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# On the monoid of all order-decreasing partial transformations

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**Abstract.** A partial transformation  $\alpha$  on an *n*-element set  $\mathbf{n} = \{1, ..., n\}$  is called order-decreasing if  $x\alpha \le x$  for all  $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$ . The set of all partial order-decreasing transformations on  $\mathbf{n}$  forms a monoid  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . In this paper, we determine the maximal subsemigroups as well as the maximal idempotent generated subsemigroups of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . Furthermore, we investigate the abundance of the ideals of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ , and characterize the structure of the left (right) abundant principal ideal of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ .

#### 1. Introduction and preliminaries

Fix a positive integer *n*. We write **n** for the finite set  $\{1, ..., n\}$ . We denote by  $\mathcal{PT}_n$  the monoid of all partial transformations of **n** and by  $\mathcal{T}_n$  the monoid of all full transformations of **n**. We say that a transformation  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PT}_n$  is order-preserving [order-reversing] if  $x \leq y$  implies  $x\alpha \leq y\alpha$  [ $x\alpha \geq y\alpha$ ], for all  $x, y \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$ , and  $\alpha$  is *decreasing* [*increasing* or *extensive*] if  $x\alpha \leq x$  [ $x\alpha \geq x$ ], for all  $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$ . Denote by  $\mathcal{O}_n$  the monoid of all order-preserving partial transformations and by  $\mathcal{POE}_n$  the of all order-preserving and extensive partial transformations. We also denote by  $\mathcal{D}_n$  the monoid of all order-decreasing partial transformations and  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  the monoid of all order-decreasing partial transformations.

Let  $c = (c_1, c_2, ..., c_t)$  be a sequence of t ( $t \ge 0$ ) elements from the set **n**. We say that c is *cyclic* if there exists no more than one index  $i \in \{1, ..., t\}$  such that  $c_i > c_{i+1}$ , where  $c_{t+1}$  denotes  $c_1$ . Let  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PT}_n$  and suppose that dom( $\alpha$ ) =  $\{a_1, ..., a_t\}$ , with  $t \ge 0$  and  $a_1 < \cdots < a_t$ . We say that  $\alpha$  is orientation-preserving if the sequence of its image  $(a_1\alpha, ..., a_t\alpha)$  is cyclic. We denote by  $\mathcal{POP}_n$  the submonoid of  $\mathcal{PT}_n$  of all partial orientation-preserving transformations and by  $\mathcal{OP}_n$  the submonoid  $\mathcal{POP}_n \cap \mathcal{T}_n$  of  $\mathcal{PT}_n$  of all full orientation-preserving and extensive full transformations and by  $\mathcal{POPE}_n$  of all orientation-preserving and extensive partial transformations.

Algebraic, combinatorial, and rank properties of various kinds of transformation semigroups have been studied over a long period and many interesting results have emerged. In particular, Dimitrova and Koppitz

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[1] (2008) characterized the maximal subsemigroups of the ideals of  $O_n$  as well as of the ideals of  $OD_n$  the monoid of all order-preserving or order-reversing full transformations. Further, Dimitrova and Koppitz [2] (2011) classified the maximal regular subsemigroups of the ideals of  $O_n$ . Dimitrova, Fernandes and Koppitz [4] (2011) characterized completely the maximal subsemigroups of the ideals of  $OP_n$ . Dimitrova and Koppitz [3] (2012) described the maximal subsemigroups as well as the maximal idempotent generated subsemigroups of  $POE_n$ . Zhao et al.[14] (2022) completely determined the maximal subsemigroups as well as the monoid  $POE_n$ . Li, Zhang and Luo [9] (2022) characterized the maximal subsemigroups as well as the maximal idempotent generated subsemigroups of the ideals of the monoid  $POE_n$ . Li, Zhang and Luo [9] (2022) characterized the maximal subsemigroups as well as the maximal idempotent generated subsemigroups as well as the monoid  $POE_n$ . Li, Zhang and Luo [9] (2022) characterized the maximal subsemigroups as well as the maximal idempotent generated subsemigroups as well as the monoid  $POE_n$ . Li, Zhang and Luo [9] (2022) characterized the maximal subsemigroups as well as the maximal idempotent generated subsemigroups as well as the monoid  $POE_n$ . Recently, Zhao and Hu [15] (2023) completely determined the maximal subsemigroups as well as the monoid  $POPE_n$ .

In 1986, Pin [10] proved that a finite monoid is  $\mathcal{R}$ -trivial if and only if it can be embedded in  $\mathcal{D}_n$  for some n. In 1992, Umar [11] showed that both the rank and the idempotent rank of the singular subsemigroup of  $\mathcal{D}_n$  of all singular order-decreasing full transformations are equal to  $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ . In 2004, Laradji and Umar [8] studied algebraic, combinatorial and rank properties of certain Rees quotient semigroups of  $\mathcal{D}_n$ . Yağci [13] (2023) investigated the maximum nilpotent subsemigroup of  $\mathcal{D}_n$  and determined the minimum generating set as well as the cardinality of the maximum nilpotent subsemigroup of  $\mathcal{D}_n$ . Recently, Zhao and Hu [16] characterized the maximal subsemigroups as well as the maximal idempotent generated subsemigroups of the monoid  $\mathcal{D}_n$ .

Regarding the monoid  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ , Umar [12] studied combinatorial and rank properties of certain Rees quotient semigroups of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . They showed that the ideals  $\mathcal{PD}_{n,r} = \{\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n : |\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| \leq r\}$   $(1 \leq r \leq n)$ of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  are abundant (see [12, Corollary 2.4.3 and Theorem 2.2.5]). However, the results about algebraic properties of the monoid  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  are very few. The main aim of this paper is to study the monoid  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . We notice that each ideal of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  is not always the form  $\mathcal{PD}_{n,r}$ , for  $1 \leq r \leq n$ , and  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  is the principal ideal  $\mathcal{PD}_n 1_n \mathcal{PD}_n$  generated by  $1_n$  (the identity transformation on **n**). In this paper, we determine the maximal subsemigroups as well as the maximal idempotent generated subsemigroups of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  in Sect.2. In Sect.3, we characterize the abundance of the ideals of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . Moreover, we characterize the structure of the left (right) abundant principal ideal of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ .

Given a subset *A* of a semigroup *S* and  $u \in S$ , we denote by E(A) the set of idempotents of *S* belonging to *A* and by  $L_u^S$  and  $R_u^S$  the  $\mathscr{L}$ -class and  $\mathscr{R}$ -class of *u*, respectively. For general background on Semigroup Theory, we refer the reader to Howie's book [6].

We denote by  $\theta_n$  the empty transformation on **n**. Let  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PT}_n \setminus \{\theta_n\}$ , we will write

$$\alpha = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} A_1 & \cdots & A_m \\ a_1 & \cdots & a_m \end{array}\right)$$

to indicate that dom( $\alpha$ ) =  $A_1 \sqcup \cdots \sqcup A_m$ , im( $\alpha$ ) = { $a_1, \ldots, a_m$ } and  $A_i \alpha = a_i$  for each  $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$  (the symbol " $\sqcup$ " denotes disjoint union). Usually this notation will imply that  $a_1, \cdots, a_m$  are distinct, but occasionally this will not be the case, and we will always specify this. As usual, we denote the *kernel* of  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PT}_n \setminus \{\theta_n\}$  by

$$\ker(\alpha) = \{(x, y) \in \operatorname{dom}(\alpha) \times \operatorname{dom}(\alpha) : x\alpha = y\alpha\}.$$

We will sometimes write  $ker(\alpha) = (A_1 | ... | A_m)$  to indicate that  $ker(\alpha)$  has equivalence classes  $A_1, ..., A_m$ , and this notation will always imply that  $A_i$  are pairwise disjoint and non-empty.

Let  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  with  $|\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = r \ge 2$ . Then  $\alpha$  can be expressed as

$$\alpha = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} A_1 & A_2 & \cdots & A_r \\ a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_r \end{array}\right),$$

where  $a_1 < \cdots < a_r$  and  $a_i \le \min A_i$ , for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Notice that if  $1 \in A_1$ , then  $a_1 = 1$ . Notice that if  $\alpha \in E(\mathcal{PD}_n)$ , then  $a_i = \min A_i$  for  $1 \le i \le r$ .

#### 2. Maximal (idempotent generated) subsemigroups of $\mathcal{PD}_n$

We shall say that a proper subsemigroup *S* of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  is *maximal subsemigroup* (idempotent generated subsemigroups) if any subsemigroup (idempotent generated subsemigroups) of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  properly containing *S* must be  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . In this section, we describe all maximal subsemigroups and maximal idempotent generated subsemigroups of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . For  $1 \le r \le n$ , put

 $J_r = \{ \alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n : |\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = r \}, \ E_r = E(J_r) \ and \ \mathcal{D}_{n,r} = \{ \alpha \in \mathcal{D}_n : |\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| \le r \}.$ 

Then the sets  $\mathcal{PD}_{n,r}$  and  $\mathcal{D}_{n,r}$  are the two-sided ideals of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  and  $\mathcal{D}_n$ , respectively. Clearly,  $\mathcal{PD}_{n,r} = J_0 \cup J_1 \cup \cdots \cup J_r$ , where  $J_0$  consists of the empty transformation  $\theta_n$ .

**Lemma 2.1.** Let  $0 \le m \le n - 2$ . Then  $E_m \subseteq \langle E_{m+1} \rangle$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon \in E_m$  be arbitrary. To prove that  $\varepsilon \in \langle E_{m+1} \rangle$ , we distinguish two cases:

Case 1. m = 0. Clearly,  $\varepsilon = \theta_n$ . Put

$$\eta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} and \xi = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then  $\eta, \xi \in E_1$  and  $\varepsilon = \eta \xi$ . Thus  $\varepsilon = \eta \xi \in \langle E_1 \rangle$ .

Case 2.  $m \ge 1$ . We can suppose that

$$\varepsilon = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} A_1 & \dots & A_m \\ a_1 & \dots & a_m \end{array}\right),$$

where  $a_i = minA_i$ , for  $1 \le i \le m$ . Notice that dom $(\varepsilon) = A_1 \sqcup \cdots \sqcup A_m$ . Clearly,  $|dom(\varepsilon)| \ge m$ . We distinguish two subcases:

Subcase 2.1.  $|\operatorname{dom}(\varepsilon)| = n$ . Since  $m \le n-2$ , there exist  $1 \le p \le m$  such that  $|A_p| \ge 2$ . Let  $x_p = min(A_p \setminus \{a_p\})$ . Take  $y \in \mathbf{n} \setminus \{a_1, \ldots, a_m, x_p\}$ . Put

$$\eta = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & \dots & A_{p-1} & a_p & A_p \setminus \{a_p\} & A_{p+1} & \dots & A_m \\ a_1 & \dots & a_{p-1} & a_p & x_p & a_{p+1} & \dots & a_m \end{pmatrix},$$
  
$$\xi = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & \dots & a_{p-1} & \{a_p, x_p\} & a_{p+1} & \dots & a_m & y \\ a_p & a_{p+1} & \dots & a_m & y \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then  $\eta, \xi \in E_{m+1}$  and  $\varepsilon = \eta \xi$ . Thus  $\varepsilon = \eta \xi \in \langle E_{m+1} \rangle$ .

Subcase 2.2.  $|\operatorname{dom}(\varepsilon)| \le n - 1$ . Take  $x \in \mathbf{n} \setminus \operatorname{dom}(\varepsilon)$  and  $y \in \mathbf{n} \setminus \{a_1, \ldots, a_m, x\}$ . Put

$$\eta = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & \dots & A_m & x \\ a_1 & \dots & a_m & x \end{pmatrix} and \xi = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & \dots & a_m & y \\ a_1 & \dots & a_m & y \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then  $\eta, \xi \in E_{m+1}$  and  $\varepsilon = \eta \xi$ . Thus  $\varepsilon = \eta \xi \in \langle E_{m+1} \rangle$ .  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 2.2.** Let  $0 \le m \le n$ . Then  $J_m \subseteq \langle E_m \rangle$ .

*Proof.* Notice that  $J_0 = E_0 = \{\theta_n\}$  and  $J_n = E_n = \{1_n\}$ . Then  $J_m = \langle E_m \rangle$ , for m = 0, n. Suppose that  $1 \le m \le n-1$ . Let

$$\alpha = \left(\begin{array}{cc} B_1 \\ b_1 \end{array} \middle| \begin{array}{c} \dots \\ \dots \\ \dots \\ \end{array} \middle| \begin{array}{c} B_m \\ b_m \end{array} \right) \in J_m$$

where  $b_i \leq minB_i$ , for  $1 \leq i \leq m$ . Let  $q_i = minB_i$ , for  $1 \leq i \leq m$ . Then  $b_i \leq q_i$ , for  $1 \leq i \leq m$ . We denote by  $S_r$ the symmetric group on  $\{1, ..., m\}$ . Then there exists  $\sigma \in S_m$  such that  $q_{1\sigma} < q_{2\sigma} < \cdots < q_{m\sigma}$ . Thus

$$b_{k\sigma} \leq q_{k\sigma} < \cdots < q_{m\sigma}, \text{ for } 1 \leq k \leq m$$

Put

$$\tau = \begin{pmatrix} B_{1\sigma} & B_{2\sigma} & \cdots & B_{m\sigma} \\ q_{1\sigma} & q_{2\sigma} & \cdots & q_{m\sigma} \end{pmatrix}, \ \tau_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \{b_{1\sigma}, q_{1\sigma}\} & q_{2\sigma} & \cdots & q_{m\sigma} \\ b_{1\sigma} & q_{2\sigma} & \cdots & q_{m\sigma} \end{pmatrix}$$

,

and

$$\tau_i = \begin{pmatrix} b_{1\sigma} & \dots & b_{(i-1)\sigma} & \{b_{i\sigma}, q_{i\sigma}\} & q_{(i+1)\sigma} & \dots & q_{m\sigma} \\ b_{1\sigma} & \dots & b_{(i-1)\sigma} & b_{i\sigma} & q_{(i+1)\sigma} & \dots & q_{m\sigma} \end{pmatrix}$$

for  $2 \le i \le m$ . Clearly,  $\tau, \tau_1, \ldots, \tau_m \in E_m$ . It is easy to verify that

$$\alpha=\tau\tau_1\ldots\tau_m.$$

Thus  $\alpha \in \langle E_m \rangle$ .  $\square$ 

Notice that  $\mathcal{PD}_{n,r} = J_0 \cup J_1 \cup \cdots \cup J_r$ , for  $1 \le r \le n-1$ . As an immediate consequence of Lemmas 2.1 and 2.2, we have the following result:

**Lemma 2.3.** Let  $1 \le r \le n - 1$ . Then  $\mathcal{PD}_{n,r} = \langle E_r \rangle$ .

Let  $S \in \{\mathcal{T}_n, \mathcal{D}_n\}$ . Put

$$J_r^S = \{\alpha \in S : |\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = r\}$$
 and  $E_r^S = E(J_r^S)$ 

Then  $J_r^{\mathcal{D}_n} \subseteq J_r$  and  $E_r^{\mathcal{D}_n} \subseteq E_r$ . Now, recall that Umar [8, Theorem 1.3] proved:

**Lemma 2.4.** Let  $1 \le r \le n-1$ . Then  $\mathcal{D}_{n,r} = \langle E_r^{\mathcal{D}_n} \rangle$ .

Notice that each idempotent  $\varepsilon$  of  $E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{T}_n}$  has a form  $\binom{a}{b}$  for some  $a, b \in \mathbf{n}, a \neq b$ , which maps a to b and x to itself for  $x \neq a$ . Then

$$E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} = \{ \begin{pmatrix} i \\ j \end{pmatrix} : i, j \in \mathbf{n} \text{ with } i > j \}.$$

For  $1 \le i \le n$ , we denote by  $\delta_i$  the identity mapping on  $X_n \setminus \{i\}$ . Put

$$F_{n-1} = \{\delta_i : 1 \le i \le n\}.$$

Then  $E_{n-1} = E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \sqcup F_{n-1}$ .

Let *S* be a semigroup. We say that an element  $\alpha \in S$  is *undecomposable* in *S* if there are no  $\beta, \gamma \in S \setminus \{\alpha\}$ such that  $\alpha = \beta \gamma$ . Given a subset *U* of *S*, we say that *U* is a *undecomposable subset* of *S* if each element of *U* is *undecomposable* in S. Let A be a subset of **n**. We denote by  $1_A$  the identity mapping on A. Clearly,  $1_n$  is undecomposable in  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . In fact, we have the following lemma:

**Lemma 2.5.** The elements of the idempotent set  $E_{n-1}$  are undecomposable in  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ .

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*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon \in E_{n-1}$  be arbitrary. Suppose that there exist  $\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{PD}_n \setminus \{\varepsilon\}$  such that  $\varepsilon = \beta \gamma$ . Notice that

$$E_{n-1} = E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \sqcup F_{n-1}$$

We distinguish two cases:

Case 1.  $\varepsilon \in E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n}$ . Then there exist  $i, j \in \mathbf{n}$  with i > j such that  $\varepsilon = \binom{i}{j}$ . Assume that there exist  $\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{PD}_n \setminus \{\varepsilon\}$  such that  $\varepsilon = \beta\gamma$ . Clearly, dom $(\beta) = \mathbf{n}$ . Let  $x \in \mathbf{n} \setminus \{i\}$ . Then  $x = x\varepsilon = (x\beta)\gamma \le x\beta \le x$ . It follows that

$$x\beta = x\gamma = x, \text{ for } x \in \mathbf{n} \setminus \{i\}.$$
 (2.1)

If  $i\beta = i$ , then  $\beta = 1_n$  and so  $\gamma = \beta\gamma = \varepsilon$ , a contradiction. If  $i\beta \neq i$ , then, by (2.1),  $(i\beta)\gamma = i\beta$  and so  $i\beta = i\beta\gamma = i\varepsilon = j$ . Thus, by (2.1),  $\beta = {i \choose i} = \varepsilon$ , a contradiction.

Case 2.  $\varepsilon \in F_{n-1}$ . Then  $\varepsilon = \delta_i$  for some  $1 \le i \le n$ . Let  $x \in \mathbf{n} \setminus \{i\}$ . Then  $x = x\varepsilon = (x\beta)\gamma \le x\beta \le x$ . It follows that

$$x\beta = x\gamma = x, \text{ for } x \in \mathbf{n} \setminus \{i\}.$$
(2.2)

If  $i \notin \text{dom}(\gamma)$ , then, by (2.2),  $\gamma = \delta_i$ , a contradiction. If  $i \in \text{dom}(\gamma)$ , then  $\text{dom}(\gamma) = \mathbf{n}$ . It follows from  $\delta_i = \varepsilon = \beta \gamma$  and (2.2) that  $i \notin \text{dom}(\beta)$ . Then, by (2.2),  $\beta = \delta_i$ , a contradiction.  $\Box$ 

We can now present one of the main results of this section.

**Theorem 2.6.** Let  $n \ge 3$ . Then each maximal subsemigroup S of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  must be one of the following forms:

$$S = \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-1} \text{ or } S = \mathcal{PD}_n \setminus \{\varepsilon\}, \text{ for some } \varepsilon \in E_{n-1}.$$

*Proof.* Notice that  $1_n$  is undecomposable in  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . Let  $\varepsilon \in E_{n-1} \cup \{1_n\}$  be arbitrary. Then, by Lemma 2.5, we obtain the set  $\mathcal{PD}_n \setminus \{\varepsilon\}$  is a maximal subsemigroup of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . Let *S* be a maximal subsemigroup of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . Notice that  $\mathcal{PD}_n = \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-1} \cup \{1_n\}$ . If  $1_n \notin S$ , then  $S \subseteq \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-1} \subset \mathcal{PD}_n$ . Thus, by the maximality of *S*,  $S = \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-1}$ . If  $1_n \in S$ , then, by Lemma 2.3 and  $S \subset \mathcal{PD}_n$ ,  $E_{n-1} \notin S$ . Then there exists  $\varepsilon \in E_{n-1}$  such that  $\varepsilon \notin S$ . Thus  $S \subseteq \mathcal{PD}_n \setminus \{\varepsilon\} \subset \mathcal{PD}_n$ . Hence, by the maximality of *S*,  $S = \mathcal{PD}_n \setminus \{\varepsilon\}$ .  $\Box$ 

For  $i, j \in \mathbf{n}$  with i > j, put

$$G_{(i,j)} = \{ \alpha \in J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} : i\alpha \neq j \}.$$

Notice that  $E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \setminus \{\binom{i}{j}\} \subseteq G_{(i,j)}$ . Recall that Zhao and Hu [16, Lemma 2.6]) proved the following result:

**Lemma 2.7.** Let  $n \ge 3$ . Then  $G_{(i,j)} = \langle E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \setminus \{\binom{i}{j}\} \rangle \cap J_{n-1'}^{\mathcal{D}_n}$  for  $i, j \in n$  with i > j.

A product  $\varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2 \dots \varepsilon_m$  of idempotents in  $\mathcal{PT}_n$  will be called *irreducible* if  $\varepsilon_i \varepsilon_{i+1} \neq \varepsilon_i$ ,  $\varepsilon_i \varepsilon_{i+1} \neq \varepsilon_{i+1}$  (*i* = 1,...,*m* – 1). Now, recall that Howie [7, Lemma 4] proved:

**Lemma 2.8.** Let  $\alpha \in J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{T}_n}$ . If  $\alpha = \binom{i_1}{j_1}\binom{i_2}{j_2} \cdots \binom{i_m}{j_m}$  is irreducible. Then  $i_{r-1} = j_r$  and  $j_{r-1} \neq i_r$ , for  $2 \le r \le m$ .

Notice that  $J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \subseteq J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{T}_n}$ . What is clear is that if a is expressible as a product of idempotents then the product can be 'pruned down' until it is irreducible (see [7, page 2]). Thus, by Lemma 2.8, we immediately deduce the following result:

**Lemma 2.9.** Let  $I \subseteq E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n}$ . If  $\alpha \in \langle I \rangle \cap J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n}$ , then  $\alpha$  can be written as

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ x_1 \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} x_m \\ x_{m-1} \end{pmatrix},$$

where all  $\binom{x_{k+1}}{x_k} \in I$ , for  $0 \le k \le m - 1$ .

For  $i, j \in \mathbf{n}$  with i > j, put

 $G_{(i,i)}^{\Delta} = \{ \alpha \in J_{n-1} : i\alpha \neq j \}, \ \Delta_i = \{ \alpha \in J_{n-1} : i \notin \operatorname{dom}(\alpha) \}$ 

and

$$PG_{(i,j)} = G_{(i,j)}^{\triangle} \sqcup \Delta_i.$$

Clearly,  $G_{(i,j)} \subseteq G_{(i,j)}^{\vartriangle}$  and  $F_{n-1} \subseteq PG_{(i,j)}$ . Let  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$ , we put

$$Shift(\alpha) = \{i \in dom(\alpha) : i\alpha \neq i\}$$

**Lemma 2.10.** Let  $n \ge 3$ . Then  $PG_{(i,j)} = \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{ \binom{i}{j} \} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}$ , for  $i, j \in n$  with i > j.

*Proof.* Let  $\alpha \in PG_{(i,j)}$  be arbitrary. Notice that  $PG_{(i,j)} = G_{(i,j)}^{\triangle} \sqcup \Delta_i$ . To prove that  $\alpha \in \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{\binom{i}{j}\} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}$ , we distinguish two cases.

Case 1.  $\alpha \in G_{(i,j)}^{\wedge}$ . Then  $i\alpha \neq j$  and  $\alpha \in J_{n-1}$ . If  $|\operatorname{dom}(\alpha)| = n$ , then  $\alpha \in G_{(i,j)}$ . Thus, by Lemma 2.7,

$$\alpha \in G_{(i,j)} = \langle E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \setminus \{ \binom{i}{j} \} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \subseteq \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{ \binom{i}{j} \} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}.$$

If  $|\operatorname{dom}(\alpha)| = n - 1$ , then  $\operatorname{dom}(\alpha) = \mathbf{n} \setminus \{k\}$  for some  $k \in \mathbf{n} \setminus \{i\}$ . (*i*) If  $1 \in \operatorname{im}(\alpha)$ , we define  $\alpha^*$  by

$$x\alpha^* = \begin{cases} 1, & x = k, \\ x\alpha, & x \neq k. \end{cases}$$

Then  $\alpha^* \in G_{(i,j)}$  and  $\alpha = \delta_k \alpha^*$ . Thus, by Lemma 2.7,

$$\alpha = \delta_k \alpha^* \in \delta_k \cdot G_{(i,j)} = \delta_k \cdot [\langle E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \setminus \{ \begin{pmatrix} i \\ j \end{pmatrix} \} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}] \subseteq \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{ \begin{pmatrix} i \\ j \end{pmatrix} \} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}$$

(*ii*) If  $1 \notin im(\alpha)$ , then k = 1 otherwise  $1\alpha = 1$ . Thus, by  $\alpha \in J_{n-1}$ , dom $(\alpha) = im(\alpha) = \mathbf{n} \setminus \{1\}$ . It follows from  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  that

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & \cdots & n \\ 2 & 3 & \cdots & n \end{pmatrix} = \delta_1 \in \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{ \begin{pmatrix} i \\ j \end{pmatrix} \} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}.$$

Case 2.  $\alpha \in \Delta_i$ . Then dom( $\alpha$ ) = **n**\{*i*}. Notice that  $i > j \ge 1$ . If  $i \ge 3$ , then there exists  $s \in \{1, 2\}$  such that  $s \ne j$ . Now, we define  $\alpha^*$  by

$$x\alpha^* = \begin{cases} s, & x = i, \\ x\alpha, & x \neq i. \end{cases}$$

Then  $\alpha^* \in G_{(i,j)}$  and  $\alpha = \delta_i \alpha^*$ . Thus, by Lemma 2.7,

$$\alpha = \delta_i \alpha^* \in \delta_i \cdot G_{(i,j)} = \delta_i \cdot \left[ \langle E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \setminus \{ \binom{i}{j} \} \rangle \cap J_{n-1} \right] \subseteq \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{ \binom{i}{j} \} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}$$

Notice that if i = 2, then j = 1 since i > j. (*i*) If i = 2 and  $2 \notin im(\alpha)$ , then dom( $\alpha$ ) = im( $\alpha$ ) = n\{2}. It follows from  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  that

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & \cdots & n \\ 1 & 3 & \cdots & n \end{pmatrix} = \delta_2 \in \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{ \begin{pmatrix} i \\ j \end{pmatrix} \} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}.$$

(*ii*) If i = 2 and  $2 \in im(\alpha)$ , then we define  $\alpha^*$  by

$$x\alpha^* = \begin{cases} 2, & x = 2, \\ x\alpha, & x \neq 2. \end{cases}$$

Then  $\alpha^* \in G_{(i,j)}$  and  $\alpha = \delta_2 \alpha^*$ . Thus, by Lemma 2.7,

$$\alpha = \delta_2 \alpha^* \in \delta_2 \cdot G_{(i,j)} = \delta_2 \cdot [\langle E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \setminus \{ \binom{i}{j} \} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}] \subseteq \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{ \binom{i}{j} \} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}.$$

It remains to prove that  $\langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{\binom{i}{j}\} \rangle \cap J_{n-1} \subseteq PG_{(i,j)}$ . Let  $\alpha \in \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{\binom{i}{j}\} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}$  be arbitrary. To prove that  $\alpha \in PG_{(i,j)}$ , we distinguish two cases.

Case 1.  $\alpha \in J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n}$ . Then, by Lemma 2.9,  $\alpha$  can be written as

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_2 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} y_{t-1} \\ y_{t-2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_t \\ y_{t-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $Shift(\alpha) = \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_t\}$  and  $y_1 < y_2 < \dots < y_t$  such that  $\binom{y_{k+1}}{y_k} \neq \binom{i}{j}$  for all  $0 \le k \le t - 1$ . If  $i \notin Shift(\alpha)$ , then  $i\alpha = i > j$ . If  $i = y_{k+1} \in Shift(\alpha)$  for some  $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, t-1\}$ , then  $j \neq y_k$  and so

$$i\alpha = i \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_2 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} y_{k+1} \\ y_k \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} y_t \\ y_{t-1} \end{pmatrix} = y_k \neq j.$$

Thus  $\alpha \in G_{(i,j)} \subseteq PG_{(i,j)}$ .

Case 2.  $\alpha \in J_{n-1} \setminus J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n}$ . Notice that  $E_{n-1} = E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \cup F_{n-1}$  and  $\alpha \in \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{\binom{i}{j}\} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}$ . Then, by Lemma 2.8,  $\alpha$  can be written as

$$\alpha = \delta_k$$
 for some  $1 \le k \le n$ 

or

$$\alpha = \delta_s \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_2 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} y_{t-1} \\ y_{t-2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_t \\ y_{t-1} \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $Shift(\alpha) = \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_t\} \setminus \{s\}$  and  $y_1 < y_2 < \dots < y_t$  such that  $\binom{y_{k+1}}{y_k} \neq \binom{i}{j}$  for all  $0 \le k \le t - 1$ , and  $1 \le s \le n$ . If  $\alpha = \delta_k$  for some  $1 \le k \le n$ , then clearly  $\alpha = \delta_k \in F_{n-1} \subseteq PG_{(i,j)}$ . Notice that dom $(\alpha) = \mathbf{n} \setminus \{s\}$ . If  $\alpha = \delta_s \binom{y_1}{y_0} \binom{y_2}{y_1} \cdots \binom{y_{t-1}}{y_{t-2}} \binom{y_t}{y_{t-1}}$ , to prove that  $\alpha \in PG_{(i,j)}$ , we distinguish two subcases.

Subcase 2.1. s = i. Then clearly  $\alpha \in \Delta_i \subseteq PG_{(i,j)}$ .

Subcase 2.2.  $s \neq i$ . Then  $i \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$ . If  $i \notin Shift(\alpha)$ , then  $i\alpha = i > j$ . If  $i = y_{k+1} \in Shift(\alpha)$  for some  $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, t-1\}$ , then  $j \neq y_k$  and so

$$i\alpha = i\delta_s \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_2 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} y_{t-1} \\ y_{t-2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_t \\ y_{t-1} \end{pmatrix} = i \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_2 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} y_{k+1} \\ y_k \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} y_t \\ y_{t-1} \end{pmatrix} = y_k \neq j.$$

Thus  $\alpha \in G_{(i,j)}^{\vartriangle} \subseteq PG_{(i,j)}$ .  $\Box$ 

For  $1 \le i \le n$ , put

$$\Omega_i = \{ \alpha \in J_{n-1} : i \in \operatorname{dom}(\alpha) \}.$$

**Lemma 2.11.** Let  $n \ge 3$ . Then  $\Omega_i = \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{\delta_i\} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}$ , for  $1 \le i \le n$ .

*Proof.* By Lemma 2.4, we have  $\mathcal{D}_{n,n-1} = \langle E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \rangle$ . Notice that  $J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \subseteq J_{n-1}$ . Then  $J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \subseteq \mathcal{D}_{n,n-1} \cap J_{n-1} = \langle E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}$ . Let  $\alpha \in \Omega_i$  be arbitrary. To prove that  $\alpha \in \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{\delta_i\} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}$ , we distinguish two cases.

Case 1.  $\alpha \in J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n}$ . Then

$$\alpha \in J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \subseteq \langle E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \rangle \cap J_{n-1} \subseteq \langle E_{n-1} \backslash \{\delta_i\} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}.$$

Case 2.  $\alpha \in J_{n-1} \setminus J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n}$ . Then dom $(\alpha) = \mathbf{n} \setminus \{k\}$ , for some  $k \in \mathbf{n} \setminus \{i\}$ . We distinguish two subcases. Subcase 2.1.  $1 \in im(\alpha)$ . We define  $\alpha^*$  by

$$x\alpha^* = \begin{cases} 1, & x = k, \\ x\alpha, & x \neq k. \end{cases}$$

Then  $\alpha^* \in J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n}$  and  $\alpha = \delta_k \alpha^*$ . Thus

$$\alpha = \delta_k \alpha^* \in \delta_k \cdot J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \subseteq \delta_k \cdot \langle E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \rangle \cap J_{n-1} \subseteq \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{\delta_i\} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}$$

Subcase 2.2.  $1 \notin im(\alpha)$ . Then k = 1 otherwise  $1\alpha = 1$ . Thus, by  $\alpha \in J_{n-1}$ , dom $(\alpha) = im(\alpha) = \mathbf{n} \setminus \{1\}$ . Notice that  $i \neq k = 1$ . It follows from  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  that

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & \cdots & n \\ 2 & 3 & \cdots & n \end{pmatrix} = \delta_1 \in \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{\delta_i\} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}.$$

It remains to prove that  $\langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{\delta_i\} \rangle \cap J_{n-1} \subseteq \Omega_i$ . Let  $\alpha \in \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{\delta_i\} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}$  be arbitrary. To prove that  $\alpha \in \Omega_i$ , we distinguish two subcases.

Case 1.  $\alpha \in J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n}$ . Then clearly  $\alpha \in J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \subseteq \Omega_i$ .

Case 2.  $\alpha \in J_{n-1} \setminus J_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n}$ . It is obvious that, for all  $\beta \in J_{n-1}$  and  $\delta_i \in F_{n-1}$ , if  $\beta \delta_i \in J_{n-1}$ , then clearly  $\beta \delta_i = \beta$ . Notice that  $E_{n-1} = E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n} \cup F_{n-1}$  and  $\alpha \in \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{\delta_i\} \rangle \cap J_{n-1}$ . Then  $\alpha$  can be written as  $\alpha = \delta_k$  for some  $k \in \mathbf{n} \setminus \{i\}$  or

$$\alpha = \delta_s \varepsilon_1 \cdots \varepsilon_m$$

where  $s \in \mathbf{n} \setminus \{i\}$  and  $\varepsilon_1, \ldots, \varepsilon_m \in E_{n-1}^{\mathcal{D}_n}$ . Then clearly  $i \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$ . Thus  $\alpha \in \Omega_i$ .  $\Box$ 

We are now ready to prove the main result of this section.

**Theorem 2.12.** Let  $n \ge 3$ . Then each maximal idempotent generated subsemigroup S of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  must be one of the following forms:

(1)  $S = \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-1}$ . (2)  $S = \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-2} \cup PG_{(i,j)} \cup \{1_n\}, \text{ for } 1 \le j < i \le n$ . (3)  $S = \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-2} \cup \Omega_i \cup \{1_n\}, \text{ for } 1 \le i \le n$ .

*Proof.* Notice that  $\mathcal{PD}_n = \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-1} \cup \{1_n\}$  and  $\mathcal{PD}_{n,r} = \langle E_r \rangle = \langle E(\mathcal{PD}_{n,r}) \rangle$ , for  $1 \le r \le n-1$  (by Lemma 2.3). It is clear that  $\mathcal{PD}_{n,n-1}$  is a maximal idempotent generated subsemigroup of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . Put

$$\begin{split} M_{i,j} &= \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-2} \cup PG_{(i,j)} \cup \{1_n\}, \ 1 \leq j < i \leq n, \\ N_i &= \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-2} \cup \Omega_i \cup \{1_n\}, \ 1 \leq i \leq n. \end{split}$$

Then, by Lemmas 2.10 and 2.11,

$$M_{i,j} = \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-2} \cup [\langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{ \begin{pmatrix} i \\ j \end{pmatrix} \} \rangle) \cap J_{n-1}] \cup \{1_n\}$$
$$= \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-2} \cup \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{ \begin{pmatrix} i \\ j \end{pmatrix} \} \rangle \cup \{1_n\}$$
$$= \langle E(\mathcal{PD}_{n,n-2}) \cup [E_{n-1} \setminus \{ \begin{pmatrix} i \\ j \end{pmatrix} \}] \cup \{1_n\} \rangle$$

$$= \langle E(\mathcal{PD}_n) \setminus \{ \begin{pmatrix} i \\ j \end{pmatrix} \} \rangle,$$

$$N_i = \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-2} \cup [\langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{\delta_i\} \rangle) \cap J_{n-1}] \cup \{1_n\}$$

$$= \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-2} \cup \langle E_{n-1} \setminus \{\delta_i\} \rangle \cup \{1_n\}$$

$$= \langle E(\mathcal{PD}_{n,n-2}) \cup [E_{n-1} \setminus \{\delta_i\}] \cup \{1_n\} \rangle$$

$$= \langle E(\mathcal{PD}_n) \setminus \{\delta_i\} \rangle.$$

Thus clearly  $M_{i,j}$  and  $N_i$  are maximal idempotent generated subsemigroups of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . Let *S* be a maximal idempotent generated subsemigroup of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . Notice that  $\mathcal{PD}_n = \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-1} \cup \{1_n\}$ . If  $1_n \notin S$ , then  $S \subseteq \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-1} \subset \mathcal{PD}_n$ . Thus, by the maximality of *S*,  $S = \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-1}$ . If  $1_n \in S$ , then, by Lemma 2.3 and  $S \subset \mathcal{PD}_n$ ,  $E_{n-1} \notin S$ . Then  $\binom{i}{j} \notin S$  for some  $i, j \in \mathbf{n}$  with i > j or  $\delta_i \notin S$  for some  $1 \le i \le n$ . Thus  $S \subseteq \langle E(\mathcal{PD}_n) \setminus \{\binom{i}{j}\} \rangle = M_{i,j} \subset \mathcal{PD}_n$  or  $S \subseteq \langle E(\mathcal{PD}_n) \setminus \{\delta_i\} \rangle = N_i \subset \mathcal{PD}_n$ . Hence, by the maximality of *S*,  $S = M_{i,j}$  or  $S = N_i$ .  $\Box$ 

Notice that  $|E_{n-1}| = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ . By Theorems 2.6 and 2.12, we have the following result:

**Corollary 2.13.** Let  $n \ge 3$ . Then the semigroup  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  contains exactly  $\frac{n(n+1)}{2} + 1$  maximal (idempotent generated) subsemigroups.

### 3. Abundance for the (principal) ideals of $\mathcal{PD}_n$

A subset *I* of a semigroup *S* is an *ideal* if it is closed under multiplication by arbitrary elements of *S*: for all  $x \in S$  and  $y \in I$ , we have  $xy, yx \in I$ . The *principal ideal* generated by an element *a* of the semigroup *S* is the set  $SaS = \{xay : x, y \in S\}$ . Notice that  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  is the principal ideal  $\mathcal{PD}_n 1_n \mathcal{PD}_n$  generated by  $1_n$ .

In 1992, Umar [12] showed that the ideals  $\mathcal{PD}_{n,r}$  ( $1 \le r \le n$ ) of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  are abundant. In this section, we give necessary and sufficient conditions for the ideals of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  to be abundant. Moreover, we characterize the structure of the left (right) abundant principal ideal of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ .

On a semigroup *S* the relation  $\mathcal{L}^*$  is defined by the rule that  $(a, b) \in \mathcal{L}^*$  if and only if the elements a, b of *S* are related by Green's relation  $\mathcal{L}$  in some oversemigroup of *S*. The relation  $\mathcal{R}^*$  is defined dually. A semigroup *S* is called *left abundant* if each of its  $\mathcal{L}^*$ -classes contains an idempotent. Dually, a semigroup *S* is called right abundant if each of its  $\mathcal{R}^*$ -classes contains an idempotent. A semigroup *S* is abundant if it is both left and right abundant (see [5]). Given a semigroup *S*, we denote by  $L_u^{*S}$  and  $R_u^{*S}$  the  $\mathcal{L}^*$ -class and  $\mathcal{R}^*$ -class, respectively, of an element  $u \in S$ .

The following lemma and its dual give a characterization of  $\mathscr{L}^*$  and  $\mathscr{R}^*$  [5, Lemma 1.1].

**Lemma 3.1.** Let S be a semigroup and let  $a, b \in S$ . Then the following conditions are equivalent:

(1)  $(a, b) \in \mathcal{L}^*$ .

(2) for all  $x, y \in S^1$ , ax = ay if and only if bx = by.

Now, recall that Umar [12, Corollary 2.4.3, Theorem 2.2.5 and Lemma 2.2.6] proved:

**Lemma 3.2.** Let  $1 \le r \le n$ , and let  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{PD}_{n,r}$ . Then

(1)  $(\alpha, \beta) \in \mathscr{L}^*$  if and only if  $\operatorname{im}(\alpha) = \operatorname{im}(\beta)$ .

- (2)  $(\alpha, \beta) \in \mathscr{R}^*$  *if and only if* ker $(\alpha) = \text{ker}(\beta)$ .
- (3) the semigroup  $\mathcal{PD}_{n,r}$  is abundant.

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Notice that the idempotents in  $E_r$  are exactly of the following form:

$$\varepsilon = \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} A_1 & A_2 & \cdots & A_r \\ c_1 & c_2 & \cdots & c_r \end{array}\right),$$

where  $c_1 < c_2 < \cdots < c_r$  and  $c_i = minA_i$ , for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Notice that  $ker(\varepsilon) = (A_1|A_2|\cdots|A_r)$ . Thus, we have:

**Lemma 3.3.** Let  $1 \le r \le n$  and  $\varepsilon, \eta \in E_r$ . Then  $\ker(\varepsilon) = \ker(\eta)$  if and only if  $\varepsilon = \eta$ .

It is well known that the Green relations on  $\mathcal{PT}_n$  can be characterized as  $\alpha \mathscr{L}\beta \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{im}(\alpha) = \operatorname{im}(\beta)$ ,  $\alpha \mathscr{R}\beta \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{ker}(\alpha) = \operatorname{ker}(\beta)$  and  $\alpha \mathscr{J}\beta \Leftrightarrow |\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = |\operatorname{im}(\beta)|$ . Using Lemma 3.1, we can prove the following lemma:

**Lemma 3.4.** Let *S* be a subsemigroup of  $\mathcal{PT}_n$ , and let  $m = max\{|im(\alpha)| : \alpha \in S\}$ . If  $E(L_{\alpha}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap S = \emptyset$  for some  $\alpha \in S$  with  $|im(\alpha)| = m$ , then *S* is not left abundant.

*Proof.* Assume that *S* is left abundant. Then there exists an idempotent in  $L^{*S}_{\alpha}$ , say  $\varepsilon$ . It follows from Lemma 3.1 that

 $\alpha \varepsilon = \alpha$ 

since  $\varepsilon \cdot \varepsilon = \varepsilon \cdot 1_n$  and so  $\operatorname{im}(\alpha) \subseteq \operatorname{im}(\varepsilon)$  which implies that  $m = |\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| \leq |\operatorname{im}(\varepsilon)|$ . By the maximality of *m*, we have  $|\operatorname{im}(\varepsilon)| = |\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = m$  and so  $\operatorname{im}(\varepsilon) = \operatorname{im}(\alpha)$ . Thus  $(\alpha, \varepsilon) \in \mathscr{L}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}$  and  $\varepsilon \in E(L_{\alpha}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap S$ , a contradiction.  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 3.5.** Let *S* be a subsemigroup of  $\mathcal{PT}_n$ , and let  $m = max\{|\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| : \alpha \in S\}$ . If  $E(R_{\alpha}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap S = \emptyset$  for some  $\alpha \in S$  with  $|\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = m$ , then *S* is not right abundant.

*Proof.* Assume that *S* is right abundant. Then there exists an idempotent in  $R^{*S}_{\alpha}$ , say  $\varepsilon$ . It follows from Lemma 3.1 that

 $\epsilon \alpha = \alpha$ 

since  $\varepsilon \cdot \varepsilon = 1_n \cdot \varepsilon$ . Thus dom( $\alpha$ )  $\subseteq$  dom( $\varepsilon$ ) and ker( $\varepsilon$ )  $\subseteq$  ker( $\alpha$ ) which implies that  $m = |\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = |\operatorname{dom}(\alpha)/\operatorname{ker}(\alpha)| \leq |\operatorname{dom}(\varepsilon)/\operatorname{ker}(\varepsilon)| = |\operatorname{im}(\varepsilon)|$ . By the maximality of m, we have  $|\operatorname{im}(\varepsilon)| = |\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = m$  and so ker( $\varepsilon$ ) = ker( $\alpha$ ). Thus ( $\alpha, \varepsilon$ )  $\in \mathscr{R}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}$  and  $\varepsilon \in E(R_\alpha^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap S$ , a contradiction.  $\Box$ 

Now, it is easy to prove the following result:

**Theorem 3.6.** Let I be an ideal of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . Then I is abundant if and only if there exists  $r \in \{0, 1, ..., n\}$  such that  $I = \mathcal{PD}_{n,r}$ .

*Proof.* Notice that  $\mathcal{PD}_n = \mathcal{PD}_{n,n-1} \cup \{1_n\}$  and  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  is abundant (by Lemma 3.2). Suppose that I is abundant. If  $1_n \in I$ . Then clearly  $\alpha = \alpha \cdot 1_n \in I$ , for all  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$ . Thus  $I = \mathcal{PD}_n = \mathcal{PD}_{n,n}$ . If  $1_n \notin I$ , we put

$$r = \max\{|\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| : \alpha \in \mathcal{I}\}.$$

Then clearly  $0 \le r \le n-1$  and  $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \mathcal{PD}_{n,r}$ . Notice that  $\mathcal{PD}_{n,0} = \{\theta_n\}$ . If r = 0, then clearly  $\mathcal{I} = \mathcal{PD}_{n,0}$ . If  $r \ge 1$ , there exists  $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}$  with  $|\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = r$ . Suppose that

$$\alpha = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} A_1 & A_2 & \cdots & A_r \\ a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_r \end{array}\right),$$

where  $a_1 < \cdots < a_r$  and  $a_i \le \min A_i$ , for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Notice that  $a_i \le n - r + i$ , for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Put

$$\beta = \begin{pmatrix} n-r+1 \\ \min A_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n-r+2 \\ \min A_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cdots \\ \min A_r \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\xi = \begin{pmatrix} n-r+1 \\ a_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cdots \\ \cdots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n-1 \\ a_{r-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n \\ a_r \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then  $\xi = \beta \alpha \in I$  since I is an ideal of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ . Notice that clearly  $|\operatorname{im}(\xi)| = |\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = r$ . By Lemma 3.5 and I is abundant, we have  $E(\mathbb{R}_{\xi}^{\mathcal{PD}_n}) \cap I \neq \emptyset$ . Then there exists  $\eta \in E(I)$  such that  $\operatorname{ker}(\eta) = \operatorname{ker}(\xi)$ . Notice that

$$\lambda_r = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} n-r+1 \\ n-r+1 \end{array} \middle| \begin{array}{ccc} n-r+2 \\ n-r+2 \end{array} \middle| \begin{array}{ccc} \cdots \\ n \end{array} \right) \in E_r.$$

Then  $ker(\eta) = ker(\xi) = ker(\lambda_r)$  and so  $\eta = \lambda_r$  by Lemma 3.3. Now, let

$$\varepsilon = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} A_1 & A_2 & \cdots & A_r \\ c_1 & c_2 & \cdots & c_r \end{array}\right) \in E_r$$

where  $c_1 < c_2 < \cdots < c_r$  and  $c_i = \min A_i$ , for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Notice that  $c_i \le n - r + i$ , for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Put

$$\gamma = \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} n-r+1 & \cdots & n-1 & r \\ c_1 & \cdots & c_{r-1} & c_r \end{array}\right).$$

Since  $\eta \in I$  and I is an ideal of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$ , we have  $\gamma = \lambda_r \gamma = \eta \gamma \in I$ . By Lemma 3.4 and I is abundant, we have  $E(L_{\gamma}^{\mathcal{PD}_n}) \cap I \neq \emptyset$ . Then there exists  $\delta \in E(I)$  such that  $im(\delta) = im(\gamma)$ . Suppose that

$$\delta = \left(\begin{array}{c|c} B_1 & B_2 & \cdots & B_r \\ c_1 & c_2 & \cdots & c_r \end{array}\right)$$

Since  $\delta \in E(I)$ , we have  $c_i = \min B_i$ , for  $1 \le i \le r$ . It is obvious that  $\varepsilon = \varepsilon \delta$  and so  $\varepsilon \in I$  (since I is an ideal of  $\mathcal{PD}_n$  and  $\delta \in I$ ). Then we have proved that  $E_r \subseteq I$ . Thus, by Lemma 2.3,  $I = \mathcal{PD}_{n,r}$ .

Conversely, if  $I = \mathcal{PD}_{n,0}$ , then clearly I is abundant. If there exists  $1 \le r \le n$  such that  $I = \mathcal{PD}_{n,r}$ , then, by Lemma 3.2, I is abundant.  $\Box$ 

For any  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$ , we denote by  $\triangle_\alpha$  the principal ideal

 $\mathcal{PD}_n \alpha \mathcal{PD}_n$ 

generated by  $\alpha$ . Notice that if  $\alpha = 1_n$ , then  $\Delta_{\alpha} = \mathcal{PD}_n$ ; if  $|\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = 1$ , then  $\alpha = \binom{n}{1}$ . Notice that if  $\alpha = 1_n$ , then  $\Delta_{\alpha} = \mathcal{PD}_n$ . Let  $\beta \in \Delta_{\alpha}$  be arbitrary. Then there exist  $\gamma, \delta \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  such that  $\beta = \gamma \alpha \delta$ . Clearly,  $|\operatorname{im}(\beta)| \le |\operatorname{im}(\alpha)|$ . Notice that  $\alpha = 1_n \alpha 1_n \in \Delta_{\alpha}$ . Thus  $|\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = \max\{|\operatorname{im}(\beta)| : \beta \in \Delta_{\alpha}\}$ .

**Lemma 3.7.** Let  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  and  $\alpha$  is not an idempotent. Then  $E(L_{\alpha}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap \Delta_{\alpha} \neq \emptyset$  and  $E(R_{\alpha}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap \Delta_{\alpha} \neq \emptyset$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that  $|im(\alpha)| = r$ . Then  $r \ge 1$  since  $\alpha$  is not an idempotent. Thus we can suppose that

$$\alpha = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} A_1 & A_2 & \cdots & A_r \\ a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_r \end{array}\right),$$

where  $a_1 < a_2 < \cdots < a_r$  and  $a_i \le \min A_i$ , for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Let  $c_i = \min A_i$ , for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Since  $\alpha$  is not an idempotent, there exist  $m \in \{1, \dots, r\}$  such that  $a_m < c_m$ . Clearly,  $a_m \notin A_m$ . Then  $a_m \alpha \ne a_m$  (if  $a_m \in \operatorname{dom}(\alpha)$ ).

Assume that  $E(L_{\alpha}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap \Delta_{\alpha} \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $\varepsilon \in E(L_{\alpha}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap \Delta_{\alpha}$ . Then there exist  $\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  such that  $\varepsilon = \beta \alpha \gamma$  and  $\operatorname{im}(\varepsilon) = \operatorname{im}(\alpha) = \{a_1, \ldots, a_r\}$ . Since  $\varepsilon$  is an idempotent, we have  $a_i = a_i \varepsilon$ , for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Then

$$a_m = a_m \varepsilon = (a_m \beta \alpha) \gamma \le (a_m \beta) \alpha \le a_m \beta \le a_m$$

It follows that  $a_m = a_m \beta = (a_m \beta) \alpha$  and so  $a_m \alpha = a_m$ , a contradiction. Thus  $E(L_{\alpha}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap \Delta_{\alpha} = \emptyset$ .

Assume that  $E(R_{\alpha}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap \Delta_{\alpha} \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $\varepsilon \in E(R_{\alpha}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap \Delta_{\alpha}$ . Then there exist  $\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  such that  $\varepsilon = \beta \alpha \gamma$ and ker( $\varepsilon$ ) = ker( $\alpha$ ) = ( $A_1$ |···| $A_r$ ). Notice that  $c_i = \min A_i$ , for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Since  $\varepsilon$  is an idempotent, we have  $c_i \varepsilon = c_i$  for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Then

$$c_m = c_m \varepsilon = (c_m \beta \alpha) \gamma \le (c_m \beta) \alpha \le c_m \beta \le c_m \gamma$$

It follows that  $c_m = c_m \beta = (c_m \beta) \alpha$  and so  $c_m = c_m \alpha = a_m$ , a contradiction. Thus  $E(R_{\alpha}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap \Delta_{\alpha} = \emptyset$ .  $\Box$ 

Using Lemmas 3.4, 3.5 and 3.7, we can prove the following result:

**Lemma 3.8.** Let  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  and  $\alpha$  is not an idempotent. Then  $\triangle_\alpha$  is neither left abundant nor right abundant.

Proof. By Lemma 3.7, we have

$$E(L^{\varphi \mathcal{F}_n}_{\alpha}) \cap \Delta_{\alpha} \neq \emptyset \text{ and } E(R^{\varphi \mathcal{F}_n}_{\alpha}) \cap \Delta_{\alpha} \neq \emptyset.$$

Then, by Lemmas 3.4 and 3.5,  $\triangle_{\alpha}$  is neither left abundant nor right abundant.  $\Box$ 

Let  $x, y \in \mathbf{n}$  with x < y. The set  $[x, y] = \{z \in \mathbf{n} : x \le z \le y\}$  of  $\mathbf{n}$  is called a *closed convex set*. Similarly, we can define the convex sets of other kinds, such as (x, y], (x, y) and [x, y).

For  $1 \le r \le n$ , put

$$E_r^{\Delta} = \{ \varepsilon \in E_r : \operatorname{im}(\varepsilon) = [1, r] \}.$$

Then clearly  $E_n^{\Delta} = \{1_n\}$ . Let  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$ . It is easy to see that  $\alpha \in E_n^{\Delta}(\alpha = 1_n)$  if and only if  $\Delta_{\alpha} = \mathcal{POE}_n = \{\alpha \in \mathcal{POE}_n : im(\alpha) \subseteq [1, n]\}$ . In fact, we have the following result:

**Theorem 3.9.** Let  $1 \le r \le n-1$ . Let  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  with  $|im(\alpha)| = r$ . Then the following statements are equivalent:

(1)  $\Delta_{\alpha}$  *is left abundant.* 

(2)  $\alpha \in E_r^{\Delta}$ .

(3)  $\Delta_{\alpha} = \{\beta \in \mathcal{PD}_n : \operatorname{im}(\beta) \subseteq [1, r]\}.$ 

*Proof.* (1)  $\implies$  (2) Suppose that  $\Delta_{\alpha}$  is left abundant. Then, by Lemma 3.8,  $\alpha$  is an idempotent. We can suppose that

$$\alpha = \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} A_1 & A_2 & \cdots & A_r \\ c_1 & c_2 & \cdots & c_r \end{array}\right),$$

where  $c_1 < c_2 < \cdots < c_r$  and  $c_i = \min A_i$  for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Let  $c_0 = 0$ . Assume that  $\alpha \notin E_r^{\Delta}$ . Then  $\operatorname{im}(\alpha) \neq [1, r]$ . Then there exists  $m \in \{1, \cdots, r\}$  such that  $c_m - c_{m-1} \ge 2$ . Clearly,  $c_m - 1 \notin \operatorname{im}(\alpha)$ . Put

$$\xi = \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & | & A_2 & | & \cdots & | & A_r \\ c_1 - 1 & | & c_2 & | & \cdots & | & c_r \end{pmatrix}, & m = 1, \\ \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & | & \cdots & | & A_{m-1} & | & A_m & | & A_{m+1} & | & \cdots & | & A_r \\ c_1 & | & \cdots & | & c_{m-1} & | & c_m - 1 & | & c_{m+1} & | & \cdots & | & c_r \end{pmatrix}, & 2 \le m \le r - 1, \\ \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & | & \cdots & | & A_{r-1} & | & A_r \\ c_1 & | & \cdots & | & c_{r-1} & | & c_r - 1 \end{pmatrix}, & m = r. \end{cases}$$

Then  $\xi = \alpha \xi = 1_n \alpha \xi \in \Delta_\alpha$  and  $\xi^2 \neq \xi$ . Notice that clearly  $|\operatorname{im}(\xi)| = |\operatorname{im}(\alpha)|$ . Assume that  $E(L_{\xi}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap \Delta_\alpha \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $\varepsilon \in E(L_{\xi}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap \Delta_\alpha$ . Then there exist  $\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  such that  $\varepsilon = \beta \alpha \gamma$  and  $\operatorname{im}(\varepsilon) = \operatorname{im}(\xi)$ . Notice that  $c_m - 1 \in \operatorname{im}(\xi)$  and  $\Delta_\alpha \subseteq \mathcal{PD}_n$ . Since  $\varepsilon$  is an idempotent, we have  $c_m - 1 = (c_m - 1)\varepsilon$ . Then

$$c_m - 1 = (c_m - 1)\varepsilon = [(c_m - 1)\beta\alpha]\gamma \le [(c_m - 1)\beta]\alpha \le (c_m - 1)\beta \le c_m - 1$$

and so  $(c_m - 1)\beta = c_m - 1$ . Thus

$$c_m - 1 = (c_m - 1)\varepsilon = [(c_m - 1)\beta\alpha]\gamma \le [(c_m - 1)\beta]\alpha = (c_m - 1)\alpha \le c_m - 1$$

and so  $(c_m - 1)\alpha = c_m - 1$ . Hence,  $c_m - 1 \in im(\alpha)$ , a contradiction. We have proved that  $E(L_{\xi}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}) \cap \Delta_{\alpha} = \emptyset$  and so  $\Delta_{\alpha}$  is not left abundant by Lemma 3.4, a contradiction.

(2)  $\Longrightarrow$  (3) Let  $M = \{\beta \in \mathcal{PD}_n : \operatorname{im}(\beta) \subseteq [1, r]\}$ . Suppose that  $\alpha \in E_r^{\Delta}$ . Then  $\operatorname{im}(\alpha) = [1, r]$ . Let  $\xi \in \Delta_\alpha$  be arbitrary. Then there exist  $\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  such that  $\xi = \beta \alpha \gamma$ . Clearly,  $\operatorname{im}(\xi) \subseteq \operatorname{im}(\alpha)\gamma = [1, r]\gamma$ . It follows from  $\gamma \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  that  $r\gamma \leq r$  and so  $\operatorname{im}(\xi) \subseteq [1, r] = \operatorname{im}(\alpha)$ . Then  $\xi \in M$ . Thus  $\Delta_\alpha \subseteq M$ . Conversely, let  $\beta \in M$  be arbitrary. Then  $\operatorname{im}(\beta) \subseteq [1, r]$ . Since  $\alpha \in E_r^{\Delta} \subseteq E_r$  and  $\operatorname{im}(\alpha) = [1, r]$ , we have  $x\alpha = x$ , for  $1 \leq x \leq r$ . Then  $\beta = \beta \alpha = \beta \alpha 1_n \in \Delta_\alpha$ . Thus  $M \subseteq \Delta_\alpha$ . Hence, we have proved that  $M = \Delta_\alpha$ .

(3)  $\Longrightarrow$  (1) Suppose that  $\Delta_{\alpha} = \{\beta \in \mathcal{PD}_n : \operatorname{im}(\beta) \subseteq [1, r]\}$ . Notice that  $\alpha = 1_n \alpha 1_n \in \Delta_{\alpha}$  and  $|\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = r$ . Then  $\operatorname{im}(\alpha) = [1, r]$ . Let  $\beta \in \Delta_{\alpha}$  be arbitrary. Then  $\operatorname{im}(\beta) \subseteq [1, r] = \operatorname{im}(\alpha)$ . Put  $\varepsilon = 1_{\operatorname{im}(\beta)}$ . Then clearly  $\varepsilon \in E(\Delta_{\alpha})$  and  $\operatorname{im}(\varepsilon) = \operatorname{im}(\beta)$ . Thus  $(\varepsilon, \beta) \in \mathscr{L}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}$ . Hence,  $\varepsilon \in \mathscr{L}^*_{\beta}(\Delta_{\alpha}) \cap E(\Delta_{\alpha})$ .  $\Box$ 

For  $1 \le r \le n$ , put

$$\lambda_r = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} n-r+1 & n-r+2 & \cdots & n \\ n-r+1 & n-r+2 & \cdots & n \end{array}\right).$$

Then clearly  $\lambda_r \in E_r$  and  $\lambda_n = 1_n$ . Let  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$ . It is easy to see that  $\alpha = \lambda_n (= 1_n)$  if and only if  $\Delta_\alpha = \mathcal{PD}_n = \{\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n : \operatorname{dom}(\alpha) \subseteq [1, n]\}$ . In fact, we have the following result:

**Theorem 3.10.** Let  $1 \le r \le n - 1$ . Let  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  with  $|im(\alpha)| = r$ . Then the following statements are equivalent:

(1)  $\Delta_{\alpha}$  *is right abundant.* 

(2)  $\alpha = \lambda_r$ .

(3)  $\Delta_{\alpha} = \{\beta \in \mathcal{PD}_n : \operatorname{dom}(\beta) \subseteq [n - r + 1, n]\}.$ 

*Proof.* (1)  $\implies$  (2) Suppose that  $\Delta_{\alpha}$  is right abundant. Then, by Lemma 3.8,  $\alpha$  is an idempotent. Suppose that

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & A_2 & \cdots & A_r \\ c_1 & c_2 & \cdots & c_r \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $c_1 < c_2 < \cdots < c_r$  and  $c_i = \min A_i$ , for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Notice that  $c_i \le n - r + i$ , for  $1 \le i \le r$ . Put

$$\xi = \left(\begin{array}{cc|c} n-r+1 & n-r+2 & \cdots & n\\ c_1 & c_2 & \cdots & c_r\end{array}\right).$$

Then ker( $\xi$ ) = ker( $\lambda_r$ ) and  $\xi = \xi \alpha = \xi \alpha 1_n \in \Delta_\alpha$ . Since  $\Delta_\alpha$  is right abundant, then  $\mathscr{R}^*_{\xi}(\Delta_\alpha) \cap E(\Delta_\alpha) \neq \emptyset$ . Then there exists  $\eta \in E(\Delta_\alpha)$  such that ker( $\eta$ ) = ker( $\xi$ )(= ker( $\lambda_r$ )). Thus, by Lemma 3.3,  $\eta = \lambda_r$ . Since  $\eta \in \Delta_\alpha$ , there exist  $\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  such that  $\lambda_r = \eta = \beta \alpha \gamma$ . Clearly, im( $\lambda_r$ )  $\subseteq$  im( $\alpha$ ) $\gamma$  and |im( $\alpha$ ) $\gamma$ |  $\leq$  |im( $\alpha$ )|. Notice that |im( $\lambda_r$ )| = |im( $\alpha$ )|. Then im( $\lambda_r$ ) = im( $\alpha$ ) $\gamma$ . It follows from  $\gamma \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  and im( $\lambda_r$ ) = [n - r + 1, n] that im( $\alpha$ ) = [n - r + 1, n]. Let  $x \in \text{dom}(\alpha)$  be arbitrary. Then  $x \geq x\alpha \geq \min(\alpha) = n - r + 1$ . Thus dom( $\alpha$ )  $\subseteq$  [n - r + 1, n] = im( $\alpha$ ). It follows from |dom( $\alpha$ )|  $\geq$  |im( $\alpha$ )| = r that dom( $\alpha$ ) = im( $\alpha$ ) = [n - r + 1, n]. Thus, by  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$ ,  $\alpha = \lambda_r$ . (2)  $\Longrightarrow$  (3) Let  $M = \{\beta \in \mathcal{PD}_n : \operatorname{dom}(\beta) \subseteq [n - r + 1, n]\}$ . Suppose that  $\alpha = \lambda_r$ . Let  $\xi \in \Delta_\alpha$  be arbitrary. Then there exist  $\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  such that  $\xi = \beta \alpha \gamma$ . Assume that there exists  $1 \leq j \leq n - r$  such that  $j \in \operatorname{dom}(\xi)$ . Then  $j\xi = j\beta\alpha\gamma$  and so  $j\beta \in \operatorname{dom}(\alpha) = \operatorname{dom}(\lambda_r) = [n - r + 1, n]$ . Since  $\beta \in \mathcal{PD}_n$ , we have  $j\beta \leq j \leq n - r$ , a contradiction. Then  $\operatorname{dom}(\xi) \subseteq [n - r + 1, n]$ . Thus  $\Delta_\alpha \subseteq M$ . Conversely, let  $\beta \in M$  be arbitrary. Then  $\operatorname{dom}(\beta) \subseteq [n - r + 1, n]$ . Since  $\alpha = \lambda_r$ , we have  $x\alpha = x$ , for  $n - r + 1 \leq x \leq n$ . It follows from  $\beta \in \mathcal{PD}_n$  that  $\beta = \beta\alpha = \beta\alpha 1_n \in \Delta_\alpha$ . Thus  $M \subseteq \Delta_\alpha$ . Hence, we have proved that  $M = \Delta_\alpha$ .

(3)  $\Longrightarrow$  (1) Suppose that  $\Delta_{\alpha} = \{\beta \in \mathcal{PD}_n : \operatorname{dom}(\beta) \subseteq [n - r + 1, n]\}$ . Notice that  $\alpha = 1_n \alpha 1_n \in \Delta_{\alpha}$  and  $|\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = r$ . Then  $\operatorname{dom}(\alpha) = [n - r + 1, n]$ . Let  $\xi \in \Delta_{\alpha}$  be arbitrary. Then  $\operatorname{dom}(\xi) \subseteq [n - r + 1, n]$ . Take  $\varepsilon \in E(\mathcal{PD}_n)$  such that  $\operatorname{ker}(\varepsilon) = \operatorname{ker}(\xi)$ . Then clearly  $(\varepsilon, \xi) \in \mathscr{R}^{\mathcal{PT}_n}$  and  $\operatorname{dom}(\varepsilon) = \operatorname{dom}(\xi) \subseteq [n - r + 1, n]$ . Then  $\varepsilon \in \{\beta \in \mathcal{PD}_n : \operatorname{dom}(\beta) \subseteq [n - r + 1, n]\} = \Delta_{\alpha}$  and so  $\varepsilon \in E(\Delta_{\alpha})$ . Thus  $\varepsilon \in \mathscr{R}^*_{\varepsilon}(\Delta_{\alpha}) \cap E(\Delta_{\alpha})$ .

**Theorem 3.11.** Let  $\alpha \in \mathcal{PD}_n$ . Then  $\Delta_\alpha$  is abundant if and only if  $\alpha = \theta_n$  or  $\alpha = 1_n$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that  $\Delta_{\alpha}$  is abundant. Then, by Lemma 3.8,  $\alpha$  is an idempotent. We claim that  $|\operatorname{im}(\alpha)| = r \in \{0, n\}$ . Notice that  $\alpha = 1_n \alpha 1_n \in \Delta_{\alpha}$ . Assume that  $1 \le r \le n - 1$ , then, by Theorems 3.9 and 3.10,  $\operatorname{im}(\alpha) = [1, r]$  and dom $(\alpha) = [n - r + 1, n]$ . Since  $\alpha$  is an idempotent, we have  $x\alpha = x$ , for  $x \in \operatorname{im}(\alpha)$ . It follows that  $\operatorname{im}(\alpha) \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(\alpha)$  and so  $[1, r] = \operatorname{im}(\alpha) \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(\alpha) = [n - r + 1, n]$ , a contradiction. Thus  $r \in \{0, n\}$ . If r = 0, then clearly  $\alpha = \theta_n$ . If r = n, then clearly  $\alpha = 1_n$ .

Conversely, if  $\alpha = 1_n$ , then  $\Delta_{\alpha} = \mathcal{PD}_n$ . Thus, by Lemma 3.2,  $\Delta_{\alpha} = \mathcal{PD}_n$  is abundant. On the other hand, if  $\alpha = \theta_n$ , then clearly  $\Delta_{\alpha} = \{\theta_n\}$  is abundant.  $\Box$ 

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#### **Conflict of Interests**

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this paper.

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