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MODULAR ELEMENTS OF THE LATTICE OF SEMIGROUP VARIETIES. II

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ABSTRACT. We completely determine all semigroup varieties that are both modular and upper-modular elements of the lattice of all semigroup varieties as well as nilsemigroup varieties that are upper-modular elements of this lattice.

INTRODUCTION AND SUMMARY

This note continues the article [10]. An element x of a lattice $\langle L; \lor, \land \rangle$ is called *modular* if

$$\forall \, y, z \in L: \ y \leq z \longrightarrow (x \lor y) \land z = (x \land z) \lor y,$$

and upper-modular if

$$\forall y, z \in L : y \le x \longrightarrow (z \lor y) \land x = (z \land x) \lor y.$$

Lower-modular elements are defined dually to upper-modular ones.

Semigroup varieties that are both modular and lower-modular elements of the lattice of all semigroup varieties were completely described in [10]. Here we consider the dual restriction. Besides that, we classify nilsemigroup varieties that are upper-modular elements of the lattice of all semigroup varieties.

In order to formulate our main results, we need some notation. We adopt the usual agreement of writing w = 0 as a short form of the identity system wu = uw = w where u runs over the set of all words. By var Σ we denote the variety of all semigroups satisfying the identity system Σ . Put

$$\mathfrak{SL} = \operatorname{var}\{x^2 = x, \, xy = yx\},\\ \mathfrak{C} = \operatorname{var}\{x^2y = 0, \, xy = yx\}.$$

We will denote the lattice of all semigroup varieties by SEM. The first main result of this paper is the following

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Theorem 1. A semigroup variety \mathfrak{V} is both a modular and an upper-modular element of the lattice SEM if and only if either \mathfrak{V} coincides with the class of all semigroups or $\mathfrak{V} \subseteq \mathfrak{SL} \lor \mathfrak{C}$.

Recall that a semigroup variety is called a *nil-variety* if it satisfies the identity $x^n = 0$ for some n. Our second main result is the following

Theorem 2. A nil-variety \mathfrak{V} is an upper-modular element of the lattice SEM if and only if it satisfies the identities $x^2y = xy^2$ and xy = yx.

The note is structured as follows. Section 1 contains all necessary preliminaries. In Section 2 the "only if" parts of both the theorems are proved. In Sections 3 and 4 we verify the "if" parts of respectively Theorems 2 and 1.

1. Preliminaries

We start with some information about special elements of abstract lattices. Recall that an element x of a lattice L is called *neutral* if, for any two elements $y, z \in L$, the sublattice of L generated by x, y and z is distributive. An element a of a lattice L with 0 is called an *atom* of L if a is a minimal non-zero element.

Lemma 1.1. Let L be a lattice with 0 and let a be a neutral element of L. Then:

- (i) if x is a modular element of L then so is $x \vee a$;
- (ii) if a is an atom of L and x is an upper-modular element of L then x ∨ a is an upper-modular element of L too.

Proof. Part (i) is proved in [10, Lemma 1.6(ii)]. Let us verify (ii). We have to check that

(1)
$$(z \lor y) \land (x \lor a) = (z \land (x \lor a)) \lor y$$

for every $y \in L$ such that $y \leq x \lor a$ and for an arbitrary $z \in L$. Since $y \leq x \lor a$ and a is neutral, we have

(2)
$$y = y \land (x \lor a) = (y \land x) \lor (y \land a).$$

Now consider two cases: $y \geq a$ and $y \geq a$.

Case 1: $y \not\geq a$. Since a is an atom, we then have $y \wedge a = 0$, and from (2) we conclude that $y = y \wedge x \leq x$. We have

$$(z \lor y) \land (x \lor a) = ((z \lor y) \land x) \lor ((z \lor y) \land a)$$
because *a* is neutral
$$= ((z \lor y) \land x) \lor ((z \land a) \lor (y \land a))$$
because *a* is neutral
$$= ((z \lor y) \land x) \lor (z \land a)$$
because *y \land a = 0*
$$= ((z \land x) \lor y) \lor (z \land a)$$
because *y \le x* and
x is upper modular
$$= ((z \land x) \lor (z \land a)) \lor y$$
because *a* is neutral.

Thus, the desired equality (1) holds.

Case 2: $y \ge a$. From (2) we then have

$$(3) y = (y \land x) \lor a$$

Therefore,

$$(z \lor y) \land (x \lor a) = (z \lor ((y \land x) \lor a)) \land (x \lor a)$$
by (3)

$$= ((z \lor (y \land x)) \lor a) \land (x \lor a)$$

$$= ((z \lor (y \land x)) \land x) \lor a$$
because *a* is neutral

$$= ((z \land x) \lor (y \land x)) \lor a$$
because *y* \lapha x \leq x and
x is upper-modular

$$= ((z \land x) \lor (y \land x)) \lor (a \lor (z \land a))$$
by the absorbtion law

$$= ((z \land x) \lor (z \land a)) \lor ((y \land x) \lor a)$$

$$= ((z \land x) \lor (z \land a)) \lor ((y \land x) \lor a)$$
by (3)

$$= (z \land (x \lor a)) \lor y$$
because *a* is neutral.

Thus, the equality (1) holds in this case as well.

Lemma 1.2. Let L be a lattice with $0, x \in L$, and let a be an atom and a neutral element of L. Then:

- (i) if $x \lor a$ is a modular element of L then so is x;
- (ii) if $x \lor a$ is an upper-modular element of L then so is x.

Proof. Since a is an atom of L, we have that, for any $z \in L$, $z \not\geq a$ if and only if $z \wedge a = 0$. Because a is a neutral element of L, we have that, for any $b, c \in L$, if $b \wedge a = 0$ and $c \wedge a = 0$ then $(b \vee c) \wedge a = (b \wedge a) \vee (c \wedge a) = 0$. In other words,

(4)
$$\forall b, c \in L : b \geq a \& c \geq a \longrightarrow b \lor c \geq a.$$

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Further, it is known that if e is a neutral element of a lattice L and the equalities $f \wedge e = g \wedge e$ and $f \vee e = g \vee e$ hold true for some elements $f, g \in L$ then f = g (see [3, Theorem III.2.4], for instance). Therefore,

(5)
$$\forall b, c \in L: \ b \ngeq a \& c \gneqq a \& b \lor a = c \lor a \longrightarrow b = c.$$

Now we are well prepared to prove the claims (i) and (ii).

(i) Let $y, z \in L$ with $y \leq z$. We may assume that $x \geq a$ because $x \lor a = x$ in the contrary case. We have to check that

(6)
$$(x \lor y) \land z = (x \land z) \lor y.$$

Now consider two cases: $z \not\geq a$ and $z \geq a$.

Case 1: $z \not\geq a$. We have

$$(x \lor y) \land z = ((x \lor y) \land z) \lor (a \land z)$$
 because $a \land z = 0$
$$= ((x \lor y) \lor a) \land z$$
 because a is neutral
$$= ((x \lor a) \lor y) \land z$$

$$= ((x \lor a) \land z) \lor y$$
 because $x \lor a$ is modular
$$= ((x \land z) \lor (a \land z)) \lor y$$
 because a is neutral
$$= (x \land z) \lor y$$
 because $a \land z = 0.$

We see that (6) holds whenever $z \geq a$.

Case 2: $z \ge a$. Then we have

$$((x \lor y) \land z) \lor a = ((x \lor y) \land z) \lor (a \land z)$$
 because $a \land z = a$
= $((x \lor y) \lor a) \land z$ because a is neutral
= $((x \lor a) \lor y) \land z$
= $((x \lor a) \land z) \lor y$ because $x \lor a$ is modular
= $((x \land z) \lor (a \land z)) \lor y$ because a is neutral
= $((x \land z) \lor a) \lor y$ because $a \land z = a$
= $((x \land z) \lor y) \lor a$.

We see that

(7)
$$((x \lor y) \land z) \lor a = ((x \land z) \lor y) \lor a.$$

Suppose at first that $y \ge a$. Since $z \ge a$, we have $(x \lor y) \land z \ge a$ and $(x \land z) \lor y \ge a$. Therefore, the equality (7) is equivalent to (6) in the case we consider.

Finally, let $y \not\geq a$. Recall that $x \not\geq a$. Applying (4) we have $x \lor y \not\geq a$, whence $(x \lor y) \land z \not\geq a$. Furthermore, $x \not\geq a$ implies $x \land z \not\geq a$. Applying (4) again we have $(x \land z) \lor y \not\geq a$. Now we may apply (5) and (7) concluding that (6) is valid. Thus, the equality (6) holds in any case.

(ii) Let $y, z \in L$ with $y \leq x$. As in the proof of part (i), we may assume that $x \geq a$ because $x \vee a = x$ in the contrary case. Clearly, $y \leq x$ implies $y \vee a \leq x \vee a$. We have

$$\begin{array}{ll} ((z \lor y) \land x) \lor a = ((z \lor y) \lor a) \land (x \lor a) & \text{because } a \text{ is neutral} \\ &= (z \lor (y \lor a)) \land (x \lor a) \\ &= (z \land (x \lor a)) \lor (y \lor a) & \text{because } x \lor a \text{ is} \\ && \text{upper-modular} \\ &= ((z \land x) \lor (z \land a)) \lor (y \lor a) & \text{because } a \text{ is neutral} \\ &= ((z \land x) \lor y) \lor ((z \land a) \lor a) \\ &= ((z \land x) \lor y) \lor ((z \land a) \lor a) & \text{by the absorbtion law.} \end{array}$$

We see that

(8) $((z \lor y) \land x) \lor a = ((z \land x) \lor y) \lor a.$

Recall that $x \not\geq a$. This implies $z \wedge x \not\geq a$. Besides that, $y \not\geq a$ because $y \leq x$. By (4) we conclude that $(z \wedge x) \vee y \not\geq a$. Furthermore, $x \not\geq a$ implies $(z \vee y) \wedge x \not\geq a$. Now we may apply (5) and (8) concluding that $(z \vee y) \wedge x = (z \wedge x) \vee y$, that is x is an upper-modular element. \Box

Combining Lemmas 1.1 and 1.2, we have

Proposition 1.3. Let L be a lattice with $0, x \in L$, and let a be an atom and a neutral element of L. Then:

- (i) x is a modular element of L if and only if so is $x \vee a$;
- (ii) x is an upper-modular element of L if and only if so is $x \lor a$.

Now we apply the above results to the lattice of semigroup varieties. The following lemma contains some properties of the variety \mathfrak{SL} that are most important for this paper.

Lemma 1.4. The variety \mathfrak{SL} is:

- (i) an atom of the lattice SEM;
- (ii) a neutral element of the lattice SEM.

The claim (i) of this lemma is well known (see the survey [2], for instance). The statement (ii) is also known. It can be easily deduced from some remarks scattered over [1, 6, 7]; an explicit proof was given in [10, Proposition 2.4].

Lemma 1.4 and Proposition 1.3 immediately imply

Corollary 1.5. Let \mathfrak{M} be a semigroup variety.

- (i) The variety M is a modular element of the lattice SEM if and only if so is the variety M ∨ SL.
- (ii) The variety M is an upper-modular element of the lattice SEM if and only if so is the variety M ∨ SL.

2. Necessity

Modular elements of the lattice SEM have been studied by Ježek and McKenzie [5]. One should note that the paper [5] has dealt with the lattice of equational theories of semigroups, that is, the dual of SEM rather than the lattice SEM itself. However, the modular elements of the former lattice precisely correspond to the modular elements of SEM. Indeed, the notion of a modular element is self-dual in the sense that a modular element of a lattice L is also modular in the dual of L (this readily follows from the definition or from [4, Proposition 2.1]). To reproduce a result from [5] concerning modular elements of the lattice SEM, we need one definition. Following [10], we call a semigroup variety a *Rees* variety if it may be defined by a system of identities of the form u = 0. Clearly, every Rees variety is a nil-variety. We start the proof of Theorem 1 with the following result due to Ježek and McKenzie [5, Proposition 1.6] (we "translate" the original result from the language of equational theories to the language of varieties).

Proposition 2.1. If a semigroup variety \mathfrak{V} is a modular element of the lattice SEM then either \mathfrak{V} coincides with the class of all semigroups or $\mathfrak{V} \subseteq \mathfrak{SL} \lor \mathfrak{R}$ for some Rees variety \mathfrak{R} .

This proposition easily implies

Corollary 2.2. If a semigroup variety \mathfrak{V} is a modular element of the lattice SEM then either \mathfrak{V} coincides with the class of all semigroups or \mathfrak{V} is a nilvariety or $\mathfrak{V} = \mathfrak{SL} \lor \mathfrak{N}$ for some nilvariety \mathfrak{N} .

Proof. Suppose that \mathfrak{V} differs from the class of all semigroups. By Proposition 2.1 $\mathfrak{V} \subseteq \mathfrak{SL} \lor \mathfrak{R}$ for some Rees variety \mathfrak{R} . Applying Lemma 1.4(ii), we get

$$\mathfrak{V} = \mathfrak{V} \land (\mathfrak{SL} \lor \mathfrak{R}) = (\mathfrak{V} \land \mathfrak{SL}) \lor (\mathfrak{V} \land \mathfrak{R}).$$

Put $\mathfrak{N} = \mathfrak{V} \wedge \mathfrak{R}$. Since the variety \mathfrak{SL} is an atom of the lattice SEM, the variety $\mathfrak{V} \wedge \mathfrak{SL}$ coincides with either \mathfrak{SL} or the trivial variety. Therefore, either $\mathfrak{V} = \mathfrak{N}$ or $\mathfrak{V} = \mathfrak{SL} \vee \mathfrak{N}$. It remains to note that the variety \mathfrak{N} is a nil-variety because of it is a subvariety of the nil-variety \mathfrak{R} .

Let now \mathfrak{V} be simultaneously a modular and an upper-modular element of the lattice SEM. Of course, we may assume that \mathfrak{V} differs from the class of all semigroups. By Corollaries 2.2 and 1.5, it suffices to verify that if \mathfrak{V} is a nil-variety then $\mathfrak{V} \subseteq \mathfrak{C}$.

Throughout the rest of this section we assume that \mathfrak{V} is a nil-variety.

We denote by F the free semigroup of a countable rank. The symbol \equiv stands for the equality relation on F. If $u \in F$, then c(u) denotes the set of all letters occurring in u, while $\ell(u)$ stands for the length of u. Let $u, v \in F$. We

write $u \triangleleft v$ if $v \equiv a\xi(u)b$ for some endomorphism ξ of F and some $a, b \in F^1$ where F^1 is F with the empty word 1 adjoined. We need the following technical remarks about identities of nil-varieties.

Lemma 2.3. Let \mathfrak{N} be a nil-variety.

- (i) If \mathfrak{N} satisfies an identity u = v with $c(u) \neq c(v)$, then \mathfrak{N} satisfies also the identity u = 0.
- (ii) If 𝔑 satisfies an identity of the form u = vuw where v, w ∈ F¹ and at least one of the words v and w is non-empty, then it satisfies also the identity u = 0.
- (iii) If \mathfrak{N} satisfies an identity of the form $x_1x_2\cdots x_n = u$ with $\ell(u) \neq n$, then it satisfies also the identity $x_1x_2\cdots x_n = 0$.
- (iv) If the variety \mathfrak{N} is commutative and satisfies an identity u = v where $\ell(u) < \ell(v)$ and $u \triangleleft v$, then \mathfrak{N} satisfies also the identity u = 0.

Proof. (i) We may assume that there is a letter $x \in c(v) \setminus c(u)$. Substituting 0 for x in the identity u = v, we obtain u = 0.

(ii) The identity u = vuw implies $u = vuw = v^2uw^2 = \cdots = v^nuw^n = \cdots$. Since \mathfrak{N} is a nil-variety and at least one of the words v and w is non-empty, there is n with either $v^n = 0$ or $w^n = 0$ in \mathfrak{N} . Therefore, u = 0 holds in \mathfrak{N} .

(iii) If $\ell(u) < n$, then $c(u) \neq \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ and the statement (i) applies. If $\ell(u) > n$, then the claim follows from [8, Lemma 1].

(iv) This claim is a partial case of [9, Lemma 1.3(iii)].

Recall that a word u is said to be an *isoterm in the variety* \mathfrak{M} if no nontrivial identity of the form u = v holds in \mathfrak{M} . Let \mathfrak{M}_1 and \mathfrak{M}_2 be arbitrary semigroup varieties and suppose that an identity $w_1 = w_2$ holds in the variety $\mathfrak{M}_1 \wedge \mathfrak{M}_2$. In this case there is a sequence of words u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_n such that $u_0 \equiv w_1, u_n \equiv w_2$ and, for every $i = 0, 1, \ldots, n-1$, the identity $u_i = u_{i+1}$ holds in either \mathfrak{M}_1 or \mathfrak{M}_2 . An arbitrary sequence of words with such properties will be called an $(\mathfrak{M}_1, \mathfrak{M}_2)$ -deduction of the identity $w_1 = w_2$.

Proposition 2.4. If \mathfrak{V} is a nil-variety and \mathfrak{V} is an upper-modular element of the lattice SEM then \mathfrak{V} is commutative.

Proof. Suppose that the commutative law fails in \mathfrak{V} and denote by \mathfrak{X} the subvariety of \mathfrak{V} defined within \mathfrak{V} by the identity xy = yx. Further, let \mathfrak{G} be an arbitrary non-abelian periodic group variety. Clearly, $\mathfrak{G} \wedge \mathfrak{V}$ is the trivial variety, and therefore $(\mathfrak{G} \wedge \mathfrak{V}) \vee \mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{X}$. Since \mathfrak{V} is an upper-modular element of SEM, this means that $(\mathfrak{G} \vee \mathfrak{X}) \wedge \mathfrak{V} = \mathfrak{X}$. The variety \mathfrak{X} satisfies the commutative law. Therefore, there is a $(\mathfrak{G} \vee \mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{V})$ -deduction of the identity xy = yx. In particular, there is a word u with $u \not\equiv xy$ and the identity xy = u holds in either $\mathfrak{G} \vee \mathfrak{X}$ or \mathfrak{V} . Suppose that xy = u holds in \mathfrak{V} . If $u \not\equiv yx$ then

either $c(u) \neq \{x, y\}$ or $\ell(u) \neq 2$. By the claims (i) and (iii) of Lemma 2.3 either $u \equiv yx$ or xy = 0 holds in \mathfrak{V} . Since the variety \mathfrak{V} is non-commutative, both the cases are impossible. Therefore, the word xy is an isoterm in \mathfrak{V} . Whence the identity xy = u is satisfied by the variety $\mathfrak{G} \lor \mathfrak{X}$. In particular, xy = u holds in the nil-variety \mathfrak{X} . Using the same arguments as above, we have that either $u \equiv yx$ or xy = 0 holds in \mathfrak{X} . But the latter is not the case, and we have proved that the variety $\mathfrak{G} \lor \mathfrak{X}$ satisfies the commutative law. In particular, xy = yx holds in the variety \mathfrak{G} , contradicting the choice of this variety.

Put $W = \{x^2y, xyx, yx^2, y^2x, yxy, xy^2\}.$

Lemma 2.5. If a commutative nil-variety \mathfrak{M} satisfies an identity of the form u = v where $u \in W$ then either $v \in W$ or \mathfrak{M} satisfies the identity u = 0.

Proof. If $c(v) \neq \{x, y\}$ then u = 0 in \mathfrak{M} by Lemma 2.3(i). Let now $c(v) = \{x, y\}$. Let k (respectively, ℓ) be the number of occurences of the letter x (respectively, y) in v. Since the variety \mathfrak{M} is commutative, it satisfies $v = x^k y^\ell$ and either $u = x^2 y$ or $u = xy^2$. Suppose that $v \notin W$. Then either $k \geq 3$ or $\ell \geq 3$ or $k = \ell = 2$ or $k = \ell = 1$. Applying then Lemma 2.3(iv) we conclude that \mathfrak{M} satisfies the identity u = 0.

Proposition 2.6. If \mathfrak{V} is a nil-variety and \mathfrak{V} is an upper-modular element of the lattice SEM then \mathfrak{V} satisfies the identity $x^2y = xy^2$.

Proof. Suppose that the identity $x^2y = xy^2$ is false in \mathfrak{V} and denote by \mathfrak{X} the subvariety of \mathfrak{V} given within \mathfrak{V} by this identity. Further, let \mathfrak{G} be an arbitrary non-trivial periodic group variety. Clearly, $\mathfrak{G} \wedge \mathfrak{V}$ is the trivial variety, and therefore $(\mathfrak{G} \wedge \mathfrak{V}) \vee \mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{X}$. Since \mathfrak{V} is an upper-modular element of SEM, this means that $(\mathfrak{G} \vee \mathfrak{X}) \wedge \mathfrak{V} = \mathfrak{X}$. The variety \mathfrak{X} satisfies the identity $x^2y = xy^2$. Therefore, there is a $(\mathfrak{G} \vee \mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{V})$ -deduction of this identity. Let

$$x^2 y \equiv u_0, u_1, \dots, u_n \equiv x y^2$$

be an arbitrary such deduction. Put $W_1 = \{x^2y, xyx, yx^2\}$ and $W_2 = \{y^2x, yxy, xy^2\}$. Since $u_0 \in W_1$ and $u_n \notin W_1$, there is an index i > 0 such that $u_{i-1} \in W_1$ while $u_i \notin W_1$. The identity $u_{i-1} = u_i$ holds in one of the varieties $\mathfrak{G} \lor \mathfrak{X}$ and \mathfrak{V} . Suppose that $u_{i-1} = u_i$ in \mathfrak{V} . The variety \mathfrak{V} is commutative by Proposition 2.4. Therefore, it satisfies all identities of the type $w_1 = x^2y$ with $w_1 \in W_1$ and $w_2 = xy^2$ with $w_2 \in W_2$. So, if $u_i \in W_2$ then $x^2y = yx^2$ in \mathfrak{V} . Furthermore, if $u_i \notin W_2$ then $u_i \notin W$. Now Lemma 2.5 applies and we conclude that \mathfrak{V} satisfies the identity $x^2y = 0$. Therefore, $xy^2 = 0$ and $x^2y = xy^2$ in \mathfrak{V} . We prove that if $u_{i-1} = u_i$ holds in \mathfrak{V} then \mathfrak{V} satisfies the identity $x^2y = u_{i-1} = u_i$ holds in \mathfrak{K} . In particular, $u_{i-1} = u_i$ in \mathfrak{K} . If $u_i \notin W_2$ then $u_i \notin W$, whence $x^2y = u_{i-1} = 0$ in \mathfrak{K} by Lemma 2.5. But it is not the case. Therefore,

 $u_i \in W_2$. This means that the variety $\mathfrak{G} \vee \mathfrak{X}$ satisfies the identity $u_{i-1} = u_i$ where $u_{i-1} \in W_1$ and $u_i \in W_2$. In particular, this identity holds true in the variety \mathfrak{G} . Recall that \mathfrak{G} is a non-trivial group variety. Substituting 1 for y in the identity $u_{i-1} = u_i$, we obtain that $x^2 = x$ in \mathfrak{G} . Therefore, \mathfrak{G} is the trivial variety, a contradiction. \Box

Propositions 2.4 and 2.6 imply necessity in Theorem 2.

We need the following easy observation.

Lemma 2.7. Let \mathfrak{M} be a nil-variety satisfying the identities $x^2y = xy^2$ and xy = yx. Then \mathfrak{M} satisfies also the identity

(9)
$$x^2 y z = 0$$

Proof. Substituting yz for y in $x^2y = xy^2$, we obtain that \mathfrak{M} satisfies the identities $x^2yz = x(yz)^2 = xy^2z^2 = x^2yz^2$. Now Lemma 2.3(ii) applies. \Box

In [4], Ježek describes modular elements of the lattice of all varieties (more exactly, all equational theories) of any given type. In particular, [4, Lemma 6.3] implies that if a nil-variety \mathfrak{V} satisfies the identity $x^2y = xy^2$ and \mathfrak{V} is a modular element of the lattice of all groupoid varieties then $x^2y = 0$ holds in \mathfrak{V} . This does not imply directly the same conclusion for nil-varieties that are modular elements of SEM since a modular element of SEM need not be a modular element of the lattice of all groupoid varieties. Nevertheless, the following "semigroup analogue" of the mentioned result by Ježek is true.

Proposition 2.8. If a nil-variety \mathfrak{V} is a modular element of the lattice SEM and satisfies the identities $x^2y = xy^2$ and xy = yx then $x^2y = 0$ holds in \mathfrak{V} .

Proof. By Lemma 2.7 \mathfrak{V} satisfies the identity (9). Put $\mathfrak{X} = \operatorname{var}\{x^2y = (x^2y)^2\}$ and $\mathfrak{Y} = \operatorname{var}\{x^2y = (x^2y)^2, xy^2 = (xy^2)^2\}$. Clearly, $\mathfrak{Y} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$. The variety $\mathfrak{V} \wedge \mathfrak{X}$ satisfies the identities $xy^2 = x^2y = (x^2y)^2$. Together with (9) this implies $xy^2 = 0$. In particular, $xy^2 = (xy^2)^2$ in $\mathfrak{V} \wedge \mathfrak{X}$, that is $\mathfrak{V} \wedge \mathfrak{X} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$. Thus, $(\mathfrak{V} \wedge \mathfrak{X}) \vee \mathfrak{Y} = \mathfrak{Y}$. Since \mathfrak{V} is a modular element of the lattice SEM, $(\mathfrak{V} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{Y}$. In particular, $xy^2 = (xy^2)^2$ holds in $(\mathfrak{V} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$. Then there exists a $(\mathfrak{V} \vee \mathfrak{Y}, \mathfrak{X})$ -deduction of the identity $xy^2 = (xy^2)^2$. This means that there is a word u such that $u \not\equiv xy^2$ and $xy^2 = u$ holds in either $\mathfrak{V} \vee \mathfrak{Y}$ or \mathfrak{X} . Clearly, the word xy^2 is an isoterm in the variety \mathfrak{X} . Therefore, $xy^2 = u$ holds in $\mathfrak{V} \vee \mathfrak{Y}$ and, in particular, in \mathfrak{V} . Applying Lemma 2.5 we conclude that either $u \in W$ or $xy^2 = 0$ in \mathfrak{V} . In the latter case $x^2y = 0$ in \mathfrak{V} because \mathfrak{V} is commutative. Let now $u \in W$. The identity $xy^2 = u$ holds in $\mathfrak{V} \vee \mathfrak{Y}$, and moreover in \mathfrak{Y} . But it is clear that all non-trivial identities of the type $xy^2 = u$ with $u \in W$ are false in \mathfrak{Y} . Of course, our proof of Proposition 2.8 (namely, the choice of the varieties \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Y} in this proof) is inspired by the proof of [4, Lemma 6.3].

Propositions 2.4, 2.6 and 2.8 imply together that $\mathfrak{V} \subseteq \mathfrak{C}$. The necessity in Theorem 1 is proved.

3. Sufficiency in Theorem 2

By Lemma 2.7, if a nil-variety satisfies the identities $x^2y = xy^2$ and xy = yx then it satisfies the identity (9) too. Put

$$\mathfrak{A} = \operatorname{var}\{x^2 y z = 0, \, x^2 y = x y^2, \, x y = y x\}.$$

In this section we have to verify that any subvariety of \mathfrak{A} is an upper-modular element of the lattice SEM.

Put $U = \{x^2, x^3, x^2y, x_1x_2 \cdots x_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ where \mathbb{N} stands for the set of all natural numbers. It is evident that any subvariety of \mathfrak{A} may be given in \mathfrak{A} only by identities of the type u = v or u = 0 where $u, v \in U$. The claims (i)–(iii) of Lemma 2.3 imply that if $u, v \in U$ and $u \not\equiv v$ then u = v implies in \mathfrak{A} the identity u = 0. Now it is very easy to check that the subvariety lattice of the variety \mathfrak{A} has the form shown on Fig. 1, where

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{A}_{n} &= \operatorname{var}\{x^{2}yz = x_{1}x_{2}\cdots x_{n} = 0, \ x^{2}y = xy^{2}, \ xy = yx\} \ (n \geq 4), \\ \mathfrak{B} &= \operatorname{var}\{x^{2}yz = x^{3} = 0, \ x^{2}y = xy^{2}, \ xy = yx\}, \\ \mathfrak{B}_{n} &= \operatorname{var}\{x^{2}yz = x^{3} = x_{1}x_{2}\cdots x_{n} = 0, \ x^{2}y = xy^{2}, \ xy = yx\} \ (n \geq 4), \\ \mathfrak{C}_{n} &= \operatorname{var}\{x^{2}y = x_{1}x_{2}\cdots x_{n} = 0, \ xy = yx\} \ (n \geq 3), \\ \mathfrak{D}_{n} &= \operatorname{var}\{x^{2} = 0, \ xy = yx\}, \\ \mathfrak{D}_{n} &= \operatorname{var}\{x^{2} = x_{1}x_{2}\cdots x_{n} = 0, \ xy = yx\} \ (n \in \mathbb{N}). \end{aligned}$$

Let $\mathfrak{X} \subseteq \mathfrak{A}$. We have to check that if $\mathfrak{Y} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$ and \mathfrak{Z} is an arbitrary semigroup variety then $(\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}) \land \mathfrak{X} = (\mathfrak{Z} \land \mathfrak{X}) \lor \mathfrak{Y}$.

We need some definitions and notation. Recall that a semigroup S is called *nilpotent* if it satisfies an identity of the form $x_1x_2\cdots x_k = 0$. If k is the least number with such a property then S is said to be *nilpotent of index* k. A semigroup variety \mathfrak{M} is called a *variety of a finite index* if there is a natural k such that every nilsemigroup from \mathfrak{M} is nilpotent of index $\leq k$; the least k with this property is called the *index* of \mathfrak{M} . If \mathfrak{M} is a variety of a finite index, we denote its index by $\operatorname{ind}(\mathfrak{M})$; otherwise we write $\operatorname{ind}(\mathfrak{M}) = \infty$. Let \mathfrak{M}_1 and \mathfrak{M}_2 be arbitrary semigroup varieties. It is clear that

(10)
$$\begin{cases} \operatorname{ind}(\mathfrak{M}_1 \lor \mathfrak{M}_2) = \max\{\operatorname{ind}(\mathfrak{M}_1), \operatorname{ind}(\mathfrak{M}_2)\}, \\ \operatorname{ind}(\mathfrak{M}_1 \land \mathfrak{M}_2) = \min\{\operatorname{ind}(\mathfrak{M}_1), \operatorname{ind}(\mathfrak{M}_2)\} \end{cases}$$

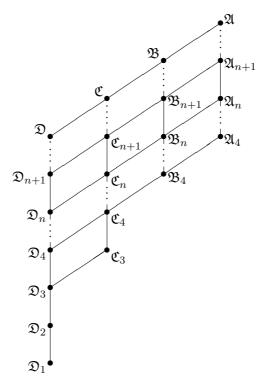


FIGURE 1. The subvariety lattice of the variety \mathfrak{A}

(we assume here that $k \leq \infty$ for any $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$). For a variety \mathfrak{M} with $\mathfrak{M} \subseteq \mathfrak{A}$, we define by $\overline{\mathfrak{M}}$ the least of the varieties \mathfrak{A} , \mathfrak{B} , \mathfrak{C} and \mathfrak{D} that contains \mathfrak{M} . Fig. 1 shows that if $\mathfrak{M}_1, \mathfrak{M}_2 \subseteq \mathfrak{A}$ then

$$\mathfrak{M}_1 = \mathfrak{M}_2 \iff \operatorname{ind}(\mathfrak{M}_1) = \operatorname{ind}(\mathfrak{M}_2) \text{ and } \overline{\mathfrak{M}}_1 = \overline{\mathfrak{M}}_2.$$

Therefore, we have to verify the following two equalities:

(11)
$$\operatorname{ind}((\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}) \land \mathfrak{X}) = \operatorname{ind}((\mathfrak{Z} \land \mathfrak{X}) \lor \mathfrak{Y}),$$

(12)
$$\overline{(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}} = \overline{(\mathfrak{Z} \wedge \mathfrak{X}) \vee \mathfrak{Y}}.$$

Put $\operatorname{ind}(\mathfrak{X}) = k$, $\operatorname{ind}(\mathfrak{Y}) = \ell$ and $\operatorname{ind}(\mathfrak{Z}) = m$. According to (10), we have

$$\begin{aligned} &\inf((\mathfrak{Z}\vee\mathfrak{Y})\wedge\mathfrak{X})=\min\{\max\{m,\ell\},k\},\\ &\inf((\mathfrak{Z}\wedge\mathfrak{X})\vee\mathfrak{Y})=\max\{\min\{m,k\},\ell\}. \end{aligned}$$

Clearly, $\ell \leq k$ because $\mathfrak{Y} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$. It is then evident that $\min\{\max\{m, \ell\}, k\} = \max\{\min\{m, k\}, \ell\}$. The equality (11) is proved.

It remains to verify the equality (12). Clearly, it is equivalent to the following claim: if u is one of the words x^3 , x^2y and x^2 then the variety $(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$ satisfies the identity u = 0 if and only if the variety $(\mathfrak{Z} \wedge \mathfrak{X}) \vee \mathfrak{Y}$ does so. Obviously, $(\mathfrak{Z} \wedge \mathfrak{X}) \vee \mathfrak{Y} \subseteq (\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$. Thus, we have to check that u = 0 holds in $(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$ whenever it is so in $(\mathfrak{Z} \wedge \mathfrak{X}) \vee \mathfrak{Y}$. Further considerations are naturally divided into two cases.

Case 1: u is one of the words x^2 and x^3 . We prove that if the variety $(\mathfrak{Z} \wedge \mathfrak{X}) \vee \mathfrak{Y}$ satisfies an identity of the form $x^n = 0$ for some n then $x^n = 0$ holds in the variety $(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$ as well. (This is evident whenever n > 3 because $x^4 = 0$ in \mathfrak{A} , and moreover in \mathfrak{X} . But the proof we give below does not depend on n.) Suppose that $x^n = 0$ in $(\mathfrak{Z} \wedge \mathfrak{X}) \vee \mathfrak{Y}$. This means that $x^n = 0$ in \mathfrak{Y} and there is a $(\mathfrak{Z}, \mathfrak{X})$ -deduction of the identity $x^n = 0$. In particular, there is a word v such that $v \not\equiv x^n$ and $x^n = v$ holds in either \mathfrak{Z} or \mathfrak{X} . Suppose that $x^n = 0$ in \mathfrak{X} , and moreover in $(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$. Let now $x^n = v$ in \mathfrak{Z} . If $c(v) = \{x\}$ then $x^n = v$ is an identity of the form

$$(13) x^n = x^m$$

where $n \neq m$. Suppose that $c(v) \neq \{x\}$. If $\ell(v) \neq n$ then substituting x for each letter from $c(v) \setminus \{x\}$ in the identity $x^n = v$, we deduce from this identity an identity of the form (13) with $n \neq m$. Finally, if $\ell(v) = n$ then we obtain an identity of the same form by substitution x^2 for any letter from $c(v) \setminus \{x\}$ in $x^n = v$. Thus, in any case the variety \mathfrak{Z} satisfies an identity of the form (13) with $n \neq m$. If m < n then multiplying both the sides of this identity by x^{n-m} we obtain the identity $x^{2n-m} = x^n$. Clearly, 2n - m > n. Thus, we may assume that \mathfrak{Z} satisfies an identity of the form (13) for some m > n. Since $x^n = 0$ in \mathfrak{Y} , the variety $\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}$ also satisfies (13) for some m > n. Applying Lemma 2.3(ii) we have that any nil-subvariety of $\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}$ satisfies $x^n = 0$. In particular, it is so for the variety $(\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}) \land \mathfrak{X}$.

Case 2: $u \equiv x^2 y$. Now we have to check that if the variety $(\mathfrak{Z} \wedge \mathfrak{X}) \vee \mathfrak{Y}$ satisfies the identity $x^2 y = 0$ then the variety $(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$ does so. We may assume that $\mathfrak{Z} \not\cong \mathfrak{X}$ because $(\mathfrak{Z} \wedge \mathfrak{X}) \vee \mathfrak{Y} = \mathfrak{X} = (\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$ otherwise. In particular, $\mathfrak{Z} \not\cong \operatorname{var} \{xy = yx\}$. As well known, this means that \mathfrak{Z} consists of periodic semigroups or, equivalently, satisfies an identity of the form (13) with n < m (see, e.g., [2]). Since \mathfrak{Y} is a nil-variety, an identity of this form holds in the variety $\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}$. By Lemma 2.3(ii) this implies that any nil-subvariety of $\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}$ satisfies the identity $x^n = 0$. Hence there exists the (unique) greatest nil-subvariety of the variety $\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}$. We denote this subvariety by $\operatorname{Nil}(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y})$. It is evident that $\operatorname{Nil}(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X} \subseteq (\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$. On the other hand, any semigroup from $(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$ is a nilsemigroup (because \mathfrak{X} is a nil-variety) and this nilsemigroup lies both in $\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}$ and \mathfrak{X} . Therefore, $(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X} \subseteq \operatorname{Nil}(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$. We see that

(14)
$$(\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}) \land \mathfrak{X} = \operatorname{Nil}(\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}) \land \mathfrak{X}.$$

As in Section 2 put

$$W = \{x^2y, xyx, yx^2, y^2x, yxy, xy^2\}.$$

The variety $(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$ is commutative. Therefore, it suffices to verify that this variety satisfies an identity w = 0 for some word $w \in W$. By the hypothesis the variety $(\mathfrak{Z} \wedge \mathfrak{X}) \vee \mathfrak{Y}$ satisfies the identity $x^2y = 0$. This means that $x^2y = 0$ in \mathfrak{Y} and there is a $(\mathfrak{Z}, \mathfrak{X})$ -deduction of the identity $x^2y = 0$. Let $x^2y \equiv u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_n, 0$ be an arbitrary such deduction. Suppose that $u_n \in W$. The identity $u_n = 0$ holds in one of the varieties \mathfrak{Z} and \mathfrak{X} . Suppose that $u_n = 0$ in \mathfrak{Z} . Because $u_n \in W$ and the variety \mathfrak{Y} is commutative and satisfies the identity $x^2y = 0$, we have $u_n = 0$ in \mathfrak{Y} . Therefore, $u_n = 0$ in $\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}$, and moreover in $(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$. Obviously, the same is the case whenever $u_n = 0$ in \mathfrak{X} . Since $u_n \in W$, we are done.

Let now $u_n \notin W$. Since $u_0 \in W$, then there is an index i > 0 such that $u_i \notin W$ while $u_{i-1} \in W$. The identity $u_{i-1} = u_i$ holds in one of the varieties \mathfrak{Z} and \mathfrak{X} . If $u_{i-1} = u_i$ in \mathfrak{X} then Lemma 2.5 applies and we conclude that $u_{i-1} = 0$ in \mathfrak{X} , and moreover in $(\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}) \land \mathfrak{X}$. Since $u_{i-1} \in W$, we are done.

Finally, suppose that $u_{i-1} = u_i$ in \mathfrak{Z} . Note that $u_{i-1} = 0$ in \mathfrak{Y} because $x^2y = 0$ in \mathfrak{Y} , the variety \mathfrak{Y} is commutative and $u_{i-1} \in W$. We are going to check that $u_{i-1} = 0$ in $(\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}) \land \mathfrak{X}$. This suffices for our aims because $u_{i-1} \in W$. Suppose at first that there is a letter $z \in c(u_i) \setminus \{x, y\}$. Substitute u_{i-1}^2 for z in the identity $u_{i-1} = u_i$. We obtain an identity of the type $u_{i-1} = w_1 u_{i-1}^2 w_2$ for some (maybe empty) words w_1 and w_2 . This identity holds in $\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}$ because $u_{i-1} = u_i$ in \mathfrak{Z} and $u_{i-1} = 0$ in \mathfrak{Y} . By Lemma 2.3(ii) $u_{i-1} = 0$ holds in Nil $(\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y})$, and moreover in Nil $(\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}) \land \mathfrak{X}$. We are done by (14).

Let now $c(u_i) \subseteq \{x, y\}$. Recall that a word u is called *linear* if every letter occurs in u at most one time. We write $u \approx v$ if the word v may be obtained from the word u by renaming of letters. Suppose that the identity $u_i = 0$ is false in the variety \mathfrak{Y} . Because $x^2y = 0$ in \mathfrak{Y} , this means that either u_i is linear or $u_i \approx x^2$. Since $c(u_i) \subseteq \{x, y\}$, we have $u_i \in \{x, y, xy, yx, x^2, y^2\}$. Substitute x for y in the identity $u_{i-1} = u_i$. We obtain either $x^3 = x$ or $x^3 = x^2$. Each of these two identities implies $x^4 = x^2$. Thus, $x^4 = x^2$ in \mathfrak{Z} , and therefore $x^4y = x^2y$ in $\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}$. By Lemma 2.3(ii), we have $x^2y = 0$ in Nil($\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}$), and moreover in Nil($\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}$) $\land \mathfrak{X}$. According to (14) $x^2y = 0$ in ($\mathfrak{Z} \lor \mathfrak{Y}$) $\land \mathfrak{X}$.

Finally, let $u_i = 0$ in \mathfrak{Y} . Then we have $u_{i-1} = u_i$ in \mathfrak{Y} , and therefore in $\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}$. Recall that $c(u_i) \subseteq \{x, y\}$. If $c(u_i) \subset \{x, y\}$ then Lemma 2.3(i) applies and we conclude that $u_{i-1} = 0$ in Nil $(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y})$, and moreover in Nil $(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$. Now the equality (14) applies. It remains to consider the case $c(u_i) = \{x, y\}$. Let k (respectively, ℓ) denote the number of occurrences of the letter x (respectively, y) in the word u_i . Since the variety \mathfrak{X} satisfies the commutative law, $u_i = x^k y^\ell$ in \mathfrak{X} . If $k = \ell = 1$ then $u_i \in \{xy, yx\}$ and we may repeat literally the arguments from the previous paragraph. Furthermore, if either k = 2,

 $\ell = 1$ or k = 1, $\ell = 2$ then $u_i \in W$ that contradicts the choice of the word u_i . Therefore, we may assume that either $k \geq 3$ or $\ell \geq 3$ or $k = \ell = 2$. The variety \mathfrak{X} satisfies the identities $x^3y = 0$ and $x^2y^2 = 0$ because $\mathfrak{X} \subseteq \mathfrak{A}$. Hence $u_i = 0$ in \mathfrak{X} . Taking into account that $u_{i-1} = u_i$ in $\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}$, we obtain that the consequence $u_{i-1}, u_i, 0$ is a $(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}, \mathfrak{X})$ -deduction of the identity $u_{i-1} = 0$, whence this identity holds in $(\mathfrak{Z} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{X}$.

The equality (12) is proved. Thus, we have completed the proof of sufficiency in Theorem 2.

4. Sufficiency in Theorem 1

In this section we complete the proof of Theorem 1. It is evident that the variety of all semigroups is both a modular and an upper-modular element of the lattice SEM. Let now \mathfrak{X} be a semigroup variety with $\mathfrak{X} \subseteq \mathfrak{SL} \lor \mathfrak{C}$. Repeating literally the proof of Corollary 2.2, we conclude that either $\mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{X}'$ or $\mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{SL} \lor \mathfrak{X}'$ for some variety $\mathfrak{X}' \subseteq \mathfrak{C}$. According to Corollary 1.5 it suffices to verify that each subvariety of the variety \mathfrak{C} is both a modular and an upper-modular element of the lattice SEM. The "upper-modular half" of this claim immediately follows from Theorem 2. Thus, it remains to verify that any subvariety of the variety \mathfrak{C} is a modular element of the lattice SEM.

Let $\mathfrak{X} \subseteq \mathfrak{C}$. In other words, \mathfrak{X} is one of the varieties \mathfrak{C} , \mathfrak{C}_n , \mathfrak{D} and \mathfrak{D}_n (see Fig. 1). We have to check that if \mathfrak{Y} and \mathfrak{Z} are arbitrary semigroup varieties with $\mathfrak{Y} \subseteq \mathfrak{Z}$ then $(\mathfrak{X} \lor \mathfrak{Y}) \land \mathfrak{Z} = (\mathfrak{X} \land \mathfrak{Z}) \lor \mathfrak{Y}$. It suffices to verify that $(\mathfrak{X} \lor \mathfrak{Y}) \land \mathfrak{Z} \subseteq (\mathfrak{X} \land \mathfrak{Z}) \lor \mathfrak{Y}$ since the opposite inclusion is evident. In other words, we have to prove that an identity u = v holds in $(\mathfrak{X} \lor \mathfrak{Y}) \land \mathfrak{Z}$ whenever it does so in $(\mathfrak{X} \land \mathfrak{Z}) \lor \mathfrak{Y}$. Let u = v be an identity that holds in $(\mathfrak{X} \land \mathfrak{Z}) \lor \mathfrak{Y}$. Then u = v in \mathfrak{Y} and there is an $(\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{Z})$ -deduction of u = v. Let

(15)
$$u \equiv w_0, w_1, \dots, w_n \equiv v$$

be the shortest $(\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{Z})$ -deduction of the identity u = v. In particular, this means that there are no $i \in \{0, 1, \ldots, n-2\}$ with $w_i = w_{i+1} = w_{i+2}$ in one of the varieties \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Z} . Besides that, if n > 1 then there are no $i \in \{0, 1, \ldots, n-1\}$ such that $w_i = w_{i+1}$ in both the varieties \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Z} .

The case n = 1 is fairly simple. Indeed, if n = 1 then the identity u = v holds in one of the varieties \mathfrak{X} and \mathfrak{Z} . Since this identity holds in \mathfrak{Y} , we have that u = v in one of the varieties $\mathfrak{X} \vee \mathfrak{Y}$ and \mathfrak{Z} , and moreover in $(\mathfrak{X} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{Z}$.

Suppose now that n = 2. By symmetry we may assume that $u = w_1$ in \mathfrak{X} and $w_1 = v$ in \mathfrak{Z} . Then $w_1 = v = u$ in \mathfrak{Y} . We see that $u = w_1$ in $\mathfrak{X} \vee \mathfrak{Y}$ and $w_1 = v$ in \mathfrak{Z} , so u = v in $(\mathfrak{X} \vee \mathfrak{Y}) \wedge \mathfrak{Z}$.

Throughout the rest of this section we assume that $n \geq 3$.

First of all, let us consider some very special but important partial case. As we shall seen below, all other cases reduce to this one. **Lemma 4.1.** If n = 3, $w_0 = w_1$ in \mathfrak{Z} , $w_1 = w_2$ in \mathfrak{X} and $w_2 = w_3$ in \mathfrak{Z} then the identity u = v holds in the variety $(\mathfrak{X} \lor \mathfrak{Y}) \land \mathfrak{Z}$.

Proof. Recall that the identity u = v holds in \mathfrak{Y} , $u \equiv w_0$ and $v \equiv u_n$. Since $\mathfrak{Y} \subseteq \mathfrak{Z}$, we have $w_1 = w_0 = w_3 = w_2$ in \mathfrak{Y} . Therefore, the identity $w_1 = w_2$ holds in the variety $\mathfrak{X} \lor \mathfrak{Y}$. Since the identities $w_0 = w_1$ and $w_2 = w_3$ hold true in \mathfrak{Z} , we are done.

Clearly, if u is a non-linear word and $u \not\approx x^2$ then the identity u = 0 holds in \mathfrak{X} . Put

$$\begin{split} Z &= \{ u \in F \mid u = 0 \text{ holds in } \mathfrak{X} \} = \\ &= \begin{cases} \{ u \in F \mid u \text{ is non-linear and } u \not\approx x^2 \} & \text{if } \mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{C}, \\ \{ u \in F \mid \text{either } u \text{ is non-linear and } u \not\approx x^2 \\ & \text{or } u \text{ is linear and } \ell(u) \geq n \} & \text{if } \mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{C}_n, \\ \{ u \in F \mid u \text{ is non-linear} \} & \text{if } \mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{D}, \\ \{ u \in F \mid u \text{ is non-linear} \\ & \text{or } u \text{ is linear and } \ell(u) \geq n \} & \text{if } \mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{D}_n; \end{cases} \\ L &= \{ u \in F \mid u \text{ is linear and } u \notin Z \} = \\ &= \begin{cases} \{ u \in F \mid u \text{ is linear} \} \\ \{ u \in F \mid u \text{ is linear and } \ell(u) < n \} & \text{if } \mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{C} \text{ or } \mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{D}, \\ \{ u \in F \mid u \text{ is linear and } \ell(u) < n \} & \text{if } \mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{C}_n \text{ or } \mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{D}_n; \end{cases} \\ S &= \{ u \in F \mid u \notin Z \cup L \} = \begin{cases} \{ u \in F \mid u \approx x^2 \} \\ \varnothing & \text{if } \mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{D} \text{ or } \mathfrak{X} = \mathfrak{D}_n. \end{cases} \end{split}$$

Clearly, every word belongs to exactly one of the sets Z, L and S. In particular, it is so for each of the words w_0, w_1, \ldots, w_n . It is evident that if $w', w'' \in Z$ then w' = w'' in \mathfrak{X} . In the sequel we use this claim without any references.

Now we verify several properties of the sequence (15).

Lemma 4.2. If $w_i, w_j \in Z$ for some $0 \le i < j \le n$ then j = i + 1. In particular, the sequence (15) contains at most two words from the set Z.

Proof. Suppose that $w_i, w_j \in Z$ for some $0 \le i, j \le n$ and j > i + 1. Then $w_i = w_j$ in \mathfrak{X} , whence $w_0, w_1, \ldots, w_i, w_j, \ldots, w_n$ is an $(\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{Z})$ -deduction of the identity u = v that is shorter than (15).

Lemma 4.3. If $w_i \in S$ for some $0 \leq i \leq n$ then:

- (i) either i = 0 or i = n;
- (ii) if $w_0 \in S$ (respectively, $w_n \in S$) then the identity $w_0 = w_1$ (respectively, $w_{n-1} = w_n$) holds in the variety \mathfrak{Z} .

Proof. Let $w_i \in S$, that is $w_i \approx x^2$. Suppose that i > 0 and the identity $w_{i-1} = w_i$ holds in \mathfrak{X} . The claims (i) and (ii) of Lemma 2.3 then imply that $x^2 = 0$ in \mathfrak{X} . Thus, $w_i = 0$ in \mathfrak{X} that contradicts the claim $w_i \in S$. Therefore, if i > 0 then the identity $w_{i-1} = w_i$ holds in \mathfrak{Z} . In particular, if $w_n \in S$ then $w_{n-1} = w_n$ in \mathfrak{Z} . Analogous arguments show that if i < n (in particular, if i = 0) then the identity $w_i = w_{i+1}$ holds in \mathfrak{Z} . The part (ii) is proved. Furthermore, if 0 < i < n then $w_{i-1} = w_i = w_{i+1}$ in \mathfrak{Z} . But this is impossible. The part (i) is proved as well.

Lemma 4.4. If $w_i \in L$ for some 0 < i < n then either $w_{i-1} \in L$ or $w_{i+1} \in L$.

Proof. Arguing by contradiction, suppose that $w_{i-1}, w_{i+1} \in Z \cup S$. If $w_{i-1} \in S$ then $w_{i-1} = w_i$ holds in \mathfrak{Z} by Lemma 4.3. Let now $w_{i-1} \in Z$. Then $w_{i-1} = 0$ holds in \mathfrak{X} while the identity $w_i = 0$ is false in \mathfrak{X} . Therefore, the identity $w_{i-1} = w_i$ is false in \mathfrak{X} too. This means that $w_{i-1} = w_i$ holds in \mathfrak{Z} as well. Analogously, the identity $w_i = w_{i+1}$ holds in \mathfrak{Z} , that is $w_{i-1} = w_i = w_{i+1}$ in \mathfrak{Z} . But this is impossible.

Lemma 4.5. Let $w_i, w_{i+1} \in L$ for some $0 \le i \le n-1$. The identity $w_i = w_{i+1}$ holds in the variety \mathfrak{X} if and only if $c(w_i) = c(w_{i+1})$.

Proof. Let $w_i, w_{i+1} \in L$. If $c(w_i) = c(w_{i+1})$ then $w_i = w_{i+1}$ in \mathfrak{X} because the variety \mathfrak{X} is commutative. Let now $c(w_i) \neq c(w_{i+1})$. If $w_i = w_{i+1}$ in \mathfrak{X} then $w_i = 0$ in \mathfrak{X} by Lemma 2.3(i). But this contradicts $w_i \in L$.

Lemma 4.6. If $w_i, w_{i+1} \in L$ for some $0 \le i \le n-1$ then the sequence (15) contains no word from the set Z.

Proof. Suppose that i + 1 < n and $w_{i+2} \in Z$. Then $w_{i+2} = 0$ holds in \mathfrak{X} while $w_{i+1} = 0$ is false in \mathfrak{X} . Therefore, the identity $w_{i+1} = w_{i+2}$ is false in \mathfrak{X} . This means that $w_{i+1} = w_{i+2}$ in \mathfrak{Z} , and therefore $w_i = w_{i+1}$ in \mathfrak{X} . The latter together with Lemma 4.5 imply that $c(w_i) = c(w_{i+1})$. Therefore, the word w_i may be obtained from w_{i+1} by an action of some permutation σ on indices of letters occurring in $c(w_{i+1})$. Substitute $x_{\sigma(j)}$ for x_j in the identity $w_{i+1} = w_{i+2}$ for all letters $x_j \in c(w_{i+1})$. We obtain an identity of the type $w_i = w'$ such that $w' \approx w_{i+2}$ and the identity $w_i = w'$ holds in \mathfrak{Z} . Since $w_{i+2} = 0$ in \mathfrak{X} , we have w' = 0 in \mathfrak{X} too. Thus, $w' = w_{i+2}$ in \mathfrak{X} . Since $n \geq 3$, either i > 0 or i + 2 < n. If i > 0 then $w_{i-1} = w_i = w'$ in \mathfrak{Z} and $w_0, w_1, \ldots, w_{i-1}, w', w_{i+2}, \ldots, w_n$ is an $(\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{Z})$ -deduction of the identity u = v that shorter than (15). Furthermore, if i + 2 < n then $w' = w_{i+2} = w_{i+3}$ in \mathfrak{X} and $w_0, w_1, \ldots, w_i, w', w_{i+3}, \ldots, w_n$ is an $(\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{Z})$ -deduction of the identity u = v that shorter than (15). We see that if i + 1 < n then $w_{i+2} \notin Z$. By symmetry, if i > 0 then $w_{i-1} \notin Z$.

Let now $w_j, \ldots, w_i, \ldots, w_k$ (where $0 \le j \le i < k \le n$) be the maximal subsequence of the sequence (15) consisting of words from the set L. In other

words, $w_j, \ldots, w_i, \ldots, w_k \in L$, $w_{k+1} \notin L$ whenever k < n, and $w_{j-1} \notin L$ whenever j > 0. Suppose that k < n. As we have proved above $w_{k+1} \notin Z$, whence $w_{k+1} \in S$. Applying Lemma 4.3(i) we have k + 1 = n. Analogously, if j > 0 then j = 1 and $w_0 \in S$. We see that the words from the set Z are absent in the sequence (15).

Lemma 4.7. If $w_i, w_{i+1}, w_{i+2} \in L$ for some $0 \le i \le n-2$ then either $c(w_i) = c(w_{i+1}) \ne c(w_{i+2})$ or $c(w_i) \ne c(w_{i+1}) = c(w_{i+2})$.

Proof. Applying Lemma 4.5, we have $w_i = w_{i+1} = w_{i+2}$ in \mathfrak{X} whenever $c(w_i) = c(w_{i+1}) = c(w_{i+2})$, and $w_i = w_{i+1} = w_{i+2}$ in \mathfrak{Z} whenever $c(w_i) \neq c(w_{i+1}) \neq c(w_{i+2})$. Both the cases are impossible.

Lemma 4.8. If $w_i, w_{i+1}, w_{i+2}, w_{i+3} \in L$ and $c(w_i) = c(w_{i+1}) \neq c(w_{i+2}) = c(w_{i+3})$ for some $0 \leq i \leq n-3$ then there are words w' and w'' such that $w_i = w'$ in \mathfrak{Z} , w' = w'' in \mathfrak{X} and $w'' = w_{i+3}$ in \mathfrak{Z} .

Proof. By Lemma 4.5 the identities $w_i = w_{i+1}$ and $w_{i+2} = w_{i+3}$ hold true in \mathfrak{X} while the identity $w_{i+1} = w_{i+2}$ holds in \mathfrak{Z} . Since $c(w_i) = c(w_{i+1})$ and $w_i, w_{i+1} \in L$, the word w_i may be obtained from w_{i+1} by an action of some permutation σ on the indices of the letters occurring in $c(w_{i+1})$. Substitute $x_{\sigma(j)}$ for x_j in the identity $w_{i+1} = w_{i+2}$ for all letters $x_j \in c(w_{i+1})$. We obtain an identity of the type $w_i = w'_{i+2}$ such that $w'_{i+2} \in L$, $c(w_i) \neq c(w'_{i+2})$ and the identity $w_i = w'_{i+2}$ holds in \mathfrak{Z} . There is a letter x such that either $x \in c(w_i) \setminus \mathbb{Z}$ $c(w'_{i+2})$ or $x \in c(w'_{i+2}) \setminus c(w_i)$. Substitute x^3 for x in the identity $w_i = w'_{i+2}$. If $x \in c(w_i) \setminus c(w'_{i+2})$ we obtain an identity of the type $w' = w'_{i+2}$ such that $w' \in Z$ (because $x^3 = 0$ in \mathfrak{C} , and moreover in \mathfrak{X}) and $w' = w'_{i+2}$ holds in \mathfrak{Z} . Clearly, $w_i = w'$ also is satisfied by \mathfrak{Z} . Furthermore, if $x \in c(w'_{i+2}) \setminus c(w_i)$ then the substitution $x \mapsto x^3$ immediately deduces from $w_i = w'_{i+2}$ an identity of the type $w_i = w'$ such that $w' \in Z$ (by the aforementioned reason) and $w_i = w'$ in \mathfrak{Z} . Thus, in any case there is a word $w' \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $w_i = w'$ in 3. Analogously, there is a word $w'' \in Z$ such that the identity $w'' = w_{i+3}$ holds in \mathfrak{Z} . Because $w', w'' \in \mathbb{Z}$, the identity w' = w'' holds in \mathfrak{X} .

Now we are ready to complete the proof of sufficiency in Theorem 1. Further considerations are divided into four cases.

Case 1: the sequence (15) contains no adjacent words from the set L. Lemmas 4.3(i) and 4.4 imply that $w_1, \ldots, w_{n-1} \in Z$ in this case. Combining this claim with Lemma 4.2 and the condition $n \geq 3$, we obtain that n = 3. Besides that, the identity $w_1 = w_2$ holds in \mathfrak{X} , and therefore the identities $w_0 = w_1$ and $w_2 = w_3$ hold in \mathfrak{Z} . Now Lemma 4.1 applies.

Case 2: the sequence (15) contains adjacent words from the set L but does not contain three words in row from this set. Applying Lemma 4.6 we have

that the sequence (15) contains no words from the set Z in this case. Then Lemma 4.3(i) together with the claim $n \ge 3$ implies that $n = 3, w_0, w_3 \in S$ and $w_1, w_2 \in L$. By Lemma 4.3(ii) the identities $w_0 = w_1$ and $w_2 = w_3$ hold true in \mathfrak{Z} . Therefore, $w_1 = w_2$ in \mathfrak{X} . Now Lemma 4.1 applies.

Case 3: the sequence (15) contains three words in row from the set L but does not contain four words in row from this set. So, let $w_i, w_{i+1}, w_{i+2} \in L$ for some $0 \le i \le n-2$. According to Lemmas 4.7 and 4.5, either $c(w_i) =$ $c(w_{i+1}) \neq c(w_{i+2}), w_i = w_{i+1} \text{ in } \mathfrak{X} \text{ and } w_{i+1} = w_{i+2} \text{ in } \mathfrak{Z} \text{ or } c(w_i) \neq c(w_{i+1}) = w_{i+1}$ $c(w_{i+2}), w_i = w_{i+1}$ in \mathfrak{Z} and $w_{i+1} = w_{i+2}$ in \mathfrak{X} . By symmetry, it suffices to consider the former case. So, let $c(w_i) = c(w_{i+1}) \neq c(w_{i+2}), w_i = w_{i+1}$ in \mathfrak{X} and $w_{i+1} = w_{i+2}$ in \mathfrak{Z} . Since $n \geq 3$, either i+2 < n or i > 0. Suppose at first that i+2 < n. Then the identity $w_{i+2} = w_{i+3}$ holds in \mathfrak{X} . Since $w_{i+2} \in L$, the identity $w_{i+2} = 0$ is false in \mathfrak{X} . The claims (i) and (iii) of Lemma 2.3 imply now that $w_{i+3} \in L$. Therefore, the sequence (15) contains four words in row from the set L (namely, the words w_i, w_{i+1}, w_{i+2} and w_{i+3}). But this is impossible. Therefore, i+2 = n, whence i > 0. The identity $w_{i-1} = w_i$ holds in the variety **3**. The case $w_{i-1} \in L$ is impossible because the sequence (15) contains no four words in row from the set L. Lemma 4.6 implies that $w_{i-1} \notin Z$. Therefore, $w_{i-1} \in S$. Then we can apply Lemma 4.3(i) and conclude that i-1=0. Now Lemma 4.1 applies.

Case 4: the sequence (15) contains four words in row from the set L. So, let $w_i, w_{i+1}, w_{i+2}, w_{i+3} \in L$ for some $0 \le i \le n-3$. According to Lemma 4.7, this means that either $c(w_i) = c(w_{i+1}) \ne c(w_{i+2}) = c(w_{i+3})$ or $c(w_i) \ne c(w_{i+1}) = c(w_{i+2}) \ne c(w_{i+3})$. Consider two corresponding subcases.

Subcase 4.1: $c(w_i) = c(w_{i+1}) \neq c(w_{i+2}) = c(w_{i+3})$. Then $w_i = w_{i+1}$ in $\mathfrak{X}, w_{i+1} = w_{i+2}$ in \mathfrak{Z} and $w_{i+2} = w_{i+3}$ in \mathfrak{X} by Lemma 4.5. Applying Lemma 4.8 we have that there are words w' and w'' such that $w_i = w'$ in $\mathfrak{Z}, w' = w''$ in \mathfrak{X} and $w'' = w_{i+3}$ in \mathfrak{Z} . If i > 0 then $w_{i-1} = w_i = w'$ in \mathfrak{Z} . This means that $w_0, w_1, \ldots, w_{i-1}, w', w'', w_{i+3}, \ldots, w_n$ is an $(\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{Z})$ -deduction of the identity u = v that shorter than (15). Thus, i = 0. Analogous arguments imply that i + 3 = n. Now we can apply Lemma 4.1 for the sequence w_0, w', w'', w_{i+3} .

Subcase 4.2: $c(w_i) \neq c(w_{i+1}) = c(w_{i+2}) \neq c(w_{i+3})$. By Lemma 4.5, $w_i = w_{i+1}$ in $\mathfrak{Z}, w_{i+1} = w_{i+2}$ in \mathfrak{X} and $w_{i+2} = w_{i+3}$ in \mathfrak{Z} . Suppose that i > 0. Then the identity $w_{i-1} = w_i$ holds in \mathfrak{X} . By Lemmas 4.3 and 4.6 $w_{i-1} \notin S \cup Z$, whence $w_{i-1} \in L$. By Lemma 4.5 $c(w_{i-1}) = c(w_i)$. Now we can apply the same arguments as in Subcase 4.1 for the words $w_{i-1}, w_i, w_{i+1}, w_{i+2}$. The case i+3 < n can be considered quite analogously. Finally, if i = 0 and i+3 = n, it remains to refer to Lemma 4.1.

We have completed the proof of sufficiency in Theorem 1. \Box

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