left(f\left(f\left(a_1, a_2, w_3^{n-1}\right), f(w_n, y_2^n), \dots, f(a_n, z_2^n)\right)\right), \end{aligned}$$

where $w_i = f(\overset{(n-3)}{a_2}, \bar{a}_2, x_i, a_2) \in H$.

Repeating this procedure for a_3, a_4 and so on, we obtain

$$f(b_1^n) = f(f(a_1^n), h_2^n).$$

This means that the operation f_H is well-defined.

It is easy to verify that $(G/H, f_H)$ is an n -ary group. Using the above procedure it is not difficult to see that H is the identity of G/H . Hence the n -ary group G/H is derived from the group $Ret_H(G/H)$. \square

Now, we return to the representations, again. Consider a representation $\Lambda : (G, f) \rightarrow GL(V)$. It is easy to see that $\ker \Lambda$ is a normal subgroup of G . Let H be a normal n -ary subgroup of (G, f) such that $H \subseteq \ker \Lambda$. Then, there is a representation $\bar{\Lambda} : G/H \rightarrow GL(V)$ such that

$$\bar{\Lambda}(aH) = \Lambda(a).$$

Conversely, from every representation of G/H , we obtain a representation of G . On the other hand, G/H is of reduced type, and hence its representations are the same as the ordinary representations of $Ret_H(G/H)$. So, we proved,

Proposition 5.6 *There is a bijection between ordinary representations of $Ret_H(G/H)$ and the set of representations of G with the property $H \subseteq \ker \Lambda$.*

Proposition 5.7 *A simple n -ary group which is not strongly simple is b -derived from an abelian group or it is reducible to a non-abelian group.*

Proof Suppose $H = \{p\}$ is a normal n -ary subgroup of (G, f) . Then we have

$$f(p, p, \dots, p) = p, \quad \bar{p} = p, \quad \forall x \in G : f\left(\binom{n-3}{x}, \bar{x}, p, x\right) = p.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} f(p, x_2^n) &= f\left(f\left(\binom{n-2}{x_2}, \bar{x}_2, p\right), x_2^n\right) \\ &= f\left(x_2, f\left(\binom{n-3}{x_2}, \bar{x}_2, p, x_2\right), x_3^n\right) \\ &= f(x_2, p, x_3^n). \end{aligned}$$

This shows that p is a central element and, according to [8], the n -ary group (G, f) is b -derived from a binary group (G, \cdot) . Hence, $Z(G, f) = Z(G, \cdot)$ is a normal n -ary subgroup of (G, f) . But G has no proper normal subgroups, so there are two cases:

- (1) $Z(G, \cdot) = G$ and so (G, f) is b -derived from an abelian group,
- (2) $Z(G, \cdot)$ is singleton and hence $b = 1$. In this case (G, f) is reducible to a non-abelian group (G, \cdot) .

\square

Remark 5.8 To find representations of an n -ary group (G, f) , we have four cases, as follow,

- (1) only $H = G$ is a normal subgroup of (G, f) , (in this case (G, f) has only trivial representation),
- (2) (G, f) is b -derived from an abelian group,
- (3) $(G, f) = \text{der}(G, \cdot)$, (in this case representations of (G, f) are the same as the representations of (G, \cdot)),
- (4) (G, f) has proper normal n -ary subgroups, (in this case, if we know the set of normal n -ary subgroups of (G, f) , then we obtain all its representations from representations of the groups $\text{Ret}_H(G/H)$).

Finally, summarizing results of this section, we have the following theorem:

Theorem 5.9 *Representation theory of n -ary groups, reduces to the following three problems,*

- a) *representations of b -derived n -ary groups from abelian groups,*
- b) *determining all normal n -ary subgroup,*
- c) *representation theory of ordinary groups.*

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