On Double Basic Algebras and Pseudo-effect Algebras

Ivan Chajda · Miroslav Kolařík · Jan Kühr

Received: 27 May 2010 / Accepted: 15 October 2010 / Published online: 30 October 2010 © Springer Science+Business Media B.V. 2010

Abstract Double basic algebras are a counterpart of bounded lattices with orderantiautomorphisms on principal filters. In the paper, an independent axiomatization of double basic algebras is given and lattice pseudo-effect algebras are characterized in the setting of double basic algebras.

Keywords Basic algebra · Double basic algebra · Pseudo-MV-algebra · Pseudo-effect algebra · Compatibility

Mathematics Subject Classifications (2010) 03G10.06F99

In [1], the first author introduced the so-called double basic algebras, these being algebras $\mathcal{A} = (A, \boxplus, \oplus, \neg, \neg, 0, 1)$ with the property that the rule $x \leq y$ iff $x^- \boxplus y = 1$ (which is the same as $x^{\sim} \oplus y = 1$) defines a bounded lattice in which $x \lor y = (x^- \boxplus y)^{\sim} \oplus y = (x^{\sim} \oplus y)^- \boxplus y$ and $x \land y = (x^- \lor y^-)^{\sim} = (x^{\sim} \lor y^{\sim})^-$ and where, for every $a \in A$, the maps $x \mapsto x^- \boxplus a$ and $x \mapsto x^{\sim} \oplus a$ are mutually inverse orderantiautomorphisms on the interval [a, 1]. In the case when the two 'additions' and the 'negations' coincide, double basic algebras reduce to basic algebras that were

I. Chajda · J. Kühr (⊠)

Department of Algebra and Geometry, Faculty of Science, Palacký University at Olomouc, 17. listopadu 12, 77146 Olomouc, Czech Republic e-mail: kuhr@inf.upol.cz

I. Chajda e-mail: chajda@inf.upol.cz

M. Kolařík Department of Computer Science, Faculty of Science, Palacký University at Olomouc, 17. listopadu 12, 77146 Olomouc, Czech Republic e-mail: kolarik@inf.upol.cz

Supported by the Czech Government Research Project MSM6198959214, and partly by the Palacký University Grant PrF 2010 008.

defined in [3] in an attempt to generalize orthomodular lattices in a similar way in which MV-algebras generalize Boolean algebras.

The present paper has two parts. The former is a revision of [1] in the sense that we provide a new independent axiomatic system and enlighten the relations between double basic algebras and pseudo-MV-algebras (GMV-algebras). In the latter part, lattice pseudo-effect algebras are characterized as a subvariety of double basic algebras, and pairs of compatible elements of lattice pseudo-effect algebras are described in terms of double basic algebras.

1 Double Basic Algebras

We first explain some basic concepts. By a **lattice with sectional antiautomorphisms** we mean a structure $\mathcal{L} = (L, \lor, \land, 0, 1, (\beta_a)_{a \in L})$ where $(L, \lor, \land, 0, 1)$ is a bounded lattice and, for each $a \in L$, β_a is an order-antiautomorphism on the interval [a, 1], i.e., β_a is a bijection from [a, 1] onto itself such that $x \leq y$ iff $\beta_a(x) \geq \beta_a(y)$ for all $x, y \in [a, 1]$. If all β_a 's are involutive, then we say that \mathcal{L} is a **lattice with sectional antitone involutions**.

A **basic algebra** [2, 3, 6] is an algebra $\mathcal{A} = (A, \oplus, ^-, 0, 1)$ of type $\langle 2, 1, 0, 0 \rangle$ satisfying the identities

$$x \oplus 0 = x,$$

$$x^{--} = x,$$

$$(x^{-} \oplus y)^{-} \oplus y = (y^{-} \oplus x)^{-} \oplus x,$$

$$(((x \oplus y)^{-} \oplus y)^{-} \oplus z)^{-} \oplus (x \oplus z) = 1.$$

As shown in [3], there is a one-one correspondence between lattices with sectional antitone involutions and basic algebras. Specifically, given $\mathcal{L} = (L, \lor, \land, 0, 1, (\beta_a)_{a \in L})$ a lattice with sectional antitone involutions, the associated basic algebra $\mathcal{L}^B = (L, \oplus, -, 0, 1)$ is defined by

$$x^- = \beta_0(x)$$
 and $x \oplus y = \beta_v(x^- \lor y)$,

and on the other hand, if $A = (A, \oplus, \bar{}, 0, 1)$ is a basic algebra, then the stipulation $x \le y$ iff $x^- \oplus y = 1$ defines a bounded lattice in which

$$x \lor y = (x^- \oplus y)^- \oplus y$$
 and $x \land y = (x^- \lor y^-)^-$,

and where, for every $a \in A$, $\beta_a: x \mapsto x^- \oplus a$ is an antitone involution on [a, 1]; thus $\mathcal{A}^L = (A, \lor, \land, 0, 1, (\beta_a)_{a \in A})$ is a lattice with sectional antitone involutions. The assignments are mutually inverse, i.e., we have $(\mathcal{L}^B)^L = \mathcal{L}$ and $(\mathcal{A}^L)^B = \mathcal{A}$.

Examples of basic algebras include MV-algebras, which are precisely the associative basic algebras, and orthomodular lattices, which may be described as basic algebras satisfying the identity $x \oplus (x \land y) = x$. Indeed, in an orthomodular lattice $(L, \lor, \land, ^{\perp}, 0, 1)$, the maps $x \mapsto x^{\perp} \lor a$ are antitone involutions on the sections [*a*, 1], hence the addition \oplus is defined by $x \oplus y = (x \land y^{\perp}) \lor y$ and the identity obviously captures the orthomodular law.

As we have already mentioned, double basic algebras were invented as a generalization of basic algebras corresponding to lattices with sectional antiautomorphisms. According to [1], a **double basic algebra** is an algebra $\mathcal{A} = (A, \boxplus, \oplus, \bar{}, \sim, 0, 1)$ of type $\langle 2, 2, 1, 1, 0, 0 \rangle$ that satisfies the identities

$$x \boxplus 0 = x = x \oplus 0,$$

$$x^{-\sim} = x = x^{\sim-},$$

$$(x^{-} \boxplus y)^{\sim} \oplus y = (y^{-} \boxplus x)^{\sim} \oplus x = (y^{\sim} \oplus x)^{-} \boxplus x = (x^{\sim} \oplus y)^{-} \boxplus y,$$

$$(((x \boxplus y)^{\sim} \oplus y)^{-} \boxplus z)^{\sim} \oplus (x \boxplus z) = 1,$$

$$(((x \oplus y)^{-} \boxplus y)^{\sim} \oplus z)^{-} \boxplus (x \oplus z) = 1,$$

$$0^{-} = 1 = 0^{\sim}.$$

It can easily be shown that if $\mathcal{L} = (L, \lor, \land, 0, 1, (\beta_a)_{a \in L})$ is a lattice with sectional antiautomorphisms and if we define

$$x^{-} = \beta_{0}(x), \quad x^{\sim} = \beta_{0}^{-1}(x),$$

$$x \boxplus y = \beta_{y}(x^{\sim} \lor y), \quad x \oplus y = \beta_{y}^{-1}(x^{-} \lor y),$$
 (1)

then $\mathcal{L}^D = (L, \boxplus, \oplus, \bar{}, \sim, 0, 1)$ is a double basic algebra, and all double basic algebras arise in this way. Indeed, if $\mathcal{A} = (A, \boxplus, \oplus, \bar{}, \sim, 0, 1)$ is a double basic algebra, then letting

$$x \le y$$
 iff $x^- \boxplus y = 1$ (or, equivalently, $x^{\sim} \oplus y = 1$)

we obtain a bounded lattice with

$$x \lor y = (x^- \boxplus y)^{\sim} \oplus y = (x^{\sim} \oplus y)^- \boxplus y,$$
$$x \land y = (x^- \lor y^-)^{\sim} = (x^{\sim} \lor y^{\sim})^-,$$

such that for each $a \in A$, the map $\beta_a : x \mapsto x^- \boxplus a$ is an antiautomorphism on [a, 1]the inverse of which is $\beta_a^{-1} : x \mapsto x^- \oplus a$. Thus $\mathcal{A}^L = (A, \lor, \land, 0, 1, (\beta_a)_{a \in A})$ is a lattice with sectional antiautomorphisms from which, using Eq. 1, we can recover the initial \mathcal{A} , i.e., $(\mathcal{A}^L)^D = \mathcal{A}$. We also have $(\mathcal{L}^D)^L = \mathcal{L}$.

The connections between basic and double basic algebras are obvious. If $\mathcal{A} = (A, \oplus, ^-, 0, 1)$ is a basic algebra, then $(\mathcal{A}^L)^D = (A, \oplus, \oplus, ^-, ^-, 0, 1)$ is a double basic algebra, and conversely, if we are given a double basic algebra in which \boxplus coincides with \oplus , then the 'negations' – and ~ coincide too, so that the double basic algebra becomes a basic algebra. More precisely, we have

Theorem 1 Let $\mathcal{A} = (A, \boxplus, \oplus, \bar{}, \sim, 0, 1)$ be a double basic algebra. Then the reduct $\mathcal{A}_1 = (A, \boxplus, \bar{}, 0, 1)$ is a basic algebra if and only if \mathcal{A} satisfies the identity

$$x \boxplus y = x \oplus y. \tag{2}$$

Proof Let \mathcal{A}_1 be a basic algebra. Then $\mathcal{A}^L = (\mathcal{A}_1)^L$ is a lattice with sectional antitone involutions, hence for every $a \in A$, the map $\beta_a \colon x \mapsto x^- \boxplus a$ is an antitone involution which coincides with its inverse $\beta_a^{-1} \colon x \mapsto x^- \oplus a$. Thus $x^- = \beta_0(x) = \beta_0^{-1}(x) = x^-$ and $x \boxplus y = \beta_y(x^- \lor y) = \beta_y^{-1}(x^- \lor y) = x \oplus y$ for all $x, y \in A$.

Conversely, assume that A satisfies Eq. 2. Since \boxplus and \oplus coincide, for all $x, y \in A$ we have the following equivalences: $y \le x^-$ iff $y^- \boxplus x^- = 1$ iff $y^- \oplus x^- = 1$ iff

 $y^{--\sim} \oplus x^- = 1$ iff $y^{--} \le x^-$ iff $y^- = y^{--\sim} \ge x^{-\sim} = x$ iff $y = y^{-\sim} \le x^{\sim}$. Thus $x^- = x^{\sim}$ for all $x \in A$, and it follows that A_1 is a basic algebra.

Axiomatization In what follows, we aim at proving that double basic algebras can be axiomatized by the identities

$$x \boxplus 0 = x, \tag{D1}$$

$$x \oplus 0 = x, \tag{D2}$$

$$x^{-\sim} = x, \tag{D3}$$

$$(x^{-} \boxplus y)^{\sim} \oplus y = (y^{\sim} \oplus x)^{-} \boxplus x, \tag{D4}$$

$$(((x \boxplus y)^{\sim} \oplus y)^{-} \boxplus z)^{\sim} \oplus (x \boxplus z) = 1,$$
(D5)

$$\left(\left(\left(x \oplus y\right)^{-} \boxplus y\right)^{\sim} \oplus z\right)^{-} \boxplus \left(x \oplus z\right) = 1.$$
 (D6)

Thus some identities from the original axioms can be omitted.

Lemma 2 Every algebra satisfying Eqs. D1–D6 satisfies the following identities:

$$x^{-} \boxplus x = 1 = x^{\sim} \oplus x, \tag{3}$$

$$0^{-} = 1 = 0^{\sim}, \tag{4}$$

$$1^{\sim -} = 1,$$
 (5)

$$1^{-} = 0 = 1^{\sim}, \tag{6}$$

$$1 \boxplus x = 1 = 1 \oplus x, \tag{7}$$

$$x^{\sim -} = x,\tag{8}$$

$$0 \boxplus x = x = 0 \oplus x, \tag{9}$$

$$x \boxplus 1 = 1 = x \oplus 1, \tag{10}$$

$$x^{-} \boxplus (y \oplus x) = 1 = x^{\sim} \oplus (y \boxplus x).$$
(11)

Proof By Eq. D5 we have $1 = (((x \boxplus 0)^{\sim} \oplus 0)^{-} \boxplus 0)^{\sim} \oplus (x \boxplus 0) = x^{---} \oplus x = x^{\sim} \oplus x$ and, analogously, $1 = (((x \oplus 0)^{-} \boxplus 0)^{\sim} \oplus 0)^{-} \boxplus (x \oplus 0) = x^{---} \boxplus x = x^{-} \boxplus x$ by Eq. D6. As an immediate consequence of Eq. 3 we get $1 = 0^{-} \boxplus 0 = 0^{-}$ and $1 = 0^{\sim} \oplus 0 = 0^{\sim}$, which is Eq. 4. Now, $1^{--} = 0^{---} = 0^{-} = 1$, $1^{\sim} = 0^{--} = 0$ and $1^{-} = 1^{-} \boxplus 0 = (0^{\circ} \oplus 0)^{-} \boxplus 0 = (0^{-} \boxplus 0)^{\sim} \oplus 0 = 0^{--} = 0$ by Eq. D4, proving Eqs. 5 and 6. Further, $1 = (((1 \oplus y)^{-} \boxplus y)^{\sim} \oplus 0)^{-} \boxplus (1 \oplus 0) = ((0^{\circ} \oplus y)^{-} \boxplus 1)^{\sim} \oplus 1 = ((y^{-} \boxplus 0)^{\sim} \oplus 0)^{--} \boxplus 1 = y^{---} \boxplus 1 = y^{--} \boxplus 1$. When replacing y with $(x \oplus 1)^{-}$, we have $(x \oplus 1)^{-} \boxplus 1 = 1$, whence $1 = (((x \oplus 1)^{-} \boxplus 1)^{\sim} \oplus 0)^{-} \boxplus (x \oplus 0) = 1^{--} \boxplus x = 1 \boxplus x$. Before proving $1 \oplus x = 1$, we notice that

$$x^{\sim -} = 0 \boxplus x = 0 \oplus x, \tag{12}$$

because $x^{\sim -} = (x^{\sim} \oplus 0)^{-} \boxplus 0 = (0^{-} \boxplus x)^{\sim} \oplus x = (1 \boxplus x)^{\sim} \oplus x = 1^{\sim} \oplus x = 0 \oplus x$ and $1^{\sim} \oplus x = (x^{-} \boxplus x)^{\sim} \oplus x = (x^{\sim} \oplus x)^{-} \boxplus x = 1^{-} \boxplus x = 0 \boxplus x$.

Now we have $1 = (((1 \boxplus 1)^{\sim} \oplus 1)^{-} \boxplus x^{-})^{\sim} \oplus (1 \boxplus x^{-}) = ((1^{\sim} \oplus 1)^{-} \boxplus x^{-})^{\sim} \oplus 1 = (1^{-} \boxplus x^{-})^{\sim} \oplus 1 = (0 \boxplus x^{-})^{\sim} \oplus 1 = x^{-\sim-\sim} \oplus 1 = x \oplus 1$, which is the second part of

Eq. 10. It follows that $1 = (((x \boxplus 1)^{\sim} \oplus 1)^{-} \boxplus 0)^{\sim} \oplus (x \boxplus 0) = 1^{-\sim} \oplus x = 1 \oplus x$. This completes the proof of Eq. 7.

Using Eqs. 12 and 7, we get $x = x^{-\sim} = (x^- \boxplus 0)^{\sim} \oplus 0 = (0^{\sim} \oplus x)^- \boxplus x = (1 \oplus x)^{\sim} \boxplus x = 1^{\sim} \boxplus x = 0 \boxplus x = x^{\sim-}$, which proves Eq. 8 as well as Eq. 9.

We have shown above that $y^{\sim -} \boxplus 1 = 1$ for all y, which together with Eq. 8 implies Eq. 10.

Finally, we have $1 = (((y \boxplus 1)^{\sim} \oplus 1)^{-} \boxplus x)^{\sim} \oplus (y \boxplus x) = x^{\sim} \oplus (y \boxplus x)$ and $1 = (((y \oplus 1)^{-} \boxplus 1)^{\sim} \oplus x)^{-} \boxplus (y \oplus x) = x^{-} \boxplus (y \oplus x)$, which is Eq. 11.

Theorem 3 An algebra $\mathcal{A} = (A, \boxplus, \oplus, \bar{}, \sim, 0, 1)$ is a double basic algebra if and only if \mathcal{A} satisfies the identities Eqs. D1–D6.

Proof Applying Lemma 2, we only have to show that if A satisfies Eqs. D1–D6, then a = b where

$$\mathfrak{a} = (x^- \boxplus y)^{\sim} \oplus y = (y^{\sim} \oplus x)^- \boxplus x,$$
$$\mathfrak{b} = (y^- \boxplus x)^{\sim} \oplus x = (x^{\sim} \oplus y)^- \boxplus y.$$

Owing to Eq. 11 we have $x^- \boxplus \mathfrak{b} = 1 = y^{\sim} \oplus \mathfrak{b}$ which yields $\mathfrak{b} = 1^{\sim} \oplus \mathfrak{b} = (x^- \boxplus \mathfrak{b})^{\sim} \oplus \mathfrak{b} = (\mathfrak{b}^{\sim} \oplus x)^- \boxplus x$ and $(\mathfrak{b}^{\sim} \oplus x)^- \boxplus (y^{\sim} \oplus x) = ((1^- \boxplus \mathfrak{b})^{\sim} \oplus x)^- \boxplus (y^{\sim} \oplus x) = (((y^{\sim} \oplus \mathfrak{b})^- \boxplus \mathfrak{b})^{\sim} \oplus x)^- \boxplus (y^{\sim} \oplus x) = 1$ by Eq. D6, whence

$$\mathfrak{a} = (1^{\sim} \oplus (y^{\sim} \oplus x))^{-} \boxplus x = [((\mathfrak{b}^{\sim} \oplus x)^{-} \boxplus (y^{\sim} \oplus x))^{\sim} \oplus (y^{\sim} \oplus x)]^{-} \boxplus x$$

and thus

 $\mathfrak{a}^{\sim} \oplus \mathfrak{b} = \left(\left[((\mathfrak{b}^{\sim} \oplus x)^{-} \boxplus (y^{\sim} \oplus x))^{\sim} \oplus (y^{\sim} \oplus x) \right]^{-} \boxplus x \right)^{\sim} \oplus ((\mathfrak{b}^{\sim} \oplus x)^{-} \boxplus x) = 1$ by Eq. D5.

Analogously, $x^{\sim} \oplus \mathfrak{a} = 1 = y^{-} \boxplus \mathfrak{a}$ by Eq. 11, so $\mathfrak{a} = 1^{-} \boxplus \mathfrak{a} = (x^{\sim} \oplus \mathfrak{a})^{-} \boxplus \mathfrak{a} = (\mathfrak{a}^{-} \boxplus x)^{\sim} \oplus x$ and $(\mathfrak{a}^{-} \boxplus x)^{\sim} \oplus (y^{-} \boxplus x) = ((1^{\sim} \oplus \mathfrak{a})^{-} \boxplus x)^{\sim} \oplus (y^{-} \boxplus x) = (((y^{-} \boxplus \mathfrak{a})^{-} \boxplus x)^{\sim} \oplus (y^{-} \boxplus x))^{\sim} \oplus (y^{-} \boxplus x) = 1$. Then

$$\mathfrak{b} = (1^{-} \boxplus (y^{-} \boxplus x))^{\sim} \oplus x = [((\mathfrak{a}^{-} \boxplus x)^{\sim} \oplus (y^{-} \boxplus x))^{-} \boxplus (y^{-} \boxplus x)]^{\sim} \oplus x$$

and

$$\mathfrak{b}^{-} \boxplus \mathfrak{a} = \left(\left[\left((\mathfrak{a}^{-} \boxplus x)^{\sim} \oplus (y^{-} \boxplus x) \right)^{-} \boxplus (y^{-} \boxplus x) \right]^{\sim} \oplus x \right)^{-} \boxplus \left((\mathfrak{a}^{-} \boxplus x)^{\sim} \oplus x \right) = 1$$

by Eq. **D6**.

Now we conclude

$$\mathfrak{a} = 1^{\sim} \oplus \mathfrak{a} = (\mathfrak{b}^{-} \boxplus \mathfrak{a})^{\sim} \oplus \mathfrak{a} = (\mathfrak{a}^{\sim} \oplus \mathfrak{b})^{-} \boxplus \mathfrak{b} = 1^{-} \boxplus \mathfrak{b} = \mathfrak{b}$$

as desired.

The examples below show that this simplified axiomatization of double basic algebras is independent.

(a) The following algebra obviously does not satisfy Eq. D1 since $0 \boxplus 0 = 1$, but it satisfies Eqs. D2–D6:

\blacksquare	0	1	 \oplus	0	1	r	0	1
0	1	1	 0	0	1	$\frac{x}{r^ r^{\sim}}$	0	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	x - x	0	1

- (b) If we switch \boxplus and \oplus , we obtain an algebra that does not satisfy Eq. D2.
- (c) This algebra does not satisfy Eq. D3 since $0^{-\sim} = 1$:

$\boxplus = \oplus$	0	1		x	0	1
0	0	0	-	x^{-}	1	1
1	1	1		x^{\sim}	0	1

(d) In the following algebra we have (1⁻ ⊞ 0)[~] ⊕ 0 = 1 ≠ 0 = (0[~] ⊕ 1)⁻ ⊞ 1, so it does not fulfill Eq. D4:

(e) This algebra does not satisfy Eq. D5 since $(((a \boxplus 1)^{\sim} \oplus 1)^{-} \boxplus b)^{\sim} \oplus (a \boxplus b) = b$:

\blacksquare	0	a	b	1			\oplus	0	a	b	1
0	0	a	b	1		-	0	0	а	b	1
а	а	1	0	1			a	а	1	b	1
b	b	0	1	1			b	b	а	1	1
1	1	1	1	1			1	1	1	1	1
			х	0	a	b	1				
	$x^- = x^{\sim}$			1	a	b	0	-			

(f) Finally, when interchanging \boxplus and \oplus we get an algebra in which Eq. D6 fails to be true since $(((a \oplus 1)^- \boxplus 1)^\sim \oplus b)^- \boxplus (a \oplus b) = b$.

Pseudo-MV-algebras Besides double basic algebras, the so-called double MValgebras were defined in [1]. The motivation was to have a particular class of double basic algebras that stand to MV-algebras as double basic algebras stand to basic algebras. Though it is not the original definition, we may say a **double MV-algebra** is a double basic algebra satisfying the identity

$$x \boxplus (y \oplus z) = y \oplus (x \boxplus z). \tag{13}$$

In this paragraph we show that these double MV-algebras are in fact pseudo-MValgebras (also called GMV-algebras).

Let us recall that pseudo-MV-algebras were introduced by Georgescu and Iorgulescu [12], and independently by Rachůnek [13] under the name 'GMV-algebras', as a non-commutative counterpart of well-known MV-algebras (see [7]):

A **pseudo-MV-algebra** is an algebra $\mathcal{A} = (A, \oplus, \bar{}, \circ, 0, 1)$ of type (2, 1, 1, 0, 0) such that $(A, \oplus, 0)$ is a monoid and the following identities are satisfied:

$$\begin{aligned} x \oplus 1 &= 1 = 1 \oplus x, \quad 1^- = 0 = 1^-, \quad x^{--} = x, \\ (x^- \oplus y^-)^- &= (x^- \oplus y^-)^-, \\ x \oplus (y^- \oplus x)^- &= y \oplus (x^- \oplus y)^- = (y \oplus x^-)^- \oplus y = (x \oplus y^-)^- \oplus x, \\ x \odot (x^- \oplus y) &= (x \oplus y^-) \odot y, \end{aligned}$$

where the term operation \odot is defined by $x \odot y = (y^- \oplus x^-)^{\sim}$.

If we put $x \lor y = x \oplus (y^- \oplus x)^{\sim}$ and $x \land y = x \odot (x^- \oplus y)$, then we obtain a bounded distributive lattice whose underlying order is given by $x \le y$ iff $x^- \oplus y = 1$

iff $y \oplus x^{\sim} = 1$, and where, for each $a \in A$, $x \mapsto x^{-} \oplus a$ is an order-antiautomorphism on [a, 1] whose inverse is $x \mapsto a \oplus x^{\sim}$. Thus every pseudo-MV-algebra is a lattice with sectional antiautomorphisms and hence can be regarded as a double basic algebra. Specifically, given a pseudo-MV-algebra $\mathcal{A} = (A, \oplus, \overline{}, \overline{}, 0, 1)$, the corresponding double basic algebra $\mathcal{A}^{\dagger} = (A, \boxplus^{\dagger}, \oplus^{\dagger}, \overline{}, \overline{}, 0, 1)$ is defined by

$$x \boxplus^{\dagger} y = x \oplus y$$
 and $x \oplus^{\dagger} y = y \oplus x$.

Since \oplus is associative, it is plain that \mathcal{A}^{\dagger} satisfies Eq. 13.

Theorem 4 Let $\mathcal{A} = (A, \boxplus, \oplus, \bar{}, \sim, 0, 1)$ be a double basic algebra. Then the reduct $\mathcal{A}_2 = (A, \boxplus, \bar{}, \sim, 0, 1)$ is a pseudo-MV-algebra if and only if \mathcal{A} satisfies the identity 13, i.e., \mathcal{A} is a double MV-algebra.

Proof If A_2 is a pseudo-MV-algebra, then A fulfills Eq. 13 because $A = (A_2)^{\dagger}$. The converse follows from some considerations in [4]. Roughly speaking, a lattice with sectional antiautomorphisms is derived from a pseudo-MV-algebra if and only if

$$\beta_{\beta_z^{-1}(y \lor z)}(x \lor \beta_z^{-1}(y \lor z)) = \beta_{\beta_z(x \lor z)}^{-1}(y \lor \beta_z(x \lor z))$$

for all x, y, z. Recalling Eq. 1, this condition becomes

$$x^{-} \boxplus (y^{\sim} \oplus z) = y^{\sim} \oplus (x^{-} \boxplus z),$$

which is clearly equivalent to Eq. 13. Thus if A satisfies Eq. 13, then the above condition holds in A^L , and so A_2 is a pseudo-MV-algebra.

In the next section we give another proof of Theorem 4.

We can therefore identify pseudo-MV-algebras with double MV-algebras, i.e. with double basic algebras satisfying Eq. 13. Accordingly, if \mathcal{A} is a double basic algebra and \mathcal{B} is a subalgebra that fulfills Eq. 13, then we shall say that \mathcal{B} is a **sub-pseudo-MV-algebra** of \mathcal{A} .

2 Pseudo-effect Algebras

Pseudo-effect algebras, introduced by Dvurečenskij and Vetterlein in [9, 10], are a non-commutative generalization of effect algebras (see [14] or [8]):

A **pseudo-effect algebra** [9] is a structure $\mathcal{E} = (E, +, 0, 1)$, where + is a partial binary operation on E and 0, 1 are distinguished elements of E, satisfying the following conditions:

(PE1) + is associative, in the sense that (a + b) + c is defined if and only if a + (b + c) is defined, and in this case (a + b) + c = a + (b + c);

(PE2) for every $a \in E$ there exist unique $a^-, a^- \in E$ such that $a^- + a = 1 = a + a^-$;

(PE3) if a + b is defined, then a + b = x + a = b + y for some $x, y \in E$;

(PE4) if a + 1 or 1 + a is defined, then a = 0.

Every pseudo-effect algebra $\mathcal{E} = (E, +, 0, 1)$ has a natural underlying order which is defined by stipulating that

$$x \le y$$
 iff $y = x + z$ for some $z \in E$,

which is the same as y = z + x for some $z \in E$. If the poset (E, \leq) thus obtained is a lattice, \mathcal{E} is called a **lattice pseudo-effect algebra**.

It is worth observing that

$$x + y = z$$
 iff $x^{\sim} = y + z^{\sim}$ iff $y^{-} = z^{-} + x$, (14)

in other words,

x + y is defined iff $y \le x^{\sim}$ iff $x \le y^{-}$.

Furthermore, for every $a \in E$, the maps $x \mapsto x^- + a$ and $x \mapsto a + x^{\sim}$ are orderantiautomorphisms on [a, 1] which are inverses of each other, so it is obvious that every lattice pseudo-effect algebra is a lattice with sectional antiautomorphism and hence a double basic algebra:

Proposition 5 Let $\mathcal{E} = (E, +, 0, 1)$ be a lattice pseudo-effect algebra. Upon defining

$$x \boxplus y = (x \land y^{-}) + y \text{ and } x \oplus y = y + (x \land y^{\sim}),$$

the algebra $\mathcal{E}^D = (E, \boxplus, \oplus, \bar{\gamma}, 0, 1)$ is a double basic algebra whose underlying order coincides with that of \mathcal{E} . If x + y exists in \mathcal{E} , then $x + y = x \boxplus y = y \oplus x$. Moreover, \mathcal{E}^D satisfies the quasi-identity

$$x \le y^- \quad \& \quad x \boxplus y \le z^- \quad \Rightarrow \quad x \boxplus (z \oplus y) = z \oplus (x \boxplus y). \tag{15}$$

Proof We know that $\beta_a: x \mapsto x^- + a$ is an order-antiautomorphism on [a, 1] (and that its inverse is $\beta_a^{-1}: x \mapsto a + x^{\sim}$), so that $\mathcal{E}^L = (E, \lor, \land, 0, 1, (\beta_a)_{a \in E})$ is a lattice with sectional antiautomorphisms. The double basic algebra $(\mathcal{E}^L)^D$ associated to \mathcal{E}^L by Eq. 1 is then defined as follows:

$$x \boxplus y = \beta_y (x^\sim \lor y) = (x^\sim \lor y)^- + y = (x \land y^-) + y,$$

$$x \oplus y = \beta_y^{-1} (x^- \lor y) = y + (x^- \lor y)^\sim = y + (x \land y^\sim).$$

Thus $\mathcal{E}^D = (\mathcal{E}^L)^D$ is a double basic algebra, and its underlying order is just that of \mathcal{E}^L , i.e. that of \mathcal{E} . It is also evident that $x + y = x \boxplus y = y \oplus x$ since x + y is defined iff $x \le y^-$ iff $x^- \ge y$.

As for the last claim, if $x \le y^-$ and $x \boxplus y \le z^-$, then by (PE1) both (x + y) + z and x + (y + z) are defined and equal in \mathcal{E} . Hence we have $x \boxplus (z \oplus y) = x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z = z \oplus (x \boxplus y)$, proving that \mathcal{E}^D fulfills Eq. 15.

Remark Instead of \oplus we could have defined \oplus' by $x \oplus' y = \beta_x^{-1}(x \vee y^-) = x + (x^- \wedge y)$, i.e. $x \oplus' y = y \oplus x$. This might seem more natural in the context of pseudoeffect algebras, because when x + y exists in \mathcal{E} , then $x + y = x \boxplus y = x \oplus' y$, while with our definition we have $x + y = x \boxplus y = y \oplus x$ (see [5]).

Lemma 6 Every double basic algebra satisfies the identities

$$(x \land y) \boxplus z = (x \boxplus z) \land (y \boxplus z)$$
 and $(x \land y) \oplus z = (x \oplus z) \land (y \oplus z)$.

Proof Recalling Eq. 1 we have $(x \land y) \boxplus z = \beta_z((x \land y)^{\sim} \lor z) = \beta_z(x^{\sim} \lor y^{\sim} \lor z) = \beta_z((x^{\sim} \lor z) \lor (y^{\sim} \lor z)) = \beta_z(x^{\sim} \lor z) \land \beta_z(y^{\sim} \lor z) = (x \boxplus z) \land (y \boxplus z)$. The proof of the other identity is analogous.

Theorem 7 Let $\mathcal{A} = (A, \boxplus, \oplus, \bar{}, \infty, 0, 1)$ be a double basic algebra and define the partial algebra $\mathcal{A}^E = (A, +, 0, 1)$ as follows:

$$x + y = x \boxplus y$$
 iff $x \le y^-$.

Then \mathcal{A}^E is a pseudo-effect algebra if \mathcal{A} satisfies the quasi-identity 15. In this case the underlying orders of \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{A}^E coincide.

Proof Let us assume that Eq. 15 is true in A. We first notice that

x + z is defined iff $x^{\sim} \ge z$, and $x + z = z \oplus x$.

Indeed, letting y = 0 we get: $x \le 0^- = 1$ and $x = x \boxplus 0 \le z^-$ imply $x \boxplus z = x \boxplus (z \oplus 0) = z \oplus (x \boxplus 0) = z \oplus x$. Thus if x + z exists in \mathcal{A}^E , then $x + z = x \boxplus z = z \oplus x$. Now we can verify the conditions (PE1)–(PE4).

- (PE1) Let (a + b) + c be defined, i.e. $a \le b^-$ and $a + b \le c^-$. Since $b \le a \boxplus b = a + b \le c^-$, also b + c is defined. Since \oplus is monotone in the first argument (Lemma 6), $a^- \ge b$ and $(a \boxplus b)^- \ge c$ yield $a^- = a^- \lor b = (a \boxplus b)^- \oplus b \ge c \oplus b = b + c$, which means that a + (b + c) is defined. Similar arguments show that if a + (b + c) is defined, then (a + b) + c is defined, too. Hence (a + b) + c is defined iff so is a + (b + c), in which case, by Eq. 15, $a \le b^-$ and $a \boxplus b < c^-$ imply $a + (b + c) = a \boxplus (c \oplus b) = c \oplus (a \boxplus b) = (a+b)+c$.
- (PE2) If x + a = 1 for some $x \in A$, then $x \le a^-$ and $x \lor a^- = (a^{-} \oplus x)^- \boxplus x = (x + a)^- \boxplus x = 1^- \boxplus x = x$, so $x \ge a^-$, proving $x = a^-$. Certainly, $a^- + a = a^- \boxplus a = 1$, and hence a^- is the only element x such that x + a = 1. Analogously, a^- is the only element y such that a + y = 1.
- (PE3) Assuming a + b is defined, we put $x = ((a + b)^{\sim} \oplus a)^{-}$ and $y = ((a + b)^{-} \boxplus b)^{\sim}$. Then $x^{\sim} \ge a$ and $y^{-} \ge b$, so x + a and b + y are defined, and we have $x + a = x \boxplus a = ((a + b)^{\sim} \oplus a)^{-} \boxplus a = (a + b) \lor a = a + b$ and $b + y = y \oplus b = ((a + b)^{-} \boxplus b)^{\sim} \oplus b = (a + b) \lor b = a + b$ since $a + b = b \oplus a \ge a$ and $a + b = a \boxplus b \ge b$.
- (PE4) If a + 1 is defined, then $a \le 1^- = 0$. If 1 + a is defined, then $0 = 1^- \ge a$. Thus a = 0 in either case.

We have proved that \mathcal{A}^E is a pseudo-effect algebra and there remains to show that the underlying orders are the same. Let us denote by \sqsubseteq the order in \mathcal{A}^E . If $a \le b$ in \mathcal{A} , then we may write $b = a \lor b = (b^{\sim} \oplus a)^{-} \boxplus a = (b^{\sim} \oplus a)^{-} + a$ as $b^{\sim} \oplus a \ge a$; hence $a \sqsubseteq b$ in \mathcal{A}^E . Conversely, if $a \sqsubseteq b$, then b = x + a for some $x \in E$, so that $b = x \boxplus a \ge a$ in \mathcal{A} .

Combining Proposition 5 and Theorem 7 we conclude that there is a one-one correspondence between lattice pseudo-effect algebras and double basic algebras that satisfy Eq. 15. Indeed, it is apparent that for every lattice pseudo-effect algebra \mathcal{E} we have $(\mathcal{E}^D)^E = \mathcal{E}$. On the other hand, given $\mathcal{A} = (A, \boxplus, \oplus, \neg, \sim, 0, 1)$ a double basic algebra satisfying Eq. 15, the additions in $(\mathcal{A}^E)^D = (A, \boxplus, \oplus, \neg, \sim, 0, 1)$ are defined by means of + (which is inherited from \boxplus and \oplus) as follows: $x \boxplus^{\sharp} y = (x \land y^-) + y = (x \land y^-) \boxplus y = x \boxplus y$ and $x \oplus^{\sharp} y = y + (x \land y^-) = (x \land y^-) \oplus y = x \oplus y$ (in both cases the last equality follows from Lemma 6). Therefore $(\mathcal{A}^E)^D = \mathcal{A}$.

Compatibility in Lattice Pseudo-effect Algebras In [11], Dvurečenskij and Vetterlein introduced five types of compatibilities between elements of pseudo-effect algebras: besides 'pure' compatibility these are ultra strong, strong, weak and ultra weak compatibility. In general they differ from one another, but it turns out that in lattice pseudo-effect algebras, except for ultra weak compatibility, all of them coincide. Rather than giving the original definition, we use one of the alternative characterizations presented in [11].

We must define two partial subtractions \langle , \rangle that are naturally determined by the underlying order: $x \setminus y$ and y / x exist iff $y \leq x$, and they are unique elements such that

$$(x \setminus y) + y = x = y + (y / x).$$

We should notice that in view of Eq. 14 we have

$$x \setminus y = (y + x^{\sim})^{-}$$
 and $y / x = (x^{-} + y)^{\sim}$. (16)

Now, we can say that x and y are **compatible** and write $x \leftrightarrow y$ iff

$$(x \lor y) \lor y = x \lor (x \land y)$$
 and $(x \lor y) \lor x = y \lor (x \land y)$.

By [11], Proposition 3.6, we could equivalently use / instead of \, i.e., $x \leftrightarrow y$ iff

 $y/(x \lor y) = (x \land y)/x$ and $x/(x \lor y) = (x \land y)/y$.

The concept of ultra weak compatibility is obtained by replacing 'and' with 'or', that is, *x* and *y* are called **ultra weakly compatible**, in symbols $x \stackrel{uw}{\longleftrightarrow} y$, if $(x \lor y) \lor y = x \lor (x \land y)$ or $(x \lor y) \lor x = y \lor (x \land y)$, or equivalently, if $y / (x \lor y) = (x \land y) / x$ or $x / (x \lor y) = (x \land y) / y$.

We can easily describe pairs of compatible elements in the setting of double basic algebras associated to lattice pseudo-effect algebras:

Theorem 8 Let \mathcal{E} be a lattice pseudo-effect algebra and \mathcal{E}^D the corresponding double basic algebra. Then, for all $x, y \in E$, the following are equivalent:

(i) $x \leftrightarrow y$ in \mathcal{E} , (ii) $x^{\sim} \oplus y = y \boxplus x^{\sim}$ and $y^{\sim} \oplus x = x \boxplus y^{\sim}$ in \mathcal{E}^{D} , (iii) $x^{-} \boxplus y = y \oplus x^{-}$ and $y^{-} \boxplus x = x \oplus y^{-}$ in \mathcal{E}^{D} .

Consequently, $x \leftrightarrow y$ iff $x^- \leftrightarrow y^-$ iff $x^\sim \leftrightarrow y^\sim$.

Proof Recalling Proposition 5 and Eq. 16 we have

$$(x^{\sim} \oplus y)^{-} = (y + (x^{\sim} \land y^{\sim}))^{-} = (y + (x \lor y)^{\sim})^{-} = (x \lor y) \lor y$$

and

$$(y \boxplus x^{\sim})^{-} = ((y \land x^{\sim -}) + x^{\sim})^{-} = ((x \land y) + x^{\sim})^{-} = x \backslash (x \land y),$$

whence $x \leftrightarrow y$ iff $x^{\sim} \oplus y = y \boxplus x^{\sim}$ and $y^{\sim} \oplus x = x \boxplus y^{\sim}$, so (i) is equivalent to (ii). That (i) and (iii) are equivalent is verified by observing that $(x^{-} \boxplus y)^{\sim} = y/(x \lor y)$ and $(y \oplus x^{-})^{\sim} = (x \land y)/x$.

The last assertion is a direct corollary. (This is also proved in [11], Proposition 3.6.)

Remark It is obvious that an analogous statement with 'or' in place of 'and' holds true for ultra weak compatibility.

We have to make a remark on pseudo-MV-algebras here. It is easy to show that if we are given a pseudo-MV-algebra, then by restricting the addition to $\{(x, y): x \le y^-\}$ we obtain a lattice pseudo-effect algebra. On the other hand, owing to [10], Theorem 8.7, (ultra weak) compatibility can characterize pseudo-MV-algebras within lattice pseudo-effect algebras. Namely, Theorem 8.7 in [10] essentially states that if $\mathcal{E} = (E, +, 0, 1)$ is a lattice pseudo-effect algebra, then—with the notation of our Theorem 4—the algebra $(\mathcal{E}^D)_2 = (E, \boxplus, \neg, \neg, 0, 1)$ is a pseudo-MV-algebra if and only if $x \stackrel{\text{uw}}{\longleftrightarrow} y$ for all $x, y \in E$. Thus pseudo-MV-algebras are equivalent to lattice pseudo-effect algebras where $x \stackrel{\text{uw}}{\longleftrightarrow} y$ for all x, y.

Corollary 9 Let A be a double basic algebra satisfying Eq. 15. Then A_2 is a pseudo-MV-algebra if and only if A satisfies the identity

$$x \boxplus y = y \oplus x. \tag{17}$$

Proof By Theorem 4 we know that if A_2 is a pseudo-MV-algebra, then A satisfies the identity 13, and letting z = 0 we get Eq. 17.

Conversely, if \mathcal{A} fulfills Eq. 17, then Theorem 8 entails that in the pseudo-effect algebra \mathcal{A}^E we have $x \leftrightarrow y$ for all $x, y \in A$. Hence, by [10], Theorem 8.7, \mathcal{A}_2 is a pseudo-MV-algebra.

Next, let us assume that $\mathcal{E} = (E, +, 0, 1)$ is a lattice pseudo-effect algebra satisfying the following condition which is referred to as **complement compatibility property** in [11]:

$$(\forall x, y \in E) \quad x \leftrightarrow y \quad \Rightarrow \quad x^- \leftrightarrow y. \tag{18}$$

In this case, if $x \leftrightarrow y$, then $x^{\sim} \leftrightarrow y^{\sim}$ whence $x^{\sim} \leftrightarrow y^{\sim -} = y$ by Eq. 18, and the condition actually means

$$x \leftrightarrow y$$
 iff $x^- \leftrightarrow y$ iff $x^\sim \leftrightarrow y$.

Moreover, by [11], Proposition 4.8, this complement compatibility property entails that ultra weak compatibility coincides with compatibility, i.e., for all $x, y \in E, x \leftrightarrow y$ iff $x \stackrel{\text{uw}}{\longleftrightarrow} y$.

Theorem 10 Let \mathcal{E} and \mathcal{E}^D be as before. If \mathcal{E} satisfies the condition 18, then $x \leftrightarrow y$ in \mathcal{E} if and only if $x \boxplus y = y \oplus x$ in \mathcal{E}^D .

Proof Using Eq. 18 and (iii) of the previous theorem, if $x \leftrightarrow y$, then $x^{\sim} \leftrightarrow y$ and $x \boxplus y = y \oplus x$. Conversely, if $x \boxplus y = y \oplus x$, then $x^{\sim} \longleftrightarrow y$, which yields $x^{\sim} \leftrightarrow y$, and so $x \leftrightarrow y$ by Eq. 18.

By [11], a **block** in a lattice pseudo-effect algebra is a maximal subset of mutually compatible elements. Theorem 4.9 in [11] says that a lattice pseudo-effect algebra satisfying Eq. 18 is the union of its blocks, which are pseudo-MV-algebras where the total addition is defined as our \boxplus , i.e., $x \boxplus y = (x \land y^-) + y$.

Deringer

We can use this result in characterizing double basic algebras derived from lattice pseudo-effect algebras with Eq. 18. First, in order to find a suitable definition of a block for double basic algebras, we need a better understanding of what compatibility in pseudo-effect algebras means in terms of sectional antiautomorphisms.

By Eq. 16 we have $y/(x \lor y) = ((x \lor y)^- + y)^\sim = (\beta_y(x \lor y))^\sim$ and $(x \land y)/x = (x^- + (x \land y))^\sim = (\beta_{x \land y}(x))^\sim$, and analogously, $(x \lor y) \lor y = (\beta_y^{-1}(x \lor y))^$ and $x \lor (x \land y) = (\beta_{x \land y}^{-1}(x))^-$. Thus, in a lattice pseudo-effect algebra, we have

$$x \leftrightarrow y \quad \text{iff} \quad \beta_y(x \lor y) = \beta_{x \land y}(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_x(x \lor y) = \beta_{x \land y}(y)$$
$$\text{iff} \quad \beta_y^{-1}(x \lor y) = \beta_{x \land y}^{-1}(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_x^{-1}(x \lor y) = \beta_{x \land y}^{-1}(y).$$

Therefore, in double basic algebras, we shall write

$$x \leftrightarrow y$$
 iff $\beta_y(x \lor y) = \beta_{x \land y}(x)$ and $\beta_x(x \lor y) = \beta_{x \land y}(y)$,

and

$$x \leftrightarrow y$$
 iff $\beta_y^{-1}(x \lor y) = \beta_{x \land y}^{-1}(x)$ and $\beta_x^{-1}(x \lor y) = \beta_{x \land y}^{-1}(y)$.

Using the total operations \boxplus and \oplus , we have

$$x \leftrightarrow y$$
 iff $x^- \boxplus y = x^- \boxplus (x \wedge y)$ and $y^- \boxplus x = y^- \boxplus (x \wedge y)$,
 $x \leftrightarrow y$ iff $x^- \oplus y = x^- \oplus (x \wedge y)$ and $y^- \oplus x = y^- \oplus (x \wedge y)$.

By a **left block** [respectively, a **right block**] in a double basic algebra we shall mean a maximal subset such that $x \leftrightarrow y$ [respectively, $x \leftrightarrow y$] for all x, y in the subset.

The relations \leftrightarrow and $\leftrightarrow \rightarrow$, and hence the left and right blocks, are distinct in general:



Example 11 Let A be the double basic algebra whose underlying lattice is shown in the above image, where the antiautomorphisms β_0 and β_c are given as follows:

The other sections are finite chains and hence admit unique antitone involutions.

We have $\beta_b(b \lor c) = \beta_b(d) = d = \beta_0(c) = \beta_{b \land c}(c)$ and $\beta_c(b \lor c) = \beta_c(d) = e = \beta_0(b) = \beta_{b \land c}(b)$, thus $b \nleftrightarrow c$, while $b \not\prec c$ because $\beta_c^{-1}(b \lor c) = \beta_c^{-1}(d) = f$ and $\beta_{b \land c}^{-1}(b) = \beta_0^{-1}(b) = e$.

At the same time, this example shows that other seemingly natural definitions of blocks need not work. For instance, we cannot define $x \leftrightarrow y$ by $x \boxplus y = y \oplus$

x since it might happen that $x \boxplus x \neq x \oplus x$ and $x \boxplus y = y \oplus x$, but $y \boxplus x \neq x \oplus y$. *y*. Indeed, $c \boxplus c = \beta_c(c^{\sim} \lor c) = \beta_c(d \lor c) = \beta_c(d) = e$, while $c \oplus c = \beta_c^{-1}(c^{-} \lor d) = \beta^{-1}(d \lor c) = \beta_c^{-1}(d) = f$, and $a \boxplus c = \beta_c(a^{\sim} \lor c) = \beta_c(f) = d = \beta_a^{-1}(d) = \beta_a^{-1}(c^{-} \lor d) = c \oplus a$, but $a \oplus c = \beta_c^{-1}(a^{-} \lor c) = \beta_c^{-1}(f) = e$ and $c \boxplus a = \beta_a(c^{\sim} \lor a) = \beta_a(d) = d$.

Theorem 12 Let $\mathcal{A} = (A, \boxplus, \oplus, \bar{}, \sim, 0, 1)$ be a double basic algebra and $\mathcal{A}^E = (A, +, 0, 1)$ the partial algebra as in Theorem 7. The following statements are equivalent:

- (i) \mathcal{A}^E is a lattice pseudo-effect algebra satisfying Eq. 18.
- (ii) Every left block of A is (the carrier of) a sub-pseudo-MV-algebra of A.
- (iii) Every right block of A is (the carrier of) a sub-pseudo-MV-algebra of A.

Proof

- (i) ⇒ (ii)/(iii) In the light of Theorem 10 and the above discussion, the blocks of A^E are precisely the left/right blocks of A. As we have already mentioned, by [11], Theorem 4.9, A is the union of the blocks, which are pseudo-MV-algebras. More precisely, every block B is a sublattice and a subalgebra of A^E, in the sense that x⁻, x[~] ∈ B for all x ∈ B, and if x, y ∈ B and x + y is defined, then x + y ∈ B. Therefore, if we equip B with the operations ⊞ and ⊕ as in Proposition 5, we obtain a sub-pseudo-MV-algebra of A.
- (ii)/(iii) ⇒ (i) We first observe that if x, y ∈ A are comparable, then x ↔ y as well as x ↔ y. In order to show that A satisfies Eq. 15, let x ≤ y⁻ and x ⊞ y ≤ z⁻. Then x ↔ y⁻ and so x, y⁻ belong to some left block B. Since blocks are sub-pseudo-MV-algebras, also y ∈ B and x ⊞ y ∈ B. Further, x ↔ z⁻ and y ↔ z⁻ because both x and y are less than or equal to x ⊞ y = y ⊕ x. Hence z⁻ ∈ B, which yields z ∈ B. Now, since x, y, z ∈ B and since blocks are sub-pseudo-MV-algebras, it follows that x ⊞ (z ⊕ y) = x ⊞ (y ⊞ z) = (x ⊞ y) ⊞ z = z ⊕ (x ⊞ y).

References

- 1. Chajda, I.: Double basic algebras. Order 26, 149–162 (2009)
- 2. Chajda, I., Halaš, R., Kühr, J.: Semilattice Structures. Heldermann Verlag, Lemgo (2007)
- 3. Chajda, I., Halaš, R., Kühr, J.: Many-valued quantum algebras. Algebra Univers. 60, 63–90 (2009)
- Chajda, I., Kühr, J.: GMV-algebras and meet-semilattices with sectionally antitone permutations. Math. Slovaca 56, 275–288 (2006)
- 5. Chajda, I., Kühr, J.: Pseudo-effect algebras as total algebras. Int. J. Theor. Phys. doi:10.1007/ s10773-009-0093-z
- Chajda, I., Kolařík, M.: Independence of axiom system of basic algebras. Soft Comput. 13, 41–43 (2009)
- Cignoli, R., Mundici, D., D'Ottaviano, I.: Algebraic Foundations of Many-valued Reasoning. Kluwer Acad. Publ., Dordrecht (1999)
- Dvurečenskij, A., Pulmannová, S.: New Trends in Quantum Structures. Kluwer Acad. Publ., Dordrecht/Ister Science, Bratislava (2000)
- Dvurečenskij, A., Vetterlein, T.: Pseudoeffect algebras I. Basic properties. Int. J. Theor. Phys. 40, 685–701 (2001)

- Dvurečenskij, A., Vetterlein, T.: Pseudoeffect algebras II. Basic properties. Int. J. Theor. Phys. 40, 703–726 (2001)
- Dvurečenskij, A., Vetterlein, T.: On pseudo-effect algebras which can be covered by pseudo MV-algebras. Demonstr. Math. 36, 261–282 (2003)
- 12. Georgescu, G., Iorgulescu, A.: Pseudo-MV algebras. Mult.-Valued Log. 6, 95–135 (2001)
- Rachunek, J.: A non-commutative generalization of MV-algebras. Czechoslov. Math. J. 52, 255–273 (2002)
- Foulis, D., Bennett, M.K.: Effect algebras and unsharp quantum logics. Found. Phys. 24, 1331–1352 (1994)