

## On Quadratic BRK-algebra

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### Abstract

In this paper we introduce the notion of quadratic BRK-algebra which is a medial quasigroup, and obtain that every quadratic BRK-algebra on a field  $X$  with  $|X| \geq 3$ , is a BCI-algebra.

**Keywords:** BCI-algebra, BRK-algebra, quadratic BRK-algebra.

### 1. Introduction

By an algebra  $G = (G, *, 0)$  we mean a non-empty set  $G$  together with a binary multiplication  $(*)$  and a some distinguished element  $0$ .

In 1996, Y. Imai and K. Iseki introduced two classes of abstract algebras: BCK- algebras and BCI- algebras [1,2]. It is known that the class of BCK- algebras is a proper subclass of the class of BCI- algebras. 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. An implication in each BCK- algebra can be define by  $y \rightarrow x = x * y$ . So  $(*)$  can be seen as the dual implication of BCK-logic. J. Neggers and H. S. Kim introduced the notion of d-algebras, which is another useful generalization of BCK-algebras. Y. B. Jun, E. H. Roh and H. S. Kim introduced a new notion, called an BH-algebra, which is a generalization of BCH/BCI/BCK-algebras. J. Neggers, S. S. Ahn and H. S. Kim introduced the notion of a Q-algebra, and generalized some theorems discussed in BCI-algebras. Recently, J. Neggers and H. S. Kim introduced and investigated a class of algebras, called a B-algebra which is related to several interest classes of algebras such as BCH/BCI /BCK-algebras. and which seems to have rather nice. In 2002 Ravi Kumar Bandaru introduced a new notion, called a BRK-algebra, which is a generalization of BCK/BCI/BCH/Q/QS/BM-algebras [1,2,3,4,5].

### 2. Preliminaries

**Definition 2.1.** A BCI-algebra is an algebra  $(G, *, 0)$  of type  $(2,0)$  satisfying the following conditions:

$$(BCI1) \quad ((x * y) * (x * z)) * (z * y) = 0,$$

$$(BCI2) \quad (x * (x * y)) * y = 0,$$

$$(BCI3) \quad x * x = 0,$$

$$(BCI4) \quad x * y = y * x = 0 \text{ implies } x = y,$$

For all  $x, y, z \in G$ .

If a BCI-algebra  $G$  satisfies  $(BCI5) \quad 0 * x = 0$  for all  $x \in G$ , then we say that  $G$  is BCK-algebra. It is known that every BCK-algebra is BCI-algebra but not conversely. On any BCI-algebra  $(G, *, 0)$  we can define the partial order putting  $x \leq y$  if and only if  $x * y = 0$ . A BCI-algebra  $G$  has the following properties:

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

$$x * 0 = x$$

$$x \leq y \rightarrow x * z \leq y * z \text{ and } z * y \leq z * x$$

$$x * 0 = 0 \rightarrow x = 0$$

For elements  $x$  and  $y$  of a BCK-algebra  $G$  we denote  $x \wedge y = y * (y * x)$ . A BCI-algebra is said to be commutative if it satisfies  $x \wedge y = y \wedge x$  for all  $x, y \in G$ . A non-empty subset  $S$  of a BCI-algebra  $G$  is called a BCI-subalgebra of  $G$ , if  $x * y \in S$  whenever  $x, y \in S$ . A non-empty subset  $I$  of a BCI-algebra  $G$  is called an BCI-ideal of  $G$  if it satisfies (i)  $0 \in I$ , (ii)  $x * y \in I$  and  $y \in I$  imply that  $x \in I$ , for all  $x, y \in G$ . The set  $B = \{x \in G : 0 * x = 0\}$  is called the BCK-part of  $G$ .

A B-algebra is a non-empty set  $G$  with a constant  $e$  and a binary operation  $*$  satisfying the following axioms:

$$(i) x * x = e,$$

$$(ii) x * e = x,$$

$$(iii) (x * y) * z = x * (z * (e * y))$$

For all  $x, y, z \in G$ .

**Definition 2.2.** A BRK-algebra is a nonempty set  $G$  with a constant  $0$  and a binary operation  $*$  Satisfying axioms:

$$(BRK1) x * x = 0,$$

$$(BRK2) (x * y) * x = 0 * y,$$

for any  $x, y \in G$ .

**Example 2.3.** Let  $G$  be the set of all real numbers except for a negative integer  $n$ . Define a binary operation  $*$  on  $G$  by

$$x * y = \frac{n(x-y)}{y^{(n+y)}}$$

Then  $(G, *, 0)$  a BRK-algebra with a constant  $0$ .

We know that every BCK-algebra is a BCI-algebra and every BCI-algebra is a BCH-algebra and every BCH-algebra is a Q-algebra. We can observe that every Q-algebra is a BRK-algebra but converse needs not be true. Also we know that every QS-algebra is a BM-algebra and we can observe that every BM-algebra is a BRK-algebra but converses need not be true. J. Neggers, S. S. Ahn and H. S. Kim introduced the notion of Q-algebra, as an algebra  $(G, *, 0)$  satisfying (BCI3) and (BCI6)  $x * 0 = x$  And (BCI7)  $(x * y) * z = (x * z) * y$  for all  $x, y, z \in G$ .

## 2.1 Quadratic BRK-algebras

**Definition 2.4.** Let  $G$  be a field with  $|X| \geq 3$ . An algebra  $(G, *, 0)$  is said to be quadratic if  $x * y$  is defined by  $x * y = a_1x^2 + a_2xy + a_3y^2 + a_4x + a_5y + a_6$ ; where  $a_1, \dots, a_6 \in G$  are fixed. A quadratic algebra  $(G, *, 0)$  is said to be a quadratic BRK-algebra if for some fixed  $0 \in G$  it satisfies the conditions (BRK1), (BRK2).

Similarly, a quadratic algebra  $(G, *, 0)$  is said to be a quadratic Q-algebra if for some fixed  $e \in G$  it satisfies the conditions (i), (ii) and (iii). It is proved that in every quadratic Q-algebra  $(G, *, e)$  the operation  $*$  has the form  $x * y = x - y + e$ . We prove that the similar result is true for quadratic BRK-algebras.

**Theorem 2.5.** Let  $G$  be a field with  $|X| \geq 3$ . Then every quadratic BRK- algebra  $(G, *, e)$ ,  $e \in G$  has the form  $x * y = x - y + e$ ; where  $x, y \in G$ .

**Proof.** Let  $x * y = Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + F$  (1) for some fixed  $A, \dots, F \in G$ . By (i) we have  $e = x * x = (A + B + C)x^2 + (D + E)x + F$  (2)

Let  $x = 0$  in equation (2). Then we obtain  $e = e$ . Hence (1) turns out to be  $x * y = Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + e$  (3). If  $x = y$  in (3), then  $e = x * x = (A + B + C)x^2 + (D + E)x + e$ ; for any  $x \in G$ , and hence we obtain  $A + B + C = D + E = 0$ , i.e.,  $E = -D$  and  $B = -A - C$ . Hence (3) turns out to be  $x * y = (x - y)(Ax - Cy + D) + e$  (4), now let  $y = e$  in (4). Then by (ii) we have  $x = x * e = (x - e)(Ax - Ce + D) + e$ . By this equation we have  $(Ax - Ce + D - 1)(x - e) = 0$ . Since  $G$  is a field, either  $x - e = 0$  or  $Ax - Ce + D - 1 = 0$ . Since  $|X| \geq 3$ , we have  $Ax - Ce + D - 1 = 0$ ; for any  $x \in G$ . This means that  $A = 0$  and  $1 - D + Ce = 0$ . Thus (4) turns out to be  $x * y = (x - y) +$

$C(x - y)(e - y) + e$  (5). To satisfy the condition (iii) we need to determine the constant  $C$ , but its computation is so complicated that we use (iii) instead. If we replace  $e$  by  $x$  and  $x$  by  $y$  respectively in (5), then  $e * x = (e - x) + C(e - x)(e - x) + e$  (6). It follows that  $e * (e * x) = e * [(e - x) + C(e - x)^2 + e] = x - C(e - x)^2 + C(e - x)\{1 + C(e - x)\}^2 = x + C^3(e - x)^4 + 2C^2(e - x)^3$ . Since,  $x = e * (e * x)$ ; we obtain  $C^2(e - x)^3 - Cx + 2 + Ce = 0$ . Since  $G$  is a field with  $|X| \geq 3$ , we obtain  $C = 0$ . This means that every quadratic BRK-algebra  $(G, *, e)$  has the form  $x * y = x - y + e$ ; where  $x, y \in G$ , completing the proof.

It follows from Theorem 2.5 that the quadratic BRK-algebras are medial quasigroups.

**Example 2.6.** Let  $K = \text{GaloisF}(p^n)$  be a Galois field. Define  $x * y = x - y + e$ ,  $e \in K$ . Then  $(K, *, e)$  is a quadratic BRK-algebra.

**Theorem 2.7.** Let  $G$  be a field with  $|X| \geq 3$ , then every quadratic B-algebra on  $G$  is a BCI-algebra.

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