

## Characterization of $\delta$ -double derivations on rings and algebras

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**Abstract.** The main purpose of this article is to offer some characterizations of  $\delta$ -double derivations on rings and algebras. To reach this goal, we prove the following theorem:

Let  $n > 1$  be an integer and let  $\mathcal{R}$  be an  $n!$ -torsion free ring with the identity element  $\mathbf{1}$ . Suppose that there exist two additive mappings  $d, \delta : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  such that

$$d(x^n) = \sum_{j=1}^n x^{n-j} d(x) x^{j-1} + \sum_{k=0}^{n-2} \sum_{i=0}^{n-2-k} x^k \delta(x) x^i \delta(x) x^{n-2-k-i}$$

is fulfilled for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ . If  $\delta(\mathbf{1}) = 0$ , then  $d$  is a Jordan  $\delta$ -double derivation. In particular, if  $\mathcal{R}$  is a semiprime algebra and further,  $\delta^2(x^2) = \delta^2(x)x + x\delta^2(x) + 2(\delta(x))^2$  holds for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ , then  $d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2$  is an ordinary derivation on  $\mathcal{R}$ .

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### 1. Introduction and preliminaries

Throughout the paper,  $\mathcal{R}$  will represent an associative ring with the identity element  $\mathbf{1}$ . We consider  $x^0 = \mathbf{1}$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ . The center of  $\mathcal{R}$  is

$$Z(\mathcal{R}) = \{x \in \mathcal{R} \mid xy = yx \text{ for all } y \in \mathcal{R}\}.$$

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Given an integer  $n \geq 2$ , a ring  $\mathcal{R}$  is said to be  $n$ -torsion free, if for  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ ,  $nx = 0$  implies  $x = 0$ . We denote the commutator  $xy - yx$  by  $[x, y]$  for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$ . Recall that a ring  $\mathcal{R}$  is prime if for  $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$ ,  $x\mathcal{R}y = \{0\}$  implies  $x = 0$  or  $y = 0$ , and is semiprime in case  $x\mathcal{R}x = \{0\}$  implies  $x = 0$ .

As well, the above-mentioned statements are considered for algebras. An additive mapping  $d : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ , where  $\mathcal{R}$  is an arbitrary ring, is called a derivation (resp. Jordan derivation) if  $d(xy) = d(x)y + xd(y)$  (resp.  $d(x^2) = d(x)x + xd(x)$ ) holds for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$ . One can easily prove that every derivation is a Jordan derivation, but the converse is not true, in general. An additive mapping  $d : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is called a left derivation (resp. Jordan left derivation) if  $d(xy) = xd(y) + yd(x)$  (resp.  $d(x^2) = 2xd(x)$ ) holds for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$ . A classical result of Herstein [7] asserts that any Jordan derivation on a 2-torsion free prime ring is a derivation. A brief proof of Herstein's result can be found in [3]. Cusack [5] generalized Herstein's result to 2-torsion free semiprime rings (see also [2] for an alternative proof). A series of results related to derivations on prime and semiprime rings can be found in [1-4, 8, 11-13].

M. Mirzavaziri and E. O. Tehrani [9] introduced the concept of a  $(\delta, \varepsilon)$ -double derivation. Let  $\delta, \varepsilon : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  be additive mappings. An additive mapping  $D : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is a  $(\delta, \varepsilon)$ -double derivation if  $D(xy) = D(x)y + xD(y) + \delta(x)\varepsilon(y) + \varepsilon(x)\delta(y)$  is fulfilled for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$ . By a  $\delta$ -double derivation we mean a  $(\delta, \delta)$ -double derivation, i.e.

$$D(xy) = D(x)y + xD(y) + 2\delta(x)\delta(y),$$

for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$ . Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an algebra and let  $D : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  be a linear  $(\delta, \delta)$ -double derivation. If  $d = \frac{1}{2}D$ , then  $d(ab) = d(a)b + ad(b) + \delta(a)\delta(b)$  holds for all  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ . In this study, we consider the additive mapping  $d$  as a  $(\delta, \delta)$ -double derivation on a ring  $\mathcal{R}$ . Indeed, an additive mapping  $d : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is called a  $(\delta, \delta)$ -double derivation if  $d(xy) = d(x)y + xd(y) + \delta(x)\delta(y)$  holds for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$ . It is clear that if  $\delta(x)\delta(y) = 0$  for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$ , then  $d$  is an ordinary derivation. Here, we want to characterize such  $\delta$ -double derivations. Similar to Jordan derivations, an additive mapping  $d$  is called a Jordan  $\delta$ -double derivation if  $d(x^2) = d(x)x + xd(x) + (\delta(x))^2$  holds for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ . Let  $n > 1$  be an integer and let  $d, \delta : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  be two additive maps satisfying

$$d(x^n) = \sum_{j=1}^n x^{n-j}d(x)x^{j-1} + \sum_{k=0}^{n-2} \sum_{i=0}^{n-2-k} x^k\delta(x)x^i\delta(x)x^{n-2-k-i},$$

for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ . If  $\mathcal{R}$  is an  $n!$ -torsion free ring with the identity element  $\mathbf{1}$  and  $\delta(\mathbf{1}) = 0$ , then  $d$  is a Jordan  $\delta$ -double derivation. In particular, if  $\mathcal{R}$  is a semiprime algebra and further,

$$\delta^2(x^2) = \delta^2(x)x + x\delta^2(x) + 2(\delta(x))^2,$$

for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ , then  $d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2$  is an ordinary derivation on  $\mathcal{R}$ . After defining a left  $\delta$ -double derivation, we present a characterization of such mappings on algebras.

At the end of the paper, by getting idea from a work of Vukman [10], we offer another characterization of  $\delta$ -double derivations on Banach algebras as follows. Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a Banach algebra with the identity element  $\mathbf{1}$  and  $\delta, d : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  be two additive maps satisfying  $d(a) = -ad(a^{-1})a - a\delta(a^{-1})\delta(a)$  for each invertible element  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ . If  $\delta(a) = -a\delta(a^{-1})a$  holds for every invertible element  $a$ , then  $d$  is a Jordan  $\delta$ -double derivation. In particular,

if  $\mathcal{A}$  is semiprime and  $(\delta(a))^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\delta^2(a^2) - \delta^2(a)a - a\delta^2(a))$  holds for all  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ , then  $d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2$  is a derivation on  $\mathcal{A}$ .

## 2. Main results

We begin with the following definition.

**Definition 2.1** Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be a ring and let  $\delta : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  be an additive mapping. An additive mapping  $d : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is called a  $\delta$ -double derivation if  $d(xy) = d(x)y + xd(y) + \delta(x)\delta(y)$  for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$ . The additive mapping  $d$  is said to be a Jordan  $\delta$ -double derivation if  $d(x^2) = d(x)x + xd(x) + (\delta(x))^2$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ .

The first main theorem reads as follows:

**Theorem 2.2** Let  $n > 1$  be an integer and  $\mathcal{R}$  be an  $n!$ -torsion free ring with the identity element  $\mathbf{1}$ . Suppose that  $d, \delta : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  are two additive maps satisfying  $d(x^n) = \sum_{j=1}^n x^{n-j}d(x)x^{j-1} + \sum_{k=0}^{n-2} \sum_{i=0}^{n-2-k} x^k\delta(x)x^i\delta(x)x^{n-2-k-i}$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ . If  $\delta(\mathbf{1}) = 0$ , then  $d$  is a Jordan  $\delta$ -double derivation. In particular, if  $\mathcal{R}$  is a semiprime algebra and further,  $\delta^2(x^2) = \delta^2(x)(x) + x\delta^2(x) + 2(\delta(x))^2$  holds for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ , then  $d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2$  is a derivation on  $\mathcal{R}$ .

**Proof.** Let  $y$  be an element of  $Z(\mathcal{R})$  such that both  $d(y)$  and  $\delta(y)$  are zero. Based on the above hypothesis, we have

$$d(x^n) = \sum_{j=1}^n x^{n-j}d(x)x^{j-1} + \sum_{k=0}^{n-2} \sum_{i=0}^{n-2-k} x^k\delta(x)x^i\delta(x)x^{n-2-k-i} \tag{1}$$

for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ . Putting  $x + y$  instead of  $x$  in equation (1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} d\left(\sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^{n-i}y^i\right) &= \sum_{j=1}^n (x+y)^{n-j}d(x)(x+y)^{j-1} \\ &+ \sum_{k=0}^{n-2} \sum_{i=0}^{n-2-k} (x+y)^k\delta(x)(x+y)^i\delta(x)(x+y)^{n-2-k-i} \\ &= \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k_1} x^{n-1-k_1}y^{k_1}d(x) \\ &+ \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-2} \binom{n-2}{k_1} x^{n-2-k_1}y^{k_1}d(x)(x+y) \\ &+ \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-3} \binom{n-3}{k_1} x^{n-3-k_1}y^{k_1}d(x)(x+y)^2 \rightarrow \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& + \dots + (x+y)^2 d(x) \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-3} \binom{n-3}{k_1} x^{n-3-k_1} y^{k_1} \\
& + (x+y) d(x) \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-2} \binom{n-2}{k_1} x^{n-2-k_1} y^{k_1} \\
& + d(x) \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k_1} x^{n-1-k_1} y^{k_1} \\
& + \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} \delta(x) (x+y)^i \delta(x) (x+y)^{n-2-i} \\
& + \sum_{i=0}^{n-3} (x+y) \delta(x) (x+y)^i \delta(x) (x+y)^{n-3-i} \\
& + \sum_{i=0}^{n-4} (x+y)^2 \delta(x) (x+y)^i \delta(x) (x+y)^{n-4-i} \\
& + \dots + (x+y)^{n-2} (\delta(x))^2 = \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k_1} x^{n-1-k_1} y^{k_1} d(x) \\
& + \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-2} \binom{n-2}{k_1} x^{n-2-k_1} y^{k_1} d(x) (x+y) \\
& + \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-3} \binom{n-3}{k_1} x^{n-3-k_1} y^{k_1} d(x) (x+y)^2 \\
& + \dots + (x+y)^2 d(x) \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-3} \binom{n-3}{k_1} x^{n-3-k_1} y^{k_1} \\
& + (x+y) d(x) \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-2} \binom{n-2}{k_1} x^{n-2-k_1} y^{k_1} \\
& + d(x) \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k_1} x^{n-1-k_1} y^{k_1} + [(\delta(x))^2 \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-2} \binom{n-2}{k_1} x^{n-2-k_1} y^{k_1} \\
& + \delta(x) (x+y) \delta(x) \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-3} \binom{n-3}{k_1} x^{n-3-k_1} y^{k_1} \\
& + \dots + \delta(x) \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-2} \binom{n-2}{k_1} y^{k_1} x^{n-2-k_1} \delta(x)] \\
& + [(x+y) (\delta(x))^2 \sum_{k_2=0}^{n-3} \binom{n-3}{k_2} x^{n-3-k_2} y^{k_2} \\
& + (x+y) \delta(x) (x+y) \delta(x) \sum_{k_2=0}^{n-4} \binom{n-4}{k_2} x^{n-4-k_2} y^{k_2} \rightarrow
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & + \dots + (x + y)\delta(x) \sum_{k_2=0}^{n-3} \binom{n-3}{k_2} x^{n-3-k_2} y^{k_2} \delta(x) \Big] \\
 & + \left[ (x + y)^2 (\delta(x))^2 \sum_{k_3=0}^{n-4} \binom{n-4}{k_3} x^{n-4-k_3} y^{k_3} \right. \\
 & + (x + y)^2 \delta(x) (x + y) \delta(x) \sum_{k_3=0}^{n-5} \binom{n-5}{k_3} x^{n-5-k_3} y^{k_3} \\
 & \left. + \dots + (x + y)^2 \delta(x) \sum_{k_3=0}^{n-4} \binom{n-4}{k_3} x^{n-4-k_3} y^{k_3} \delta(x) \right] \\
 & + \dots + \sum_{k_{n-1}=0}^{n-2} \binom{n-2}{k_{n-1}} x^{n-2-k_{n-1}} y^{k_{n-1}} (\delta(x))^2.
 \end{aligned}$$

Using (1) and collecting together terms of the above-mentioned relations involving the same number of factors of  $y$ , it can be obtained that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \gamma_i(x, y) = 0, \quad x \in \mathcal{R}, \tag{2}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
 \gamma_i(x, y) &= \binom{n}{i} d(x^{n-i} y^i) - \sum_{l=1}^{n-i} \binom{n}{i} x^{n-i-l} y^i d(x) x^{l-1} \\
 &\quad - \sum_{p=0}^{n-2-i} \sum_{q=0}^{n-2-i-p} \binom{n}{i} y^i x^p \delta(x) x^q \delta(x) x^{n-2-i-p-q}
 \end{aligned}$$

Having replaced  $y, 2y, 3y, \dots, (n - 1)y$  instead of  $y$  in (2), we obtain a system of  $n - 1$  homogeneous equations as follows:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \gamma_i(x, y) = 0 \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \gamma_i(x, 2y) = 0 \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \gamma_i(x, 3y) = 0 \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \gamma_i(x, (n - 1)y) = 0 \end{array} \right.$$

It is observed that the coefficient matrix of the above system is:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} \binom{n}{1} & \binom{n}{2} & \binom{n}{3} & \cdots & \binom{n}{n-1} \\ 2\binom{n}{1} & 2^2\binom{n}{2} & 2^3\binom{n}{3} & \cdots & 2^{n-1}\binom{n}{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ (n-1)\binom{n}{1} & (n-1)^2\binom{n}{2} & (n-1)^3\binom{n}{3} & \cdots & (n-1)^{n-1}\binom{n}{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

It is evident that

$$\det X = \left( \prod_{k=1}^{n-1} \binom{n}{k} \right) (n-1)! \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n-1} (i-j).$$

Since  $\det X \neq 0$ , the above-mentioned system has only a trivial solution. In particular,  $\gamma_{n-2}(x, y) = 0$ . Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \binom{n}{n-2} d(x^2 y^{n-2}) - \sum_{l=1}^2 \binom{n}{n-2} x^{2-l} y^{n-2} d(x) x^{l-1} - \sum_{p=0}^0 \sum_{q=0}^0 \binom{n}{n-2} y^{n-2} x^0 \delta(x) x^0 \delta(x) x^0 \\ &= \binom{n}{n-2} d(x^2 y^{n-2}) - \binom{n}{n-2} x y^{n-2} d(x) - \binom{n}{n-2} y^{n-2} d(x) x - \binom{n}{n-2} (\delta(x))^2 \quad (*) \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\delta(\mathbf{1}) = 0$ , we have  $d(\mathbf{1}) = nd(\mathbf{1}) + 0 = nd(\mathbf{1})$  and it demonstrates that  $d(\mathbf{1}) = 0$ . Substituting  $\mathbf{1}$  instead of  $y$  in (\*), we achieve

$$\binom{n}{n-2} d(x^2) - \binom{n}{n-2} x d(x) - \binom{n}{n-2} d(x) x - \binom{n}{n-2} (\delta(x))^2 = 0 \quad (3)$$

for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ . Since  $\mathcal{R}$  is an  $n!$ -torsion free ring, it follows from equation (3) that

$$d(x^2) = x d(x) + d(x) x + (\delta(x))^2, \quad x \in \mathcal{R}. \quad (4)$$

In other words,  $d$  is a Jordan  $\delta$ -double derivation. Now, assume that  $\mathcal{R}$  is a semiprime algebra and further,  $\delta^2(x^2) = \delta^2(x)(x) + x\delta^2(x) + 2(\delta(x))^2$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ . This equation along with (4) imply that  $d(x^2) = x d(x) + d(x) x + \frac{1}{2}(\delta^2(x^2) - \delta^2(x)x - x\delta^2(x))$ . Hence,  $(d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2)(x^2) = x(d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2)(x) + (d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2)(x)x$ . It means that  $d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2$  is a Jordan derivation. It follows from Theorem 1 of [2] that  $d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2$  is an ordinary derivation on  $\mathcal{R}$ . Thereby, our claim is achieved.  $\blacksquare$

Using the above theorem, we obtain the following corollary:

**Corollary 2.3** Let  $n > 1$  be an integer and  $\mathcal{A}$  be a semiprime algebra with the identity element  $\mathbf{1}$ . Suppose that  $d, \delta : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  are two additive mappings such that  $d(a^n) = \sum_{j=1}^n a^{n-j} d(a) a^{j-1} + \sum_{k=0}^{n-2} \sum_{i=0}^{n-2-k} a^k \delta(a) a^i \delta(a) a^{n-2-k-i}$  for all  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ . If  $\delta$  is a derivation, then  $d$  is a  $\delta$ -double derivation.

**Proof.** Previous theorem along with the assumption that  $\delta$  is a derivation imply that

$\Delta = d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2$  is a derivation. Therefore, we have

$$\begin{aligned} d(ab) &= \Delta(ab) + \frac{1}{2}\delta^2(ab) = \Delta(a)b + a\Delta(b) + \frac{1}{2}(\delta^2(a)b + a\delta^2(b) + 2\delta(a)\delta(b)) \\ &= d(a)b + ad(b) + \delta(a)\delta(b) \end{aligned}$$

for all  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ . It means that  $d$  is a  $\delta$ -double derivation. ■

**Definition 2.4** Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be a ring and let  $\delta : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  be an additive mapping. An additive mapping  $d : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is called a left  $\delta$ -double derivation if  $d(xy) = xd(y) + yd(x) + \delta(x)\delta(y)$  holds for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$ . In addition, the additive mapping  $d$  is said to be a Jordan left  $\delta$ -double derivation if  $d(x^2) = 2xd(x) + (\delta(x))^2$  is fulfilled for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ .

Below, we provide a characterization of Jordan left  $\delta$ -double derivations.

**Theorem 2.5** Let  $n > 1$  be an integer and  $\mathcal{R}$  be an  $n!$ -torsion free ring with the identity element  $\mathbf{1}$ . Suppose that  $d, \delta : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  are two additive maps satisfying

$$d(x^n) = nx^{n-1}d(x) + \binom{n}{2}x^{n-2}(\delta(x))^2$$

for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ . If  $\delta(\mathbf{1}) = 0$ , then  $d(x^2) = 2xd(x) + (\delta(x))^2$ . In particular, if  $\mathcal{R}$  is a semiprime algebra and further,  $\delta^2(x^2) = 2(x\delta^2(x) + (\delta(x))^2)$  holds for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ , then  $d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2$  is a derivation mapping  $\mathcal{R}$  into  $Z(\mathcal{R})$ .

**Proof.** Similar to the presented argument in Theorem 2.2, let  $y$  be an element of  $Z(\mathcal{R})$  such that both  $d(y)$  and  $\delta(y)$  are zero. According to the aforementioned assumption, we have

$$d(x^n) = nx^{n-1}d(x) + \binom{n}{2}x^{n-2}(\delta(x))^2 \tag{5}$$

for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ . Having put  $x + y$  instead of  $x$  in the above equation, we have

$$\begin{aligned} d\left(\sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^{n-i} y^i\right) &= n(x+y)^{n-1}d(x) + \binom{n}{2}(x+y)^{n-2}(\delta(x))^2 \\ &= n \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{i} x^{n-1-i} y^i d(x) + \binom{n}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} \binom{n-2}{i} x^{n-2-i} y^i (\delta(x))^2 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have

$$\begin{aligned} &d(x^n) + \binom{n}{1}d(x^{n-1}y) + \binom{n}{2}d(x^{n-2}y^2) + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1}d(xy^{n-1}) \\ &= nx^{n-1}d(x) + n\binom{n-1}{1}x^{n-2}yd(x) + n\binom{n-1}{2}x^{n-3}y^2d(x) + \dots + ny^{n-1}d(x) \\ &+ \binom{n}{2}x^{n-2}(\delta(x))^2 + \binom{n}{2}\binom{n-2}{1}x^{n-3}y(\delta(x))^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{2}y^{n-2}(\delta(x))^2 \end{aligned}$$

Using (5) and collecting together terms of above-mentioned relations involving the same

number of factors of  $y$ , we obtain

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \lambda_i(x, y) = 0, \quad x \in \mathcal{R}, \quad (6)$$

where

$$\lambda_i(x, y) = \binom{n}{i} d(x^{n-i} y^i) - n \binom{n-1}{i} x^{n-1-i} y^i d(x) - \binom{n}{2} \binom{n-2}{i} x^{n-2-i} y^i (\delta(x))^2.$$

Having replaced  $y, 2y, 3y, \dots, (n-1)y$  instead of  $y$  in (6), we obtain a system of  $n-1$  homogeneous equations as follows:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \lambda_i(x, y) = 0 \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \lambda_i(x, 2y) = 0 \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \lambda_i(x, 3y) = 0 \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \lambda_i(x, (n-1)y) = 0 \end{array} \right.$$

It is evident that the coefficient matrix of the above system is:

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} \binom{n}{1} & \binom{n}{2} & \binom{n}{3} & \cdots & \binom{n}{n-1} \\ 2\binom{n}{1} & 2^2\binom{n}{2} & 2^3\binom{n}{3} & \cdots & 2^{n-1}\binom{n}{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ (n-1)\binom{n}{1} & (n-1)^2\binom{n}{2} & (n-1)^3\binom{n}{3} & \cdots & (n-1)^{n-1}\binom{n}{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Obviously,

$$\det Y = \left( \prod_{k=1}^{n-1} \binom{n}{k} \right) (n-1)! \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n-1} (i-j).$$

Since  $\det Y \neq 0$ , the above-mentioned system has only a trivial solution. In particular,  $\lambda_{n-2}(x, y) = 0$ , i.e.

$$\binom{n}{n-2} d(x^2 y^{n-2}) - 2 \binom{n}{n-2} x y^{n-2} d(x) - \binom{n}{n-2} y^{n-2} (\delta(x))^2 = 0.$$

Since  $\mathcal{R}$  is an  $n!$ -torsion free ring, we have

$$d(x^2 y^{n-2}) - 2xy^{n-2}d(x) - y^{n-2}(\delta(x))^2 = 0. \quad (7)$$

Putting  $x = \mathbf{1}$  in equation (5) and using the hypothesis that  $\delta(\mathbf{1}) = 0$ , we achieve



$d(\mathbf{1}) = 0$ . Thus, we can put  $\mathbf{1}$  instead of  $y$  in (7) to obtain

$$d(x^2) = 2xd(x) + (\delta(x))^2, \tag{8}$$

for all  $x \in \mathcal{A}$ . It means that  $d$  is a Jordan left  $\delta$ -double derivation. Now, assume that  $\mathcal{R}$  is a semiprime algebra and further,  $\delta^2(x^2) = 2(x\delta^2(x) + (\delta(x))^2)$  holds for all  $x \in \mathcal{R}$ . From this equation and equation (8), we arrive at

$$d(x^2) = 2xd(x) + \frac{1}{2}\delta^2(x^2) - x\delta^2(x) \tag{9}$$

Therefore,  $(d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2)(x^2) = 2x(d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2)(x)$ , and it means that  $\Delta = d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2$  is a Jordan left derivation. At this moment, Theorem 2 of [10] is exactly what we need to complete the proof. ■

We are now ready to establish another characterization of  $\delta$ -double derivations on algebras.

**Corollary 2.6** Let  $n > 1$  be an integer and  $\mathcal{A}$  be a semiprime algebra with the identity element  $\mathbf{1}$ . Suppose that  $d, \delta : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  are two additive maps satisfying

$$d(a^n) = na^{n-1}d(a) + \binom{n}{2}a^{n-2}(\delta(a))^2$$

for all  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ . If  $\delta$  is a left derivation, then  $d$  is a  $\delta$ -double derivation mapping  $\mathcal{A}$  into  $Z(\mathcal{A})$ .

**Proof.** It follows from Theorem 2 of [10] that  $\delta$  is a derivation mapping  $\mathcal{A}$  into  $Z(\mathcal{A})$ . Theorem 2.5 of the current study implies that  $\Delta(a) = d(a) - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2(a) \in Z(\mathcal{A})$  for all  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ , and consequently,  $d(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq Z(\mathcal{A})$ . A straightforward verification shows that  $d$  is a  $\delta$ -double derivation. ■

The following theorem has been motivated by a work of Vukman [10].

**Theorem 2.7** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a Banach algebra with the identity element  $\mathbf{1}$  and let

$$d, \delta : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A},$$

be two additive maps satisfying

$$d(a) = -ad(a^{-1})a - a\delta(a^{-1})\delta(a) \tag{10}$$

for all invertible elements  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ . If  $\delta(a) = -a\delta(a^{-1})a$  for all invertible elements  $a$ , then  $d$  is a Jordan  $\delta$ -double derivation. In particular, if  $\mathcal{A}$  is semiprime and further,  $(\delta(x))^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\delta^2(x^2) - \delta^2(x)x - x\delta^2(x))$  holds for all  $x \in \mathcal{A}$ , then  $d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2$  is a derivation.

**Proof.** Let  $x$  be an arbitrary element of  $\mathcal{A}$  and let  $n$  be a positive number so that  $\|\frac{x}{n-1}\| < 1$ . It is evident that  $\|\frac{x}{n}\| < 1$ , too. If we consider  $a = n\mathbf{1} + x$ , then we have  $\frac{a}{n} = \mathbf{1} + \frac{x}{n} = \mathbf{1} - \frac{-x}{n}$ . Since  $\|\frac{-x}{n}\| < 1$ , it follows from Theorem 1.4.2 of [6] that  $\mathbf{1} - \frac{-x}{n}$  is invertible and consequently,  $a$  is invertible. Similarly, we can show that  $\mathbf{1} - a$  is also an

invertible element of  $\mathcal{A}$ . In the following, we use the well-known Hua identity

$$a^2 = a - \left( a^{-1} + (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} \right)^{-1}.$$

Applying equation (10), we have

$$\begin{aligned} d(a^2) &= d(a) - d\left( (a^{-1} + (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1})^{-1} \right) \\ &= d(a) + (a^{-1} + (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1})^{-1} d(a^{-1} + (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1}) (a^{-1} + (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1})^{-1} \\ &\quad + (a^{-1} + (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1})^{-1} \delta(a^{-1} + (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1}) \delta((a^{-1} + (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1})^{-1}) \\ &= d(a) + a(\mathbf{1} - a) (-a^{-1} d(a) a^{-1} - a^{-1} \delta(a) \delta(a^{-1})) a(\mathbf{1} - a) \\ &\quad + a(\mathbf{1} - a) (-(\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} d(\mathbf{1} - a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1}) - \left( (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} \delta(\mathbf{1} - a) \delta((\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1}) \right. \\ &\quad \times a(\mathbf{1} - a) \left. \right) + \left( a(\mathbf{1} - a) (-a^{-1} \delta(a) a^{-1}) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} \delta(\mathbf{1} - a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} \right. \\ &\quad \times \left. (- (a^{-1} + (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1})^{-1}) \delta(a^{-1}) \right) + (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} (a^{-1} + (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1})^{-1} \\ &= d(a) - a(\mathbf{1} - a) a^{-1} d(a) a^{-1} a(\mathbf{1} - a) - a(\mathbf{1} - a) a^{-1} \delta(a) \delta(a^{-1}) a(\mathbf{1} - a) \\ &\quad + a(\mathbf{1} - a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} d(a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} a(\mathbf{1} - a) + \left( a(\mathbf{1} - a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} \delta(a) \right. \\ &\quad \times \left. \delta((\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1}) a(\mathbf{1} - a) \right) + a(\mathbf{1} - a) a^{-1} \delta(a) a^{-1} (a \delta(a) + \delta(a) a - \delta(a)) \\ &\quad - a(\mathbf{1} - a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} \delta(a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} (a \delta(a) + \delta(a) a - \delta(a)) \\ &= d(a) - (\mathbf{1} - a) d(a) (\mathbf{1} - a) - (\mathbf{1} - a) \delta(a) \delta(a^{-1}) a(\mathbf{1} - a) + ad(a)a \\ &\quad + a \delta(a) \delta((\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1}) a(\mathbf{1} - a) + (\mathbf{1} - a) (\delta(a))^2 + (\mathbf{1} - a) \delta(a) a^{-1} \delta(a) a \\ &\quad - (\mathbf{1} - a) \delta(a) a^{-1} \delta(a) - a \delta(a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} a \delta(a) - a \delta(a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} \delta(a) a \\ &\quad + a \delta(a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} \delta(a) \\ &= d(a)a + ad(a) - \delta(a) \delta(a^{-1}) a + \delta(a) \delta(a^{-1}) a^2 + a \delta(a) \delta(a^{-1}) a \\ &\quad - a \delta(a) \delta(a^{-1}) a^2 + a \delta(a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} \delta(a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} a(\mathbf{1} - a) + (\delta(a))^2 \\ &\quad - a(\delta(a))^2 + \delta(a) a^{-1} \delta(a) a - a \delta(a) a^{-1} \delta(a) a - \delta(a) a^{-1} \delta(a) + (a \delta(a) a^{-1} \\ &\quad \times \delta(a)) - a \delta(a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} a \delta(a) - a \delta(a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} \delta(a) a + a \delta(a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} \delta(a) \\ &= d(a)a + ad(a) + (\delta(a))^2 - a(\delta(a))^2 - a \delta(a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} a \delta(a) \\ &\quad + a \delta(a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} \delta(a) \quad (\text{see } \delta(a) = -a \delta(a^{-1}) a) \\ &= d(a)a + ad(a) + (\delta(a))^2 - a(\delta(a))^2 - a \delta(a) ((\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} - \mathbf{1}) \delta(a) \\ &\quad + a \delta(a) (\mathbf{1} - a)^{-1} \delta(a) = d(a)a + ad(a) + (\delta(a))^2. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\delta(\mathbf{1}) = -\mathbf{1} \delta(\mathbf{1}^{-1}) \mathbf{1}$ ,  $\delta(\mathbf{1}) = 0$  and it implies that  $d(\mathbf{1}) = 0$ . We know that  $d(a^2) = d(a)a + ad(a) + (\delta(a))^2$ . Having put  $a = n\mathbf{1} + x$  in the previous equation, we have

$d(n^2 + 2nx + x^2) = d(x)(n\mathbf{1} + x) + (n\mathbf{1} + x)d(x) + (\delta(x))^2$ . Therefore,

$$d(x^2) = d(x)x + xd(x) + (\delta(x))^2,$$

for all  $x \in \mathcal{A}$ , i.e.  $d$  is a Jordan  $\delta$ -double derivation. Now, assume that  $(\delta(x))^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\delta^2(x^2) - \delta^2(x)x - x\delta^2(x))$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{A}$ . Hence,  $d(x^2) = xd(x) + d(x)x + \frac{1}{2}(\delta^2(x^2) - \delta^2(x)x - x\delta^2(x))$ ; equivalently we have,  $(d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2)(x^2) = x(d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2)(x) + (d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2)(x)x$ . It means that  $d - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2$  is a Jordan derivation. Now, Theorem 1 of [2] completes our proof. ■

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