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# A SPECIAL IDENTITY OF $(\alpha, \beta)$-DERIVATIONS AND ITS CONSEQUENCES 

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#### Abstract

In this note, we shall give a description of $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivations $\delta, g$ and $h$ of a prime ring $R$ satisfying $\delta(x)=a g(x)+h(x) b$ for all $x \in U$, where $a$ and $b$ are some fixed noncentral elements of $R$ and $U$ a nonzero ideal of $R$. This result generalizes some known results.


Recently, Brešar [2] proved a theorem which generalizes a result in Herstein's paper [7]. Indeed, he gave a description of derivations $d, g$ and $h$ of a prime ring $R$ satisfying $d(x)=a g(x)+h(x) b, x \in R$, where $a$ and $b$ are some fixed noncentral elernents in $R$. In [1], Aydin-Kaya proved that if $d$ is a nonzero $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation of a prime ring, $U$ is an ideal of $R$ and $a \in R$ such that $\alpha(a) d(u)-d(u) \beta(a)=0$ for all $u \in U$, then $a \in Z$ provided that char $R \neq 2$. In [3], the author proved that if $\delta \neq 0$ is an $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation of a prime ring $R$ and if $a \in R$ is such that $[a, \delta(R)]=0$, then (i) $a \in Z$ provided that char $R \neq 2$ and $\alpha \delta=\delta \alpha, \beta \delta=\delta \beta$; (ii) $a^{2}+\eta a \in C$ for some $\eta \in C$ provided that char $R=2$ and $\alpha \delta=\delta \alpha$ (or $\beta \delta=\delta \beta$ ). Moreover, if $a \notin Z$, then there exists an invertible element $b$ in $Q$ and $\lambda \in C$ such that $\delta(x)=\lambda[a, x] b$ for all $x \in R$.

In this note, we shall give a description of ( $\alpha, \beta$ )-derivations $\delta, g$ and $h$ of a prime ring $R$ satisfying $\delta(x)=a g(x)+h(x) b$ for all $x \in U$, where $a$ and $b$ are some fixed noncentral elernents of $R$ and $U$ a nonzero ideal of $R$. This result generalizes those results mentioned above simultaneously.

Throughout, $R$ will be a prime ring with center $Z . Q$ will denote the symmetric Martindale quotient ring of $R$ and $C$ will be the extended centroid of $R$. $\alpha, \beta$ will be automorphisms of $R$. In the following, the $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation $f$ of $U$ into $R$ means $f(x+y)=f(x)+f(y)$ and $f(x y)=\alpha(x) f(y)+f(x) \beta(y)$ for all $x, y \in U$.

We begin with a lemma.
Lemma 1. Let $R$ be a prime ring and $U$ a nonzero ideal of $R$. Let $g$ and $h$ be $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivations of $U$ into $R, f$ an $(\alpha, \alpha)$-derivation of $U$ into $R$ and $k$ an $(\beta, \beta)$-derivation of $U$ into $R$. Suppose that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x) g(y)=h(x) k(y) \quad \text { for all } x, y \in U . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then there exists an invertible element $u \in Q$ such that $\beta(x)=u^{-1} \alpha(x) u, h(x)$ $=f(x) u$ and $g(x)=u k(x)$ for all $x \in U$.

Proof. From (1) it follows that $g=0$ if and only if $h=0$. Hence if either $g=0$ or $h=0$, then the result follows. So we may assume that both $g$ and $h$ are not 0 . Substituting $z y$ for $y$ in (1), we obtain $f(x) \alpha(z) g(y)+f(x) g(z) \beta(y)=$ $h(x) \beta(z) k(y)+h(x) k(z) \beta(y)$. Applying (1) we then get

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x) \alpha(z) g(y)=h(x) \beta(z) k(y) \quad \text { for all } x, y, z, \in U \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Applying $\alpha^{-1}$ on both sides of (2) and let $f_{1}=\alpha^{-1} f, g_{1}=\alpha^{-1} g, h_{1}=$ $\alpha^{-1} h, k_{1}=\alpha^{-1} k$, and $\alpha_{1}=\alpha^{-1} \beta$, then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{1}(x) z g_{1}(y)=h_{1}(x) \alpha_{1}(z) k_{1}(y) \quad \text { for all } x, y, z \in U, \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $f_{1}$ is a derivation, $g_{1}$ and $h_{1}$ are ( $1, \alpha_{1}$ )-derivation and $k_{1}$ is an $\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{1}\right)$ derivation. Since $f \neq 0, k \neq 0, g \neq 0$ and $h \neq 0$, it follows that $f, g, h$ and $k$ are not 0 on $U$. Therefore there exists $x_{0}, y_{0} \in U$ such that $f\left(x_{0}\right) \neq 0, h\left(x_{0}\right) \neq 0$ and $g\left(y_{0}\right) \neq 0, k\left(y_{0}\right) \neq 0$. Consequently, $f_{1}\left(x_{0}\right) \neq 0, h_{1}\left(x_{0}\right) \neq 0$ and $g_{1}\left(y_{0}\right) \neq$ $0, k_{1}\left(y_{0}\right) \neq 0$. By Kharchenko's result [8], (3) cannot hold for such $x_{0}$ and $y_{0}$ unless $\alpha_{1}$ is Q -inner. This says, there exists $s \in Q$ such that $\alpha_{1}(x)=s^{-1} x s$ for all $x \in R$. Then (3) becomes

$$
f_{1}(x) z g_{1}(y)=h_{1}(x) s^{-1} z s k_{1}(y) \quad \text { for all } x, y, z \in U,
$$

and thus

$$
f_{1}(x) z g_{1}(y) s^{-1}=h_{1}(x) s^{-1} z s k_{1}(y) s^{-1} \quad \text { for all } x, y, z \in U
$$

Note that $f_{1}, g_{1} s^{-1}, h_{1} s^{-1}$ and $s k_{1} s^{-1}$ are derivations of $Q$ which maps some nonzero ideal $I$ of $R$ into $R$. Let $K=I \cap U$, then $K$ is a nonzero ideal of $R$ and we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{1}(x) z g_{1}(y) s^{-1}=h_{1}(x) s^{-1} z s k_{1}(y) s^{-1} \quad \text { for all } x, y, z \in K \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substituting $z s k_{1}(\omega) s^{-1}$ for $z$ in (4), where $z, \omega \in K$, we get $f_{1}(x) z s k_{1}(\omega) s^{-1}$ $g_{1}(y) s^{-1}=h_{1}(x) s^{-1} z s k_{1}(\omega) s^{-1} s k_{1}(y) s^{-1}$. By (4), $h_{1}(x) s^{-1} z s k_{1}(\omega) s^{-1}=$
$f_{1}(x) z g_{1}(\omega) s^{-1}$ and so we have $f_{1}(x) z\left[s k_{1}(\omega) s^{-1} g_{1}(y) s^{-1}-g_{1}(\omega) s^{-1} s k_{1}(y) s^{-1}\right]$ $=0$. Since $f_{1} \neq 0$ on $K$ and $R$ is prime, we have $s k_{1}(\omega) s^{-1} g_{1}(y) s^{-1}=g_{1}(\omega) s^{-1}$ $s k_{1}(y) s^{-1}$ for all $\omega, y \in K$. Note that Lemma 2.2 in [2] still holds if one replaces the condition given there by the following one

$$
d(x) g(y)=g(x) d(y) \quad \text { for all } x, y \in K,
$$

$K$ a nonezero ideal of $R$. By this result, we see that there exists $\eta \in C$ such that $g_{1}(\omega) s^{-1}=\eta s k_{1}(\omega) s^{-1}$ for all $\omega \in K$. Hence $\eta f_{1}(x) z s k_{1}(\omega) s^{-1}=$ $h_{1}(x) s^{-1} z s k_{1}(\omega) s^{-1}$ and $\left(\eta f_{1}(x)-h_{1}(x) s^{-1}\right) z s k_{1}(\omega) s^{-1}=0$ for all $x, z, w \in$ $K$. Therefore, $h_{1}(x) s^{-1}=\eta f_{1}(x)$ for all $x \in K$ and hence $h_{1}(x) s^{-1}=\eta f_{1}(x)$ for all $x \in R$. Thus $h(x) t^{-1}=\lambda f(x)$ for $x \in R$, where $t=\alpha(s), \lambda=\alpha(\eta)$. Similarly, from $g_{1}(\omega) s^{-1}=\eta s k_{1}(\omega) s^{-1}$ we get $t^{-1} g(x)=\lambda k(x)$ for all $x \in R$. Also, $t^{-1} \alpha(x) t=\alpha(s)^{-1} \alpha(x) \alpha(s)=\alpha\left(s^{-1} x s\right)=\alpha\left(\alpha^{-1} \beta(x)\right)=\beta(x)$. Now, set $u=\lambda t$, we obtain our lemma.

Now we are ready to prove our main result.
Theorem 1. Let $R$ be a prime ring, $U$ a nonzero ideal of $R, Q$ the symmetric Martindale quotient ring of $R$ and $C$ the extended centroid of $R$. Further, let $\delta, g$ and $h$ be ( $\alpha, \beta$ )-derivations of $U$ into $R$ and $a, b \in Q \backslash C$. Suppose that either $g \neq 0$ or $h \neq 0$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $\delta(x)=a g(x)+h(x) b \quad$ for all $x \in U$.
(ii) There exists an invertible element $s \in Q$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \beta(x)=s^{-1} \alpha(x) s, \\
& \delta(x)=\left[a s b s^{-1}, \alpha(x)\right] s, \\
& g(x)=s[b, \beta(x)]=\left[s b s^{-1}, \alpha(x)\right] s, \\
& h(x)=[a, \alpha(x)] s
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $x \in U$.
Proof. It is easy to see that (ii) implies (i). So we only need to show that (i) implies (ii). Asumme (i) holds. Replacing $x$ by $x y$ in (i), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a \alpha(x) g(y)+a g(x) \beta(y)+\alpha(x) h(y) b+h(x) \beta(y) b \\
& \quad=a g(x y)+h(x y) b=\delta(x y)=\alpha(x) \delta(y)+\delta(x) \beta(y) \\
& \quad=\alpha(x) a g(y)+\alpha(x) h(y) b+a g(x) \beta(y)+h(x) b \beta(y) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence

$$
[a, \alpha(x)] g(y)=h(x)[b, \beta(y)] \quad \text { for all } x, y \in U .
$$

Since $a \notin C$ and $b \notin C$, without loss of generality, we may assume that $f(x)=[a, \alpha(x)]$ is a nonzero $(\alpha, \alpha)$-derivation of $U$ into $R$ and $k(y)=[b, \beta(y)]$ is a nonzero $(\beta, \beta)$-derivation of $U$ into $R$. By Lemma 1 , there exists an invertible element $s \in Q$ such that $g(x)=s[b, \beta(x)], h(x)=[a, \alpha(x)] s$ and $s^{-1} \alpha(x) s=\beta(x)$ for all $x \in U$. Substituting these into (i) we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta(x) & =a g(x)+h(x) b \\
& =a s[b, \beta(x)]+[a, \alpha(x)] s b \\
& =a s[b, \beta(x)] s^{-1} s+[a, \alpha(x)] s b s^{-1} s \\
& =\left(a\left[s b s^{-1}, s \beta(x) s^{-1}\right]+[a, \alpha(x)] s b s^{-1}\right) s \\
& =\left(a\left[s b s^{-1}, \alpha(x)\right]+[a, \alpha(x)] s b s^{-1}\right) s \\
& =\left[a s b s^{-1}, \alpha(x)\right] s
\end{aligned}
$$

So $\delta(x)=\left[a s b s^{-1}, \alpha(x)\right] s$ for all $x \in U$.
The first corollary of this theorem is to generalize Theorem 1 in [3] mentioned in the introduction.

Corollary. Let $R$ be a prime ring, $U$ a nonzero ideal of $R, g$ and $h(\alpha, \beta)$ derivations of $U$ into $R$ and $a, b \in Q \backslash C$. Suppose that either $g \neq 0$ or $h \neq 0$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $a g(x)+h(x) b=0$ for all $x \in U$.
(ii) There exists an invertible element $s \in Q$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \beta(x)=s^{-1} \alpha(x) s, \\
& g(x)=s[b, \beta(x)]=\left[s b s^{-1}, \alpha(x)\right] s, \\
& h(x)=[a, \alpha(x)] s, \\
& \alpha^{-1}(a) \beta^{-1}(b) \in C
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $x \in U$.
Proof. (i) $\Longrightarrow$ (ii). The first part follows immediately from Theorem 1. Setting $\delta(x)=a g(x)+h(x) b, x \in U$, we see that $\delta=0$ and so $a s b s^{-1} \in C$ by Theorem 1. As $\beta(x)=s^{-1} \alpha(x) s, \beta^{-1}(x)=\alpha^{-1}\left(s x s^{-1}\right)$ for all $x \in U$. Therefore

$$
\alpha^{-1}(a) \beta^{-1}(b)=\alpha^{-1}\left(a s b s^{-1}\right) \in C
$$

The inverse implication is obvious.

Theorem 2. Let $R$ be a prime ring, $U$ a nonzero ideal of $R, Q$ the symmetric Martindale quotient ring of $R$ and $C$ the extended centroid of $R$. Further, let $\delta: U \rightarrow R$ be an $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation and $a \in Q \backslash C$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $[a, \delta(x)]=0$ for all $x \in U$.
(ii) There exists an invertible element $s \in Q$ such that
(a) $\delta(x)=[a, \alpha(x)] s \quad$ for all $x \in U$;
(b) $\alpha^{-1}(a)+\beta^{-1}(a) \in C\left(\tau=a+\right.$ sas $^{-1} \in C$ equivalently $)$;
(c) $\alpha^{-1}(a) \beta^{-1}(a) \in C\left(\mu=\right.$ asas $^{-1} \in C$ equivalently $) ;$
(d) $a^{2}-\tau a+\mu=0$.(In particular, if char $R=2$, then $\tau=[a, s] s^{-1}$ ).

Proof. (i) $\Longrightarrow$ (ii). Since $a \delta(x)-\delta(x) a=[a, \delta(x)]=0$ for all $x \in U$, we can appeal to Corollary 1 to conclude that $\alpha^{-1}(a) \beta^{-1}(a) \in C$ and $s[-a, \beta(x)]=$ $\delta(x)=[a, \alpha(x)] s$ for all $x \in U$. The first part implies $\mu=a s a s^{-1} \in C$ and the last part, as before, implies

$$
\left[a+s a s^{-1}, \alpha(x)\right] s=0
$$

for all $x \in U$. Since $s$ is invertible in $Q$, we get $\left[a+\operatorname{sas}^{-1}, \alpha(x)\right]=0$ for all $x \in U$. Therefore, $a+$ sas $^{-1} \in C$. But again, $s a s^{-1}=\alpha \beta^{-1}(a)$, so $a+\alpha \beta^{-1}(a) \in C$ and hence $\alpha^{-1}(a)+\beta^{-1}(a) \in C$. Put $\tau=a+\operatorname{sas}^{-1}$. Then $a^{2}-\tau a=a^{2}-a\left(a+s a s^{-1}\right)=a^{2}-a^{2}-a s a s^{-1}=-a s a s^{-1}=-\mu$ and hence $a^{2}-\tau a+\mu=0$. In particular, if char $R=2$, then $\tau=a+\operatorname{sas}^{-1}=$ $(a s-s a) s^{-1}=[a, s] s^{-1}$.

The inverse implication is obvious.

## Remarks:

1. In Theorem 2 we don't need to assume any commutativity between $\delta$ and $\alpha, \beta$ as it did in [3] mentioned above.
2. Example 1 in [3] shows that $a \beta^{-1}(a)=0 \in Z$ and $a+\beta^{-1}(a)=I_{2 k} \in Z$. Moreover, $a^{2}-a=0 \in Z$.
3. If, in addition, we assume that $\delta$ commutes with $\alpha$ and $\beta$, then it is easy to show that $\beta^{-1} \alpha(a)-a \in C$. But then we have $2 a \in C$. If char $\neq 2$, then $a \in C$, which is contrary to the assumption that $a \notin C$. So char $R=2$.

The following result is a generalization of Theorem 1 in [1]. Before statting this theorem, we set $[x, y]_{\alpha, \beta}=\alpha(x) y-y \beta(x)$.

Theorem 3. Let $R$ be a prime ring, $U$ a nonzero ideal of $R, Q$ the symmetric Martindale quotient ring of $R$ and $C$ the extended centroid of $R$. Further, let $\delta$ be an $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation of $U$ into $R$ and $a \in Q \backslash C$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $[x, y]_{\alpha, \beta}=0$ for all $x \in U$.
(ii) char $R=2, a^{2} \in C$ and $\alpha\left(a^{2}\right)=\beta\left(a^{2}\right)$. Moreover, there exists an invertible element $t \in Q$ such that $\beta(x)=t^{-1} \alpha(x) t$ and $\delta(x)=[\alpha(a), \alpha(x)] t$ for all $x \in U$.

Proof. (i) $\Longrightarrow$ (ii). Setting $h(x)=\alpha^{-1}(\delta(x)), x \in U, \gamma=\alpha^{-1} \beta$, we note that $h: U \rightarrow R$ is an (1, $\gamma)$-derivation of $U$ into $R$ and $[a, h(x)]_{1, \gamma}=0$ for all $x \in U$. Since $a h(x)-h(x) \gamma(a)=[a, h(x)]_{1, \gamma}=0$, by Corollary 1 , there exists an invertible element $s \in Q$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \gamma(x)=s^{-1} x s, \\
& h(x)=s[-\gamma(a), \gamma(x)]=\left[-s \gamma(a) s^{-1}, x\right] s=[-a, x] s, \\
& h(x)=[a, x] s, \\
& -a^{2}=a \gamma^{-1}(-\gamma(a)) \in C
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $x \in U$. It follows that $a^{2} \in C$ and $[a+a, x]=[2 a, x]=0$ for all $x \in U$. If char $R \neq 2$, then $a \in C$ which is not the case. Therefore, char $R=2$. Since

$$
a^{2} h(x)=a(a h(x))=a(h(x) \gamma(a))=(a h(x)) \gamma(a)=h(x) \gamma\left(a^{2}\right)
$$

for all $x \in R$ and since $a^{2} \in C$, it follows that $h(x)\left(a^{2}-\gamma\left(a^{2}\right)\right)=0$ for all $x \in U$ and so $a^{2}=\gamma\left(a^{2}\right)$. Therefore $\alpha\left(a^{2}\right)=\beta\left(a^{2}\right)$. Clearly, $\beta(x)=t^{-1} \alpha(x) t$ and $\delta(x)=[\alpha(a), \alpha(x)] t$ for all $x \in U$, where $t=\alpha(s)$.
(ii) $\Longrightarrow$ (i). We have

$$
[x, y]_{\alpha, \beta}=\alpha(a)[\alpha(a), \alpha(x)] t-[\alpha(a), \alpha(x)] t \beta(a) .
$$

Since $\beta(a)=t^{-1} \alpha(a) t, a^{2} \in C$ and char $R=2$, we see that

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[x, y]_{\alpha, \beta} } & =\alpha(a)[\alpha(a), \alpha(x)] t-[\alpha(a), \alpha(x)] \alpha(a) t \\
& =[\alpha(a),[\alpha(a), \alpha(x)]] t=\left[\alpha\left(a^{2}\right), \alpha(x)\right] t \\
& =0
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $x \in U$. The proof is complete.
The next corollary generalizes Theorem 2 (ii) in [3].
Corollary. Let $R$ be a prime ring of characteristic 2, $U$ a nonzero ideal of $R$ and $\delta$ a nonzero $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation of $R$. If $[\delta(x), \delta(y)]=0$ for all $x, y \in U$, then $R$ is an $S_{4}$-ring.

Proof. The argument used in [3] works as well here.
The following example shows that we can not strengthen Theorem 2(i) in [3].

Example 2. Let $R$ be the complete matrix ring of $2 \times 2$ matrices over a field $F$. Let $a=\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right), b=\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right),[a, b]=\left(\begin{array}{rr}0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0\end{array}\right)$. Define $\beta(x)=b^{-1} x b$ and $\delta(x)=[a, x] b$ for all $x \in R$. Then $\delta$ is an $(1, \beta)$-derivation of $R$ such that $[\delta(x), \delta(y)]=0$ for all $x \in R$. If char $F \neq 2$, then $\beta \delta \neq \delta \beta$.

Before proving the next result, we need the following lemmas.
Lemma 2. Let $R$ be a prime ring, $f, g$ be $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivations of $R$. Suppose that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x) g(y)=g(x) f(y) \quad \text { for all } x, y \in U \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $U$ is a nonzero ideal of $R$. If $f \neq 0$, then there exists $\lambda \in C$ such that $g(x)=\lambda f(x)$ for all $x \in R$.

Proof. Substituting $z y$ for $y$ in (4), where $y, z \in U$, we get

$$
f(x) \alpha(z) g(y)+f(x) g(z) \beta(y)=g(x) \alpha(z) f(y)+g(x) f(z) \beta(y) .
$$

According to (4), this relation reduces to

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x) u g(y)=g(x) u f(y) \quad \text { for all } x, y \in U, \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $u=\alpha(z), z \in U$. Hence if $f(x) \neq 0$, then we have that $g(x)=\lambda(x) f(x)$ for some $\lambda(x) \in C$ by Lemma 1.3.2 in [6]. Thus if $f(x) \neq 0$ and $f(y) \neq 0$, then it follows from (5) that

$$
(\lambda(x)-\lambda(y)) f(x) u f(y)=0 \quad \text { for all } u \in \alpha(U) .
$$

Since $R$ is prime, this relation implies that $\lambda(x)=\lambda(y)$. Thus we have proved that there exists $\lambda \in C$ such that the relation $g(x)=\lambda f(x)$ holds for all $x \in U$
with the property $f(x) \neq 0$. On the other hand, if $f(x)=0$, then we see from (4), since $f \neq 0$ and $R$ is prime, that $g(x)=0$ as well. Thus $g(x)=\lambda f(x)$ for all $x \in R$.

Lemma 3. Let $R$ be a prime ring, $U$ a nonzero ideal of $R$, $\delta_{1}$ a nonzero $\left(\alpha_{1}, \beta_{1}\right)$-derivation of $U$ into $R$ and of $\delta_{2}$ an $\left(\alpha_{2}, \beta_{2}\right)$-derivation of $U$ into $R$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $\delta_{1}(x)=\delta_{2}(x) \quad$ for all $x \in U$.
(ii) Either $\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{2}$ and $\beta_{1}=\beta_{2}$, or there exists an invertible element $u \in$ $Q$ such that $\beta_{2}(x)=u^{-1} \alpha_{1}(x) u, \beta_{1}(x)=u^{-1} \alpha_{2}(x) u, \delta_{1}(x)=\left(\alpha_{1}(x)-\right.$ $\left(\alpha_{2}(x)\right) u$ and $\delta_{2}(x)=u\left(\beta_{2}(x)-\beta_{1}(x)\right)$ for all $x \in U$.

Proof. (i) $\Longrightarrow$ (ii). For $x, y \in U$, we have $\alpha_{1}(x) \delta_{1}(y)+\delta_{1}(x) \beta_{1}(y)=$ $\delta_{1}(x y)=\delta_{2}(x y)=\alpha_{2}(x) \delta_{2}(y)+\delta_{2}(x) \beta_{2}(y)$ and hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\alpha_{1}(x)-\alpha_{2}(x)\right) \delta_{1}(y)=\delta_{2}(x)\left(\beta_{2}(y)-\beta_{1}(y)\right) \quad \text { for all } x, y \in U . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substituting $y z$ for $y$ into (6), we obtain $\left(\alpha_{1}(x)-\alpha_{2}(x)\right) \alpha_{1}(y) \delta_{1}(z)+\left(\alpha_{1}(x)-\right.$ $\left.\alpha_{2}(x)\right) \delta_{1}(y) \beta_{1}(z)=\delta_{2}(x) \delta_{2}(y)\left(\beta_{2}(z)-\beta_{1}(z)\right)+\delta_{2}(x)\left(\beta_{2}(y)-\beta_{1}(y)\right) \beta_{1}(z)$. Using (6) and letting $\delta=\delta=\delta_{2}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x_{1}-\alpha_{1}^{-1} \alpha_{2}(x)\right) y \alpha_{1}^{-1} \delta(z)=\alpha_{1}^{-1} \delta(x) \alpha_{1}^{-1} \beta_{2}(y)\left(\alpha_{1}^{-1} \beta_{2}(z)-\alpha_{1}^{-1} \beta_{1}(z)\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x, y, z \in U$.
If $\alpha_{1}^{-1} \beta_{2}$ is $Q$-outer, then by Kharchenko's result [8], we have from (7) that $\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{2}$ and $\beta_{1}=\beta_{2}$. If $\alpha_{1}^{-1} \beta_{2}$ is $Q$-inner, then there exists an invertible element $s \in Q$ such that $\alpha_{1}^{-1} \beta_{2}(x)=s^{-1} x s$ for all $x \in R$. In this case, we have $\beta_{2}(x)=u^{-1} \alpha_{1}(x) u$ for all $x \in R$, where $u=\alpha_{1}(s)$. From (7), we have $\left(x-\alpha_{1}^{-1} \alpha_{2}(x)\right) y \alpha_{1}^{-1} \delta(z)=\alpha_{1}^{-1} \delta(x) s^{-1} y s\left(\alpha_{1}^{-1} \beta_{2}(z)-\alpha_{1}^{-1} \beta_{1}(z)\right)$ for all $x, y, z \in U$. By a similar argument we did before, there exists $\lambda \in C$ such that $x-\alpha_{1}^{-1} \alpha_{2}(x)=\lambda \alpha_{1}^{-1} \delta(x) s^{-1}$ and $\alpha_{1}^{-1} \beta_{2}(z)-\alpha_{1}^{-1} \beta_{1}(z)=\lambda s^{-1} \alpha_{1}^{-1} \delta(z)$ for all $x, z \in R$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\alpha_{1}(x)-\alpha_{2}(x)\right) u=\xi \delta(x)=u\left(\beta_{2}(x)-\beta_{1}(x)\right) \quad \text { for all } x \in R, \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\xi=\alpha_{1}(\lambda)$. From (8), we have $\beta_{2}(x)-\beta_{1}(x)=u^{-1}\left(\alpha_{1}(x)-\alpha_{2}(x)\right) u=$ $u^{-1} \alpha_{1}(x) u-u^{-1} \alpha_{2}(x) u=\beta_{2}(x)-u^{-1} \alpha_{2}(x) u$ and hence $\beta_{1}(x)=u^{-1} \alpha_{2}(x) u$ for all $x \in U$.

The inverse implication is obvious.

Corollary. Let $R$ be a commutative domain and let $0 \neq \delta_{1}$ be an $\left(\alpha_{1}, \beta_{1}\right)$ derivation, $0 \neq \delta_{2}$ an ( $\alpha_{2}, \beta_{2}$ )-derivation of $R$. If $\delta_{1}=\delta_{2}$, then we have either $\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{2} \beta_{1}=\beta_{2}$ or $\alpha_{1}=\beta_{2}, \alpha_{2}=\beta_{1}$.

Proof. The result follows easily from Lemma 3 since $R \subset C$, the center of $Q$.

Lemma 4. Let $0 \neq \delta$ be an $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation of a commutative domain $R$. If $\alpha \neq \beta$, then there exists $\lambda \in C$ such that $\delta(x)=\lambda(\alpha(x)-\beta(x))$ for all $x \in R$.

Proof. Since $R$ is commutative, we have $\alpha(x) \delta(y)+\delta(x) \beta(y)=\delta(x y)=$ $\delta(y x)=\alpha(y) \delta(x)+\delta(y) \beta(x)$ for all $x, y \in R$. Therefore,

$$
(\alpha(x)-\beta(x)) \delta(y)=\delta(x)(\alpha(y)-\beta(y)) \quad \text { for all } x, y \in R .
$$

By Lemma 2, there exists $\eta \in C$ such that $\alpha(x)-\beta(x)=\eta \delta(x)$ for all $x \in R$. If $\eta=0$, then $\alpha(x)=\beta(x)$ for all $x \in R$. If $\eta \neq 0$, then $\delta(x)=\eta^{-1}(\alpha(x)-\beta(x))=$ $\lambda(\alpha(x)-\beta(x))$ for all $x \in R$.

Theorem 4. Let $R$ be a prime ring, $U$ a nonzero ideal of $R$, and $\delta a$ nonzero $(\alpha, \beta)$-derivation of $R$. If $[\delta(U), \delta(U)]_{\alpha, \beta}=0$, then
(i) if char $R \neq 2$, then $R$ is commutative. In this case, if $\alpha \neq \beta$, then $\alpha^{2}=\beta^{2}, \alpha \beta=\beta \alpha$ and $\delta(x)=\lambda(\alpha(x)-\beta(x))$ for some $\lambda \in C$ such that $\alpha(\lambda)+\beta(\lambda)=0$. Also $\delta^{2}=0$.
(ii) if char $R=2$, then $R$ is an $S_{4}$-ring.

Proof. If char $R \neq 2$, then $\delta(U) \subset Z$ by Theorem 3. So $R$ is commutative. Also, we have $\alpha(\delta(x))=\beta(\delta(x))$ for all $x \in U$. By Lemma 3, we have either $\alpha^{2}(x)=\beta \alpha(x)$ and $\alpha \beta(x)=\beta^{2}(x)$ for all $x \in U$ or $\alpha^{2}(x)=\beta^{2}(x)$ and $\alpha \beta(x)=\beta \alpha(x)$ for all $x \in U$. For the earlier case, $\alpha(x)=\beta(x)$ for all $x \in \alpha(U)$ and hence $\alpha=\beta$. For the latter case, $\alpha^{2}=\beta^{2}$ and $\alpha \beta=\beta \alpha$.

Since $R$ is commutative, by Lemma $4, \delta(x)=\lambda(\alpha(x)-\beta(x))$ if $\alpha \neq$ $\beta$. Note that $\lambda \neq 0$. Assume $\alpha \neq \beta$. Since $\alpha(\delta(x))=\beta(\delta(x))$, we have $(\alpha(\lambda)+\beta(\lambda))\left(\alpha^{2}(x)-\alpha \beta(x)\right)=0$ for all $x \in U$. If $\alpha(\lambda)+\beta(\lambda) \neq 0$ then $\alpha^{2}(x)-\alpha \beta(x)=0$ for all $x \in U$ and hence $\alpha(x)=\beta(x)$ for all $x \in R$ which is not the case. So $\alpha(\lambda)+\beta(\lambda)=0$. Also, we have $\delta^{2}(x)=\lambda(\alpha(\delta(x))-\beta(\delta(x)))=$ 0 for all $x \in R$ and hence $\delta^{2}=0$.

If char $R=2$, then $\delta(u)^{2} \in Z$ for all $u \in U$ by Theorem 3 (ii). Now we can appeal to Theorem $A$ in [4] to conclude that $R$ is an $S_{4}$-ring.

Remark. Q. Deng, M. S. Yenigül and N. Argac have obtained some partial result of this theorem in [5] by a different way.

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