BULL. AUSTRAL. MATH. SOC. 20M20
VOL. 69 (2004) [87–106]

BAER-LEVI SEMIGROUPS OF PARTIAL TRANSFORMATIONS

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Let X be an infinite set and suppose $\aleph_0 \leqslant q \leqslant |X|$. The Baer-Levi semigroup on X is the set of all injective 'total' transformations $\alpha : X \to X$ such that $|X \setminus X\alpha| = q$. It is known to be a right simple, right cancellative semigroup without idempotents, its automorphisms are "inner"; and some of its congruences are restrictions of Malcev congruences on $I(X)$, the symmetric inverse semigroup on X. Here we consider algebraic properties of the semigroup consisting of all injective 'partial' transformations α of X such that $|X \setminus X\alpha| = q$: in particular, we describe the ideals and Green's relations of it and some of its subsemigroups.

1. INTRODUCTION

Throughout this paper, X is an infinite set with cardinal p, and q is a cardinal such that $\aleph_0 \leqslant q \leqslant p$. Let $P(X)$ denote the semigroup (under composition) of all *partial* transformations of X (that is, all mappings $\alpha : A \to B$ where $A, B \subseteq X$). If $\alpha \in P(X)$, we write $\operatorname{dom}\alpha$ for the *domain* of α and $\operatorname{ran}\alpha$ for its *range*. We also write

$$G(\alpha) = X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\alpha, \quad g(\alpha) = \big|G(\alpha)\big|,$$
$$D(\alpha) = X \setminus \operatorname{ran}\alpha, \quad d(\alpha) = \big|D(\alpha)\big|.$$

and refer to these cardinals as the *gap* and the *defect* of α, respectively.

As usual, $I(X)$ denotes the *symmetric inverse semigroup* on X ([**1**, Vol. 1, p. 29]): namely, the set of all injective mappings in $P(X)$. We write

$$BL(q) = \big\{\alpha \in I(X) : g(\alpha) = 0,\ d(\alpha) = q\big\}$$

and call this the *Baer-Levi semigroup* on X: as shown in ([**1**, Vol. 2, Section 8.1]), it is a right simple, right cancellative semigroup without idempotents; and any semigroup with these properties can be embedded in some Baer-Levi semigroup. Note that the ideals and Green's relations on $BL(q)$ are trivial. In addition, every automorphism φ

Received 7th July, 2003
This paper forms part of work by the first author for a PhD supervised by the second author who gratefully acknowledges the generous support of Centro de Matematica, Universidade do Minho, Portugal during his visit in May–July 2002. Both authors acknowledge the support of the Portuguese Foundation for Science and Technology (FCT) through the research program POCTI.

of $BL(q)$ is "inner": that is, there exists $g \in G(X)$, the symmetric group on X, such that $\alpha\varphi = g\alpha g^{-1}$ for all $\alpha \in BL(q)$ [**5**]. And some congruences on $BL(q)$ are known to be restrictions of Malcev congruences on $T(X)$, the semigroup consisting of all *total* transformations of X (that is, $\alpha \in P(X)$ such that $\operatorname{dom}\alpha = X$) [**6**].

In this paper, we examine a related semigroup:

$$PS(q) = \{\alpha \in I(X) : d(\alpha) = q\}$$

which we call the *partial Baer-Levi semigroup* on X (as first defined in [**9**, p. 82]). In contrast with $BL(q)$, this semigroup always contains idempotents. In fact, $PS(q)$ always contains an inverse semigroup $R(q) = \{\alpha \in PS(q) : g(\alpha) = q\}$ which, together with $BL(q)$, generates $PS(q)$ in a very specific way. Also Green's relations and ideals are much more complicated. In Sections 4 and 5 we describe the latter for both $PS(q)$ and $R(q)$: this will be the basis for subsequent work regarding the congruences on $PS(q)$.

2. Basic properties

In what follows, $Y = A \dot{\cup} B$ means Y is a *disjoint* union of A and B. Also, $\emptyset$ denotes the empty (one-to-one) mapping which acts as a zero for $P(X)$. In particular, $d(\emptyset) = p$, so $\emptyset \in PS(q)$ precisely when $q = p$. For each non-empty $A \subseteq X$, we write id_A for the identity transformation on A: these mappings constitute all the idempotents in $I(X)$ and belong to $PS(q)$ precisely when $|X \setminus A| = q$.

We adopt the convention introduced in [**1**, Vol. 2, p. 241]: namely, if $\alpha \in P(X)$ is non-zero then we write

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} A_i \\ x_i \end{pmatrix}$$

and take as understood that the subscript i belongs to some (unmentioned) index set I, that the abbreviation $\{x_i\}$ denotes $\{x_i : i \in I\}$, and that $X\alpha = \operatorname{ran}\alpha = \{x_i\}$, $x_i\alpha^{-1} = A_i$ and $\operatorname{dom}\alpha = \bigcup\{A_i : i \in I\}$.

Recall that a semigroup S is *right reductive* if $ax = bx$ for all $x \in S$ implies $a = b$ (and dually for *left reductive*: see [**1**, Vol. 1, p. 9]).

Theorem 1. *If $\aleph_0 \leqslant q \leqslant p$ then $PS(q)$ is a right and left reductive semigroup with idempotents. Moreover, $PS(q)$ contains a zero precisely when $q = p$.*

Proof: If $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} X \setminus X\alpha\beta &= X \setminus X\beta \cup [X\beta \setminus X\alpha\beta] \\ &= X \setminus X\beta \cup [(X \setminus X\alpha) \cap \operatorname{dom}\beta]\beta \end{aligned}$$

and in the last equation, the first set on the right has cardinal q and the second has cardinal at most q, thus $\alpha\beta \in PS(q)$. Also $PS(q)$ contains idempotents since we can write $X = A \dot{\cup} B$ where $|A| = p, |B| = q$ and then $\mathrm{id}_A \in PS(q)$. In addition, if ζ is a zero for $PS(q)$ then $\zeta = \zeta . \mathrm{id}_A$, hence $\mathrm{ran}\,\zeta \subseteq A$, for all $A \subseteq X$ such that $|X \setminus A| = q$. In particular, if $x \notin D(\zeta)$ and we choose $B \subseteq X$ such that $x \notin B$ and $\left|X \setminus (B \cup \{x\})\right| = q$ then $D(\zeta)$ contains $B \cup \{x\}$, a contradiction. Thus, every element of X belongs to $D(\zeta)$ and this occurs only when $q = p$.

To show $PS(q)$ is right reductive, suppose $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$ and $\alpha\gamma = \beta\gamma$ for all $\gamma \in PS(q)$. If $\alpha, \beta \neq \emptyset$ then $\mathrm{id}_{X\alpha} \in PS(q)$, so $\alpha = \alpha . \mathrm{id}_{X\alpha} = \beta . \mathrm{id}_{X\alpha}$ and this implies $X\alpha \subseteq X\beta$. The reverse inclusion also holds since $\mathrm{id}_{X\beta} \in PS(q)$. Hence $X\alpha = X\beta$ and it follows that $\alpha = \beta$. If (say) $\alpha = \emptyset$ then $q = p$ and $\beta\gamma = \emptyset$ for all $\gamma \in PS(q)$. In particular, $\beta . \mathrm{id}_{\{b\}} = \emptyset$ for all $b \in X\beta$ and thus $\beta = \emptyset$.

Now suppose $\gamma\alpha = \gamma\beta$ for all $\gamma \in PS(q)$. If $\alpha, \beta \neq \emptyset$, let $b \in \mathrm{dom}\,\alpha$ and write $X = \{b\} \dot{\cup} \{x_i\} \dot{\cup} \{x_j\}$ where $|I| = p, |J| = q$. Then

$$\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} x_i & b \\ x_i & b \end{pmatrix} \in PS(q)$$

and $b \in \mathrm{dom}\,\gamma\alpha = \mathrm{dom}\,\gamma\beta$, so $b \in \mathrm{dom}\,\beta$. Hence, $\mathrm{dom}\,\alpha \subseteq \mathrm{dom}\,\beta$ and the reverse inclusion also holds. It follows that $b\alpha = b\beta$ for all $b \in \mathrm{dom}\,\alpha = \mathrm{dom}\,\beta$ and hence $\alpha = \beta$. If (say) $\alpha = \emptyset$ and $x \in X$ then, as before, $\mathrm{id}_{\{x\}} \in PS(q)$, so $\mathrm{id}_{\{x\}} . \beta = \emptyset$ for all $x \in X$ and this implies $\beta = \emptyset$. ∎

EXAMPLE 1. Unlike $BL(q)$, the semigroup $PS(q)$ is not right cancellative nor right simple. For, suppose $X = A \dot{\cup} B$ where $|A| = p$, $|B| = q$, $A = \{a_i\}$ and $b, c \in B$ are distinct. If

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a_i & b \\ a_i & b \end{pmatrix}, \ \beta = \begin{pmatrix} a_i & b \\ a_i & c \end{pmatrix}$$

then $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$ and $\alpha . \mathrm{id}_A = \beta . \mathrm{id}_A$ but $\alpha \neq \beta$. Also, suppose $X = A \dot{\cup} B \dot{\cup} C$ where $|A| = p$ and $|B| = |C| = q$. If $\alpha = \mathrm{id}_{A \cup B}$ and $\beta = \mathrm{id}_{A \cup C}$, both of which are in $PS(q)$, then $C \cap \mathrm{dom}\,\alpha\gamma = \emptyset$ for each $\gamma \in PS(q)$. Therefore, since $C \subset \mathrm{dom}\,\beta$, there is no $\gamma \in PS(q)$ such that $\beta = \alpha\gamma$: that is, $PS(q)$ is not right simple.

A subsemigroup S of $P(X)$ is $G(X)$-*normal* if $g\alpha g^{-1} \in S$ for all $\alpha \in S$ and all $g \in G(X)$. Clearly $PS(q)$ is $G(X)$-normal and, if $q = p$, then $PS(q)$ *covers* X: that is, for each $x \in X$, there is an idempotent constant map (namely, $\mathrm{id}_{\{x\}}$) in $PS(q)$ with range $\{x\}$. Hence, by [**9**] Theorem 3, if $q = p$ then every automorphism of $PS(q)$ is 'inner' (as defined in Section 1 above) and moreover $\mathrm{Aut}\,PS(q)$ is isomorphic to $G(X)$. When $q < p$, $PS(q)$ does not contain any constant maps. Nonetheless, by [**4**, Theorem 3.18], every automorphism of $PS(q)$ is inner in this case also.

We aim to show that $\operatorname{Aut} PS(q)$ is also isomorphic to $G(X)$ when $q < p$. For this, we first need to know that if $\varphi \in \operatorname{Aut} PS(q)$ then there exists a *unique* $h \in G(X)$ such that $\alpha\varphi = h^{-1}\alpha h$ for all $\alpha \in PS(q)$. In other words, if $h, k \in G(X)$ and $h^{-1}\alpha h = k^{-1}\alpha k$ for all $\alpha \in PS(q)$ then $h = k$. To show this, we use some ideas from [**5**] and let

$$C(p,q) = \{A \subseteq X : |A| = p, |X \setminus A| = q\}.$$

If $A \in C(p,q)$ and α is any bijection from X onto A then $\alpha \in PS(q)$ and $Xh^{-1}\alpha h = Ah$, so $Ah = Ak$ for all $A \in C(p,q)$. Fix $x \in X$ and write $X = A \dot{\cup} B \dot{\cup} \{x\}$ where $|A| = p$ and $|B| = q$. Since h and k are injective,

$$(A \cup \{x\})h = Ah \dot{\cup} \{x\}h \quad \text{and} \quad (A \cup \{x\})k = Ah \dot{\cup} \{x\}k.$$

Therefore, since $(A \cup \{x\})h = (A \cup \{x\})k$, we find that $xh = xk$ for all $x \in X$, hence $h = k$. We can now prove the following result.

Theorem 2. *If $q < p$ then $\operatorname{Aut} PS(q)$ is isomorphic to $G(X)$.*

Proof: Let $\theta : \operatorname{Aut} PS(q) \to G(X), \varphi \to h_\varphi$, where h_φ is the unique permutation of X such that $\alpha\varphi = h_\varphi^{-1}\alpha h_\varphi$ for all $\alpha \in PS(q)$. To show θ is a morphism, let $\varphi, \psi \in \operatorname{Aut} PS(q)$ and note that for all $\alpha \in PS(q)$, we have:

$$\alpha(\varphi\psi) = (h_\varphi h_\psi)^{-1}\alpha(h_\varphi h_\psi),$$

hence $h_{\varphi\psi} = h_\varphi h_\psi$ by uniqueness. Clearly, if $k \in G(X)$ then

$$\varphi : PS(q) \to PS(q), \alpha \to k^{-1}\alpha k,$$

is an automorphism of $PS(q)$ (since $PS(q)$ is $G(X)$-normal). Thus, $h_\varphi = k$ by uniqueness, so θ is onto. Finally, if $h_\varphi = h_\psi$ then $\alpha\varphi = \alpha\psi$ for all $\alpha \in PS(q)$, so $\varphi = \psi$ and θ is one-to-one. ∎

In what follows, we sometimes write $PS(X,p,q)$ or $PS(p,q)$ in place of $PS(q)$ to highlight the underlying set X or its cardinal p.

As might be expected, $PS(X,p,q)$ is isomorphic to $PS(Y,r,s)$ if and only if $p = r$ and $q = s$, and moreover each isomorphism is induced in a natural way by a bijection from X onto Y. To prove this, we need an argument almost identical to that in [**5**]. However, since we are dealing with partial transformations and our argument differs in some important respects, we provide all the details.

Lemma 1. *If $\alpha, \beta \in PS(p,q)$ then the following are equivalent.*

(a) $\operatorname{ran}\alpha \subseteq \operatorname{ran}\beta$,

(b) *for each $\gamma \in PS(p,q)$, $\beta\gamma = \beta$ implies $\alpha\gamma = \alpha$.*

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0004972700034286 Published online by Cambridge University Press

PROOF: If $\operatorname{ran}\alpha \subseteq \operatorname{ran}\beta$ and $\beta\gamma = \beta$ for some $\gamma \in PS(q)$ then $(x\alpha)\gamma = x\alpha$ for each $x\alpha \in \operatorname{ran}\beta$, so $\alpha\gamma = \alpha$. Conversely, suppose there exists $y = x\alpha \notin \operatorname{ran}\beta = B$ say. Then $\operatorname{id}_B \in PS(q)$ and $\beta \circ \operatorname{id}_B = \beta$ but $y \operatorname{id}_B \neq y$; that is, $\alpha \circ \operatorname{id}_B \neq \alpha$ and hence the condition does not hold. ∎

Suppose $|X| = p \geqslant q \geqslant \aleph_0$ and let $\mathcal{B}(X, q)$ denote the family of all $A \subseteq X$ such that $|X \setminus A| = q$. Note that the poset $(\mathcal{B}(X,q), \subseteq)$ contains a least element if and only if $p = q$, and in this case $\emptyset$ is its least element. For, clearly if $p = q$ then $\emptyset \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$. And if $q < p$ then each $A \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$ is non-empty and $A \setminus \{x\} \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$; that is, $\mathcal{B}(X,q)$ cannot contain a least element in this case. The proof of the next result closely follows the corresponding argument in [**5**].

LEMMA 2. *Suppose $|X| = p \geqslant q \geqslant \aleph_0$ and $|Y| = r \geqslant s \geqslant \aleph_0$. Every order-isomorphism $H : \mathcal{B}(X,q) \to \mathcal{B}(Y,s)$ is induced by a bijection $h : X \to Y$: that is, for each $A \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$, we have $AH = Ah$, the image of A under h.*

PROOF: Let $A \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$ and $x \in X \setminus A$. We write $A \cup \{x\}$ as $A \cup x$. Clearly, $A \cup x \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$ and $A \cup x$ covers A. Hence $(A \cup x)H = AH \cup y$ for some $y \notin AH$. We write $y = xh_A$ and assert that $xh_A = xh_B$ for all $A, B \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$ not containing x. For, clearly $A \cap B \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$ and, since H is an order-isomorphism, $(A \cap B)H = AH \cap BH$. Therefore, as in the proof of [**5**, Lemma, p. 493],

$$\begin{aligned}(AH \cap BH) \cup xh_{A\cap B} &= (A \cap B)H \cup xh_{A\cap B} \\ &= \big((A \cap B) \cup x\big)H \\ &= \big((A \cup x) \cap (B \cup x)\big)H \\ &= (A \cup x)H \cap (B \cup x)H \\ &= (AH \cup xh_A) \cap (BH \cup xh_B),\end{aligned}$$

and it follows that

$$\{xh_{A\cap B}\} = \big(AH \cap \{xh_B\}\big) \cup \big(\{xh_A\} \cap BH\big) \cup \big(\{xh_A\} \cap \{xh_B\}\big).$$

Now if $xh_B \in AH$ then $xh_{A\cap B} = xh_B$ and hence

$$\big((A \cap B) \cup x\big)H = (A \cap B)H \cup xh_{A\cap B} = (A \cap B)H \cup xh_B \subseteq AH.$$

This implies $(A \cap B) \cup x \subseteq A$, contradicting $x \notin A$. Therefore, $xh_B \notin AH$ and similarly $xh_A \notin BH$. Hence $\{xh_A\} \cap \{xh_B\} \neq \emptyset$ and this means $xh_A = xh_B$ as asserted.

Now define $h : X \to Y, x \mapsto xh_A$, where $A \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$ satisfies $x \notin A$. The above argument shows h is well-defined. To see h is injective, suppose $x_1h = x_2h$ and choose

$B \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$ such that $x_i \notin B$ for $i = 1,2$. Then, by definition, $x_i h = x_i h_B$ for $i = 1,2$. Therefore

$$(B \cup x_1)H = BH \cup x_1 h_B = BH \cup x_2 h_B = (B \cup x_2)H$$

and it follows that $x_1 = x_2$. To show h is surjective, let $y \in Y$ and choose $M \in \mathcal{B}(Y,s)$ such that $y \notin M$. Then $AH = M$ and $BH = M \cup y$ for some $A, B \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$. Since $M \cup y$ covers M in the poset $\mathcal{B}(Y,s)$, B must cover A in the poset $\mathcal{B}(X,q)$. That is, $B = A \cup x$ for some $x \notin A$. Hence

$$M \cup y = (A \cup x)H = AH \cup x h_A = M \cup x h_A$$

and it follows that $y = x h_A$ and thus $y = xh$ by definition. That is, h is a bijection.

Finally we prove that $AH = Ah$ for each $A \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$. First recall that the empty map $\emptyset \in PS(q)$ if and only if $p = q$. In this case, the empty set $\emptyset$ is the least element of $\mathcal{B}(X,q)$ and hence $\emptyset H$ is a least element for $\mathcal{B}(Y,s)$. This means $r = s$ and $\emptyset H = \emptyset = \emptyset h$. So we can assume $A \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$ is non-empty. Now if $y = xh$ for some $x \in A$ then $y = x h_B$ where $x \notin B \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$. If $y \notin AH$ then $AH \cup y \in \mathcal{B}(Y,s)$ and $AH \cup y = (A \cup z)H$ for some $z \notin A$. Hence $z h_A = y = x h_B$ and, since h is injective, this implies $z = x \in A$, a contradiction. Therefore $y \in AH$ and $Ah \subseteq AH$. Conversely, if $y \in AH$ then AH covers $AH \setminus y$ (this is true even if $AH = \{y\}$, which is possible when $p = q$). Hence $AH \setminus y = (A \setminus x)H$ for some $x \in A$ and so

$$AH = \big((A \setminus x) \cup x\big)H = (A \setminus x)H \cup x h_{A \setminus x}.$$

Therefore, since $y \notin (A \setminus x)H$, we know $y = x h_{A \setminus x}$ and this means $y = xh \in Ah$; that is, $AH \subseteq Ah$ and equality follows. ∎

Recall that $PS(p,q)$ contains a zero element (namely, $\emptyset$) precisely when $p = q$. Consequently, if $PS(X,p,q)$ and $PS(Y,r,s)$ are isomorphic then either $p = q$ and $r = s$, or $p > q$ and $r > s$. In what follows, we need the fact: if $A, B \subseteq X$ and $\alpha \in I(X)$ then $(A \setminus B)\alpha = A\alpha \setminus B\alpha$.

Theorem 3. *The semigroups $PS(X,p,q)$ and $PS(Y,r,s)$ are isomorphic if and only if $p = r$ and $q = s$. Moreover, for each isomorphism φ, there is a bijection $h : X \to Y$ such that $\alpha\varphi = h^{-1}\alpha h$ for each $\alpha \in PS(X,p,q)$.*

Proof: Clearly, if the cardinals are equal as stated, then any bijection from X onto Y will induce an isomorphism between the semigroups. So we assume there is an isomorphism $\varphi : PS(X,p,q) \to PS(Y,r,s)$ and aim to find a bijection $h : X \to Y$. First we observe that φ induces an order-isomorphism from $\mathcal{B}(X,q)$ onto $\mathcal{B}(Y,s)$. Indeed, from Lemma 1 we deduce that, for each $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$, $\operatorname{ran}\alpha = \operatorname{ran}\beta$ if and only if $\operatorname{ran}(\alpha\varphi) = \operatorname{ran}(\beta\varphi)$. Also, recall that $\mathrm{id}_A \in PS(q)$ for each $A \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$. Consequently, there is a well-defined mapping

$$H : \mathcal{B}(X,q) \to \mathcal{B}(Y,s), A \mapsto \operatorname{ran}(\alpha\varphi)$$

where $A = \operatorname{ran}\alpha$ for some $\alpha \in PS(q)$. Note that if $p = q$ and $A = \emptyset = \operatorname{ran}\emptyset$ where $\emptyset \in PS(q)$ then $\emptyset\varphi = \emptyset$ and $\emptyset H = \emptyset$. More generally, if $A, B \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$ and $A = \operatorname{ran}\alpha, B = \operatorname{ran}\beta$ for some $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$ then $AH = \operatorname{ran}(\alpha\varphi), BH = \operatorname{ran}(\beta\varphi)$, and $A \subseteq B$ if and only if $AH \subseteq BH$ by Lemma 1. Also, for each $M \in \mathcal{B}(Y,s)$, there exists $\gamma \in PS(s)$ and $\alpha \in PS(q)$ such that $M = \operatorname{ran}\gamma$ and $\gamma = \alpha\varphi$: that is, $M = (\operatorname{ran}\alpha)H$ where $\operatorname{ran}\alpha \in \mathcal{B}(X,q)$, hence H is surjective.

By Lemma 2, H is induced by a bijection $h : X \to Y$ and now we aim to show $\alpha\varphi = h^{-1}\alpha h$ for each $\alpha \in PS(q)$. Clearly this holds if $p = q$ and $\alpha = \emptyset$. So, suppose $\alpha \neq \emptyset$ and note that $\operatorname{dom}\alpha h = \operatorname{dom}\alpha$ since $\operatorname{dom} h = X$. Let $x \in \operatorname{dom}\alpha$ and $x\alpha = x'$. Choose A, B in $\mathcal{B}(X,q)$ such that $A \subseteq B$ and $B \setminus A = \{x\}$, and consider $\beta, \gamma \in PS(X,q)$ such that $\operatorname{ran}\beta = A$ and $\operatorname{ran}\gamma = B$. Now $\operatorname{ran}\gamma \setminus \operatorname{ran}\beta = \{x\}$ and so

$$\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{ran}\big((\gamma\alpha)\varphi\big) \setminus \operatorname{ran}\big((\beta\alpha)\varphi\big) &= \operatorname{ran}\big((\gamma\varphi)(\alpha\varphi)\big) \setminus \operatorname{ran}\big((\beta\varphi)(\alpha\varphi)\big) \\
&= \big(\operatorname{ran}(\gamma\varphi) \setminus \operatorname{ran}(\beta\varphi)\big)(\alpha\varphi) \\
&= (BH \setminus AH)(\alpha\varphi) \\
&= \{xh\}\alpha\varphi.
\end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, $\operatorname{ran}(\gamma\alpha) \setminus \operatorname{ran}(\beta\alpha) = (B \setminus A)\alpha = \{x'\}$ and so

$$\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{ran}\big((\gamma\alpha)\varphi\big) \setminus \operatorname{ran}\big((\beta\alpha)\varphi\big) &= \big(\operatorname{ran}(\gamma\alpha)\big)H \setminus \big(\operatorname{ran}(\beta\alpha)\big)H \\
&= \big(\operatorname{ran}(\gamma\alpha)\big)h \setminus \big(\operatorname{ran}(\beta\alpha)\big)h \\
&= (\operatorname{ran}\gamma \setminus \operatorname{ran}\beta)\alpha h \\
&= \{x'h\}.
\end{aligned}$$

Thus $xh(\alpha\varphi) = x'h = x\alpha h$ for all $x \in \operatorname{dom}\alpha$ and so $\alpha\varphi = h^{-1}\alpha h$. Finally, since $\alpha\varphi \in PS(Y,r,s)$ implies $|Y \setminus Y\alpha\varphi| = s$, whereas $|Y \setminus Yh^{-1}\alpha h| = \big|(X \setminus X\alpha)h\big| = q$ for any bijection $h : X \to Y$, we also have $q = s$. ∎

3. Regular elements

Since $BL(q)$ is idempotent-free, it contains no regular elements (if S is a semigroup, we say $a \in S$ is *regular* if $a = axa$ for some $x \in S$). But $PS(q)$ always contains regular elements.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0004972700034286 Published online by Cambridge University Press

Theorem 4. *If* $\aleph_0 \leqslant q \leqslant p$ *and* $\alpha \in PS(q)$ *then the following statements are equivalent.*

(a) α *is regular,*
(b) $g(\alpha) = q$,
(c) $\alpha^{-1} \in PS(q)$.

Proof: Suppose $\alpha = \alpha\beta\alpha$ for some $\beta \in PS(q)$. Then, since α is injective, $x\alpha\beta = x$ for all $x \in \operatorname{dom}\alpha$ and hence $\operatorname{dom}\alpha \subseteq \operatorname{ran}\beta$. Therefore, $q = d(\beta) \leqslant g(\alpha)$. Suppose $g(\alpha) = r > q$. Then $X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\alpha = (\operatorname{ran}\beta \setminus \operatorname{dom}\alpha) \cup (X \setminus X\beta)$ implies $|\operatorname{ran}\beta \setminus \operatorname{dom}\alpha| = r$. That is, if $\operatorname{ran}\beta \setminus \operatorname{dom}\alpha = \{d_k\}$ where $|K| = r$ and $c_k\beta = d_k$ then $\{c_k\} \cap \operatorname{ran}\alpha = \emptyset$ (since $\alpha\beta = \operatorname{id}_{\operatorname{dom}\alpha}$) and so $\{c_k\} \subseteq X \setminus \operatorname{ran}\alpha$ which implies $d(\alpha) \geqslant r > q$, a contradiction. This proves (a) implies (b). If $g(\alpha) = q$ then $d(\alpha^{-1}) = q$, so $\alpha^{-1} \in PS(q)$; and if $\alpha^{-1} \in PS(q)$ then clearly α is a regular element of $PS(q)$. ∎

The set of regular elements in $PS(q)$ plays an important role in what follows, so we let

$$R(q) = \{\alpha \in PS(q) : g(\alpha) = q\}.$$

Clearly any regular subsemigroup of $PS(q)$ is contained in $R(q)$. Therefore, the next result shows that $R(q)$ is the largest regular subsemigroup of $PS(q)$. In fact, since all idempotents of $PS(q)$ have the form id_A for some $A \subseteq X$ and all of these commute, we see that every regular subsemigroup of $PS(q)$ is inverse.

Corollary 1. *If* $\aleph_0 \leqslant q \leqslant p$ *then* $R(q)$ *is an inverse semigroup.*

Proof: The idempotents in $PS(q)$ commute and, by the above Theorem, $R(q)$ is regular, so it remains to show $R(q)$ is closed. Suppose $\alpha, \beta \in R(q)$ and note that

$$\operatorname{dom}\alpha\beta = (\operatorname{ran}\alpha \cap \operatorname{dom}\beta)\alpha^{-1} \subseteq X\alpha^{-1},$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\alpha\beta &= X \setminus X\alpha^{-1} \cup \left[X\alpha^{-1} \setminus (\operatorname{ran}\alpha \cap \operatorname{dom}\beta)\alpha^{-1}\right] \\ &= X \setminus X\alpha^{-1} \cup \left[X \setminus (\operatorname{ran}\alpha \cap \operatorname{dom}\beta)\right]\alpha^{-1} \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where the first set on the right of (1) has cardinal q (since $\alpha^{-1} \in PS(q)$ by the Theorem). Also, $X \setminus [\operatorname{ran}\alpha \cap \operatorname{dom}\beta] = (X \setminus \operatorname{ran}\alpha) \cup (X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\beta)$, so the second set on the right of (1) has cardinal at most q (since α^{-1} is injective). Therefore, $g(\alpha\beta) = q$, and we have shown $\alpha\beta \in R(q)$. ∎

Remark 1. In [**3**], Howie used $R(q) = \{\alpha \in I(X) : d(\alpha) = g(\alpha) = q\}$ to construct a congruence-free inverse semigroup when $p > q$; and in [**10**, Corollary 4], Sullivan showed that $R(p)$ is generated by its nilpotents with index 2: in fact, it equals the subsemigroup of $I(X)$ generated by all the nilpotents in $I(X)$.

For $\aleph_0 \leqslant r \leqslant p$, we write

$$S_r = \{\alpha \in PS(q) : g(\alpha) \leqslant r\}.$$

This is a subsemigroup of $PS(q)$ since if $\alpha, \beta \in S_r$ then

$$g(\alpha\beta) = |X \setminus X\alpha^{-1}| \cup \left|[X \setminus (\operatorname{ran}\alpha \cap \operatorname{dom}\beta)]\alpha^{-1}\right|$$

where $X \setminus X\alpha^{-1} = X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\alpha$, regardless of whether $\alpha^{-1} \in PS(q)$. Hence, $g(\alpha\beta) \leqslant r + (0 + r) = r$, so $\alpha\beta \in S_r$. In particular,

$$BL(q) \cup R(q) \subset S_q$$

and so the two semigroups on the left cannot generate S_r for any $r > q$. In addition, if $\gamma \in PS(q)$ and $\gamma = \alpha\beta$ for some $\alpha \in R(q)$ and $\beta \in BL(q)$ then $g(\gamma) \geqslant g(\alpha)$. Hence $R(q).BL(q)$ is a proper subset of S_q. On the other hand, the next two results show that S_q is generated by $BL(q)$ and $R(q)$ in very specific ways: this will be important when we consider maximal subsemigroups of $PS(q)$ in a subsequent paper.

Theorem 5. *If $\aleph_0 \leqslant q \leqslant p$ then $S_q = BL(q).R(q)$. In fact, $S_q = \alpha.R(q)$ for each $\alpha \in BL(q)$.*

Proof: We have already seen that $BL(q).R(q) \subseteq S_q$. For the converse, suppose $\alpha \in S_q$ and note that

$$X \setminus X\alpha = [(X \setminus X\alpha) \cap \operatorname{dom}\alpha] \cup [(X \setminus X\alpha) \cap (X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\alpha)].$$

Hence, if $g(\alpha) < q$ then the second intersection on the right has cardinal less than q, whereas the set on the left of the equation has cardinal equal to q, hence we have:

$$|(X \setminus X\alpha) \cap \operatorname{dom}\alpha| = q.$$

Write $(X \setminus X\alpha) \cap \operatorname{dom}\alpha = \{a_i\} = \{b_i\} \dot\cup \{c_i\} \dot\cup \{d_j\}$ where $|J| = g(\alpha) < q$, and let $\operatorname{dom}\alpha \cap \operatorname{ran}\alpha = \{x_k\}$ and $X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\alpha = \{y_j\}$. Let

$$\lambda = \begin{pmatrix} x_k & a_i & y_j \\ x_k & b_i & d_j \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mu = \begin{pmatrix} x_k & b_i \\ x_k\alpha & a_i\alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

which are well-defined one-to-one maps by construction. Moreover, $\operatorname{dom}\lambda = X$ and $X \setminus X\lambda = \{c_i\} \cup \{y_j\}$: that is, $\lambda \in BL(q)$; and $X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\mu = \{c_i\} \cup \{d_j\} \cup \{y_j\}$ and $X \setminus X\mu = X \setminus X\alpha$: that is, $\mu \in R_q$. And clearly $\alpha = \lambda\mu$.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0004972700034286 Published online by Cambridge University Press

If $g(\alpha) = q$, we can write $\operatorname{dom}\alpha = \{u_k\}, X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\alpha = \{y_j\}$ and $X \setminus X\alpha = \{v_j\} \dot\cup \{w_j\}$ where $|J| = q$. Let

$$\lambda = \begin{pmatrix} u_k & y_j \\ u_k\alpha & v_j \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mu = \mathrm{id}_{X\alpha} \in R_q.$$

Then λ is a well-defined element of $BL(q)$ and $\lambda\mu = \alpha$ as required.

Finally, suppose $\alpha, \beta \in BL(q)$, let $X = \{x_i\}$ and write

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} x_i \\ a_i \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} x_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mu = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then $\beta = \alpha\mu$ where $\mu \in R(q)$, so $BL(q) \subseteq \alpha.R(q) \subseteq S_q$. On the other hand, if $\gamma \in S_q$ then the above argument shows $\gamma = \beta\mu$ for some $\beta \in BL(q)$ and some $\mu \in R(q)$, and now we also know $\beta = \alpha\lambda$ for some $\lambda \in R(q)$. Therefore, $\gamma = \alpha(\lambda\mu)$ where $\lambda\mu \in R(q)$ since $R(q)$ is a semigroup; that is, $S_q \subseteq \alpha.R(q)$ and equality follows. ∎

The next result shows that in most cases S_q can be generated in a different way.

Theorem 6. *If $q < p$ then $S_q = BL(q).\mu.BL(q)$ for each $\mu \in R(q)$.*

Proof: Suppose $\gamma \in S_q$ with $g(\gamma) = r$ and let $\mu \in R(q)$. Since $q < p$, both γ and μ have rank p, so we can write

$$\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mu = \begin{pmatrix} c_i \\ d_i \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let $X\setminus\{a_i\} = \{a_j\}$ (so $|J| = r$), $X\setminus\{c_i\} = \{y_j\} \dot\cup \{y_k\}$ where $|K| = q$, $X\setminus\{d_i\} = \{d_k\}$ and $X \setminus \{b_i\} = \{u_k\} \dot\cup \{v_k\}$. If

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a_i & a_j \\ c_i & y_j \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} d_i & d_k \\ b_i & u_k \end{pmatrix}$$

then $\alpha, \beta \in BL(q)$ and $\gamma = \alpha\mu\beta$ (note that if $r = 0$ then $\{a_j\} = \emptyset$ but the conclusion is the same). ∎

In passing we note that if $\gamma \in S_q, \mu \in R(q)$ and $\gamma = \alpha\mu\beta$ for some $\alpha, \beta \in BL(q)$ then $\operatorname{dom}\gamma \subseteq \operatorname{dom}\alpha$, so $(\operatorname{dom}\gamma)\alpha \subseteq \operatorname{dom}\mu$ and hence $|\operatorname{dom}\gamma| \leqslant |\operatorname{dom}\mu| = r(\mu)$. Therefore, if $q = p$ and $r(\mu) < p$ then $g(\gamma) = g(\mu) = p$, so $BL(q).\mu.BL(q)$ is a proper subset of S_q; that is, the above result fails to hold when $q = p$. In addition, it cannot be simplified to read, for example: $S_q = \mu.BL(q)$ for each $\mu \in R(q)$ when $q < p$. For, if $\gamma \in S_q$ then $\gamma \neq \mu\beta$ for each $\mu \in R(q)$ such that $\operatorname{dom}\gamma \not\subseteq \operatorname{dom}\mu$. A similar argument using $\operatorname{ran}\gamma$ shows that also $S_q \neq BL(q).\mu$ for some $\mu \in R(q)$.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0004972700034286 Published online by Cambridge University Press

4. Green's relations

The semigroup $PS(q)$ is not a regular subsemigroup of $P(X)$, so Hall's Theorem ([**2**, Proposition II.4.5]) cannot be used to describe the $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathcal{R}$ relations on $PS(q)$ in terms of their well-known characterisation on $P(X)$ (see [**7**, Theorem 10]). Therefore, in this section we first characterise each of the Green's relations on $PS(q)$ and then consider the corresponding problem for S_q and $R(q)$. In fact, for each of these semigroups, S say, we determine when $S^1\alpha \subseteq S^1\beta$ and $\alpha S^1 \subseteq \beta S^1$ for $\alpha, \beta \in S$ (that is, when $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathcal{R}$ classes are comparable under their usual partial order).

Theorem 7. *If $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$ then $\alpha = \beta\mu$ for some $\mu \in PS(q)$ if and only if $\operatorname{dom}\alpha \subseteq \operatorname{dom}\beta$. Hence $\alpha \mathcal{R} \beta$ in $PS(q)$ if and only if $\operatorname{dom}\alpha = \operatorname{dom}\beta$.*

Proof: Clearly, if $\alpha = \beta\mu$ for some $\mu \in PS(q)$ then $\operatorname{dom}\alpha \subseteq \operatorname{dom}\beta$. Conversely, suppose $\operatorname{dom}\alpha \subseteq \operatorname{dom}\beta$ and write

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} a_i & x_j \\ c_i & y_j \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mu = \begin{pmatrix} c_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then $\alpha = \beta\mu$ where $\mu \in PS(q)$. ∎

Surprisingly, it is much harder to describe Green's $\mathcal{L}$ relation on $PS(q)$.

Theorem 8. *If $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$ then $\alpha = \lambda\beta$ for some $\lambda \in PS(q)$ if and only if $X\alpha \subseteq X\beta$ and*

$$q \leqslant \max\big(g(\beta), |X\beta \setminus X\alpha|\big) \leqslant \max\big(g(\alpha), q\big). \tag{2}$$

Hence, $\alpha \mathcal{L} \beta$ in $PS(q)$ if and only if

$$(X\alpha = X\beta \text{ and } g(\alpha) = g(\beta) \geqslant q) \text{ or } (\alpha = \beta \text{ and } g(\alpha) < q).$$

Proof: Suppose $\alpha = \lambda\beta$ for some $\lambda \in PS(q)$. Then $X\alpha \subseteq X\beta$ and $\alpha \in PS(q)$ implies

$$\Big|[(X \setminus X\lambda) \cap \operatorname{dom}\beta]\beta\Big| = \big|(X \setminus X\lambda)\beta\big| = |X\beta \setminus X\alpha| \leqslant d(\alpha) = q.$$

Also, since β is one-to-one, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} q = |X \setminus X\lambda| &= \Big|\big[(X \setminus X\lambda) \cap \operatorname{dom}\beta\big] \cup \big[(X \setminus X\lambda) \cap (X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\beta)\big]\Big| \\ &\leqslant |X\beta \setminus X\alpha| + g(\beta) = \max\big(g(\beta), |X\beta \setminus X\alpha|\big). \end{aligned}$$

Since λ is one-to-one and $\alpha = \lambda\beta$, we have

$$(X\lambda \cap \operatorname{dom}\beta)\lambda^{-1} = \operatorname{dom}\alpha \quad \text{and} \quad (X\lambda \cap X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\beta)\lambda^{-1} \subseteq X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\alpha$$

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0004972700034286 Published online by Cambridge University Press

and hence

$$\begin{aligned}|X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\beta| &= \big|X\lambda \cap (X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\beta)\big| + \big|(X \setminus X\lambda) \cap (X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\beta)\big| \\ &\leqslant |X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\alpha| + q = \max\big(g(\alpha), q\big).\end{aligned}$$

Conversely, suppose $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$ and the conditions hold. Write

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}, \ \beta = \begin{pmatrix} x_i & x_k \\ b_i & b_k \end{pmatrix}, \ \lambda = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ x_i \end{pmatrix}$$

so that $|K| = |X\beta \setminus X\alpha|$. If $g(\alpha) < q$, the conditions imply $\max\big(g(\beta), |X\beta \setminus X\alpha|\big) = q$ and so $d(\lambda) = \big|\{x_k\} \cup (X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\beta)\big| = q$: that is, $\lambda \in PS(q)$. Suppose $g(\alpha) \geqslant q$. In this case, the conditions imply $g(\beta) \leqslant g(\alpha)$: otherwise, we have

$$|X\beta \setminus X\alpha| \leqslant q \leqslant g(\alpha) < g(\beta)$$

and so

$$\max\big(g(\beta), |X\beta \setminus X\alpha|\big) = g(\beta) > g(\alpha) = \max\ \big(g(\alpha), q\big).$$

We can also assume $q < g(\beta)$: otherwise, $\max\big(g(\beta), |X\beta \setminus X\alpha|\big) = q$ and the result follows as before. Now write $X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\beta = \{x_m\} \dot{\cup} \{x_n\}$ where $|M| = g(\beta), |N| = q$ and choose $z_m \in X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\alpha$. Now re-define λ as

$$\lambda = \begin{pmatrix} a_i & z_m \\ x_i & x_m \end{pmatrix}$$

and note that $X \setminus X\lambda = \{x_k\} \cup \{x_n\}$ which has cardinal q. Hence, $\lambda \in PS(q)$ and $\alpha = \lambda\beta$ as required.

It follows that for distinct $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$, $\alpha = \lambda\beta$ and $\beta = \lambda'\alpha$ for some $\lambda, \lambda' \in PS(q)$ if and only if $X\alpha = X\beta$ and $g(\alpha) = g(\beta) \geqslant q$. That is, if $\alpha \mathcal{L} \beta$ in $PS(q)$ and $g(\alpha) \geqslant q$ then $X\alpha = X\beta$ and $g(\alpha) = g(\beta)$, whereas if $g(\alpha) < q$ then $\alpha = \beta$. On the other hand, if one of these events occurs, it is now clear that $\alpha \mathcal{L} \beta$ in $PS(q)$. ∎

Given that the condition in (2) is so complicated, it is worth noting that it cannot be simplified to read: $g(\beta) \leqslant g(\alpha)$.

Example 2. Let $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$ be defined by

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}, \ \beta = \begin{pmatrix} x_i & x_j \\ b_i & b_j \end{pmatrix}$$

where $g(\beta) \leqslant g(\alpha) < q$ and $|J| < q$. Note that in this case $X\alpha \subseteq X\beta$ and $|I| = p$. Also $\max\big(g(\beta), |X\beta \setminus X\alpha|\big) \not\geqslant q$. If $\alpha = \lambda\beta$ for some $\lambda \in PS(q)$ then $b_i = a_i\alpha = (a_i\lambda)\beta = x_i\beta$ for each i, so $\{x_i\} \subseteq X\lambda$. Therefore

$$d(\lambda) \leqslant \big|X \setminus \{x_i\}\big| = \big|\{x_j\} \cup G(\beta)\big| < q + q = q,$$

a contradiction. That is, for some $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$ with $g(\beta) \leqslant g(\alpha)$, there is no $\lambda \in PS(q)$ such that $\alpha = \lambda\beta$.

REMARK 2. From Theorems 7 and 8, we deduce that $\alpha\,\mathcal{H}\,\beta$ in $PS(q)$ if and only if

$$\big(X\alpha = X\beta, \operatorname{dom}\alpha = \operatorname{dom}\beta \text{ and } g(\alpha) \geqslant q\big) \text{ or } \big(\alpha = \beta \text{ and } g(\alpha) < q\big).$$

Recall that each group $\mathcal{H}$-class of $T(X)$ is isomorphic to a symmetric group $G(A)$ for some $A \subseteq X$ ([**1**, Vol. 1, Theorem 2.10]). The corresponding result for $PS(q)$ is even more precise. For, if ε is a non-zero idempotent of $PS(q)$ then $\varepsilon = \mathrm{id}_A$ for some $A \subseteq X$ such that $|X \setminus A| = q$. Consequently, since each $\alpha \in PS(q)$ is injective, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \in H_\varepsilon &\iff X\alpha = X\varepsilon,\ \operatorname{dom}\alpha = \operatorname{dom}\varepsilon, \\ &\iff \operatorname{ran}\alpha = \operatorname{dom}\alpha = A, \\ &\iff \alpha \in G(A). \end{aligned}$$

That is, $H_\varepsilon = G(A)$ and clearly, when $p = q$, $H_\emptyset = \{\emptyset\}$.

To characterise the $\mathcal{J}$ relation on $PS(q)$, we need two Lemmas. Henceforth, if $\alpha \in P(X)$, we write $r(\alpha) = |\operatorname{ran}\alpha|$ and call this the *rank* of α.

LEMMA 3. *If $q < p$ and $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$ then $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$ for some $\lambda, \mu \in PS(q)$ if and only if $g(\alpha) \leqslant q$ or $g(\beta) \geqslant g(\alpha) > q$. Hence, in $PS(q)$ for $q < p$, $\alpha\,\mathcal{J}\,\beta$ if and only if $g(\alpha)$ and $g(\beta)$ are at most q, or $g(\alpha) = g(\beta) > q$.*

PROOF: First note that if $q < p$ then $r(\alpha) = r(\beta) = p$. Suppose $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$ for some $\lambda, \mu \in PS(q)$ and assume $g(\alpha) = r > q$. Then

$$\big|(X \setminus X\lambda) \cap (X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\alpha)\big| \leqslant q < r$$

and this implies $\big|X\lambda \cap G(\alpha)\big| = r$. That is, there exists $\{a_n\} \subseteq \operatorname{dom}\lambda$ such that $|N| = r$ and $\{a_n\lambda\} \cap \operatorname{dom}\alpha = \emptyset$. Therefore, $\{a_n\} \subseteq G(\beta)$ and $g(\beta) \geqslant r = g(\alpha)$, as required. Conversely, if $g(\alpha) \leqslant q < p$, write

$$\beta = \begin{pmatrix} c_i \\ d_i \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}$$

where $|I| = p$ and let $\{a_i\} = \{x_i\} \mathbin{\dot\cup} \{x_j\}$ where $|J| = q$. Define

$$\lambda = \begin{pmatrix} c_i \\ x_i \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mu = \begin{pmatrix} x_i\alpha \\ d_i \end{pmatrix}$$

and note that $D(\lambda) = \{x_j\} \cup G(\alpha)$, a set with cardinal q. Moreover, $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$ where $\lambda, \mu \in PS(q)$. On the other hand, if $g(\beta) \geqslant g(\alpha) = r > q$, choose $n_j \in G(\alpha)$ with $|J| = r$ and $\big|G(\alpha) \setminus \{n_j\}\big| = q$, and choose $m_j \in G(\beta)$ (possible via the assumption). Then, using the same notation for α and β, we see that

$$\lambda = \begin{pmatrix} c_i & m_j \\ a_i & n_j \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mu = \begin{pmatrix} b_i \\ d_i \end{pmatrix}$$

are elements of $PS(q)$ and $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$, as required. ∎

Lemma 4. *If $q = p$ and $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$ then $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$ for some $\lambda, \mu \in PS(q)$ if and only if $r(\beta) \leqslant r(\alpha)$. Hence, in $PS(q)$ for $q = p$, $\alpha \mathcal{J} \beta$ if and only if $r(\alpha) = r(\beta)$.*

Proof: Clearly, $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$ implies $r(\beta) \leqslant r(\alpha)$. For the converse, write

$$\beta = \begin{pmatrix} c_j \\ d_j \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}.$$

Put $\{a_i\} = \{x_j\} \dot\cup \{x_k\}$ (possible since $r(\beta) \leqslant r(\alpha)$) and define

$$\lambda = \begin{pmatrix} c_j \\ x_j \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mu = \begin{pmatrix} x_j\alpha \\ d_j \end{pmatrix}$$

and note that $D(\lambda) = \{x_k\} \cup G(\alpha)$: clearly, this set has cardinal $q = p$ if $g(\alpha) = q$; and if $g(\alpha) < q$ then $|I| = q$, so we can ensure that $|K| = q$. That is, $\lambda, \mu \in PS(q)$ and $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$. ∎

Note that $g(\alpha) > q$ can occur only when $q < p$; and if $g(\alpha) \leqslant q < p$ then $r(\alpha) = p$. Also, if $q = p$ then $\max(g(\alpha), g(\beta)) \leqslant q$ is valid for all $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$. Hence the last two Lemmas can be combined as follows.

Theorem 9. *If $\aleph_0 \leqslant q \leqslant p$ then $\alpha \mathcal{J} \beta$ in $PS(q)$ if and only if*

$$\Big[\max(g(\alpha), g(\beta)) \leqslant q \text{ and } r(\alpha) = r(\beta)\Big] \text{ or } \big[g(\alpha) = g(\beta) > q\big].$$

We now consider the $\mathcal{D}$ relation on $PS(q)$ and find that $\mathcal{D} \neq \mathcal{J}$, unlike the usual situation for other subsemigroups of $P(X)$ (for example, the semigroup generated by the idempotents of $T(X)$ [**8**, Theorem 7], and the semigroup generated by the nilpotents of $P(X)$ [**7**, Theorem 11]).

Theorem 10. *If $\aleph_0 \leqslant q \leqslant p$ then $\alpha \mathcal{D} \beta$ in $PS(q)$ if and only if*

$$\big[g(\alpha) < q \text{ and } \operatorname{dom}\alpha = \operatorname{dom}\beta\big] \text{ or } \big[r(\alpha) = r(\beta) \text{ and } g(\alpha) = g(\beta) \geqslant q\big].$$

Proof: Suppose $\alpha \mathcal{L} \gamma \mathcal{R} \beta$ in $PS(q)$. By Theorems 8 and 7, "$\alpha = \gamma$ and $g(\alpha) < q$" or "$X\alpha = X\gamma$ and $g(\gamma) = g(\alpha) \geqslant q$", and $\operatorname{dom}\gamma = \operatorname{dom}\beta$. Since γ and β are one-to-one on their domains, we deduce that

$$\big[g(\alpha) < q \text{ and } \operatorname{dom}\alpha = \operatorname{dom}\beta\big] \text{ or } \big[r(\alpha) = r(\beta) \text{ and } g(\alpha) = g(\beta) \geqslant q\big].$$

Conversely, suppose this condition holds. If $g(\alpha) < q$ and $\operatorname{dom}\alpha = \operatorname{dom}\beta$, then $\alpha \mathcal{L} \alpha \mathcal{R} \beta$. On the other hand, if $r(\alpha) = r(\beta)$ and $g(\alpha) = g(\beta) \geqslant q$, we write

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} c_i \\ d_i \end{pmatrix}, \quad \gamma = \begin{pmatrix} c_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then $\gamma \in PS(q)$ and, by Theorems 8 and 7, $\alpha \mathcal{L} \gamma \mathcal{R} \beta$ as required. ∎

EXAMPLE 3. Let $\alpha, \beta \in PS(q)$ be defined by

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}, \ \beta = \begin{pmatrix} c_i \\ d_i \end{pmatrix}$$

where $g(\beta) < g(\alpha) < q$ and $\operatorname{dom}\alpha \neq \operatorname{dom}\beta$. This implies $|I| = p$, so $r(\alpha) = r(\beta)$ and $\max(g(\alpha), g(\beta)) < q$, hence $\alpha \mathcal{J} \beta$ by Theorem 9. Suppose $\alpha \mathcal{L} \gamma \mathcal{R} \beta$ for some $\gamma \in PS(q)$. Then $\operatorname{dom}\gamma = \operatorname{dom}\beta$ by Theorem 7, hence $\alpha \neq \gamma$ (by choice). So Theorem 8 implies $X\alpha = X\gamma$ and $g(\alpha) = g(\gamma) \geqslant q$, contradicting the choice of α. Hence α is not $\mathcal{D}$-related to β in $PS(q)$, and thus $\mathcal{D} \neq \mathcal{J}$.

We now consider Green's relations on S_q. As before, since S_q is not a regular subsemigroup of $PS(q)$, Hall's Theorem cannot be applied to find $\mathcal{R}$ and $\mathcal{L}$ on S_q. Nonetheless, they happen to be the restriction of $\mathcal{R}$ and $\mathcal{L}$ on $PS(q)$.

LEMMA 5. *Let $\alpha, \beta \in S_q$ where $\aleph_0 \leqslant q \leqslant p$. Then*

(a) *$\alpha = \beta\mu$ for some $\mu \in S_q$ if and only if $\operatorname{dom}\alpha \subseteq \operatorname{dom}\beta$, and*

(b) *$\alpha = \lambda\beta$ for some $\lambda \in S_q$ if and only if $X\alpha \subseteq X\beta$ and $\max(g(\beta), |X\beta \setminus X\alpha|) = q$.*

PROOF: For (a), we simply note that in the proof of Theorem 7, if $\alpha \in S_q$ then $\{x_j\} \subseteq G(\alpha)$, so $|J| \leqslant q$ and $G(\mu) = \{y_j\} \cup D(\beta)$, hence $g(\mu) \leqslant q$.

For (b), observe that if $\alpha = \lambda\beta$ for some $\lambda \in S_q \subseteq PS(q)$ then the condition in Theorem 8 simplifies to the desired result. Conversely, suppose the stated condition holds and write

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}, \ \beta = \begin{pmatrix} x_i & x_j \\ b_i & b_j \end{pmatrix}, \ \lambda = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ x_i \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then $|J| \leqslant q$ since $|X\beta \setminus X\alpha| \leqslant d(\alpha) = q$. If $g(\beta) = q$ then $d(\lambda) = g(\beta) + |J| = q$ and clearly $g(\lambda) \leqslant q$, so $\lambda \in S_q$ and $\alpha = \lambda\beta$. On the other hand, if $|X\beta \setminus X\alpha| = q$ then $|J| = q \geqslant g(\beta)$ and again $d(\lambda) = q$, so $\lambda \in S_q$ as required. ∎

COROLLARY 2. *Let $\alpha, \beta \in S_q$ where $\aleph_0 \leqslant q \leqslant p$. Then*

(a) *$\alpha \mathcal{R} \beta$ in S_q if and only if $\operatorname{dom}\alpha = \operatorname{dom}\beta$, and*

(b) *$\alpha \mathcal{L} \beta$ in S_q if and only if $[X\alpha = X\beta$ and $g(\alpha) = g(\beta) = q]$ or $[\alpha = \beta$ and $g(\alpha) < q]$.*

From Lemma 3 we see that if $q < p$ then S_q forms a $\mathcal{J}$-class in $PS(q)$. Hence we might expect the $\mathcal{J}$ relation on S_q to be universal when $q < p$. In addition, given the last result, we might also expect the $\mathcal{D}$ relation on S_q to be the restriction of $\mathcal{D}$ on $PS(q)$. Both these expectations are correct, as we now show.

THEOREM 11. *Let $\alpha, \beta \in S_q$ where $\aleph_0 \leqslant q \leqslant p$. Then $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$ for some $\lambda, \mu \in S_q$ if and only if $r(\beta) \leqslant r(\alpha)$. Hence*

(a) *$\alpha \mathcal{J} \beta$ in S_q if and only if $r(\alpha) = r(\beta)$, and*

(b) *$\alpha\ \mathcal{D}\ \beta$ in S_q if and only if $[g(\alpha) < q$ and $\operatorname{dom}\alpha = \operatorname{dom}\beta]$ or $[r(\alpha) = r(\beta)$ and $g(\alpha) = g(\beta) = q]$.*

PROOF: Clearly, $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$ implies $r(\beta) \leqslant r(\alpha)$. Conversely, if $q < p$ then $r(\alpha) = r(\beta) = p$. Using the same notation as in the proof of Lemma 3, we note that $g(\lambda) = g(\beta) \leqslant q$ and $G(\mu) = D(\alpha) \cup \{x_j\alpha\}$, a set with cardinal q, so $\lambda, \mu \in S_q$ in this case. On the other hand, if $q = p$ and $r(\beta) \leqslant r(\alpha)$ then we observe that the λ, μ defined in the proof of Lemma 4 actually belong to S_q.

It remains to prove (b). If $\alpha\ \mathcal{D}\ \beta$ in S_q then $\alpha\ \mathcal{D}\ \beta$ in $PS(q)$, so Theorem 10 gives the desired result. Conversely, if the condition holds, we note that the converse argument in the proof of Theorem 10 shows in fact that $\gamma \in S_q$ and hence $\alpha\ \mathcal{D}\ \beta$ in S_q. ∎

We now turn to Green's relations on $R(q)$. Since this is a regular subsemigroup of $I(X)$, Hall's Theorem implies that the $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathcal{R}$ relations on $R(q)$ equal the restriction of the corresponding relations on $I(X)$ to $R(q)$. Hence, $\alpha\ \mathcal{L}\ \beta$ in $R(q)$ if and only if $\operatorname{ran}\alpha = \operatorname{ran}\beta$, and $\alpha\ \mathcal{R}\ \beta$ in $R(q)$ if and only if $\operatorname{dom}\alpha = \operatorname{dom}\beta$. In fact, the $\mathcal{J}$ and $\mathcal{D}$ relations on $R(q)$ also mimic those on $I(X)$.

THEOREM 12. *If $\alpha, \beta \in R(q)$ then $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$ for some $\lambda, \mu \in R(q)$ if and only if $r(\beta) \leqslant r(\alpha)$. Hence, $\alpha\ \mathcal{J}\ \beta$ in $R(q)$ if and only if $r(\alpha) = r(\beta)$. Consequently, $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{J}$ in $R(q)$.*

PROOF: As usual, if $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$ for some $\lambda, \mu \in P(X)$ then $r(\beta) \leqslant r(\alpha)$. Conversely, if this condition holds, we write

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} c_j \\ d_j \end{pmatrix}, \quad \lambda = \begin{pmatrix} c_j \\ x_j \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mu = \begin{pmatrix} x_j\alpha \\ d_j \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\{x_j\} \subseteq \{a_i\}$ (possible since $|J| \leqslant |I|$). Then $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$ and $\lambda, \mu \in R(q)$ (note that if $q < p$ then we can assume $I = J$). Finally a standard argument shows that if $r(\alpha) = r(\beta)$ then $\alpha\ \mathcal{D}\ \beta$, so $\mathcal{J} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ and equality follows. ∎

REMARK 3. From a comment above, we deduce that $\alpha\ \mathcal{H}\ \beta$ in $R(q)$ if and only if $\operatorname{ran}\alpha = \operatorname{ran}\beta$ and $\operatorname{dom}\alpha = \operatorname{dom}\beta$. Hence, as in Remark 1 about $PS(q)$, the group $\mathcal{H}$-classes of $R(q)$ are precisely the symmetric groups $G(A)$ where $A \subseteq X$ and $|X \setminus A| = q$. For the group $\mathcal{H}$-classes of S_q, note that no idempotent of $PS(q)$ has gap less than q, hence Corollary 2 shows that $\mathcal{H}$ in S_q can be characterised in the same way as for $R(q)$, and therefore the group $\mathcal{H}$-classes of S_q are also the same as for $R(q)$.

5. TWO-SIDED IDEALS

Recall that for $q \leqslant r \leqslant p$, $S_r = \{\alpha \in PS(q) : g(\alpha) \leqslant r\}$ is a subsemigroup of $PS(q)$. The reverse inequality gives us ideals of $PS(q)$ when $q < p$.

Theorem 13. *The proper ideals of $PS(q)$ for $q < p$ are precisely the sets:*

$$T_r = \{\alpha \in PS(q) : g(\alpha) \geqslant r\}$$

where $q < r \leqslant p$. Moreover, each T_r is a principal ideal.

Proof: Let $\alpha \in T_r$ and $\beta \in PS(q)$. Since $\operatorname{dom}\alpha\beta \subseteq \operatorname{dom}\alpha$, we know $g(\alpha\beta) \geqslant g(\alpha)$, so each T_r is a right ideal. Also,

$$X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\beta\alpha = (X \setminus \operatorname{dom}\beta) \cup (\operatorname{dom}\beta \setminus \operatorname{dom}\beta\alpha)$$

and

$$G(\alpha) = [X\beta \cap G(\alpha)] \cup [(X \setminus X\beta) \cap G(\alpha)]$$

where $[X\beta \cap G(\alpha)]\beta^{-1} = \operatorname{dom}\beta \setminus \operatorname{dom}\beta\alpha$ and $d(\beta) = q$. Therefore, $|X\beta \cap G(\alpha)| \geqslant r$ and it follows that $g(\beta\alpha) \geqslant r$. That is, T_r is also a left ideal.

Conversely, suppose A is a proper ideal of $PS(q)$ for $q < p$ and choose $\alpha \in A$ with least gap, r say, so $A \subseteq T_r$. If $r \leqslant q$ then, by Lemma 3, all elements of $PS(q)$ belong to $PS(q)\alpha PS(q)$ which is contained in A: that is, $A = PS(q)$, a contradiction. Therefore $q < r \leqslant p$ and if $\beta \in T_r$ then $g(\beta) \geqslant r = g(\alpha) > q$, so Lemma 3 implies $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$ for some $\lambda, \mu \in PS(q)$. Hence $\beta \in A$ and equality follows.

Finally, if $\alpha \in T_r$ has gap r where $q < r \leqslant p$ then Lemma 3 implies that, for each $\beta \in T_r$, there exist $\lambda, \mu \in PS(q)$ such that $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$ and hence $T_r \subseteq PS(q)^1\alpha PS(q)^1$. Since $\alpha \in T_r$ and T_r is an ideal, the reverse inclusion also holds, and thus each T_r is principal. ∎

In effect, in [**1**, Vol. 2, Lemma 10.54], Clifford and Preston prove that the Rees factor semigroups $I_{\xi'}/I_\xi$ of ideals I_ξ in $T(X)$ are 0-bisimple, and they contain a primitive idempotent precisely when ξ is finite (here ξ' denotes the *successor* of the cardinal ξ). To obtain a corresponding result for the ideals of $PS(q)$, we first observe that if $q < r \leqslant s \leqslant p$ then $q' \leqslant r$ and

$$T_p \subseteq \cdots \subseteq T_s \subseteq T_r \subseteq \cdots \subseteq T_{q'}.$$

Note that if $q < r \leqslant p$ then $G_r = S_r \cap T_r$ is the (non-empty) set of all $\alpha \in PS(q)$ with gap r, and in fact G_r is a semigroup (since it is the intersection of two semigroups). Therefore, if $q < r < p$ then $T_r/T_{r'}$ is essentially G_r with a zero adjoined (note that $G_p = T_p$).

Remark 4. If α, β are $\mathcal{D}$-related in G_r then they are $\mathcal{D}$-related in $PS(q)$. Conversely, from Theorem 10 we deduce that if α, β are $\mathcal{D}$-related in $PS(q)$ then they have the same gap, r say. Moreover, in this case, $\alpha \; \mathcal{L} \; \gamma \; \mathcal{R} \; \beta$ for some $\gamma \in PS(q)$ with the same gap as α (see the proof of Theorem 10). Now by Theorem 8, either $\alpha = \gamma$ or "$X\alpha = X\gamma$ and $g(\alpha) = g(\gamma) \geqslant q$"; and in the latter case, as in the second half of the proof of Theorem 8, we can find λ_1, λ_2 with gap r such that $\alpha = \lambda_1\gamma$ and $\gamma = \lambda_2\alpha$: that is, $\alpha\ \mathcal{L}\ \gamma$ in G_r. On the other hand, if $\gamma\ \mathcal{R}\ \beta$ in $PS(q)$ then $\operatorname{dom}\gamma = \operatorname{dom}\beta$ by Theorem 7. In addition, if γ and β have gap $r > q$, we can write

$$\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} a_i \\ c_i \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mu_1 = \begin{pmatrix} x_i\beta \\ b_i \end{pmatrix},$$

where $\{a_i\} = \{x_i\} \dot\cup \{x_k\}$ and $|K| = r$. Then $g(\mu_1) = \big|\{x_k\beta\} \cup X \setminus \{c_i\}\big| = r$ (since $d(\beta) = q < r$) and $\gamma = \beta\mu_1$. That is, if $\gamma\ \mathcal{R}\ \beta$ in $PS(q)$ and $q < r = g(\beta) \leqslant p$, we can show that $\gamma\ \mathcal{R}\ \beta$ in G_r. In other words, if α, β are $\mathcal{D}$-related in $PS(q)$ and have gap r where $q < r \leqslant p$ then they are $\mathcal{D}$-related in G_r.

From the above Remark, we deduce that G_r is bisimple if $q < r \leqslant p$. Also, if ε is an idempotent in G_r then $\varepsilon = \mathrm{id}_A$ for some $A \subseteq X$ such that $|A| = p$ and $|X \setminus A| = r > q$, which contradicts $d(\varepsilon) = q$. That is, G_r is idempotent-free.

Corollary 3. *If $q < r \leqslant p$ then $G_r = S_r \cap T_r$ is bisimple and idempotent-free.*

When $q = p$, $PS(q)$ contains constant maps, all of which form an ideal of $PS(q)$, so we can expect a more standard description of the ideals in $PS(q)$ in this case: compare [**1**, Vol. 2, Theorem 10.59] for the ideals of $T(X)$.

Theorem 14. *If $q = p$, the ideals of $PS(q)$ are precisely the sets:*

$$J_r = \{\alpha \in PS(q) : r(\alpha) < r\}$$

where $1 \leqslant r \leqslant p'$. Moreover, J_r is principal precisely when $r = s'$ where $0 \leqslant s \leqslant p$.

Proof: Clearly each J_r is an ideal of $PS(q)$. Let A be an ideal of $PS(q)$ and let r be the least cardinal greater than $r(\alpha)$ for all $\alpha \in A$. Then $A \subseteq J_r$. Now, for each $\beta \in J_r$, there exists $\alpha \in A$ such that $r(\beta) \leqslant r(\alpha)$ (by the choice of r). Hence Lemma 4 implies $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$ for some $\lambda, \mu \in PS(q)$, so $\beta \in A$. That is, $J_r \subseteq A$ and equality follows. Moreover, if $r = s'$ then $J_r = \{\alpha \in PS(q) : r(\alpha) \leqslant s\}$. In this case, since $p = q$, Lemma 4 implies $J_r \subseteq PS(q)^1\alpha PS(q)^1$ for each $\alpha \in J_r$ with rank s, and it follows that J_r is principal. Conversely, suppose $J_r = PS(q)^1\alpha PS(q)^1$ for some $\alpha \in J_r$. Let $r(\alpha) = s$ and assume there is a cardinal t such that $s < t < r$. Since $p = q$, there exists $\beta \in PS(q)$ with $r(\beta) = t$ and then $\beta \in J_r$, so $\beta = \lambda\alpha\mu$ for some $\lambda, \mu \in PS(q)^1$. But this implies $r(\beta) \leqslant r(\alpha)$, a contradiction. Therefore, t does not exist and thus $r = s'$. ∎

Remark 5. If non-zero α, β are $\mathcal{D}$-related in $J_{r'}/J_r$ then they are $\mathcal{D}$-related in $PS(q)$. Conversely, from Theorem 10 we deduce that if α, β are $\mathcal{D}$-related in $PS(q)$ then they have the same rank, r say. Moreover, in this case, $\alpha\ \mathcal{L}\ \gamma\ \mathcal{R}\ \beta$ for some $\gamma \in PS(q)$ with the same rank r (see the proof of Theorem 10). Next we observe that, in the proof of Theorem 7, μ has the same rank as α, and this can be used to show that, if elements of $PS(q)$ are $\mathcal{R}$-related in $PS(q)$ and have rank r, then they are $\mathcal{R}$-related in $J_{r'}/J_r$. In addition, if $\alpha\ \mathcal{L}\ \gamma$ in $PS(q)$ then Theorem 8 implies that either $\alpha = \gamma$ or "$X\alpha = X\gamma$ and $g(\alpha) = g(\gamma) \geqslant q$"; and in the latter case, as in the second half of the proof of Theorem 8, we can find λ_1, λ_2 with rank r such that $\alpha = \lambda_1\gamma$ and $\gamma = \lambda_2\alpha$: that is, $\alpha\ \mathcal{L}\ \gamma$ in $J_{r'}/J_r$. In other words, if α, β are $\mathcal{D}$-related in $PS(q)$ and have rank r then they are $\mathcal{D}$-related in $J_{r'}/J_r$.

Now, in Example 2 we found α, β with rank p which are not $\mathcal{D}$-related in $PS(q)$ and so, by the above Remark, $J_{p'}/J_p$ is not 0-bisimple. On the other hand, if $r < p = q$ then all non-zero elements of $J_{r'}/J_r$ have the same rank r and gap p, so Theorem 10 implies they are $\mathcal{D}$-related in $PS(q)$ and hence also in $J_{r'}/J_r$; that is, $J_{r'}/J_r$ is 0-bisimple if $1 \leqslant r < p$. However, if ε is a non-zero idempotent in $J_{r'}/J_r$ then $\varepsilon = \mathrm{id}_A$ for some $A \subseteq X$ such that $|A| = r$ and $|X \setminus A| = q$; and, since $A \setminus \{x\} \subsetneq A$ if $x \in A$, this is primitive precisely when r is finite and positive (see [**1**, Vol. 2, p. 224]). That is, $J_{r'}/J_r$ is completely 0-simple only when $1 \leqslant r < \aleph_0$. Finally, by Theorem 4, if each α in $J_{r'}/J_r$ is regular, we must have $r < q = p$ (since elements with rank p can have gap less than p). In other words, $J_{r'}/J_r$ is inverse precisely when $0 \leqslant r < p$.

COROLLARY 4. *If $1 \leqslant r < p = q$ then $J_{r'}/J_r$ is a 0-bisimple inverse semigroup; it is completely 0-simple only when r is finite.*

Note that if $q < p$ and $\alpha, \beta \in S_q$ then $r(\alpha) = r(\beta) = p$, so $\alpha\ \mathcal{J}\ \beta$ in S_q by Theorem 11(a). Thus, S_q is simple if $q < p$, and of course if $q = p$ then $S_q = PS(q)$. Likewise if $q < p$ then $R(q)$ is simple (in fact, bisimple since $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{J}$ when $q < p$). And if $q = p$ then $R(q)$ contains constant maps and an argument similar to that in the above proof leads to our last result.

THEOREM 15. *If $q = p$, the ideals of $R(q)$ are precisely the sets $R(q) \cap J_r$ where $1 \leqslant r \leqslant p'$.*

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