## Chapter 1

## Introduction

#### 1.1 Basics

Some brief definitions are listed as follows.

- (11BD1) S is a null semigroup if  $\forall x, y \in S(xy = 0)$ ,
- (11BD2) S is a left zero semigroup if  $\forall x, y \in S(xy = x)$ , the definition for right zero semigroup is obvious,
- (11BD3)  $I \subset S$  is a proper ideal if  $\{0\} \subset I \subsetneq S$  and  $IS \subset S \land SI \subset S$ ,
- (11BD4) given a set X, the full transformation semigroup is defined as  $(\operatorname{End}_{\mathsf{Set}}(X), \circ)$ , where  $\circ$  refers the composition of functions,
- (11BD5) a morphism  $S \xrightarrow[\mathsf{Smg}]{\phi} \mathrm{End}(X)$  is a representation of S, and  $\varphi$  is faithful if it is injective,
- (11BD6) a semigroup S is a rectangular band if  $\forall a, b \in S(aba = a)$ ,
- (11BD7)  $\langle \{a\} \rangle_{\text{smg}}$  is called a monogenic semigroup.

**Proposition 1.1.1** Suppose S is a semigroup, the propositions listed below are equivalent.

- (a) S is a group,
- (b) for all  $a, b \in S$ , there exists  $x, y \in S$  such that  $ax = b \wedge ya = b$ ,
- (c)  $\forall a \in S(aS = Sa = S)$ .

*Proof.* It is easy to demonstrate that (a)  $\Rightarrow$  (c) and (b)  $\Leftrightarrow$  (c). So we proceed to prove (c)  $\Rightarrow$  (a), and it is suffices to show that S has the unique identity, and that for any element, its inverse exists and is unique. Let ax = ya = a, and it follows that

$$x = ax_1 = ay_1a = yay_1a = yx = ax_2ax = ax_2a = y_2a = y.$$

Thus, we may conclude that every element a in S has an identity  $\epsilon_a$  such that  $\epsilon_a a = a \epsilon_a = a$ . Now, the issue lies in proving  $\epsilon_a = \epsilon_b$  for any a, b in S, and the method is analogous:

$$\epsilon_a = by_1 = by_2b = by_2b\epsilon_b = \epsilon_a\epsilon_b = \epsilon_aax_2a = ax_2a = x_1a = \epsilon_b.$$

As for the existence and uniqueness of inverse, it also follows the same manner, so we omit it here.

**Theorem 1.1.2** Suppose S is a semigroup,  $X = S^1$ , then there exists a faithful representation

$$\varphi: S \to \operatorname{End}(X)$$
.

*Proof.* See [1, Theorem 1.1.2]. Simply stated,

$$S \hookrightarrow \operatorname{End}(S^1)$$

$$a \longmapsto [\varphi_a : x \mapsto xa].$$

**Theorem 1.1.3** Suppose S is a semigroup, the following propositions are equivalent.

- $\diamond$  S is a rectangular band (11BD6),
- $\diamond$  every  $a \in S$  is an idempotent, and abc = ac for all a, b, c in S,
- $\diamond$  there exists a left zero semigroup L, and a right zero semigroup R, such that  $S \simeq L \times R$ ,
- $\diamond$  there exists two sets A, B such that  $S \simeq A \times B$ , in witch  $A \times B$  is a semigroup with the multiplication defined as  $(a_1, b_1)(a_2, b_2) = (a_1, b_2)$ .

*Proof.* See [1, Theorem 1.1.3].

#### 1.2 Monogenic Subsemigroup

To study the monogenic subsemigroup, we introduce the following concepts. Suppose a is an element in S, and its order is finite if not specified.

(12MSD1)  $\langle a \rangle := \langle \{a\} \rangle_{\mathrm{smg}},$ 

(12MSD2)  $\operatorname{ord}(a) := |\langle a \rangle|,$ 

(12MSD3)  $\operatorname{idx}(a) := \min \{ m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1} : \exists n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1} (a^m = a^n \land m \neq n) \},$ 

(12MSD4)  $\operatorname{prd}(a) := \min \{ r \in \mathbb{Z}_{>1} : a^{m+r} = a^m \},$ 

(12MSD5) a semigroup is called *periodic* if all its elements are of finite order.

Let  $m = \operatorname{idx}(a)$ ,  $r = \operatorname{prd}$ , clearly,  $a, a^2, \cdots, a^{m+r-1}$  are mutually different, and  $\langle a \rangle = \{a, \cdots, a^{m+r-1}\}$ . Let  $K_a$  be  $\{a^m, \cdots, a^{m+r-1}\}$ , we assert that it is a cyclic group. Consider the quotient ring  $\mathbb{Z}/r\mathbb{Z}$ , obviously,  $\{[m], \cdots, [m+r-1]\} = \mathbb{Z}/r\mathbb{Z}$ . Thus, there exists  $0 \leq g \leq r-1$  such that [m+g] = [1], which implies  $\forall k([k] = [k(m+g)])$ . Since  $a^{(m+g)k} = a^{m+hr}a^{k-m} = a^ma^{k-m}$  for all k > m, the  $a^{(m+g)k}$  exhaust  $K_a$ .

**Proposition 1.2.1** Suppose a and b are elements of finite order in the same or different subsemigroups, then

$$\langle a \rangle \simeq \langle b \rangle \Leftrightarrow (\mathrm{idx}(a), \mathrm{prd}(a)) = (\mathrm{idx}(b), \mathrm{prd}(b)).$$

*Proof.* Suppose idx(a) = idx(b) = m and prd(a) = ord(b) = r, the mapping defined below is an isomorphism.

$$\{a, \cdots, a^{m+r-1}\} \xrightarrow{\sim} \{b, \cdots, b^{m+r-1}\}$$

$$a^k \longmapsto b^k$$

For the reverse, assume  $\langle a \rangle \xrightarrow{\sim} \langle b \rangle$ , where  $\phi$  maps a to  $b^{\xi}$ , it is straightforward to verify that  $\langle b^{\xi} \rangle = \langle b \rangle$  and that  $\mathrm{idx}(a) = \mathrm{idx}(b^{\xi})$ ,  $\mathrm{prd}(a) = \mathrm{prd}(b^{\xi})$ . If  $\xi = 1$ , the proof is over. On the other hand, if  $\xi > 1$ , then there exists  $\mu \geq 1$  such that  $b^{\xi\mu} = b$ , thus,  $\mathrm{idx}(b) = 1$ , which implies  $\langle b \rangle$  is a cyclic group. Hence,  $\langle a \rangle$  is also a cyclic group with the generator  $\phi^{-1}(b) = a^{\xi}$ . Since a is a generator, similarly, there exists an integer  $\nu$  that makes  $a^{\xi\nu} = a$ , and it follows that  $\mathrm{idx}(a) = 1$ . Furthermore, observe that  $\mathrm{prd}(a) = |\langle a \rangle| = |\langle b \rangle| = \mathrm{prd}(b)$ .

**Proposition 1.2.2** For any pair  $(m,r) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}^2$ , there exists a semigroup S containing an element with idx of m and prd of r.

*Proof.* See [1, p.12]. Simply stated, the correspondence is given by  $(m,r) \mapsto (12 \cdots m+1) \in S_{m+r}$ .  $\square$ 

#### 1.3 Relations

Given a set X, the power set  $P(X^2)$  equipped with the multiplication defined as

$$R_1 \circ R_2 := \{(a,b) \in X^2 : \exists c \in X((a,c) \in R_1) \land (c,b) \in R_2\},\$$

where  $R_i$  is the element in  $P(X^2)$ , forms a semigroup. To see this, it is suffices to verify  $\circ$  is associative, which is obvious. Some brief definitions are listed as follows.

- (13RD1)  $R(x) := \{ y \in X : (x, y) \in R \},$
- (13RD2)  $R(A) := \bigcup_{x \in A} R(x),$
- (13RD3)  $R^{\text{op}} := \{(y, x) : (x, y) \in R\},\$
- (13RD4)  $\Delta_X : \{(x,x) : x \in X\},\$
- (13RD5) if it is not specified,  $R^n$  represents  $R \circ \cdots \circ R$  (n times),
- (13RD6) given a morphism  $f: S \to S'$ , then  $\ker f := \{(x,y) \in S^2 : f(x) = f(y)\}.$

It can be easily verified that  $(R_1 \circ R_2)^{\text{op}} = R_2^{\text{op}} \circ R_1^{\text{op}}$ , thus,  $(R^n)^{\text{op}} = (R^{\text{op}})^n$ . A commonly used conclusion is

$$(a,b) \in \mathbb{R}^n \Leftrightarrow \exists (t_i)_{i=1}^n \in X^n (a = t_1 \to t_2 \to \cdots \to t_n = b),$$

where  $t_i \to t_{i+1}$  means  $t_i R t_{i+1}$ .

We then introduce the definitions of partial orders and equivalent relations from this perspective. A partial order is a relation satisfies the following conditions,

- $\diamond$  (reflective)  $\Delta_X \subset R$ ,
- $\diamond$  (anti-symmetric)  $R \cap R^{\mathrm{op}} = \Delta_X$ ,
- $\diamond$  (transitive)  $R^2 \subset R$ .

On another hand, R is an equivalence relation is the conditions below are all hold,

- $\diamond$  (reflective)  $\Delta_X \subset R$ ,
- $\diamond$  (symmetric)  $R^{\mathrm{op}} \subset R$ ,
- $\diamond$  (transitive)  $R^2 \subset R$ .

Given a partial ordered set X, we have the following concepts, note that the definition of max/supre/uppercase is analogous.

- (13LTC1) Suppose  $U \subset X$ ,  $m \in U$  is the minimal element if  $\nexists a \in U(a < m)$ ,
- (13LTC2) suppose  $U \subset X$ ,  $m \in U$  is the minimum element if  $\forall a \in U (m < a)$ ,
- (13LTC3) suppose  $U \subset X$ ,  $l \in X$  is the lower bound of U if  $\forall a \in U (l \le a)$ .
- (13LTC4) We say that X satisfies minimal condition if every nonempty subset of it has a minimal element.
- (13LTC5) Suppose  $U \subset X$ ,  $i \in X$  is the *infimum*, denoted as  $\inf U$ , if i is the maximum element of all lower bounds of U.
- (13LTC6) We say that X is a complete lower semilattice if  $\forall U \subset X(\exists \inf U)$ , and is a lower semilattice if  $\forall \{x,y\} \subset X(\exists \inf\{x,y\})$ . If X is a lower semilattice, the operation  $(x,y) \mapsto \inf\{x,y\}$  forms a binary function, denoted as  $(\cdot) \land (\cdot)$ , as for the upper-case, we denote  $x \lor y$  by  $\sup\{x,y\}$ .
- (13LTC7) We say that X is a *lattice* if it's both an upper semilattice and a lower semilattice.

In addition, in a lower semilattice, it can be verified that

- $\diamond x \leq y \Leftrightarrow x = x \land y,$
- $(x \land y) \land z = x \land (y \land z)$ , that is,  $(X, \land)$  forms a semigroup.

**Proposition 1.3.1** Given a set X, a partition  $\mathcal{A}$  is a family of disjoint subsets of X satisfying  $\coprod \mathcal{A} = X$ . Then, there exists a bijection

$$\{R \in P(X^2) : \text{equivalence relation}\} \xleftarrow{1:1} \{A \in P(X) : \text{partition}\}$$

$$R \longmapsto \{R(x)\}_{x \in X}$$

$$[R: (x,y) \in R \Leftrightarrow \exists A \in \mathcal{A} (x \in A \land y \in A)] \longleftarrow \mathcal{A}$$

#### 1.4 Congruences

Let S be a semigroup, R is a relation on S, here are some definitions:

(14SRD1)  $aR = a \cdot R := \{(ax, ay) : (x, y) \in R\}$ , for the reverse,  $Ra := \{(xa, ya) : (x, y) \in R\}$ , in addition,  $aRb := \{(axb, ayb) : (x, y) \in R\}$ .

(14SRD2)  $S^1R = S^1 \cdot R := \bigcup_{a \in S^1} aR$ , the definition of  $RS^1$  is analogous, furthermore,  $S^1RS^1$  represents  $\bigcup_{(a,b) \in S^1 \times S^1} aRb$ .

(14SRD3)  $RR = R \cdot R := \{(x_1x_2, y_1y_2) : (x_i, y_i) \in R \land i \in \{1, 2\}\},\$ 

(14SRD4)  $R^{\cdot n} := R \cdot R \cdots R$  (n times).

(14SRD5) We say that R is left compatible if  $S^1R \subset R$ , similar to right compatible.

(14SRD6) We say that R is compatible if  $S^1R \subset R \wedge RS^1 \subset R$ , which is equivalent to  $RR \subset R$ .

We possess to prove the assertion in the last definition above. Since  $\Delta_S \subset R$ ,  $RR \subset R$  ensures for all  $a \in S^1$  and  $(x,y) \in S$ ,  $(ax,ay) \in R$ . Conversely, assume  $(x_1x_2,y_1y_2) \in RR$ . Since  $S^1R \subset R \wedge RS^1 \subset R$ , we obtain that  $(x_1x_2,x_1y_2) \in R$  and  $(x_1y_2,x_2y_2) \in R$ . Thus,  $(x_1x_2,y_1y_2) \in R$ .

The conclusion below is often used in algebra, especially in situations where an equivalence relation and some operations are imposed on a set to give it an algebraic structure, for example, ideal of rings, the construction of amalgamated product and the construction of tensor product. Its core, precisely, is the concept of congruence in semigroup theory.

**Proposition 1.4.1** Suppose R is an equivalence relation on a semigroup S, then

$$R(x)R(y) := R(xy)$$
 well defined  $\Leftrightarrow R$  is a congruence.

The following constructions are also important.

- (a)  $\langle R \rangle_{\text{eqv}} := \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}} \left[ R \cup \Delta_S \cup R^{\text{op}} \right]^n$  is the smallest equivalence relation containing R, where S can just be a set.
- (b)  $\langle R \rangle_{\rm cpt} := S^1 R S^1$  is the smallest compatible relation containing R.
- (c)  $\langle R \rangle_{\text{cog}} := \left\langle S^1 R S^1 \right\rangle_{\text{eqv}}$  is the smallest congruence containing R.

*Proof.* The proof for (a) is on [1, Proposition 1.4.9], the proof for (b) and (c) can be found in p.25-p.26 in the same book.  $\Box$ 

Both set Eqv(S) of equivalences and Cog(S) of congruences on S are partially ordered by  $\subset$ . In fact, both are complete lattice. Take Cog(S) as an example, for any subset  $\mathcal{U} \subset \text{Cog}(S)$ , it can be verified that  $\inf \mathcal{U} = \bigcap \mathcal{U}$  and  $\sup \mathcal{U} = \langle \bigcup \mathcal{U} \rangle_{\text{cog}}$ . Notice that for any  $R_1, R_2 \in \text{Cog}(S)$ 

$$\langle R_1 \cup R_2 \rangle_{\text{cog}} = \langle R_1 \cup R_2 \rangle_{\text{eqv}}.$$
 (1.1)

Thus, both symbol  $\wedge$  and  $\vee$  on lattice Eqv(S) and Eqv(S) represent the same operations of sets. Here are some conclusions for supplementation, which can be found in [1, p.28]. Suppose  $R_1$ ,  $R_2$  are equivalences, then

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(14CP1) 
$$R_1 \vee R_2 = \langle R_1 \cup R_2 \rangle_{\text{eqv}} = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}} (R_1 \cup R_2)^n = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}} (R_1 \circ R_2)^n,$$

(14CP2)  $R_1 \circ R_2 = R_2 \circ R_1 \Rightarrow R_1 \vee R_2 = R_1 \circ R_2.$ 

**Example 1.4.2** Let G be a group,  $E \subset G^2$  be an equivalence, and  $N = E(1_G)$  (14RD1), which is typically denoted as  $[1_G]$  in other books. Then,

$$[a][b] = [ab]$$
 well-defined  $\Leftrightarrow N \lhd G \land (aEb \Leftrightarrow ab^{-1} \in E)$ .

If E is an equivalence on a ring R, which is given by the data  $(R, +, -, 0_R, \cdot, 1_R)$ . Let  $I = [0_R]$ , then,

$$[a] + [b] = [a+b]$$
 well-defined  $\Leftrightarrow I < R \land (aEb \Leftrightarrow a-b \in I)$ .

It is nothing but a corollary of the former assertion in the case of an Abelian group  $(R, +, -, 0_R)$ . Based on this, to let

$$[a][b] = [ab]$$

well-defined, again, we consider it on the semigroup  $(R,\cdot)$ , and this requires  $RE \subset E \wedge ER \subset E$  (14SRD2). It is easy to verify that  $RE \subset E \wedge ER \subset E \Rightarrow RI \subset I \wedge IR \subset I$ . Conversely, suppose  $RI \subset I \wedge IR \subset I$ , it follows that

$$aEb \Leftrightarrow a-bE0 \Leftrightarrow a-b \in I \Rightarrow \forall r \in R(ra-rb \in I) \Leftrightarrow \forall r \in R(raErb) \Rightarrow RE \subset E$$

the procedure of proving  $RE \subset E$  follows the same manner.

#### 1.5 Ideals

Some definitions are listed below.

(15IDD1)  $\rho$  is a mapping from the set of proper ideal of S to Cog(S), which is given by  $I \mapsto I^2 \cup \Delta_S$ ,

(15IDD2) elements in im  $\rho$  are called *Rees ideals*,

(15IDD3) a morphism  $\phi$  is called a Ress morphism if ker  $\phi$  (15RD6) is a Ress ideal.

Based on this, we obtain some properties:

- $\diamond$  each  $\rho(I)$  is a congruence, thus,  $S/\rho(I) = \{I\} \sqcup \{\{x\} : x \in S \setminus I\}$  forms a semigroup,
- $\diamond I \in S/\rho(I)$  is a zero element.
- $\diamond$  Above all, suppose I is a proper ideal, there exists a bijection

$$\{I\subset J\subsetneq S: \text{ ideal}\} \xleftarrow{1:1} \{\bar{J}\subset S/\rho(I): \text{ ideal}\}$$
 
$$J \longmapsto \rho(I)(J)$$
 
$$\rho(I)^{-1}(\bar{J}) \longleftarrow \bar{J}.$$

#### 1.6 Free Semigroup

The definition of free semigroup is similar to other algebraic structures, that is, the initial object in the comma category  $(j_X, U)$ . To be specific,  $(\mathbf{F}(X), \iota)$  is the free semigroup of set X, if for any (S, f), where S is a semigroup and  $f: X \to S$  is a function, there exists unique semigroup morphism  $\phi$  that makes the following diagram commutes.

$$X \xrightarrow{\iota} \mathbf{F}(X)$$

$$f \xrightarrow{\exists ! \downarrow \phi} S$$

The construction is also straightforward, we omit it here.

**Definition 1.6.1** Suppose Y is a relation on free semigroup  $\mathbf{F}(X)$ , let

$$\langle X|Y\rangle := \mathbf{F}(X)/\langle Y\rangle_{\mathrm{cog}}$$
.

If there exists an epimorphism  $\phi: \mathbf{F}(X) \to S$ , a semigroup, such that  $\ker \phi = \langle Y \rangle_{\operatorname{cog}}$ , and hence  $\langle X|Y \rangle \simeq S$ , we say that S is presented.

### Chapter 2

## Green's Equivalences; Regular Semigroups

#### 2.1 Green's Equivalences

(21GBOP2)  $\mathcal{R}(ax) \leq \mathcal{R}(a),$ (21GBOP3)  $\mathcal{J}(xay) \leq \mathcal{J}(a),$ 

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Suppose S is a semigroup, here are some basic concepts.
(21GBD1) S^1a is the principal left ideal of a, same as the right-case,
(21GBD2) \mathcal{L} is an equivalence defined by a\mathcal{L}b \Leftrightarrow S^1a = S^1b,
(21GBD3) \mathcal{R} is an equivalence defined by a\mathcal{R}b \Leftrightarrow aS^1 = bS^1.
(21GBD4) \mathcal{J} is an equivalence defined by a\mathcal{J}b \Leftrightarrow S^1aS^1 = S^1bS^1,
(21GBD5) \mathcal{H} := \mathcal{L} \cap \mathcal{R} is also an equivalence,
(21GBD6) \mathcal{D}:=\langle\mathcal{L}\cup\mathcal{R}\rangle_{\mathrm{eqv}}=\mathcal{L}\vee\mathcal{R}, which is equal to \mathcal{L}\circ\mathcal{R}, the reason is illustrated by (21GBP13)
These objects possess these short properties:
(21GBP11) "Mutual divisibility" means if a\mathcal{L}b, then a,b can divide each other, that is, \exists x,y \in S^1 such
        that ax = b \wedge by = a. Same as the right-cese.
(21GBP12) \mathcal{L} is a right congruence, and \mathcal{R} is a left congruence.
(21GBP13) \mathcal{L} \circ \mathcal{R} = \mathcal{R} \circ \mathcal{L}, the proof can be found in [1, Proposition 2.1.3].
(21GBP14) Obviously, \mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{J},
(21GBP15) Suppose S, which has no identity, induces equivalences \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{D}, \cdots, and S^1 induces \mathcal{L}', \mathcal{R}', \mathcal{D}', \cdots.
        Then, \mathcal{L}' = \mathcal{L} \sqcup \{(1,1)\}, the same conclusion holds for the remaining equivalences.
     We then can impose a partial order on S/\mathcal{L}, S/\mathcal{R} and S/\mathcal{J}; to be specific,
    \diamond \mathcal{L}(a) \leq \mathcal{L}(b) \Leftrightarrow S^1 a \subset S^1 b,
    \diamond \mathcal{R}(a) < \mathcal{R}(b) \Leftrightarrow aS^1 \subset bS^1,
    \diamond \mathcal{J}(a) < \mathcal{J}(b) \Leftrightarrow S^1 a S^1 \subset S^1 b S^1.
Notice that for all a \in S and x, y \in S^1,
(21GBOP1) \mathcal{L}(xa) \leq \mathcal{L}(a),
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(21GBOP4) 
$$\mathcal{L}(a) \leq \mathcal{L}(b) \vee \mathcal{R}(a) \leq \mathcal{R}(b) \Rightarrow \mathcal{J}(a) \leq \mathcal{J}(b)$$
.

Noticing the property  $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{J}$ , we are naturally led to ask when  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{J}$ , and the book [1] gives the following proposition:

(21GBP21) If S is a group, then  $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{R} = \mathcal{H} = \mathcal{J} = \mathcal{D} = S^2$ .

(21GBP22) If S is a commutative semigroup, then  $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{R} = \mathcal{H} = \mathcal{J} = \mathcal{D}$ .

(21GBP23) If S is a periodic semigroup (21MSD5), then  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{J}$  (see Proposition 2.1.4).

(21GBP24) If S is a semigroup, and both  $S/\mathcal{L}$  and  $S/\mathcal{R}$  as partial ordered sets satisfy the minimal condition (21LTC4), then  $\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{J}$  (see Proposition 2.1.5).

Note that in the procedure of proving (21GBP24), we have to verify that if  $S/\mathcal{L}$  possess minimal condition then so does  $S^1/\mathcal{L}'$ , where  $\mathcal{L}'$  is originated from semigroup  $S^1$ , and that  $\mathcal{D}' = \mathcal{J}' \Rightarrow \mathcal{D} = \mathcal{J}$ . As for the former, let U' be any subset of  $S^1/\mathcal{L}'$ , then  $U' = \{\mathcal{L}'(a) : a \in A \land A \subset S^1\}$ . According to (21GBP15), we obtain that  $a \neq 1 \Rightarrow \mathcal{L}'(a) = \mathcal{L}(a)$  and  $a \in S \Rightarrow \mathcal{L}'(a) = \mathcal{L}(a)$ , thus, let  $U = \{\mathcal{L}(a) : a \in A \setminus \{1\}\} \subset S/\mathcal{L}$ , clearly it contains a minimal element  $\mathcal{L}(m)$ , which is also the minimal element of U'.

#### 2.2 The $\mathcal{D}$ -Classes

Here are some properties of  $\mathcal{D}$ -Classes:

(22CDP1) 
$$\forall x \in \mathcal{D}(a) \Rightarrow \mathcal{L}(x) \subset \mathcal{D}(a) \land \mathcal{R}(x) \subset \mathcal{D}(a) \Rightarrow \mathcal{H}(x) \subset \mathcal{D}(a).$$

(22CDP2) 
$$\mathcal{D}(a) = \bigcup_{t \in \mathcal{R}(a)} \mathcal{L}(t) = \bigcup_{t \in \mathcal{D}(a)} \mathcal{L}(t) = \bigcup_{t \in \mathcal{L}(a)} \mathcal{R}(t) = \bigcup_{t \in \mathcal{D}(a)} \mathcal{R}(t).$$

(22CDP3) 
$$a\mathcal{D}b \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(a) \cap \mathcal{L}(b) \neq \varnothing \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}(b) \cap \mathcal{L}(a) \neq \varnothing$$
.

(22CDP4) The intersection of an  $\mathcal{L}$ -class and an  $\mathcal{R}$ -class is either  $\emptyset$  or a  $\mathcal{H}$ -class, conversely any  $\mathcal{H}$ -class is a intersection of an  $\mathcal{L}$ -class and an  $\mathcal{R}$ -class.

(22CDP5) Suppose 
$$S = \bigsqcup_{i \in I} \mathcal{L}_i = \bigsqcup_{i \in I} \mathcal{R}_i$$
, then  $S = \bigsqcup_{(i,j) \in I \times I} \mathcal{L}_i \cap \mathcal{R}_j$ .

Notice that the data  $(\mathcal{L}_i \cap \mathcal{R}_j)_{(i,j) \in I \times J}$  exhausts all  $\mathcal{H}$ -classes. Moreover, this partition of set S is always described as a table, each cell is either empty or an  $\mathcal{H}$ -class.

	$\mathcal{L}_1$	$\mathcal{L}_2$
$\mathcal{R}_1$		
$\mathcal{R}_2$		

The following result is usually known as Green's Lemma. We denote by  $\rho_s$  the mapping  $x \mapsto xs$ , and by  $\lambda_s$  the mapping  $x \mapsto sx$ .

(22GLM1) Suppose  $a\mathcal{R}b$ , there exists  $s, s' \in S^1$  such that as = b and bs' = a, then,

$$\diamond \quad \mathcal{L}(a) \xleftarrow{\rho_s} \mathcal{L}(b) = \mathrm{id},$$

 $\diamond \ \forall x, x' \in \mathcal{L}(a)$ , we have  $x\mathcal{R}sx$ ,  $x\mathcal{R}x' \Rightarrow xs\mathcal{R}x's$  and  $x\mathcal{L}x' \Rightarrow xs\mathcal{L}x's$ ,

$$\diamond \ \forall x \in \mathcal{L}(a), \ \mathcal{H}(x) \xrightarrow{1:1} \mathcal{H}(xs).$$

(22GLM2) Suppose  $a\mathcal{L}b$ , then there exists  $s, s' \in S^1$  such that sa = b and s'b = a, we obtain

$$\diamond \quad \mathcal{R}(a) \stackrel{\lambda_s}{\longleftrightarrow} \mathcal{R}(b) = \mathrm{id},$$

 $\diamond \ \forall x, x' \in \mathcal{R}(a)$ , we have  $x\mathcal{L}xs$ ,  $x\mathcal{L}x' \Rightarrow sx\mathcal{L}sx'$  and  $x\mathcal{R}x' \Rightarrow sx\mathcal{R}sx'$ ,

$$\diamond \ \forall x \in \mathcal{R}(a), \ \mathcal{H}(x) \xrightarrow{1:1} \mathcal{H}(sx).$$

Based on this, we have some corollaries:

(22GLMC1) 
$$a\mathcal{D}b \Rightarrow |\mathcal{H}(a)| = |\mathcal{H}(b)|,$$

$$(22\mathsf{GLMC2}) \ \ xy \in \mathcal{H}(x) \Rightarrow xy\mathcal{R}x \Rightarrow xy = u \land uv = x \Rightarrow x\mathcal{R}u \Rightarrow \mathcal{H}(x) \xrightarrow{\rho_y} \mathcal{H}(xy) = \mathcal{H}(x),$$

(22GLMC3) 
$$xy \in \mathcal{H}(y) \Rightarrow xy\mathcal{L}y \Rightarrow xy = u \land vu = y \Rightarrow y\mathcal{L}u \Rightarrow \mathcal{H}(y) \xrightarrow{\lambda_x} \mathcal{H}(xy) = \mathcal{H}(y).$$

(22GLMC4) (Green's Lemma) If H is an  $\mathcal{H}$ -class in a semigroup S, then either  $H^2 \cap H = \emptyset$  or  $H^2 = H$  and H is a subgroup of S.

(22GLMC5) If e is an idempotent, then  $\mathcal{H}(e)$  is a subgroup. No  $\mathcal{H}$ -class can contain more than one idempotent.

# Bibliography

[1] John M Howie. Fundamentals of Semigroup Theory. Oxford University Press, 1995.