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RINGS WITH A JORDAN DERIVATION WHOSE IMAGE IS CONTAINED IN THE NUCLEI OR COMMUTATIVE CENTER

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Abstract Let R be a nonassociative ring, N, L and G the left nucleus, right nucleus and nucleus respectively. It is shown that if R is a prime ring with a Jordan derivation d such that $d(R) \subseteq G$, and $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq N$ or $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq L$ then either R is associative or $2d^2 = 0$. Moreover, if (d(R), R) = 0then either R is associative and commutative, or 2d = 0. We also prove that if R is a prime ring with a derivation d and there exists a fixed positive integer nsuch that $d^n(R) \subseteq G$ and $(d^n(R), R) = 0$ then R is associative and $d^n = 0$, or Ris associative and commutative, or $d^{2n} = (\frac{(2n)!}{n!})d^n = 0$. This partially generalize the results of [3]. We also obtain some results on prime rings with a derivation satisfying other hypotheses.

1. Introduction

Let R be a nonassociative ring. We adopt the usual notations for associators and commutators : (x, y, z) = (xy)z - x(yz) and (x, y) = xy - yx. We shall denote the left nucleus, middle nucleus, right nucleus and nucleus by N, M, L and G respectively. Thus N, M, L and G consists of all elements n such that (n, R, R) = 0, (R, n, R) = 0, (R, R, n) = 0 and (n, R, R) = (R, n, R) = (R, R, n) = 0 respectively. An additive mapping d from R to R is called a Jordan derivation if $d(x^2) = d(x)x + xd(x)$ holds for all x in R. An additive mapping d from R to R is called a derivation if d(xy) = d(x)y + xd(y)holds for all x, y in R. Obviously, every derivation is a Jordan derivation. The converse is in general not true. R is called prime if the only ideal of R which squares to zero is the zero ideal. R is called prime if the product of any two nonzero ideals of R is nonzero. Clearly, a prime ring is a semiprime ring. Herstein [1] proved that every Jordan derivation on a prime associative ring of characteristic not two is a derivation. Recently, Yen [3] showed the

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Theorem 1. If R is a prime ring with a derivation d such that $d(R) \subseteq N \cap L$ or $d(R) \subseteq N \cap M$ or $d(R) \subseteq M \cap L$, then either R is associative or $d^2 = 2d = 0$.

In Theorem 1, if the derivation is replaced by the Jordan derivation then what can we say about R and d? In fact, we prove that if R is a prime ring with a Jordan derivation d such that $d(R) \subseteq G$, and $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq N$ or $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq L$ then either R is associative or $2d^2 = 0$. Moreover, if (d(R), R) = 0 then either R is associative and commutative, or 2d = 0. We also prove that if R is a prime ring with a derivation d and there exists a fixed positive integer n such that $d^n(R) \subseteq G$ and $(d^n(R), R) = 0$ then R is associative and $d^n = 0$, or R is associative and commutative, or $d^{2n} = (\frac{(2n)!}{n!})d^n = 0$. This partially generalize Theorem 1. We also obtain some results on prime rings with a derivation satisfying some hypotheses.

Assume that R has a Jordan derivation d. Thus we have

$$d(x^2) = d(x)x + xd(x) \quad \text{for all} \quad x \text{ in } R.$$
(1)

2. Results

Let R be a nonassociative ring. In every ring one may verify the Teichmüller identity

$$(wx, y, z) - (w, xy, z) + (w, x, yz) = w(x, y, z) + (w, x, y)z.$$
(2)

Suppose that $n \in N$. Then with w = n in (2) we obtain

$$(nx, y, z) = n(x, y, z) \text{ for all } n \text{ in } N.$$
(3)

Assume that $m \in L$. Then with z = m in (2) we get

$$(w, x, ym) = (w, x, y)m \text{ for all } m \text{ in } L.$$
(4)

As consequences of (2), (3) and (4), we have that $N, M, L, N \cap M, M \cap L, N \cap L$ and G are associative subrings of R.

We assume that R has a Jordan derivation d which satisfies

(*)
$$d(R) \subseteq A$$
, where $A = N$, or M , or L .

Using (*) and a linearization of (1) gives

$$d(xy + yx) = d(x)y + xd(y) + d(y)x + yd(x) \in A \text{ for all } x, y, \text{ in } R.$$
(5)

Then with $x \in d(R)$ in (5), and using (*) and noting that A is an associative subring of R, we get

$$d^{2}(x)y + yd^{2}(x) \in A \text{ for all } x, y \text{ in } R.$$
(6)

Definition. Let I be the associator ideal of R. I consists of the smallest ideal which contains all associators.

Note that I may be characterized as all finite sums of associators and right (or left) multiples of associators, as a consequence of (2). Hence we have

$$I = (R, R, R) + (R, R, R)R = (R, R, R) + R(R, R, R).$$
(7)

We assume that R satisfies

(**)
$$(d^2(R), R) \subseteq B$$
, where $B = N$, or L.

Note that if B is a Lie ideal of R i.e., $(B, R) \subseteq B$, and if $d^2(R) \subseteq B$, then we obtain $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq (B, R) \subseteq B$. Assume that A = B = N or L. Using (**), we get $(d^2(x), y) \in A$ for all x, y in R. Combining this with (6) yields $2d^2(x)y \in A$ and $2yd^2(x) \in A$. Thus we have

$$2d^{2}(R)R \subseteq A \text{ and } 2Rd^{2}(R) \subseteq A \text{ if } A = B = N \text{ or } L.$$
(8)

Applying (8), (*), (3) and (4), and with $n \in 2d^2(R)$ in (3), and with $m \in 2d^2(R)$ in (4) respectively, we obtain

$$2d^{2}(R)(R, R, R) = 0$$
 if $A = B = N$ and $2(R, R, R)d^{2}(R) = 0$ if $A = B = L$. (9)

Combining (9) with (*) yields

$$2d^{2}(R)((R, R, R)R) = 0$$
 if $A = B = N$ and $2(R(R, R, R))d^{2}(R) = 0$ if $A = B = L$. (10)

Using (7), (9) and (10), we get

$$2d^{2}(R) \cdot I = 0$$
 if $A = B = N$ and $I \cdot 2d^{2}(R) = 0$ if $A = B = L$. (11)

Lemma 1. If R is a ring with a Jordan derivation d such that $d(R) \subseteq N \cap M$ and $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq N$ (resp. $d(R) \subseteq M \cap L$ and $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq L$), then $2d^2(R)R \subseteq N \cap M$ and $2Rd^2(R) \subseteq N \cap M$ (resp. $2d^2(R)R \subseteq M \cap L$ and $2Rd^2(R) \subseteq M \cap L$).

Proof. By symmetry, we only prove the lemma in case $d(R) \subseteq N \cap M$ and $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq N$. By (8), $2d^2(R)R \subseteq N$. Using these, (6) and (2), for all $x, y, z, w \in R$ we obtain $0 = 2(d^2(x)y, z, w) = -2(yd^2(x), z, w) = -2(y, d^2(x)z, w)$. Thus $(y, 2d^2(x)z, w) = 0$. Hence $2d^2(R)R \subseteq M$. By (6), $2d^2(x)y + 2yd^2(x) \in N \cap M$. Since $2d^2(x)y \in M$, this implies $2yd^2(x) \in M$. By (8), $2yd^2(x) \in N$, as desired.

Lemma 2. If R is a ring with a Jordan derivation d such that $d(R) \subseteq G$, and $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq N$ or $(d^2(R), R) \subset L$, then the ideal C of R generated by $2d^2(R)$ is $C = 2\{d^2(R) + d^2(R)R + Rd^2(R) + R \cdot d^2(R)R\}$. CHEN-TE YEN

Proof. By symmetry, we only prove the lemma in case $d(R) \subseteq G$ and $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq N$. Then by Lemma 1, we have $2d^2(R)R \subseteq N \cap M$ and $2Rd^2(R) \subseteq N \cap M$. We see that C is an additive subgroup of (R, +). Thus we have

$$2(R \cdot d^{2}(R)R)R = 2R(d^{2}(R)R \cdot R) = 2R \cdot d^{2}(R)(R^{2}) \subseteq 2R \cdot d^{2}(R)R$$

and

$$2R(R \cdot d^{2}(R)R) = 2R(Rd^{2}(R) \cdot R) = 2(R \cdot Rd^{2}(R))R$$

= 2(R²)d²(R) \cdot R \subset 2Rd²(R) \cdot R = 2R \cdot d^{2}(R)R.

Hence C is an ideal of R.

Theorem 2. If R is a prime ring with a Jordan derivation d such that $d(R) \subseteq G$, and $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq N$ or $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq L$ then either R is associative or $2d^2(x) = 4d(x)d(x) = 4d(x)d(y) + 4d(y)d(x) = 0$ for all x, y in R.

Proof. By symmetry, we only prove the theorem in case $d(R) \subseteq G$ and $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq N$. By (11), $2d^2(R) \cdot I = 0$. Using Lemma 1, we have $2d^2(R)R \subseteq N \cap M$ and $2Rd^2(R) \subseteq N \cap M$. Applying these and $d(R) \subseteq G$, we obtain that $2\{d^2(R) + d^2(R)R + Rd^2(R) + R \cdot d^2(R)R\} \cdot I = 0$. If I = 0, then R is associative. Assume that $I \neq 0$.

Thus by Lemma 2 and the primeness of R, C I = 0 implies C = 0. Hence $2d^2(R) = 0$. Assume that $x, y \in R$. Using this, (1) and (5), we get

$$0 = 2d^{2}(x^{2}) = 2d(d(x)x + xd(x)) = 2d^{2}(x)x + 4d(x)d(x) + 2xd^{2}(x) = 4d(x)d(x) + 2d(x)d(x) + 2d(x)d(x) + 2d(x)d(x) = 4d(x)d(x) + 2d(x)d(x) + 2d(x)d$$

A linearization of this gives 4d(x)d(y) + 4d(y)d(x) = 0, as desired.

Lemma 3. If R is a ring and (n, R) = 0, and $n \in N \cap M$ or $n \in M \cap L$ or $n \in N \cap L$ then $n \in G$.

Proof. We only prove the lemma in case (n, R) = 0, and $n \in N \cap M$. Then for all x, y in R, we have

$$(xy)n = n(xy) = (nx)y = (xn)y = x(ny) = x(yn),$$

as desired.

Theorem 3. If R is a prime ring with a Jordan derivation d such that (d(R), R) = 0, and $d(R) \subseteq N \cap M$ or $d(R) \subseteq M \cap L$ or $d(R) \subseteq N \cap L$, then either R is associative and commutative, or 2d = 0.

Proof. By Lemma 3, $d(R) \subseteq G$. Assume that R is associative. Since (d(R), R) = 0, for all x, y in R we have $0 = (d(x^2), y) = 2(d(x)x, y) = 2d(x)(x, y)$. Thus 2d(x)R(x, y) = 0. By the primeness of R, this implies 2d(x) = 0 or (x, y) = 0 for all x, y in R. It is well known that the additive group (R, +) can not be the union of two proper subgroups. Hence we obtain 2d(R) = 0 or R is commutative. Assume that R is not associative.

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Using Theorem 2, we have $(2d(x))^2 = 0$ for all x in R. Thus 2d(x)R is an ideal of R and $(2d(x)R)^2 = 0$. By the semiprimeness of R, this implies 2d(x)R = 0. Hence 2d(R)R = 0. Thus we see that the ideal of R generated by 2d(R) is 2d(R). By the primeness of R, 2d(R)R = 0 implies 2d(R) = 0, as desired.

Note that if R is commutative then by (5), $2d(xy) = 2\{d(x)y + xd(y)\}$ for all x, y in R. Combining this with Theorem 3 yields the

Corollary 1. If R is a prime ring of characteristic not two with a Jordan derivation d such that (d(R), R) = 0, and $d(R) \subseteq N \cap M$ or $d(R) \subseteq M \cap L$ or $d(R) \subseteq N \cap L$, then d is a derivation, and either R is associative and commutative, or d = 0.

In the course of the proofs of Theorems 2 and 3, we obtain the

Corollary 2. If R is a semiprime ring with a Jordan derivation d such that $d(R) \subseteq G \cap I$ and $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq N$ or $(d^2(R), R) \subseteq L$, then $2d^2 = 0$.

Corollary 3. If R is a semiprime ring with a Jordan derivation d such that (d(R), R) = 0 and $d(R) \subseteq G \cap I$, then 2d = 0.

Corollary 4. If R is a semiprime ring such that the Abelian group (R, +) has no elements of order 2 and with a Jordan derivation d such that (d(R), R) = 0 and $d(R) \subseteq G \cap I$, then d = 0.

Recall that R is a simple ring if R is the only nonzero ideal of R. In [3], we proved that if R is a simple ring with a derivation d such that $d(R) \subseteq N \cap L$ then either R is associative or $d^2 = 2d = 0$. For the prime ring case, we obtain the

Theorem 4. If R is a prime ring with a derivation d such that $d(R) \subseteq N \cap M$ or $d(R) \subseteq M \cap L$ or $d(R) \subseteq N \cap L$, and there exists an ideal T of R such that d(T) = 0, then either T = 0 or d = 0.

Proof. By symmetry, we only prove the theorem in case $d(R) \subseteq N \cap L$ and d(T) = 0. For all $t \in T$ and $x \in R$, using d(T) = 0 we have 0 = d(tx) = d(t)x + td(x) = td(x). Thus Td(R) = 0. Because of $d(R) \subseteq N \cap L$, this implies $T(Rd(R)) = (TR)d(R) \subseteq Td(R) = 0$. Hence T(d(R) + Rd(R)) = 0. Since d is a derivation, we get d(R) + d(R)R = d(R) + Rd(R). By Lemma 1 of [3], or it is easy to see that d(R) + Rd(R) is an ideal of R. Thus by the primeness of R, T(d(R) + Rd(R)) = 0 implies T = 0 or d(R) + Rd(R) = 0, as desired.

Corollary 5. If R is a prime ring with a derivation d such that d(I) = 0, and $d(R) \subseteq N \cap M$ or $d(R) \subseteq M \cap L$ or $d(R) \subseteq N \cap L$, then either R is associative or d = 0.

Theorem 5. If R is a prime ring with a derivation d and there exists an ideal T of R such that d(T) = 0, and $T \subseteq N$ or $T \subseteq L$, then either T = 0 or d = 0.

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Proof. By symmetry, we only prove the theorem in case d(T) = 0 and $T \subseteq N$. As in the proof of Theorem 4, we obtain that Td(R) = 0, and we see that the ideal E of R generated by d(R) is

$$E = d(R) + d(R)R + d(R)R \cdot R + R \cdot d(R)R + (d(R)R \cdot R)R$$
$$+ R(d(R)R \cdot R) + (R \cdot d(R)R)R + R(R \cdot d(R)R) + \cdots$$

Because of $T \subseteq N$ and Td(R) = 0, we have that

$$T(d(R)R \cdot R) = (T \cdot d(R)R)R = (Td(R) \cdot R)R = 0,$$
$$T \cdot (d(R)R \cdot R)R = T(d(R)R \cdot R) \cdot R = 0,$$
$$T(R \cdot d(R)R) = TR \cdot d(R)R \subseteq T \cdot d(R)R = Td(R) \cdot R = 0$$

and

$$T(R \cdot (R \cdot d(R)R)) = TR \cdot (R \cdot d(R)R) \subseteq T(R \cdot d(R)R) = 0.$$

Thus by induction we can show that $T \cdot E = 0$. By the primeness of R, this implies T = 0 or E = 0. Hence, either T = 0 or d = 0, as desired.

We have a very easy consequence of Theorem 5.

Corollary 6. If R is a prime associative ring and there exists an ideal T of R such that d(T) = 0, then either T = 0 or d = 0.

Theorem 6. If R is a prime ring with a derivation d and there exists an ideal T of R such that $T \subseteq G$ and $d(T) \subseteq G$, then R is associative, or T = 0, or d = 0.

Proof. By the hypotheses, for all $t \in T, x \in R$, we have $d(tx) = d(t)x + td(x) \in G$ and so $d(t)x \in G$. Thus $d(T)R \subseteq G$. Hence by (3), we get d(T)(R, R, R) = 0 and so d(T)((R, R, R)R) = 0. Thus by (7), $d(T) \cdot I = 0$. Using $d(T) \subseteq G$ and $d(T)R \subseteq G$, we see that the ideal W of R generated by d(T) is

$$W = d(T) + d(T)R + Rd(T) + R \cdot d(T)R.$$

Applying $d(T) \cdot I = 0$, $d(T) \subseteq G$ and $d(T)R \subseteq G$, we obtain $W \cdot I = 0$. By the primeness of R, this implies W = 0 or I = 0. If I = 0, then R is associative. Assume that W = 0. Then d(T) = 0. By Theorem 5, we have that T = 0 or d = 0. This completes the proof of Theorem 6.

Proposition. If R is a ring with a derivation d, then the associative subrings N, M and L of R are invariant under d, i.e., $d(A) \subseteq A$, where A = N or M or L.

Proof. Assume that $m \in M, x, y \in R$. Then by the definition of d, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} (x, d(m), y) &= (xd(m))y - x(d(m)y) = (d(xm) - d(x)m)y - x(d(my) - md(y)) \\ &= d(xm)y - d(x)(my) - xd(my) + (xm)d(y) = d((xm)y) - d(x(my)) \\ &= d((x, m, y)) = d(0) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

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Thus $d(m) \in M$. Hence $d(M) \subseteq M$. The proofs of other cases are similar.

Theorem 7. If R is a prime ring with a derivation d and there exists a fixed positive integer n such that $d^n(R) \subseteq G$ and $(d^n(R), R) = 0$, then R is associative and $d^n = 0$, or R is associative and commutative, or $d^{2n} = (\frac{(2n)!}{n!})d^n = 0$.

Proof. Note that $d^{2n}(R) \subseteq d^{2n-1}(R) \subseteq \cdots \subseteq d^{n+2}(R) \subseteq d^{n+1}(R) \subseteq d^n(R) \subseteq G$, or by the Proposition we have $d^i(R) \subseteq G$ for all integers $i \ge n$. Since $(d^n(R), R) = 0$, we obtain $(d^i(R), R) = 0, i \ge n$. Assume that $x, y, z \in R$. Using $d^n(R) \subseteq G$, we get $d^n(d^n(x)d^{n-1}(y)) \in G$. Expanding this by Leibniz's formula, and applying $d^i(R) \subseteq G$, $i \ge n$ and noting that G is an associative subring of R, we have $d^{2n}(x)d^{n-1}(y) \in G$. Thus $d^{2n}(R)d^{n-1}(R) \subseteq G$. Using this and $(d^i(R), R) = 0, i \ge n$, and argue as above, we get $d^{2n}(x)d^{n-1}(d^n(y)d^{n-2}(z)) \in G$ and so $d^{2n}(x)(d^{2n-1}(y)d^{n-2}(z)) \in G$. Hence $(d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R))d^{n-2}(R) \subseteq G$. Continuing in this manner, and applying $d^i(R) \subseteq G$ and $(d^i(R), R) = 0, i \ge n$, we finally obtain

$$(d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+2}(R))d(R)\subseteq G.$$

Argue as above, we have $(d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+2}(R))d(d^n(x)y) \subseteq G$ and so $(d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+2}(R))d^{n+1}(x)y \subseteq G$. Therefore we get

$$(d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+1}(R))R \subseteq G.$$
(12)

Using $d^i(R) \subseteq G$, $i \ge n$, we have

$$(d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+1}(R)) \subseteq G.$$
(13)

By (3), combining (12) with (13) yields

$$(d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+1}(R))(R,R,R) = 0.$$
(14)

Using (13) and (14), we get

$$(d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+1}(R))\cdot (R,R,R)R = 0.$$
(15)

By (7), combining (14) with (15) yields

$$(d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+1}(R))\cdot I = 0.$$
(16)

Applying (13), $(d^i(R), R) = 0$ and $d^i(R) \subseteq G, i \geq n$, we see that the ideal U of R generated by $(d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+1}(R))$ is

$$U = (d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+1}(R)) + (d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+1}(R))R.$$
(17)

Using (13), (16) and (17), we obtain $U \cdot I = 0$. By the primeness of R, U = 0 or I = 0. If I = 0, then R is associative. By Theorem 1 of [2], either $d^n = 0$ or R is commutative. Assume that U = 0. Thus we have

$$d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+2}(R)d^{n+1}(R) = 0.$$
(18)

As above, we see that the ideal V of R generated by $(d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+2}(R))$ is

$$V = (d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+2}(R)) + (d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+2}(R))R.$$
 (19)

Applying $d^i(R) \subseteq G$ and $(d^i(R), R) = 0, i \ge n$, (18) and (19), we get $V^2 = 0$. By the semiprimeness of R, this implies V = 0. Hence we obtain

$$d^{2n}(R)d^{2n-1}(R)\cdots d^{n+2}(R) = 0.$$
(20)

Continuing in this way, we can finally show that $d^{2n}(R) = 0$. Thus we get $0 = d^{2n}(d^{2n-2}(x)y) = (2n)d^{2n-1}(x)d^{2n-1}(y)$. Using this, $(d^i(R), R) = 0$ and $d^i(R) \subseteq G$, $i \ge n$, we have that $(2n)d^{2n-1}(x)R$ is an ideal of R and $((2n)d^{2n-1}(x)R)^2 = 0$. By the semiprimeness of R, this implies $(2n)d^{2n-1}(x)R = 0$. Hence $(2n)d^{2n-1}(R)R = 0$. Thus the ideal of R generated by $(2n)d^{2n-1}(R)$ is $(2n)d^{2n-1}(R)$. Therefore $(2n)d^{2n-1}(R) = 0$. Continuing in this manner, and applying $d^i(R) \subseteq G$ and $(d^i(R), R) = 0, i \ge n$, we finally obtain $(2n)(2n-1)\cdots(2n-(n-1))d^n(R) = 0$. Thus $(\frac{(2n)!}{n!})d^n = 0$. This completes the proof of Theorem 7.

Corollary 7. If R is a prime ring with a derivation d and there exists a fixed positive integer n such that $d^n(R) \subseteq G$ and $(d^n(R), R) = 0$, and char R does not divide $(\frac{(2n)!}{n!})$ then either R is associative and commutative, or $d^n = 0$.

Corollary 8. If R is a semiprime ring with a derivation d and there exists a fixed positive integer n such that $d^n(R) \subseteq G \cap I$ and $(d^n(R), R) = 0$, then $d^{2n} = (\frac{(2n)!}{n!})d^n = 0$.

Theorem 7 partially generalizes Theorem 1.

In [4], we extended Theorem 7 to s-derivation d with sd = ds.

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