

# ON DISTRIBUTIVELY GENERATED NEAR-RINGS<sup>1</sup>

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The following theorems in ring theory are well-known:

1. Let  $R$  be a ring. If  $e$  is a unique left identity, then  $e$  is also a right identity.
2. If  $R$  is a ring with more than one element such that  $aR = R$  for every nonzero element  $a \in R$ , then  $R$  is a division ring.
3. A ring  $R$  with identity  $e \neq 0$  is a division ring if and only if it has no proper right ideals.

In this note we shall show that the above theorems can be generalized to distributively generated near-rings. Examples will be given to show that the theorems do not hold for arbitrary near-rings.

## 1. Definitions

A *near-ring*  $R$  is a system with two binary operations, addition and multiplication, such that:

- (i) The elements of  $R$  form a group  $R^+$  under addition.
- (ii) The elements of  $R$  form a multiplicative semi-group.
- (iii)  $x(y+z) = xy+xz$ , for all  $x, y, z \in R$ .

In particular, if  $R$  contains a multiplicative semigroup  $S$  whose elements generate  $R^+$  and satisfy

- (iv)  $(x+y)s = xs+ys$ , for all  $x, y \in R$  and  $s \in S$ ,

we say that  $R$  is a *distributively generated* (d.g.) near-ring.

The most natural example of a near-ring is given by the set  $R$  of all mappings of an additive group (not necessarily abelian) into itself. If the mappings are added by adding images and multiplication is iteration, then the system  $(R, +, \cdot)$  is a near-ring. If  $S$  is a multiplicative semigroup of endomorphisms of  $G$  and  $R'$  is the sub-near-ring generated by  $S$ , then  $R'$  is a d.g. near-ring. Other examples of d.g. near-rings may be found in (1).

A near-ring  $R$  that contains more than one element is said to be a *division* near-ring if and only if the set  $R'$  of nonzero elements is a multiplicative group. Every division ring is an example of a division near-ring. For examples of division near-rings which are not division rings, see (4).

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An element  $a$  of  $R$  is *right distributive* if  $(b+c)a = ba+ca$  for all  $b, c \in R$ . An element  $x \in R$  is *anti-right distributive* if  $(y+z)x = zx+yx$  for all  $y, z \in R$ . It follows at once that an element  $a$  is right distributive if and only if  $(-a)$  is anti-right distributive. In particular, any element of a d.g. near-ring is a finite sum of right and anti-right distributive elements.

A subset  $B$  of a near-ring  $R$  is called a *right ideal* if  $(B, +)$  is a subgroup of  $(R, +)$  and  $B \cdot R = \{b \cdot r : b \in B, r \in R\} \subseteq B$ .

(1.1) **Lemma.** *Let  $R$  be a near-ring, then*

- (i)  $x \cdot 0 = 0, x \in R,$
- (ii)  $x(-y) = -(xy), x, y \in R.$

*In particular, if 1 is the identity of  $R$ , then*

- (iii)  $x(-1) = -x, x \in R.$

These results are easy consequences of the definitions.

**2. Division near-rings**

In general if a near-ring has an identity 1,  $(-1)$  need not commute with all the elements. The following lemma is easy to verify:

(2.1) **Lemma.** *If  $R$  is a near-ring with identity 1, then  $(-1)(-1) = 1$ . Furthermore if  $(-1)r = r(-1)$  for all  $r \in R$ , then  $R^+$  is commutative.*

(2.2) **Theorem.** *The additive group  $R^+$  of a division near-ring  $R$  is abelian.*

**Proof.** Observe that if  $1+1 = 0$ , then  $x+x = x(1+1) = x \cdot 0 = 0$  for each non-zero element  $x \in R$  and hence  $R^+$  is clearly abelian. If  $(-1) \neq 1$ , let  $F$  be the mapping of  $R$  into  $R$  given by  $rF = r(-1) + (-1)r$ .  $F$  is a one-to-one map. Suppose  $r(-1) + (-1)r = s(-1) + (-1)s$ . Then

$$s+r(-1) + (-1)r + (-1)s(-1) = 0.$$

It follows that  $(-1)(r+s(-1)) = r+s(-1)$ . If  $r+s(-1) \neq 0$ , then  $(-1) = 1$ , contrary to assumption. Thus  $r+s(-1) = 0$  and this implies  $r = s$ . Now if  $R$  is finite, then  $F$  is also an onto mapping which means that for  $r \in R$ , there is an element  $s \in R$  such that  $s(-1) + (-1)s = r$  or  $r(-1) = (-1)s(-1) + s$ . Hence  $(-1)[s(-1) + (-1)s] = (-1)r$  implies  $(-1)s(-1) + s = (-1)r$  and for all  $r \in R$  we have  $(-1)r = r(-1)$ . From (2.1),  $R^+$  is abelian. This result was first proved by Zassenhaus (4). A proof for the infinite case can be found in (3).

Even if the additive group of a near-ring with identity 1 is commutative,  $(-1)$  need not commute multiplicatively with all elements. For example, if  $G$  is the additive abelian group of order three then the set of mappings defined on  $G$  is a near-ring whose additive group is abelian. But  $(-1)f \neq f(-1)$  where  $f$  is a non-zero constant mapping. However this is true for "most" division near-rings as the following corollary shows:

(2.3) **Corollary.** *Let  $R$  be a division near-ring with identity 1 such that  $1 \cdot r = r \cdot 1$  for all  $r \in R$ , then  $(-1)r = r(-1)$ .*

**Proof.** Suppose there exists  $w \in R$  such that  $(-1)w = w(-1) + x$ ,  $x \neq 0$ . Then  $x = w + (-1)w = (-1)((-1)w + w) = (-1)(w + (-1)w) = (-1)x$  and hence  $(-1) = 1$ . Thus  $w = w + x$  and this implies  $x = 0$ , which is a contradiction.

**Remark.** It can be shown that if a division near-ring  $R$  has three or more elements, then the identity on the multiplicative group is the identity on  $R$ .

**3. Distributively generated near-rings**

(3.1) **Lemma.** *Let  $R$  be a near-ring. If  $ux = x$  for all  $x \in R$ , and if  $a$  is anti-right distributive, then*

- (i)  $(x + y + z)a = za + ya + xa$ ,
- (ii)  $(xu + y + u)a = a$  where  $x + y = y + x = 0$ .

**Proof.** Obvious.

(3.2) **Theorem.** *If  $R$  is a d.g. near-ring and if  $u$  is a unique left identity, then  $u$  is also a right identity.*

**Proof.** Suppose  $ux = x$  for all  $x \in R$ . Since  $R$  is a d.g. near-ring, we have for any  $w \in R$ ,  $w = w_1 + w_2 + \dots + w_n$  where  $w_i$  is either a right or anti-right distributive element of  $R$ . Now consider  $(xu + y + u)w$  where  $x + y = y + x = 0$  and  $w$  is any element of  $R$ . Now applying (3.1) we have

$$\begin{aligned} (xu + y + u)w &= (xu + y + u)(w_1 + w_2 + \dots + w_n) \\ &= (xu + y + u)w_1 + (xu + y + u)w_2 + \dots + (xu + y + u)w_n \\ &= w_1 + w_2 + \dots + w_n \\ &= w. \end{aligned}$$

The uniqueness of  $u$  implies  $xu = x$  for all  $x \in R$ . This completes the proof.

**Remark.** It can be shown easily that if a near-ring has a unique right identity, then it is also a left identity. Theorem (3.2) is not true in general for arbitrary near-rings. Consider the following example: Let  $G$  be an additive group with at least three elements. Suppose  $e \in G$  such that  $e \neq 0$ . Define  $ex = x$  for all  $x \in G$  and  $gx = 0$  for all  $g \neq e$  of  $G$ . Then  $(G, +, \cdot)$  is a near-ring (2). It is clear that  $e$  is the unique left identity but not a right identity.

The following lemma is easy:

(3.3) **Lemma.** *If  $D$  is a d.g. near-ring, then  $0 \cdot d = 0$  for all  $d \in D$ .*

(3.4) **Theorem.** *A necessary and sufficient condition for a d.g. near-ring  $D$  with more than one element to be a division ring is that, for all nonzero  $a \in D$ ,  $aD = D$ .*

**Proof.** Necessity. There is an element  $e \in D$  such that  $ae = ea = a$  for  $a \neq 0$  in  $D$ . Clearly  $aD \subseteq D$ . Suppose  $a \neq 0$  is in  $D$ . Then there exists an

element  $b \in D$  such that  $ab = e \in aD$ . Thus  $x = a(bx)$ , for all  $x \in D$ , and so  $x \in aD$ . Hence  $aD = D$ .

Sufficiency. If  $a$  and  $b$  are nonzero elements of  $D$ , then  $ab \neq 0$ . For if not, there exist  $a_e$  and  $b_e$  such that  $aa_e = a$  and  $bb_e = a_e$ . Thus

$$0 = abb_e = aa_e = a,$$

which is a contradiction. Now let  $r$  be a nonzero right distributive element of  $D$ . Then there is an element  $e \in D$  such that  $re = r$ . But

$$r(er - r) = rer - rr = 0.$$

From the above we have  $er = r$ . This means that  $e$  is a two-sided identity for  $r$ . Since we know from the first part of the proof that the set of non-zero elements is closed under multiplication and multiplication is associative it only remains to prove that  $e$  is a right identity for the non-zero elements of  $D$  and every non-zero element of  $D$  has a right inverse. Let  $d \neq 0$  be an element in  $D$ . Then  $(de - d)r = der - dr = dr - dr = 0$ . Since  $r \neq 0$ , we have that  $de = d$ . Also  $dD = D$  implies there is a  $d' \in D$  such that  $dd' = e$ . Thus we have shown that the d.g. near-ring  $D$  is a division near-ring. From (2.2) the additive group  $D^+$  of  $D$  is abelian. It now follows (1, p. 93) that every element of  $D$  is right distributive and hence  $D$  is a division ring.

(3.5) **Corollary.** *A d.g. near-ring  $D$  with identity  $e \neq 0$  is a division ring if and only if it has no proper right ideals.*

**Proof.** Necessity is quite clear. Suppose  $D$  has no proper right ideals. For each  $a \neq 0$  in  $D$ ,  $aD$  is a right ideal of  $D$ . Thus  $aD = D$  and by (3.4)  $D$  is a division ring.

The following example shows that (3.4) can not be extended to arbitrary near-rings: Let  $D = \{0, 1\}$  with addition and multiplication as defined below. Then it can be verified easily that  $D$  is a near-ring which is not a division ring.

+	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

.	0	1
0	0	1
1	0	1

In fact,  $D$  is the only (up to isomorphism) division near-ring for which 1 is not the identity of  $D$ .

Finally it can be shown easily that a near-ring  $D$  with identity  $e \neq 0$  and  $0 \cdot x = 0$  for all  $x \in D$  is a division near-ring if and only if it has no proper right ideals. Since there exist division near-rings which are not division rings (4), we conclude that (3.5) can not be extended to arbitrary near-rings.

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