

Research Paper

## MODULE STRUCTURES ON $L$ -ALGEBRAS

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**ABSTRACT.** In this paper, we apply the modules theory to  $L$ -algebras and introduce the concept of an  $L$ -module. Then we construct  $L$ -modules by using power sets and De Morgan algebras. Moreover, we investigate some properties of modules such as sub-module and other related results. Finally, we introduce the concepts of multiplication  $L$ -modules and co-multiplication  $L$ -modules and we will represent each sub-module of an  $L$ -module by using them.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

$L$ -algebras, which are related to algebraic logic and quantum structures, were introduced by Rump [12]. Many examples shown that  $L$ -algebras are very useful. Yang and Rump [14], characterized pseudo  $MV$ -algebras and Bosbach's non-commutative bricks as  $L$ -algebras. Wu and Yang [20] proved that orthomodular lattices form a special class of  $L$ -algebras in

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different ways. It was shown that every lattice-ordered effect algebra has an underlying  $L$ -algebra structure in Wu et al. [19]. Also, other mathematicians studied the relationship between basic algebras and  $L$ -algebras. They proved that a basic algebra which satisfies  $(z \oplus \neg x) \oplus \neg(y \oplus \neg x) = (z \oplus \neg y) \oplus \neg(x \oplus \neg y)$ , can be converted into an  $L$ -algebra. Conversely, if an  $L$ -algebra with 0 and some conditions such that it is an involutive bounded lattice can be organized into a basic algebra, it must be a lattice-ordered effect algebra. For more study about  $L$ -algebras see [2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 10, 11, 21, 22].

Every module is an action of a ring on a certain group. This is, indeed, a source of motivation to study the action of certain algebraic structures on groups. It seems quite natural to introduce “modules” over  $L$ -algebras, analogously to modules over  $BCK$ -algebras and  $MV$ -algebras and try to build a theory that is parallel to the standard ring theory on  $L$ -algebras. For instance, in [6], authors defined the  $MV$ -modules over  $PMV$ -algebras and they proved that these are structures that naturally correspond to  $\ell u$ -modules over  $\ell u$ -rings. Fixing an  $\ell u$ -ring  $(R, \nu)$ , they showed that the equivalence between the category of  $\ell u$ -modules over  $(R, \nu)$  and the category of  $MV$ -modules over  $\Gamma(R, \nu)$ . They also introduced the truncated modules, that are  $MV$ -algebras endowed with an external multiplication defined for any element in the positive cone of an  $\ell u$ -ring and showed that the natural equivalence between  $MV$ -modules and truncated modules. For more study about modules on logical algebras see [5, 6, 15, 17, 18].

Considering the importance of  $L$ -algebras in different fields of mathematics and physics, as well as the importance of modules in algebra, in the article [16], the authors introduce the  $L$ -module, in which an  $L$ -algebra acts on an arbitrary Abelian group, and therefore, the operations of the Abelian group in question are used in the definition of the  $L$ -module. Then, they explain the concept of the extended of the  $L$ -module and examine some results in this regard. In this article, we have used two  $L$ -algebras, which we have constructed with the help of one of the  $L$ -algebras and the definition of the operation  $+$  on an Abelian group, and then the other  $L$ -algebra acts on that and an  $L$ -module is constructed. Therefore, the definition presented is used with the help of the operation of implication in the  $L$ -algebra (with the help of which the Abelian group is defined). Then we decided to introduce the concept of  $L$ -modules and obtain some interesting examples and results. Moreover, we define the concepts of multiplication and co-multiplication modules in  $L$ -modules and investigate some results about them.

## 2. PRELIMINARIES

This section lists the known default contents that will be used later.

An  $L$ -algebra [7] is an algebraic structure  $(L; \rightarrow, 1)$  of type  $(2, 0)$  satisfying

$$(L1) \quad x \rightarrow x = x \rightarrow 1 = 1 \text{ and } 1 \rightarrow x = x,$$

$$(L2) (x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow z) = (y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow z),$$

$$(L3) \text{ if } x \rightarrow y = y \rightarrow x = 1, \text{ then } x = y,$$

for any  $x, y, z \in L$ . Condition (L1) states that 1 is a logical unit, while (L2) is related to the quantum Yang-Baxter equation. Note that a logical unit is always unique. By (L3), the relation

$$x \leq y \text{ if and only if } x \rightarrow y = 1,$$

defines a partial order for any  $L$ -algebra  $L$ . If  $L$  admits a smallest element 0, then it is called a *bounded  $L$ -algebra* (see [7]).

We say that a bounded  $L$ -algebra  $L$  has *negation* if the map  $x \mapsto x'$  is bijective, where  $x' = x \rightarrow 0$ .

**Example 2.1.** Let  $(G, +, -, \wedge, \vee, 0)$  be an arbitrary  $\ell$ -group. For an arbitrary element  $a \in G$ , where  $0 \leq a$  define the binary operation  $\rightarrow$  on  $G[a] = [0, a]$  as follows,

$$x \rightarrow y = (y - x + a) \wedge a,$$

for any  $x, y \in G[a]$ . Then  $(G[a], \rightarrow, a)$  is an  $L$ -algebra.

**Definition 2.2.** [13] An  $L$ -algebra  $L$  which satisfies

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

for any  $x, y \in L$  is called a *KL-algebra*.

A *CKL-algebra* is an  $L$ -algebra which satisfies

$$x \rightarrow (y \rightarrow z) = y \rightarrow (x \rightarrow z), \quad (C)$$

for any  $x, y, z \in L$  (see [13]).

Clearly, every *CKL*-algebra is a *KL*-algebra, since for any  $x, y \in L$ , we have

$$x \rightarrow (y \rightarrow x) = y \rightarrow (x \rightarrow x) = y \rightarrow 1 = 1.$$

**Proposition 2.3.** [14] *Let  $L$  be an  $L$ -algebra. Then  $x \leq y$  implies  $z \rightarrow x \leq z \rightarrow y$ , for any  $x, y, z \in L$ .*

**Proposition 2.4.** [14] *For an  $L$ -algebra  $L$ , the following are equivalent:*

$$(i) x \leq y \rightarrow x,$$

$$(ii) \text{ if } x \leq z, \text{ then } z \rightarrow y \leq x \rightarrow y,$$

$$(iii) ((x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow z) \rightarrow z \leq ((x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow z) \rightarrow ((y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow z),$$

for any  $x, y, z \in L$ .

**Definition 2.5.** [12] A subset  $I$  of an  $L$ -algebra  $L$  is called an *ideal of  $L$*  if it satisfies the following conditions for all  $x, y \in I$ ,

- ( $I_1$ )  $1 \in I$ ,
- ( $I_2$ ) if  $x \in I$  and  $x \rightarrow y \in I$ , then  $y \in I$ ,
- ( $I_3$ ) if  $x \in I$ , then  $(x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y \in I$ ,
- ( $I_4$ ) if  $x \in I$ , then  $y \rightarrow x \in I$  and  $y \rightarrow (x \rightarrow y) \in I$ .

If we consider the ideal of  $CKL$ -algebra, the conditions ( $I_3$ ) and ( $I_4$ ) can be dropped. In fact, for any  $x \in I$ , by ( $C$ ) and ( $I_1$ ) we have

$$x \rightarrow ((x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y) = (x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow y) = 1 \in I,$$

for any  $y \in L$ . It follows by ( $I_2$ ) that  $(x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y \in I$ . Thus ( $I_3$ ) holds. Furthermore, if  $x \in I$ , then for any  $y \in L$ , by ( $K$ ) we have  $x \rightarrow (y \rightarrow x) = 1 \in I$  and by ( $I_2$ ),  $y \rightarrow x \in I$ .

For an  $L$ -algebra, a binary relation  $\sim$  is a *congruence relation* [12] on  $L$  if it is an equivalence relation such that for any  $x, y, z \in L$ ,

$$x \sim y \Leftrightarrow (z \rightarrow x) \sim (z \rightarrow y) \text{ and } (x \rightarrow z) \sim (y \rightarrow z).$$

**Theorem 2.6.** [12] Let  $(L, \rightarrow, 1)$  be an  $L$ -algebra. Then every ideal  $I$  of  $L$  defines a congruence relation on  $L$ , for any  $x, y \in L$ , where

$$x \sim y \Leftrightarrow x \rightarrow y, y \rightarrow x \in I.$$

Conversely, every congruence relation  $\sim$  defines an ideal  $I = \{x \in L \mid x \sim 1\}$ .

**Definition 2.7.** [12] Let  $L$  and  $H$  be two  $L$ -algebras. Then a map  $f : L \rightarrow H$  is called an  *$L$ -homomorphism* if for any  $x, y \in L$  we have  $f(x \rightarrow_L y) = f(x) \rightarrow_H f(y)$ .

If  $f$  is an injective, then  $f$  is called a *monomorphism* and if  $f$  is onto, then  $f$  is called an *epimorphism*. In addition, if  $f$  is a bijective function, then  $f$  is called an *isomorphism*.

### 3. CONSTRUCTION OF AN $L$ -MODULE BY AN ABELIAN GROUP

In this section, we introduce the concept of  $L$ -modules by using Abelian groups and investigate some properties about them.

**Definition 3.1.** Let  $\mathcal{L} = (L, \rightarrow, 1)$  be an  $L$ -algebra and  $(G, \rightsquigarrow, ', 0, 1)$  be a bounded  $L$ -algebra with negation, where  $(G, +, 0)$  be an Abelian group and  $\cdot : L \times G \rightarrow G$  be a mapping such that for any  $m \in G$  and  $x, y \in L$ :

- ( $LM_1$ )  $1 \cdot m = m$ ,
- ( $LM_2$ )  $x \cdot (m_1 + m_2) = x \cdot m_1 + x \cdot m_2$ ,
- ( $LM_3$ )  $(x \rightarrow y) \cdot m = m - (x \cdot m \rightsquigarrow y \cdot m)'$ .

Then  $G$  is called an  *$L$ -module*, where the subtraction “ $-$ ” is in fact the group subtraction in  $G$ .

**Notation.** For any  $m \in G$  and  $x \in L$ , we write  $xm$  instead of  $x \cdot m$ , for short.

**Example 3.2.** Assume  $L = \{\alpha, \beta, 1\}$  be a set, where

$\rightarrow$	$\alpha$	$\beta$	$1$
$\alpha$	1	$\alpha$	1
$\beta$	$\alpha$	1	1
1	$\alpha$	$\beta$	1

Then  $(L, \rightarrow, 1)$  is an  $L$ -algebra. Let  $(G = \{0, a, b, 1\}, \leq)$  be a poset, where  $0 \leq a, b \leq 1$ . Define the operation  $\rightsquigarrow$  on  $L$  as follows:

$\rightsquigarrow$	0	a	b	1
0	1	1	1	1
a	b	1	b	1
b	a	a	1	1
1	0	a	b	1

Then  $(G, \rightsquigarrow, 1)$  is an  $L$ -algebra. Now, define the operation  $+$  on  $G$  as follows:

$+$	0	a	b	1
0	0	a	b	1
a	a	0	1	b
b	b	1	0	a
1	1	b	a	0

According to the above table,  $(G, +, 0)$  is an Abelian group. Define  $\cdot : L \times G \rightarrow G$  by  $x \cdot m = m$ , for any  $x \in L$  and  $m \in G$ . Then it is easy to see that  $G$  is an  $L$ -module.

**Proposition 3.3.** Let  $X$  be a non-empty set and  $L = P(X)$  be the power set of  $X$ . If operation “ $\rightarrow$ ” on  $P(X)$ , for any  $A, B \in P(X)$ , is defined by:

$$A \rightarrow B = A^c \cup B,$$

then  $L = (P(X), \rightarrow, X)$  is an  $L$ -algebra. Also, if  $G = (P(X), +, \emptyset)$ , where

$$A + B = A \Delta B = (A \cup B) - (A \cap B),$$

then  $G$  is an Abelian group and  $G$  is an  $L$ -module.

*Proof.* Let  $A, B, C \in P(X)$ . Then

$$A \rightarrow A = A^c \cup A = X, \quad X \rightarrow A = X^c \cup A = \emptyset \cup A = A,$$

$$A \rightarrow X = A^c \cup X = X.$$

So, (L1) holds.

Let  $A, B, C \in P(X)$ . Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow C) &= (A^c \cup B) \rightarrow (A^c \cup C) = (A^c \cup B)^c \cup (A^c \cup C) \\ &= (A \cap B^c) \cup (A^c \cup C) = ((A \cap B^c) \cup A^c) \cup C \\ &= ((A \cup A^c) \cap (B^c \cup A^c)) \cup C = (B^c \cup A^c) \cup C \\ &= (X \cap (B^c \cup A^c)) \cup C = ((B^c \cup B) \cap (B^c \cup A^c)) \cup C \\ &= ((A^c \cap B) \cup B^c) \cup C = (A^c \cap B) \cup (B^c \cup C) \\ &= (A \cup B^c)^c \cup (B^c \cup C) = (B \rightarrow A)^c \cup (B \rightarrow C) \\ &= (B \rightarrow A) \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C). \end{aligned}$$

Hence we have (L2). Suppose  $A \rightarrow B = X$  and  $B \rightarrow A = X$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} A \rightarrow B = A^c \cup B = X &\Rightarrow A \subseteq B, \\ B \rightarrow A = B^c \cup A = X &\Rightarrow B \subseteq A. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $A = B$ , and so (L3) holds. Clearly,  $\emptyset$  and  $X$  are the smallest and the greatest elements of  $P(X)$ . Therefore,  $L = (P(X), \rightarrow, X)$  is an  $L$ -algebra. By the similar way,  $G = (P(X), \rightarrow, \emptyset, X)$  is a bounded  $L$ -algebra.

Now, we prove that  $G = (P(X), +, \emptyset)$  is an Abelian group. Let  $A, B \in P(X)$ . Then,

$$A + B = A \Delta B = (A \cup B) - (A \cap B) = (B \cup A) - (B \cap A) = B \Delta A = B + A.$$

Also,

$$A \Delta \emptyset = (A \cup \emptyset) - (A \cap \emptyset) = A.$$

Thus  $\emptyset$  is an identity element of  $P(X)$ . In addition,

$$A + A = A \Delta A = A - A = \emptyset.$$

Hence, inverse of every element of  $P(X)$  is itself. Moreover, clearly the operation  $\Delta$  has associated property. Therefore,  $G = (P(X), +, \emptyset)$  is an Abelian group.

Now, we define the operation  $\cdot : L \times G \rightarrow G$ , for any  $A \in L$  and  $C \in G$ , by

$$A \cdot C = A \cap C.$$

Then we prove that  $G$  is an  $L$ -module. Let  $A, B \in L$  and  $C \in G$ . Then,

$$(LM_1): 1C = X \cap C = C.$$

( $LM_2$ ):

$$\begin{aligned}
 AB + AC &= (A \cap B) + (A \cap C) = ((A \cap B) \cap (A \cap C)^c) \cup ((A \cap C) \cap (A \cap B)^c) \\
 &= ((A \cap B) \cap (A^c \cup C^c)) \cup ((A \cap C) \cap (A^c \cup B^c)) \\
 &= (B \cap ((A \cap A^c) \cup (A \cap C^c))) \cup (C \cap ((A \cap A^c) \cup (A \cap B^c))) \\
 &= (B \cap (A \cap C^c)) \cup (C \cap (A \cap B^c)) \\
 &= (A \cap (B \cap C^c)) \cup (A \cap (C \cap B^c)) \\
 &= A \cap ((B \cap C^c) \cup (C \cap B^c)) \\
 &= A(B + C).
 \end{aligned}$$

(LM3):

$$\begin{aligned}
 C + ((A \cdot C) \rightarrow (B \cdot C))^c &= C + ((A \cap C) \rightarrow (B \cap C))^c \\
 &= C + ((A \cap C)^c \cup (B \cap C))^c \\
 &= C + ((A^c \cup C^c) \cup (B \cap C))^c \\
 &= C + (((A^c \cup C^c) \cup B) \cap ((A^c \cup C^c) \cup C))^c \\
 &= C + (((A^c \cup C^c) \cup B) \cap X)^c \\
 &= C + ((A^c \cup C^c) \cup B)^c \\
 &= C \Delta ((A^c \cup C^c) \cup B)^c \\
 &= (C - ((A^c \cup C^c) \cup B)^c) \cup (((A^c \cup C^c) \cup B)^c - C) \\
 &= (C \cap ((A^c \cup C^c) \cup B)) \cup (((A^c \cup C^c) \cup B)^c \cap C^c) \\
 &= (C \cap ((A^c \cup C^c) \cup B)) \cup (((A \cap C) \cap B^c) \cap C^c) \\
 &= C \cap ((A^c \cup C^c) \cup B) \\
 &= (C \cap A^c) \cup (C \cap C^c) \cup (C \cap B) \\
 &= (C \cap A^c) \cup (C \cap B) \\
 &= (A^c \cup B) \cap C \\
 &= (A \rightarrow B) \cdot C.
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $G$  is an  $L$ -module.  $\square$

**Proposition 3.4.** *Let  $(L, \wedge, \vee, ', 0, 1)$  be a De Morgan algebra, such that for any  $x \in L$ ,  $x \vee x' = 1$  and  $1' = 0$ . If operation “ $\rightarrow$ ” on  $L$ , for any  $x, y \in L$ , is defined by*

$$x \rightarrow y = x' \vee y,$$

*then  $L = (L, \rightarrow, 1)$  is an  $L$ -algebra. Also, if  $G = (L, +, 0)$ , where, for any  $x, y \in L$ ,*

$$x + y = ((x \rightarrow y) \wedge (y \rightarrow x))',$$

*then  $G$  is an Abelian group and  $G$  is an  $L$ -module.*

*Proof.* At first we prove that  $L = (L, \rightarrow, 1)$  is an  $L$ -algebra. Let  $x, y, z \in L$ . Then by assumption,

$$x \rightarrow x = x' \vee x = 1, \quad x \rightarrow 1 = x' \vee 1 = 1, \quad 1 \rightarrow x = 1' \vee x = 0 \vee x = x.$$

So,  $(L1)$  holds. Also,

$$\begin{aligned} (x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow z) &= (x' \vee y) \rightarrow (x' \vee z) = (x' \vee y)' \vee (x' \vee z) = (x'' \wedge y') \vee (x' \vee z) \\ &= [(x'' \wedge y') \vee x'] \vee z = [(x'' \vee x') \wedge (y' \vee x')] \vee z \\ &= (y' \vee x') \vee z, \end{aligned}$$

On the other side, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow z) &= (y' \vee x) \rightarrow (y' \vee z) = (y' \vee x)' \vee (y' \vee z) = (y'' \wedge x') \vee (y' \vee z) \\ &= [(y'' \wedge x') \vee y'] \vee z = [(y'' \vee y') \wedge (x' \vee y')] \vee z \\ &= (y' \vee x') \vee z, \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $(x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow z) = (y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow (y \rightarrow z)$  and so  $(L2)$  holds. Finally, suppose  $x \rightarrow y = y \rightarrow x = 1$ . Then

$$x \rightarrow y = 1 \text{ imply } x' \vee y = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad y \rightarrow x = 1 \text{ imply } y' \vee x = 1.$$

Since  $y' \wedge y = y'' \wedge y' = (y' \vee y)' = 0$ , we have

$$y = y \wedge 1 = y \wedge (y' \vee x) = (y \wedge y') \vee (y \wedge x) = y \wedge x.$$

Thus  $y \leq x$ . By the similar way,  $x \leq y$  and so  $x = y$ . Hence,  $(L3)$  holds and so  $(L, \rightarrow, 1)$  is an  $L$ -algebra. By the similar way,  $G = (L, +, 0, 1)$  is a bounded  $L$ -algebra.

Now, we prove that  $G = (L, +, 0)$  is an Abelian group. For this, assume  $x, y, z \in G$ . Then clearly  $(G, +)$  is closed and  $x + y = y + x$ . Also,  $x + x = 0$  and  $x + 0 = x$ . So, 0 is an identity



element and inverse of any element is itself. In the following we prove associativity.

$$\begin{aligned}
& (x + y) + z \\
&= [(x \rightarrow y) \wedge (y \rightarrow x)]' + z = [(x' \vee y) \wedge (y' \vee x)]' + z \\
&= \left( \left( [(x' \vee y) \wedge (y' \vee x)] \vee z \right) \wedge \left[ z' \vee ((x' \vee y) \wedge (y' \vee x))' \right] \right)' \\
&= \left( [(x' \vee y \vee z) \wedge (y' \vee x \vee z)] \wedge [z' \vee ((x \wedge y') \vee (y \wedge x'))] \right)' \\
&= \left( [(x' \vee y \vee z) \wedge (y' \vee x \vee z)] \wedge [(z' \vee (x \wedge y')) \vee (y \wedge x')] \right)' \\
&= \left( [(x' \vee y \vee z) \wedge (y' \vee x \vee z)] \wedge [((z' \vee x) \wedge (z' \vee y')) \vee (y \wedge x')] \right)' \\
&= \left( [(x' \vee y \vee z) \wedge (y' \vee x \vee z)] \wedge [((z' \vee x) \vee (y \wedge x')) \wedge ((z' \vee y') \vee (y \wedge x'))] \right)' \\
&= \left( [(x' \vee y \vee z) \wedge (y' \vee x \vee z)] \wedge [((z' \vee x \vee y) \wedge (z' \vee x \vee x')) \wedge ((z' \vee y' \vee y) \wedge (z' \vee y' \vee x'))] \right)' \\
&= \left( [(x' \vee y \vee z) \wedge (y' \vee x \vee z)] \wedge [(z' \vee x \vee y) \wedge (z' \vee y' \vee x')] \right)' \\
&= \left( [(z' \vee x \vee y) \wedge (y' \vee x \vee z)] \wedge [(x' \vee y \vee z) \wedge (z' \vee y' \vee x')] \right)' \\
&= \left( [x \vee ((z' \vee y) \wedge (y' \vee z))] \wedge [(x' \vee y \vee z) \wedge (x' \vee y \vee y') \wedge (z' \vee y' \vee x') \wedge (x' \vee z' \vee z)] \right)' \\
&= \left( [x \vee ((z' \vee y) \wedge (y' \vee z))] \wedge [(x' \vee y) \vee (y' \wedge z)] \wedge [(x' \vee z') \vee (y' \wedge z)] \right)' \\
&= \left( [x \vee ((z' \vee y) \wedge (y' \vee z))] \wedge [(x' \vee y) \wedge (x' \vee z')] \vee (y' \wedge z) \right)' \\
&= \left( [x \vee ((z' \vee y) \wedge (y' \vee z))] \wedge [(x' \vee (y \wedge z')) \vee (y' \wedge z)] \right)' \\
&= \left( [x \vee ((z' \vee y) \wedge (y' \vee z))] \wedge [x' \vee ((y \wedge z') \vee (y' \wedge z))] \right)' \\
&= \left( \left[ x \vee ((z' \vee y) \wedge (y' \vee z)) \right]'' \wedge \left[ x' \vee ((y' \vee z) \wedge (y \vee z')) \right]' \right)' \\
&= \left( \left( [(z' \vee y) \wedge (y' \vee z)]' \rightarrow x \right) \wedge \left[ x \rightarrow ((y' \vee z) \wedge (y \vee z'))' \right] \right)' \\
&= \left( [(z \rightarrow y) \wedge (y \rightarrow z)]' \rightarrow x \right) \wedge [x \rightarrow ((y \rightarrow z) \wedge (z \rightarrow y))']' \\
&= [(y + z) \rightarrow x] \wedge [x \rightarrow (y + z)]' \\
&= x + (y + z).
\end{aligned}$$

Thus, the operation  $+$  is associative. Therefore,  $(G, +)$  is an Abelian group.

Now, we prove that  $G$  is an  $L$ -module, where  $xm = x \wedge m$ . For this, let  $x, y \in L$  and  $m_1, m_2, m \in G$ . Then

( $LM_1$ ) Since  $L$  is an  $L$ -algebra and  $G = L$ , we have  $1m = 1 \wedge m = m$ .

(LM<sub>2</sub>)

$$\begin{aligned}
 x(m_1 + m_2) &= x \wedge (m_1 + m_2) = x \wedge ((m_1 \rightarrow m_2) \wedge (m_2 \rightarrow m_1))' \\
 &= x \wedge ((m_1' \vee m_2) \wedge (m_2' \vee m_1))' \\
 &= x \wedge ((m_1 \wedge m_2') \vee (m_2 \wedge m_1')) \\
 (1) \quad &= (x \wedge (m_1 \wedge m_2')) \vee (x \wedge (m_2 \wedge m_1')).
 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 xm_1 + xm_2 &= (x \wedge m_1) + (x \wedge m_2) \\
 &= [((x \wedge m_1) \rightarrow (x \wedge m_2)) \wedge ((x \wedge m_2) \rightarrow (x \wedge m_1))]'' \\
 &= [((x \wedge m_1)' \vee (x \wedge m_2)) \wedge ((x \wedge m_2)' \vee (x \wedge m_1))]'' \\
 &= [((x' \vee m_1') \vee (x \wedge m_2)) \wedge ((x' \vee m_2') \vee (x \wedge m_1))]'' \\
 &= [((x' \vee m_1') \vee x) \wedge ((x' \vee m_1') \vee m_2) \wedge ((x' \vee m_2') \vee x) \wedge ((x' \vee m_2') \vee m_1)]'' \\
 &= [((x' \vee m_1') \vee m_2) \wedge ((x' \vee m_2') \vee m_1)]'' \\
 (2) \quad &= ((x \wedge m_1) \wedge m_2') \vee ((x \wedge m_2) \wedge m_1').
 \end{aligned}$$

Then by Equations (1) and (2), we have  $x(m_1 + m_2) = xm_1 + xm_2$ .

(LM<sub>4</sub>)

$$\begin{aligned}
 m - (xm \rightarrow ym)' &= m + ((x \wedge m) \rightarrow (y \wedge m))' \\
 &= m + ((x \wedge m)' \vee (y \wedge m))' \\
 &= m + ((x \wedge m) \wedge (y \wedge m)') \\
 &= [(m \rightarrow ((x \wedge m) \wedge (y \wedge m)')) \wedge (((x \wedge m) \wedge (y \wedge m)') \rightarrow m)]' \\
 &= [(m' \vee ((x \wedge m) \wedge (y \wedge m)')) \wedge (((x \wedge m) \wedge (y \wedge m)')' \vee m)]' \\
 &= [(m' \vee ((x \wedge m) \wedge (y \wedge m)')) \wedge ((x \wedge m)' \vee (y \wedge m) \vee m)]' \\
 &= [(m' \vee (x \wedge m)) \wedge (m' \vee (y \wedge m)') \wedge (((x \wedge m)' \vee m) \vee (y \wedge m))]'' \\
 &= [(m' \vee x) \wedge (m' \vee y')]'' \\
 &= [m' \vee (x \wedge y')]'' \\
 &= m \wedge (x' \vee y) \\
 &= (x' \vee y) \wedge m \\
 &= (x \rightarrow y)m.
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $G$  is an  $L$ -module.  $\square$

**Proposition 3.5.** *Suppose  $(L, \rightarrow, ', 0, 1)$  is an  $L$ -algebra with negation,  $(G, \rightsquigarrow, \sim, 0, 1)$  is a bounded  $L$ -algebra,  $G = (G, +, 0)$  is an Abelian group and  $G$  is an  $L$ -module. Then for any  $x, y \in L$  and  $m \in G$ , the following statements hold:*

- (i)  $x0 = 0$ ,
- (ii)  $x(-m) = -(xm)$ ,
- (iii) If  $x \leq y$ , then  $xm \leq ym$ ,
- (iv) If  $0m = 0$ , then  $(x')m = m - xm$ , where  $x' = x \rightarrow 0$ .

*Proof.* Let  $x, y \in L$  and  $m \in G$ . Then

- (i)  $x0 = x(0 + 0) = x0 + x0$ . Hence,  $x0 = 0$ .
- (ii)  $0 = x0 = x(m - m) = x(m + (-m)) = xm + x(-m)$  and so  $x(-m) = -(xm)$ .
- (iii) If  $x \leq y$ , then  $x \rightarrow y = 1$  and so for any  $m \in G$ , we have:

$$m = 1m = (x \rightarrow y)m = m - (xm \rightsquigarrow ym)^\sim,$$

Thus  $(xm \rightsquigarrow ym)^\sim = 0$ , and so  $xm \rightsquigarrow ym = 1$ . Hence,  $xm \leq ym$ .

- (iv) Since  $G$  is with negation, we have  $(xm)^{\sim\sim} = xm$ , where  $(xm)^\sim = (xm) \rightsquigarrow 0$  and so

$$(x')m = (x \rightarrow 0)m = m - (xm \rightsquigarrow 0m)^\sim = m - (xm \rightsquigarrow 0)^\sim = m - (xm)^{\sim\sim} = m - xm.$$

$\square$

**Definition 3.6.** Consider  $G$  to be an  $L$ -module and  $\emptyset \neq H \subseteq G$ . Then  $H$  is called a *sub-module of  $G$*  if for any  $a, a_1, a_2 \in H$  and  $x \in L$ , we have

- (S<sub>1</sub>)  $a_1 - a_2 \in H$ ,
- (S<sub>2</sub>)  $xa \in H$ .

**Example 3.7.** By Example 3.2,  $H_1 = \{0, b\}$ ,  $H_2 = \{0, a\}$ ,  $H_3 = \{0, 1\}$  and  $H_4 = \{0\}$  are sub-modules of  $L$ -module  $G$ .

In the following example we show that every ideal of an  $L$ -module  $G$  is not a sub-module of  $G$ , in general.

**Example 3.8.** According to Example 3.2, clearly  $I_1 = \{a, 1\}$  and  $I_2 = \{b, 1\}$  are two ideals of  $G$ , but they are not sub-modules of  $G$ , since  $a + a = 0 \notin I_1$  and  $b + b = 0 \notin I_2$ .

**Definition 3.9.** Let  $G$  and  $H$  be two  $L$ -modules. Then the map  $f : G \rightarrow H$  is called an  *$L$ -module homomorphism* if for all  $m_1, m_2 \in G$  and  $x \in L$  we have:

- (H<sub>1</sub>)  $f(m_1 + m_2) = f(m_1) + f(m_2)$ ,
- (H<sub>2</sub>)  $f(xm) = xf(m)$ .

**Example 3.10.** According to Example 3.2, define  $h(0) = 0$ ,  $h(a) = b$ ,  $h(b) = a$  and  $h(1) = 1$ . Then clearly,  $h$  is an  $L$ -module homomorphism.

**Theorem 3.11.** Let  $f : G \rightarrow X$  be an  $L$ -module homomorphism by assumption of Proposition 3.5. Then

- (i)  $\ker f = \{m \in G \mid f(m) = 0\}$  is a sub-module of  $G$ . If  $I$  is a sub-module of  $X$ , then  $f^{-1}(I)$  is a sub-module of  $G$ .
- (ii)  $Imf = \{f(m) \mid m \in G\}$  is a sub-module of  $X$ . If  $H$  is a sub-module of  $G$ , then  $f(H)$  is a sub-module of  $X$ .

*Proof.* (i) Suppose  $m_1, m_2 \in \ker f$ . Then  $f(m_1) = f(m_2) = 0$ . Since  $f$  is an  $L$ -module homomorphism, by Proposition 3.5 we have

$$f(m_1 - m_2) = f(m_1) - f(m_2) = 0 - 0 = 0,$$

$$f(xm) = xf(m) = x0 = 0.$$

Then  $\ker f$  is a sub-module of  $G$ . Now, suppose  $x_1, x_2 \in f^{-1}(I)$ . Then  $f(x_1), f(x_2) \in I$ . Since  $I$  is a sub-module of  $X$ , we have  $f(x_1 - x_2) = f(x_1) - f(x_2) \in I$ , and so  $x_1 - x_2 \in f^{-1}(I)$ . In addition, for any  $m \in f^{-1}(I)$ , we have  $f(m) \in I$ . Then for any  $x \in L$ , by assumption,  $f(xm) = xf(m) \in I$  and so  $xm \in f^{-1}(I)$ . Therefore,  $f^{-1}(I)$  is a sub-module of  $G$ .

(ii) Suppose  $f(m_1), f(m_2) \in Imf$ , where  $m_1, m_2 \in G$ . Since  $G$  is an Abelian group we have  $m_1 - m_2 \in G$ , and so  $f(m_1) - f(m_2) = f(m_1 - m_2) \in Imf$ . Also, if  $f(m) \in Imf$  and  $x \in L$ , then since  $f$  is an  $L$ -module homomorphism, we get  $xf(m) = f(xm)$ . In addition, from  $m \in G$  and  $G$  is an  $L$ -module we have  $xm \in G$ , and so  $xf(m) \in Imf$ . Therefore,  $Imf$  is a sub-module of  $X$ . The proof of other case is similar.  $\square$

**Definition 3.12.** Let  $G$  be an  $L$ -module. Then an ideal  $I$  of  $G$  is called an  $L$ -ideal of  $G$  if it satisfies in the following condition:

$$\text{If } m \in I \text{ and } x \in L, \text{ then } xm \in I.$$

**Example 3.13.** According to Example 3.2, set  $I = \{a, 1\}$ . Obviously,  $I$  is an  $L$ -ideal of  $G$ .

**Proposition 3.14.** Assume  $h : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  is an  $L$ -homomorphism such that  $h(xm) = xh(m)$ , for any  $x \in L$  and  $m \in G_1$ . Then the set  $K = \{m \in G_1 \mid h(m) = 1\}$  is an ideal of  $G_1$ .

*Proof.* Since  $h$  is an  $L$ -homomorphism, clearly,  $1 \in K \neq \emptyset$ . Suppose  $m_1, m_1 \rightarrow m_2 \in K$ . Then  $h(m_1) = h(m_1 \rightarrow m_2) = 1$ , and so

$$h(m_2) = 1 \rightarrow h(m_2) = h(m_1) \rightarrow h(m_2) = h(m_1 \rightarrow m_2) = 1.$$

Thus  $m_2 \in K$ . Suppose  $m_1 \in K$ . Then for any  $m_2 \in G_1$ , we have

$$h((m_1 \rightarrow m_2) \rightarrow m_2) = (h(m_1) \rightarrow h(m_2)) \rightarrow h(m_2) = (1 \rightarrow h(m_2)) \rightarrow h(m_2) = h(m_2) \rightarrow h(m_2) = 1,$$

$$h(m_2 \rightarrow m_1) = h(m_2) \rightarrow h(m_1) = h(m_2) \rightarrow 1 = 1,$$

$$h(m_2 \rightarrow (m_1 \rightarrow m_2)) = h(m_2) \rightarrow (h(m_1) \rightarrow h(m_2)) = h(m_2) \rightarrow (1 \rightarrow h(m_2)) = h(m_2) \rightarrow h(m_2) = 1.$$

Hence  $m_2 \rightarrow m_1, (m_1 \rightarrow m_2) \rightarrow m_2, m_2 \rightarrow (m_1 \rightarrow m_2) \in K$ . Therefore,  $K$  is an ideal of  $G_1$ .  $\square$

**Note.** We have to notice that the set  $K$  defined in the above proposition is not an  $L$ -ideal, and it depends on how we define the act in  $L$ -module. For example, if according to Example 3.2 and Proposition 3.4, respectively, we define  $x \cdot m = m$  or  $x \cdot m = x \vee m$ , then for  $m \in K$ , we have

$$h(xm) = xh(m) = x1 = 1 \Rightarrow xm \in K,$$

or

$$h(xm) = xh(m) = x \vee 1 = 1 \Rightarrow xm \in K.$$

But in general,  $h(xm) = xh(m) = x \cdot 1$  and it is not equal to 1.

**Proposition 3.15.** Let  $L_1 = (L_1, \rightarrow_1, 1)$  and  $L_2 = (L_2, \rightarrow_2, 1)$  be two  $L$ -algebras and  $\psi : L_1 \rightarrow L_2$  be an  $L$ -homomorphism. If  $G$  is an  $L_2$ -module, by defining  $x \cdot m = \psi(x)m$ , where  $x \in L_1$  and  $m \in G$ , then  $G$  becomes an  $L_1$ -module.

*Proof.* Since  $\psi(1_{L_1}) = \psi(x \rightarrow_{L_1} x) = \psi(x) \rightarrow_{L_2} \psi(x) = 1_{L_2}$ , we have

$$1_{L_1} \cdot m = \psi(1_{L_1})m = 1_{L_2}m = m.$$

So,  $(LM_1)$  holds. Now, suppose  $m_1, m_2 \in G$  and  $x \in L_1$ . Then

$$x \cdot (m_1 + m_2) = \psi(x)(m_1 + m_2) = \psi(x)m_1 + \psi(x)m_2 = x \cdot m_1 + x \cdot m_2.$$

Thus,  $(LM_2)$  holds. Finally, for  $x, y \in L_1$  and  $m \in G$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} (x \rightarrow_{L_1} y) \cdot m &= \psi(x \rightarrow_{L_1} y)m = (\psi(x) \rightarrow_{L_2} \psi(y))m \\ &= m - (\psi(x)m \rightsquigarrow_{L_2} \psi(y)m)^\sim = m - (x \cdot m \rightsquigarrow_{L_2} y \cdot m)^\sim. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $(LM_3)$  holds and so  $G$  is an  $L_1$ -module.  $\square$

**Definition 3.16.** Let  $L$  be an  $L$ -algebra,  $I$  be an ideal of  $L$ ,  $G$  be an  $L$ -module, and  $H$  be a sub-module of  $G$ . Define

$$(H :_G I) = \{m \in G \mid xm \in H, \text{ for any } x \in I\}.$$

**Note.** We denote annihilator of  $H$  by  $Ann_L(H)$ , which is defined by

$$Ann_L(H) = (0 :_L H) = \{x \in L \mid xH = 0\},$$

where  $L$  is a bounded  $L$ -algebra.

**Example 3.17.** (i) According to Example 3.2, let  $H = \{0, b\}$ ,  $I = \{a, 1\}$ . Then clearly  $(H :_G I) = \{0, b\}$ .

(ii) Clearly  $Ann_L(H)$  is not an ideal of  $L$ , in general, since if  $Ann_L(H)$  is an ideal of  $L$ , then  $1 \in Ann_L(H)$ , and so  $1H = 0$ . Hence,  $H = \{0\}$ .

**Proposition 3.18.** Let  $G$  be an  $L$ -module,  $H$  be a sub-module of  $G$  and  $I$  be an ideal of  $L$ . Then  $(H :_G I)$  is a sub-module of  $G$ , where  $x(am) = a(xm)$ , for any  $x \in I$ ,  $a \in L$  and  $m \in G$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $m_1, m_2 \in (H :_G I)$ . Then for any  $x \in I$ ,  $xm_1, xm_2 \in H$ . By assumption, since  $H$  is a sub-module of  $G$ , we have  $xm_1 - xm_2 \in H$ . From  $G$  is an  $L$ -module we have  $x(m_1 - m_2) = xm_1 - xm_2 \in H$ . Hence  $m_1 - m_2 \in (H :_G I)$ . Now, suppose  $m \in (H :_G I)$ . Then for any  $x \in I$ ,  $xm \in H$ . Since  $H$  is a sub-module of  $G$ , for any  $a \in L$ , we have  $a(xm) \in H$ . Thus by hypothesis,  $x(am) \in H$ , and so  $am \in (H :_G I)$ . Hence,  $(H :_G I)$  is a sub-module of  $G$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 3.19.** Let  $G$  be an  $L$ -module, where  $L$  be a chain, and  $I$  be an ideal of  $L$  such that  $am = bm$ , for any  $a, b \in I$ . Define  $\cdot : \frac{L}{I} \times G \rightarrow G$  by  $\cdot([x], m) = xm$ . Then  $G$  is an  $\frac{L}{I}$ -module.

*Proof.* Let  $[x] = [y]$ , for  $x, y \in L$  and  $m \in G$ . Since  $L$  is a chain, we get  $x \leq y$  or  $y \leq x$ . Without loss of generality, suppose  $x \leq y$ . By Proposition 3.5(iii), for any  $m \in G$ ,  $xm \leq ym$ . From  $[x] = [y]$ , we have  $x \rightarrow y = 1 \in I$  and  $y \rightarrow x \in I$ , and so by assumption,  $(y \rightarrow x)m = (x \rightarrow y)m$ . Hence  $m - (ym \rightsquigarrow xm)^\sim = 1 \cdot m = m$ , i.e.  $(ym \rightsquigarrow xm)^\sim = 0$ , and so  $ym \rightsquigarrow xm = 1$ . Therefore,  $ym \leq xm$ , and so  $xm = ym$ . Thus the operation  $\cdot$  is well-defined. Now, we prove that  $G$  is an  $\frac{L}{I}$ -module. For this, suppose  $x, y \in L$  and  $m, m_1, m_2 \in G$ . Then

$$(LM_1) [1] \cdot m = 1m = m.$$

$$(LM_2) [x] \cdot (m_1 + m_2) = x(m_1 + m_2) = xm_1 + xm_2 = [x] \cdot m_1 + [x] \cdot m_2.$$

$$(LM_3) ([x] \rightarrow [y]) \cdot m = [x \rightarrow y] \cdot m = (x \rightarrow y)m = m - (xm \rightsquigarrow ym)^\sim = m - ([x] \cdot m \rightsquigarrow [y] \cdot m)^\sim.$$

Therefore,  $G$  is an  $\frac{L}{I}$ -module.  $\square$

The following example confirms the Theorem 3.19.

**Example 3.20.** Let  $(L = \{0, a, 1\}, \leq)$  be a chain. Define the operation  $\rightarrow$  on  $L$  as follows:

$\rightarrow$	0	a	1
0	1	1	1
a	a	1	1
1	0	a	1

Then  $(L, \rightarrow, 1)$  is an  $L$ -algebra. Set  $G = L$  and define the operation  $+$  on  $L$  as follows:

$+$	0	a	1
0	0	a	1
a	a	0	a
1	1	a	0

According to the above table, inverse of any element is itself, since  $x + x = 0$ . Hence,  $(G, +, 0)$  is an Abelian group. Define  $\cdot : L \times G \rightarrow G$  where  $x \cdot m = m$ , for any  $x \in L$  and  $m \in G$ . Then  $G$  is an  $L$ -module. In addition,  $I = \{a, 1\}$  is an ideal of  $L$ , and for any  $x, y \in I$  and  $m \in G$ , we have  $xm = ym$ . Hence, by Theorem 3.19,  $G$  is an  $\frac{L}{I}$ -module.

**Definition 3.21.** Let  $G$  be an  $L$ -module such that  $0m = 0$ , for all  $m \in G$  and  $H$  be a sub-module of  $G$ . Then  $H$  is called a *prime sub-module* of  $G$ , if  $H \neq G$  and by  $xm \in H$ , we have  $m \in H$  or  $x \in (H :_L G)$ .

**Example 3.22.** Let  $G$  be an  $L$ -module as in Proposition 3.3 and  $\emptyset \neq I \subseteq X$ . Then  $(P(I), \Delta)$  is a sub-module of  $G$ , since for any  $A, B \in P(I)$ , we have

$$A\Delta B = (A - B) \cup (B - A) \subseteq I,$$

and so  $A\Delta B \in P(I)$ . Also, for any  $C \in P(X)$  and  $A \in P(I)$ ,  $C \cdot A = C \cap A \subseteq A \in P(I)$ . Hence,  $(P(I), \Delta)$  is a sub-module of  $G$ . Now, we show that  $P(I)$  is a prime sub-module of  $G$ . For this, clearly,  $P(I) \neq P(X)$ . Let  $C \cdot B \in P(I)$ , for  $C \in P(X)$ , where  $B \notin P(I)$ . Since  $(P(I), \Delta)$  is a sub-module of  $G$ , for any  $A \in P(X)$ , we get  $C \cap A \cap B \in P(I)$ . We prove  $C \in (P(I) :_L G)$ . Assume  $C \notin (P(I) :_L G)$ . Then  $C \cdot G \not\subseteq P(I)$ , and so for any  $A \in G$ ,  $C \cdot A \notin P(I)$ . It means  $C \cap A \notin P(I)$ , for any  $A \in G$ . Thus,  $C \cap A \cap B \subseteq C \cap A \notin P(I)$ , which is a contradiction. Hence,  $C \in (P(I) :_L G)$ . Therefore,  $P(I)$  is a prime submodule of  $G$ .

**Proposition 3.23.** Let  $G$  be an  $L$ -module such that  $0m = 0$ , for all  $m \in G$  and  $H$  be a proper sub-module of  $G$ . If  $H$  is prime, then for every ideal  $I$  of  $L$  and sub-module  $M$  of  $G$ ,  $IM \subseteq H$  implies that  $M \subseteq H$  or  $I \subseteq (H :_L G)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $H$  be a prime sub-module of  $G$ ,  $IM \subseteq H$ ,  $M \not\subseteq H$  and  $I \not\subseteq (H :_L G)$ . Then there exists  $m \in M$  such that  $m \notin H$  and  $x \in I$  such that  $x \notin (H :_L G)$ . Since  $xm \in IM \subseteq H$  and  $H$  is prime, then  $m \in H$  or  $x \in (H :_L G)$  which is a contradiction.  $\square$

**Proposition 3.24.** *Let  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  be two  $L$ -modules such that  $0m = 0$ , for all  $m \in G_1$  and  $\psi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  be an  $L$ -module epimorphism. If  $H$  is a prime sub-module of  $G_2$ , then  $\psi^{-1}(H)$  is a prime sub-module of  $G_1$ .*

*Proof.* Obviously, by Proposition 3.11(i),  $\psi^{-1}(H)$  is a proper sub-module of  $G_1$ . Let  $xm \in \psi^{-1}(H)$ . Then  $\psi(xm) = x\psi(m) \in H$ , and so  $\psi(m) \in H$  or  $x \in (H :_L G_2)$ , that is  $m \in \psi^{-1}(H)$  or  $xG_2 \subseteq H$ . If  $xG_2 \subseteq H$ , then  $xG_1 \subseteq \psi^{-1}(H)$ , since  $\psi$  is an  $L$ -module epimorphism. Therefore,  $\psi^{-1}(H)$  is a prime sub-module of  $G_1$ .  $\square$

#### 4. MULTIPLICATION AND CO-MULTIPLICATION $L$ -MODULES

In this section, we introduce the concept of multiplication and co-multiplication of  $L$ -modules and we will represent each sub-module of an  $L$ -module by using them.

**Definition 4.1.** Let  $G$  be an  $L$ -module. Then  $G$  is called a *multiplication  $L$ -module*, if for any sub-module  $H$ , there exists an ideal  $I$  of  $L$  such that  $H = IG$ .

**Example 4.2.** Let  $(G, +)$  be an Abelian group as in Example 3.2 and  $L = G$  as an  $L$ -algebra. Define the operation  $\cdot : L \times G \rightarrow G$  by  $x \cdot m = x \wedge m$ , for any  $x \in L$  and  $m \in G$ . Clearly,  $G$  is an  $L$ -module. Assume  $I = \{b, 1\}$  and  $H = \{0, b\}$ . Obviously,  $I$  is an ideal of  $L$  and  $H$  is a sub-module of  $G$ . By routine calculation, we can prove that  $H = IG$ . Hence  $G$  is a multiplication  $L$ -module.

**Proposition 4.3.** *Let  $G$  be an  $L$ -module. If  $G$  is a multiplication  $L$ -module, then  $H = (H :_L G)G$ , for every sub-module  $H$  of  $G$ .*

*Proof.* Assume  $G$  be a multiplication module. Then there exists an ideal  $I$  of  $L$  such that  $H = IG$ , for any sub-module  $H$  of  $G$ . Thus  $I \subseteq (H :_L G)$ , and so  $H = IG \subseteq (H :_L G)G$ . Conversely,  $(H :_L G)G \subseteq H$ , because if  $a \in (H :_L G)G$ , then there exist  $x \in (H :_L G)$  and  $m \in G$  such that  $a = xm$ . Since  $x \in (H :_L G)$ , for any  $m \in G$ ,  $xm \in H$ , and so  $a \in H$ . Thus,  $H = (H :_L G)G$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 4.4.** *Homomorphic image of every multiplication module is a multiplication module.*



*Proof.* Consider  $\psi : G_1 \rightarrow \psi(G_1)$  is an  $L$ -module epimorphism,  $G_1$  is a multiplication  $L$ -module and  $H$  is a sub-module of  $\psi(G_1)$ . Then obviously,  $\psi^{-1}(H)$  is a sub-module of  $G_1$ . Thus by hypothesis, there exists an ideal  $I$  of  $L$  such that  $\psi^{-1}(H) = IG_1$ , and so  $H = I\psi(G_1)$ . Therefore,  $\psi(G_1)$  is a multiplication module.  $\square$

**Definition 4.5.** Assume  $G$  is an  $L$ -module. Then  $G$  is called a *co-multiplication  $L$ -module*, if for every sub-module  $H$  of  $G$ , there exists an ideal  $I$  of  $L$  such that  $H = (0 :_G I)$ .

**Proposition 4.6.** Consider  $G$  be an  $L$ -module. If  $G$  is a co-multiplication  $L$ -module, then  $H = (0 :_G \text{Ann}_L(H))$ , for every sub-module  $H$  of  $G$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $G$  is a co-multiplication  $L$ -module and  $H$  be a sub-module of  $G$ . Then there exists an ideal  $I$  of  $L$  such that  $H = (0 :_G I)$ , and so  $IH = 0$ . Thus, if  $m \in H$ , then  $\text{Ann}_L(H)m = 0$ , and so  $m \in (0 :_G \text{Ann}_L(H))$ . Hence,

$$H \subseteq (0 :_G \text{Ann}_L(H)) \subseteq (0 :_G I) = H.$$

Therefore,  $H = (0 :_G \text{Ann}_L(H))$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 4.7.** Consider  $L$  to be an  $L$ -algebra,  $G$  be a co-multiplication  $L$ -module and suppose that  $L$  satisfies the ascending chain condition. Then  $G$  satisfies the descending chain condition.

*Proof.* Assume  $H_1, H_2, \dots$  are sub-modules of  $G$  such that

$$H_1 \supseteq H_2 \supseteq H_3 \supseteq \dots \supseteq H_n \supseteq \dots,$$

is a descending chain of sub-modules  $G$ . Then

$$(0 :_L H_1) \subseteq (0 :_L H_2) \subseteq (0 :_L H_3) \subseteq \dots \subseteq (0 :_L H_n) \subseteq \dots,$$

Thus

$$\text{Ann}_L(H_1) \subseteq \text{Ann}_L(H_2) \subseteq \text{Ann}_L(H_3) \subseteq \dots \subseteq \text{Ann}_L(H_n) \subseteq \dots,$$

which is an ascending chain of  $L$ . Hence by assumption, there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\text{Ann}_L(H_k) = \text{Ann}_L(H_n), \text{ for all } k \geq n.$$

By Proposition 4.6, suppose  $m \in H_n = (0 :_G \text{Ann}_L(H_n))$ . Then

$$(\text{Ann}_L(H_n))m = 0 \text{ or } (\text{Ann}_L(H_k))m = 0, \text{ i.e. } m \in (0 :_G \text{Ann}_L(H_k)) = H_k.$$

Hence  $H_k = H_n$ , for all  $k \geq n$ . Therefore,  $G$  satisfies the descending chain condition.  $\square$

## 5. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORKS

In this paper, we continued the study of  $L$ -algebras, begun by Rump [12]. The main goal of this work was to introduce  $L$ -modules and we did this by introducing action of  $L$ -algebras on groups.

In classical ring theory, modules, multiplication and comultiplication modules are studied. We defined these concepts on  $L$ -modules and investigated some results. Also, we defined  $L$ -algebras of fractions and  $L$ -modules of fractions and studied some of their properties.

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