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# IDEALS, $\ell$-RINGS AND MV*-ALGEBRAS 

Antonio Di Nola* - George Georgescu**

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#### Abstract

MV*-algebras constitute a subcategory of perfect MV-algebras categorically equivalent to 1 -rings. In this paper we study the ideals of $\mathrm{MV}^{*}$-algebras in connection with the 1 -ideals of the associated 1 -ring. The most important results of this paper are concerning with the $M V f$-algebras, a subclass of $\mathrm{MV}^{\star}$-algebras corresponding to $f$-rings.


## 1. Introduction

MV-algebras were introduced in 1958 by C. C. Chang as algebraic models for Lukasiewicz infinite valued logic. In 1986, D. Mundici proved that the category of MV-algebras is equivalent to the category of abelian l-groups with strong unit (see [6]). This result was followed by an impressive growth of the theory of MV-algebras. The best reference on MV-algebras is the book [6].

In [7] A. Di Nola and A. Lettieri established a categorical equivalence between the category of perfect MV-algebras and the category of abelian l-groups. This result was extended in [4] by L. P. Belluce, A. Di Nola and G. Georgescu. They proved that the l-rings are categorically equivalent to the $\mathrm{MV}^{*}$-algebras, a subcategory of perfect MV-algebras.

The aim of this paper is to study the ideals in $\mathrm{MV}^{\star}$-algebras in connection with the l-ideals in the associated l-rings. We also include some results given in [4] in an outlined form.

Section 2 contains some basic notions and results on $\star$-ideals in a $\star$-algebra. In Section 3 we define $f$-algebras, an important class of $\star$-algebras corresponding to $f$-rings, and in Section 4 we study the $\star$-prime ideals in $f$-algebras. Section 5 is devoted to some MV-versions of some results of M. Henriksen [4] and S. Larson [10], [11], [12], [13], [14], [15], and in Section 6, to chain condition in $f$-algebras. The paper ends with the investigation of two kinds of reticulations associated with an $f$-algebra.

[^0]Let $\left(A,+, \cdot,{ }^{*}, 0,1\right)$ be an MV-algebra. We shall write $x y$ instead of $x \cdot y$. Recall that the lattice operations in $A$ are given by $x \vee y=x y^{*}+y$ and $x \wedge y=\left(x+y^{*}\right) y$. For $x, y$ in $A$ denote $d(x, y)=x y^{*}+x^{*} y$. Any ideal $I$ of $A$ induces a congruence on $A: x \equiv y(\bmod I)$ if and only if $d(x, y) \in I$. The corresponding quotient MV-algebra will be denoted by $A / I$, and Id $A$ will be the complete lattice of ideals in $A$.

The radical $\operatorname{Rad} A$ is the intersection of the maximal ideals in $A$. An MV-algebra $A$ is perfect if $A=\operatorname{Rad} A \cup(\operatorname{Rad} A)^{*}$, where $(\operatorname{Rad} A)^{*}=\left\{x^{*}: x \in\right.$ $\operatorname{Rad} A\}$ (see [7]).

Consider a perfect MV-algebra $A$ and define a congruence $\theta$ on $\operatorname{Rad} A \times$ $\operatorname{Rad} A:(x, y) \theta(u, v)$ if and only if $x+v=y+u$. Denote by $[x, y]$ the class of $(x, y) \in \operatorname{Rad} A \times \operatorname{Rad} A$ and $D(A)=(\operatorname{Rad} A \times \operatorname{Rad} A) / \theta$. Thus $D(A)$ is an abclian l-group with the following properties for $x, y, u, v \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[x, y]+[u, v] } & =[x+u, y+v] \\
{[x, y] \leq[u, v] } & \Longleftrightarrow x+v \leq u+y \\
{[x, y] \wedge[u, v] } & =[(x+v) \wedge(u+y), y+v] \\
{[x, y] \vee[u, v] } & =[x+u,(x+v) \wedge(u+y)]
\end{aligned}
$$

In fact $D$ is a functor from the category of perfect MV-algebras to the category of abelian l-groups.

For any $[x, y] \in D(A)$ one can prove that $[x, y]=\left[x y^{*}, x^{*} y\right],[x, y]^{+}=$ $\left[x y^{*}, 0\right],[x, y]^{-}=\left[x^{*} y, 0\right]$ and $|[x, y]|=[d(x, y), 0]$.

For an abelian l-group $G$ consider the lexicographic product $\mathbb{Z} \times G .(1,0)$ is a strong unit in $\mathbb{Z} \times G$, so we can take $\triangle(G)=\Gamma(\mathbb{Z} \times G,(1,0))$, where $\Gamma$ is the Mundici functor (see [6]). Thus $\triangle(G)$ is a perfect MV-algebra and the functors $D$ and $\triangle$ establish a categorical equivalence between perfect MV-algebras and abelian l-groups [7].

An $\mathrm{MV}^{\star}$-algebra $(A, \star)(=\star$-algebra) is a perfect MV-algebra $A$ with a binary operation $\star$ on $\operatorname{Rad} A$ fulfilling the following conditions, for $x, y, z \in$ $\operatorname{Rad} A$ :
(a) $x \star(y \star z)=(x \star y) \star z$;
(b) $x \star(y+z)=x \star y+x \star z,(y+z) \star x=y \star x+z \star x$;
(c) $x \star 0=0 \star x=0$.

If $(K,+, \cdot, 0,1)$ is an l-ring and $K_{+}=(K,+, 0)$ the additive l-group of $K$, then the perfect MV-algebra $\triangle\left(K_{+}\right)=\Gamma\left(\mathbb{Z} \times K_{+},(1,0)\right)$ is an MV*-algebra by putting $(0, x) \star(0, y)=(0, x y)$ for all $x, y \geq 0$ in $K$. Conversely, assume $(A, \star)$ is an $\mathrm{MV}^{\star}$-algebra and define a multiplication on the l-group $D(A)$ :

$$
[a, b] \cdot[c, d]=[a \star c+b \star d, a \star d+b \star c] .
$$

Thus $(D(A), \cdot)$ is an l-ring and the above constructions give a categorical equivalence between $\mathrm{MV}^{\star}$-algebras and l-rings ([2]).

If $A$ is a perfect MV-algebra and $I$, a proper ideal of $A$, then $D(I)=\{[x, y]$ : $x, y \in I\}$ is a convex l-subgroup of $D(A)$. The map $I \mapsto D(I)$ is a bijection between the proper ideals of $A$ and convex l-subgroups of $D(A)$ (see [3]).

The background for l-rings can be found in [5], [9].

## 2. $\star$-Ideals

This section contains basic notions and results on the $\star$-ideals of an $\star$-algebra.
Let $(A, \star)$ be a $\star$-algebra. A $\star$-ideal in $A$ is an ideal $I \subseteq \operatorname{Rad} A$ such that $a \in I \& b \in \operatorname{Rad} A \Longrightarrow a \star b, b \star a \in I$.

Similarly, one can define the left and right $\star$-ideals.
Proposition 2.1. For an ideal $I \subseteq \operatorname{Rad} A$ the following are equivalent:
(1) I is a *-ideal;
(2) $D(I)$ is an $\ell$-ideal in the $\ell-\operatorname{ring} D(A)$.

Proof.
$(1) \Longrightarrow(2)$ :
Assume $[a, b] \in D(I), a, b \in I$ and $[c, d] \in D(A) a, b \in D(A)$. Then $a \star c, b \star$ $d, a \star d, b \star c \in I$ and $a \star c+b \star d, a \star d+b \star c \in I$. Therefore

$$
[a, b] \cdot[c, d]=[a \star c+b \star d, a \star d+b \star c] \in D(I)
$$

$(2) \Longrightarrow(1):$
Assume $a \in I, b \in \operatorname{Rad} A$, so $[a, 0] \in D(I),[b, 0] \in D(A)$, hence $[a \star b, 0]=$ $[a, 0] \cdot[b, 0] \in D(I)$. It follows that $a \star b \in I$.
PROPOSITION 2.2. If $J$ is an $\ell$-ideal in the $\ell$-ring $K$, then $\triangle\left(J^{+}\right)$is a $\star$-ideal in $\star$-algebra $\triangle(K)=\Gamma\left(Z \times K_{+},(1,0)\right)$.
Lemma 2.1. If $I$ is $a \star$-ideal and $x_{1}, x_{2}, y_{1}, y_{2} \in \operatorname{Rad} A$, then

$$
x_{1} / I=x_{2} / I \& y_{1} / I=y_{2} / I \Longrightarrow\left(x_{1} \star y_{1}\right) / I=\left(x_{2} \star y_{2}\right) / I
$$

Proof. If $x_{1} / I=x_{2} / I$, then $x_{1} x_{2}^{\star}, x_{1}^{\star} x_{2} \in I$ and $x_{1}+x_{1}^{\star} x_{2}=x_{1} \vee x_{2}=$ $x_{2}+x_{2}^{\star} x_{1}$, so there exist $a_{1}, a_{2} \in I$ such that $x_{1}+a_{1}=x_{2}+a_{2}$. Similarly, $y_{1}+b_{1}=y_{2}+b_{2}$ for some $b_{1}, b_{2} \in I$. Thus $\left(x_{1}+a_{1}\right) \star\left(y_{1}+b_{1}\right)=\left(x_{2}+a_{2}\right) \star\left(y_{2}+b_{2}\right)$, so $\left(x_{1} \star y_{1}\right)+c_{1}=\left(x_{2} \star y_{2}\right)+c_{2}$ for some $c_{1}, c_{2} \in I$ sincc $I$ is a $\star$-ideal. Thus

$$
\left(x_{1} \star y_{1}\right) / I=\left(x_{1} \star y_{1}\right) / I+c_{1} / I=\left(x_{2} \star y_{2}\right) / I+c_{2} / I=\left(x_{2} \star y_{2}\right) / I
$$

Remark 2.1. It is obvious that $\operatorname{Rad}(A / I)=(\operatorname{Rad} A) / I$. By this Lemma one can define $\star: \operatorname{Rad} A / I \star \operatorname{Rad} A / I \rightarrow \operatorname{Rad} A / I$ by putting $(x / I) \star(y / I)=(x \star y) / I$. It is easy to prove that $A / I$ becomes a $\star$-algebra.

Proposition 2.3. If $I$ is $a \star$-ideal in $A$, then the $\ell$-rings $D(A / I)$ and $D(A) / D(I)$ are isomorphic.

Proof. We shall prove that, for $a_{1}, a_{2}, b_{1}, b_{2} \in \operatorname{Rad} A$, the following holds:

$$
\left[a_{1} / I, b_{1} / I\right]=\left[a_{2} / I, b_{2} / I\right] \Longleftrightarrow\left[a_{1}, b_{1}\right] / D(I)=\left[a_{2}, b_{2}\right] / D(I) .
$$

If $\left[a_{1} / I, b_{1} / I\right]=\left[a_{2} / I, b_{2} / I\right]$, then $a_{1}+b_{2} \equiv b_{1}+a_{2}(\bmod I)$, so $d\left(a_{1}+b_{2}\right.$, $\left.b_{1}+a_{2}\right) \in I$.

It follows that
$\left|\left[a_{1}, b_{1}\right]-\left[a_{2}, b_{2}\right]\right|=\left|\left[a_{1}+b_{2}, b_{1}+a_{2}\right]\right|=\left[d\left(a_{1}+b_{2}, b_{1}+a_{2}\right), 0\right] \in D(I)$.
But $D(I)$ is an $\ell$-ideal, so $\left[a_{1}, b_{1}\right]-\left[a_{2}, b_{2}\right] \in D(I)$, i.e. $\left[a_{1}, b_{1}\right] / D(I)=$ $\left[a_{2}, b_{2}\right] / D(I)$.

Converscly, if $\left[a_{1}, b_{1}\right] / D(I)=\left[a_{2}, b_{2}\right] / D(I)$, then

$$
\left[d\left(a_{1}+b_{2}, b_{1}+a_{2}\right), 0\right]=\left|\left[a_{1}, b_{1}\right]-\left[a_{2}, b_{2}\right]\right| \in D(I),
$$

therefore $d\left(a_{1}+b_{2}, b_{1}+a_{2}\right) \in I$, so $a_{1}+b_{2} \equiv b_{1}+a_{2}(\bmod I)$, etc..
Thus one can define a map $[a / I, b / I] \mapsto[a, b] / D(I)$ which is an isomorphism of $\ell$-rings.

Remark 2.2. Any intersection of $\star$-ideals is a $\star$-ideal. Consider a family $I_{\lambda}$, $\lambda \in \Lambda$, of $\star$-ideals and its supremum $\bigvee I_{\lambda}$ in Id $A$. It is easy to prove that $\bigvee I_{\lambda}$ is a $\star$-ideal. Thus the set $\mathcal{I d} A$ of $\star$-ideals of $A$ is a complete sublattice of $\operatorname{Id} A$.

Proposition 2.4. The map $I \mapsto D(I)$ is a lattice isomorphism between $\mathcal{I d} A$ and the lattice $\mathcal{I d} D(A)$ of the $\ell$-ideals in $D(A)$.

Proof. It is known that $I \mapsto D(I)$ is a lattice isomorphism between $\operatorname{Id} A-\{A\}$ and the lattice $\operatorname{Id} D(A)$ of the convex $\ell$-subgroups of $D(A)$. By Proposition 2.1 one can take the restriction of this isomorphism to $\mathcal{I d} A$.

By [5; 8.2.2] and Proposition 2.3, it follows that we have in $\mathcal{I d} A$ :

$$
\left(\bigvee I_{\lambda}\right) \cap J=\bigvee\left(I_{\lambda} \cap J\right)
$$

This also follows from the distributivity of $\operatorname{Id} A$. For $M \subseteq \operatorname{Rad} A$ let us denote

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{id}(M) & =\text { the ideal generated by } M, \\
\langle M\rangle & =\text { the } \star \text {-ideal generated by } M I .
\end{aligned}
$$

## PROPOSITION 2.5. We have

$\langle M\rangle=\{x \in \operatorname{Rad} A: x \leq u+t \star u+u \star t+t \star u \star t, u \in \operatorname{id}(M), t \in \operatorname{Rad} A\}$.
Proof. If $J$ is the right member, then it is clear that $J \subseteq\langle M\rangle$ and $M \subseteq J$.
We shall prove that $J$ is a $\star$-ideal. If $x_{1}, x_{2} \in J$, then $x_{i} \leq u_{i}+t_{i} \star u_{i}+u_{i} \star t_{i}+$ $t_{i} \star u_{i} \star t_{i}, u_{i} \in \operatorname{id}(M), t_{i} \in \operatorname{Rad} A, i=1,2$. Thus $x_{1}+x_{2} \leq u+t \star u+u \star t+t \star u \star t$ with $u=u_{1}+u_{2} \in \operatorname{id}(M), t=t_{1}+t_{2} \in \operatorname{Rad} A$.

If $x \leq u+t \star u+u \star t+t \star u \star t$ and $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A$, then $a \star x \leq s \star u+s \star u \star s$ with $s=a+a \star t+t \in \operatorname{Rad} A$.
COROLLARY 1. $\langle a\rangle=\{x: x \leq n a+s \star a+a \star s+s \star a \star s, s \in \operatorname{Rad} A\}$ for $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A$.
Lemma 2.2. $D(\langle a\rangle)=\langle[a, 0]\rangle$ for $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A$.
Proof. Assume $u \in D(\langle a\rangle)^{+}$. Then $u=[x, 0]$ with $x \in\langle a\rangle$. Hence $x \leq$ $n a+s \star a+a \star s+s \star a \star s$ with $s \in \operatorname{Rad} A$.

It follows that $u=[x, 0] \leq n[a, 0]+[s, 0] \cdot[a, 0]+[a, 0] \cdot[s, 0]+[s, 0] \cdot[a, 0] \cdot[s, 0]$. So $u \in\langle[a, 0]\rangle$ by [4; 8.2.7]. The converse inclusion is similar.

Corollary 2. For $x, y \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ we have:
(1) $\langle x \star y\rangle \subseteq\langle x\rangle \cap\langle y\rangle$,
(2) $\langle x\rangle \vee\langle y\rangle=\langle x \vee y\rangle=\langle x+y\rangle$.

Proof. By [5; 8.2.8] and Lemma 2.2, or directly, using Corollary 1.
For any $\star$-ideals $I, J$ define

$$
I \star J=\langle\{a \star b: a \in I, \quad b \in J\}\rangle .
$$

PROPOSITION 2.6. For any $\star$-ideals $I_{1}, I_{2}$ we have

$$
I_{1} \star I_{2}=\left\{x \in \operatorname{Rad} A: x \leq a \star b, \quad a \in I_{1}, \quad b \in I_{2}\right\}
$$

Proof. If $J$ is the right member, then $J \subseteq I_{1} \star I_{2}$, and $a \in I_{1}, b \in I_{2}$ imply $a \star b \in J$. Thus it suffices to prove $J$ is a $\star$-ideal. For example, if $x_{i} \leq a_{i} \star b_{i}$, $a_{i} \in I_{1}, b_{i} \in I_{2}, i=1,2$, then $x_{1}+x_{2} \leq a_{1} \star b_{1}+a_{2} \star b_{2} \leq\left(a_{1}+a_{2}\right) \star\left(b_{1}+b_{2}\right)$, $a_{1}+a_{2} \in I_{1}, b_{1}+b_{2} \in I_{2}$, so $x_{1}+x_{2} \in J$.

PROPOSITION 2.7. $D\left(I_{1} \star I_{2}\right)=D\left(I_{1}\right) \cdot D\left(I_{2}\right)$.
Proof. Assume $u \in D\left(I_{1} \star I_{2}\right)^{+}$, so $u=[x, 0]$ with $x \in I_{1} \star I_{2}$, i.e. $r \leq a_{1} \star a_{2}$ with $a_{1} \in I_{1}, a_{2} \in I_{2}$, therefore $u=[x, 0] \leq\left[a_{1} \star a_{2}, 0\right]=\left[a_{1}, 0\right] \cdot\left[a_{2}, 0\right]$ and $\left[a_{1}, 0\right] \in D\left(I_{1}\right),\left[a_{2}, 0\right] \in D\left(I_{2}\right)$, hence $u \in D\left(I_{1}\right) \cdot D\left(I_{2}\right)$ by [5; 8.2.11]. The converse inclusion is similar.

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## Corollary 3.

(1) $I \star(J \star K)=(I \star J) \star K$;
(2) $I \star\left(\bigvee I_{\lambda}\right)=\bigvee\left(I \star I_{\lambda}\right),\left(\bigvee I_{\lambda}\right) \star I=\bigvee\left(I_{\lambda} \star I\right)$.

Proof. By [5; 8.2.12] and Proposition 2.3, 2.7 or directly, by Proposition 2.6. Thus ( $\mathcal{I} \mathrm{d} A, \star$ ) is a quantale.
PROPOSITION 2.8. The map $I \mapsto D(I)$ is a quantale isomorphism between $(\mathcal{I d} A, \star)$ and $(\mathcal{I} \mathrm{d} D(A), \cdot)$.

Proof. By Propositions 2.4 and 2.7.
One can define $I^{(n)}=\underbrace{I \star \cdots \star I}_{n \text {-times }}$. Thus $D\left(I^{(n)}\right)=(D(I))^{n}$.
For $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ let us denote $a^{(n)}=\underbrace{a \star \cdots \star a}_{n \text {-times }}$.
PROPOSITION 2.9. $I^{(n)}=\left\{x \in \operatorname{Rad} A: x \leq a^{(n)}, a \in I\right\}$.
Proposition 2.10. For $a \star$-ideal $I \neq \operatorname{Rad} A$ the following are equivalent:
(1) $\left(\forall I_{1}, I_{2} \in \mathcal{I d} A\right)\left(I_{1} \cap I_{2}=I \Longrightarrow\left(I=I_{1}\right.\right.$ or $\left.\left.I=I_{2}\right)\right)$;
(2) $\left(\forall I_{1}, I_{2} \in \mathcal{I d} A\right)\left(I_{1} \cap I_{2} \subseteq I \Longrightarrow\left(I_{1} \subseteq I\right.\right.$ or $\left.\left.I_{2} \subseteq I\right)\right)$;
(3) $(\forall a, b \in \operatorname{Rad} A)(\langle a\rangle \cap\langle b\rangle \subseteq I \Longrightarrow(a \in I$ or $b \in I))$.

A $\star$-star ideal $I \neq \operatorname{Rad} A$ satisfying these properties will be called irreducible. It is easy to see that any maximal $\star$-ideal is irreducible.

Lemma 2.3. For $I \in \mathcal{I} \mathrm{~d} A, I$ is irreducible if and only if $D(I)$ is an irreducible $\ell$-ideal.

Proof. By Propositions 2.4 and 2.10.
Lemma 2.4. For $I \in \mathcal{I} \mathrm{~d} A$ and $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A-I$ there is an irreducible $\star$-ideal $P$ such that $I \subseteq P$ and $a \notin P$.

Proof. Let $P$ be a $\star$-ideal maximal with respect $I \subseteq P, a \notin P$. Assume $\langle a\rangle \cap\langle b\rangle \subseteq P, a, b \notin P$. Therefore $P \vee\langle a\rangle=P \vee\langle b\rangle=\operatorname{Rad} A$, so $P=$ $P \vee(\langle a\rangle \cap\langle b\rangle)=(P \vee\langle a\rangle) \cap(P \vee\langle b\rangle)=\operatorname{Rad} A$, which is a contradiction.

Proposition 2.11. Any proper $\star$-ideal is an intersection of irreducible *-ideals.

Proof. By Lemma 2.4.
Particularly, the intersection of all irreducible $\star$-ideals in $A$ is $\{0\}$.
An element $x \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ is $\star$-nilpotent if $x^{(n)}=0$ for some integer $n \geq 1$.
$A$ is $\star$-semiprime if there is no non-zero $\star$-nilpotent element of $A$.
$A$ is a $\star$-domain if $x \star y=0$ implies $x=0$ or $y=0$.

Lemma 2.5. Any totally-ordered $\star$-semiprime $\star$-algebra $A$ is $a \star$-domain.
Proof. Assume $x \star y=0$. If $x \leq y$, then $x^{2} \leq x \star y=0$, so $x^{2}=0$, hence $x=0$.

A $\star$-ideal $I$ is $\star$-nilpotent if $I^{(n)}=\{0\}$ for some integer $n \geq 1$.
A $\star$-ideal $I$ is $\star$-semiprime if $A / I$ is a $\star$-semiprime $\star$-algebra. One can see that $I$ is $\star$-semiprime if and only if $x^{(2)} \in I$ implies $x \in I$ for any $x \in \operatorname{Rad} A$.

## 3. f-Algebras

In this section we shall study the MVf-algebras, a subclass of MV*-algebras corresponding to the $f$-rings.

For any subset $M \subseteq \operatorname{Rad} A, M^{\perp}=\{a \in A: a \wedge m=0, m \in M\}$ is an ideal included in $\operatorname{Rad} A, x<y$ for any $x \in \operatorname{Rad} A, y \in(\operatorname{Rad} A)^{\star}$.

Lemma 3.1. If $P$ is a minimal prime ideal in $A$, then $P=\bigcup\left\{x^{\perp}: x \notin P\right\}$.
Proof. Assume $x \in P$, so $x \wedge y=0$ for some $y \notin P$ since $P$ is minimal prime. Thus $y \in x^{\perp}$. The converse is obvious.

Proposition 3.1. For $a \star$-algebra $A$ the following are equivalent:
(1) $a, b, x \in \operatorname{Rad} A \& a \wedge b=0 \Longrightarrow a \wedge(b \star x)=a \wedge(x \star b)=0$;
(2) for any $I \subseteq \operatorname{Rad} A, I^{\perp}$ is a $\star$-ideal;
(3) any $P \in \operatorname{Min} A$ is $a \star$-ideal.

Proof.
(1) $\Longrightarrow$ (2):

If $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A, b \in I^{\perp}$, then $b \wedge x=0$ for $x \in I$, therefore $(a \star b) \wedge x=0$, i.e. $a \star b \in I^{\perp}$.
$(2) \Longrightarrow(3):$
By Lemma 3.1.
$(3) \Longrightarrow(1):$
Consider $a, b, x \in \operatorname{Rad} A, a \wedge b=0$ and $P \in \operatorname{Min} A$, hence $a \in P$ or $b \in P$. If $a \in P$, then $a \wedge(b \star x) \in P$ because $a \wedge(b \star x) \leq a$. If $b \in P$, then $b \star x \in P$, so $a \wedge(b \star x) \in P$. It follows that $a \wedge(b \star x) \in \cap \operatorname{Min} A=\{0\}$.

A $\star$-algebra $A$ satisfying these properties will be called an $M V f$-algebra ( $=f$-algebra).

Proposition 3.2. For $a \star$-algebra $A$ the following are equivalent:
(1) A is an f-algebra;
(2) A is a subdirect product of totally-ordered $\star$-algebra.

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Proof.
$(1) \Longrightarrow(2):$
In accordance to Proposition 3.1(3) and $\cap \operatorname{Min} A=\{0\}, A \hookrightarrow \Pi\{A / P: P \in$ $\operatorname{Min} A\}$ is the desired representation of $A$.
$(2) \Longrightarrow(1)$ :
Any totally-ordered $\star$-algebra is an $f$-algebra.
PROPOSITION 3.3. The following stationes are equivalent:
(1) $A$ is an $f$-algebra;
(2) $D(A)$ is an f-ring.

Proof.
$(1) \Longrightarrow(2):$
Consider $u, v, w \geq 0$ in $D(A)$ such that $u \wedge v=0$, so $u=[a, 0], v=[b, 0]$, $w=[x, 0]$ with $a, b, x \in \operatorname{Rad} A$. Thus $[a \wedge b, 0]=[a, 0] \wedge[b, 0]=[a, 0]$, so $a \wedge b=0$, hence $a \wedge(b \star x)=0$. We get

$$
u \wedge(v \cdot w)=[a, 0] \wedge([b, 0] \cdot[x, 0])=[a \wedge(b \star x), 0]=[0,0]
$$

$(2) \Longrightarrow$ (1):
Similarly.
Proposition 3.4. If $A$ is an $f$-algebra, then, for $a, b, a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}, x \in \operatorname{Rad} A$, we have:

$$
\begin{align*}
& x \star(a \vee b)=(x \star a) \vee(x \star b), x \star(a \wedge b)=(x \star a) \wedge(x \star b)  \tag{a}\\
&(a \vee b) \star x=(a \star x) \vee(b \star x),(a \wedge b) \star x=(a \star x) \wedge(b \star x) \\
& a \wedge b=0 \Longrightarrow a \star b=0 ;  \tag{b}\\
& d(a, b) \star d\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)=d\left(a \star a^{\prime}+b \star b^{\prime}, a \star b^{\prime}+b \star a^{\prime}\right) \tag{c}
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. We shall prove only (c). By [5; 9.1.10(iii)]:

$$
\left|[a, b] \cdot\left[a^{\prime} b^{\prime}\right]\right|=|[a, b]| \cdot\left|\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right]\right|
$$

therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[d\left(a \star a^{\prime}+b \star b^{\prime}, a \star b^{\prime}+b \star a^{\prime}\right), 0\right] } & =\left|\left[a \star a^{\prime}+b \star b^{\prime}, a \star b^{\prime}+b \star a^{\prime}\right]\right| \\
& =\left|[a, b] \cdot\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right]\right|=|[a, b]| \cdot\left|\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right]\right| \\
& =[d(a, b), 0] \cdot\left[d\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right), 0\right] \\
& =\left[d(a, b) \star d\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right), 0\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proposition 3.5. For $a \star$-algebra $A$ the following are equivalent:
(1) A is an f-algebra.
(2) For any irreducible $\star$-ideal $P$ of $A, A / P$ is a totally-ordered $\star$-algebra.

Proof.
$(1) \Longrightarrow(2)$ :
Assume $A / P$ is not totally-ordered for some irreducible $P$. Thus there exist $a / P, b / P \in A / P, a / P \not \leq b / P$ and $b / P \not \leq a / P$. One can assume $a, b \in \operatorname{Rad} A$. We have $a b^{\star} / P \neq 0 / P, b a^{\star} / P \neq 0 / P$. Denoting $x=a b^{\star}, y=a^{\star} b$ we have $x, y \notin P, x \wedge y=0$.

Thus $x^{\perp}, x^{\perp \perp} \nsubseteq P$ and $x^{\perp} \cap x^{\perp \perp}=\{0\}$. But $x^{\perp}, x^{\perp \perp}$ are $\star$-ideals since $A$ is an $f$-algebra. This contradicts the fact that $P$ is irreducible.
$(2) \Longrightarrow(1)$ :
The intersection of all irreducible $\star$-ideals of $A$ is $\{0\}$, so $A$ is a subdirect product of totally-ordered $\star$-algebra, hence $A$ is an $f$-algebra by Proposition 3.2.

Proposition 3.6. If $A$ is an f-algebra, then $\langle a\rangle \cap\langle b\rangle=\langle a \wedge b\rangle$ for any $a, b \in \operatorname{Rad} A$.

Proof. $D(A)$ is an $f$-ring, so, by $[5 ; 9.1 .8]$ and Lemma 2.2:

$$
\begin{aligned}
D(\langle a\rangle \cap\langle b\rangle) & =D(\langle a\rangle) \cap(\langle b\rangle)=\langle[a, 0]\rangle \cap\langle[b, 0]\rangle \\
& =\langle[a, 0]\rangle \cap\langle[b, 0]\rangle=\langle[a \wedge b, 0]\rangle=D(\langle a \wedge b\rangle)
\end{aligned}
$$

By Proposition 2.4, $\langle a\rangle \cap\langle b\rangle=\langle a \wedge b\rangle$.

## 4. $\star$-Prime ideals in $f$-algebras

In this section we shall introduce the $\star$-prime ideals in an $f$-algebra. They correspond to prime ideals in an $f$-ring and will have a main role in this paper.
Lemma 4.1. If $A$ is an $f$-algebra and $x, y \in \operatorname{Rad} A$, then we have:

$$
x \star y \leq y \star x \Longrightarrow x^{(n)} \star y^{(n)} \leq(x \star y)^{(n)} \leq(y \star x)^{(n)} \leq y^{(n)} \star x^{(n)}
$$

Proof. By [5; 9.2.1] we have in $D(A)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x \star y \leq y \star x \Longrightarrow[x, 0] \star[y, 0] \quad \leq[y, 0] \cdot[x, 0] \\
& \Longrightarrow[x, 0]^{n} \cdot[y, 0]^{n} \leq([x, 0] \cdot[y, 0])^{n} \leq([y, 0] \cdot[x, 0])^{n} \\
& \leq[y, 0]^{n} \cdot[x, 0]^{n} \\
& \Longrightarrow\left[x^{(n)} \star y^{(n)}, 0\right] \leq\left[(x \star y)^{(n)}, 0\right] \leq\left[(y \star x)^{(n)}, 0\right] \\
& \leq\left[y^{(n)} \star x^{(n)}, 0\right],
\end{aligned}
$$

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which gives the inequality of the lemma.
Now consider $A$ totally-ordered. Define $U_{n}=\left\{x \in \operatorname{Rad} A: x^{(n)}=0\right\}$.

## LEMMA 4.2.

(1) $x, y \in U_{n} \Longrightarrow x+y \in U_{n}$;
(2) $x \in U_{n} \& y \in \operatorname{Rad} A \Longrightarrow x \star y, y \star x \in U_{n}$;
(3) $x \leq y \in U_{n} \Longrightarrow x \in U_{n}$.

Proof.
(1) If $x \leq y$, then $(x+y)^{(n)} \leq 2^{(n)} \cdot y^{(n)}=0$.
(2) Assume $x \star y \leq y \star x$. By Lemma 4.1,

$$
(x \star y)^{(n)} \leq(y \star x)^{(n)} \leq y^{(n)} \star x^{(n)}=0
$$

(3) $x \leq y \in U_{n} \Longrightarrow x^{(n)} \leq y^{(n)}=0$.

Corollary 4. If $A$ is totally-ordered and $x \in \operatorname{Rad} A$, then

$$
x^{(n)}=0 \Longrightarrow\langle x\rangle^{(n)}=\{0\} .
$$

Proof. (For $n=2$ ) Assume $x^{(2)}=0$. We have $\langle x\rangle^{(2)}=\{y \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ : $\left.y \leq a^{(2)}, a \in\langle x\rangle\right\}$. If $y \leq a^{(2)}$ with $a \leq n x+u \star x+x \star u+u \star x \star u$, then, by the previous lemma, $a \in U_{2}$, so $y \leq a^{(2)}=0$, i.e. $y=0$.
Definition 4.1. A $\star$-ideal $P \neq \operatorname{Rad} A$ is $\star$-prime (resp. completely $\star$-prime) if $I \star J \subseteq P \Longrightarrow I \subseteq P$ or $J \subseteq P$ (resp. $x \star y \in P \Longrightarrow x \in P$ or $y \in P$ ) for any $I, J \in \mathcal{I d} A($ resp. $x, y \in \operatorname{Rad} A)$.

Remark 4.2. Any $\star$-prime $\star$-ideal is irreducible since $I \star J \subseteq I \cap J$.
Proposition 4.1. For any $\star$-ideal $P$ of an $f$-algebra $A$ the following are equivalent:
(i) $P$ is completely $\star$-prime;
(ii) $P$ is $\star$-prime;
(iii) $A / P$ is a totally-ordered $\star$-domain.

Proof.
(i) $\Longrightarrow$ (ii):

Assume $I \star J \subseteq P$ and there is $y \in P-J$. Thus, for each $x \in I, x \star y \in I \star J$, so $x \in P$, hence $I \subseteq P$.
(ii) $\Longrightarrow$ (iii):

If $P$ is $\star$-prime, then $P$ is irreducible, so, by Proposition 3.5, $A / P$ is totallyordered. We shall prove that $A / P$ has no non-zero $\star$-nilpotent $\star$-ideal. If $J$ is a $\star$-ideal in $A / P$, then $J=I / P$ for some $\star$-ideal $I$ in $A$ and

$$
J^{(n)}=\{0\} \Longrightarrow I^{(n)} \subseteq P \Longrightarrow J=I / P=\{0 / P\}
$$

By Corollary 4, $A / P$ has no non-zero $\star$-nilpotent element, hence, by Lemma $2.5, A / P$ is a $\star$-domain.
(iii) $\Longrightarrow$ (i):

Obvious.
Proposition 4.2. Let $P$ be $a \star$-ideal of an $f$-algebra $A$. Then the following are equivalent:
(1) $P$ is completely $\star$-prime;
(2) $D(P)$ is a completely prime ideal in $D(A)$.

Proof.
$(1) \Longrightarrow(2):$
Assume $[a, b] \cdot\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right] \in D(P)$ with $a, a^{\prime}, b, b^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Rad} A$.
By Proposition 3.4(c) we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[d(a, b) \star d\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right), 0\right] } & =\left[d\left(a \star a^{\prime}+b \star b, a \star b^{\prime}+b \star a^{\prime}\right), 0\right] \\
& =\left|\left[a \star a^{\prime}+b \star b^{\prime}, a \star b^{\prime}+b \star a^{\prime}\right]\right| \\
& =\left|[a, b] \cdot\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right]\right| \in D(P)
\end{aligned}
$$

hence $d(a, b) \star d\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right) \in P$. It follows that $d(a, b)$ or $d\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right) \in P$, so $|[a, b]|=$ $[d(a, b), 0] \in D(P)$ or $\left|\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right]\right|=\left[d\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right), 0\right] \in D(P)$, so $[a, b] \in D(P)$ or $\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right] \in D(P)$.
$(2) \Longrightarrow(1):$
Similarly.
Remark 4.3. Since $P \mapsto D(I)$ is a quantale isomorphism between $\mathcal{I d} A$ and $\mathcal{I} \mathrm{d} D(A)$ it follows that a $\star$-ideal $P$ of $A$ is $\star$-prime if and only if $D(P)$ is prime in $D(A)$. Thus Proposition 4.2 implies the equivalence $(i) \Longleftrightarrow(i i)$ of Proposition 4.1 and, conversely, Proposition 4.2 follows from Proposition 4.1.

Denote by $\operatorname{Spec} A$ the set of $\star$-prime ideals in $A$ and $\operatorname{Spec} D(A)$ the set of l-prime l-ideals in the $f$-ring $D(A)$. For $I \in \mathcal{I} d A$ set $d(I)=\{P \in \operatorname{Spec} A$ : $I \nsubseteq P\}$.

In this way, $\operatorname{Spec} A$ becomes a topological space.
COROLLARY 5. The map $P \mapsto D(P)$ is a homeomorphism between Spec $A$ and $\operatorname{Spec} D(A)$.

Let $A$ be an $f$-algebra and $I$ a $\star$-ideal. Denote $\sqrt{I}=\bigcap\{P \in \operatorname{Spec} A$ : $I \subseteq P\}$.

Proposition 4.3. $\sqrt{I}=\left\{x \in \operatorname{Rad} A: x^{(k)} \in I\right.$ for some integer $\left.k \geq 1\right\}$.
Proof. Denote by $J$ the right member and assume $x \notin J$, so $x^{(k)} \notin I$ for $k=1,2, \ldots$. Consider a $\star$-ideal $P$ maximal with respect to $x^{(k)} \notin P$,

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$h=1,2, \ldots$ and $I \subseteq P$. We shall prove that $P$ is $\star$-prime. Assume there exist two *-ideals $K_{1}, K_{2}$ such that $K_{1} \star K_{2} \subseteq P, K_{1} \nsubseteq P$ and $K_{2} \nsubseteq P$, so $x^{(m)} \in P \vee K_{1}$ and $x^{(n)} \in P \vee K_{2}$ for some integers $m, n \geq 1$. It follows that

$$
x^{(m+n)} \in\left(P \vee K_{1}\right) \star\left(P \vee K_{2}\right) \subseteq P \vee\left(K_{1} \star K_{2}\right) \subseteq P
$$

Contradiction, hence $x \notin \sqrt{I}$. The converse inclusion is obvious.
Corollary 6. An f-algebra $A$ is $\star$-semiprime if and only if $\sqrt{\langle 0\rangle}=\{0\}$. $A \star$-ideal $I$ of an $f$-algebra $A$ is $\star$-semiprime if and only if $\sqrt{I}=I$.

Proposition 4.4. If $A$ is $a \star$-algebra, then the following are equivalent:
(1) $A$ is $a \star$-semiprime $f$-algebra;
(2) $A$ is a subdirect product of totally-ordered $\star$-domains.

Proof. By Propositions 3.2, 4.1 and Corollary 5.
Proposition 4.5. For $a \star$-algebra $A$ the following are equivalent:
(1) $A$ is $a \star$-semiprime $f$-algebra.
(2) For any $a, b \in \operatorname{Rad} A, a \wedge b=0$ if and only if $a \star b=0$.
(3) Any $P \in \operatorname{Min} A$ is a completely $\star$-prime $\star$-ideal.

Proof.
$(1) \Longrightarrow(2):$
If $a \star b=0$, then $(a \wedge b)^{(2)} \leq a \star b=0$, so $(a \wedge b)^{(2)}=0$, so $a \wedge b=0$. The converse implication holds in any $f$-algebra.
$(2) \Longrightarrow(3)$ :
For any $a, b, x \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ we have:

$$
a \wedge b=0 \Longrightarrow a \star b=0 \Longrightarrow a \star(b)=0 \Longrightarrow a \wedge(b \star x)=0
$$

so $A$ is an $f$-algebra. By Proposition 3.1, $a^{\perp}$ is a $\star$-ideal for any $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A$. We shall prove that $a^{\perp}$ is $\star$-semiprime. If $x^{(2)} \in a^{\perp}$, then $(x \star x) \wedge a=0$. so $r \star$ $x \star a=0$. Thus $x \star(x \star a)=(x \star x) \wedge(x \star a)=0$ because $(x \star x) \star(x \star a)=0$, therefore $x \wedge x \wedge a=0$, i.c. $x \in a^{\perp}$. Thus $a^{\perp}$ is $\star$-semiprime. Consider now $P \in \operatorname{Min} A$, so $P$ is a $\star$-ideal by Proposition 3.1 and $P=\bigcup\left\{a^{\perp}: a \notin P\right.$. $\left.a \in \operatorname{Rad} A\right\}$ The previous remark shows that $P$ is $\star$-semiprime, so $A / P$ is $\star$-semıprime and totally-ordered. By Lemma $2.5, A / P$ is a $\star$-domain for each $P \in$ Min $A$, hence $A$ is a subdirect product of totally-ordered $\star$-domains.
$(3) \Longrightarrow(1)$ :
By Propositions 3.2 and 4.4, $A$ is a $\star$-semiprime $f$-algebra.

Proposition 4.6. If $P$ is a $\begin{aligned} & \text {-ideal in an } f \text {-algebra } A \text {, then the following }\end{aligned}$ hold:
(1) $P \star$-prime $\Longrightarrow P$ is prime.
(2) If $A$ is $\star$-semiprime, then $P$ is $\star$-prime if and only if $P$ is prime.
(3) The set of all $\star$-ideals containing $a \star$-prime $\star$-ideal $P$ forms a chain.

Proof.
(1) Assume $P_{\star}$-prime, so $A / P$ is totally-ordered, hence $P$ is prime.
(2) If $A$ is $\star$-semiprime, then $A / P$ is also $\star$-semiprime, so one can apply Proposition 4.5(2) for any $P$ prime:

$$
\begin{aligned}
x \star y \in P & \Longrightarrow x / P+y / P=0 / P \Longrightarrow x / P \wedge y / P=0 / P \\
& \Longrightarrow x \wedge y \in P \Longrightarrow x \in P \text { or } y \in P
\end{aligned}
$$

so $P$ is $\star$-prime.
(3) By (1).

By this proposition, in a $\star$-semiprime $f$-algebra, any $\star$-prime $\star$-ideal is included in a unique maximal $\star$-ideal.
Proposition 4.7. For any $\star$-ideal $I, D(\sqrt{I})=\sqrt{D(I)}$.
Proof. By Proposition 2.8 and Corollary 5.
If $N(A)=\sqrt{\langle 0\rangle}$ and with the same notation in $\ell$-groups, we have $D(N(A))$ $=N(D(A))$.

## 5. $\star$-Semiprime and $\star$-pseudoprime $\star$-ideals in $f$-algebras

A $\star$-idcal $I$ in a $\star$-algebra $A$ is $\star$-pseudoprime if

$$
x \star y=0 \& x, y \in \operatorname{Rad} A \Longrightarrow x \in I \text { or } y \in I
$$

Proposition 5.1. $A \star$-ideal $P$ of an $f$-algebra $A$ is $\star$-prime if and only if it is $\star$-semiprime and $\star$-pseudoprime.

Proof. Assume $P$ is $\star$-semiprime and $\star$-pseudoprime. Consider $x \star y \in P$, so $(x \wedge y)^{(2)} \in P$ since $(x \wedge y)^{(2)} \leq x \star y$, therefore $x \wedge y \in \sqrt{P}=P$. We stress that

$$
x(x \wedge y)^{\star} \wedge y(x \wedge y)^{\star}=(x \wedge y)(x \wedge y)^{\star}=0
$$

so $\left(x(x \wedge y)^{\star}\right) \star\left(y(x \wedge y)^{\star}\right)=0, A$ being an $f$-algebra. Since $P$ is $\star$-pscudoprime, $x(x \wedge y)^{\star} \in P$ or $y(x \wedge y)^{\star} \in P$. If $x(x \wedge y)^{\star} \in P$, then

$$
x=(x \wedge y) \vee x=\left(\left(x(x \wedge y)^{\star}\right)+(x \wedge y)\right) \in P
$$

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Thus $P$ is $\star$-prime. The converse implication is trivial.
In what follows we will assume that $A$ is an $f$-algebra.
In accordance to Proposition 4.7, $P=\sqrt{P}$ if and only if $D(P)=\sqrt{D(P)}$, so a $\star$-ideal $P$ is $\star$-semiprime if and only if $D(P)$ is semiprime in $D(A)$.

Proposition 5.2. $A \star$-ideal $P$ is $\star$-pseudoprime if and only if $D(P)$ is pseudoprime in $D(A)$.

Proof. Assume $P \star$-pseudoprime and $[x, y] \cdot[u, v]=[0,0]$. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[d(x, y) \star d(u, v), 0] } & =[d(x, y), 0] \cdot[d(u, v), 0] \\
& =|[x, y]| \cdot|[u, v]|=|[x, y] \cdot[u, v]|=[0,0]
\end{aligned}
$$

because $D(A)$ is an $f$-ring. Thus $d(x, y) \star d(u, v)=0$, so $d(x, y) \in P$ or $d(u, v) \in P$. It follows that $|[x, y]|=[d(x, y), 0] \in D(P)$ or $|[u, v]|=[d(u, v), 0]$ $\in D(P)$, i.e. $[x, y] \in D(P)$ or $[u, v] \in D(P)$. Then $D(P)$ is pseudoprime.

The converse implication is very similar.
Lemma 5.1. Assume $A \star$-semiprime and $a, b \in \operatorname{Rad} A$. Then
(i) $a \leq b \Longleftrightarrow a^{(2)} \leq b^{(2)}$;
(ii) $(a+b)^{(2)} \leq 2\left(a^{(2)}+b^{(2)}\right)$;
(iii) $(a \star b)^{(2)} \leq\left(b^{(2)} \star a^{(2)}\right) \vee\left(a^{(2)} \star b^{(2)}\right)$.

Proof.
(i) By $[8 ; 2.3]$ we have, because $D(A)$ is $\star$-semiprime,

$$
\begin{aligned}
a \leq b & \Longleftrightarrow[a, 0] \leq[b, 0] \Longleftrightarrow[a, 0]^{2} \leq[b, 0]^{2} \\
& \Longleftrightarrow\left[a^{(2)}, 0\right] \leq\left[b^{(2)}, 0\right] \Longleftrightarrow a^{(2)} \leq b^{(2)}
\end{aligned}
$$

(ii) By $[8 ; 2.4]$ we also have

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[(a+b)^{(2)}, 0\right] } & =[a+b, 0]^{2}=([a, 0]+[b, 0])^{2} \leq 2\left([a, 0]^{2}+[b, 0]^{2}\right) \\
& =\left[2\left(a^{(2)}+b^{(2)}\right), 0\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

therefore $(a+b)^{(2)} \leq 2\left(a^{(2)}+b^{(2)}\right)$.
(iii) Similarly, using [8; 2.5].

For a $\star$-ideal $I$ in $A$, denote
$S(I)=\left\{a \in \operatorname{Rad} A: a \leq x^{2}\right.$ for some $x \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ such that $\left.x^{(2)} \in I\right\}$.

Lemma 5.2. $S(I)$ is $a \star$-ideal of $A$.
Proof. For $a, b \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
a, b \in S(I) & \Longrightarrow a \leq x^{(2)} \in I \& b \leq y^{(2)} \in I \\
& \Longrightarrow a+b \leq x^{(2)}+y^{(2)} \leq(x+y)^{(2)} \leq 2\left(x^{(2)}=y^{(2)}\right) \\
& \Longrightarrow a+b \in S(I) . \quad \text { (by Lemma 5.2(ii)) }
\end{aligned}
$$

$a \in \operatorname{Rad} A \& b \in S(I) \Longrightarrow b \leq x^{(2)} \in I$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Longrightarrow a \star b & \leq a \star x^{(2)} \leq(a \star x+x)^{(2)} \leq 2\left((a \star x)^{(2)}+x^{(2)}\right) \\
& \leq 2\left(x^{(2)}+\left(a^{(2)} \star x^{(2)}\right) \vee\left(x^{(2)} \star a^{(2)}\right)\right) \in I \\
\Longrightarrow a \star b & \in S(I)
\end{aligned}
$$

in accordance to Lemma 5.2 (ii) and (iii).
LEMMA 5.3. For any $\star$-ideal $I, I^{(2)} \subseteq S(I) \subseteq I$ and $S(S(I))=S(I)$.
Proof. By Proposition 2.11, we have

$$
I^{(2)}=\left\{a \in \operatorname{Rad} A: a \leq x^{2} \text { for some } x \in I\right\}
$$

therefore: $a \in I^{(2)} \Longrightarrow a \leq x^{(2)}, x \in I \Longrightarrow a \leq x^{(2)} \in I \Longrightarrow a \in S(I)$.
We also have:

$$
a \in S(I) \Longrightarrow a \leq x^{(2)} \in I \Longrightarrow a \leq x^{(2)} \in S(I)
$$

because

$$
x^{(2)} \leq x^{(2)} \in I \Longrightarrow a \in S(S(I))
$$

The rest of the proof is obvious.
Remark 5.1. If $I$ is an $\ell$-ideal in an $\ell$-ring $R$, there exist two notations for the same notion

$$
I^{n}=\left\langle I^{n}\right\rangle=\left\{a \in R:|a| \leq x^{n} \text { for some } x \in I^{+}\right\}
$$

$I^{n}$ : in [5; p. 158] (we adopt this notation).
$\left\langle I^{n}\right\rangle$ : in [4; 2.1].
LEMMA 5.4. We have $D(S(I))=S(D(I))$.
Proof. Consider $u=[a, 0] \in D(S(I))^{+}$with $a \in S(I)$, so $a \leq x^{(2)} \in I$ for some $x \in \operatorname{Rad} A$, therefore $v^{2}=\left[x^{(2)}, 0\right] \in D(I)$ and $u \leq v^{(2)}$. This yields $u \in S(D(I))$.

Conversely, assume $u=[a, 0] \in S(D(I))^{+}$, hence $u \leq v^{2} \in D(I), v=[x, 0]$ with $x \in \operatorname{Rad} A$. Thus $v^{2}=\left[x^{(2)}, 0\right] \in D(I)$, hence $x^{(2)} \in I$, hence $a \leq$ $x^{(2)} \in I$. Thus $a \in S(I)$ and $u \in D(S(I))$.

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Proposition 5.3. For $a \star$-ideal $I$ in an $f$-algebra $A$ the following are equivalent:
(1) $I$ is $\star$-semiprime;
(2) $N(A) \subseteq I$ and $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A, a^{(2)} \in I$ implies $a^{(2)} \in I$;
(3) $N(A) \subseteq I$ and $S(I)=I^{(2)}$.

Proof. By [8; Theorem 3.2], Lemma 5.4 and other transfer properties.
Proposition 5.4. If $S(I)$ is $\star$-semiprime, then $I=S(I)$.
Proof. By [8; Theorem 3.3] and Lemma 5.4.
A $\star$-ideal $I$ is $\star$-square dominated if $S(I)=I . I$ is called $\star$-square-root closed if for any $a \in I$ there exists $x \in I$ such that $x^{(2)}=a$.

Proposition 5.5. Let $I$ be $a \star$-ideal in $A$.
(1) $I$ is $\star$-square dominated in $A \Longleftrightarrow D(I)$ is square dominated in $D(A)$ ([15]).
(2) $I$ is $\star$-square-root closed in $A \Longleftrightarrow D(I)$ is square-root closed in $D(A)$ ([15]).

Proof.
(i) By Lemma 5.4.
(ii) Assume $I$ is $\star$-square-root closed and $[a, b] \in D(I)$, so $a, b \in I$ and $d(a, b) \in I$. Thus $d(a, b)=x^{(2)}$ for some $x \in I$, hence $|[a, b]|=[d(a, b), 0]=$ $\left[x^{(2)}, 0\right]=[x, 0]^{2}$ and $[x, 0] \in D(I)$. Thus $D(I)$ is square-root closed.

Assume now $D(I)$ is square-root closed and $a \in I$. Thus $[a, 0] \in D(I)$, so $[a, 0]=[x, 0]^{2}=\left[x^{(2)}, 0\right]$ with $[x, 0] \in D(I)$, therefore $x \in I$ and $a=x^{(2)}$, i.e. $I$ is $\star$-square-root closed.

If $x_{1}^{(2)}=x_{2}^{(2)}=a, x_{1}, x_{2} \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ in a $\star$-semiprime $f$-algebra, then $x_{1}=x_{2}$ by Lemma 5.1 (i). The unique solution of $x^{(2)}=a$ will be denoted by $a^{(1 / 2)}$.

It is clear that $\left[a^{1 / 2}, 0\right]=[a, 0]^{(1 / 2)}$ with usual notation in $f$-rings (see $[8$; p. 404]).

PROPOSITION 5.6. Let $I$ be $a \star$-ideal in $a \star$-semiprime $f$-algebra $A$.
(i) $I=I^{(2)}$ if and only if $I$ is $\star$-semiprime and $\star$-square dominated.
(ii) If $I$ is $\star$-square-root closed, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
I^{(2)} & =\left\{a \in \operatorname{Rad} A: a^{(1 / 2)} \in I\right\} \\
& =\{a \in \operatorname{Rad} A: a=b \star c \text { for some } b, c \in I\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

(iii) If $I$ is $\star$-square-root closed, then $I=I^{(2)}$ if and only if $I$ is $\star$-semiprime.

Proof.
(i) By [8; Theorem 3.4(a)] and Proposition 5.5 (i) using some other wellknown fact.
(ii) Assume $a^{(1 / 2)} \in I$, so $[a, 0]^{1 / 2}=\left[a^{(1 / 2}, 0\right] \in D(I)$ and $D(I)$ is squareroot closed. By [8; Theorem 3.4(b)] there are $u, v \in D(I)$ such that $[a, 0]=u \circ v$. But $A$ is an $f$-algebra, so $D(A)$ is an $f$-ring, hence $[a, 0]=|u \circ v|=|u| \circ|v|$, so one can assume that $u, v \geq 0$. Thus $u=[b, 0], v=|c, 0|, b, c \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ and $[a, 0]=[b \star c, 0]$, so $a=b \star c$ with $b, c \in I$.

Conversely, assume $a=b \star c, b, c \in I$, hence $[a, 0]=[b, 0] \cdot[c, 0],[b, 0],[c, 0] \in$ $D(I)$, hence, by $[8 ;$ Theorem $3.4(\mathrm{~b})],\left[a^{(1 / 2)}, 0\right]=[a, 0]^{1 / 2} \in D(I)$.

It follows that $a^{(1 / 2)} \in I$.
We have proved the equality of the last sets in (ii).
If $a \in I^{(2)}$, then $a \leq x^{(2)}, x \in I$, hence $a^{(1 / 2)} \leq x \in I$, by Lemma 5.1(i), therefore $a^{(1 / 2)} \in I$. It is clear that the third set in (ii) is included in $I^{(2)}$.
(iii) By (i) and (ii), because any $\star$-square-root closed $\star$-ideal is $\star$-square dominated.
Proposition 5.7. If $I$ is $a \star$-ideal in a $\star$-semiprime $f$-algebra, then $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I^{(n)}$ is $\star$-semiprime.

Proof. By Proposition 2.8, $D\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I^{(n)}\right)=\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty}(D(I))^{n}$ and by [8; Theorem 3.5] this is semiprime in $D(A)$, so $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I^{(n)}$ is $\star$-semiprime in $A$.

Assume $A$ is a $\star$-commutative $f$-algebra. If $M \subseteq \operatorname{Rad} A$, then

$$
M^{d}=\{x \in \operatorname{Rad} A: x \star m=0 \text { for } m \in M\}
$$

is a $\star$-ideal.
LEMMA 5.5. $D\left(M^{d}\right)=D(M)^{d}$ for each $\star$-ideal $M$ in $A$.
Proof. Assume $u=[a, 0] \in D\left(M^{d}\right)^{+}$, so $a \star m=0, m \in M$. Take $[x, y] \in D(M)$, so $x, y \in M$ and $d(x, y) \in M$. Since $D(A)$ is an $f$-ring, we have

$$
|u \cdot[x, y]|=u \cdot|[x, y]|=[a, 0] \cdot[d(x, y), 0]=[a \star d(x, y), 0]=[0,0]
$$

hence $u \circ[x, y]=[0,0]$. This shows that $u \in D(M)^{d}$. The converse inclusion is similar.
Corollary 7. $D\left(\{a\}^{d}\right)=\{[a, 0]\}^{d}$ for any $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A$.
Proof. $D\left(\{a\}^{d}\right)=D\left(\langle a\rangle^{d}\right)=D(\langle a\rangle)^{d}=\langle[a, 0]\rangle^{d}=\{[a, 0]\}^{d}$ in accordance to Lemma 2.2 and Lemma 5.5.

A (commutative) $f$-algebra $A$ is $\star$-normal if $\operatorname{Rad} A=\left\{a b^{\star}\right\}^{d} \vee\left\{a^{\star} b\right\}^{d}$ for any $a, b \in \operatorname{Rad} A$.

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PROPOSITION 5.8. The following are equivalent:
(1) $A$ is $\star$-normal;
(2) $D(A)$ is a normal $f$-ring (in the sense of $[11 ;$ p. 686]).

Proof.
(1) $\Longrightarrow$ (2):

Consider $[a, b] \in D(A)$. We have in $D(A)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\{[a, b]^{+}\right\}^{d} \vee\left\{[a, b]^{-}\right\}^{d} \\
= & \left\{\left[a b^{\star}, 0\right]\right\}^{d} \vee\left\{\left[b a^{\star}, 0\right]\right\}^{d}=D\left(\left\{a b^{\star}\right\}^{d}\right) \vee D\left(\left\{b a^{\star}\right\}^{d}\right) \\
= & D\left(\left\{a b^{\star}\right\}^{d} \vee\left\{b a^{\star}\right\}^{d}\right)=D(\operatorname{Rad} A)=D(A),
\end{aligned}
$$

so $D(A)$ is normal.

$$
(2) \Longrightarrow(1):
$$

Similarly.
Proposition 5.9. For $a \star$-commutative $f$-algebra $A$ the following are equivalent:
(1) $A$ is $\star$-normal.
(2) For $a, b \in \operatorname{Rad} A, a \wedge b=0$ implies $\{a\}^{d} \vee\{b\}^{d}=\operatorname{Rad} A$.

Proof.
$(2) \Longrightarrow(1):$
Obvious.
$(1) \Longrightarrow(2):$
Assume $a \wedge b=0$, so $[a, 0] \wedge[b, 0]=[0,0]$. Since $D(A)$ is normal, $\{[a, 0]\}^{d} \vee$ $\{[b, 0]\}^{d}=D(A)=D(\operatorname{Rad} A)($ see $[11 ;$ p. 686]). By Corollary 7 we have

$$
D\left(\{a\}^{d} \vee\{b\}^{d}\right)=D\left(\{a\}^{d}\right) \vee D\left(\{b\}^{d}\right)=\{[a, 0]\}^{d} \vee\{[b, 0]\}^{d}=D(\operatorname{Rad} A)
$$

By the injectivity of $D$ on $\star$-ideals, $\{a\}^{d} \vee\{b\}^{d}=\operatorname{Rad} A$.
Proposition 5.10. Consider $a \star$-commutative $\star$-semiprime $f$-algebra $A$.
(1) $A \star$-semiprime $\star$-ideal $I$ in $A$ is $\star$-square dominated if any $\star$-prime $\star$-ideal minimal with respect to containing $I$ is $\star$-square dominated.
(2) Every minimal $\star$-prime $\star$-ideal of $A$ is $\star$-square dominated if and only if for any $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A,\{a\}^{d}$ is $\star$-square dominated.

Proof. This is a translation of [11; Lemma 2.1] using the above transfer properties.

If $I, J$ are two $\star$-ideals in $A$, then $I: J=\{a \in \operatorname{Rad} A: x \in J \Longrightarrow$ $a \star x \in I\}$ is a $\star$-ideal in $A$.

LEmmA 5.6. We have $D(I: J)=D(I): D(J)$.
Proof. Assume $[a, 0] \in D(I: J)^{+}$, so $a \in I: J$, so $a \star b=I$, so $a \star b=I$ for $b \in J$. Consider $[x, y] \in D(J)$, so $x, y \in J$, so $d(x, y) \in J$, hence $a \star$ $d(x, y) \in I$. Thus $|[a, 0] \circ[x, y]|=[a \star d(x, y), 0] \in D(I)$, so $[a, 0] \circ[x, y] \in D(I)$, i.e. $[a, 0] \circ D(I): D(J)$.

Conversely, assume $[a, 0] \in(D(I): D(J))^{+}$and $x \in J$, therefore $[a, 0] \star$ $[x, 0] \in D(I)$, so $a \star x \in I$, i.e. $a \in I: J$. Thus $[a, 0] \in D(I: J)$.

PROPOSITION 5.11. Let $A$ be $a \star$-commutative and $\star$-semiprime $f$-algebra with $\star$-identity element and in which every minimal $\star$-prime $\star$-ideal is $\star$-square dominated. For any $\star$-ideal $I$ the following are equivalent:
(1) I is $\star$-pseudoprime;
(2) $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I^{(n)}$ is $\star$-prime;
(3) $I \star \sqrt{I}$ is $\star$-pseudoprime;
(4) $I=\sqrt{I}$ is $\star$-pseudoprime and $I: \sqrt{I} \subseteq \sqrt{I}$, or $\sqrt{I} \subseteq I: \sqrt{I}$ and $\sqrt{I}$ is $\star$-prime.

Proof. By [11; Theorem 2.2] and some transfer properties.
For a $\star$-prime $\star$-ideal $P$ in a $\star$-commutative $f$-algebra $A$ denote

$$
O_{P}=\{a \in \operatorname{Rad} A: a \star b=0 \text { for some } b \notin P\}
$$

A similar notation will be used for $f$-rings.
LEMMA 5.7. $O_{P}$ is a $\star$-ideal and $D\left(O_{P}\right)=O_{D(P)}$.
Proof. If $[a, 0] \in D\left(O_{P}\right)^{+}$, then $a \in O_{P}$, so $a \star b=0$ for some $b \notin P$. Thus $[a, 0] \star[b, 0]=[0,0]$ and $[b, 0] \notin D(P)$, i.e. $[a, 0] \in O_{D(P)}$.

Conversely, assume $[a, 0] \in O_{D(P)}^{+}$, so $[a, 0] \cdot[x, y]=[0,0]$ for some $[x, y] \notin$ $D(P)$. Thus $[a, 0] \cdot|[x, y]|=[0,0]$ and $|[x, y]| \notin D(P)$. But $|[x, y]|=[d(x, y), 0]$, so $a \star d(x, y)=0$ and $d(x, y) \notin P$. Thus $a \in O_{P}$ and $[a, 0] \in D\left(O_{P}\right)$.

PROPOSITION 5.12. If $A$ is a $\star$-commutative and $\star$-semiprime $f$-algebra with $\star$-identity element, then the following are equivalent:
(1) $A$ is $\star$-normal;
(2) for any $\star$-prime $\star$-ideal $P$ in $A, O_{P}$ is $\star$-prime;
(3) for any maximal $\star$-ideal $P$ in $A, O_{P}$ is $\star$-prime.

Proof. By [11; Theorem 2.4], Proposition 5.8, Lemma 5.7 and some other transfer properties.

PROPOSITION 5.13. Let $A$ be $a \star$-commutative, $\star$-semiprime and $\star$-normal $f$-algebra with $\star$-identity element. For $a \star$-ideal I the following are equivalent:
(1) I is $\star$-pseudoprime;
(2) the $\star$-prime $\star$-ideals containing I form a chain;
(3) $\sqrt{I}$ is $\star$-prime.

Proof. We apply [11; Theorem 2.6] and Propositions 4.7, 5.2, 5.8 and other transfer properties.

A $\star$-ideal $I$ in a ( $\star$-commutative) $f$-algebra $A$ is $\star$-primary if for $a, b \in$ $\operatorname{Rad} A, a \star b \in I$ and $a \notin I$ imply $b^{(n)} \in I$ for some $n \geq 1$. For the definition of primary $\ell$-ideal in $f$-rings, see e.g. [10; p. 106].

Proposition 5.14. The following are equivalent:
(1) $I$ is $\star$-primary in $A$;
(2) $D(I)$ is primary in $D(A)$.

Proof.
$(1) \Longrightarrow(2):$
For $[a, b],[x, y] \in D(I)$ we shall prove that
$[a, b] \cdot[x, y] \in D(I) \&[a, b] \notin D(I) \Longrightarrow[x, y]^{n} \in D(I)$ for some $n \geq 1$.
If $[a, b] \cdot[x, y] \in D(I)$, then we have (because $D(A)$ is an $f$-ring):

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[d(a, b) \star d(x, y), 0] } & =[d(a, b), 0] \cdot[d(x, y), 0] \\
& =|[a, b]| \cdot|[x, y]|=|[a, b] \cdot[x, y]| \in D(I)
\end{aligned}
$$

so $d(a, b) \star d(x, y) \in D(I)$. From $[a, b] \notin I$ we get $[d(a, b), 0]=|[a, b]| \notin D(I)$, so $d(a, b) \notin I$. Thus $d(x, y)^{(n)} \in I$ for some $n \geq 1$, since $I$ is $\star$-primary, therefore $|[x, y]|^{n}=\left[d(x, y)^{(n)}, 0\right] \in D(I)$, hence $[x, y]^{n} \in D(I)$. Then $D(I)$ is primary.
(2) $\Longrightarrow$ (1):

If $a \star b \in I, a \notin I$, then $[a, 0] \cdot[b, 0]=[a \star b, 0] \in D(I)$ and $[a, 0] \notin D(I)$, so $\left[b^{(n)}, 0\right]=[b, 0]^{n} \in D(I)$ for some $n \geq 1$, hence $b^{(n)} \in I$.

Proposition 5.15. Let $A$ be $a \star$-commutative and $\star$-semiprime $f$-algebra with $\star$-identity element and $I, a \star$-ideal in $A$.
(1) If $I$ is $\star$-pseudoprime and it is an intersection of $\star$-primary $\star$-ıdeals, then $I$ is itself.
(2) If $I=I \star \sqrt{I}$ or $I=I: \sqrt{I}$, then $I$ is an intersection of $\star$-primary $\star$-ideals.
(3) If $I$ is $a \star$-pseudoprime ideal satisfying $I=I \star \sqrt{I}$ or $I=I: I \sqrt{I}$, then $I$ is $\star$-primary.

Proof.
(1) By $[10 ; 3.6]$ and Propositions 5.2, 5.14.
(2) and (3) By [10; 3.5, 3.6], Propositions 2.2, 4.7, 5.2, 5.14, and Lemma 5.6.

Proposition 5.16. Let $A$ be an $f$-algebra.
(1) The join of $a \star$-semiprime $\star$-ideal and $a \star$-square dominated and $\star$-semiprime $\star$-ideal is $\star$-semiprime.
(2) Assume that any minimal $\star$-prime $\star$-ideal in $A$ is $\star$-square dominated. Then the join of any two $\star$-prime (resp. $\star$-semiprime) $\star$-ideals in $A$ is $\star$-prime (resp. $\star$-semiprime).

Proof. By $[13 ; 2.1,2.2,2.3]$ and the fact that these properties are transferable from $\ell$-rings in $\star$-algebras and vice-versa.

An (arbitrary) $f$-algebra $A$ has the left $n$ th-convexity property if for any $a, b \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ we have

$$
a \leq b^{(n)} \Longrightarrow(\exists c \in \operatorname{Rad} A)(a=c \star b)
$$

Similarly, one can define the right and $n$ th-convexity property.
Proposition 5.17. The following are equivalent:
(1) A has the left nth-convexity property.
(2) $D(A)$ has the left $n$ th-convexity property (in sense of [10]).

Proof.
(1) $\Longrightarrow(2)$ :

Assume $0 \leq u \leq v^{n}, v \geq 0$ in $D(A)$, so $u=[a, 0], v=[b, 0]$, so $[a, 0] \leq[b, 0]^{n}=$ $\left[b^{(n)}, 0\right]$, i.c. $a \leq b^{(n)}$. Thus there is $c \in \operatorname{Rad} A, a=c \star b$, hence $u=w \cdot v$ for $w=[c, 0]$.
$(2) \Longrightarrow(1)$ :
Assume $a \leq b^{(n)}$, so $[a, 0] \leq\left[b^{(n)}, 0\right]=[b, 0]^{n}$, hence there is $[x, y] \in D(A)$ such that $[a, 0]=[x, y] \cdot[b, 0] . D(A)$ is an $f$-ring, hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[a, 0] } & =|[x, y] \cdot[b, 0]|=|[x, y]| \cdot[b, 0]=[d(x, y), 0] \cdot[b, 0] \\
& =[d(x, y) \star b, 0]
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $a=d(x, y) \star b, d(x, y) \in \operatorname{Rad} A$.
Corollary 8. Assume $A$ has the left nth-convexity property. Thus any homomorphic image of $A$ has the $n$ th-convexity property.

Proof. By [10; 2.3] and Proposition 5.17.

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Corollary 9. If $A$ satisfies the left nth-convexity property, then for any $a, b \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ there exist $x, y \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
a+(y \star d(a, b)) & =b+(x \star d(a, b)), \\
d(a, b)+(x \star b)+(y \star a) & =(x \star a)+(y \star b)
\end{aligned}
$$

Particularly, for any $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ there is $x \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ such that $a=x \star b$.
Proof. By [10; Theorem 2.4(1)] and Proposition 5.17 there exist $x, y \in$ $\operatorname{Rad} A$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[a, b] } & =[x, y] \cdot|[a, b]|=[x, y] \cdot[d(a, b), 0]=[x \star d(a, b), y \star d(a, b)], \\
{[d(a, b), 0] } & =|[a, b]|=[x, y] \cdot[a, b]=[x \star a+y \star b, x \star b+y \star a]
\end{aligned}
$$

From these one gets the desired properties.
Let $A$ be an $f$-algebra. An $n$-convexity cover of $A$ is an $f$-algebra $B$ such that there is an embedding $A \leq B$ and $B$ has the $n$ th-convexity property.

PROPOSITION 5.18. Let $A$ be $a \star$-commutative and $\star$-semiprime $f$-algebra. Then there is a unique $\star$-commutative and $\star$-semiprime $f$-algebra $K_{n}(A)$ such that
(a) $K_{n}(A)$ is an $n$-convexity cover of $A$.
(b) For any embedding (resp. ᄎ-morphism) $f: A \rightarrow B$ with $B$ a $A$-semiprime $f$-algebra satisfying the $n$ th-convexity property, there is an embedding (resp. a $\star$-morphism) $\bar{f}: K_{n}(A) \rightarrow B$ such that $\left.\bar{f}\right|_{A}=f$.

Proof. We apply [12; Theorem 2.4] for $D(A)$, so one can take the minimal $n$-convexity cover $K_{n}(D(A))$ of $D(A)$. Thus $\Delta\left(K_{n}(D(A))\right)$ satisfies the above conditions (a), (b).

## 6. Chain conditions in $f$-algebras

Let $A$ be an $f$-algebra. Recall that for $S \subseteq \operatorname{Rad} A, S^{\perp}$ is a $\star$-idcal.
A polar $\star$-ideal is a $\star$-ideal $I$ such that $I^{\perp \perp}=I$. It is easy to see that the set $\operatorname{Pol}(A)$ of polar $\star$-ideals of $A$ is a complete Boolean algebra with respect to:

$$
\Pi I_{\lambda}=\bigcap I_{\lambda} \quad \text { and } \quad \bigsqcup I_{\lambda}=\left(\bigcup I_{\lambda}\right)^{\perp \perp}=\left(\bigcap I_{\lambda}^{\perp}\right)^{\perp}
$$

A polar $\ell$-ideal in an $f$-ring $R$ is an $\ell$-ideal $K$ such that $K^{\perp \perp}=K$ in $R$.
In [1] the polar $\ell$-ideals are known under the name of closed $\ell$-ideals. Similarly, the set $\operatorname{Pol}(R)$ of polar $\ell$-idcals in $R$ is a complete Boolean algebra.

LEMMA 6.1. For any $\star$-ideal $I$ in an f-algebra $A, D\left(I^{\perp}\right)=D(I)^{\perp}$.
Proof. Straightforward.
Lemma 6.2. The map $I \mapsto D(I)$ is an isomorphism between $\operatorname{Pol}(A)$ and $\operatorname{Pol}(D(A))$.

Proof. By Lemma 6.1.
LEMMA 6.3. For any $\star$-ideal $I$, $I$ is totally-ordered if and only if $D(I)$ is totally-ordered.

Lemma 6.4. For any non-zero $\star$-ideal $I$ in $A$ the following are equivalent:
(1) I is totally-ordered;
(2) $I^{\perp}$ is a maximal polar $\star$-ideal;
(3) $A / I^{\perp}$ is totally-ordered $\star$-algebra.

Proof. By [1; Lemma 1] and the previous lemmas.
We shall write ACC for "ascending chain condition" and DCC for "descending chain condition".

LEMMA 6.5. For an $f$-algebra $A$ the following are equivalent:
(1) A has ACC (resp. DCC) for polar $\star$-ideal;
(2) $D(A)$ has ACC (resp. DCC) for polar $\ell$-ideal.

Proof. By the boolean isomorphism $\operatorname{Pol}(A) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Pol}(D(A))$.
For an $f$-algebra $A$ denote by $\mathcal{M}_{A}$ the maximal polar $\star$-ideals in $A$. Similarly, for an $f$-ring $R$ denote by $\mathcal{M}_{R}$ the maximal polar $\ell$-ideals in $R$.
LEMMA 6.6. For an $f$-algebra $A, \bigcap \mathcal{M}_{A}=\{0\}$ if and only if $\cap \mathcal{M}_{D(A)}=\{0\}$.
Proof. The map $I \mapsto D(I)$ is an order-preserving bijection between $\mathcal{M}_{A}$ and $\mathcal{M}_{D(A)}$.
Proposition 6.1. For an $f$-algebra $A$ the following are equivalent:
(1) A has ACC for polar $\star$-ideals;
(2) A has DCC for polar $\star$-ideals;
(3) A is isomorphic to a subdirect product of a finite family of totally-ordered $\star$-algebras.

Proof.
(1) $\Longleftrightarrow$

By [1; Theorem 1] and Lemma 6.6.
$(3) \Longrightarrow(1)$ :
Obvious, because any totally-ordered $\star$-algebra has ACC for polar $\star$-ideals.
(1) $\Longrightarrow(3):$

By Lemma 6.6 and $\left[1 ;\right.$ Lemma 4] we have $\bigcap \mathcal{M}_{A}=\{0\}$ and $\mathcal{M}_{A}$ is finite. Thus $A \hookrightarrow \Pi\left\{A / P: P \in \mathcal{M}_{A}\right\}$ is the desired representation of $A$ in accordance to Lemma 6.4.

Proposition 6.2. For $a \star$-semiprime $f$-algebra the following are equivalent:
(1) A has ACC for polar $\star$-ideals;
(2) A has DCC for polar *-ideals;
(3) $A$ is isomorphic to a subdirect product of a finite family of totally-ordered *-domains.

Proof. By [1; Theorem 2], Proposition 6.1 and the $\star$-version of [1; Lemma 5].

## 7. Reticulations of an $f$-algebra

Denote by $K \operatorname{Spec} A$ the set of irreducible $\star$-ideals in an $f$-algebra $A$. If $R$ is an $f$-ring, $K \operatorname{Spec} R$ will be the set of irreducible $\ell$-ideals in $R$ (Kcimel spectrum).

For any $\star$-ideal $I$ in $A$ denote $d(I)=d_{A}(I)=\{P \in K \operatorname{Spec} A: I \nsubseteq P\}$. It is easy to see that $d(I \cap J)=d(I) \cap d(J) ; d\left(\bigvee I_{\lambda}\right)=\bigcup d\left(I_{\lambda}\right) ; d(a \vee b)=d(a) \cup d(b)$. $d(a \wedge b)=d(a) \cap d(b) . K \operatorname{Spec} A$ becomes a topological space.

Lemma 7.1. The map $P \mapsto D(P)$ is a homeomorphism between $K$ Spec $A$ and $K \operatorname{Spec} D(A)$.

Proof. For any $\star$-ideal $I$ we have $D\left(d_{A}(I)\right)=d_{D(A)}(D(I))$.
It is casy to see that $D\left(d_{A}(a)\right)=d_{D(A)}([A, 0])$, so any $d_{A}(a)$ is a compact set in $K \operatorname{Spec} A$. An element $a \neq 0$ in $\operatorname{Rad} A$ is a formal $\star$-unit if $d(a)=K \operatorname{Spec} A$. An element $a$ is a formal $\star$-unit if and only if $[a, 0]$ is a formal unit in $D(A)$ (see [9]). $K \operatorname{Spec} A$ is compact if and only if $A$ has a formal $\star$-unit.

Consider the following equivalence relation: $x \sim y \Longleftrightarrow d(x)=d(y)$ on $\operatorname{Rad} A$.

Denote $\gamma(A)=\operatorname{Rad} A / \sim$ and let $\gamma(x)$ be the equivalence class of $x \in \operatorname{Rad} A$. Setting

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \gamma(x) \vee \gamma(y)=\gamma(x+y) \\
& \gamma(x) \wedge \gamma(y)=\gamma(x \wedge y)
\end{aligned}
$$

$(\gamma(A), \vee, \wedge, \gamma(0), \gamma(1))$ becomes a bounded distributive lattice. For a $\star$-ideal $I$ of $A, \gamma(I)=\{\gamma(x): x \in I\}$ is an ideal of the lattice $\gamma(A)$. For any ideal $J$ in $\gamma(A), \gamma^{-1}(J)$ is a *-ideal in $A$.

LEMMA 7.2. The maps $I \mapsto \gamma(I), J \mapsto \gamma^{-1}(J)$ establish a lattice isomorphism between $\mathcal{I} \mathrm{d} A$ and the lattice $\operatorname{Id} \gamma(A)$ of the ideals in $\gamma(A)$.

Proof. For $I \in \mathcal{I d} A$ we have:

$$
\gamma^{-1}(\gamma(I))=\{a \in \operatorname{Rad} A: d(a)=d(x) \text { for some } x \in I\}=I
$$

in accordance to Proposition 2.11. For $J \in \operatorname{Id} \gamma(A)$ it is easy to see that $\gamma \gamma^{-1}(J)=J$.

Corollary 10. $K \operatorname{Spec} A$ and $\operatorname{Spec} \gamma(A)$ are homeomorphic.
Consider an $f$-ring $R$ and $D_{2}(R)$ the lattice constructed in [9; p. 210]. A construction of $D_{2}(R)$ can also be done in B elluce's style [2]. Consider the equivalence relation on $R^{+}: x \sim y \Longleftrightarrow d(x)=d(y)$ for $x, y \in R^{+}$(here $d(x)=\{P \in K \operatorname{Spec} A: x \notin P\})$. Denote $D_{2}(R)=R^{+} / \sim$ and $D_{2}(x)$ the class of $x \in R^{+}$. We define the operations of $D_{2}(A): D_{2}(x) \vee D_{2}(y)=D_{2}(x \vee y)$ and $D_{2}(x) \wedge D_{2}(y)=D_{2}(x \star y)$ for $x, y \in R^{+}$. Thus $D_{2}(R)$ is a bounded distributive lattice.

Proposition 7.1. If $A$ is an $f$-algebra, then the lattices $\gamma(A)$ and $D_{2}(D(A))$ are isomorphic.

Proof. For any $x, y \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma(x)=\gamma(y) & \Longleftrightarrow d_{A}(x)=d_{A}(y) \\
& \Longleftrightarrow d_{D(A)}([x, 0])=d_{D(A)}([y, 0]) \\
& \Longleftrightarrow D_{2}([x, 0])=D_{2}([y, 0])
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus one can prove that $\gamma(x) \mapsto D_{2}([x, 0])$ is a lattice isomorphism.
Corollary 11. $\gamma(A)$ is a normal lattice.
Proof. By [9; p. 213] and Proposition 7.1.
Recall that a $\star$-identity element is an element $e \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ such that $e \star x=$ $x \star e=x$ for $x \in \operatorname{Rad} A$. The $\star$-identity element is unique. It is clear that $e$ is the $\star$-identity element of $A$ if and only if $[e, 0]$ is the identity element of $D(A)$.

Proposition 7.2. For an $f$-algebra $A$ with the $\star$-identity $e$ the following are equivalent:
(1) For any $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ there exist $b, c \in \operatorname{Rad} A,(a \star b) \vee c \geq e$ and $(a \star b) \wedge c=0$.
(2) For any $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A,\langle a\rangle \vee a^{\perp}=\operatorname{Rad} A$.
(3) $\gamma(A)$ is a Boolean algebra.
(4) $K \operatorname{Spec} A$ is a Boolean space.
(5) Any irreducible $\star$-ideal is a maximal $\star$-ideal.

Proof. We shall prove that (1) is equivalent to
(i) for $u \in D(A)^{+}$there exist $v, w \in D(A)^{+}$such that

$$
(u \cdot v) \vee w \geq[e, 0] \quad \text { and } \quad(u \cdot v) \wedge w=[0,0]
$$

$(1) \Longrightarrow$ (i):
Consider $u \in D(A)^{+}$, so $u=[a, 0], a \in \operatorname{Rad} A$, hence $(a \star b) \vee c \geq e$ and $(a \star b) \wedge c=0$ for some $b, c \in \operatorname{Rad} A$. Thus for $v=[b, 0], w=[c, 0]$ we obtain the relations in (i).
(i) $\Longrightarrow$ (1):

Similarly.
The condition (2) is equivalent to
(ii) for $u \in D(A)^{+}$we have $\langle u\rangle \vee u^{\perp}=D(A)$.

This follows by $D(\langle a\rangle)=\langle[a, 0]\rangle, D\left(a^{\perp}\right)=[a, 0]^{\perp}$ for $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ and the lattice isomorphism $I \mapsto D(I)$ between $\mathcal{I} \mathrm{d} A$ and $\mathcal{I} \mathrm{d} D(A)$.

Thus our proposition follows from [9; p. 217, Proposition 4.10] and Proposition 7.1.

LEMMA 7.3. If $I$ is a*-ideal in $A$ and $J$ an ideal of the lattice $\gamma(A)$, then $(\gamma(I))^{\perp}=\gamma\left(I^{\perp}\right)$ and $\left(\gamma^{-1}(J)\right)^{\perp}=\gamma^{-1}(J)$.

Proof. Straightforward.
An $f$-algebra is locally stonian (resp. locally strongly stonian) if $x^{\perp} \vee x^{\perp \perp}=$ $\operatorname{Rad} A\left(\operatorname{resp} . I^{\perp} \vee I^{\perp \perp}=\operatorname{Rad} A\right)$ for each $x \in \operatorname{Rad} A(\operatorname{resp} . I \in \mathcal{I d} A)$.

Proposition 7.3. For an $f$-algebra $A$ the following are equivalent:
(1) A is locally stonian (resp. locally strongly stonian);
(2) $\gamma(A)$ is a stonian (resp. strongly stonian) lattice.

## Proof. By Lemmas 7.2 and 7.3.

Now we shall define the second reticulation of an $f$-algebra. Denote by $E(A)$ the set of *-ideals having the form:

$$
K=\bigvee_{i=1}^{n}\left\langle x_{i_{1}}\right\rangle \star \cdots \star\left\langle x_{i_{n(i)}}\right\rangle, \quad x_{i j} \in \operatorname{Rad} A
$$

Consider the following equivalence relation on $E(A)$ :

$$
K_{1} \equiv K_{2} \Longleftrightarrow \sqrt{K_{1}}=\sqrt{K_{2}} .
$$

Denote $\delta(K)$ the class of $K \in E(A)$ and define

$$
\delta\left(K_{1}\right) \vee \delta\left(K_{2}\right)=\delta\left(K_{1} \vee K_{2}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \delta\left(K_{1}\right) \wedge \delta\left(K_{2}\right)=\delta\left(K_{1} \star K_{2}\right)
$$

for $K_{1}, K_{2} \in E(A)$. Thus $\delta(A)=E(A) / \equiv$ has a structure of distributive lattice. For $a \in \operatorname{Rad} A$ denote $\delta(a)=\delta(\langle a\rangle)$. Thus

$$
\delta(a+b)=\delta(a \vee b)=\delta(a) \vee \delta(b) \quad \text { and } \quad \delta(a \star b) \leq \delta(a) \wedge \delta(b)
$$

because $\langle a+b\rangle=\langle a \vee b\rangle=\langle a\rangle \vee\langle b\rangle$ and $\langle a \star b\rangle \subseteq\langle a\rangle \star\langle b\rangle$.
For $I \in \mathcal{I d} A, I^{\star}=\{\delta(K): K \in E(A), K \subseteq I\}$ is an ideal of $\delta(A)$. For an ideal $J$ of $\delta(A), J_{\star}=\{a \in \operatorname{Rad} A: \delta(a) \in J\}$ is a $\star$-ideal in $A$. The maps $I \mapsto I^{\star}, J \mapsto J_{\star}$ are order-preserving and $I \subseteq\left(I^{\star}\right)_{\star}, J \subseteq\left(J_{\star}\right)^{\star}$. The following result can be proved as in [2].

Proposition 7.4. $P \in \operatorname{Spec} A \Longrightarrow P=\left(P^{\star}\right)_{\star}$ and $P^{\star} \in \operatorname{Spec} \delta(A)$.
Proposition 7.5. The following are equivalent:
(1) For any ideal $J$ of $\delta(A), J=\left(J_{\star}\right)^{\star}$.
(2) $J \in \operatorname{Spec} \delta(A) \Longrightarrow J_{\star} \in \operatorname{Spec} A$.

Proposition 7.6. If the equivalent conditions of Proposition 7.5 are fulfilled, then $\operatorname{Spec} A$ and $\operatorname{Spec} \delta(A)$ are homeomorphic.

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