



Identities Related to Generalized Derivations and Jordan (\star , \star)-Derivations

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Abstract. The main purpose of this research is to characterize generalized (left) derivations and Jordan (\star , \star)-derivations on Banach algebras and rings using some functional identities. Let \mathcal{A} be a unital semiprime Banach algebra and let $F, G : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be linear mappings satisfying $F(x) = -x^2G(x^{-1})$ for all $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$, where $\text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$ denotes the set of all invertible elements of \mathcal{A} . Then both F and G are generalized derivations on \mathcal{A} . Another result in this regard is as follows. Let \mathcal{A} be a unital semiprime algebra and let $n > 1$ be an integer. Let $f, g : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be linear mappings satisfying $f(a^n) = na^{n-1}g(a) = ng(a)a^{n-1}$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. If $g(\mathbf{e}) \in Z(\mathcal{A})$, then f and g are generalized derivations associated with the same derivation on \mathcal{A} . In particular, if \mathcal{A} is a unital semisimple Banach algebra, then both f and g are continuous linear mappings. Moreover, we define a (\star , \star)-ring and a Jordan (\star , \star)-derivation. A characterization of Jordan (\star , \star)-derivations is presented as follows. Let \mathcal{R} be an $n!$ -torsion free (\star , \star)-ring, let $n > 1$ be an integer and let $d : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ be an additive mapping satisfying $d(a^n) = \sum_{j=1}^n a^{\star n-j} d(a) a^{\star j-1}$ for all $a \in \mathcal{R}$. Then d is a Jordan (\star , \star)-derivation on \mathcal{R} . Some other functional identities are also investigated.

1. Introduction and preliminaries

The notion of generalized derivation was defined by Brešar [9]. Let \mathcal{A} be an algebra. A linear mapping $f : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ is called a generalized derivation if there exists a derivation $d : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ such that $f(ab) = f(a)b + ad(b)$ for all $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$. We say f is inner if there exist $c, b \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $f(a) = ca - ab$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. For results concerning generalized derivations we refer the reader to [1, 9, 15, 18, 20, 21]. Brešar and Vukman introduced the concept of a left derivation as follows. An additive mapping $d : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow X$, where \mathcal{R} is a ring and X is a left \mathcal{R} module is called a left derivation if $d(rs) = rd(s) + sd(r)$ for all $r, s \in \mathcal{R}$. An additive mapping $d : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow X$ is called a Jordan left derivation if $d(r^2) = 2rd(r)$ for all $r \in \mathcal{R}$. Inspired by the definition of a generalized derivation, Ashraf and Ali [2] introduced the notion of a generalized left derivation as follows: an additive mapping $G : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ is called a generalized left derivation (resp. generalized Jordan left derivation) if there exists a left derivation $\delta : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ (resp. Jordan left derivation $\delta : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$) such that $G(xy) = xG(y) + y\delta(x)$ (resp. $G(x^2) = xG(x) + x\delta(x)$) holds for all $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$. In the same paper they gave an example of a generalized Jordan left derivation which is not a generalized left derivation (see [2, Example 1.1]). The main aim of this article is to characterize generalized (left) derivations and Jordan (\star , \star)-derivations using functional identities. "A functional identity (FI) can be informally described as

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an identical relation involving (arbitrary) elements in a ring together with (“unknown”) functions; more precisely, elements are multiplied by values of functions. The goal of the general *FI theory* is to determine the form of these functions, or, when this is not possible, to determine the structure of the ring admitting the *FI* in question. This theory has turned out to be a powerful tool for solving a variety of problems in different areas”. For more material about *FI theory*, see, e.g. [5]. Let us give a brief background of this study. We know that every derivation is a Jordan derivation, but the converse is in general not true (see [14, Example 2.8]). So, it is a natural and classical question in which algebras (and rings) a Jordan derivation is necessarily a derivation. In an important and interesting article, Herstein [16] answered this question. Indeed, he achieved a fundamental result which began characterizing the derivations on rings. He proved that any Jordan derivation on a prime ring of characteristic different from two is a derivation. A brief proof of Herstein’s result can be found in [8] and in 1975, Cusack [12] generalized Herstein’s result to 2-torsion free semiprime rings (see also [7] for an alternative proof). Recently, the author along with Ajda Fošner [17] have investigated the same problem for (σ, τ) -derivations from a C^* -algebra \mathcal{A} into a Banach \mathcal{A} -module \mathcal{M} . It should be mentioned that Herstein theorem has been fairly generalized by Beidar et al [4]. Vukman [10, 24, 25] used some interesting functional identities to characterize derivations and left derivations. Now, we come to the part where we talk about the achievements of this article. Let \mathcal{A} be a unital semiprime Banach algebra and let $F, G : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be linear mappings satisfying $F(x) = xG(x^{-1})$ for all $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$, where $\text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$ denotes the set of all invertible elements of \mathcal{A} . Then $F = 0 = G$. Vukman [25, Theorem 5] proved a theorem stating if \mathcal{A} is a unital semisimple Banach algebra and $F, G : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ are linear mappings satisfying $F(x) = -x^2G(x^{-1})$ for all $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$, then $F = G$ and further, $F(a) = aF(e)$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. We extend that theorem as follows. Let \mathcal{A} be a unital semiprime Banach algebra and let $F, G : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be linear mappings satisfying $F(x) = -x^2G(x^{-1})$ for all $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$. Then both F and G are generalized (left) derivations on \mathcal{A} . In addition, some consequences of this result are presented. Another objective of this study is to characterize Jordan $(*, \star)$ -derivations. Let \mathcal{R} be a ring. An additive mapping $x \mapsto x^*$ of \mathcal{R} into itself is called an involution in case $(x^*)^* = x$ and $(xy)^* = y^*x^*$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$. A ring \mathcal{R} equipped with an involution ‘ $*$ ’ is called a $*$ -ring. Let \mathcal{R} be a $*$ -ring. An additive mapping $d : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ is called a $*$ -derivation (resp. a Jordan $*$ -derivation) if $d(xy) = d(x)y^* + xd(y)$ (resp. $d(x^2) = d(x)x^* + xd(x)$) holds for all $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$. For instance, see [3, 11, 19, 22] and references therein for details on this topic. Inspiring by the definition of $*$ -ring, $*$ -derivation and Jordan $*$ -derivation, we introduce $(*, \star)$ -ring, $(*, \star)$ -derivation and Jordan $(*, \star)$ -derivation and then a characterization of Jordan $(*, \star)$ -derivations is presented. In order to characterize the Jordan $(*, \star)$ -derivations on the $(*, \star)$ -rings, we prove the following result. Let \mathcal{R} be an $n!$ -torsion free $(*, \star)$ -ring, $n > 1$ be an integer and let $d : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ be an additive mapping satisfying

$$d(a^n) = \sum_{j=1}^n a^{*n-j} d(a) a^{*j-1}$$

for all $a \in \mathcal{R}$. Then d is a Jordan $(*, \star)$ -derivation on \mathcal{R} .

2. Results and proofs

Throughout this section, without further mention, e stands for the unit element of any unital algebra or unital ring. Recall that an algebra (or ring) \mathcal{A} is called prime if for $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$, $a\mathcal{A}b = \{0\}$ implies $a = 0$ or $b = 0$, and is semiprime if for $a \in \mathcal{A}$, $a\mathcal{A}a = \{0\}$ implies $a = 0$. A ring \mathcal{R} is said to be n -torsion free, where $n > 1$ is an integer, if for any $x \in \mathcal{R}$, $nx = 0$ implies that $x = 0$. The center of an algebra (or ring) \mathcal{A} is

$$Z(\mathcal{A}) = \{c \in \mathcal{A} \mid ac = ca \text{ for all } a \in \mathcal{A}\}.$$

Here, we establish our first theorem.

Theorem 2.1. *Let \mathcal{A} be a unital semiprime Banach algebra and let $F, G : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be linear mappings satisfying*

$$F(x) = xG(x^{-1}) \tag{1}$$

for all $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$. Then $F = 0 = G$.

Proof. Let b be an arbitrary element of \mathcal{A} and let $n > 1$ be a real number such that $\|\frac{b}{n-1}\| < 1$. It is evident that $\|\frac{b}{n}\| < 1$, too. Letting $a = ne + b$, we have $\frac{a}{n} = e + \frac{b}{n} = e - \frac{-b}{n}$. Since $\|\frac{-b}{n}\| < 1$, it follows from [13, Theorem 1.4.2] that $e - \frac{-b}{n}$ is invertible and consequently, a is invertible. Similarly, we can show that $e - a$ is also an invertible element of \mathcal{A} . In the following, we use the well-known Hua identity $a^2 = a - (a^{-1} + (e - a)^{-1})^{-1}$. Applying (1), we have the following expressions:

$$\begin{aligned} F(a^2) &= F\left(a - \left(a^{-1} + (e - a)^{-1}\right)^{-1}\right) \\ &= F(a) - F\left(\left(a^{-1} + (e - a)^{-1}\right)^{-1}\right) \\ &= F(a) - \left(a^{-1} + (e - a)^{-1}\right)^{-1}G\left(a^{-1} + (e - a)^{-1}\right) \\ &= F(a) - \left(a^{-1} + (e - a)^{-1}\right)^{-1}G\left(a^{-1}\right) - \left(a^{-1} + (e - a)^{-1}\right)^{-1}G\left((e - a)^{-1}\right) \\ &= F(a) - \left(a^{-1} + (e - a)^{-1}\right)^{-1}a^{-1}F(a) - \left(a^{-1} + (e - a)^{-1}\right)^{-1}(e - a)^{-1}F(e - a) \\ &= F(a) - \left(e + a(e - a)^{-1}\right)^{-1}F(a) - \left(e + a^{-1} - e\right)^{-1}F(e - a) \\ &= F(a) - \left(e + a(e - a)^{-1}\right)^{-1}F(a) - aF(e - a) \\ &= F(a) - (e - a)F(a) - aF(e - a) \\ &= 2aF(a) - aF(e), \end{aligned}$$

which means that

$$F(a^2) = 2aF(a) - aF(e) \tag{2}$$

Therefore, we have $F(n^2e + 2nb + b^2) = 2(ne + b)F(ne + b) - (ne + b)F(e)$ and so,

$$F(b^2) - 2bF(b) + bF(e) = n^2F(e) + 2nbF(e) - nF(e). \tag{3}$$

Putting $b = 0$ in (3), we have $(n^2 - n)F(e) = 0$ which implies that $F(e) = 0$. Considering this fact along with (2), we get that $F(a^2) = 2aF(a)$ and since $a = ne + b$, we deduce that $F(b^2) = 2bF(b)$ for any $b \in \mathcal{A}$. Thus, F is a Jordan left derivation and since \mathcal{A} is a semiprime algebra, it follows from [25, Theorem 2] that F is a derivation mapping \mathcal{A} into $Z(\mathcal{A})$. Defining $H = F - G$, we have $H(x) = F(x) - G(x) = F(x) - xF(x^{-1})$ for any $x \in Inv(\mathcal{A})$. Clearly, $H(e) = 0$ and also for any invertible element $x \in \mathcal{A}$, we have the following statements:

$$xH(x^{-1}) = xF(x^{-1}) - F(x) = -H(x) = K(x).$$

According to the first part of the proof, $K(= -H)$ is a derivation mapping \mathcal{A} into $Z(\mathcal{A})$. Hence, $K(x) = -x^2K(x^{-1})$ for any $x \in Inv(\mathcal{A})$. This equation along with $K(x) = xF(x^{-1}) - F(x)$ ($x \in Inv(\mathcal{A})$) imply that

$$(e - x)xF(x^{-1}) = (e - x)F(x) \tag{4}$$

for any $x \in Inv(\mathcal{A})$. Replacing x by a in (4), we get that

$$(e - a)aF(a^{-1}) = (e - a)F(a).$$

Multiplying the above relation from the left by $(e - a)^{-1}$, we get that

$$F(a) = aF(a^{-1}) \tag{5}$$

Comparing (1) and (5), we infer that $F(a^{-1}) = G(a^{-1})$. We have $a^{-1}G(a) = G(a^{-1})$ and consequently, $G(a) = aG(a^{-1}) = F(a)$. Since $a = ne + b$ and $G(e) = F(e) = 0$, $F(b) = G(b)$ for any $b \in \mathcal{A}$ which means that $F = G$. This fact along with (1) imply that

$$F(x) = xF(x^{-1}) \tag{6}$$

for any $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$. Moreover, we know that F is a derivation mapping \mathcal{A} into $Z(\mathcal{A})$. So, for any $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$, we have

$$F(x) = -x^2F(x^{-1}) \quad (7)$$

Comparing (6) and (7), we see that $F(x^{-1}) = -xF(x^{-1})$. Replacing x by $-x$ in the previous equation, we obtain that $(\mathbf{e} - x)F(x^{-1}) = 0$ for any $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$. Replacing x by a in the former equation and using the assumption that $\mathbf{e} - a$ is an invertible element of \mathcal{A} , we get that $F(a^{-1}) = 0$ and it follows from (5) that $F(a) = 0$. Considering $a = n\mathbf{e} + b$ and using the fact that $F(\mathbf{e}) = 0$, we obtain that $0 = F(a) = F(n\mathbf{e} + b) = F(b)$ for any $b \in \mathcal{A}$, as desired. \square

There is a consequence of the above theorem as follows.

Corollary 2.2. *Let \mathcal{A} be a unital semiprime Banach algebra and let $F : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be a linear mapping satisfying*

$$F(x) = x[x^{-1}, y_0] \quad (8)$$

for any $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$ and some $y_0 \in \mathcal{A}$. Then $y_0 \in Z(\mathcal{A})$.

Proof. Defining $G : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ by $G(a) = [a, y_0]$, we see that $F(x) = xG(x^{-1})$ for any $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$. It follows from Theorem 2.1 that $F = G = 0$. Therefore, $[a, y_0] = 0$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$ which means that $y_0 \in Z(\mathcal{A})$. \square

[25, Theorem 5] asserts that if \mathcal{A} is a semisimple Banach algebra and $F, G : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ are linear mappings satisfying $F(x) = -x^2G(x^{-1})$ for all $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$, then $F = G$ and further, $F(a) = aF(\mathbf{e})$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. We extend that theorem as follows.

Theorem 2.3. *Let \mathcal{A} be a unital semiprime Banach algebra and let $F, G : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be linear mappings satisfying*

$$F(x) = -x^2G(x^{-1}) \quad (9)$$

for all $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$. Then both F and G are generalized (left) derivations on \mathcal{A} .

Proof. Let a be an arbitrary element of \mathcal{A} . Similar to what was mentioned in the proof of Theorem 2.1, we can choose a positive integer n such that both $b = n\mathbf{e} + a$ and $\mathbf{e} - b$ are invertible elements of \mathcal{A} . Now, suppose that $F(\mathbf{e}) = 0$. We have $F(\mathbf{e}) = 0$ if and only if $G(\mathbf{e}) = 0$. Note that $\mathbf{e} = (\mathbf{e} - b)(\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1} = (\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1} - b(\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1}$ and so, $b(\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1} = (\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1} - \mathbf{e}$ and also we have, $(\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1}b = (\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1} - \mathbf{e}$. Hence, $b(\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1} = (\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1}b$. It follows from (9) that $G(x^{-1}) = -x^{-2}F(x)$ for all $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$. Considering $c = (\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1}b$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} F(b) &= -b^2G(b^{-1}) = -b^2G(b^{-1} - \mathbf{e}) \\ &= -b^2G(b^{-1}(\mathbf{e} - b)) \\ &= -b^2G(((\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1}b)^{-1}) \\ &= -b^2G(c^{-1}) \\ &= -b^2(-c^{-2}F(c)) \\ &= b^2((\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1}b)^{-2}F(c) \\ &= b^2(((\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1}b)^{-1})^2F((\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1}b) \\ &= (\mathbf{e} - b)^2F((\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1} - \mathbf{e}) \\ &= (\mathbf{e} - b)^2F((\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1}), \end{aligned}$$

which means that

$$F(b) = (\mathbf{e} - b)^2F((\mathbf{e} - b)^{-1}) \quad (10)$$

Replacing b by $(e - b)$ in (10) and using the assumption that $F(e) = 0$, we obtain that

$$F(b) = -b^2F(b^{-1}) \tag{11}$$

Applying (9) and (11), we have $G(b) = -b^2F(b^{-1}) = F(b)$ and since $b = ne + a$, $G(a) = F(a)$. Since a is an arbitrary element of \mathcal{A} , $F = G$. This fact along with (9) imply that $F(x) = -x^2F(x^{-1})$ ($x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$) and it follows from the proof of [25, Theorem 5] that F is a Jordan left derivation on \mathcal{A} . Since \mathcal{A} is a semiprime algebra, [25, Theorem 2] implies that F is a derivation mapping \mathcal{A} into $Z(\mathcal{A})$. Now, we define a linear mapping $H : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ by $H(a) = G(a) - aG(e)$. Evidently, $H(e) = 0$ and also $-x^2H(x^{-1}) = -x^2G(x^{-1}) + xG(e)$. Consequently, we have

$$F(x) + xG(e) = -x^2H(x^{-1}) \tag{12}$$

for any $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$. Defining $K : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ by $K(a) = F(a) + aG(e)$, we have $K(x) = -x^2H(x^{-1})$ for any $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$. Obviously, K and H are linear mappings and $K(e) = H(e) = 0$. According to the first part of the proof, we infer that $K(a) = H(a)$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$, which means that $F(a) + aG(e) = G(a) - aG(e)$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Hence,

$$G - F = R_{2G(e)} \tag{13}$$

Since $F(x) = -x^2G(x^{-1})$ and $G(x) = -x^2F(x^{-1})$, one can easily get that $\mathfrak{L}(x) = -x^2\mathfrak{L}(x^{-1})$ for all $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$, where $\mathfrak{L} = F + G$. According to the proof of [25, Theorem 5], \mathfrak{L} is a Jordan left derivation and it follows from [25, Theorem 2] that \mathfrak{L} is a derivation mapping \mathcal{A} into $Z(\mathcal{A})$. Since $G - F = R_{2G(e)}$ and $F + G = \mathfrak{L}$, we deduce that

$$G = R_{G(e)} + \frac{1}{2}\mathfrak{L}, \tag{14}$$

which means that G is a generalized derivation on \mathcal{A} . Moreover, we have

$$F = \mathfrak{L} - G = \mathfrak{L} - R_{G(e)} - \frac{1}{2}\mathfrak{L} = \frac{1}{2}\mathfrak{L} - R_{G(e)} = \frac{1}{2}\mathfrak{L} + R_{-G(e)} = \frac{1}{2}\mathfrak{L} + R_{F(e)}. \tag{15}$$

It means that F is a generalized derivation on \mathcal{A} . It is clear that both F and G are generalized (left) derivations on \mathcal{A} . \square

In the following, there are some immediate consequences of the above theorem.

Corollary 2.4. [25, Theorem 5] *Let \mathcal{A} be a unital semisimple Banach algebra and let $F, G : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be linear mappings.*

(i) *If F and G satisfy $F(x) = -x^2G(x^{-1})$ for all $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$, then $F = -G$ and furthermore $F(a) = aF(e)$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$.*

(ii) *If F and G satisfy $F(x) = x^2G(x^{-1})$ for all $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$, then $F = G$ and furthermore $F(a) = aF(e)$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$.*

Proof. (i) It follows from Theorem 2.3 that $\mathfrak{L} = F + G$ and $F = \frac{1}{2}\mathfrak{L} + R_{F(e)}$, where \mathfrak{L} is a left derivation on \mathcal{A} mapping \mathcal{A} into $Z(\mathcal{A})$. According to [25, Theorem 4], $\mathfrak{L} = 0$. So, $F = -G$ and further $F(a) = aF(e)$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$.

(ii) Indeed, we can write $F(x) = -x^2(-G)(x^{-1})$ for all $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$. Now, part (i) completes the proof. \square

Corollary 2.5. *Let \mathcal{A} be a unital semiprime Banach algebra and let $f, g_1, g_2 : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be linear mappings satisfying $f(ab) = bg_1(a) + ag_2(b)$ for all $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$. Then f, g_1, g_2 are generalized derivations. In particular, if \mathcal{A} is semisimple, then f, g_1, g_2 are continuous.*

Proof. Clearly, we have $f(\mathbf{e}) = a^{-1}g_1(a) + ag_2(a^{-1})$ for all invertible elements $a \in \mathcal{A}$. A routine calculation shows that $g_2(a) - af(\mathbf{e}) = -a^2g_1(a^{-1})$ for any invertible element $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Defining a linear mapping $F_1 : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ by $F_1(b) = g_2(b) - bf(\mathbf{e})$ ($b \in \mathcal{A}$), we have

$$F_1(a) = -a^2g_1(a^{-1}),$$

for all invertible elements $a \in \mathcal{A}$. It follows from Theorem 2.3 that there exists a left derivation $\mathfrak{L}_1 : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ such that $g_1 = R_{g_1(\mathbf{e})} + \frac{1}{2}\mathfrak{L}_1$. We know that \mathfrak{L}_1 is a derivation mapping \mathcal{A} into $Z(\mathcal{A})$ and so g_1 is a generalized derivation. Reasoning like above, there exists a derivation $\mathfrak{L}_2 : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ mapping \mathcal{A} into $Z(\mathcal{A})$ such that $g_2 = R_{g_2(\mathbf{e})} + \frac{1}{2}\mathfrak{L}_2$, and so g_2 is a generalized derivation. Our next task is to show that f is a generalized derivation. Since $f = g_1 + R_{g_2(\mathbf{e})}$ and $g_1 = R_{g_1(\mathbf{e})} + \frac{1}{2}\mathfrak{L}_1$, we deduce that $f = \frac{1}{2}\mathfrak{L}_1 + R_{f(\mathbf{e})}$. Similarly, we have

$$f = R_{g_1(\mathbf{e})} + g_2 = R_{g_1(\mathbf{e})} + R_{g_2(\mathbf{e})} + \frac{1}{2}\mathfrak{L}_2 = \frac{1}{2}\mathfrak{L}_2 + R_{f(\mathbf{e})}.$$

Therefore, f is a generalized derivation associated with both \mathfrak{L}_1 and \mathfrak{L}_2 . If \mathcal{A} is semisimple, then in view of [23, Theorem 2.3.2], the derivations \mathfrak{L}_1 and \mathfrak{L}_2 are continuous and consequently, f , g_1 and g_2 are also continuous linear mappings. \square

Corollary 2.6. *Let \mathcal{A} be a unital semisimple Banach algebra and let $F, G : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be linear mappings satisfying*

$$[F(x), y] = x^2[G(x^{-1}), y] \tag{16}$$

for any $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$ and $y \in \mathcal{A}$. Then $F(\mathcal{A}), G(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq Z(\mathcal{A})$ and furthermore

- $F(a) = F(\mathbf{e})a + K(a)$,
- $G(a) = G(\mathbf{e})a + S(a)$,

where K and S are linear mappings from \mathcal{A} into $Z(\mathcal{A})$.

Proof. Let y_0 be an arbitrary element of \mathcal{A} . Defining the mappings $f, g : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ by $f(a) = [F(a), y_0]$ and $g(a) = [G(a), y_0]$, we see that $f(x) = x^2g(x^{-1})$ for all $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$. It follows from Corollary 2.4 that $f = g$ and $f(a) = af(\mathbf{e})$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Indeed, we have

$$[F(a), y_0] = [G(a), y_0], \tag{17}$$

and

$$[F(a), y_0] = a[F(\mathbf{e}), y_0] \tag{18}$$

It follows from (17) that $[F(a) - G(a), y_0] = 0$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$ and since y_0 is an arbitrary element of \mathcal{A} , $F(a) - G(a) \in Z(\mathcal{A})$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Now, suppose that $F(\mathbf{e}) \in Z(\mathcal{A})$. It follows from (18) that $[F(a), y_0] = 0$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$ and since y_0 is an arbitrary element of \mathcal{A} , $F(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq Z(\mathcal{A})$. Suppose that $H : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ is an additive mapping satisfying

$$[H(x), y] = x^2[F(x^{-1}) - x^{-1}F(\mathbf{e}), y] \tag{19}$$

for any $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$ and $y \in \mathcal{A}$. Therefore, we have

$$x^2[H(x^{-1}), y] = [F(x) - xF(\mathbf{e}), y] \tag{20}$$

for all $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$. Defining a linear mapping $K : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ by $K(a) = F(a) - aF(\mathbf{e})$, we have

$$[K(x), y] = x^2[H(x^{-1}), y] \tag{21}$$

for any $x \in \text{Inv}(\mathcal{A})$ and $y \in \mathcal{A}$. Clearly, $K(\mathbf{e}) \in Z(\mathcal{A})$ and based on the first part of the proof, $K(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq Z(\mathcal{A})$. Thus, $F(a) = aF(\mathbf{e}) + K(a)$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$, where K is a mapping from \mathcal{A} into $Z(\mathcal{A})$. According to (18), we have

$$[F(a), y] = a[F(\mathbf{e}), y] = [aF(\mathbf{e}), y] - [a, y]F(\mathbf{e})$$

Since $K(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq Z(\mathcal{A})$, we have

$$[y, a]F(\mathbf{e}) = [F(a) - aF(\mathbf{e}), y] = [K(a), y] = 0$$

for all $a, y \in \mathcal{A}$. We can deduce from [26, Lemma 1.3] that there exists an ideal \mathcal{I} of \mathcal{A} such that $F(\mathbf{e}) \in \mathcal{I} \subseteq Z(\mathcal{A})$. Using this fact along with (18), we obtain that $[F(a), y] = a[F(\mathbf{e}), y] = 0$ for all $a, y \in \mathcal{A}$ and so, $F(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq Z(\mathcal{A})$. Using the above argument, we get that $G(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq Z(\mathcal{A})$ and also there exists a linear mapping $S : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow Z(\mathcal{A})$ such that $G(a) = G(\mathbf{e})a + S(a)$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Moreover, note that there exists an ideal \mathcal{J} of \mathcal{A} such that $G(\mathbf{e}) \in \mathcal{J} \subseteq Z(\mathcal{A})$. Considering $F(\mathbf{e}) - G(\mathbf{e}) = \psi(\mathbf{e})$ and $\eta = L_{\psi(\mathbf{e})} + K - S : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow Z(\mathcal{A})$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} F(a) &= F(\mathbf{e})a + K(a) \\ &= (\psi(\mathbf{e}) + G(\mathbf{e}))a + K(a) \\ &= G(a) - S(a) + \psi(\mathbf{e})a + K(a) \\ &= G(a) + L_{\psi(\mathbf{e})}(a) + (K - S)(a) \\ &= G(a) + \eta(a). \end{aligned}$$

□

In the following theorem, we present another characterization of generalized derivations on semiprime algebras.

Theorem 2.7. *Let \mathcal{A} be a unital semiprime algebra and $n > 1$ be an integer. Let $f, g : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be linear mappings satisfying*

$$f(a^n) = na^{n-1}g(a) = ng(a)a^{n-1}$$

for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. If $g(\mathbf{e}) \in Z(\mathcal{A})$, then f and g are generalized derivations associated with the same derivation on \mathcal{A} .

Proof. According to the aforementioned assumption, we have

$$f(a^n) = na^{n-1}g(a), \quad a \in \mathcal{A}. \tag{22}$$

Let c be an arbitrary element of $Z(\mathcal{A})$. Replacing a by $a + c$ in (22), we have

$$f\left(\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} c^k\right) = n \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} a^{n-k-1} c^k (g(a) + g(c))$$

Using equation (22) and collecting together terms of the above-mentioned expressions involving the same number of factors of c , it is obtained that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \lambda_k(a, c) = 0, \quad a \in \mathcal{A}, \tag{23}$$

where

$$\lambda_k(a, c) = \binom{n}{k} f(a^{n-k} c^k) - (n - k) \binom{n}{k} c^k a^{n-k-1} g(a) - k \binom{n}{k} c^{k-1} a^{n-k} g(c).$$

Replacing c by $c, 2c, \dots, (n - 1)c$ in equation (23), we obtain a system of $(n - 1)$ homogeneous equations as follows:

$$\begin{cases} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \lambda_i(x, c) = 0, \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \lambda_i(x, 2c) = 0, \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \lambda_i(x, (n - 1)c) = 0. \end{cases}$$

We see that the coefficient matrix of the above system is:

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

We know that the determinant of a square Vandermonde matrix is nonzero, and it implies that the above-mentioned system has only a trivial solution. In particular, $\lambda_{n-2}(a, c) = 0$. So

$$0 = \lambda_{n-2}(a, c) = \binom{n}{n-2} f(a^2 c^{n-2}) - 2 \binom{n}{n-2} c^{n-2} a g(a) - (n - 2) \binom{n}{n-2} c^{n-3} a^2 g(c).$$

Therefore, we have

$$f(a^2 c^{n-2}) = 2c^{n-2} a g(a) + (n - 2) c^{n-3} a^2 g(c). \tag{24}$$

Putting $c = \mathbf{e}$ in (24) and defining the linear mapping $h : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ by $h(a) = 2g(a) + (n - 2)g(\mathbf{e})a$ ($a \in \mathcal{A}$), we get that

$$f(a^2) = 2ag(a) + (n - 2)a^2g(\mathbf{e}) = ah(a), \quad a \in \mathcal{A}. \tag{25}$$

Reasoning like above, we obtain that

$$f(a^2) = 2g(a)a + (n - 2)g(\mathbf{e})a^2 = h(a)a, \quad a \in \mathcal{A}. \tag{26}$$

Replacing a by $a + b$ in (25) and (26), we get that

$$f(ab + ba) = ah(b) + bh(a) = h(a)b + h(b)a, \quad a, b \in \mathcal{A}. \tag{27}$$

Hence, we have

$$2f(a \circ b) = h(a) \circ b + a \circ h(b),$$

for all $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$, where $a \circ b = ab + ba$. It follows from [6, Theorem 4.3] that f is a $\{\frac{h}{2}, \frac{h}{2}\}$ -derivation, which means that

$$f(ab) = \frac{h}{2}(a)b + a\frac{h}{2}(b) = g(a)b + ag(b) + (n - 2)g(\mathbf{e})ab, \quad a, b \in \mathcal{A}. \tag{28}$$

So, we have

$$f(a) = g(a) + (n - 1)g(\mathbf{e})a = (g + L_{(n-1)g(\mathbf{e})})(a), \quad a \in \mathcal{A}. \tag{29}$$

Comparing (28) and (29), we get that

$$g(ab) = g(a)b + ag(b) - g(\mathbf{e})ab, \quad a, b \in \mathcal{A}. \tag{30}$$

Considering $d = g - L_{g(\mathbf{e})}$ and using (30), we have the following expressions:

$$\begin{aligned} d(ab) &= g(ab) - g(\mathbf{e})ab \\ &= g(a)b + ag(b) - g(\mathbf{e})ab - g(\mathbf{e})ab \\ &= (g(a) - g(\mathbf{e})a)b + a(g(b) - g(\mathbf{e})b) \\ &= d(a)b + ad(b), \end{aligned}$$

which means that d is a derivation on \mathcal{A} . Therefore, g is a generalized derivation associated with the derivation d . It follows from (29) that

$$f = g + L_{(n-1)g(\mathbf{e})} = d + L_{g(\mathbf{e})} + L_{(n-1)g(\mathbf{e})} = d + L_{ng(\mathbf{e})},$$

which means that f is a generalized derivation associated with the derivation d on \mathcal{A} . This yields the desired result. \square

Corollary 2.8. *Let \mathcal{A} be a unital semisimple Banach algebra and let $n > 1$ be an integer. Let $f, g : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be linear mappings satisfying*

$$f(a^n) = na^{n-1}g(a) = ng(a)a^{n-1}$$

for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. If $g(\mathbf{e}) \in Z(\mathcal{A})$, then both f and g are continuous.

Proof. According to the previous theorem, there exists a derivation d on \mathcal{A} such that $f = d + L_{ng(\mathbf{e})}$ and $g = d + L_{g(\mathbf{e})}$. It follows from [23, Theorem 2.3.2] that derivation d is continuous and consequently, both f and g are continuous linear mappings on \mathcal{A} . \square

In the following, we are going to present a functional identity to characterize Jordan $(*, \star)$ -derivations. Let \mathcal{R} be a ring. An additive mapping $x \mapsto x^*$ of \mathcal{R} into itself is called an involution on \mathcal{R} if it satisfies the following conditions:

- (i) $(x^*)^* = x$,
- (ii) $(xy)^* = y^*x^*$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$.

A ring \mathcal{R} equipped with an involution $'*$ ' is called a $*$ -ring. Let \mathcal{R} be a $*$ -ring. An additive mapping $d : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ is called a $*$ -derivation (resp. a Jordan $*$ -derivation) if $d(xy) = d(x)y^* + xd(y)$ (resp. $d(x^2) = d(x)x^* + xd(x)$) holds for all $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$.

Definition 2.9. *Let $*$ and \star be involutions on \mathcal{R} . The ring \mathcal{R} is called a $(*, \star)$ -ring if it is both a $*$ -ring and a \star -ring.*

Now, we provide an example of a $(*, \star)$ -ring.

Example 2.10. *Let*

$$\mathcal{R} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \beta \end{bmatrix} : \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C} \right\}$$

Clearly, \mathcal{R} is a ring. Define the mappings $*, \star : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \beta \end{bmatrix}^* = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{\alpha} & 0 \\ 0 & \bar{\beta} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \beta \end{bmatrix}^\star = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{\beta} & 0 \\ 0 & \bar{\alpha} \end{bmatrix},$$

where \bar{z} is the conjugate of z for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$. A simple calculation shows that \mathcal{R} is a $(*, \star)$ -ring.

Definition 2.11. Let \mathcal{R} be a $(*, \star)$ -ring. An additive mapping $d : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ is called a $(*, \star)$ -derivation (resp. a Jordan $(*, \star)$ -derivation) on \mathcal{R} if $d(xy) = d(x)y^* + x^*d(y)$ (resp. $d(x^2) = d(x)x^* + x^*d(x)$) holds for all $x, y \in \mathcal{R}$.

Example 2.12. Let \mathcal{R} be a $(*, \star)$ -ring and let c be an arbitrary fixed element of \mathcal{R} . Then an additive mapping $d : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ defined by $d(x) = x^*c - cx^*$, is a Jordan $(*, \star)$ -derivation on \mathcal{R} . It is clear that, if \mathcal{R} is a commutative $(*, \star)$ -ring, then the additive mapping d is a $(*, \star)$ -derivation on \mathcal{R} .

In the next theorem, we present a characterization of Jordan $(*, \star)$ -derivations.

Theorem 2.13. Let \mathcal{R} be an $n!$ -torsion free $(*, \star)$ -ring, let $n > 1$ be an integer and let $d : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ be an additive mapping satisfying

$$d(a^n) = \sum_{j=1}^n a^{\star n-j} d(a) a^{\star j-1} \tag{31}$$

for all $a \in \mathcal{R}$. Then d is a Jordan $(*, \star)$ -derivation on \mathcal{R} .

Proof. Let c be an element of $Z(\mathcal{R})$ such that $c^* = c = c^*$ and $d(c) = 0$. Replacing a by $a + c$ in equation (31), we have

$$\begin{aligned} d\left(\sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} a^{n-i} c^i\right) &= \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\sum_{k_1=0}^{n-j} \binom{n-j}{k_1} a^{\star n-j-k_1} c^{k_1} d(a) \sum_{k_2=0}^{j-1} \binom{j-1}{k_2} a^{\star j-1-k_2} c^{k_2}\right) \\ &= \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k_1} a^{\star n-1-k_1} c^{k_1} d(a) + \\ &\quad \sum_{k_1=0}^{n-2} \binom{n-2}{k_1} a^{\star n-2-k_1} c^{k_1} d(a) \sum_{k_2=0}^1 \binom{1}{k_2} a^{\star 1-k_2} c^{k_2} + \\ &\quad \dots + \sum_{k_1=0}^1 \binom{1}{k_1} a^{\star 1-k_1} c^{k_1} d(a) \sum_{k_2=0}^{n-2} \binom{n-2}{k_2} a^{\star n-2-k_2} c^{k_2} + \\ &\quad d(a) \sum_{k_2=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k_2} a^{\star n-1-k_2} c^{k_2}. \end{aligned}$$

Rearranging the above relations with respect to involving equal number of factors of c , we arrive at

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \gamma_i(a, a^*, a^*, c) = 0, \tag{32}$$

where,

$$\gamma_i(a, a^*, a^*, c) = \binom{n}{i} d(a^{n-i} c^i) - \sum_{k=1}^{n-i} \binom{n}{i} a^{\star n-i-k} c^k d(a) a^{\star k-1}. \tag{33}$$

Replacing c by $c, 2c, 3c, \dots, (n-1)c$ in equation (32), we obtain a system of $n-1$ homogeneous equations as

follows:

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

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

$$\mathcal{V} = \begin{bmatrix} \binom{n}{1} & \binom{n}{2} & \binom{n}{3} & \dots & \binom{n}{n-1} \\ 2\binom{n}{1} & 2^2\binom{n}{2} & 2^3\binom{n}{3} & \dots & 2^{n-1}\binom{n}{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ (n-1)\binom{n}{1} & (n-1)^2\binom{n}{2} & (n-1)^3\binom{n}{3} & \dots & (n-1)^{n-1}\binom{n}{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

In view of the determinant of a square Vandermonde matrix, one can easily get that

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

It is evident that the determinant of \mathcal{V} is nonzero, i.e. $\det \mathcal{V} \neq 0$, and it implies that the system has only a trivial solution. In particular, $\gamma_{n-2}(a, a^*, a^*, c) = 0$. It means that

$$\binom{n}{n-2} d(a^2 c^{n-2}) - \sum_{k=1}^2 \binom{n}{n-2} a^{*2-k} c^{n-2} d(a) a^{*k-1} = 0. \tag{34}$$

Since \mathcal{R} is an $n!$ -torsion free ring, it follows from equation (34) that

$$d(a^2 c^{n-2}) = a^* c^{n-2} d(a) + c^{n-2} d(a) a^*. \tag{35}$$

Using the assumption that $\mathbf{e}^* = \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{e}^*$ along with equation (31), we get that $d(\mathbf{e}) = 0$. Replacing c by \mathbf{e} in equation (35), we obtain that $d(a^2) = d(a)a^* + a^*d(a)$ and it means that d is a Jordan $(*, \star)$ -derivation on \mathcal{R} . \square

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