## ON A THEOREM OF YEN

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Abstract. In [5] Yen showed that if R is an associative ring with unity and m > 1 is a fixed integer such that  $m \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$  and  $(x + y)^m = x^m + y^m$  for all x, y in R, then R must be commutative. In the present paper it is shown that commutativity is achieved even in the case where m is dependent on x and y.

In [1] Herstein showed that if R is a ring in which for some fixed integer m > 1,  $(x+y)^m = x^m + y^m$  for all, x, y in R, then the commutator ideal of R is nil. In [5] Yen pursued this further and proved, under additional assumptions on m, that if R has a unity, then R has not only nil commutator ideal but is in fact commutative. More precisely, if R has a unity, then R is commutative if either  $m \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$  or m is odd and satisfies a rather technical condition concerning its prime divisors. The purpose of this paper is to prove that if R has a unity, then R is commutative when  $m \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$  even if m is allowed to depend on x and y. We do not investigate the case of odd m here.

All rings are assumed associative. The commutator ideal of R will be denoted C(R) and the center Z(R).

**Theorem.** Let R be a ring with unity satisfying (\*) given x, y in R there exists a positive integer  $m = m(x, y) \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$  such that  $(x + y)^m = x^m + y^m$ . Then R is commutative.

**Proof.** We shall make use of the following well-known result of Streb [4]:

A noncommutative ring has a noncommutative factor subring of one of the following types:

(a) 
$$\begin{pmatrix} GF(p) & GF(p) \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
 or  $\begin{pmatrix} GF(p) & 0 \\ GF(p) & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  where p is a prime;

(b)  $M_{\sigma}(GF(q^r)) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ 0 & \sigma(\alpha) \end{pmatrix} | \alpha, \beta \text{ in } GF(q^r) \right\}$  where  $\sigma$  is a nontrivial automorphism of  $GF(q^r)$  with fixed field GF(q);

- (c) a division ring;
- (d) a simple radical domain;
- (e) a finite nilpotent subdirectly irreducible ring S such that C(S) is the heart of S and SC(S) = C(S)S = (0);

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(f) a subdirectly irreducible ring S generated by two elements of finite additive order such that C(S) is the heart of S, SC(S) = C(S)S = (0), and the nilpotent elements of S form a commutative nilpotent ideal.

Suppose that R is a ring with unity satisfying (\*) and that R is not commutative. Then R has a noncommutative factor subring of one of the types (a)-(f) and of course S inherits (\*). The proof will be achieved by showing that each type leads to a contradiction.

First we note that if m = m(1, -1), then  $0 = (1 - 1)^m = 1 + (-1)^m = 2$  since m is even, and hence the characteristic of R, and therefore of S, is 2.

Now let  $x \in R$  and m = m(x, 1). Then  $(x+1)^m = x^m + 1$  implies

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} \binom{m}{i} x^i = 0. \tag{1}$$

Thus every element of R, and therefore of S, satisfies an equation of the form (1) with m depending on x. Writing m = 2 + 4k, we have m = 0 in S and  $\binom{m}{2} = \frac{(2+4k)(1+4k)}{2} = (1+2k)(1+4k)$ , an odd integer. Hence  $\binom{m}{2} = 1$  in S and so (1) becomes

$$x^2 = x^3 f(x)$$
 for some polynomial f with integer coefficients. (2)

We now eliminate types (a) and (c)-(f), leaving the more difficult type (b) for last.

Type (a): If  $x = e_{11}$  and  $y = e_{12}$ , then  $(x + y)^m = e_{11} + e_{12}$  whereas  $x^m + y^m = e_{11}$ . Thus S cannot be of type  $\begin{pmatrix} GF(p) & GF(p) \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ , and similarly it cannot be of type  $\begin{pmatrix} GF(p) & 0 \\ GF(p) & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .

Type (c): If S is a division ring, then (2) shows that S is algebraic over the finite subfield GF(2), whence S must be commutative by a theorem of Jacobson [3].

Type (d): Let  $x \neq 0$  be in S. Since x is not nilpotent, we obtain from (2) a nonzero idempotent  $e = x^2 (f(x))^2$  in S as in [2, p.22], an impossibility in a simple radical ring.

Type (e): Let  $x \neq 0$  be in S. Then  $x^k = 0 \neq x^{k-1}$  for some  $k \geq 2$ . If k > 2, then from (2) we have  $x^{k-1} = x^{k-3}(x^3f(x)) = x^kf(x) = 0$ ; hence k = 2, that is,  $x^2 = 0$  for all  $x \in S$ . Now for all x, y in S we have  $0 = (x+y)^2 = x^2 + xy + yx + y^2 = xy + yx$  and hence xy = -yx = yx since S has characteristic 2.

Type (f): If S is nil, then we are done, as in Type(e). Hence there is a nonnilpotent element in S, from which we obtain as in Type (d) a nonzero idempotent e. For all  $x \in S$  we have  $e(xe - ex) \in SC(S) = (0)$ , so exe = ex. Similarly exe = xe and hence  $e \in Z(S)$ . Thus the set  $I = \{x \in S | ex = x\}$  is an ideal of S and is nonzero since it contains e. Hence  $C(S) \subseteq I$ . But now for all x, y in S we have  $[x, y] = e[x, y] \in SC(S) = (0)$ .

This leaves Type (b) and for this case we need the following

**Lemma.** Let t and r be positive integers with r > 1 and let  $q = 2^t$ . Then there exists a prime which divides  $q^r - 1$  but not q - 1.

**Proof.** First we establish the result when  $r = 2^n$  for  $n \ge 1$  by induction on n. Suppose that n = 1 and that every prime dividing  $q^2 - 1$  also divides q - 1. Let p be any prime dividing q + 1; p must be odd since q is even. But p divides  $q^2 - 1$  and so by assumption p divides q - 1, whence p divides (q + 1) - (q - 1) = 2, a contradiction which proves the case n = 1. Now assume inductively that n > 1 and that there is a prime dividing  $q^{2^{n-1}} - 1$  which does not divide q - 1. Clearly this prime divides  $q^{2^n} - 1 = (q^{2^{n-1}} - 1)(q^{2^{n-1}} + 1)$ , which completes the induction for the case in which r is a power of 2.

Now suppose r is divisible by an odd prime p. We first show that there is a prime which divides  $q^p - 1$  but not q - 1. Suppose to the contrary that every prime which divides  $q^p - 1$  also divides q - 1. Writing

$$q^{p} - 1 = (q - 1)(q^{p-1} + q^{p-2} + \dots + q + 1),$$
(3)

we let p' be any prime dividing  $q^{p-1} + q^{p-2} + \cdots + q + 1$ . Then p' divides  $q^p - 1$  and so by assumption q-1. But now p' divides  $q^{p-i} - 1$  for  $i = 1, 2, \cdots, p-1$  and since  $q^{p-1} + q^{p-2} + \cdots + q + 1 = (q^{p-1} - 1) + (q^{p-2} - 1) + \cdots + (q-1) + p$ , we see that p' must divide p. Since p and p' are both prime, we must have p = p' and hence p is the only prime dividing  $q^{p-1} + q^{p-2} + \cdots + q + 1$ . Moreover it is clear that  $q^{p-1} + q^{p-2} + \cdots + q + 1 > p$ , so we may write

$$q^{p-1} + q^{p-2} + \dots + q + 1 = p^c \text{ for some } c \ge 2.$$
 (4)

Let  $q-1 = p^d k$  where p does not divide k. From (3) and (4) we have  $q^p - 1 = p^{c+d} k$ . Since  $p^d$  divides  $q^{p-i} - 1$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, p-1$ , letting  $q^{p-i} - 1 = p^d s_i$ , we have

$$p^{c} = (q^{p-1}-1) + (q^{p-2}-1) + \dots + (q-1) + p = p^{d}(s_{1}+s_{2}+\dots+s_{p-1}) + p.$$

If d > 1, then  $p^{c-1} = p^{d-1}(s_1 + s_2 + \dots + s_{p-1}) + 1$  with c-1 and d-1 both positive, a contradiction. Thus d = 1, q-1 = pk and  $q^p - 1 = p^{c+1}k$ . Hence  $1 + p^{c+1}k = q^p = (1+pk)^p = \sum_{i=0}^p {p \choose i} (pk)^i$ , whence  $p^{c+1}k = p(pk) + {p \choose 2} (pk)^2 + \dots + {p \choose p-1} (pk)^{p-1} + (pk)^p$ . Every term has  $p^2$  as a factor, so dividing by  $p^2$  yields  $p^{c-1}k = k + {p \choose 2}k^2 + {p \choose 3}pk^3 + \dots + {p \choose p-1}p^{p-3}k^{p-1} + p^{p-2}k^p$ , a contradiction since all terms but k are divisible by p. This shows that there is a prime which divides  $q^p - 1$  but not q - 1.

For the general case in which r is divisible by an odd prime p we let r = pk and observe that since  $q^r - 1 = (q^k)^p - 1$ , the preceding argument yields a prime which divides  $q^r - 1$  but not  $q^k - 1$ , and clearly this prime cannot divide q - 1. This proves the lemma.

Getting back to Type (b), we assume that  $S = M_{\sigma}(GF(q^r))$  where  $\sigma$  has fixed field GF(q) and that S satisfies (\*). Since S has characteristic 2, q is a power of 2. By the lemma there exists a prime p which divides  $q^r - 1$  but not q - 1. Since p divides  $q^r - 1$ , there is an element  $\alpha$  of multiplicative order p in  $GF(q^r)$ , and since p does not divide q - 1,  $\alpha^{q-1} \neq 1$  and hence  $\alpha \notin GF(q)$ , that is  $\sigma(\alpha) \neq \alpha$ . Let

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma(\alpha) \end{pmatrix}, y = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, m = m(x, y).$$
 Then

$$(x+y)^m = \begin{pmatrix} (\alpha-1)^m & \frac{(\alpha-1)^m - \sigma((\alpha-1)^m)}{\alpha - \sigma(\alpha)} \\ 0 & \sigma((\alpha-1)^m) \end{pmatrix} \text{ and }$$
$$x^m + y^m = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha^m - 1 & -m \\ 0 & \sigma(\alpha^m - 1) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha^m - 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma(\alpha^m - 1) \end{pmatrix}$$

Equating these, we obtain  $\alpha^m - 1 = (\alpha - 1)^m = \sigma((\alpha - 1)^m) = \sigma(\alpha^m - 1) = \sigma(\alpha^m) - 1$ , where  $\sigma(\alpha^m) = \alpha^m$ . Thus  $\alpha^m$  is in the fixed field GF(q) and so  $\alpha^{m(q-1)} = 1$ . But now p, being the multiplicative order of  $\alpha$ , must divide m(q-1), and since p does not divide q-1, p must divide m. Therefore  $(\alpha - 1)^m = \alpha^m - 1 = 1 - 1 = 0$  and so  $\alpha = 1$ , a contradiction which completes the proof of the theorem.

In closing we point out that there are examples [6] of noncommutative rings with unity satisfying  $(x+y)^{4k} = x^{4k} + y^{4k}$  for all x, y and any positive integer k, so for even m the condition  $m \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$  is essential in the above theorem. As for odd m, Yen also gave an example [6] of a noncommutative ring with unity of odd prime characteristic psatisfying  $(x+y)^{p^k} = x^{p^k} + y^{p^k}$  for all x, y and any positive integer k and also showed in [5] that commutativity is achieved for fixed odd m provided that for every prime pdividing m we have  $m = p^i n$  where n > 1, p does not divide n, and p-1 does not divide n-1. It is not clear at this point whether making this further assumption on variable odd m(x, y) will yield commutativity, so this question remains open.

## References

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