

# Semigroup

A finite or infinite set  $S$  with a binary operation  $\circ$  (Composition) is called semigroup if it holds following two conditions simultaneously –

- **Closure** – For every pair  $(a, b) \in S$ ,  $(a \circ b)$  has to be present in the set  $S$ .
- **Associative** – For every element  $a, b, c \in S$ ,  $(a \circ b) \circ c = a \circ (b \circ c)$  must hold.

## Example

The set of positive integers (excluding zero) with addition operation is a semigroup. For example,  $S = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

Here closure property holds as for every pair  $(a, b) \in S$ ,  $(a + b)$  is present in the set  $S$ .

For example,  $1 + 2 = 3 \in S$

Associative property also holds for every

element

$$a, b, c \in S, (a + b) + c = a + (b + c) \text{ .}$$

For example,

$$(1 + 2) + 3 = 1 + (2 + 3) = 5$$

## Monoid

A monoid is a semigroup with an identity element. The identity element (denoted by

$e$  or  $E$ ) of a set  $S$  is an element such that

$$(a \circ e) = a \text{ , for every element } a \in S \text{ . An}$$

identity element is also called a **unit element**.

So, a monoid holds three properties simultaneously – **Closure**, **Associative**, **Identity element**.

### Example

The set of positive integers (excluding zero) with multiplication operation is a monoid.

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

Here closure property holds as for every pair

$$(a, b) \in S, (a \times b) \text{ is present in the set } S.$$

[For example,  $1 \times 2 = 2 \in S$  and so on]

Associative property also holds for every element

$$a, b, c \in S, (a \times b) \times c = a \times (b \times c)$$

[For example,

$$(1 \times 2) \times 3 = 1 \times (2 \times 3) = 6 \text{ and so}$$

on]

Identity property also holds for every element

$$a \in S, (a \times e) = a \quad \text{[For example,}$$

$$(2 \times 1) = 2, (3 \times 1) = 3 \quad \text{and so on]}. \text{ Here}$$

identity element is 1.

## Group

A group is a monoid with an inverse element.

The inverse element (denoted by  $I$ ) of a set  $S$  is an element such that

$$(a \circ I) = (I \circ a) = a, \quad \text{for each element}$$

$$a \in S. \text{ So, a group holds four properties}$$

simultaneously - i) Closure, ii) Associative, iii) Identity element, iv) Inverse element. The order of a group  $G$  is the number of elements in  $G$  and the order of an element in a group is the least positive integer  $n$  such that  $a^n$  is the identity element of that group  $G$ .

## Examples

The set of  $N \times N$  non-singular matrices form a group under matrix multiplication operation.

The product of two  $N \times N$  non-singular matrices is also an  $N \times N$  non-singular matrix which holds closure property.

Matrix multiplication itself is associative. Hence, associative property holds.

The set of  $N \times N$  non-singular matrices contains the identity matrix holding the identity

element property.

As all the matrices are non-singular they all have inverse elements which are also nonsingular matrices. Hence, inverse property also holds.

## Abelian Group

An abelian group  $G$  is a group for which the element pair  $(a, b) \in G$  always holds

commutative law. So, a group holds five properties simultaneously - i) Closure, ii) Associative, iii) Identity element, iv) Inverse element, v) Commutative.

### Example

The set of positive integers (including zero) with addition operation is an abelian group.

$$G = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

Here closure property holds as for every pair

$$(a, b) \in S, (a + b) \text{ is present in the set } S.$$

[For example,  $1 + 2 = 2 \in S$  and so on]

Associative property also holds for every element

$$a, b, c \in S, (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$$

[For example,

$$(1 + 2) + 3 = 1 + (2 + 3) = 6 \text{ and so}$$

on]

Identity property also holds for every element

$$a \in S, (a \times e) = a \text{ [For example,}$$

$$(2 \times 1) = 2, (3 \times 1) = 3 \quad \text{and so on}].$$

Here, identity element is 1.

Commutative property also holds for every element  $a \in S, (a \times b) = (b \times a)$  [For

example,  $(2 \times 3) = (3 \times 2) = 3$  and so on]

## Cyclic Group and Subgroup

A **cyclic group** is a group that can be generated by a single element. Every element of a cyclic group is a power of some specific element which is called a generator. A cyclic group can be generated by a generator 'g', such that every other element of the group can be written as a power of the generator 'g'.

### Example

The set of complex numbers  $\{1, -1, i, -i\}$

under multiplication operation is a cyclic group.

There are two generators –  $i$  and  $-i$  as

$$i^1 = i, i^2 = -1, i^3 = -i, i^4 = 1 \quad \text{and also}$$

$$(-i)^1 = -i, (-i)^2 = -1, (-i)^3 = i, (-i)^4 = 1$$

which covers all the elements of the group. Hence, it is a cyclic group.

**Note** – A **cyclic group** is always an abelian group but not every abelian group is a cyclic group. The rational numbers under addition is not cyclic but is abelian.

A **subgroup**  $H$  is a subset of a group  $G$  (denoted by  $H \leq G$ ) if it satisfies the four properties simultaneously – **Closure**, **Associative**, **Identity element**, and **Inverse**.

A subgroup  $H$  of a group  $G$  that does not include the whole group  $G$  is called a proper subgroup (Denoted by  $H < G$ ). A

subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic and a abelian subgroup is also abelian.

## Example

Let a group  $G = \{1, i, -1, -i\}$

Then some subgroups are

$$H_1 = \{1\}, H_2 = \{1, -1\},$$

This is not a subgroup –  $H_3 = \{1, i\}$

because that  $(i)^{-1} = -i$  is not in  $H_3$

## Definition

A **ring** is a set  $R$  together with a pair of binary operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  satisfying the axioms:

1.  $R$  is an abelian group under the operation  $+$ ,
2. The operation  $\cdot$  is associative (and it is of course closed also),
3. The operations satisfy the *Distributive Laws*:  
For  $\forall a, b, c \in R$  we have  $(a + b) \cdot c = (a \cdot c + b \cdot c)$  and  $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ .

## Remarks

- a. The *additive identity* is called the **zero** of the ring and is written 0.  
Note that  $0 \cdot a = a \cdot 0 = 0$  for all  $a \in R$  (See Exercises 1 Qu 1)
- b. *Sometimes* the ring has a multiplicative identity. If it does, we call it a **Ring with identity** and write the multiplicative identity as 1.
- c. Even if the ring has an identity, it may not be possible to find multiplicative inverses. In particular (if  $|R| > 1$ ) the element 0 will never have an inverse.
- d. The operation  $\cdot$  is not necessarily commutative. If it is, we call  $R$  a **commutative ring**.

## Examples

1. The integers  $\mathbf{Z}$  with the usual addition and multiplication is a commutative ring with identity. The only elements with (multiplicative) inverses are  $\pm 1$ .
2. The integers modulo  $n$ :  $\mathbf{Z}_n$  form a commutative ring with identity under addition and multiplication modulo  $n$ . This is a finite ring  $\{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\}$  and the elements  $a$  which are coprime to  $n$  are the ones which are invertible.
3. The sets  $\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{R}, \mathbf{C}$  are all commutative rings with identity under the appropriate addition and multiplication. In these every non-zero element has an inverse.
4. The quaternions  $\mathbf{H} = \{a + ib + jc + kd \mid a, b, c, d \in \mathbf{R}\}$  mentioned in the last section form a *non-commutative* ring with identity under the appropriate addition and a multiplication which satisfies the rules:

$$i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = i j k = -1.$$

In fact one can find an inverse for any non-zero quaternion using the trick:

$(a + ib + jc + kd)(a - ib - jc - kd) = a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2$   
as in the similar method for finding the inverse of a complex number.

5. The set of all  $2 \times 2$  real matrices forms a ring under the usual matrix addition and multiplication.

This is a non-commutative ring with identity  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

In fact, the set of  $n \times n$  matrices with entries in *any ring* forms a ring.

6. Just as we can specify a finite group by giving its multiplication table, we can specify a finite ring by giving addition and multiplication tables.

+	0	a	b	c	.	0	a	b	c
0	0	a	b	c	0	0	0	0	0
a	a	0	c	b	a	0	0	a	a
b	b	c	0	a	b	0	0	b	b
c	c	b	a	0	c	0	0	c	c

For example,  $R = \{0, a, b, c\}$  with tables

Then it is true (but almost impossible to check) that these do satisfy the ring axioms.  
In fact these are the addition and multiplication tables of

$$0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad b = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad c = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

where arithmetic is done modulo 2.

## 7. Polynomials

As indicated in the last section these are some of the most important examples of rings.

### Definition

Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with an identity. Then a **polynomial with coefficients in  $R$  in an indeterminate  $x$**  is something of the form

$$a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n \text{ where } a_i \in R.$$

One adds and multiplies polynomials "in the usual way".

The ring of such polynomials is denoted by  $R[x]$ .

### Remarks

- Note that each non-zero polynomial has a finite degree: the largest  $n$  for which  $a_n \neq 0$ .
- The indeterminate  $x$  is **not** a member of  $R$ . Neither are  $x^2, x^3, \dots$  They are simply "markers" to remind us how to add and multiply.  
One could (and maybe should) define a polynomial to be a sequence  $(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots)$  in which only finitely many of the terms are non-zero.  
**Exercise:** Write down how to add and multiply two such sequences.
- Two polynomials are equal if and only if all of their coefficients are equal.



# Integral domains and Fields

These are two special kinds of ring

## Definition

If  $a, b$  are two ring elements with  $a, b \neq 0$  but  $ab = 0$  then  $a$  and  $b$  are called **zero-divisors**.

## Example

In the ring  $\mathbf{Z}_6$  we have  $2 \cdot 3 = 0$  and so 2 and 3 are zero-divisors.  
More generally, if  $n$  is not prime then  $\mathbf{Z}_n$  contains zero-divisors.

## Definition

An **integral domain** is a commutative ring with an identity ( $1 \neq 0$ ) with no zero-divisors.  
That is  $ab = 0 \Rightarrow a = 0$  or  $b = 0$ .

## Examples

1. The ring  $\mathbf{Z}$  is an integral domain. (This explains the name.)
2. The polynomial rings  $\mathbf{Z}[x]$  and  $\mathbf{R}[x]$  are integral domains.  
(Look at the degree of a polynomial to see how to prove this.)
3. The ring  $\{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$  is an integral domain.  
(Proof?)
4. If  $p$  is prime, the ring  $\mathbf{Z}_p$  is an integral domain.  
(Proof?)

## Definition

A **field** is a commutative ring with identity ( $1 \neq 0$ ) in which every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse.

## Examples

The rings  $\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{R}, \mathbf{C}$  are fields.

## Remarks

- a. If  $a, b$  are elements of a field with  $ab = 0$  then if  $a \neq 0$  it has an inverse  $a^{-1}$  and so multiplying both sides by this gives  $b = 0$ . Hence there are no zero-divisors and we have:

*Every field is an integral domain.*

- b. The axioms of a field  $F$  can be summarised as:
- $(F, +)$  is an abelian group
  - $(F - \{0\}, \cdot)$  is an abelian group
  - The distributive law.

The example  $\mathbf{Z}$  shows that some integral domains are not fields.

### Theorem

*Every finite integral domain is a field.*

### Proof

The only thing we need to show is that a typical element  $a \neq 0$  has a multiplicative inverse.

Consider  $a, a^2, a^3, \dots$  Since there are only finitely many elements we must have  $a^m = a^n$  for some  $m < n$  (say).

Then  $0 = a^m - a^n = a^m(1 - a^{n-m})$ . Since there are no zero-divisors we must have  $a^m \neq 0$  and hence  $1 - a^{n-m} = 0$  and so  $1 = a(a^{n-m-1})$  and we have found a multiplicative inverse for  $a$ .  $\square$

### More examples

- If  $p$  is prime  $\mathbf{Z}_p$  is a field. It has  $p$  elements.
- Consider the set of things of the form  $\{a + bx \mid a, b \in \mathbf{Z}_2\}$  with  $x$  an "indeterminate".  
Use arithmetic modulo 2 and multiply using the "rule"  $x^2 = x + 1$ .  
Then we get a field with 4 elements:  $\{0, 1, x, 1 + x\}$ .  
For example:  $x(1 + x) = x + x^2 = x + (1 + x) = 1$  (since we work modulo 2). Thus every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse.
- Consider the set of things of the form  $\{a + bx + cx^2 \mid a, b, c \in \mathbf{Z}_2\}$  where we now use the rule  $x^3 = 1 + x$ .  
This gives a field with 8 elements:  $\{0, 1, x, 1 + x, x^2, 1 + x^2, x + x^2, 1 + x + x^2\}$ .  
For example,  $(1 + x^2)(x + x^2) = x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 = x + x^2 + (1 + x) + x(1 + x) = 1 + x$  since we work modulo 2.

**Exercise:** Experiment by multiplying together elements to find multiplicative inverses.

(e.g. Since  $x^3 + x = 1$  we have  $x(x^2 + 1) = 1$  and  $x^{-1} = 1 + x^2$ .)

- Consider the set of things of the form  $\{a + bx \mid a, b \in \mathbf{Z}_3\}$  with arithmetic modulo 3 and the "rule"  $x^2 = -1$  (so its a bit like multiplying in  $\mathbf{C}$ !).  
Then we get a field with 9 elements:  $\{0, 1, 2, x, 1 + x, 2 + x, 2x, 1 + 2x, 2 + 2x\}$ .

**Exercise:** Find multiplicative inverses.