

L-UP AND MIRROR ALGEBRAS

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ABSTRACT. In this paper we consider several families of abstract algebras including the well-known *BCK*-algebras and several larger classes including the class of *d*-algebras which is a generalization of *BCK*-algebras. For these algebras it is usually difficult and often impossible to obtain a complementation operation and the associated “de Morgan’s laws”. In this paper we construct a “mirror image” of a given algebra which when adjoined to the original algebra permit a natural complementation to take place. The class of *BCK*-algebras is not closed under this operation but the class of *d*-algebras is, thus explaining why it may be better to work with this class rather than the class of *BCK*-algebras. Other classes of interest in this setting are also discussed.

1. INTRODUCTION.

Y. Imai and K. Iséki introduced two classes of abstract algebras: *BCK*-algebras and *BCI*-algebras ([3, 4]). It is known that the class of *BCK*-algebras is a proper subclass of the class of *BCI*-algebras. In [1, 2] Q. P. Hu and X. Li introduced a wide class of abstract algebras: *BCH*-algebras. They have shown that the class of *BCI*-algebras is a proper subclass of the class of *BCH*-algebras. The present authors ([7]) introduced the notion of *d*-algebras which is another useful generalization of *BCK*-algebras, and then they investigated several relations between *d*-algebras and *BCK*-algebras as well as some other interesting relations between *d*-algebras and oriented digraphs. Recently, Y. B. Jun, E. H. Roh and H. S. Kim ([5]) introduced a new notion, called an *BH*-algebra, which is a generalization of *BCH/BCI/BCK*-algebras, and defined the notions of ideals and boundedness in *BH*-algebras, and showed that there is a maximal ideal in bounded *BH*-algebras. Furthermore, they constructed the quotient *BH*-algebras via translation ideals and obtained the fundamental theorem of homomorphisms for *BH*-algebras as a consequence. The present authors ([8]) gave an analytic method for constructing proper examples of a great variety of non-associative algebras of the *BCK*-type and generalizations of these. In this paper we consider several families of abstract algebras including the well-known *BCK*-algebras and several larger classes including the class of *d*-algebras which is a generalization of *BCK*-algebras. For these algebras it is usually difficult and often impossible to obtain a complementation operation and the associated “de Morgan’s laws”. In this paper we construct a “mirror image” of a given algebra which when adjoined to the original algebra permit a natural complementation to take place. The class of *BCK*-algebras is not closed under this operation but the class of *d*-algebras is, thus explaining why it may be better to work with this class rather than the class of *BCK*-algebras. Other classes of interest in this setting are also discussed.

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2. UP ALGEBRAS.

Suppose that $(X; *, 0)$ is an algebra of type $(2,0)$ with T a subset of the following axioms:

- (I) $x * x = 0$,
 - (II) $0 * x = 0$,
 - (III) $x * y = 0$ and $y * x = 0$ imply $x = y$
 - (IV) $x * 0 = x$,
 - (V) $(x * y) * z = (x * z) * y$,
 - (VI) $(x * (x * y)) * y = 0$,
 - (VII) $((x * y) * (x * z)) * (z * y) = 0$,
 - (VIII) $x * y = 0 \Rightarrow x * (y * x) = x$,
- for any x, y, z in X .

In such a case we shall refer to $(X; *, 0)$ as a T -algebra. Using this device, we observe that we can deal simultaneously with statements concerning different classes of algebras. Indeed, note that included are:

- (1) d -algebra, when $T_1 = \{\text{(I), (II), (III)}\}$,
- (2) BH -algebra, when $T_2 = \{\text{(I), (II), (IV)}\}$,
- (3) $d - BH$ -algebra, when $T_3 = T_1 \cup T_2$,
- (4) BCH -algebra, when $T_4 = \{\text{(I), (III), (V)}\}$,
- (5) BCI -algebra, when $T_5 = \{\text{(I), (III), (VI), (VII)}\}$,
- (6) BCK -algebra, when $T_6 = \{\text{(I), (II), (III), (VI), (VII)}\}$.

The axioms for BCK -algebras are known to be independent ([6]). The following examples demonstrate further differences among classes of T_i -algebras for $i = 1, \dots, 6$.

Example 2.1. Let $X := \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ be a set with the following table:

*	0	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
2	2	2	0	3
3	3	3	1	0

It is easy to verify that $(X; *, 0)$ is a $d - BH$ -algebra, but not a BCH -algebra, since $(2 * 3) * 2 = 1 \neq 0 = (2 * 2) * 3$.

Example 2.2. Let $X = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ be a set with the following tables:

* ₁	0	1	2	3		* ₂	0	1	2	3
0	0	3	0	2		0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	0		1	1	0	0	0
2	2	2	0	3		2	2	2	0	3
3	3	3	1	0		3	2	3	1	0

Then $(X; *_{1}, 0)$ is a BH -algebra, but not a d -algebra. At the same time, $(X; *_{2}, 0)$ is a d -algebra, but not a BH -algebra.

We introduce the following notations:

$$(x \wedge y)_L = x * (x * y)$$

and

$$(x \wedge y)_R = y * (y * x)$$

noting that in many situations, e.g., in Boolean algebras, $(x \wedge y)_L = (x \wedge y)_R = x \wedge y$ when $x * y = x - y$ is the difference of sets. However, the relation $(x \wedge y)_L = (x \wedge y)_R$ does not hold in general, as follows from the example below:

Example 2.3. Let $X := \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ be a set with the following table:

*	0	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	1
2	2	2	0	0
3	3	3	1	0

Then $(X; *, 0)$ is a d -algebra, and $(3 \wedge 2)_L = 3$, but $(3 \wedge 2)_R = 2$.

Given a T -algebra $(X; *, 0)$, it is said to be a *left* (resp., *right*) L -up algebra if there is defined an operation $(x \vee y)_L$ such that $(x \wedge (x \vee y)_L)_L = x$ (resp., $((x \vee y)_L \wedge y)_L = y$) for any $x, y \in X$. An L -up algebra is both a left L -up algebra and a right L -up algebra. Similarly, $(X; *, 0)$ is said to be a *left* (resp., *right*) R -up algebra if there is defined an operation $(x \vee y)_R$ such that $(x \wedge (x \vee y)_R)_R = x$ (resp., $((x \vee y)_R \wedge y)_R = y$) for any $x, y \in X$. An R -up algebra is both a left R -up algebra and a right R -up algebra. An algebra $(X; *, 0)$ is a *dual L-up algebra* if $((x \vee y)_L \wedge x)_L = x$ and $(y \wedge (x \vee y)_L)_L = y$, for any $x, y \in X$. An algebra $(X; *, 0)$ is said to be a *dual R-up algebra* if $((x \vee y)_R)_R = x$ and $(y \wedge (x \vee y)_R)_R = y$, for any $x, y \in X$. We observe several possibilities at work. First, note that $(x \wedge y)_L = x * (x * y) = (y \wedge x)_R$ in all cases. Now suppose that $(x \vee y)_L$ or $(x \vee y)_R$ have been obtained in some way. Then we define “conjugate symmetries” as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} (x \overset{0}{\vee} y)_L &:= (x \vee y)_L, & (x \overset{0}{\vee} y)_R &:= (x \vee y)_R; \\ (x \overset{1}{\vee} y)_L &:= (y \vee x)_L, & (x \overset{1}{\vee} y)_R &:= (y \vee x)_R; \\ (x \overset{2}{\vee} y)_L &:= (x \vee y)_R, & (x \overset{2}{\vee} y)_R &:= (x \vee y)_L; \\ (x \overset{3}{\vee} y)_L &:= (y \vee x)_R, & (x \overset{3}{\vee} y)_R &:= (y \vee x)_L; \end{aligned}$$

We construct a table for computation of conjugate symmetries as $(x \overset{12}{\vee} y)_L = (y \overset{1}{\vee} x)_L = (y \vee x)_R = (x \overset{2}{\vee} y)_L$, $(x \overset{12}{\vee} y)_R = (y \overset{2}{\vee} x)_R = (y \vee x)_L = (x \overset{3}{\vee} y)_R$, i.e., $\overset{1}{\vee} \cdot \overset{2}{\vee} = \overset{12}{\vee} = \overset{3}{\vee}$ in this “multiplication” to obtain the Klein 4-group as follows:

·	$\overset{0}{\vee}$	$\overset{1}{\vee}$	$\overset{2}{\vee}$	$\overset{3}{\vee}$
$\overset{0}{\vee}$	$\overset{0}{\vee}$	$\overset{1}{\vee}$	$\overset{2}{\vee}$	$\overset{3}{\vee}$
$\overset{1}{\vee}$	$\overset{1}{\vee}$	$\overset{0}{\vee}$	$\overset{3}{\vee}$	$\overset{2}{\vee}$
$\overset{2}{\vee}$	$\overset{2}{\vee}$	$\overset{3}{\vee}$	$\overset{0}{\vee}$	$\overset{1}{\vee}$
$\overset{3}{\vee}$	$\overset{3}{\vee}$	$\overset{2}{\vee}$	$\overset{1}{\vee}$	$\overset{0}{\vee}$

Suppose now that we start with an L -up algebra, i.e.,

$$x = (x \wedge (x \vee y)_L)_L, \quad y = ((x \vee y)_L \wedge y)_L$$

for all $x, y \in X$. If we introduce $\overset{1}{\vee}$, then we obtain:

$$x = (x \wedge (x \overset{1}{\vee} y)_L)_L, \quad y = ((y \overset{1}{\vee} x)_L \wedge y)_L$$

and interchanging the roles of x and y ,

$$x = ((x \overset{1}{\vee} y)_L \wedge x)_L, \quad y = (y \wedge (x \overset{1}{\vee} y)_L)_L,$$

produces a dual L -up algebra. If we introduce $\overset{2}{\vee}$, then we obtain:

$$x = (x \wedge (x \overset{2}{\vee} y)_R)_L, \quad y = ((x \overset{2}{\vee} y)_R \wedge y)_L$$

and thus

$$x = ((x \overset{2}{\vee} y)_R \wedge x)_R, \quad y = (y \wedge (x \overset{2}{\vee} y)_R)_R,$$

which yields a dual R -up algebra. Finally, via the introduction of $\overset{3}{\vee}$ we obtain:

$$x = (x \wedge (x \overset{3}{\vee} y)_R)_L, \quad y = ((x \overset{3}{\vee} y)_R \wedge y)_L,$$

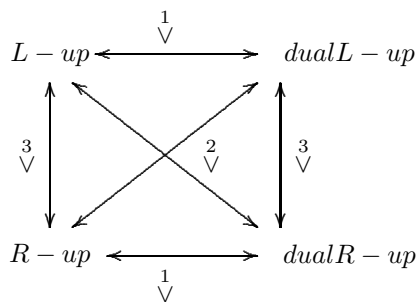
i.e.,

$$x = ((y \overset{3}{\vee} x)_R \wedge x)_R, \quad y = (y \wedge (y \overset{3}{\vee} x)_R)_R,$$

and interchanging the roles of x and y we obtain:

$$x = (x \wedge (x \overset{3}{\vee} y)_R)_R, \quad y = ((x \overset{3}{\vee} y)_R \wedge y)_R,$$

which are precisely the conditions for an R -up algebra. Thus, we may construct a “symmetry diagram”:



This does not mean that an L -up algebra is necessarily an R -up algebra or one of the other types of algebras. On the other hand, theorems and statements for L -up algebras have corresponding statements for R -up, dual L -up and dual R -up algebras via the scheme outlined above.

Proposition 2.4. *Every bounded implicative BCK-algebra is an L-up algebra.*

Proof. Since any bounded implicative BCK-algebra is a Boolean algebra (see [6, pp. 34]), $x \wedge y = \inf\{x, y\}$ and $x \vee y = \sup\{x, y\}$. Hence $x \wedge (x \vee y) = \inf\{x, \sup\{x, y\}\} = x$ and $(x \vee y) \wedge y = \inf\{\sup\{x, y\}, y\} = y$. \square

Example 2.5. Let $X := \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ be a set with the following table:

*	0	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	1
2	2	1	0	0
3	3	3	1	0

Then $(X; *, 0)$ is a BCK-algebra. If we define an \wedge_L -table and an \vee_L -table as follows:

\wedge_L	0	1	2	3	\vee_L	0	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	3
1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3
2	0	1	2	2	2	2	3	2	3
3	0	1	2	3	3	3	3	3	3

then it is an L-up algebra.

Example 2.6. Consider the following BH-algebra, which is not a BCK/BCI-algebra.

*	0	1	2	3
0	0	0	1	1
1	1	0	3	0
2	2	2	0	0
3	3	2	1	0

If we define an \wedge_L -table and an \vee_L -table as follows:

\wedge_L	0	1	2	3	\vee_L	0	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	3
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	3	3
2	0	0	2	2	2	2	3	2	3
3	0	1	2	3	3	3	3	3	3

then $(X; *, 0)$ is an L-up algebra.

3. MIRROR ALGEBRAS

Suppose $(X; *, 0)$ is a T-algebra. Let $M(X) := X \times \{0, 1\}$ and define a binary operation “*” on $M(X)$ as follows:

- (m_1). $(x, 0) * (y, 0) := (x * y, 0)$,
- (m_2). $(x, 1) * (y, 1) := (y * x, 0)$,
- (m_3). $(x, 0) * (y, 1) := ((x \wedge y)_L, 0) = (x * (x * y), 0)$,
- (m_4). $(x, 1) * (y, 0) := \begin{cases} (y, 1) & \text{when } x * y = 0, \\ (x, 1) & \text{when } x * y \neq 0. \end{cases}$

Then we say that $M(X) := (M(X); *, (0, 0))_L$ is a *left mirror algebra* of the T -algebra X . Similarly, if we define

$$(x, 0) * (y, 1) := ((x \wedge y)_R, 0) = (y * (y * x), 0)$$

then $M(X) := (M(X); *, (0, 0))_R$ is a *right mirror algebra* of the T -algebra X .

Example 3.1. Let $X := \{0, 1, 2\}$ be a set with the following table:

$*$	0	1	2
0	0	0	0
1	1	0	1
2	2	2	0

Then we construct the mirror algebra $M(X)$ of X as follows:

$*$	0	a	b	c	d	e
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
a	a	0	c	b	e	d
b	b	0	0	b	b	0
c	c	0	c	0	c	d
d	d	0	d	0	0	d
e	e	0	e	b	e	0

where $0 := (0, 0)$, $a := (0, 1)$, $b := (1, 0)$, $c := (1, 1)$, $d := (2, 0)$ and $e := (2, 1)$.

Proposition 3.2. *If $(X; *, 0)$ is a d -algebra then its mirror algebra $M(X)$ is also a d -algebra.*

Proof. Since $(x, 1) * (y, 0) \in \{(x, 1), (y, 1)\}$, $(x, 1) * (y, 0) = (0, 0) = (y, 0) * (x, 1)$ is impossible. Hence $(x, i) * (y, j) = (y, j) * (x, i) = (0, 0)$ means $i = j$ and thus $x * y = y * x = 0$ so that $x = y$ as well. Hence, the condition (III) for d -algebras holds. Other conditions are easy to be checked, and omit the proof. It follows that $(M(X); *, (0, 0))_L$ is a d -algebra. \square

Similar argument can be used to demonstrate that $(M(X); *, (0, 0))_R$ is also a d -algebra. We can easily prove the following proposition.

Proposition 3.3. *If $(X; *, 0)$ is a d -BH-algebra then its mirror algebra $M(X)$ is also a d -BH-algebra.*

Remark. The mirror algebra $M(X)$ of a BCK -algebra $(X; *, 0)$ need not be a BCK -algebra. Consider a BCK -algebra with the following table:

*	0	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	1
2	2	2	0	2
3	3	3	3	0

Since $[(3, 1) * ((3, 1) * (2, 1))] * (2, 1) = (2 * 3, 0) = (2, 0) \neq (0, 0)$, $M(X)$ is not a *BCK*-algebra. Moreover, the mirror algebra $M(X)$ of a *BCH*-algebra $(X; *, 0)$ need not be a *BCH*-algebra also. Consider a *BCH*-algebra $(X; *, 0)$ which is not a *BCK/BCI*-algebra as follows:

*	0	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	3	3
2	2	0	0	2
3	3	0	0	0

Since $((1, 0) * (3, 0)) * (2, 1) = (3, 0) \neq (0, 0) = ((1, 0) * (2, 1)) * (3, 0)$, its mirror algebra $M(X)$ is not a *BCH*-algebra.

Theorem 3.4. *Let $(X; *, 0)$ be an algebra satisfying at least the conditions (I), (II), (IV), (V) and (VIII). Then its mirror algebra $M(X)$ is a left L-up algebra.*

Proof. Given elements $(x, i), (y, j) \in M(X)$, it is enough to show that $((x, i) \wedge ((x, i) \vee (y, j))_L)_L = (x, i)$, where $i, j \in \{0, 1\}$. We consider 4 cases. Case(1). $i = j = 0$. We assume that the conditions (I) and (IV) hold. If $x * (y * x) = 0$ then $((x, 0) \wedge ((x, 0) \vee (y, 0))_L)_L = ((x, 0) \wedge (y * x, 0))_L = (x, 0) * ((x, 0) * (y * x, 0)) = (x, 0) * (x * (y * x), 0) = (x, 0) * (0, 0) = (x, 0)$. If $x * (y * x) \neq 0$, then $((x, 0) \wedge ((x, 0) \vee (y, 0))_L)_L = ((x, 0) \wedge (x, 0))_L = (x, 0) * ((x, 0) * (x, 0)) = (x, 0) * (x * x, 0) = (x, 0) * (0, 0) = (x, 0)$. Case(2). $i = j = 1$. We assume the conditions (I), (II), (IV) and (V) hold. Then, by routine computation,

$$((x, 1) \wedge ((x, 1) \vee (y, 1))_L)_L = \begin{cases} ((x * (x * y)) * x, 1) & \text{if } x * [(x * (x * y)) * x] = 0, \\ (x, 1) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We know that

$$\begin{aligned} x * [(x * (x * y)) * x] &= x * [(x * x) * (x * y)] && \text{[by (V)]} \\ &= x * (0 * (x * y)) && \text{[by (I)]} \\ &= x * 0 && \text{[by (II)]} \\ &= x. && \text{[by (IV)]} \end{aligned}$$

Hence $((x, 1) \wedge ((x, 1) \vee (y, 1))_L)_L = (x, 1)$ in any cases. Case (3). $i = 1$ and $j = 0$. Assume the conditions (I), (II) and (V) hold. Then

$$\begin{aligned} x * [(x \wedge y)_L * x] &= x * [(x * (x * y)) * x] \\ &= x * ((x * x) * (x * y)) \\ &= x * (0 * (x * y)) \\ &= x. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
 ((x, 1) \wedge ((x, 1) \vee (y, 0))_L)_L &= (x, 1) * ((x \wedge y)_L * x, 0) \\
 &= \begin{cases} ((x \wedge y)_L * x, 1) & \text{if } x * [(x \wedge y)_L * x] = 0, \\ (x, 1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
 &= \begin{cases} ((0 \wedge y)_L * 0, 1) & \text{if } x = 0, \\ (x, 1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
 &= (x, 1).
 \end{aligned}$$

Case (4). $i = 0$ and $j = 1$. Assume the conditions (I), (IV) and (VIII) hold. If $x * y = 0$, then by (VIII) $x = x * (y * x)$, and hence $x * [x * (x * (y * x))] = x * (x * x) = x * 0 = x$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
 ((x, 0) \wedge ((x, 0) \vee (y, 1))_L)_L &= \begin{cases} ((x, 0) \wedge (y * x, 0) & \text{if } x * y = 0, \\ (x, 1) \wedge (0, 1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
 &= \begin{cases} (x * [x * (x * (y * x))], 0) & \text{if } x * y = 0, \\ (x * (x * (x * 0)), 0) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
 &= (x, 0),
 \end{aligned}$$

proving the theorem. \square

Since every implicative *BCK*-algebra satisfies all conditions described in Theorem 3.4, we give the following corollary:

Corollary 3.5. *If $(X; *, 0)$ is an implicative *BCK*-algebra, then its mirror algebra $M(X)$ is a left *L*-up algebra.*

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