Pacific Journal of Mathematics

ON THE ASSOCIATIVITY AND COMMUTATIVITY OF ALGEBRAS OVER COMMUTATIVE RINGS

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Vol. 63, No. 2

April 1976

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Let A be an algebra (not necessarily associative) over a commutative ring R. A is left scalar associative if for each $a, b, c \in A$ there exists $\alpha \in R$ depending on a, b, c such that $(ab)c = \alpha a(bc)$. A right scalar associativity is defined similarly. A is scalar commutative if for each a, b in A, there exists $\alpha \in R$ depending on a, b such that $\alpha ab = ba$. In this paper, it is shown that if A is right and left scalar associative and scalar commutative then (ab)c - a(bc) and ab - ba are nilpotent for every a, b and c in A. If $1 \in A$, then $[(ab)c - a(bc)]^2 = 0$. If R is a principal ideal domain then A is associative and commutative.

Introduction. Coughlin and Rich [1] and Coughlin, Kleinfeld and Rich [2] have studied algebras A over a field F with the property that for any $x, y, z \in A$ there exists $\alpha \in F$ depending on x, y, z such that $(xy)z = \alpha x(yz)$. They show that if A has a nonzero idempotent then this condition implies associativity. Rich [4] has shown that if for each $x, y \in A$ there exists $\alpha \in F$ depending on x, y such that $xy = \alpha yx$, then A is either commutative or anti-commutative. In this paper we study related conditions for an algebra A over a comutative ring R. If either A has no zero divisors or if A has identity element and R is a principal ideal domain, then we can still prove associativity and commutativity under the respective conditions. In general with some additional minor constraints we are able to prove the nilpotency of associators and commutators in A.

1. Preliminaries. Throughout this paper N will denote the set of natural numbers and Z^+ will denote the set of positive integers. R will denote a commutative, associative ring which may or may not have an identity element. A will denote a not necessarily associative ring which may or may not have an identity element. We assume that A is an algebra over R in the sense that for all $a, b \in A$ and $\alpha, \beta \in R, (\alpha + \beta)a = \alpha a + \beta a, \alpha(a + b) = \alpha a + \alpha b, (\alpha \beta)a =$ $\alpha(\beta a), \text{ and } \alpha(ab) = (\alpha a)b = a(\alpha b)$. As usual if $a, b, c \in A$, the associator (a, b, c) = (ab)c - a(bc) and the commutator [a, b] = ab - ba. We will be concerned with the following generalizations of concepts introduced in [1], [4].

DEFINITION 1. A is left scalar associative if for each a, b, $c \in A$ there exists $\alpha \in R$ depending on a, b, c such that $(ab)c = \alpha a(bc)$.

2. A is right scalar associative if for each a, b, $c \in A$ there exists $\alpha \in R$ depending on a, b, c such that $a(bc) = \alpha(ab)c$.

3. A is scalar associative if it is both right and left scalar associative.

4. A is scalar commutative if for each $a, b \in A$ there exists $\alpha \in R$ depending on a, b such that $ab = \alpha ba$.

LEMMA 1.1. (i) If A is scalar associative, then for all a, b, $c \in A$, $\alpha \in R$, $\alpha a(bc) = 0$ if and only if $\alpha(ab)c = 0$. Also, (ab)c = 0 if and only if a(bc) = 0.

(ii) If A is scalar commutative, then for all $a, b \in A, \alpha \in R$, $\alpha ab = 0$ if and only if $\alpha ba = 0$. Also, ab = 0 if and only if ba = 0.

LEMMA 1.2. (i) Suppose A is scalar associative. Let $x, y, z, u \in A$, $\alpha, \beta \in R$ such that (x, y, u) = 0, $(xy)z = \alpha x(yz)$ and $x(y(z + u)) = \beta(xy)(z + u)$. Then $xyu - \alpha xyu - \beta xyu + \alpha \beta xyu = 0$.

(ii) Suppose A is scalar commutative. Let $x, y, u \in A, \alpha, \beta \in R$ such that $yu = uy, yx = \alpha xy$ and $(x + u)y = \beta y(x + u)$. Then $yu - \alpha yu - \beta yu + \alpha \beta yu = 0$.

Proof. (i) We have $x(y(z + u - \alpha\beta z - \beta u)) = 0$ and hence by Lemma 1.1, $(xy)(z + u - \alpha\beta z - \beta u) = 0$. Also $\alpha\beta(xy)(z + u) = (xy)z + \alpha xyu$. Combining these we have the result.

(ii) We have $(x + u - \alpha\beta x - \beta u)y = 0$. Hence by Lemma 1.1, $y(x + u - \alpha\beta x - \beta u) = 0$. Also $\alpha\beta y(x + u) = yx + \alpha yu$. Combining these we have the result.

2. Associators and commutators. The main purpose of this section is to study nilpotency of associators and commutators.

THEOREM 2.1. Let A be scalar commutative. If either A has an identity element or is scalar associative, then the square of every commutator in A is zero.

Proof. Let $x, y \in A$. There exists $\alpha \in R$ such that $yx = \alpha xy$. First assume A has an identity element 1. Then there exists $\beta \in R$ such that $(x + 1)y = \beta y(x + 1)$. By Lemma 1.2 we set $y - \alpha y - \beta y + \alpha \beta y = 0$. Hence $y(x + 1) - \alpha y(x + 1) = \beta y(x + 1) - \alpha \beta y(x + 1) = (x + 1)y - \alpha(x + 1)y$. This implies that $(xy - yx)^2 = (xy - \alpha xy)^2 = 0$. Next assume A is scalar associative. There exists $\gamma \in R$ such that $(x + y)y = \gamma y(x + y)$. By Lemma 1.2, $y^2 - \alpha y^2 = \gamma y^2 - \alpha \gamma y^2$. Multiplying the first equation by α and then subtracting from itself, we get $xy - \alpha xy = \gamma yx - \alpha \gamma yx$. Now there exists $\delta \in R$ such that $y(yx) = \delta y^2 x$. So $y(xy - \alpha xy) = \gamma y(yx) - \alpha \gamma y(yx) = \delta(\gamma y^2 - \alpha \gamma y^2)x = \delta(y^2 - \alpha y^2)x = y(yx) + \alpha y(yx) = \alpha y(\gamma y) - \alpha^2 y(xy)$. Hence $y(xy - 2\alpha xy + \alpha^2 xy) = 0$. By Lemma 1.1, $(xy - yx)^2 = (xy - \alpha xy)^2 = 0$.

THEOREM 2.2. Suppose A has an identity element 1 and is scalar associative. Then the square of every associator in A is zero.

Proof. Let $x, y, z \in A$. There exist $\alpha, \beta \in R$ such that $(xy)z = \alpha x(yz)$ and $x(y(z + 1)) = \beta(xy)(z + 1)$. By Lemma 1.2, $xy - \alpha xy = \beta xy - \alpha \beta y$. So

$$(xy)(z+1) - lpha(xy)(z+1) = eta(xy)(z+1) - lphaeta(xy)(z+1) = x(y(z+1)) - lpha x(y(z+1)) \ .$$

Thus $(x, y, z)^2 = 0$.

THEOREM 2.3. Suppose A has no zero divisors.
(i) If A is scalar commutative then A is commutative.
(ii) If A is scalar associative then A is associative.

Proof. (i) Let $x, y \in A$. There exist $\alpha, \beta \in R$ such that $yx = \alpha xy$ and $(x + y)y = \beta y(x + y)$. By Lemma 1.2, $(y - \alpha y)(y - \beta y) = 0$. So $y = \alpha y$ or $y = \beta y$. In either case xy = yx.

(ii) Let $u, v, w \in A$ be nonzero. Let $\alpha \in R$ be such that $uv = \alpha u(vw)$. Let $w' \in A$. We make the following claim.

(1) If
$$[w, w'] \neq 0$$
, then $(uv)w' = \alpha u(vw')$.

There exists $\gamma \in R$ such that $(uv)w' = \gamma u(vw')$. Suppose (1) is not true. Then $\alpha u \neq \gamma u$. There exists $\beta \in R$ such that $(uv)(w + w') = \beta u(v(w + w'))$. So $\alpha u(vw) + \gamma u(vw') = \beta u(vw) + \beta u(vw')$. Since A has no zero divisors we get $\alpha w + \gamma w' = \beta w + \beta w'$. Hence $(\alpha - \beta)w = (\beta - \gamma)w'$. Thus w' commutes with $(\alpha - \beta)w$ and w commutes with $(\beta - \gamma)w'$. So,

$$(\alpha - \beta)[w, w'] = [(\alpha - \beta)w, w'] = 0;$$

 $(\beta - \gamma)[w', w] = [(\beta - \gamma)w', w] = 0.$

Hence

$$(\alpha - \beta)u[w, w'] = 0 = (\beta - \gamma)u[w, w'].$$

Since $[w, w'] \neq 0$ we get $(\alpha - \beta)u = 0 = (\beta - \gamma)u$. Hence $\alpha u = \gamma u$, a contradiction. So (1) is true. Similarly, it can be seen that if $u', v' \in A$, then

(2)
$$[u, u'] \neq 0 \text{ implies } (u'v)w = \alpha u'(vw); \\ [v, v'] \neq 0 \text{ implies } (uv')w = \alpha u(v'w).$$

Next we show that for all $x \in A$, $x \cdot x^2 = x^2 \cdot x$. Suppose not. Then there exists $x \in A$ such that $[x, x^2] \neq 0$. So $x \neq 0$ and there exists $\delta \in R$ such that $(x \cdot x)x = \delta x(x \cdot x)$. By (1), (2) we get $(x^2 \cdot x)x = \delta x^2(x \cdot x)$, $(x \cdot x^2)x = \delta x(x^2 \cdot x)$ and $(x \cdot x)x^2 = \delta x(x \cdot x^2)$. So $(x^2 \cdot x)x = \delta x^2(x \cdot x) =$ $\delta(x \cdot x)x^2 = \delta^2 x(x \cdot x^2) = \delta x(\delta x \cdot x^2) = \delta x(x^2 \cdot x) = (x \cdot x^2)x$. This contradiction shows that $x^2 \cdot x = x \cdot x^2$ for all $x \in A$. Now let $a, b, c \in A, a, b, c \neq 0$ such that (a, b, c) = 0. Let $c' \in A$. There exist $\mu, \nu \in R$ such that $(ab)c' = \mu a(bc'), a(b(c' + c)) = \nu (ab)(c' + c)$. By Lemma 1.2 and the fact that A is a domain we get $(a - \mu a)(a - \nu a) = 0$. So $a = \mu a$ or $a = \nu a$. In either case (a, b, c') = 0. By duality we can therefore conclude that for $a, b, c \neq 0$, (a, b, c) = 0 implies that (a', b, c) = (a, b', c) =(a, b, c') = 0 for all $a', b', c' \in A$. Starting with the fact that $x \cdot x^2 =$ $x^2 \cdot x$ for all $x \in A$, we can use the above repeatedly to conclude that A is associative.

If I is an ideal of A which is also a subalgebra, then A/I is also an algebra over R. If A is scalar associative (resp. scalar commutative) then so is A/I. If A is scalar associative and $x \in A$, then by Lemma 1.1, the *n*th power of x is zero in one association if and only if it is zero in every association. Hence it makes sense to talk about nilpotent elements in A.

THEOREM 2.4. Let A be scalar associative and scalar commutative. Then every associator and every commutator in A is nilpotent.

Proof. The hypothesis implies that the nilpotents of A form an ideal and a subalgebra. So without loss of generality, let A have no nilpotent elements. By Theorem 2.1, A is commutative. Call an ideal I of A prime if $ab \in I$ implies $a \in I$ or $b \in I$. We now follow some well known ideas (cf. [3; Chapter 4]). Let $x \in A, x \neq 0$. Let T be the groupoid generated by x. Then $0 \notin T$. By Zorn's lemma there exists a maximal ideal P of A not intersecting T. We claim that P is prime. Suppose there exist $a, b \in A$ such that $a, b \notin P$ but $ab \in P$. Let $P_1 = \{na + ra + u \mid n \in N, r \in A, u \in P\}$. Then by commutativity and scalar associativity, P_1 is an ideal of A containing P Hence $P \cap T \neq \emptyset$. So there exists $d_1 = n_1 a + r_1 a \in T$ for and a. some $n_1 \in N$, $r_1 \in A$. Similarly there exists $d_2 = n_2 b + r_2 b \in T$ for some $n_2 \in N$, $r_2 \in A$. So $d_1 d_2 \in T$. By commutativity, scalar associativity and the fact that $ab \in P$, we get $d_1d_1 \in P$. This contradiction shows that P is a prime ideal. Hence the intersection of all prime ideals is zero. We claim that each prime ideal P is a subalgebra. For let $x \in P$. Then for any $\alpha \in R$, $(\alpha x)(\alpha x) = (\alpha^2 x) \cdot x \in P$. Hence $\alpha x \in P$.

ASSOCIATIVITY AND COMMUTATIVITY

Thus A is a subdirect sum of algebras without zero divisors, each of which scalar associative. By Theorem 2.3, A is associative.

3. Algebras with identity elements. Throughout this section we will assume that R has an identity element 1 satisfying $1 \cdot a = a$ for all $a \in A$ and that A itself has an identity element which will also be denoted by 1.

LEMMA 3.1. A is right scalar associative if and only if A is left scalar associative if and only if A is scalar associative.

Proof. By the dual nature of the conditions we may assume Ais left scalar associative and prove that A is right scalar associative. Since A is left scalar associative we have that for any $x, y, z \in A$. x(yz) = 0 implies (xy)z = 0. Now let a, b, $c \in A$. There exist $\alpha, \beta \in A$. R such that $(ab)c = \alpha a(bc)$, and $((a + 1)b)c = \beta(a + 1)(bc)$. Hence $\alpha a(bc) + bc = \beta a(bc) + \beta bc$. Thus $(\alpha a + (1 - \beta) \cdot 1 - \beta a)(bc) = 0$. So $((\alpha a + (1 - \beta) \cdot 1 - \beta a)b)c = 0$. It follows that $(\alpha - \beta)(ab)c = (\beta - 1)bc = (\beta - 1)bc$ $(\alpha - \beta)a(bc)$. So $(\beta - 1)\alpha(bc) = (\alpha - \beta)\alpha a(bc) = (\alpha - \beta)(ab)c = (\beta - 1)bc$. Hence $(\beta - 1)(a + 1)(bc) = a[(\beta - 1)bc] + (\beta - 1)bc = a[(\beta - 1)\alpha bc] + (\beta - 1)\alpha bc] + (\beta - 1)\alpha bc = a[(\beta - 1)\alpha bc] + (\beta - 1)\alpha bc] + (\beta - 1)\alpha bc = a[(\beta - 1)\alpha bc] + (\beta - 1)\alpha bc] + (\beta - 1)\alpha bc] + (\beta - 1)\alpha bc = a[(\beta - 1)\alpha bc] + (\beta - 1)\alpha bc] +$ $(\beta-1)bc = (\beta-1)\alpha a(bc) + (\beta-1)bc = (\beta-1)(ab)c + (\beta-1)bc =$ $(\beta - 1)((a + 1)b)c$. Consequently, $((a + 1)b)c = \beta(a + 1)(bc) = (\beta - 1)$. $(a + 1)(bc) + (a + 1)(bc) = (\beta - 1)((a + 1)b)c + (a + 1)(bc).$ Thus $(a + 1)(bc) = (2 - \beta)((a + 1)b)c$. Since a, b, c are arbitrary we obtain that A is right scalar associative.

Suppose R is a P.I.D. (Principal Ideal Domain) and $a \in A$. Then we define order of a, o(a), to be the generator of the ideal $I = \{\alpha \mid \alpha \in R, \alpha a = 0\}$ of R. Thus o(a) is unique up to associates in R. o(a) = 1 if and only if a = 0.

LEMMA 3.2. Suppose R is a P.I.D.

(i) If A is scalar associative, $a, b \in R$ and o(ab) = 0 then (a, b, c) = 0 for all $c \in A$.

(ii) If A is scalar commutative, $b \in R$ and o(b) = 0 then b is in the center of A.

Proof. (i) Let $c \in A$. There exist $\alpha, \beta \in R$ such that $(ab)c = \alpha a(bc)$ and $a(b(c+1)) = \beta(ab)(c+1)$. By Lemma 1.2, $(1-\alpha)(1-\beta)ab = 0$. So $\alpha = 1$ or $\beta = 1$ and thus (a, b, c) = 0.

(ii) Let $b \in A$. There exist α , $\beta \in R$ such that $ba = \alpha ab$ and $(a + 1)b = \beta b(a + 1)$. So by Lemma 1.2, $(1 - \alpha)(1 - \beta)b = 0$. Hence $\alpha = 1$ or b = 1 and thus ab = ba.

LEMMA 3.3. Suppose R is a P.I.D. and A is scalar associative.

Assume further that there exists a prime $p \in R$, $m \in Z^+$ such that $p^m A = 0$. Then A is associative.

Proof. Let $\mathscr{A}_1 = \{(x, y) | x, y \in A \text{ and } (x, y, z) = 0 \text{ for all } z \in A\},\$ $\mathscr{A}_2 = \{(x, y) | x, y \in A \text{ and } (u, x, y) = 0 \text{ for all } u \in A\} \text{ and } \mathscr{A} = \mathscr{A}_1 \cap$ \mathscr{H}_2 . Let $x, y \in A$. Let $o(xy) = p^k, k \in N$. We prove by induction on k that $(x, y) \in \mathcal{A}$. If k = 0 then xy = 0 and by Lemma 1.1, $(x, y) \in \mathcal{A}$. \mathcal{A} . So we assume k > 0 and that the statement is true for l < k. We first show that for any $z \in A$, $(x, y, z) \neq 0$ implies (x, yz, w) = 0for all $w \in A$. So let $(x, y, z) \neq 0$. There exist $\alpha, \beta \in R$ such that $(xy)z = \alpha x(yz)$ and $((x+1)y)z = \beta (x+1)(yz)$. So $\alpha x(yz) + yz = \beta x(yz) + yz$ βyz . Hence $(\alpha - \beta)x(yz) = (\beta - 1)yz$. If $(\alpha - \beta)x(yz) = 0$, then $\beta yz = yz$ whence (x, y, z) = 0, a contradiction. So $(\alpha - \beta)x(yz) \neq 0$. In particular $\alpha - \beta \neq 0$ and $\alpha - \beta = \delta p^t$ for some $t \in N, \delta \in R$, $(\delta, p) = 1$. If $t \ge k$ then since $o(xy) = p^k$ we would get $(\alpha - \beta)xy = 0$. But then $(\alpha - \beta)(xy)z = 0$ which by Lemma 1.1 implies $(\alpha - \beta)x(yz) = 0$, a contradiction. Hence t < k. Now since $p^k(xy)z = 0$ we get $p^kx(yz) =$ 0. So $p^{k-t}(\beta-1)yz = p^k \delta x(yz) = 0$. Let $o(yz) = p^i$. We claim that $i \ge k$. For suppose i < k. Then by induction hypothesis $(y, z) \in i$ $\mathscr{A} \subseteq \mathscr{A}_2$. In particular (x, y, z) = 0, a contradiction. So $i \ge k$. Hence $p^k | p^i | p^{k-t}(\beta - 1)$. Thus $p^t | \beta - 1$ and $\beta - 1 = p^t \gamma$ for some $\gamma \in R$. So $p^{t}[\delta x(yz) - \gamma yz] = 0$. Therefore $p^{t}[(\delta x - \gamma \cdot 1)(yz)] = 0$. By induction hypothesis $(\delta x - \gamma \cdot 1, yz) \in \mathscr{A} \subseteq \mathscr{A}_1$. Hence for all $w \in A$, $(\delta x - \gamma \cdot 1, yz, w) = 0$. Since $(\gamma \cdot 1, yz, w) = 0$ we get $\delta(x, yz, w) = 0$ $(\delta x, yz, w) = 0$. Since $(\delta, p) = 1$, there exist $\mu, \nu \in R$ such that $\mu p^m + p^m + q p^m$ $\nu \delta = 1$. So $(x, yz, w) = \nu \delta(x, yz, w) = 0$. Thus we have shown that

(3)
$$(x, y, z) \neq 0$$
 implies $(x, yz, w) = 0$ for all $w \in A$.

Now we proceed to show that $(x, y) \in \mathscr{A}_1$. For suppose not. Then $(x, y, u) \neq 0$ for some $u \in A$. Then we also have $(x, y, u + 1) \neq 0$. So by (3) we get (x, yu, w) = 0 = (x, yu + y, w) for all $w \in A$. This implies (x, y, w) = 0 for all $w \in A$. In particular (x, y, u) = 0, a contradiction. This contradiction shows that $(x, y) \in \mathscr{A}_1$. A right-left dual argument can be given to show that $(x, y) \in \mathscr{A}_2$. Hence $(x, y) \in \mathscr{A}$. This completes the induction step.

LEMMA 3.4. Suppose R is a P.I.D. and A is scalar commutative. Assume further that there exists a prime $p \in R, m \in Z^+$ such that $p^{m}A = 0$. Then A is commutative.

Proof. Let C be the center of A. Let $x \in A$ and $o(x) = p^k$, $k \in N$. We prove by induction on k that $x \in C$. If k = 0, then x = 0 and there is nothing to prove. So let k > 0 and assume the

statement for l < k. We first show that for any $y \in A$, $[x, y] \neq 0$ implies [yx, y] = 0. So let $[x, y] \neq 0$. There exist $\alpha, \beta \in R$ such that $xy = \alpha yx$ and $(x + 1)y = \beta y(x + 1)$. So $\alpha yx + y = \beta yx + \beta y$. Hence $(\alpha - \beta)yx = (\beta - 1)y$. If $(\alpha - \beta)yx = 0$, then $\beta y = y$ and [x, y] = 0, a contradiction. So $(\alpha - \beta)yx \neq 0$. In particular $\alpha - \beta \neq 0$ and $\alpha - \beta = p^t \delta$ for some $t \in N, \delta \in R$ with $(\delta, p) = 1$. If $t \geq k$, then $(\alpha - \beta)yx = 0$, a contradiction. So t < k. Then $p^{k-t}(\beta - 1)y =$ $p^{k-t}(\alpha - \beta)yx = p^k \delta yx = 0$. Let $o(y) = p^t$, $i \in N$. If i < k then by induction hypothesis $y \in C$, a contradiction. So $i \geq k$. Hence $p^k |p^i| p^{k-t} \times$ $(\beta - 1)$. So $p^t |\beta - 1$ and $\beta - 1 = p^t \gamma$ for some $\gamma \in R$. So $p^t(\delta yx \gamma y) = 0$ and by induction hypothesis $\delta yx - \gamma y \in C$. In particular $[\delta yx - \gamma y, y] = 0$. Since $[\gamma y, y] = 0$ we get $\delta [yx, y] = [\delta yx, y] = 0$. Since $(\delta, p) = 1$ there exist $\mu, \nu \in R$ such that $\mu \delta + \nu p^m = 1$. So we get $[yx, y] = \mu \delta [yx, y] = 0$. Thus we have shown that for all $y \in A$,

(4)
$$[x, y] \neq 0$$
 implies $[yx, y] = 0$.

Now we proceed to show that $x \in C$. Suppose not. Then there exists $u \in A$ such that $[x, u] \neq 0$. So $[x, u + 1] \neq 0$. By (4) we get [ux, u] = [ux + x, u + 1] = 0. Hence [x, u] = 0, a contradiction. This proves $x \in C$ completing the induction step.

THEOREM 3.5. Suppose R is a P.I.D.
(i) If A is scalar associative, then A is associative.
(ii) If A is scalar commutative, then A is commutative.

Proof. (i) Suppose A is not associative. We will get a contradiction. There exist $x, y, z \in A$ such that $(x, y, z) \neq 0$. So $(x + 1, y, z) \neq 0$. By Lemma 3.2, $o(xy) \neq 0$, $o(xy + y) \neq 0$. Thus $o(y) \neq 0$. Since $(x, y + 1, z) \neq 0$, the above argument shows that $o(y + 1) \neq 0$. Hence $o(1) \neq 0$. Let $o(1) = d \neq 0$. Then d is not a unit and hence $d = p_1^{i_1} \cdots p_t^{i_t}$ for some primes $p_1, \cdots, p_t \in A$ and some positive integers i_1, \cdots, i_t . Let $A_t = \{a \mid a \in A, p_i^{a_i}a = 0\}$. Then each A_i is a nonzero subalgebra of A and $A = A_1 \bigoplus \cdots \bigoplus A_t$. Being subalgebras of A, the A_i 's are scalar associative. Being homomorphic images of A, all the A_i 's have identity elements. By Lemma 3.3, each A_i and hence A is associative, a contradiction.

(ii) Suppose A is not commutative. We will obtain a contradiction. There exists $x \in A$ such that $x \notin C$, the center of A. So $x+1 \notin C$. By Lemma 3.2, $o(x) \neq 0$ and $o(x+1) \neq 0$. Hence $o(1) \neq 0$. By using Lemma 3.4, we obtain as in (i), that A is commutative, a contradiction.

EXAMPLE 3.6. If R is a field and A is scalar commutative then even if A does not have an identity element, Rich [4] shows that A must be either commutative or anti-commutative. This is not true for P.I.D.'s. To see this let A_1 be the non-commutative, anticommutative algebra over Z_5 given in [4]. As a Z-algebra A_1 satisfies xy = 4yx. Now Z_3 as a Z-algebra satisfies the same identity. So the Z-algebra $A = A_1 \times Z_3$ satisfies xy = 4yx. However A is not commutative (since A_1 is not) and A is not anti-commutative (since Z_3 is not).

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Received November 13, 1975 and in revised form February 11, 1976.

NORTH CAROLINA STATE UNIVERSITY AT RALEIGH

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The *Pacific Journal of Mathematics* is issued monthly as of January 1966. Regular subscription rate: \$72.00 a year (6 Vols., 12 issues). Special rate: \$36.00 a year to individual members of supporting institutions.

Subscriptions, orders for back numbers, and changes of address should be sent to Pacific Journal of Mathematics, 103 Highland Boulevard, Berkeley, California, 94708.

PUBLISHED BY PACIFIC JOURNAL OF MATHEMATICS, A NON-PROFIT CORPORATION

Printed at Kokusai Bunken Insatsusha (International Academic Printing Co., Ltd.),

8-8, 3-chome, Takadanobaba, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160, Japan.

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Pacific Journal of Mathematics Vol. 63, No. 2 April, 1976

Joseph Anthony Ball and Arthur R. Lubin, On a class of contractive perturbations	
of restricted shifts	309
Joseph Becker and William C. Brown, <i>On extending higher derivations generated</i> by cup products to the integral closure	325
Andreas Blass, <i>Exact functors and measurable cardinals</i>	335
Joseph Eugene Collison, A variance property for arithmetic functions	347
Craig McCormack Cordes, Quadratic forms over nonformally real fields with a	
finite number of quaternion algebras	357
Freddy Delbaen, <i>Weakly compact sets in H</i> ¹	367
G. D. Dikshit, Absolute Nörlund summability factors for Fourier series	371
Edward Richard Fadell, <i>Nielsen numbers as a homotopy type invariant</i>	381
Josip Globevnik, Analytic extensions of vector-valued functions	389
Robert Gold, Genera in normal extensions	397
Solomon Wolf Golomb, <i>Formulas for the next prime</i>	401
Robert L. Griess, Jr., <i>The splitting of extensions of SL</i> (3, 3) by the vector space F_3^3	405
Thomas Alan Keagy, Matrix transformations and absolute summability	411
Kazuo Kishi, Analytic maps of the open unit disk onto a Gleason part	417
Kwangil Koh, Jiang Luh and Mohan S. Putcha, On the associativity and	
commutativity of algebras over commutative rings	423
James C. Lillo, Asymptotic behavior of solutions of retarded differential difference	
equations	431
John Alan MacBain, Local and global bifurcation from normal eigenvalues	445
Anna Maria Mantero, <i>Sets of uniqueness and multiplicity for L^p</i>	467
J. F. McClendon, <i>Embedding metric families</i>	481
L. Robbiano and Giuseppe Valla, <i>Primary powers of a prime ideal</i>	491
Wolfgang Ruess, Generalized inductive limit topologies and barrelledness properties	499
Judith D. Sally, Bounds for numbers of generators of Cohen-Macaulay ideals	517
Helga Schirmer, Mappings of polyhedra with prescribed fixed points and fixed	
point indices	521
Cho Wei Sit, <i>Quotients of complete multipartite graphs</i>	531
S. Sznajder and Zbigniew Zielezny, <i>Solvability of convolution</i> equations in \mathcal{K}'_p , $p > 1$.	539
Mitchell Herbert Taibleson, <i>The existence of natural field structures for finite</i>	<i></i>
aimensional vector spaces over local fields	545
william Y stas Velez, A characterization of completely regular fields	553
P. S. venkatesan, <i>On right unipotent semigroups</i>	555
Kenneth S. Williams, A rational octic reciprocity law	563
Robert Ross Wilson Lattice orderings on the real field	
Robert Ross wilson, Lattice orderings on the real field	5/1