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# On Edge Q-Algebras

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Abstract. The concept of an edge in Q-algebra is introduced in this work. We explore some properties of edge Q-algebras. The characterization of subsets of an edge Q-algebra to be subalgebras is provided. We show that for an edge Q-algebra X of order n, there are  $2^{n-1}$  subalgebras of X. Moreover, the set of all subalgebras forms a semigroup with a right identity. Beside this, the concept of ideal is discussed. We obtain that the set of all ideals forms a left zero semigroup and a simple semigroup. Finally, we describe all possible structures of edge Q-algebras and enumerate all members of a class of all edge Q-algebras. We prove that there are exactly  $2^{n^2-3n+2}$  edge Q-algebras of order n. Finally, we show a connection between Q-algebras and d-algebras. We obtain that every edge d-algebra is a Q-algebra. Precisely, every edge d-algebra is an edge Q-algebra.

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#### 1. Introduction and Preliminaries

Back in the period of the late 20th century, K. Iseki and Y. Imai introduced two classes of logical algebras which are called BCK-algebra and BCI-algebra in 1966 [1, 2]. The class of BCK-algebras is a proper subclass of the class of BCI-algebras. Later, in 1978 K. Iseki and S. Tanaka discussed the theory of BCK-algebras in [3]. Since then, many new kinds of algebras which are related to BCK/BCI- algebras are introduced. In 1983, Q. P. Hu and X. Li introduced the notion of BCH-algebra which is a generalization of BCK/BCI-algebras [4, 5]. In 1984, a class of BCC-algebras was presented by Y. Komori [6], and then in 1992 W.A. Dudek discussed some properties of this algebra in [7].

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A d-algebra, another generalization of BCK/BCI-algebras, was appeared in 1999 by J. Neggers and H.S. Kim [8]. The authors explored relations between d-algebras and BCK-algebras. The concept of edge in d-algebras is also provided. They showed that every d-transitive edge d-algebra is a BCK-algebra. Moreover, they obtained a correspondence between oriented digraphs and edge d-algebras such that every edge d-algebra produces an oriented digraph. Some years later, Neggers and Kim also introduced the notion of Q-algebras and B-algebras. In 2001, an algebra which related to BCK/BCI-algebras was emerged, so called Q-algebra, by J. Neggers, S. Ahn and H. S. Kim [9]. A Q-algebra is an algebraic system (X;\*,0) consists of a non-empty set X, a constant  $0 \in X$  and a binary operation \* defined on X that yields the following three conditions  $(Q_1), (Q_2)$  and  $(Q_3)$  as the following: For any  $x, y, z \in X$ ,

- $(Q_1) x * x = 0,$
- $(Q_2) \ x * 0 = x,$
- $(Q_3) (x * y) * z = (x * z) * y.$

We omit the symbol \* for a convenient reason. Let us mention here, later on we will denote the symbol  $\mathbf{X}$  as a Q-algebra (X;\*,0) unless otherwise specified.

In [9], the authors presented some connections of BCK/BCI/BCH-algebras and Q-algebras. They showed that a Q-algebra  $\mathbf{X}$  satisfying the condition (A): for all  $x, y \in X$ , xy = 0 and yx = 0 implies x = y, is a BCH-algebra. A Q-algebra  $\mathbf{X}$  satisfying the conditions (A) and (B): (xy)(xz) = zy for all  $x, y, z \in X$ , is a BCI-algebra. A Q-algebra  $\mathbf{X}$  is a BCK-algebra if the conditions (A), (B) and (C): for all  $x, y, z \in X$ , (xy)x = 0, are hold. The concepts of subalgebra, G-part and ideal were also offered in [9]. A non-empty subset S of S is a subalgebra if S for any S and S if is easy to see that a subset S is a subalgebra of a S-algebra S since S for any S and S-algebra S is an ideal of S if the following conditions S-algebra S-algebr

 $(I_2)$  for  $x, y \in X$ , if  $xy \in I$ ,  $y \in I$ , then  $x \in I$ .

The subsets  $\{0\}$  and X are obviously ideals of  $\mathbf{X}$ . An ideal I of  $\mathbf{X}$  is called a zero ideal if  $I = \{0\}$ , otherwise I is a non-zero ideal of  $\mathbf{X}$ . The G-part of  $\mathbf{X}$ , denoted by G(X), is defined by

$$G(X) = \{ a \in X \mid 0a = a \}.$$

It is easy to see that  $0 \in G(X)$  since 00 = 0. The authors in [9] obtained the characterization of G(X) which is an ideal of **X** when  $|X| \le 3$ . They also provided that every subalgebra S of **X**,  $G(X) \cap S = G(S)$  where  $G(S) = \{x \in S \mid 0x = x\}$ .

**Example 1.** Let  $X = \{0, a, b, c, d, f\}$ . Define a binary operations \* on X as the following table:

*	0	a	b	c	d	f
0	0	a	c	b	c	b
a	$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ f \end{bmatrix}$	0	b	c	b	c
b	b	c	0	a	0	a
c	c	d	a	0	a	0
d	d	c	0	a	0	a
f	$\int f$	d	a	0	a	0

It is a routine to check that X is a Q-algebra. A subset  $S = \{0, a, b, c, d\}$  is a subalgebra of X but a subset  $T = \{0, f\}$  is not a subalgebra since  $0 * f = b \notin T$ . Moreover, a subset T is not an ideal since  $c * f = 0 \in T$  and  $f \in T$  but  $c \notin T$ . Let consider a subset  $I = \{0, a\}$ . It is not difficult to check that I is an ideal and I = G(X).

In 2004, S. S. Ahn, H. Kim and H. D. Lee discussed the homomorphisms of Q-algebra in [10]. They introduced the self-maps of Q-algebras which are called a right map and a left map. They obtained that a right map is an endomorphism whenever **X** is a positive implicative Q-algebra, i.e. (xy)(xz) = xyz for all  $x, y, z \in X$ . In 2011, another self-map of a Q-algebra X, called a right fixed map, is discussed and examined their properties in [11] by S. M. Lee. The author showed that the set of all right fixed maps of  $\mathbf{X}$  is a Q-algebra under a binary operation which is induced from a binary operation on X. In 2010, S. S. Ahn and S. E. Kang proposed the concept of atom in Q-algebras. An element w of X is an atom if xw = 0 implies x = w for all  $x \in X$ . They showed that any subalgebra of X is an ideal of X whenever every non-zero element of X is an atom [12]. In 2024 the authors in [13] examined some properties of atoms in Q-algebras. They showed some relations between atoms and the set G-part which is related to the concept of ideal. They proved that every element of G(X) is an atom whenever G(X) is an ideal. The notion of strong atoms was also offered in [13], which was inspired from the concept of strong atom in BCK-algebra (see [14]). They proved that **X** does not contain a strong atom whenever X contains a non-zero ideal G(X). The concept of fuzzy set on Q-algebra can be found in [15] and [16]. The authors provided some properties of fuzzy Q-ideals, fuzzy prime ideals and fuzzy relations of Q-algebras. Recently, in 2025 the authors in [17] discussed the concept of ideal in Q-algebra. They provided a characterization of ideals which is related to the G-part. They showed that every G-part that is an ideal, is an abelian group.

In this work, we introduce the notion of edge Q-algebras. We describe all possible edge Q-algebras of order n. We examine some properties of edge Q-algebras. The connection between d-algebras and edge Q-algebras is provided. The concepts of subalgebras and ideals are discussed in edge Q-algebras. We give necessary and sufficient conditions for subsets of an edge Q-algebra to be subalgebras. We also provide some properties in edge Q-algebras which are related to the concept of ideals. We obtain that the set of all ideals forms a right zero semigroup and a simple semigroup. Finally, we describe all possible structures of edge Q-algebras and enumerate all members of a class of all edge Q-algebras.

## 2. Edge Q-algebras

Let A and B be non-empty subsets of a Q-algebra  $\mathbf{X}$ . We define a product AB in a usual way as follow:

$$AB = \{ab \mid a \in A, b \in B\}.$$

If  $B = \{x\}$ , we denote AB and BA by Ax and xA, respectively.

**Proposition 1.** Let A, B and C be non-empty subsets of a Q-algebra X. Then the following properties are valid:

- (i) (AB)C = (AC)B.
- (ii)  $A\{0\} = A0 = A$ .
- (iii) If  $A \subseteq B$ , then  $AC \subseteq BC$  and  $CA \subseteq CB$ .
- (iv) If  $0 \in B$ , then  $A \subseteq AB$ .
- (v) If  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ , then  $0 \in AB$ .

*Proof.* (i) Follows directly from the condition  $(Q_3)$ .

- (ii) By the condition  $(Q_2)$ , we get  $A\{0\} = \{a \mid a \in A\} = \{a \mid a \in A\} = A$ .
- (iii) It is obvious.
- (iv) By (ii), (iii) and since  $0 \in B$ , then  $A = A\{0\} \subseteq AB$ .
- (v) Let  $x \in A \cap B$ . Then by the condition  $(Q_1)$ ,  $0 = xx \in AB$ .

Concerning to the concept of subalgebra in algebras, in general a subalgebra is a non-empty subset which is closed. In Q-algebras, we get a sharp condition as seen in the following proposition:

**Proposition 2.** Let A and B be non-empty subsets of a Q-algebra X. Then

- (i) A is a subalgebra of X if and only if AA = A.
- (ii) If  $A \subseteq B$  and B is a subalgebra, then  $AB \subseteq B$ .
- *Proof.* (i) Assume that A is a subalgebra of **X**, then  $AA \subseteq A$ . Since  $0 \in A$ , then by Proposition 1(iv),  $A \subseteq AA$ . Thus, AA = A. The converse direction is clear.
- (ii) Assume that B is a subalgebra of **X** and  $\emptyset \neq A \subseteq B$ . Then by (i) and Proposition 1(iii), we get  $AB \subseteq BB \subseteq B$ .

Next, we will introduce the notion of an edge Q-algebra. In d-algebra, J. Neggers and H. S. Kim introduced the concept of edge d-algebras in 1999 [8]. A d-algebra consists of a non-empty set X with a constant  $0 \in X$  together with a binary operation on X satisfying the following axioms: for all  $x, y, z \in X$ ,

- $(d_1) xx = 0,$
- $(d_2) x0 = 0,$
- $(d_3)$  xy = 0 and yx = 0 imply x = y.

Both d-algebras and Q-algebras are generalizations of BCI/BCK/BCH-algebras. But both of them are independent, i.e. a Q-algebra need not be a d-algebra and vice versa. The following example shows this fact:

**Example 2.** Let  $X = \{0, a, b, c\}$ ,  $Y = \{0, x, y, z\}$  and  $T = \{0, \gamma, \beta, \nu\}$ . Define binary operations \* on X,  $\bullet$  on Y and  $\circ$  on T as the following tables:

Then (X; \*, 0) is a d-algebra and  $(Y; \bullet, 0)$  is a Q-algebra. Since  $0 * b = c \neq 0$ , then the condition  $(Q_2)$  is not satisfied in X. Then (X; \*, 0) is not a Q-algebra. Moreover,  $(Y; \bullet, 0)$  is not a d-algebra since  $0 \bullet y = z \neq 0$ , i.e. the condition  $(d_2)$  is not valid. The algebra  $(T; \circ, 0)$  is a d-algebra and a Q-algebra.

A d-algebra  $\mathbf{X}$  is said to be edge if  $xX = \{0, x\}$  for all  $x \in X$ . From Example 2, a d-algebra  $(T; \circ, 0)$  is an edge d-algebra. In [8] the authors obtained some properties of edge d-algebras as the following:

**Proposition 3.** [8] Let X be an edge d-algebra. Then x0 = x for all  $x \in X$ .

Now we describe the concept of edge in Q-algebra motivated by [8].

**Definition 1.** A Q-algebra X is said to be edge if  $aX = \{0, a\}$  for all  $a \in X$ .

**Example 3.** Let  $X = \{0, x, y, z\}$  and  $Y = \{0, a, b, c, d, f\}$ . Define binary operations \* on X and  $\bullet$  on Y as the following tables:

					•	0	a	b	c	d	f
*	0	$\boldsymbol{x}$	y	z	0	0	$\overline{a}$	$\overline{f}$	b	b	b
0	0	0	0	0	a	a	0	b	f	f	f
$\boldsymbol{x}$	x	0	0	0	b	b	c	0	a	a	a
y	y	y	0	y	c	c	b	a	0	0	0
z	z	0	0	0	d	d	b	a	0	0	0
,	•				f	f	b	a	0	0	0

Then (X; \*, 0) and  $(Y; \bullet, 0)$  are Q-algebras. Since  $0X = \{0\}, xX = \{0, x\}, yX = \{0, y\}$  and  $zX = \{0, z\}$ , then X is an edge Q-algebra. Since  $aY = \{0, a, b, f\} \neq \{0, a\}$ , then Y is not edge.

Next proposition provides a connection between d-algebras and Q-algebras. We show a sufficient condition for a d-algebra to be a Q-algebra.

**Proposition 4.** Every edge d-algebra is a Q-algebra, more specific it is an edge Q-algebra.

Proof. Let **X** be an edge d-algebra. We want to show that **X** is a Q-algebra. The condition  $(Q_1)$  and  $(Q_2)$  follow from the condition  $(d_1)$  and Proposition 3, respectively. Let  $x, y, z \in X$ . We calculate (xy)z and (xz)y. Since **X** is an edge d-algebra, then  $xy \in xX = \{0, x\}$ , i.e. xy = 0 or xy = x. If xy = 0, then by  $(d_2)(xy)z = 0z = 0$ . Since  $xz \in xX = \{0, x\}$ , there follows  $(xz)y \in \{0y, xy\} = \{0\}$ . Thus, (xy)z = (xz)y. Now we assume xy = x. Then  $(xy)z = xz \in xX = \{0, x\}$ . If xz = 0, then by  $(d_2)(xy)z = xz = 0 = 0y = (xz)y$ . If xz = x, then (xy)z = xz = x = xy = (xz)y. Therefore, (xy)z = (xz)y for all  $x, y, z \in X$ . Hence, the condition  $(Q_3)$  is fulfilled. Thus, **X** is a Q-algebra. Since **X** is edge, then **X** is an edge Q-algebra.

The converse of Proposition 4 is not true, i.e. there is an edge Q-algebra which is not an edge d-algebra as shown in the following example.

**Example 4.** Let  $X = \{0, \alpha, \eta, \mu\}$  and a binary operation \* be defined on X as the following table.

Then (X; \*, 0) is an edge Q-algebra. Since  $\alpha * \mu = 0$  and  $\mu * \alpha = 0$  but  $\alpha \neq \mu$ , then the condition  $(d_3)$  is not satisfied. Thus, (X; \*, 0) is not a d-algebra.

Next, we examine some properties of edge Q-algebras.

**Proposition 5.** Let X be an edge Q-algebra and let A and B be non-empty subsets of X. Then the following properties are valid.

- (i)  $0X = \{0\}.$
- (ii) If  $0 \in A$ , then  $0 \in AB$ .

*Proof.* (i) It is clear.

(ii) Let  $0 \in A$  and  $b \in B$ , then by (i) there follows that  $0 = 0b \in 0B \subseteq AB$ .

For any  $a \in X$ , a subset aX normally is not necessarily a subalgebra of X. For example, a set  $aY = \{0, a, b, f\}$  in Example 3 is not a subalgebra of  $(Y; \bullet, 0)$  since  $b \bullet a = c \notin aY$ . But for edge Q-algebras we get the following positive result.

**Proposition 6.** If X is an edge Q-algebra, then aX is a subalgebra of X for all  $a \in X$ . Proof. Let  $a \in X$ . Then  $aX = \{0, a\}$ . It is easy to verify that 00, a0 and aa are elements in aX. Now we calculate 0a. Since  $0a \in 0X$ , by Proposition 5(i) we get  $0a = 0 \in aX$ . Therefore, aX is closed and then aX is a subalgebra of X.

Next, we will examine some conditions that lead the product of subsets of a Q-algebra  $\mathbf{X}$  to be a subalgebra of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

**Proposition 7.** Let X be an edge Q-algebra and let  $\emptyset \neq A, B \subseteq X$ . If  $0 \in A$  or  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$  then AB is a subalgebra of X.

Proof. Assume that  $0 \in A$ . Then by Proposition 5(ii),  $0 \in AB$ . Let  $x, y \in AB$ . Since  $\mathbf{X}$  is an edge Q-algebra, then  $xy \in xX = \{0, x\}$ . There follows that xy = 0 or xy = x. Thus,  $xy \in AB$ . Therefore, AB is a subalgebra. Assume now that  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ . By Proposition 1(v),  $0 \in AB$ . Using the same argument, we get AB is closed. Hence, AB is a subalgebra of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

The converse of Proposition 7 is not true as shown in the following example.

**Example 5.** Let  $X = \{0, a, b, c\}$  and let a binary operation \* be defined on X as follow:

*	0	a	b	c
0	0	0	0	0
a	a	0	a	0
b	b	0	0	0
c	c	c	c	0

It is a routine to check that (X; \*, 0) is a Q-algebra. Since  $0X = \{0\}$ ,  $aX = \{0, a\}$ ,  $bX = \{0, b\}$  and  $cX = \{0, c\}$ , then X is an edge. Let  $A = \{b\}$  and  $B = \{c\}$ . Then  $AB = \{b * c\} = \{0\}$  is a subalgebra. But neither  $0 \in A$  nor  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ . Thus, the converse of Proposition 7 is not true.

Corollary 1. Let X be an edge Q-algebra and let A, B be non-empty subsets of X. Then the following properties are true.

- (i) If A is a subalgebra of X, then AB is a subalgebra of X.
- (ii) If A is an ideal of X, then AB is a subalgebra of X.
  - *Proof.* (i) Follows directly from Proposition 7 since 0 is a member of A.
- (ii) Assume that A is an ideal of **X**. By  $(I_1)$ , 0 is a member of I there follows by Proposition 7 that AB is a subalgebra of **X**.

Corollary 2. Let X be an edge Q-algebra. Then the following properties are true.

- (i) For any  $a, b \in X$ ,  $aX \cup bX$  is a subalgebra of X.
- (ii) Let  $\emptyset \neq \Lambda \subseteq X$ . Then  $\bigcup_{a \in \Lambda} aX$  is a subalgebra of X.

*Proof.* (i) Let  $a, b \in X$ . Since **X** is an edge Q-algebra, then  $aX \cup bX = \{0, a\} \cup \{0, b\} = \{0, a, b\}$ . Set  $A = \{0, a, b\}$  and  $B = \{0\}$ , then by Proposition 1(ii),  $AB = A = \{0, a, b\} = aX \cup bX$ . Since  $0 \in A$ , then by Proposition 7,  $AB = aX \cup bX$  is a subalgebra of **X**.

Since  $0 \in A$ , by Proposition 7  $AB = \bigcup_{a \in \Lambda} aX$  is a subalgebra of **X**.

For a Q-algebra  $\mathbf{X}$ , we denote the set of all subalgebras of  $\mathbf{X}$  by Sub(X). Next proposition provides the characterization of subalgebras of an edge Q-algebra and enumerate all of subalgebras of any edge Q-algebra  $\mathbf{X}$ .

**Proposition 8.** Let X be an edge Q-algebra and let |X| = n for some positive integer n. Then the following conditions are hold:

- (i) For  $\emptyset \neq S \subseteq X$ , S is a subalgebra of **X** if and only if  $0 \in S$ .
- (ii)  $|Sub(X)| = 2^{n-1}$ .

*Proof.* (i)  $(\Rightarrow)$  It is clear.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Let S be a non-empty subset of X and assume  $0 \in S$ . By Proposition 1(ii),  $S\{0\} = S$ . Set  $A = S, B = \{0\}$  and then by Proposition 7 there follows  $AB = S\{0\} = S$  is a subalgebra of X.

(ii) From (i) we conclude that any subset of X containing a constant 0 is a subalgebra of  $\mathbf{X}$ . There follows that

$$|Sub(X)| = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} {n-1 \choose i} = 2^{n-1}.$$

**Proposition 9.** Let X be an edge Q-algebra. Then Sub(X) is a semigroup with a right identity  $\{0\}$ .

Proof. Let  $A, B, C \in Sub(X)$ . By Corollary 1, AB is a subalgebra and then Sub(X) is closed. Since  $0 \in B$ , by Proposition 1(iv) we get  $A \subseteq AB$ . Since **X** is edge and  $0 \in A$ , then  $AB \subseteq AX = A \cup \{0\} = A$ . Therefore,  $A \subseteq AB \subseteq A$ . Thus, AB = A. There follows (AB)C = AC = A = AB = A(BC). This gives an associative law. Hence, Sub(X) is a semigroup. Moreover, by Proposition 1(ii)  $A\{0\} = A$  this shows that  $\{0\}$  is a right identity.

From Proposition 6, we get an information that a set aX is a subalgebra for any element a in an edge Q-algebra  $\mathbf{X}$ . But this kind of subset need not be an ideal. For example, a subset aX of X in Example 5 is not an ideal since  $b*a=0\in aX,\ a\in aX$  but  $b\not\in aX$ . Next, we will show a condition for a subset of an edge Q-algebra  $\mathbf{X}$  in the form  $aX,\ a\in X$  to be an ideal of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

**Proposition 10.** Let X be an edge Q-algebra and let  $a \in X$ . Then aX is an ideal if and only if wa = w for all  $w \in X \setminus \{a\}$ .

Proof. Let  $a \in X$ , and assume that aX is an ideal of X. Suppose that there is an element  $w \in X, w \neq a$  such that  $wa \neq w$ . Since  $wa \in wX = \{0, w\}$  and  $wa \neq w$ , then wa = 0. There follows  $wa \in aX$ . Since  $wa \in aX$ ,  $a \in aX$  and aX is an ideal, then  $w \in aX$ . This gives a contradiction. Hence, for all  $w \in X \setminus \{a\}$ , wa = w. For the converse direction, assume wa = w for all  $w \in X \setminus \{a\}$ . We want to show that  $aX = \{0, a\}$  is an ideal. If a = 0, then it is obvious that aX is an ideal of X. Assume now  $a \neq 0$ . Let  $xy \in aX$  and  $y \in aX$ . If y = 0, then  $x = x0 = xy \in aX$ . If y = a, then  $xa \in aX$ . There follows xa = 0 or xa = a. Suppose xa = a. Then  $x \neq a$  otherwise a = xa = aa = 0, a contradiction. Hence, xa = 0. Then by assumption  $x \notin X \setminus \{a\}$ . Therefore,  $x = a \in aX$ . Altogether, aX is an ideal of X.

In a Q-algebra X, a product  $I_1I_2$  of ideals  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  of X is not necessarily an ideal as can be seen in the following example.

**Example 6.** Let  $X = \{0, a, b, c, d, f\}$ . Define a binary operation \* on X as the following table:

*	0	a	b	c	d	f
0	0	a	c	d	c	c
a	a	0	d	c	d	d
b	b	c	0	a	0	0
c	$ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ a \\ b \\ c \\ d \\ f \end{array} $	b	a	0	a	a
d	d	c	0	a	0	0
f	f	c	0	a	0	0

Then (X; \*, 0) is a Q-algebra. The subsets  $I_1 = \{0, a\}$  and  $I_2 = \{0, b, d, f\}$  are ideals of (X; \*, 0). Let consider a product  $I_1I_2 = \{0, c, d\}$ . Since  $a * c = c \in I_1I_2$  and  $c \in I_1I_2$  but  $a \notin I_1I_2$ , then  $I_1I_2$  is not an ideal of (X; \*, 0). Therefore, the set of all ideals of a Q-algebra is not necessarily closed. In an edge Q-algebra, we get a good outcome, i.e. the product of ideals is again an ideal as obtained in the following proposition.

**Proposition 11.** Let X be an edge Q-algebra. If A and B are ideals of X, then AB is an ideal.

Proof. Let A and B be ideals of X. Let  $a \in A$ . Since  $0 \in B$ , by Proposition 1(iv),  $A \subseteq AB$ . Since X is an edge,  $aB \subseteq aX = \{0, a\}$ . Thus, we can conclude that  $AB \subseteq A \cup \{0\} = A$ . Hence, AB = A so that AB is an ideal of X.

As a direct consequence of Proposition 11 we have the subsequence corollary.

Corollary 3. If A and B are ideals of an edge Q-algebra X, then AB = A.

For a Q-algebra X, we denote I(X) as the set of all ideals of X. By Proposition 11 and Corollary 3, we obtain that the set of all ideals of an edge Q-algebra forms a semigroup.

**Proposition 12.** Let X be an edge Q-algebra. Then I(X) is a semigroup.

**Proposition 13.** Let X be an edge Q-algebra. Then I(X) is a subsemigroup of Sub(X).

*Proof.* Let  $I \in I(X)$ . By  $(I_1)$ ,  $0 \in I$ , so that by Proposition 8(i), I is a subalgebra. Thus,  $I(X) \subseteq Sub(X)$ . Since I(X) is a semigroup and  $I(X) \subseteq Sub(X)$ , then I(X) is a subsemigroup of Sub(X).

We will recall some concepts of semigroup theory. A semigroup S is a left zero semigroup if za=z for all  $z,a\in S$ . A non-empty subset I of S is a left semigroup ideal (right semigroup ideal) if  $SI\subseteq I$  ( $IS\subseteq I$ , respectively). If I is both a left semigroup ideal and a right semigroup ideal, then I is a semigroup ideal. A semigroup ideal (left semigroup ideal, right semigroup ideal) I such that  $I\neq S$  is called a proper semigroup ideal (left semigroup ideal, right semigroup ideal). A semigroup S is a left simple semigroup if S has no proper left semigroup ideals. A right simple semigroup and a simple semigroup are defined in an analogous way. For more intensive details in semigroup theory we refer to [18].

**Proposition 14.** Let X be an edge Q-algebra. Then I(X) is a left zero semigroup. Proof. By Proposition 12, I(X) is a semigroup. Let  $A, B \in I(X)$ . Then by Corollary 3, AW = A. Therefore, I(X) is a left zero semigroup.

Moreover, I(X) is a simple semigroup.

**Proposition 15.** Let X be an edge Q-algebra. Then I(X) is a left simple semigroup. Proof. Let P be a left semigroup ideal of a semigroup I(X). Then  $I(X)P \subseteq P$ . Let  $A \in I(X)$  and  $B \in P$ . Then AB = A by Corollary 3. There follows that  $I(X) \subseteq I(X)P \subseteq P$ . Hence, I(X) = P. Therefore, I(X) does not contain a proper semigroup left ideal. Thus, I(X) is a left simple semigroup.

**Corollary 4.** Let X be an edge Q-algebra. Then I(X) is a simple semigroup. Proof. It follows from Proposition 15.

### 3. Enumeration of Edge Q-algebras

In this section, we describe all possible structures of edge Q-algebras of order n, for any positive integer n. To do this we need to construct a Q-algebra as follows:

**Construction**(\*): Let  $X_n = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n\}$  be a set of order n. We define a binary operation on  $X_n$  as follow: For  $x_i, x_j \in X_n$ ,

$$x_i x_j = \begin{cases} x_1 & \text{if } i = j, \\ x_1 & \text{if } i = 1, \\ x_i & \text{if } j = 1, \\ a \in \{x_1, x_i\} & \text{if otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

From the Construction (\*), in the case  $i \neq j$  and  $i, j \neq 1$ , the product  $x_i x_j \in \{x_1, x_i\}$ , i.e. the product  $x_i x_j$  is either  $x_1$  or  $x_i$ . We denote here  $x \vee y$  by " either x or y". Then we obtain the following Cayley table:

For the set  $X_n$ , the Construction (\*) allows us to get  $2^{n^2-3n+2}$  algebraic structures. Let  $EQ(X_n)$  be the set of all algebras which obtained from the Construction (\*).

**Example 7.** Let  $X_3 = \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$ . The following algebras A, B, C and D are obtained from the Construction (\*):

	$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$		x	1	$x_2$	$x_3$
$x_1$	$x_1$	$x_1$	$x_1$	$\overline{x_1}$	x	1	$x_1$	$x_1$
$x_2$	$x_2$	$x_1$	$x_1$	$x_2$	x	2	$x_1$	$x_1$
$x_3$	$x_3$	$x_1$	$x_1$	$x_3$	x	3	$x_3$	$x_1$
	I	4					В	
	x	$x_2$	$x_3$			$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$
$\overline{x}$	x	$x_1$	$x_1$	$\overline{x}$	1	$x_1$	$x_1$	$x_1$
$x_{2}$	$x_1 \mid x_2$	$x_1$	$x_2$	x	2	$x_2$	$x_1$	$x_2$
$x_{:}$	x	$x_1$	$x_1$	x	3	$x_3$	$x_3$	$x_1$

It is not difficult to check that all above tables A, B, C and D are Q-algebras with  $x_1$  acts as a constant 0. Let consider the table A. Since  $x_1X_3 = \{x_1\}$ ,  $x_2X_3 = \{x_1, x_2\}$  and  $x_3X_3 = \{x_1, x_3\}$ ,  $X_3$  is an edge Q-algebra. Similarly, we get that tables B, C and D are edge Q-algebras. Moreover,  $|EQ(X_3)| = 2^{3^2 - 3(3) + 2} = 2^2 = 4$  and  $EQ(X_3) = \{A, B, C, D\}$ .

Next proposition reveals that any algebraic structure obtained from the Construction (\*) is an edge Q-algebra.

**Proposition 16.** Let  $X_n = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ . For any  $A \in EQ(X_n)$ , A is an edge Q-algebra.

Proof. Let A be any algebra in  $EQ(X_n)$ . Let  $x_i, x_j, x_k \in X_n$ . Then we get  $x_i x_1 = x_i$  and  $x_i x_i = x_1$ . Therefore, the conditions  $(Q_1)$  and  $(Q_2)$  hold and  $x_1$  acts as a constant 0. Next, we calculate  $(x_i x_j) x_k$  and  $(x_i x_k) x_j$ . Observe that  $x_i x_j \in \{x_1, x_i\}$  and  $x_i x_k \in \{x_1, x_i\}$ .

If  $x_ix_j = x_1$ , then  $(x_ix_j)x_k = x_1x_k = x_1$  and  $(x_ix_k)x_j \in \{x_1x_j, x_ix_j\} = \{x_1\}$ . It follows that  $(x_ix_j)x_k = x_1 = (x_ix_k)x_j$ . If  $x_ix_j = x_i$ , then  $(x_ix_j)x_k = x_ix_k$ . If  $x_ix_k = x_1$ , then  $(x_ix_j)x_k = x_ix_k = x_1 = x_1x_j = (x_ix_k)x_j$ . If  $x_ix_k = x_i$ , then  $(x_ix_j)x_k = x_ix_k = x_i$  and  $(x_ix_j)x_k = x_ix_k = x_i$  and  $(x_ix_j)x_k = x_ix_k = x_i$ . It follows the edge property is hold. Altogether,  $(x_ix_j)x_k = x_ix_k = x_i$ . It follows then  $(x_ix_j)x_k = x_ix_k = x_i$ , then the edge property is hold. Altogether,  $(x_ix_j)x_k = x_ix_k = x_i$ .

From Example 7, if we replace  $x_1$  by 0, then we get the following edge Q-algebras:

Let consider an edge Q algebra  $\mathbf{X}$  of order n, for any positive integer n. For any element  $a \in X$ ,  $aX = \{0, a\}$ . There follows that  $ax \in \{0, a\}$  for all  $x \in X$ . Hence, there is an algebraic structure  $Y \in EQ(X_n)$  which is coinciding to X.

**Proposition 17.** Let n be a positive integer and let Y be an edge Q-algebra of order n. Then Y is isomorphic to X for some  $X \in EQ(X_n)$ .

Combining Proposition 16 and Proposition 17 we get:

**Theorem 1.**  $EQ(X_n)$  is the set of all edge Q-algebras of order n and hence, there are precisely  $2^{n^2-3n+2}$  different edge Q-algebras of order n.

## 4. Conclusion

We have introduced the concept of edge Q-algebras and explored their properties. We obtained some results related to the concepts of subalgebras and ideals. The product of subalgebras of an edge Q-algebra is again a subalgebra, offered in Corollary 1. Similarly, the product of ideals of edge Q-algebra is also an ideal. Moreover, the set of all subalgebras of an edge Q-algebra  $\mathbf{X}$ , Sub(X), and the set of all ideals, I(X) form a semigroup as shown in Proposition 9 and Proposition 12, respectively. We enumerated all of subalgebras of edge Q-algebra  $\mathbf{X}$ . Proposition 8 shows the total number of all subalgebras of  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $|Sub(X)| = 2^{|X|-1}$ . The construction of edge Q-algebras is presented. We also showed the total number of all structures of edge Q-algebras, as in Theorem 1. There are  $2^{n^2-3n+2}$  structures of edge Q-algebras of order n. For further study, one can

consider edge Q-algebras based on the following concepts:

- Hyper algebras;
- Filters and another kinds of ideals;
- Fuzzy subalgebras, fuzzy ideals;
- Homomorphisms and isomorphisms;
- Connections with related algebras.

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