

# $\alpha$ -Ideals and Prime Ideals in Almost Distributive Lattices

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## Abstract

The sufficient conditions for a prime ideal in  $R$  to become an  $\alpha$ -ideal are studied. The concept of weakly disjunctive ADL is introduced and characterized in terms of its  $\alpha$ -ideals and prime ideals. A conditional characterization theorem of a  $\star$ -ADL is proved.

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## 1 Introduction

In [7], Swamy. U. M and Rao. G. C introduced the concept of an Almost Distributive Lattice(ADL) while giving an algebraic characterization for sheaves of sets over locally Boolean spaces. Later in the paper [8], Swamy. U. M., Rao. G. C. and Nanaji Rao. G introduced the concept of a  $\star$ -ADL and characterized  $\star$ -ADL by means of its dense elements in [9]. In the paper [4], the concept of  $\alpha$ -ideals in an ADL is introduced, analogous to that in a distributive lattice given in [2] and proved that the set  $\mathcal{I}_\alpha(R)$  of all  $\alpha$ -ideals in an ADL  $R$  with  $0$  can be made into a complete distributive lattice. In this paper, we observe that a prime ideal in an ADL need not be an  $\alpha$ -ideal in general. We give some sufficient conditions for a prime ideal of  $R$  to become an  $\alpha$ -ideal. We also

introduce the concept of a weakly disjunctive ADL and prove the necessary and sufficient conditions for a prime ideal of  $R$  to become an  $\alpha$ -ideal, as a characterization of a weakly disjunctive ADL. W. H. Cornish[2], observed that every annihilator ideal in a distributive lattice is an  $\alpha$ -ideal, whose converse need not be true. Finally, we prove some equivalent conditions for every  $\alpha$ -ideal in an ADL  $R$  to become an annihilator ideal which lead to a conditional characterization of a  $\star$ -ADL.

## 2 Preliminary Notes

First we give the necessary definitions and results taken mostly from [6] and [7] which will be used in the later text.

**Definition 2.1:**[7] *An algebra  $(R, \vee, \wedge, 0)$  of type  $(2, 2, 0)$  is called an Almost Distributive Lattice (ADL) with 0 if it satisfies the following axioms:*

1.  $(a \vee b) \wedge c = (a \wedge c) \vee (b \wedge c)$
2.  $a \wedge (b \vee c) = (a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge c)$
3.  $(a \vee b) \wedge b = b$
4.  $(a \vee b) \wedge a = a$
5.  $a \vee (a \wedge b) = a$
6.  $0 \wedge a = 0$  for any  $a, b, c \in R$

Every non-empty set  $X$  can be regarded as an ADL as follows. Let  $x_0 \in X$ . Define two binary operations  $\vee, \wedge$  on  $X$  by

$$x \vee y = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \neq x_0 \\ y & \text{if } x = x_0 \end{cases} \quad x \wedge y = \begin{cases} y & \text{if } x \neq x_0 \\ x_0 & \text{if } x = x_0 \end{cases}$$

Then  $(X, \vee, \wedge, x_0)$  is an ADL which is called a discrete ADL with zero  $x_0$ .

We define a binary relation on  $R$  by  $a \leq b$  if and only if  $a = a \wedge b$  ( or equivalently,  $a \vee b = b$  ), then  $\leq$  is a partial ordering on  $R$ . Throughout this paper  $R$  stands for an ADL  $(R, \vee, \wedge, 0)$  with zero.

**Theorem 2.2:**[7] *For any  $a, b, c \in R$ , we have the following*

1.  $a \vee b = a \Leftrightarrow a \wedge b = b$
2.  $a \vee b = b \Leftrightarrow a \wedge b = a$
3.  $a \wedge b = b \wedge a$  whenever  $a \leq b$
4.  $\wedge$  is associative in  $R$ .
5.  $a \wedge b \wedge c = b \wedge a \wedge c$
6.  $(a \vee b) \wedge c = (b \vee a) \wedge c$
7.  $a \wedge b = 0 \Leftrightarrow b \wedge a = 0$
8.  $a \vee b = b \vee a$  whenever  $a \wedge b = 0$

9.  $a \vee (b \wedge c) = (a \vee b) \wedge (a \vee c)$
10.  $a \wedge (a \vee b) = a, (a \wedge b) \vee b = b, \text{ and } a \vee (b \wedge a) = a$
11.  $a \leq a \vee b \text{ and } a \wedge b \leq b$
12.  $a \wedge a = a \text{ and } a \vee a = a$
13.  $0 \vee a = a \text{ and } a \wedge 0 = 0$
14. *If  $a \leq c$  and  $b \leq c$  then  $a \wedge b = b \wedge a$  and  $a \vee b = b \vee a$*
15.  $a \vee b = a \vee b \vee a.$

A non-empty subset  $I$  of  $R$  is called an ideal(filter)of  $R$  if  $a \vee b \in I (a \wedge b \in I)$  and  $a \wedge x \in I (a \vee x \in I)$  whenever  $a, b \in I$  and  $x \in R$ . If  $I$  is an ideal of  $R$  and  $a, b \in R$ , then  $a \wedge b \in I \Leftrightarrow b \wedge a \in I$ . The set  $\mathcal{I}(R)$  of all ideals of  $R$  is a complete distributive lattice with least element  $\{0\}$  and the greatest element  $R$  under set inclusion in which, for any  $I, J \in \mathcal{I}(R)$ ,  $I \cap J$  is the infimum of  $I, J$  and the supremum is given by  $I \vee J = \{i \vee j \mid i \in I, j \in J\}$ .  $\mathcal{I}(R)$  is called semi-complemented if for every  $R \neq I \in \mathcal{I}(R)$ , there exists an ideal  $J \neq (0)$  such that  $I \cap J = (0)$ . For any  $a \in R$ ,  $(a] = \{a \wedge x \mid x \in R\}$  is the principal ideal generated by  $a$ . Similarly,  $[a) = \{x \vee a \mid x \in R\}$  is the principal filter generated by  $a$ . The set  $\mathcal{PI}(R)$  of all principal ideals of  $R$  is a sublattice of  $\mathcal{I}(R)$ . A proper ideal  $P$  of  $R$  is said to be prime if for any  $x, y \in R$ ,  $x \wedge y \in P \Rightarrow$  either  $x \in P$  or  $y \in P$ . It is clear that a subset  $P$  of  $R$  is a prime ideal if and only if  $R - P$  is a prime filter. A prime ideal  $P$  of  $R$  is called minimal if there exists no prime ideal  $Q$  of  $R$  such that  $Q \subset P$ .

**Theorem 2.4:**[7] *If  $I$  is an ideal and  $F$  a filter in an ADL  $R$  such that  $I \cap F = \emptyset$ , then there exists a prime ideal  $P$  of  $R$  such that  $I \subseteq P$  and  $P \cap F = \emptyset$ .*

**Theorem 2.5:**[5] *Let  $P$  be a prime ideal of  $R$  with  $0$ . Then  $P$  is minimal if and only if for each  $x \in P$  there exists  $y \notin P$  such that  $x \wedge y = 0$ .*

For any  $A \subseteq R$ ,  $A^* = \{x \in R \mid a \wedge x = 0 \text{ for all } a \in A\}$  is an ideal of  $R$ . We write  $(a]^*$  for  $\{a\}^*$  and this is called an annulet in  $R$ . Clearly  $(0]^* = R$  and  $R^* = (0)$ . Now we recall some more definitions and results from [3], [4] and [8].

**Lemma 2.6:**[3] *For any non-empty subsets  $I, J$  of  $R$ , we have*

- 1).  $I \subseteq J \Rightarrow J^* \subseteq I^*$ .
- 2).  $I \subseteq I^{**}$
- 3).  $I^{***} = I^*$
- 4).  $I \cap J = (0) \Leftrightarrow I \subseteq J^*$
- 5).  $(I \vee J)^* = I^* \cap J^*$ .

An ideal  $I$  of  $R$  is called an annihilator ideal if  $I = I^{**}$  or equivalently,  $I = S^*$  for some non-empty subset  $S$  of  $R$ . The set of  $\mathcal{A}(R)$  of all annihilator

ideals of  $R$  forms a complete Boolean algebra with bounds  $\{0\}, R$  and the complement of any  $I \in \mathcal{A}(R)$  is  $I^*$  with respect to the operations  $\wedge$  and  $\underline{\vee}$  given by  $I \wedge J = I \cap J$  and  $I \underline{\vee} J = (I^* \cap J^*)^*$ .

An ADL  $R$  with 0 is called disjunctive iff for all  $a, b \in R$ ,  $(a]^* = (b]^*$  implies that  $a = b$ . An element  $a \in R$  is called dense if  $(a]^* = (0]$  and the set all dense elements of  $R$  is denoted by  $D$ . Then  $D$  is a filter, whenever  $D \neq \emptyset$ . An ADL  $R$  with 0 is called a  $\star$ -ADL [8], if to each  $x \in R$ ,  $(x]^{**} = (x']^*$  for some  $x' \in R$ . An ADL  $R$  with 0 is a  $\star$ -ADL iff to each  $x \in R$ , there exists  $y \in R$  such that  $x \wedge y = 0$  and  $x \vee y \in D$ . Every  $\star$ -ADL possesses a dense element.

An ideal  $I$  of an ADL  $R$  is called an  $\alpha$ -ideal [4] if  $(x]^{**} \subseteq I$ , for any  $x \in I$ . For any ideal  $I$  of  $R$ , the set  $I^e = \{x \in R \mid (a]^* \subseteq (x]^* \text{ for some } a \in I\}$  is the smallest  $\alpha$ -ideal of  $R$  such that  $I \subseteq I^e$ .

**Lemma 2.7:**[4] *Let  $R$  be an ADL with 0. Then for any ideals  $I, J$  of  $R$ , we have the following :*

- (a).  $I \subseteq J \Rightarrow I^e \subseteq J^e$
- (b).  $(I \cap J)^e = I^e \cap J^e$
- (c).  $(I^e)^e = I^e$ .

The set  $I_\alpha(R)$  of all  $\alpha$ -ideals of  $R$  forms a complete distributive lattice with respect to the operations  $\wedge$  and  $\tilde{\vee}$  given by  $I \wedge J = I \cap J$  and  $I \tilde{\vee} J = (I \vee J)^e$ .

**Theorem 2.8:**[4] *Let  $R$  be an ADL with 0. Then for any ideal  $I$  of  $R$ ,  $I$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal if and only if for  $x, y \in R$ ,  $(x]^* = (y]^*$  and  $x \in I$  imply that  $y \in I$ .*

### 3 $\alpha$ -ideals and Prime ideals

In this section we study the properties of prime ideals and  $\alpha$ -ideals in an ADL  $R$ . We derive some conditions for prime ideals to become  $\alpha$ -ideals. Finally, we characterize weakly disjunctive ADL and  $\star$ -ADL in terms of  $\alpha$ -ideals.

We start this section with the following theorem.

**Theorem 3.1:** *If  $I$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal and  $F$  a filter of an ADL  $R$  with 0 such that  $I \cap F = \emptyset$ , then there exists an  $\alpha$ -ideal  $P$  such that  $I \subseteq P$  and  $P \cap F = \emptyset$ . Moreover  $P$  is prime.*

**Proof:** Let  $I$  be an  $\alpha$ -ideal and  $F$  a filter of  $R$  such that  $I \cap F = \emptyset$ . Take  $\Sigma = \{J \mid J \text{ is an } \alpha\text{-ideal, } I \subseteq J \text{ and } J \cap F = \emptyset\}$ . Then  $\Sigma$  satisfies the hypothesis of zorn's lemma. Let  $P$  be a maximal element of  $\Sigma$ . Choose  $a, b \in R$  such that  $a \notin P$  and  $b \notin P$ . Then  $P \subset P \vee (a] \subseteq \{P \vee (a]\}^e$  and  $P \subset P \vee (b] \subseteq \{P \vee (b]\}^e$ . Hence  $\{P \vee (a]\}^e$  and  $\{P \vee (b]\}^e$  are not in  $\Sigma$ . Thus

$\{P \vee (a)\}^e \cap F \neq \emptyset$  and  $\{P \vee (b)\}^e \cap F \neq \emptyset$ . So choose  $x \in \{P \vee (a)\}^e \cap F$  and  $y \in \{P \vee (b)\}^e \cap F$ . Now  $x \wedge y \in \{P \vee (a)\}^e \cap \{P \vee (b)\}^e = \{P \vee (a \wedge b)\}^e$ . If  $a \wedge b \in P$ , then  $x \wedge y \in P^e = P$ , because of  $P$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal. Which is a contradiction, because of  $x \wedge y \in F$ . Thus  $P$  is prime.  $\square$

**Definition 3.2:** Let  $R$  be an ADL with  $0$ . An ideal  $I$  of  $R$  is called dense if  $I^* = (0)$ . Otherwise,  $I$  is called a non-dense ideal.

Let us denote the set of all dense ideals of  $R$  by  $\mathcal{DI}(R)$ .

We now prove some sufficient conditions for a prime ideal of an ADL  $R$  to become an  $\alpha$ -ideal. First we note that a prime ideal in general, need not be an  $\alpha$ -ideal. For, consider the following example.

**Example 3.3:** Let  $R = \{0, a, b, c\}$  and define  $\vee$  and  $\wedge$  on  $R$  as follows:

$\vee$	0	a	b	c	$\wedge$	0	a	b	c
0	0	a	b	c	0	0	0	0	0
a	a	a	a	a	a	0	a	b	c
b	b	b	b	b	b	0	a	b	c
c	c	a	b	c	c	0	c	c	c

Then clearly  $(R, \vee, \wedge, 0)$  is an ADL with  $0$ . Consider the ideal  $P = \{0, c\}$ .

Now, we make the following observations.

First,  $P$  is a prime ideal of  $R$  and  $P^* = (0)$ . So  $P$  is a dense prime ideal.

Second,  $P$  is not a minimal prime ideal, because  $\{0\}$  is also a prime ideal,

and third,  $R$  is a  $\star$ -ADL and  $c$  is a dense element in  $P$ .

But  $P$  is not an  $\alpha$ -ideal in  $R$ , because  $(c]** = (0]^* = R$ .

However, the following theorem explains the reasons for why the prime ideal  $P$  in the above example is not an  $\alpha$ -ideal.

**Theorem 3.4:** Let  $R$  be an ADL with  $0$  and  $D$  be the set of all dense elements of  $R$ . Then we have

- (a). Every non-dense prime ideal of  $R$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal
- (b). Every minimal prime ideal of  $R$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal
- (c). If  $R$  is a  $\star$ -ADL, then every prime ideal  $P$  of  $R$  with  $P \cap D = \emptyset$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal.

**Proof:** (a). Let  $P$  be a non-dense prime ideal of  $R$ . So, there exists an element  $0 \neq x \in R$  such that  $x \in P^*$ . Hence  $P \subseteq P^{**} \subseteq (x]^*$ . Now, let  $a \in (x]^*$ . Then  $a \wedge x = 0 \in P$ . Since  $x \in P^*$  and  $x \neq 0$ , we get that  $a \in P$ . Hence  $(x]^* \subseteq P$ . Thus  $P = (x]^*$ . Now, If  $a \in P = (x]^*$ , then clearly  $(a]** \subseteq (x]^{***} = (x]^* = P$ . Therefore  $P$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal of  $R$ .

(b). Let  $P$  be a minimal prime ideal of  $R$ . Let  $x, y \in R$  such that  $(x]^* = (y]^*$  and  $x \in P$ . Suppose  $y \notin P$ . Then  $(y]^* \subseteq P$ . Hence  $(x]^* \subseteq P$  which implies that  $x \notin P$ . Which is a contradiction. Hence  $y \in P$ . Therefore  $P$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal.  
(c). Let  $R$  be a  $\star$ -ADL and  $P$  a prime ideal of  $R$  such that  $P \cap D = \emptyset$ . Now, let  $x \in P$ . Since  $R$  is a  $\star$ -ADL, there exists  $y \in R$  such that  $x \wedge y = 0$  and  $x \vee y \in D$ . Since  $P \cap D = \emptyset$ , we get  $x \vee y \notin P$ . So  $x \notin P$  and  $y \notin P$ . That is, to each  $x \in P$ , there exists  $y \notin P$  such that  $x \wedge y = 0$ . Hence  $P$  is a minimal prime ideal. Therefore by (b),  $P$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal of  $R$ .  $\square$

We now introduce the concept of weakly disjunctive ADL in the following.

**Definition 3.5:** An ADL  $R$  with  $0$  is called a weakly disjunctive ADL if and only if for all  $x, y \in R$ ,  $(x]^* = (y]^*$  implies that  $(x] = (y]$ .

**Example 3.6:** Let  $A = \{0, a\}$  and  $B = \{0, b_1, b_2\}$  be two discrete ADLs. Write  $R = A \times B = \{(0, 0), (0, b_1), (0, b_2), (a, 0), (a, b_1), (a, b_2)\}$ . Then  $(R, \vee, \wedge, 0')$  is an ADL where  $0' = (0, 0)$ , under point-wise operations.

We have  $((0, b_1])^* = ((0, b_2])^* = \{(0, 0), (a, 0)\}$  and

$((0, b_1]) = ((0, b_2]) = \{(0, 0), (0, b_1), (0, b_2)\}$ .

Also  $((a, b_1])^* = ((a, b_2])^* = \{(0, 0)\}$  and  $((a, b_1]) = ((a, b_2]) = R$ .

Therefore  $R$  is a weakly disjunctive ADL.

It can be easily observed that every disjunctive ADL is weakly disjunctive. But the converse is not true. For, the ADL  $R$  in the above example is weakly disjunctive but not a disjunctive ADL.

We now characterize a weakly disjunctive ADL in terms of its  $\alpha$ -ideals and prime ideals.

**Theorem 3.7:** Let  $R$  be an ADL with  $0$ . Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- (a).  $R$  is weakly disjunctive.
- (b). Each ideal is an  $\alpha$ -ideal.
- (c). Each prime ideal is an  $\alpha$ -ideal.

**Proof:** (a)  $\Rightarrow$  (b): Assume that  $R$  is weakly disjunctive. Let  $I$  be an ideal of  $R$ . Suppose  $x, y \in R$  such that  $(x]^* = (y]^*$ . Hence we get that  $(x] = (y]$ . Suppose  $x \in I$ . Then  $y \in (y] = (x] \subseteq I$ . Therefore  $I$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal.

(b)  $\Rightarrow$  (c): It is trivial.

(c)  $\Rightarrow$  (a): Assume that every prime ideal of  $R$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal.

Let  $x, y \in R$  such that  $(x] \neq (y]$ . Without loss of generality assume that  $(x] \not\subseteq (y]$ . Let  $\Sigma = \{I \in I(R) \mid x \wedge y \in I \text{ and } x \notin I\}$ . Clearly  $(x \wedge y] \in \Sigma$ . Let  $P$  be a maximal element of  $\Sigma$ . Let  $a, b \in R$  with  $a \notin P$  and  $b \notin P$ . Therefore

by the maximality of  $P$ ,  $P \vee (a]$  and  $P \vee (b]$  are not in  $\Sigma$ . Hence  $x \in P \vee (a]$  and  $x \in P \vee (b]$ . So  $x \in \{P \vee (a)\} \cap \{P \vee (b)\} = P \vee (a \wedge b]$ . If  $a \wedge b \in P$ , then  $x \in P \vee (a \wedge b] = P$ . Which is a contradiction. So  $a \wedge b \notin P$ . Hence  $P$  is a prime ideal. Thus by the hypothesis,  $P$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal. Now  $x \wedge y \in P$  implies that  $y \in P$  because of  $x \notin P$ . Now suppose  $(x]^* = (y]^*$ . Since  $y \in P$  and  $P$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal, we get that  $x \in P$ . Which is a contradiction. Hence  $(x]^* \neq (y]^*$ . Thus  $R$  is weakly disjunctive.  $\square$

We now define relative annihilators in an ADL  $R$ , which lead to another important characterization of  $\alpha$ -ideals.

**Definition 3.8:** Let  $A$  be a non-empty subset and  $J$  an ideal of  $R$ . Then define the annihilator of  $A$  relative to  $J$  as follows

$$\langle A, J \rangle = \{x \in R/x \wedge a \in J, \text{ for all } a \in A\}.$$

If  $J = \{0\}$ , then we get that  $\langle A, \{0\} \rangle = A^*$ .

**Theorem 3.9:** Let  $R$  be an ADL with  $0$ . If  $J$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal of  $R$ , so is  $\langle A, J \rangle$  for any subset  $A$  of  $R$ .

**Proof:** Let  $J$  be an  $\alpha$ -ideal of  $R$ . We have clearly  $\langle A, J \rangle$  is an ideal of  $R$ . Now, let  $x, y \in R$  such that  $(x]^* = (y]^*$  and  $x \in \langle A, J \rangle$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } x \in \langle A, J \rangle &\Rightarrow x \wedge a \in J \quad \text{for all } a \in A \\ &\Rightarrow (x]^{**} \cap (a]^{**} = (x \wedge a]^{**} \subseteq J \quad \text{for all } a \in A \\ &\Rightarrow (y]^{**} \cap (a]^{**} \subseteq J \quad \text{for all } a \in A \\ &\Rightarrow y \wedge a \in (y \wedge a]^{**} \subseteq J \quad \text{for all } a \in A \\ &\Rightarrow y \in \langle A, J \rangle \quad \text{for all } a \in A \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $\langle A, J \rangle$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal of  $R$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 3.10:** Every annihilator ideal is an  $\alpha$ -ideal.

The converse of the above corollary is not true. That is every  $\alpha$ -ideal of  $R$  need not be an annihilator ideal. For example, a proper dense  $\alpha$ -ideal is not an annihilator ideal. However, we now prove in the following theorem, some equivalent conditions for each  $\alpha$ -ideal to be an annihilator ideal. Recall that  $D$  is the set of all dense elements of  $R$  and  $\mathcal{DI}(R)$  is the set of all dense ideals of  $R$ .

**Theorem 3.11:** Let  $R$  be an ADL with  $0$  in which  $D \neq \emptyset$ . Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- (1).  $R$  is  $\star$ -ADL and  $I^* \neq (0]$  for each proper  $\alpha$ -ideal  $I$  of  $R$
- (2).  $I \cap D \neq \emptyset$  for each  $I \in \mathcal{DI}(R)$
- (3). Every  $\alpha$ -ideal is an annihilator ideal

- (4).  $\mathcal{I}_\alpha(R)$  is semicomplemented  
 (5).  $\mathcal{I}_\alpha(R)$  has a unique dense element.

**Proof:** (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2): Assume the condition (1). Let  $I \in \mathcal{DI}(R)$ . Suppose  $I \cap D = \emptyset$ . Then by theorem 2.4, there exists a prime ideal  $P$  such that  $I \subseteq P$  and  $P \cap D = \emptyset$ . Suppose  $x, y \in R$  such that  $(x]^* = (y]^*$ . Assume  $x \in P$ . Since  $R$  is  $\star$ -ADL, there exists  $x' \in R$  such that  $x \wedge x' = 0$  and  $x \vee x' \in D$ . Hence  $x' \in (x]^* = (y]^*$  and  $x \vee x' \notin P$ . Since  $x \in P$ , we get  $x' \notin P$ . Hence  $x' \wedge y = 0 \in P$  and  $x' \notin P$ . So  $y$  must be in  $P$ . Thus  $P$  is a proper  $\alpha$ -ideal. Therefore by (1),  $P^* \neq (0]$ . But  $I \subseteq P$  implies that  $P^* \subseteq I^* = (0]$ . Which is a contradiction. Therefore  $I \cap D \neq \emptyset$ , for each  $I \in \mathcal{DI}(R)$ .

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3): Assume the condition (2). Let  $I$  be an  $\alpha$ -ideal of  $R$ . Always we have  $I \subseteq I^{**}$ . Let  $x \in I^{**}$ . Since  $I \vee I^*$  is a dense ideal, by (2) it has a dense element, say  $d$ . Hence  $d = r \vee s$  where  $r \in I$  and  $s \in I^*$ . Thus  $(r]^* \cap (s]^* = (r \vee s]^* = (d]^* = (0]$ . Therefore  $(s]^* \subseteq (r]^{**}$ .

Now  $x \in I^{**}$  and  $s \in I^*$  imply that  $x \wedge s = 0$ . Hence  $x \in (s]^* \subseteq (r]^{**} \subseteq I$ , because of  $r \in I$  and  $I$  is an  $\alpha$ -ideal. Hence  $I^{**} \subseteq I$ . Therefore  $I = I^{**}$ .

(3)  $\Rightarrow$  (4): Assume the condition (3). Let  $I \in \mathcal{I}_\alpha(R)$ . Then by (3),  $I$  is an annihilator ideal of  $R$ . Since the set of all annihilator ideals forms a complete Boolean algebra, it follows that  $\mathcal{I}_\alpha(R)$  is semicomplemented.

(4)  $\Rightarrow$  (5): Assume that  $\mathcal{I}_\alpha(R)$  is semicomplemented. Clearly  $R \in \mathcal{I}_\alpha(R)$  and  $R$  is dense in  $\mathcal{I}_\alpha(R)$ . Suppose  $I (\neq R)$  is a dense element in  $\mathcal{I}_\alpha(R)$ . By (4), there exists an  $\alpha$ -ideal  $J \neq (0]$  such that  $I \cap J = (0]$ . Hence  $J \subseteq I^* = (0]$  implies that  $J = (0]$ . Which is a contradiction. Thus  $\mathcal{I}_\alpha(R)$  has a unique dense element, precisely  $R$ .

(5)  $\Rightarrow$  (1): Assume that  $\mathcal{I}_\alpha(R)$  has a unique dense element, precisely  $R$ .

It is clear that every proper  $\alpha$ -ideal is nondense. So it is enough to prove that  $R$  is a  $\star$ -ADL. Let  $x \in R$ . Clearly  $\{(x]^* \vee (x]^{**}\}^e \in \mathcal{I}_\alpha(R)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } (x]^*, (x]^{**} \subseteq \{(x]^* \vee (x]^{**}\}^e &\Rightarrow \{ \{(x]^* \vee (x]^{**}\}^e \}^* \subseteq (x]^{**}, (x]^* \\ &\Rightarrow \{ \{(x]^* \vee (x]^{**}\}^e \}^* \subseteq (x]^* \cap (x]^{**} = (0] \end{aligned}$$

That is  $\{(x]^* \vee (x]^{**}\}^e$  is a dense element in  $\mathcal{I}_\alpha(R)$ . Hence by (5), we get that  $\{(x]^* \vee (x]^{**}\}^e = R$ . Therefore  $\{(x]^* \vee (x]^{**}\}^e$  has a dense element, say  $d$ .

$$\begin{aligned} &\Rightarrow (r \vee s]^* \subseteq (d]^* = (0] \quad \text{for some } r \in (x]^* \text{ and } s \in (x]^{**} \\ &\Rightarrow (r]^* \cap (s]^* = (r \vee s]^* \subseteq (0] \\ &\Rightarrow (r]^* \subseteq (s]^{**} \subseteq (x]^{**}, \text{ since } s \in (x]^{**} \end{aligned}$$

Again, since  $r \in (x]^*$ , we get that  $(x]^{**} \subseteq (r]^*$ .

Hence  $(x]^{**} = (r]^*$ . Therefore  $R$  is a  $\star$ -ADL. □

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