# **Generalized Notion of Conjugacy in Semigroups**

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Abstract In this paper, we study the new notion  $\sim_r$  notion of conjugacy in subsemigroups of partial transformation semigroup through restricted homomorphism of the digraphs.

## 1 introduction

If G is a group and  $a, b \in G$  then a is said to be conjugate to b if there exists  $g \in G$  such that  $a = gbg^{-1}$  which is equivalent to ag = gb. Due to this fact  $\sim_l$  notion was introduced in a semigroup S as

$$x \sim_l y \Leftrightarrow \exists p \in S^1$$
 such that  $xp = py$ 

where  $S^1$  is S with an identity adjoined. If  $x \sim_l y$ , we say x is left conjugate to y (see [4], [13] and [14]). The relation  $\sim_l$  is always reflexive and transitive in any semigroup but not symmetric in general. Lallement in [7] has defined the conjugate elements of a free semigroup S as those related by  $\sim_l$  and showed that  $\sim_l$  is equal to the following equivalence on the free semigroup S:

$$x \sim_p y \Leftrightarrow \exists u, v \in S^1$$
 such that  $x = uv$  and  $y = vu$ 

The relation  $\sim_p$  is always reflexive and symmetric but not transitive in general.

The relation  $\sim_l$  has been restricted to  $\sim_o$  in [4], and  $\sim_p$  has been extended to  $\sim_p^*$  in [5] and in [6], in such a way that the modified relations are equivalences on an arbitrary semigroup S:

$$x \sim_o y \Leftrightarrow \exists \ p, q \in S^1$$
 such that  $xp = py$  and  $yq = qx$ .

 $\sim_p^*$  = the transitive closure of  $\sim_p$  (i.e., the smallest transitive relation on S containing  $\sim_p$ ).

The relation  $\sim_o$  is not useful for semigroups S with zero since for every such S, we have  $\sim_o = S \times S$ . This deficiency has been remedied in [8] by Araujo et al., where the following relation has been defined on an arbitrary semigroup S,

$$x \sim_{c} y \Leftrightarrow \exists p \in \mathbb{P}^{1}(x), q \in \mathbb{P}^{1}(y)$$
 such that  $xp = py$  and  $yq = qx$ ,

where for  $x \neq 0$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(x) = \{p \in S : (mx)p \neq 0 \text{ for all } mx \in S^1x \setminus \{0\}\}\$  denotes the left principal ideal generated by x and  $\mathbb{P}(0) = \{0\}$ . The relation  $\sim_c$  is an equivalence relation in any semigroup and does not reduce to  $S \times S$  if S has a zero, and it is equal to  $\sim_o$  if S does not have a zero.

Furthermore, J. Konieczny in [10] introduced the  $\sim_n$  notion of conjugacy in semigroup S as

$$x \sim_n y \Leftrightarrow \exists p, q \in S^1$$
 such that  $xp = py, yq = qx, x = pyq$  and  $y = qxp$ .

This relation is an equivalence relation in any semigroup and does not reduce to universal relation in a semigroup S with zero.

For a non-empty set X,  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  denotes the set of all *partial transformations* on X and it forms a semigroup under operation as composition of maps and is known as partial transformation semigroup. For each  $\rho \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ , the *domain* of  $\rho$  is denoted by

dom
$$(\rho) = \{x \in X : \text{ there exists } y \in X \text{ with } (x, y) \in \rho\},\$$

the *image* of  $\rho$  is denoted by

 $\operatorname{im}(\rho) = \{ y \in X : \text{ there exists } x \in X \text{ with } (x, y) \in \rho \},\$ 

and the span of  $\rho$  is denoted by

 $\operatorname{span}(\rho) = \operatorname{dom}(\rho) \cup \operatorname{im}(\rho).$ 

By  $\sigma \neq 0$  we mean  $\rho$  such that dom $(\rho) \neq \emptyset$ .

A semigroup S is called an *inverse semigroup* if for every  $a \in S$ , there is a unique  $a^{-1} \in S$  (called the inverse of a) such that

 $aa^{-1}a = a$  and  $a^{-1}aa^{-1} = a^{-1}$ .

For a non-empty set X, denote by  $\mathcal{I}(X)$  the symmetric inverse semigroup on X, which is the subsemigroup of  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  consisting of all partial injective transformations on X. Both  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  and  $\mathcal{I}(X)$  have the symmetric group Sym(X) of permutations on X as their group of units, and the zero in P(X) is an element of  $\mathcal{I}(X)$ . The semigroup  $\mathcal{I}(X)$  is universal for the class of inverse semigroups because of the Vagner-Preston theorem that states that every inverse semigroup can be embedded in some  $\mathcal{I}(X)$  [12, Theorem 5.1.7]. This is analogous to the Cayley theorem for groups that states that every group can be embedded in some symmetric group Sym(X).

Next we discuss  $\sim_i$  notion of conjugacy in inverse semigroups. This was introduced by Araujo et al. in [11].

**Definition 1.1.** *let S be an inverse semigroup and*  $a, b \in S$ *. Then*  $a \sim_i b$  *if and only if there exists*  $g \in S^1$  *such that* 

$$g^{-1}ag = b$$
 and  $gbg^{-1} = a$ .

We refer the reader to Howie [12] for any unexplained terminology in semigroups.

#### 2 The notion $\sim_r$

In [2] and [3] we introduced  $\sim_r$  notion of conjugacy in semigroups. The notion  $\sim_r$  in semigroups is defined as in the following.

**Definition 2.1.** Define a relation  $\sim_r$  on a semigroup S by

$$a \sim_r b \Leftrightarrow \exists g, h, u, v \in S^1$$
 such that  $ag = gb, bh = ha, a = gbu$  and  $b = hav$ .

The *r*-notion of conjugacy is an equivalence relation in any semigroup and it does not reduce to a universal relation in a semigroup with zero ([2, Theorem 2.1]). In case *S* is a group, then  $\sim_r$  reduces to the usual notion of conjugacy ([2, Theorem 2.1]). Also  $\sim_n \subseteq \sim_r \subseteq \sim_c \subseteq \sim_o$  [2, Theorem 2.2].

**Theorem 2.2.** [10, Theorem 2.6] Let S be an inverse semigroup and let  $a, b \in S$ . Then  $a \sim_n b$  if and only if  $a \sim_i b$ .

In the next theorem we show  $\sim_r$  coincides with  $\sim_n$  in an inverse semigroup.

**Theorem 2.3.** Let S be an inverse semigroup and let  $a, b \in S$ . Then  $a \sim_r b$  if and only if  $a \sim_n b$ .

*Proof.* By definition of  $\sim_n$  and  $\sim_r$ , we have  $\sim_n \subseteq \sim_r$ . So for any  $a, b \in S$ ,  $a \sim_n b$  implies  $a \sim_r b$ .

For the converse, we may assume by the Vagner-Preston Theorem that S is a subsemigroup of some symmetric inverse semigroup  $\mathcal{I}(X)$ . Let  $a \sim_r b$  in S, then there exist  $g, h, u, v \in S^1$  such that

$$ag = gb, bh = ha, a = gbu$$
 and  $b = hav$ .

We claim  $agg^{-1} = a$ . Clearly dom $(agg^{-1}) \subseteq$  dom(a). Let  $x \in$  dom(a) implies  $xa \in$  im $(a) \subseteq$  dom(g) implies  $(xa) \in$  dom(g), which implies  $(xa)g \in$  dom $(g^{-1})$ . Hence  $x \in$  dom $(agg^{-1})$ , which implies dom $(a) \subseteq$  dom $(agg^{-1})$ . Thus dom(a) = dom $(agg^{-1})$ . Next for every  $x \in$  dom(a),

 $x(agg^{-1}) = (xa)gg^{-1} = xa$ . So  $agg^{-1} = a$ . Since ag = gb implies  $agg^{-1} = gbg^{-1}$  and so  $a = gbg^{-1}$ .

Next we claim that  $g^{-1}gb = b$ . For if

$$g^{-1}gb \neq b$$
  

$$\Rightarrow g^{-1}ag \neq b$$
  

$$\Rightarrow g^{-1}agg^{-1} \neq bg^{-1}$$
  

$$\Rightarrow g^{-1}a \neq bg^{-1}$$
  

$$\Rightarrow g^{-1}gbu \neq bg^{-1}$$
  

$$\Rightarrow gg^{-1}gbu \neq gbg^{-1}$$
  

$$\Rightarrow gbu \neq gbg^{-1}$$
  

$$\Rightarrow a \neq gbg^{-1}$$

which is a contradiction. Hence  $g^{-1}gb = b$ . Since ag = gb, we have  $g^{-1}ag = g^{-1}gb$  we have  $g^{-1}ag = b$ . Thus  $a \sim_i b$  and so by Theorem 2.2,  $a \sim_n b$ .

Due to Theorem 2.2 and Theorem 2.3 we have the following corollary.

**Corollary 2.4.** Let S be an inverse semigroup. Then  $\sim_n = \sim_r = \sim_i$  in S.

## 3 $\sim_r$ in general subsemigroups of $\mathcal{P}(X)$

**Definition 3.1.** Let A be any set (not necessarily finite and possibly empty) and E be a binary relation on A, then  $\Gamma = (A, E)$  is called a directed graph (or a digraph). We call any  $p \in A$  a vertex and any  $(p, q) \in E$  an arc of  $\Gamma$ .

For example, let  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  and  $E = \{(1, 2), (1, 4), (2, 3), (4, 1)\}$ . Then the digraph  $\Gamma$  is as under,

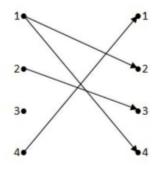


Figure 1. Digraph

**Definition 3.2.** A vertex  $p \in A$  is said to be an initial vertex if there is no  $q \in A$  for which  $(q, p) \in E$  while a vertex  $p \in A$  is said to be a non-initial vertex if  $(q, p) \in E$  for some  $q \in A$ .

**Definition 3.3.** A vertex  $p \in A$  for which there exists no q in A such that  $(p,q) \in E$  is called a terminal vertex of  $\Gamma$ .

**Remark 3.4.** Let  $\rho \in P(X)$ . Then  $\rho$  can be represented by the digraph  $\Gamma(\rho) = (A, E)$ , where  $A = span(\rho)$  and for all  $x, y \in A$ ,  $(x, y) \in E$  if and only if  $x \in dom(\rho)$  and  $x\rho = y$ . For example,

the partial transformation

$$\rho = \left(\begin{array}{rrrr} 1 & 2 & 3 & 7 & 8 & \dots \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 8 & 9 & \dots \end{array}\right) \in \mathcal{P}(X),$$

where  $X = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$  is represented by the digraph as in figure 2



Figure 2. The Digraph of a Transformation.

**Remark 3.5.** For a non empty X, we fix an element  $\diamond \notin X$ . For  $\alpha \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  and  $x \in X$ , we will write  $x\alpha = \diamond$  if and only if  $x \notin dom(\alpha)$ . We also assume that  $\diamond \alpha = \diamond$ . With this notation it makes sense to write  $x\alpha = y\beta$  or  $x\alpha \neq y\beta$  ( $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{P}(X), x, y \in X$ ) even when  $x \notin dom(\alpha)$  or  $y \notin dom(\beta)$ . For any  $\alpha \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ , by  $\alpha \neq 0$ , we mean  $dom(\alpha) \neq \emptyset$ . Thus  $\alpha = 0$  if and only if  $dom(\alpha) = \emptyset$ .

**Definition 3.6.** Let  $\Gamma = (A, E)$  and  $\Lambda = (B, F)$  be digraphs. A mapping  $\rho$  from A to B is called a homomorphism from  $\Gamma$  to  $\Lambda$  if for all  $p, q \in A, (p,q) \in E$  implies  $(p\rho, q\rho) \in F$ .

**Definition 3.7.** Let  $\Gamma = (A, E)$  and  $\Lambda = (B, F)$  be digraphs. A homomorphism  $\alpha : A \to B$  is called a restricted homomorphism from  $\Gamma$  to  $\Lambda$ , if

- (i) for every terminal vertex x of  $\Gamma$ ,  $x\alpha$  is a terminal vertex of  $\Lambda$ ;
- (ii) for every initial vertex x of  $\Gamma$ , either  $x\alpha$  is an initial vertex of  $\Lambda$  or there are vertices t, z, y of  $\Gamma$  such that  $(x, y), (t, z), (z, y) \in E$ .

Throughout this paper, by a *hom*, we shall mean a homomorphism, and by a *restricted hom*, we shall mean a restricted homomorphism.

Now in order to prove the main theorem of this section we need the following two lemmas.

**Lemma 3.8.** Let  $\rho, \pi, \alpha, \beta, \sigma, \tau \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  be such that  $\rho\alpha = \alpha\pi, \pi\beta = \beta\rho, \rho = \alpha\pi\sigma, \pi = \beta\rho\tau$ . Then dom( $\alpha$ ) = span( $\rho$ ), dom( $\beta$ ) = span( $\pi$ ).

*Proof.* Let  $x \in \text{span}(\rho)$  which implies  $x \in \text{dom}(\rho) \cup \text{im}(\rho)$ . If  $x \in \text{dom}(\rho)$  then as  $\rho = \alpha \pi \sigma$ which means  $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$  and if  $x \in \text{im}(\rho)$  then as  $\rho \alpha = \alpha \pi$ ,  $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$ . Thus  $\text{span}(\rho) \subseteq$  $\text{dom}(\alpha)$ . Next we have to show  $\text{dom}(\alpha) \subseteq \text{span}(\rho)$ . For if  $\text{dom}(\alpha) \nsubseteq \text{span}(\rho)$ , then there is some  $x \in X$  such that  $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$  but  $x \notin \text{span}(\rho)$ , which implies there is some  $z \in X$  such that  $x\alpha\pi\sigma = z$  (as  $\rho = \alpha\pi\sigma$ ) which implies  $x\rho = z$ , which is a contradiction as  $x \notin \text{span}(\rho)$ . Thus  $\text{dom}(\alpha) \subseteq \text{span}(\rho)$ . Hence  $\text{dom}(\alpha) = \text{span}(\rho)$ . Similarly we can prove that  $\text{dom}(\beta) = \text{span}(\pi)$ .  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 3.9.** Let  $\rho, \pi, \alpha, \beta, \sigma, \tau \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  be such that  $\rho\alpha = \alpha\pi, \pi\beta = \beta\rho, \rho = \alpha\pi\sigma, \pi = \beta\rho\tau$  i.e,  $\rho \sim_r \tau$  satisfying

$$\rho\tau\sigma = \rho \text{ and } \pi\sigma\tau = \pi. \tag{1.1}$$

Then  $\alpha$  is a restricted hom from  $\Gamma(\rho)$  to  $\Gamma(\pi)$  and  $\beta$  is a restricted hom from  $\Gamma(\pi)$  to  $\Gamma(\rho)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\Gamma(\rho) = (A, E)$  and  $\Gamma(\pi) = (B, F)$ , where  $A = \operatorname{span}(\rho)$  and  $B = \operatorname{span}(\pi)$ . Suppose that  $(x, y) \in E$  i.e,  $x\rho = y$ . Then,

$$(x\alpha)\pi = x(\alpha\pi) = x(\rho\alpha) = (x\rho)\alpha = y\alpha.$$

Hence  $(x\alpha, y\alpha) \in F$ , which implies  $\alpha$  is a hom from  $\Gamma(\rho)$  to  $\Gamma(\pi)$ .

Suppose that x is a terminal vertex of  $\Gamma(\rho)$ . Since  $\rho \alpha = \alpha \pi$  and  $x \notin \text{dom}(\rho)$ , so  $x\rho = \diamond$  which implies  $x\rho\alpha = \diamond$  which implies  $x\alpha\pi = \diamond$ . Thus  $x\alpha$  is a terminal vertex of  $\Gamma(\pi)$ .

Suppose that x is an initial vertex of  $\Gamma(\rho)$  and let  $u = x\alpha$  is not an initial vertex of  $\Gamma(\pi)$ . Then  $v\pi = u$  for some  $v \in \operatorname{dom}(\pi)$ . Let  $t = v\beta$  and  $z = u\beta$ . Since  $\pi\beta = \beta\rho$ , the preceding argument for  $\rho$  and  $\alpha$  applied to  $\pi$  and  $\beta$  shows that  $\beta$  is a hom from  $\Gamma(\pi)$  to  $\Gamma(\rho)$ . Thus  $(v, u) \in F$  implies that  $(t, z) = (v\beta, u\beta) \in E$ . Since  $x \in \operatorname{span}(\rho)$  and  $x \notin \operatorname{im}(\rho)$ , we have  $x \in \operatorname{dom}(\rho)$ . Setting  $y = x\rho$ , we have  $(x, y) \in E$ . Now  $y = x\rho = x\alpha\pi\sigma = u\pi\sigma = u\beta\rho\tau\sigma = z\rho\tau\sigma \stackrel{(1.1)}{=} z\rho$  and so  $(z, y) \in E$ . By the similar argument, we can prove  $\beta$  is a restricted hom from  $\Gamma(\pi)$  to  $\Gamma(\rho)$ . Hence proved.

**Definition 3.10.** Let S be a subsemigroup of  $\mathcal{P}(X)$ . We say S is closed under restriction to spans if for all  $\rho, \pi \in S$  such that  $span(\rho) \subseteq dom(\pi), \pi|_{span(\rho)} \in S$ .

Note that every subsemigroup of the semigroup of  $\mathcal{T}(X)$  (semigroup of full transformations on X) is closed under restrictions to spans.

**Theorem 3.11.** Let S be a subsemigroup of  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  such that S is closed under restrictions to spans and  $\rho, \pi \in S$ 

- (1) If  $\rho \sim_r \pi$  satisfying (1.1), then there exist  $\alpha, \beta \in S^1$  such that  $\alpha$  is a restricted hom from  $\Gamma(\rho)$  to  $\Gamma(\pi)$  and  $\beta$  is a restricted hom from  $\Gamma(\pi)$  to  $\Gamma(\rho)$  with  $y\alpha\sigma = y$  for all  $y \in im(\rho)$  and  $u\beta\tau = u$  for all  $u \in im(\pi)$ .
- (2) Conversely, if  $\alpha$  is a restricted hom from  $\Gamma(\rho)$  to  $\Gamma(\pi)$  and  $\beta$  is a restricted hom from  $\Gamma(\pi)$  to  $\Gamma(\rho)$  with  $y\alpha\sigma = y$  for all  $y \in im(\rho)$  and  $u\beta\tau = u$  for all  $u \in im(\pi)$ . Then  $\rho \sim_r \pi$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\Gamma(\rho) = (A, E)$  and  $\Gamma(\pi) = (B, F)$ .

(1) Let  $\rho \sim_r \pi$  then there exist  $\delta, \gamma, \sigma, \tau \in S^1$  such that

$$\rho\delta = \delta\pi, \pi\gamma = \gamma\rho, \rho = \delta\pi\sigma \text{ and } \pi = \gamma\rho\tau.$$

Here span( $\rho$ )  $\subseteq$  dom( $\delta$ ) and span( $\pi$ )  $\subseteq$  dom( $\gamma$ ). Let  $\alpha = \delta$ | span( $\rho$ ),  $\beta = \gamma$ | span( $\pi$ ). First we prove  $\rho \alpha = \alpha \pi$  and  $\rho = \alpha \pi \sigma$ . Let  $x \in X$ . If  $x \in$  span( $\rho$ ). Then  $x \alpha \pi = x \delta \pi = x \rho \delta = x \rho \alpha$  and  $x \alpha \pi \sigma = x \delta \pi \gamma = x \rho$ . If  $x \notin$  span( $\rho$ ), i.e.,  $x \rho = \diamond$ , then  $x \rho \alpha = \diamond$  and  $x \alpha \pi = \diamond$  and also  $x \alpha \pi \sigma = \diamond = x \rho$ . Similarly we can prove  $\pi \beta = \beta \rho$  and  $\pi = \beta \rho \tau$ . Therefore we have

$$\rho\alpha = \alpha\pi, \pi\beta = \beta\rho, \rho = \alpha\pi\sigma \text{ and } \pi = \beta\rho\tau.$$

Now  $\rho = \rho \tau \sigma$  and  $\pi = \pi \sigma \tau$ . Therefore by Lemma 3.9 we have  $\alpha$  as a restricted hom from  $\Gamma(\rho)$  to  $\Gamma(\pi)$  and  $\beta$  as a restricted hom from  $\Gamma(\pi)$  to  $\Gamma(\rho)$ . Next for all  $y \in \operatorname{im}(\rho)$ ,  $y\alpha\sigma = x\rho\alpha\sigma$  (for some  $x \in \operatorname{dom}(\rho)$ ) =  $x\alpha\pi\sigma = x\rho = y$ . Similarly for all  $u \in \operatorname{im}(\pi)$ ,  $u\beta\tau = u$ .

(2) Let the desired  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  exist with  $y\alpha\sigma = y$  for all  $y \in im(\rho)$  and  $u\beta\tau = u$  for all  $u \in im(\pi)$ . We have to prove  $\rho \sim_r \pi$ . First we will prove that  $\rho\alpha = \alpha\pi$  and  $\rho = \alpha\pi\sigma$ . Let  $x \in X$ . Two cases arise here.

**Case(1):** Suppose  $x \notin \text{dom}(\rho)$ . Then  $x\rho\alpha = \diamond$ .

(i) If  $x \notin \text{dom}(\alpha)$ , then  $x(\alpha \pi) = \diamond$  and  $x\alpha \pi \sigma = \diamond$ . So,  $\rho \alpha = \alpha \pi$  and  $\rho = \alpha \pi \sigma$  in this case. (ii) If  $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$ , then x is a terminal vertex of  $\Gamma(\rho)$ , and so  $x\alpha$  is a terminal vertex in  $\Gamma(\pi)$ , which implies that  $x(\alpha \pi) = (x\alpha)\pi = \diamond$  and  $x\alpha\pi\sigma = \diamond$ . Thus  $\rho\alpha = \alpha\pi$  and  $\rho = \alpha\pi\sigma$  in this case also.

**Case(2):** Suppose  $x \in \text{dom}(\rho)$  and let  $y = x\rho \in X$  i.e,  $(x, y) \in E$  which implies  $(x\alpha, y\alpha) \in F$  i.e,

$$(x\alpha)\pi = y\alpha.$$

Now,  $x(\rho\alpha) = (x\rho)\alpha = y\alpha = x(\alpha\pi) = (x\alpha)\pi$  and  $x\alpha\pi\sigma = [(x\alpha)\pi]\sigma = y\alpha\sigma = y = x\rho$  which implies  $x\alpha\pi\sigma = x\rho$ . Thus in both the cases we have proved that

$$\rho\alpha = \alpha\pi, \rho = \alpha\pi\sigma \tag{1.2}$$

Similarly by using that  $\beta$  is restricted hom from  $\Gamma(\pi)$  to  $\Gamma(\rho)$  with  $u\beta\tau = u$  for all  $u \in im(\pi)$  we can prove that

$$\pi\beta = \beta\rho \text{ and } \pi = \beta\rho\tau.$$
 (1.3)

Therefore by combining (1.2) and (1.3) we get  $\rho \sim_r \pi$ .

## 4 $\sim_r$ through the trims of digraphs

**Definition 4.1.** Let  $\Gamma = (A, E)$  and  $\Lambda = (B, F)$  be digraphs. A mapping  $\alpha : A \to B$  is called an isomorphism from  $\Gamma$  to  $\Lambda$  if  $\alpha$  is a bijection and for all  $x, y \in A, (x, y) \in E$  if and only if  $(x\alpha, y\alpha) \in F$ . Note that a bijection  $\alpha : A \to B$  is an isomorphism if and only if both  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha^{-1}$ are isomorphisms. We will say that  $\Gamma$  and  $\Lambda$  are isomorphic, written  $\Gamma \cong \Lambda$ , if there exists an isomorphism from  $\Gamma$  to  $\Lambda$ .

For  $\rho \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  and  $y \in \operatorname{im}(\rho)$ , denote by  $y\rho^{-1}$  the set of all elements  $x \in X$  such that  $x\rho = y$ . Note that  $y\rho^{-1}$  is not empty (since  $y \in \operatorname{im}(\rho)$ ) and that it is the set of all vertices x in  $\Gamma(\rho)$  such that (x, y) is an edge in  $\Gamma(\rho)$ .

**Definition 4.2.** Let  $\rho \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  and  $\Gamma(\rho) = (A, E)$ . Denote by  $A^i$  the set of initial vertices of  $\Gamma(\rho)$ . For every non-initial vertex y of  $\Gamma(\rho)$  such that  $y\rho^{-1} \subseteq A^i$ , select  $y^* \in y\rho^{-1}$ . Let  $A_t$  and  $E_t$  be sets of vertices and edges respectively, defined by

 $A_t = (A \setminus A^i) \cup \{y^* : y \text{ is a non-initial vertex of } \Gamma(\rho) \text{ and } y\rho^{-1} \subseteq A^i\},$  $E_t = \{(x, y) \in E : x, y \in A_t\}.$ 

Then the digraph  $\Gamma_t(\rho) = (A_t, E_t)$  will be called trim of  $\Gamma(\rho)$ .

In other words, a trim  $\Gamma_t(\rho)$  is obtained from  $\Gamma(\rho)$  by removing all initial vertices of  $\Gamma(\rho)$  with the following exception: If y is a non-initial vertex of  $\Gamma(\rho)$  and all vertices in  $y\rho^{-1}$  are initial, then exactly one of these vertices (denoted  $y^*$  in Definition 4.2) are retained. There may be multiple trims of  $\Gamma(\rho)$  since there may be multiple choices for  $y^*$ . However a trim of  $\Gamma(\rho)$  is unique upto isomorphism.

For a function  $f : A \to B$ , the rank of f, denoted rank(f), is the cardinality of the image of f.

**Lemma 4.3.** [10, Lemma 4.4] Let  $\rho, \pi \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  with  $\Gamma(\rho) = (A, E)$  and  $\Gamma(\pi) = (B, F)$ . Suppose that  $\delta$  is an isomorphism from trim $(\Gamma(\rho)) = (A_t, E_t)$  to trim $(\Gamma(\pi)) = (B_t, F_t)$ .

- (1) Let y be a non-initial vertex of trim( $\Gamma(\rho)$ ) and let  $u = y\delta$ . Then  $u\pi^{-1} \neq \emptyset$ . Moreover, if  $y\rho^{-1} \subseteq A^i$ , then  $u\pi^{-1} \subseteq B^i$  and  $y^*\delta = u^*$ .
- (2) there exist a restricted hom  $\alpha$  of rank  $|A_t|$  from  $\Gamma(\rho)$  to  $\Gamma(\pi)$  such that  $x\alpha = x\delta$  for every vertex x of trim $(\Gamma(\rho))$ .

**Lemma 4.4.** Let  $\rho, \pi, \alpha, \beta, \sigma, \tau \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  and let  $\rho \sim_r \pi$  satisfying (3.1). Then  $\alpha | \operatorname{im}(\rho) = \tau$  and  $\beta | \operatorname{im}(\pi) = \sigma$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\rho \sim_r \pi$  then there exist  $\alpha, \beta, \sigma, \tau$  such that  $\rho \alpha = \alpha \pi, \pi \beta = \beta \rho, \rho = \alpha \pi \sigma$  and  $\pi = \beta \rho \tau$ . Let  $y \in im(\rho)$  then there exist  $x \in X$  such that  $y = x\rho$ . Now

$$y\alpha = x\rho\alpha$$
$$= x\alpha\pi$$
$$= x\alpha\pi\sigma\tau$$
$$= x\rho\tau$$
$$= y\tau.$$

Similarly,  $\beta | \operatorname{im}(\pi) = \sigma$ .

**Lemma 4.5.** Let  $\sigma, \tau \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  with  $\sigma \sim_r \tau$  satisfying (3.1). Let y be a non-initial vertex of  $\Gamma(\rho)$  and  $u = y\alpha \in B$ . Then u is not initial in  $\Gamma(\pi)$ . Moreover, if  $y\rho^{-1} \subseteq A^i$ , then  $u\pi^{-1} \subseteq B^i$  and for every  $x \in y\rho^{-1}$ ,  $x\alpha \in u\pi^{-1}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\sigma, \tau \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  with  $\sigma \sim_r \tau$  satisfying (3.1), then by Theorem 3.11 there exists  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  such that  $\alpha$  is a restricted hom from  $\Gamma(\rho)$  to  $\Gamma(\pi)$  and  $\beta$  is a restricted hom from  $\Gamma(\pi)$  to  $\Gamma(\rho)$  with  $y\alpha\sigma = y$  for all  $y \in \operatorname{im}(\rho)$  and  $u\beta\tau = u$  for all  $u \in \operatorname{im}(\pi)$ . Let  $\Gamma(\rho) = (A, E)$  and  $\Gamma(\pi) = (B, F)$ . Since y is not initial,  $(x, y) \in E$  for some  $x \in A$ . Then  $(x\alpha, u) = (x\alpha, y\alpha) \in F$ , and so u is a non-initial vertex of  $\Gamma(\pi)$ . Suppose to the contrary that  $u\pi^{-1} \nsubseteq B^i$ , that is,  $(v, u) \in F$  for some non-initial  $v \in B$ . Then there is  $t \in B$  such that  $(t, v) \in F$ . Since  $\beta$  is a hom from  $\Gamma(\pi)$  to  $\Gamma(\rho)$ ,  $(t\beta, v\beta)$ ,  $(v\beta, u\beta) \in E$ . But  $u\sigma = y\alpha\sigma = y$  (since  $y \in \operatorname{im}(\rho)$ ). Now, by Lemma 4.4  $u\beta = y$ . So  $(t\beta, v\beta)$ ,  $(v\beta, y) \in E$  which contradicts the hypothesis that  $y\rho^{-1} \subseteq A^i$ . Hence  $u\pi^{-1} \subseteq B^i$ . Finally, if  $x \in y\rho^{-1}$ , then  $(x, y) \in E$ , and so  $x\alpha \in u\pi^{-1}$  since  $(x\alpha, u) = (x\alpha, y\alpha) \in F$ .

Now we have the main result on r-notion of conjugacy in the semigroup  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  through trims of the digraphs.

#### **Theorem 4.6.** Let $\rho, \pi \in \mathcal{P}(X)$

- (1) Let  $\rho \sim_r \pi$  satisfying (3.1). Then  $trim(\Gamma(\rho)) \cong trim(\Gamma(\pi))$ .
- (2) Conversely, if  $trim(\Gamma(\rho)) \cong trim(\Gamma(\pi))$  with  $y\alpha\sigma = y$  for all  $y \in im(\rho)$  and  $u\beta\tau = u$  for all  $u \in im(\pi)$ , then  $\rho \sim_r \pi$ .
- *Proof.* (1) Let  $\Gamma(\rho) = (A, E), \Gamma(\pi) = (B, F)$ , trim $(\Gamma(\rho)) = (A_t, E_t)$ , and trim $(\Gamma(\pi)) = (B_t, F_t)$ . Suppose that  $\rho \sim_r \pi$  then by Theorem 3.11, there exists  $\alpha, \beta, \sigma, \tau$  such that  $\alpha$  is a restricted hom from  $\Gamma(\rho)$  to  $\Gamma(\pi)$  and  $\beta$  is a restricted hom from  $\Gamma(\pi)$  to  $\Gamma(\rho)$  with  $y\alpha\sigma = y$  for all  $y \in \operatorname{im}(\rho)$  and  $u\beta\tau = u$  for all  $u \in \operatorname{im}(\pi)$ . Suppose that x is an initial vertex of trim $(\Gamma(\rho))$ . Let  $y = x\rho \in A$  and  $u_x = y\alpha = y\tau$  (by Lemma 4.4)  $\in B$ . By Lemma 4.5,  $u_x$  is a non-initial vertex of trim $(\Gamma(\pi))$  and  $u_x\pi^{-1} \subseteq B^i$  (so  $(u_x)^*$  exists). Therefore, we can define  $\mu : A_t \to B_t$  by

$$x\mu = \begin{cases} x\alpha & \text{if } x \text{ is not initial in } \operatorname{trim}(\Gamma(\rho)), \\ (u_x)^* & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We claim that  $\mu$  is an isomorphism from trim $(\Gamma(\rho)$  to trim $(\Gamma(\pi))$ . Let  $(x, y) \in E_t$ . If x is not initial, then  $(x\mu, y\mu) = (x\alpha, y\alpha) \in F$ , and so  $(x\mu, y\mu) \in F_t$  since  $x\mu, y\mu \in B_t$ . Suppose that x is initial and let  $y = x\rho$ . Then  $(x\mu, y\mu) = ((u_x)^*, u_x) \in F_t$ . Hence  $\mu$  is a hom.

Let  $x, s \in A_t$  be such that  $x\mu = s\mu$ . If x and s are both not initial, then  $x\alpha = s\alpha$  (since  $x\mu = x\alpha$  and  $s\mu = s\alpha$ ), and so  $x = x(\alpha\sigma)$ (by Theorem 3.11) =  $(x\alpha)\sigma = (s\alpha)\sigma = s(\alpha\sigma) = s$ . Suppose that at least one of x and s, say x, is initial. Then  $x\mu = (u_x)^* \in B_t$  is initial. So s must be initial since otherwise,  $s\mu = s\alpha$  would not be initial (by Lemma 4.5), which would contradict  $x\mu = s\mu$ . Thus,  $s\mu = (u_s)^*$ . Let  $y = x\rho$  and  $z = s\rho$ , so  $y\alpha = u_x$  and  $z\alpha = u_s$ . Since y and z are not initial, we have  $y\mu = y\alpha = z\alpha = z\mu$ , and so y = z by the preceding argument. Hence  $x = y^* = z^* = s$ . We have proved that  $\mu$  is injective.

Let  $v \in B_t$ . If v is not initial, then  $y = v\beta \in A$  is not initial (so  $y \in A_t$ ), and so  $y\mu = y\alpha = y\tau = v\beta\tau = v$ . Suppose that v is initial and let  $u = v\pi$ . Then, by Lemma 4.5,  $y = u\beta$  is not initial and  $y\rho^{-1} \subseteq A^i$ . Let  $x = y^* \in A_t$ , so  $y = x\rho$ . Then  $x\mu = (u_x)^* = (y\alpha)^* = (y\tau)^*$  (by Lemma 4.4)  $= ((u\beta\tau)^* = (u\beta\tau)^* = u^* = v$ , where the last equality is true since there is only one initial vertex of trim( $\Gamma(\pi)$ ) in  $u\pi^{-1}$ . We have proved that  $\mu$  is surjective.

Hence  $\mu$  is a bijective hom from trim( $\Gamma(\rho)$ ) to trim( $\Gamma(\pi)$ ) such that for every non-initial  $y \in A_t, y\mu = y\alpha = y\tau$  (by Lemma 4.4) and  $y^*\mu = (y\alpha)^* = (y\tau)^*$  if  $y\rho^{-1} \subseteq A^i$ . Similarly, we can define bijective hom  $\lambda$  from trim( $\Gamma(\pi)$ ) to trim( $\Gamma(\rho)$ ) such that for every non-initial  $u \in B_t, u\lambda = u\beta = u\sigma$ (by Lemma 4.4) and  $u^*\lambda = (u\beta)^* = (u\sigma)^*$  if  $u\pi^{-1} \subseteq B^i$ . Let  $x \in A_t$ . If x is not initial, then  $x\alpha \in B_t$  is not initial and  $x(\mu\lambda) = (x\mu)\lambda = (x\alpha)\lambda =$ 

 $(x\alpha)\beta = x(\alpha\sigma) = x$ . Suppose that x is initial and let  $y = x\rho$ . Then  $x = y^*$  and  $x(\mu\lambda) = (y^*\mu)\lambda = (y\alpha)^*\lambda = ((y\alpha)\beta)^* = ((y\alpha)\sigma)^*$  (by Lemma 4.4)  $= (y(\alpha\sigma))^* = y^* = x$ . Similarly  $v(\lambda\mu) = v$  for every  $v \in B_t$ . Hence  $\lambda = \mu^{-1}$  and so  $\mu$  is an isomorphism.

(2) Conversely, suppose that trim(Γ(ρ)) ≅ trim(Γ(π)) and let μ : A<sub>t</sub> → B<sub>t</sub> be an isomorphism from trim(Γ(ρ)) to trim(Γ(π)). Then μ<sup>-1</sup> : B<sub>t</sub> → A<sub>t</sub> is an isomorphism from trim(Γ(π)) to trim(Γ(ρ)). By Lemma 4.3, there are restricted homs α from Γ(ρ) to Γ(π) and β from Γ(π) to Γ(ρ). By given condition yασ = y for all y ∈ im(ρ) and uβτ = u for all u ∈ im(π). Now apply Theorem 3.11, we get ρ ~<sub>r</sub> π.

# 5 Characterization of $\sim_r$ in the proper ideals of $\mathcal{P}(X)$

By a proper ideal of a semigroup S we mean an ideal I of S such that  $I \neq S$ . For a cardinal k with  $0 < k \le |X|$ , denote by  $P_k$  the set of all  $\rho \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  such that  $\operatorname{rank}(\rho) < k$ . It is well known (see [?, Sec 2.2]) that the set  $\{P_k : 0 < k \le |X|\}$  is the set of proper ideals of  $\mathcal{P}(X)$ .

**Theorem 5.1.** Let  $P_k$  be a proper ideal of  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  and let  $\rho, \pi \in P_k$  with  $\Gamma(\rho) = (A, E), \Gamma(\pi) = (B, F)$ , trim $(\Gamma(\rho)) = (A_t, E_t)$  and trim $(\Gamma(\pi)) = (B_t, F_t)$ .

- (1) If k is infinite, let  $\rho \sim_r \pi$  satisfying 3.1. Then  $trim(\Gamma(\rho)) \cong trim(\Gamma(\pi))$ .
- (2) Conversely, if  $trim(\Gamma(\rho) \cong trim(\Gamma(\pi) \text{ with } y\alpha\sigma = y \text{ for all } y \in im(\rho) \text{ and } u\beta\tau = u \text{ for all } u \in im(\pi), \text{ then } \rho \sim_r \pi \text{ in } P_k.$
- *Proof.* (1) Let  $\rho \sim_r \pi$  in  $P_k$ . Then  $\rho \sim_r \pi$  in  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  and so by part (1) of Theorem 4.6, we have  $\operatorname{trim}(\Gamma(\rho)) \cong \operatorname{trim}(\Gamma(\pi))$ .
- (2) Conversely, let trim( $\Gamma(\rho)$ )  $\cong$  trim( $\Gamma(\pi)$ ). Suppose k is infinite. Then

$$|A_t| = |A \setminus A^i| + |\{y^* : y \in A \setminus A^i \text{ and } y\rho^{-1} \subseteq A^i\}|$$
  
=  $|A \setminus A^i| + |\{y : y \in A \setminus A^i \text{ and } y\rho^{-1} \subseteq A^i\}|$   
 $\leq |\operatorname{im}(\rho)| + |\operatorname{im}(\rho)| < k + k = k.$ 

Thus  $|A_t| < k$ . let  $\mu : A_t \to B_t$  be an isomorphism from trim( $\Gamma(\rho)$ ) to trim( $\Gamma(\pi)$ ). Then  $\mu^{-1} : B_t \to A_t$  is an isomorphism from trim( $\Gamma(\pi)$ ) to trim( $\Gamma(\rho)$ ). By Lemma 4.3, there are r-homomorphisms  $\alpha \in P_k$  from  $\Gamma(\rho)$  to  $\Gamma(\pi)$  and  $\beta \in P_k$  from  $\Gamma(\pi)$  to  $\Gamma(\rho)$ . By given condition  $y\alpha\sigma = y$  for all  $y \in \text{im}(\rho)$  and  $u\beta\tau = u$  for all  $u \in \text{im}(\pi)$ . Then by Theorem 3.11, we have  $\rho \sim_r \pi$  in  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  i.e.,  $\rho\alpha = \alpha\pi, \pi\beta = \beta\rho, \rho = \alpha\pi\sigma$  and  $\pi = \beta\rho\tau$ . Since k is infinite, so rank( $\sigma$ ) < k and rank( $\tau$ ) < k. So,  $\sigma, \tau \in P_k$ . Thus  $\rho \sim_r \pi$  in  $P_k$ .

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