

STUDY OF THE STRUCTURE OF RINGS WITH $(x, y, z) = (y, z, x)$

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Abstract

We discuss the structure of rings satisfying the identity $(x, y, z) = (y, z, x)$. If R is a ring satisfying the identity $(x, y, z) = (y, z, x)$ and if it also satisfies the identity $(x, x, x) = 0$, then R is alternative. It is known that if R satisfies $(x, y, z) = (y, z, x)$, it need not be an alternative ring [11]. Thus the class of rings satisfying this identity is a non-trivial extension of the class of alternative rings. Jordan remarked that $(x, x, x)^2 = 0$ is an identity in R . Outcalt strengthened this remark by proving that $(y, x, x)^2 = 0$ for all $x, y \in R$.

Keywords:- structure of rings, primitive ring, arbitrary ring, assosymmetric ring, Teichmuller identity, Semi-prime rings, Alternative Ring,

Introduction

We present this in section 1 to show that if R is a simple or primitive ring of char. $\neq 2, 3$ satisfying $(x, y, z) = (y, z, x)$, then R is alternative.

In section 2 it is shown that a ring R of the same characteristic satisfying $(x, y, z) = (y, z, x)$ and containing no nonzero ideal whose square is zero must be alternative.

Kleinfeld [15] studied local versions of some well-known identities. In a similar way we consider a ring satisfying the identity $h(x, x, y) = h(x, y, x) = h(y, x, x)$, where $h(x, y, z) = (x, y, z) - (y, z, x)$.

In section 3 we show that this ring satisfies the identities $(x, y, z) = (y, z, x)$ and $((y, x, x), x, x) = 0$. This last identity gives a short step to prove that for a fixed element x and arbitrary y , the ideal generated by all (y, x, x) squares to zero. Then it is known that R is alternative.

1. Simple and Primitive rings with $(x, y, z) = (y, z, x)$

We consider a ring R of char. $\neq 2$ or 3 satisfying the identity

$$(x, y, z) = (y, z, x) \quad \text{..... 1.1}$$

for all x, y, z in R . In this section we present some results of Outcalt [22] on the structure of R . We prove that if R is either simple or primitive, then R is a Cayley - Dickson algebra or associative. These results are identical with those for alternative rings [9,10], Also that R is a Cayley-Dickson algebra or associative if R is simple, generalizes kleinfeld's theorem that an assosymmetric ring of char. $\neq 2$ or 3 without ideals $I \neq 0$ such that $I^2 = 0$ is associative [11]. This result is shared by many classes of associator dependent rings [18]. Associator dependent rings are defined to be rings satisfying the identity

$$(x, x, x) = 0 \quad \text{..... 1.2}$$

$$\text{and } \alpha_1(x,y,z) + \alpha_2(y,z,x) + \alpha_3(z,x,y) + \alpha_4(x,z,y) + \alpha_5(z,y,x) + \alpha_6(y,x,z) = 0 \quad \text{-----1.3}$$

for fixed α_i in some field of scalars [12]. A natural extension of the study of associator dependent rings is to drop the identity 1.2 and study rings satisfying a particular form of 1.3 which does not imply 1.2. Rings satisfying 1.1 are such a class of rings.

Now we study the properties of a function $f(w, x, y, z)$ in R which is introduced in [3]. The function $f(w, x, y, z)$ is defined by

$$f(w, x, y, z) = (wx, y, z) - x(w, y, z) - (x, y, z)w \quad \text{-----1.4}$$

Then we use those properties to derive some useful identities. We need the Teichmüller identity, which holds in an arbitrary ring.

$$0 = h(w, x, y, z) = (wx, y, z) - (w, xy, z) + (w, x, yz) - w(x, y, z) - (w, x, y)z.$$

Now, expanding f and h and collecting terms yields

$$f(w, x, y, z) - h(w, x, y, z) - h(x, y, z, w) = - (zw, x, y) + w(z, x, y) + (w, x, y)z$$

$$\text{But } f(z, w, x, y) = (zw, x, y) - w(z, x, y) - (w, x, y)z.$$

$$\text{Hence } f(w, x, y, z) = -f(z, w, x, y), \quad \text{-----1.5}$$

$$\text{Then } f(w, x, y, z) - f(z, w, x, y) + f(y, z, w, x) - h(y, z, w, x)$$

$$= (w, (x, y, z)) - (x, (y, z, w)) + (y, (z, w, x)) - (z, (w, x, y)), \text{ by expanding } f \text{ and } h \text{ and collecting terms.}$$

However, by 1.5 we have

$$f(w, x, y, z) - f(z, w, x, y) + f(y, z, w, x) = 3f(w, x, y, z).$$

Hence

$$3f(w, x, y, z) = (w, (x, y, z)) - (x, (y, z, w)) + (y, (z, w, x)) - (z, (w, x, y)). \quad \text{.....1.6}$$

Letting $w = x$ and $y = z$ in 1.6, we obtain $f(x, x, y, y) = 0$, which yields, by linearizing,

$$f(w, x, y, z) + f(x, w, y, z) + f(w, x, z, y) + f(x, w, z, y) = 0. \quad \text{-----1.7}$$

Using 1.5 and 1.7, we can write

$$f(w, x, y, z) = f(x, w, z, y) + f(z, y, x, w) - f(w, x, z, y) - f(y, z, x, w) - 3f(x, w, z, y).$$

Expanding the first four items using 1.4 and the last using 1.6, we obtain

$$f(w, x, y, z) = ((x, w), z, y) + (x, w, (z, y)). \quad \text{-----1.8}$$

Using 1.4 and 1.6 to expand $3f(x, y, x, z)$, we obtain, by subtracting the resulting expressions,

$$A(x, y, z) = 3(xy, x, z) - x(y, x, z) - 2(y, x, z)x - 2y(x, x, z) - (x, x, z)y - (x, (x, y, z)) + (z, (y, x, x)) = 0.$$

Similarly, using 1.4 and then 1.6 to expand $3f(x, x, y, z)$, we obtain

$$B(x, y, z) = 3(x^2, y, z) - 3x(x, y, z) - 3(x, y, z)x - (y, (z, x, x)) + (z, (y, x, x)) = 0.$$

Also, by 1.7 we have $0 = 2f(y, z, x, x) - f(z, y, x, x) - 3f(y, z, x, x)$.

Expanding the first two terms using 1.4 and then the last term using 1.6, we obtain

$$2(yz, x, x) - (zy, x, x) - z(y, x, x) - (z, x, x)y = 0. \quad \text{-----1.9}$$

Next, we wish to establish the important identity

$$3((y, x, x), x, x) + ((x, x, x), x, y) + ((x, x, x), y, x) = 0. \quad \text{-----1.10}$$

Indeed, if we expand f by 1.4, we observe that $f(x, x, x, x) = f(x, x, x, x^2)$;

Hence application of 1.5 yields

$$f(x^2, x, x, x) = 0. \quad \text{-----1.11}$$

We note that in an arbitrary ring, $(x, x, x) = (x^2, x) = -(x, x^2)$.

Thus $((x, x, x), x, x) = -((x, x^2), x, x)$;

But by 1.8 $-((x, x^2), x, x) = -f(x^2, x, x, x)$.

Hence by 1.11 we have

$$((x,x,x), x,x) = 0. \quad \text{-----1.12}$$

Substituting $x+y$ for x in 1.12 and then $-x+y$ for x in 1.12 and adding yields

$$3((x,x,y), x,x) + ((x,x,x), x,y) + ((x,x,x), y,x) + ((y,y,y), x,x) + 3((y,y,x), y,x) + 3((y,y,x), x,y) + 3((y,x,x), y,y) = 0, \quad \text{-----1.13}$$

Since terms with one or three x 's cancel, and terms with no x 's or five x 's go out by 1.12.

Similarly, substituting $x + 2y$ for x in 1.12 and then $-x + 2y$ for x in 1.12 and adding yields

$$3((x,x,y), x,x) + ((x,x,x), x,y) + ((x,x,x), y,x) + 4((y,y,y), x,x) + 12((y,y,x), y,x) + 12((y,y,x), x,y) + 12((y,x,x), y,y) = 0.$$

Subtracting 1.13 from this last equation and cancelling by 3, we obtain

$$((y,y,y), x,x) + 3((y,y,x), y,x) + 3((y,y,x), x,y) + 3((y,x,x), y,y) = 0,$$

which yields 1.10 on comparing with 1.13

Proceeding from 1.10 in the same way as we did from 1.12, substituting $x + z$ for x in 1.10 and then $x - z$ for x in 1.10 and adding yields

$$0 = ((y,x,x), z,z) + ((y,x,z), z,x) + ((y,x,z), x,z) + ((y,z,x), z,x) + ((y,z,x), x,z) + ((y,z,z), x,x) + ((z,x,x), z,y) + ((z,z,x), x,y) + ((z,x,x), y,z) + ((z,z,x), y,x). \quad \text{----- 1.14}$$

Letting $y = x$ in 1.14 yields

$$0 = ((x,x,x), z,z) + 3((z,x,x), z,x) + 3((z,x,x), x,z) + 3((z,z,x), x,x) \quad \text{----- 1.15}$$

Similarly, we substitute $x + y$ for x in 1.15 and then $-x + y$ for x in 1.15 and add to obtain.

$$0 = ((y,x,x), z,z) + ((z,x,x), z,y) + ((z,x,y), z,x) + ((z,y,x), z,x) + ((z,x,x), y,z) + ((z,x,y), x,z) + ((z,y,x), x,z) + ((z,z,x), x,y) + ((z,z,x), y,x) + ((z,z,y), x,x). \quad \text{-----1.16}$$

Next, we wish to substitute (x,x,x) for y in 1.16. However, before doing that we shall introduce some new notation to make the equations less cumbersome to work with:

For $x \in R$, we define $v^n(a)$, $a \in R$, by $v(a) = (a,x,x)$, $v^k(a) = v(v^{k-1}(a))$.

This $v^n(a)$ depends upon x as well as a .

Clearly, $v^m(v^n(a)) = v^n(v^m(a)) = v^{m+n}(a)$, and $v^n(a+b) = v^n(a) + v^n(b)$.

Equations 1.9, 1.10, and 1.12 become, respectively,

$$C(y,z) = 2v(yz) - v(zv(y)) - zv(y) - v(z)y = 0.$$

$$D(y) = 3v^2(y) + (v(x), x,y) + (v(x), y,x) = 0, \text{ and } v^2(x) = 0 \quad \text{..... 1.17}$$

We shall derive some basic identities involving the v - function, and then we shall make the substitution $y = v(x)$ in 1.16. This substitution will lead to the identity $v^4(y) = 0$, which in turn yields the identity $v^3(a)v^3(b) = 0$.

We shall also show that if $a^2 = 0$ implies $a = 0$ in R , then R is alternative.

Now, expanding $0 = B(y,x,x)$ yields

$$v(y^2) = yv(y) + v(y)y. \quad \text{----- 1.18}$$

Also, expanding

$$0 = B(y, v(x), x) + B(y, x, v(x)) - 3D(y^2) + 3D(y)y + 3yD(y) \text{ yields} \\ 0 = -9v^2(y^2) + 9v^2(y)y^2 + 9yv^2(y);$$

Hence, by 1.18 we have

$$V^2(y^2) = v(yv(y) + v(y)y) = v^2(y)y + yv^2(y). \quad \text{-----1.19}$$

Finally, computing $0 = C(v(y), y) + C(y, v(y))$, we obtain

$$0 = v(v(y)y + yv(y)) - yv^2(y) - v^2(y)y - 2(v(y))^2;$$

Hence 1.19 yields

$$(v(y))^2 = 0. \quad \text{.....1.20}$$

Equation 1.20 has far-reaching consequences. In the first place, Jordon's result that $(v(x))^2 = 0$, which we mentioned in introduction, is a special case of 1.20 and we have the following theorem.

Theorem 1.1: If $a^2 = 0$ implies $a = 0$ in R , then R is alternative.

Linearizing 1.20 yields $E(a, b) = v(a) v(b) + v(b) v(a) = 0$.

Since $(v(a), v(a), v(b)) = (v(a), v(b), v(a)) = (v(b), v(a), v(a))$,

Using 1.20 we obtain

$$3(v(a), v(a), v(b)) = -v(a) \cdot v(a) v(b) + v(a) v(b) \cdot v(a) - v(a) \cdot v(b) v(a) + v(b) v(a) \cdot v(a) \\ = -v(a) E(a, b) + E(a, b) v(a) = 0.$$

$$\text{Hence } (v(a), v(a), v(b)) = 0. \quad \text{-----1.21}$$

Linearizing 1.21 we obtain

$$(v(a), v(b), v(c)) + (v(b), v(a), v(c)) = 0. \quad \text{..... 1.22}$$

Finally, by 1.22, $0 = v(b) E(a, c) - E(a, b) v(c) + (v(a), v(b), v(c)) + (v(b), v(a), v(c))$,

Which yields, by expansion,

$$v(a) \cdot v(b) v(c) = v(b) \cdot v(c) v(a). \quad \text{-----1.23}$$

Now, computing $0 = 2C(a, b) + C(b, a)$, we obtain

$$F(a, b) = 3v(ab) - av(b) - 2v(b)a - v(a)b - 2bv(a) = 0.$$

Next, we expand

$0 = 3v(F(a, b)) + F(a, v(b)) + 2F(v(b), a) + F(v(a), b) + 2F(b, v(a)) + 8E(a, b)$ to obtain

$$G(a, b) = 9v^2(ab) - 5av^2(b) - 4v^2(b)a - 5v^2(a)b - 4bv^2(a) - 2v(a) v(b) = 0.$$

Linearizing 1.19, we have

$$H(a, b) = v^2(ab + ba) - av^2(b) - v^2(a)b - bv^2(a) - v^2(b)a = 0.$$

Then, we compute $0 = G(a, b) - 4H(a, b)$ to obtain

$$1(a, b) = 5v^2(ab) - 4v^2(ba) - av^2(b) - v^2(a)b - 2v(a) v(b) = 0.$$

Finally, expanding

$$0 = 3v(G(a, b)) + 5F(a, v^2(b)) + 4F(v^2(b), a) + 5F(v^2(a), b) + 4F(b, v^2(a)) + 2F(v(a), v(b)) + \\ 15E(a, v(b)) + 15E(v(a), b) \text{ yields}$$

$$J(a, b) = 27v^3(ab) - 13av^3(b)a - 14v^3(b)a - 13v^3(a)b - 14bv^3(a) - 3v^2(b)v(a) - 3v(b)v^2(a) = 0.$$

Letting $y = v(x)$ in 1.16, subtracting.

$$0 = (D(z), x, z) + (D(z), z, x) + D((z, z, x)), \text{ and applying 1.17, we obtain}$$

$$0 = (v(z), z, v(x)) + (v(z), v(x), z) + v((z, z, v(x))) - 3(v^2(z), x, z) - 3(v^2(z), z, x) - 3v^2((z, z, x)). \quad \text{.....} \\ 1.24$$

Substituting $x + y$ for z in 1.24, subtracting $0 = D(v(y)) + v(D(y))$, and applying 1.17 yields

$$9v^3(y) = (v(x), v(x), y). \quad \text{..... 1.25}$$

$$\text{We obtain } v^4(y) = 0, \quad \text{----- 1.26}$$

by letting $y = v(y)$ in 1.25 and applying 1.21. Next, we expand

$$0 = 3v(J(a, b)) + 13F(a, v^3(b)) + 14F(v^3(b), a) + 13F(v^3(a), b) + 14F(b, v^3(a)) + 3F(v^2(b), v(a)) + \\ 3F(v(b), v^2(a)) + 43E(a, v^2(b)) + 43E(v^2(a), b) + 6E(v(a), v(b)) \text{ to obtain, upon applying 1.26,} \\ 2v(a) v^3(b) + 2v^3(a) v(b) + 3v^2(a) v^2(b) = 0. \quad \text{..... 1.27}$$

Finally, letting $a = v(a)$ and $b = v(b)$ in 2.1.27 and applying 2.1.26, we obtain

$$v^3(a) v^3(b) = 0. \quad \text{----- 1.28}$$

We define $U(x) = \{u \in R / u(r, x, x) = (r, x, x) u = (u, x, x) = 0 \text{ for all } r \in R\}$.

In terms of the v -function, this can be written as $uv(r) = v(r)u = v(u) = 0$.

Lemma 1.1: $U(x)$ is an ideal of R for all x in R .

Proof: Clearing $U(x)$ is a subgroup of the additive group of R . Now,

$$v(ur) = v(ru) = 0 \quad \text{..... 1.29}$$

for $u \in v(x)$ and $r \in R$, since $3v(ur) = F(u,r) = 0 = F(r,u) = 3v(ru)$.

Let $u \in U(x)$ and $r, s \in R$. Then computing

$0 = uC(r, s) + C(r, s)u - (u, s, v(r)) - (u, v(s), r) + (s, v(r), u) + (v(s), r, u)$ yields

$$us. v(r) = -v(s). ru. \quad \text{-----1.30}$$

Next, we obtain $us. v(r) = -2v(us. r) \quad \text{.....1.31}$

by expanding $0 = C(r, u, s) - C(r, u, s) + 2v(r, u, s) - 3v(u, s, r) + v(s, r, u)$

and applying 1.29 and 1.30. Furthermore, expanding $0 = 2F(us, r)$

and applying 1.29 and 1.31, we have

$$5us. v(r) = -4v(r). us. \quad \text{..... 1.32}$$

We establish that

$$us. v(r) = -4ru. v(s), \quad \text{-----1.33}$$

by expanding $0 = 4C(r, s)u + 4(s, v(r), u) + 4(v(s), r, u) - 4(v(r), u, s) - 4(r, u, v(s))$

and applying 1.30 and 1.32. Finally, expanding $0 = 4F(ru, s) - 4F(r, us) - 12v((r, u, s)) + 12v(u, s, r)$

and applying equations 1.29 through 1.33, we obtain $6us.v(r) = 0$. This latter, along with 1.29, 1.30, 1.32 and 1.33, completes the proof.

Now R will be said to have property P providing there is a subgroup N of the additive group of R such that $N + I = R$ for every ideal $I \neq 0$ of R . Property P is of interest because clearly R has property P if R is simple (take $N = 0$), and we shall see that R has property P if R is primitive.

Lemma 1.2 : If R has property P , then $v(R) \subset U(x)$ for all x in R .

Proof: Letting $a = x$ and $b = v^2(a)$ in 1.21, we have $(v(x), v(x), v^3(a)) = 0$, and by 1.25 and 1.28,

$$V^3(a)(v(x), v(x), r) = 0 = (v(x), (v(x), r) v^3(a);$$

hence $v^3(a) \in U(v(x))$. If $U(v(x)) = 0$, then $v^3(a) = 0$;

if $U(v(x)) \neq 0$, then $N + U(v(x)) = R$. For $n \in N$, $u \in U(v(x))$,

we have, using 1.25, $9v^3(n+u) = 9v^3(n) + (v(x), v(x), u) = 0$.

Hence, in either case we have

$$v^3(a) = 0. \quad \text{..... 1.34}$$

Applying 1.34 to $J(a, b) = 0$ yields

$$v^2(b) v(a) + v(b) v^2(a) = 0, \quad \text{-----1.35}$$

and we obtain

$$v^2(b) v^2(a) = 0 \quad \text{-----1.36}$$

if we let $a = v(a)$ in 1.35 and apply 1.34.

The next sequence of identities will show that $v^2(b) \in U(v^2(a))$.

Expanding $0 = B(v^2(a), v^2(a), r)$ and applying 1.20 and 1.21 with $a = b = v(a)$ yields

$$2v^2(a)(v^2(a), v^2(a), r) + (v^2(a), v^2(a), r) v^2(a) = 0. \quad \text{..... 1.37}$$

Similarly, expanding $0 = B(v^2(a), r, v^2(a))$ yields

$$-2v^2(a)(v^2(a), v^2(a), r) - 4(v^2(a), v^2(a), r) v^2(a) = 0. \quad \text{..... 1.38}$$

By adding 2.1.37 to 2.1.38 we obtain

$$v^2(a)(v^2(a), v^2(a), r) = 0 = (v^2(a), v^2(a), r) v^2(a) \quad \text{-----1.39}$$

by referring to 1.38. Substituting $a + b$ for a in 1.39 and then $-a + b$ for a in 1.39 and adding yields

$$v^2(a) [(v^2(a), v^2(b), r) + (v^2(b), v^2(a), r)] = -v^2(b) (v^2(a), v^2(a), r), \text{-----1.40}$$

$$[(v^2(a), v^2(b), r) + (v^2(b), v^2(a), r)] v^2(a) = -(v^2(a), v^2(a), r) v^2(b)$$

since terms with one or three a 's cancel, and terms with no a 's go out by 1.39.

Now, applying 1.20 to the expansion of $0 = B(v^2(a), v^2(b), r) + B(v^2(a), r, v^2(b))$ yields

$$0 = -3 v^2(a) [(v^2(a), v^2(b), r) + (v^2(b), v^2(a), r)] - 3[(v^2(a), v^2(b), r) + (v^2(b), v^2(a), r)] v^2(a),$$

to which we apply 1.40 to obtain

$$v^2(b) (v^2(a), v^2(a), r) + (v^2(a), v^2(a), r) v^2(b) = 0. \text{-----1.41}$$

Furthermore, computing

$$0 = A(v^2(a), r, v^2(b)) + B(v^2(a), r, v^2(b)) - 3 h(v^2(a), v^2(b), v^2(a), r)$$

and applying 1.20, 1.21, 1.36 and 1.40, we have $0 = 3 v^2(b) (v^2(a), v^2(a), r)$.

Hence, referring to 1.41, we see that

$$v^2(b) (v^2(a), v^2(a), r) = 0 = (v^2(a), v^2(a), r) v^2(b). \text{-----1.42}$$

Equations 1.21 and 1.42 show that $v^2(b) \in U(v^2(a))$.

If $U(v^2(a)) = 0$, then $v^2(b) = 0$; if $U(v^2(a)) \neq 0$, then $N + U(v^2(a)) = R$. For $n \in N$,

$u \in U(v^2(a))$, we have, using 1.25 with $x = v(a)$, $(n+u, v^2(a), v^2(a)) = (n, v^2(a), v^2(a))$

$$= 9((n, v(a), v(a)), v(a), v(a)), v(a), v(a)) = 0$$

since $((n, v(a), v(a)), v(a), v(a)) = 0$ by the definition of N .

Hence, in either case we have

$$(v^2(a), v^2(a), r) = 0. \text{-----1.43}$$

Evaluating the associator in 1.43 and applying 1.20, we obtain

$$v^2(a). v^2(a)r = 0, \text{-----1.44}$$

and linearizing 1.43 yields

$$0 = (v^2(a), v^2(b), r) + (v^2(b), v^2(a), r). \text{-----1.45}$$

Since by 1.45 we have $0 = I(a, a) v^2(r) - v^2(a) I(a, r) + (v^2(a), a, v^2(r)) + (a, v^2(a), v^2(r))$,

We obtain, by expanding and applying 1.20, 1.36, and 1.44, $0 = 2v^2(a). v(a) v(r)$;

But then, using 1.23 with $a = r$, $b = v(a)$ and $c = a$ yields

$$0 = v(r). v^2(a) v(a). \text{-----1.46}$$

It is easy to see that 1.1 holds in the anti-isomorphic copy R_1 of R and that R_1 has property P if R

does; Hence 2.1.46 holds in R_1 . But then we have in R the identity $0 = v(a) v^2(a). v(r)$, from

which we subtract $0 = E(a, v^2(a)) v(r)$ to obtain

$$0 = v^2(a) v(a). v(r). \text{..... 1.47}$$

Computing $0 = F(v^2(a) v(a))$ and applying 1.20 and 1.34 yields

$$v(v^2(a) v(a)) = 0. \text{-----1.48}$$

Equations 1.46, 1.47 and 1.48 imply that $v^2(a) v(a) \in U(x)$.

If $U(x) = 0$, then $v^2(a) v(a) = 0$; if $U(x) \neq 0$, then $N + U(x) = R$. For $n \in N$, $u \in U(x)$, we have v

$(n+u) = 0$. Hence, in either case we have

$$v^2(a) v(a) = 0. \text{-----1.49}$$

Linearizing 1.49 yields $v^2(a) v(b) + v^2(b) v(a) = 0$, from which we subtract 1.35 to obtain

$$0 = v^2(a) v(b) - v(b) v^2(a) + E(b, v(a)) = 2v^2(a) v(b);$$

Hence $v^2(a) v(b) = v(b) v^2(a) = 0$.

$$\text{..... 1.50}$$

Equations 1.34 and 1.50 imply that $v^2(a) \in U(x)$. If $U(x) = 0$, then $v^2(a) = 0$; if $U(x) \neq 0$, then $N + U(x) = R$. For $n \in N$, $u \in U(x)$, we have as before $v^2(n+u) = 0$.

Hence, in either case we have $v^2(a) = 0$. But then computing $0 = G(a, b)$ yields $v(a)v(b) = 0 = v(b)v(a)$. Therefore, $v(a) \in U(x)$.

This completes the proof of the lemma.

Now we prove the structure theorems of R .

Theorem 1.2: A simple ring R of char. $\neq 2$ or 3 satisfying 1.1 is alternative and hence a Cayley-Dickson algebra or associative.

Proof: Clearly R has property P if R is simple. Hence, by lemma 1.2, $v(a) \in U(x)$, which implies that $v(a) = 0$ if $U(x) = 0$, or if $U(x) = R$. Therefore, R is alternative.

From Kleinfeld's [10] theorem, it follows that R is a Cayley-Dickson algebra or associative.

Theorem 1.3: A primitive ring R of char. $\neq 2$ or 3 satisfying 1.1 is alternative and hence a Cayley - Dickson algebra or associative.

Proof: First we shall show that R has property P if R is primitive. Let M be a maximal right ideal of R which contains no ideals $I \neq 0$ of R . The letter m will denote an element of M ; other letters will denote arbitrary elements of R . By $r \equiv s$ we mean that $r-s \in M$.

Clearly $(m, x, y) \equiv 0$, ----- 1.51

since M is a right ideal. In particular, it follows from 1.51 that $v(m) = 0$. Also, since M is a right ideal, 1.51 yields

$$v(my) \equiv v(m)y \equiv 0. \quad \text{-----1.52}$$

Expanding $0 = F(y, m) - C(m, y)$ and applying 1.52 we have

$$v(ym) \equiv 0. \quad \text{-----1.53}$$

Furthermore, expanding $0 = F(y, m)$ and applying both 1.52 and 1.53 yields

$$yv(m) + v(y)m \equiv 0. \quad \text{-----1.54}$$

Next, we expand $0 = E(m, y)$ and apply 1.52 to obtain

$$v(y)v(m) \equiv 0. \quad \text{-----1.55}$$

Letting $m = v(m)$ in 1.54, we have by 1.55

$$yv^2(m) = 0. \quad \text{----- 1.56}$$

Now we define $S = \{s \in M / Rs \equiv 0\}$.

S is an ideal of R . Indeed, for $s \in S$, $a, b \in R$, 1.51 yields $a.sb \equiv as.b \equiv 0$ and $a.bs \equiv ab.s \equiv 0$. Hence, $S = 0$ since $S \subset M$. But then $v^2(m) = 0$, since $v^2(m) \in S$ by 1.56. Hence r has property P since $M + I = R$ for all ideals $I \neq 0$ of R . Therefore, $v(a) \in U(x)$ by lemma 1.2. If $U(x) \subset M$, then, $U(x) = 0$ and $v(a) = 0$; if $U(x) \not\subset M$, then $M + U(x) = R$. For $m \in M$, $u \in U(x)$, $v(u+m) = v(m)$. Hence in either case, 1.51 yields

$$v(a) \equiv 0. \quad \text{..... 1.57}$$

Computing $0 = C(a, b)$ and applying 1.57 yields $bv(a) \equiv 0$. Thus $v(a) \in S$ which implies $v(a) = 0$. Hence R is alternative and we can apply Theorem 2 of [9] to complete the proof.

We give an example of a ring satisfying the identity $(x, y, z) = (y, z, x)$, which is not alternative.

Example: Consider the algebra having basis elements x, y, z over an arbitrary field. We define $x^2 = y$, $yx = z$, and all other products of basis elements equal to zero. Then all associators involving basis elements are zero except $(x, x, x) = z$. Thus it satisfies the identity $(x, y, z) = (y, z, x)$. But it is not alternative.

2. Semi-prime rings with $(x,y,z) = (y,z,x)$

In section 1, we have seen that if R is a simple or primitive ring satisfying $(x,y,z) = (y,z,x)$ with $\text{char.} \neq 2, 3$, then R is alternative and hence associative or a Cayley-Dickson algebra. In this section we extend these results and prove that a ring R satisfying $(x,y,z) = (y,z,x)$ with the same restriction on its characteristic and containing no non-zero ideal whose square is zero is alternative. The structure theorems of section 1 are derived using the ideal $U(x)$ and a property P , which is shared by both simple and primitive rings. It is not obvious that this property P holds for a ring having no nonzero ideal whose square is zero. Here we present three lemmas due to Sterling [27]. Using these lemmas and Outcalt's [22] argument, we prove the main result.

Throughout this section R denotes a ring satisfying the identity

$$(x,y,z) = (y,z,x), \quad \text{..... 2.1}$$

with no nonzero ideal whose square is zero and with $\text{char.} \neq 2, 3$. We know that a ring is semiprime if it has no nonzero ideal whose square is zero.

In section 1, we have defined the v -function and obtained that

$$(v(a))^2 = 0 \quad \text{-----2.2}$$

$$\text{and } v(a) (v(b) v(c)) = v(b) (v(c) v(a)). \quad \text{-----2.3}$$

Also we have derived the identities $F(a,b)$, $G(a,b)$, $I(a,b)$, $J(a,b)$ and

$$9v^3(a) = (v(x), v(x), a), \quad \text{-----2.4}$$

$$f(w,x,y,z) = -f(z,w,x,y). \quad \text{-----2.5}$$

From lemma 1.1 we have $U(x) = \{u \in R / u(R,x,x) = (R,x,x)u = (u,x,x) = 0\}$ is an ideal of R .

We use the following identity which is satisfied in an arbitrary ring:

$$C(x,y,z) = (xy,z) - x(y,z) - (x,z)y - (x,y,z) + (x,z,y) - (z,x,y) = 0.$$

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