# RIGHT GENERALIZED $(\alpha, \beta)$-DERIVATIONS HAVING POWER CENTRAL VALUES 

Jui-Chi Chang


#### Abstract

Let $R$ be a prime ring with center $Z$ and $f \neq 0$ a right generalized $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation of $R$. If $f(x)^{n} \in Z$ for all $x \in L$, a nonzero ideal of $R$, and for some fixed positive integer $n$, then $R$ is either commutative or is an order in a 4 -dimensional simple algebra.


## 1. Introduction

In [12], Herstein proved that if $R$ is a prime ring with center $Z$ and $d \neq 0$ a derivation of $R$ such that $d(x)^{n} \in Z$ for all $x \in R$, where $n$ is a fixed positive integer, then either $R$ is commutative or is an order in a 4 -dimensional simple algebra. In [3], the author extended this result to an $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation. It is quite natural to generalize this result to a more general case, say, right generalized $(\alpha, \beta)$ derivations. The main result we obtain in this paper also generalizes two recent results on generalized derivations obtained by Lee [15] and Wang [18].

The theorem we shall prove is
Theorem A. Let $R$ be a prime ring with center $Z$ and $f \neq 0$ a right generalized $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation of $R$ such that $f(x)^{n} \in Z$ for all $x \in L$, a nonzero ideal of $R$, and for some fixed positive integer $n$, then $R$ is either commutative or is an order in a 4-dimensional simple algebra.

Theorem $A$ is an immediate consequence of the following
Theorem B. Let $R$ be a prime ring with center $Z$ and $f \neq 0$ a right generalized $\beta$-derivation of $R$ such that $f(x)^{n} \in Z$ for all $x \in L$, a nonzero ideal of $R$, and for some fixed positive integer $n$, then $R$ is either commutative or is an order in a 4-dimensional simple algebra.

[^0]In what follows, let $R$ be a prime ring with center $Z, \alpha$ and $\beta$ automorphisms of $R$ and $\delta$ an $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation of $R$, that is, an additive mapping $\delta: R \rightarrow R$ satisfies

$$
\delta(x y)=\delta(x) \alpha(y)+\beta(x) \delta(y)
$$

for all $x, y \in R$. If $\alpha=1$ ( $\beta=1$ resp.), an identity map of $R$, then we will say that $\delta$ is a $\beta$-derivation ( $\alpha$-derivation resp.). A $\beta$-derivation is also called a skew derivation. We say that $\delta$ is an inner $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation if $\delta(x)=a \alpha(x)-\beta(x) a$ for some $a \in R$. An additive mapping $f: R \rightarrow R$ is said to be a right generalized $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation if it satisfies

$$
f(x y)=f(x) \alpha(y)+\beta(x) \delta(y)
$$

for all $x, y \in R$, where $\delta$ is an $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation of $R$. If $\beta=1$, then we say that $f$ is a generalized $\beta$-derivation.

We let ${ }_{F} R$ denote the right Martindale quotient ring, $Q$ the two sided Martindale quotient ring and $C$ the center of ${ }_{F} R$. Note that all automorphisms and all $(\alpha, \beta)$ derivations of $R$ can be extended to $Q$ and ${ }_{F} R$. An $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation $\delta$ will be called $X$-inner if $\delta(x)=a \alpha(x)-\beta(x) a$ for some $a \in Q$. Also an automorphism $g$ of $R$ will be called $X$-inner if $g(x)=b^{-1} x b$ for some $b \in Q$. We also note that a right generalized $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation $f$ of $R$ can be extended to ${ }_{F} R$ and $f(x)=$ $s \alpha(x)+\delta(x)$ with $s=f(1) \in{ }_{F} R$, where $\delta$ is an $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation associated to $f$ (See [4]).

We begin with one of the crucial results
Lemma 1. Let $R$ be a prime ring and let $a, b, c \in R$ with a invertible in $R$. If $(a(b x-x c))^{n}=0$ for all $x \in L$, where $L \neq 0$ is an ideal of $R$ and $n$ is a fixed positive integer, then $b=c \in Z$.

Proof. By [5, Theorem 2].

$$
(a(b x-x c))^{n}=0
$$

for all $x \in Q$, since $Q$ is also the two sided Martindale quotient ring of $L$. If $b \in Z$, then $(a x(b-c))^{n}=0$ for all $x \in Q$. Substitute $a^{-1} x$ for all $x$, we have $(x(b-c))^{n}=0$ for all $x \in Q$ and hence $b-c=0$ by [11, Lemma 1.1]. Therefore $b=c \in Z$. Similarly, if $c \in Z$, we also have $b=c \in Z$.

Now we may assume that $b \notin Z$ and $c \notin Z$. In this case, $Q$ is a GPI ring. By a theorem of Martindale [17], $Q$ is isomorphic to a dense subring of $\operatorname{End}\left({ }_{D} V\right)$, where $V$ is a left vector space over $D$, the associated division ring of $Q$. If $\operatorname{dim}_{D} V=1$, then $Q \simeq D$ and $a(b x-x c)=0$ for all $x \in Q$. Consequently, we have $b x=x c$ for all $x \in Q$. This implies that $b=c \in Z$, a contradiction. So we may assume that $\operatorname{dim}_{D} V \geq 2$, Suppose there exists $v \in V$ such that $v$ and $v b$ are $D$-independent.

By the density of $Q$, there exists $x \in Q$ such that $v x=0$ and $v b x=v a^{-1}$. Then $v a^{-1}(a(b x-x c))^{n}=v a^{-1} \neq 0$, a contradiction. Thus $v$ and $v b$ are $D$-dependent for all $v \in V$ and as usual, there exists $\lambda \in D$ such that $v b=\lambda v$ for all $v \in V$. So if $x \in Q$, then $v(a(b x-x c))=(v a) b x-v a x c=\lambda v a x-v a x c=v a x b-v a x c=$ $v(a(x(b-c)))$ and $v(a(b x-x c))^{n}=v(a(x(b-c)))^{n}=0$ for all $v \in V$. Since $Q$ acts faithfully on $V$, we have $(a(x(b-c)))^{n}=0$ for all $x \in Q$. As in the beginning of the proof, again we have $b=c \in Z$, a contradiction. This last contradiction proves the lemma.

For the next crucial result, we need the following
Lemma 2. Let $R$ be a prime ring with center $Z$. Let $b \in R$. If $(b x)^{n} \in Z$ $\left((x b)^{n} \in Z\right.$ resp.) for all $x \in L$, where $L$ is a nonzero ideal of $R$ and $n \geq 1$ is a fixed integer, then either $b=0$ or $R$ is commutative.

Proof. Assume that $(b x)^{n} \in Z$ for all $x \in L$. If $Z=0$, then $(b x)^{n}=0$ for all $x \in L$. By [11, Lemma 1.1], $b=0$. Now assume that $Z \neq 0$ and $b \neq 0$. Then $(b x)^{n} y-y(b x)^{n}=0$ for all $x, y \in L$ and hence for all $x, y \in Q$. Therefore $(b x)^{n} \in C$ for all $x \in Q$. Substitute $\lambda \neq 0 \in C$ for $x$, we have $b^{n} \lambda^{n} \in C$ and hence $b^{n} \in Z$. Substitute $b^{n-1} x$ for $x$ into $(b x)^{n} \in C$, we have $b^{n^{2}} x^{n} \in C$. This implies either $b^{n^{2}}=0$ or $x^{n} \in C$ for all $x \in Q$. If $b^{n^{2}}=0$, then there exists $\ell>0$ such that $b^{\ell}=0$ but $b^{\ell-1} \neq 0$. Thus $b^{\ell-1}(b x)^{n}=0$ and hence $(b x)^{n}=0$ for all $x$ $\in Q$. Again, by [11, Lemma 1.1], we have $b=0$, a contradiction. So $x^{n} \in C$ for all $x \in Q$. Therefore $R$ is commutative by a result of Herstein and Kaplansky [10].

Lemma 3. Let $R$ be a prime ring with center $Z$. Let $a, b, c \in R$ with $a$ invertible in $R$. If $(a(b x-x c))^{n} \in Z$ for all $x \in L$, where $L$ is a nonzero ideal of $R$ and $n$ is a fixed positive integer, then $b=c \in Z$, or $R$ is commutative or $R$ is an order in a 4-dimensional simple algebra.

Proof. If $Z=0$, then $(a(b x-x c))^{n}=0$ for all $x \in L$. But then $b=c \in Z$ by Lemma 1. So we may assume that $Z \neq 0$. If $b \in Z$, then $(a(b x-x c))^{n}=$ $(a x(b-c))^{n} \in Z$ for all $x \in L$. Substitute $a^{-1} x$ for $x$, we have $(x(b-c))^{n} \in Z$ for all $x \in L$. Thus $b-c=0$ or $R$ is commutative by Lemma 2. If $b-c=0$, then $b=c \in Z$. Similarly, if $c \in Z$, then $b=c \in Z$ or $R$ is commutative. So from now on we assume that $b \notin Z$ and $c \notin Z$. In this case, $L$ satisfies the nontrivial GPI $(a(b x-x c))^{n} y-y(a(b x-x c))^{n}=0$ and $Q$ also satisfies the same GPI by [5, Theorem 2]. Again by a theorem of Martindale [17], $Q$ is isomorphic to a dense subring of $\operatorname{End}\left({ }_{D} V\right)$, where $D$ is a finite dimensional division ring over $C$ and $V$ is a left $D$-vector space.

If $\operatorname{dim}_{D} V=\infty$, then $(a(b x-x c))^{n}=0$ holds on $H$, the socle of $Q$ and hence holds on $Q$. But again by Lemma $1, b=c=Z$, a contradiction. So we must
have $\operatorname{dim}_{D} V<\infty$ and hence $Q \simeq \operatorname{End}\left({ }_{D} V\right)$. That is, $Q$ is isomorphic to $D_{m}$, the $m \times m$ matrix ring over $D$ for some $m$.

If $C$ is finite, then $D$, being finite dimensional over $C$, is a finite division ring and thus is a field by Wedderburn's theorem [9]. In this case, $Q=C_{m}$. On the other hand, if $C$ is infinite, let $F$ be the algebraic closure of $C$, then by the van der Monde determinant argument, we see that $Q \otimes_{C} F$ satisfies the same GPI $(a(b x-x c))^{n} y-y(a(b x-x c))^{n}=0$. But $Q \otimes_{C} F \simeq D_{m} \otimes_{C} F=\left(D \otimes_{C} F\right)_{m}=F_{k}$ for some $k>1$ since $R$ is not commutative.

Suppose that $k \geq 3$. If $x \in Q$ is of rank 1 , then $b x$ and $x c$ are of rank at most 1. Hence $a(b x-x c)$ and $(a(b x-x c))^{n}$ are of rank at most 2. Consequently, $(a(b x-x c))^{n}=0$ for all $x \in Q$ with rank 1 . Since $b \notin F$, there is a $v \in V$ such that $v$ and $v b$ are linearly independent over $F$. Then there exists $x \in Q$ of rank 1 such that $v x=0$ and $v b x=v a^{-1}$ and hence $v a^{-1}(a(b x-x c))^{n}=v a^{-1} \neq 0$, a contradiction. Therefore $k=2$ and $Q \simeq F_{2}$. Hence $R$ is an order in a 4-dimensional simple algebra.

Lemma 4. Let $R$ be a prime ring and let $b, c \in R$. Let $\beta$ be an automorphism of $R$. Suppose that $(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n}=0$ for all $x \in L$, where $L$ is a nonzero ideal of $R$ and $n$ is a fixed positive integer, then $b x-\beta(x) c=0$ for all $x \in R$.

Proof. If $b=0$ or $c=0$, then we are done by [11, Lemma 1.1]. So we may assume that $b \neq 0$ and $c \neq 0$. Suppose that $\beta$ is $X$-inner. Then $\beta(x)=a x a^{-1}$ for all $x \in R$, where $a$ is invertible in $Q$. Hence

$$
(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n}=\left(b x-a x a^{-1} c\right)^{n}=\left(a\left(a^{-1} b x-x a^{-1} c\right)\right)^{n}=0
$$

for all $x \in L$ and also for all $x \in Q$ by [5, Theorem 2]. By Lemma 1 we have $a^{-1} b=a^{-1} c \in C$. In particular, $b=c$ and then $b x-\beta(x) c=b x-\beta(x) b$ is a $\beta$-derivation. By Lemma 2 in [2], $b x-\beta(x) c=0$ for all $x \in R$ and we are done.

Now suppose that $\beta$ is $X$-outer. Since $L$ satisfies the identity $(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n}=0$, by [5, Theorem 2], $Q$ also satisfies the same identity. Moreover, by the Main Theorem of [8], $Q$ satisfies a nontrivial GPI. By Martindale's theorem [17], $Q$ is isomorphic to a dense subring of $\operatorname{End}\left({ }_{D} V\right)$, where $D$ is the associated division ring of $Q$, and $V$ is a vector space over $D$ and $Q$ contains nonzero linear transformations of finite rank. By [9, P.79], there exists a semi-linear automorphism $T \in \operatorname{End}(V)$ such that $\beta(x)=T x T^{-1}$ for all $x \in Q$. Now $(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n}=\left(b x-T x T^{-1} c\right)^{n}=$ $\left(T\left(T^{-1} b x-x T^{-1} c\right)\right)^{n}=0$ for all $x \in Q$.

If $\operatorname{dim}_{D} V=1$, then $Q \simeq D$ and hence $b x-\beta(x) c=0$ for all $x \in R$. So we may assume that $\operatorname{dim}_{D} V \geq 2$. If $v$ and $T^{-1} b v$ are $D$-dependent for all $v \in V$, then as usual, there is $\lambda \in D$ such that $T^{-1} b v=\lambda v$ for all $v \in V$ and this implies

$$
\begin{aligned}
v T^{-1}(b x-\beta(x) c) & =v T^{-1}\left(b x-T x T^{-1} c\right) \\
& =v T^{-1} b x-v x T^{-1} c \\
& =\lambda v x-v x T^{-1} c \\
& =v x T^{-1} b-v x T^{-1} c \\
& =v T^{-1}\left(T x T^{-1} b-T x T^{-1} c\right) \\
& =v T^{-1}(\beta(x)(b-c))
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $v \in V$ and all $x \in Q$. Since $T$ is a semi-linear automorphism of $V$ and $Q$ acts faithfully on $V$, we have $b x-\beta(x) c=\beta(x)(b-c)$ for all $x \in Q$. Hence $(\beta(x)(b-c))^{n}=0$ for all $x \in Q$. By [11, Lemma 1.1], $b=c$ and hence $b x-\beta(x) c=0$ for all $x \in Q$ as asserted.

Now we may assume that there exists $v_{0} \in V$ such that $v_{0}$ and $v_{0} T^{-1} b$ are $D$-independent. By the density of $Q$, there is a $x \in Q$ such that $v_{0} T^{-1} b x=v_{0} T^{-1}$ and $v_{0} x=0$. This implies

$$
v_{0} T^{-1}\left(T\left(T^{-1} b x-x T^{-1} c\right)\right)=v_{0} T^{-1} b x-v_{0} x T^{-1} c=v_{0} T^{-1}
$$

and

$$
v_{0} T^{-1}\left(T\left(T^{-1} b x-x T^{-1} c\right)\right)^{n}=v_{0} T^{-1} \neq 0
$$

a contradiction. The proof is complete.
Lemma 4 was proved in [16, Lemma 2.6] in a different way. As a corollary we have the following

Theorem 1. Let $R$ be a prime ring and $f$ a right generalized $\beta$-derivation of $R$. If $f(x)^{n}=0$ for all $x \in L$, where $L$ is a nonzero ideal of $R$ and $n$ is a fixed positive integer, then $f=0$.

Proof. We can write $f(x)=s x+\delta(x)$ where $s \in{ }_{F} R$ and where $\delta$ is the associated $\beta$-derivation of $f$. By [8, Theorem 2], we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
(s x+\delta(x))^{n}=0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x \in{ }_{F} R$. If $\delta$ is $X$-outer, then by [8, Theorem 1], we have $(s x+y)^{n}=0$ for all $x, y \in R$. In particular, $y^{n}=0$ for all $y \in R$. By [11, Lemma 1.1], this leads to a contradiction. Suppose now that $\delta$ is $X$-inner. Then $\delta(x)=b x-\beta(x) b$ for all $x \in R$, where $b \in Q$. We can rewrite (1) as

$$
((s+b) x-\beta(x) b)^{n}=0
$$

for all $x \in R$ and hence for all $x \in{ }_{F} R$ [8, Theorem 2]. By Lemma 4, $(s+b) x-$ $\beta(x) b=0$ for all $x \in{ }_{F} R$. Thus $f=0$ follows. This proves the theorem.

As a consequence of Theorem 1, we have

Corollary 1. Let $R$ be a prime ring and $f$ a right generalized $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation of $R$. If $f(x)^{n}=0$ for all $x \in L$, where $L$ is a nonzero ideal of $R$ and $n$ is a fixed positive integer, then $f=0$.

Lemma 5. Let $R$ be a prime ring with center $Z$. Let $b, c \in R$ and let $f(x)=$ $b x-\beta(x) c$ for all $x \in R$. Assume that $f \neq 0$. If $f(x)^{n} \in Z$ for all $x \in L$, where $L \neq 0$ is an ideal of $R$ and $n \geq 1$ is a fixed integer, then either $R$ is commutative or $R$ is an order in a 4-dimensional simple algebra.

Proof. If $Z=0$, then $(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n}=0$ for all $x \in L$ and hence $b x-\beta(x) c=0$ for all $x \in R$ by Lemma 4 , which is a contradiction. So we may assume that $Z \neq 0$. If $\beta$ is $X$-inner, then there exists $a \in Q$ such that $\beta(x)=a x a^{-1}$ for all $x \in R$. So by the hypothesis, we have

$$
(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n}=\left(b x-a x a^{-1} c\right)^{n}=\left(a\left(a^{-1} b x-x a^{-1} c\right)\right)^{n} \in Z
$$

for all $x \in L$. That is, $L$ satisfies the identity $\left(a\left(a^{-1} b x-x a^{-1} c\right)\right)^{n} y-y\left(a\left(a^{-1} b x-\right.\right.$ $\left.\left.x a^{-1} c\right)\right)^{n}=0$. By [5, Theorem 2], $Q$ also satisfies the same identity and hence

$$
\left(a\left(a^{-1} b x-x a^{-1} c\right)\right)^{n} \in C
$$

for all $x \in Q$. By Lemma 3, we see that either $a^{-1} b=a^{-1} c \in C$ or $R$ is commutative or $R$ is an order in a 4 -dimensional simple algebra. If $a^{-1} b=a^{-1} c \in$ $C$, then $b=c$ and hence $b x-\beta(x) c=b x-a x a^{-1} c=b x-c x=0$ for all $x \in R$, which is not the case. Therefore $R$ is commutative or $R$ is an order in a 4-dimensional simple algebra as asserted.

Now suppose that $\beta$ is $X$-outer. By the hypothesis, $L$ satisfies $(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n} y-$ $y(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n}=0$. By Theorem 1 of [6] $Q$ also satisfies the same identity. Moreover, $Q$ satisfies a nontrivial GPI by the Main Theorem of [6]. By a Martindale's result cited before, $Q$ is a primitive ring having nonzero socle and its associated division ring $D$ is finite dimensional over $C$. Hence $Q$ is isomorphic to a dense subring of $\operatorname{End}\left({ }_{D} V\right)$. If $\operatorname{dim}_{D} V=\infty$, then $(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n}=0$ for all $x \in H$, the socle of $Q$ and hence for all $x \in Q$. Again by Lemma 4, we have $b x-\beta(x) c=0$ for all $x \in R$ and we are done in this case. So we may assume that $\operatorname{dim}_{D} V<\infty$. Thus $Q=\operatorname{End}\left({ }_{D} V\right)$ and is isomorphic to $D_{m}$, the $m \times m$ matrix ring over $D$ for some $m$.

We claim that $m \leq 2$. Suppose on the contrary that $m>2$. By [9, P.79] there exists a semi-linear automorphism $T \in \operatorname{End}(V)$ such that $\beta(x)=T x T^{-1}$ for all $x \in$ $Q$. Hence we have $(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n}=\left(b x-T x T^{-1} c\right)^{n}=\left(T\left(T^{-1} b x-x T^{-1} c\right)\right)^{n} \in C$ for all $x \in Q$. If $v$ and $v T^{-1} b$ are $D$-dependent for all $v \in V$, then as before, there
exists a $\lambda \in D$ such that $v T^{-1} b=\lambda v$ for all $v \in V$. This implies

$$
\begin{aligned}
v T^{-1}(b x-\beta(x) c) & =v T^{-1}\left(T\left(T^{-1} b x-x T^{-1} c\right)\right) \\
& =v T^{-1} b x-v x T^{-1} c \\
& =\lambda v x-v x T^{-1} c \\
& =v x T^{-1} b-v x T^{-1} c \\
& =v T^{-1}\left(T x T^{-1} b-T x T^{-1} c\right) \\
& =v T^{-1}(\beta(x)(b-c))
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $v \in V$ and for all $x \in Q$. Since $Q$ acts on $V$ faithfully and $V T^{-1}=V$, we have $b x-\beta(x) c=\beta(x)(b-c)$ for all $x \in Q$. Hence $(\beta(x)(b-c))^{n}=$ $(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n} \in C$ for all $x \in Q$. In particular $(x(b-c))^{n} \in C$ for all $x \in Q$. By Lemma $2, b=c$ or $Q$ is commutative. But $Q$ is not commutative, since $Q \simeq D_{m}$, $m \geq 3$. On the other hand, if $b=c$, then $b x-\beta(x) c=b x-\beta(x) b$ is a $\beta$ derivation. Proposition 2 in [3] implies that $Q$ is commutative or $Q$ is an order in a 4-dimensional simple algebra which is absurd since $Q \simeq D_{m}, m \geq 3$.

Now we may assume that there exists $v_{0} \in V$ such that $v_{0}$ and $v_{0} T^{-1} b$ are $D$ independent. By the density of $Q$, there exists $x \in Q$ of rank 1 such that $v_{0} x=0$ and $v_{0} T^{-1} b x=v_{0} T^{-1}$. Hence $v_{0} T^{-1}\left(T\left(T^{-1} b x-x T^{-1} c\right)\right)=v_{0} T^{-1} b x-v_{0} x T^{-1} c=$ $v_{0} T^{-1}$ and $v_{0} T^{-1}(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n}=v_{0} T^{-1}\left(T\left(T^{-1} b x-x T^{-1} c\right)\right)^{n}=v_{0} T^{-1}$. On the other hand, since $x$ is of rank $1,(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n}$ is of rank at most 2. Being in $C$, we have $(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n}=0$ since $\operatorname{dim}_{D} V \geq 3$. Therefore $v_{0} T^{-1}=0$ which is a contradiction. This proves our claim and hence $\operatorname{dim}_{D} V \leq 2$.

If $C$ is finite, then $\operatorname{dim}_{C} D<\infty$ implies $D$ is also finite. Thus $D$ is a filed by Wedderburn's Theorem [9, P.183]. In this case, $R$ is commutative or $R$ is an order in a 4-dimensional simple algebra. So we may assume that $C$ is infinite for the rest of the proof. If $\beta$ is not Frobenius, then by the Main Theorem of [7], we have $(b x-y c)^{n} \in C$ for all $x, y \in Q$. This implies $(b x)^{n} \in Z$ for all $x \in R$. Again, by Lemma 2, $b=0$ or $R$ is commutative. If $R$ is not commutative, then $b=0$ and this implies $(-c y)^{n} \in Z$ for all $y \in R$. Again this leads to $c=0$ since $R$ is not commutative. But if $b=0$ and $c=0$ then $f=0$, a contradiction. Hence $R$ is commutative in this case.

On the other hand, if $\beta$ is Frobenius, then char $Q=p>0$. Otherwise if char $Q=0$, then $\beta(\lambda)=\lambda$ for all $\lambda \in C$ and hence $\beta$ must be $X$-inner by [1, Theorem 4.7.4], a contradiction. Also $\beta(\lambda)=\lambda^{p^{k}}$ for all $\lambda \in C$ and for some integer $k \neq 0$. Substitute $\lambda x$ for $x$ into $(b x-\beta(x) c)^{n}$ with $\lambda \neq 0$, we have $(b(\lambda x)-\beta(\lambda x) c)^{n}=\left(\lambda b x-\lambda^{p^{k}} \beta(x) c\right)^{n} \in C$ for all $x \in Q$ and hence $\left(b x-\lambda^{p^{k}-1} \beta(x) c\right)^{n} \in C$ for all $x \in Q$. Expanding this, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=0}^{n}\left(\sum_{(i, n-i)} y_{1} y_{2} \cdots y_{n}\right) \lambda^{\left(p^{k}-1\right) i} \in C \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the inside summation are taken over all permutations of $n-i(b x)$ 's and $i(\beta(x) c)$ 's, that is, each term has exactly $n-i(b x)$ and $i(\beta(x) c)$ but in some different order. Let $u=\lambda^{p^{k}-1}$ and

$$
t_{i}=\sum_{(i, n-i)} y_{1} y_{2} \cdots y_{n}
$$

for $i=0,1,2, \ldots, n$. Then we can rewrite (2) into the following

$$
\begin{equation*}
t_{0}+u t_{1}+\cdots+u^{n} t_{n} \in C \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Replacing $\lambda$ successively by $1, \lambda, \ldots, \lambda^{n}$, (3) gives the system of equations

$$
\begin{align*}
t_{0}+t_{1}+\cdots+t_{n} & =\tau_{0} \\
t_{0}+u t_{1}+\cdots+u^{n} t_{n} & =\tau_{1}  \tag{4}\\
& \vdots \\
t_{0}+u^{n} t_{1}+\cdots+u^{n^{2}} t_{n} & =\tau_{n}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\tau_{0}, \tau_{1}, \ldots, \tau_{n} \in C$. Since $C$ is infinite, there exists infinitely many $\lambda \in C$ such that $\lambda^{\left(p^{k}-1\right) \ell} \neq 1$ for $\ell=1,2, \ldots, n$ and so the van der Monde determinant

$$
\left|\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\
1 & u & \cdots & u^{n} \\
\vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\
1 & u^{n} & \cdots & u^{n^{2}}
\end{array}\right|=\prod_{\substack{i, j=0 \\
i<j}}^{n}\left(u^{i}-u^{j}\right)=\prod_{\substack{i, j=0 \\
i<j}}^{n}\left(\lambda^{i\left(p^{k}-1\right)}-\lambda^{j\left(p^{k}-1\right)}\right)
$$

is not zero. Therefore we can solve from (4) and obtain $t_{0} \in C$. But $t_{0}=(b x)^{n}$ and so we have $(b x)^{n} \in C$ for all $x \in Q$. As before, we can conclude that $R$ is commutative. The proof is complete.

Now we are ready to give
Proof of Theorem B. If $Z=0$, then $f(x)^{n}=0$ for all $x \in L$, a nonzero ideal of $R$. By Theorem $1, f=0$ which is not the case. Thus $Z \neq 0$. We can write $f(x)=s x+\delta(x)$, where $s \in{ }_{F} R$ and where $\delta: R \rightarrow R$ is the associated $\beta$ derivation of $f$. By the hypothesis, we have $(s x+\delta(x))^{n} y-y(s x+\delta(x))^{n}=0$ for all $x, y \in L$. By [8, Theorem 2], we see that $(s x+\delta(x))^{n} y-y(s x+\delta(x))^{n}=0$ also holds for all $x, y \in{ }_{F} R$. If $\delta$ is $X$-outer, then by [8, Theorem 1] we have $(s x+z)^{n} y-y(s x+z)^{n}=0$ for all $x, y, z \in{ }_{F} R$. In particular, we have
$(s x)^{n} \in C$ for all $x \in{ }_{F} R$. By Lemma $2, s=0$ or ${ }_{F} R$ is commutative. If $R$ is not commutative, then $s=0$ and hence $f(x)=\delta(x)$ for all $x \in R$. We are done in this case by [3, Theorem B]. Hence we may assume that $\delta$ is $X$-inner and write $\delta(x)=b x-\beta(x) b$, where $b \in Q$. In this case, $f(x)^{n}=((s+b) x-\beta(x) b)^{n} \in C$ for all $x \in{ }_{F} R$. Hence we are done by Lemma 5. The proof is complete.

As a corollary, we have Theorem A immediately.
Example. Let $F$ be a field of characteristic 2 and let $R=F_{2}$, the $2 \times 2$ matrix ring over $F$. Let

$$
u=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad a=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad b=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

For $x \in R$, define $f(x)=a x-u^{-1} x u b$. It is easy to see that $f(x)^{2} \in Z$.

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## Jui-Chi Chang

Department of Computer Science and Information Engineering, Chang Jung Christian University,
Tainan, Taiwan
E-mail: jc2004@mail.cjcu.edu.tw


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