

CENTRALISERS IN THE INFINITE SYMMETRIC INVERSE SEMIGROUP

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Abstract

For an arbitrary set X (finite or infinite), denote by $I(X)$ the symmetric inverse semigroup of partial injective transformations on X . For $\alpha \in I(X)$, let $C(\alpha) = \{\beta \in I(X) : \alpha\beta = \beta\alpha\}$ be the centraliser of α in $I(X)$. For an arbitrary $\alpha \in I(X)$, we characterise the transformations $\beta \in I(X)$ that belong to $C(\alpha)$, describe the regular elements of $C(\alpha)$, and establish when $C(\alpha)$ is an inverse semigroup and when it is a completely regular semigroup. In the case where $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$, we determine the structure of $C(\alpha)$ in terms of Green's relations.

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1. Introduction

For an element a of a semigroup S , the *centraliser* $C(a)$ of a in S is defined by $C(a) = \{x \in S : ax = xa\}$. It is clear that $C(a)$ is a subsemigroup of S . For a set X , we denote by $P(X)$ the semigroup of partial transformations on X (functions whose domain and image are included in X), where the multiplication is the composition of functions. The transformation on X with the empty set as its domain is the zero in $P(X)$, which we will denote by \emptyset . By a transformation semigroup, we will mean any subsemigroup S of $P(X)$. Among transformation semigroups, we have the semigroup $T(X)$ of full transformations on X (elements of $P(X)$ whose domain is X).

Numerous papers have been published on centralisers in finite transformation semigroups, for example [6, 8, 15–17, 20, 23–25, 31]. For an infinite X , the centralisers of idempotent transformations in $T(X)$ have been studied in [2, 3, 30]. The cardinalities of $C(\alpha)$, for certain types of $\alpha \in T(X)$, have been established for a countable X in [12–14]. The author has investigated the centralisers of transformations in $T(X)$ with a coauthor in [5] and in the semigroup $\Gamma(X)$ of injective elements of $T(X)$ [18, 19].

This research has been motivated by the fact that if a transformation semigroup S contains an identity 1 or a zero 0 , then for any $\alpha \in S$, the centraliser $C(\alpha)$ is a generalisation of S in the sense that $S = C(1)$ and $S = C(0)$. It is therefore of interest

to find out which ideas, approaches, and techniques used to study S can be extended to the centralisers of its elements, and how these centralisers differ as semigroups from S . Centralisers of transformations are also important since they appear in various areas of mathematical research, for example, in the study of automorphism groups of semigroups [4]; in the theory of unary algebras [11, 29]; and in the study of commuting graphs [1, 7, 10].

Denote by $I(X)$ the symmetric inverse semigroup on a set X , which is the subsemigroup of $P(X)$ that consists of all *partial injective* transformations on X . The semigroup $I(X)$ is universal for the important class of inverse semigroups (see [9, Ch. 5] and [26]) since every inverse semigroup can be embedded in some $I(X)$ [9, Theorem 5.1.7]. This is analogous to the fact that every group can be embedded in some symmetric group $\text{Sym}(X)$ of permutations on X . We note that $\text{Sym}(X)$ is the group of units of $I(X)$.

The purpose of this paper is to study centralisers in the infinite symmetric inverse semigroup $I(X)$. (Centralisers in the finite $I(X)$ have been studied in [22].) In Section 2 we show that any $\alpha \in I(X)$ can be uniquely expressed as a join of disjoint cycles, rays and chains. This is analogous to expressing any permutation $\sigma \in \text{Sym}(X)$ as a product of disjoint (finite or infinite) cycles [28, Theorem 1.3.4]. Let $\alpha \in I(X)$. In Section 3 we use the decomposition theorem to characterise the transformations $\beta \in I(X)$ that are members of $C(\alpha)$. In Section 4 we describe the regular elements of $C(\alpha)$ and establish when $C(\alpha)$ is an inverse semigroup and when it is a completely regular semigroup. In Section 5 we determine Green's relations in $C(\alpha)$ (including the partial orders of \mathcal{L} -, \mathcal{R} -, and \mathcal{J} -classes) for $\alpha \in I(X)$ such that $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$.

2. Decomposition of $\alpha \in I(X)$

In this section, we show that every $\alpha \in I(X)$ can be uniquely decomposed into basic transformations called cycles, rays and chains.

Let $\gamma \in P(X)$. We denote the domain of γ by $\text{dom}(\gamma)$ and the image of γ by $\text{im}(\gamma)$. The union $\text{dom}(\gamma) \cup \text{im}(\gamma)$ will be called the *span* of γ and denoted $\text{span}(\gamma)$. As in [5], we will call γ *connected* if $\gamma \neq \emptyset$ and, for all $x, y \in \text{span}(\gamma)$, there are integers $k, m \geq 0$ such that $x \in \text{dom}(\gamma^k)$, $y \in \text{dom}(\gamma^m)$, and $x\gamma^k = y\gamma^m$, where $\gamma^0 = \text{id}_X$. (We will write mappings on the right and compose from left to right; that is, for $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$, we will write xf , rather than $f(x)$, and $x(fg)$, rather than $g(f(x))$.)

Let $\gamma, \delta \in P(X)$. We say that δ is *contained* in γ (or γ *contains* δ), if $\text{dom}(\delta) \subseteq \text{dom}(\gamma)$ and $x\delta = x\gamma$ for every $x \in \text{dom}(\delta)$. We say that γ and δ are *completely disjoint* if $\text{span}(\gamma) \cap \text{span}(\delta) = \emptyset$.

DEFINITION 2.1. Let M be a set of pairwise completely disjoint elements of $P(X)$. The *join* of the elements of M , denoted $\bigsqcup_{\gamma \in M} \gamma$, is the element of $P(X)$ whose domain is $\bigcup_{\gamma \in M} \text{dom}(\gamma)$ and whose values are defined by

$$x \left(\bigsqcup_{\gamma \in M} \gamma \right) = x\gamma_0$$

where γ_0 is the (unique) element of M such that $x \in \text{dom}(\gamma_0)$. If $M = \emptyset$, we define $\bigsqcup_{\gamma \in M} \gamma$ to be \emptyset . If $M = \{\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_k\}$ is finite, we may write the join as $\gamma_1 \sqcup \gamma_2 \sqcup \dots \sqcup \gamma_k$.

The following result has been proved in [5].

PROPOSITION 2.2. *Let $\alpha \in P(X)$ with $\alpha \neq \emptyset$. Then there exists a unique set M of pairwise completely disjoint, connected elements of $P(X)$ such that $\alpha = \bigsqcup_{\gamma \in M} \gamma$.*

The elements of the set M from Proposition 2.2 are called the *connected components* of α .

DEFINITION 2.3. Let $\dots, x_{-2}, x_{-1}, x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots$ be pairwise distinct elements of X . The following elements of $\mathcal{I}(X)$ will be called *basic partial transformations* on X .

- A *cycle* of length k ($k \geq 1$), written $(x_0 x_1 \dots x_{k-1})$, is an element $\sigma \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ with $\text{dom}(\sigma) = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}\}$, $x_i\sigma = x_{i+1}$ for all $0 \leq i < k - 1$, and $x_{k-1}\sigma = x_0$.
- A *right ray*, written $[x_0 x_1 x_2 \dots)$, is an element $\eta \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ with $\text{dom}(\eta) = \{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ and $x_i\eta = x_{i+1}$ for all $i \geq 0$.
- A *double ray*, written $\langle \dots x_{-1} x_0 x_1 \dots \rangle$, is an element $\omega \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ such that $\text{dom}(\omega) = \{\dots, x_{-1}, x_0, x_1, \dots\}$ and $x_i\omega = x_{i+1}$ for all i .
- A *left ray*, written $\langle \dots x_2 x_1 x_0 \rangle$, is an element $\lambda \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ with $\text{dom}(\lambda) = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$ and $x_i\lambda = x_{i-1}$ for all $i > 0$.
- A *chain* of length k ($k \geq 1$), written $[x_0 x_1 \dots x_k]$, is an element $\tau \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ with $\text{dom}(\tau) = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}\}$ and $x_i\tau = x_{i+1}$ for all $0 \leq i < k - 1$.

By a *ray* we will mean a double, right, or left ray.

We note the following:

- The span of a basic partial transformation is exhibited by the notation. For example, the span of the right ray $[1 2 3 \dots)$ is $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$.
- The left bracket in ' $\varepsilon = [x \dots$ ' indicates that $x \notin \text{im}(\varepsilon)$; while the right bracket in ' $\varepsilon = \dots x]$ ' indicates that $x \notin \text{dom}(\varepsilon)$. For example, for the chain $\tau = [1 2 3 4]$, $\text{dom}(\tau) = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\text{im}(\tau) = \{2, 3, 4\}$.
- A cycle $(x_0 x_1 \dots x_{k-1})$ differs from the corresponding cycle in the symmetric group of permutations on X in that the former is undefined for every $x \in X \setminus \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}\}$, while the latter fixes every such x .

It is clear that the connected components of $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ are precisely the basic partial transformations contained in α . Thus, the following decomposition result follows immediately from Proposition 2.2.

PROPOSITION 2.4. *Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ with $\alpha \neq \emptyset$. Then there exist unique sets A of right rays, B of double rays, C of cycles, P of left rays, and Q of chains such that the transformations in $A \cup B \cup C \cup P \cup Q$ are pairwise disjoint and*

$$\alpha = \bigsqcup_{\eta \in A} \eta \sqcup \bigsqcup_{\omega \in B} \omega \sqcup \bigsqcup_{\sigma \in C} \sigma \sqcup \bigsqcup_{\lambda \in P} \lambda \sqcup \bigsqcup_{\tau \in Q} \tau. \tag{2.1}$$

We will call the join (2.1) the *ray-cycle-chain decomposition* of α . We note the following:

- if $\alpha \in \text{Sym}(X)$, then $\alpha = \bigsqcup_{\omega \in B} \omega \sqcup \bigsqcup_{\sigma \in C} \sigma$ (since $A = P = Q = \emptyset$), which corresponds to the decomposition given in [28, 1.3.4];
- if $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$, then $\alpha = \bigsqcup_{\eta \in A} \eta \sqcup \bigsqcup_{\omega \in B} \omega \sqcup \bigsqcup_{\sigma \in C} \sigma$ (since $P = Q = \emptyset$), which corresponds to the decomposition given in [21];
- if X is finite, then $\alpha = \bigsqcup_{\sigma \in C} \sigma \sqcup \bigsqcup_{\tau \in Q} \tau$ (since $A = B = P = \emptyset$), which is the decomposition given in [22, Theorem 3.2].

REMARK 2.5. Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ with the ray-cycle-chain decomposition as in (2.1). Then, for every $x \in X$:

- (1) if $\sigma \in A$ and $x \in \text{span}(\sigma)$, then $x\alpha^p = x$ for some $p \geq 1$;
- (2) if $\lambda \in P, \tau \in Q$, and $x \in \text{span}(\lambda) \cup \text{span}(\tau)$, then $x\alpha^p \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$ for some $p \geq 0$.

3. Members of $C(\alpha)$

In this section, for an arbitrary $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$, we determine which transformations $\beta \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ belong to $C(\alpha)$. For $\alpha \in P(X)$ and $x, y \in X$, we write $x \xrightarrow{\alpha} y$ if $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$ and $x\alpha = y$. The following proposition applies to any semigroup of partial transformations.

PROPOSITION 3.1. *Let S be any subsemigroup of $P(X)$, $\alpha \in S$, and $C(\alpha) = \{\beta \in S : \alpha\beta = \beta\alpha\}$. Then for every $\beta \in S$, $\beta \in C(\alpha)$ if and only if for all $x, y \in X$, the following conditions are satisfied.*

- (1) If $x \xrightarrow{\alpha} y$ and $y \in \text{dom}(\beta)$, then $x \in \text{dom}(\beta)$ and $x\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} y\beta$.
- (2) If $x \xrightarrow{\alpha} y, x \in \text{dom}(\beta)$, and $y \notin \text{dom}(\beta)$, then $x\beta \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$.
- (3) If $x \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$ and $x \in \text{dom}(\beta)$, then $x\beta \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$.

PROOF. Suppose that $\beta \in C(\alpha)$, that is, $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$. Let $x \xrightarrow{\alpha} y$ and $y \in \text{dom}(\beta)$. Then $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha\beta) = \text{dom}(\beta\alpha) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$. Further, $y\beta = (x\alpha)\beta = (x\beta)\alpha$, and so $x\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} y\beta$. Let $x \xrightarrow{\alpha} y, x \in \text{dom}(\beta)$, and $y \notin \text{dom}(\beta)$. Then $x\beta \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$ since otherwise we would have $x \in \text{dom}(\beta\alpha) = \text{dom}(\alpha\beta)$, which would imply that $y = x\alpha \in \text{dom}(\beta)$. Let $x \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$ and $x \in \text{dom}(\beta)$. Then $x\beta \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$ since otherwise we would have $x \in \text{dom}(\beta\alpha) = \text{dom}(\alpha\beta) \subseteq \text{dom}(\alpha)$. Hence (1)–(3) hold.

Conversely, suppose that (1)–(3) are satisfied. Let $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha\beta)$, that is, $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$ and $y = x\alpha \in \text{dom}(\beta)$. Then, by (1), $x \in \text{dom}(\beta)$ and $x\beta \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$, that is, $x \in \text{dom}(\beta\alpha)$. Let $x \in \text{dom}(\beta\alpha)$, that is, $x \in \text{dom}(\beta)$ and $x\beta \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$. Then $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$ by (3), and so $y = x\alpha \in \text{dom}(\beta)$ by (2). Hence $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha\beta)$. We have proved that $\text{dom}(\alpha\beta) = \text{dom}(\beta\alpha)$. Let $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha\beta)$. Then $x \xrightarrow{\alpha} x\alpha$, which implies that $x\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} (x\alpha)\beta$ by (1). But the latter means that $(x\beta)\alpha = (x\alpha)\beta$. Thus $x(\alpha\beta) = x(\beta\alpha)$, and so $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$. Hence $\beta \in C(\alpha)$. □

It will be convenient to extend the concept of the chain (see Definition 2.3) by defining the chain $[x_0]$ of length 0 (where $x_0 \in X$) to be the set $\{x_0\}$ and agree that $\text{span}([x_0]) = \{x_0\}$. We also agree that, for a cycle $(y_0 y_1 \dots y_{k-1})$ and an integer i, y_i will mean y_r where $r \equiv i \pmod k$ and $r \in \{0, \dots, k-1\}$.

DEFINITION 3.2. Let $\beta \in \mathcal{I}(X)$. Let $\sigma = (x_0 \dots x_{k-1})$ and $\sigma_1 = (y_0 \dots y_{k-1})$ be cycles of the same length, $\eta = [x_0 x_1 \dots]$ and $\eta_1 = [y_0 y_1 \dots]$ be right rays, $\omega = \langle \dots x_{-1} x_0 x_1 \dots \rangle$ and $\omega_1 = \langle \dots y_{-1} y_0 y_1 \dots \rangle$ be double rays, $\lambda = \langle \dots x_1 x_0 \rangle$ and $\lambda_1 = \langle \dots y_1 y_0 \rangle$ be left rays, and $\tau = [x_0 \dots x_k]$ and $\tau_1 = [y_0 \dots y_k]$ be chains of the same length (possibly zero).

We say that β maps σ onto σ_1 if $\text{span}(\sigma_1) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$ and, for some $j \in \{0, \dots, k-1\}$,

$$x_0\beta = y_j, x_1\beta = y_{j+1}, \dots, x_{k-1}\beta = y_{j+k-1};$$

β maps η onto η_1 if $\text{span}(\eta) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$ and $x_i\beta = y_i$ for all $i \geq 0$; β maps ω onto ω_1 if $\text{span}(\omega) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$ and, for some j , $x_i\beta = y_{j+i}$ for all i ; β maps λ onto λ_1 if $\text{span}(\lambda) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$ and $x_i\beta = y_i$ for all $i \geq 0$; and β maps τ onto τ_1 if $\text{span}(\tau) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$ and $x_i\beta = y_i$ for all $i \in \{0, \dots, k\}$.

DEFINITION 3.3. Let $\eta = [x_0 x_1 \dots]$ be a right ray, $\tau = [x_0 \dots x_k]$ be a chain ($k \geq 0$), $\omega = \langle \dots x_{-1} x_0 x_1 \dots \rangle$ be a double ray, and $\lambda = \langle \dots x_1 x_0 \rangle$ be a left ray.

Any chain $[x_0 \dots x_i]$, where $i \geq 0$, is an *initial segment* of η ; and any chain $[x_0 \dots x_i]$, where $0 \leq i \leq k$, is an *initial segment* of τ .

Any left ray $\langle \dots x_{i-1} x_i \rangle$, where i is any integer, is an *initial segment* of ω ; and any left ray $\langle \dots x_{i+1} x_i \rangle$, where $i \geq 0$, is an *initial segment* of λ .

Any chain $[x_i \dots x_k]$, where $0 \leq i \leq k$, is a *terminal segment* of τ ; and any chain $[x_i \dots x_0]$, where $i \geq 0$, is a *terminal segment* of λ .

For $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$, let A, B, C, P , and Q be the sets that occur in the ray–cycle–chain decomposition of α (see (2.1)). By $A_\alpha, B_\alpha, C_\alpha, P_\alpha$, and Q_α we will mean the following sets:

$$A_\alpha = A, \quad B_\alpha = B, \quad C_\alpha = C, \quad P_\alpha = P, \quad Q_\alpha = Q \cup \{[x_0] : x_0 \notin \text{span}(\alpha)\}.$$

We now have the tools to characterise the members of the centraliser $C(\alpha)$.

THEOREM 3.4. Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{I}(X)$. Then $\beta \in C(\alpha)$ if and only if for all $\eta \in A_\alpha$, $\omega \in B_\alpha$, $\sigma \in C_\alpha$, $\lambda \in P_\alpha$, and $\tau \in Q_\alpha$, the following conditions are satisfied.

- (1) If $\text{span}(\eta) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$, then there is $\eta_1 = [y_0 y_1 \dots] \in A_\alpha$ or $\omega_1 = \langle \dots y_{-1} y_0 y_1 \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$ such that β maps η onto $[y_j y_{j+1} \dots]$ for some j .
- (2) If $\text{span}(\eta) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$ but $\text{span}(\eta) \not\subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$, then there is an initial segment τ' of η such that $\text{span}(\eta) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) = \text{span}(\tau')$ and β maps τ' onto a terminal segment of some $\lambda_1 \in P_\alpha$ or onto a terminal segment of some $\tau_1 \in Q_\alpha$.
- (3) If $\text{span}(\omega) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$, then β maps ω onto some $\omega_1 \in B_\alpha$.
- (4) If $\text{span}(\omega) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$ but $\text{span}(\omega) \not\subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$, then there is an initial segment λ' of ω such that $\text{span}(\omega) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) = \text{span}(\lambda')$ and β maps λ' onto some $\lambda_1 \in P_\alpha$.
- (5) If $\text{span}(\sigma) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$, then β maps σ onto some $\sigma_1 \in C_\alpha$.
- (6) If $\text{span}(\lambda) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$, then there is an initial segment λ' (possibly λ itself) of λ such that $\text{span}(\lambda) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) = \text{span}(\lambda')$ and β maps λ' onto some $\lambda_1 \in P_\alpha$.

(7) If $\text{span}(\tau) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$, then there is an initial segment τ' (possibly τ itself) of τ such that $\text{span}(\tau) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) = \text{span}(\tau')$ and β maps τ' onto a terminal segment of some $\lambda_1 \in P_\alpha$ or onto a terminal segment of some $\tau_1 \in Q_\alpha$.

PROOF. Suppose that $\beta \in C(\alpha)$. Let $\eta = [x_0 x_1 x_2 \dots] \in A_\alpha$. Then

$$x_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_2 \xrightarrow{\alpha} \dots \tag{3.1}$$

Suppose that $\text{span}(\eta) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$. Then, by Proposition 3.1,

$$x_0\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_1\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_2\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} \dots \tag{3.2}$$

By Proposition 2.4, there is $\eta_1 = [y_0 y_1 \dots] \in A_\alpha$ or $\omega_1 = \langle \dots y_{-1} y_0 y_1 \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$ such that $x_0\beta = y_j$ for some j . (By Remark 2.5, $x_0\beta$ cannot be in the span of $\sigma \in A_\alpha, \lambda \in P_\alpha$, or $\tau \in Q_\alpha$.) Hence β maps η onto $[y_j y_{j+1} \dots]$ by (3.2).

Suppose that $\text{span}(\eta) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$ but $\text{span}(\eta) \not\subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$. Then, there is $i \geq 0$ such that $x_i \in \text{dom}(\beta)$ but $x_{i+1} \notin \text{dom}(\beta)$. By (3.1) and Proposition 3.1, $\text{span}(\eta) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) = \{x_0, \dots, x_i\}$, $x_i\beta \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$, and

$$x_0\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_1\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} \dots \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_i\beta. \tag{3.3}$$

Since $x_i\beta \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$, it follows by Proposition 2.4 that there is $\lambda_1 = \langle \dots y_1 y_0 \rangle \in P_\alpha$ such that $x_i\beta = y_0$, or there is $\tau_1 = [y_0 \dots y_k] \in Q_\alpha$ such that $x_i\beta = y_k$. Hence, by (3.3), for the initial segment $\tau' = [x_0 \dots x_i]$ of η , β maps τ' onto the terminal segment $[y_{i-1} \dots y_0]$ of λ_1 or onto the terminal segment $[y_{k-i} \dots y_k]$ of τ_1 . We have proved (1) and (2). The proofs of (3) and (4) are similar.

Let $\sigma = (x_0 \dots x_{k-1}) \in A_\alpha$. Then

$$x_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha} \dots \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_{k-1} \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_0.$$

Suppose that $\text{span}(\sigma) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$, that is, $x_i \in \text{dom}(\beta)$ for some i . Then, by Proposition 3.1, $\text{span}(\sigma) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$ and

$$x_0\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_1\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} \dots \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_{k-1}\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_0\beta,$$

and so β maps σ onto $\sigma_1 = (x_0\beta \dots x_{k-1}\beta) \in A_\alpha$. This proves (5).

Let $\lambda = \langle \dots x_2 x_1 x_0 \rangle \in P_\alpha$, so

$$\dots \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_2 \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_0. \tag{3.4}$$

Suppose that $\text{span}(\lambda) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$. Let i be the smallest nonnegative integer such that $x_i \in \text{dom}(\beta)$. By (3.4) and Proposition 3.1, $\text{span}(\lambda) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) = \{\dots, x_{i+1}, x_i\}$, $x_i\beta \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$, and

$$\dots \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_{i+2}\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_{i+1}\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} x_i\beta. \tag{3.5}$$

Since $x_i\beta \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$, it follows by Proposition 2.4 that there is $\lambda_1 = \langle \dots y_1 y_0 \rangle \in P_\alpha$ such that $x_i\beta = y_0$, or there is $\tau_1 = [y_0 \dots y_k] \in Q_\alpha$ such that $x_i\beta = y_k$. But the latter

is impossible since we would have $y_0 \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$ and $y_0 = x_{i+k}\beta \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$. Hence, by (3.5), for the initial segment $\lambda' = \langle \dots x_{i+1} x_i \rangle$ of λ, β maps λ' onto λ_1 . We have proved (6). The proof of (7) is similar.

Conversely, suppose that β satisfies (1)–(7). We will prove that (1)–(3) of Proposition 3.1 hold for β . Let $x, y \in X$. Suppose that $x \xrightarrow{\alpha} y$ and $y \in \text{dom}(\beta)$. If $y \in \text{span}(\eta)$ for some $\eta \in A_\alpha$, then $x \in \text{dom}(\beta)$ and $x\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} y\beta$ by (1) and (2). Similarly, $x \in \text{dom}(\beta)$ and $x\beta \xrightarrow{\alpha} y\beta$ in each of the remaining possibilities: if $y \in \text{span}(\omega)$ for some $\omega \in B_\alpha$ by (3) and (4); if $y \in \text{span}(\sigma)$ for some $\sigma \in A_\alpha$ by (5); if $y \in \text{span}(\lambda)$ for some $\lambda \in P_\alpha$ by (6); and finally, if $y \in \text{span}(\tau)$ for some $\tau \in Q_\alpha$ by (7).

Suppose that $x \xrightarrow{\alpha} y$, $x \in \text{dom}(\beta)$, and $y \notin \text{dom}(\beta)$. This is only possible when β satisfies (2), (4), (6), or (7) with x being the terminal point of the relevant initial segment, and so $x\beta \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$. Finally, suppose that $x \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$ and $x \in \text{dom}(\beta)$. This can only happen when x is the terminal point of some $\lambda \in P_\alpha$ or some $\tau \in Q_\alpha$, and so $x\beta \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$ by (6) and (7).

Hence β satisfies (1)–(3) of Proposition 3.1, and so $\beta \in C(\alpha)$. □

4. Inverse and completely regular centralisers

In this section, for an arbitrary $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$, we characterise the regular elements of $C(\alpha)$. We also determine for which $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ the centraliser $C(\alpha)$ is an inverse semigroup, and for which $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ it is a completely regular semigroup.

An element a of a semigroup S is called *regular* if $a = axa$ for some $x \in S$. If all elements of S are regular, we say that S is a *regular semigroup*. An element $a' \in S$ is called an *inverse* of $a \in S$ if $a = aa'a$ and $a' = a'ad'$. Since regular elements are precisely those that have inverses (if $a = axa$ then $a' = xax$ is an inverse of a), we may define a regular semigroup as a semigroup in which each element has an inverse [9, p. 51].

Two important classes of regular semigroups are inverse semigroups [26] and completely regular semigroups [27]. A semigroup S is called an *inverse semigroup* if every element of S has exactly one inverse [26, Definition II.1.1]. An alternative definition is that S is an inverse semigroup if it is a regular semigroup and its idempotents (elements $e \in S$ such that $ee = e$) commute [9, Theorem 5.1.1]. A semigroup S is called a *completely regular semigroup* if every element of S is in some subgroup of S [9, p. 103].

For $\beta \in P(X)$ and $Y \subseteq X$, we denote by $Y\beta$ the image of Y under β , that is, $Y\beta = \{x\beta : x \in Y \cap \text{dom}(\beta)\}$.

DEFINITION 4.1. Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$, $M_\alpha = A_\alpha \cup B_\alpha \cup C_\alpha \cup P_\alpha \cup Q_\alpha$, and $\beta \in C(\alpha)$. We define a partial transformation Ψ_β on M_α by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) &= \{\varepsilon \in M_\alpha : \text{span}(\varepsilon) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset\}, \\ \varepsilon\Psi_\beta &= \text{the unique } \varepsilon_1 \in M_\alpha \text{ such that } (\text{span}(\varepsilon))\beta \subseteq \text{span}(\varepsilon_1). \end{aligned}$$

Note that Ψ_β is well defined and injective by Theorem 3.4; that is, $\Psi_\beta \in \mathcal{I}(M_\alpha)$.

The following lemma follows immediately from Definition 4.1 and Theorem 3.4.

LEMMA 4.2. *Let $\alpha \in I(X)$. Then for all $\beta, \gamma \in C(\alpha)$:*

- (1) $\Psi_{\beta\gamma} = \Psi_\beta\Psi_\gamma$;
- (2) $A_\alpha\Psi_\beta \subseteq A_\alpha \cup B_\alpha \cup P_\alpha \cup Q_\alpha$;
- (3) $B_\alpha\Psi_\beta \subseteq B_\alpha \cup P_\alpha$;
- (4) if $\sigma \in C_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$, then $\sigma\Psi_\beta$ is a cycle in C_α of the same length as σ ;
- (5) $P_\alpha\Psi_\beta \subseteq P_\alpha$;
- (6) $Q_\alpha\Psi_\beta \subseteq Q_\alpha \cup P_\alpha$.

LEMMA 4.3. *Let $\alpha \in I(X)$ and let $\beta, \gamma \in C(\alpha)$ be such that $\beta = \beta\gamma\beta$. Then $A_\alpha\Psi_\beta \subseteq A_\alpha$, $B_\alpha\Psi_\beta \subseteq B_\alpha$ and $Q_\alpha\Psi_\beta \subseteq Q_\alpha$.*

PROOF. First, notice that $\Psi_\beta = \Psi_{\beta\gamma\beta}$ (since $\beta = \beta\gamma\beta$), and so $\Psi_\beta = \Psi_\beta\Psi_\gamma\Psi_\beta$ (by Lemma 4.2). Let $\eta \in A_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$. Then, by Lemma 4.2, $\eta\Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha \cup B_\alpha \cup P_\alpha \cup Q_\alpha$. Suppose that $\eta\Psi_\beta \in B_\alpha$ and let $\omega = \eta\Psi_\beta$. Then

$$\eta\Psi_\beta = \eta(\Psi_\beta\Psi_\gamma\Psi_\beta) = ((\eta\Psi_\beta)\Psi_\gamma)\Psi_\beta = (\omega\Psi_\gamma)\Psi_\beta.$$

But then $\omega\Psi_\gamma = \eta$ (since Ψ_β is injective), which contradicts Lemma 4.2 (since $\omega \in B_\alpha$ and $\eta \in A_\alpha$). Hence $\eta\Psi_\beta \notin B_\alpha$. By similar arguments, $\eta\Psi_\beta$ cannot belong to P_α or Q_α , and so $\eta\Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha$. We have proved that $A_\alpha\Psi_\beta \subseteq A_\alpha$. The proofs that the remaining two inclusions hold are similar. □

LEMMA 4.4. *Let $\alpha \in I(X)$ and let $\beta, \gamma \in C(\alpha)$ be such that $\beta = \beta\gamma\beta$. Then:*

- (1) if $\eta = [x_0 x_1 \dots] \in A_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ and $\eta\Psi_\beta = [y_0 y_1 \dots] \in A_\alpha$, then $x_0\beta = y_0$;
- (2) if $\lambda = \langle \dots x_1 x_0 \rangle \in P_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ and $\lambda\Psi_\beta = \langle \dots y_1 y_0 \rangle \in P_\alpha$, then $x_0 \in \text{dom}(\beta)$ and $x_0\beta = y_0$;
- (3) if $\tau = [x_0 \dots x_k] \in Q_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ and $\tau\Psi_\beta = [y_0 \dots y_m] \in Q_\alpha$, then $k = m$, $x_0\beta = y_0$, $x_k \in \text{dom}(\beta)$, and $x_k\beta = y_k$.

PROOF. Suppose that $\eta = [x_0 x_1 \dots] \in A_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ and $\eta\Psi_\beta = \eta_1 = [y_0 y_1 \dots] \in A_\alpha$. Then, by Theorem 3.4, $\text{span}(\eta) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$ and β maps η onto $[y_j y_{j+1} \dots]$ for some j . Since $\beta = \beta\gamma\beta$, we have $x_0\beta = ((x_0\beta)\gamma)\beta = (y_j\gamma)\beta$ and so $y_j\gamma = x_0$ (since β is injective). Thus, by Theorem 3.4 again, γ maps η_1 onto $[x_i x_{i+1} \dots]$ for some $i \geq 0$. But since $y_j\gamma = x_0$, this is only possible when $i = j = 0$. Hence $x_0\beta = y_j = y_0$. We have proved (1).

Suppose that $\lambda = \langle \dots x_1 x_0 \rangle \in P_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ and $\lambda\Psi_\beta = \lambda_1 = \langle \dots y_1 y_0 \rangle \in P_\alpha$. Then, by Theorem 3.4, β maps some initial segment of λ , say $\langle \dots x_{i+1} x_i \rangle$, onto λ_1 . Since $\beta = \beta\gamma\beta$, we have $x_i\beta = ((x_i\beta)\gamma)\beta = (y_0\gamma)\beta$ and so $y_0\gamma = x_i$. Thus, by Theorem 3.4 again, γ maps η_1 onto η . Thus $x_i = y_0\gamma = x_0$, so $x_0 = x_i \in \text{dom}(\beta)$ and $x_0\beta = x_i\beta = y_0$. We have proved (2).

Suppose that $\tau = [x_0 \dots x_k] \in Q_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ and $\tau\Psi_\beta = \tau_1 = [y_0 \dots y_m] \in Q_\alpha$. Then, by Theorem 3.4, β maps some initial segment of τ , say $[x_0 \dots x_i]$, onto some terminal segment of τ_1 , say $[y_j \dots y_m]$. Then $x_0\beta = ((x_0\beta)\gamma)\beta = (y_j\gamma)\beta$, and so $y_j\gamma = x_0$. But then, by Theorem 3.4, γ maps some initial segment on τ_1 , say $[y_0 \dots y_p]$,

onto some terminal segment of τ , say $[x_t \dots x_k]$. Thus $x_0 = y_j \gamma = x_{t+j}$, which implies that $j = t = 0$. Hence β maps $[x_0 \dots x_i]$ onto $[y_0 \dots y_m]$, and γ maps $[y_0 \dots y_p]$ onto $[x_0 \dots x_k]$. It follows that $i = m$ and $p = k$, so $m = i \leq k = p \leq m$. Hence $k = m$ and β maps τ onto τ_1 , so $x_0 \beta = y_0$, $x_k \in \text{dom}(\beta)$, and $x_k \beta = y_k$. We have proved (3). \square

We can now characterise the regular elements of $C(\alpha)$.

THEOREM 4.5. *Let $\alpha \in I(X)$ and $\beta \in C(\alpha)$. Then β is a regular element of $C(\alpha)$ if and only if, for every $\varepsilon \in M_\alpha$:*

- (1) *if $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$ then $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$; and*
- (2) *if $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \cap \text{im}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$ then $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \subseteq \text{im}(\beta)$.*

PROOF. Suppose that β is a regular element of $C(\alpha)$, that is, $\beta = \beta\gamma\beta$ for some $\gamma \in C(\alpha)$. Let $\varepsilon \in M_\alpha = A_\alpha \cup B_\alpha \cup C_\alpha \cup P_\alpha \cup Q_\alpha$.

Suppose that $\varepsilon = [x_0 x_1 \dots] \in A_\alpha$ and $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$. Then $\varepsilon\Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha$ by Lemma 4.3, and so $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$ by Theorem 3.4. Suppose that $\varepsilon = \langle \dots x_1 x_0 \rangle \in P_\alpha$ and $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$. Then $\varepsilon\Psi_\beta \in P_\alpha$ by Lemma 4.3. Let $\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon\Psi_\beta = \langle \dots y_1 y_0 \rangle$. By Lemma 4.4, $x_0 \in \text{dom}(\beta)$ and $x_0 \beta = y_0$. Thus β maps ε onto ε_1 , and so $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$. If $\varepsilon \in B_\alpha \cup C_\alpha \cup Q_\alpha$, then (1) follows by similar arguments.

Suppose that $\varepsilon = [y_0 y_1 \dots] \in A_\alpha$ and $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \cap \text{im}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$. Then $\varepsilon \in \text{im}(\Psi_\beta)$, that is, $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_1\Psi_\beta$ for some $\varepsilon_1 \in M_\alpha$. By Lemmas 4.2 and 4.3, $\varepsilon_1 \in A_\alpha$. Let $\varepsilon_1 = [x_0 x_1 \dots]$. By Lemma 4.4, $x_0 \beta = y_0$. Hence β maps ε_1 onto ε , and so $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \subseteq \text{im}(\beta)$. Suppose that $\varepsilon = [y_0 \dots y_m] \in Q_\alpha$ and $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$. Then $\varepsilon \in \text{im}(\Psi_\beta)$, that is, $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_1\Psi_\beta$ for some $\varepsilon_1 \in M_\alpha$. By Lemmas 4.2 and 4.3, $\varepsilon_1 \in Q_\alpha$. Let $\varepsilon_1 = [x_0 \dots x_k]$. By Lemma 4.4, $k = m$, $x_0 \beta = y_0$, $x_k \in \text{dom}(\beta)$, and $x_k \beta = y_k$. Hence β maps ε_1 onto ε , and so $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \subseteq \text{im}(\beta)$. If $\varepsilon \in B_\alpha \cup C_\alpha \cup P_\alpha$, then (2) follows by similar arguments.

Conversely, suppose that (1) and (2) hold for every $\varepsilon \in M_\alpha$. We will define $\gamma \in C(\alpha)$ such that $\beta = \beta\gamma\beta$. Set $\text{dom}(\gamma) = \bigcup \{ \text{span}(\varepsilon_1) : \varepsilon_1 \in \text{im}(\Psi_\beta) \}$ and note that $\text{dom}(\gamma) = \text{im}(\beta)$. Let $\varepsilon_1 = \lambda_1 \in \text{im}(\Psi_\beta) \cap P_\alpha$. Then $\lambda_1 = \varepsilon\Psi_\beta$ for some $\varepsilon \in M_\alpha$.

Suppose that $\varepsilon \in A_\alpha$. Then, by Theorem 3.4, β maps some initial segment τ' of ε onto a terminal segment of λ_1 , and $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) = \text{span}(\tau')$. But this is impossible since $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$ by (1). Suppose that $\varepsilon \in B_\alpha$. Then, by Theorem 3.4, β maps some initial segment λ' of ε onto λ , and $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) = \text{span}(\lambda')$. Again, this contradicts (1). Suppose that $\varepsilon \in Q_\alpha$. Then, by Theorem 3.4, β maps some initial segment τ' of ε onto some terminal segment τ_1 of λ_1 . But then $\text{span}(\lambda_1) \cap \text{im}(\beta) = \text{span}(\tau_1)$, which contradicts (2).

Thus $\varepsilon = \lambda \in P_\alpha$ and β maps an initial segment of λ onto λ_1 . By (1), that initial segment must be λ . We have proved that for every $\lambda_1 \in \text{im}(\Psi_\beta) \cap P_\alpha$, there is a (necessarily unique) $\lambda \in P_\alpha$ such that β maps λ onto λ_1 . By similar arguments, for every $\eta_1 \in \text{im}(\Psi_\beta) \cap A_\alpha$ ($\omega_1 \in \text{im}(\Psi_\beta) \cap B_\alpha$, $\tau_1 \in \text{im}(\Psi_\beta) \cap Q_\alpha$) there is a unique $\eta \in A_\alpha$ ($\omega \in B_\alpha$, $\tau \in Q_\alpha$) such that β maps η onto η_1 (ω onto ω_1 , τ onto τ_1).

Let $\eta_1 \in \text{im}(\Psi_\beta) \cap A_\alpha$. Define γ on $\text{span}(\eta_1)$ in such a way that γ maps η_1 onto η (where η is as in the preceding paragraph). Let $\omega_1, \lambda_1, \tau_1 \in \text{im}(\Psi_\beta)$ with $\omega_1 \in B_\alpha$, $\lambda_1 \in P_\alpha$, and $\tau_1 \in Q_\alpha$. We define γ on $\text{span}(\omega_1)$, on $\text{span}(\lambda_1)$, and on $\text{span}(\tau_1)$

in a similar way with the following restriction: if $\omega_1 = \langle \dots y_{-1} y_0 y_1 \dots \rangle$ and $\omega = \langle \dots x_{-1} x_0 x_1 \dots \rangle$ with $x_0\beta = y_p$, then $y_i\gamma = x_{i-p}$ for every i .

By the definition of γ and Theorem 3.4, $\gamma \in I(X)$, $\gamma \in C(\alpha)$, and $\beta = \beta\gamma\beta$. Hence β is a regular element of $C(\alpha)$. □

The class of regular semigroups is larger than the class of inverse semigroups. For example, the semigroups $P(X)$ and $T(X)$ of partial and full transformations on a set X are regular semigroups but not inverse semigroups (unless $|X| = 1$). However, for every subsemigroup S of $I(X)$, S is a regular semigroup if and only if S is an inverse semigroup. This is because $I(X)$ is an inverse semigroup, and so its idempotents commute (see the beginning of this section).

THEOREM 4.6. *Let $\alpha \in I(X)$. Then $C(\alpha)$ is an inverse semigroup if and only if $\alpha = \emptyset$ or α is a permutation on its domain.*

PROOF. First note that a nonzero $\alpha \in I(X)$ is a permutation on its domain if and only if it is a join of double rays and cycles; that is, if and only if $A_\alpha = P_\alpha = \emptyset$ and $Q_\alpha = \{[x_0] : x_0 \notin \text{span}(\alpha)\}$.

Suppose that $C(\alpha)$ is inverse and $\alpha \neq \emptyset$. Then, since $\alpha \in C(\alpha)$, there exists $\beta \in C(\alpha)$ with $\alpha = \alpha\beta\alpha = \alpha(\alpha\beta)$ (since $\beta\alpha = \alpha\beta$) and it follows that $\text{im}(\alpha) \subseteq \text{dom}(\alpha\beta) \subseteq \text{dom}(\alpha)$. Also, $\alpha\beta$ is idempotent, so $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha = \text{id}_Y$ for some Y containing $\text{dom}(\alpha)$ (since $\alpha = \alpha\beta\alpha = \text{id}_Y\alpha$). It follows that $\text{dom}(\alpha) \subseteq \text{im}(\alpha)$ (since if $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$, then $x \in Y$, and so $x = x \text{id}_Y = x(\beta\alpha) \in \text{im}(\alpha)$). Therefore, $\text{dom}(\alpha) = \text{im}(\alpha)$, and so, since α is injective, it is a permutation on its domain.

Conversely, if $\alpha = \emptyset$ then $C(\alpha) = I(X)$ is an inverse semigroup. Suppose that $\alpha \neq \emptyset$ and α is a permutation on its domain. Let $\beta \in C(\alpha)$. We will prove that β is regular. Let $\varepsilon \in B_\alpha \cup C_\alpha \cup Q_\alpha$ (recall that $A_\alpha = P_\alpha = \emptyset$). We claim that if $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$ ($\text{span}(\varepsilon) \cap \text{im}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$), then $\text{span}(\varepsilon) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$ ($\text{span}(\varepsilon) \subseteq \text{im}(\beta)$). Let $\varepsilon = \omega \in B_\alpha$. Suppose that $\text{span}(\omega) \cap \text{dom}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$. Then $\text{span}(\omega) \subseteq \text{dom}(\beta)$ by Theorem 3.4 (since $P_\alpha = \emptyset$). Suppose that $\text{span}(\omega) \cap \text{im}(\beta) \neq \emptyset$. Then, by Theorem 3.4 again, β maps some $\omega_1 \in B_\alpha$ onto ω (since $A_\alpha = \emptyset$), and so $\text{span}(\omega) \subseteq \text{im}(\beta)$. The claim is true for $\varepsilon \in C_\alpha$ by a similar argument, and it is certainly true for $\varepsilon = [x_0] \in Q_\alpha$. (Recall that α does not have any chain of length greater than 0.) Thus β is regular by Theorem 4.5. Hence $C(\alpha)$ is a regular semigroup, and so an inverse semigroup (since the idempotents in $C(\alpha)$ commute). □

Let $\alpha \in I(X)$. If $C(\alpha)$ is a completely regular semigroup, then it is an inverse semigroup. As the next result shows, the class of completely regular centralisers in $I(X)$ is much smaller than the class of inverse centralisers. For $n \geq 1$, we denote by C_α^n the subset of C_α consisting of all cycles in C_α of length n .

THEOREM 4.7. *Let $\alpha \in I(X)$. Then $C(\alpha)$ is a completely regular semigroup if and only if:*

- (1) $\alpha = \emptyset$ or α is a permutation on its domain; and
- (2) $|B_\alpha| \leq 1$, $|Q_\alpha| \leq 1$, and $|C_\alpha^n| \leq 1$ for every $n \geq 1$.

PROOF. Suppose that $C(\alpha)$ is a completely regular semigroup. Then (1) holds by Theorem 4.6. Suppose that $\omega = \langle \dots x_{-1} x_0 x_1 \dots \rangle$ and $\omega_1 = \langle \dots y_{-1} y_0 y_1 \dots \rangle$ are two distinct double rays in B_α . Define $\beta \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ by $\text{dom}(\beta) = \text{span}(\omega)$ and $x_i\beta = y_i$ for every i . Then $\beta \in C(\alpha)$ by Theorem 3.4, and $\beta^2 = \emptyset$. Thus β is not in a subgroup of $C(\alpha)$ since there is no group with at least two elements and a zero. Hence $|B_\alpha| \leq 1$. By similar arguments, $|Q_\alpha| \leq 1$ and $|C_\alpha^n| \leq 1$ for every $n \geq 1$. Thus (2) holds.

Conversely, suppose that (1) and (2) are satisfied. If $\alpha = \emptyset$, then $X = \{x_0\}$ by (2), and so $C(\alpha) = \mathcal{I}(X) = \{0, \text{id}_X\}$ is a completely regular semigroup. Suppose that $\alpha \neq \emptyset$ and let $\beta \in C(\alpha)$. If $\beta = \emptyset$, then β is an element of a subgroup of $C(\alpha)$, namely $\{0\}$. Suppose that $\beta \neq \emptyset$ and let $Z = \text{dom}(\beta)$. By (1) and Theorem 4.6, β is regular. Hence, by (2) and Theorem 4.5,

$$Z = \text{dom}(\beta) = \text{im}(\beta) = \bigcup \{ \text{span}(\varepsilon) : \varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \}. \tag{4.1}$$

Hence, the idempotent $\varepsilon_z \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ with $\text{dom}(\varepsilon_z) = Z$ is an element of $C(\alpha)$. We will define $\gamma \in C(\alpha)$ with $\text{dom}(\gamma) = Z$ such that $\beta\gamma = \gamma\beta = \varepsilon_z$. Let $\omega = \langle \dots x_{-1} x_0 x_1 \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$. Since $|B_\alpha| \leq 1$, β must map ω onto itself, that is, there is p such that $x_i\beta = x_{i+p}$ for every i . We define γ on $\text{span}(\omega)$ by $x_i\gamma = x_{i-p}$ for every i . Let $\sigma = \langle x_0 \dots x_{n-1} \rangle \in C_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$. Since $|C_\alpha^n| \leq 1$, β must map σ onto itself, that is, there is $p \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ such that $x_i\beta = x_{i+p}$ for every $i \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$. We define γ on $\text{span}(\sigma)$ by $x_i\gamma = x_{i-p}$ for every $i \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$. Let $[x_0] \in Q_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$. Since $|Q_\alpha| \leq 1$, β must map $[x_0]$ onto itself, that is, $x_0\beta = x_0$. We define $x_0\gamma = x_0$.

By the definition of γ , Theorem 3.4, and (4.1), we have $\gamma \in C(\alpha)$, $\text{dom}(\gamma) = \text{im}(\gamma) = Z$, and $\beta\gamma = \gamma\beta = \varepsilon_z$. Hence the subsemigroup $\langle \beta, \gamma \rangle$ of $C(\alpha)$ generated by β and γ is a group. It follows that $C(\alpha)$ is a completely regular semigroup. □

5. Green’s relations

In this section we determine Green’s relations in $C(\alpha)$, including the partial orders of \mathcal{L} -, \mathcal{R} -, and \mathcal{J} -classes, for an arbitrary $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ such that $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$.

Denote by $\Gamma(X)$ the subsemigroup of $\mathcal{I}(X)$ consisting of all $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ such that $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$. Green’s relations of the centraliser of $\alpha \in \Gamma(X)$ relative to $\Gamma(X)$ have been determined in [18]. However, except for the relation \mathcal{L} , the results for the centraliser of $\alpha \in \Gamma(X)$ relative to $\mathcal{I}(X)$ are quite different.

If S is a semigroup and $a, b \in S$, we say that $a \mathcal{L} b$ if $S^1 a = S^1 b$, $a \mathcal{R} b$ if $a S^1 = b S^1$, and $a \mathcal{J} b$ if $S^1 a S^1 = S^1 b S^1$, where S^1 is the semigroup S with an identity adjoined. We define \mathcal{H} as the intersection of \mathcal{L} and \mathcal{R} , and \mathcal{D} as the join of \mathcal{L} and \mathcal{R} , that is, the smallest equivalence relation on S containing both \mathcal{L} and \mathcal{R} . These five equivalence relations are known as *Green’s relations* [9, p. 45]. The relations \mathcal{L} and \mathcal{R} commute [9, Proposition 2.1.3], and consequently $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{L} \circ \mathcal{R} = \mathcal{R} \circ \mathcal{L}$. Green’s relations are one of the most important tools in studying semigroups.

If \mathcal{G} is one of Green’s relations and $a \in S$, we denote the equivalence class of a with respect to \mathcal{G} by G_a . Since \mathcal{L} , \mathcal{R} and \mathcal{J} are defined in terms of principal ideals in S , which are partially ordered by inclusion, we have the induced partial orders in the sets

of the equivalence classes of \mathcal{L} , \mathcal{R} and \mathcal{J} : $L_a \leq L_b$ if $S^1 a \subseteq S^1 b$, $R_a \leq R_b$ if $aS^1 \subseteq bS^1$, and $J_a \leq J_b$ if $S^1 a S^1 \subseteq S^1 b S^1$.

Green's relations in the symmetric inverse semigroup are well known [9, Exercise 5.11.2]. For all $\alpha, \beta \in I(X)$:

- (a) $\alpha \mathcal{L} \beta$ if and only if $\text{im}(\alpha) = \text{im}(\beta)$;
- (b) $\alpha \mathcal{R} \beta$ if and only if $\text{dom}(\alpha) = \text{dom}(\beta)$;
- (c) $\alpha \mathcal{J} \beta$ if and only if $|\text{dom}(\alpha)| = |\text{dom}(\beta)|$;
- (d) $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{J}$.

Let S be a semigroup and let \mathcal{G} be one of Green's relation in S . For a subsemigroup U of S , denote by \mathcal{G}^U the corresponding Green's relation in U . We always have

$$\mathcal{G}^U \subseteq \mathcal{G} \cap (U \times U)$$

[9, p. 56]. We will say that \mathcal{G}^U is S -inheritable if

$$\mathcal{G}^U = \mathcal{G} \cap (U \times U).$$

For example, if U is a regular subsemigroup of S , then \mathcal{L}^U , \mathcal{R}^U , and \mathcal{H}^U are S -inheritable [9, Proposition 2.4.2]. If \mathcal{G}^U is S -inheritable, then a description of \mathcal{G} carries over to \mathcal{G}^U . We will see that \mathcal{L} is the only $I(X)$ -inheritable Green's relation in $C(\alpha)$, where $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$.

Let $\alpha \in I(X)$. Then $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$ if and only if $P_\alpha = Q_\alpha = \emptyset$. Therefore, the following corollary follows immediately from Theorem 3.4 and Definition 4.1.

COROLLARY 5.1. *Let $\alpha, \beta \in I(X)$ with $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$. Then $\beta \in C(\alpha)$ if and only if for all $\eta \in A_\alpha$, $\omega \in B_\alpha$, and $\sigma \in C_\alpha$ such that $\eta, \omega, \sigma \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$, the following conditions are satisfied.*

- (1) *There is $\eta_1 = [y_0 y_1 \dots] \in A_\alpha$ or $\omega_1 = \langle \dots y_{-1} y_0 y_1 \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$ such that β maps η onto $[y_j y_{j+1} \dots]$ for some j .*
- (2) *β maps ω onto some $\omega_1 \in B_\alpha$.*
- (3) *β maps σ onto some $\sigma_1 \in C_\alpha$.*

We will use Corollary 5.1 frequently, not always referring to it explicitly.

THEOREM 5.2. *Let $\alpha \in I(X)$ with $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$, and let $\beta, \gamma \in C(\alpha)$. Then $L_\beta \leq L_\gamma$ if and only if $\text{im}(\beta) \subseteq \text{im}(\gamma)$. Consequently, $\beta \mathcal{L} \gamma$ if and only if $\text{im}(\beta) = \text{im}(\gamma)$.*

PROOF. Suppose that $L_\beta \leq L_\gamma$. Then $\beta = \delta\gamma$ for some $\delta \in C(\alpha)$, and so $\text{im}(\beta) = \text{im}(\delta\gamma) \subseteq \text{im}(\gamma)$. Conversely, suppose that $\text{im}(\beta) \subseteq \text{im}(\gamma)$. Then $\beta = \delta\gamma$ for some $\gamma \in I(X)$. We may assume that $\text{dom}(\delta) = \text{dom}(\beta)$. It now suffices to show that $\delta \in C(\alpha)$. Since $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$, $\beta \in C(\alpha)$, and $\text{dom}(\beta) = \text{dom}(\delta)$, it follows by Proposition 3.1 that for every $x \in X$,

$$x \in \text{dom}(\delta) \Leftrightarrow x\alpha \in \text{dom}(\delta). \tag{5.1}$$

We claim that $\text{dom}(\alpha\delta) = \text{dom}(\delta\alpha)$. Indeed, it follows from (5.1) and $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$ that for every $x \in X$,

$$x \in \text{dom}(\alpha\delta) \Leftrightarrow x\alpha \in \text{dom}(\delta) \Leftrightarrow x \in \text{dom}(\delta) \Leftrightarrow x \in \text{dom}(\delta\alpha).$$

We have $(\alpha\delta)\gamma = \alpha\beta = \beta\alpha = (\delta\gamma)\alpha = (\delta\alpha)\gamma$ and $\text{im}(\delta) \subseteq \text{dom}(\gamma)$ (since $\beta = \delta\gamma$ and $\text{dom}(\beta) = \text{dom}(\gamma)$). Let x be an element of the common domain of $\alpha\delta$ and $\delta\alpha$. Then $x(\alpha\delta) \in \text{im}(\delta)$, and so $x(\alpha\delta) \in \text{dom}(\gamma)$. Thus $(x(\alpha\delta))\gamma = (x(\delta\alpha))\gamma$ (since $(\alpha\delta)\gamma = (\delta\alpha)\gamma$), and so $x(\alpha\delta) = x(\delta\alpha)$ (since γ is injective). Hence $\alpha\delta = \delta\alpha$, which concludes the proof. \square

As we have already mentioned, other Green’s relations in $C(\alpha)$ are not $\mathcal{I}(X)$ -inheritable. For their characterisation, we will need the following notation.

NOTATION 5.3. Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ with $\beta \in C(\alpha)$. Suppose that $\eta = [x_0 \ x_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ and $\eta\Psi_\beta = [y_0 \ y_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha$. Then β maps η onto $[y_i \ y_{i+1} \ \dots]$ for some $i \geq 0$. We denote the integer i by $(\eta\Psi_\beta)_0$. In other words, $i = (\eta\Psi_\beta)_0$ if and only if $y_i = x_0\beta$.

It may happen that $\eta_1 = \eta\Psi_\beta = \eta\Psi_\gamma$ for some $\gamma \in C(\alpha)$ with $\gamma \neq \beta$. Then the notation $(\eta_1)_0$ would be ambiguous. However, we will always write such an η_1 in the form $\eta\Psi_\beta$ (or $\eta\Psi_\gamma$) so that the ambiguity will never arise.

PROPOSITION 5.4. Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ with $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$, and let $\beta, \gamma \in C(\alpha)$. Then $R_\beta \leq R_\gamma$ if and only if:

- (1) $\text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \subseteq \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$; and
- (2) for every $\eta \in A_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$, if $\eta\Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha$, then $\eta\Psi_\gamma \in A_\alpha$ and $(\eta\Psi_\gamma)_0 \leq (\eta\Psi_\beta)_0$.

PROOF. Suppose that $R_\beta \leq R_\gamma$, that is, $\beta = \gamma\delta$ for some $\delta \in C(\alpha)$. Then, by Lemma 4.2, $\Psi_\beta = \Psi_{\gamma\delta} = \Psi_\gamma\Psi_\delta$, and so $\text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \subseteq \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$. Let $\eta = [x_0 \ x_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ and suppose that $\eta\Psi_\beta = [y_0 \ y_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha$. Then $(\eta\Psi_\gamma)\Psi_\delta = \eta(\Psi_\gamma\Psi_\delta) = \eta\Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha$, and so $\eta\Psi_\gamma = [z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha$ (since $\omega\Psi_\delta \in B_\alpha$ for every $\omega \in B_\alpha$). Let $i = (\eta\Psi_\beta)_0$ and $j = (\eta\Psi_\gamma)_0$, that is, $x_0\beta = y_i$ and $x_0\gamma = z_j$. We have $[z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots]\Psi_\delta = [y_0 \ y_1 \ \dots]$, so δ maps $[z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots]$ onto $[y_p \ y_{p+1} \ \dots]$ for some $p \geq 0$. Then $y_i = x_0\beta = (x_0\gamma)\delta = z_j\delta = y_{p+j}$. Thus $i = p + j$, and so $(\eta\Psi_\gamma)_0 = j \leq i = (\eta\Psi_\beta)_0$.

Conversely, suppose that (1) and (2) are satisfied. We will define $\delta \in C(\alpha)$ such that $\beta = \gamma\delta$. Set $\text{dom}(\delta) = \bigcup\{\text{span}(\varepsilon\Psi_\gamma) : \varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)\}$. Note that this definition makes sense since $\text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \subseteq \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$. Let $\eta = [x_0 \ x_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ and suppose that $\eta\Psi_\beta = [y_0 \ y_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha$. Then $\eta\Psi_\gamma = [z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha$ by (2). Let $y_i = x_0\beta$ and $z_j = x_0\gamma$, and note that $j \leq i$ by (2). We define δ on $\text{span}(\eta\Psi_\gamma)$ in such a way that δ maps $[z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots]$ onto $[y_{i-j} \ y_{i-j+1} \ \dots]$. Note that $x_0(\gamma\delta) = z_j\delta = y_{i-j+j} = y_i = x_0\beta$.

Let $\eta = [x_0 \ x_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ and suppose that $\eta\Psi_\beta = \langle \dots \ y_{-1} \ y_0 \ y_1 \ \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$. By Lemma 4.2, $\eta\Psi_\gamma = [z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha$ or $\eta\Psi_\gamma = \langle \dots \ z_{-1} \ z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$. In either case, let $y_i = x_0\beta$ and $z_j = x_0\gamma$. If $\eta\Psi_\gamma = [z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots]$, we define δ on $\text{span}(\eta\Psi_\gamma)$ in such a way that δ maps $[z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots]$ onto $[y_{i-j} \ y_{i-j+1} \ \dots]$. If $\eta\Psi_\gamma = \langle \dots \ z_{-1} \ z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$, we define δ on $\text{span}(\eta\Psi_\gamma)$ in such a way that δ maps $\langle \dots \ z_{-1} \ z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots \rangle$ onto $\langle \dots \ y_{-1} \ y_0 \ y_1 \ \dots \rangle$ and $z_j\delta = y_i$. Note that in both cases $x_0(\gamma\delta) = y_i = x_0\beta$.

Let $\omega = \langle \dots \ x_{-1} \ x_0 \ x_1 \ \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$. By Lemma 4.2, $\omega\Psi_\beta = \langle \dots \ y_{-1} \ y_0 \ y_1 \ \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$ and $\omega\Psi_\gamma = \langle \dots \ z_{-1} \ z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$. Let $y_i = x_0\beta$ and $z_j = x_0\gamma$. We define δ on $\text{span}(\omega\Psi_\gamma)$ in such a way that δ maps $\langle \dots \ z_{-1} \ z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots \rangle$ onto $\langle \dots \ y_{-1} \ y_0 \ y_1 \ \dots \rangle$ and $z_j\delta = y_i$.

Finally, let $\sigma = (x_0 \dots x_{n-1}) \in C_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$. By Lemma 4.2, $\sigma\Psi_\beta = (y_0 \dots y_{n-1}) \in C_\alpha$ and $\sigma\Psi_\gamma = (z_0 \dots z_{n-1}) \in C_\alpha$. Let $y_i = x_0\beta$ and $z_j = x_0\gamma$. We define δ on $\text{span}(\sigma\Psi_\gamma)$ in such a way that δ maps $(z_0 \dots z_{n-1})$ onto $(y_0 \dots y_{n-1})$ and $z_j\delta = y_j$.

By the definition of δ and Corollary 5.1, we have $\delta \in \mathcal{I}(X)$, $\delta \in C(\alpha)$, and $\beta = \gamma\delta$. Hence $R_\beta \leq R_\gamma$, which concludes the proof. \square

Proposition 5.4 immediately gives us a characterisation of the relation \mathcal{R} in $C(\alpha)$.

THEOREM 5.5. *Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ with $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$, and let $\beta, \gamma \in C(\alpha)$. Then $\beta \mathcal{R} \gamma$ if and only if $\text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) = \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$ and for all $\eta \in A_\alpha \cap \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ and $k \geq 0$,*

$$\eta\Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha \quad \text{and} \quad (\eta\Psi_\beta)_0 = k \Leftrightarrow \eta\Psi_\gamma \in A_\alpha \quad \text{and} \quad (\eta\Psi_\gamma)_0 = k.$$

For semigroups S and T , we write $S \leq T$ to mean that S is a subsemigroup of T . Recall that $\Gamma(X) = \{\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X) : \text{dom}(\alpha) = X\}$. For $\alpha \in \Gamma(X)$, denote by $C'(\alpha)$ the centraliser of α in $\Gamma(X)$, and by $C(\alpha)$ the centraliser of α in $\mathcal{I}(X)$. Then clearly $C'(\alpha) \leq C(\alpha)$.

We note that the relation \mathcal{R} in $C'(\alpha)$ is not $C(\alpha)$ -inheritable. Indeed, let $X = \{x_0^1, x_1^1, x_2^1, \dots\} \cup \{x_0^2, x_1^2, x_2^2, \dots\} \cup \dots$, and consider

$$\alpha = [x_0^1 x_1^1 x_2^1 \dots] \sqcup [x_0^2 x_1^2 x_2^2 \dots] \sqcup \dots \in \Gamma(X).$$

Define $\beta, \gamma \in \Gamma(X)$ by $x_i^n\beta = x_i^{n+1}$ and $x_i^n\gamma = x_i^{2n}$. Then $(\beta, \gamma) \in \mathcal{R}$ in $C(\alpha)$ by Theorem 5.5. However, $|A_\alpha \setminus A_\alpha\Psi_\beta| = 1$ and $|A_\alpha \setminus A_\alpha\Psi_\gamma| = \aleph_0$, and so $(\beta, \gamma) \notin \mathcal{R}$ in $C'(\alpha)$ by [18, Theorem 4.7].

Recall that for $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ and $n \geq 1$, $C_\alpha^n = \{\sigma \in C_\alpha : \sigma \text{ has length } n\}$.

THEOREM 5.6. *Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ with $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$, and let $\beta, \gamma \in C(\alpha)$. Then $\beta \mathcal{D} \gamma$ if and only if there is a bijection $f : \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \rightarrow \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$ such that for all $\varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$, $n \geq 1$, and $k \geq 0$:*

- (1) if $\varepsilon \in A_\alpha$ ($\varepsilon \in B_\alpha$, $\varepsilon \in C_\alpha^n$), then $\varepsilon f \in A_\alpha$ ($\varepsilon f \in B_\alpha$, $\varepsilon f \in C_\alpha^n$);
- (2) $\varepsilon\Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha$ and $(\varepsilon\Psi_\beta)_0 = k \Leftrightarrow (\varepsilon f)\Psi_\gamma \in A_\alpha$ and $((\varepsilon f)\Psi_\gamma)_0 = k$.

PROOF. Suppose that $\beta \mathcal{D} \gamma$. Then, since $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{L} \circ \mathcal{R}$, there is $\delta \in C(\alpha)$ such that $\beta \mathcal{L} \delta$ and $\delta \mathcal{R} \gamma$. Let $\varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$. Then, by Theorem 5.2 and Definition 4.1, there is a unique $\varepsilon_1 \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\delta)$ such that $\varepsilon\Psi_\beta = \varepsilon_1\Psi_\delta$. Define $f : \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \rightarrow \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$ by $\varepsilon f = \varepsilon_1$. Note that f indeed maps $\text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ to $\text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$ since $\text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma) = \text{dom}(\Psi_\delta)$ by Theorem 5.5.

Suppose that $\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon f = \varepsilon' f = \varepsilon'_1$, where $\varepsilon, \varepsilon' \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$. Then $\varepsilon\Psi_\beta = \varepsilon_1\Psi_\delta = \varepsilon'_1\Psi_\delta = \varepsilon'\Psi_\beta$, and so $\varepsilon = \varepsilon'$ since Ψ_β is injective. Let $\varepsilon_1 \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$. Then $\varepsilon_1 \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\delta)$, and so $\varepsilon_1\Psi_\delta \in \text{im}(\Psi_\delta)$. Since $\text{im}(\Psi_\delta) = \text{im}(\Psi_\beta)$, there is $\varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ such that $\varepsilon\Psi_\beta = \varepsilon_1\Psi_\delta$, so $\varepsilon f = \varepsilon_1$. We have proved that f is a bijection.

Let $\varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$. To prove (1), suppose that $\varepsilon \in A_\alpha$ and $\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon f$. If $\varepsilon\Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha$ then $\varepsilon_1\Psi_\delta = \varepsilon\Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha$, and so $\varepsilon_1 \in A_\alpha$ by Lemma 4.2. Suppose that $\varepsilon\Psi_\beta = \langle \dots y_{i-1} y_0 y_1 \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$. Then, since $\varepsilon \in A_\alpha$, β maps ε onto $[y_i y_{i+1} \dots]$ for some i . We have $\varepsilon_1\Psi_\delta = \varepsilon\Psi_\beta$, so $\varepsilon_1 \in A_\alpha$ or $\varepsilon_1 \in B_\alpha$. The latter is impossible, however, since δ would map ε_1 onto $\varepsilon\Psi_\beta$, which would imply that $\text{span}(\varepsilon\Psi_\beta) \subseteq \text{im}(\delta)$ and contradict the fact

that $\text{im}(\beta) = \text{im}(\delta)$. We have proved that if $\varepsilon \in A_\alpha$ then $\varepsilon f \in A_\alpha$. The proofs of (1) in the two remaining cases, when $\varepsilon \in B_\alpha$ and when $\varepsilon \in C_\alpha^n$, are similar.

To prove (2), suppose that $\varepsilon \Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha$ and $\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon f$. Then $\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\delta = \varepsilon \Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha$, and so $\varepsilon_1 \in A_\alpha$ by Lemma 4.2. By Theorem 5.5, $\varepsilon_1 \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$, $\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\gamma \in A_\alpha$, and $(\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\delta)_0 = (\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\gamma)_0$. But $\text{im}(\beta) = \text{im}(\delta)$ implies that $(\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\beta)_0 = (\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\delta)_0$, so $(\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\beta)_0 = (\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\gamma)_0$. The proof of the converse of (2) is similar.

Conversely, suppose that there exists a bijection $f : \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \rightarrow \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$ such that (1) and (2) are satisfied for all $\varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$, $n \geq 1$, and $k \geq 0$. We will construct $\delta \in C(\alpha)$ such that $\beta \mathcal{L} \delta$ and $\delta \mathcal{R} \gamma$. We set $\text{dom}(\delta) = \bigcup \{\text{span}(\varepsilon_1) : \varepsilon_1 \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)\}$ (which is equal to $\text{dom}(\gamma)$). Let $\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon f \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$.

Let $\varepsilon_1 \in A_\alpha$. Then $\varepsilon \in A_\alpha$ by (1). Suppose that $\varepsilon \Psi_\beta = [y_0 y_1 \dots] \in A_\alpha$ with $i = (\varepsilon \Psi_\beta)_0$. By (2), $\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\gamma \in A_\alpha$ and $(\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\gamma)_0 = i$. We define δ on $\text{span}(\varepsilon_1)$ in such a way that δ maps ε_1 onto $[y_i y_{i+1} \dots]$. Suppose that $\varepsilon \Psi_\beta = \langle \dots y_{-1} y_0 y_1 \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$. Then β maps ε onto $[y_i y_{i+1} \dots]$ for some i . By (2), $\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\gamma \notin A_\alpha$, so $\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\gamma \in B_\alpha$. We define δ on $\text{span}(\varepsilon_1)$ in such a way that δ maps ε_1 onto $[y_i y_{i+1} \dots]$.

Let $\varepsilon_1 \in B_\alpha$. Then $\varepsilon \in B_\alpha$ by (1), and $\varepsilon \Psi_\beta, \varepsilon_1 \Psi_\gamma \in B_\alpha$ by Lemma 4.2. We define δ on $\text{span}(\varepsilon_1)$ in such a way that δ maps ε_1 onto $\varepsilon \Psi_\beta$. Finally, let $\varepsilon_1 \in C_\alpha^n$, where $n \geq 1$. Then $\varepsilon \in C_\alpha^n$ by (1), and $\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\gamma \in C_\alpha^n$ by Lemma 4.2. We define δ on $\text{span}(\varepsilon_1)$ in such a way that δ maps ε_1 onto $\varepsilon \Psi_\beta$.

By the definition of δ , Corollary 5.1, Theorems 5.2 and 5.5, we have $\delta \in \mathcal{I}(X)$, $\delta \in C(\alpha)$, $\beta \mathcal{L} \delta$, and $\delta \mathcal{R} \gamma$. Hence $\beta \mathcal{D} \gamma$, which concludes the proof. □

In the semigroup $\mathcal{I}(X)$, we have $\mathcal{J} = \mathcal{D}$. We will see that, in general, this is not true in $C(\alpha)$. The following theorem describes the partial order of the \mathcal{J} -classes in $C(\alpha)$.

THEOREM 5.7. *Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ with $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$, and let $\beta, \gamma \in C(\alpha)$. Then $J_\beta \leq J_\gamma$ if and only if there is an injection $g : \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \rightarrow \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$ such that, for all $\varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ and $n \geq 1$, the following conditions are satisfied.*

- (1) *If $\varepsilon \in A_\alpha$, then $\varepsilon g \in A_\alpha \cup B_\alpha$.*
- (2) *If $\varepsilon \in B_\alpha$ ($\varepsilon \in C_\alpha^n$), then $\varepsilon g \in B_\alpha$ ($\varepsilon g \in C_\alpha^n$).*
- (3) *If $\varepsilon \Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha$, then $(\varepsilon g) \Psi_\gamma \in A_\alpha$ and $((\varepsilon g) \Psi_\gamma)_0 \leq (\varepsilon \Psi_\beta)_0$.*

PROOF. Suppose that $J_\beta \leq J_\gamma$, that is, $\beta = \delta \gamma \kappa$ for some $\delta, \kappa \in C(\alpha)$. Then, by Lemma 4.2, $\Psi_\beta = \Psi_{\delta \gamma \kappa} = \Psi_\delta \Psi_\gamma \Psi_\kappa$, and so if $\varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$, then $\varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\delta)$ and $\varepsilon \Psi_\delta \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$. Define $g : \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \rightarrow \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$ by $\varepsilon g = \varepsilon \Psi_\delta$. Then g is injective since Ψ_δ is injective.

Let $\varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ and $n \geq 1$. Then g satisfies (1) and (2) by Lemma 4.2. Suppose that $\varepsilon \Psi_\beta = [y_0 y_1 \dots] \in A_\alpha$. Then $\varepsilon = [x_0 x_1 \dots] \in A_\alpha$ by Lemma 4.2, and $((\varepsilon g) \Psi_\gamma) \Psi_\kappa = \varepsilon (\Psi_\delta \Psi_\gamma \Psi_\kappa) = \varepsilon \Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha$. Thus $(\varepsilon g) \Psi_\gamma = [z_0 z_1 \dots] \in A_\alpha$ (since $\omega \Psi_\kappa \in B_\alpha$ for every $\omega \in B_\alpha$) and $[z_0 z_1 \dots] \Psi_\kappa = [y_0 y_1 \dots]$. Let $\varepsilon g = \varepsilon \Psi_\delta = [v_0 v_1 \dots]$ and note that $[v_0 v_1 \dots] \Psi_\gamma = [z_0 z_1 \dots]$. Let $x_0 \beta = y_i$, $x_0 \delta = v_p$, $v_0 \gamma = z_j$, and $z_0 \kappa = y_q$ (so $i = (\varepsilon \Psi_\beta)_0$ and $j = ((\varepsilon g) \Psi_\gamma)_0$). Then $y_i = x_0 \beta = (x_0 \delta)(\gamma \kappa) = (v_p \gamma) \kappa = z_{p+j} \kappa = y_{p+j+q}$. Thus $i = p + j + q$, and so $((\varepsilon g) \Psi_\gamma)_0 = j = i - p - q \leq i = (\varepsilon \Psi_\beta)_0$. This proves (3).

Conversely, suppose that there exists an injection $g : \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \rightarrow \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$ such that (1)–(3) are satisfied for all $\varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ and $n \geq 1$. We will construct $\delta, \kappa \in C(\alpha)$ such that $\beta = \delta\gamma\kappa$. Set

$$\begin{aligned} \text{dom}(\delta) &= \bigcup \{ \text{span}(\varepsilon) : \varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \}, \\ \text{dom}(\kappa) &= \bigcup \{ \text{span}(\varepsilon_1) : \varepsilon_1 = (\varepsilon g)\Psi_\gamma \text{ for some } \varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \}. \end{aligned}$$

(Note that $\text{dom}(\delta) = \text{dom}(\beta)$.) Suppose that $\varepsilon \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$.

Let $\varepsilon = \eta = [x_0 \ x_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha$.

Suppose that $\eta\Psi_\beta = [y_0 \ y_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha$. Then $(\eta g)\Psi_\gamma = [z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha$ by (3), and so $\eta g = [v_0 \ v_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha$ by Lemma 4.2. Let $x_0\beta = y_i$ and $v_0\gamma = z_j$. Then $j \leq i$ by (3). We define δ on $\text{span}(\eta)$ in such a way that δ maps $[x_0 \ x_1 \ \dots]$ onto $[v_0 \ v_1 \ \dots]$; and κ on $\text{span}((\eta g)\Psi_\gamma)$ in such a way that κ maps $[z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots]$ onto $[y_{i-j} \ y_{i-j+1} \ \dots]$. Note that $x_0(\delta\gamma\kappa) = v_0(\gamma\kappa) = z_j\kappa = y_{i-j+j} = y_i = x_0\beta$.

Suppose that $\eta\Psi_\beta = \langle \dots \ y_{-1} \ y_0 \ y_1 \ \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$. By (1) and Lemma 4.2, there are three possible cases to consider.

Case 1. $\eta g = [v_0 \ v_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha$ and $(\eta g)\Psi_\gamma = [z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha$.

Let $x_0\beta = y_i$ and $v_0\gamma = z_j$. We define δ on $\text{span}(\eta)$ in such a way that δ maps $[x_0 \ x_1 \ \dots]$ onto $[v_0 \ v_1 \ \dots]$; and κ on $\text{span}((\eta g)\Psi_\gamma)$ in such a way that κ maps $[z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots]$ onto $[y_{i-j} \ y_{i-j+1} \ \dots]$.

Case 2. $\eta g = [v_0 \ v_1 \ \dots] \in A_\alpha$ and $(\eta g)\Psi_\gamma = \langle \dots \ z_{-1} \ z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$.

Let $x_0\beta = y_i$ and $v_0\gamma = z_j$. We define δ on $\text{span}(\eta)$ in such a way that δ maps $[x_0 \ x_1 \ \dots]$ onto $[v_0 \ v_1 \ \dots]$; and κ on $\text{span}((\eta g)\Psi_\gamma)$ in such a way that κ maps $\langle \dots \ z_{-1} \ z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots \rangle$ onto $\langle \dots \ y_{-1} \ y_0 \ y_1 \ \dots \rangle$ and $z_j\kappa = y_i$.

Case 3. $\eta g = \langle \dots \ v_{-1} \ v_0 \ v_1 \ \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$ and $(\eta g)\Psi_\gamma = \langle \dots \ z_{-1} \ z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$.

In this case, we define δ and κ exactly as in Case 2.

Let $\varepsilon = \omega = \langle \dots \ x_{-1} \ x_0 \ x_1 \ \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$. Then $\omega\Psi_\beta = \langle \dots \ y_{-1} \ y_0 \ y_1 \ \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$, $\omega g = \langle \dots \ v_{-1} \ v_0 \ v_1 \ \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$ (by (2)), and $(\eta g)\Psi_\gamma = \langle \dots \ z_{-1} \ z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots \rangle \in B_\alpha$. Let $x_0\beta = y_i$ and $v_0\gamma = z_j$. We define δ on $\text{span}(\omega)$ in such a way that δ maps $\langle \dots \ x_{-1} \ x_0 \ x_1 \ \dots \rangle$ onto $\langle \dots \ v_{-1} \ v_0 \ v_1 \ \dots \rangle$ and $x_0\delta = v_0$; and κ on $\text{span}((\eta g)\Psi_\gamma)$ in such a way that κ maps the double chain $\langle \dots \ z_{-1} \ z_0 \ z_1 \ \dots \rangle$ onto $\langle \dots \ y_{-1} \ y_0 \ y_1 \ \dots \rangle$ and $z_j\kappa = y_i$.

Finally, let $\varepsilon = \sigma = (x_0 \ \dots \ x_{n-1}) \in C_\alpha^n$, where $n \geq 1$. Then $\sigma\Psi_\beta = (y_0 \ \dots \ y_{n-1}) \in C_\alpha^n$, $\sigma g = (v_0 \ \dots \ v_{n-1}) \in C_\alpha^n$ (by (2)), and $(\sigma g)\Psi_\gamma = (z_0 \ \dots \ z_{n-1}) \in C_\alpha^n$. Let $x_0\beta = y_i$ and $v_0\gamma = z_j$. We define δ on $\text{span}(\sigma)$ in such a way that δ maps $(x_0 \ \dots \ x_{n-1})$ onto $(v_0 \ \dots \ v_{n-1})$ and $x_0\delta = v_0$; and κ on $\text{span}((\eta g)\Psi_\gamma)$ in such a way that κ maps $(z_0 \ \dots \ z_{n-1})$ onto $(y_0 \ \dots \ y_{n-1})$ and $z_j\kappa = y_i$.

By the definitions of δ and κ and Corollary 5.1, we have $\delta, \kappa \in I(X)$, $\delta, \kappa \in C(\alpha)$, and $\beta = \delta\gamma\kappa$. Hence $J_\beta \leq J_\gamma$. □

Theorem 5.7 gives us a characterisation of the relation \mathcal{J} in $C(\alpha)$.

THEOREM 5.8. *Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ with $\text{dom}(\alpha) = X$, and let $\beta, \gamma \in C(\alpha)$. Then $\beta \mathcal{J} \gamma$ if and only if there are injections $g_1 : \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \rightarrow \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$ and $g_2 : \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma) \rightarrow \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ such that for all $\varepsilon_1 \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$, $\varepsilon_2 \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$, $n \geq 1$, and $i \in \{1, 2\}$, the following conditions are satisfied.*

- (1) *If $\varepsilon_i \in A_\alpha$, then $\varepsilon_i g_i \in A_\alpha \cup B_\alpha$.*
- (2) *If $\varepsilon_i \in B_\alpha$ ($\varepsilon_i \in C_\alpha^n$), then $\varepsilon_i g_i \in B_\alpha$ ($\varepsilon_i g_i \in C_\alpha^n$).*
- (3) *If $\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha$, then $(\varepsilon_1 g_1) \Psi_\gamma \in A_\alpha$ and $((\varepsilon_1 g_1) \Psi_\gamma)_0 \leq (\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\beta)_0$.*
- (4) *If $\varepsilon_2 \Psi_\gamma \in A_\alpha$, then $(\varepsilon_2 g_2) \Psi_\beta \in A_\alpha$ and $((\varepsilon_2 g_2) \Psi_\beta)_0 \leq (\varepsilon_2 \Psi_\gamma)_0$.*

The injections g_1 and g_2 from Theorem 5.8 cannot be replaced by a bijection $g : \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \rightarrow \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$. Indeed, let

$$X = \{x_0^1, x_1^1, x_2^1, \dots\} \cup \{x_0^2, x_1^2, x_2^2, \dots\} \cup \dots \cup \{y_0^1, y_1^1, y_2^1, \dots\} \cup \{y_0^2, y_1^2, y_2^2, \dots\} \cup \dots,$$

and consider

$$\alpha = [x_0^1 x_1^1 x_2^1 \dots] \sqcup [x_0^2 x_1^2 x_2^2 \dots] \sqcup \dots \sqcup [y_0^1 y_1^1 y_2^1 \dots] \sqcup [y_0^2 y_1^2 y_2^2 \dots] \sqcup \dots \in \Gamma(X).$$

Define $\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ by $\text{dom}(\beta) = \{x_i^{2n} : n \geq 1, i \geq 0\}$, $x_i^{2n} \beta = y_i^{2n}$, $\text{dom}(\gamma) = \{x_i^{2n-1} : n \geq 1, i \geq 0\}$, $x_i^{2n-1} \gamma = y_{i+1}^{2n-1}$ and $x_i^{2n-1} \gamma = y_i^{2n-1}$ for $n \geq 2$. Then (1)–(4) of Theorem 5.8 are satisfied with $[x_0^{2n} x_1^{2n} x_2^{2n} \dots] g_1 = [x_0^{2n+1} x_1^{2n+1} x_2^{2n+1} \dots]$ and $[x_0^{2n-1} x_1^{2n-1} x_2^{2n-1} \dots] g_2 = [x_0^{2n} x_1^{2n} x_2^{2n} \dots]$ ($n \geq 1$), so $\beta \mathcal{J} \gamma$.

However, no bijection $g : \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \rightarrow \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$ can satisfy (3) of Theorem 5.8. Suppose that such a bijection exists. Then $\varepsilon_1 g = [x_0^1 x_1^1 x_2^1 \dots]$ for some $\varepsilon_1 \in \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta)$ (since g is onto). But then $((\varepsilon_1 g) \Psi_\gamma)_0 = 1$ (since $x_0^1 \gamma = y_1^1$) and $(\varepsilon_1 \Psi_\beta)_0 = 0$ (since $x_0^{2n} \beta = y_0^{2n}$ for every $n \geq 1$), and so (3) is violated.

By the foregoing argument, there is no bijection $f : \text{dom}(\Psi_\beta) \rightarrow \text{dom}(\Psi_\gamma)$ such that (2) of Theorem 5.6 is satisfied. Hence $(\beta, \gamma) \notin \mathcal{D}$ in $C(\alpha)$.

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