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# On the number of monogenic subsemigroups of semigroups $\mathbb{Z}_n$

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we describe the semigroups  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  (under multiplication) having *n* monogenic subsemigroups.

#### **1** Introduction and Preliminaries

In group theory, there are many articles that examine cyclic subgroups of groups, for example, [1], [2], [3], [4], [5] and [6]. Let G be a group and C(G) be the poset of cyclic subgroups of G. The connections between |C(G)| and |G| can be seen in [1], [4], [5] and [6]. Firstly, we recall the result in group theory: A finite group G is an elementary Abelian 2-group if and only if |C(G)| = |G|. In [6], Tărnăuceanu described the finite groups G having |G| - 1 cyclic subgroups. In [1], Belshoff, Dillstrom and Reid studied the

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finite groups G having |G| - r cyclic subgroups for r = 2, 3, 4 and 5. This is the motivation of this paper.

Let S be a semigroup and C(S) be the poset of monogenic subsemigroup of S. For  $a \in S$ , the monogenic subsemigroup of S generated by a is denoted by  $\langle a \rangle$  and  $\langle a \rangle = \{a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . Let  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$  be the semigroup of integers modulo n under multiplication and  $\mathbb{Z}_n^{\times} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_n \mid (x, n) = 1\}$ . It is a known fact that  $\mathbb{Z}_n^{\times}$  is a group under multiplication. For an element a in a group  $\mathbb{Z}_n^{\times}$ , o(a) denotes order of a, that is, the smallest positive integer k such that  $a^k = 1$ . If o(a) = k, then  $\langle a \rangle = \{1, a, a^2, \dots, a^{k-1}\}$ . A generator of a group  $\mathbb{Z}_n^{\times}$  is called a primitive root modulo n. It is well-known that there is a primitive root modulo n if and only if  $n = 2, 4, p^k$  or  $2p^k$ , where p is prime and p > 2. The purpose of this paper is to describe the semigroups  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ (under multiplication) having n monogenic subsemigroups. Throughout this paper, the greatest common divisor of integers a and b is denoted by (a, b).

### 2 Main Results

First of all, let us observe the number of the monogenic subsemigroups of semigroups  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  for n = 2, 3, 4, 5, 8.

**Example 2.1.** We find the number of monogenic subsemigroups of semigroups  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ , n = 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, as follows :

- n = 2Since  $\langle 0 \rangle = \{0\}$  and  $\langle 1 \rangle = \{1\}$  are only monogenic subsemigroups of  $\mathbb{Z}_2, |C(\mathbb{Z}_2)| = 2.$
- n = 3

We know that  $\langle 0 \rangle = \{0\}, \langle 1 \rangle = \{1\}$ , and  $\langle 2 \rangle = \{1, 2\}$  are only monogenic subsemigroups of  $\mathbb{Z}_3$ . Thus  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_3)| = 3$ .

• *n* = 4

The monogenic subsemigroups of  $\mathbb{Z}_4$  are  $\langle 0 \rangle = \{0\}, \langle 1 \rangle = \{1\}, \langle 2 \rangle = \{0, 2\}$ , and  $\langle 3 \rangle = \{1, 3\}$ . Then  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_4)| = 4$ .

• n = 5

All monogenic subsemigroups of  $\mathbb{Z}_5$  are  $\langle 0 \rangle = \{0\}, \langle 1 \rangle = \{1\}, \langle 2 \rangle = \{1, 2, 3, 4\} = \langle 3 \rangle$  and  $\langle 4 \rangle = \{1, 4\}$ . Hence  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_5)| = 4 \neq 5$ .

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• n = 8We found that  $\langle 0 \rangle = \{0\}, \langle 1 \rangle = \{1\}, \langle 2 \rangle = \{0, 2, 4\}, \langle 3 \rangle = \{1, 3\}, \langle 4 \rangle = \{0, 4\}, \langle 5 \rangle = \{1, 5\}, \langle 6 \rangle = \{0, 4, 6\}, \text{ and } \langle 7 \rangle = \{1, 7\} \text{ are all monogenic subsemigroups of } \mathbb{Z}_8.$  Thus  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_8)| = 8.$ 

Therefore the number of monogenic subsemigroups of semigroups  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  equals n, i.e.,  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_n)| = n$ , for n = 2, 3, 4, 8. However,  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_n)| \neq n$  for n = 5.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 2.1.**  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_p)| = p$  if and only if p = 2 or p = 3.

*Proof.* Assume that  $p \geq 5$ . Then there is a primitive root modulo p, say a. Thus  $\langle a \rangle = \{1, a, a^2, \ldots a^{p-2}\}$ . So  $a \neq a^{p-2}$ . Since (p-1, p-2) = 1,  $o(a) = o(a^{p-2})$ . This implies that  $\langle a \rangle = \langle a^{p-2} \rangle$ . Hence  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_p)| < p$ . The converse is already shown in Example 2.1 (n = 2, 3).

**Theorem 2.2.**  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_{2^k})| = 2^k$  for all k = 1, 2, 3.

*Proof.* Example 2.1 shows that the theorem is true for k = 1, 2, 3. Assume that k > 3. Then  $|\mathbb{Z}_{2^k}^{\times}| = 2^{k-1}$  and  $3 \in \mathbb{Z}_{2^k}^{\times}$ . So  $o(3)|2^{k-1}$ . We know that  $3^2 = 9 \neq 1$ , therefore  $o(3) \geq 4$ . Thus  $3 \neq 3^3$ . Since  $(3, 2^{k-1}) = 1$ , it implies that  $o(3) = o(3^3)$ . Therefore  $\langle 3 \rangle = \langle 3^3 \rangle$  which is a contradiction.

**Theorem 2.3.**  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_{3^k})| = 3^k$  if and only if k = 1.

Proof. The converse is already proved in Example 2.1 (n = 3). It remains to show that if  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_{3^k})| = 3^k$ , then k = 1. Assume, to the contrary, that k > 1. Note that  $\phi(3^k) = 2 \cdot 3^{k-1} \ge 6$ . Since there is a primitive root modulo  $3^k$ , let a be a primitive root modulo  $3^k$ . Thus  $\mathbb{Z}_{3^k}^{\times} = \langle a \rangle = \{1, a, a^2, \dots, a^{\phi(3^k)-1}\}$ . Since  $(\phi(3^k), \phi(3^k) - 1) = 1$ ,  $\langle a^{\phi(3^k)-1} \rangle = \langle a \rangle$ . Thus  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_{3^k})| < 3^k$  for k > 1.

**Theorem 2.4.**  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_{p^k})| < p^k$  for all prime number p > 3.

Proof. Let p be a prime number such that p > 3. So  $\phi(p^k) \ge 4$ . Then there is a primitive root modulo  $p^k$ , say a. Thus  $\mathbb{Z}_{p^k}^{\times} = \langle a \rangle = \{1, a, a^2, \dots, a^{\phi(p^k)-1}\}$ . Since  $a \ne a^{\phi(p^k)-1}$  and  $(\phi(p^k), \phi(p^k) - 1) = 1$ , this implies that  $\langle a^{\phi(p^k)-1} \rangle = \langle a \rangle$ . Therefore  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_{p^k})| < p^k$ .

The next theorem is well-known.

**Theorem 2.5.** If  $n = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_k^{a_k}$  for distinct primes  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k$  and  $a_i > 0$ , then

$$\mathbb{Z}_n \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p_1^{a_1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_2^{a_2}} \times \dots, \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_k^{a_k}}.$$

**Theorem 2.6.** Let  $S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_n$  be finite semigroups with zero. If  $S = S_1 \times S_2 \times \ldots \times S_n$ , then |C(S)| = |S| if and only if  $|C(S_i)| = |S_i|$  for all  $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ .

Proof. Assume that |C(S)| = |S| and suppose that there exists  $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ such that  $|C(S_i)| < |S_i|$ . Then there exist two distinct elements a and b in  $S_i$  such that  $\langle a \rangle = \langle b \rangle$ . Let  $a' = (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) \in S$  be such that  $a_i = a$ and  $a_j = 0$  if  $i \neq j$  and  $b' = (b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n) \in S$  be such that  $b_i = b$  and  $b_j = 0$  if  $i \neq j$ . It implies that  $a' \neq b'$  and  $\langle a' \rangle = \langle b' \rangle$ , this is a contradiction. Conversely, assume that  $|C(S_i)| = |S_i|$  for all  $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ . Suppose that |C(S)| < |S|. Then there exist two distinct elements  $a = (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$ and  $b = (b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n)$  in S such that  $\langle a \rangle = \langle b \rangle$ . Thus  $a_i \neq b_i$  for some  $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ . Clearly,  $\langle a_i \rangle = \langle b_i \rangle$  (because  $\langle a \rangle = \langle b \rangle$ ), which produces a contradiction. Hence |C(S)| = |S|.

From all the previous theorems, the next theorem holds.

**Theorem 2.7.**  $|C(\mathbb{Z}_n)| = n$  if and only if n = 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12, 24.

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