# On semigroups with minimal left ideals and without minimal right ideals. 

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Introduction. Let $S$ be a semigroup, i.e. a non-vacuous set closed under an associative binary operation. If a non-vacuous subset $A$ of $S$ has the property $S A \subset A$ or $A S \subset A, A$ is called a left ideal or a right ideal of $S$, respectively. If a non-vacuous subset $A$ of $S$ is a left ideal and at the same time a right ideal, $A$ is called simply an ideal of $S$. A minimal ideal of $S$ is determined uniquely, if it exists. (The term 'minimal' is always used in the sense of the ordering by set inclusion.) The minimal ideal of $S$ is called the kernel of $S$. A semigroup $S$ may or may not have the kernel. Concerning this situation A.H. Clifford has shown the following result:

Lemma 1. If a semigroup $S$ contains at least one minimal left ideal, then it has the kernel $K$, and $K$ is the union of all the minimal left ideals of $S$. (A. H. Clifford [2])

In the following discussion, we treat exclusively a semigroup $S$ having at least one minimal left ideal. Following the above lemma, in this case $S$ has the kernel, which we denote always by $K$.

The structure of the kernel $K$ of such semigroups $S$ has been determined by D. Rees [3] and A. H. Clifford [2], when $S$ have also a minimal right ideal. We shall consider in this paper semigroups $S$ which contain minimal left ideals but no minimal right ideals.

In §1, we shall prove that a semigroup $S$ containing a minimal left ideal contains also a minimal right ideal, if and only if the kernel $K$ of $S$ contains an idempotent (Theorem 1). In the rest of the paper, we shall consider therefore only the case where $K$ has no idempotent.

Now, M. Teissier [6] considered the semigroup $S$ in which the equation $x a=b$ is always solvable in $x$ and has no idempotent. In this case, $S$ itself becomes clearly a minimal left ideal of $S$ and coincides with the kernel $K$. Teissier then constructed a certain semigroup, in generalizing a construction given by R. Baer and F. Levi [1], and proved that every semigroup $S$ of the above-mentioned type is isomorphic to a subsemigroup of this semigroup, provided that the left cancellation law holds.

In the present paper, we shall again generalize the construction of Teissier, and obtain semigroups which we shall call B-L-semigroups (§3).

In $\S 2$, we shall prove some lemmas in preparation to $\S \S 3,4$. In the final $\S 4$, we shall prove that the kernel $K$ of our semigroup $S$ is always isomorphic to a subsemigroup of a B-L-semigroup, under the condition that $a x=a y$ for all $a \in K$ implies $x=y$ (Theorem 2). The case, where this additional condition is satisfied, will be treated as 'Case 1' and the general case as 'Case 2'. Finally, we shall consider as 'Case 3', the case where the left cancellation law holds.
§ 1. First, we refer two lemmas which are needed in this note, but can be proved easily.

Lemma 2. Two different minimal left ideals of $S$ are disjoint.
Lemma 3. If $L, L^{\prime}$ are minimal left ideals, and $a \in L$, then $L=L a=L^{\prime} a$ $=K a=S a$.

Now we shall prove
Theorem 1. Let $S$ be a semigroup which has at least one minimal left ideal. In order that $S$ has at least one minimal right ideal, it is necessary and sufficient that the kernel $K$ of $S$ has at least one idempotent.

Proof. If $S$ has at least one minimal left ideal and at least one minimal right ideal, then $K$ is completely simple without zero (A.H. Clifford [2]) and therefore $K$ has at least one idempotent. Conversely, let $S$ be a semigroup which has at least one minimal left ideal and such that its kernel $K$ has at least one idempotent $e$. Then by Lemma 1 , there is a minimal left ideal $L \ni e$, and by Lemma 3 we have $L=S e$. Now, let $f$ be any idempotent of $K$ such that $e f=f e=f$. Then $S f=S f e \subset S e=L$. But since $L$ is a minimal left ideal, we have $S f=L$. Hence there is an element $s \in S$ such that $s f=e$. Then $e f=(s f) f=s f=e$. Therefore $f=e f=e$. This shows that $e$ is a primitive idempotent. Therefore $K$ is completely simple without zero and $S$ has a minimal right ideal (D. Rees [4] and R.P. Rich [5]).
§ 2. Hereafter we consider a semigroup $S$ with at least one minimal left ideal whose kernel $K$ has no idempotent. Besides, since we shall discuss exclusively the structure of $K$, all the elements which will appear will belong to $K$ unless otherwise mentioned. We denote the family of all the minimal left ideals of $S$ as $\left\{L_{\lambda} ; \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$.

Lemma 4. For an element $a$, there is no element $d$ such that $a d=a$.
Proof. Suppose there is such an element $d$. If $L, L^{\prime}$ are the minimal left ideals of $S$, containing $a$ and $d$ respectively, we have $a d \in S L^{\prime} \subset L^{\prime}$. But as $a d=a$ and $a \in L$, we have $L=L^{\prime}$. Hence $d \in L^{\prime}=L=K a$, and so there is an
element $k$ such that $d=k a$. But then $d=k a=k a d=d^{2}$ and $d$ is an idempotent, which contradicts our assumption.

Lemma 5. If $a x=a y$, and $L$ is a minimal left ideal containing $a$, then $p x=p y$ for every element $p \in L$.

Proof. By assumption, $a, p \in L$. Hence $p \in K a$, and therefore there is an element $k$ such that $p=k a$. Therefore $p x=k a x=k a y=p y$.

For two elements $x, y$ of $K$, we write $x \equiv y$ ( $\lambda$ ) when $p_{\lambda} x=p_{\lambda} y$ for every element $p_{\lambda} \in L_{\lambda}$. By Lemma 5, $a x=a y$ for one element $a \in L_{\lambda}$, implies $x \equiv y(\lambda)$. This relation $x \equiv y(\lambda)$ is evidently an equivalence relation. Therefore by this relation, $K$ is decomposed into mutually disjoint classes. These classes are called $\lambda$-classes and we denote the family of all the $\lambda$-classes in $K$ as $K(\lambda)$. $\lambda$-class containing an element $a$, i.e. $\{x ; x \equiv a(\lambda)\}$ is denoted as $\overline{a_{\lambda}}$.

Lemma 6. Each $\lambda$-class is contained in some minimal left ideal.
Proof. Suppose $x \equiv y(\lambda)$ and $x \in L_{\alpha}, y \in L_{\beta}$. Then by definition, $a x=a y$ for every $a \in L_{\lambda}$. But $a x \in L_{\alpha}, a y \in L_{\beta}$, and therefore $L_{\alpha}=L_{\beta}$. Hence $x$ and $y$ belong to the same minimal left ideal.

According to Lemma 6, the decomposition of $K$ into $K(\lambda)$ is a subdivision of the decomposition of $K$ into minimal left ideals. The family of all the $\lambda$-classes in a minimal left ideal $L_{\alpha}$ is denoted as $L_{\alpha}(\lambda)$.

Lemma 7. Let $x \neq y$ ( $\lambda$ ). Then for any $a \in L_{\lambda}$ and $\mu \in \Lambda$, we have $a x \neq a y(\mu)$.
Proof. Suppose $a x \equiv a y(\mu)$. Then for any $b \in L_{\mu}$, we have $b a x=b a y$. But $a \in L_{\lambda}$ implies $b a \in L_{\lambda}$ and then $x \equiv y(\lambda)$.
q. e. d.

Now for a fixed $a \in L \lambda$, we consider a mapping $\overline{x_{\lambda}} \rightarrow a x$. By the definition of $\lambda$-class, it is evident that this mapping of the $\lambda$-class into $K$ is well defined irrespective of the choice of element $x_{\lambda}$ in the $\lambda$-class. Besides, according to Lemma 7, the mapping $\overline{x_{\lambda}} \rightarrow \overline{(a x)_{\mu}}$ is the one-one mapping of $K(\lambda)$ into $K(\mu)$. We denote this mapping as $a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}$, i.e. $a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(\overline{x_{\lambda}}\right)=\overline{(a x)_{\mu}}$. Since $x \in L_{\alpha}$ implies $a x \in L_{\alpha}, a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}$ maps $L_{\alpha}(\lambda)$ one-one into $L_{\alpha}(\mu)$ in particular.

For a set $M$, we denote the cardinal number of $M$ as $\overline{\bar{M}}$.
Lemma 8. $\overline{L_{\alpha}(\lambda)}=\overline{\overline{L a}(\mu)}$.
Proof. For $a \in L_{\lambda}, a_{\mu^{\lambda}}$ maps $L_{\alpha}(\lambda)$ one-one into $L_{\alpha}(\mu)$. Hence $\overline{\overline{L_{\alpha}(\lambda)}} \leqq \overline{L_{\alpha}(\mu)}$. By considering $b_{\lambda^{\prime \prime}}$ for $b \in L_{\mu}$, we obtain the inverse inequality.

Lemma 9. $x k=y$ implies $x \neq y$ ( $\lambda$ ) for every $\lambda \in \Lambda$.
Proof. Suppose that $x \equiv y(\lambda)$. Then $a x=a y$ for $a \in L_{\lambda}$. Hence ( $\left.a x\right) k=a y=a x$, which contradicts to Lemma 4.

Lemma 10. $L_{\alpha}(\lambda)$ and $L_{\alpha}(\mu)-a_{\mu} \mu^{\prime}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)$ are both infinite sets, where $a \in L_{\lambda}$.
Proof. For $a \in L_{\lambda}$, there exists an element $e_{1} \in L_{\alpha}$ such that $e_{1} a=a$, since $L_{\alpha} a=L_{\lambda}$. Then, since $L_{\alpha} e_{1}=L_{\alpha}$, there exists $e_{2} \in L_{\alpha}$ such that $e_{2} e_{1}=e_{1}$. Continuing in this fashion, we obtain a sequence of elements $\left\{e_{i}\right\}$ of $L_{\alpha}$, such that $e_{i+1} e_{i}=e_{i}$ for all $i=1,2,3, \cdots$. Then we can easily prove that for any
two integers $i, j$ such that $i<j$, we have $e_{j} e_{i}=e_{i}$, and for any integer $i$, we have $e_{i}(a x)=\alpha x$. Therefore, by Lemma 9, $\overline{(a x)_{\mu}}, \overline{\left(e_{1}\right)_{\mu}}, \overline{\left(e_{2}\right)_{\mu}}, \cdots$ are all different. Hence for any $i, \overline{\left(e_{i}\right)_{\mu}} \notin a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)$, i.e. $\in L_{\alpha}(\mu)-a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)$. This shows clearly $L_{\alpha}(\mu)-a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)$ is an infinite set. Besides, since $\overline{L_{\alpha}(\lambda)}=\overline{L_{\alpha}(\mu)} \geqq$ $\overline{L_{\alpha}(\mu)-\alpha_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)}, L_{\alpha}(\lambda)$ is an infinite set.

Lemma 11. For $a \in L_{\lambda}$ and $b \in L_{\mu}$, set $c=b a$. Then $c \in L_{\lambda}$, and for any $\nu \in \Lambda$, we have $c_{\nu}{ }^{\lambda}=b_{\nu}{ }^{\mu} a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}$.

Proof. $c \in L_{\lambda}$ is evident. And by definition, for any $\overline{x_{\lambda}} \in K(\lambda)$, we have $\left.b_{\nu}{ }^{\mu} a_{\mu}{ }^{\mu} \overline{\left(x_{\lambda}\right)}=b_{\nu}{ }^{\mu} \overline{\left((a x)_{\mu}\right.}\right)=\overline{(b a x)_{\nu}}=\overline{(c x)_{\nu}}$. Therefore $b_{\nu}{ }^{\mu} a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}=c_{\nu}{ }^{\lambda}$.

Lemma 12. For $a \in L_{\lambda}$ and $b \in L_{\mu}$, set $c=b a$. Then for any $\alpha, \nu \in \Lambda$, we have


Proof. We decompose the family of $\nu$-classes of $L_{\alpha}(\nu)-c_{\nu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)$ into two disjoint subfamilies, one consisting of the $\nu$-classes which are images of the mapping of $b_{\nu}{ }^{\mu}$, and the other consisting of the $\nu$-classes which are not. Since $b_{\nu}{ }^{\mu}$ is one-one and by Lemma $11 c_{\nu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)=b_{\nu}{ }^{\mu}\left(a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)\right)$, the first subfamily is $b_{\nu}{ }^{\mu}\left(L_{\alpha}(\mu)-a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)\right)$, which has the same cardinal number as $L_{\alpha}(\mu)-a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)$ since $b_{\nu}{ }^{\mu}$ is one-one. The second subfamily is clearly $L_{\alpha}(\nu)-b_{\nu}{ }^{\prime \prime}\left(L_{\alpha}(\mu)\right)$. Hence we get the result required.

Lemma 13. $\overline{L_{\alpha}(\mu)-a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)}$ is determined by $\alpha$ only, irrespective of the choice of $\lambda, \mu \in \Lambda$ and the choice of $a \in L_{\lambda}$.

Proof. First we prove that $\overline{L_{\alpha}(\mu)-a_{\mu}{ }_{\mu}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)}$ is independent of $\mu \in \Lambda$, $a \in L_{\lambda}$, i.e. for any $\mu, \nu \in \Lambda$ and $a, b \in L_{\lambda}, \overline{L_{\alpha}(\mu)-a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)}=\overline{L_{\alpha}(\nu)-b_{\nu} \lambda\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)}$. Take $c \in L_{\mu}$ such that $b=c a$. Such $c$ really exists since $L_{\lambda}=L_{\mu} a$. Then by Lemma 12, we have $\overline{L_{\alpha}(\nu)-b_{\nu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)}=\overline{L_{\alpha}(\mu)-a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)}+L_{\alpha}(\nu)-c_{\nu}{ }^{\mu}\left(L_{\alpha}(\mu)\right)$ $\geqq \overline{\overline{L_{\alpha}}(\mu)-a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)}$. By taking an element $d \in L_{\nu}$ such that $a=d b$, we get the inverse inequality.

Now we consider the general case, i.e. we prove that $\overline{L_{\alpha}(\mu)-a_{\mu} \mu^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)}$ $=\overline{L_{\alpha}(\kappa)-b_{k^{\nu}}\left(L_{\alpha}(\nu)\right)}$ for any $\lambda, \mu, \nu, \kappa \in \Lambda$ and $a \in L_{\lambda}, b \in L_{\nu}$. Let $c=b a$, then $c \in L_{\lambda}$, and by Lemma 12, we get an inequality $\overline{L_{\alpha}(\kappa)-c_{\kappa}^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)} \geqq \overline{L_{\alpha}(\kappa)-b_{\kappa}^{\nu}\left(L_{\alpha}(\nu)\right)}$. But since $a, c \in L_{\lambda}$, by the result proved above $\overline{L_{x}(\mu)-a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)}$ $=\overline{L_{\alpha}(\kappa)-c_{\kappa}^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)}$. Therefore we get an inequality $\overline{L_{\alpha}(\mu)-a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)} \geqq$ $\overline{\left(L_{x}\left(\kappa^{\prime}-\kappa^{\nu}\left(L_{\alpha}(\nu)\right)\right.\right.}$. The inverse inequality is obtained similarly.
§ 3. Let $A, \Lambda$ be arbitrary sets and let $\left\{K_{\lambda \alpha} ; \lambda \in \Lambda, \alpha \in A\right\}$ be an arbitrary family of mutually disjoint sets indexed by all the elements of $\Lambda \times A$, such that, for fixed $\alpha, K_{\lambda \alpha}$ has the same infinite cardinal number $\mathfrak{m}_{\alpha}$. And let $\mathfrak{m}_{\alpha}{ }^{\prime}$ be an arbitrarily given but fixed infinite cardinal number $\leqq \mathfrak{m}_{\alpha}$. We denote for each $\lambda, K(\lambda)=\bigcup_{\alpha} K_{\lambda \alpha}$ and $K^{*}(\lambda)=K(\lambda) \cup\left\{\theta_{\lambda}\right\}$, where $\theta_{\lambda}$ is an 'imaginary
point'. Then it is clear that $K^{*}(\lambda)=\overline{K(\lambda)}=\sum_{\alpha} \mathfrak{m}_{\alpha}$ which is independent of $\lambda$.
Let us consider a one-one mapping $f_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}$ of $K^{*}(\lambda)$ into $K(\mu)$ such that for each $\alpha, f_{\mu}^{\lambda}\left(K_{\lambda \alpha}\right) \subset K_{\mu \alpha}$ and $K_{\mu \alpha \alpha}-f_{\mu}^{\lambda}\left(K_{\lambda \alpha}\right)=\mathfrak{m}_{\alpha}{ }^{\prime}$. That such a mapping really exists, can be proved easily. The set of all such mappings is denoted as $\widetilde{F}_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}$. Next, we consider an element $f^{\lambda}=\left\{f_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda} ; \mu \in \Lambda\right\}$ of the direct product $\prod_{\mu} \widetilde{\mathfrak{r}}_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}$, such that the set $K_{\mu \alpha}$ which contains $f_{\mu}^{\lambda}\left(\theta_{\lambda}\right)$ has the second index $\alpha$ which is independent of $\mu$. The set of all such elements is denoted as $\mathfrak{F}(\lambda)$. Finally, we denote $\mathfrak{F}=\bigcup_{\lambda \in A} \mathfrak{F}(\lambda)$.

For two elements $f^{\lambda}, g^{\mu} \in \mathfrak{F}$, we define a composition $g^{\mu} \circ f^{\lambda}$ as follows: if $f^{\lambda}=\left\{f_{\nu}{ }^{\lambda} ; \nu \in \Lambda\right\}, g^{\mu}=\left\{g_{\nu}{ }^{\mu} ; \nu \in \Lambda\right\}$, then $g^{\mu \mu} \circ f^{\lambda}=\left\{g_{\nu}{ }^{\mu} f_{\mu^{\lambda}} ; \nu \in \Lambda\right\}$ where $g_{\nu}{ }^{\mu} f_{\mu^{\prime}}{ }^{\lambda}$ is the resultant mapping.

It is not difficult to show that with this composition $\mathfrak{F}$ is a semigroup having minimal left ideals, that its kernel coincides with $\mathfrak{F}$ and that the kernel has no idempotent. We call this semigroup $B$-L-semigroup.
§4. Now, we return to a semigroup $S$ with at least one minimal left ideal and whose kernel has no idempotent. We denote the family of all minimal left ideals of $S$ as in the preceding paragraphes by $\left\{L_{\lambda}(\lambda \in \Lambda)\right\}$.

Case 1. We assume that " $a x=a y$ for all $a \in K$ implies $x=y$ ".
In this case, we obtain the following lemma:
Lemma 14. $x \equiv y(\lambda)$ for all $\lambda \in \Lambda$ implies $x=y$.
Proof. For any $a \in K, a$ belongs to some $L_{\lambda}(\lambda \in \Lambda)$. Then by definition $a x=a y$. Accordingly $x=y$.

Now let us define a B-L-semigroup as follows:
We consider $A, \Lambda$ in $\S 3$ both as the set $\Lambda$ of index of the minimal left ideals of $S$. We consider $K_{\lambda \alpha}$ in $\S 3$ as $L_{\alpha}(\lambda)$ i.e. the set of all $\lambda$-classes contained in $L_{\alpha}$. It is evident that $\left\{K_{\alpha}(\lambda) ; \alpha, \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ are the family of mutually disjoint sets, and by Lemmas 8 and 10 , for fixed $\alpha, K_{\alpha}(\lambda)$ has an infinite cardinal number $\mathfrak{m}_{\alpha}$ which is independent of $\lambda \in \Lambda$. Finally, we consider $\mathfrak{m}_{\alpha^{\prime}}$ in $\S 3$ as $L_{x}(\mu)-a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)$ for $\lambda, \mu \in \Lambda$ and $a \in L_{\lambda}$. By Lemma 13 $\mathfrak{m}_{\alpha}{ }^{\prime}$ is well defined by $\alpha$, irrespective of the choice of $\lambda, \mu \in \Lambda$ and $a \in L_{\lambda}$, and it is clear that $\mathfrak{m}_{\alpha}{ }^{\prime} \leqq \mathfrak{m}_{\alpha}$. Under the above determination, a B-L-semigroup is defined.

For any $a \in K$, when $a \in L_{\lambda}$, we consider $a^{*}{ }_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}$ as the mapping of $K^{*}(\lambda)$ into $K(\mu)$ as follows:

$$
a_{\mu^{2}}^{*}(x)=a_{\mu^{\lambda}}(x) \text { for } x \in K(\lambda) ; \quad a_{\mu^{\prime}}\left(\theta_{\lambda}\right)=\overline{a_{\mu}} .
$$

As $a_{\mu^{\lambda}}{ }^{\lambda}$ is one-one and by Lemma $9, \overline{(a x)_{\mu}} \neq \overline{a_{\mu}}, a^{*}{ }_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}$ is a one-one mapping. Moreover, $a^{*}{ }_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(K_{\lambda \alpha}\right)=a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right) \subset L_{x}(\mu)=K_{\mu \alpha}$ and $\overline{\overline{K_{\mu \alpha}-a^{*}{ }_{\mu} K_{(\lambda \alpha)}}}=\overline{\overline{L_{\alpha}}(\mu)-a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(L_{\alpha}(\lambda)\right)}$
$=\mathfrak{m}_{\alpha^{\prime}}$, by definition. Hence $a^{*}{ }_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda} \in \mathfrak{F}_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}$. Besides, $a^{*}{ }_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(\theta_{\lambda}\right)=\overline{a_{\mu}} \in L_{\lambda}(\mu)$ where $\lambda$ is the index of $L_{\lambda}$ which contains $a$ and therefore independent of $\mu$. Accordingly $a^{*}=\left\{a^{*}{ }_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda} ; \mu \in \Lambda\right\} \in \mathfrak{F}(\lambda) \subset \mathfrak{F}$.

Now we make correspond $a \in K$ to $a^{*} \in \mathfrak{F}$.
This correspondence is one-one. For, let $a$ and $b$ be two distinct elements of $K$. When $a$ and $b$ belong to the distinct minimal left ideals $L_{\lambda}$ and $L_{\mu}$ respectively, then $a^{*} \in \mathfrak{F}(\lambda), b^{*} \in \mathfrak{F}(\mu)$ and $a^{*} \neq b^{*}$ since $\lambda \neq \mu$. Next we suppose that $a, b \in L_{\lambda}$. Then, by Lemma 14, there exists $\mu \in \Lambda$ for which $a \equiv b(\mu)$. Then $a^{*}{ }_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(\theta_{\lambda}\right)=\overline{a_{\mu}} \neq \overline{b_{\mu}}=b^{*} \mu_{\mu}^{\lambda}\left(\theta_{\lambda}\right)$. Therefore $a^{*} \neq b^{*}$.

Moreover, the above correspondence $a \rightarrow a^{*}$ is isomorphism, i.e. (ba)* $=b^{*} a^{*}$. For, if $a \in L_{\lambda}$ and $b \in L_{\mu}$, we have by Lemma 11, $(b a)_{\nu}{ }^{\lambda}=b_{\nu}{ }^{\prime \prime} a_{\mu^{2}}{ }^{\lambda}$ for any $\nu \in A$. Hence, for $x \in K(\lambda)$, we have $(b a)^{*}{ }_{\nu}{ }^{\lambda}(x)=(b a)_{\nu}{ }^{\lambda}(x)=b_{\nu}{ }^{\mu} a_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}(x)=b^{*}{ }_{\nu}{ }^{\mu} a^{*}{ }_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}(x)$ and $(b a)^{*}{ }_{\nu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(\theta_{\nu}\right)=\overline{(b a)_{\nu}}=b^{*}{ }_{\nu}{ }^{\mu}\left(\overline{a_{\mu}}\right)=b_{\nu}^{*}{ }^{\mu} a^{*}{ }_{\mu}{ }^{\lambda}\left(\theta_{\lambda}\right)$. Therefore $(b a)^{*}=b^{*}{ }^{\circ} a^{*}$.

Thus we obtain the following theorem:
Theorem 2. Let $S$ be a semigroup which has at least one minimal left ideal and whose kernel $K$ has no idempotent. Besides, we assume that if ax=ay for all $a \in K$ then $x=y$. Then $K$ is isomorphic with a subsemigroup of a $B$-L-semigroup.

Case 2. Let us consider the general case. For $x, y \in K$, we write $x \sim y$ if and only if $a x=a y$ for all $a \in K$. Then $x \sim y$ is evidently an equivalence relation. We denote the set $\{x ; x \sim a\}=[a]$. Moreover this equivalence relation is a congruence relation i. e. $a \sim b$ and $c \sim d$ imply $a c \sim b d$. In fact, for any $k$, we have $k a=k b$, and so $k a c=k a d=k b d$. Accordingly, we can define the product $[a][b]$ as $[a b]$, which is independent of the choice of the element in the equivalence class. This multiplication among the equivalence classes clearly yields a semigroup. We denote this semigroup by $\bar{K}$.

This semigroup $\bar{K}$ satisfies the conditions assumed in Case 1 . For, let $[a][x]=[a][y]$ for all $[a]$, then for any $a,[a x]=[a y]$. Therefore bax=bay for all $a, b$. Taking especially $b$ as an element such that $b a=a$, we conclude that $a x=a y$ for all $a$, which shows that $[x]=[y]$.

Thus we can apply Theorem 2 to $\bar{K}$.
Case 3. Let us assume the cancellation law: " $a x=a y$ implies $x=y$ ".
In this case each $\lambda$-class consists of a single element. It is shown in the same way as in Case 1, that B-L-semigroups in $\S 3$, in which the indexset $A$ consists of a single element, are semigroups which satisfy the assumption of Case 3, and conversely that every semigroup which satisfies the assumption of Case 3 is isomorphic to a subsemigroup of such a B-L-semigroup.

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