# THE THEORY OF TOPOLOGICAL SEMIGROUPS

J. H. Carruth

I. A. Hildebrant

R. J. Koch



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J. H. Carruth

Department of Mathematics University of Tennessee Knoxville, Tennessee

I. A. Hildebrant

R. J. Koch

Department of Mathematics Louisiana State University Baton Rouge, Louisiana

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Our goal is to survey the field of topological semigroups, and to make this body of information accessible to the average graduate student. As a step in this direction, we offer the present volume, which lays the groundwork and covers several special avenues of recent research. The spirit of our exposition follows that of A. D. Wallace, through whose influence both in his research and by way of his students, the subject has developed since 1953. At that time his invited address to the American Mathematical Society stimulated much activity along the lines of the question "What topological spaces admit a continuous associative multiplication with unit?" As noted by Wallace, the answers to these questions are likely to involve more algebra and topology than was the case for compact groups, where there is a representation theory due to the presence of Haar measure. Our coverage here includes background material, internal structure, products, quotients, and semigroups with some special algebraic or topological property. We defer to a subsequent volume some of the aspects which rely on cohomology or category theory.

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This material can serve as a text for an introduction to topological semigroups. It is not intended as a research tract, but rather to expose various aspects of the subject.

In the initial chapter we discuss the fundamental concepts of topological semigroups, their substructures, and maps between semi-

groups. Most of the notions here were introduced in the 1955 Wallace notes, and these will be further explored in the remaining chapters. Featured in the final section of this chapter is the Lawson-Madison theorem which generalizes an earlier result of Wallace on compact semigroups to  $k_{\omega}$ -semigroups. We present their proof for locally compact  $\sigma\text{-compact}$  semigroups.

developing new examples of semigroups from existing ones, and discuss the properties of these new semigroups inherited from the old semigroups. Constructions include free topological semigroups, Bohr compactifications, and products of various types.

Monothetic semigroups, which were characterized by the work of Koch, Numakura, and Hewitt, are discussed in the first section of the third chapter. The Wallace-Rees-Suschkewitch structure theorem. for compact completely simple semigroups appears in this chapter. Most of the remaining portions of the chapter are devoted to algebraic considerations of Green's relations and quasi-orders.

Contributions of Clifford, Faucett, Mostert and Shields, Cohen and Krule, and Phillips are featured in the fourth chapter on interval semigroups (threads). Their structure and the nature of congruences on interval semigroups are characterized in this brief chapter.

The fifth chapter features the Carruth-Lawson proof of the classical Mostert-Shields theorem on the existence of one parameter semigroups in certain compact monoids. An important example due to Hunter appears at the end of the chapter.

In the final chapter we present results on compact divisible semigroups. This chapter features the results of Keimel, the contributions of Hudson and Hofmann, the structure theorems of Brown and Friedberg, and the Hildebrant characterization of compact subunithetic semigroups (the atoms of compact divisible semigroups).

More than a reference source for the text, the bibliography of this book is one of the most complete guides to the literature in topological semigroups to date, listing nearly 400 articles and books.

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Chanter 1

FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS

In this chapter we present some concepts which we consider to be fundamental to the study of topological semigroups. Many of the results pertain to compact semigroups, as will be the situation for the entire book. However, some of the theorems are purely algebraic in nature or apply to a more general class of topological semigroups. The algebraic results are included to make the chapter as self-contained as we consider feasible. Some knowledge of elementary topology will be assumed. The notation in this chapter will be used throughout the book. 

# SEMIGROUPS

A semigroup is a non-empty set S together with an associative multiplication  $(x,y) \rightarrow xy$  from S × S into S. The associative condition on S states that x(yz) = (xy)z for each  $x, y, z \in S$ . If A and B are subsets of S, we use the notation  $AB = \{ab : a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$ . If S has a Hausdorff topology such that  $(x,y) \mapsto xy$  is continuous, with the product topology on S x S, then S is called a topological semigroup. The condition that the multiplication on S is continuous is equivalent to the condition that for each  $x, y \in S$  and each open set W in S with xy ∈ W, there exist open sets U and V in S such that  $x \in U$ ,  $y \in V$ , and  $UV \subseteq W$ .

If the word "semigroup" appears with a topological adjective, then "topological semigroup" is implied. For example, the statement "S is a compact semigroup" means that S is a compact topological semigroup. Observe that any semigroup can be made into a topological semigroup by giving it the discrete topology, and thus a finite semigroup is a compact semigroup.

Relations are one of the fundamental notions in the study of topological semigroups. We recall some of the basic concepts pertaining to relations. A relation on a set X is a subset of X × X. The diagonal of X is the relation  $\Delta(X) = \{(x,x) : x \in X\}$ . When no confusion seems likely, we write simply  $\Delta$  for the diagonal relation. If A and B are relations on X, then the composition of A with B is A  $\circ$  B = {(x,y) : (x,z)  $\in$  A and (z,y)  $\in$  B for some z  $\in$  X}. The converse of a relation R on X is  $R^{-1} = \{(x,y) \in X \times X : (y,x) \in R\}$ . A relation R on X is reflexive if  $\Delta \subseteq R$ , symmetric if  $R = R^{-1}$ , transitive if R · R C R, and an equivalence if R is reflexive, symmetric. and transitive. A relation R on X is anti-symmetric if  $R \cap R^{-1} \subset A$ . a quasi-order if R is reflexive and transitive, and a partial order if R is an anti-symmetric quasi-order. If R is a relation on a set X, then  $R^{(n)}$  is defined by  $R^{(1)} = R$  and  $R^{(n+1)} = R^{(n)} \circ R$  for each positive integer n. The transitive closure of R is defined Tr(R) = $\cup$  {R<sup>(n)</sup>: n a positive integer}. It is readily seen that Tr(R) is the smallest transitive relation of X containing R.

Although nets are not an essential part of the study of topological semigroups, they sometimes serve as a convenient tool in establishing results about topological semigroups. We recall a few basic notions about nets and directed sets.

A directed set is a pair (D, $\leq$ ), where D is a non-empty set and  $\leq$  is a reflexive and transitive relation on D such that for  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta \in D$  there exists  $\gamma \in D$  such that  $\alpha \leq \gamma$  and  $\beta \leq \gamma$ . Notice that we indicate that  $(\alpha,\gamma) \in \leq$  in the traditional manner by  $\alpha \leq \gamma$ . A subset C of D is cofinal in D if for each  $\alpha \in D$ , there exists  $\beta \in C$  such that  $\alpha \leq \beta$ , and a subset R of D is residual in D if there exists  $\delta \in D$  such that if  $\delta \leq \gamma$  in D, then  $\gamma \in R$ . If no confusion seems likely, we suppress the mention of  $\leq$  and write simply D for the directed set.

A net in a set X is a function from a directed set D into X. We denote the image of  $\alpha \in D$  by  $x_{\alpha}$  and the net itself by  $\{x_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in D}$  or simply  $\{x_{\alpha}\}$  when no confusion seems likely. If T is a subset of X,

then the net  $\{x_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in D}$  is frequently in T provided  $\{\alpha \in D : x_{\alpha} \in T\}$  is cofinal in D, and  $\{x_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in D}$  is eventually in T if  $\{\alpha \in D : x_{\alpha} \in T\}$  is residual in D. If X is a space,  $x \in X$ , and  $\{x_{\alpha}\}$  is a net in X, then  $\{x_{\alpha}\}$  clusters to x if  $\{x_{\alpha}\}$  is frequently in each neighborhood of x, and  $\{x_{\alpha}\}$  converges to x if  $\{x_{\alpha}\}$  is eventually in each neighborhood of x. In the latter case we write  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to x$ . A subnet of a net  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a pair  $\{y_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a function such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net in X, then  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net in X, then  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net in X, then  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net in X, then  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net in X, then  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net in X, then  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net in X, then  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net in X, then  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net in X, then  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is and  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net in X, then  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to X$  is a net in

There are some useful topological results pertaining to nets. A net in a Hausdorff space converges to at most one point; A space X is compact if and only if each net in X has a convergent subnet; A subset C of a space X is closed if and only if for each net  $\{x_{\alpha}\}$  in C converging to a point  $x \in X$ , we have  $x \in C$ ; and a function f from a space X into a space Y is continuous if and only if  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to x$  in x implies  $\{f(x_{\alpha})\} \to f(x)$  in Y. Convergence can be replaced by clustering in Y or by clustering in both X and Y in the last result.

If S is a Hausdorff space endowed with an associative multiplication, then continuity of multiplication on S is equivalent to the statement that for nets in S,  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to x$  and  $\{y_{\alpha}\} \to y$  implies that  $\{x_{\alpha}y_{\alpha}\} \to xy$ . Convergence of the net  $\{x_{\alpha}y_{\alpha}\}$  can be replaced by clustering if one of the nets  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to x$  or  $\{y_{\alpha}\} \to y$  is assumed only to cluster to the given point.

The following is one of the more useful topological results in the area of topological semigroups [Wallace, 1951]:

<u>1.1 Theorem</u>. Let X, Y, and Z be spaces, A a compact subset of X, B a compact subset of Y,  $f: X \times Y \to Z$  a continuous function, and W an open subset of Z containing  $f(A \times B)$ . Then there exists an open set U in X and an open set V in Y such that  $A \subset U$ ,  $B \subset V$ , and  $f(U \times V) \subset W$ .

*Proof.* Since f is continuous,  $f^{-1}(W)$  is an open set in  $X \times Y$  containing  $A \times B$ . For each (x,y) in  $A \times B$ , there exist open sets M and N in X and Y, respectively, such that  $x \in M$ ,  $y \in N$ , and  $M \times N \subset f^{-1}(W)$ . Since B is compact, for a fixed  $x \in A$ , there are open sets

 $M_1,\ldots,M_n$  in X containing x and corresponding open sets  $N_1,\ldots,N_n$  in Y such that  $B\subset Q=N_1\cup\cdots\cup N_n$ . Let  $P=M_1\cap\cdots\cap M_n$ . Then P is open in X, Q is open in Y,  $x\in P$ ,  $B\subset Q$ , and  $P\times Q\subset f^{-1}(W)$ . Since A is compact, there exists open sets  $P_1,\ldots,P_m$  in X and corresponding  $Q_1,\ldots,Q_m$  open in Y such that  $B\subset V=Q_1\cap\cdots\cap Q_m$  and  $A\subset U=P_1\cup\cdots\cup P_m$ . It follows that U and V are the required open sets.

In 1.1, if one has the additional hypothesis that X is locally compact, then U can be chosen so that  $\overline{U}$  is compact, and likewise if Y is locally compact, then V can be chosen so that  $\overline{V}$  is compact.

2.2 Theorem. Let A and B be subsets of a topological semigroup S.

- (a) If A and B are compact, then AB is compact.
- (b) If A and B are connected, then AB is connected.

*Proof.* This is immediate from the fact that  $AB = m(A \times B)$ , where  $m : S \times S \rightarrow S$  is multiplication.

Observe that "compact" or "connected" can be replaced in 1.2 by any topological property which is productive and preserved by continuous functions, e.g., "arcwise connected".

- 1.3 Theorem. Let A and B be subsets of a topological semigroup S. Then:
- (a) If B is closed, then  $\{x \in S : xA \subseteq B\}$  is closed;
  - (b) If B is compact, then  $\{x \in S : A \subseteq xB\}$  is closed;
  - (c) If B is compact, then  $\{x \in S : xA \subseteq Bx\}$  is closed;
  - (d) If A is compact and B is open, then  $\{x \in S : xA \subset B\}$  is open; and
  - (e) If A is compact and B is closed, then  $\{x \in S : xA \cap B \neq \Box\}$  is closed.

*Proof.* To prove (a), let  $C = \{x \in S : xA \subseteq B\}$  and fix  $y \in S \setminus C$ . Then there exists  $a \in A$  such that  $ya \in S \setminus B$ . Since  $S \setminus B$  is open, there exist open sets M and N in S such that  $y \in M$ ,  $a \in N$ , and  $MN \subseteq S \setminus B$ . In particular, we have that  $Ma \subseteq S \setminus B$ . It follows that  $y \in M \subseteq S \setminus C$ ,  $S \setminus C$  is open, and hence C is closed.

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To prove (b), let  $F = \{x \in S : A \subseteq xB\}$  and fix  $y \in S \setminus F$ . Then  $a \notin yB$  for some  $a \in A$ . Since yB is compact, there exist disjoint open sets M and N such that  $a \in M$  and  $yB \subseteq N$ . In view of 1.1, we see that there exist open sets U and V such that  $y \in U$ ,  $B \subseteq V$ , and  $UV \subseteq N$ . In particular,  $UB \subseteq N$ ,  $UB \cap M = \square$ ,  $a \notin UB$ ,  $U \subseteq S \setminus F$ ,  $S \setminus F$  is open, and hence F is closed.

To prove (c), we apply 1.1 and the continuity of multiplication in S to conclude that  $\{x \in S : xA \subset Bx\}$  is closed if B is compact.

To prove (d), we again apply 1.1.

To prove (e), we apply (d).

To illustrate the usefulness of nets in topological semigroups, we present a net argument as an alternate proof of 1.3 (a).

To prove (a) using nets, let  $\{x_{\alpha}\}$  be a net in  $C = \{x \in S : xA \subset B\}$  such that  $\{x_{\alpha}\} \to x$  with  $x \in S$ , and let  $a \in A$ . Then  $\{x_{\alpha}a\} \to xa$  in B, and since B is closed,  $xa \in B$ . We obtain that  $xA \subset B$ ,  $x \in C$ , and hence C is closed.

If S is a semigroup,  $a \in S$ , and n is a positive integer, then  $a^n$  is defined recursively by  $a^1 = a$  and  $a^{k+1} = a^k a$ .

An element e of a semigroup S is called an *idempotent* if  $e^2 = e$ . The set of idempotents of S is denoted by E(S), or when no confusion seems likely, simply by E.

The set of idempotents of a semigroup may be empty, as is the case for the additive semigroup of positive integers. We will show later that if S is a compact semigroup, then E \neq \sigma. Moreover, in any topological semigroup S, we have that E is closed. The latter result we obtain as a consequence of the following topological result:

1.4 Theorem. Let X be a Hausdorff space and  $f: X \to X$  a continuous function. Then the set of fixed points of f is closed in X.

*Proof.* Define  $g: X \to X \times X$  by g(x) = (f(x),x). Then g is continuous and so  $g^{-1}(\Delta(X)) = \{x \in X : f(x) = x\}$  is closed, since the diagonal of a Hausdorff space X is closed in X × X.

1.5 Theorem. If S is a topological semigroup, then E(S) is a closed subset of S.

*Proof.* This is immediate from 1.4 and the observation that E is the set of fixed points of the continuous function  $x \rightarrow x^2$ .

1.6 Theorem. Let S be a topological semigroup. For e,  $f \in E(S)$ , define  $e \le f$  if ef = fe = e. Then  $\le$  is a partial order on E and is a closed subspace of  $S \times S$ .

Proof. The argument that  $\leq$  is a partial order on E is straight forward. To see that  $\leq$  is closed in S  $\times$  S, let  $\{(e_{\alpha}, f_{\alpha})\} \rightarrow (e, f)$  in S  $\times$  S with  $\{(e_{\alpha}, f_{\alpha})\}$  in  $\leq$ . Then  $\{e_{\alpha}\} \rightarrow e$  and  $\{f_{\alpha}\} \rightarrow f$ , and since E is closed in S, we have that  $(e, f) \in E \times E$ . Moreover,  $e_{\alpha} f = f_{\alpha} e = e_{\alpha}$  for all  $\alpha$ , so that the continuity of multiplication yields that ef = fe = f. We conclude that  $(e, f) \in \leq$  and  $\leq$  is closed.

If S is a semigroup and  $a \in S$ , then the function  $x \to xa$  is called right translation by a and is denoted  $\rho_a$ , and  $x \to ax$  is called left translation by a and is denoted  $\lambda_a$ . It is clear that if S is a topological semigroup and  $a \in S$ , then both  $\rho_a$  and  $\lambda_a$  are continuous. Moreover, in the case that S is a topological semigroup and  $e \in E$ , we have that  $\rho_e$  is a retraction of S onto Se,  $\lambda_e$  is a retraction of S onto eS, and  $\rho_e \circ \lambda_e = \lambda_e \circ \rho_e$  is a retraction of S onto eSe.

A semigroup S is said to be abelian (or commutative) if ab = ba for all  $a, b \in S$ .

An element e of a semigroup S is called a *left identity* for S if ex = x for all  $x \in S$ , a *right identity* for S if x = x for all  $x \in S$ , and an *identity* for S if e is both a left and right identity. Observe that if e is either a left or right identity for S, then  $e \in E$ . Moreover, if S has a left identity e and a right identity f, then e = ef = f is an identity for S. Thus each semigroup S can have at most one identity.

A semigroup which has an identity is called a monoid.

If S is a [topological] semigroup, we can adjoin an identity 1 to S [discretely] to form a new [topological] semigroup  $T = S \cup \{1\}$ . Note that if S is a compact semigroup, then T is a compact semigroup.

If S is a [topological] semigroup, then  $S^1 = S$  if S has an identity, and  $S \cup \{1\}$  [with 1 adjointed discretely] otherwise.

An element f of a semigroup S is called a *left zero* for S if fx = f for all  $x \in S$ , a right zero for S if xf = f for all  $x \in S$ , and a zero for S if f is both a left and right zero for S. As in the case of a left or right identity, a left or right zero for a semigroup S is an idempotent, and S can have at most one zero. If S is a [topological] semigroup, we can adjoin [discretely] a zero element in a manner analogous to that of adjoining an identity. We also define  $S^0$  to be the obvious analog of  $S^1$ .

If S is a semigroup with a zero 0, and x is an element of S such that  $x^n$  = 0 for some positive integer n, then x is called a nilpotent element of S.

A band is a semigroup S such that S = E(S), and a semilattice is a commutative band. Semilattices have been the topic for extensive study in both of the fields of algebraic and topological semigroups. A chapter of Volume II will be devoted to this topic.

We now turn to the presentation of a collection of examples of topological semigroups. Notation used in these examples will be applied throughout this book.

Let IN be the additive semigroup of positive integers with the discrete topology. Then IN is a non-compact abelian topological semigroup. Observe that  $E(IN) = \Box$ . Let  $IN = IN \cup \{\infty\}$  denote the one-point compactification of IN with  $x + \infty = \infty + x = \infty$  for each  $x \in IN$ . Then IN is a compact abelian semigroup with  $E(IN) = \{\infty\}$ , and  $\infty$  is a zero.

Let IH denote the additive semigroup of non-negative real numbers with the usual topology. Then IH is a locally compact  $\sigma$ -compact connected abelian semigroup with  $E(IH) = \{0\}$ , and 0 is an identity. Let  $IH^* = IH \cup \{\infty\}$  denote the one-point compactification of IH with  $\infty + x = x + \infty = \infty$  for each  $x \in IH^*$ . Then  $IH^*$  is a compact connected abelian semigroup with  $E(IH^*) = \{0,\infty\}$ , 0 is an identity, and  $\infty$  is a zero.

One can convert any non-empty Hausdorff space S into a topological semigroup by declaring that xy = x for all  $x, y \in S$ . A

semigroup with this multiplication is called a *left zero semigroup*. If we define xy = y for all  $x, y \in S$ , then S is called a *right zero semigroup*. For a left zero semigroup, the multiplication on S is simply first projection  $\pi_1: S \times S + S$ , and second projection if S is a right zero semigroup.

If S is a Hausdorff space,  $z \in S$ , and we define xy = z for all x,  $y \in S$ . Then S is called a zero semigroup, and is an abelian topological semigroup with zero z and  $E = \{z\}$ .

There are three fundamental types of semigroups on an interval which, as we will see later, are the building blocks of what we will call I-semigroups. We present these three basic examples now.

Let  $I_u$  = [0,1] be the real unit interval with the usual topology and usual multiplication. Then  $I_u$  is a compact abelian semigroup called the usual interval. Note that 0 is a zero, 1 is an identity,  $E = \{0,1\}$ , and  $I_u$  has no nilpotent elements except 0. We shall show later that  $I_u$  and  $I_u$  are the same semigroup in a certain sense.

Let  $I_n = [1/2,1]$  with the usual topology and multiplication  $(x,y) \mapsto \min\{x,y\}$ . Then  $I_m$  is a compact semilattice, 0 is a zero, and 1 is an identity. The semigroup  $I_m$  is called the *min interval*.

Let  $I_n = \{1/2,1\}$  with the usual topology and multiplication  $(x,y) \rightarrow \max\{1/2,xy\}$ , where xy is the usual product of x and y. Then  $I_n$  is a compact abelian semigroup,  $E = \{1/2,1\}$ , 1/2 is a zero, 1 is an identity, and each element of  $I_n \setminus \{1\}$  is nilpotent. The semigroup  $I_n$  is called the *nilpotent interval*.

# SUBSEMIGROUPS

A considerable portion of the study of topological semigroups deals with determining the algebraic and topological structure of subsemigroups of a given class of topological semigroups. For example, each compact connected monoid contains an irreducible subsemigroup, and one of the major results in compact semigroup theory is that irreducible semigroups are abelian [Hofmann and Mostert, 1966]. In this section we develop the concept of a subsemigroup and give some examples.

If A is a subset of a semigroup S and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $A^n$  is defined recursively by  $A^1 = A$  and  $A^{k+1} = A^k A$ .

A subsemigroup of a semigroup S is a non-empty subset T of S such that T<sup>2</sup> C T.

Observe that a subsemigroup T of a [topological] semigroup S is itself a [topological] semigroup under the restriction of the multiplication on S to T  $\times$  T.

If A is a subset of a semigroup S, then the set T of all finite products of elements of A is the smallest subsemigroup of S containing A and T is called the subsemigroup of S generated by A. Observe that  $T = \bigcup \{A^n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ .

It is evident that the intersection (if non-empty) of a collection of subsemigroups of a semigroup S is again a subsemigroup of S. To see that the union of subsemigroups need not be a subsemigroup, consider the semigroup IN and the semigroups  $\{2n:n\in\mathbb{N}\}$  and  $\{3n:n\in\mathbb{N}\}$ .

Certain subsemigroups of a given semigroup appear with such regularity in the remainder of this book that they are isolated here and some of their basic properties are presented.

If S is a semigroup and  $x \in S$ , then  $\theta(x) = \{x^n : n \in IN\}$  is an abelian subsemigroup of S and is the subsemigroup of S generated by x. If  $A \subset S$ , then  $Z(A) = \{b \in S : ba = ab \text{ for all } a \in A\}$  is called the centralizer of A in S, and  $N(A) = \{b \in S : bA = Ab\}$  is called the normalizer of A in S. The set Z(S) is called the center of S. If N(A) = S, then A is said to be normal in S. If N(S) = S, then S is called a normal semigroup.

If S is a topological semigroup and A and B are subsets of S, observe that  $\overline{AB} \subset \overline{AB}$ . If  $\overline{A}$  and  $\overline{B}$  are both compact then  $\overline{AB} = \overline{AB}$  since in this case,  $\overline{AB}$  is closed and contains AB.

From the preceding observations one can conclude that if T is a subsemigroup of a topological semigroup S, then  $\overline{T}$  is also a subsemigroup of S. Moreover, if T is abelian, then so is  $\overline{T}$ . To see this, let  $f: S \times S \to S \times S$  be defined by f(x,y) = (xy,yx). Then f is continuous and hence  $f^{-1}(\Delta)$  is closed. Now if T is abelian, then

 $T \times T \subseteq f^{-1}(\Delta)$ , and since  $\overline{T} \times \overline{T} = \overline{T \times T} \subseteq f^{-1}(\Delta)$ , we have that  $\overline{T}$  is abelian.

If A is a subset of a topological semigroup S, then the smallest closed subsemigroup of S containing A is the closure of the subsemigroup of S generated by A. In particular, if  $x \in S$ , then  $\Gamma(x) = \overline{\theta(x)}$  is a closed subsemigroup of S called the monothetic subsemigroup of S with generator x. If  $S = \Gamma(x)$ , then S is called a monothetic semigroup.

- <u>1.7 Theorem</u>. Let S be a topological semigroup,  $x \in S$ , A a non-empty subset of S, and  $e \in E(S)$ . Then:
- (a)  $\theta(x)$  is an abelian subsemigroup of S and is the smallest subsemigroup of S containing x;
- (b) Γ(x) is an abelian subsemigroup of S and is the smallest closed subsemigroup of S containing x;
- (c) eS is a closed subsemigroup of S with left identitye;
- (d) Se is a closed subsemigroup of S with right identity e;
- (e)  $eSe = eS \cap Se = \{x \in S : ex = x = xe\}$  is a closed subsemigroup of S with identity e;
- (f) Z(A) is a closed subsemigroup of S if  $Z(A) \neq \Box$ ;
- (g)  $Z(A) \subseteq N(A)$ ;
- (h) N(A) is a subsemigroup of S if  $N(A) \neq \square$ , and is closed if A is compact;
- (i) AS and SA are subsemigroup of S, and if S and A are compact, then AS and SA are closed; and
- (j) if  $E(S) \subseteq N(S)$ , then  $E(S) \subseteq Z(S)$ .

We close this section by presenting some examples of semigroups and mentioning certain of their distinguished subsemigroups.

Let  $\mathbb C$  denote the space of complex numbers with complex multiplication. Then  $\mathbb C$  is an abelian topological semigroup with a zero and an identity and no other idempotents. The non-zero elements of  $\mathbb C$  form a non-closed subsemigroup as do the non-zero real elements of