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$\Sigma$ -ISOMORPHIC ALGEBRAIC STRUCTURES

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*Summary.* For an algebraic structure  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  or type  $\tau$  and a set  $\Sigma$  of open formulas of the first order language  $L(\tau)$  we introduce the concept of  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets of  $\mathcal{A}$ . The set  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  of all  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets forms a complete lattice. Algebraic structures  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  of type  $\tau$  are called  $\Sigma$ -isomorphic if  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}) \cong \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{B})$ . Examples of such  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets are e.g. subalgebras of an algebra, ideals of a ring, ideals of a lattice, convex subsets of an ordered or quasordered set etc. We study  $\Sigma$ -isomorphic algebraic structures in dependence on the properties of  $\Sigma$ .

*Keywords:* algebraic structure, closure system, subalgebra, ideal,  $\Sigma$ -closed subset,  $\Sigma$ -isomorphic structures

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The concept of an algebraic structure was introduced in [6] and [8]. A type of a structure is a pair  $\tau = (\{n_i; i \in I\}, \{m_j; j \in J\})$ , where  $n_i$  and  $m_j$  are non-negative integers. A structure  $\mathcal{A}$  of type  $\tau$  is a triplet  $(A, F, R)$ , where  $A \neq \emptyset$  is a set and  $F = \{f_i; i \in I\}$ ,  $R = \{\varrho_j; j \in J\}$  are such that for each  $i \in I$ ,  $j \in J$ ,  $f_i$  is an  $n_i$ -ary operation on  $A$  and  $\varrho_j$  is an  $m_j$ -ary relation on  $A$ . Denote by  $L(\tau)$  the first order language containing operational and relational symbols of type  $\tau$ , see [6] for some details. If  $R = \emptyset$ , the structure  $(A, F, \emptyset)$  is denoted by  $(A, F)$  and it is called an *algebra*. If  $F = \emptyset$ , the structure  $(A, \emptyset, R)$  is denoted by  $(A, R)$  and it is called a *relational system*. A relational system  $(A, R)$  is called *binary* if each  $\varrho_j \in R$  is binary; moreover,  $(A, R)$  is said to be *antisymmetrical* if each  $\varrho_j \in R$  is an antisymmetrical relation.

Introduce the following concepts: for each  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , where  $\Gamma$  is an index set, let  $G_\gamma(x_1, \dots, x_{k_\gamma}, y_1, \dots, y_{s_\gamma}, z, f_i)$  be an open formula containing individual variables  $x_1, \dots, x_{k_\gamma}$ ,  $y_1, \dots, y_{s_\gamma}$ ,  $z$  and a symbol  $f_i$  of an  $n_i$ -ary operation; for each  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ , where  $\Lambda$  is an index set, let  $G_\lambda(x_1, \dots, x_{k_\lambda}, y_1, \dots, y_{s_\lambda}, z, \varrho_i)$  be an open formula

containing individual variables  $x_1, \dots, x_{k_\lambda}, y_1, \dots, y_{s_\lambda}, z$  and a symbol  $\varrho_j$  of an  $m_j$ -ary relation. Put  $\Sigma = \{G_\gamma; \gamma \in \Gamma\} \cup \{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ . The set  $\Sigma = \{G_\gamma, \gamma \in \Gamma\} \cup \{G_\lambda, \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  of formulas of language  $L(\tau)$  is called *limited* if there exist non-negative integers  $n, m$  such that  $m = \max(\{k_\gamma, \gamma \in \Gamma\} \cup \{k_\lambda, \lambda \in \Lambda\})$  and  $m = \max(\{s_\gamma, \gamma \in \Gamma\} \cup \{s_\lambda, \lambda \in \Lambda\})$ . Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  be a structure of type  $\tau$  and  $B \subseteq A$ .

**Definition 1.** A subset  $B$  of  $\mathcal{A}$  is said to be  $\Sigma$ -closed if for each  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ ,  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  and every  $a_1, \dots, a_{k_\gamma}, a'_1, \dots, a'_{k_\lambda} \in B$ ,  $b_1, \dots, b_{s_\gamma}, b'_1, \dots, b'_{s_\lambda}, c, c' \in A$ , if  $G_\gamma(a_1, \dots, a_{k_\gamma}, b_1, \dots, b_{s_\gamma}, c, f_i)$  is satisfied in  $\mathcal{A}$  then  $c \in B$  and if  $G_\lambda(a'_1, \dots, a'_{k_\lambda}, b'_1, \dots, b'_{s_\lambda}, c', \varrho_j)$  is satisfied in  $\mathcal{A}$  then  $c' \in B$ . Denote by  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  the set of all  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

Since the concept of  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets is defined by the set of universal formulas,  $B = \bigcap \{B_\delta; \delta \in \Delta\}$  is also a  $\Sigma$ -closed subset of  $\mathcal{A}$  provided  $B_\delta$  has this property for each  $\delta \in \Delta$ . We accept also the case  $B = \emptyset$ . Thus we have

**Lemma 1.** Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  be a structure of type  $\tau$  and  $\Sigma$  a set of open formulas of the language  $L(\tau)$ . Then the set  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  of all  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets of  $\mathcal{A}$  forms a complete lattice with respect to set inclusion with the greatest element  $A$ .

**Corollary 1.** For any  $\mathcal{A}$ ,  $\Sigma$  and  $M \subseteq A$  there exists the least  $\Sigma$ -closed subset  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(M)$  containing  $M$ .

If  $M = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$  then we will write briefly  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(M) = C_{\mathcal{A}}(a_1, \dots, a_n)$ .

If the set  $\Sigma$  is implicitly known, we will use only the lattice  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  to specify the closure system; we will use the more familiar notation for  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  provided it was introduced in algebra, see the following examples.

**Examples.**

(1) Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, \leq)$  be an *ordered set*. Put  $\Gamma = \emptyset$ ,  $\Lambda = \{1\}$ ,  $k_1 = 2$ ,  $s_1 = 0$  and  $\Sigma = \{G_1\}$ , where  $G_1(x_1, x_2, z, \leq)$  is the formula  $(x_1 \leq z \text{ and } z \leq x_2)$ . Then the  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets of  $\mathcal{A}$  are exactly the *convex subsets* of  $(A, \leq)$ .

(2) Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F)$  be an *algebra*,  $F = \{f_i; i \in I\}$ . Let  $\Lambda = \emptyset$ ,  $\Gamma = I$ ,  $k_i = n_i$ ,  $s_i = 0$  for  $i \in I$ . Put  $\Sigma = \{G_i; i \in I\}$ , where  $G_i(x_1, \dots, x_{n_i}, z, f_i)$  is the formula  $(f_i(x_1, \dots, x_{n_i}) = z)$ . Then the  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets of  $\mathcal{A}$  are *subalgebras* of  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F)$  and  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \text{Sub}(\mathcal{A})$ .

(3) Let  $\mathcal{A} = (R, +, \cdot, 0)$  be a *ring*,  $\Lambda = \emptyset$ ,  $\Gamma = \{1, 2, 3\}$ ,  $k_1 = 2$ ,  $k_2 = k_3 = 1$ ,  $s_1 = 0$ ,  $s_2 = s_3 = 1$  and  $\Sigma = \{G_1, G_2, G_3\}$ , where  $G_1$  is the formula  $(x_1 + x_2 = z)$ ,  $G_2$  is the formula  $(x_1 \cdot y_1 = z)$  and  $G_3$  is the formula  $(y_1 \cdot x_1 = z)$ . Then the  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets of  $\mathcal{A}$  are the *ideals* of  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \text{Id } \mathcal{A}$ , the lattice of all ideals of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

Analogously we can introduce left or right ideals of  $\mathcal{L}$ .

(4) Similarly, if  $\mathcal{L} = (L, \vee, \wedge)$  is a lattice,  $\Lambda = \emptyset$ ,  $\Gamma = \{1, 2\}$ ,  $k_1 = 2$ ,  $k_2 = 1$ ,  $s_1 = 0$ ,  $s_2 = 1$ ,  $\Sigma = \{G_1, G_2\}$ , where  $G_1$  is the formula  $(x_1 \vee x_2 = z)$  and  $G_2$  is the formula  $(x_1 \wedge x_2 = z)$ , then the  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets are *lattice ideals*, i.e.  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{L}) = \text{Id } \mathcal{L}$ .

(5) Let  $\mathcal{L} = (L, \vee, \wedge)$  be a lattice,  $\Gamma = \{1, 2\}$ ,  $\Lambda = \{1'\}$ ,  $k_1 = k_2 = k_{1'} = 2$ ,  $s_1 = s_2 = s_{1'} = 0$ ,  $\Sigma = \{G_1, G_2, G_{1'}\}$ , where  $G_1$  is the formula  $(x_1 \vee x_2 = z)$ ,  $G_2$  is the formula  $(x_1 \wedge x_2 = z)$  and  $G_{1'}$  is the formula  $(x_1 \wedge z = x_1 \text{ and } x_2 \vee z = x_2)$ . Then the  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets are the *convex sublattices* of  $\mathcal{L}$ .

(6) Analogously, if  $\mathcal{L} = (L, +, \cdot, \leq)$  is a  $\lambda$ -lattice (see [10]),  $\Gamma = \{1, 2\}$ ,  $\Lambda = \{1'\}$ ,  $k_1 = k_2 = k_{1'} = 2$ ,  $s_1 = s_2 = s_{1'} = 0$ ,  $\Sigma = \{G_1, G_2, G_{1'}\}$ , where  $G_1$  is the formula  $(x_1 + x_2 = z)$ ,  $G_2$  is the formula  $(x_1 \cdot x_2 = z)$  and  $G_{1'}$  is the formula  $(x_1 \leq z \text{ and } z \leq x_2)$ , then the  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets are just the *convex sublattices* of  $\mathcal{L}$ .

(7) Analogously, if  $\mathcal{A} = (A, \vee, \wedge, Q)$  is a  $q$ -lattice (see [3]),  $\Sigma = \{G_1, G_2, G_{1'}\}$ , where  $G_1$  is the formula  $(x_1 \vee x_2 = z)$ ,  $G_2$  is the formula  $(x_1 \wedge x_2 = z)$  and  $G_{1'}$  is the formula  $(x_1 Q z \text{ and } z Q x_2)$ , then the  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets are the *convex sub- $q$ -lattices* of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

(8) Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, f)$  be a monounary algebra,  $\Lambda = \emptyset$ ,  $\Gamma = \{1\}$ ,  $k_1 = 2$ ,  $s_1 = 0$ ,  $\Sigma = \{G_1\}$ , where  $G_1$  is the formula  $(x_1 \neq x_2 \text{ and } x_2 \neq z \text{ and } z \neq x_1 \text{ and } f(x_1) = z \text{ and } f^k(z) = x_2)$  for some non-negative integer  $k$ . Then the  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets are the *convex subsets of the monounary algebra*  $\mathcal{A}$  defined in [7].

(9) Example (1) can be generalized as follows: For a binary relational system  $\mathcal{A} = (A, R)$  with  $R = \{\varrho_j; j \in J\}$  we call  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  the lattice of convex subsets if  $\Sigma = \{G_j; j \in J\}$  and every  $G_j(x_1, x_2, z)$  is the formula  $(x_1 \varrho_j z \text{ and } z \varrho_j x_2)$ ; we denote  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  by  $\text{Conv}(\mathcal{A})$ .

(10) Examples (5), (6), (7) can be generalized as follows: An algebraic structure  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  is called a binary algebraic structure if a relational system  $(A, R)$  is binary. Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a binary algebraic structure,  $\mathcal{A}_1 = (A, F)$ ,  $\mathcal{A}_2 = (A, R)$ ,  $\Sigma = \Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2$ , where  $\Sigma_1 = \{G_\gamma; \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  and  $\Sigma_2 = \{G_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ . The lattice  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  is called the lattice of convex subalgebras of  $\mathcal{A}$  if  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma_1}(\mathcal{A}_1) = \text{Sub } \mathcal{A}_1$  and  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma_2}(\mathcal{A}_2) = \text{Conv } \mathcal{A}_2$ ;  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  is denoted by  $C \text{ Sub } \mathcal{A}$ .

We can also modify Definition 1 in the sense of the following remark.

**Remark 1.** The concept of  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets can be generalized if we consider term functions instead of fundamental operations in formulas  $G_\gamma$  of  $\Sigma$ . Indeed, if  $\mathcal{G} = (G, \cdot, ^{-1}, e)$  is a group,  $p(x, y)$  is the term function  $p(x, y) = yxy^{-1}$  and  $\Sigma = \{G_1, G_2, G_3, G_4\}$ , where  $G_1(x_1, x_2, z, \cdot)$  is the formula  $(x_1 \cdot x_2 = z)$ ,  $G_2(x_1, z, ^{-1})$  is the formula  $(x_1 \cdot ^{-1} = z)$ ,  $G_3(z, e)$  is the formula  $(e = z)$  and  $G_4(x_1, y_1, z, p)$  is the formula  $(p(x_1, y_1) = z)$  then  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{G})$  is the lattice of normal subgroups of  $\mathcal{G}$ .

Similarly, we can also define *ideals of an  $\ell$ -group*  $\mathcal{C} = (G, \cdot, {}^{-1}, e, \vee, \wedge)$ , i.e. normal subgroups of the group  $(G, \cdot, {}^{-1}, e)$  which are convex sublattices of the lattice  $(G, \vee, \wedge)$ .

**Definition 2.** Let  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  be structures of the same type  $\tau$  and let  $\Sigma$  be a set of open formulas of the language  $L(\tau)$ . We say that  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  are  $\Sigma$ -isomorphic if the lattices  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  and  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{B})$  are isomorphic.

**Examples.**

(10) Binary relational systems  $\mathcal{A} = (A, R), \mathcal{B} = (B, P)$  of the same type are called *convex isomorphic* if  $\text{Conv } \mathcal{A} \cong \text{Conv } \mathcal{B}$ . A special case of this concept is represented by convex isomorphic ordered sets. They were characterized in [1] and [4].

(11) Binary algebraic structures  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R), \mathcal{B} = (B, G, P)$  of the same type are called *convex isomorphic* if  $C\text{Sub } \mathcal{A} \cong C\text{Sub } \mathcal{B}$ . In particular, convex isomorphic lattices were characterized in [9] and convex isomorphic  $q$ -lattices were characterized in [5].

(12) Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F), \mathcal{B} = (B, F)$  be two algebras of the same type and  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma = \text{Sub}$ , i.e.  $\Sigma$ -closed subsets are *subalgebras*. Then  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  are  $\Sigma$ -isomorphic if  $\text{Sub } \mathcal{A} \cong \text{Sub } \mathcal{B}$ .

(13) For rings or lattices, if  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma = \text{Id}$ , then  $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2$  are  $\Sigma$ -isomorphic if  $\text{Id } \mathcal{A}_1 \cong \text{Id } \mathcal{A}_2$ .

**Definition 3.** An algebraic structure  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  is called  $\Sigma$ -separable if  $\{a\} \in \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  for each  $a \in A$ .

**Definition 4.** Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R), \mathcal{B} = (B, F, R)$  be  $\Sigma$ -separable structures of the same type  $\tau$  which are  $\Sigma$ -isomorphic and let  $h: \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{B})$  be the isomorphism. The mapping  $\varphi_h: A \rightarrow B$  defined by the rule  $\{\varphi_h(a)\} = h(\{a\})$  is said to be *associated with the isomorphism  $h$* .

For  $M \subseteq A$  we put  $\varphi_h(M) = \{\varphi_h(a), a \in M\}$ .

**Remark 2.** If  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -separable then  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  is an *atomic lattice* whose atoms are exactly the sets  $\{a\}$  for each  $a \in A$ . Moreover, every isomorphism of atomic lattices maps atoms onto atoms. Hence, Definition 4 is correct.

**Lemma 2.** Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R), \mathcal{B} = (B, F, R)$  be  $\Sigma$ -separable and  $\Sigma$ -isomorphic structures of the same type. Let  $h: \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{B})$  be the isomorphism. Then we have  $\varphi_h(C_{\mathcal{A}}(M)) = C_{\mathcal{B}}(\varphi_h(M))$  for any  $M \subseteq A$ .

**Proof.** First, suppose  $D \in \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$ . If  $a \in D$ , then  $\{a\} \subseteq D$  and so  $\{\varphi_h(a)\} = h(\{a\}) \subseteq h(D)$ , thus  $\varphi_h(D) \subseteq h(D)$ . Conversely, if  $b \in h(D)$ , then  $\{b\} \subseteq h(D)$  and

$\{\varphi_h^{-1}(b)\} = h^{-1}(\{b\}) \subseteq D$  because  $h$  is a bijection. Thus  $\{\varphi_h^{-1}(b)\}$  is a singleton and  $\varphi_h^{-1}(b) \in D$ , i.e.  $b \in \varphi_h(D)$ , giving  $h(D) \subseteq \varphi_h(D)$ . So we have

$$(1) \quad \varphi_h(D) = h(D).$$

Now, let  $M \subseteq A$ . Since  $M \subseteq C_{\mathcal{A}}(M)$ , we obtain  $\varphi_h(M) \subseteq \varphi_h(C_{\mathcal{A}}(M))$ . Furthermore,  $\varphi_h(C_{\mathcal{A}}(M)) = h(C_{\mathcal{A}}(M)) \in \mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{B})$  by (1) and so  $C_{\mathcal{B}}(\varphi_h(M)) \subseteq \varphi_h(C_{\mathcal{A}}(M))$ . On the other hand, let  $X \in \mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{B})$  be such that  $\varphi_h(M) \subseteq X$ . Since  $h$  is surjective, there exists  $Y \in \mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  with  $h(Y) = \varphi_h(Y) = X$ . It follows that  $M \subseteq Y$  and, therefore,  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(M) \subseteq Y$ . Consequently,  $\varphi_h(C_{\mathcal{A}}(M)) \subseteq X$  and we can see that  $\varphi_h(C_{\mathcal{A}}(M)) \subseteq C_{\mathcal{B}}(\varphi_h(M))$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 1.** Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$ ,  $\mathcal{B} = (B, F, R)$  be  $\Sigma$ -separable structures of the same type for some limited  $\Sigma = \{G_{\gamma}, \gamma \in \Gamma\} \cup \{G_{\lambda}, \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ . Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- (i)  $\mathcal{A}$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  are  $\Sigma$ -isomorphic.
- (ii) There exists a bijection  $g: A \rightarrow B$  such that  $g(C_{\mathcal{A}}(M)) = C_{\mathcal{B}}(g(M))$  for any  $M \subseteq A$ .
- (iii) There exists a bijection  $g: A \rightarrow B$  such that

$$g(C_{\mathcal{A}}(a_1, \dots, a_n)) = C_{\mathcal{B}}(g(a_1), \dots, g(a_n))$$

for each  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in A$ , where  $n = \max(\{k_{\gamma}, \gamma \in \Gamma\} \cup \{k_{\lambda}, \lambda \in \Lambda\})$ .

*Proof.* The condition (ii) follows from (i) by Lemma 2. The implication (ii)  $\Rightarrow$  (iii) is trivial. Prove (iii)  $\Rightarrow$  (i): Let  $g$  be a bijection satisfying (iii). Let  $h: \text{Exp } A \rightarrow \text{Exp } B$  be a mapping defined as follows:  $h(M) = \{g(a); a \in M\}$  for any  $M \subseteq A$ . Since  $g$  is a bijection,  $h$  is also a bijection. We are going to prove that for any  $\Sigma$ -closed subset  $D$  of  $\mathcal{A}$  its image  $h(D)$  is a  $\Sigma$ -closed subset of  $\mathcal{B}$ . Suppose  $D \in \mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$ . Let  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ ,  $G_{\gamma}(x_1, \dots, x_{k_{\gamma}}, y_1, \dots, y_{s_{\gamma}}, z, f_i) \in \Sigma$ . Let  $a'_1, \dots, a'_n \in h(D)$ ,  $b'_1, \dots, b'_m, c' \in B$  and let the formula  $G_{\gamma}(a'_n, \dots, a'_n, b'_1, \dots, b'_m, c', f_i)$  be satisfied in  $\mathcal{B}$  for each  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  (and, analogously, for each  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ ,  $G_{\lambda} \in \Sigma$ ). Then  $c' \in C_{\mathcal{B}}(a'_1, \dots, a'_n)$ . Since  $g$  is a bijection there exist  $a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_m, c \in A$  such that  $g(a_i) = a'_i$ ,  $g(b_j) = b'_j$ ,  $g(c) = c'$ . We have  $c \in C_{\mathcal{A}}(a_1, \dots, a_n) \subseteq D$  according to (iii). Then  $c' \in h(D)$ , hence  $h(D) \in \mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{B})$ . Analogously we can prove that if  $h(D)$  is  $\Sigma$ -closed in  $\mathcal{B}$  then also  $D$  is  $\Sigma$ -closed in  $\mathcal{A}$ . Thus the restriction of  $h$  onto  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  is the isomorphism of  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  onto  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{B})$ .  $\square$

Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  be a binary algebraic structure with  $R = \{\varphi_j; j \in J\}$  and let  $a, b \in A$ . The set  $\langle a, b \rangle = \{x \in A; a \varrho_j x \text{ and } x \varrho_j b \text{ for each } j \in J\}$  is called an *interval* of  $\mathcal{A}$  determined by the elements  $a, b$ .

**Corollary 2** (see Theorem 2.1 in [4]). *Two ordered sets  $\mathcal{A} = (A, \leq)$ ,  $\mathcal{B} = (B, \leq)$  are convex isomorphic if and only if there exists a bijection  $g: A \rightarrow B$  such that for each  $a, b \in A$ :  $g(\langle a, b \rangle) = \langle g(a), g(b) \rangle$  if  $a \leq b$  and  $g(\{a, b\}) = \{g(a), g(b)\}$  if  $a \parallel b$ .*

**Corollary 3** (see Theorem 1 in [9]). *Two lattices  $\mathcal{L}_1 = (L_1, \vee, \wedge)$ ,  $\mathcal{L}_2 = (L_2, \vee, \wedge)$  are convex isomorphic if and only if there exists a bijection  $g: L_1 \rightarrow L_2$  such that  $g((a \wedge b, a \vee b)) = (g(a) \wedge g(b), g(a) \vee g(b))$  for each  $a, b \in A$ .*

The following assertion is evident:

**Lemma 3.** *Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F)$  be an algebra and  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \text{Sub } \mathcal{A}$ . Then  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -separable if and only if  $\mathcal{A}$  is idempotent.*

Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F)$  be an algebra,  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in A$ . Denote by  $[a_1, \dots, a_n]$  the subalgebra of  $\mathcal{A}$  generated by the elements  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ .

**Corollary 4.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  be idempotent algebras of the same type  $\tau = \{n_i; i \in I\}$  such that there exists  $n = \max\{n_i; i \in I\}$ . Then  $\text{Sub } \mathcal{A} \simeq \text{Sub } \mathcal{B}$  if and only if there exists a bijection  $g: A \rightarrow B$  such that  $g([a_1, \dots, a_n]) = [g(a_1), \dots, g(a_n)] \in \text{Sub } \mathcal{B}$  for any  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in A$ .*

The concept of genomorphism was introduced in [2]: Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F)$ ,  $\mathcal{B} = (B, G)$  be algebras, not necessarily of the same type. A mapping  $g: A \rightarrow B$  is called a *genomorphism*, if

a)  $g$  is *generative*, i.e. for each  $n$ -ary operation  $f \in F$  and for each  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in A$  we have  $g(f(a_1, \dots, a_n)) \in [g(a_1), \dots, g(a_n)]$ ,

b)  $g$  is *congruential*, i.e. for each  $n$ -ary operation  $f \in F$  and for each  $a_1, \dots, a_n, a'_1, \dots, a'_n \in A$  such that  $g(a'_i) = g(a_i)$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n$ ) we have  $g(f(a_1, \dots, a_n)) = g(f(a'_1, \dots, a'_n))$ .

A bijective genomorphism is called an *isogenomorphism*. Evidently, every homomorphism is a genomorphism and every injective generative mapping is a genomorphism.

**Corollary 5.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  be idempotent algebras of the same type  $\tau = \{n_i; i \in I\}$  such that there exists  $n = \max\{n_i; i \in I\}$ . Then  $\text{Sub } \mathcal{A} \simeq \text{Sub } \mathcal{B}$  if and only if there exists an isogenomorphism of  $\mathcal{A}$  onto  $\mathcal{B}$ , such that the inverse mapping is an isogenomorphism also.*

Clearly, any isomorphism and any antiisomorphism of lattices are isogenomorphism. Isogenomorphisms of lattices and semilattices were characterized in [11].

**Definition 5.** An algebraic structure  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  is called  $\Sigma$ -semiseparable if  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(a) \neq C_{\mathcal{A}}(b)$  for each  $a, b \in A$  with  $a \neq b$ . An element  $a \in A$  is called a  $\Sigma$ -idempotent if  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(a) = \{a\}$ . An algebraic structure  $\mathcal{A}$  is called  $\Sigma$ -semiidempotent if for each  $\emptyset \neq X \in \mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  there exists a  $\Sigma$ -idempotent  $a$  with  $a \in X$ .

**Remark 3.** If  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  is an algebraic structure and  $a \in A$  is a  $\Sigma$ -idempotent then  $a$  is an idempotent element of the algebra  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F)$ . The converse assertion is not valid in general, e.g. if  $\mathcal{A} = (A, \vee, \wedge, Q)$  is a  $q$ -lattice where  $Q$  is the induced quasiorder (i.e.  $aQb$  if and only if  $a \vee b = b \vee a$ ). Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be not a lattice and  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A}) = CSub \mathcal{A}$ . Then there exist idempotent elements of  $(A, \vee, \wedge)$  which are not  $\Sigma$ -idempotents.

If  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -separable then it is also  $\Sigma$ -semiseparable, but not vice versa. For instance, if  $\mathcal{A} = (A, \vee, \wedge)$  is a lattice and  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A}) = Id \mathcal{A}$ , then  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(a)$  is the *principal ideal* of  $\mathcal{A}$  generated by an element  $a$  and  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -semiseparable but not  $\Sigma$ -separable.

Clearly,  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -separable if and only if each element  $a \in A$  is a  $\Sigma$ -idempotent. Denote by  $T_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  the set of all  $\Sigma$ -idempotents of  $\mathcal{A}$ . If  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F)$  is an algebra and  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A}) = Sub \mathcal{A}$ , then  $T_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  is the set of all idempotent elements of  $\mathcal{A}$ . If  $\mathcal{A} = (A, \leq)$  is an ordered set and  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A}) = Conv \mathcal{A}$ , then  $T_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  is the set of all one-element intervals of  $A$ .

**Theorem 2.** Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  be a  $\Sigma$ -semiseparable algebraic structure.

(1) If  $T_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A}) \neq \emptyset$  then  $\mathcal{S} = \{\{x\}; x \in T_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})\}$  is the set of all atoms of the lattice  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$ .

(2) The lattice  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  is atomic if and only if  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -semiidempotent.

**Proof.** (1) Denote by  $At(\mathcal{A})$  the set of all atoms of  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$ . Clearly,  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq At(\mathcal{A})$ . Suppose  $P \in At(\mathcal{A})$  and  $P \notin \mathcal{S}$ . Then there exist  $x_1, x_2 \in P$ ,  $x_1 \neq x_2$  such that  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(x_1) \subseteq P$ ,  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(x_2) \subseteq P$  and  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(x_1) \neq C_{\mathcal{A}}(x_2)$ , because  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -semiseparable. This contradicts the assumption that  $P$  is an atom.

(2) If  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  is atomic and  $\emptyset \neq X \in \mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  then there exists  $P \in At(\mathcal{A})$  such that  $P \subseteq X$ . According to (1) we have  $P = \{x\}$  for some  $x \in T_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$ , thus  $x \in X$ . Conversely, let  $\mathcal{A}$  be  $\Sigma$ -semiidempotent. If  $X \notin At(\mathcal{A})$ , then  $\emptyset \neq P = \{x\} \subseteq X$ . Hence,  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  is an atomic lattice.  $\square$

**Remark 4.** If  $\mathcal{A}$  is not  $\Sigma$ -semiseparable then part (1) of Theorem 2 does not hold. E.g. if  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $q$ -lattice in Fig. 1, then  $CSub \mathcal{A}$  (see Fig. 2) has two atoms but  $T_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A}) = \{1\}$ , i.e.  $\mathcal{S} = \{\{1\}\}$  is a one-element set.

Similarly, if  $\mathcal{A}$  is not  $\Sigma$ -semiseparable then part (2) of Theorem 2 does not hold. E.g. if  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $q$ -lattice in Fig. 3 then  $CSub \mathcal{A}$  in Fig. 4 is atomic but not  $\Sigma$ -semiidempotent.



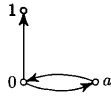


Fig. 1

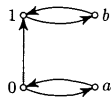


Fig. 3

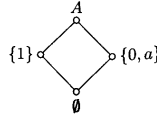


Fig. 2

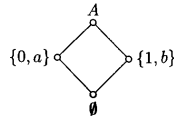


Fig. 4

**Remark 5.** If  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  are  $\Sigma$ -separable and  $\Sigma$ -semiidempotent algebraic structures which are  $\Sigma$ -isomorphic, then  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}), \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{B})$  are atomic lattices according to Theorem 2 and  $\text{At}(\mathcal{A}) = \{\{x\}; x \in T_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})\}, \text{At}(\mathcal{B}) = \{\{y\}; y \in T_\Sigma(\mathcal{B})\}$  are the sets of all atoms in  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}), \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{B})$ , respectively. Since every isomorphism of atomic lattices maps atoms onto atoms, there exists a bijection  $t_h: T_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow T_\Sigma(\mathcal{B})$  defined by the rule  $\{t_h(x)\} = h(\{x\})$  for each  $x \in T_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$ , where  $h$  is the isomorphism of  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  onto  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{B})$ .

Clearly, if  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $\Sigma$ -separable algebraic structure then it is also  $\Sigma$ -semiidempotent, but not vice versa. Furthermore, if  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -semiidempotent then  $\mathcal{A}$  need not be  $\Sigma$ -separable. For instance, let  $\mathcal{A} = (Z, +, \cdot)$  be the ring of all integers and  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \text{Id } \mathcal{A}$ . Then  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -semiidempotent (any ideal of  $\mathcal{A}$  contains zero, the only  $\Sigma$ -idempotent), but  $\mathcal{A}$  is not  $\Sigma$ -separable (e.g.  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(2) = C_{\mathcal{A}}(-2)$ ), thus it is not  $\Sigma$ -separable.

Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, \vee, \wedge)$  be a lattice without the least element and  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}) = \text{Id } \mathcal{A}$ . Then  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -separable but it is not  $\Sigma$ -semiidempotent.

Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, \vee, \wedge, Q)$  be a  $q$ -lattice which is not a lattice and  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}) = C \text{Sub } \mathcal{A}$ . Then  $\mathcal{A}$  is neither  $\Sigma$ -separable nor  $\Sigma$ -semiidempotent.

**Theorem 3.** Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, R)$  be a binary relational structure,  $R = \{\varrho_j; j \in J\}$ ,  $\Lambda = J$  and for each  $j \in J$  let the formula  $G_j$  be of the form  $(x_1 \varrho_j z \text{ and } z \varrho_j x_2)$ . The following conditions are equivalent:

- (i)  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -separable,
- (ii)  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -separable,
- (iii)  $\mathcal{A}$  is antisymmetrical.

**Proof.** The implication (i)  $\Rightarrow$  (ii) is evident. Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be  $\Sigma$ -semiseparable,  $a \varrho_j b$  and  $b \varrho_j a$  for some  $a, b \in A$ ,  $\varrho_j \in R$ . Then  $b \in C_{\mathcal{A}}(a)$ , i.e.  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(b) \subseteq C_{\mathcal{A}}(a)$  and  $a \in C_{\mathcal{A}}(b)$ , i.e.  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(a) \subseteq C_{\mathcal{A}}(b)$ , thus  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(a) = C_{\mathcal{A}}(b)$  and so  $a = b$ . Hence we have (ii)  $\Rightarrow$  (iii).

Prove (iii)  $\Rightarrow$  (i): Let  $a$  be an arbitrary element of  $A$  and suppose  $b \in C_{\mathcal{A}}(a)$ . Then  $a \varrho_j b$  and  $b \varrho_j a$  for each  $\varrho_j \in R$  and so  $a = b$  because  $\varrho_j$  is antisymmetrical. Hence  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(a) = \{a\}$  and  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -separable.  $\square$

**Corollary 6.** Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, R)$ ,  $\mathcal{B} = (B, P)$  be antisymmetrical binary relational systems of the same type. Then  $\mathcal{A}$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  are convex isomorphic if and only if there exists a bijection  $g: A \rightarrow B$  such that

$$(*) \quad g(C_{\mathcal{A}}(a, b)) = C_{\mathcal{B}}(g(a), g(b)) \quad \text{for each } a, b \in A,$$

A binary algebraic structure  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  is called *antisymmetrical* if  $(A, R)$  is antisymmetrical, and it is called *idempotent* if  $(A, F)$  is an idempotent algebra.

**Corollary 7.** Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$ ,  $\mathcal{B} = (B, G, P)$  be antisymmetrical idempotent algebraic structures of the same type. Then  $\mathcal{A}$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  are convex isomorphic if and only if there exists a bijection  $g: A \rightarrow B$  which satisfies the condition (\*).

**Definition 6.** Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  be an algebraic structure of type  $\tau$ , let  $\Sigma$  be a set of open formulas of the language  $L(\tau)$ . By a *graph*  $\text{Gr}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  of  $\mathcal{A}$  we mean a pair  $(\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A}), H)$ , where the elements of  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  form the *vertex set* and  $(X, Y) \in H$  for  $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  if and only if  $X \cap Y \neq \emptyset$ .

**Theorem 4.** Let  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  be algebraic structures of type  $\tau$  and let  $\Sigma$  be a set of open formulas of the language  $L(\tau)$ . Then (1) implies (2). If, moreover,  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  are  $\Sigma$ -separable then the conditions (1), (2) are equivalent, where:

- (1)  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A}) \simeq \mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{B})$ ;
- (2)  $\text{Gr}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A}) \simeq \text{Gr}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{B})$ .

**Proof.** Let  $h$  be an isomorphism of  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  onto  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{B})$  and let  $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  be such that  $X \cap Y \neq \emptyset$ . Since  $X \cap Y \in \mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$ , we have  $h(X \cap Y) \in \mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{B})$  and, clearly,  $h(X \cap Y) \neq \emptyset$ . As  $h$  is an isomorphism, we have  $h(X \cap Y) = h(X) \cap h(Y) \neq \emptyset$ . On the other hand, if  $h(X) \cap h(Y) \neq \emptyset$ , then  $h(X \cap Y) \neq \emptyset$ , hence  $X \cap Y \neq \emptyset$ . Thus  $X \cap Y \neq \emptyset$  if and only if  $h(X) \cap h(Y) \neq \emptyset$  and so  $h$  is the isomorphism of graphs  $\text{Gr}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  and  $\text{Gr}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{B})$ .

Now, let  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  be  $\Sigma$ -separable and let  $g$  be an isomorphism of the graphs  $\text{Gr}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$ ,  $\text{Gr}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{B})$ . We will show that  $g$  is the isomorphism of the lattices  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{A})$  and  $\mathcal{C}_{\Sigma}(\mathcal{B})$

as well. Suppose  $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$ ,  $X \subseteq Y$  and  $a \in g(X)$ . Since  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -separable, we have  $\{a\} \in \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$ . Furthermore,  $\{a\} \cap g(X) \neq \emptyset$ , hence  $g^{-1}(\{a\}) \cap X \neq \emptyset$ . As  $X \subseteq Y$ , we get  $g^{-1}(\{a\}) \cap Y \neq \emptyset$  and so  $\{a\} \cap g(Y) \neq \emptyset$ . Thus  $a \in g(Y)$  and, consequently,  $g(X) \subseteq g(Y)$ . Similarly we can prove that the inclusion  $g(X) \subseteq g(Y)$  implies  $X \subseteq Y$ .  $\square$

Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  be an algebraic structure and  $\theta$  an equivalence on  $A$ . We call  $\theta$  a *congruence of  $\mathcal{A}$*  if it is a congruence of the algebra  $(A, F)$ .

**Definition 7.** Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  be an algebraic structure of type  $\tau$ , let  $\Sigma$  be a set of open formulas of the language  $L(\tau)$  and  $\theta \in \text{Con } \mathcal{A}$ . If  $X \in \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$ ,  $a \in X$ ,  $b \in [a]_\theta$  imply  $b \in X$  for each  $a, b \in A$  and every  $X$  of  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$ , then  $\mathcal{A}$  is called  $\Sigma$ -coherent with respect to  $\theta$ .

**Theorem 5.** Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  be an algebraic structure of type  $\tau$ , let  $\Sigma$  be a limited set of open formulas of the language  $L(\tau)$  and  $\theta \in \text{Con } \mathcal{A}$ . Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be  $\Sigma$ -coherent with respect to  $\theta$ . Then  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{A}/\theta$  are  $\Sigma$ -isomorphic.

*Proof.* Let us define a mapping  $h: \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \text{Exp}(\mathcal{A}/\theta)$  as follows:  $h(\emptyset) = \emptyset$  and  $h(X) = \{[a]_\theta; a \in X\}$  for  $X \neq \emptyset$ . Since  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -coherent,  $h$  is clearly an injection. We will prove that  $h$  is an isomorphism of  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  onto  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}/\theta)$ . Let  $D \in \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$ , let  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , where  $G_\gamma(x_1, \dots, x_{k_\gamma}, y_1, \dots, y_{s_\gamma}, z, f_i)$  is the formula of  $\Sigma$ . Let  $[a_1]_\theta, \dots, [a_{k_\gamma}]_\theta \in h(D)$ ,  $[b_1]_\theta, \dots, [b_{s_\gamma}]_\theta, [c]_\theta \in \mathcal{A}/\theta$  and let  $G_\gamma([a_1]_\theta, \dots, [a_{k_\gamma}]_\theta, [b_1]_\theta, \dots, [b_{s_\gamma}]_\theta, [c]_\theta, f_i)$  be satisfied in  $\mathcal{A}/\theta$ . Then  $[c]_\theta \in C_{\mathcal{A}/\theta}([a_1]_\theta, \dots, [a_{k_\gamma}]_\theta, [b_1]_\theta, \dots, [b_{s_\gamma}]_\theta, [c]_\theta, f_i) \in \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}/\theta)$  and  $c \in C_{\mathcal{A}}(a_1, \dots, a_{k_\gamma}) \subseteq D$  where  $n = \max\{k_\gamma; \gamma \in \Gamma\} \cup \{k_\lambda; \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ , because  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -coherent. Hence  $[c]_\theta \in h(D)$ . Analogously it can be done for  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  and the formula  $G_\lambda$ , i.e.  $h(D)$  is  $\Sigma$ -closed in  $\mathcal{A}/\theta$ . Analogously we can prove that if  $h(D)$  is  $\Sigma$ -closed in  $\mathcal{A}/\theta$  then  $D$  is  $\Sigma$ -closed in  $\mathcal{A}$ , i.e.  $h$  is the isomorphism of  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  onto  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}/\theta)$ .  $\square$

**Remark 6.** Theorem 2 and 3 in [5] are consequences of Theorem 5 applied to  $q$ -lattices.

Let  $\mathcal{A} = (A, F, R)$  be an algebraic structure of type  $\tau$ , let  $\Sigma$  be a set of open formulas of the language  $L(\tau)$ . Let us define a binary relation  $\theta_\Sigma$  on  $A$  as follows:  $x\theta_\Sigma y$  if and only if  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(x) = C_{\mathcal{A}}(y)$ . This equivalence need not be a congruence of  $\mathcal{A}$ . For instance, if  $\mathcal{Z} = (\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot, 0)$  is the ring of integers and  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{Z}) = \text{Id } \mathcal{Z}$ , then e.g.  $2\theta_\Sigma 2$ ,  $3\theta_\Sigma -3$  but not  $(2+3)\theta_\Sigma(2+(-3))$ . However, if  $\mathcal{A} = (A, \vee, \wedge)$  is a  $q$ -lattice and  $\mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A}) = C \text{Sub } \mathcal{A}$ , then  $\theta_\Sigma \in \text{Con } \mathcal{A}$ ; if this  $q$ -lattice  $\mathcal{A}$  is not a lattice, then  $\theta_\Sigma \neq \omega$  (the least congruence on  $\mathcal{A}$ ). Evidently,  $\theta_\Sigma = \omega$  for every  $\Sigma$ -semiseparable structure  $\mathcal{A}$ . Generally, we have

**Theorem 6.** If  $\theta_\Sigma$  is a congruence on  $\mathcal{A}$ , then  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -coherent with respect to  $\theta_\Sigma$ .

*Proof.* Let  $X \in \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$ ,  $a \in X$  and  $b \in [a]_{\theta_\Sigma}$ . Since  $\theta_\Sigma \in \text{Con } \mathcal{A}$ ,  $b \in [a]_{\Sigma, \theta}$  implies  $[b]_{\theta_\Sigma} = [a]_{\theta_\Sigma}$ , i.e.  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(a) = C_{\mathcal{A}}(b)$ . However,  $a \in X$  and  $X \in \mathcal{C}_\Sigma(\mathcal{A})$  imply  $C_{\mathcal{A}}(a) \subseteq X$ , thus also  $b \in X = [a]_{\theta_\Sigma}$ , i.e.  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $\Sigma$ -coherent with respect to  $\theta_\Sigma$ .  $\square$

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