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## $L$-MODULES


#### Abstract

In this paper, considering $L$-algebras, which include a significant number of other algebraic structures, we present a definition of modules on $L$-algebras ( $L$ modules). Then we provide some examples and obtain some results on $L$-modules. Also, we present definitions of prime ideals of $L$-algebras and L-submodules (prime L-submodules) of $L$-modules, and investigate the relationship between them. Finally, by proving a number of theorems, we provide some conditions for having prime $L$-submodules.


Keywords: $L$-algebra, $L$-module, $L$-submodule, prime $L$-submodule.
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## 1. Introduction

In the study of set-theoretical solutions of the Yang-Baxter equation, the cycloid equation, $(x \cdot y) \cdot(x \cdot z)=(y \cdot x) \cdot(y \cdot z)$, plays a fundamental role, see for example $[6,15]$. Finding a solution to the Young-Baxter equation is a research topic for many authors. Rump's research in order to find a solution for that equation led to the introduction of L-algebras [16]. L-algebras are related to algebraic logic and quantum structures. They are closely related to non-classical logical algebras and quantum Yang-Baxter equation solutions. It was shown that many non-classical logical algebras can be unified into L-algebras. For instance, the pseudo MV-algebras can be characterized as semiregular L-algebras with negation [21]; Orthomodular

[^0]lattices can be characterized as L-algebras [20], and every lattice-ordered effect algebra gives rise to an L-algebra [19]. Also, Rump showed that an L-algebra can be represented as an interval in a lattice ordered group if and only if it is semiregular with an smallest element and bijective negation [18]. In short, there are effective relationships between L-algebras and other algebraic structures. For example, we can consider them as Hilbert algebras, locales, hoops, pseudo $M V$-algebras, etc. Other recent results on the structure of the category of $L$-algebras can be found in [8].
Discussions about modular structures on algebraic structures have long been of interest to scientists. For instance, the notion of BCK-module was introduced in 1994 as an action of a BCK-algebra over a commutative group [2], and it was extended in 2014 [3]; The notion of MV-modules was introduced as an action of a PMV-algebra over an MV-algebra in 2003 [1]; Also, the notion of $M V$-semimodules was introduced in 2013 [14], and the new definition of $M V$-semimodules was presented in 2021 [13]. As mentioned, there are effective connections between most algebraic structures. These connections show a relationship between the modular structures associated with these algebras. $L$ - Algebras under conditions can be equivalent to other algebras such as $B C K$-algebras, $M V$-algebras, etc. Considering that we have spent a relatively large amount of time studying modular structures (for instance, see $[3,4,9,10,11,12,13]$ ), in order to complete and consolidate our study in this field, we have decided to define $L$-modules as an action of an $L$-algebra over an Abelian group. We hope that this definition can help us to clarify the structure of $L$-algebras.

## 2. Preliminaries

In this section, we review the material that we will use in the paper.
DEfinition 2.1 ([7]). An L-algebra is an algebra $(L ; \rightarrow, 1)$ of type $(2,0)$ satisfying
(L1) $x \rightarrow x=x \rightarrow 1=1,1 \rightarrow x=x$;
(L2) $(x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow(x \rightarrow z)=(y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow(y \rightarrow z)$;
(L3) $x \rightarrow y=y \rightarrow x=1$ implies $x=y$, for all $x, y, z \in L$.
The relation $x \leq y$ 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.

Moreover, in the bounded $L$-algebra $L$, if the map ' $: L \longrightarrow L$ defined, by $x \longrightarrow x^{\prime}=x \rightarrow 0$ for every $x \in L$, is bijective, then we say that $L$ has negation.

Definition 2.2 ([17]). A $K L$-algebra is an $L$-algebra $(L, \rightarrow, 1)$ such that

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

for every $x, y \in L$.
A $C L$-algebra is an $L$-algebra $(L, \rightarrow, 1)$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
(x \rightarrow(y \rightarrow z)) \rightarrow(y \rightarrow(x \rightarrow z))=1 \tag{C}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $x, y, z \in L$.
Definition 2.3 ([16]). Let $(L ; \rightarrow, 1)$ be an $L$-algebra. Then a subset $K$ of $L$ is called an $L$-subalgebra if $x \rightarrow y, y \rightarrow x \in K$, for all $x, y \in K$.
A subset $I$ of $L$ is called an ideal if the following hold for all $x, y \in L$ :
(I1) $1 \in I$,
(I2) $x, x \rightarrow y \in I$ implies $y \in I$,
(I3) $x \in I$ implies $(x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y \in I$,
(I4) $x \in I$ implies $y \rightarrow x, y \rightarrow(x \rightarrow y) \in I$. Denote by $\mathcal{I D}(L)$ the set of all ideals of $L$.

If $L$ satisfies condition $(K)$, then $\left(I_{4}\right)$ can be omitted. Also, if $L$ satisfies condition $(C)$, then , $\left(I_{3}\right)$ and $\left(I_{4}\right)$ can be omitted.

Definition 2.4 ([5]). For every subset $Y \subseteq L$, the smallest ideal of $L$ containing $Y$ (i.e. the intersection of all ideals $I \in \mathcal{I D}(L)$ such that $Y \subseteq I$ ) is called the ideal generated by $Y$ and it will be denoted by $[Y)$. If $Y=\{x\}$ we write $[x)$ instead of $[\{x\})$. In this case $[x)$ is called a principal ideal of $L$.

## 3. $L$-modules

In this section, we present our definition of $L$-modules, and obtain some results on them. Then we introduce the concepts of $L$-submodules and prime $L$-submodules in $L$-modules. Finally, we investigate some conditions for having a prime $L$-submodule.

Note. If $L$ is an $L$-algebra, then we denote $(l \rightarrow u) \rightarrow u$ by $l \uparrow u$, for every $l, u \in L$.

Definition 3.1. Let $L=(L ; \rightarrow, 0,1)$ be a bounded $L$-algebra, and $M=$ $(M,+)$ be an Abelian group. Then $M$ is called an $L$-module, if there is an operation $\cdot: L \times M \longrightarrow M$ by $(l, m) \longmapsto l \cdot m$ such that for every $l, u \in L$ and $m, n \in M$, we have:
(LM1) $1 \cdot m=m$;
(LM2) $l \cdot(m+n)=l \cdot m+l \cdot n$;
(LM3) $(l \rightarrow u) \cdot m=l^{\prime} \cdot m+u \cdot m$, for all pairs $(l, u)$ with $u \neq 1$.
Moreover, if we have
(LM4) $(l \uparrow u) \cdot m=l \cdot(u \cdot m)$, for all pairs $(l, u)$ with $l \neq 0$,
then $M$ is called an Extended L-module (or briefly EL-module).
Example 3.2. (i) Let $L=\{0,1\}$ and define an operation " $\rightarrow$ " on $L$ by

| $\rightarrow$ | 0 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |

Then $L=(L ; \rightarrow, 0,1)$ is a bounded $L$-algebra. The map ' $: L \longrightarrow L$ by $0^{\prime}=1$ and $1^{\prime}=0$ is bijective. Consider the operation $\cdot: L \times \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ by $0 \cdot n=0$ and $1 \cdot n=n$, for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $(L \mathbb{Z} 1)$ and $(L \mathbb{Z} 2)$ are clear. $(L \mathbb{Z} 3)$ We have $(0 \rightarrow 0) . n=0^{\prime} . n+0 . n,(1 \rightarrow 1) . n=1^{\prime} . n+1 . n$ and $(1 \rightarrow 0) . n=1^{\prime} . n+0 . n$, for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $\mathbb{Z}$ is an $L$-module. Moreover, ( $L \mathbb{Z} 4$ ) We have $(0 \uparrow 0) \cdot n=0 .(0 . n)$ and $(1 \uparrow 1) \cdot n=1 .(1 . n)$, for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore, $\mathbb{Z}$ is an $E L$-module.
(ii) Let $A$ be a non-empty set. Then it is routine to see that $(\rho(A) ; \rightarrow, \emptyset, A)$ is a bounded $L$-algebra, where $X \rightarrow Y=X^{\prime} \cup Y$, for every $X, Y \in \rho(A)$. Since $\emptyset \rightarrow \emptyset=\emptyset \rightarrow A=A \rightarrow A=A$ and $A \rightarrow \emptyset=\emptyset$, we get $L=\{\emptyset, A\}$ is an $L$-subalgebra of $\rho(A)$ and so it is an $L$-algebra. Consider $M=(\rho(A), \Delta)$, where $X \Delta Y=X \cup Y \backslash X \cap Y$, for every $X, Y \in \rho(A)$. It is easy to see that $M$ is an abelian group. Now, let the operation $\cdot: L \times M \rightarrow M$ be defined by $T \cdot Y=T \cap Y$, for any $T \in L$ and $Y \in M$. Then
(LM1) $A \cdot Y=A \cap Y=Y$, for every $Y \in M$;
(LM2) It is routine to see that

$$
T \cdot(X+Y)=T \cap(X \Delta Y)=(T \cap X) \Delta(T \cap Y)=(T \cdot X)+(T \cdot Y)
$$

for every $T \in L$ and $X, Y \in M$;
(LM3) We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
(A \rightarrow A) \cdot X & =\left(A \cup A^{\prime}\right) \cap X=X=X \cap A=X \cap\left(A^{\prime} \Delta A\right) \\
& =\left(A^{\prime} \cap X\right) \Delta(A \cap X)=A^{\prime} \cdot X+A \cdot X,
\end{aligned}
$$

for every $X \in M$. By the similar way, we have $(\emptyset \rightarrow \emptyset) \cdot X=\emptyset^{\prime} \cdot X+\emptyset \cdot X$ and $(A \rightarrow \emptyset) \cdot X=A^{\prime} \cdot X+\emptyset \cdot X$, for every $X \in M$. Hence, $M$ is an $L$-module. Moreover,
(LM4) Since

$$
A \uparrow A=(A \rightarrow A) \rightarrow A=\left(A^{\prime} \cup A\right) \rightarrow A=\left(A \cap A^{\prime}\right) \cup A=A,
$$

we have $(A \uparrow A) \cdot X=A \cdot(A \cdot X)$, for every $X \in M$. By the similar way, we have $(\emptyset \uparrow \emptyset) \cdot X=\emptyset \cdot(\emptyset \cdot X)$, for every $X \in M$. Therefore, $M$ is an $E L$-module.

Note. From now on, in this paper, we let $L=(L ; \rightarrow, 1)$ be an $L$-algebra.

Definition 3.3. If $l \uparrow u=u \uparrow l$, for every $l, u \in L$, then we say that $L$ is $L$-commutative.

Example 3.4. (i) Let $L=\{0, l, u, 1\}$ and define an operation " $\rightarrow$ " on $L$ by

| $\rightarrow$ | 0 | $l$ | $u$ | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| $l$ | $u$ | 1 | $u$ | 1 |
| $u$ | $l$ | $l$ | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | $l$ | $u$ | 1 |

Then $(L ; \rightarrow, 1)$ is an $L$-algebra. Moreover, $L$ is $L$-commutative.
(ii) According to Example 3.2 (i), $L$ is $L$-commutative.
(iii) Let $L=\{0, l, u, t, 1\}$ and define operation " $\rightarrow$ " on $L$ by

| $\rightarrow$ | 0 | $l$ | $u$ | $t$ | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| $l$ | 0 | 1 | $l$ | $t$ | 1 |
| $u$ | 0 | $l$ | 1 | $t$ | 1 |
| $t$ | $t$ | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | $l$ | $u$ | $t$ | 1 |

Then $(L ; \rightarrow, 1)$ is an $L$-algebra. Since $l \uparrow t=(l \rightarrow t) \rightarrow t=1 \neq l=(t \rightarrow$ $l) \rightarrow l=t \uparrow l, L$ is not $L$-commutative.

In the following, we present a general example of $L$-module.
Proposition 3.5. Let $L=(L ; \rightarrow, 0,1)$ be bounded and $L$-commutative. Then $(L,+)$ is an Abelian group, where

$$
l+u=(l \rightarrow u)^{\prime} \uparrow(u \rightarrow l)^{\prime}, \text { for every } l, u \in L
$$

Proof: At first, we show that $0+l=l+0=l$, for every $l \in L$. We have

$$
l+0=(l \rightarrow 0)^{\prime} \uparrow(0 \rightarrow l)^{\prime}=\left(l^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} \uparrow 1^{\prime}=l \uparrow 0=(l \rightarrow 0) \rightarrow 0=\left(l^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=l .
$$

By the similar way, we have $0+l=l$ and so $0+l=l+0=l$, for every $l \in L$. Also, since

$$
l+l=(l \rightarrow l)^{\prime} \uparrow(l \rightarrow l)^{\prime}=1^{\prime} \uparrow 1^{\prime}=0 \uparrow 0=(0 \rightarrow 0) \rightarrow 0=1 \rightarrow 0=0
$$

we conclude that every member of $L$ has a counterpart in $L$. Now, with a long and routine method, it can be seen

$$
l+(u+t)=(l+u)+t, \text { for every } l, u, t \in L
$$

Finally, since $L$ is $L$-commutative, we have

$$
l+u=(l \rightarrow u)^{\prime} \uparrow(u \rightarrow l)^{\prime}=(u \rightarrow l)^{\prime} \uparrow(l \rightarrow u)^{\prime} u+l, \text { for every } l, u \in L
$$

Therefore, $(L,+)$ is an Abelian group.
Proposition 3.6. Let $L=\left(L ; \wedge, \vee,{ }^{\prime}, 0,1\right)$ be a Boolean-algebra. Then $L$ is a bounded $L$-algebra. Moreover, $L$ is $L$-commutative.

Proof: We define $l \rightarrow u=l^{\prime} \vee u$, for every $l, u \in L$. Then
(L1) It is clear that $l \rightarrow l=l \rightarrow 1=1$ and $1 \rightarrow l=l$, for every $l \in L$.
(L2) For every $l, u \in L$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
(l \rightarrow u) \rightarrow(l \rightarrow t) & =\left(l^{\prime} \vee u\right) \rightarrow\left(l^{\prime} \vee t\right)=\left(l^{\prime} \vee u\right)^{\prime} \vee\left(l^{\prime} \vee t\right) \\
& =\left(l \wedge u^{\prime}\right) \vee\left(l^{\prime} \vee t\right)=\left(\left(l \wedge u^{\prime}\right) \vee l^{\prime}\right) \vee t \\
& =\left(\left(l \vee l^{\prime}\right) \wedge\left(u^{\prime} \vee l^{\prime}\right)\right) \vee t=\left(1 \wedge\left(u^{\prime} \vee l^{\prime}\right)\right) \vee t \\
& =\left(u^{\prime} \vee l^{\prime}\right) \vee t .
\end{aligned}
$$

On the other hand, by the similar way, we have $(u \rightarrow l) \rightarrow(u \rightarrow t)=$ $\left(u^{\prime} \vee l^{\prime}\right) \vee t$. Hence

$$
(l \rightarrow u) \rightarrow(l \rightarrow t)=(u \rightarrow l) \rightarrow(u \rightarrow t), \text { for every } l, u \in L
$$

(L3) Let $l \rightarrow u=u \rightarrow l=1$, for any $l, u \in L$. Then $l^{\prime} \vee u=u^{\prime} \vee l=1$ and so

$$
l \wedge u=\left(l \wedge l^{\prime}\right) \vee(l \wedge u)=l \wedge\left(l^{\prime} \vee u\right)=l \wedge 1=l .
$$

This means that $l \leq u$. By the similar way, we have $u \leq l$ and so $u=l$. Thus, $(L, \rightarrow, 1)$ is an $L$-algebra. Note that $0 \rightarrow l=0^{\prime} \vee l=1 \vee l=1$. So $0 \leq l$, for every $l \in L$ and so $L$ is bounded. Moreover, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
l \uparrow u & =(l \rightarrow u) \rightarrow u=\left(l^{\prime} \vee u\right)^{\prime} \vee u=\left(l \wedge u^{\prime}\right) \vee u=(l \vee u) \wedge\left(u \vee u^{\prime}\right) \\
& =l \vee u=(l \vee u) \wedge\left(l \vee l^{\prime}\right)=l \vee\left(u \wedge l^{\prime}\right)=l \vee\left(u^{\prime} \vee l\right)^{\prime}=l \vee(u \rightarrow l)^{\prime} \\
& =(u \rightarrow l) \rightarrow l=u \uparrow l, \text { for every } u, l \in L .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, $L$ is $L$-commutative.
Example 3.7. Let $L=\left(L ; \wedge, \vee,{ }^{\prime}, 0,1\right)$ be a Boolean-algebra. If $l \rightarrow u \neq 1$ implies $u \leq l$, for every $u, l \in L$, then $L$ is an $L$-module.

Proof: By Proposition 3.6, $L$ is bounded and $L$-commutative, and by Proposition 3.5, $M=(L,+)$ is an Abelian group, where $l+u=(l \rightarrow u)^{\prime} \uparrow$ $(u \rightarrow l)^{\prime}$, for every $l, u \in L$. We define the operation $\cdot: L \times M \longrightarrow M$ by $l . m=l \wedge m$, for every $l \in L$ and $m \in M$. Then
(LM1) $1 \cdot m=1 \wedge m$, for every $m \in M$;
(LM2) Since for every $m, n \in M$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
m+n & =(m \rightarrow n)^{\prime} \uparrow(n \rightarrow m)^{\prime}=\left((m \rightarrow n)^{\prime} \rightarrow(n \rightarrow m)^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow(n \rightarrow m)^{\prime} \\
& =\left(\left(m^{\prime} \vee n\right)^{\prime} \rightarrow\left(n^{\prime} \vee m\right)^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(n^{\prime} \vee m\right)^{\prime} \\
& =\left(\left(m^{\prime} \vee n\right) \vee\left(n \wedge m^{\prime}\right)\right)^{\prime} \vee\left(n \wedge m^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\left(\left(m \wedge n^{\prime}\right) \wedge\left(n^{\prime} \vee m\right)\right) \vee\left(n \wedge m^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\left(\left(m \wedge n^{\prime}\right) \vee\left(n \wedge m^{\prime}\right)\right) \wedge\left(\left(n \wedge m^{\prime}\right) \vee\left(n^{\prime} \vee m\right)\right) \\
& =\left(\left(m \wedge n^{\prime}\right) \vee n\right) \wedge\left(\left(m \wedge n^{\prime}\right) \vee m\right) \wedge\left((n \vee m \vee n) \wedge\left(n^{\prime} \vee m^{\prime} \vee m^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
& =\left((n \vee m) \wedge\left(n \vee n^{\prime}\right)\right) \wedge\left(\left(m \vee m^{\prime}\right) \wedge\left(m^{\prime} \vee n^{\prime}\right)\right) \wedge(m \wedge m) \\
& =(n \vee m) \wedge\left(m^{\prime} \vee n^{\prime}\right)=\left((n \vee m) \wedge m^{\prime}\right) \vee\left((n \vee m) \wedge n^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\left(\left(n \wedge m^{\prime}\right) \vee\left(m \wedge m^{\prime}\right)\right) \vee\left(\left(n \wedge n^{\prime}\right) \vee\left(m \wedge n^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
& =\left(n \wedge m^{\prime}\right) \vee\left(m \wedge n^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
l \cdot(m+n) & =l \wedge\left(\left(n \wedge m^{\prime}\right) \vee\left(m \wedge n^{\prime}\right)\right)=\left(l \wedge n \wedge m^{\prime}\right) \vee\left(l \wedge m \wedge n^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\left((l \wedge m) \wedge(l \wedge n)^{\prime}\right) \vee\left((l \wedge m)^{\prime} \wedge(l \wedge n)\right) \\
& =(l \wedge m)+(l \wedge n)=l \cdot m+l \cdot n
\end{aligned}
$$

for every $l \in L$ and $m, n \in M$.
(LM3) Let $l \rightarrow u \neq 1$ or $l=u$, for any $l, u \in L$. Then $u \leq l$ and so $u \vee l=l$ and $u \wedge l=u$. Thus, for every $m \in M$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
l^{\prime} . m+u . m & =\left(l^{\prime} \wedge m\right)+(u \wedge m) \\
& =\left(\left(l^{\prime} \wedge m\right)^{\prime} \wedge(u \wedge m)\right) \vee\left(\left(l^{\prime} \wedge m\right) \wedge(u \wedge m)^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\left(\left(l \vee m^{\prime}\right) \wedge(u \wedge m)\right) \vee\left(\left(l^{\prime} \wedge m\right) \wedge\left(u^{\prime} \vee m^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
& =\left((u \wedge m \wedge l) \vee\left(u \wedge m \wedge m^{\prime}\right) \vee\left(l^{\prime} \wedge m \wedge u^{\prime}\right) \vee\left(l^{\prime} \wedge m \wedge m^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
& =(u \wedge m \wedge l) \vee\left(l^{\prime} \wedge m \wedge u^{\prime}\right)=m \wedge\left((u \wedge l) \vee\left(l^{\prime} \wedge u^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
& =((l \vee u) \rightarrow(l \wedge u)) . m=(l \rightarrow u) . m .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that if $l \rightarrow u=1$, then $l \leq u$. So by the similar way, we have $(l \rightarrow u) \cdot m=l^{\prime} \cdot m+u . m$. Hence,

$$
(l \rightarrow u) \cdot m=l^{\prime} \cdot m+u \cdot m, \text { for all pairs }(1, \mathbf{u}) \text { with } u \neq 1
$$

Therefore, $L$ is an $L$-module.

Proposition 3.8. Let $L=(L ; \rightarrow, 0,1)$ be bounded and $L$-commutative, $I$ be an ideal of $L$ and $L$ be an $L$-module. Then $\frac{L}{I}$ is an $L$-module. Moreover, if $L$ is an $E L$-module, then $\frac{L}{I}$ is an $E L$-module.
Proof: Since $(L,+)$ is an Abelian group, it is easy to see that $\left(\frac{L}{I}, \oplus\right)$ is An abelian group, where $[l] \oplus[u]=[l+u]$, for every $l, u \in L$. We define the operation $\bullet: L \times \frac{L}{I} \longrightarrow \frac{L}{I}$ by $l \bullet[m]=[l \cdot m]$, for every $l \in L$ and $[m] \in \frac{L}{I}$. Then
$\left(L \frac{L}{I} 1\right)$ By $(L L 1)$, we have $1 \bullet[m]=[m]$, for every $[m] \in \frac{L}{I}$;
$\left(L \frac{L}{I} 2\right)$ By $(L L 2)$, for every $l \in L$ and $[m],[n] \in \frac{L}{I}$, we have $1 \bullet([m] \oplus[n])=l \bullet[m+n]=[l \cdot(m+n)]=[l \cdot m+l \cdot n]=[l \cdot m] \oplus[l \cdot n]=l \bullet[m] \oplus l \bullet[n] ;$
$\left(L \frac{L}{I} 3\right)$ By $(L L 3)$, for every $[m] \in \frac{L}{I}$ and for all pairs $(l, u)$ with $u \neq 1$, we have
$(l \rightarrow u) \bullet[m]=[(l \rightarrow u) \cdot m]=\left[l^{\prime} \cdot m+u \cdot m\right]=\left[l^{\prime} \cdot m\right] \oplus[u \cdot m]=l^{\prime} \bullet[m] \oplus u \bullet[m]$.
Then $\frac{L}{I}$ is an $L$-module. Moreover,
$\left(L \frac{L}{I} 4\right)$ By $(L L 4)$, for every $[m] \in \frac{L}{I}$ and for all pairs $(l, u)$ with $l \neq 0$, we have

$$
(l \uparrow u) \bullet[m]=[(l \uparrow u) \cdot m]=[l \cdot(u \cdot m)]=l \bullet[u \cdot m]=l \bullet(u \bullet[m]) .
$$

Therefore, $\frac{L}{I}$ is an $E L$-module.
Note. From now on, in this paper, we let $M$ be an Abelian group.
Let $I \in \mathcal{I D}(L)$. The relation $\sim$ on $L$ is defined by

$$
u \sim l \Leftrightarrow u \rightarrow l, l \rightarrow u \in I, \text { for every } u, l \in L
$$

It was proved that $\sim$ is a congruence on $L$. Then $\left(\frac{L}{I} ; \rightarrow,[1]\right)$ is an $L$-algebra, where $[u] \rightarrow[l]=[u \rightarrow l]$, for every $u, l \in L$ (see [16]).

Theorem 3.9. Let $M$ be an L-module, and $I$ be an ideal of $L$ such that $I \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}_{L}(M)$, where $\operatorname{Ann}_{L}(M)=\{l \in L: l \cdot m=0$, for every $m \in M\}$. Then $M$ is an $\frac{L}{I}$-module. Moreover, if $M$ is an $E L$-module, then $M$ is an $E \frac{L}{I}$-module.

Proof: Consider ${ }^{\prime}: \frac{L}{I} \longrightarrow \frac{L}{I}$ by $([l])^{\prime}=\left[l^{\prime}\right]$, for every $l \in L$ which is a bijective mapping. Define the operation $\bullet: \frac{L}{I} \times M \longrightarrow M$ by $[l] \bullet m=$ $l \cdot m$, for every $[l] \in \frac{L}{I}$ and $m \in M$. Let $[l]=[u]$ and $m=n$, for every $[l],[u] \in \frac{L}{I}$ and $m, n \in M$. Then $l \rightarrow u, u \rightarrow l \in I \subseteq A n n_{L}(M)$ and so $(l \rightarrow u) \cdot m=(u \rightarrow l) \cdot m=0$, for every $m \in M$. It results that $l^{\prime} \cdot m+u \cdot m=u^{\prime} \cdot m+l \cdot m=0$ and so $l \cdot m-u \cdot m=l^{\prime} \cdot m-u^{\prime} \cdot m$ and $l \cdot m=-u^{\prime} \cdot m$. Hence $l \cdot m-u \cdot m=l^{\prime} \cdot m+l \cdot m=(l \rightarrow l) \cdot m=1 \cdot m$ and so $l \cdot m-u \cdot m=1 \cdot m$. By the similar way, we have $u \cdot m-l \cdot m=1 \cdot m$. It results that $l \cdot m-u \cdot m=u \cdot m-l \cdot m$ and so $l \cdot m=u \cdot m$. It means that • is well defined. Now, we have:
$\left(\frac{L}{I} M 1\right)$ By $(L M 1)$, it is clear that $[1] \bullet m=m$, for every $m \in M$;
$\left(\frac{L}{I} M 2\right)$ By (LM2), we have

$$
[l] \bullet(m+n)=l \cdot(m+n)=l \cdot m+l \cdot n=[l] \bullet m+l \bullet n
$$

for every $[l] \in \frac{L}{I}$ and $m, n \in M$;
$\left(\frac{L}{I} M 3\right)$ By $(L M 3)$, for every $m \in M$ and for all pairs $([l],[u])$ with $[u] \neq[1]$, we have
$([l] \rightarrow[u]) \bullet m=[l \rightarrow u] \bullet m=(l \rightarrow u) \cdot m=l^{\prime} \cdot m+u \cdot m=[l]^{\prime} \bullet m+[u] \bullet m$.

Note that $l \neq 1$ implies $[l] \neq[1]$. Hence, $M$ is an $\frac{L}{I}$-module. Moreover,
$\left(\frac{L}{I} M 4\right)$ by $(L M 4)$, for every $m \in M$ and for all pairs $([l],[u])$ with $[l] \neq[0]$, we have
$([l] \uparrow[u]) \bullet m=[l \uparrow u] \bullet m=(l \uparrow u) \cdot m=l \cdot(u \cdot m)=[l] \bullet(u \cdot m)=[l] \bullet([u] \bullet m)$.
Note that $l=0$ implies $[l]=[0]$. Therefore, $M$ is an $E \frac{L}{I}$-module.
Definition 3.10. Let $M$ be an $L$-module, and $S$ be a subgroup of $M$. If $S$ satisfies

$$
l \cdot s \in S, \text { for every } l \in L \text { and } s \in S
$$

then it is called an $L$-submodule of $M$.

Example 3.11. (i) By Example 3.2 (i), $2 \mathbb{Z}$ is an $L$-submodule of $M$. (ii) According to Example $3.2(i i)$, consider $A=\{a, b\}$. Then $S_{1}=\{\emptyset,\{a\}\}$ and $S_{2}=\{\emptyset,\{b\}\}$ are $L$-submodules of $M$.

Let $M$ be an $L$-module, and $S$ be an $L$-submodule of $M$. Since $(M,+)$ is an Abelian group and $S$ is a subgroup of $M$, we can apply the module theory to present quotient $L$-module. So it is clear that $\left(\frac{M}{S}, \oplus\right)$ is an Abelian group, where $(m+S) \oplus(n+S)=(m+n) \oplus S$, for every $m, n \in M$.

Proposition 3.12. Let $M$ be an $L$-module, and $S$ be an $L$-submodule of $M$. Then $\frac{M}{S}$ is an $L$-module. Moreover, if $M$ is an $E L$-module, then $\frac{M}{S}$ is an $E L$-module.

Proof: We define the operation $\bullet: L \times \frac{M}{S} \longrightarrow \frac{M}{S}$ by $l \bullet(m+S)=l \cdot m+S$, for every $l \in L$ and $m+S \in \frac{M}{S}$. It is routine to see that $\bullet$ is well defined. By (LM1) and (LM2), the proofs of $\left(L \frac{M}{S} 1\right)$ and $\left(L \frac{M}{S} 2\right)$ are routine. $\left(L \frac{M}{S} 3\right)$ By $(L M 3)$, for all pairs $(l, u)$ with $u \neq 1$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
(l \rightarrow u) \bullet(m+S) & =(l \rightarrow u) \cdot m+S=\left(l^{\prime} \cdot m+u \cdot m\right)+S \\
& =\left(l^{\prime} \cdot m+S\right) \oplus(u \cdot m+S) \\
& =l^{\prime} \bullet(m+S) \oplus u \bullet(m+S)
\end{aligned}
$$

for every $m+S \in \frac{M}{S}$. Then $\frac{M}{S}$ is an $L$-module. Moreover, $\left(L \frac{M}{S} 4\right)$ by $(L M 4)$, for all pairs $(l, u)$ with $l \neq 0$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
(l \uparrow u) \bullet(m+S) & =(l \uparrow u) \cdot m+S=l \cdot(u \cdot m)+S \\
& =l \bullet(u \cdot m+S)=l \bullet(u \bullet(m+S)),
\end{aligned}
$$

for every $m+S \in \frac{M}{S}$. Therefore, $\frac{M}{S}$ is an $E L$-module.
Lemma 3.13. Let $M$ be an EL-module, and $I$ be an ideal of L. Then

$$
I_{L}(M)=\left\{\Sigma_{i=1}^{n} t_{i} \cdot m_{i}: 0 \neq t_{i} \in I, m_{i} \in M, n \in \mathbb{N}\right\}
$$

is an $L$-submodule of $M$.
Proof: It is clear that $I_{L}(M)$ is a subgroup of $M$. Now, for every $l \in L$ and $\Sigma_{i=1}^{n} t_{i} \cdot m_{i} \in I_{L}(S)$, by (LM2), we have

$$
l \cdot \Sigma_{i=1}^{n} t_{i} \cdot m_{i}=l \cdot\left(t_{1} \cdot m_{1}\right)+l \cdot\left(t_{2} \cdot m_{2}\right)+\cdots+l \cdot\left(t_{n} \cdot m_{n}\right)
$$

and so by (LM4),

$$
l \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_{i} \cdot m_{i}=\left(l \uparrow t_{1}\right) \cdot m_{1}+\left(l \uparrow t_{2}\right) \cdot m_{2}+\cdots+\left(l \uparrow t_{n}\right) \cdot m_{n} .
$$

Since by $\left(I_{3}\right), t_{i} \cdot m_{i} \in I$, for every $1 \leq i \leq n$, we get $l \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_{i} \cdot m_{i} \in I_{L}(M)$. Therefore, $I_{L}(M)$ is an $L$-submodule of $M$.

Definition 3.14. Let $I$ be a proper ideal of $L$. Then $I$ is called a prime ideal of $L$, if $l \uparrow u \in I$ implies $l \in I$ or $u \in I$, where $l, u \in L$.

Example 3.15. According to Example 3.4 (i), it is easy to see that $I_{1}=$ $\{1, l\}$ and $I_{2}=\{1, u\}$ are prime ideals of $L$.

Theorem 3.16. Let $M$ be an EL-module, $S$ be an L-submodule of $M$ and $P$ be a prime ideal of $L$. Then

$$
S_{N, P}=\left\{m \in M: c \cdot m \in P_{L}(M)+S, \exists 0 \neq c \in(L \backslash P) \cup\{1\}\right\}
$$

is an L-submodule of $M$ and $P_{L}(M)+S \subseteq S_{N, P}$.
Proof: Let $m, n \in S_{N, P}$. Then there are $c_{1}, c_{2} \in(L \backslash P) \cup\{1\}$ such that $0 \neq c_{1}, 0 \neq c_{2}$ and $c_{1} \cdot m, c_{2} \cdot n \in P \cdot M+S$. Consider $c=c_{1} \uparrow c_{2}$. It is clear that $c \in(L \backslash P) \cup\{1\}$. Then by (LM4), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
c \cdot(m-n) & =\left(c_{1} \uparrow c_{2}\right) \cdot(m-n)=c_{1} \cdot\left(c_{2} \cdot(m-n)\right) \\
& =c_{1} \cdot\left(c_{2} \cdot m-c_{2} \cdot n\right)=c_{1} \cdot\left(c_{2} \cdot m\right)-c_{1} \cdot\left(c_{2} \cdot n\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and so by Lemma 3.13, $c \cdot(m-n) \in P_{L}(M)+S$. Now, for every $l \in L$ and $m \in S_{N, P}$, we show that $l \cdot m \in S_{N, P}$. Since $m \in S_{N, P}$, there is $0 \neq c \in(L \backslash P) \cup\{1\}$ such that $c \cdot m \in P_{L}(M)$. Then by Lemma 3.13 and (LM4),

$$
c \cdot(l \cdot m)=(c \uparrow l) \cdot m=(l \uparrow c) \cdot m=l \cdot(c \cdot m) \in P_{L}(M) .
$$

Hence, $S_{N, P}$ is an $L$-submodule of $M$. Finally, let $t \cdot m \in P_{L}(M)$. Then we have $1 \cdot(t \cdot m) \in P_{L}(M)+S$, where $c=1 \in(L \backslash P) \cup\{1\}$. Therefore, $t \cdot m \in S_{N, P}$ and so $P_{L}(M) \subseteq S_{N, P}$.

Theorem 3.17. Let $I$ be an ideal of $L$, and $M$ be an EL-module. Then $\frac{M}{I_{L}(M)}$ is an $E \frac{L}{I}$-module. Moreover, if $M$ is an $E L$-module, then $\frac{M}{I_{L}(M)}$ is an $E \frac{L}{I}$-module.
Proof: The module $\frac{M}{I_{L}(M)}$ can be defined by Lemma 3.13. Then we define the operation
$\bullet: \frac{L}{I} \times \frac{M}{I_{L}(M)} \longrightarrow \frac{M}{I_{L}(M)}$ by $[l] \bullet\left(m+I_{L}(M)\right)=l \cdot m+I_{L}(M)$, for every $[l] \in \frac{L}{I}$ and $m+I_{L}(M) \in \frac{M}{I_{L}(M)}$. Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
I \bullet \frac{M}{I_{L}(M)} & =\left\{l \bullet\left(m+I_{L}(M)\right): l \in L, m \in M\right\} \\
& =\left\{l \cdot m+I_{L}(M): l \in L, m \in M\right\}=I_{L}(M),
\end{aligned}
$$

we have $I \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}_{L}\left(\frac{M}{I_{L}(M)}\right)$ and so with a proof similar to the proof of Theorem 3.9, • is well defined.

$$
\left(\frac{L}{I} \frac{M}{I_{L}(M)} 1\right) \mathrm{By}(L M 1),[1] \bullet\left(m+I_{L}(M)\right)=1 \cdot m+I_{L}(M)=m+I_{L}(M),
$$

for every $m \in M$;
$\left(\frac{L}{I} \frac{M}{I_{L}(M)} 2\right)$ By (LM2), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[l] \bullet\left(\left(m+I_{L}(M)\right) \oplus\left(n+I_{L}(M)\right)\right) } & =[l] \bullet\left(m+n+I_{L}(M)\right) \\
& =l \cdot(m+n)+I_{L}(M) \\
& =l \cdot m+l \cdot n+I_{L}(M) \\
& =\left(l \cdot m+I_{L}(M)\right) \oplus\left(l \cdot n+I_{L}(M)\right) \\
& =[l] \bullet\left(m+I_{L}(M)\right) \oplus[l] \bullet\left(n+I_{L}(M)\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

for every $[l] \in \frac{L}{I}$ and $\left(m+I_{L}(M)\right),\left(n+I_{L}(M)\right) \in \frac{M}{I_{L}(M)}$;
$\left(\frac{L}{I} \frac{M}{I_{L}(M)} 3\right)$ By $(L M 3)$, for every $m+I_{L}(M) \in \frac{M}{I_{L}(M)}$ and for all pairs $([l],[u])$ with $[u] \neq[1]$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
([l] \rightarrow[u]) \bullet\left(m+I_{L}(M)\right) & =[l \rightarrow u] \bullet\left(m+I_{L}(M)\right) \\
& =(l \rightarrow u) \cdot m+I_{L}(M) \\
& =\left(l^{\prime} \cdot m+u \cdot m\right)+I_{L}(M) \\
& =\left(l^{\prime} \cdot m+I_{L}(M)\right) \oplus\left(u \cdot m+I_{L}(M)\right) \\
& =[l]^{\prime} \bullet\left(m+I_{L}(M)\right) \oplus[u] \bullet\left(m+I_{L}(M)\right) ;
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, $M$ is an $\frac{L}{I}$-module. Moreover,
$\left(\frac{L}{I} \frac{M}{I_{L}(M)} 4\right)$ by $(L M 4)$, for every $m+I_{L}(M) \in \frac{M}{I_{L}(M)}$ and for all pairs $([l],[u])$ with $[l] \neq[0]$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
([l] \uparrow[u]) \bullet\left(m+I_{L}(M)\right) & =[l \uparrow u] \bullet\left(m+I_{L}(M)\right)=(l \uparrow u) \cdot m+I_{L}(M) \\
& =l \cdot(u \cdot m)+I_{L}(M)=[l] \bullet\left(u \cdot m+I_{L}(M)\right) \\
& =[l] \bullet\left([u] \bullet\left(m+I_{L}(M)\right) .\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, $\frac{M}{I_{L}(M)}$ is an $E \frac{L}{I}$-module.
Definition 3.18. Let $M$ be an $L$-module and $S$ be a proper $L$-submodule of $M$. Then $S$ is called a prime $L$-submodule of $M$, if by $l \cdot m \in S$, we have $m \in S$ or $l \in(S: M)=\{l \in L: l \cdot M \subseteq S\}$.

Example 3.19. By Example $3.2(i), 2 \mathbb{Z}$ is a prime $L$-submodule of $\mathbb{Z}$.

Note. Let $M$ be an $L$-module, $I \subseteq L$ and $D \subseteq M$. Then we set $I D=$ $\{i \cdot d: i \in I$ and $d \in D\}$, and $I_{t}=\{\alpha \in L: t \rightarrow \alpha=1\}$, for every $t \in L$. It is clear that $1, t \in I_{t}$ and so $I_{t} \neq \emptyset$.

Theorem 3.20. Let $L$ be bounded and L-commutative, $M$ be an L-module and $S$ be a proper L-submodule of $M$. Then $S$ is a prime L-submodule of $M$ if and only if $I_{t} D \subseteq S$ implies $D \subseteq S$ or $I_{t} \subseteq(S: M)$, for any $L$-submodule $D$ of $M$ and $t \in L$.

Proof: $(\Rightarrow)$ Let $S$ be a prime $L$-submodule of $M$ and $I_{t} D \subseteq S$, where $D$ is an $L$-submodule of $M$ and $t \in L$. We show that $D \subseteq S$ or $I_{t} \subseteq(S: M)$. Let $I_{t} \nsubseteq(S: M)$ and $D \nsubseteq S$. Then there are $x \in I_{t}$ and $d \in D$ such that $x \cdot M \nsubseteq S$ and $d \notin S$. Since $I D \subseteq S$, we have $x \cdot d \in S$ and so by $d \notin S$, we get $x \in(S: M)$, which is a contradiction.
$(\Leftarrow)$ Let by $I_{t} D \subseteq S$, we have $D \subseteq S$ or $I_{t} \subseteq(S: M)$, for any $L$-submodule $D$ of $M$ and $t \in L$. Suppose $x \cdot m \in S$ and $m \notin S$, for any $x \in L$ and $m \in M$. For every $\alpha \in I_{x}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha \cdot m & =(1 \rightarrow \alpha) \cdot m=((x \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha) \cdot m=(x \uparrow \alpha) \cdot m=(\alpha \uparrow x) \cdot m \\
& =\alpha \cdot(x \cdot m) \in S .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, consider $D=\prec m \succ=\{y \cdot m: y \in L\}$. Then

$$
I_{x} D=\{\alpha \cdot(y \cdot m): \alpha, y \in L\}=\{y \cdot(\alpha \cdot m): \alpha, y \in L\} \subseteq S
$$

and so $I_{x} \subseteq(S: M)$ or $D \subseteq S$. Since $m \notin S$, we have $I_{x} \subseteq(S: M)$ and so $x \in(S: M)$. Therefore, $S$ is a prime $L$-submodule of $M$.

Proposition 3.21. For every $x, y \in L$,
(i) $x^{\prime} \rightarrow(x \rightarrow y)=1$;
(ii) $(x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow x^{\prime}=(y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow y^{\prime}$.

Proof: (i) By (L2), we have
$x^{\prime} \rightarrow(x \rightarrow y)=(x \rightarrow 0) \rightarrow(x \rightarrow y)=(0 \rightarrow x) \rightarrow(0 \rightarrow y)=1 \rightarrow 1=$ 1, for every $x, y \in L$. (ii) By ( $L 2$ ), we have $(x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow x^{\prime}=(x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow(x \rightarrow 0)=(y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow(y \rightarrow 0)=(y \rightarrow x) \rightarrow$ $y^{\prime}$, for every $x, y \in L$.

Lemma 3.22. Let $L$ be a bounded $K L$-algebra, $M$ be an $E L$-module and $S$ be a proper $L$-submodule of $M$. Then $P_{S}=(S: M) \cup\{1\}$ is an ideal of $L$.

Proof: (I1) It is clear that $1 \in P_{S}$.
(I2) Let $x, x \rightarrow y \in P_{S}$. Because of the nature of the definition of $P_{S}$, we need to consider three cases:
(1) If $x=1$, then $y=1 \rightarrow y=x \rightarrow y \in P_{S}$.
(2) Let $x \rightarrow y=1$. Then for $y=1$, the problem is solved. Thus, let $y \neq 1$. In this case, if $x=0$, then by $(L M 3), m=1 \cdot m=(0 \rightarrow y) \cdot m=$ $1 \cdot m+y \cdot m=m+y \cdot m$ and so $y \cdot m=0$, for every $m \in M$. It means that $y \in(S: M)$ and so $y \in P_{S}$. Hence, suppose $x \neq 0$ and $y \neq 1$. Since $y=1 \rightarrow y=(x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y=x \uparrow y$, by (LM4), we have
$y \cdot m=(x \uparrow y) \cdot m=(y \uparrow x) \cdot m=y \cdot(x \cdot m) \in S$, for every $m \in M$.
Thus, $y \in(S: M)$ and so $y \in P_{S}$.
(3) Let $x \neq 1$ and $x \rightarrow y \neq 1$. Then $x \cdot m,(x \rightarrow y) \cdot m \in S$, for every $m \in M$. It results that $x \cdot m+(x \rightarrow y) \cdot m \in S$, for every $m \in M$. Now, by Proposition 3.21 (i) and (LM3), for every $m \in M$, we have

$$
m=1 \cdot m=\left(x^{\prime} \rightarrow(x \rightarrow y)\right) \cdot m=x \cdot m+(x \rightarrow y) \cdot m \in S,
$$

which is a contradiction.
Therefore, $P_{S}=(S: M) \cup\{1\}$ is an ideal of $L$.
Definition 3.23. Let $L$ be bounded and $M$ be an $L$-module. Then $M$ is called a torsion free $L$-module, if $l \cdot m=0$ implies $l=0$ or $m=0$, for every $l \in L$ and $m \in M$.

Example 3.24. By Example 3.2(ii), $M$ is a torsion free $L$-module.

Theorem 3.25. Let $L$ be a bounded KL-algebra, $M$ be an $E L$-module and $S$ be a proper $L$-submodule of $M$. Then $S$ is a prime $L$-submodule of $M$ if and only if $P_{S}=(S: M) \cup\{1\}$ is a prime ideal of $L$ and $\frac{M}{S}$ is a torsion free $\frac{L}{P_{S}}$-module.

Proof: $(\Rightarrow)$ Let $S$ is a prime $L$-submodule of $M$. By Lemma $3.22, P_{S}$ is an ideal of $L$. At first, we show that $P_{S}$ is a prime ideal of $L$. Let $x \uparrow y \in P_{S}$, for any $x, y \in P_{S}$. We consider three cases:
(1) If $x=1$ or $y=1$, then $x \in P_{S}$ or $y \in P_{S}$.
(2) If $x \uparrow y \neq 1, x \neq 1$ and $y \neq 1$, then by $(L M 4)$, we have $x \cdot(y \cdot m)=$ $(x \uparrow y) \cdot m \in S$, for every $m \in S$. Hence, $x \in(S: M)$ or $y \cdot m \in S$, for every $m \in M$. It results that $x \in P_{S}$ or $y \in P_{S}$.
(3) Let $x \uparrow y=1, x \neq 1$ and $y \neq 1$. Then $(x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow y=x \uparrow y=1$ and so $x \rightarrow y \leq y$. Since $y \leq x \rightarrow y$, we have $x \rightarrow y=y$ and so by (LM3),

$$
(x \rightarrow y) \cdot m=x^{\prime} \cdot m+y \cdot m=y \cdot m, \text { for every, } m \in M
$$

Then $x^{\prime} \cdot m=0 \in S$ and so $x^{\prime} \in(S: M)$ or $m \in S$, for every $m \in M$. If $m \in S$, for every $m \in M$, then $M=S$, which is a contradiction. Thus, $x^{\prime} \in(S: M) \subseteq P_{S}$ and so by $(I 3)$, we have $y=x \rightarrow y=y^{\prime} \rightarrow x^{\prime} \in P_{S}$. Hence, $P_{S}$ is a prime ideal of $L$.
Now, we define the operation $\bullet: \frac{L}{P_{S}} \times \frac{M}{S} \longrightarrow \frac{M}{S}$ by $[l] \bullet(m+S)=l \cdot m+S$, for every $[l] \in \frac{L}{P_{S}}$ and $m+S \in \frac{M}{S}$. By the similar way to the proof of Theorem 3.17, $\frac{M}{S}$ is an $\frac{L}{P_{S}}$-module. Finally, let $[l] \bullet(m+S)=S$, for any $[l] \in \frac{L}{P_{S}}$ and $m+S \in \frac{M}{S}$. Then $l \cdot m+S=S$ and so $l \cdot m \in S$. It results that $l \in(S: M) \subseteq P_{S}$ or $m \in S$ and so $[l]=P_{S}$ or $m+S=S$. Therefore, $\frac{M}{S}$ is a torsion free $\frac{L}{P_{S}}$-module.
$(\Leftarrow)$ Let $P_{S}=(S: M) \cup\{1\}$ be a prime ideal of $L$ and $\frac{M}{S}$ be a torsion free $\frac{L}{P_{S}}$-module. If $l \cdot m \in S$, for any $l \in L$ and $m \in S$, then $[l] \bullet(m+S)=$ $l \cdot m+S=S$ and so $[l]=P_{S}=[1]$ or $m+S=S$. It means that $l=1 \rightarrow l \in P_{S}$. Therefore, $S$ is a prime $L$-submodule of $M$.

## 4. Conclusions and future works

In this paper, we have presented the definitions of $L$-modules, $L$-submodules and prime $L$-submodules, and some results about prime $L$-submodules. We intend to study $L$-modules in specific cases, too. For examples, free $L$ modules, projective(injective) $L$-modules, and so on. Because $L$-algebras cover a number of algebraic structures (such as $B C K$-algebras, etc.), the results of this paper can be generalized to those algebraic structures. We hope that we have taken an effective step in this regard.

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