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# SEMIGROUPS AND THEIR SUBSEMIGROUP LATTICES

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1. Introduction. Let S be a semigroup of order at least 2, and L(S) be the system of all subsemigroups of S. Generally L(S), including the empty subset, is a lattice with respect to inclusion. L(S) is called the subsemigroup lattice of S. A semigroup S contains at least one nonempty subsemigroup besides S itself. In the previous paper [4], as the first step towards the investigation of the structure of S with a given type of L(S), we determined all the  $\Gamma$ -semigroups,<sup>1</sup> namely, the semigroups S's in which L(S)'s are chains. In the present paper we shall define  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroups as generalization of  $\Gamma$ -semigroups and shall obtain all the types of  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroups except for infinite simple  $\Gamma^*$ -groups.

Since all the semigroups of order 2 are  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroups, we shall treat non-trivial  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroups, namely, those of order  $\geq 3$  in the discussion below. First, in §2 we shall prove that  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroups of order  $\geq 3$  are unipotent, i.e., having a unique idempotent, and that they are periodic; and hence a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup is determined by a group and a Z-semigroup, i.e., a unipotent semigroup with zero. Accordingly, in §3 we shall determine all the types of  $\Gamma^*$ -Z-semigroups which will have to be of order <5; in §4 we shall treat solvable  $\Gamma^*$ -groups and prove that finite  $\Gamma^*$ -groups or non-simple  $\Gamma^*$ -groups are solvable; finally in §5, unipotent  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroups which are neither groups nor Z-semigroups will be discussed. It is interesting that there are no infinite unipotent  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroups except groups.

For convenience, the results from the paper [4] are stated as follows:

LEMMA 1.1. A semigroup is a  $\Gamma$ -semigroup if and only if it has one of the following types.<sup>2</sup> Except for (1.3) they are all cyclic semigroups, i.e., semigroups generated by an element d. We show defining relations below.

(1.1) Z-semigroups:

(1.1.1)	$d^{\scriptscriptstyle 2}=d^{\scriptscriptstyle 3}$	(order 2)
(1.1.2)	$d^{\scriptscriptstyle 3}=d^{\scriptscriptstyle 4}$	(order 3)

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The author called them  $\Gamma$ -monoids in [4].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> As the trivial case, a semigroup of order 1 is also regarded as a  $\Gamma$ -semigroup. This remark will be needed for the definition of a  $\Gamma$ \*-semigroup.

(1.2) Cyclic groups  $G(p^m)$  of a prime power order:  $d = d^{p^{m+1}}$ (1.3) Quasicyclic groups [1]:  $G(p^{\infty})$ , i.e.,

$$G(p^{\infty}) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} G(p^k)$$

where  $Q(p) \subset G(p^2) \subset \cdots \subset G(p^k) \subset \cdots$ , p being a prime.

(1.4) Unipotent semigroups of order n, the kernel (the least ideal) of which is a group  $G(p^m)$ :

# 2. Preliminaries.

DEFINITION. A semigroup S is called a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup if every subsemigroup different from S is a  $\Gamma$ -semigroup.

S is a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup if and only if the subsemigroup lattice L(S) is a lattice satisfying

(2.1) Any subset which cantains the greatest element 1 is a subsemilattice with respect to join, equivalently to

(2.1') Let x, y be any elements of a lattice. Then

$$x \cup y = x$$
 or  $y$  or  $1$ .

Notation. If X and Y are subsets of S, X | Y means either  $X \subseteq Y$ or  $X \supseteq Y; X || Y$  means that X and Y are incomparable, that is, neither is contained in the other.  $((X, Y, \dots))$  denotes the subsemigroup generated by  $X, Y, \dots$ . In particular, ((x)) denotes the subsemigroup generated by an element x, ((x, y)) the subsemigroup generated by elements x and y, while  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$  is the set composed of  $x_1, x_2, \dots$ .

S is a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup if and only if any two subsemigroups A and B satisfy the following condition: A || B implies S = ((A, B)). Of course a  $\Gamma$ -semigroup is a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup. Since the homomorphic image of a  $\Gamma$ -semigroup is also a  $\Gamma$ -semigroup, we get easily

LEMMA 2.1. A homomorphic image of a  $I^*$ -semigroup is a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup.

LEMMA 2.2. A  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup is periodic.

*Proof.* Suppose there is an element x of infinite order. S con-

tains an infinite cyclic subsemigroup  $\{x^i; i = 1, 2, \dots\}$ . Hence we can consider a proper subsemigroup<sup>3</sup> T of S.

$$T = \{x^{2i}; i = 1, 2, \cdots\}$$

which contains two incomparable subsemigroups  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ :

$$T_{\scriptscriptstyle 1} = \{x^{\scriptscriptstyle 4i};\, i=1,\,2,\,\cdots\}$$
 ,  $T_{\scriptscriptstyle 2} = \{x^{\scriptscriptstyle 6i};\, i=1,\,2,\,\cdots\}$  ,

This contradicts the assumption of S.

By Lemma 2.2, we have seen that a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup has at least one idempotent. However, we have

## THEOREM 2.1. A $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup of order >2 is unipotent.

Proof. Suppose that a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup S of order >2 contains at least two idempotents, say, e, f. First, since e is a right identity of Se, and f is a left identity of fS, we see easily that if Se = fS, then e = f. Second, we shall say that either both of Se and Sf or both of eS and fS are proper subsemigroups. Suppose either of Se and Sf is equal to S, say, Se = S. Then, by the above fact,  $fS \subset S$ , and so we have to show  $eS \subset S$ . Let us assume Se = eS = S. There is a proper subsemigroup  $\{e, f\}$  of order 2 because ef = fe = f; but  $\{e, f\}$  is not a  $\Gamma$ -semigroup since e and f are both idempotents. This is a contradiction. Therefore  $eS \subset S$ .

Next, assume that both eS and fS are proper subsemigroups of S. Since eS and fS are  $\Gamma$ -semigroups with left identities, they are groups by Lemma 1.1. We shall prove that  $\{e, f\}$  is a proper subsemigroup which is not a  $\Gamma$ -semigroup, and then the contradiction will be derived. For proof, the idempotency of ef and fe is shown as follows:

$$(ef)(ef) = (efe)f = (ef)f = e(ff) = ef$$
  
 $(fe)(fe) = (fef)e = (fe)e = f(ee) = fe$ 

because e and f are two-sided identities of the groups eS and fS respectively. Since  $ef \in eS$  and  $fe \in fS$ , we have

$$ef = e$$
,  $fe = f$ 

whence  $\{e, f\}$  is a subsemigroup. We can have the same result, when  $Se \subset S$  and  $Sf \subset S$ . Thus the proof of the theorem has been completed.

LEMMA 2.3. The index of an element a of a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup S cannot exceed 3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> By "a proper subsemigroup T of S" we mean "a subsemigroup T which is different from S."

*Proof.* Let a have index greater than 1. Then  $((a)) - \{a\}$  is a  $\Gamma$ -semigroup, so  $((a^2)) | ((a^3))$ . Hence there is a positive integer n such that either

 $a^2 = a^{3n}$  or  $a^3 = a^{2n}$ .

This shows that a has index 2 or 3.

3.  $\Gamma^*$ -Z-Semigroups. In this section we shall determine the types of  $\Gamma^*$ -Z-semigroups, i.e., unipotent  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup with zero 0.

Let S be a  $\Gamma^*$ -Z-semigroup with 0. Since S is periodic, every element of S is nilpotent, that is, some power of the element is 0. By Lemma 2.3,

$$x^{\scriptscriptstyle 3}=0$$
 for all  $x\in S$ .

LEMMA 3.1. x = xy implies x = 0; x = yx implies x = 0.

*Proof.*  $x = xy = xy^2 = xy^3 = 0$ ; the proof of the second part is obtained in a similar way.

LEMMA 3.2. If  $x^2 = 0$ , then xy = yx = 0 for all y.

*Proof.* We may assume  $x \neq 0$ , let  $y \neq 0$ . If ((x)) | ((xy)), xy = 0 because of Lemma 3.1. If ((x)) || ((xy)), then S = ((x, xy)) and so y = xu for some u.

$$xy = x^2u = 0$$
.

The proof of yx = 0 is similar.

To determine the types of  $\Gamma^*$ -Z-semigroups, we consider the possible three cases:

Case I.  $x^2 = 0$  for all  $x \neq 0$ .

Case II. There exists only one nonzero element x such that  $x^3 = 0$ ,  $x^2 \neq 0$ .

Case III. There exist at least two nonzero elements x and y such that  $x^3 = 0$ ,  $x^2 \neq 0$ ,  $y^3 = 0$ ,  $y^2 \neq 0$ .

THEOREM 3.1. S is a non-trivial  $\Gamma^*$ -Z-semigroup if and only if S is isomorphic or anti-isomorphic to one of the following:

Case I.  $S = \{0, a, b\}$  where xy = 0 for all  $x, y \in S$ .

Case II.  $S = \{0, a, a^2\}$  where  $a^3 = 0$ . This is a  $\Gamma$ -semigroup which is isomorphic to (1.1.2).

Case III.  $S = \{0, a, b, c\}$  where  $a^2 = b^2 = c$ ,  $a^2x = xa^2 = 0$  for all  $x \in S$ .

Proof.

Case I. Let a and b be distinct nonzero elements of S. Since  $((a)) \parallel ((b)), S = ((a, b))$ . By Lemma 3.2, we have ab = ba = 0. Hence

$$S = ((a, b)) = \{0, a, b\}$$
.

Case II. Let a be an element with index 3. Suppose that there is  $b \in S - ((a))$ . In the present case we know  $b^2 = 0$ . By Lemma 3.2, ab = ba = 0, whence  $A = \{0, a^2, b\}$  is a subsemigroup which does not contain a, and hence A is a  $\Gamma$ -semigroup. On the other hand, since  $b \neq a^2$ , we have  $((a^2)) \parallel ((b))$ . It is impossible in a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup S. Therefore S = ((a)).

Case III. Let a and b be distinct nonzero elements, both of which have index 3. Since  $(a^2)^2 = (b^2)^2 = 0$ , Lemma 3.2 gives us

(3.1) 
$$a^2b = ba^2 = b^2a = ab^2 = 0$$
 and so  $a^2b^2 = b^2a^2 = 0$ .

Using (3.1) and Lemma 3.2 repeatedly, since  $(aba)^2 = aba^2ba = 0$ , we have

$$(3.2) (ab)^2 = (aba)b = 0$$

and hence

(3.3) aba = 0.

Similarly we get

(3.3') bab = 0.

Now we have two subsemigroups  $T = ((a^2, b^2))$  and  $U = ((ab, a^2))$ :

$$T=((a^{\scriptscriptstyle 2},\,b^{\scriptscriptstyle 2}))=\{0,\,a^{\scriptscriptstyle 2},\,b^{\scriptscriptstyle 2}\}
i a$$

where we see  $a \neq b^2$ , otherwise,  $a = b^2$  would imply  $a^2 = 0$ ; also

 $U = ((ab, a^2)) = \{0, ab, a^2\} \not\ni b$ .

Accordingly both T and U are  $\Gamma$ -semigroups and so

 $((a^2)) | ((b^2))$  and  $((ab)) | ((a^2))$ .

The first implies (3.4); the second implies (3.5)

 $(3.4) a^2 = b^2$ 

(3.5)  $ab = a^2 \text{ or } 0$ .

Similarly we have

(3.5')  $ba = a^2$  or 0.

Clearly ((a)) || ((b)). By (3.1) through (3.5'),

 $S = ((a, b)) = \{0, a, b, a^2\}$ 

which consists of exactly four elements. Thus we have obtained the three types for Case III. It is easy to show that the systems thus obtained are  $\Gamma^*$ -Z-semigroups.

4.  $\Gamma^*$ -groups. By Lemma 2.2, a group G is a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup if and only if it is a  $\Gamma^*$ -group, i.e, every proper gubgroup of G is a  $\Gamma$ -group. By Lemma 1.1, every  $\Gamma$ -group is of type  $G(p^k), k \leq \infty$ . In this chapter we determine all solvable  $\Gamma^*$ -groups. We also show that every finite  $\Gamma^*$ -group is solvable. The question whether infinite simple  $\Gamma^*$ -groups can exist remains open.

LEMMA 4.1. Let G be a non-abelian solvable  $\Gamma^*$ -group which is not also a  $\Gamma$ -group. Then G contains a proper normal subgroup  $N \neq 1$  and an element a not in N, such that

(4.1) 
$$N \parallel ((a)), \text{ so that } G = ((N, a))$$

(4.2)  $a^q \in N$  for a prime number q.

**Proof.** Since G is solvable, it contains a proper normal subgroup N such that G/N is abelian.  $N \neq 1$  since G is not abelian. Since N is a proper subgroup of G, it is a  $\Gamma$ -group. Since G is not itself a  $\Gamma$ -group, there exist a and b in G such that  $((a)) \parallel ((b))$ , and then we have G = ((a, b)). If  $N \parallel ((b))$ , then (4.1) holds with b instead of a. To prove (4.1) suppose  $N \parallel ((b))$ . If  $N \supseteq ((b))$ , then  $N \not\supseteq ((a))$ , since N is a  $\Gamma$ -group; and  $((a)) \parallel ((b))$ , and  $N \nsubseteq ((a))$  since otherwise  $((b)) \subseteq N \subseteq ((a))$ . Hence  $N \parallel ((a))$  in this case. If  $N \subseteq ((b))$ , then, since G/N is abelian,  $aba^{-1}b^{-1} \in N \subseteq ((b))$ , so  $aba^{-1} \in ((b))b \subseteq ((b))$ . Since G = ((a, b)), we conclude that N' = ((b)) is a normal subgroup of G, and (4.1) holds with N' instead of N. Hence N and a exist such that (4.1) holds. Let k be the least positive integer such that  $a^k \in N$ ,

and let k = k'q with q a prime. Let  $a' = a^{k'}$ . Then (4.1) and (4.2) hold with a' instead of a.

THEOREM 4.1. Let G be a solvable  $I^*$ -group which is not a  $\Gamma$ -group. Then one of the following holds:

- (4.3) G is a group of order pq, p and q primes excluding the cyclic group of order  $p^2$ .
- (4.4) G is the quaternion group of order 8.

*Proof.* First let us take the case G abelian. If G were directly indecomposable, it would be isomorphic with  $G(p^k)$  for some  $k \leq \infty$  (cf. Theorem 10, p. 22, [2]), and so would be a  $\Gamma$ -group. Hence G is directly decomposable:  $G = G_1 \times G_2$  where  $G_1 \neq 1$ ,  $G_2 \neq 1$ . Let  $a_i$  be an element of  $G_i$  of prime order  $p_i$  (i = 1, 2). Then  $((a_1)) || (a_2)$ ), so  $G = ((a_1, a_2)) = ((a_1)) \times ((a_2))$ . Thus G has type (4.3).

Let G be non-abelian. By Lemma 4.1, G contains a proper normal subgroup  $N \neq 1$ , and an element a not in N such that  $N \mid\mid ((a))$  and  $a^q \in N$  for some prime q. Since N is a proper subgroup of G, it is isomorphic with  $G(p^k)$  for some prime p and some  $k \leq \infty$ . Hence  $a^q$  has prime power order  $p^n$ , say.

If  $q \neq p$ , then  $a_1 = a^{p^n} \notin N$ , and  $a_1^q = 1$ . If b is any element of N of order p, we have  $((a_1)) || ((b))$  and hence  $G = ((a_1, b))$ . Since  $a_1 N a_1^{-1} \subseteq N$ , and every subgroup of N is characteristic,  $a_1((b)) a_1^{-1} \subseteq ((b))$ . Hence G is an extension of the cyclic group ((b)) of order p by the cyclic group  $((a_1))$  of order q.

We may now assume q = p. Since  $N \not\subseteq ((a))$ , there exists b in N such that  $b^p = a^p$ . Let  $c = a^p = b^p$ . Since c commutes with a and b, and G = ((a, b)), c belongs to the center C of G. If c = 1, then, as in the above statements, G is an extension of the cyclic group ((b)) of order p by the cyclic group ((a)) of order p. Hence we may assume that the order of c is  $p^n$  with n > 0.

Since ((b)) is invariant under a, we have  $aba^{-1} = b^r$  for some positive integer r > 1. Then

$$c = b^{\,p} = a b^{\,p} a^{\,-1} = (a b a^{-1})^{\,p} = b^{r\,p} = c^r$$
 ,

whence  $r = 1 + sp^n$  for some integer s. Hence

$$aba^{-1} = b^r = bd$$
 or  $b^{-1}aba^{-1} = d \neq 1$ 

where  $d = b^{sp^n} = c^{sp^{n-1}}$  is an element of C of order p. As in the familiar way,

$$(ab^{-1})^p = d^{p(p-1)/2}a^pb^{-p} = d^{p(p-1)/2}.$$

If p is odd, we conclude that  $(ab^{-1})^p = 1$ . Let  $a_1 = ab^{-1}$ . Then  $a_1^p = 1$ and this case is reduced to the previous case c = 1. We are left with the case p = 2. Setting  $a_1 = ab^{-1}$ , we have  $a_1^2 = d$ . Let  $b_1$  be an element of N such that  $b_1^2 = d$ . Then  $G = ((a_1, b_1))$ , and  $((b_1))$  is invariant under  $a_1$ . Since  $b_1^4 = 1$ , and G is not abelian, we must have

$$a_{\scriptscriptstyle 1} b_{\scriptscriptstyle 1} a_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}^{_{-1}} = b_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}^{\scriptscriptstyle 3}$$
 .

Together with  $a_1^4 = b_1^4 = 1$ , this shows that G is the quaternion group of order 8. Thus this theorem has been proved.

**THEOREM 4.2.** A finite  $\Gamma^*$ -group is solvable.

**Proof.** For  $\Gamma$ -groups, the theorem is obvious. Let G be a finite  $\Gamma^*$ -group which is not a  $\Gamma$ -group. If G is of order  $p^m$  of a prime power, then this theorem holds, since G has a normal subgroup of order  $p^{m-1}$  by the familiar theorem of p-groups. So we may assume that the order of G has at least two distinct prime divisors.

First we shall prove that G has a proper normal subgroup. Let M be a Sylow subgroup of G, and consider the normalizer H of M. If H = G, then M is normal; if  $M \subseteq H \subset G$ , then H is a  $\Gamma$ -group, a cyclic group. By Burnside's theorem ([8], p. 169), G has a proper normal subgroup N such that G = NH,  $N \cap H = 1$ .

Since N is a proper subgroup, it is a  $\Gamma$ -group, say,  $G(p^{\alpha_1})$ . Then, suppose the order of the factor group G/N is

$$(4.5) \qquad \qquad p^{\alpha_2}q^\beta r^\gamma \cdots, \quad \alpha_2 \ge 0, \, \beta \ge 1, \quad \gamma \ge 0, \, \cdots$$

which has a prime divisor  $q \neq p$ . Since G/N has a subgroup of order q, G has a proper subgroup of order  $p^{\alpha_1}q$ , which contains two incomparable subgroups, unless

$$(4.6) \qquad \qquad \alpha_2=0, \, \beta=1 \; .$$

Thus we have proved that the index of N is a prime q.

**THEOREM 4.3.** A non-simple  $\Gamma^*$ -group is solvable.

**Proof.** Let G be a non-simple  $\Gamma^*$ -group and N be a proper normal subgroup of G. We may assume that G/N contains a proper subgroup  $\overline{H}$  of prime order p, since G/N is a  $\Gamma^*$ -group and so G/N is periodic. Consider a coset xN which is a generator of  $\overline{H}$  and take an element  $a \in xN$ . Then H = ((a)) is a group of order p, and there is a subgroup K of G such that  $K/N \cong \overline{H}$ . Clearly K = NH. On the other hand, since  $N \parallel H$ , we have G = ((N, H)) = NH = K. Accordingly,  $G/N \cong \overline{H}$ , which is prime order. Thus the proof has been completed.

Consequently, (4.3) and (4.4) of Theorem 4.1 give us all the types of finite or non-simple  $\Gamma^*$ -groups which are not  $\Gamma$ -groups.

# 5. Unipotent $\Gamma^*$ -semigroups.

1. In this chapter we shall discuss unipotent  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroups S's which are neither groups nor Z-semigroups. By Lemma 2.2 and Theorem 2.1 we see that a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup S of order >2 is a unipotent inversible semigroup. By "inversible" we mean "for any element a of S there is an element b such that ab = e where e is a unique idempotent." According to [5], [6], a unipotent inversible semigroup which contains properly a group is determined by a group G (or kernel, i.e., least ideal), and a Z-semigroup D (the difference semigroup of S modulo G), and certain mapping of the bases of D into G:  $a \rightarrow ea$ .

First of all we shall prove that the kernel is finite.

LEMMA 5.1. Let S be a unipotent inversible semigroup with the kernel G of type  $G(p^k)$ , k being infinite or finite, and let d be an element of S which is not in G such that ed generates  $G(p^m)$ , m < k, and  $d^{i-1} \notin G(p^k)$ ,  $d^i \in G(p^k)$ . Then there is a subsemigroup H of order  $p^{m+1} + l - 1$  of S which contains two incomparable subsemigroups:  $G(p^{m+1})$  and  $\{d^i; i \geq 1\}$ .

*Proof.* Let 
$$a = ed$$
. As is easily seen (cf. [5]), we have

 $(5.1) a = ed = de, d^i = a^i, i \ge l$ 

(5.2) xd = dx = xa = ax for every  $x \in G$ .

Especially for  $x \in G(p^{m+1})$ ,  $xd = dx \in G(p^{m+1})$ . Therefore the set union  $H = G(p^{m+1}) \cup \{d^i; l-1 \ge i \ge 1\}$  is a subsemigroup of S; and the two subsemigroups  $G(p^{m+1})$  and  $\{d^i; i \ge 1\}$  are incomparable, because  $\{d^i; i \ge l\} \subseteq G(p^m)$ .

THEOREM 5.1. Let S be a unipotent inversible semigroup which is neither a group nor a Z-semigroup. If S is a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup, then S is finite.

**Proof.** The proper subgroup G is a  $\Gamma$ -group  $G(p^{\infty})$  or  $G(p^{n})$ , and the difference semigroup D = (S; G) of S modulo G in Rees' sense [3] is a  $\Gamma^*$ -Z-semigroup of order  $\leq 4$  by theorems in §3. There is an element  $z_1$  outside G such that  $z_1^2 \in G$ , for example, we may take a nonzero annihilator as  $z_1$  (cf. [6]); and let m be a positive integer such that  $ez_1$  generates a subgroup  $G(p^m)$ . If S is infinite, then G is of the type  $G(p^{\infty})$  and so S has a proper subsemigroup of order  $p^{m+1} + 1$ , which contains two incomparable subsemigroups by Lemma 5.1. This contradicts the definition of  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroups of S. Thus the theorem has been proved.

Hereafter we shall determine the desired semigroups S in each case according as the order of D.

2. The case with D of order 2.

Let  $G(p^n)$  denote the kernel of S, and let d be a unique element outside  $G(p^n)$ . Of course  $d^2 \in G(p^n)$ .  $G(p^k)$  denotes the subgroup generated by a = ed. If k = n, then, by (5.1), we have

$$S=\{d^i;\,i\ge 1\}$$
 ,  $G(p^n)=\{d^i;\,i\ge 2\}$ 

that is, S is a  $\Gamma$ -semigroup of type (1.4.1) or (1.4.2.1).

If k < n, then by Lemma 5.1 there is a subsemigroup  $H = G(p^{k+1}) \cup \{d\}$  of order  $p^{k+1} + 1$  which contains two incomparable subsemigroups, so that S = H and hence we have k = n - 1. In other words, a is a generator of  $G(p^{n-1})$ ; this a determines S and there is a unique S to within isomorphism, independent of choice of generator a (cf. [6]). Conversely, a semigroup S thus obtained is easily seen to be a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup. In fact, by (5.1) we see that a proper subsemigroup incomparable to  $G(p^n)$  is nothing but

$$G(p^{n-1}) \cup \{d\} = ((d))$$
.

3. The case with D of type Case I of order 3.

Let  $S = G(p^n) \cup \{d_1, d_2\}$  where  $d_1d_2, d_1^2, d_2^2, d_2d_1 \in G(p^n)$ . S is determined by the two elements  $a_1, a_2$ , i.e.,

$$a_{\scriptscriptstyle 1} = ed_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}$$
 ,  $a_{\scriptscriptstyle 2} = ed_{\scriptscriptstyle 2}$ 

where  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  can be taken independently arbitrarily. The propersubsemigroups  $G(p^n) \cup \{d_1\}$  and  $G(p^n) \cup \{d_2\}$  are  $\Gamma$ -semigroups of type (1.4.1) or (1.4.2.1). We have already known that  $a_1$  and  $a_1$  are the generators of  $G(p^n)$ , and

$$G(p^n) \cup \{d_1\} = ((d_1)) \;, \qquad G(p^n) \cup \{d_2\} = ((d_2)) \;.$$

We can easily prove that there are two possible distinct types

$$a_1=a_2$$
 ,  $a_1
eq a_2$ 

in all cases except for the case p = 2 and n = 1. They are immediately seen to be  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroups.

4. The case with D of type Case II of order 3. Let d be a generator of D:  $D = \{0, d, d^2\}, d^3 = 0$ , and let S =  $G(p^n) \cup \{d, d^2\}$ . We shall prove that a = ed generates  $G(p^n)$ . Suppose that an element a generates  $G(p^k)$ , k < n. Then, since  $ed^2 = (ed)^2$  and  $(d^2)^2 \in G(p^n)$ ,  $ed^2$  generates a subgroup  $G(p^m)$ ,  $m \leq k$ , and a subsemigroup  $K = G(p^{m+1}) \cup \{d^2\}$  contains two incomparable subsemigroups by Lemma 5.1. K is a proper subsemigroup of S because

$$p^{m+1} + 1 < p^n + 2$$
 .

This contradicts the assumption of  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup of S. Hence it has been proved that  $G(p^n)$  is generated by ed. Accordingly we get  $G(p^n) = \{d^i; i \ge 3\}$  by (5.1), whence S is generated by d. In the same way as the Case with D of order 2, we see that arditrary different generators of  $G(p^n)$  give some isomorphic S's.

The remaining thing to do is to testify the subsemigroup lattice of such semigroups.

If  $p \neq 2$ , then  $ed^2$  generates  $G(p^n)$ , and only a proper subsemigroup between S and  $G(p^n)$  is

$$((d^2)) = G(p^n) \cup \{d^2\}$$
 by (5.1)

and so S is a I-semigroup of type (1.4.2.2).

If p = 2, then  $ed^2$  generates  $G(2^{n-1})$  and so, by Lemma 5.1, we have a proper subsemigroup

$$G(2^n) \cup \{d^2\}$$

which contains two incomparable  $G(2^n)$  and  $((d^2))$ . Therefore, S is not a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup.

5. The case with D of order 4.

Let  $S = G(p^n) \cup \{d_1, d_2, d_3\}$  where  $d_1 = d_2^2 = d_3^2$ . D has any one of the types of Case III with elements denoted by  $d_1, d_2, d_3$  instead of a, b, c, respectively. Since the proper subsemigroups  $G(p^n) \cup \{d_1, d_2\}$ and  $G(p^n) \cup \{d_1, d_3\}$  are both  $\Gamma$ -semigroups of type (1.4.2.2), we have by (5.1)

$$G(p^n) \cup \{d_1, d_2\} = ((d_2)) \;, \qquad G(p^n) \cup \{d_1, d_3\} = ((d_3))$$

where  $p \neq 2$ , and  $a_2 = ed_2$  and  $a_3 = ed_3$  are both generators of  $G(p^n)$ . One the other hand, there are relations between  $a_2$  and  $a_3$  as follows: (We called these relations the primary equations for D in [6], §3.)

$$a_2^2 = a_3^2$$
 in Case III<sub>3</sub>,  
 $a_2 = a_3$  in Cases III<sub>1</sub> and III<sub>2</sub>.

We see easily that  $a_2^2 = a_3^2$  in  $G(p^n)$  implies  $a_2 = a_3$  because  $p \neq 2$ . Thus for  $G(p^n)$  and each D, there is a unique S to within isomorphism. As far as the subsemigroups containing  $G(p^n)$  are concerned, besides  $((d_2))$  and  $((d_3))$ , there is  $((d_1))$  and we have

$$((d_1)) = ((d_2)) \cap ((d_3))$$

because  $p \neq 2$ . Accordingly it can be seen that S is a  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroup. Thus we have

THEOREM 5.2. When  $G(p^n)$  is given, all the possible unipotent  $\Gamma^*$ -semigroups S whose kernel is  $G(p^n)$  and which are not  $\Gamma$ -semigroups are determined as shown below. Let e be the unique idempotent of S, and let  $D = (S: G(p^n))$ . We remark  $G(p^0) = 1$ ,  $G(p^{-1}) = empty$ .

(5.3.1) In the case D of order 2,  $S = G(p^n) \cup \{d\}, n \neq 0$ ,  $ed \in G(p^{n-1}) - G(p^{n-2})$ 

(5.3.2) In the case D of order 3, D is of Case I and  $S = G(p^n) \cup \{d_1, d_2\}, n \neq 0$ 

 $(5.3.2.1) ed_1 = ed_2 \in G(p^n) - G(p^{n-1})$ 

 $(5.3.2.2) \qquad p^{n} \neq 2, \, ed_{1} \neq ed_{2}, \quad and \quad ed_{1}, \, ed_{2} \in G(p^{n}) - G(p^{n-1})$ 

(5.3.3) In the case D of order 4,  $S = G(p^n) \cup \{d_1, d_2, d_3\}, d_2^2 = d_3^2 = d_1, n \neq 0, p \neq 2$ 

(5.3.3.1) D of type Case III<sub>1</sub>)

(5.3.3.2)  $D \text{ of type Case III}_2 \left\{ ed_2 = ed_3 \in G(p^n) - G(p^{n-1}) \right\}.$ 

 $(5.3.3.3) D of type Case III_3$ 

After all, under the given  $G(p^n)$ , if  $p \neq 2$ , then there are six types of S; if p = 2 and  $n \neq 1$ , then three types of S; if p = 2 and n = 1, then two types of S.

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