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ABSTRACT. In this paper, we define a Γ -BCI-algebra as a subclass of Γ -BCK-algebras and obtain its various properties. Next, we propose the notion of Γ -ideals and deal with some of its properties. Finally, we study some topological structures on Γ -BCI-algebras and quotient Γ -BCI-algebras respectively.

2020 AMS Classification: 06F35, 54B10, 54B05

Keywords: Γ -BCI-algebra, Γ -ideal, Topological Γ -BCI-algebra, Quotient Γ -BCI-algebra, Topological Quotient Γ -BIK-algebra.

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1. INTRODUCTION

In 1980, Iséki [1] proposed the concept of BCI-algebras as a generalization of BCK-algebras introduced by Iséki and Tanaka [2]. After then, Some researchers introduced and studied some proper subclasses of BCK-algebras, for example, BCC-algebras (Dudek, [3]), BCH-algebras (Hu and Li [4]), BE-algebras (Kim and Kim [5]) and BRK-algebras (Bandaru [6]). In particular, Dong and Ryu [7], Roudabri and Torkzadeh [8] and Mohammed et al. [9] studied topological structures on BCK-algebras to topology respectively. Ahn and Kwon [12], and Setudeh and Kouhestani [13] dealt with topological properties on BCC-algebras respectively. Mehrshad and Golzarpoor [14] studied some topological structures on BE-algebras. Jansi and Thiruveni [15, 16] applied BCH-algebras to topology and topological group. Mostafa et al. [17] discussed topological properties on KU-algebras proposed by Prabpayak and Leerawat [18]. Sivakumar et al. [19] investigated topological structures on BRK-algebras

In 2022, Saeid et al. [20] proposed the concept of Γ -BCK-algebras and studied some of its properties. By modifying a Γ -BCK-algebra proposed by Saeid et al., Shi et al. [21] redefined a Γ -*BCK*-algebra introduced by Saeid et al. [20] and investigated its various properties.

The purpose of our study is to introduce the concept of Γ -BCI-algebras as a subclass of Γ -BCK-algebras and study its topological structures. To accomplish our purpose, our research proceeds as follows: First, we define a Γ -BCI-algebra and obtain its various properties. Next, we define a Γ -ideal and investigate some of its properties. Also, we obtain some properties of the quotient Γ -BCI-algebra and the kernel of a Γ -homomorphism respectively. Finally, we discuss some of topological properties on Γ -BCI-algebras and quotient Γ -BCI-algebras respectively.

2. Preliminaries

We recall some definitions needed in next sections.

Definition 2.1 ([1, 2]). Let X be a nonempty set with a constant 0 and a binary operation *. Consider the following axioms: for all $x, y, z \in X$,

(A₁) [(x * y) * (x * z)] * (z * y) = 0,(A₂) [x * (x * y)] * y = 0,

(A₂) [x * (x + g)] + g(A₃) x * x = 0,

 $(A_4) x * y = 0 \text{ and } y * x = 0 \text{ imply } x = y,$

(A₅) 0 * x = 0..

Then X is called a:

(i) *BCI-algebra*, if it satisfies axioms $(A_1)-(A_4)$,

(ii) *BCK-algebra*, if it satisfies axioms $(A_1)-(A_5)$.

In *BCI*-algebra or *BCK*-algebra X, we define a binary relation \leq on X as follows: for all $x, y \in X$,

$$x \leq y$$
 if and only if $x * y = 0$.

Definition 2.2 ([22]). Let X and Γ be two nonempty sets. Then X is called a Γ -semigroup, if there is a mapping $f: X \times \Gamma \times X \to X$, denoted by $f(x, \alpha, y) = x\alpha y$ for each $(x, \alpha, y) \in X \times \Gamma \times X$, such that it satisfies the following condition: for all $x, y, z \in X$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

(2.1)
$$x\alpha(y\beta z) = (x\alpha y)\beta z$$

Definition 2.3 ([21]). Let X be a set with a constant 0 and let Γ be a nonempty set. Then X is called a Γ -*BCK*-algebra, if there is a mapping $f: X \times \Gamma \times X \to X$, denoted by $f(x, \alpha, y) = x\alpha y$ for each $(x, \alpha, y) \in X \times \Gamma \times X$, satisfying the following axioms: for all $x, y, z \in X$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

 $\begin{aligned} & (\Gamma A_1) \ [(x\alpha y)\beta(x\alpha z)]\beta(z\alpha y) = 0, \\ & (\Gamma A_2) \ [x\alpha(x\beta y)]\alpha y = 0, \\ & (\Gamma A_3) \ \text{if} \ x\alpha y = 0 = y\alpha x, \ \text{then} \ x = y, \\ & (\Gamma A_4) \ x\alpha x = 0, \\ & (\Gamma A_5) \ 0\alpha x = 0. \end{aligned}$

For a Γ -BCK-algebra X and a fixed $\alpha \in \Gamma$, we define the operation $* : X \times X \to X$ as follows: for all $x, y \in X$,

$$x * y = x \alpha y.$$

Then it is clear (X, *, 0) is a *BCK*-algebra and is denoted by X_{α} .

3. Γ -BCI-ALGEBRAS

Definition 3.1. Let X be a set with a constant 0 and let Γ be a nonempty set. Then X is called a Γ -BCI-algebra, if it satisfies the axioms (ΓA_1)–(ΓA_4).

If Γ is a singleton set, then a $\Gamma\text{-}BCI/BCK\text{-}algebra is a classical <math display="inline">BCK/BCI\text{-}algebra.$

In a Γ -BCI-algebra X, we define a binary relation \leq on X as follows (See [20]): for all $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$,

(3.1)
$$x \le y$$
 if and only if $x \alpha y = 0$.

In this case, \leq is called a Γ -BCI ordering. Then from the definition of \leq , we obtain a characterization of a Γ -BCI-algebra.

Theorem 3.2 (See Theorem 3.3, [21]). X is a Γ -BCI-algebra if and only if it satisfies the following conditions: for all $x, y, z \in X$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

(1) $(x\alpha y)\beta(x\alpha z) \leq z\alpha y$, (2) $x\alpha(x\beta y) \leq y$, (3) if $x \leq y$ and $y \leq x$, then x = y, (4) $x \leq x$.

Example 3.3. (1) Let $\Gamma = \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ and $X = \{0, 1, 2\}$ be a set with the ternary operation defined as the following table:

α	0	1	2	β	0	1	2	γ	0	1	2
0	0	2	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	2
1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
2	2	0	0	2	2	0	0	2	2	0	0

Then clearly, X is a Γ -BCI-algebra.

(2) Let $\Gamma = \{\alpha, \beta\}$ and let $X = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ be a set with the ternary operation defined as the following table:

α	0	1	2	3	β	0	1	2	3		
0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	3		
1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	3		
2	2	2	0	2	2	2	1	0	1		
3	3	3	3	0	3	3	2	1	0		
Table 3.2											

Then we can easily check that X is a Γ -BCI-algebra.

Proposition 3.4. Let X be an algebra satisfying the axioms (ΓA_3) , (ΓA_4) . If $x \leq 0$ for each $x \in X$, then x = 0.

Proof. Suppose $x \leq 0$ for each $x \in X$. Then clearly, $x\alpha 0 = 0$ for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. By the axiom (ΓA_4) , $0\alpha 0$. Thus $x\alpha 0 = 0 = 0\alpha 0 = 0$. So by the axiom (ΓA_3) , x = 0.

Proposition 3.5. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra and let $x, y, z \in X$.

(1) If $x \leq y$, then $z\alpha y \leq z\alpha x$ for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$.

(2) If $x \leq y$ and $y \leq z$, then $x \leq z$.

Proof. (1) Suppose $x \leq y$ and let $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$. Then by Theorem 3.2(1) and the hypothesis, we get

$$(z\alpha y)\beta(z\alpha x) \le x\alpha y = 0.$$

Thus by Proposition 3.4, $(z\alpha y)\beta(z\alpha x) = 0$. So $z\alpha y \leq z\alpha x$.

(2) Suppose $x \leq y, y \leq z$ and let $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Since $y \leq z$, by (1), $x\alpha z \leq x\alpha y$. Since $x \leq y, x\alpha y = 0$. Then $x\alpha z \leq 0$. Thus by Proposition 3.4, $x\alpha z = 0$. So $x \leq z$.

Corollary 3.6. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra and let x, y, $z \in X$, $\alpha \in \Gamma$. If $x\alpha y \leq z$, then $x\alpha z \leq y$.

Proof. Suppose $x \alpha y \leq z$. Then by (3.1) and Proposition 3.5(1),

 $x\alpha z \leq x\beta(x\alpha y) \leq y$ for each $\beta \in \Gamma$.

Thus by Proposition 3.5(2), $x\alpha z \leq y$.

Proposition 3.7. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra. If the following condition holds:

(3.2)
$$(x\alpha y)\beta z \leq (x\alpha z)\beta y \text{ for all } x, y, z \in X \text{ and all } \alpha, \beta \in \Gamma,$$

then the axiom (ΓA_2) holds.

Proof. Suppose (3.2) holds and let $x, y, z \in X, \alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$. Then by Theorem 3.2 (1), Proposition 3.5(1), the hypothesis and the axiom (ΓA_3),

 $[x\alpha(x\beta y)]\alpha y \le (x\alpha y)\beta(x\alpha y) = 0.$

Thus by Proposition 3.4, $[x\alpha(x\beta y)]\alpha y = 0$. So the axiom (ΓA_2) holds.

Proposition 3.8. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra. Then

(3.3)
$$(x\alpha y)\beta z = (x\alpha z)\beta y \text{ for all } x, y, z \in X, \alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$$

Proof. Let $x, y, z \in X$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$. Then by Theorem 3.2(2), we get

$$x\alpha(x\alpha z) \leq z.$$

Thus by Theorem 3.2(2) and Proposition 3.5(1), we have

$$(x\alpha y)\beta z \le (x\alpha y)\beta[x\alpha(x\alpha z)] \le (x\alpha z)\beta y$$

Since x, y, $z \in X$ and α , $\beta \in \Gamma$ are arbitrary, we obtain the following inequality:

$$(x\alpha z)\beta y \le (x\alpha y)\beta z.$$

So by Theorem 3.2(3), $(x\alpha y)\beta z = (x\alpha z)\beta y$.

Corollary 3.9. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra. Then the followings are equivalent: for all x, y, $z \in X$ and all α , $\beta \in \Gamma$,

(1)
$$(x\alpha y)\beta(x\alpha z) \le z\alpha y$$
,

(2)
$$(x\alpha z)\beta(y\alpha z) \leq x\alpha y$$
.

Proof. The proof follows from Propositions 3.8 and 3.5(1).

Proposition 3.10. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra. Then the followings hold: for all $x, y, z, u \in X$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

- (1) $x \leq y$ implies $x\alpha z \leq y\alpha z$,
- (2) $x\alpha[x\beta(x\alpha y)] = x\alpha y$,
- (3) $(0\alpha x)\beta(0\alpha y) = 0\beta(x\beta y)$ or $(0\alpha x)\beta(0\alpha y) = 0\beta(x\alpha y)$,
- (4) $[(x\alpha y)\beta z]\alpha(u\beta z) \le (x\alpha u)\beta y$,
- (5) $[(x\alpha y)\beta z]\alpha[(x\alpha u)\beta y] \le u\beta y,$

Proof. (1) Suppose $x \leq y$. Then clearly, $x\alpha y = 0$. Thus by Corollary 3.9(2), we have

$$(x\alpha z)\beta(y\alpha z) \le x\alpha y = 0.$$

So by Proposition 3.4, $(x\alpha z)\beta(y\alpha z) = 0$. Hence $x\alpha z \le y\alpha z$.

(2) By Theorem 3.2(1) and the axiom (ΓA_2) , we get

$$(x\alpha y)\beta[x\alpha(x\beta(x\alpha y))] \le [x\beta(x\alpha y)]\beta y = 0$$

Then by Proposition 3.4, we have

$$(x\alpha y)\beta[x\alpha(x\beta(x\alpha y))] = 0.$$

Also by the axiom (ΓA_2) , we have

$$[x\alpha(x\beta(x\alpha y))]\beta(x\alpha y) = 0.$$

Thus by the axiom (ΓA_3) , $x\alpha[x\beta(x\alpha y)] = x\alpha y$.

(3) By the axiom (ΓA_4) and Proposition 3.8, we have

 $(0\alpha x)\beta(0\alpha y) = [((x\beta y)\alpha(x\beta y))\alpha x]\beta(0\alpha y)$

- $= [((x\beta y)\alpha x)\alpha(x\beta y)]\beta(0\alpha y)$
- $= [((x\beta x)\alpha y)\alpha(x\beta y)]\beta(0\alpha y)$

$$= [(0\alpha y)\alpha(x\beta y)]\beta(0\alpha y)$$

 $= [(0\alpha y)\alpha(0\alpha y)]\beta(x\beta y)$

 $= 0\beta(x\beta y).$

Also, we have

 $(0\alpha x)\beta(0\alpha y) = [((x\beta y)\alpha(x\beta y))\alpha x]\beta(0\alpha y)$

- $= [((x\alpha y)\alpha x)\alpha(x\alpha y)]\beta(0\alpha y)$
- $= [((x\alpha x)\alpha y)\alpha(x\alpha y)]\beta(0\alpha y)$
- $= [(0\alpha y)\alpha(x\alpha y)]\beta(0\alpha y)$

$$= [(0\alpha y)\alpha(0\alpha y)]\beta(x\alpha y)$$

 $= 0\beta(x\alpha y).$

(4) By Corollary 3.9(2) and Proposition 3.8, we have

$$[(x\alpha y)\beta z]\alpha(u\beta z) \le (x\alpha y)\beta u = (x\alpha u)\beta y.$$

Then the result holds.

(5) The proof follows from Theorem 3.2(2) and (4).

Lemma 3.11. Let X be an algebra satisfying the axioms (ΓA_3) , (ΓA_4) and Proposition 3.4. If Proposition 3.10(4) holds, then Propositions 3.10(5) and 3.8 hold.

Proof. Suppose Proposition 3.10(5) holds. Then clearly, Proposition 3.10(5) holds. For all $x, y, z, u \in X$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$, let u = z. Then from Proposition 3.10(5) and the axiom (ΓA_4), we have

$$(x\alpha y)\beta z]\alpha[(x\alpha z)\beta y] \le z\alpha z = 0.$$

Thus by Proposition 3.4, $[(x\alpha y)\beta z]\alpha[(x\alpha z)\beta y] = 0$. Similarly, from Proposition 3.10(5) and Proposition 3.4, we get

$$[(x\alpha z)\beta y]\alpha[(x\alpha y)\beta z] = 0.$$

So by the axiom (ΓA_3) , $(x\alpha z)\beta y = (x\alpha y)\beta z$. Hence Proposition 3.8 hold.

Lemma 3.12. Let X be an algebra satisfying the axioms (ΓA_3), (ΓA_4) and Proposition 3.4. If Proposition 3.10 (5) holds, then Propositions 3.8 and Proposition 3.10(4) hold.

Proof. The proof is straightforward from Lemma 3.11.

We give a characterization of Γ -BCI-algebras.

Theorem 3.13. X is a Γ -BCI-algebra if and only if it satisfies the axioms (ΓA_3), (ΓA_4), Proposition 3.4 and Proposition 3.10(4) or (5).

Proof. It is obvious that the necessary conditions hold. Suppose the axioms (ΓA_3), (ΓA_4) and Proposition 3.10(4) hold. For all $x, y, z, u \in X$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$, let $y = x\alpha u$. Then from Proposition 3.10(4) and (ΓA_4), we have

$$[x\alpha(x\alpha u))\beta z]\alpha(u\beta z) \le (x\alpha u)\beta(x\alpha u) = 0$$

Thus by Proposition 3.4, $[x\alpha(x\alpha u))\beta z]\alpha(u\beta z) = 0$. From Lemma 3.11 or 3.12, since Proposition 3.8 holds, we get

$$[(x\alpha z)\beta(x\alpha u)]\alpha(u\beta z) = 0.$$

So $[(x\alpha y)\beta(x\alpha z)]\alpha(z\beta y) = 0$. Hence the axiom (ΓA_1) holds.

Now for all $x, y, z, u \in X, \alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$, let $y = x\alpha y, u = z = y$. Then from Proposition 3.10(4) and the axiom (ΓA_4), we have

$$[(x\beta(x\alpha y))\beta y]\alpha(y\beta y) \le (x\beta y)\alpha(x\beta y) = 0.$$

Thus by Proposition 3.4, $[(x\beta(x\alpha y))\beta y]\alpha(y\beta y) = 0$. Since $y\beta y = 0$, by by Proposition 3.4, we get

$$(x\beta(x\alpha y))\beta y = 0.$$

So the axiom (ΓA_2) holds. This completes the proof.

From Theorem 3.13 and the definition of Γ -BCK-algebra, we obtain the following.

Corollary 3.14. X is a Γ -BCK-algebra if and only if it satisfies the axioms (ΓA_3), (ΓA_4), (ΓA_5) and Proposition 3.10(4) or (5).

Now we give another characterization of Γ -BCI-algebra.

Theorem 3.15. X is a Γ -BCI-algebra if and only if it satisfies the axioms (ΓA_1), (ΓA_3) and the following condition:

(3.4)
$$x\alpha 0 = x \text{ for each } x \in X \text{ and each } \alpha \in \Gamma.$$

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Proof. Suppose X is a Γ -*BCI*-algebra. It is sufficient to show that (3.4) holds. For all $x, y, z \in X$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$, let y = 0. Then by the axiom (ΓA_2), we have (3.5) $[x\alpha(x\beta 0)]\alpha 0 = 0.$

On the other hand, let $y = x\beta 0$ and let z = x. Then from the axiom (ΓA_1), we have $[(x\alpha(x\beta 0))\beta(x\alpha x)]\beta[x\alpha(x\beta 0)] = 0.$

Thus by the axiom (ΓA_4) , we get

(3.6) $[(x\alpha(x\beta 0))\beta 0]\beta[x\alpha(x\beta 0)] = 0.$

From (3.5), (3.6) and the axiom (ΓA_1) , we have

$$(3.7) x\alpha(x\beta 0) = 0.$$

Also by the axioms (ΓA_2) and (ΓA_4) , we get

(3.8)
$$(x\alpha 0)\beta x = [x\alpha(x\beta x)]\alpha x = 0.$$

So by (3.7), (3.8) and the axiom (ΓA_3), $x\alpha 0 = x$. Hence (3.5) holds.

Suppose the necessary conditions hold. It is sufficient to prove that the axioms (ΓA_2) and (ΓA_4) hold. Let $x, y \in X$ and let $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$. Then by the axiom (ΓA_1) and (3.6), we have

$$[x\alpha(x\beta y)]\alpha y = [(x\beta 0)\alpha(x\beta y)]\alpha(y\beta 0) = 0.$$

Thus the axiom (ΓA_2) holds.

Now let $x \in X$ and let α , $\beta \in \Gamma$. Then by (3.6) and the axiom (ΓA_1), we get

 $x\alpha x = (x\alpha x)\beta 0 = [(x\beta 0)\alpha(x\beta 0)]\beta(0\alpha 0) = 0.$

Thus the axiom (ΓA_4) holds. This completes the proof.

The following is an immediate consequence of Theorems 3.2 and 3.15.

Corollary 3.16. X is a Γ -BCI-algebra if and only if there is a partial order \leq on X satisfying the following conditions: for all x, y, $z \in X$ and all α , $\beta \in \Gamma$,

(1) $(x\alpha y)\beta(x\alpha z) \leq z\alpha y$,

(2)
$$x\alpha(x\beta y) \le y$$

(3) $x\alpha y = 0$ if and only if $x \le y$.

Definition 3.17. X is a Γ -BCI-algebra and let $x \in X$. Then x is called a *positive* element of X, if $0\alpha x = 0$, i.e., $x \ge 0$ for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. We will denote the set of all positive elements of X as P(X).

Example 3.18. Let X be the Γ -BCI-algebra given in Example 3.3. Then we can easily see that $P(X) = \{0, 1\}$.

Proposition 3.19. Let X be the Γ -BCI-algebra. Then $x\alpha[0\beta(0\alpha x)] \in P(X)$ for each $x \in X$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$.

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Proof. Let $x \in X$ and let α , $\beta \in \Gamma$. Then we have $0\beta[x\alpha(0\beta(0\alpha x))] = (0\alpha x)\beta[0\alpha(0\beta(0\alpha x))]$ [By the second part of Proposition 3.10 (3)] $= (0\alpha x)\beta(0\alpha x)$ [By Proposition 3.10 (2)] = 0.Thus $x\alpha[0\beta(0\alpha x)] \in P(X).$

Definition 3.20. X is a Γ -BCI-algebra and let $a \in X$. Then a is said to be:

(i) minimal, if $x\alpha a = 0$ ($x \in X$) implies x = a for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$,

(ii) the *least element* of X, if $a\alpha x = 0$ for each $x \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$,

(iii) maximal, if $a\alpha x = 0$ $(x \in X)$ implies a = x for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$,

(iv) the greatest element of X, if $x\alpha a = 0$ for each $x \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$

We will denote the set of all minimal [resp. maximal] elements of X as Min(X) [resp. Max(X)].

It is obvious that 0 is a minimal element of X and if there is the least element a of X, then a = 0.

Example 3.21. (1) Let X be the Γ -BCI-algebra given in Example 3.3(1). Then we can easily check that $Min(X) = \{0\}$ and $Max(X) = \{2\}$. In particular, 0 is the greatest element and 2 the least element of X.

(2) Let X be the Γ -BCI-algebra given in Example 3.3(2). Then clearly, $Min(X) = \emptyset$ and $Max(X) = \{\}$.

Proposition 3.22. Let X be the Γ -BCI-algebra and let $a \in X$. Then the followings are equivalent: for all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

(1) $a \in Min(X)$,

(2) $0\alpha(0\beta a) = a$,

(3) there is $x \in X$ such that $a = 0\alpha x$.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2): Suppose $a \in Min(X)$ and let $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$. Then by the axiom (ΓA_2), $[0\alpha(0\beta a)]\alpha a = 0$. Thus by the hypothesis, $0\alpha(0\beta a) = a$.

(2) \Rightarrow (3): Suppose $0\alpha(0\beta a) = a$ for any $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$ and let $x = 0\beta a$. Then clearly, $x \in X$. Moreover, by the hypothesis, $a = 0\alpha(0\beta a) = 0\alpha x$.

(3) \Rightarrow (1): Suppose the condition (3) holds and suppose $y\beta a = 0$ for each $\beta \in \Gamma$. Then clearly, we have

On the other hand, we get

 $\begin{aligned} a\beta y &= (0\alpha x)\beta y \\ &= [0\alpha(0\beta(0\alpha x))]\beta y \text{ [By Proposition 3.10(2)]} \\ &= (0\alpha y)\beta[0\beta(0\alpha x)] \text{ [By Proposition 3.8]} \\ &= 0\beta[y\beta(0\alpha x)] \text{ [By Proposition 3.10(3)]} \\ &= 0\beta 0 \text{ [By (3.10)]} \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$

Thus $a\beta y = 0 = y\beta a$. So by the axiom (ΓA_3), y = a. Hence $a \in MIn(X)$.

Definition 3.23. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra and let S be a nonempty subset of X. Then S is called a Γ -subalgebra of X, if S itself is a Γ -BCI-algebra.

It is obvious that X and $\{0\}$ are Γ -subalebras of X. In this case, X and $\{0\}$ will be called the *trivial* Γ -subalgebras of X. A nonempty subset S is called a *proper* Γ -subalgebra of X, if S is a Γ -subalgebra of X and $S \subsetneq X$. It is clear that $\{0\}$ is a proper Γ -subalgebra of X.

From the above definition, we obtain easily the following.

Theorem 3.24. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra and let S be a nonempty subset of X. Then S is a Γ -subalgebra of X if and only if $x \alpha y \in X$ for all $x, y \in S$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$.

Proposition 3.25. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra. Then P(X) and Min(X) are Γ -subalgebra of X.

Proof. It is clear that $0\alpha 0 = 0$ for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then $P(X) \neq \emptyset$. Let $x, y \in P(X)$ and let $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$. Then $0\alpha x = 0 = 0\alpha y$. Thus by Proposition 3.10(3), we have

$$0\alpha(x\alpha y) = (0\beta x)\alpha(0\beta y) = 0\alpha 0 = 0$$

or

$$0\beta(x\alpha y) = (0\alpha x)\beta(0\alpha y) = 0\beta 0 = 0.$$

So $x\alpha y \in P(X)$. Hence P(X) is a Γ -subalgebra of X.

4. Γ -I deals of Γ -BCI-Algebras

Definition 4.1. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra and let I be a nonempty subset of X. Then I is called a Γ -*ideal* of X, if it satisfies the following conditions: for all $x, y \in X$ and $\alpha \in \Gamma$,

(i) $0 \in I$,

(ii) if $x \alpha y \in I$ and $y \in I$, then $x \in I$, equivalently, if $x \leq y$ and $y \in I$, then $x \in I$. We will denote the set of all Γ -ideals of X by $\Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$.

Example 4.2. (1) Let X be the Γ -BCI-algebra given in Example 3.3(1). Then we can easily check that $\{0,1\}, \{0,2\} \notin \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$.

(2) Let X be the Γ -BCI-algebra given in Example 3.3(2). The we can see that

 $\{0,1\}, \{0,2\}, \{0,3\} \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X).$

From Definition 4.1, we obtain easily the following characterization of Γ -ideals.

Theorem 4.3. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra and let I be a nonempty subset of X. Then $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$ if and only if it satisfies the condition (i) and the following condition:

(4.1) if $x \alpha y \leq z$ and $y, z \in I$, then $x \in I$ for all $x, y, z \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$.

Lemma 4.4. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra. If $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$, then

$$I = \bigcup_{x, y \in I} A(x, y),$$

where $A(x, y) = \{z \in X : (z\alpha x)\beta y = 0 \text{ for all } x, y \in X \text{ and all } \alpha, \beta \in \Gamma\}.$

Proof. Suppose I is a Γ -ideal of X and let $z \in I$. Then clearly, for all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

$$(z\alpha 0)\beta z = z\alpha z)\beta 0 = 0\beta 0 = 0.$$

Since $0 \in I$, $z \in A(0, z)$. Thus we have

$$I \subset \bigcup_{z \in I} A(0, z) \subset \bigcup_{x, y \in I} A(x, y).$$
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Now let $z \in \bigcup_{x, y \in I} A(x, y)$. Then there are $a, b \in I$ such that $z \in A(a, b)$. Thus $(z\alpha a)\beta b = 0$. Since $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$, by Theorem 4.3, $z \in I$. So $\bigcup_{x, y \in I} A(x, y) \subset I$. Hence $I = \bigcup_{x, y \in I} A(x, y)$.

Corollary 4.5. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra. If $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$, then

$$I = \bigcup_{x \in I} A(0, x)$$

Proof. From Lemma 4.4, it is clear that $\bigcup_{x \in I} A(0,x) \subset \bigcup_{x, y \in I} A(x,y) = I$. Let $x \in I$ and let $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$. Then $(x\alpha 0)\beta x = 0$. Thus $x \in A(0,x)$. So $I \subset \bigcup_{x \in I} A(0,x)$. Hence $I = \bigcup_{x \in I} A(0,x)$.

Lemma 4.6. Let I be a subset of a Γ -BCI-algebra X such that $0 \in I$. If $I = \bigcup_{x, y \in I} A(x, y)$, then $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$.

Proof. Suppose $I = \bigcup_{x, y \in I} A(x, y)$ and $x \alpha y, y \in I$ for any $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then by the axiom the axiom (ΓA_2) , $[x\beta(x\alpha y)]\beta y = 0$. Thus $x \in A(x\alpha y, y) \subset I$. So $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$.

From Lemmas 4.4 and 4.6, we have a characterization of Γ -ideals.

Theorem 4.7. Let I be a subset of a Γ -BCI-algebra X such that $0 \in I$. Then $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$ if and only if $I = \bigcup_{x, y \in I} A(x, y)$.

Definition 4.8. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra X and let $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$. Then I is called a closed Γ -ideal of X, if $x \in I$ implies $0 \alpha x \in I$ for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. We will denote the set of all closed Γ -ideals of X by $\Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$.

Example 4.9. Let X be the Γ -BCI-algebra given in Example 3.3(2). The we can see that $\{0,1\}, \{0,2\}, \{0,3\} \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$.

Proposition 4.10. Every closed Γ -ideal of a Γ -BCI-algebra X is a Γ -subalgebra of X.

Proof. The proof follows from Definitions 3.23 and 4.8, and Proposition 3.10(3).

The following is a characterization of closed Γ -ideals.

Theorem 4.11. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra and let I be a subset of X. Then $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ if and only if it satisfies the following conditions: for all $x, y, z \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$,

 $(1) \ 0 \in I,$

(2) if $x\alpha z$, $y\alpha z$, $z \in I$, then $x\alpha y \in I$.

Proof. Suppose $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and $x\alpha z$, $y\alpha z$, $z \in I$ for all $x, y, z \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then clearly, $0 \in I$ and $x, y \in I$. Thus by Proposition 4.10, $x\alpha y \in I$.

Conversely, suppose the necessary conditions hold and $x\alpha y$, $y \in I$ for any $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. It is obvious that $0\alpha 0$, $y\alpha 0$, $0 \in I$. Then by (2), $0\alpha y \in I$. Also, by (2), $x = x\alpha 0 \in I$. Thus $I \in \mathcal{I}(X)$. Now let $x \in X$ and let $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then clearly, $0\alpha 0, x\alpha 0, 0 \in I$. Thus by (2), $0\alpha x \in I$. So $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$.

Proposition 4.12. Let I be a Γ -ideal of a Γ -BCI-algebra X. Then the subset I^0_{Γ} of X defined by

 $I_{\Gamma}^{0} = \{ x \in X : 0 \alpha x \in I \text{ for each } \alpha \in \Gamma \}$

is the greatest closed Γ -ideal of X such that $I^0_{\Gamma} \subset I$.

Proof. By the definition of I^0_{Γ} , it is clear that $0 \in I^0_{\Gamma}$. Suppose $x \alpha y$, $y \in I^0_{\Gamma}$ for all $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then by the definition of I^0_{Γ} and Proposition 3.10(3), we have: for each $\beta \in \Gamma$,

$$0\alpha y, \ (0\alpha x)\beta(0\alpha y) = 0\beta(x\alpha y) \in I.$$

Since $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$, $0 \alpha x \in I$. Thus $x \in I_{\Gamma}^{0}$. So $I_{\Gamma}^{0} \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$.

Now let $x \in I_{\Gamma}^{0}$. Then by the definition of I_{Γ}^{0} and the axiom (ΓA_{2}), we get: for any $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

$$0\alpha x \in I, \ [0\beta(0\alpha x)]\beta x = 0.$$

Thus $0\beta(0\alpha x) \in I$. So $0\alpha x \in I^0_{\Gamma}$. Hence $I^0_{\Gamma} \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$.

Finally let $J \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ such that $J \subset I$ and let $x \in J$, $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then $0\alpha x \in J$. Since $J \subset I$, $0\alpha x \in I$. Thus $x \in I_{\Gamma}^0$. So $J \subset I_{\Gamma}^0$. So I_{Γ}^0 is the greatest closed Γ -ideal of X contained in I.

Now we discuss some properties of commutative Γ -ideals of a Γ -BCI-algebra.

Definition 4.13. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra and let I be a nonempty subset of X. Then I is called a *commutative* Γ -*ideal* of X, if it satisfies the following conditions: for all $x, y, z, \in X$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

(i) $0 \in I$,

(ii) if $(x\alpha y)\beta z$, $z \in I$, then $x\alpha[(y\beta(y\alpha x))\beta(0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha y)))] \in I$.

We will denote the set of all commutative Γ -ideals and the set of all commutative closed Γ -ideals of X by $\Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X)$ and $\Gamma C \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ respectively.

Proposition 4.14. Every commutative Γ -ideal is a Γ -ideal.

Proof. Let X be a Γ -*BCI*-algebra and let $I \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X)$. Suppose $x \alpha y, y \in I$ for all $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \gamma$. Then by the axiom $(\Gamma A_4), (x\beta 0)\alpha y \in I$ and $y \in I$. Thus by the condition (ii), we have

$$x\alpha[(0\beta(0\alpha x))\beta(0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha 0)))] \in I$$

By Theorem 3.15 and Proposition 3.10(2), $x = x\alpha[(0\beta(0\alpha x))\beta(0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha 0)))]$. So $x \in I$. Hence $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$.

The converse of Proposition 4.14 does not hold in general (See Example 4.15).

Example 4.15. Let $\Gamma = \{\alpha, \beta\}$ and let $X = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ be a set with the ternary operation defined as the following table: Then we can easily check that X is a Γ -BCI-algebra and $\{0, 1\} \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ but $\{0, 1\} \notin \Gamma \mathcal{CI}(X)$.

We give a characterization of Γ -ideals.

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α	0	1	2	3	4	β	0	1	2	3	4		
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	3	4		
1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	3	0	0		
2	2	2	0	0	0	2	2	3	0	0	0		
3	3	3	3	0	0	3	3	3	3	0	0		
4	4	4	4	3	0	4	4	4	4	3	0		
			Table 4.1										

Theorem 4.16. Let I be a Γ -ideal of a Γ -BCI-algebra X. Then $I \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X)$ is commutative if and only if it satisfies the following condition: for all $x, y \in X$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

(4.2) if
$$x\alpha y \in I$$
, then $x\alpha[(y\beta(y\alpha x))\beta(0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha y)))] \in I$.

Proof. The proof is straightforward from Definition 4.13.

The following is another characterization of commutative Γ -ideals.

Theorem 4.17. Let I be a closed Γ -ideal of a Γ -BCI-algebra X. Then $I \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X)$ if and only if it satisfies the following condition: for all $x, y \in X$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

(4.3)
$$if \ x\alpha y \in I, \ then \ x\alpha[y\beta(y\alpha x)] \in I.$$

Proof. Suppose $I \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X)$ and $x \alpha y \in I$ for all $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Since I is closed, $0\beta(x\alpha y) \in I$ for each $\beta \in \Gamma$. Since $I \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X)$, by (4.2), we get

 $x\alpha[(y\beta(y\alpha x))\beta(0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha y)))] \in I.$

On the other hand, we have

 $[x\alpha(y\beta(y\alpha x))]\beta[x\alpha((y\beta(y\alpha x))\beta(0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha y))))]$

 $= [x\alpha(y\beta(y\alpha x))]\beta[x\alpha(0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha y))))]\beta(y\beta(y\alpha x))$ [By Proposition 3.8]

 $\leq (0\beta(x\alpha y)))\alpha(y\beta(y\alpha x))\beta(y\beta(y\alpha x))$ [By Theorem 3.2(1)]

- = $(0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha y)))\beta 0$ [By the axiom (ΓA_4)]
- $= 0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha y))$. [By Theorem 3.15]

$$= 0\beta(x\alpha y) \in I.$$

Then by Theorem 4.3, $x\alpha(y\beta(y\alpha x)) \in I$. Thus the condition (4.3) holds.

Conversely, suppose the condition (4.3) holds and let $x\alpha y \in I$ for all $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then clearly, $x\alpha(y\beta(y\alpha x)) \in I$ for each $\beta \in \Gamma$. From Definition 4.1, it is obvious that $0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha y)) \in I$. On the other hand, we have

 $[(x\alpha(y\beta(y\alpha x)))\beta(0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha y)))]\beta[x\alpha(y\beta(y\alpha x))]$

 $= [(x\alpha(y\beta(y\alpha x)))\beta(x\alpha(y\beta(y\alpha x)))]\beta(0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha y)))$

 $\leq [(y\beta(y\alpha x))\beta(y\beta(y\alpha x))]\beta(0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha y)))$

$$\leq 0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha y)) \in I.$$

Thus by Theorem 4.3, $(x\alpha(y\beta(y\alpha x)))\beta(0\alpha(0\beta(x\alpha y))) \in I$. So by Theorem 4.16, $I \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X)$.

Proposition 4.18. Let I, J be two Γ -ideals of a Γ -BCI-algebra X such that $I \subset J$. If $J \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{CI}(X)$, then $J \in \Gamma \mathcal{CI}(X)$.

Proof. Suppose $x\alpha y \in J$ for all $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$ and let $u = x\alpha y$. Since $J \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X), 0\beta u \in J$ for each $\beta \in \Gamma$. Then by Proposition 3.8 and the axiom (ΓA_4),

 $(x\alpha u)\beta y = 0 \in I$. Since $I \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X)$, by Theorem 4.16, we have

 $(x\alpha u)\beta[y\alpha(y\beta(x\alpha u))] = (x\alpha y)\beta[(y\alpha(y\beta(x\alpha u)))\beta(0\alpha(0\beta((x\alpha u)\beta y)))] \in I.$

Since $I \subset J$, by Proposition 3.8, we get

 $(x\alpha u)\beta[y\alpha(y\beta(x\alpha u))] = [x\alpha(y\alpha(y\beta(x\alpha u)))]\beta u \in J.$

Since $u \in J$, $x\alpha[y\alpha(y\beta(x\alpha u))] \in J$. On the other hand, we have $[x\alpha(y\alpha(y\beta x))]\beta[x\alpha(y\alpha(y\beta(x\alpha u)))]$ $\leq [y\alpha(y\beta(x\alpha u))]\alpha[y\alpha(y\beta x)]$ [By Corollary 3.9(1)] $\leq (y\beta x)\alpha(y\beta(x\alpha u))]$ $\leq (x\alpha u)\alpha x$ $= (x\alpha x)\alpha u$ [By Proposition 3.8] $= 0\alpha u \in J$. [By the axiom (ΓA_4)] Thus he Theorem 4.2, we (we ($x^{(\mu)}$)) $\in J$. So he Theorem 4.17, $J \in \Gamma \mathcal{CT}(X)$

Thus by Theorem 4.3, $x\alpha(y\alpha(y\beta x)) \in J$. So by Theorem 4.17, $J \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X)$.

Definition 4.19. A Γ -*BCI*-algebra X is said to be commutative, if it satisfies the following condition: for all $x, y \in X$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

We have a similar result to Theorem 3.18 in [21].

Theorem 4.20. A Γ -BCI-algebra X is commutative if and only if it satisfies the following condition: for all x, $y \in X$ and all α , $\beta \in \Gamma$,

(4.5)
$$x\alpha(x\beta y) = y\alpha[y\beta(x\alpha(x\beta y))].$$

Theorem 4.21. Let X be A Γ -BCI-algebra. The the followings are equivalent:

- (1) X is commutative,
- (2) every closed Γ -ideal of X is commutative,
- (3) $\{0\} \in \Gamma \mathcal{CI}(X).$

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2): Suppose X is commutative and let $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$. For all $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$, suppose $x \alpha y \in I$. Then clearly, $0\beta(x \alpha y) \in I$ for each $\beta \in \Gamma$. On the other hand, we get

 $[x\alpha(y\beta(y\alpha x))]\beta(x\alpha y)$

= $[x\alpha(x\alpha y)]\beta[y\beta(y\alpha x)]$ [By Proposition 3.8]

 $= [y\alpha(y\alpha(x\alpha(x\alpha y)))]\beta[y\beta(y\alpha x)]$ [By Theorem 4.20]

 $= [y\alpha(y\beta(y\alpha x))]\beta[y\alpha(x\alpha(x\alpha y))]$ [By Proposition 3.8]

- $= (y\alpha x)\beta[y\alpha(x\alpha(x\alpha y))]$ [By Proposition 3.10(2)]
- $\leq [x\alpha(x\alpha y)]\alpha x$ [By Corollary 3.9 (1)]

 $= 0\alpha(x\alpha y) \in I.$

Thus by Theorem 4.3, $x\alpha(y\beta(y\alpha x)) \in I$. So $I \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X)$.

 $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$: The proof is straightforward.

 $(3) \Rightarrow (1)$: Suppose $\{0\} \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X)$ and suppose $x \leq y$ for all $x, y \in X$. Then clearly, $x\beta y = 0 \in \{0\}$. for each $\beta \in \Gamma$. Since $\{0\} \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}_c(X)$, by Theorem 4.17, we have

 $x\beta[y\alpha(y\beta x)] \in \{0\}$, i.e., $x\beta[y\alpha(y\beta x)] = 0$, i.e., $x \leq y\alpha(y\beta x)$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$.

Since X is a Γ -BCI-algebra, by Theorem 3.2(2), we get

$$y\alpha(y\beta x) \le x \text{ for all } \alpha, \ \beta \in \Gamma.$$

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Thus by Theorem 3.2(3), $x = y\alpha(y\beta x)$. So X is commutative. This completes the proof.

Lemma 4.22 (See Proposition 4.1, [23]). Let X be A Γ -BCI-algebra and let $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$. Let \sim be the relation on X define as follows: for all $x, y \in X$,

 $x \sim y$ if and only if $x \alpha y$, $y \alpha x \in I$ for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$.

Then \sim is a congruence relation on X, i.e., it satisfies the following conditions: for any x, y, $z \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$,

- (1) $x \sim x$, *i.e.*, \sim is reflexive,
- (2) if $x \sim y$, then $y \sim x$, i.e., \sim is symmetric,
- (3) if $x \sim y$ and $y \sim z$, then $\sim z$, i.e., \sim is transitive,
- (4) if $x \sim u$ and $y \sim v$, then $x \alpha y \sim u \alpha v$.

Proof. The proof is similar to Proposition 4.1 in [23].

For a congruence relation \sim on a Γ -BCI-algebra X and each $x \in X$, a subset I[x] of X defined by

$$I[x] = \{y \in X : x \sim y\}$$

is called the *congruence class* in X determined by x with respect to \sim . The set of all congruence classes in X is denoted by X/I. It is obvious that if $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$, then I[0] = I but if $I \notin \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$, then $I[0] \neq I$.

Example 4.23. Let X be the Γ -BCI-algebra and let $I = \{0, 1\}$ be the closed Γ -ideal of X given in Example 4.15. Then by the calculation, we have

$$I[0] = I = I[1], I[2] = \{2\}, I[3] = \{3\}, I[4] = \{4\}.$$

Thus $X/I = \{I, I[2], I[3], I[4]\}.$

We obtain a similar consequence of Proposition 4.2 in [23].

Lemma 4.24. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let \sim be a congruence relation on X. We define a mapping $f: X/I \times \Gamma \times X/I \to X/I$ as follows: for each $(I[x], \alpha, I[y]) \in X/I \times \Gamma \times X/I$,

$$f(I[x], \alpha, I[y]) = I[x]\alpha I[y] = I[x\alpha y].$$

Then X/I is a Γ -BCI-algebra. In this case, X/I is called the quotient Γ -BCI-algebra of X by I.

We define a partial ordering \leq on X/I as follows: for any $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$,

 $I[x] \leq I[y]$ if and only if $I[x]\alpha I[y] = I[0] = I$.

Then we have a similar consequence of Theorem 3.2.

Proposition 4.25. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra and let X/I be the quotient Γ -BCIalgebra of X by $I \in \mathcal{I}_c(X)$. Then the followings hold: for all x, y, $z \in X$ and all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

- (1) $(I[x]\alpha I[y])\beta(I[x]\alpha I[z]) \leq I[z]\alpha I[y],$ (2) $I[x]\alpha(I[x]\beta I[y]) \leq I[y],$
- (3) if I[x]leqI[y] and $I[y] \leq I[x]$, then I[x] = I[y],
- $(4) I[x] \le I[x].$

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Theorem 4.26. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra and let $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$. Then $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{CI}(X)$ if and only if X/I is a commutative Γ -BCI-algebra.

Proof. Suppose $I \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}_c(X)$. It is clear that I[0] = I and $\{I[0]\}$ is the zero Γ -ideal of X/I. Suppose $I[x] \alpha I[y] \in \{I[0]\}, I[x] \alpha I[y] = I[0]$ for all $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then $x \alpha y \in I$. Thus by Theorem 4.17, $x \alpha [y \beta(y \alpha x)] \in I$. So we have

 $I[x]\alpha[I[y]\beta(I[y]\alpha I[x])] = I[x\alpha[y\beta(y\alpha x)]] = I = I[0] \in \{I[0]\}.$

Hence $\{I[0]\} \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X/I)$. Therefore by Theorem 4.21, X/I is commutative.

Conversely, suppose X/I is a commutative Γ -BCI-algebra. Then by Theorem 4.21, $\{I[0]\} \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X/I)$. Suppose $x \alpha y \in I$ for all $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then we have

$$I[x]\alpha I[y] = I[x\alpha y] = I - I[0] \in \{I[0]\}.$$

Thus $I[x\alpha[y\beta(y\alpha x)]] = I[x]\alpha[I[y]\beta(I[y]\alpha I[x])] \in \{I[0]\}$. So $x\alpha[y\beta(y\alpha x)] \in I$. Hence $I \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X)$.

Definition 4.27. Let X and Y be Γ -BCI-algebras. Then a mapping $f: X \to Y$ is called a Γ -homomorphism, if $f(x\alpha y) = f(x)\alpha f(y)$ for all $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. In this case, the subset ker(f) (called the kernel of f) of X and the subset Im(f) (called the image of f) of Y are defined as follows respectively:

$$ker(f) = \{x \in X : f(x) = 0\}, \ Im(f) = \{f(x) \in Y : x \in X\}.$$

We have easily similar consequences of some properties given in [20].

Proposition 4.28. Let X and Y be Γ -BCI-algebras and let $f : X \to Y$ be a Γ -homomorphism. Then

(1) Im(f) is a Γ -subalgebra of Y (See Theorem 3.18, [20]),

(2) ker(f) is a Γ -subalgebra of X (See Lemma 3.19, [20]).

Proposition 4.29 (See Lemma 3.20, [20]). Let X and Y be Γ -BCI-algebras and let $f: X \to Y$ be a Γ -homomorphism.

(1)
$$f(0) = 0$$

(2) If $x\alpha y = 0$ for all $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$, then $f(x)\alpha f(y) = 0$.

Theorem 4.30 (See Theorem 3.21, [20]). Let X and Y be Γ -BCI-algebras and let $f: X \to Y$ be a Γ -homomorphism. Then f is injective if and only if $ker(f) = \{0\}$.

Proposition 4.31 (See Theorem 4.10, [20]). Let X and Y be Γ -BCI-algebras and let $f: X \to Y$ be a Γ -homomorphism. Then $ker(f) \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$.

Proof. Since f is a α Γ -homomorphism, $f(0) = f(0\alpha 0) = f(0)\alpha f(0) = 0$ for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then $0 \in ker(f)$. Now suppose $x\alpha y$, $y \in ker(f)$ for all $x, y \in X$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then we have

$$0 = f(x\alpha y) = f(x\alpha y) = f(x)\alpha f(y) = f(x)\alpha 0 = f(x).$$

Thus $x \in ker(f)$. So $ker(f) \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}(X)$. Finally, let $x \in ker(f)$. Then f(x) = 0. On the other hand, we get

$$f(0\alpha x) = f(0)\alpha f(x) = 0\alpha 0 = 0$$
 for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$.

Thus $0\alpha x \in ker(f)$ for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. So $ker(f) \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$.

Theorem 4.32. Let X and Y be Γ -BCI-algebras and let $f : X \to Y$ be a Γ -epimorphism. Then $ker(f) \in \Gamma C \mathcal{I}(X)$ if and only if Y is a commutative Γ -BCI-algebra.

Proof. By Proposition 4.31, $ker(f) \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$. Then by Theorem 4.26, $ker(f) \in \Gamma \mathcal{CI}(X)$ if and only if X/ker(f) is a commutative Γ -BCI-algebra. Since f is surjective, it is obvious that X/ker(f) is isomorphic to Y. Thus the result holds.

Remark 4.33. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra and let $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$. We define the mapping $\pi : X \to X/I$ as follows:

$$\pi(x) = I[x]$$
 for each $x \in X$.

Then we can easily check that π is a surjective homomorphism. In this case, π is called the *natural homomorphism*.

Proposition 4.34. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism, where $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$. If $J \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X/I)$, then $\pi^{-1}(J) \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ such that $I \subset \pi^{-1}(J)$.

Proof. The proof is straightforward.

5. Topological structures on Γ -BCI-algebras

We recall some terms and notations related to a general topology (See [24, 25]). For a subset A of a topological space (X, τ) , we denote the closure and the interior of A as $cl_{\tau}(A)$, cl(A) or \overline{A} and $int_{\tau}(A)$, int(A) or A° . A subfamily \mathcal{B} of τ is called a base for τ , if for each $U \in \tau$ either $U = \emptyset$ or there is $\mathcal{B}' \subset \mathcal{B}$ such that $U = \bigcup \mathcal{B}'$. A subset A of X is called a *neighborhood* of $x \in X$, if there is $U \in \tau$ such that $x \in U \subset A$. We denote the set of all neighborhoods of x as $N_{\tau}(x)$ or N(x) and N(x)is called the *neighborhood filter* of $x \in X$. A subfamily $\mathcal{N}(x)$ of N(x) is called a fundamental system of neighborhoods of x, if for each $U \in N(x)$ there is $V \in \mathcal{N}(x)$ such that $V \subset U$. In fact, $\mathcal{N}(x)$ is a filter base of N(x). In particular, it is well-known ([24]) that $N_{\tau}(x)$ satisfies the following properties:

 $(N_1) x \in U$ for each $U \in N_\tau(x)$,

 (N_2) if $U \in N_\tau(x)$ and $U \subset V \subset X$, then $V \in N_\tau(x)$,

(N₃) if $U_1, U_2 \in N_{\tau}(x)$, then $U_1 \cap U_2 \in N_{\tau}(x)$,

 (N_4) if $V \in N_\tau(x)$, there is $W \in N_\tau(x)$ such that $V \in N_\tau(x)$ for each $y \in W$.

Furthermore, it is well-known (Proposition 1.1.2, [24]) that for each $x \in X$ if $\mathcal{B}(x)$ be a set of subsets of X satisfying the properties $(N_1)-(N_4)$, then a unique topology on X such that $\mathcal{B}(x) = N_{\tau}(x)$. In fact,

$$\tau = \{ V \subset X : \forall x \in V, \exists U \in \mathcal{B}(x) \text{ such that } U \subset V \}.$$

Definition 5.1 (See Theorem 3.3, [10]). Let X be a *BCI*-algebra and let τ be a topology on X. Then X is called a *topological BCI*-algebra (briefly, *TBCI*-algebra), if $* : (X \times X, \tau \times \tau) \to (X, \tau)$ is continuous, i.e., for all $x, y \in X$ and each $W \in N(x * y)$, there are $U \in N(x)$ and $V \in N(y)$ such that $U * V \subset W$, where $U * V = \{x * y \in X : x \in U, y \in V\}$.

Definition 5.2. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra and let τ be a topology on X. Then X is called a *topological* Γ -BCI-algebra (briefly, $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra), if the mapping $f: (X, \tau) \times \Gamma \times (X, \tau) \to (X, \tau)$ is continuous at each $(x, \alpha, y) \in X \times \Gamma \times X$, i.e., for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$, all $x, y \in X$ and each $W \in N(x\alpha y)$, there are $U \in N(x)$ and $V \in N(y)$ such that $U\alpha V \subset W$, where $U\alpha V \subset W = \{x\alpha y : x \in U, y \in V\}$.

It is obvious that if X is a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, then X_{α} is a TBCI-algebra for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$.

Example 5.3. Let $X = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$, let $\Gamma = \{\alpha, \beta\}$ and let $X = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ be the Γ -*BCI*-algebra having the the ternary operation defined as the following table:

α	0	1	2	3	4	β	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	1	0	0	4
1	1	0	0	1	4	1	1	0	2	1	4
2	2	2	0	2	4	2	2	2	0	3	4
3	3	3	3	0	4	3	3	1	3	0	4
4	4	4	4	4	0	4	4	4	4	4	0
	Table 5.1										

Consider the topology τ on X given by:

$$\tau = \{ \emptyset, \{4\}, \{0, 1, 2, 3\}, X \}.$$

Then we can easily check that (X, τ) is a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra. Moreover, X_{α} and X_{β} are TBCI-algebras.

Proposition 5.4. Let X be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra. If $\{0\}$ is open in X, then X is discrete.

Proof. Suppose $\{0\}$ is open in X and let $x \in X$. Then clearly, $x\alpha x = 0 \in \{0\}$. for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Thus by the hypothesis, there are $U, V \in N(x)$ such that $U\alpha V \subset \{0\}$, i.e., $U\alpha V = \{0\}$. Let $W = U \cap V$. Then $W\alpha W \subset U\alpha V$, i.e., $W\alpha W = \{0\}$. Since $U, V \in N(x), x \in U \cap V$. Thus $x \in W$. So $W = \{x\}$ and W is open in X. Hence X is discrete. \Box

The following is an immediate consequence of Proposition 5.4.

Corollary 5.5 (See Proposition 3.5, [10]). Let X be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra. If $\{0\}$ is open in X, then each X_{α} is discrete.

Theorem 5.6. Let X be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra. Then $\{0\}$ is closed in X if and only if X is Hausdorff.

Proof. Suppose $\{0\}$ is closed in X, let x, $y \in X$ such that $x \neq y$. and let $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then $x\alpha y \neq 0$ or $y\alpha x \neq 0$, say $x\alpha y \neq 0$ for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Since $\{0\}$ is closed in X and $x\alpha y \neq 0$, $\{0\}^c$ is open in X and $x\alpha y \in \{0\}^c$. Thus $\{0\}^c \in N(x\alpha y)$. Since X is a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, by Definition 5.2, there are $U \in N(x)$ and $V \in N(y)$ such that $U\alpha V \subset \{0\}^c$. So $U \cap V = \emptyset$. Hence X is Hausdorff.

Conversely, suppose X is Haousdorff and let $x \in \{0\}^c$. Then $x \neq 0$. By the hypothesis, there are $U \in N(x)$ and $V \in N(0)$ such that $U \cap V = \emptyset$. Thus $0 \notin U$. So $U \subset \{0\}^c$. Hence $\{0\}^c$ is open in X. Therefore $\{0\}$ is closed in X. \Box

The following is an immediate consequence of Theorem 5.6.

Corollary 5.7 (See Proposition 3.6, [10]). Let X be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra. Then $\{0\}$ is closed in X if and only if each X_{α} is Hausdorff.

Proposition 5.8. Let X be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra and let A be open in X. If A is Γ -subalgebra of X, then A is a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra.

Proof. Let τ be the topology on X and let τ_A be the subspace topology on A with respect to τ . Let $x, y \in A$. Since A is a Γ -subalgebra of $X, x\alpha y \in A$ for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Let $W_A \in N_{\tau_A}(x\alpha y)$, where $N_{\tau_A}(x\alpha y)$ denotes the neighborhood of $x\alpha y$ in the subspace $(A, \tau_A \text{ of } (X, \tau)$. Then there is $W \in N(x\alpha y)$ such that $W_A = A \cap W$. Since X is a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, there are $U \in N(x)$ and $V \in N(y)$ such that $U\alpha V \subset W$. Thus $U_A = A \cap U \in N_{\tau_A}(x)$ and $V_A = A \cap V \in N_{\tau_A}(x)$. It is clear that

 $U_A \alpha V_A = (A \cap U) \alpha (A \cap V) \subset W$ and $U_A \alpha V_A \subset A$.

So $U_A \alpha V_A \subset A \cap W = W_A$. Hence A is a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra.

$$\square$$

We have an immediate consequence of Proposition 5.8.

Corollary 5.9. Let X be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra and let A be open in X_{α} for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. If A is subalgebra of X_{α} , then A is a TBCI-algebra.

Proposition 5.10. Let X be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra and let I be open in X. If I is a Γ -ideal of X, then I is closed in X.

Proof. Let $x \in I^c$ and let $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Since $x\alpha x = 0 \in I$ and I is open, $I \in N(0)$. Since X is a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, there is $U \in N(x)$ such that $U\alpha U \subset I$. Assume that $U \notin I^c$. Then there is $y \in X$ such that $y \in U \cap I$. It is obvious that $z\alpha y \in U\alpha U \subset I$ for each $z \in U$. Since I is a Γ -ideal of X and $y \in I$, $z \in I$. Thus $U \subset I$. This is a contradiction. So $U \subset I^c$, i.e., I^c is open in X. Hence I is closed in X.

We obtain an immediate consequence of Proposition 5.10.

Corollary 5.11 (See Proposition 3.8, [10]). Let X be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra and let I be open in X_{α} for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. If I is an ideal of X_{α} , then I is closed in X_{α} .

Proposition 5.12. Let X be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra and let I be a Γ -ideal of X. If $0 \in int(I)$, then I is open in X.

Proof. Let $x \in I$ and let $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Since $0 \in int(I)$ and $x\alpha x = 0 \in I$, there is $W \in N(0) = N(x\alpha x)$ such that $W \subset I$. Since X is a TT-BCI-algebra, by Definition 5.2, there are $U, V \in N(x)$ such that $U\alpha V \subset W \subset I$. It is clear that $y\alpha x \in U\alpha V \subset I$ for each $y \in U$. Since I is a Γ -ideal of X and $x \in I, y \in I$. Then $y \in I$. Thus $U \subset I$. So I is open in X.

In Proposition 5.12, when $0 \neq x \in int(I)$, I need not open in X (See Example 3.12, [23]).

Proposition 5.13. Let X be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra. Then $\bigcap N(0) = \{0\}$ and thus $\bigcap \mathcal{N}(0) = \{0\}$.

Proof. The proof is similar to Proposition 3.13 in [23].

Proposition 5.14. Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra and let \mathcal{B}_1 , \mathcal{B}_2 be the families of subsets of X given by:

 $\mathcal{B}_1 = \{x \alpha U : x \in X, \ \alpha \in \Gamma, \ U \in \mathcal{N}(0)\}, \ \mathcal{B}_2 = \{U \alpha x : x \in X, \ \alpha \in \Gamma, \ U \in \mathcal{N}(0)\},\$ where $x \alpha U = \{x \alpha u : u \in U\}$ and $U \alpha x = \{u \alpha x : u \in U\}.$ Then \mathcal{B}_1 and \mathcal{B}_2 are bases for τ .

Proof. The proof is similar to Proposition 3.14 in [23].

To give a filter base on X generating a topology on a Γ -BCI-algebra, let us define a subset U(a) of X generated by each $a \in X$ and each $U \in P(X)$ as follows:

 $U(a) = \{ x \in X : x \alpha a \in U, \ a \alpha x \in U, \ \alpha \in \Gamma \}.$

It is obvious that $U(a) \subset V(a)$ for $U, V \in P(X)$ such that $U \subset V$.

Proposition 5.15. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra. Suppose \mathcal{B} is a filter base on X satisfying the following condition: for any $a, b \in U \in \mathcal{B}$, each $x \in X$ and any $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

(1) $0\alpha a \in U$,

(2) $(x\alpha a)\beta b = 0$ implies $x \in U$.

Then there is a unique topology τ on X such that $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{N}_{\tau}(0)$ and (X, τ) is a TT-BCI-algebra.

Proof. Let $\tau = \{ O \in P(X) : \text{for each } a \in O \text{ there is } B \in \mathcal{B} \text{ such that } B(a) \subset O \}.$

Claim 1: τ is a topology on X. The proof is same as Claim 1 of Proposition 3.15 in [21].

Claim 2: $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{N}_{\tau}(0)$. Let $a \in B \in \mathcal{B}$ and let $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then by (1), $0\alpha a \in B$. Thus by Proposition 3.10(2) and the axiom (ΓA_4), $(0\alpha a)\beta(0\alpha a) = 0$. So by (2), $0 \in B$.

Let $x \in B(a)$. Then $x\alpha a$, $a\alpha x \in B$ and thus there is $u \in U$ such that $x\alpha a = u$. By the the axiom (ΓA_4) , $(x\alpha a)\beta u = 0$ for each $\beta \in \Gamma$. By (2), $x \in B$. So $B(a) \subset B$. By Claim 1, $B \in \tau$. Since $0 \in B$, $B \in N_{\tau}(0)$. Hence $\mathcal{B} \subset N_{\tau}(0)$. Now let $V \in N_{\tau}(0)$. Then there is $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $B(0) \subset V$. It is clear that $0\alpha a$, $a\alpha 0 \in B$ for each $a \in B$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Thus $a \in B(0)$ and $0 \in B \subset B(0) \subset V$. So $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{N}_{\tau}(0)$.

Claim 3: $B(a) \in \tau$ for each $a \in X$ and each $B \in \mathcal{B}$. Let $x \in B(a)$. Then $x \alpha a, a \alpha x \in B$ for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Note that there are $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $B_1(x \alpha a) \subset B$ and $B_2(a \alpha x) \subset B$. Since \mathcal{B} is a filter base on X, there is $U \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $U \in B_1 \cap B_2$. Thus we have

 $U(x\alpha a) \subset B_1(x\alpha a) \subset B$ and $U(a\alpha x) \subset B_2(a\alpha x) \subset B$.

Let $y \in B(x)$. Then $x \alpha y$, $y \alpha x \in B$. By Corollary 3.9(2), we have

 $(x\alpha a)\beta(y\alpha a) \leq x\alpha y, \ (y\alpha a)\beta(x\alpha y) \leq y\alpha x$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$, i.e.,

 $[(x\alpha a)\beta(y\alpha a)]\beta(x\alpha y) = 0, \ [(y\alpha a)\beta(x\alpha y)]\beta(y\alpha x) = 0.$

By (2), $(x\alpha a)\beta(y\alpha a)$, $(y\alpha a)\beta(x\alpha y) \in U$. Thus $y\alpha a \in U(x\alpha a) \subset B_1(x\alpha a) \subset B$. So $y\alpha a \in B$. Similarly, we can show that $a\alpha y \in B$. Hence $y \in B(a)$, i.e., $U(x) \subset B(a)$. Therefore $B(a) \in \tau$.

Claim 4: A mapping $f : (X, \tau) \times \Gamma \times (X, \tau) \to (X, \tau)$ is continuous at each $(x, \alpha, y) \in X \times \Gamma \times X$. Let $x, y \in X$ and let $x \alpha y \in W \in \tau$ for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then

there is $V \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $V(x\alpha y) \subset W$. Let $a \in V(x)$ and let $b \in V(y)$. Then we have

 $[(x\alpha y)\beta(a\alpha b)]\beta(x\alpha a) = [(x\alpha y)\beta(x\alpha a)]\beta(a\alpha b)$ [By Proposition 3.8] $\leq (a\alpha y)\beta(a\alpha b)$ [By Theorem 3.2(1)]

 $\leq b\alpha y$. [By Theorem 3.2(1)]

Thus $([(x\alpha y)\beta(a\alpha b)]\beta(a\alpha b))\beta(b\alpha y) = 0$. By (2), $(x\alpha y)\beta(a\alpha b) \in V$. From Proposition 3.8 and the axiom (ΓA_4), we have: for all $u, v \in V$ and any $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

$$[(u\alpha v)\beta u]\alpha(0\beta b) = 0.$$

So by (1) and (2), we get

(5.1) $u\alpha v \in V \text{ for any } u, v \in V \text{ each } \alpha \in \Gamma.$

Since $(x\alpha y)\beta(a\alpha b), x\alpha a \in V$, by (5.1), we have

 $[(x\alpha y)\beta(a\alpha b)]\beta(x\alpha a), \ (x\alpha a)\beta[(x\alpha y)\beta(a\alpha b)] \in V.$

Thus $(x\alpha y)\beta(a\alpha b) \in V(x\alpha a)$. By (2), $V(x\alpha a) \subset V$. So $(x\alpha y)\beta(a\alpha b) \in V$. Hence $a\alpha b \in V(x\alpha y)$, i.e., $V(x)\alpha V(y) \subset V(x\alpha y) \subset W$. Therefore by Claim 3, f is continuous. The proof of uniqueness for τ is easy. This completes the proof.

Corollary 5.16. Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra. Then $(X, \tau_{\Gamma \mathcal{I}_{C}(X)})$ is a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra.

Proof. We can easily prove that $\Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ is a filter base in X. By Definition 4.8, it is obvious that $0\alpha a \in I$ for each $a \in I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Then the condition 1 of Proposition 5.15 holds. Suppose $(x\alpha a)\beta b = 0$ for all $a, b \in I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$, all $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$ and each $x \in X$. Then $x\alpha a \leq b$ and $b \in I$. Thus by Definition 4.1, $x \in I$. So the condition 2 of Proposition 5.15 holds. Hence by Proposition 5.15, there is a unique topology $\tau_{\Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)}$ on X. Therefore $(X, \tau_{\Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)})$ is a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra.

Example 5.17. Let $X = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ be the Γ -*BCI*-algebra given in Example 5.3 and let $\mathcal{B} = \{\{0, 1\}, \{0, 1, 2\}, \{0, 1, 3\}\}$. Then we can easily check that \mathcal{B} is a filter base on X satisfying the conditions (1) and (2) of Proposition 5.15. Thus the topology $\tau_{\mathcal{B}}$ on X generated by \mathcal{B} is given as follows:

 $\tau_{\mathcal{B}} = \{ \varnothing, \{0,1\}, \{0,1,2\}, \{0,1,3\}, \{0,1,4\}, \{0,1,2,3\}, \{0,1,2,4\}, \{0,1,3,4\}, X \}.$

So (X, τ_{β}) is a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra.

Unless otherwise specified, \mathcal{B} denotes a filter base on a Γ -BCI-algebra X satisfying the conditions 1 and 2 of Proposition 5.15.

Lemma 5.18 (See Lemma 3.17, [23]; Lemma 3.14, [10]). Let $(X, \tau_{\mathcal{B}})$ be a $T\Gamma$ -BCIalgebra. Then for each $B \in \mathcal{B}$,

(1) $B(a) \in N_{\tau}(a)$ for each $a \in X$,

(2) $B(A) = \bigcup_{a \in A} B(a) \in N_{\tau}(A) \in \tau_{\mathcal{B}}$ such that $A \subset B(A)$ for each $A \in P(X)$.

Proof. The proof is obvious.

Proposition 5.19 (See Proposition 3.18, [23]; Theorem 3.15, [10]). If $(X, \tau_{\mathcal{B}})$ is a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, then $\overline{A} = \bigcap_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B(A)$ for each $A \subset X$.

Proof. The proof is similar to Proposition 3.18 in [23].

Corollary 5.20 (See Corollary 3.19, [23]; Corollary 3.16, [10]). Let $(X, \tau_{\mathcal{B}})$ be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra. Then every $B \in \mathcal{B}$ is closed in X, i.e., \mathcal{B} is a collection of clopen subsets of X.

Proof. The proof is similar to Corollary 3.19 in [23].

Proposition 5.21. Let $(X, \tau_{\mathcal{B}})$ be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra. If A is a compact subset of X and $U \in \tau_{\mathcal{B}}$ such that $A \subset U$, then there is $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $A \subset B(A) \subset U$.

Proof. Suppose A is a compact subset of X and $U \in \tau_{\mathcal{B}}$ such that $A \subset U$ and let $a \in A$. Then there is $B_a \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $B_a(a) \subset U$. It is clear that $A \subset \bigcup_{a \in A} B_a(a)$. Since A is a compact subset of X, there are $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in A$ such that $A \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_{a_i}(a_i)$. Let $B = \bigcap_{i=1}^n B_{a_i}$ and $a \in A$. It is obvious that there is $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ such that $a \in B_{a_i}(a_i)$. Then $a\alpha a_i, a_i \alpha a \in B_{a_i}$ for each $\alpha \in \Gamma$. Now let $x \in B(a)$ and let $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$. Then by Corollary 3.9(2), we have

 $(a\alpha a_i)\beta(x\alpha a_i) \leq a\alpha x$, i.e., $[(a\alpha a_i)\beta(x\alpha a_i)]\beta(a\alpha x) = 0$.

Since $a, x \in B$, by the condition (2) of Proposition 5.15, $(a\alpha a_i)\beta(x\alpha a_i) \in B$. Similarly, $(x\alpha a_i)\beta(a\alpha a_i) \in B$. Thus we get

 $x\alpha a_i \in B(a\alpha a_i) \subset B_{a_i}(a\alpha a_i) \subset B_{a_i}(B_{a_i}) \subset B_{a_i}.$

Similarly, $a_i \alpha x \in B_{a_i}$. Thus $y \in B_{a_i} \subset U$. So $B(a) \subset U$ for each $a \in A$, i.e., $B(A) \subset U$. Since \mathcal{B} is a filter base on X, there is $V \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $V \subset \bigcap_{i=1}^n B_{a_i} = B$. Hence $V(a) \subset B(a) \subset U$ for each $a \in A$. Therefore $V(A) \subset B(A) \subset U$. This completes the proof.

Proposition 5.22. Let $(X, \tau_{\mathcal{B}})$ be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, let A be a compact subset of X and let F is closed in X. If $A \cap F = \emptyset$, then there is $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $B(A) \cap B(F) = \emptyset$.

Proof. Suppose $A \cap F = \emptyset$. Then clearly, $F^c \in \tau_{\mathcal{B}}$ and $A \subset F^c$. Thus by Proposition 5.21, there is $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $A \subset B(A) \subset F^c$. Assume that $B(A) \cap B(F) \neq \emptyset$. Then there are $x \in X$, $a \in A$ and $f \in F$ such that $x \in B(a)$ and $y \in B(f)$. By Theorem 3.2(1), we have: for any $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$,

$$(a\alpha x)\beta(a\alpha f) \le f\alpha x \in B, \ (a\alpha f)\beta(a\alpha x) \le a\alpha f \in B.$$

Thus $a\alpha f \in B(a\alpha x) \subset B(B) \subset B$, i.e., $a\alpha f \in B$. Similarly, $f\alpha x \in B$. So $f \in B(a)$. This contradicts to $B(A) \subset F^c$. Hence $B(A) \cap B(F) = \emptyset$.

Now we discuss topological properties on quotient Γ -*BCI*-algebras. To do this, we denote subsets of X/I as \dot{A} , \dot{B} , \dot{C} , etc. and $\dot{\varnothing} = \varnothing$, $\dot{X} = X/I$. All the proofs of propositions, lemmas and corollaries listed below are almost same as these corresponding to [23] respectively, so they are omitted.

Proposition 5.23 (See Proposition 4.13, [23]). Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCK-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. We define a collection τ_{π} of subsets of X/I as follows:

$$\tau_{\pi} = \{ A \in P(X/I) : \pi^{-1}(A) \in \tau \},\$$

where $\dot{A} = \{I[a] : a \in A\}$ for some $A \subset X$. Then (1) τ_{π} is a topology on X/I,

- (2) $\pi: (X, \tau) \to (X/I, \tau_{\pi})$ is continuous, open and closed,
- (3) τ_{π} is the finest topology on X/I with respect to which π is continuous,
- (4) $(X/I, \tau_{\pi})$ is a T Γ -BCI-algebra.

In this case, τ_{π} is called the *quotient topology on* X/I *induced by* π and $(X/I, \tau_{\pi})$ is called a *quotient* $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra and π is called a *quotient mapping*.

Proposition 5.24 (See Proposition 4.14, [23]). Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. If $\{I\}$ is open in $(X/I, \tau_{\pi})$, then X/I is discrete.

The following is an immediate consequence of Propositions 5.23 and 5.24.

Corollary 5.25 (See Corollary 4.15, [23]). Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. If $\{0\}$ is open in X, then X/I is discrete.

Proposition 5.26 (See Proposition 4.16, [23]). Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. If $(X/I, \tau_{\pi})$ is a T_1 -space, then $\{0\}$ is closed in X.

Theorem 5.27 (See Theorem 4.17, [23]). Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. Then $\{I\}$ is closed in $(X/I, \tau_{\pi})$ if and only if X/I is Hausdorff.

The following is an immediate consequence of Proposition 5.23 and Theorem 5.27.

Corollary 5.28 (See Corollary 4.18, [23]). Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. Then $\{0\}$ is closed in X if and only if X/I is Hausdorff.

Proposition 5.29 (See Proposition 4.19, [23]). Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. If \dot{A} is a Γ -ideal of X/I and $I \in int_{\tau_{\pi}}(\dot{A})$, then \dot{A} is open in X/I.

Lemma 5.30 (See Lemma 4.20, [23]). Let X be a Γ -BCI-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. If A is a Γ -ideal of X, then $\pi(A)$ is a Γ -ideal of X/I.

The following is an immediate consequence of Propositions 5.23, 5.29 and Lemma 5.30.

Corollary 5.31 (See Corollary 4.21, [23]). Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCK-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. If A is an ideal of X and $I \in int_{\tau}(\pi(A))$, then $\pi(A)$ is open in X/I.

Proposition 5.32 (See Proposition 4.22, [23]). Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. If \dot{A} is a Γ -ideal of X/I and is open in X/I, then \dot{A} is closed in X/I.

The following is an immediate consequence of Propositions 5.23 and 5.32.

Corollary 5.33 (See Corollary 4.23, [23]). Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. If A is a Γ -ideal of X and is open in X, then $\pi(A)$ is closed in X/I.

Proposition 5.34 (See Proposition 4.24, [23]). Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. If $(X/I, \tau_\pi)$ is Hausdorff, then $\bigcap_{\dot{U} \in N_{\tau-}(I)} \dot{U} = \{I\}$. Moreover, $\bigcap_{\dot{U} \in \mathcal{N}_{\tau-}(I)} \dot{U} = \{I\}$.

Lemma 5.35 (See Lemma 4.25, [23]). Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi: X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. Then $\pi(\mathcal{N}_\tau(0) = \mathcal{N}_{\tau_\tau}(I))$.

Lemma 5.36 (See Lemma 4.26, [23]). Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. Then If X is Hausdorff, then $(X/I, \tau_{\pi})$ is Hausdorff.

The following is an immediate consequence of Propositions 5.23, 5.34 and Lemmas 5.35, 5.36.

Proposition 5.37 (See Proposition 4.27, [23]). Let (X, τ) be a $T\Gamma$ -BCI-algebra, $I \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}_c(X)$ and let $\pi : X \to X/I$ be the natural homomorphism. If X is Hausdorff, then $\bigcap_{\dot{U} \in \mathcal{N}_{\tau_-}(I)} \dot{U} = \{I\}$.

6. Conclusions

We obtained various properties of Γ -BCI-algebras. Also, we dealt with some properties of Γ -ideals, quotient Γ -BCI-algebras and the kernel of a Γ -BCI-homomorphism. Moreover, we studied some of topological properties on Γ -BCI-algebras and quotient Γ -BCI-algebras.

In the future, we will define various types of logical Γ -algebras and discuss their properties, and apply them to topology.

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