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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 Γ -semigroups,¹ namely, the semigroups S 's in which $L(S)$'s are chains. In the present paper we shall define Γ^* -semigroups as generalization of Γ -semigroups and shall obtain all the types of Γ^* -semigroups except for infinite simple Γ^* -groups.

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

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

LEMMA 1.1. *A semigroup is a Γ -semigroup if and only if it has one of the following types.² 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:*

$$(1.1.1) \quad d^2 = d^3 \quad (\text{order } 2)$$

$$(1.1.2) \quad d^3 = d^4 \quad (\text{order } 3)$$

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¹ The author called them Γ -monoids in [4].

² As the trivial case, a semigroup of order 1 is also regarded as a Γ -semigroup. This remark will be needed for the definition of a Γ^* -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* $G(p^m)$:

(1.4.1) if $p = 2$ $d^3 = d^{2^m+2}$ (order $n = 2^m + 1$)

(1.4.2) if $p \neq 2$

(1.4.2.1) $d^3 = d^{p^m+2}$ (order $n = p^m + 1$)

(1.4.2.2) $d^3 = d^{p^m+3}$ (order $n = p^m + 2$)

2. Preliminaries.

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

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

(2.1) Any subset which contains 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

$$x \cup y = x \text{ or } y \text{ or } 1.$$

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

LEMMA 2.1. *A homomorphic image of a Γ^* -semigroup is a Γ^* -semigroup.*

LEMMA 2.2. *A Γ^* -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 subsemigroup³ T of S .

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

which contains two incomparable subsemigroups T_1 and T_2 :

$$T_1 = \{x^{4i}; i = 1, 2, \dots\}, \quad T_2 = \{x^{6i}; i = 1, 2, \dots\}.$$

This contradicts the assumption of S .

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

THEOREM 2.1. *A Γ^* -semigroup of order >2 is unipotent.*

Proof. Suppose that a Γ^* -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 Γ -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 Γ -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 Γ -semigroup, and then the contradiction will be derived. For proof, the idempotency of ef and fe is shown as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} (ef)(ef) &= (efe)f = (ef)f = e(ff) = ef \\ (fe)(fe) &= (fef)e = (fe)e = f(ee) = fe \end{aligned}$$

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

$$ef = e, \quad fe = f$$

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 Γ^* -semigroup S cannot exceed 3.*

³ 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 Γ -semigroup, so $((a^2)) \mid ((a^3))$. Hence there is a positive integer n such that either

$$a^2 = a^{3n} \quad \text{or} \quad a^3 = a^{2n}.$$

This shows that a has index 2 or 3.

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

Let S be a Γ^* -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,

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

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 $((x)) \mid ((xy))$, $xy = 0$ because of Lemma 3.1. If $((x)) \parallel ((xy))$, 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 Γ^* -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 Γ^* -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 Γ -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 $x \in S$.

Subcase III₁ $ab = ba = c$

Subcase III₂ $ab = c, ba = 0$

Subcase III₃ $ab = ba = 0$

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 Γ -semigroup. On the other hand, since $b \neq a^2$, we have $((a^2)) \parallel ((b))$. It is impossible in a Γ^* -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

$$(3.1) \quad a^2b = ba^2 = b^2a = ab^2 = 0 \quad \text{and so} \quad a^2b^2 = b^2a^2 = 0.$$

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

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

and hence

$$(3.3) \quad aba = 0.$$

Similarly we get

$$(3.3') \quad bab = 0.$$

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

$$T = ((a^2, b^2)) = \{0, a^2, b^2\} \not\ni a$$

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 Γ -semigroups and so

$$((a^2)) \parallel ((b^2)) \quad \text{and} \quad ((ab)) \parallel ((a^2)) .$$

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

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

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

Similarly we have

$$(3.5') \quad ba = a^2 \quad \text{or} \quad 0 .$$

Clearly $((a)) \parallel ((b))$. 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 Γ^* - Z -semigroups.

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

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

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

$$(4.2) \quad a^q \in N \quad \text{for a prime number } q .$$

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 Γ -group. Since G is not itself a Γ -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 $N \not\parallel ((b))$. If $N \supseteq ((b))$, then $N \not\supseteq ((a))$, since N is a Γ -group; and $((a)) \parallel ((b))$, and $N \not\supseteq ((a))$ 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 Γ -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 Γ -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 $((a_1)) \parallel ((a_2))$, 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 $N \parallel ((a))$ 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 $((a_1)) \parallel ((b))$ 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

$$c = b^p = ab^p a^{-1} = (aba^{-1})^p = b^{rp} = c^r,$$

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

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

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

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

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 $G = \langle (a_1, b_1) \rangle$, and $\langle (b_1) \rangle$ is invariant under a_1 . Since $b_1^4 = 1$, and G is not abelian, we must have

$$a_1 b_1 a_1^{-1} = b_1^3.$$

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 Γ^* -group is solvable.*

Proof. For Γ -groups, the theorem is obvious. Let G be a finite Γ^* -group which is not a Γ -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 Γ -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 Γ -group, say, $G(p^{a_1})$. Then, suppose the order of the factor group G/N is

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

which has a prime divisor $q \neq p$. Since G/N has a subgroup of order q , G has a proper subgroup of order $p^{a_1} q$, which contains two incomparable subgroups, unless

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

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

THEOREM 4.3. *A non-simple Γ^* -group is solvable.*

Proof. Let G be a non-simple Γ^* -group and N be a proper normal subgroup of G . We may assume that G/N contains a proper subgroup \bar{H} of prime order p , since G/N is a Γ^* -group and so G/N is periodic. Consider a coset xN which is a generator of \bar{H} and take an element $a \in xN$. Then $H = \langle (a) \rangle$ is a group of order p , and there is a subgroup K of G such that $K/N \cong \bar{H}$. Clearly $K = NH$. On the other hand, since $N \parallel H$, we have $G = \langle (N, H) \rangle = NH = K$. Accordingly, $G/N \cong \bar{H}$, 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 Γ^* -groups which are not Γ -groups.

5. Unipotent Γ^* -semigroups.

1. In this chapter we shall discuss unipotent Γ^* -semigroups S 's which are neither groups nor Z -semigroups. By Lemma 2.2 and Theorem 2.1 we see that a Γ^* -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 $d^{l-1} \notin G(p^k)$, $d^l \in G(p^k)$. 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

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

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

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

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

Proof. The proper subgroup G is a Γ -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 Γ^* - Z -semigroup of order ≤ 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 Γ^* -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

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

that is, S is a Γ -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 Γ^* -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 $d_1 d_2, d_1^2, d_2^2, d_2 d_1 \in G(p^n)$. S is determined by the two elements a_1, a_2 , i.e.,

$$a_1 = ed_1, \quad a_2 = ed_2$$

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

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

We can easily prove that there are two possible distinct types

$$a_1 = a_2, \quad a_1 \neq a_2$$

in all cases except for the case $p = 2$ and $n = 1$. They are immediately seen to be Γ^* -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 Γ^* -semigroup of S . Hence it has been proved that $G(p^n)$ is generated by ed . Accordingly we get $G(p^n) = \{d^i; i \geq 3\}$ by (5.1), whence S is generated by d . In the same way as the Case with D of order 2, we see that arbitrary 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

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

and so S is a Γ -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 Γ^* -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 Γ -semigroups of type (1.4.2.2), we have by (5.1)

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

where $p \neq 2$, and $a_2 = ed_2$ and $a_3 = ed_3$ are both generators of $G(p^n)$. On 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.)

$$\begin{aligned} a_2^2 &= a_3^2 && \text{in Case III}_3, \\ a_2 &= a_3 && \text{in Cases III}_1 \text{ and III}_2. \end{aligned}$$

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 Γ^* -semigroup. Thus we have

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

(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) $p^n \neq 2, ed_1 \neq ed_2$, and $ed_1, ed_2 \in G(p^n) - G(p^{n-1})$

(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 III₁ }
 (5.3.3.2) D of type Case III₂ } $ed_2 = ed_3 \in G(p^n) - G(p^{n-1})$.
 (5.3.3.3) D of type Case III₃ }

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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