

## DIVISION SEMINEAR-RINGS

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We show that any finite division seminear-ring is uniquely determined by the Zappa-Szép product of two multiplicative subgroups, and classify all seminear-fields in three out of four categories.

### 1. Introduction

In [2] the authors investigated semifields in which the addition and multiplication are both commutative. In [3] the first author extended most of the work in [2] to the non-commutative case: this paper outlines the more significant results in [3].

### 2. Seminear-rings

We say that  $(S, +, \cdot)$  is a **right seminear-ring** if  $S$  is a set with two binary operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  such that  $(S, +)$  and  $(S, \cdot)$  are semigroups and the right distributive law holds:  $(x + y)z = xz + yz$  for all  $x, y, z \in S$ . A left seminear-ring is similarly defined, and if  $S$  is both a left and a right seminear-ring then it is a semiring. An important example of a right seminear-ring is obtained by starting with an arbitrary semigroup  $(S, +)$  and letting  $M(S)$  denote the set of all maps from  $S$  into itself; if  $+$  and  $\cdot$  are defined on  $M(S)$  as pointwise addition and composition respectively, then  $(M(S), +, \cdot)$  is a right seminear-ring which is not left distributive provided  $|S| > 1$ .

In what follows, the word ‘seminear-ring’ will mean a ‘right seminear-ring’. A **division** seminear-ring is a seminear-ring  $(D, +, \cdot)$  in which  $(D, \cdot)$  is a group. The set  $\mathbf{R}^+$  of positive real numbers with the usual addition and multiplication is a division seminear-ring in which the left distributive

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law holds: that is, it is a division semiring. To obtain a family of right (but not left) division seminear-rings, we need the following notion.

If  $(G, \cdot)$  is a group and  $H, K$  are subgroups of  $G$ , we say  $G$  is a **Zappa-Szép (ZS) product** of  $H$  and  $K$ , written  $G = H * K$ , if  $G = HK$  and  $H \cap K = 1$ . Note that any direct product is a ZS-product but not conversely. For example, if  $G = S_3$  and  $H = \langle (1, 2) \rangle, K = A_3$  then  $G = H * K$  but  $S_3$  is not a direct product of any of its subgroups. The proof of the following result is straight-forward and so is omitted.

**Lemma 1.** *If  $G = H * K$  for some subgroups  $H, K$  of a group  $G$ , then  $G = K * H$  and*

(a) *for each  $x \in G$  there exist unique  $h_1, h_2 \in H$  and  $k_1, k_2 \in K$  such that  $x = h_1 k_1 = k_2 h_2$ , and*

(b) *for each  $h \in H, k \in K$  there exist unique  $h' \in H$  and  $k' \in K$  such that  $h'k = k'h$ .*

The next result provides a way of constructing division seminear-rings which are not division semirings.

**Theorem 1.** *If  $G = H * K$  for some subgroup  $H, K$  of group  $G$ , then there exists a unique binary operation  $+$  on  $G$  such that  $(G, +, \cdot)$  is a division seminear-ring in which  $(G, +)$  is a rectangular band containing  $H$  and  $K$  as left and right zero subsemigroups respectively and  $G = H + K$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $x_1, x_2 \in G$ . By Lemma 1, we can write  $x_1 = k_1 h_1, x_2 = h_2 k_2$  and  $h'_1 k_2 = k'_2 h_1$  for suitable unique elements of  $H$  and  $K$ . In this case, we define  $x_1 + x_2$  to be  $h'_1 k_2$ .

Suppose  $x \in G$  and  $x = kh_1 = hk_1$ . Then, by uniqueness and the definitions,  $h_1 = 1 \cdot h_1, k_1 = 1 \cdot k_1$  imply that  $h_1 + k_1 = hk_1 = x$ . Moreover, if  $x = h + k = h'k = k'h$  then  $h'k = hk_1$  and uniqueness implies  $k = k_1$ ; similarly,  $h = h_1$  and we have shown that for each  $x \in G$ , there are unique  $h \in H, k \in K$  such that  $x = h + k$ . In addition, if  $hk_1 = kh_1$  and  $h'k_2 = k'h_2$  then  $(h_1 + k_1) + (h_2 + k_2) = kh_1 + h'k_2$ . Hence, if  $h''k_2 = k''h_1$  then  $(h_1 + k_1) + (h_2 + k_2) = h_1 + k_2$ . Now, it is well-known that  $H \times K$  under the operation:

$$(h_1, k_1) \otimes (h_2, k_2) = (h_1, k_2)$$

is a rectangular band [1]. And, from the foregoing remarks,  $f : G \rightarrow H \times K, h + k \rightarrow (h, k)$ , is an isomorphism from  $(G, +)$  onto  $(H \times K, \otimes)$ . Thus,  $(G, +)$  is a rectangular band in which  $H$  is a left zero semigroup.

For, if  $h \in H$  then  $h \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot h$  implies that  $h + 1 = h \cdot 1 = h$  and so  $H$  is isomorphic under  $f$  to  $H \times 1$ , a left zero subsemigroup of  $(H \times K, \otimes)$ .

To show that  $(G, +, \cdot)$  is right distributive, let  $x, y, z \in G$  and write

$$xz = h_1 + k_1 = h'_1 k_1 = k'_1 h_1$$

$$yz = h_2 + k_2 = h'_2 k_2 = k'_2 h_2.$$

Then, if  $x = h_3 k_3 = k_4 h_4$  and  $y = h_5 k_5 = k_6 h_6$ , we have  $z = x^{-1} k'_1 h_1 = y^{-1} h'_2 k_2$  and so

$$k_4^{-1} k'_1 h_1 = h_4 k_5^{-1} \cdot h_5^{-1} h'_2 k_2 = k_7 h_7 \cdot h_5^{-1} h'_2 k_2$$

for some  $h_7, k_7$  in  $G$ . Since  $h_7 h_5^{-1} h'_2 \in H$  and  $k_7^{-1} k_4^{-1} k'_1 \in K$ , we conclude that  $xz + yz = h_1 + k_2$  and this equals  $h_7 \cdot h_5^{-1} h'_2 k_2$ . But,  $x = h_4 + k_3, y = h_6 + k_5$  and so

$$\begin{aligned} (x + y)z &= [(h_4 + k_3) + (h_6 + k_5)]y^{-1} h'_2 k_2 \\ &= (h_4 + k_5)(h_5 k_5)^{-1} h'_2 k_2 = h_7 h_5^{-1} h'_2 k_2 \\ &= xz + yz \end{aligned}$$

since  $h_4 + k_5 = h'_4 k_5 = k'_5 h_4$  implies that  $h'_4 = h_7$ . Finally, to show  $+$  is unique, suppose  $\oplus$  is another operation for which  $(G, \oplus, \cdot)$  has the same properties as  $(G, +, \cdot)$ . Now, under the stated conditions,  $k + h = (1+k) + (h+1) = 1 + (k+h) + 1 = 1$ . Thus, if  $h \oplus k = h_1 k_1 = k_2 h_2 = h_2 + k_1$ . Then

$$1 = 1 \oplus kh^{-1} \oplus 1 = (h \oplus k)h^{-1} \oplus 1 = k_2 h_2 h^{-1} \oplus 1$$

and so  $1 = k_2 \oplus hh_2^{-1} = (k_2 h_2 h^{-1} \oplus 1)hh_2^{-1} = hh_2^{-1}$ . Hence,  $h = h_2$  and similarly  $k = k_1$ . So, if  $x, y \in G$  satisfy  $x = h_1 \oplus k_1 = h_1 + k_1$  and  $y = h_2 \oplus k_2 = h_2 + k_2$  then  $x \oplus y = h_1 \oplus k_2 = h_1 + k_2 = x + y$ , as required.

With the same notation as in Theorem 1, it can be shown that  $(G, +)$  is always isomorphic to the direct product of  $(H, +)$  and  $(K, +)$ . On the other hand, the division seminear-ring  $(G, +, \cdot)$  is left distributive if and only if  $(G, \cdot)$  is the direct product of  $(H, \cdot)$  and  $(K, \cdot)$ .

We say that the division seminear-ring defined in Theorem 1 is **induced** by the ZS-product  $G = H * K$ . In the finite case, we can prove the converse of Theorem 1.

**Theorem 2.** *Every finite division seminear-ring  $D$  is induced by a  $ZS$ -product of multiplicative subgroups of  $D$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $(D, +)$  is a finite semigroup,  $d + d = d$  for some  $d \in D[1]$  and so  $x + x = (d + d)d^{-1}x = x$  for all  $x \in D$ . Now, let  $H = \{x \in D : x + 1 = x\}$  and  $K = \{x \in D : x + 1 = 1\}$  where 1 is the identity of  $(D, \cdot)$ . Note that  $H \cap K = 1$  and if  $x, y \in H$  then  $xy + 1 = (x + 1)y + 1 = xy + y = (x + 1)y = xy$ : that is,  $xy \in H$ . Hence, since  $(D, \cdot)$  is a finite group, if  $x \in H$  then  $x^n = 1$  for some  $n \geq 1$  and  $x^{-1} = x^{n-1} \in H$ : that is,  $(H, \cdot)$  is a group, and the same holds for  $(K, \cdot)$ . In particular, if  $x, y \in H$  then  $xy^{-1} \in H$  and so  $xy^{-1} + 1 = xy^{-1}$ : that is,  $x + y = x$ . Hence, if  $u, v \in D$ , we have  $u + v + u = [1 + (vu^{-1} + 1)]u = u$  since  $vu^{-1} + 1 \in H$ , and so  $(D, +)$  is a rectangular band.

To show  $D = H * K$ , let  $x \in D$  and note that  $x + 1 \in H$ , and  $x(x + 1)^{-1} + 1 = (x + (x + 1))(x + 1)^{-1} = 1$ : that is,  $x(x + 1)^{-1} \in K$ . Thus,  $x = x(x + 1)^{-1}(x + 1) \in KH$  and so, by Lemma 1,  $D = H * K$ . Finally, let  $x, y \in D$ , and note that  $x = x(x + 1)^{-1}(x + 1) \in KH$ ,  $y = y(1 + y)^{-1}(1 + y) \in HK$  and if  $z = (x + 1)(1 + y)^{-1} = z(z + 1)^{-1}(z + 1)$  then  $(z + 1)(1 + y) = (z + 1)z^{-1}(x + 1)$  where  $(z + 1)z^{-1} \in K$ . That is, if  $\oplus$  denotes the addition induced on  $D$  by the  $ZS$ -product of  $H$  and  $K$  then

$$\begin{aligned} x \oplus y &= (z + 1)(1 + y) = (x + 1) + (1 + y) \\ &= x + [1 + (x + y) + 1] + y = x + y, \end{aligned}$$

and this completes the proof.

It can be shown that two finite division seminear-rings are isomorphic if and only if there is a multiplicative group isomorphism between them that preserves the  $ZS$ -products of their subgroups, as specified by Theorem 2.

### 3. Seminear-fields

A right seminear-ring  $(F, +, \cdot)$  is a **seminear-field** if there is  $a \in F$  such that  $a^2 = a$  and  $(F \setminus a, \cdot)$  is a group. In this case, we write  $F_a = F \setminus a$  and say that  $F$  has **base**  $a$ .

If  $F = \{a, x\}$  and we define operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  on  $F$  so that  $(F, +)$  is a right zero semigroup and  $(F, \cdot)$  is a band with  $a$  as an identity then  $(F, +, \cdot)$  is a seminear-field in which both  $F_a$  and  $F_x$  are multiplicative groups. On the other hand, it is easy to check that if  $(F, +, \cdot)$  is any seminear-field

with  $|F| > 2$  then there is a unique  $a \in F$  such that  $a^2 = a$  and  $(F_a, \cdot)$  is a group.

**Theorem 3.** *If  $(F, +, \cdot)$  is a seminear-field with base  $a$ , then  $F$  belongs to one of the following categories of seminear-field.*

I.  $ax = xa = a$  for all  $x \in F$ , II.  $ax = xa = x$  for all  $x \in F$ , III.  $ax = a$  and  $xa = x$  for all  $x \in F$ , IV.  $ax = x$  and  $xa = a$  for all  $x \in F$ .

*Proof.* Let 1 denote the identity of  $F_a$  and suppose  $a \cdot 1 = a$ . If  $x \in F_a$  and  $ax \neq a$  then there exists  $y \in F_a$  with  $(ax)y = 1$  and so  $a = a(ax)y = 1$ , a contradiction. That is, if  $a \cdot 1 = a$  then  $ax = a$  for all  $x \in F$ . If  $a \cdot 1 \neq a$  then  $(a \cdot 1)^2 = a \cdot 1$  implies  $a \cdot 1 = 1$  and so  $ax = x$  for all  $x \in F$ . Similarly, we can establish the disjunction:  $xa = a$  for all  $x \in F$  or  $xa = x$  for all  $x \in F$ , and this proves the result.

Note that any division ring is a category I seminear-field (with  $a = 0$ ), so there is little hope of describing all seminear-fields in category I. On the other hand, those in categories II-IV can be completely characterised.

**Theorem 4.** *If  $F$  is a category II seminear-field with base  $a$ , then  $(F_a, +, \cdot)$  is a division seminear-ring. Conversely, suppose  $(D, +, \cdot)$  is any division seminear-ring and  $a \notin D$ . Then the operations on  $D$  can be extended to  $D^* = D \cup a$  so that  $(D^*, +, \cdot)$  is a category II seminear-field.*

*Proof.* If  $x, y \in F_a$  and  $x + y = a$  then  $1 = a \cdot 1 = x \cdot 1 + y \cdot 1 = a$ , a contradiction. Hence,  $(F_a, +, \cdot)$  is a division seminear-ring. If  $D$  is any division seminear-ring and we extend its operations so that  $ax = xa = x$  and  $x + a = x + 1$ ,  $a + x = 1 + x$  then it can be checked that  $(D^*, +, \cdot)$  is a category II seminear-field.

**Theorem 5.** *If  $F$  is a category III or IV seminear-field with base  $a$ , then  $|F| = 2$ .*

*Proof.* If  $F$  is category III and  $x \in F_a$  then  $x^2 = (xa)x = x(ax) = x$  and so  $x = 1$ . A similar argument works for when  $F$  is category IV.

It can be shown that there are only five pairwise non-isomorphic possibilities for the additive structure of category III seminear-fields; namely:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 + & a & 1 \\
 a & a & a \\
 1 & a & 1
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 + & a & 1 \\
 a & a & a \\
 1 & 1 & 1
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 + & a & 1 \\
 a & a & 1 \\
 1 & a & 1
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 + & a & 1 \\
 a & a & a \\
 1 & a & a
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 + & a & 1 \\
 a & a & 1 \\
 1 & 1 & a
 \end{array}$$

Likewise, it can be shown that there are only three pairwise non-isomorphic possibilities for the additive structure of category IV seminear-fields: namely, the first three tables listed above.

## References

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