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Non-associative geometry and discrete structure of spacetime

Abstract: A new mathematical theory, non-associative geometry, providing a unified algebraic description of continuous and discrete spacetime, is introduced.

Key words: quasigroups, smooth loops, spacetime
AMS Subject Classification: 20N05, 55R65, 53B15, 81T13

1 Introduction

The recent development of geometry has shown the importance of non-associative algebraic structures such as quasigroups, loops and odules. For instance, it is possible to say that the non associativity is the algebraic equivalent of the differential geometric concept of curvature. The corresponding construction may be described as follows. In a neighborhood of an arbitrary point on a manifold with an affine connection one can introduce the geodesic local loop which is uniquely defined by means of the parallel translation of geodesics along geodesics [1, 2, 3]. The family of local loops constructed in this way uniquely defines a space with affine connection, but not every family of geodesic loops on a manifold defines an affine connection. It is necessary to add some algebraic identities connecting loops in different points. Later, the additional algebraic structures (so called geoodular structures) were introduced and the equivalence of the categories of geoodular structures and of affine connections was shown by Sabinin [4, 5]. The main algebraic structures arising in this approach are related to non associative algebra and theory of quasigroups and loops.

In our paper the new mathematical theory, non-associative geometry, which may help us to understand the discrete structure of spacetime, is introduced. The key point is to give an algebraic (non-local) description of manifold, which may be used in continuous and discrete cases. Non-associative geometry provides the unified algebraic description of continuous and discrete spacetime and admits all basic attributes of spacetime geometry including generalized Einstein’s equations.

2 What is the non-associative geometry?

Here we survey, in brief, algebraic foundations of non-associative geometry due to L.V. Sabinin (see on the matter [6, 7, 8, 9]).

Definition 2.1. Let \( \langle Q, \cdot \rangle \) be a groupoid with a binary operation \( (a, b) \mapsto a \cdot b \) and \( Q \) be a smooth manifold. Then \( \langle Q, \cdot \rangle \) is called a quasigroup if the equations \( a \cdot x = b, y \cdot a = b \) have a unique solutions: \( x = a \backslash b, y = b / a \). A loop is a quasigroup
with a two-sided identity, $a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a, \forall a \in Q$. A loop $\langle Q, \cdot, e \rangle$ with a smooth function $\phi(a, b) := a \cdot b$ is called a smooth loop.

Let $\langle Q, \cdot, e \rangle$ be a smooth local loop with a neutral element $e$. We define

$$L_a b = R_b a = a \cdot b, \quad l_{(a, b)} = L_{a \cdot b}^{-1} \circ L_a \circ L_b,$$

(1)

where $L_a$ is a left translation, $R_b$ is a right translation, $l_{(a, b)}$ is an associator.

**Definition 2.2.** Let $\langle M, \cdot, e \rangle$ be a partial groupoid with a binary operation $(x, y) \mapsto x \cdot y$ and a neutral element $e$, $x \cdot e = e \cdot x = x$; $M$ be a smooth manifold (at least $C^1$-smooth) and the operation of multiplication (at least $C^1$-smooth) be defined in some neighborhood $U_e$, then $\langle M, \cdot, e \rangle$ is called a partial loop on $M$.

**Remark 2.1.** The operation of multiplication is locally left and right invertible. This means that if $x \cdot y = L_x y = R_y x$ then there exist $L_{x^{-1}}$ and $R_{x^{-1}}$ in some neighborhood of the neutral element $e$:

$$L_a (L_{a^{-1}} x) = x, \quad R_a (R_{a^{-1}} x) = x.$$

The vector fields $A_j$ defined on $U_e$ by

$$A_j (x) = ((L_x)_* e) \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} = L^j_i (x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i},$$

(2)

are called the left basic fundamental fields. Similarly, the right basic fundamental fields $B_j$ are defined by

$$B_j (x) = ((R_x)_* e) \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} = R^j_i (x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}.$$ 

(3)

The solution of the equation

$$\frac{df^i(t)}{dt} = L^j_i (f(t)) X^j, \quad f(0) = e,$$

(4)

is of the form $f(t) = \text{Exp} t X$ defining the exponential map

$$\text{Exp} : X \in T_e(M) \longrightarrow \text{Exp} X \in M.$$

The unary operation

$$t x = \text{Exp} (t \text{Exp}^{-1} x),$$

(5)

based on the exponential map, is called the left canonical unary operation for $\langle M, \cdot, e \rangle$. A smooth loop $\langle M, \cdot, e \rangle$ equipped with its canonical left unary operations is called the left canonical preodule $\langle M, \cdot, (t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}, e \rangle$. If one more operation is introduced,

$$x + y = \text{Exp} (\text{Exp}^{-1} x + \text{Exp}^{-1} y),$$

(6)
then we obtain the canonical left preodule of a loop, \( \langle M, \cdot, +, (t) \in \mathbb{R}, e \rangle \). A canonical left preodule (preodule) is called the left odule (diodule) if the monoassociativity property

\[
 tx \cdot ux = (t + u)x
\]  

is satisfied. In the smooth case, for an odule, the left and the right canonical operations as well as the exponential maps coincide.

**Definition 2.3.** Let \( M \) be a smooth manifold and

\[
 L : (x, y, z) \in M \mapsto L(x, y, z) \in M
\]
a smooth partial ternary operation, such that \( x_ay = L(x, a, z) \) defines in some neighborhood of the point \( a \) the loop with the neutral \( a \), then the pair \( \langle M, L \rangle \) is called a loopuscular structure (manifold).

A smooth manifold \( M \) with a smooth partial ternary operation \( L \) and smooth binary operations \( \omega_t : (a, b) \in M \mapsto \omega_t(a, b) = t_{ab} \in M, \ (t \in \mathbb{R}) \), such that \( x_ay = L(x, a, y) \) and \( t_aza = \omega_t(a, z) \) determine in some neighborhood of an arbitrary point \( a \) the odule with the neutral element \( a \), is called a left odular structure (manifold). Let \( \langle M, L, (\omega_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \rangle \) and \( \langle M, N, (\omega_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \rangle \) be odular structures, then \( \langle M, L, N, (\omega_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \rangle \) is called a diodular structure (manifold). If \( x_ay = N(x, a, y) \) and \( t_aza = \omega_t(a, x) \) define a vector space, then such a diodular structure is called a linear diodular structure.

A diodular structure is said to be geodiodular if

\[
 \begin{align*}
 (\text{the first geoodular identity}) & \quad L^a_{tx} \circ L^a_{ux} = L^a_{ux} \quad (L^a_{xy} = L(x, a, y)), \\
 (\text{the second geoodular identity}) & \quad L^a_x \circ t_a = t_x \circ L^a_x, \\
 (\text{the third geoodular identity}) & \quad L^a_x N(y, a, z) = N(L^a_y x, x, L^a_z z) 
\end{align*}
\]  

are true.

**Definition 2.4.** Let \( M \) be a \( C^k \)-smooth \((k \geq 3)\) affinely connected manifold and the following operations are given on \( M \) (locally):

\[
\begin{align*}
 L^a_x y = x_ay & = \exp_x \tau^a_x \exp^{-1}_a y, \\
 \omega_t(a, z) & = t_aza = \exp_a t \exp^{-1}_a z, \\
 N(x, a, y) & = x_ay = \exp_a (\exp^{-1}_a x + \exp^{-1}_a y),
\end{align*}
\]

\( \exp_x \) being the exponential map at the point \( x \) and \( \tau^a_x \) the parallel translation along the (unique) geodesic going from \( a \) to \( x \). The above construction equips \( M \) with the linear geodiodular structure which is called a natural linear geodiodular structure of an affinely connected manifold \( (M, \nabla) \).

**Remark 2.2.** Any \( C^k \)-smooth \((k \geq 3)\) affinely connected manifold can be considered as a geodiodular structure.
Definition 2.5. Let $\langle M, L \rangle$ be a loopuscular structure of a smooth manifold $M$. Then the formula
\[
\nabla_{X} Y = \left\{ \frac{d}{dt} \left( [(L^a_{g(t)})^*]^{-1} Y_{g(t)} \right) \right\}_{t=0},
\]
g(0) = a, \quad \dot{g}(0) = X_a,
Y being a vector field in the neighborhood of a point $a$, defines the tangent affine connection.

In coordinates the components of this affine connection are
\[
\Gamma^i_{jk}(a) = - \frac{\partial^2 (x_i a y_j)}{\partial x^j \partial y^k} \bigg|_{x=y=a}.
\]
The equivalence of the categories of geoodular (geodiodular) structures and of affine connections has been shown in [4, 5].

Definition 2.6. Let $\langle M, L \rangle$ be a loopuscular structure, then
\[
h^{a}_{(b,c)} = (L^a_{c})^{-1} \circ L^b_{c} \circ L^a_{b}
\]
is called the elementary holonomy.

Comment 2.1. The elementary holonomy is, in fact, the parallel translation along a geodesic triangle path. Consequently, it is some integral curvature. Indeed, in the smooth case, differentiating $(h^a_{(x,y)})^i$ by $x^j, y^k$ at $a \in M$ we get the curvature tensor at $a \in M$ precisely up to numerical factor,
\[
R^i_{jkl}(a) = 2 \left[ \frac{\partial^3 (h^a_{(x,y)})^i}{\partial x^j \partial y^k \partial z^l} \right] \bigg|_{x=y=z=a}
\]
(15)

Comment 2.2. For a diodular structure one can consider an elementary holonomy $h^{a}_{(a,b)} = h^{a}_{(a,b)}$ together with the diodule $\langle M, e, \frac{t}{a}, \frac{t}{a}, (e_{t}e_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}, e \rangle$, so called holonomial diodule, and restore this diodular structure in a unique way:
\[
L(x, a, y) = L^a_{e} h^{a}_{(a,x)} (L^a_{e})^{-1} y,
\]
(16)
\[
N(x, a, y) = L^a_{e} ((L^a_{e})^{-1} x + (L^a_{e})^{-1} y),
\]
(17)
\[
\omega_t(a, y) = t_a y = L^a_{e} t_e (L^a_{e})^{-1} y.
\]
(18)

In this case the holonomial identities
\[
h^{a}_{(a,b)} t_e x = t_e h^{a}_{(a,b)} x, \quad h^{a}_{(a,b)} (x + \frac{t}{e}) = h^{a}_{(a,b)} x + \frac{t}{e} h^{a}_{(a,b)} y \quad \text{(linearity),}
\]
(19)
\[
h^{a}_{(a,a+a,b)} t_b = l_{(a,a+b)} t_b \quad \text{(joint identity),}
\]
(20)
\[
h^{a}_{(e,t_a,e+a,a)} h^{a}_{(e,c,t_e,a)} x = h^{a}_{(e,c+a,a)} x \quad \text{(h-identity),}
\]
(21)
\[
h^{a}_{(e,a)} x = x \quad \text{(e-identity)}
\]
(22)
are true.
Comment 2.3. Using the definition of elementary holonomy\(^\text{[14]}\), we may easily verify that elementary holonomy satisfies the odular Bianchi identities:

\[
h^a_{(z,x)} \circ h^a_{(y,z)} \circ h^a_{(x,y)} = (L^a_z)^{-1} \circ h^a_{(y,z)} \circ L^a_x.
\] (23)

These identities can be considered as non-local form of the usual Bianchi identities and in this sense they are equivalent. Perhaps, this is the first non-local algebraic expression of the Bianchi identities. In the linear approximation (23) generates the Bianchi identities in conventional form. This may be easily seen in the normal coordinates related to the point \(a\).

The non-associative geometry is based on the constructions described above. In the table below we compare the basic concepts of the classical differential geometry and of the non-associative geometry.

**Differential Geometry vs Non-associative Geometry**

| Differential Geometry | Non-associative Geometry |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| Tangent space \(T_a(M)\) | Osculating space \(\langle M, +, a, (t_a)_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \rangle\) |
| Tangent bundle structure | Osculating structure \(\langle M, N, (\omega_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \rangle\) |
| Cotangent space | Co-osculating space |
| Parallel displacement | Left translations \(L^a_x y\) |
| Curvature \(R(X,Y)Z\) | Elementary holonomy \(h^a_{(x,y)} z\) |
| Bianchi identities | Odular Bianchi identities |

2.1 Example: the non-associative geometry of two-dimensional sphere \(S^2_R\)

The well known two-sphere \(S^2_R\) of radius \(R\) admits a natural loop structure \([11, 12, 13]\) which may be described as follows. Let \(\mathbb{C}\) be a complex plane and \(\zeta, \eta \in \mathbb{C}\). The non-associative multiplication \(\ast\) is defined by

\[
\zeta \ast \eta = L_{\zeta} \eta = \frac{\zeta + \eta}{1 - \overline{\zeta} \eta / R^2}, \quad \zeta, \eta \in \mathbb{C}
\] (24)

where bar denotes complex conjugation and the neutral element \(e\) coincides with the origin of system of coordinates. This loop is isomorphic to the local two-parametric loop associated with two-sphere \(S^2_R\). The isomorphism between points of the sphere and points of the complex plane \(\mathbb{C}\) is established by the stereographic projection from the south pole of the unit sphere, \(\zeta = R \tan(\theta/2)e^{i \varphi}\).

Remark 2.3. The entire sphere may be covered by two local (partial) loops, one of them with the neutral element at the north pole (see the above) and another with the neutral element at the south pole.

The associator is found to be

\[
l_{(\zeta, \eta)} \xi = \frac{1 - \overline{\eta} \xi / R^2}{1 - \overline{\zeta} \xi / R^2}. \] (25)
The sphere is a symmetric space and its elementary holonomy is determined by the associator: $h_{(\zeta,\eta)} = l_{(\zeta,L^{-1}_\zeta \eta)}$. The computation gives

$$h_{(\zeta,\eta)}\xi = \frac{1 + \zeta \eta/R^2}{1 + \zeta \bar{\eta}/R^2} \xi.$$  \hspace{1cm} (26)

The left invariant diodular metric on $S^2_R$ is given by

$$g^0(L^{-1}_\zeta \xi, L^{-1}_\zeta \eta) = g^\zeta(\xi, \eta),$$  \hspace{1cm} (27)

where $g^0(\zeta, \eta)$ is the diodular metric tensor at the neutral element induced by the natural metric on the tangent space at the neutral element (north pole of $S^2_R$), and $g^\zeta(\xi, \eta)$ is the diodular metric at the point $\zeta$. Actually (27) is an algebraic analogue of compatibility of the connection with the metric structure of $S^2_R$. We define the left invariant diodular metric on two-sphere as follows:

$$g^\zeta(\xi, \eta) = 2 \left( \frac{(\xi - \zeta)(\bar{\eta} - \bar{\zeta})}{(1 + \zeta \bar{\eta}/R^2)(1 + \zeta \bar{\eta}/R^2)} + \frac{(\bar{\xi} - \bar{\zeta})(\eta - \zeta)}{(1 + \zeta \bar{\xi}/R^2)(1 + \zeta \bar{\xi}/R^2)} \right).$$

In particular,

$$g^\zeta(\xi, \xi) = \frac{4|\xi - \zeta|^2}{|1 + \zeta \bar{\xi}/R^2|^2}. \hspace{1cm} (28)$$

Let $\xi = \zeta + d\zeta$, then (28) leads to

$$g(d\zeta, d\zeta) = \frac{4d\zeta d\bar{\zeta}}{(1 + |\zeta|^2/R^2)^2},$$

the well known expression for the element of length of $S^2_R$.

**Comment 2.4.** Note that the same result may be obtained in another way. Let us introduce the basis of left fundamental vectors and the dual basis of one-forms:

$$\Gamma_1 = (1 + |\zeta|^2)\partial_\zeta, \quad \Gamma_2 = (1 + |\zeta|^2)\partial_{\bar{\zeta}}, \hspace{1cm} (29)$$

$$\theta^1 = \frac{d\zeta}{1 + |\zeta|^2}, \quad \theta^2 = \frac{d\bar{\zeta}}{1 + |\zeta|^2}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (30)

Then the metric based on the left fundamental basis forms is given by

$$ds^2 = 4\theta^1 \theta^2 = \frac{4d\zeta d\bar{\zeta}}{(1 + |\zeta|^2/R^2)^2}. \hspace{1cm} (31)$$

Computation of the curvature tensor gives

$$R^\zeta_{\zeta \bar{\zeta} \zeta} = \frac{2}{R^2 (1 + |\zeta|^2/R^2)^2}, \hspace{1cm} (32)$$

and using (26) we find

$$R^\zeta_{\zeta \bar{\zeta} \zeta}(0) = 2 \left[ \frac{\partial^3(h_{(\zeta,\eta)}\xi)}{\partial \zeta \partial \bar{\eta} \partial \xi} \right]_{\zeta = \eta = \xi = 0},$$

which is consistent with (15).
2.1.1 The non-associative discrete geometry of $S^2_R$

We start with the natural geodesic triangulation of the sphere which is specified as follows. The simplex, triangulating $S^2_R$, is a geodesic triangle. The geodesic lattice will be assumed to consist of central vertex at the north pole and of the geodesic triangles attached to this vertex. To each surface vertex $p = (j, k)$ we assign the polar coordinates $(\theta_j, \varphi_k)$, assuming $\theta_j = \pi j/n$, $\varphi_k = 2\pi k/n$ ($j, k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots n - 1$). With such a choice we have the triangulation defined by $n^2$ points allocated on the surface of the sphere:

$$\zeta_p = R\tan\left(\frac{\pi j}{2n}\right) e^{2\pi ik/n}. \quad (33)$$

The non-associative operation (24) now takes the form

$$\zeta_{pq} = \frac{\zeta_p + \zeta_q}{1 - \zeta_p\zeta_q/R^2}. \quad (34)$$

Writing $\zeta_{pq}$ as

$$\zeta_{pq} = R\tan\left(\frac{\theta_{pq}}{2}\right) e^{i\varphi_{pq}}, \quad (35)$$

one obtains from (34) the following formulae which define the left translations in “spherical coordinates”:

$$\theta_{pq} = 2\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{R}\left|\frac{\zeta_p + \zeta_q}{1 - \zeta_p\zeta_q/R^2}\right|\right) \quad (36)$$

$$\varphi_{pq} = \arg(\zeta_p + \zeta_q) - \frac{i}{2}\ln l(\zeta_p, \zeta_q), \quad (37)$$

$$\zeta_p = R\tan\left(\frac{\pi j}{2n}\right) e^{2\pi ik/n}, \quad \zeta_q = R\tan\left(\frac{\pi l}{2n}\right) e^{2\pi im/n}, \quad (38)$$

where

$$l(\zeta_p, \zeta_q) = \frac{1 - \zeta_p\zeta_q/R^2}{1 - \zeta_p\zeta_q/R^2}. \quad (39)$$

For the duiodular metric we have

$$g^{pq}(\zeta_q, \zeta_q) = \frac{4|\zeta_p - \zeta_q|^2}{|1 + \zeta_p\zeta_q/R^2|^2}, \quad (39)$$

and the elementary holonomy is

$$h_{(\zeta_p, \zeta_q)}\zeta_m = \frac{1 + \zeta_p\zeta_q/R^2}{1 + \zeta_p\zeta_q/R^2}\zeta_m. \quad (40)$$
Comment 2.5. To certain extent the information concerning the geometry of the sphere is hidden in the structure of the finite loop. The spherical symmetry is determined by the relation between the associator and elementary holonomy, $h(ζ_p, ζ_q) = l^{l(ζ_p, η_{ζ_q}ζ_p)}$. The smooth sphere could be regarded as the result of “limit process” of triangulating, while $n → ∞$. Indeed, with the growing of $n$, the number of the points increases and the triangulations become more fine.

In order to obtain the correct ‘continuous’ limit let us consider $q = p + δ, |δ| ≪ n$. Let $δ = (l, m)$, then

$$ζ_q = ζ_p + R \left( \frac{ζ_p}{ζ_p} \right)^{1/2} \left( \left( 1 + \frac{|ζ_p|^2}{R^2} \right) \frac{πl}{2n} + i \frac{|ζ_p|}{R} \frac{2πm}{n} \right) + O \left( \left( \frac{|δ|}{n} \right)^2 \right),$$

and the diodular metric takes the form

$$g^{ζ_p}(ζ_q, ζ_q) = R^2 \left( \left( \frac{πl}{n} \right)^2 + \frac{4|ζ_p|^2}{(1 + |ζ_p|^2/R^2)^2} \left( \frac{2πm}{n} \right)^2 \right) + O \left( \left( \frac{|δ|}{n} \right)^2 \right).$$ (41)

Simplifying (41), we obtain

$$g^{ζ_p}(ζ_q, ζ_q) = R^2 \left( (\Delta θ_q)^2 + \sin^2 θ_p (\Delta ϕ_q)^2 \right) + O \left( \left( \frac{|δ|}{n} \right)^2 \right),$$ (42)

where $\Delta θ_q = πl/n$ and $\Delta ϕ_q = 2πm/n$. The ‘differential geometry’ appears as the result of limit process while $n → ∞$:

$$\Delta θ_q → dθ, \quad \Delta ϕ_q → dϕ,$$

$$g^{ζ_p}(ζ_q, ζ_q) → ds^2 = R^2 \left( (dθ)^2 + \sin^2 θ (dϕ)^2 \right).$$ (43)

The similar consideration of the elementary holonomy gives

$$h(ζ_p, ζ_q)ζ_m = ζ_m \left( 1 + i \frac{\Delta(ζ_p, ζ_q)}{R^2} \right) + O \left( \left( \frac{|δ|}{n} \right)^2 \right),$$ (44)

where

$$\Delta(ζ_p, ζ_q) = \frac{2|ζ_p|^2Δ ϕ_q}{1 + |ζ_p|^2/R^2}$$

is the area of the geodesic triangle $(e, p, q)$. Approaching the limit, while $n → ∞$, one restores the conventional scalar curvature $1/R^2$.

3 The algebraic generalization of vacuum Einstein’s equations

The Einstein’s equations in the vacuum

$$G_{μν} := R_{μν} - \frac{1}{2}g_{μν}R = 0$$ (45)
can be rewritten in the tetrad basis as follows [10]:

\[ *R_{abcd} \theta^b \wedge \theta^c \wedge \theta^d = 0, \]  

(46)

where

\[ *R_{abcd} = \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_{abmn} R^{mn}_{cd} \]

is the dual to the Riemann tensor (latin indices \( a, b, c, d \) are used for the tetrad basis and are running over 0,1,2,3). Equations (45) (or (46)) mean:

\[
\begin{align*}
\{00\} & \Rightarrow R^{1212} + R^{2323} + R^{3131} = 0, \\
\{11\} & \Rightarrow R^{0202} + R^{2323} + R^{3030} = 0, \\
\{22\} & \Rightarrow R^{0101} + R^{1313} + R^{3030} = 0, \\
\{33\} & \Rightarrow R^{0101} + R^{1212} + R^{2020} = 0, \\
\{01\} & \Rightarrow R^{0221} + R^{0331} = 0, \\
\{02\} & \Rightarrow R^{0112} + R^{0332} = 0, \\
\{03\} & \Rightarrow R^{0113} + R^{0223} = 0, \\
\{12\} & \Rightarrow R^{1002} + R^{1332} = 0, \\
\{13\} & \Rightarrow R^{1003} + R^{1223} = 0, \\
\{23\} & \Rightarrow R^{2003} + R^{2113} = 0,
\end{align*}
\]

and may be written in the following form:

\[ *R(X, Y)Z + *R(Y, Z)X + *R(Z, X)Y = 0, \]  

(47)

where \( X, Y, Z \in T(M) \).

Let us consider the following algebraic equation:

\[ *h_{(x,y)}^e z + *h_{(y,z)}^e x + *h_{(z,x)}^e y = e \quad (\forall e, x, y, z), \]  

(48)

where

\[ (*h_{(x,y)}^e)^a_b = \frac{1}{2} g^{ac} \varepsilon_{cbmn} g^{nl} (h_{(x,y)}^e)_l^m \]

is the dual elementary holonomy. Employing the normal coordinates with the origin at the point \( e \) and the relation (13) between the curvature and elementary holonomy, we find that in the first approximation (48) restores the Einstein equations (17).

We propose the algebraic system (48) together with (19)–(22) as a non-local generalization of the vacuum Einstein’s equations (diodular Einstein’s equations). They should be considered as the equations for constructing of the diodule at the point \( e \) (which uniquely defines the corresponding diodular space).
Comment 3.1. The relation between odular Einstein’s equations considered in the neighbourhoods of the points \( e \) and \( a \) is established by means of the odular Bianchi identities (23):

\[
\ast h_{(x,y)}^{a} = \ast (L_{a}^{e} \circ h_{(y,a)}^{e} \circ h_{(x,y)}^{e} \circ h_{(a,x)}^{e} \circ (L_{a}^{e})^{-1}).
\]  

(49)

In the metric gravitational theory the odular Einstein’s equations should be considered together with

\[
g^{e}(x, y) = g^{a}(L_{a}^{e} x, L_{a}^{e} y)
\]  

(50)

which relates connection and metrics (Here \( g^{a}(p, q) \) is a metric tensor at \( a \in M \)).

In the normal coordinates with the origin at the point \( e \) we get the complete system of the diodular Einstein’s equations in the form:

\[
\ast h_{(x,y)}^{e} \circ h_{(y,z)}^{e} \circ h_{(z,x)}^{e} = 0, \quad \text{(51)}
\]

\[
(L_{a}^{e})_{x}^{h} = (L_{a}^{e})_{y}^{g} (L_{a}^{e})_{h}^{h}.
\]  

(52)

4 Concluding remarks

In our paper we proposed some new non-associative approach to the classical and discrete structure of manifolds which gives the unified description of continuous and discrete spacetime. This means that at the Planck scales the standard concept of spacetime might be replaced by the diodular discrete structure which at large spacetime scales ‘looks like’ a differentiable manifold.

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