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ON A PROBLEM OF G-PART OF BCI-ALGEBRAS

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In this note, we first give a positive answer of the following open problem in [5]:

Does the inverse of [5; Theorem 10] hold?

Next, for any subalgebra S of a BCI-algebra X, we obtain a number of statements, each of which is equivalent to that

$$L(S) = \{x \in S : x = 0 * (0 * x)\}$$

is an ideal of X. Finally, we give some of other characterizations of KL-product BCI-algebras as a complement of [6] and [8].

The set L(X) of all atoms in a BCI-algebra X is a p-semisimple subalgebra of X; hence it is said to be p-semisimple part of X. But it, in general, may not be an ideal of X. W. P. Huang [2] and J. Meng and X. L. Xin [8] considered the question that in order that L(X) is an ideal of X, what condition does X satisfy? To be motivated by [2], Y. B. Jun and E. H. Roh [5] investigated the G-part of a BCI-algebra X and proved the following.

"THEOREM 10". If S is a subalgebra of X and $G(S) = \{x \in S : 0 * x = x\}$ an ideal of X, then for any $x, y \in B(X)$ and for any $a, b \in G(S)$,

x * a = y * b implies x = y and a = b.

In [5], they posed the open problem:

(JR) Does the inverse of "Theorem 10" hold?

In this note, one of our mainly aims is to give a positive answer to this problem. Following the idea of [5] we will also discuss that for a subalgebra S of X, what is the condition under which

$$L(S) = \{x \in S : x = 0 * (0 * x)\}$$

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is an ideal of X?

Throughout this paper, X will always mean a BCI-algebra without further explanation. We need to review some definitions and results for the development of this paper.

By a BCI-algebra we mean an abstract algebra (X; *, 0) of type (2, 0) satisfying the following conditions:

BCI-1 ((x * y) * (x * z)) * (z * y) = 0;BCI-2 (x * (x * y)) * y = 0;BCI-3 x * x = 0;BCI-4 x * y = 0 and y * x = 0 imply x = y.A BCI-algebra X satisfying BCK-5 0 * x = 0 for all x in X

is said to be a BCK-algebra.

In a BCI-algebra X we can define an ordering relation \leq by putting $x \leq y$ if and only if x * y = 0.

For a BCI-algebra X we have

(1) x * 0 = x,

(2)
$$(x * y) * z = (x * z) * y$$
,

- (3) ((x * z) * (y * z)) * (x * y) = 0,
- (4) 0 * (x * y) = (0 * x) * (0 * y).

In this note, we would use these results at several different occasions, however, we would not mention them explicity.

A BCI-algebra X is said to be associative ([1]) if it satisfies

(5) (x * y) * z = x * (y * z).

In an associative BCI-algebra, the following identities hold:

- (6) 0 * x = x,
- (7) x * y = y * x.

The set $B(X) = \{x \in X : 0 * x = 0\}$ is called the BCK-part of X; clearly, $0 \in B(X)$ and (B(X); *, 0) is a BCK-subalgebra of X. In general, $B(X) \neq \{0\}$; if $B(X) = \{0\}$, then X is said to be p-semisimple([10]). In our joint paper [7], we investigated atoms in a BCI-algebra.

DEFINITION 1 ([7]). An element a of X is called to be an atom of X if, for any $x \in X$,

(8) x * a = 0 implies x = a.

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The set of all the atoms is denoted by L(X), which is also called the p-semisimple part of X. For any $a \in L(X)$, the set

$$V(a) = \{ x \in X : a * x = 0 \}$$

is said to be a branch of X.

We will need the following (see [7] and [10]):

- (9) $a \in X$ is an atom iff a = x * (x * a) for any x in X;
- (10) L(X) is a subalgebra of X, that is, $a, b \in L(X)$ imply $a * b \in L(X)$;
- (11) If $a, b \in L(X)$, then for any $x \in V(a)$ and $y \in V(b)$, we have $x * y \in V(a * b)$;
- (12) If x, y belong to the same branch, then $x * y \in B(X)$;
- (13) For any $x \in V(a)$ and any $b \in L(X)$, b * x = b * a;
- (14) For all $x \in X$, $0 * x \in L(X)$.

DEFINITION 2 ([3]). A nonempty subset I of X is called an ideal if it satisfies

- (i) $0 \in I$,
- (ii) $x * y \in I$ and $y \in I$ imply $x \in I$.

The set of all the ideals of X is denoted by $\mathcal{I}(X)$. The set of all subalgebras of X is denoted by Sub(X). In general, a subalgebra need not be an ideal. But T. D. Lei and C. C. Xi proved

LEMMA 3 ([10]). Suppose X is a p-semisimple BCI-algebra, then $Sub(X) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(X)$.

Y. B. Jun and E. H. Roh [5] investigated the G-part of X.

DEFINITION 4 ([5]). For any subset S of X, define

$$G(S) = \{x \in S : 0 * x = x\}.$$

In particular, if S = X then we call G(X) the G-part of X.

LEMMA 5 ([5]). If $S \in Sub(X)$ then $G(S) \in Sub(X)$.

The following corollary is obvious.

COROLLARY 6. If $S \in Sub(X)$, then G(S) is an associative subalgebra of L(X), in particular, G(X) is an associative subalgebra of L(X).

Now we have all the background needed to solve the problem (JR).

THEOREM 7. Let $S \in Sub(X)$. Then the following are equivalent: (15) $G(S) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$; (16) for any $x, y \in B(X)$ and for any $a, b \in G(S)$

x * a = y * b implies x = y and a = b;

(17) for any $x, y \in B(X)$ and for any $a \in G(S)$

x * a = y * a implies x = y;

(18) for any $x \in B(X)$ and any $a \in G(S)$

$$x * a = 0 * a$$
 implies $x = 0$.

Proof. $(15) \Rightarrow (16)$. See [5; Theorem 10]. (16) $\Rightarrow (17) \Rightarrow (18)$ are trivial.

(18) \Rightarrow (15). Assume $x * b \in G(S)$ and $b \in G(S)$. Denote a = 0 * (0 * x), then $a \in L(X)$. By (11) we have $x * b \in V(a * b)$, that is, $a * b \leq x * b \in G(S)$. By (8), x * b = a * b. Thus

$$(x * a) * b = (x * b) * a = (a * b) * a = (a * a) * b = 0 * b.$$

Observe $x * a \in B(X)$ by (12), then using (18) we have x * a = 0, and so x = a by (8). Hence $x * b \in G(S)$, $b \in G(S)$ and $x \in L(X)$. By combining Corollary 6 and Lemma 3 we know that G(S) is an ideal of L(X), it follows that $x \in G(S)$. This says that $G(S) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$, proving the theorem.

The implication (16) \Rightarrow (15) gives a positive answer of the problem (JR). Below we will give further results.

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THEOREM 8. If $S \in Sub(X)$, then the following are equivalent: (15) $G(S) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$, (19) for any $x, y \in X$ and for any $a \in G(S)$,

$$x * a = y * a$$
 implies $x = y$,

(20) for any $x \in X$ and for any $a, b \in G(S)$,

$$x * a = b * a$$
 implies $x = b$,

(21) for any $x \in X$ and for any $a \in G(S)$

$$x * a = 0 * a$$
 implies $x = 0$.

Proof. (15) \Rightarrow (19). Suppose $G(S) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ and x * a = y * a where $r, y \in X$ and $a \in G(S)$, then

$$(x*y)*a = (x*a)*y = (y*a)*y = (y*y)*a = 0*a \in G(S),$$

and so $x * y \in G(S)$ by (15). Hence by (9) and (7)

$$x * y = a * (a * (x * y)) = a * ((x * y) * a) = a * (0 * a) = a * a = 0.$$

In the same argument, we have y * x = 0. Therefore x = y, (19) holds. (19) \Rightarrow (20) \Rightarrow (21) are trivial.

 $(21) \Rightarrow (15)$. Obviously, $(21) \Rightarrow (18)$. Combining Theorem 7 we know that (15) is true. The proof is complete.

THEOREM 9. For a subalgebra S of X, $G(S) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ if and only if, for any $x \in X$ and for any $b \in G(S)$ (22) x = (x * b) * (0 * b).

Proof. Suppose $G(S) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ and $b \in G(S)$. For any $x \in X$, by (14) and (9) we have

$$(x * ((x * b) * (0 * b))) * b = (x * b) * ((x * b) * (0 * b)) = 0 * b,$$

hence by (21)

$$x * ((x * b) * (0 * b)) = 0.$$

On the other hand,

$$((x * b) * (0 * b)) * x = ((x * x) * b) * (0 * b) = (0 * b) * (0 * b) = 0.$$

Thus x = (x * b) * (0 * b), namely, (22) holds.

Conversely, suppose (22) holds and $x * b \in G(S)$, $b \in G(S)$. Observe $0 * b \in G(S)$, we have

$$x = (x \ast b) \ast (0 \ast b) \in G(S),$$

which says $G(S) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$. The proof is complete.

THEOREM 10. Suppose $S \in Sub(X)$. Then $G(S) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ if and only if, for any $x, y \in X$ and for any $a, b \in G(S)$, (22) (x + s) + (x + b) = (x + c) + (x + b)

(23) (x * a) * (y * b) = (x * y) * (a * b).

Proof. Suppose $G(S) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$. Let $a, b \in G(S)$. Then for any $x, y \in X$

$$(((x * y) * (a * b)) * ((x * a) * (y * b))) * a$$

= (((x * a) * (a * b)) * ((x * a) * (y * b))) * y
 $\leq ((y * b) * (a * b)) * y$
 $\leq (y * a) * y$
= 0 * a,

and by (8),

$$(((x*y)*(a*b))*((x*a)*(y*b)))*a = 0*a.$$

Using (21) we obtain

(24) ((x * y) * (a * b)) * ((x * a) * (y * b)) = 0.On the other hand,

$$(((x * a) * (y * b)) * ((x * y) * (a * b))) * (a * b)$$

= (((x * (a * b)) * (y * b)) * ((x * y) * (a * b))) * a
= (((x * (a * b)) * ((x * y) * (a * b))) * (y * b)) * a
\leq ((x * (x * y)) * (y * b)) * a
\leq (y * (y * b)) * a
\leq b * a
= 0 * (a * b);

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hence

$$(((x * a) * (y * b)) * ((x * y) * (a * b))) * (a * b) = 0 * (a * b).$$

By (21) we have

(25) ((x * a) * (y * b)) * ((x * y) * (a * b)) = 0.Combining (24) and (25) we obtain

$$(x * a) * (y * b) = (x * y) * (a * b),$$

(23) holds.

Conversely, suppose (23) holds. If x * a = y * a where $x, y \in X$ and $a \in G(S)$, then by (23)

$$x * y = (x * y) * (a * a) = (x * a) * (y * a) = 0.$$

Likewise we have y * x = 0, and so x = y. This shows that (19) holds. By Theorem 8, $G(S) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$. The proof is complete.

Observe that if X is quasi-associative([11]), then G(X) = L(X), hence from Theorems 7-10 we have

COROLLARY 11. If X is a quasi-associative BCI-algebra, then the following are equivalent:

(26) $L(X) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$, (27) for any $x, y \in B(X)$ and for any $a, b \in L(X)$

x * a = y * b implies x = y and a = b,

(28) for any $x, y \in B(X)$ and for any $a \in L(X)$

$$x * a = y * a$$
 implies $x = y$,

(29) for any $x \in B(X)$ and any $a \in L(X)$

$$x * a = 0 * a$$
 implies $x = 0$,

(30) for any $x, y \in X$ and for any $a \in L(X)$

$$x * a = y * a$$
 implies $x = y$,

(31) for any $x \in X$ and for any $a, b \in L(X)$

x * a = b * a implies x = b,

(32) for any $x \in X$ and for any $a \in L(X)$

x * a = 0 * a implies x = 0,

(33) for any $x \in X$ and for any $a \in L(X)$

$$x = (x \ast a) \ast (0 \ast a),$$

(34) for any $x, y \in X$ and for any $a, b \in L(X)$

$$(x * a) * (y * b) = (x * y) * (a * b).$$

For a subset S of X, denote

$$L(S) = \{x \in S : x = 0 * (0 * x)\};\$$

in particular, when S = X, L(X) is precisely the set of all atoms of X. If $S \in Sub(X)$ then $L(S) \in Sub(L(X))$; if $L(S) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ then $L(S) \in \mathcal{I}(L(X))$. To be motivated by Theorem 7, a natural question arises: does the similar results for L(S) hold? In what follows we respond this question.

THEOREM 12. Let $S \in Sub(X)$. Then the following are equivalent: (35) $L(S) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$, (36) for any $x \in X$ and for any $a, b \in L(S)$

x * b = a * b implies x = a,

(37) for any $x \in X$ and $a \in L(S)$

x * a = 0 * a implies x = 0,

(38) for any $x, y \in X$ and for any $a \in L(S)$

$$x * a = y * a$$
 implies $x = y$,

(39) for any x, y ∈ B(X) and for any a, b ∈ L(S) x * a = y * b implies x = y and a = b,
(40) for any x, y ∈ B(X) and for any a ∈ L(S) x * a = y * a implies x = y,
(41) for any x ∈ B(X) and for any a ∈ L(S) x * a = 0 * a implies x = 0.

Proof. (35) \Rightarrow (36). Suppose $L(S) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$. If $a, b \in L(S)$ then $a * b \in L(S)$ as $L(S) \in Sub(X)$. Hence for any $x \in X$, x * b = a * b implies $x * b \in L(S)$, and furthermore, $x \in L(S)$. Thus by (9) and (13),

$$x = b * (b * x) = b * (0 * (x * b)) = b * (0 * (a * b)) = b * (b * a) = a,$$

namely, (36) holds.

(36) \Rightarrow (37). It is immediate as $0 \in L(S)$.

 $(37) \Rightarrow (38)$. Suppose (37) holds and let x * a = y * a where $x, y \in X$ and $a \in L(S)$, then

$$(x * y) * a = (y * a) * y = 0 * a.$$

By (37), x * y = 0. Likewise for y * x = 0. Hence x = y. (38) is true.

 $(38) \Rightarrow (39)$. Let x * a = y * b where $x, y \in B(X)$ and $a, b \in L(S)$. Clearly, 0 * x = 0 * y = 0. By (9) and (4)

$$a = 0*(0*a) = (0*x)*(0*a) = 0*(x*a) = (0*y)*(0*b) = 0*(0*b) = b.$$

Thus x * a = y * a where $a \in L(S)$. (39) follows from (38).

 $(39) \Rightarrow (40) \Rightarrow (41)$ are trivial.

 $(41) \Rightarrow (35)$. Suppose $x * a \in L(S)$ and $a \in L(S)$. By (11) x * a = b * a where $b = 0 * (0 * x) \in L(X)$. Hence (x * b) * a = 0 * a. Since $x * b \in B(X)$ by (12), we have x * b = 0 by (41), and so x = b. This says $x \in L(X)$. Observe that $L(S) \in Sub(L(X))$, hence by Lemma 3 we have $L(S) \in \mathcal{I}(L(X))$. Thus $x * a \in L(S)$ and $a \in L(S)$ imply $x \in L(S)$ since $x \in L(X)$, that is, $L(S) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$. The proof is complete.

DEFINITION 13 ([8]). A BCI-algebra X is said to be of KL-product if there exist a BCK-algebra Y and a p-semisimple BCI-algebra Z such that $X \cong Y \times Z$.

In the setting of S = X, we put Theorem 12, [8; Theorems 1 and 3] and [6; Theorems 5, 6 and 7] together to obtain

THEOREM 14. In a BCI-algebra X, the following are equivalent: (42) $L(X) \in \mathcal{I}(X)$, (43) for any $x \in X$ and for any $a, b \in L(X)$ x * b = a * b implies x = a, (44) for any $x \in X$ and $a \in L(X)$ x * a = 0 * a implies x = 0, (45) for any $x, y \in X$ and for any $a \in L(X)$ x * a = y * a implies x = y, (46) for any $x, y \in B(X)$ and for any $a, b \in L(X)$ x * a = y * b implies x = y and a = b, (47) for any $x, y \in B(X)$ and for any $a \in L(X)$ x * a = y * a implies x = y, (48) for any $x \in B(X)$ and for any $a \in L(X)$ x * a = 0 * a implies x = 0, (49) X is of KL-product, (50) for any $x \in X$ and for any $a \in L(X)$ x = (x * a) * (0 * a),(51) for any $x, y \in X$ and for any $a, b \in L(X)$ (x * a) * (y * b) = (x * y) * (a * b),(52) there exists an endomorphism f on X such that for any $a \in$ $L(X), f|_{V(a)}$, the restriction of f to V(a), is a bijection from

V(a) onto B(X). REMARK. The statement (42) \Rightarrow (46) is precisely W. P. Huang [2; Theorem 1].

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