## Mathematica Slovaca

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On BF-algebras

Mathematica Slovaca, Vol. 57 (2007), No. 2, [119]--128

Persistent URL: http://dml.cz/dmlcz/136941

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# ON BF-ALGEBRAS 

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#### Abstract

In this paper we introduce the notion of $B F$-algebras, which is a generalization of $B$-algebras. We also introduce the notions of an ideal and a normal ideal in $B F$-algebras. We investigate the properties and characterizations of them.


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## 1. Introduction

The concept of $B$-algebras was introduced by J. Neggers and H. S. Kim [6]. They defined a $B$-algebra as an algebra $(A ; *, 0)$ of type $(2,0)$ (i.e., a nonempty set $A$ with a binary operation $*$ and a constant 0 ) satisfying the following axioms:

```
(B1) \(\quad x * x=0\),
(B2) \(x * 0=x\),
(B) \((x * y) * z=x *[z *(0 * y)]\).
```

In [4], Y. B. Jun, E. H. Roh, and H. S. Kim introduced $B H$-algebras, which are a generalization of $B C K / B C I / B$-algebras. An algebra $(A ; *, 0)$ of type $(2,0)$ is a $B H$-algebra if it obeys (B1), (B2), and
(BH) $\quad x * y=0$ and $y * x=0$ imply $x=y$.
Recently, Ch. B. Kim and H. S. Kim [5] defined a BG-algebra as an algebra $(A ; *, 0)$ of type $(2,0)$ satisfying (B1), (B2), and

$$
\text { (BG) } \quad x=(x * y) *(0 * y)
$$

For other generalizations of $B$-algebras see [11] ( $B Z$-algebras) and [8] ( $\beta$-algebras). Here we define $B F / B F_{1} / B F_{2}$-algebras. We introduce the notions of an

[^0]ideal and a normal ideal in $B F$-algebras. We then consider the propertics and characterizations of them.

## 2. $B F$-algebras

Definition 2.1. A $B F$-algebra is an algebra $(A ; *, 0)$ of type $(2,0)$ satisfying (B1), (B2), and the following axiom:
(BF) $0 *(x * y)=y * x$.
Remark 2.2. If $(A ; *, 0)$ is a $B$-algebra, then it satisfies (BF), (BG), and (BH . For a proof see [9, Proposition 1.5(b)] and [1, Proposition 2.2(ii), Lemma 3.5(i)].

Example 2.3. Let $\mathbb{R}$ be the set of real numbers and let $\mathbf{A} \quad(\mathbb{R} ; *, 0)$ be the algebra with the operation $*$ defined by

$$
x * y= \begin{cases}x & \text { if } y=0 \\ y & \text { if } x=0 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Then $\mathbf{A}$ is a $B F$-algebra.
Example 2.4. Let $A=[0 ;+\infty)(=\{x \in \mathbb{R}: x \geq 0\})$. Define the binary operation $*$ on $A$ as follows:

$$
x * y=|x-y| \quad \text { for all } \quad x, y \in A
$$

Then $(A ; *, 0)$ is a $B F$-algebra.
Proposition 2.5. If $\mathbf{A}=(A ; *, 0)$ is a $B F$-algebra, then
(a) $0 *(0 * x)=x$ for all $x \in A$;
(b) if $0 * x=0 * y$, then $x=y$ for any $x, y \in A$;
(c) if $x * y=0$, then $y * x=0$ for any $x, y \in A$.

Proof. Let A be a $B F$-algebra and $x \in A$. By (BF) and (B2) we obtair $0 *(0 * x)=x * 0=x$, that is, (a) holds. Also (b) follows from (a). Let now $x, y \in A$ and $x * y=0$. Then $0=0 * 0=0 *(x * y)-y * x$. This gives (c).

Proposition 2.6. Any $B F$-algebra $(A ; *, 0)$ that satisfies the identity $(x * z) *$ $(y * z)=x * y$ is a $B$-algebra.

Proof. This follows immediately from Proposition 2.5(a) and [10, Theorem 2.2].

Definition 2.7. A $B F$-algebra is called a $B F_{1}$-algebra (resp. a $B F_{2}$-algebra) if it obeys (BG) (resp. (BH)).

Every $B$-algebra is a $B F_{1} / B F_{2}$-algebra (see Remark 2.2). The $B F$-algebra $(\mathbb{R} ; *, 0)$ given in Example 2.3 is not a $B F_{1}$-algebra, since $(1 * 2) *(0 * 2)=2 \neq 1$. Example 2.4 is a $B F_{2}$-algebra which is not a $B F_{1}$-algebra.

Proposition 2.8. An algebra $\mathbf{A}=(A ; *, 0)$ of type $(2,0)$ is a $B F_{1}$-algebra if and only if it obeys the laws (B1), (BF), and (BG).

Proof. Suppose that (B1), (BF), and (BG) are valid in A. Let $x \in A$. Substituting $y=x$, (BG) becomes $x=(x * x) *(0 * x)$. Hence applying (B1) and (BF) we conclude that $x=0 *(0 * x)=x * 0$. Consequently, (B2) holds. Therefore $\mathbf{A}$ is a $B F_{1}$-algebra. The converse is obvious.

Proposition 2.9. Let $\mathbf{A}=(A ; *, 0)$ be an algebra of type $(2,0)$. Then $\mathbf{A}$ is a $B F_{2}$-algebra if and only if $\mathbf{A}$ satisfies (B2), (BF), and the following axiom:
( $\left.\mathrm{BH}^{\prime}\right) \quad x * y=0 \Longleftrightarrow x=y$.
Proof. Let $\mathbf{A}$ be a $B F_{2}$-algebra. By definition, (B2) and (BF) are valid in A. Suppose that $x * y=0$ for $x, y \in A$. Proposition $2.5(\mathrm{c})$ yields $y * x=0$. From (BH) we see that $x=y$. If $x=y$, then $x * y=0$ by (B1). Thus ( $\mathrm{BH}^{\prime}$ ) holds in $\mathbf{A}$.

Let now A satisfies (B2), (BF), and (BH'). (BH') implies (B1) and (BH). Therefore $\mathbf{A}$ is a $B F_{2}$-algebra.

Theorem 2.10. In a $B F$-algebra $\mathbf{A}$ the following statements are equivalent:
(a) $\mathbf{A}$ is a $B F_{1}$-algebra;
(b) $x=[x *(0 * y)] * y$ for all $x, y \in A$;
(c) $x=y *[(0 * x) *(0 * y)]$ for all $x, y \in A$.

Proof.
(a) $\Longrightarrow$ (b): Let $\mathbf{A}$ be a $B F_{1}$-algebra and $x, y \in A$. To obtain (b), substitute $0 * y$ for $y$ in (BG) and then use Proposition 2.5(a).
$(\mathrm{b}) \Longrightarrow(\mathrm{c})$ : We conclude from (b) that $0 * x=[(0 * x) *(0 * y)] * y$. Hence $0 *(0 * x)=y *[(0 * x) *(0 * y)]$ by $(\mathrm{BF})$. But $0 *(0 * x)=x$, and we have (c).
$(\mathrm{c}) \Longrightarrow$ (a): Let (c) hold. (BF) clearly forces

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 * x=[(0 * x) *(0 * y)] * y \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using (1) with $x=0 * a$ and $y=0 * b$ we have

$$
0 *(0 * a)=[(0 *(0 * a)) *(0 *(0 * b))] *(0 * b)
$$

Hence applying Proposition 2.5(a) we deduce that $a=(a * b) *(0 * b)$. Consequently, $\mathbf{A}$ is a $B F_{1}$-algebra.

Theorem 2.11. Let $\mathbf{A}=(A ; *$. 0$)$ be a $B F$-algebra. Then:
(a) $\mathbf{A}$ is a $B G$-algebra;
(b) For $x, y \in A, x * y=0$ implies $x=y$;
(c) The right cancellation law holds in $\mathbf{A}$, i.e., if $x * y=z * y$, then $x=z$ for any $x, y, z \in A$;
(d) The left cancellation law holds in $\mathbf{A}$, i.e., if $y * x=y * z$, then $x=z$ for any $x, y, z \in A$.

Proof.
(a) is a direct consequence of the definitions.
(b): Let $x, y \in A$ and $x * y=0$. By (BG), $x=(x * y) *(0 * y)=0 *(0 * y)$. From Proposition 2.5(a) we conclude that $x=y$.
(c) is obvious, since the right cancellation law holds in every $B G$-algebra (see [5, Lemma 2.4]).
(d) follows from (c) and (BF).

Proposition 2.12. Every $B F_{1}$-algebra is a $B F_{2}$-algebra. Every $B F_{2}$-algebra satisfying the axiom ( $\mathrm{BG)}$ is a $B F_{1}$-algebra.

Proof. The first statement is a consequence of Theorem 2.11(b). The second part of Proposition 2.12 follows from the definitions.

Theorem 2.13. Let $\mathbf{A}=(A ; *, 0)$ be a $B F_{1}$-algebra. Then $(A ; *)$ is a quasi group.

Proof. Let $\mathbf{A}=(A ; *, 0)$ be a $B F_{1}$-algebra and $x, y \in A$. We take $z_{1}=x *(0 * y$ and $z_{2}=(0 * x) *(0 * y)$. By Theorem 2.10, we have $x=z_{1} * y$ and $x-y * z_{2}$. Now, Theorem 2.11 implies that $(A ; *)$ is a quasigroup.

The interrelationships between some classes of algebras mentioned before are visualized in Figure 1. (An arrow indicates proper inclusion, that is, if $\mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{Y}$ are classes of algebras, then $\mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ means $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathcal{Y}$.) The implications (a and (d) follow easily from the definitions. By [5, Proposition 2.8], we get (e) The implications (b) and (c) follow from Theorem 2.11 and Proposition 2.12, respectively.

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Figure 1

## 3. Ideals in $\boldsymbol{B F}$-algebras

In $B F$-algebras (similarly as in $B C K / B C I / B H$-algebras; see [3], [2], and [4]), we define the notion of an ideal.

From now on, $\mathbf{A}$ always denotes a $B F$-algebra $(A ; *, 0)$.
Definition 3.1. A subset $I$ of $A$ is called an ideal of $\mathbf{A}$ if it satisfies:
$\left(\mathrm{I}_{1}\right) 0 \in I$,
( $\left.\mathrm{I}_{2}\right) x * y \in I$ and $y \in I$ imply $x \in I$ for any $x, y \in A$.
We say that an ideal $I$ of $\mathbf{A}$ is normal if for any $x, y, z \in A, x * y \in I$ implies $(z * x) *(z * y) \in I$.

An ideal $I$ of $\mathbf{A}$ is said to be proper if $I \neq A$.

Obviously, $\{0\}$ and $A$ are ideals of A. $A$ is normal, but $\{0\}$ is not normal m gencral. (See the example below.)
Example 3.2. Let $A=\{0,1,2,3\}$ and $*$ be defined by the following table:

| $*$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| 2 | 2 | 3 | 0 | 2 |
| 3 | 3 | 0 | 2 | 0 |

Then $I=\{0\}$ is not a normal ideal in the $B F$-algebra $(A ; *, 0)$. Indeed, $1 * 3=0 \in I$, but $(2 * 1) *(2 * 3)=3 * 2=2 \notin I$.

Lemma 3.3. Let $I$ be a normal ideal of a $B F$-algebra $\mathbf{A}$ and $x, y \in A$. Then:
(a) $x \in I \Longrightarrow 0 * x \in I$,
(b) $x * y \in I \Longrightarrow y * x \in I$.

Proof.
(a): Let $x \in I$. Then $x=x * 0 \in I$. Since $I$ is normal, $(0 * x) *(0 * 0) \in I$. Hence $0 * x \in I$.
(b): Let $x * y \in I$. $\mathrm{By}(\mathrm{a}), 0 *(x * y) \in I$. Applying (BF) we have $y * x \in I$.

Definition 3.4. A nonempty subset $N$ of $A$ is called a subalgebra of $\mathbf{A}$ if $x * y \in N$ for any $x, y \in N$.

It is easy to see that if $N$ is a subalgebra of $\mathbf{A}$, then $0 \in N$.
Lemma 3.5. Let $N$ be a subalgebra of $\mathbf{A}$ and let $x, y \in A$. If $x * y \in N$, ther $y * x \in N$.

Proof. Let $x * y \in N$. By (BF), $y * x=0 *(x * y)$. Since $0 \in N$ and $x * y \in N$, we see that $0 *(x * y) \in N$. Consequently, $y * x \in N$.

Example 3.6. Let $A=\{0,1,2,3\}$. We define the binary operation $*$ on $A$ a follows:

| $*$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 2 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 3 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 0 |

Then $\mathbf{A}=(A ; *, 0)$ is a $B F$-algebra. The set $N=\{0,1\}$ is a subalgebra of $\mathbf{A}$. $N$ is not an ideal, since $2 * 1=1 \in N$, but $2 \notin N$. It is easy to see that the set $I-\{0,2,3\}$ is an ideal of $\mathbf{A}$, but it is not a subalgebra.

Proposition 3.7. If $I$ is a normal ideal of $\mathbf{A}$, then $I$ is a subalgebra of $\mathbf{A}$ satisfying the following condition:
(NI) if $x \in A$ and $y \in I$, then $x *(x * y) \in I$.
Proof. Let $x \in A$ and $y \in I$. Lemma 3.3(a) shows that $0 * y \in I$. Since $I$ is normal, we conclude that $(x * 0) *(x * y) \in I$, i.e., $x *(x * y) \in I$. Thus (NI) holds. Let now $x, y \in I$. Therefore $x *(x * y) \in I$. By Lemma 3.3(b), $(x * y) * x \in I$. From the definition of ideal we have $x * y \in I$. Thus $I$ is a subalgebra satisfying (NI).

Remark 3.8. The converse of Proposition 3.7 does not hold. Indeed, the subalgebra $\{0,1\}$ of the $B F$-algebra $\mathbf{A}$ (see Example 3.6) satisfies (NI), but it is not an ideal.

In [7], J. Neggers and H. S. Kim introduced the notion of a normal subalgebra of a $B$-algebra. Let $\mathbf{A}=(A ; *, 0)$ be a $B$-algebra and $N$ be a subalgebra of A. $N$ is said to be a normal subalgebra if
(NS) $\quad(x * a) *(y * b) \in N$ for any $x * y, a * b \in N$.
Remark 3.9. In [9], it is proved that if $N$ is a subalgebra of $\mathbf{A}$, then $N$ is normal if and only if $N$ satisfies (NI).

In $B$-algebras the following result holds:
Proposition 3.10. Let A be a $B$-algebra and let $N \subseteq A$. Then $N$ is a normal subalgebra of $\mathbf{A}$ if and only if $N$ is a normal ideal.

Proof. Let $N$ be a normal subalgebra of A. Clearly, $0 \in N$. Suppose that $x * y \in N$ and $y \in N$. Then $0 * y \in N$. Since $N$ is a subalgebra, we have $(x * y) *(0 * y) \in N$. But $(x * y) *(0 * y)=x$, because every $B$-algebra satisfies (BG) (see Remark 2.2). Therefore $x \in N$, and thus $N$ is an ideal. Let now $x, y, z \in A$ and $x * y \in N$. By (NS), $(z * x) *(z * y) \in N$. Consequently, $N$ is normal. The converse follows from Proposition 3.7 and Remark 3.9.

Definition 3.11. Let $\mathbf{A}=\left(A, *, 0_{A}\right)$ and $\mathbf{B}=\left(B, *, 0_{B}\right)$ be $B F$-algebras. A mapping $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ is called a homomorphism from $\mathbf{A}$ into $\mathbf{B}$ if $\varphi(x * y)=$ $\varphi(x) * \varphi(y)$ for any $x, y \in A$.

Observe that $\varphi\left(0_{A}\right)=0_{B}$. Indeed, $\varphi\left(0_{A}\right)=\varphi\left(0_{A} * 0_{A}\right)=\varphi\left(0_{A}\right) * \varphi\left(0_{A}\right)=0_{B}$. We denote by $\operatorname{ker} \varphi$ the subset $\left\{x \in A: \varphi(x)=0_{B}\right\}$ of $A$ (it is the kernel of the homomorphism $\varphi$ ).

Lemma 3.12. Let $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ be a homomorphism from $\mathbf{A}$ into $\mathbf{B}$. Then $\operatorname{ker} \varphi$ is an ideal of $\mathbf{A}$.

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Proof. Obviously, $0_{A} \in \operatorname{ker} \varphi$, that is, $\left(\mathrm{I}_{1}\right)$ holds. Let $x * y \in \operatorname{ker} \varphi$ and $y \in$ $\operatorname{ker} \varphi$. Then $0_{B}=\varphi(x * y)=\varphi(x) * \varphi(y)=\varphi(x) * 0_{B}=\varphi(x)$. Consequently, $x \in \operatorname{ker} \varphi$. Therefore, $\left(\mathrm{I}_{2}\right)$ is satisfied. Thus $I$ is an ideal of $\mathbf{A}$.

The next example shows that the kernel of a homomorphism is not always a normal ideal. Let $\mathbf{A}$ be the algebra given in Example 3.2. Clearly, $\mathrm{id}_{A}: A \rightarrow A$ is a homomorphism and the ideal $\operatorname{ker}\left(\operatorname{id}_{A}\right)=\{0\}$ is not normal.

The example below will demonstrate that there is a homomorphism $\varphi$ of $B F$-algebras with $\operatorname{ker} \varphi=\{0\}$ which it is not one-to-one.

Example 3.13. Let $\mathbf{A}=(A ; *, 0)$ be the $B F$-algebra, where $A=\{0,1,2\}$ and $*$ is given by the table

| $*$ | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 |

Let $\varphi: A \rightarrow A$ be defined by $\varphi(0)=0$ and $\varphi(1)=\varphi(2)=1$. It is obvious that $\varphi$ is not one-to-one, but $\operatorname{ker} \varphi=\{0\}$.
Proposition 3.14. Let $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ be $B F_{2}$-algebras and let $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ be a homomorphism from $\mathbf{A}$ into $\mathbf{B}$. Then:
(a) $\operatorname{ker} \varphi$ is a normal ideal;
(b) $\varphi$ is one-to-one if and only if $\operatorname{ker} \varphi=\left\{0_{A}\right\}$.

## Proof.

(a): By Lemma 3.12, $\operatorname{ker} \varphi$ is an ideal of $\mathbf{A}$. Let $x, y, z \in A$ and $x * y \in \operatorname{ker} \varphi$. Then $0_{B}=\varphi(x * y)=\varphi(x) * \varphi(y)$. From ( $\left.\mathrm{BH}^{\prime}\right)$ it follows that $\varphi(x)=\varphi(y)$. Consequently, $\varphi((z * x) *(z * y))=(\varphi(z) * \varphi(x)) *(\varphi(z) * \varphi(x))=0_{B}$, and hence $(z * x) *(z * y) \in \operatorname{ker} \varphi$.
(b): Obviously, if $\varphi$ is one-to-one, then $\operatorname{ker} \varphi=\left\{0_{A}\right\}$. On the other hand, suppose that $x, y \in A$ and $\varphi(x)=\varphi(y)$. Then $\varphi(x * y)=\varphi(x) * \varphi(y)=$ $\varphi(x) * \varphi(x)=0_{B}$. Hence $x * y \in \operatorname{ker} \varphi=\left\{0_{A}\right\}$, and so $x * y=0_{A}$. By (BH'), $x=y$. Therefore, $\varphi$ is one-to-one.

Next we construct quotient $B F$-algebras via normal ideals. Let $\mathbf{A}=(A ; *, 0)$ be a $B F$-algebra and $I$ be a normal ideal of $\mathbf{A}$. For any $x, y \in A$, we define

$$
x \sim_{I} y \Longleftrightarrow x * y \in I
$$

By $\left(\mathrm{I}_{1}\right), x * x=0 \in I$, that is, $x \sim_{I} x$ for any $x \in A$. This means that $\sim_{I}$ is reflexive. From Lemma 3.3(b) we deduce that $\sim_{I}$ is symmetric. To prove that

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$\sim_{I}$ is transitive, let $x \sim_{I} y$ and $y \sim_{I} z$. Then $x * y \in I$ and $y * z \in I$. Since $I$ is normal,

$$
\begin{equation*}
(z * x) *(z * y) \in I \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
z * y \in I \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

because $y * z \in I$. Hence, we conclude from (2) and (3) that $z * x \in I$, and thus that $x * z \in I$, so that finally $x \sim_{I} z$ as well. Consequently, $\sim_{I}$ is an equivalence relation on $A$.

Theorem 3.15. Let $I$ be a normal ideal of a BF-algebra A. Then $\sim_{I}$ is a congruence relation of $\mathbf{A}$.

Proof. Let $x, y, z, t \in A$. Suppose that $x \sim_{I} y$ and $z \sim_{I} t$. Then $x * y \in I$ and $z * t \in I$. Since $I$ is normal, (2) holds, and hence $[0 *(z * x)] *[0 *(z * y)] \in I$. From (BF) we deduce that $(x * z) *(y * z) \in I$. Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
x * z \sim_{I} y * z \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

As $z * t \in I$ we have $(y * z) *(y * t) \in I$. Therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
y * z \sim_{I} y * t \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (4) and (5) we conclude that $x * z \sim_{I} y * t$. Consequently, $\sim_{I}$ is a congruence relation of $\mathbf{A}$.

Let $I$ be a normal ideal of $\mathbf{A}$. For $x \in A$, we write $x / I$ for the congruence class containing $x$, that is, $x / I=\left\{y \in A: x \sim_{I} y\right\}$. We note that

$$
x \sim_{I} y \quad \text { if and only if } \quad x / I=y / I
$$

Denote $A / I=\{x / I: x \in A\}$ and set $x / I *^{\prime} y / I=x * y / I$. The operation $*^{\prime}$ is well-defined, since $\sim_{I}$ is a congruence relation of $\mathbf{A}$. It is easy to see that $\mathbf{A} / I=\left(A / I, *^{\prime}, 0 / I\right)$ is a $B F$-algebra. The algebra $\mathbf{A} / I$ is called the quotient $B F$-algebra of $\mathbf{A}$ modulo $I$. There is a natural map $\varphi_{I}$, called the quotient map, from $\mathbf{A}$ onto $\mathbf{A} / I$ defined by

$$
\varphi_{I}(x)=x / I \quad \text { for all } \quad x \in A
$$

Clearly, $\varphi_{I}$ is a homomorphism of $\mathbf{A}$ onto $\mathbf{A} / I$. Observe that $\operatorname{ker}\left(\varphi_{I}\right)=I$. Indeed,

$$
x / I=0 / I \Longleftrightarrow x \sim_{I} 0 \Longleftrightarrow x * 0 \in I \Longleftrightarrow x \in I
$$

Theorem 3.16. Let $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ be $B F_{2}$-algebras and let $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ be a homomorphism from $\mathbf{A}$ onto $\mathbf{B}$. Then $\mathbf{A} / \operatorname{ker} \varphi$ is isomorphic to $\mathbf{B}$.

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Proof. By Proposition 3.14(a), $I=\operatorname{ker} \varphi$ is a normal ideal of A. Define a mapping $\psi: A / I \rightarrow B$ by $\psi(x / I)=\varphi(x)$ for all $x \in I$. Let $x / I=y I$. The 1 $x \sim_{I} y$, that is, $x * y \in I$. Hence $\varphi(x) * \varphi(y)=0_{B}$. By ( $\left.\mathrm{BH}^{\prime}\right)$ we have $\varphi(x)-\varphi(y$. Consequently, $\psi(x / I)=\psi(y / I)$. This means that $\psi$ is well defined. It is easy to sce that $\psi$ is a homomorphism from $\mathbf{A} / I$ onto $\mathbf{B}$. Observe that ker $\psi=\left\{0_{A} I\right\}$. Indeed, $x / I \in \operatorname{ker} \psi \Longleftrightarrow \psi(x / I)=0_{B} \Longleftrightarrow \varphi(x)=0_{B} \Longleftrightarrow x \in I \Longleftrightarrow$ $x / I \quad 0_{A} / I$. From Proposition 3.14(b) it follows that $\psi$ is one-to-one. Thus $\psi$ is an isomorphism from $\mathbf{A} / I$ onto $\mathbf{B}$.

Acknowledgement. The author thanks the referee for his remarks which were incorporated into this revised version.

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Received 18.4.2005
Revised 7.6.2005

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[^0]:    2000 Mathematics Subject Classification: Primary 06F35.
    Keywords: $B F / B F_{1} / B F_{2}$-algebra, $B H$-algebra, $B G$-algebra, ideal, normal ideal, subalgebra, quotient $B F$-algebra.

