# SOME RESULTS ON SUBTRACTION ALGEBRAS 

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#### Abstract

In this paper, some additional concepts relating to subtraction algebras, the so called subalgebra, bounded subtraction algebra and unions of subtraction algebras, are introduced, and some properties are investigated.


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## 1. Introduction

B. M. Schein [7] considered systems of the form ( $\Phi ; \circ, \backslash$ ), where $\Phi$ is a set of functions closed under the composition "०" of functions (and hence ( $\Phi ; \circ$ ) is a function semigroup), and set theoretic subtraction " $\backslash$ " (and hence $(\Phi ; \backslash)$ is a subtraction algebra in the sense of [1]). He proved that every subtraction semigroup is isomorphic to a difference semigroup of invertible functions. B. Zelinka [8] discussed a problem proposed by B. M. Schein concerning the structure of multiplication in a subtraction semigroup. He solved the problem for subtraction algebras of a special type, called atomic subtraction algebras. Y. B. Jun, H.S. Kim and E. H. Roh [2] introduced the notion of ideals in subtraction algebras and discussed characterization of ideals. In [3], Y. B. Jun and H. S. Kim established the ideal generated by a set, and discussed related results. In [4], Y. B. Jun, Y. H. Kim and K. A. Oh introduced the notion of complicated subtraction algebras and investigated some related properties. In [6], K. J. Lee, Y. B. Jun, and Y. H. Kim introduced the notion of weak subtraction algebras and provided a method to make a weak subtraction algebra from a quasi-ordered set.

In this paper, some additional concepts concerning subtraction algebras, so called subalgebras, bounded subtraction algebras and unions of subtraction algebras, are introduced, and some properties are investigated.

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## 2. Preliminaries

An algebra ( $X ;-$ ) with a single binary operation "-" is called a subtraction algebra if for all $x, y, z \in X$ the following conditions hold:
(S1) $x-(y-x)=x$,
(S2) $x-(x-y)=y-(y-x)$,
(S3) $(x-y)-z=(x-z)-y$.
The subtraction determines an order relation on $X: a \leq b \Longleftrightarrow a-b=0$, where $0=a-a$ is an element that does not depend on the choice of $a \in X$.

The ordered set $(X ; \leq)$ is a semi-Boolean algebra in the sense of [1], that is, it is a meet semilattice with zero 0 in which every interval $[0, a]$ is a Boolean algebra with respect to the induced order. Here $a \wedge b=a-(a-b)$ and the complement of an element $b \in[0, a]$ is $a-b$.

In a subtraction algebra, the following are true [2, 5]:
(a1) $(x-y)-y=x-y$,
(a2) $x-0=x$ and $0-x=0$,
(a3) $(x-y)-x=0$,
(a4) $x-(x-y) \leq y$,
(a5) $(x-y)-(y-x)=x-y$,
(a6) $x-(x-(x-y))=x-y$,
(a7) $(x-y)-(z-y) \leq x-z$,
(a8) $x \leq y$ if and only if $x=y-w$ for some $w \in X$,
(a9) $x \leq y$ implies $x-z \leq y-z$ and $z-y \leq z-x$ for all $z \in X$,
(a10) $x, y \leq z$ implies $x-y=x \wedge(z-y)$,
(a11) $(x \wedge y)-(x \wedge z) \leq x \wedge(y-z)$,
(a12) $(x-y)-z=(x-z)-(y-z)$.
2.1. Definition. [2] A nonempty subset $A$ of a subtraction algebra $X$ is called an ideal of $X$ if it satisfies
(1) $0 \in A$,
(2) $(\forall x \in X)(\forall y \in A)(x-y \in A \Longrightarrow x \in A)$.
2.2. Lemma. [5] An ideal $A$ of a subtraction algebra $X$ has the following property:

$$
(\forall x \in X)(\forall y \in A)(x \leq y \Longrightarrow x \in A)
$$

2.3. Definition. [4] Let $X$ be a subtraction algebra. For any $a, b \in X$, let $G(a, b)=$ $\{x \in X: x-a \leq b\}$. Then $X$ is said to be complicated if for any $a, b \in X$ the set $G(a, b)$ has a greatest element.

Note that $0, a, b \in G(a, b)$. The greatest element of $G(a, b)$ is denoted by $a+b$.

## 3. Results

3.1. Proposition. Let $X$ be a subtraction algebra and $I$ a subset of $X$. Then $I$ is an ideal of $X$ if and only if $G(x, y) \subseteq I$ for all $x, y \in I$.

Proof. $\Longrightarrow$. Let $I$ be an ideal and $x, y$ any elements of $I$. For any $z \in G(x, y)$, we have $z-x \leq y$. Hence $z-x \in I$ from Lemma 2.2. Then we obtain $z \in I$ since $I$ is an ideal.
$\Longleftarrow$. If $G(x, y) \subseteq I$, for all $x, y \in I$ we have $0 \in I$ since $0 \in G(x, y)$. For any $b \in I$ and $a \in X$, let $a-b \in I$. Then $G(a-b, b) \subseteq I$. Hence, since $a-(a-b) \leq b$ from (a4), we obtain $a \in G(a-b, b) \subseteq I$. Hence, $a \in I$.
3.2. Definition. Let $X$ be a subtraction algebra and $Y$ a nonempty subset of $X$. Then $Y$ is called a subalgebra of $X$ if $x-y \in Y$ whenever $x, y \in Y$.
3.3. Theorem. Let $X$ be a subtraction algebra and $Y$ a subalgebra of $X$. Then the following conditions hold:
(a) $0 \in Y$,
(b) $Y$ is a subtraction algebra,
(c) $\{0\}$ is a subalgebra of $X$,
(d) $X$ is a subalgebra of $X$,
(e) For any $x, y$ in $X, G(x, y)$ is a subalgebra of $X$.
(f) Any ideal I of $X$ is a subtraction algebra.

Proof. (a)-(d) follow easily from the definition.
(e) For $a, b \in G(x, y)$, we have $a-x \leq y$ and $b-x \leq y$. Then, from (a12) and (a10) and the fact that $u \wedge v=v \wedge u \leq u, v$, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
(a-b)-x & =(a-x)-(b-x) \\
& =(a-x) \wedge(y-(b-x)) \\
& \leq y-(b-x) \\
& \leq y .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $a-b \in G(x, y)$.
(f) For any $x, y \in I$, from (a3) we have $(x-y)-x=0 \in I$, then $x-y \in I$.
3.4. Definition. Let $X$ be a subtraction algebra and $x \in X$. Then, the set $A(x)=$ $\{y \in X: y \leq x\}$ is called the initial section of $x$.
3.5. Theorem. In a subtraction algebra $X, A(x) \cap A(y)=A(x \wedge y)$ for all $x, y \in X$.

Proof. Let $z \in A(x) \cap A(y)$. Then we have $z \leq x$ and $z \leq y$. From (a9) we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
z-(x-y) \leq x-(x-y) \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and since $x-y \leq x-z$,
(3.2) $z-(x-z) \leq z-(x-y)$.

From (3.1), (3.2) and (S1), we get $z=z-(x-z) \leq z-(x-y) \leq x-(x-y)=x \wedge y$. Hence $z \in A(x \wedge y)$.

Now let $z \in A(x \wedge y)$. We have $z \leq x-(x-y) \leq y$ from (a4), and we get $z \in A(y)$. Using (S2) and (a4), we obtain $z \leq x-(x-y)=y-(y-x) \leq x$. Hence $z \in A(y)$. So $z \in A(x) \cap A(y)$.
3.6. Definition. Let $X$ be a subtraction algebra. If there is an element 1 of $X$ satisfying $x \leq 1$ for all $x$ in $X$, then $X$ is called a bounded subtraction algebra.

In a bounded subtraction algebra $X$, we denote $1-x$ by $x^{\prime}$.
3.7. Example. [4] Let $X=\{0, a, b, c\}$ be a subtraction algebra with the following Cayley table:

| - | 0 | $a$ | $b$ | $c$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| $a$ | $a$ | 0 | $a$ | 0 |
| $b$ | $b$ | $b$ | 0 | 0 |
| $c$ | $c$ | $b$ | $a$ | 0 |

Then for all $x \in X$ we have $x-c=0$. Hence $X$ is a bounded subtraction algebra.
3.8. Theorem. In a bounded subtraction algebra, the following properties hold:
(i) $1^{\prime}=0,0^{\prime}=1$,
(ii) $\left(x^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} \leq x$,
(iii) $x^{\prime}-y^{\prime} \leq y-x$,
(iv) $x \leq y$ implies $y^{\prime} \leq x^{\prime}$,
(v) $x^{\prime}-y=y^{\prime}-x$,
(vi) $x-x^{\prime}=x, x^{\prime}-x=x^{\prime}$,
(vii) $x \wedge x^{\prime}=0$,
(vii) $\left(\left(x^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=x^{\prime}$.

Proof. (i) $1^{\prime}=1-1=0,0^{\prime}=1-0=1$,
(ii) $\left(x^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=1-x^{\prime}=1-(1-x) \leq x$,
(iii) From (a7) and (S3), we have

$$
0=((x-y)-(z-y))-(x-z)=((x-y)-(x-z))-(z-y)
$$

Hence we have $((x-y)-(x-z)) \leq(z-y)$. So, we obtain $x^{\prime}-y^{\prime}=(1-x)-(1-y) \leq y-x$.
(iv) If $x \leq y$ then, with (a9), we get $1-y \leq 1-x$.
(v) $x^{\prime}-y=(1-x)-y=(1-y)-x=y^{\prime}-x,($ from $(\mathrm{S} 3))$.
(vi) $x-x^{\prime}=x-(1-x)=x$, and $x^{\prime}-x=(1-x)-x=1-x=x^{\prime},($ from $(\mathrm{S} 1))$.
(vii) $x \wedge x^{\prime}=x-\left(x-x^{\prime}\right)=x-x=0$.
(viii) $\left(\left(x^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=1-(1-(1-x))=1-x=x^{\prime},($ from $(\mathrm{a} 6))$.
3.9. Proposition. If $X$ is a bounded subtraction algebra, then for all $x \in X$ the following hold:

$$
x+1=1+x=1 \text { and } x+x^{\prime}=1
$$

Proof. Since $x+1 \in X$ and $X$ is bounded, we have $x+1 \leq 1$. Also, for all $y \in X$, since $y-x \leq 1$ we have $y \leq x+1$. Then, we obtain $1 \leq x+1$. Hence $x+1=1$. Furthermore, since $y \leq 1$, we get $y-x \leq 1-x=x^{\prime}$, or $y \leq x+x^{\prime}$ for all $y \in X$. So we have $1 \leq x+x^{\prime}$, and therefore $x+x^{\prime}=1$.

Let $S(X)=\left\{x \in X:\left(x^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=x\right\}$, where $X$ is a bounded subtraction algebra. Since $\left(1^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=0^{\prime}=1$ and $\left(0^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=1^{\prime}=0$, we have $0,1 \in S(X)$.
3.10. Theorem. If $X$ is a bounded subtraction algebra, then

$$
x-y^{\prime}=y-x^{\prime}
$$

for all $x, y \in S(X)$.

Proof. Using Theorem $3.3(\mathrm{v})$, we have $x-y^{\prime}=\left(x^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}-y=\left(y^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}-x^{\prime}=y-x^{\prime}$.
3.11. Theorem. If $X$ is a bounded subtraction algebra, then $S(X)$ is a bounded subalgebra of $X$.

Proof. We know that $1 \in S(X)$. Let $x, y \in S(X)$. We need to show that $x-y \in S(X)$, that is, $\left((x-y)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=x-y$. From Theorem 3.8 (ii), we have $\left((x-y)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} \leq x-y$. Also we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
(x-y)-\left((x-y)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} & =\left(x-\left((x-y)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}\right)-y, \quad(\text { using }(\mathrm{S} 3)) \\
& =\left((x-y)^{\prime}-x^{\prime}\right)-y, \quad(\text { from Theorem 3.10 }) \\
& =\left((x-y)^{\prime}-y\right)-x^{\prime}, \quad(\text { using }(\text { S3 })) \\
& =\left(y^{\prime}-(x-y)\right)-x^{\prime}, \quad(\text { from Theorem } 3.8(\mathrm{v})) \\
& =\left(y^{\prime}-x\right)-(x-y), \quad(\text { using }(\text { S3 })) \\
& \left.=\left(\left(x^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}-y\right)-(x-y), \quad \text { from Theorem } 3.10\right) \\
& =(x-y)-(x-y), \quad(\text { since } x \in S(X)) \\
& =0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then we obtain $x-y \in S(X)$, and hence $S(X)$ is a bounded subalgebra of $X$.
3.12. Theorem. Suppose $X$ is a bounded complicated subtraction algebra. Then $S(X)$ is a complicated subalgebra.
Proof. For all $a, b \in S(X)$, it suffices to show that $a+b \in S(X)$. We know from [4, Proposition 3.4] that $a, b \leq a+b$. From Theorem 3.8 (vi), we have $(a+b)^{\prime} \leq a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}$. Hence $a=\left(a^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} \leq\left((a+b)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}$ and $b=\left(b^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} \leq\left((a+b)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}$. Then from [4, Proposition 3.4 and Proposition 3.5], and the property $x+x=x$, we obtain

$$
a \leq\left((a+b)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} \Longrightarrow a+b \leq\left((a+b)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+b \leq\left((a+b)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}+\left((a+b)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=\left((a+b)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} \leq a+b .
$$

Then it follows that $a+b=\left((a+b)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}$, and so we have $a+b \in S(X)$.
3.13. Theorem. Let $\left(X_{1} ;-1\right)$ and $\left(X_{2} ;-2\right)$ be two subtraction algebras and $X_{1} \cap X_{2}=$ $\{0\}$. We define the operation - on $X=X_{1} \cup X_{2}$ as follows

$$
x-y= \begin{cases}x-{ }_{1} y, & \text { if } x, y \in X_{1} \\ x-2 y, & \text { if } x, y \in X_{2}, \\ x, & \text { if } x \text { and } y \text { belong to different algebras }\end{cases}
$$

Then, $X$ is a subtraction algebra.
Proof. It is easy to verify the axioms (S1)-(S3), and the proof is omitted.
3.14. Definition. Let $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ be two subtraction algebras and $X_{1} \cap X_{2}=\{0\}$. If the set $X=X_{1} \cup X_{2}$ is the subtraction algebra with the operation defined in Theorem 3.12, then $X$ is called the union of $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$, and is denoted by $X=X_{1} \oplus X_{2}$.

Note that in $X=X_{1} \oplus X_{2}$, if $x$ and $y$ do not belong to same algebra, then $x$ and $y$ are not comparable. Furthermore $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are subalgebras of $X$.

Similarly, if $X_{i}$ are subtraction algebras for all $i \in I$ and $X_{i} \cap X_{j}=\{0\}$ for $i, j \in I$, $i \neq j$, where $I$ is an index set, the union algebra $X=\bigoplus_{i \in I} X_{i}$ can be defined in a similar way.
3.15. Example. Let $X_{1}=\{0, a, b, c, d\}$ and $X_{2}=\{0, e, f, g\}$ be two subtraction algebras with Cayley tables as follows:

| $-_{1}$ | 0 | $a$ | $b$ | $c$ | $d$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| $a$ | $a$ | 0 | $a$ | $a$ | $a$ |
| $b$ | $b$ | $b$ | 0 | $b$ | $b$ |
| $c$ | $c$ | $c$ | $c$ | 0 | $c$ |
| $d$ | $d$ | $d$ | $d$ | $d$ | 0 |,


| $-{ }_{2}$ | 0 | $e$ | $f$ | $g$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| $e$ | $e$ | 0 | $e$ | 0 |
| $f$ | $f$ | $f$ | 0 | 0 |
| $g$ | $g$ | $f$ | $e$ | 0 |.

Then $X=\{0, a, b, c, d, e, f, g\}$ is the union subtraction algebra with the following Cayley table:

| -1 | 0 | $a$ | $b$ | $c$ | $d$ | $e$ | $f$ | $g$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| $a$ | $a$ | 0 | $a$ | $a$ | $a$ | $a$ | $a$ | $a$ |
| $b$ | $b$ | $b$ | 0 | $b$ | $b$ | $b$ | $b$ | $b$ |
| $c$ | $c$ | $c$ | $c$ | 0 | $c$ | $c$ | $c$ | $c$ |
| $d$ | $d$ | $d$ | $d$ | $d$ | 0 | $d$ | $d$ | $d$ |
| $e$ | $e$ | $e$ | $e$ | $e$ | $e$ | 0 | $e$ | 0 |
| $f$ | $f$ | $f$ | $f$ | $f$ | $f$ | $f$ | 0 | 0 |
| $g$ | $g$ | $g$ | $g$ | $g$ | $g$ | $f$ | $e$ | 0 |.

3.16. Theorem. Let $\left(X_{1} ;-1\right)$ and $\left(X_{2} ;-2\right)$ be two subtraction algebras which have at least two elements. Then the union $X=X_{1} \oplus X_{2}$ is not a complicated subtraction algebra.

Proof. Suppose $x, y$ are non-zero elements in $X$ and $x \in X_{1}, y \in X_{2}$. Then $x, y \in G(x, y)$, but there is no non-zero $c$ such that $x \leq c$ and $y \leq c$. This means that $G(x, y)$ does not have a greatest element. So $X$ is not a complicated subtraction algebra.
3.17. Lemma. Let $x, y$ be any elements of a subtraction algebra $X$. If $A(x \wedge y)=\{0\}$ then $x-y=x$ and $y-x=y$.
Proof. By (a4), since $x \wedge y \leq y$ and $x \wedge y \leq x$, we have $x \wedge y \in A(x)$ and $x \wedge y \in A(y)$. Since $A(x \wedge y)=\{0\}$ we have $x \wedge y=x-(x-y)=0$ or $x \leq x \wedge y$. We also know that by (a3), $(x-y)-x=0$ or $x-y \leq x$. Then $x-y=x$ is valid. Similarly it can be proved that $y-x=y$.
3.18. Theorem. Let $X$ be a subtraction algebra, $\left\{X_{i}: i \in I\right\}$ a family of subsets of $X$. If the conditions
a) $X=\bigcup_{i \in I} X_{i}$,
b) $X_{i} \cap X_{j}=\{0\}, i \neq j$,
c) $x \in X_{i}$ implies $A(x) \subseteq X_{i}$ for any $i \in I$,
are satisfied, then all the $X_{i}$ are subalgebras of $X$ and $X$ is the union of the $X_{i}$.
Proof. For any $x, y \in X_{i}$, from (a3) since $(x-y)-x=0$, we have $x-y \leq x$ or $x-y \in A(x)$. Hence by (c), $x-y \in X_{i}$ and so $X_{i}$ is a subalgebra of $X$. Now let $x \in X_{i}$ and $y \in X_{j}, i \neq j$. By using the hypothesis and Lemma 3.17, we have $x-y=x$ and $y-x=y$. So we obtain $X$ is the union of all the $X_{i}$.

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