

A new type of nilpotent BCI-algebras

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Abstract In this paper we introduce a new notion of nilpotent BCI-algebras based on commutators rather than using nilpotent elements. To be specific and different from the old one (if we may, nilpotent algebras of type 1), call nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2. We prove that every nilpotent BCI-algebra of type 2 is solvable. Also, we show that any finite BCI-algebra is solvable but is not nilpotent of type 2, generally. It is shown that every p -semisimple, associative and commutative BCI-algebra is solvable and nilpotent of type 2. Finally, the relationships between characteristic subalgebras, derived subalgebras and (K-)nil radical of BCI-algebras are investigated.

Keywords (K-)nil radical · commutators · characteristic subalgebra · nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2

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1 Introduction

The notion of BCI-algebras was introduced by K. Iséki in 1966 as a generalization of BCK-algebras [9]. BCK and BCI-algebras are algebraic models of non-classical logics BCK and BCI-logics respectively. It is known that the class of associative BCI-algebras coincides with the class of Boolean groups [8]. The relation between p -semisimple BCI-algebras and abelian groups was presented by T. Lei and C. Xi in [11]. Nilpotent elements and order of elements in BCI-algebras are introduced by K. Iséki and Lin Dahua respectively [15].

Nil BCI-algebras are defined as BCI-algebras in which all elements are nilpotent [6]. There are some papers [10,15] in which such BCI-algebras are called nilpotent algebras. It is well-known that in algebraic structures including groups, rings and Lie algebras the notion of nilpotency is defined based on commutators [3,5] rather than on nilpotent elements. These motivate us to introduce a new notion of nilpotent BCI-algebras without using nilpotency of the elements. This concept is different from the nil (nilpotent)

BCI-algebras previously defined but it is consistent with the nilpotency of other mentioned algebras. To be specific we call such new BCI-algebras, nilpotent BCI-algebra of type 2.

We use the notion of nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2 to develop other new concepts such as component series in these structures. We can also investigate the variety and some subvarieties of these specific type of BCI-algebras. Since nilpotency and solvability are two important notions, we extend these two notions to these BCI-algebras. The aim of the paper is to expound the relation between solvable and nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2, and to discuss further properties of this concepts.

2 Preliminaries

Definition 2.1 *A BCI-algebra is a structure $(X, \rightarrow, 1)$, where \rightarrow is a binary operation on X and 1 is an element of X , verifying, the axioms: for all $x, y, z \in X$,*

$$(I) \quad (x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow ((y \rightarrow z) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow z)) = 1,$$

$$(II) \quad x \rightarrow ((x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y) = 1,$$

$$(III) \quad x \rightarrow x = 1,$$

$$(IV) \quad y \rightarrow x = 1 \text{ and } x \rightarrow y = 1 \text{ imply } x = y.$$

In any BCI-algebra $(X, \rightarrow, 1)$ the natural order can be defined by putting $x \leq y$ if and only if $x \rightarrow y = 1$, for all $x, y \in X$. If in a BCI-algebra $(X, \rightarrow, 1)$ the condition $x \rightarrow 1 = 1$, for all $x \in X$ holds, then it is a BCK-algebra. In BCI-algebra X for all $x, y, z \in X$ we have $((x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y = x \rightarrow y$ and $x \rightarrow (y \rightarrow z) = y \rightarrow (x \rightarrow z)$ [4, 8]. A BCI-algebra X is called proper if it is not a BCK-algebra. A non-empty subset S of a BCI-algebra X is called a subalgebra of X , if $x \rightarrow y \in S$ whenever $x, y \in S$. Also a non-empty subset F of a BCI-algebra X is called a filter if: (i) $1 \in F$, (ii) $x \rightarrow y \in F$ and $x \in F$ imply $y \in F$, for all $x, y \in X$. An element x in a BCI-algebra X is called a positive element if it satisfies $x \rightarrow 1 = 1$. Let F be a filter of a BCI-algebra X . Then the relation θ_F defined by $(x, y) \in \theta_F$ if and only if $x \rightarrow y \in F$ and $y \rightarrow x \in F$ is a congruence relation on X . If C_x denote the class of $x \in X$, then $C_1 = F$. Assume that $X/F = \{C_x : x \in X\}$. Then $(X/F, \rightarrow, C_1)$ is a BCI-algebra, where $C_x \rightarrow C_y = C_{x \rightarrow y}$, for all $x, y \in X$. A mapping $f : X \rightarrow Y$ from BCI-algebras is called a homomorphism, if for any $x, y \in X$, $f(x \rightarrow y) = f(x) \rightarrow f(y)$ holds. The BCI-algebra X is called commutative if $x \leq y$ implies $y = y \vee x$, where $x \vee y = (x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y$. In any commutative BCI-algebra X for all $x, y \in X$ we have $(x \vee y) \rightarrow (y \vee x) = (y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow 1$. A BCI-algebra X is called p -semisimple if $(x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1 = x$, for all $x \in X$. In any p -semisimple BCI-algebra X for all $x, y \in X$ we have $(x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow 1 = y \rightarrow x$ and $(x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y = x$. A BCI-algebra X is called associative if $(x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow z = x \rightarrow (y \rightarrow z)$, for all $x, y, z \in X$ [4, 7, 8, 9]. From now on, in this paper, $(X, \rightarrow, 1)$ or simply X is a BCI-algebra, unless otherwise specified.

Definition 2.2 [6] An element x of X is a nilpotent element if $x^n \rightarrow 1 = 1$ for some positive integer n , where $x^n \rightarrow y = x \rightarrow \underbrace{(\dots \rightarrow (x \rightarrow (x \rightarrow y)) \dots)}_{n\text{-times}}$.

A filter F of X is called a nil filter of X if every element of F is nilpotent. In particular, if every x in X is nilpotent, then X is called a nilpotent BCI-algebra [4] or a nil BCI-algebra [6].

For every positive integer k , we define

$$N_k(X) = \{x \in X : x^k \rightarrow 1 = 1\}$$

$$N(X) = \{x \in X : x \text{ is a nilpotent element}\}$$

The set $N(X)$ is called the nil-radical of X , and $N_k(X)$ is called the k -nil radical set of X [4].

Definition 2.3 [14] Let x_1, x_2 be elements of X . The element $((x_2 \rightarrow x_1) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow ((x_1 \vee x_2) \rightarrow (x_2 \vee x_1))$ of X is called a pseudo-commutator of x_1 and x_2 and is denoted by $[x_1, x_2]$. i.e.,

$$[x_1, x_2] = ((x_2 \rightarrow x_1) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow ((x_1 \vee x_2) \rightarrow (x_2 \vee x_1)).$$

Definition 2.4 [12, 13, 14] Suppose that X_1, X_2 are non-empty subsets of X . Define a commutator of X_1 and X_2 to be

$$[X_1, X_2] = \{\prod [x_1, x_2] : x_1 \in X_1, x_2 \in X_2\}.$$

Where $\prod [x_1, x_2] = [a_1, b_1] \rightarrow [a_2, b_2] \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow [a_n, b_n]$, for $a_i \in X_1$ and $b_i \in X_2$. $[X, X]$ is called the commutator subalgebra or the derived subalgebra of X and is denoted by X' . Therefore $X' = \{x_1 \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow x_n : n \geq 1, \text{ each } x_i \text{ is a pseudo-commutator in } X\}$.

Now, we give an explicit example of how obtain $[X_1, X_2]$ and X' .

Example 2.1 Let $X = \{0, a, b, c, d\}$. Define " \rightarrow " on X by

\rightarrow	a	b	c	d	1
a	1	a	b	d	1
b	1	1	a	d	1
c	1	1	1	d	1
d	1	1	1	1	1
1	a	b	c	d	1

Then $(X, \rightarrow, 1)$ is a BCK-algebra and so a BCI-algebra. Put $X_1 = \{a, c\}$ and $X_2 = \{d\}$. Therefore $[X_1, X_2] = \{\prod [x_1, x_2] : x_1 \in X_1, x_2 \in X_2\} = \{[a, d] = a, [c, d] = c, [a, d] \rightarrow [c, d] = b, [c, d] \rightarrow [a, d] = 1, ([c, d] \rightarrow [a, d]) \rightarrow [c, d] = c, [c, d] \rightarrow ([a, d] \rightarrow [c, d]) = 1, \dots\} = \{a, b, c, 1\}$. Also we obtain $X' = [X, X] = \{[1, a] = 1, [a, b] = 1, \dots, [a, d] = a, [c, d] = c, [a, d] \rightarrow [a, d] = 1, [a, d] \rightarrow [c, d] = b, ([c, d] \rightarrow [a, d]) \rightarrow [c, d] = c, [c, d] \rightarrow ([a, d] \rightarrow [c, d]) = 1, \dots\} = \{a, b, c, 1\}$.

Theorem 2.5 [12, 13, 14] *Suppose that F is a filter of X . Then*

- i) X is commutative if and only if $X' = \{1\}$,*
- ii) X' is a subalgebra of X ,*
- iii) $[A/F, B/F] = [A, B]/F$ for two subsets A, B of X ,*
- iv) if Y is a subalgebra of X , then Y' is a subalgebra of X' .*

Lemma 2.6 [13, 14] *Let f be a homomorphism from X to a BCI-algebra Y . Then $f([x, y]) = [f(x), f(y)]$, for all $x, y \in X$.*

Lemma 2.7 [4] *For any $x, y \in X$ and $n \in N$, $(x \rightarrow y)^n \rightarrow 1 = (x^n \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y^n \rightarrow 1)$.*

Although not all of the finite groups are necessarily nilpotent, based on the *Definition 2.2*, every finite BCI-algebra and every BCK-algebra is nilpotent [4]. This is the main difference between the *definitions* of nilpotent BCI-algebras and nilpotent groups. In addition, since p-semisimple BCI-algebras are convertible to abelian groups [1], it is expected that similar to abelian groups, any p-semisimple BCI-algebra be nilpotent, but this is not always the case.

Example 2.2 Let $C^* = C \setminus \{0\}$, where C is the set of all complex numbers. Then as it has mentioned in [6], $(C^*, \div, 1)$ is an infinite p -semisimple BCI-algebra. Now it is easy to check that $z \in C^*$ is a nilpotent element iff $z^n = 1$ for some $n \in N$. Therefore C^* is not a nilpotent BCI-algebra.

Notation 2.1 [14] We put $C^0(X) = X, C^1(X) = [X, X], \dots, C^k(X) = [C^{k-1}(X), X]$ and $C_0(X) = X, C_1(X) = [X, X], \dots, C_k(X) = [C_{k-1}(X), C_{k-1}(X)]$.

Definition 2.8 [14] *X is called solvable if there exists $n \in N$ such that $C_n(X) = \{1\}$. The smallest such n is called the derived length of X .*

Lemma 2.9 [2] *Let X be a BCK-algebras. Then $[x, y]$ is not a maximal element of X , for all $x, y \in X$.*

3 Nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2

We have introduced and studied some properties of solvable BCI-algebras in [14]. In this section, we present some new results on solvable BCI-algebras. Also, we generalize the concept of nilpotency in groups theory into BCI-algebras and define the notion of nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2 and discuss its properties.

Definition 3.1 *X is called nilpotent of type 2 if there exists $n \in N$ such that $C^n(X) = \{1\}$. The least such n is called the nilpotency class of X .*

$C^m(X)$ and $C_m(X)$ are non-empty subsets of X because $1 \in C_m(X)$ and $1 \in C^m(X)$, for all $m \in N$.

Example 3.1 [4] Let $X = \{a, b, c, d, 1\}$. We define " \rightarrow " on X by

\rightarrow	a	b	c	d	1
a	1	b	b	b	1
b	b	1	a	a	b
c	b	1	1	a	b
d	b	1	1	1	b
1	a	b	c	d	1

$(X, \rightarrow, 1)$ is a BCI-algebra. The pseudo-commutators of elements of X are given by the following table

$[\cdot, \cdot]$	a	b	c	d	1
a	1	1	1	1	1
b	1	1	1	1	1
c	1	1	1	a	1
d	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1

Then $C^0(X) = C_0(X) = X, C^1(X) = C_1(X) = \{a, 1\}, C^2(X) = C_2(X) = \{1\}$. Therefore X is solvable of length 2. Also X is nilpotent of type 2 and the nilpotency class is 2.

By Theorem 2.5, we have the following lemma.

Lemma 3.2 X is commutative if and only if $C^1(X) = C_1(X) = \{1\}$.

Proposition 3.3 If $A \subseteq B \subseteq X$, then $[C, A] \subseteq [C, B]$ and $[A, C] \subseteq [B, C]$ for any $C \subseteq X$.

Proof. Let $t \in [C, A]$. Then there exist $c_i \in C$ and $a_i \in A$, for $i \in I$ such that $t = \prod [c_i, a_i]$. Since $A \subseteq B$, $a_i \in B$ and $t = \prod [c_i, a_i] \in [C, B]$. Therefore $[C, A] \subseteq [C, B]$. The proof of the other statement is similar. \square

In Example 3.1 if we put $A = \{a, 1\}$ and $B = \{b, 1\}$, then for every $C \subseteq X$ we have $[A, C] \subseteq [B, C]$ and $[C, A] \subseteq [C, B]$ but $A \not\subseteq B$. Therefore the converse of Proposition 3.3 is not true in general.

The above proposition leads to the following.

Proposition 3.4 For any non-negative integer m , $C_m(X) \subseteq C^m(X)$.

Proof. By induction on m . For $m = 0$, we have $C_0(X) = X = C^0(X)$. Now assume that $C_{m-1}(X) \subseteq C^{m-1}(X)$, for some $m > 0$. Then $C_m(X) = [C_{m-1}(X), C_{m-1}(X)] \subseteq [C_{m-1}(X), X] \subseteq [C^{m-1}(X), X] = C^m(X)$, hence the result holds for m . \square

Now we describe the relation between nilpotent BCI-algebra of type 2 and solvable BCI-algebra.

Corollary 3.5 Every nilpotent BCI-algebra of type 2 is solvable.

Proof. Let X be nilpotent of type 2. Then there exists $m \in N$ such that $C^m(X) = \{1\}$. Since $C_m(X)$ is a non-empty set and $C_m(X) \subseteq C^m(X) = \{1\}$, $C_m(X) = \{1\}$. Therefore X is solvable. \square

Theorem 3.6 *i) Every commutative BCI-algebra is nilpotent of type 2 and solvable.*

ii) Every p -semisimple BCI-algebra is nilpotent of type 2 and solvable.

iii) Every associative BCI-algebra is nilpotent of type 2 and solvable.

Proof. i) For any commutative BCI-algebra X , $C_1(X) = [X, X] = C^1(X) = \{1\}$. Hence X is nilpotent of type 2 and solvable.

ii) Let X be a p -semisimple BCI-algebra and $x, y \in X$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} [x, y] &= ((y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow ((x \vee y) \rightarrow (y \vee x)) \\ &= ((y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow y) \\ &= (x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow y) = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $C_1(X) = [X, X] = C^1(X) = \{1\}$. Hence X is nilpotent of type 2 and solvable.

iii) Let X be an associative BCI-algebra and $x, y \in X$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} [x, y] &= ((y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (((x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y) \rightarrow ((y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow x)) \\ &= (y \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow ((x \rightarrow (y \rightarrow y)) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow (x \rightarrow x))) \\ &= (y \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow ((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \\ &= ((y \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1) \\ &= (y \rightarrow ((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1))) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1) \\ &= (y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1) = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $C_1(X) = C^1(X) = \{1\}$. Hence X is nilpotent of type 2 and solvable. \square

Lemma 3.7 *If $A \subseteq B \subseteq X$, then $C^m(A) \subseteq C^m(B)$ and $C_m(A) \subseteq C_m(B)$, for all $m \in N \cup \{0\}$.*

Proof. We prove by induction on m . For $m = 0$, we have $C^0(A) = A \subseteq C^0(B) = B$ and $C_0(A) = A \subseteq C_0(B) = B$.

Now assume that $C^{m-1}(A) \subseteq C^{m-1}(B)$ and $C_{m-1}(A) \subseteq C_{m-1}(B)$, for some $m > 0$. Then $C^m(A) = [C^{m-1}(A), A] \subseteq [C^{m-1}(B), B] = C^m(B)$ and $C_m(A) = [C_{m-1}(A), C_{m-1}(A)] \subseteq [C_{m-1}(B), C_{m-1}(B)] = C_m(B)$. \square

The following example shows that the converses of statements in Corollary 3.5, Theorem 3.6, as well as the equality of Proposition 3.4 may not hold.

Example 3.2 i) [4] Let $X = \{a, b, c, d, 1\}$. We define the operation " \rightarrow " on X by

\rightarrow	a	b	c	d	1
a	1	b	c	c	1
b	1	1	c	c	1
c	c	c	1	a	c
d	c	c	1	1	c
1	a	b	c	d	1

Then $(X, \rightarrow, 1)$ is a BCI-algebra. It is easy to check that $C^0(X) = C_0(X) = X$, $C^1(X) = C_1(X) = \{a, 1\}$ and $C_2(X) = \{1\}$. Also $C^2(X) = C^3(X) = C^4(X) = \dots = \{a, 1\}$. Therefore X is solvable of length 2 but X is not nilpotent of type 2.

ii) The BCI-algebra X in Example 3.1 is nilpotent of type 2 and solvable. It is not commutative because $d \leq c$ but $(c \rightarrow d) \rightarrow d = a \rightarrow d = b \neq c$. Since $(a \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1 = 1 \neq a$, X is not p-semisimple. Also $b = a \rightarrow (1 \rightarrow d) \neq (a \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow d = d$. Then X is not an associative BCI-algebra.

Open problem 1. Under what suitable conditions is the converse of the Corollary 3.5 and Theorem 3.6 true?

Theorem 3.8 i) $C_n(X)$ is a subalgebra of $C_{n-1}(X)$, for any $n \in N$.
 ii) $C^n(X)$ is a subalgebra of $C^{n-1}(X)$, for any $n \in N$.

Proof. i) We prove by induction on n . For $n = 1$, we have $C_1(X) = X'$ is a subalgebra of $C_0(X) = X$ by Theorem 2.5 (ii). Now assume that $C_n(X)$ is a subalgebra of $C_{n-1}(X)$, for some $n \geq 1$. Then $C_{n+1}(X) = (C_n(X))'$, which is a subalgebra of $(C_{n-1}(X))' = C_n(X)$ by Theorem 2.5 (iv).

ii) For $n = 1$, we have $C^1(X) = X'$ is a subalgebra of $C^0(X) = X$. Now assume that $C^n(X)$ is a subalgebra of $C^{n-1}(X)$, for some $n \geq 1$. Then $C^{n+1}(X) = [C^n(X), X] \subseteq [C^{n-1}(X), X] = C^n(X)$, so $C^{n+1}(X) \subseteq C^n(X)$. Let $x, y \in C^{n+1}(X)$, then there exist $a_i, b_i \in C^n(X)$ and $c_i, d_i \in X$ such that $x = [a_1, c_1] \rightarrow [a_2, c_2] \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow [a_n, c_n]$, $y = [b_1, d_1] \rightarrow [b_2, d_2] \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow [b_m, d_m]$. Therefore $x \rightarrow y = ([a_1, c_1] \rightarrow [a_2, c_2] \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow [a_n, c_n]) \rightarrow ([b_1, d_1] \rightarrow [b_2, d_2] \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow [b_m, d_m])$. So $x \rightarrow y \in C^{n+1}(X)$. Whence $C^{n+1}(X)$ is a subalgebra of $C^n(X)$. Hence the result holds for n in the both case. \square

Theorem 3.9 Let X, Y be two BCI-algebras. Then for subsets A, C of X and B, D of Y we have $[A \times B, C \times D] = [A, C] \times [B, D]$.

Proof. Let $t \in [A \times B, C \times D]$. Therefore $t = [(a, b), (c, d)]$, where $(a, b) \in A \times B$ and $(c, d) \in C \times D$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} t &= [(a, b), (c, d)] = (((c, d) \rightarrow (a, b)) \rightarrow (1, 1)) \\ &\rightarrow (((((a, b) \rightarrow (c, d)) \rightarrow (c, d)) \rightarrow (((c, d) \rightarrow (a, b)) \rightarrow (a, b))) \\ &= (((c \rightarrow a) \rightarrow 1), ((d \rightarrow b) \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (((a \rightarrow c) \rightarrow c) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& ,((b \rightarrow d) \rightarrow d) \rightarrow (((c \rightarrow a) \rightarrow a), ((d \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b))) \\
& =(((c \rightarrow a) \rightarrow 1), ((d \rightarrow b) \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (((a \rightarrow c) \rightarrow c) \\
& \rightarrow ((c \rightarrow a) \rightarrow a)), (((b \rightarrow d) \rightarrow d) \rightarrow ((d \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b))) \\
& =((((c \rightarrow a) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (((a \rightarrow c) \rightarrow c) \rightarrow ((c \rightarrow a) \rightarrow a))) \\
& ,(((d \rightarrow b) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (((b \rightarrow d) \rightarrow d) \rightarrow ((d \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b)))) \\
& =([a, c], [b, d]) \in [A, C] \times [B, D].
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore $[A \times B, C \times D] \subseteq [A, C] \times [B, D]$.

Now, let $t \in [A, C] \times [B, D]$. Then $t = (x, y)$ for some $x \in [A, C]$ and $y \in [B, D]$. Then there exist $a \in A, b \in B, c \in C$ and $d \in D$ such that $x = [a, c]$ and $y = [b, d]$. So $t = (x, y) = ([a, c], [b, d]) = [(a, b), (c, d)] \in [A \times B, C \times D]$. Thus $[A, C] \times [B, D] \subseteq [A \times B, C \times D]$. Hence $[A \times B, C \times D] = [A, C] \times [B, D]$. \square

Theorem 3.10 *Let X and Y be two BCI-algebras. Then for all non-negative integer n , we have*

- i) $C_n(X \times Y) = C_n(X) \times C_n(Y)$,
- ii) $C^n(X \times Y) = C^n(X) \times C^n(Y)$.

Proof. i) We prove by induction on n , for $n = 0$, $C_0(X \times Y) = X \times Y = C_0(X) \times C_0(Y)$. Now assume that $C_{n-1}(X \times Y) = C_{n-1}(X) \times C_{n-1}(Y)$, for some positive integer n . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
C_n(X \times Y) & = [C_{n-1}(X \times Y), C_{n-1}(X \times Y)] \\
& = [C_{n-1}(X) \times C_{n-1}(Y), C_{n-1}(X) \times C_{n-1}(Y)] \\
& = [C_{n-1}(X), C_{n-1}(X)] \times [C_{n-1}(Y), C_{n-1}(Y)] \\
& = C_n(X) \times C_n(Y).
\end{aligned}$$

ii) We proceed by induction on n . For $n = 0$, $C^0(X \times Y) = X \times Y = C^0(X) \times C^0(Y)$. Now assume that $C^{n-1}(X \times Y) = C^{n-1}(X) \times C^{n-1}(Y)$, for some positive integer n . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
C^n(X \times Y) & = [C^{n-1}(X \times Y), X \times Y] \\
& = [C^{n-1}(X) \times C^{n-1}(Y), X \times Y] \\
& = [C^{n-1}(X), X] \times [C^{n-1}(Y), Y] \\
& = C^n(X) \times C^n(Y).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence the result holds for n . \square

Corollary 3.11 *The product of nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2 (solvable) is a nilpotent BCI-algebra of type 2 (solvable).*

Remark 3.1 We consider the BCI-algebra $X = \{a, b, c, d, 1\}$ from Example 3.2 (i). X is nilpotent but is not nilpotent of type 2. Thus every nilpotent need not be a nilpotent of type 2 in general. Also the BCI-algebra C^* in Example 2.2 is nilpotent of type 2 but is not nilpotent, since $1 \div x^n \neq 1$ for any positive integer n and any real number $x \neq \pm 1$.

Lemma 3.12 $[x, y]$ is a positive element of X , for all $x, y \in X$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
 [x, y] \rightarrow 1 &= (((y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (((x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y) \rightarrow ((y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow x))) \rightarrow 1 \\
 &= (((y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (((x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow \\
 &\rightarrow (((y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow x) \rightarrow 1) \\
 &= (((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow 1) \\
 &\rightarrow (((x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (((y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \\
 &= (((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \\
 &\rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \\
 &= (((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow ((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (((x \rightarrow 1) \\
 &\rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \\
 &= (((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1) \\
 &\rightarrow ((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \\
 &= (((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \\
 &\rightarrow (((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow ((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \\
 &= (((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \\
 &\rightarrow (x \rightarrow ((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1))) \\
 &\rightarrow (((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1)) \\
 &\rightarrow (((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \\
 &= (((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \\
 &\rightarrow (x \rightarrow (((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow ((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)))) \\
 &= (((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1) \\
 &= x \rightarrow (((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow 1 \\
 &= x \rightarrow (y \rightarrow (((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1) \\
 &= x \rightarrow ((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow ((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1) \\
 &= x \rightarrow ((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow ((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1))) \\
 &= x \rightarrow ((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow ((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1))) \\
 &= x \rightarrow ((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow 1) \\
 &= 1.
 \end{aligned}$$

Then $[x, y]$ is a positive element of X . \square

Lemma 3.13 $[x, y] \rightarrow 1 = [x \rightarrow 1, y \rightarrow 1] = 1$, for all $x, y \in X$.

Proof. By Definition 2.3 and Lemma 2.7 we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} [x \rightarrow 1, y \rightarrow 1] &= (((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (((x \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \\ &\rightarrow (y \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (((y \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \\ &= (((y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow ((x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y) \rightarrow ((y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow x)) \rightarrow 1 \\ &= [x, y] \rightarrow 1 = 1. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 3.14 For all positive integers m, n , we have

- i) $C_n(C_m(X)) = C_{n+m}(X)$,
- ii) $C^n(C_m(X)) = C_{n+m}(X)$.

Proof. i) Induction on n . For $n = 1$, $C_1(C_m(X)) = [C_m(X), C_m(X)] = C_{m+1}(X) = C_{1+m}(X)$ by definition. Assume the result is true for all m , and for a specific n . Want $C_{n+1}(C_m(X)) = C_{n+m+1}(X)$. But

$$\begin{aligned} C_{n+1}(C_m(X)) &= [C_n(C_m(X)), C_n(C_m(X))] \\ &= [C_{n+m}(X), C_{n+m}(X)] \\ &= C_{n+m+1}(X). \end{aligned}$$

ii) We prove by induction on n , for $n = 1$, $C^1(C_m(X)) = C_1(C_m(X)) = [C_m(X), C_m(X)] = C_{m+1}(X) = C_{1+m}(X)$. Let $C^{n-1}(C_m(X)) = C_{n-1+m}(X)$, for all m and for a specific n . Then

$$\begin{aligned} C^n(C_m(X)) &= [C^{n-1}(C_m(X)), C_m(X)] \\ &= [C_{n-1+m}(X), C_m(X)] \\ &= [C_{n-1}(C_m(X)), C_m(X)] \\ &= C_n(C_m(X)) \\ &= C_{n+m}(X). \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Remark 3.2 It is possible, for some positive integers m, n , to have

- i) $C_{n+m}(X) \neq C_n(C^m(X)) \neq C^{n+m}(X)$,
- ii) $C^n(C_m(X)) \neq C^{n+m}(X)$,
- iii) $C_{n+m}(X) \neq C^m(C^m(X)) \neq C^{n+m}(X)$.

For example, if we consider the BCI-algebra $X = \{a, b, c, d, 1\}$ from Example 3.2 (i), we have $C_1(C^4(X)) = [C^4(X), C^4(X)] = [\{a, 1\}, \{a, 1\}] = \{1\} \neq \{a, 1\} = C^5(X)$. Also $C^2(C_2(X)) = \{1\} \neq C^4(X)$.

Any finite BCK-algebra is solvable [2]. In the following theorem we show that this statement holds for finite BCI-algebras.

Theorem 3.15 Any finite BCI-algebra is solvable.

Proof. Let X be a finite BCI-algebra and B be the set of all its positive elements. Suppose that $|X| = n \geq 2$.

Case I: Let X be a BCK-algebra and M be the set of maximal elements of

X . Then $C_1(X)$ is a subalgebra contained in $X \setminus M$ by Theorem 2.5 (ii) and Lemma 2.9. Hence $|X| > |C_1(X)|$. By induction $|X| > |C_1(X)| > |C_2(X)| > \dots > |C_k(X)| = 1$ for some $k \leq n$ (for more details see [2]).

Case II: If X is not a BCK-algebra, then there exists at least an element $x \in X$ such that $x \rightarrow 1 \neq 1$. Since $[x, y]$ is a positive element for every $x, y \in X$, $C_1(X)$ is a subalgebra contained in B . Since B itself is a BCK-algebra, by case I, B is solvable. Therefore $C_1(X)$ is solvable. Hence there exists $n \in N$ such that $C_n(C_1(X)) = \{1\}$. So $C_{n+1}(X) = \{1\}$. Therefore X is solvable. \square

The following example shows that there are finite BCK/BCI-algebras that are not nilpotent of type 2, in general.

Example 3.3 [4] Let $X = \{a, b, c, d, 1\}$. Define " \rightarrow " on X by

\rightarrow	a	b	c	d	1
a	1	a	b	d	1
b	1	1	a	d	1
c	1	1	1	d	1
d	1	1	1	1	1
1	a	b	c	d	1

Then $(X, \rightarrow, 1)$ is a BCK-algebra. We obtain $C^n(X) = \{a, b, c, 1\}$, for every $n \geq 1$. Therefore X is not nilpotent of type 2.

Corollary 3.16 *There are proper inclusions of classes:*
 $\{\text{commutative BCI-algebras}\} \subseteq \{\text{nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2}\} \subseteq \{\text{solvable BCI-algebras}\}$

Proof. By Corollary 3.5, Theorem 3.6 and Example 3.2 is obvious. \square

Corollary 3.17 *Suppose that X is nilpotent of type 2. Then the nilpotency class of X is less or equal n iff $[[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}], x_n] = 1$, for all $x_i \in X$.*

Proof. X is nilpotent of type 2 of class less or equal n if and only if $C^n(X) = \{1\}$ if and only if $[C^{n-1}(X), X] = \{1\}$ if and only if $[[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}], x_n] = 1$, for all $x_i \in X$. \square

4 Some properties of $C_n(X), C^n(X)$

In this section, we investigate more properties of $C_n(X), C^n(X)$.

Theorem 4.1 *Let A and B are two subsets of X and f be a homomorphism of X to a BCI-algebra Y . Then for every non-negative integer n , we have*

- i) $f([A, B]) = [f(A), f(B)]$,
- ii) $f(C^n(A)) = C^n(f(A))$,
- iii) $f(C_n(A)) = C_n(f(A))$.

Proof. *i)* Let $y \in f([A, B])$. Then there exists $x \in [A, B]$ such that $y = f(x)$. So $x = [a, b]$ for some $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ and hence $y = f(x) = f([a, b]) = [f(a), f(b)] \in [f(A), f(B)]$. Therefore $f([A, B]) \subseteq [f(A), f(B)]$. Conversely, let $y \in [f(A), f(B)]$. Therefore there exist $y_1 \in f(A)$ and $y_2 \in f(B)$ such that $y = [y_1, y_2]$. Thus, $y_1 = f(a)$ and $y_2 = f(b)$ for some $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. Hence $y = [y_1, y_2] = [f(a), f(b)] = f([a, b]) \in f([A, B])$. Whence $[f(A), f(B)] \subseteq f([A, B])$. Therefore $[f(A), f(B)] = f([A, B])$.
ii) We prove by induction on n . If $n = 0$, then $f(C^0(A)) = f(A) = C^0(f(A))$. Now assume that $f(C^{n-1}(A)) = C^{n-1}(f(A))$, for some $n \in N$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(C^n(A)) &= f([C^{n-1}(A), A]) \\ &= [f(C^{n-1}(A)), f(A)] \\ &= [C^{n-1}(f(A)), f(A)] \\ &= C^n(f(A)). \end{aligned}$$

iii) We prove by induction on n . If $n = 0$, then $f(C_0(A)) = f(A) = C_0(f(A))$. Now assume that $f(C_{n-1}(A)) = C_{n-1}(f(A))$, for some $n \in N$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(C_n(A)) &= f([C_{n-1}(A), C_{n-1}(A)]) \\ &= [f(C_{n-1}(A)), f(C_{n-1}(A))] \\ &= [C_{n-1}(f(A)), C_{n-1}(f(A))] \\ &= C_n(f(A)). \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 4.2 *Let f be an isomorphism from X to a BCI-algebra Y . Then X is nilpotent of type 2 if and only if Y is nilpotent of type 2.*

Proof. Since $f(X) = Y$, $C^k(Y) = C^k(f(X)) = f(C^k(X))$, for any $k \in N$. But X is nilpotent of type 2, then there exists $n \in N$ such that $C^n(X) = \{1\}$. Therefore, $\{1\} = f(\{1\}) = f(C^n(X)) = C^n(Y)$. Hence, Y is a nilpotent of type 2.

Conversely, let Y be a nilpotent BCI-algebra of type 2. Then $f(C^n(X)) = C^n(f(X)) = C^n(Y) = \{1\}$, for some $n \in N$. Therefore $f(C^n(X)) = \{1\} = f(\{1\})$. Hence $C^n(X) = \{1\}$, that is, X is nilpotent of type 2. \square

Theorem 4.3 *Let F be a filter of X . Then $C^n(X/F) = C^n(X)/F$ and $C_n(X/F) = C_n(X)/F$, for any positive integer n .*

Proof. For $n = 1$, we have $C^1(X/F) = [X/F, X/F] = [X, X]/F = C^1(X)/F$. Also $C_1(X/F) = [X/F, X/F] = [X, X]/F = C_1(X)/F$. Now inductively assume that $C^{n-1}(X/F) = C^{n-1}(X)/F$ and $C_{n-1}(X/F) = C_{n-1}(X)/F$, for some $n \geq 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} C^n(X/F) &= [C^{n-1}(X/F), X/F] \\ &= [C^{n-1}(X)/F, X/F] \\ &= [C^{n-1}(X), X]/F \\ &= C^n(X)/F. \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 C_n(X/F) &= [C_{n-1}(X/F), C_{n-1}(X/F)] \\
 &= [C_{n-1}(X)/F, C_{n-1}(X)/F] \\
 &= [C_{n-1}(X), C_{n-1}(X)]/F \\
 &= C_n(X)/F. \quad \square
 \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 4.4 *The quotient of a nilpotent BCI-algebra of type 2 (solvable) is a nilpotent BCI-algebra of type 2 (solvable).*

Proof. Let F be a filter of a nilpotent BCI-algebra X of type 2. Then for some $n \in N$, $C^n(X) = \{1\}$. Hence $C^n(X/F) = C^n(X)/F = \{1\}/F = \{F\}$. Therefore X/F is a nilpotent BCI-algebra of type 2.

Also, if X is a solvable, then for some $n \in N$, $C_n(X) = \{1\}$. Hence $C_n(X/F) = C_n(X)/F = \{1\}/F = \{F\}$. Therefore X/F is a solvable BCI-algebra. \square

Theorem 4.5 *Subalgebras and homomorphic images of nilpotent BCI-algebra of type 2 are nilpotent of type 2.*

Proof. Let Y be a subalgebra of X . Then $Y \subseteq X$ and so $C^n(Y)$ is a subset of $C^n(X)$, for all $n \in N$. Since X is a nilpotent of type 2, there exists $m \in N$ such that $C^m(X) = \{1\}$ and so $C^m(Y) = \{1\}$. Thus, Y is a nilpotent BCI-algebra of type 2. Now, let $(X, \rightarrow, 1)$ and $(Y, \rightarrow', 1')$ be two BCI-algebras and X is nilpotent of type 2, $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be an epimorphism from X onto Y . Then for any non-negative integer n , we have $f(C^n(X)) = C^n(Y)$. Hence $\{1\} = f(\{1\}) = f(C^n(X)) = C^n(Y)$. So, $f(C^n(X)) = C^n(Y) = \{1\}$. Thus Y is a nilpotent BCI-algebra of type 2. \square

Lemma 4.6 *Let F be a filter of X . Then F and X/F are solvable iff X is a solvable BCI-algebra.*

Proof. Let f be the natural homomorphism from X onto X/F . Since X/F is solvable, for some $n \in N$, $f(C_n(X)) = C_n(f(X)) = C_n(X/F) = F$. Hence $C_n(X)$ is a subalgebra of $\text{Ker}(f) = F$. Since F is a solvable, there exists a positive integer m such that $C_m(F) = \{1\}$. Therefore, $C_m(C_n(X)) = C_{m+n}(X) \subseteq C_m(F) = \{1\}$. Hence $C_{m+n}(X) = \{1\}$. i.e., X is solvable. Conversely, let X be solvable. Therefore, for some $n \in N$, $C_n(X) = \{1\}$. Since $F \subseteq X$, $C_n(F) \subseteq C_n(X) = \{1\}$. Then $C_n(F) = \{1\}$. Hence F is solvable, also X/F is a solvable by Lemma 4.4. \square

Remark 4.1 In Example 3.2 (i), $F = \{a, 1\}$ is a filter of X which is nilpotent of type 2. The quotient BCI-algebra induced by this filter is $X/F = \{C_1, C_b, C_c, C_d\}$. We obtain $C^1(X/F) = C^1(X)/F = \{C_1\}$. Therefore F and X/F are nilpotent of type 2, but X is not a nilpotent BCI-algebra of type 2.

Theorem 4.7 Let $(X_i, \rightarrow_i, 1_i)$ be an indexed family of BCI-algebras. Then
 i) $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ is nilpotent of type 2 if and only if X_i is nilpotent of type 2, for all $i \in I$.

ii) $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ is solvable if and only if X_i is solvable, for all $i \in I$.

Proof. Let $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ be nilpotent of type 2, then there exists $n \in N$ such that $C^n(\prod_{i \in I} X_i) = \{1\}$. The project mapping $p : \prod_{i \in I} X_i \rightarrow X_i$ is an epimorphism. Therefore $\{1\} = p(\{1\}) = p(C^n(\prod_{i \in I} X_i)) = C^n(p(\prod_{i \in I} X_i)) = C^n(X_i)$. Hence X_i is nilpotent of type 2.

Conversely, let X_i be nilpotent of type 2. If $C^1(X_i) = \{1\}$, then we show that $C^1(\prod_{i \in I} X_i) = \{1\}$. Suppose that $t \in C^1(\prod_{i \in I} X_i)$, then there exist sequences $(a_i)_{i \in I}$ and $(b_i)_{i \in I}$ in $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} t &= [(a_i)_{i \in I}, (b_i)_{i \in I}] \\ &= ([a_1, b_1], [a_2, b_2], \dots) \\ &= (1_1, 1_2, \dots) \\ &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $t = 1$ and hence $C^1(\prod_{i \in I} X_i) = \{1\}$. By induction we can show that if $C^n(X_i) = \{1\}$, then $C^n(\prod_{i \in I} X_i) = \{1\}$. So $\prod_{i \in I} X_i$ is nilpotent of type 2. The proof (ii) is similar. \square

Lemma 4.8 For every $k \in N$, $N_1(X) \subseteq N_k(X) \subseteq N(X)$ and $N(X) = \bigcup_{k \in N} N_k(X)$.

Proof. Let $x \in N_1(X)$. Then $x \rightarrow 1 = 1$. Since $x^k \rightarrow 1 = x \rightarrow (\underbrace{\dots \rightarrow (x \rightarrow (x \rightarrow 1)) \dots}_{k\text{-times}}) = \dots = x \rightarrow 1 = 1$, $x \in N_k(X)$. Therefore

$N_1(X) \subseteq N_k(X)$. If $x \in N_k(X)$ for $k \in N$, then $x^k \rightarrow 1 = 1$. Therefore x is a nilpotent element of X . i.e., $x \in N(X)$. So, $N_k(X) \subseteq N(X)$ for any positive integer k .

Obviously, $\bigcup_{k \in N} N_k(X) \subseteq N(X)$. Let $x \in N(X)$. Then there exists $k \in N$ such that $x^k \rightarrow 1 = 1$. Then $x \in N_k(X)$, hence $x \in \bigcup_{k \in N} N_k(X)$. Therefore $N(X) \subseteq \bigcup_{k \in N} N_k(X)$. \square

Lemma 4.9 Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a monomorphism from X to a BCI-algebra Y . Then $f(N_k(X)) = N_k(f(X))$ for all $k \in N$ and $f(N(X)) = N(f(X))$.

Proof. Let $y \in f(N_k(X))$. Then there exists $x \in N_k(X)$ such that $y = f(x)$. Since $x \in N_k(X)$, $x^k \rightarrow 1 = 1$. Hence $f(1) = f(x^k \rightarrow 1) = f(x^k) \rightarrow f(1) = (f(x))^k \rightarrow f(1)$. Therefore $y = f(x) \in N_k(f(X))$. So, $f(N_k(X)) \subseteq N_k(f(X))$.

Conversely, let $y = f(x) \in N_k(f(X))$. Then $(f(x))^k \rightarrow f(1) = f(1) = f(x^k \rightarrow 1)$. Since f is one to one, $x^k \rightarrow 1 = 1$. Whence $x \in N_k(X)$, so $f(x) \in f(N_k(X))$. Thus $N_k(f(X)) \subseteq f(N_k(X))$. Then $f(N_k(X)) = N_k(f(X))$. Since, $N(X) = \bigcup_{k \in N} N_k(X)$, $f(N(X)) = f(\bigcup_{k \in N} N_k(X)) = \bigcup_{k \in N} f(N_k(X)) = \bigcup_{k \in N} N_k(f(X)) = N(f(X))$. \square

Theorem 4.10 *Let $\{A_i : i \in I\}$ be a family of BCI-algebras. Then $N(\prod_{i \in I} A_i) = \prod_{i \in I} N(A_i)$.*

Proof. Suppose that $x \in \prod_{i \in I} N(A_i)$. Then $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ where x_i is nilpotent in A_i . Thus, for each $1 \leq i \leq n$, there exists $m_i \in N$ such that $x_i^{m_i} \rightarrow 1_i = 1_i$. Put $m = m_1 m_2 \dots m_n$. Then $x^m \rightarrow 1 = 1$, that is $x \in N(\prod_{i \in I} A_i)$. Therefore $\prod_{i \in I} N(A_i) \subseteq N(\prod_{i \in I} A_i)$. Conversely, let $x \in N(\prod_{i \in I} A_i)$. Then $x^m \rightarrow 1 = 1$ for some $m \in N$. But $x^m \rightarrow 1 = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^m \rightarrow (1_1, 1_2, \dots, 1_n) = (1_1, 1_2, \dots, 1_n)$. Hence $x_i^m \rightarrow 1_i = 1_i$, for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Therefore $x_i \in N(A_i)$ and consequence $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \prod_{i \in I} N(A_i)$. \square

5 Characteristic subalgebras

In this section, we introduce the notion of characteristic subalgebra of BCI-algebras and investigate the relation between this concept and the derived subalgebras, nil radicals and k-nil radicals.

Definition 5.1 *A subalgebra Y is called characteristic subalgebra of X if every automorphism of X maps Y to itself. That is, if $f \in \text{Aut}(X)$, then $f(Y) \subseteq Y$.*

Obviously, $X, \{1\}$ are characteristic subalgebras of X .

Example 5.1 Let $X = \{a, b, c, 1\}$. Define \rightarrow on X as follows:

\rightarrow	a	b	c	1
a	1	b	b	1
b	a	1	a	1
c	1	1	1	1
1	a	b	c	1

Then $(X, \rightarrow, 1)$ is a BCK-algebra and so a BCI-algebra. The functions $f_1(x) = x$ and f_2 defined by

$$f_2(x) = \begin{cases} b & \text{if } x = a \\ a & \text{if } x = b \\ x & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

are all automorphisms of X . Then $Y = \{a, b, 1\}$ is a subalgebra of X . These automorphisms map Y to itself. Therefore, Y is a characteristic subalgebra of X . Also $Z = \{a, 1\}$ is a subalgebra of X . f_2 maps Z to $\{b, 1\}$. Therefore Z is not a characteristic subalgebra of X .

Theorem 5.2 *The derived subalgebra of X is a characteristic subalgebra.*

Proof. Obviously, X' is a subalgebra of X . Let f be an automorphism of X . Then $f([X, X]) = [f(X), f(X)]$, thus $f(X') = (f(X))' = X'$. It follows that $[X, X]$ is a characteristic subalgebra of X . \square

Theorem 5.3 For any $k \in N$, $N_k(X)$ is a characteristic subalgebra of X .

Proof. Clearly, $1 \in N_k(X)$, then $N_k(X)$ is non-empty. Put $x, y \in N_k(X)$. Then $x^k \rightarrow 1 = 1 = y^k \rightarrow 1$. Hence, $(x \rightarrow y)^k \rightarrow 1 = (x^k \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y^k \rightarrow 1) = 1 \rightarrow 1 = 1$. Therefore $x \rightarrow y \in N_k(X)$ and $N_k(X)$ is a subalgebra of X . Now, suppose that f is an automorphism of X and $x \in N_k(X)$, then $x^k \rightarrow 1 = 1$. Hence $1 = f(1) = f(x^k \rightarrow 1) = f(x^k) \rightarrow f(1) = (f(x))^k \rightarrow 1$. Therefore $f(x) \in N_k(X)$. It follows that $N_k(X)$ is a characteristic subalgebra of X . \square

Theorem 5.4 The nil-radical $N(X)$ is a characteristic subalgebra of X .

Proof. Since 1 is nilpotent, $N(X)$ is non-empty. Let $x, y \in N(X)$. Then there exist $m, n \in N$ such that $x^m \rightarrow 1 = 1$ and $y^n \rightarrow 1 = 1$. Then $x^{mn} \rightarrow 1 = (x^m \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (x^{m(n-1)} \rightarrow 1) = x^{m(n-1)} \rightarrow 1 = \dots = x^m \rightarrow 1 = 1$. Likewise, $y^{mn} \rightarrow 1 = 1$. By Lemma 2.7, we get that $(x \rightarrow y)^{mn} \rightarrow 1 = (x^{mn} \rightarrow 1) \rightarrow (y^{mn} \rightarrow 1) = 1 \rightarrow 1 = 1$. Hence $x \rightarrow y \in N(X)$. Thus $N(X)$ is a subalgebra of X . Suppose that f is an automorphism of X and $x \in N(X)$, then $x^k \rightarrow 1 = 1$ for some $k \in N$. Hence $1 = f(1) = f(x^k \rightarrow 1) = f(x^k) \rightarrow f(1) = (f(x))^k \rightarrow 1$. Therefore $f(x) \in N(X)$. It follows that $N(X)$ is a characteristic subalgebra of X . \square

Example 5.2 i) In Example 5.1, $N_k(X) = X$, for any $k \geq 1$ and $N(X) = X$. Also $C^n(X) = C_n(X) = \{1\}$, for any $n \geq 1$. Thus $C^n(X) \neq N_k(X)$, $C_n(X) \neq N_k(X)$ and $C^n(X) \neq N(X)$, $C_n(X) \neq N(X)$ for every $k, n \in N$.
ii) Let $X = [0, 1]$. Define " \rightarrow " on X by

$$x \rightarrow y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \leq y \\ y & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then $(X, \rightarrow, 1)$ is a BCI-algebra. $C^1(X) = X = [0, 1]$, $C^2(X) = [X, X] = [0, 1)$, ..., $C^k(X) = [X, C^{k-1}(X)] = [0, 1)$ for any $k \in N$ and $C_1(X) = X$, $C_2(X) = [X, X] = \dots = C_k(X) = [C_{k-1}(X), C_{k-1}(X)] = [0, 1)$. Since, $x \rightarrow 1 = 1$ for any $x \in X$, X is nilpotent. But X is not nilpotent of type 2, because $C^k(X) = [0, 1) \neq \{1\}$ for any $k \in N$.

Theorem 5.5 $C^n(X)$ and $C_n(X)$ are characteristic subalgebras of X .

Proof. We prove by induction on n . If $n = 0$, then $C_0(X) = X$ that is a subalgebra of X . Now assume that $C_k(X)$ for any $k < n$ is a subalgebra of X . Therefore, $C_n(X) = C_1(C_{n-1}(X))$, which is a subalgebra of $C_1(X)$. Since $C_1(X)$ is a subalgebra of X , $C_n(X)$ is a subalgebra of X . Clearly, $0 \in C^n(X)$, then $C^n(X)$ is non-empty. Let $x, y \in C^n(X)$. Then there exist $a_i, b_i, c_i, d_i \in C^{n-1}(X)$ such that $x = \prod[a_i, b_i] = x_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow x_m$ and $y = \prod[c_i, d_i] = y_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow y_l$. Hence, $x \rightarrow y = \prod[a_i, b_i] \rightarrow \prod[c_i, d_i] = (x_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow x_m) \rightarrow (y_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow y_l)$. Therefore $x \rightarrow y \in C^n(X)$. Whence $C^n(X)$ is a subalgebra of X .

Now, suppose that f is an automorphism of X . Since $f(C^n(X)) = C^n(f(X))$

$= C^n(X)$ and $f(C_n(X)) = C_n(f(X)) = C_n(X)$, for every $n \in N$, then f maps $C^n(X)$ to $C^n(X)$ also f maps $C_n(X)$ to itself. Hence $C^n(X)$ and $C_n(X)$ are characteristic subalgebras of X . \square

The following example shows that the converse of Theorems 5.2, 5.3, 5.4 and 5.5 may not always hold.

Example 5.3 i) In Example 5.1, Y is a characteristic subalgebra of X , but it is not a commutator subalgebra of X , since $C^n(X) = C_n(X) = \{1\}$, for every positive integer n .

ii) Consider the BCI-algebra C^* in Example 2.2. It is clear that C^* is a characteristic subalgebra. We obtain that $N_1(C^*) = \{1\}$, $N_2(C^*) = \{-1, 1\}, \dots, N_n(C^*) = \{z \in C^* : z^n = 1\}$. Thus $C^* \neq N_k(C^*)$ for any $k \in N$, also $C^* \neq N(C^*)$.

iii) In Example 5.1 consider $Y = \{a, b, 1\}$. Y is a characteristic subalgebra of X , but $\{1\} = C^n(X) = C_n(X) \neq Y$ for all $n \in N$.

Theorem 5.6 *If A is a characteristic subalgebra of X , then $C^n(A), C_n(A), N_k(A)$ and $N(A)$ are characteristic subalgebras of X .*

Proof. Let A be a characteristic subalgebra of X . Then $C^n(A), C_n(A), N_k(A)$ and $N(A)$ are subalgebras of X . Suppose that $f \in \text{Aut}(X)$, then $f(A) \subseteq A$. Therefore $f(C^n(A)) = C^n(f(A)) \subseteq C^n(A)$. Also $f(C_n(A)) = C_n(f(A)) \subseteq C_n(A)$, for any $n \in N$. Hence $C^n(A)$ and $C_n(A)$ are characteristic subalgebras of X . Since $f(N_k(A)) \subseteq N_k(f(A)) \subseteq N_k(A)$ and $f(N(A)) \subseteq N(f(A)) \subseteq N(A)$, $N_k(A)$ and $N(A)$ are characteristic subalgebras of X . \square

6 Conclusion

The notion of nilpotent BCI-algebras was formulated first by W. Huang. In this paper, we characterized the notion of nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2 and we studied relationships between nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2 and nilpotent BCI-algebras. The results of this paper show that:

- (1) Every nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2 is solvable.
- (2) Any finite BCI-algebra is solvable but is not nilpotent of type 2 in general.
- (3) commutative BCI algebras \subseteq nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2 \subseteq solvable BCI-algebras.
- (4) $C^n(X), C_n(X), N_k(X)$ and $N(X)$ are characteristic subalgebras of X .

Some important issues for future work are:

- i) Considering concept nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2 in simple BCI-algebras and other specific BCI-algebras.
- ii) Making Engle BCI-algebras similar with Engle groups by using nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2.
- iii) Considering filters and subalgebras in nilpotent BCI-algebras of type 2.

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