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GENERAL CONCEPTS OF REGULARITY OF NEAR RINGS

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1.Introduction

The concepts of regularity of near-rings have been studied by J. C. Beidleman [2] and S. Ligh [6]. In 1980 G. Mason [7] introduced the notions of strong regularity of near-rings, and he proved that for any zero-symmetric near-ring with identity, the concepts of left regularity, strong left regularity and strong right regularity of near-rings are equivalent.

In 1985 M. Öhori [8], and in 1991 Y. Hirano [4] investigated the characterization of strong π -regularity of ring, and of π -regularity of rings.

In this paper, we will introduce more general concepts π -regularity of near-rings that is \mathcal{K} -regularity and semi π -regularity and we shall characterize relationships between them. We see that every left and right π -regularity of near-ring is π -regularity. We can prove that, using some Lemmas, for zero-symmetric near-ring with left identity, the notions of regularity, π -regularity, left \mathcal{K} -regularity and left semi π regularity of near-rings are equivalent.

C. Faith [3] studied chain conditions on principal annihilator left ideals and on principal left ideals of ring with identity, we will study chain conditions on principal annihilator left ideals and on principal N-subgroups of near-rings.

We will generalize the concepts of bipotent near-rings which are called the generalized left bipotent near-ring and the generalized right bipotent near-ring and we will investigate relationships between left \mathcal{K} regularity and DCCN for principal N-subgroups and generalized left bipotent near-rings, between right \mathcal{K} -regularity and ACCL for principal annihilator left ideals and generalized right bipotent near-rings.

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2. Preliminaries

A near-ring N is an algebraic system (N, +) such that $(N, +, \cdot)$ is a group (not necessarily abelian) and (N, \cdot) is a semigroup with right distributive laws hold for any three elements in N. In general, for any element a in N, a0 = 0 is not true, and $N_0 = \{a \in N : a0 = 0\}$ is a subnear-ring of N, if $N = N_0$ then N is called a zero-symmetric near-ring and other basic definitions in near-rings and N-groups see the text book of Gunter Pilz [9] as "Near-Ring".

A near-ring N is called π -regular if for any element a in N there exists a positive integer n such that a^n is a regular element, and left π -regular if for any element a in N there exists a positive integer n such that a^n is a left regular element, and right π -regular if for any element a in N there exists a positive integer n such that a^n is a right regular element.

A near-ring N is called left S-unital if for any element a in N, a is contained in Na. Similarly for right S-unital near-ring.

For any a in N, Na is called a principal (left) N-subgroups of N. We see that $Na \supset Na^2 \supset Na^3 \supset \cdots$ descending chain of principal N-subgroups of N, denoted that L(a) is a (left) annifilator of a in N, we called that L(a) is a principal annihilator left ideal of N, clearly we obtain that $L(a) \subset L(a^2) \subset L(a^3) \cdots$ ascending chain of principal annihilator left ideals of N.

LEMMA 2.1. Let N be a left (or right) regular near-ring. If for any a, b in N such that ab = 0 then $(ba)^n = b0$, for all positive integer n.

LEMMA 2.2. Let N be a left (or right) regular near-ring. If for each a, b in N with ab = 0 and $a^n = a0$, for all positive integer n which are greater than or equal to 2, then a = 0. In this case, if $N = N_0$ then N is reduced.

LEMMA 2.3. (G. MASON [7]). Let N be a zero-symmetric, reduced near-ring. If for any a, b in N such that ab = 0, then ba = 0.

Proof. Clearly, from Lemma 2.1.

LEMMA 2.4. Let N be a zero-symmetric near-ring with left identity. If N is reduced, then every idempotent is central.

Proof. Let e be an idempotent element in N and let x in N. Then (ex - exe)e = 0. By Lemma 2.3, e(ex - exe) = 0. On the other hand,

since (ex - exe)ex = 0, ex(ex - exe) - exe(ex - exe) = 0, by hypothesis, ex = exe.

Next, if N has a left identity 1, then, since (1-e)e = 0 by Lemma 2.3, e(1-e) = 0 and since (xe-exe)e = xe-exe, (1-e)xe = xe-exe, we obtain that

$$(xe - exe)^2 = (xe - exe)e(1 - e)xe = 0.$$

Then, since N is reduced, xe = exe. Hence ex = xe. Consequently e is central.

3. More general concepts of regularity and their relationships

A near-ring N is said to be left semi π -regular if for any element a in N there exists an element x in N such that $a^n = axa^n$ for some positive integer n, and right semi π -regular if for any element a in N there exists an element x in N such that $a^n = axa^n$ for some positive integer n.

N is called left \mathcal{K} -regular if for every element a in N, there exists an element x in N such that $a^n = xa^{n+1}$ for some positive integer n, and right \mathcal{K} -regular if for every element a in N, there exists an element x in N such that $a^n = a^{n+1}x$ for some positive integer n.

In general, every π -regular near-ring is left semi π -regular and right semi π -regular, every left π -regular near-ring is left \mathcal{K} -regular and every left \mathcal{K} -regular near-ring is left semi π -regular but not conversely.

Simillarly for right π -regular, right \mathcal{K} -regular and right semi π -regular.

There exist many examples of semi π -regularity and \mathcal{K} -regularity of near-rings, we can easily show for finite near-rings. See near-rings of low order in appendix of [9].

PROPOSITION 3.1.

- Let N be a left S-unital near-ring. Then N is left regular if and only if N is left bipotent.
- (2) Let N be a right S-unital near-ring. Then N is right regular if and only if N is right bipotent.

Proof. These are easy, so left to the readers. See, Remark 4.7. in this paper, section 4.

PROPOSITION 3.2. If a near-ring N is left semi π -regular and left regular, then N is regular.

Proof. Since N is left semi π -regular, for each a in N, there exist an element x in N such that $a^n = axa^n$, for some positive integer n. Since $(a^{n-1} - axa^{n-1})a = 0$ by Lemma 2.1, $a(a^{n-1} - axa^{n-1}) = a0$.

Now, we see that

$$(a^{n-1} - axa^{n-1})^2 = a^{n-1}(a^{n-1} - axa^{n-1}) - axa^{n-1}(a^{n-1} - axa^{n-1})$$
$$= (a^{n-1} - axa^{n-1})0.$$

By Lemma 2.2, $a^{n-1} = axa^{n-1}$. After n-2 steps from this equality, we obtain that, a = axa. Hence N is regular.

PROPOSITION 3.3. Let N is zero-symmetric with left identity and reduced. The following statements are equivalent :

- (1) N is π -regular.
- (2) N is left \mathcal{K} -regular.
- (3) N is left semi π -regular.
- (4) N is regular.

Proof. $(1) \Rightarrow (2)$. Suppose N is π -regular. Then for any element a in N there exists an element x in N such that $a^n = a^n x a^n$, for some positive integer n. Since xa^n is an idempotent, from Lemma 2.4, it is central. Thus we have

$$a^{n} = a^{n}xa^{n} = xa^{n}a^{n} = xa^{n-1}a^{n+1} = ya^{n+1},$$

where y is denoted by xa^{n-1} . Hence N is left K-regular.

 $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$. It follows from the beginning part in this section.

 $(3) \Rightarrow (4)$. Assume that N is left semi π -regular. Then for each a in N, there exists an element x in N such that $a^n = axa^n$ for some positive integer n. Since $(a^{n-1} - axa^{n-1})a = 0$, by Lemma 2.3, $a(a^{n-1} - axa^{n-1}) = 0$. Now we see that

$$(a^{n-1}-axa^{n-1})^2 = a^{n-1}(a^{n-1}-axa^{n-1}) - axa^{n-1}(a^{n-1}-axa^{n-1}) = 0.$$

Since N is reduced, $a^{n-1} = axa^{n-1}$. Continuing this procedure to n-2 steps, we obtain that a = axa that is N is regular.

 $(4) \Rightarrow (1)$. Obvious.

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PROPOSITION 3.4. If a near-ring N is left N and π -regular then N is right K-regular.

Proof. Using Lemma 2.1 and Lemma 2.2.

COROLLARY 3.5. Let N is zero-symmetric with left identity and left regular. The following statements are equivalent :

- (1) N is regular.
- (2) N is π -regular.
- (3) N is left \mathcal{K} -regular.
- (4) N is left semi π -regular.

PROPOSITION 3.6. If N is a semi π -regular near-ring with the property that for each non-zero element a in N, there is a unique element x in N and some positive integer n such that $a^n = axa^n$ (or $a^n = a^nxa$), then N is integral, in particular N is reduced. Furthermore, every non zero idempotent is a right identity.

Proof. We will prove the first statement and the remainder part is easily proved.

Let a be any non zero element in N. If ba = 0 for all b in N. Then there is a positive integer n and a unique x in N such that $a^n = axa^n$ and we see that $a(x+b)a^n = axa^n$. By uniqueness property, we obtain that x + b = x. Consequently, b = 0. Therefore N is integral.

COROLLARY 3.7. If N is a regular near-ring with the property : for any non zero element a in N, there exists a unique x in N such that a = axa, then N is integral, in particular N is reduced. Moreover, every non zero idempotent is a right identity.

These statements in corollary 3.7. are very important in ring theory and semigroup theory (: inverse semigroup).

4. Generalized bipotent near-rings and their application

A near-ring N is said to be generalized left bipotent (: GLB), if for any element a in N, there exists a positive integer n, such that $Na^n = Na^{n+1}$.

Similarly, we can also define generalized right bipotent (: GRB).

A near-ring N satisfies DCC. on principal left N-subgroups of N, if for each element a in N there is a positive integer n such that $Na^n = Na^{n+1} = Na^{n+2} = \cdots$. A near-ring N has ACC. on principal annihilator left ideals of N if for every element a in N there is a positive integer n such $L(a^n) = L(a^{n+1}) = L(a^{n+2}) = \cdots$. Obviously, every left bipotent near-ring is GLB and every right bipotent near-ring is also GRB.

PROPOSITION 4.1. Let N be a GLB near-ring. If there exists an element in N which is not a (right) zero divisor. Then N is monogenic and left bipotent.

Proof. Let a in N which is not a zero divisor. Then a^n is also not a zero divisor for any positive integer n. Indeed, if a^n is a zero divisor for some positive integer n. Then there exists non-zero element x in N such that $xa^n = 0$.

Now, $xa^{n-1}a = 0$ implies that $xa^{n-1} = 0$ because *a* is not a zero divisor. Continuing this process, we have x = 0 which is contradiction.

Next, since N is GLB, there exists a positive integer m, such that $Na^m = Na^{m+1}$. Let x be any element of N. Then there is an element y in N such that $xa^m = ya^{m+1}$. This implies that $(x - ya)a^m = 0$. Since a^m is not a zero divisor, x = ya, we see that Na = N. Thus N is monogenic. Clearly, N is left bipotent.

COROLLARY 4.2. Let N be a near-ring with DCC. on principal left N-subgroups of N. If there exists an element in N that is not a (right) zero divisor. Then N is monogenic and left bipotent.

REMARK 4.3. In proposition 4.1, Corollary 4.2, if $N = N_d$, and "left" is replaced by "right" and " right " is replaced by "left", then N is also monogenic (:right, in the sense) and right bipotent.

THEOREM 4.4. Let N be any left S-unital near-ring. Then the following statements are equivalent :

- (1) N is left \mathcal{K} -regular.
- (2) N has the DCC. on principal left N-subgroups of N.
- (3) N has the almost DCC. on principal left N-subgroups of N.
- (4) N is GLB.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2). Assume N is left K-regular. Let a be any element in N. Since N is left S-unital, Na is a principal left N-subgroup of N

generated by a. Consider

$$Na \supset Na^2 \supset Na^3 \supset \cdots$$

be descending chain of the principal left N-subgroups of N. Since N is left \mathcal{K} -regular, there exists an element x in N and exists a positive integer n, such that $a^n = xa^{n+1}$. Now

$$Na^n = Nxa^{n+1} \subset Na^{n+1} = Naa^n \subset Na^n.$$

Thus we obtain that $Na^n = Na^{n+1}$. Similarly, we have that

$$Na^{n+1} = Na^{n+2} = Na^{n+3} = \cdots$$

Hence N satisfies the DCC. on principal left N-subgroups.

(2) \Rightarrow (3). For almost DCC. or almost ACC. concepts, see the paper [11]. Almost DCC.(Almost ACC. resp.) concept is more general concept of DCC.(ACC. resp.) For S-unital near-ring (or ring), "almost DCC.(almost ACC. resp.) on N-subgroups (or ideals)" is equivalent to "DCC.(ACC. resp.) on N-subgroups (or ideals)".

(3) \Rightarrow (4). From the fact that "GLB " is a general concept of "DCC. on principal left N-subgroups of N".

 $(4) \Rightarrow (1)$. Suppose N is GLB. Let a be any element of N. Then there exists a positive integer n such that $Na^n = Na^{n+1}$. Since N is left S-unital, a^n is an element of Na^n so a^n is also an element of Na^{n+1} . Then there exists x in N such that $a^n = xa^{n+1}$. Hence N is left \mathcal{K} -regular.

COROLLARY 4.5. let N be any near-ring with left identity. Then the following statements are equivalent :

- (1) N is left \mathcal{K} -regular.
- (2) N has the DCC. on principal left N-subgroups of N.
- (3) N has the almost DCC. on principal left N-subgroups of N.
- (4) N is GLB.

THEOREM 4.6. Let N be any right S-unital near-ring. Then the following statements are equivalent :

- (1) N is right \mathcal{K} -regular.
- (2) N has the DCC. on principal right N-subgroups of N.
- (3) N has the almost DCC. on principal right N-subgroups of N.
- (4) N is GRB.

Proof. Similarly, for the proof of proposition 4.4.

REMARK 4.7. Proposition 3.1(1) and (2) are special cases of Theorem 4.4 and Theorem 4.6.

LEMMA 4.8. Let N be any near-ring. If N is right K-regular then N satisfies the ACC. on principal annihilator left ideals of N.

Proof. Straightforwards.

THEOREM 4.9. Let N be a zero symmetric left \mathcal{K} -regular near-ring with left identity. Then the following conditions are equivalent :

- (1) N is right \mathcal{K} -regular.
- (2) N has the ACC. on principal annihilator left ideals of N.
- (3) N has the almost ACC. on principal annihilator left ideals of N.

Proof. $(1) \Rightarrow (2)$. From Lemma 4.8.

(2) \Rightarrow (3). Using zero symmetric, it is straightforward.

 $(3) \Rightarrow (1)$. For any a in N, consider $L(a^m) = L(a^{m+1}) = \cdots$ for some positive integer m, since N is left \mathcal{K} -regular, there is an element x in N and some positive integer t such that $a^t = xa^{t+1}$ without loss of generality, we select n := m = t. So we have $L(a^n) = L(a^{n+1}) = \cdots$, and $a^n = xa^{n+1}$ for some positive integer n. Then for all positive integer k, $x^k a^n = x^{k+1} a^{k+1}$.

But, $a^{n+1} = aa^n = axa^{n+1}$ implies $(1-ax)a^{n+1} = 0$, that is (1-ax) is an element of $L(a^{n+1}) = L(a^n)$. Hence $a^n = axa^n$.

Since

$$a^{n+1} = aa^n = aaxa^n = a^2x(xa^{n+1}) = a^2x^2a^{n+1}$$

 $(1-a^2x^2)a^{n+1}=0$ implies $(1-a^2x^2)$ is an element of $L(a^n)$. Thus we have $(1-a^2x^2)a^n=0$, that is $a^n=a^2x^2a^2$. Continuing this process (n+1) steps, we obtain the equation $a^n=a^{n+1}x^{n+1}a^n$. Putting $x^{n+1}a^n$ as y in N then $a^n=a^{n+1}y$. Consequently N is a right \mathcal{K} -regular near-ring.

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