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## QUASI-JORDAN ALGEBRAS

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In this article we introduce a new algebraic structure of Jordan type and we show several examples. This new structure, called "quasi-Jordan algebras," appears in the study of the product

$$
x \triangleleft y:=\frac{1}{2}(x \dashv y+y \vdash x),
$$

where $x, y$ are elements in a dialgebra $(D, \dashv \vdash \vdash)$. The quasi-Jordan algebras are a generalization of Jordan algebras where the commutative law is changed by a quasicommutative identity and a special form of the Jordan identity is retained. We show a few results about the relationship between Jordan algebras and quasi-Jordan algebras. Also, we compare quasi-Jordan algebras with some structures. In particular, we find a special relation with Leibniz algebras. We attach a quasi-Jordan algebra to any ad-nilpotent element of index of nilpotence at most 3 in a Leibniz algebra.

Key Words: Dialgebras; Jordan algebras; Leibniz algebras.

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## INTRODUCTION

There are three strongly related classes of algebras: associative, Jordan, and Lie algebras. It is known that any associative algebra $A$ becomes a Jordan algebra $A^{+}$under the symmetric product (Jordan product) $x \bullet y:=\frac{1}{2}(x y+y x)$ and becomes a Lie algebra under the skew-symmetric product (Lie bracket) $[x, y]:=x y-y x$. Moreover, we know from the works of Tits, Kantor, and Koecher that Jordan algebras can be imbedded into Lie algebras (see Kantor, 1964; Koecher, 1967; Tits, 1962). In particular, for any Jordan algebra $J$ there is a Lie algebra $L(J)$ such that $J$ is a subspace of $L(J)$ and the product of $J$ can be expressed in terms of the bracket in $L(J)$ (see Kantor, 1964; Koecher, 1967; Tits, 1962).

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It is known that the universal enveloping algebra of a Lie algebra has the structure of an associative algebra. More recently, Loday introduced the notion of Leibniz algebras (see Loday, 1993), which is a generalization of Lie algebras. Loday also showed that the relationship between Lie algebras and associative algebras can be translated into an analogous relationship between Leibniz algebras and the so-called dialgebras (see Loday, 2001) which are a generalization of associative algebras. In particular, Loday showed that any dialgebra $(D, \dashv, \vdash)$ becomes a Leibniz algebra $D_{\text {Leib }}$ under the Leibniz bracket $[x, y]:=x \dashv y-y \vdash x$ and the universal enveloping algebra of a Leibniz algebra has the structure of a dialgebra (see Loday, 2001 or Loday and Pirashvili, 1993).

Our aim is to discover a new generalization of Jordan algebras. This new structure, called quasi-Jordan algebra, is noncommutative in general although it is not in general equivalent to a noncommutative Jordan algebra (see Bremner et al., 2008, Section 6) and satisfies a special Jordan identity. The quasi-Jordan algebras appear in the study of the product

$$
x \triangleleft y:=\frac{1}{2}(x \dashv y+y \vdash x),
$$

where $x$ and $y$ are elements in a dialgebra $D$ over a field $K$ of characteristic different from 2. They also appear associated to other products defined over Jordan bimodules and vector spaces of linear transformations.

In the first section, we study the algebra $D^{+}$, where $D$ is a dialgebra. After the natural construction of the symmetrization $D^{+}$, we give the definition of quasiJordan algebras and show some examples.

In the second section we present other examples and show several properties. In particular, in this section we study the relationship between quasi-Jordan algebras and noncommutative Jordan algebras.

In the last section we define the concept of a $Q$-Jordan element in Leibniz algebras and we show how it is possible to attach a quasi-Jordan algebra to any $Q$-Jordan element of a Leibniz algebra (over a field of characteristic different from 2 and 3). This result follows a construction given by Fernández, García, and Gómez (see Fernández López et al., 2007).

The fundamental problem that we would like to study in a future article is the imbedding of quasi-Jordan algebras into Leibniz algebras.

## 1. ALGEBRAIC STRUCTURES OF JORDAN TYPE GENERATED BY DIALGEBRAS

Around 1990, Loday introduced the notions of Leibniz algebras and diassociative algebras (dialgebras) (see Loday, 2001).

Definition 1. A Leibniz algebra over a field $K$ is a $K$-vector space $L$ equipped with a binary operation, called Leibniz bracket, $[\cdot, \cdot]: L \times L \rightarrow L$, which satisfies the Leibniz identity

$$
\begin{equation*}
[x,[y, z]]=[[x, y], z]-[[x, z], y], \quad \text { for all } x, y, z \in L . \tag{L}
\end{equation*}
$$

If the bracket is skew-symmetric, then $L$ is a Lie algebra.

Example 2. Let $L$ be a Lie algebra and let $M$ be a $L$-module with action $M \times L \rightarrow M,(m, x) \mapsto m x$. Let $f: M \rightarrow L$ be a $L$-equivariant linear map, i.e.,

$$
f(m x)=[f(m), x], \quad \text { for all } m \in M \quad \text { and } \quad x \in L .
$$

Then one can put a Leibniz structure on $M$ as follows:

$$
[m, n]^{\prime}:=m f(n), \quad \text { for all } m, n \in M
$$

Additionally, the map $f$ defines a homomorphism between Leibniz algebras, since

$$
f\left([m, n]^{\prime}\right)=f(m f(n))=[f(m), f(n)] .
$$

Example 3. Let $(A, d)$ be a differential associative algebra (so $d(a b)=d a b+a d b$ and $d(a d b)=d a d b=d(d a b))$. Define the bracket on $A$ by the formula

$$
[a, b]:=a d b-d b a
$$

The vector space $A$ equipped with this bracket is a Leibniz algebra.
It follows from the Leibniz identity (L) that in any Leibniz algebra we have

$$
[x,[y, y]]=0, \quad[x,[y, z]]+[x,[z, y]]=0
$$

Let $L$ be a Leibniz algebra. Let $L^{a n n}$ be the subspace of $L$ spanned by elements of the form $[x, x], x \in L$. For any $x, y \in L$, we define

$$
\operatorname{ann}(x, y):=[x, y]+[y, x] \in L^{a n n}(L) .
$$

If we take the set

$$
Z^{r}(L)=\{z \in L \mid[x, z]=0, \forall x \in L\}
$$

we obtain that:

1. $L^{a n n} \subset Z^{r}(L)$;
2. $L^{a n n}$ and $Z^{r}(L)$ are two-sided ideals of $L$;
3. $\left[Z^{r}(L), L\right] \subset L^{a n n}$.

The quotient of the Leibniz algebra $L$ by the ideal $L^{a n n}$ gives a Lie algebra denoted by $L_{L i e}$. Moreover, the ideal $L^{a n n}$ is the smallest two-sided ideal of $L$ such that $L / L^{a n n}$ is a Lie algebra. The quotient map $\pi: L \rightarrow L_{L i e}$ is a homomorphism of Leibniz algebras. Besides $\pi$ is universal with respect to all homomorphisms from $L$ to another Lie algebra $L^{\prime}$, i.e., the following diagram commutes:

$$
\begin{aligned}
L \xrightarrow{\pi} L_{L i e} \\
\searrow \downarrow \downarrow \\
L^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $L^{a n n} \subset Z^{r}(L)$, we see that

$$
L^{L i e}:=L / Z^{r}(L)
$$

is also a Lie algebra. Thus by definition one has a central extension of Lie algebras

$$
0 \rightarrow L^{a} \rightarrow L_{L i e} \rightarrow L^{L i e} \rightarrow 0
$$

where $L^{a}=Z^{r}(L) / L^{a n n}$.
The Leibniz algebras are in fact right Leibniz algebras. For the opposite structure (left Leibniz algebras), the left Leibniz identity is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[[x, y]^{\prime}, z\right]^{\prime}=\left[y,[x, z]^{\prime}\right]^{\prime}-\left[x,[y, z]^{\prime}\right]^{\prime} \tag{L'}
\end{equation*}
$$

Definition 4. A dialgebra over a field $K$ is a $K$-vector space $D$ equipped with two bilinear associative products

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \dashv: D \times D \rightarrow D, \\
& \vdash: D \times D \rightarrow D
\end{aligned}
$$

satisfying the identities

$$
\begin{align*}
& x \dashv(y \dashv z)=x \dashv(y \vdash z),  \tag{D1}\\
& (x \vdash y) \dashv z=x \vdash(y \dashv z),  \tag{D2}\\
& (x \vdash y) \vdash z=(x \dashv y) \vdash z . \tag{D3}
\end{align*}
$$

Observe that the analog of formula (D2), but with the product symbols pointing outward, is not valid in general in dialgebras: $(x \dashv y) \vdash z \neq x \dashv(y \vdash z)$.

A morphism of dialgebras from $D$ to $D^{\prime}$ is a linear map $f: D \rightarrow D^{\prime}$ such that

$$
f(x \dashv y)=f(x) \dashv f(y) \quad \text { and } \quad f(x \vdash y)=f(x) \vdash f(y),
$$

for all $x, y$ in $D$.
A bar-unit in $D$ is an element $e$ in $D$ such that

$$
x \dashv e=x=e \vdash x, \quad \text { for all } x \in D
$$

A bar-unit needs not to be unique. The subset of bar-units of $D$ is called its Halo. A unital dialgebra is a dialgebra with a specified bar-unit $e$. The problem of adding a bar-unit to dialgebras remains open.

Observe that if a dialgebra has an element $\epsilon$ which satisfies $\epsilon \dashv x=x$ for any $x \in D$, then $\dashv=\vdash$ and $D$ is an associative algebra with unit $\epsilon$.

Example 5. If $A$ is an associative algebra, then the formula $x \dashv y=x y=x \vdash y$ defines a structure of dialgebra on $A$.

Example 6. If $(A, d)$ is a differential associative algebra, then the formulas $x \dashv$ $y=x d y$ and $x \vdash y=d x y$ define a structure of dialgebra on $A$.

The next example of dialgebra was studied in Felipe et al. (2005).
Example 7. Let $V$ be a vector space and fix $\varphi \in V^{\prime}$ (the algebraic dual). Then one can define a dialgebra structure on $V$ by setting $x \dashv y=\varphi(y) x$ and $x \vdash y=\varphi(x) y$, denoted by $V_{\varphi}$. If $\varphi \neq 0$, then $V_{\varphi}$ is a dialgebra with nontrivial bar-units. Moreover, its halo is an affine space modeled after the subspace $\operatorname{Ker} \varphi$.

If $D$ is a dialgebra and we define the bracket $[\cdot, \cdot]: D \times D \rightarrow D$ by

$$
[x, y]:=x \dashv y-y \vdash x, \quad \text { for all } x, y \in D,
$$

then $(D,[\cdot, \cdot])$ is a Leibniz algebra. Moreover, Loday showed that the following diagram is commutative:

\[

\]

where Dias, As, Lie, and Leib denote, respectively, the categories of dialgebras, associative, Lie, and Leibniz algebras (see Loday, 2001).

If we translate the quasi-multiplication (Jordan product) to the dialgebra framework, we obtain a new algebraic structure of Jordan type. Let $D$ be a dialgebra over a field $K$ of characteristic different from 2. We define the product $\triangleleft: D \times D \rightarrow$ $D$ by

$$
x \triangleleft y:=\frac{1}{2}(x \dashv y+y \vdash x),
$$

for all $x, y \in D$.
Simple calculations show that the product $\triangleleft$ satisfies the identities

$$
\begin{align*}
x \triangleleft(y \triangleleft z) & =x \triangleleft(z \triangleleft y)  \tag{QJ1}\\
(y \triangleleft x) \triangleleft x^{2} & =\left(y \triangleleft x^{2}\right) \triangleleft x  \tag{QJ2}\\
x^{2} \triangleleft(x \triangleleft y) & =x \triangleleft\left(x^{2} \triangleleft y\right), \tag{QJ3}
\end{align*}
$$

but the product $\triangleleft$ is noncommutative in general.
Note 8. Chapoton introduced the notion of commutative dialgebra. A dialgebra $D$ is commutative if the Leibniz algebra $D_{\text {Leib }}$ has trivial product (i.e., if $x \dashv y=y \vdash x$, for all $x, y$ in $D$ (see Chapoton, 2001)). In this case, if $D$ is a commutative dialgebra, $(D, \triangleleft)$ is associative and satisfies the identity

$$
x \triangleleft(y \triangleleft z)=x \triangleleft(z \triangleleft y), \quad \text { for all } x, y, z \in D .
$$

These algebras are called Perm algebras (see Chapoton, 2001, p. 105).

If $D$ is a unital dialgebra, with a specific bar-unit $e$, we have that $x \triangleleft e=x$, for all $x$ in $D$. This implies that $e$ is a right unit for the algebra $(D, \triangleleft)$. In this case we have by (QJ2) and (QJ3) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2} \triangleleft x=x \triangleleft x^{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2} \triangleleft x^{2}=\left(x^{2} \triangleleft x\right) \triangleleft x, \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x, y$ in $D$.
Then all algebras $(D, \triangleleft)$ that satisfy the identities $(\mathrm{QJ} 1),(\mathrm{QJ} 2)$, and (QJ3) with right unit $e$ defined over a field of characteristic zero are power-associative. If $D$ can be embedded in a unital dialgebra (1) is satisfied.

In this part we are going to introduce the definition of quasi-Jordan algebra.
Definition 9. A quasi-Jordan algebra is a vector space $\Im$ over a field $K$ of characteristic different from 2 equipped with a bilinear product $\triangleleft: \Im \times \Im \rightarrow \Im$ that satisfies

$$
\begin{gather*}
x \triangleleft(y \triangleleft z)=x \triangleleft(z \triangleleft y) \quad \text { (right commutativity) }  \tag{QJ1}\\
(y \triangleleft x) \triangleleft x^{2}=\left(y \triangleleft x^{2}\right) \triangleleft x \quad \text { (right Jordan identity), } \tag{QJ2}
\end{gather*}
$$

for all $x, y, z \in \mathfrak{I}$, where $x^{2}=x \triangleleft x$.
Note that in terms of the left and right multiplicative maps $L_{x}$ and $R_{x}$, defined for $x \in \mathfrak{J}$ by $L_{x}(y)=x \triangleleft y$ and $R_{x}(y)=y \triangleleft x$, for all $y \in \mathfrak{F}$, the identities ( QJ 1 ) and (QJ2) are equivalent to

$$
\begin{align*}
L_{x} L_{y} & =L_{x} R_{y}  \tag{QJ1*}\\
R_{x} R_{x^{2}} & =R_{x^{2}} R_{x} \tag{*}
\end{align*}
$$

There is an analogous structure if we define a product $\triangleright: \mathfrak{I} \times \mathfrak{J} \rightarrow \mathfrak{J}$ by $x \triangleright$ $y:=y \triangleleft x$, for all $x, y \in \mathfrak{I}$. This product satisfies the identities

$$
\begin{gather*}
(x \triangleright y) \triangleright z=(y \triangleright x) \triangleright z \quad \text { (left commutativity) }  \tag{QJ1'}\\
x^{2} \triangleright(x \triangleright y)=x \triangleright\left(x^{2} \triangleright y\right), \quad \text { (left Jordan identity) } \tag{QJ2'}
\end{gather*}
$$

for all $x, y \in \mathfrak{I}$, where $x^{2}=x \triangleright x$.
We will only consider the right quasi-Jordan algebras.
Note 10. The Jordan and Perm algebras are obvious examples of quasi-Jordan algebras.

## 2. EXAMPLES AND PROPERTIES OF QUASI-JORDAN ALGEBRAS

In this section we show other examples of quasi-Jordan algebras and we prove some properties. First, we recall the definitions of Jordan algebra and Jordan bimodule.

Definition 11. Let $J$ be a vector space over a field $K$ of characteristic different from 2. We say that $J$ is a Jordan algebra over $J$ if there is a product $\bullet: J \times J \rightarrow J$ that satisfies the identities

$$
\begin{equation*}
a \bullet b=b \bullet a \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
a^{2} \bullet(b \bullet a)=\left(a^{2} \bullet b\right) \bullet a, \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $a, b \in J$, where $a^{2}=a \bullet a$.
Definition 12. Let $J$ be a Jordan algebra and let $M$ be a vector space over the same field as $J$. Then $M$ is a Jordan bimodule for $J$ in case there are two bilinear compositions $(m, a) \mapsto m a$ and $(m, a) \mapsto a m$, for all $m \in M$ and $a \in J$, satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
m a=a m \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(a^{2}, m, a\right)=\left(a^{2}, b, m\right)+2(m a, b, a)=0, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $m \in M$ and $a, b \in J$, where $(a, b, c)$ denotes the associator.
Example 13. Let $J$ be a Jordan algebra and let $M$ be a Jordan bimodule. A linear map $f: M \rightarrow J$ is called J-equivariant over $M$ if $f(a m)=a \bullet f(m)$, for all $m \in M$ and $a \in J$. If $f$ is a $J$-equivariant map over $M$, then we define the product $\triangleleft: M \times$ $M \rightarrow M$ by

$$
m \triangleleft n=f(n) m, \quad \text { for all } m, n \in M \text {. }
$$

The product $\triangleleft$ satisfies the identities

$$
\begin{align*}
m \triangleleft(n \triangleleft s) & =m \triangleleft(s \triangleleft n)  \tag{QJ1}\\
(n \triangleleft m) \triangleleft m^{2} & =\left(n \triangleleft m^{2}\right) \triangleleft m  \tag{QJ2}\\
m \triangleleft\left(n \triangleleft m^{2}\right)+2\left(m^{2} \triangleleft n\right) \triangleleft m & =(m \triangleleft n) \triangleleft m^{2}+2 m^{2} \triangleleft(n \triangleleft m), \tag{QJ4}
\end{align*}
$$

for all $m, n, s \in M$, but it is, in general, not commutative.
If we compare the products $\triangleleft$ defined by $(\triangleleft 1)$ and $(\triangleleft 2)$, these products satisfy the identities (QJ1), (QJ2), and (QJ4).

Another way to define a product over Jordan algebras and Jordan bimodules is the following: over the vector space $J \times M$, where $J$ is a Jordan algebra and $M$ is a Jordan bimodule over $J$, we define the product $\triangleleft$ by

$$
(a, m) \triangleleft(b, n)=(a b, m b), \quad \text { for all } a, b \in J \quad \text { and } \quad m, n \in M
$$

For simplicity we write $(a, m) b=(a b, m b)$. This product is a particular case of the product defined by $(\triangleleft 2)$. If we define the projection map $\pi_{J}: J \times M \rightarrow J$ by $\pi_{J}(a, m)=a$, then $\pi_{J}((a, m) b)=a b=a \pi_{J}(b, n)$ and this is equivalent to

$$
\pi_{J}((a, m) \triangleleft(b, n))=\pi_{J}(a, m) \bullet \pi_{J}(b, n),
$$

for all $a, b \in J$ and $m, n \in M$.
We have that $J \times M$ is a Jordan bimodule over $J$ with bilinear compositions defined by $a(b, n)=(a b, a n)$ and $(b, m) a=(b a, m a)$. The map $\pi_{J}$ defined over $J \times$ $(J \times M)$ is $J$-equivariant since

$$
\pi_{J}((a, m) b)=\pi_{J}(a, m) \bullet b, \quad \text { for all } b \in J \quad \text { and } \quad(a, m) \in J \times M .
$$

Now, we are going to construct a quasi-Jordan algebra with respect to a vector space and its Jordan algebra of linear transformations.

Example 14. Let $V$ be a vector space over a field $K$ with a characteristic different from 2 and let $g l^{+}(V)$ be a Jordan algebra of linear transformations over $V$ with a product defined by

$$
A \bullet B=\frac{1}{2}(A B+B A),
$$

where $A B$ denotes the composition of the maps $A$ and $B$. We consider the vector space $g l^{+}(V) \times V$ and we define the product $\triangleleft:\left(g l^{+}(V) \times V\right) \times\left(g l^{+}(V) \times V\right) \rightarrow$ $g l^{+}(V) \times V$ by

$$
(A, u) \triangleleft(B, v)=(A \bullet B, B u),
$$

for all $A, B \in g l(V)$ and $u, v \in V$. This product satisfies the identities

$$
\begin{equation*}
(A, u) \triangleleft((B, v) \triangleleft(C, w))=(A, u) \triangleleft((C, w) \triangleleft(B, v)) \tag{QJ1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
((B, v) \triangleleft(A, u)) \triangleleft(A, u)^{2}=\left((B, v) \triangleleft(A, u)^{2}\right) \triangleleft(A, u), \tag{QJ2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $A, B \in g l^{+}(V)$ and $u, v \in V$, where $(A, u)^{2}=(A, u) \triangleleft(A, u)$.
This algebra is power-associative and $(I d, v)$, where $I d$ denotes the identity map over $V$, is a right unit which is not a left unit.

Following Kinyon and Weinstein's ideas (see Kinyon and Weinstein, 2001), in this part we will obtain Jordan algebras from quasi-Jordan algebras and we show
a universal property about homomorphisms from quasi-Jordan algebras to Jordan algebras.

Let $\mathfrak{\lessgtr}$ be a quasi-Jordan algebra. A subspace $I \subset \mathfrak{J}$ is called left (resp., right) ideal if for any $a \in I$ and $x \in \mathfrak{J}$ we have $a \triangleleft x \in I$ (resp., $x \triangleleft a \in I$ ). If $I$ is both left and right ideal, then $I$ is called a two-sided ideal.

For a quasi-Jordan algebra $\mathfrak{I}$ we put

$$
Z^{r}(\mathfrak{F})=\{z \in \mathfrak{I} \mid x \triangleleft z=0, \forall x \in \mathfrak{I}\} .
$$

We denote by $\mathfrak{\Im}^{a n n}$ the subspace of $\mathfrak{\Im}$ spanned by elements of the form $x \triangleleft y-$ $y \triangleleft x$, with $x, y \in \mathfrak{I}$. We have that $\mathfrak{J}$ is a Jordan algebra if and only if $\mathfrak{S}^{a n n}=\{0\}$.

It follows from the right commutativity (QJ1) that in any quasi-Jordan algebra we have

$$
x \triangleleft(y \triangleleft z-z \triangleleft y)=0 .
$$

The last identity implies

$$
\Im^{a n n} \subset Z^{r}(\Im) .
$$

Lemma 15. Let $\mathfrak{J}$ be a quasi-Jordan algebra. Then $\Im^{a n n}$ and $Z^{r}(\Im)$ are two-sided ideals of $\mathfrak{\Im}$. Moreover,

$$
\left(Z^{r}(\Im) \triangleleft \Im\right) \subset \Im^{a n n}
$$

Proof. Because $\Im^{a n n} \subset Z^{r}(\Im)$ and $\Im \triangleleft Z^{r}(\Im)=0$ it suffices to show the last inclusion. For all $z \in Z^{r}(\mathfrak{F})$ and $x \in \mathfrak{J}$ by definition we have $x \triangleleft z=0$ and

$$
z \triangleleft x=z \triangleleft x-x \triangleleft z \in \Im^{a n n} .
$$

Then $Z^{r}(\mathfrak{\Im}) \triangleleft \mathfrak{\Im} \subset \mathfrak{\Im}^{\text {ann }}$ and $\mathfrak{\Im}^{\text {ann }}, Z^{r}(\mathfrak{F})$ are two-sided ideals of $\mathfrak{\Im}$.
Let $(\Im, \triangleleft)$ be a quasi-Jordan algebra. If we consider the quotient algebra $\Im_{\text {Jor }}:=\mathfrak{J} / \mathfrak{\Im}^{a n n}$ we see that $\mathfrak{J}_{\text {Jor }}$ is a Jordan algebra. Moreover, the ideal $\mathfrak{\Im}^{a n n}$ is the smallest two-sided ideal in $\mathfrak{\Im}$ such that $\mathfrak{J} / \Im^{\text {ann }}$ is a Jordan algebra. In effect, let $I$ be any two-sided ideal of $\mathfrak{I}$ such that $\mathfrak{J} / I$ is a Jordan algebra, then $x \triangleleft y-y \triangleleft x+I=I$ and this implies that $\Im^{\text {ann }} \subset I$. The quotient map $\pi: \mathfrak{I} \rightarrow \mathfrak{J}_{\text {Jor }}$ is a homomorphism of quasi-Jordan algebras. Besides $\pi$ is universal with respect to all homomorphisms from $\mathfrak{J}$ to another Jordan algebra $J$, this is equivalent to the fact that following diagram commutes:


A right unit in a quasi-Jordan algebra $\mathfrak{J}$ is an element $e$ in $\mathfrak{J}$ such that $x \triangleleft e=$ $x$, for all $x \in \mathfrak{\Im}$.

Let $\mathfrak{\Im}$ be a quasi-Jordan algebra, if there is an element $\epsilon$ in $\mathfrak{\Im}$ such that $\epsilon \triangleleft$ $x=x$, then $\mathfrak{F}$ is a classical Jordan algebra and $\epsilon$ is a unit. For this reason we only consider right units over quasi-Jordan algebras.

It is possible to attach a unit to any Jordan algebra, but in quasi-Jordan algebras the problem of attaching a right unit is an open problem. Additionally, the right units in quasi-Jordan algebras are not unique (see Examples 16 and 18).

We denote by $U_{r}(\mathfrak{F})$ the set of all right units of a quasi-Jordan algebra $\mathfrak{J}$. A right unital quasi-Jordan algebra is a quasi-Jordan algebra with a specified right unit $e$.

Example 16. Let $V$ be a vector space and fix $\varphi \in V^{\prime}$ with $\varphi \neq 0$. We define the product $\triangleleft: V \times V \rightarrow V$ by $x \triangleleft y=\varphi(y) x$, for all $x, y \in V$. Then $(V, \varphi)$ is a quasiJordan algebra and all elements $x$ in $V$ such that $\varphi(x) \neq 0$ define a right unit $x / \varphi(x)$. Moreover, $U_{r}(V)$ is an affine space modeled after the $\operatorname{Ker} \varphi$.

We will show the following characterization of the ideal $\mathfrak{J}^{\text {ann }}$ and the set $U_{r}(\mathfrak{\Im})$ of all right units.

Lemma 17. Let $\Im$ be a right unital quasi-Jordan algebra, with a specific right unit e. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Im^{a n n}=Z^{r}(\mathfrak{\Im}), \\
& \Im^{a n n}=\{x \in \mathfrak{J} \mid e \triangleleft x=0\},
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
U_{r}(\mathfrak{F})=\left\{x+e \mid x \in \mathfrak{J}^{a n n}\right\} .
$$

Proof. For all $z \in Z^{r}(\mathfrak{I})$, we have that $z=z \triangleleft e-e \triangleleft z \in \mathfrak{I}^{a n n}$, i.e., $\mathfrak{J}^{a n n}=Z^{r}(\mathfrak{I})$. It is clear that $\mathfrak{J}^{a n n} \subset\{x \in \mathfrak{F} \mid e \triangleleft x=0\}$. Suppose that $x \in \mathfrak{I}$ satisfies $e \triangleleft x=0$, then $x=x \triangleleft e-e \triangleleft x \in \Im^{a n n}$. Finally, we have that $e+x \in U_{r}(\Im)$, for all $x \in \mathfrak{J}^{a n n}$. Conversely, for any $e^{\prime} \in U_{r}(\Im)$, we have $e^{\prime}-e=e^{\prime} \triangleleft e-e \triangleleft e^{\prime} \in \Im^{a n n}$.

Example 18. Let $V$ be a 2 -dimensional vector space with base $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}\right\}$. If we define the product $\triangleleft: V \times V \rightarrow V$ with respect to $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$ by $e_{i} \triangleleft e_{j}=e_{i}$, for $i=1,2$, and extend the product to $V$ by linearity, we have that $(V, \triangleleft)$ is a noncommutative quasi-Jordan algebra.

Now, if we consider the symmetric product $x \bullet y=x \triangleleft y+y \triangleleft x$, for all $x, y \in V$, then $(V, \bullet)$ is a Jordan algebra.

Example 19. Let $J$ be a Jordan algebra and let $M$ be a Jordan bimodule such that the identity $(a, b, a m)=0$ is not satisfied. Then the quasi-Jordan algebra $(J \times M, \triangleleft)$, with product $\triangleleft$ defined by ( $\triangleleft 3$ ), is not a Jordan algebra with respect to the symmetric product

$$
(a, m) \bullet(b, n)=\frac{1}{2}((a, m) \triangleleft(b, n)+(b, n) \triangleleft(a, m))
$$

In this point it is important to recall the definition of a noncommutative Jordan algebra and see the relation with quasi-Jordan algebras (see Bremner et al., 2008, Section 6). A noncommutative Jordan algebra is a vector space $J_{n}$ over a field $K$ of characteristic different from 2 equipped with a product $: J_{n} \times J_{n} \rightarrow J_{n}$ satisfying the flexible law and the Jordan identity, i.e.,

$$
\begin{align*}
x \cdot(y \cdot x) & =(x \cdot y) \cdot x  \tag{7}\\
x^{2} \cdot(y \cdot x) & =\left(x^{2} \cdot y\right) \cdot x \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

for all $x, y \in J_{n}$. The following lemma gives necessary and sufficient conditions for an algebra to be a noncommutative Jordan algebra (see Bremner et al., 2008, Section 6, Fact 4).

Lemma 20. An algebra $A$ is a noncommutative Jordan algebra if and only if it is flexible (satisfies the flexible law) and the corresponding plus-algebra $A^{+}$is a Jordan algebra $\left(A^{+}=(A, \bullet)\right.$ is a Jordan algebra, with $x \bullet y=\frac{1}{2}(x \cdot y+y \cdot x)$ ).

Remark 21. The previous lemma and the last example imply that there are quasi-Jordan algebras which are not noncommutative Jordan algebras. Moreover, there exist noncommutative Jordan algebras which are not quasi-Jordan algebras. In effect, let $A$ be an associative and noncommutative algebra over a field $K$ (characteristic $\neq 2$ ) and let $a \in K$ with $a \neq \frac{1}{2}$. We define a new product on $A$ as

$$
x \bullet_{a} y=a x y+(1-a) y x
$$

and we denote the resulting algebra by $A^{a}$. The algebra $A^{a}$ is a noncommutative Jordan algebra, but it is not a quasi-Jordan algebra.

Remark 22. Let $\mathfrak{F}$ be a quasi-Jordan algebra. If we define the associator $(x, y, z):=x \triangleleft(y \triangleleft z)-(x \triangleleft y) \triangleleft z$, then $(\Im,[\cdot, \cdot],(\cdot, \cdot, \cdot))$ is an Akivis algebra (see Bremner et al., 2008, Section 8).

In future works we will search to find more specific relations between (commutative and noncommutative) Jordan algebras and quasi-Jordan algebras. Furthermore, we will search for relations between quasi-Jordan algebras and Leibniz algebras.

## 3. QUASI-JORDAN ALGEBRAS GENERATED BY Q-JORDAN ELEMENTS IN LEIBNIZ ALGEBRAS

In this section we show that it is possible to attach a quasi-Jordan algebra to some elements of a Leibniz algebra $L$.

This construction translates the results obtained by Fernández López et al. (2007, Theorem 2.4) to the context of Leibniz algebras and quasi-Jordan algebras.

We begin by introducing the definition of an adjoint map in Leibniz algebras and we show some properties.

Definition 23. Let $L$ be a Leibniz algebra. For all $x \in L$, we define the adjoint map $a d_{x}: L \rightarrow L$ by $a d_{x} y=[y, x]$, for all $y \in L$. Additionally, the Leibniz identity implies that $a d_{x}$ is a derivation over $L$, since $a d_{x}[y, z]=\left[a d_{x} y, z\right]+\left[y, a d_{x} z\right]$, for all $y, z \in L$.

Remark 24. The map $a d: L \rightarrow g l(L), x \mapsto a d_{x}$, where $g l(L)$ is the Lie algebra of linear maps over $L$ with a Lie bracket $[T, S]=T S-S T$, is an antihomomorphism of Leibniz algebras,

$$
\begin{equation*}
a d_{[x, y]}=\left[a d_{y}, a d_{x}\right], \quad \text { for all } x, y \in L \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

The set $\operatorname{ad}(L)=\left\{a d_{x} \mid x \in L\right\}$ with the bracket defined by $\left[a d_{x}, a d_{y}\right]:=a d_{x} a d_{y}-$ $a d_{y} a d_{x}$ turns out to be a Lie algebra, in particular it is a Lie subalgebra of $g l(L)$.

Notation 25. We will use capital letters to denote the adjoint maps (the elements of $\operatorname{ad}(L)): X=a d_{x}, Y=a d_{y}$, etcetera. In this notation the last identity has the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
a d_{[x, y]}=[Y, X] . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Definition 26. Let $L$ be a Leibniz algebra and let $x$ be an element in $L$. We say that $x$ is an ad-nilpotent element if there is a positive integer $m$ such that $a d_{x}^{m}=0$. For any ad-nilpotent element $x \in L$ we define the ad-nilpotence index of $x$ as the positive integer $m$ such that $a d_{x}^{m}=0$ and $a d_{x}^{m-1} \neq 0$.

The elements in a Leibniz algebra that satisfy the following definition are the central objects in the construction of quasi-Jordan algebras from Leibniz algebras.

Definition 27. We say that an element $x$ in a Leibniz algebra $L$ is a $Q$-Jordan element if $x$ is an ad-nilpotent element of index at most 3 .

Example 28. A natural example of Jordan elements are the zero-square elements in a dialgebra. Let $D$ be a dialgebra and let $L$ be the Leibniz algebra $D_{\text {Leib }}$. For any $x, y \in L$, we have:

1. $a d_{x}^{2}(y)=y \dashv(x \dashv x)-2(x \vdash y) \dashv x+(x \vdash x) \vdash y$;
2. $a d_{x}^{3}(y)=y \dashv x_{\dashv}^{3}-3(x \vdash y) \dashv(x \dashv x)+3(x \vdash x) \vdash(y \dashv x)+x_{\vdash}^{3} \dashv y$,
where $x_{\dashv}^{3}=x \dashv(x \dashv x)$ and $x_{\vdash}^{3}=(x \vdash x) \vdash x$.
Thus, if $x$ is an element in $D$ such that $x \dashv x=0$ or $x \vdash x=0$ then $a d_{x}^{3}(y)=$ 0 , since $(x \vdash y) \dashv(x \dashv x)=(x \vdash y) \dashv(x \vdash x)$ and $(x \vdash x) \vdash(y \dashv x)=(x \dashv x) \vdash(y \dashv$ $x$ ). This implies that $x$ is a $Q$-Jordan element in the Leibniz algebra $D^{-}$. Note also $a d_{x}^{2}(L)=x \vdash L \dashv x$.

Example 29. Let $L$ be Leibniz algebra with basis $\{a, b, c, d, e\}$ defined by

$$
\begin{array}{lccc}
{[a, b]=c} & {[a, c]=-2 a} & {[b, a]=-c} & {[b, c]=2 b,} \\
{[c, a]=2 a} & {[c, b]=-2 b} & {[d, b]=e} & {[d, c]=-d,} \\
{[e, a]=d} & {[e, c]=e} & &
\end{array}
$$

where the omitted products are equal to zero. It is not difficult to see that $a, b$ are $Q$-Jordan elements in $L, L^{a n n}$ is the subspace generate by $\{d, e\}$ and $L_{L i e}$ is isomorphic to the Lie algebra $s l_{2}$.

The next example of Leibniz algebras appeared in the work Liu (2006) on simple Leibniz algebra with Lie factor $s l_{2}$.

Example 30. Let $L$ be a Leibniz algebra over a field $K$ (of characteristic zero) with basis $\{h, e, f, u, v, w\}$ defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[h, e]=2 e+2 \alpha u \quad[h, f]=-2 f+\beta w \quad[e, h]=-2 e \quad[e, f]=h+\alpha v,} \\
& {[f, h]=2 f \quad[f, e]=-h-\beta v \quad[u, h]=-2 u \quad[u, f]=-v,} \\
& {[v, e]=-2 u \quad[v, f]=-w \quad[w, h]=2 w \quad[w, e]=-2 v,}
\end{aligned}
$$

where the omitted products are equal to zero and $\alpha, \beta$ are two fixed elements of the field $K$.

We have that $e$ is a $Q$-Jordan element in $L, L^{a n n}$ is the subspace generated by $\{u, v, w\}$ and $\operatorname{Ker}_{L}(x)$ is the subspace generated by $\{e, h, u, v\}$.

We are going to recall two results due to Konstrikin (see Benkart, 1977) and Benkart and Isaacs (1977) about ad-nilpotent elements in Lie algebras.

Theorem 31 (Konstrikin). Let $\mathfrak{g}$ be a Lie algebra and let a be a nonzero element in $\mathfrak{g}$ such that ad $d_{a}^{m}=0$, for $m \geq 4$. If g is $n$-torsion free for all $n \leq m$, then

$$
\left(a d_{a d_{a}^{m-1}(c)}\right)^{m-1}=0, \quad \text { for all } c \in \mathfrak{g}
$$

Therefore $\mathfrak{g}$ contains a nonzero ad-nilpotent element of index at most 3 .
Theorem 32. Any nonzero finite dimensional Lie algebra over an algebraically closed field of arbitrary characteristic necessarily contains a nonzero ad-nilpotent element and therefore a nonzero ad-nilpotent element of index at most 3 .

This result is trivial in Leibniz algebras that are non-Lie algebras, because $a d_{z}=0$ for all $z \in L^{a n n}$ and $L^{a n n} \neq\{0\}$.

Conjecture 33. We conjecture that the last two theorems are true in the context of Leibniz algebras for nontrivial elements (i.e., $x \in L$ such that $x \notin L^{a n n}$ ).

Lemma 34. Let $L$ be a Leibniz algebra. Then for all positive integers $n$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
A D_{X}^{n}(Y)=a d_{X^{n}(y)}, \quad \text { for all } x, y \in L \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A D_{X}: \operatorname{ad}(L) \rightarrow \operatorname{ad}(L), Y \mapsto[X, Y]$ for all $X, Y \in \operatorname{ad}(L)$, is the adjoint map over $\operatorname{ad}(L)$.

Proof. If $n=1$, by (10) we have

$$
A D_{X}(Y)=[X, Y]=a d_{[y, x]}=a d_{a d_{x}(y)}=a d_{X(y)} .
$$

We suppose that the property is true for $n=k$, this is

$$
A D_{X}^{k}(Y)=a d_{X^{k}(y)}, \quad \text { for all } x, y \in L
$$

Because $X^{k+1}=X\left(X^{k}(y)\right)=\left[X^{k}(y), x\right]$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
A D_{X}^{k+1}(Y) & =A D_{X}\left(A D_{X}^{k}(Y)\right)=A D_{X}\left(a d_{X^{k}(y)}\right) \\
& =\left[X, a d_{X^{k}(y)}\right]=\left[a d_{x}, a d_{X^{k}(y)}\right] \\
& =a d_{\left[X^{k}(y), x\right]}=a d_{X^{k+1}(y)}
\end{aligned}
$$

and the result is true for $n=k+1$.
Now, we are going to show that it is possible to obtain a quasi-Jordan algebra from any $Q$-Jordan element in a Leibniz algebra. Throughout this section we will be dealing with Leibniz algebras over a field $K$ containing $1 / 6$ ( $K$ containing the elements $1 / 2$ and $1 / 3$ ). Following the ideas of Lemma 2.3 in Fernández López et al. (2007), we have the next result for ad-nilpotent elements of index at most 3 in Leibniz algebras.

Lemma 35. Let $x$ be an ad-nilpotent element of index at most 3 of a Leibniz algebra $L$. For any $a, b \in L$ and $\alpha \in K$, we have:

1. $X^{2} A X=X A X^{2}$;
2. $X^{2} A X^{2}=0$;
3. $X^{2} A^{2} X A X^{2}=X^{2} A X A^{2} X^{2}$;
4. $\left[X^{2}(a), X(b)\right]=-\left[X(a), X^{2}(b)\right]$;
5. $a d_{x}^{2}([a,[b, x]])=\left[X(a), X^{2}(b)\right]$;
6. $X^{2} a d_{\left[a, X^{2}(b)\right]}=a d_{\left[X^{2}(a), b\right]} X^{2}$;
7. $a d_{X^{2}(a)} a d_{X^{2}(b)}=X^{2} A B X^{2}$;
8. $\alpha x, a d_{x}^{2}(a)$ are $Q$-Jordan elements in $L$,
where $A=a d_{a}$ and $B=a d_{b}$.
Proof. 1. Because $X^{3}(a)=0$, then $a d_{X^{3}(a)}=0$. By (11), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =a d_{X^{3}(a)}=A D_{X}^{3}(A) \\
& =[X,[X,[X, A]]] \\
& =X^{3} A-3 X^{2} A X+3 X A X^{2}-A X^{3} \\
& =3\left(X A X^{2}-X^{2} A X\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

which proves 1 , since $L$ is 3 -torsion free.
2. From 1 we have that $X^{2} A X=X A X^{2}$. Then multiplying on the right side by $X$ we obtain 2 .
3. By 2 we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =X^{2}([[[X, A], A], A]) X^{2} \\
& =X^{2}\left(X A^{3}-3 A X A^{2}+3 A^{2} X A-A^{3} X\right) X^{2} \\
& =3\left(X^{2} A^{2} X A X^{2}-X^{2} A X A^{2} X^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

4. From $X^{3}=0$, using the Leibniz identity we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =X^{3}([a, b])=[[[[a, b], x], x], x] \\
& =[[[[a, x], b], x], x]+[[[a,[b, x]], x], x] \\
& =[[[[a, x], x], b], x]+2[[[a, x],[b, x]], x]+[[a,[[b, x], x]], x] .
\end{aligned}
$$

The Leibniz identity implies that

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =3([[[a, x], x],[b, x]]+[[a, x],[[b, x], x]]) \\
& =3\left(\left[X^{2}(a), X(b)\right]+\left[X(a), X^{2}(b)\right]\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $\left[X^{2}(a), X(b)\right]=-\left[X(a), X^{2}(b)\right]$, because $L$ is 3-torsion free.
5. From the Leibniz identity and 4 , we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
a d_{x}^{2}([a,[b, x]]) & =[[[a,[b, x]], x], x] \\
& =[[[a, x],[b, x]], x]+[[a,[[b, x], x]], x] \\
& =[[[a, x], x],[b, x]]+2[[a, x],[[b, x], x]] .
\end{aligned}
$$

From the definition of $X$, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
a d_{x}^{2}([a,[b, x]]) & =\left[X^{2}(a), X(b)\right]+2\left[X(a), X^{2}(b)\right] \\
& =-\left[X(a), X^{2}(b)\right]+2\left[X(a), X^{2}(b)\right] \\
& =\left[X(a), X^{2}(b)\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

6. Since $a d_{\left[a, X^{2}(b)\right]}=[[X,[X, B]], A]$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
X^{2} a d_{\left[a, X^{2}(b)\right]} & =X^{2}\left(\left(X^{2} B-2 X B X+B X^{2}\right) A-A\left(X^{2} B-2 X B X+B X^{2}\right)\right) \\
& =2 X^{2} A X B X-X^{2} A B X^{2} \\
& =2 X A X B X^{2}-X^{2} A B X^{2} \\
& =[B,[X,[X, A]]] X^{2} \\
& =a d_{\left[X^{2}(a), b\right]} X^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

7. From (11) and 2, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
a d_{X^{2}(a)} a d_{X^{2}(b)} & =[X,[X, A]][X,[X, B]] \\
& =\left(X^{2} A-2 X A X+A X^{2}\right)\left(X^{2} B-2 X B X+B X^{2}\right) \\
& =-2 X^{2} A X B X+X^{2} A B X^{2}+4 X A X^{2} B X-2 X A X B X^{2} \\
& =X^{2} A B X^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

8. $a d_{\alpha x}^{3}=\alpha^{3} a d_{x}^{3}$ shows that $\alpha x$ is a Jordan element. Using 2 and 7 , we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
a d_{X^{2}(a)}^{3} & =a d_{X^{2}(a)} a d_{X^{2}(a)}^{2}=[X,[X, A]] X^{2} A^{2} X^{2} \\
& =\left(X^{2} A-2 X A X+A X^{2}\right) X^{2} A^{2} X^{2} \\
& =0,
\end{aligned}
$$

so $a d_{x}^{2}(a)$ is a $Q$-Jordan element.
Theorem 36. Let L be a Leibniz algebra and let $x$ be a Q-Jordan element of $L$. Then $L$ with the new product defined by

$$
a \triangleleft b:=\frac{1}{2}[a,[b, x]]
$$

is a nonassociative algebra, denoted by $L^{(x)}$, such that

$$
\operatorname{Ker}_{L}(x):=\left\{a \in L \mid X^{2}(a)=0\right\}
$$

is an ideal of $L^{(x)}$.
Proof. Let $a \in \operatorname{Ker}_{L}(x)$ and let $b \in L$. Using 4 and 5 in the previous lemma, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X^{2}([b,[a, x]])=\left[X(b), X^{2}(a)\right]=0, \\
& X^{2}([a,[b, x]])=\left[X(a), X^{2}(b)\right]=-\left[X^{2}(a), X(b)\right]=0,
\end{aligned}
$$

since $X^{2}(a)=0$. Therefore $a \triangleleft b$ and $b \triangleleft a$ are in $\operatorname{Ker}_{L}(x)$.
In the following theorem we are going to see that it is possible to attach a quasi-Jordan algebra $L_{x}$ to any $Q$-Jordan element $x$ in a Leibniz algebra $L$. This result is Theorem 2.4 in Fernández López et al. (2007) for Leibniz algebras.

Theorem 37. Let L be a Leibniz algebra and let $x$ be a Q-Jordan element of $L$. Then $L_{x}:=L^{(x)} / \operatorname{Ker}_{L}(x)$ is a quasi-Jordan algebra.

Proof. Let $a, b \in L$ and $\bar{a}$ denotes the coset of $a$ with respect to $\operatorname{ker}_{L}(x)$.
We have

$$
c \triangleleft(b \triangleleft a)=\frac{1}{4}[c,[[b,[a, x]], x]] \quad \text { and } \quad c \triangleleft(a \triangleleft b)=\frac{1}{4}[c,[[a,[b, x]], x]] .
$$

Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
a d_{x}^{2}([c,[[b,[a, x]], x]]) & =\left[X(c), X^{2}([b,[a, x]])\right] \\
& =\left[X(c), X^{2}([[b, a], x]-[[b, x], a])\right] \\
& =\left[X(c), X^{2}(-[[b, x], a])\right],
\end{aligned}
$$

by 4 in Lemma 35 we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
a d_{x}^{2}([c,[[b,[a, x]], x]]) & =-\left[X^{2}(c), X(-[[b, x], a])\right] \\
& =-\left[X^{2}(c),[-[[b, x], a], x]\right] \\
& =-\left[X^{2}(c),[[a,[b, x]], x]\right] \\
& =-\left[X^{2}(c), X([a,[b, x]])\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using 4 from Lemma 35 , we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
a d_{x}^{2}([c,[[b,[a, x]], x]]) & =\left[X(c), X^{2}([a,[b, x]])\right] \\
& =a d_{x}^{2}([c,[[a,[b, x]], x]]) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $c \triangleleft(b \triangleleft a)-c \triangleleft(a \triangleleft b) \in \operatorname{Ker}_{L}(x)$, this is $\bar{c} \triangleleft(\bar{a} \triangleleft \bar{b})=\bar{c} \triangleleft(\bar{b} \triangleleft \bar{a})$. We will verify the Jordan identity. Let $a, b \in L$ and put $w:=[[a,[a, x]], x]$. Then

$$
8\left(\bar{b} \triangleleft \bar{a}^{2}\right) \triangleleft \bar{a}=\overline{[[b,[[a,[a, x]], x]],[a, x]]}=\overline{[[b, w],[a, x]]}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
8(\bar{b} \triangleleft \bar{a}) \triangleleft \bar{a}^{2} & =\overline{[[b,[a, x]],[[a,[a, x]], x]]}=\overline{[[b,[a, x]], w]} \\
& =\overline{[[b, w],[a, x]]}+\overline{[b,[[a, x], w]]} \\
& =8\left(\bar{b} \triangleleft \bar{a}^{2}\right) \triangleleft \bar{a}+\overline{[b,[[a, x], w]]}
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus we only need to verify that $[b,[[a, x], w]]$ is in $\operatorname{Ker}_{L}(x)$. In effect, because $[b,[[a, x], w]]=a d_{[[a, x], w]}(b)$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
a d_{x}^{2} a d_{[[a, x], w]} & =X^{2}[W,[X, A]] \\
& =X^{2} W X A-X^{2} W A X+X^{2} A X W
\end{aligned}
$$

since $X^{3}=0$, and

$$
a d_{w}=W=X^{2} A^{2}-2 X A X A+2 A X A X-A^{2} X^{2} .
$$

From

$$
\begin{aligned}
X^{2} W A X & =0 \\
-X^{2} W A X & =-2 X^{2} A X A X A X+X^{2} A^{2} X^{2} A X \\
X^{2} A X W & =2 X^{2} A X A X A X-X^{2} A X A^{2} X^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

we have $a d_{x}^{2} a d_{[[a, x], w]}=0$, i.e., $X^{2}([b,[[a, x], w]])=0$, for all $a, b \in L$.
In Example 36, we have $\bar{u} \triangleleft \bar{f}=\bar{f}$ and $\bar{f} \triangleleft \bar{u}=\overline{0}$, then $L_{e}$ is not commutative. Therefore, $L_{x}$ is a noncommutative algebra in general.

Remark 38. Let $L$ be a Leibniz algebra and let $x$ be a $Q$-Jordan element in $L$. Then $L_{x}$ is a Jordan algebra if and only if $[a,[b, x]]-[b,[a, x]] \in \operatorname{Ker}_{L}(x)$, for all $a, b \in L$. In particular, if $L$ is a Lie algebra then $L_{x}$ is a Jordan algebra.

Definition 39. For any $Q$-Jordan element $x$ of a Leibniz algebra $L$, the quasi-Jordan algebra $L_{x}$ we have just introduced will be called the quasi-Jordan algebra of $L$ at $x$.

Note that for the quasi-Jordan algebra of $L$ at $x$, we have $L_{x}^{a n n} \subseteq \overline{L^{a n n}}$ and $\overline{Z^{r}(L)} \subseteq Z^{r}\left(L_{x}\right)$, because

$$
\begin{aligned}
\bar{a} \triangleleft \bar{b} & =\overline{[a,[b, x]]-[b,[a, x]]}=\overline{[a,[b, x]]-[[b, a], x]+[[b, x], a]} \\
& =\overline{[a,[b, x]]+[[b, x], a]} \in \overline{L^{a n n}}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
[a,[b, x]]=[a,-[x, b]]=0, \quad \text { for all } b \in Z^{r}(L)
$$

Therefore, if $L^{a n n} \subseteq \operatorname{Ker}_{L}(x)$, then $L_{x}$ is a Jordan algebra.
Moreover, if $L$ is a Leibniz algebra, then $[a, b]=0$, for any $a \in L$ and $b \in L^{a n n}$, and this implies that Leibniz algebras cannot be nondegenerate in the classical sense, because all elements in $L^{a n n}$ are absolute zero divisors of $L$. Therefore we introduce the following definition.

Definition 40. An element $x$ in a Leibniz algebra $L$ is called an absolute zero divisor of $L$ if $a d_{x}^{2}=0$. A Leibniz algebra $L$ is said to be nondegenerate if the absolute zero divisors in $L$ are elements of $L^{a n n}$, i.e., if $a d_{x}^{2}=0$, for $x \in L$, then $x \in L^{a n n}$.

It should be noted that the above definition agrees with the definition of nondegenerate Lie algebra, since $L^{a n n}=\{0\}$ in this case.

Additionally, if $L$ is a nondegenerate Leibniz algebra, then $L^{a n n}=Z^{r}(L)$, because $a d_{z}=0$ for all $z \in Z^{r}(L)$.

The following lemma shows that if $[[y, x], x]-2 x \in L^{a n n}$, then there are right units in $L_{x}$.

Lemma 41. Let L be a Leibniz algebra and let $x$ be a Jordan element in L. If $y$ is an element in $L$ such that $[[y, x], x]-2 x \in L^{a n n}$, then $\bar{y}$ is a right unit in $L_{x}$. Moreover, $\bar{z}+\bar{y}$ is a right unit in $L_{x}$, for all $z \in Z^{r}(L)$.

Proof. For all $a \in L$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
X^{2}([a,[y, x]]) & =\left[X(a), X^{2}(y)\right] \\
& =[[a, x],[[y, x], x]]=2[[a, x], x]=2 X^{2}(a),
\end{aligned}
$$

since $\quad 0=\left[b, X^{2}(y)-2 x\right]=\left[b, X^{2}(y)\right]-[b, 2 x], \quad$ for all $b \in L$. Therefore, $X^{2}([a,[y, x]]-2 a)=0$ and this is equivalent to $\bar{a} \triangleleft \bar{y}=\bar{a}$, for all $\bar{a} \in L_{x}$. The identities $[a, z]=0$, for all $z \in Z^{r}(L)$, and $[a,[b, c]]=[a,-[c, b]]$, for all $a, b, c \in L$, implies that $\bar{z}+\bar{y}$ is a right unit in $L_{x}$, for all $z \in Z^{r}(L)$.

The previous lemma shows that if $\bar{y}$ is a right unit of $L_{x}$, then $y \notin Z^{r}(L)$.
The next lemma proves that the existence of the right unit is equivalent to $[[y, x], x]-2 x \in L^{a n n}$, for some $y \in L$ and for $x$ a $Q$-Jordan element in a nondegenerate Leibniz algebra $L$.

Lemma 42. Let $L$ be a nondegenerate Leibniz algebra and let $x$ be a Jordan element of $L$. Then $\bar{y}$ is a right unit for the quasi-Jordan algebra $L_{x}$ if and only if $[[y, x], x]-$ $2 x \in L^{a n n}$.

Proof. Suppose that $y \in L$ which $[[y, x], x]-2 x \in L^{a n n}$, then $\bar{y}$ is a right unit of $L_{x}$ by the last lemma.

Suppose, conversely, that $\bar{y}$ is a right unit for $L_{x}$. Put $z:=X^{2}(y)-2 x$. For all $a \in L$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[[a, z], z] } & =\left[\left[a, X^{2}(y)\right], X^{2}(y)\right]-2\left[[a, x], X^{2}(y)\right]-2 X^{2}([a,[y, x]]-2 a) \\
& =\left[\left[a, X^{2}(y)\right]-2[a, x], X^{2}(y)\right] \\
& =\left[\left[a, X^{2}(y)-2 x\right], X^{2}(y)\right] \\
& =[[a, z], z]+2[[a, z], x] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $[[a, z], x]=0$, for all $a \in L$, since $L$ is 2 -torsion free. As $[z, x]=-2[x, x]$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =[[a, z], x]=[[a, x], z]+[a,[z, x]] \\
& =[[a, x], z]-2[a,[x, x]]=[[a, x], z] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, the Leibniz identity and the identities $[[a, z], x]=0=[[a, x], z]$ imply

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[[a, z], z] } & =\left[\left[a, X^{2}(y)\right], z\right]-2[[a, x], z] \\
& =[[a,[[y, x], x], z] \\
& =[[[a,[y, x]], x], z]-[[[a, x],[y, x]], z] \\
& =-[[[a, x], z],[y, x]]-[[a, x],[[y, x], z]]=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $z \in L^{a n n}$, because $L$ is nondegenerate.

Remark 43. The previous lemmas show that if there is an right unit $\bar{y}$ in $L_{x}$, then $\overline{Z^{r}(L)} \subset L_{x}^{a n n}$ and $\overline{Z^{r}(L)}+\bar{y} \subset U_{r}\left(L_{x}\right)$.

We are going to define a special operator over quasi-Jordan algebras. This operator agrees with the $U$-operator over Jordan algebras (see McCrimmon, 2004, Section I.4.1).

Definition 44. Let $\mathfrak{\Im}$ be a quasi-Jordan algebra and let $R_{a}$ be a right multiplicative map by $a$ over $\mathfrak{I}\left(R_{a}: \Im \rightarrow \mathfrak{I}, b \mapsto b \triangleleft a\right)$. For all $a \in \mathfrak{I}$ we define the $U$-operator $U_{a}: \mathfrak{I} \rightarrow \Im$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{a}=2 R_{a}^{2}-R_{a^{2}}, \quad \text { where } a^{2}=a \triangleleft a . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

We will show a special formula for the $U$-operator over $L_{x}$. The next lemma is Lemma 2.4 in Fernández López et al. (2007), for Leibniz algebras.

Lemma 45. Let $x$ be a Q-Jordan element of a Leibniz algebra $L$. Then the quasi-Jordan algebra $L_{x}$ of $L$ at $x$ has a $U$-operator given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{\bar{a}} \bar{b}=\frac{1}{4} \overline{A^{2} X^{2}(b)}, \quad \text { for all } \bar{a}, \bar{b} \in L_{x} . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. For all $c \in L$ we have $[c, x] \in \operatorname{Ker}_{L}(x)$, since $X^{2}([c, x])=X^{3}(c)=0$. Then $\overline{[c, x]}=\overline{0}$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\overline{A^{2} X^{2}(b)}= & \overline{[[[[b, x], x], a], a]} \\
= & \overline{[[[[b, x], a], x], a]}+\overline{[[[b, x],[x, a]], a]} \\
= & \overline{[[[[b, x], a], a], x]}+2 \overline{[[b, x], a],[x, a]]}+\overline{[[b, x],[[x, a], a]]} \\
= & 2 \overline{[[b, a], x],[x, a]]}+2 \overline{[[b,[x, a]],[x, a]]}+\overline{[[b,[[x, a], a]], x]} \\
& +\overline{[b,[x,[[x, a], a]]]} \\
= & 2 \overline{[[[b, a], x],[x, a]]}+2 \overline{[[b,[a, x]],[a, x]]}-\overline{[b,[[a,[a, x]], x]]} \\
= & 4\left(2(\bar{b} \triangleleft \bar{a}) \bar{a}-\bar{b} \triangleleft \bar{a}^{2}\right) \\
= & 4 U_{\bar{a}} \bar{b},
\end{aligned}
$$

since $\overline{[[[b, a], x],[x, a]]}=\overline{0}$, because

$$
\begin{aligned}
X^{2}([X([b, a]),[x, a]]) & =-X^{2}([X([b, a]),[a, x]]) \\
& =-\left[X\left(X([b, a]), X^{2}(a)\right]\right. \\
& =\left[X^{2}(X([b, a]), X(a)]\right. \\
& =\left[X^{3}([b, a]), X(a)\right] \\
& =0,
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $b, a \in L$.

Let $\mathfrak{\Im}$ be a quasi-Jordan algebra. Since $\mathfrak{\Im} \triangleleft \Im^{a n n}=0$, quasi-Jordan algebras cannot be nondegenerate in the classical sense, because all elements in $\mathfrak{\Im}^{\text {ann }}$ are absolute zero divisors of $\mathfrak{F}$. Therefore we introduce the following generalization of the definition of nondegenerate Jordan algebra (see Jacobson, 1968, p. 155).

Definition 46. Let $\mathfrak{F}$ be a quasi-Jordan algebra. An element $a$ in $\mathfrak{F}$ is called an absolute zero divisor of $\mathfrak{F}$ if $U_{a}=0$. A quasi-Jordan algebra $\mathfrak{F}$ is said to be nondegenerate if the absolute zero divisors of $\mathfrak{F}$ are elements of $\mathfrak{J}^{a n n}$, i.e., $U_{a}=0$, for $a \in \mathfrak{I}$, implies $a \in \mathfrak{J}^{a n n}$.

It should be noted that the above definition agrees with the definition of nondegenerate Jordan algebra, since $\mathfrak{\Im}^{a n n}=\{0\}$ in this case.

If $\mathfrak{J}$ is a nondegenerate quasi-Jordan algebra, the last definition implies $\Im^{a n n}=Z^{r}(\Im)$, because $U_{z}=0$, for all $z \in Z^{r}(\Im)$.

Lemma 47. Let $L$ be a nondegenerate Leibniz algebra and let $x$ be a $Q$-Jordan element of $L$. If $\bar{a} \in L_{x}$ is an absolute zero divisor of $L_{x}$, then $\bar{a} \in Z^{r}\left(L_{x}\right)$.

Proof. Let $\bar{a}$ be an absolute zero divisor in $\operatorname{Jor}\left(L_{x}\right)$. Then $U_{\bar{a}} \bar{b}=\overline{0}$ for every $\bar{b} \in L_{x}$. By Lemma 44 we have $0=a d_{x}^{2} a d_{a}^{2} a d_{x}^{2}(b)=X^{2} A^{2} X^{2}(b)=a d_{X^{2}(a)}^{2}(b)$ and therefore $\left(a d_{x}^{2}(a)\right)_{L} \in L^{a n n}$, since $L$ is nondegenerate.

By 5 in Lemma 35, $X^{2}([b,[a, x]])=\left[X^{2}(b), X^{2}(a)\right]=0$, for any $b \in L$. Therefore $\bar{b} \triangleleft \bar{a}=\overline{0}$, for all $b \in L$, and this implies $\bar{a} \in Z^{r}\left(L_{x}\right)$.

Now, we will characterize the $Q$-Jordan elements in Leibniz algebras by inner ideals. First, we define inner ideals in Leibniz algebras.

Definition 48. Let $L$ be a Leibniz algebra. A vector subspace $B$ of $L$ is an inner ideal if $[[L, B], B] \subseteq B$. Clearly, any ideal $I$ of $L$ is an inner ideal. Moreover, subideals of $L$ are also inner ideals.

An abelian inner ideal is an inner ideal $B$ which is also an abelian subalgebra, this is $[B, B]=0$.

According to the last definition, we have the following characterization for Jordan elements in Leibniz algebras.

Lemma 49. Let $L$ be a Leibniz algebra and let $x \in L$. The following conditions are equivalent:

1. $a d_{x}^{3}=0$, with $x \notin L^{a n n}$;
2. $x \in B$, for $B$ an abelian inner ideal such that $B \nsubseteq L^{a n n}$.

Proof. We suppose that $a d_{x}^{3}=0\left(X^{3}(L)=0\right)$ and $x \notin L^{a n n}$. First, we are going to show that $X^{2}(L)$ is an abelian inner ideal of $L$. It suffices to show $Y Z(L) \subseteq X^{2}(L)$, for $Y=a d_{y}$ and $Z=a d_{z}$, where $y=X^{2}(v)$ and $z=X^{2}(w)$. This equality is 7 in Lemma 35. This implies that $Y Z(L) \subseteq X^{2}(L)$.

On the other hand,

$$
[y, z]=Z(y)=\left(X^{2} W-2 X W X+W X^{2}\right)\left(X^{2}(v)\right)=0
$$

therefore $X^{2}(L)$ is an abelian inner ideal of $L$. Then $F x+X^{2}(L)$ is an abelian inner ideal of $L$, where $F$ is the field over which $L$ is defined. Because $a d_{x} \neq 0$, then $x \notin L^{a n n}$.

Now, we suppose that $x \in B$, for $B$ an abelian inner ideal of $L$ such that $B \nsubseteq L^{a n n}$. Then for $x \in B$ such that $x \notin L^{a n n}$, we have $d_{x}^{3}(L)=[[[L, x], x], x] \subseteq$ $[B, x]=0$.

Let $L$ be a Leibniz algebra. A nonzero element $x \in L$ is called von Neumann regular if $X^{3}=0$ and $x \in X^{2}(L)$. It is clear if $x \in L$ is von Neumann regular, then $x \notin Z^{r}(L)$ and $x$ is a $Q$-Jordan element

The following lemma is Lemma 2.7 in Fernández López et al. (2007) for Leibniz algebras with the same proof.

Lemma 50. Let x be a Q-Jordan element of $L$.

1. If $I$ is an ideal of $L$ and $x \in I$ is von Neumann regular, then both quasi-Jordan algebras $I_{x}$ and $L_{x}$ agree.
2. If $L=I \oplus J$ is a direct sum of ideals and $x=i+j$ with respect to this decomposition, then $L_{x} \cong I_{i} \times J_{j}$.
3. For any inner ideal $B$ of $L, B_{x}:=\left(B / \operatorname{Ker}_{L}(x) \cap B, \triangleleft\right)$ is a subalgebra of $L_{x}$.

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