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Self-distributive infra-near rings

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Articolo digitalizzato nel quadro del programma bdim (Biblioteca Digitale Italiana di Matematica) SIMAI & UMI http://www.bdim.eu/ Algebra. — Self-distributive infra-near rings. Nota di MIRELA STEFĂNESCU, presentata ^(*) dal Socio G. ZAPPA.

RIASSUNTO. — Si studiano le proprietà di una particolare struttura algebrica che soddisfa le leggi di auto-distributivitá.

The following question has its own interest and its own history in the theory of algebraic systems: Which are the properties of an algebraic system S having a binary operation—we denote it multiplicatively—that satisfies the self-distributivity laws:

(I)
$$x \cdot (y \cdot z) = (x \cdot y) \cdot (x \cdot z);$$

(II)
$$(x \cdot y) \cdot z = (x \cdot z) \cdot (y \cdot z)$$
, for all $x, y, z \in S$.

For quasigroups, these laws had been studied by Bruck [1], in connexion with so called "the alternation law":

(III)
$$(x \cdot y) \cdot (z \cdot w) = (x \cdot z) \cdot (y \cdot w)$$
, for all $x, y, z, w \in S$.

J. Ruedin [6, 7] had studied them for groupoids, M. Petrich [5], for semigroups and rings, C. Ferrero-Cotti [3], for near-rings, Z. Fiedorowicz [4], for linear algebras over fields.

We study here the self-distributive infra-near rings. The notion of infranear ring was introduced by the author [8], in connexion with a generalization of the distributivity laws satisfied by the multiplication over addition in rings and near-rings. The set of affine transformations of a linear space over a field is a right near-ring and a *left infra-near ring* with respect to the pointwise addition and mapping composition, and there are some interesting properties of this infra-near ring (studied, as an infra-near ring, and generalized by the author [10]). A weak ring (see Climescu [2]) is also a left and right infra-near ring with commutative addition. Comments about the now notion, many examples, ways to find infra-distributive multiplaccation on a group, the study of the structure of special infra-near rings made the aims of papers [8, 9, 10].

1. Recall some definitions and properties in the theory of infra-near rings.

(*) Nella seduta del 12 gennaio 1980.

(1.1) DEFINITION. A left infra-near ring (left IN-ring) is a triple $(S, +, \cdot)$, where (S, +) is a group, (S, \cdot) is a semigroup and the multiplication is left infra-distributive with respect to the addition, i.e. it satisfies the following law:

(1)
$$x \cdot (y+z) = x \cdot y - x \cdot 0 + x \cdot z$$
, for all $x, y, z \in S$.

If, instead of (1), the right infra-distributivity law is satisfied, i.e.:

(2)
$$(x+y)\cdot z = x\cdot z - o\cdot z + y\cdot z$$
, for all $x, y, z \in S$,

then the triple $(S, +, \cdot)$ is called a *right infra-near ring (right IN-ring)*.

In a left IN-ring, we have:

(3)
$$x \cdot (-y) = x \cdot o - x \cdot u + x \cdot o$$
, for all $x, y \in S$.

Generally, $x \cdot o \neq o$, for an element x of a left IN-ring S, even if x = o. If $x \cdot o = o$, then x is called *left distributive*. If $x \cdot o = x$, then x is called *left weakly distributive*. If $x \cdot o = o$ (resp. $o \cdot x = o$), for all x in the left IN-ring (resp. the right IN-ring) S, then it is a *left near-ring* (resp. a *right near-ring*). If $x \cdot y = x \cdot o$, for all $x, y \in S$, then $(S, +, \cdot)$ is called a *trivial left IN-ring*.

(1.2) DEFINITION. A nonvoid subset B of a left IN-ring S is called a *left ideal of* S, if (B, +) is a normal subgroup of (S, +) and for all $x \in S$ and $b \in B$, whe have:

(4)
$$x \cdot b - x \cdot o \in \mathbf{B}$$
.

If (B, +) is a normal subgroup of (S, +), for which:

(5) $(b+x)\cdot y - x\cdot y \in \mathbf{B}$, for all $x, y \in \mathbf{S}$, $b \in \mathbf{B}$,

then B is called a *right ideal of* S. If S is a left IN-ring and a right near-ring, then (5) becomes the usual condition for right ideals in rings. A left and right ideal is called an *ideal of* S.

The ideals of S are just the kernels of IN-ring homomorphisms from S to another left IN-ring. The subset of the left IN-ring S, given by:

(6)
$$\operatorname{Ann}_{r}(x) = \{ t \mid t \in \mathcal{S}, x \cdot t = x \cdot 0 \},$$

for an element $x \in S$, is called the *right annihilator of x*. The intersection of all Ann_r(x), $x \in S$, is the right annihilator of S:

(7)
$$\operatorname{Ann}_{t}(S) = \{t \mid t \in S, x \cdot t = x \cdot o, \forall x \in S\},\$$

and it is a left ideal in S. If S is also a right near-ring, $Ann_r(S)$ is an ideal, while $Ann_r(x)$ is a right ideal of S, for each $x \in S$.

2. We shall study now the structure of left IN-rings having a self-distributive multiplication.

(2.1) DEFINITION. A left IN-ring $(S, +, \cdot)$ is called *self-distributive*, if its multiplication satisfies the laws (I) and (II).

Everywhere in the paper, we shall denote by S a self-distributive IN-ring.

(2.2) *Remark.* If e is a left distributive element of S, then the mapping $\varphi_e: S \to S$, defined by $\varphi_e(x) = e \cdot x$, for all $x \in S$, is an endomorphism of S, whose kernel, Ann_r(e), is an ideal of S.

(2.3) *Remark.* If we call, as usually, *left cancellable* a nonzero element $c \in S$, such that:

(8)
$$c \cdot x = c \cdot y$$
, for $x, y \in S$, implies $x = y$,

then a necessary and sufficient condition for c to be left cancellable is:

(9) $c \cdot x = c \cdot 0$, for $x \in S$, implies x = 0.

The condition (9) is obviously necessary. It is also sufficient. Indeed, if $c \cdot x = c \cdot y$, then $c \cdot (x - y) = c \cdot x - c \cdot 0 + (c \cdot 0 - c \cdot y + c \cdot 0) = c \cdot 0$, and by virtu of (9), we have: x - y = 0, hence x = y.

(2.4) *Remark.* Since the multiplication of S is associative, the set of all left cancellable elements of S is a multiplicative subsemigroup of (S, \cdot) . Moreover we can prove the following:

(2.5) LEMMA. If the self-distributive IN-ring S has a left cancellable element e, then e is a left identity of S and all the elements of S are idempotent.

Proof. For all $x \in S$, we have: $(e \cdot e) \cdot x = e \cdot (e \cdot x) = (e \cdot e) \cdot (e \cdot x)$, hence $x = e \cdot x$, since $e \cdot e$ is left cancellable. Therefore e is a left identity and $e \cdot e = e^2 = e$. Now $x^2 = x \cdot x = (e \cdot x) \cdot (e \cdot x) = (e \cdot e) \cdot x = e \cdot x = x$, for all $x \in S$, i.e. each x is idempotent.

(2.6) Remark. ([5], Prop. 2). In a self-distributive semigroup (S, \cdot) , the elements of the form $x \cdot y \cdot z$, with $x, y, z \in S$, are idempotent.

We can prove also, by induction on n:

(10) $x^n = x^3$, for all $x \in S$ and $n \ge 3$;

(11)
$$(x \cdot y)^n = x^n \cdot y^n = x^2 \cdot y^2 = x \cdot y^2 = x^2 \cdot y$$
, for all $x, y \in S$, $n \ge 2$;

(12) $(x \cdot y) \cdot z = (x \cdot y) \cdot z^n = x^n \cdot (yz)$, for all $x, y, z \in S$, $n \ge 1$.

(2.7) Remark. A trivial left IN-ring S is self-distributive, since the identity $x \cdot y = x \cdot 0$ implies $x \cdot (y \cdot z) = (x \cdot y) \cdot (x \cdot z) = (x \cdot y) \cdot z = (x \cdot z) \cdot (y \cdot z) = x \cdot 0$, for all $x, y, z \in S$. Its elements of the form $x \cdot 0$ are idempotent. If $x \cdot 0 = x$, for all $x \in S$, then each $x \in S$ is, obviously, a left zero: $x \cdot y = x \cdot 0 = x$, for all $x, y \in S$, and $x^2 = x$. An example of self-distributive left IN-ring without this property is $S = R^5$, where R is a ring, endowed with binary operations:

$$x + y = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, x_3 + y_3, x_4 + y_4, x_5 + x_2 \cdot y_3 + x_1 \cdot y_4 + y_5),$$
$$x \cdot y = (0, 0, x_3, x_4, x_5).$$

(2.8) DEFINITION. An element z in S is called *quasi-nilpotent*, if there exists a natural number n, such that $x \cdot z^n = x \cdot 0$, for all $x \in S$, i.e. $z^n \in Ann_r(S)$.

Obviously, if $z \in S$ is nilpotent, i.e. there exists n, such that $z^n = 0$, then z is quasi-nilpotent, while the converse is not always true. If S is a left nearring, the two notions are not different.

(2.9) *Remark.* By virtue of (10), in order to check if $z \in S$ is quasi-nilpotent, we have to verify if z, z^2 or z^3 belong to $\operatorname{Ann}_r(S)$. Moreover if $o \cdot o = o$ in S, then, by (12), $x^m \cdot z^n = x \cdot z^2$, when either m or n is strictly greater then I. Therefore we must only verify whether z, z^2 , z^3 are in $\operatorname{Ann}_r(x)$, for those x of S which are not powers of another element of S.

By using (12), we have immediately:

(2.10) *Remark.* For any quasi-nilpotent element z of the self-distributive left IN-ring S, and for any $x, y \in S$, the following equality holds:

$$(13) \qquad (x \cdot y) \cdot z = (x \cdot y) \cdot 0.$$

The last remark helps us to prove the following:

(2.11) PROPOSITION. A self-distributive left IN-ring S is without propreright annihilators if and only if it satisfies, disjunctively, one of the two conditions:

(i) It is a trivial self-distributive left IN-ring, eventually composed by left zeros;

(ii) All the elements of S, with one possible exception (which is a left zero), are left identities.

Proof. The sufficience is pretty obvious: (i) by (2.7), (ii) by straightforward calculations. To prove the necessity, let S be a non-trivial self-distributive left IN-ring without proper right annihilators. Then there exist $a, x_0 \in S, x_0 \neq 0$, such that $a \cdot x_0 \neq a \cdot 0$, hence $x_0 \notin \operatorname{Ann}_r(a)$, $\operatorname{Ann}_r(a) = 0$ and a is a left cancellable element of S, by virtue of (2.3). By (2.5), a is a left identity of S and each element of S is idempotent. For an element $b \in S$, $b \neq 0$, we deduce, from the disjuntive situations: $b^2 = b = b \cdot 0$ or $b^2 = b \neq$ $\neq b \cdot 0$, than b is a left zero (because of the fact that $b \in \operatorname{Ann}_r(b) = S$) or a left identity (because of the fact that $b \notin \operatorname{Ann}_r(b) = 0$. For b = 0, we may also have one of these two situations, hence 0 could be a left identity in S or a left zero. Now, if there exists a left identity, a, we could not have two distinct left zeros, z, z_1 in S, since we obtain a contradiction: $a \cdot (z \cdot z_1) =$ $= z \cdot z_1 = z \neq z_1 = z_1 \cdot z = (a \cdot z_1) \cdot (z \cdot z_1) = (a \cdot z) \cdot z_1 = a \cdot (z \cdot z_1)$. (2.12) *Remark.* If S is in the case (ii) of (2.11), with all the elements left identities, then it is a trivial left near-ring, with the multiplication: $x \cdot y = y$, for all $x, y \in S$. This is the case obtained for self-distributive near-rings by Ferrero-Cotti ([3], Teorema 6). If $b \neq 0$ is the left zero in the same case (ii) of (2.11), then $(S, +, \cdot)$ is isomorphic—as a left IN-ring—with $(S, +_b, *)$, where:

$$x + {}_{b}y = x + b + y, \quad \text{for all } x, y \in S;$$

$$x * y = y, \quad \text{for all } x \in S \setminus \{0\} \quad \text{and all } y \in S;$$

$$0 * y = 0, \quad \text{for all } y \in S,$$

the izomorphism being given by $\rho(x) = x + b$, for all $x \in S$, from $(S, +_b, *)$ onto $(S, +, \cdot)$.

Here we have some examples of self-distributive left IN-rings:

(2.13) *Example.* $T_e(G)$, the set of all constant functions on a group (G, +), is a trivial self-distributive left IN-ring with all elements weakly left distributive, with respect to pointwise addition and mappings composition.

(2.14) *Example.* Let (G, +) be a group. Then $S = G \times G$, with the operations:

$$\begin{split} x + y &= (x_1 + y_1 \,, x_2 + y_2) \,, \\ x \cdot y &= (x_1 \,, y_2) \,, \qquad \text{for all} \quad x \,, \, y \in \mathcal{S} \,, \end{split}$$

is a nontrivial self-distributive left IN-ring with proper right annihilators, since Ann_r (S) = { $(y_1, o | u_1 \in G)$ and all the elements of S are idempotent.

(2.15) Example. Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be a ring; then $S = R^3$, with the operations:

 $\begin{aligned} x + y &= (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, x_3 + x_2 \cdot y_1 + y_3), \\ x \cdot y &= (y_1, 0, x_3), \quad \text{for all} \quad x, y \in \mathcal{S}, \end{aligned}$

is a nontrivial self-distributive left IN-ring with proper annihilators, because $\operatorname{Ann}_r(S) = \{(0, y_2, y_3) \mid y_2, y_3 \in \mathbb{R}\}$. The elements of the form $(x_1, 0, x_3)$, hence the elements $x \cdot y$, with $x, y \in S$, are idempotent.

(2.16) COROLLARY. In a self-distributive left IN-ring S with $0 \cdot x = 0$, for all $x \in S$, a minimal nontrivial right ideal B is composed by only left nonzero identities, hence B is a trivial left near-ring.

Indeed, such an ideal B does not have proper right annihilators, because of its minimality, and it has a left identity, because it is not trivial. We can apply (2.11), (ii), to B.

(2.17) COROLLARY. If a self-distributive left IN-ring S, with $0 \cdot x = 0$, for all $x \in S$, is a direct sum of minimal nontrivial right ideals, then it is a semisimple left near-ring with self-distributive multiplication.

The corollary is obtained immediately, by using (2.16) and Teorema 7, [3].

(2.18) PROPOSITION. Let S be a self-distributive left IN-ring which is also a right near-ring. Then:

(i) $D = \{d \mid d \in D, d \cdot 0 = 0\}$ is a distributive near-ring with selfdistributive multiplication;

(ii) $W = \{w \mid w \in S, w \cdot o = w\}$ is an IN-ring composed only by left zeros of S;

(iii) S = D + W = W + D, and the multiplication is $(d_1 + w_1) \cdot (d_2 + w_2) = d_1 \cdot d_2 + w_1$, for all $d_i + w_i \in S$, i = 1, 2, and $D \cdot W = 0$.

Proof. (i) and (ii) can be easily verified. To prove (iii), let us note that, for any $x \in S$, $x = (x - x \cdot 0) + x \cdot 0 = x \cdot 0 + (-x \cdot 0 + x)$, with $x - x \cdot 0$ and $-x \cdot 0 + x$ in D and $x \cdot 0$ in W. Moreover, for each $d \in D$ and $w \in W$, $d \cdot w = d \cdot (w \cdot 0) = (d \cdot w) \cdot 0 = (d \cdot 0) \cdot (w \cdot 0) = 0 \cdot w = 0$, hence $D \cdot W = 0$. Analogously, $W \cdot S = W$. We can easily see that d and w in the expression of $x \in S$ are unique. Then $x_1 \cdot x_2 = (d_1 + w_1) \cdot (d_2 + w_2) = d_1 \cdot (d_2 + w_2) + w_1 \cdot (d_2 + w_2) = d_1 \cdot d_2 + d_1 \cdot w_2 + w_1 = d_1 \cdot d_2 + w_1$, since $d_1 \cdot w_2 = 0$.

We use the above notations in the following comments.

(2.19) PROPOSITION. The only self-distributive left IN-rings which are also right near-rings with identity (left identity) are the Boole rings (the left and right near-rings with self-distributive multiplication).

Proof. Indeed, if $e \in S$ is a left identity, then $e \cdot o = o$ and $e \in D$, by (2.18), (i). But $e \cdot w = w \in D \cdot W = o$, hence W = o, and S = D is a left near-ring. If e is the identity of S, then S is a left and right unitary self-distributive near-ring, therefore S is a Boole ring (see [3], Osservazione 8).

In the second case of (2.19), the structure of the near-ring is given by the theorem 9 and 10 from [3] and in the theorem 2, from [5].

The two lemmas and the theorem that follow give the structure of some special self-distributive left IN-rings.

(2.20) LEMMA. If S is a self-distributive left IN-ring which is also a right near-ring, then J = [D, D], the commutator subgroup of (D, +), is an ideal of S, with $J^2 = 0$, $J \cdot S = 0$.

Proof. J is a normal subgroup in D, and $w + [d_1, d_2] - w = [w + d_1 - w, w + d_2 - w] \in J$, $d + j - d \in J$, hence $x + j - x \in J$, for all $x \in S, j \in J, w \in W, d_1, d_2 \in D$. By calculating, we obtain $D \cdot J = J \cdot D = J \cdot W = 0$, and then $J \cdot S = 0$, $J^2 = 0$. If $x = d + w \in S$ and $j \in J$, then $x \cdot j - x \cdot 0 = d \cdot j + w - w = d \cdot j = 0 \in J$ and $j \cdot x = 0 \in J$, hence J is an ideal of S.

(2.21) *Remark.* As D is a left and right near-ring with self-distributive multiplication, by applying the theorems 9, [3] and 2, [5], we find that D/J, which is a ring, is equal to B + R, where B is a Boole ring and R is a ring with $R^3 = 0$.

But in the hypotheses of (2.20), there exists S/J, and each class of S/J either constains only one element of W or does not contain any element of W. Then the subset $\overline{W} = \{w + J \mid w \in W\}$ of S/J is a self-distributive left IN-ring of left zeros isomorphic to W, and S/J = D/J + \overline{W} .

(2.22) LEMMA. Under the same hypotheses for S as in (2.20), is $S = D \oplus W$ (direct sum of groups), then each ideal B of D is an ideal of S and S has an ideal T with $T^3 = 0$.

Proof. Because of the property of the direct sum of groups, B is a normal subgroup in (S, +). Let $x = d + w \in S$, $b \in B$ be arbitrary elements. Then $x \cdot b - x \cdot 0 = d \cdot b + w - w = d \cdot b \in B$ and $b \cdot x = b \cdot d \in B$. The theorem 9 from [3] gives the existence of an ideal of D, let us denote it by T, with $T^3 = 0$, namely $\eta^{-1}(R)$, where $\eta : D \to D/J$ is the natural epimorphism and R is the ring with $R^3 = 0$ from the decomposition of D/J in (2.21). It is known that, in the hypotheses of (2.20), $B = D^3$ is a Boole ring (Teorema 11, [3]).

(2.23) THEOREM. If S is a self-distributive left IN-ring which is also a right near-ring and $S = D \oplus W$ (as groups), then $S = (B + T) \oplus W$, where B is a Boole ring, T is an ideal of S with $T^3 = o$, $T \subseteq D$, $B \cap T = o$, $B \cdot T = o$ and W is a trivial IN-ring containing all the left zeros of S.

The proof results from the above lemmas and comments.

If we give up the associativity law for the multiplication of S, then there are some results for a self-distributive nonassociateve left IN-ring that can be obtained as their analogs for linear nonassociative algebras over fields (see [4]). For example:

 $x^2 \cdot x = x \cdot x^2 = x^2 \cdot x^2 = x^3$, for all $x \in S$,

 x^2 is idempotent (see also [7], Prop. 1),

(S, \cdot) is power-associative, i.e. by induction on *m* and *n*, one can show that: $x^m = x^3$, for $m \ge 3$, where $x^m = x^{m-1} \cdot x$; $x^m \cdot x^2 = x^{m+2} = x^3$, for $m \ge 1$; $x^m \cdot x^n = x^{m+n}$, for all $x \in S$ and all natural numbers *m* and *n* (see [4], Theorems 5, 6).

Because in a left and right nonassociative near-ring S the multiplication satisfies the law: $x \cdot y + z \cdot w = z \cdot w + x \cdot y$, for any $x, y, z, w \in S$, if S is self-distributive, then, for all $x, y, u, v \in S$, the following equalities hold:

$$\begin{aligned} (v \cdot x) \cdot (u \cdot y) &= -(u \cdot x) \cdot (v \cdot y) ; (v \cdot u) \cdot x = -(u \cdot v) \cdot x ; \\ (x \cdot u) \cdot (y \cdot v) &= -(x \cdot v) \cdot (y \cdot u) ; x \cdot (u \cdot v) = -x \cdot (v \cdot u) ; \\ (x \cdot u) \cdot (v \cdot y) &= (u \cdot v) \cdot (x \cdot y) ; \\ (x \cdot u) \cdot (v \cdot y) &= -(x \cdot v) \cdot (u \cdot y). \end{aligned}$$

If S has a right identity r, then:

 $v \cdot u = -u \cdot v$, for all $u, v \in S$.

If S has an identity e, then, for all $u, v, x \in S$:

 $u \cdot v = v \cdot u$ and x + x = 0.

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