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# ON GENERALIZED $(\alpha, \beta)$ -DERIVATIONS IN d-ALGEBRAS

## Aslıhan Şenbakar and Damla Yılmaz

ABSTRACT. In this paper, we introduce the notions of generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ derivations on *d*-algebras. Also, the concepts of an  $\alpha$ -ideal and *G*-invariant ideal are defined and relations among them are discussed. Moreover, some results regarding partial ordered edge *d*-algebras and generelized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivations are proved.

#### 1. Introduction

Algebraic logic emerged as a subdiscipline of algebra in the nineteenth century. In the following years, studies on the relationship between logic and ordered systems such as Boolean algebras, lattice ordered groups, MV-algebras, etc. have been the subject of many researchers. For example, BCK-algebras and BCI-algebras are two classes of logic algebras introduced in 1966 ([4], [5]) and extensively investigated by many authors. It is known that BCK-algebras form a proper subclass of BCIalgebras. That is, every BCK-algebra is a BCI-algebra but not vice versa ([3]). One of the generalizations of BCK-algebras, *d*-algebras, was presented by Neggers and Kim ([10]). After that, *d*-subalgebra, *d*-ideal and some related concepts defined and relations among them investigated by Neggers, Jun and Kim ([11]).

In the theory of rings, the notion of derivation was given by Posner who establish two very striking results on derivations in prime rings ([12]). Jun and Xin ([6]) introduced the notion of derivations of BCI-algebras, which was motivated from a lot of work done on the notion of derivations on d-algebras ([7], [8] and their

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references). In BCI-algebras,  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivations studied and obtained some properties by several authors ([2], [9]). Recently, Al-Omary has introduced the notion of  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivations on *d*-algebras and investigate their relations ([1]).

This paper presents the notions of generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivations of *d*-algebras. Also, we obtain some results regarding partial ordered edge *d*-algebras and generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivations. Furthermore, we introduce the concepts of an  $\alpha$ -ideal, *G*-invariant ideal and we investigate their relations.

#### 2. Preliminaries

In this section, we introduce the definition of a d-algebra and properties that important for the study of d-algebras.

DEFINITION 2.1. [10] A non-empty set  $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}; *, 0)$  of type (2,0) is called a d-algebra if for all  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$  the following conditions hold:

(1) a \* a = 0, (2) 0 \* a = 0, (3) a \* b = 0 and b \* a = 0 implies a = b.

PROPOSITION 2.1. [8] A d-algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  has the following properties: for all  $a, b, c \in \mathcal{A}$ 

(1) a \* (a \* b) = b(2) (a \* (a \* b)) \* b = 0(3) (a \* b) \* c = (a \* c) \* b(4) 0 \* (a \* b) = (0 \* a) \* (0 \* b)(5)  $a \leq b$  implies  $a * c \leq b * c$  and  $c * b \leq c * a$ (6) a \* (a \* (a \* b)) = a \* b(7) a \* 0 = 0 implies a = 0(8) a \* b = a \* c implies b = c.

DEFINITION 2.2. [11] Suppose  $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}; *, 0)$  be a d-algebra and  $\emptyset \neq I \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ . If  $a * b \in I$  whenever  $a, b \in I$ , then I is called a d-subalgebra of  $\mathcal{A}$ . Also, I is called a d-ideal of  $\mathcal{A}$  if it satisfies:

(1)  $a * b \in I$  and  $b \in I$  imply  $a \in I$ 

(2)  $a \in I$  and  $b \in \mathcal{A}$  imply  $a * b \in I$ , i.e.,  $I * \mathcal{A} \subseteq I$ .

LEMMA 2.1. [11] If I is a d-ideal of a d-algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ , then  $0 \in I$ .

DEFINITION 2.3. [10] Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a d-algebra and  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ . Define  $a * \mathcal{A} = \{a * b | b \in \mathcal{A}\}$ . If for any  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $a * \mathcal{A} = \{a, 0\}$ , then  $\mathcal{A}$  is called an edge d-algebra.

LEMMA 2.2. [7] If  $\mathcal{A}$  is an edge d-algebra, then a \* 0 = a for any  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ .

**Notation:** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a *d*-algebra and  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ . We write  $a \wedge b = b * (b * a)$ .

DEFINITION 2.4. [1] Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a d-algebra,  $\delta : \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}$  be a mapping. If  $\delta(a * b) = \delta(a) * \delta(b)$ , then  $\delta$  is called an endomorphism. Note that  $\delta(0) = 0$ .

REMARK 2.1. [1] If  $\mathcal{A}$  is an edge *d*-algebra and  $\alpha$  is an endomorphism on  $\mathcal{A}$ , then  $\alpha(a) * 0 = \alpha(a)$  for all  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ .

DEFINITION 2.5. [1] Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a d-algebra. A map  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)} : \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}$  is called a leftright  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation of  $\mathcal{A}$ , if it satisfies the identity  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(ab) = d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)\alpha(b) \land \beta(a)d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(b)$  for all  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ . If  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}$  satisfies  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(ab) = \alpha(a)d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(b) \land d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)\beta(b)$  for all  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ , then  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}$  is called a right-left  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation of  $\mathcal{A}$ . Also, if  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}$  is a left-right and right-left  $(\alpha,\beta)$ -derivation, then  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}$  is an  $(\alpha,\beta)$ -derivation of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

THEOREM 2.1. [1] Suppose  $(\mathcal{A}, *, 0)$  be a d-algebra.

(1) If  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}$  is a left-right  $(\alpha,\beta)$ -derivation, then  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}$  is regular.

(2) If A is an edge d-algebra and  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}$  is a right-left  $(\alpha,\beta)$ -derivation, then  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}$  is regular.

### **3.** Generalized $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivations on *d*-algebras

In this section, we introduce the notions of left generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivations and right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivations of  $\mathcal{A}$  and investigate their basic properties. In what follows,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are endomorphisms of a *d*-algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ .

DEFINITION 3.1. Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a d-algebra. A mapping  $G : \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}$  is called a left generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation if there exists a left-right  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation  $d_{(\alpha, \beta)}$  of  $\mathcal{A}$  such that

$$G(a * b) = (G(a) * \alpha(b)) \land (\beta(a) * d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(b))$$

for all  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ .

If there exists a right-left  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}$  of A and G satisfies the identity

$$G(a * b) = (\alpha(a) * G(b)) \land (d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a) * \beta(b))$$

then G is called a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation of A.

Clearly, the notion of left (resp. right) generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation covers the concept of left-right (resp. right-left)  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation when  $G = d_{(\alpha,\beta)}$ . For simplicity of notations, we write ab instead of a \* b.

EXAMPLE 3.1. Consider a d-algebra  $\mathcal{A} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$  with the following Cayley table: ( $\mathcal{A}$  is not a BCK-algebra, [11])

*	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	0	1
2	2	2	0	3	0
3	3	3	2	0	3
4	3	3	1	1	0

Define a map

$$d_{(\alpha,\beta)}: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}, a \mapsto \begin{cases} 0, & a = 0, 1, 2, 3\\ 1, & a = 4 \end{cases}$$

and define two endomorphisms

$$\alpha: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}, \ a \mapsto \begin{cases} 0, & a = 0, 1\\ 2, & a = 2, 3, 4 \end{cases}$$

and

$$\beta: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}, \ a \mapsto \begin{cases} 0, & a = 0, 1\\ 3, & a = 2, 3, 4 \end{cases}$$

Then,  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}$  is a left-right  $(\alpha,\beta)$ -derivation. If we define a map

$$G: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}, \ a \longmapsto \begin{cases} 0, & a = 0, 1, 3, 4 \\ 2, & a = 2 \end{cases}$$

then G is a left generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation of A. But G is not a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation of A. Because G(20) = G(2) = 2, on the other hand  $\alpha(2)G(0) \wedge d(2)\beta(0) = 0$ .

EXAMPLE 3.2. Consider a d-algebra  $\mathcal{A} = \{0, a, b, c\}$  with the following Cayley table:

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

Define a map

$$d_{(\alpha,\beta)}: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}, \ x \mapsto \begin{cases} 0, & x = 0, b \\ a, & x = a \\ c, & x = c \end{cases}$$

and define two endomorphisms

$$\alpha: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}, \ x \mapsto \begin{cases} 0, & x = 0 \\ b, & x = a, c \\ a, & x = b \end{cases}$$

and

$$\beta: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}, \ x \mapsto \begin{cases} 0, & x = 0 \\ a, & x = a \\ b, & x = b, c \end{cases}$$

Then,  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}$  is a right-left  $(\alpha,\beta)$ -derivation. If we define a map

$$G: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}, \ x \longmapsto \begin{cases} 0, & x = 0, b \\ a, & x = a \\ c, & x = c \end{cases}$$

then G is a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation of  $\mathcal{A}$ . Here, G is not a left generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation of  $\mathcal{A}$ . G(ca) = G(c) = c, but  $G(c)\alpha(a) \land \beta(c)d(a) = 0$ .

DEFINITION 3.2. [1] Let G be a self map on a d-algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ . If G(0) = 0, then G is called regular.

EXAMPLE 3.3. The left generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation G and the right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation G in Example 3.1 and Example 3.2 are regular.

LEMMA 3.1. Assume that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a d-algebra and  $G : \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}$  is a left generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation. Hence, G is regular.

PROOF. For any  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ , we have

$$G(0) = G(0a) = G(0)\alpha(a) \wedge \beta(0)d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)$$
  
=  $G(0)\alpha(a) \wedge 0d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)$   
=  $G(0)\alpha(a) \wedge 0$   
=  $0(0G(0)\alpha(a)) = 0.$ 

LEMMA 3.2. Assume that  $\mathcal{A}$  is an edge d-algebra and  $G : \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}$  is a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation. Thus, G is regular.

PROOF. Indeed, using Remark 2.1 and aa = 0, we get

$$G(0) = G(0a) = \alpha(0)G(a) \wedge d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(0)\beta(a)$$
  
= 0G(a) \langle d\_{(\alpha,\beta)}(0)\beta(a) = 0 \langle d\_{(\alpha,\beta)}(0)\beta(a)  
= d\_{(\alpha,\beta)}(0)\beta(a)(d\_{(\alpha,\beta)}(0)\beta(a)0) = 0.

THEOREM 3.1. Assume that  $\mathcal{A}$  is an edge d-algebra.

(1) If G is a left generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation of A, then  $G(a) = G(a) \land \beta(a)$  for all  $a \in A$ .

(2) If G is a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation of A, then  $G(a) = \alpha(a) \wedge d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)$ , for all  $a \in A$ .

PROOF. (1) Let G be a left generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation of  $\mathcal{A}$ . Using Theorem 2.1(1), Lemma 2.2 and Remark 2.1, we have

$$G(a) = G(a0) = G(a)\alpha(0) \wedge \beta(a)d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(0)$$
  
=  $G(a)0 \wedge \beta(a)0 = G(a) \wedge \beta(a).$ 

(2) Let G be a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation of  $\mathcal{A}$ . Using Theorem 2.1(2), Lemma 2.2, Lemma 3.2 and Remark 2.1, we have

$$G(a) = G(a0) = \alpha(a)G(0) \wedge (d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)\beta(0))$$
  
=  $\alpha(a)0 \wedge d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)0 = \alpha(a) \wedge d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a).$ 

THEOREM 3.2. Let  $\alpha, \beta$  be two endomorphisms and G be a self map on a dalgebra  $\mathcal{A}$ . If  $G(a) = \alpha(a)$  for all  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ , then G is a left (or right) generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation on  $\mathcal{A}$ . PROOF. Assume G be a self map on a d-algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  such that  $G(a) = \alpha(a)$  for all  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ . Since a(ab) = b, we have

$$G(ab) = \alpha(ab) = \alpha(a)\alpha(b)$$
  
=  $G(a)\alpha(b)$   
=  $(\beta(a)d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(b))((\beta(a)d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(b))(G(a)\alpha(b)))$   
=  $G(a)\alpha(b) \land \beta(a)d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(b).$ 

Similarly, it can be shown that G is a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation on  $\mathcal{A}$ .

THEOREM 3.3. Assume that  $\alpha, \beta$  are two endomorphisms and G is a self map on a d-algebra A. If  $G(a) = \alpha(a)$ , then G(ab) = G(a)G(b) for all  $a, b \in A$ .

PROOF. Since a(ab) = b, using Theorem 3.2, we have

$$G(ab) = G(a)\alpha(b) \wedge \beta(a)d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(b)$$
  
=  $\alpha(a)\alpha(b) \wedge \beta(a)d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(b)$   
=  $\beta(a)d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(b)(\beta(a)d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(b)\alpha(a)\alpha(b))$   
=  $\alpha(a)\alpha(b) = G(a)G(b).$ 

If  $G = d_{(\alpha,\beta)}$  is taken in the two theorems above, the Theorem 3.4. in [1] is obtained as a result.

DEFINITION 3.3. [1] Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a d-algebra and  $G_1$ ,  $G_2$  be two self maps. We define  $G_1 \circ G_2 : \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}$  by  $(G_1 \circ G_2)(a) = G_1(G_2(a))$  for all  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ .

THEOREM 3.4. [1] Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a d-algebra and  $d_{1_{(\alpha,\beta)}}$ ,  $d_{2_{(\alpha,\beta)}}$  be two left-right  $(\alpha,\beta)$ -derivations on  $\mathcal{A}$  such that  $\alpha^2 = \alpha$ . Then,  $d_{1_{(\alpha,\beta)}} \circ d_{2_{(\alpha,\beta)}}$  is a left-right  $(\alpha,\beta)$ -derivation on  $\mathcal{A}$ .

THEOREM 3.5. Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a d-algebra and  $G_1, G_2$  be two left generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ derivations associated with  $d_{1(\alpha,\beta)}, d_{2(\alpha,\beta)}$  respectively on  $\mathcal{A}$  such that  $\alpha^2 = \alpha$ . Then,  $G_1 \circ G_2$  is a left generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation associated with  $d_{1(\alpha,\beta)} \circ d_{2(\alpha,\beta)}$  on  $\mathcal{A}$ .

PROOF. Let  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ . Since a(ab) = b, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (G_1 \circ G_2)(ab) &= G_1(G_2(ab)) \\ &= G_1(G_2(a)\alpha(b) \land \beta(a)d_{2_{(\alpha,\beta)}}(b)) \\ &= G_1(G_2(a)\alpha(b)) \\ &= G_1(G_2(a))\alpha^2(b) \land \beta(G_2(a))d_{1_{(\alpha,\beta)}}(\alpha(b)) \\ &= G_1(G_2(a))\alpha(b) \\ &= (\beta(a)(d_{1_{(\alpha,\beta)}} \circ d_{2_{(\alpha,\beta)}})(b))(\beta(a)(d_{1_{(\alpha,\beta)}} \circ d_{2_{(\alpha,\beta)}})(b)(G_1 \circ G_2)(a)\alpha(b)) \\ &= (G_1 \circ G_2)(a)\alpha(b) \land \beta(a)(d_{1_{(\alpha,\beta)}} \circ d_{2_{(\alpha,\beta)}})(b). \end{aligned}$$

DEFINITION 3.4. [1] Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a d-algebra. Define a binary relation  $\leq$  on  $\mathcal{A}$  by  $a \leq b$  iff ab = 0. Thus,  $(\mathcal{A}, \leq)$  is a partially ordered set.

LEMMA 3.3. Suppose that  $\mathcal{A}$  is an edge d-algebra with partial order  $\leq$ . If G is a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation on  $\mathcal{A}$ , then  $G(a) \leq \alpha(a)$  for all  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ .

PROOF. Let G be a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation on  $\mathcal{A}$ . It follows from Theorem 3.1 (2) that

$$G(a) = \alpha(a) \wedge d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)$$
  
=  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)(d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)\alpha(a))$ 

and so

$$G(a)\alpha(a) = (d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)(d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)\alpha(a)))\alpha(a).$$
  
Since  $(a(ab))b = 0$ , we have  $G(a)\alpha(a) = 0$  and so  $G(a) \leq \alpha(a)$ .

LEMMA 3.4. Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a d-algebra with partial order  $\leq$  and let G be a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation on  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then,  $G(ab) \leq \alpha(a)G(b)$  for all  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ .

PROOF. We have

$$\begin{aligned} G(ab) &= \alpha(a)G(b) \wedge d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)\beta(b) \\ &= (d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)\beta(b))((d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)\beta(b))(\alpha(a)G(b))). \end{aligned}$$

Since (a(ab))b = 0, we get

$$G(ab)(\alpha(a)G(b)) = (d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)\beta(b))((d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(a)\beta(b))(\alpha(a)G(b)))(\alpha(a)G(b))$$
  
= 0

and this completes the proof.

LEMMA 3.5. Assume that  $\mathcal{A}$  is an edge d-algebra with partial order  $\leq$  and G is a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation on  $\mathcal{A}$ .

(1) For all  $a \in A$ ,  $G(G(a)) \leq \alpha(G(a))$ .

(2) If  $\alpha(a) = 0$  for all  $a \in A$ , then

$$G^{-1}(0) = \{ a \in \mathcal{A} | G(a) = 0 \}$$

is a d-subalgebra of A.

PROOF. (1) Assume that G is a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation on  $\mathcal{A}$ . By Theorem 3.1 (2), we have

$$G(G(a)) = \alpha(G(a)) \wedge d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(G(a))$$
  
=  $d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(G(a))(d_{(\alpha,\beta)}(G(a))\alpha(G(a))).$ 

Multiplying both sides from the right by  $\alpha(G(a))$ , we get  $G(G(a))\alpha(G(a)) = 0$  and so we have required result.

(2) By Lemma 3.2, we have G is a regular. Hence,  $G^{-1}(0) \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $a, b \in G^{-1}(0)$ . By Lemma 3.4, we have  $G(ab) \leq \alpha(a)G(b) = 0$ , since  $\alpha(a) = 0 = G(b)$ . Hence, G(ab) = 0 and so  $ab \in G^{-1}(0)$ . Therefore,  $G^{-1}(0)$  is a d-subalgebra of A.

THEOREM 3.6. Assume that  $\mathcal{A}$  is an edge d-algebra with partial order  $\leq$  and G is a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation on  $\mathcal{A}$  such that  $\alpha^2 = \alpha$ . Then,

$$G^{n}(G^{n-1}(...(G^{2}(G(a))))...) \leq \alpha(a)$$

for all  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ .

PROOF. Let's prove the theorem using the mathematical induction method. Let n = 1. By Lemma 3.3, we have  $G(a) \leq \alpha(a)$ . Assume that

$$G^{n}(G^{n-1}(...(G^{2}(G(a))))...) \leq \alpha(a)$$

for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $\nabla_n = G^n(G^{n-1}(...(G^2(G(a))))...)$ , that is  $\nabla_n \leq \alpha(a)$ . Hence,

$$G^{n+1}(\nabla_n) = G^{n+1}(\nabla_n 0)$$
  
=  $\alpha(\nabla_n)G^{n+1}(0) \wedge d^{n+1}_{(\alpha,\beta)}(\nabla_n)\beta(0)$   
=  $\alpha(\nabla_n) \wedge d^{n+1}_{(\alpha,\beta)}(\nabla_n)$   
=  $d^{n+1}_{(\alpha,\beta)}(\nabla_n)(d^{n+1}_{(\alpha,\beta)}(\nabla_n)\alpha(\nabla_n))$ 

which implies that

$$G^{n+1}(\nabla_n)\alpha(\nabla_n) = ((d^{n+1}_{(\alpha,\beta)}(\nabla_n)(d^{n+1}_{(\alpha,\beta)}(\nabla_n)\alpha(\nabla_n))\alpha(\nabla_n) = 0,$$

since (a(ab))b = 0. Thus,  $G^{n+1}(\nabla_n) \leq \alpha(\nabla_n) \leq \alpha(a)$ . This completes the proof.

DEFINITION 3.5. Let G be a generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation of a d-algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ . We say that a d-ideal I of  $\mathcal{A}$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal (resp.  $\beta$ -ideal) if  $\alpha(I) \subseteq I$  (resp.  $\beta(I) \subseteq I$ ).

DEFINITION 3.6. Let G be a generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation of a d-algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ . We say that a d-ideal I of  $\mathcal{A}$  is G-invariant if  $G(I) \subseteq I$ .

EXAMPLE 3.4. Let G be a left generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation on  $\mathcal{A}$  which described in Example 3.1 and  $I = \{0, 1\}$ . Then, I is both an  $\alpha$ -ideal and  $\beta$ -ideal. Moreover, it is a G-invariant of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

EXAMPLE 3.5. Let G be a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation on  $\mathcal{A}$  which described in Example 3.2 and  $I = \{0, b\}$ . It is clear that I is a  $\beta$ -ideal, but I is not an  $\alpha$ -ideal. Also, I is a G-invariant of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

THEOREM 3.7. Suppose that  $\mathcal{A}$  is an edge d-algebra, I is a d-ideal of  $\mathcal{A}$  and G is a right generalized  $(\alpha, \beta)$ -derivation of  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then, G is regular iff every  $\alpha$ -ideal of A is G-invariant.

PROOF. Suppose that I is an  $\alpha$ -ideal of  $\mathcal{A}$  and G is regular. Let  $b \in G(I)$ . Then, we have b = G(a) for some  $a \in I$ . By Lemma 3.3, we have  $G(a) \leq \alpha(a)$ , that is  $G(a)\alpha(a) = 0 \in I$ . Hence,  $\alpha(a) \in \alpha(I) \subseteq I$  which implies that  $b \in I$ . Thus,  $G(I) \subseteq I$  which implies that I is a G-invariant. Now, assume that every  $\alpha$ -ideal of  $\mathcal{A}$  is G-invariant. The ideal  $\{0\}$  is both  $\alpha$ -ideal and G-invariant. Thus, we have  $G(0) \subseteq \{0\}$  and so G(0) = 0. It implies that G is regular.

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Aslihan Şenbakar, Department of Mathematics, Erzurum Technical University, Erzurum, Turkey

Email address: senbakar90gmail.com

DAMLA YILMAZ, DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, ERZURUM TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY, ERZURUM, TURKEY

Email address: damla.yilmaz@erzurum.edu.tr