

## $\sigma$ -Derivations on $\mathbb{C}[x]$

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**Abstract.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  be two algebras,  $\mathcal{X}$  be a  $\mathcal{B}$ -bimodule and  $\sigma : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$  be a linear mapping. A linear mapping  $d : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$  is called a  $\sigma$ -derivation if  $d(ab) = d(a)\sigma(b) + \sigma(a)d(b)$  for all  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ . In this paper we characterize all  $\sigma$ -derivations of  $\mathbb{C}[x]$  in terms of  $d(x)$ ,  $\sigma(x)$  and  $\sigma(x^2)$ . We also characterize all linear mappings  $\sigma$  which possesses a nonzero  $\sigma$ -derivation.

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### 1. INTRODUCTION

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  be two algebras,  $\mathcal{X}$  be a  $\mathcal{B}$ -bimodule and  $\sigma : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$  be a linear mapping. A linear mapping  $d : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$  is called a  $\sigma$ -derivation if  $d(ab) = d(a)\sigma(b) + \sigma(a)d(b)$  for all  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ . These maps have been extensively investigated in pure algebra. Recently, they have been treated in the Banach algebra theory; see [4, 11, 12, 13] and references therein. Though this notion is a generalization of derivations, this is not the only one. Some other generalizations can be found in [3] and [7] which is studied in the realm of analysis and algebra. The study of theory of derivations in operator algebras is motivated by questions in quantum physics and statistical mechanics, cf. [1, 2]. There are some applications of  $\sigma$ -derivations to develop an approach to deformations of

Lie algebras which have many applications in models of quantum phenomena and in analysis of complex systems; cf. [5].

A wide range of examples are as follows:

- (i) Every ordinary derivation of an algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  into  $\mathcal{A}$  is an  $I_{\mathcal{A}}$ -derivation, where  $I_{\mathcal{A}}$  denotes the identity map on the algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ ;
- (ii) Every endomorphism  $\alpha$  on an algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $\frac{\alpha}{2}$ -derivation;
- (iii) For a given homomorphism  $\rho$  on an algebra  $\mathcal{A}$  and a fixed arbitrary element  $a_0$  in  $\mathcal{A}$ , the linear mapping  $d(a) = [a_0, \rho(a)] = a_0\rho(a) - \rho(a)a_0$  is a  $\rho$ -derivation of  $\mathcal{A}$  which is said to be an inner  $\rho$ -derivation.
- (iv) Every point derivation  $d : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  at the character  $\theta$  is a  $\theta$ -derivation.

Among well-known problems, the problem of automatic continuity of  $\sigma$ -derivations is studied in [9], some problems concerning  $\sigma$ -dynamics are studied in [11] and  $\sigma$ -amenability is considered in [10]. See also [6] for an approach to continuity of generalized derivations without linearity.

If  $\sigma$  is the identity mapping on  $\mathcal{A}$  then a  $\sigma$ -derivation is an ordinary derivation. As an example of a  $\sigma$ -derivation which is not ordinary, we can consider an automorphism  $\alpha : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  regarded as an  $\frac{\alpha}{2}$ -derivation. This shows that the theory of  $\sigma$ -derivations links the theory of derivations and automorphisms to each other and this is a reason that we are interested in the study of  $\sigma$ -derivations. Naturally, we are interested to generalize the classical results concerning derivations to  $\sigma$ -derivations.

Here, we are interested in  $\sigma$ -derivations on  $\mathbb{C}[x]$ , the algebra of all polynomials over  $\mathbb{C}$ . Note that if  $d : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  is an ordinary derivation, then  $d(f) = f'd(x)$  for each  $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ . Whence  $d$  is precisely determined by  $d(x)$ .

We assume that  $\sigma : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  is a linear mapping. The importance of our approach is that  $\sigma$  is a linear mapping in general, not necessarily an algebra homomorphism. We show that each  $\sigma$ -derivation  $d : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  is precisely determined by  $d(x)$ ,  $\sigma(x)$  and  $\sigma(x^2)$ . This poses the problem of characterizing all linear mappings  $\sigma$  which possesses a nonzero  $\sigma$ -derivation  $d$ . These mappings are called derivable and we will characterize them in terms of  $\sigma(x)$  and  $\sigma(x^2)$ . Furthermore, all derivable mappings that are homomorphisms, all  $\sigma$ -derivations that are homomorphisms and all  $\sigma$ -derivations that are ordinary derivations are characterized. Moreover, as an illustration of the discussion, a non-trivial example is given. A discussion about  $(\sigma, \tau)$ -derivations on  $\mathbb{C}[x]$  and  $\mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  is also given. For a nice result concerning local derivations on  $\mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  one can see [8].

## 2. THE RESULTS

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  be two algebras,  $\mathcal{X}$  be a  $\mathcal{B}$ -bimodule and  $\sigma : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$  be a linear mapping. A linear mapping  $d : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$  is called a  $\sigma$ -derivation if  $d(ab) = d(a)\sigma(b) + \sigma(a)d(b)$  for all  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ . In this paper we consider derivations on  $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{C}[x]$ , the algebra of all polynomials over  $\mathbb{C}$ . Thus we assume that  $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{B} = \mathcal{A} = \mathbb{C}[x]$  and  $\sigma : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  is a linear mapping.

If  $\sigma = I$ , the identity mapping on  $\mathbb{C}[x]$ , then a  $\sigma$ -derivation is an ordinary derivation. As an example of a  $\sigma$ -derivation which is not ordinary, put  $\sigma(f) = \frac{f}{2}$  and  $d(f) = ff_0$  on  $\mathbb{C}[x]$ , where  $f_0$  is an arbitrary nonzero element of  $\mathbb{C}[x]$ . Note that  $d$  is not an automorphism. Also note that  $d(1) \neq 0$  and  $\sigma(1) \neq 1$ .

Let  $d : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  be a  $\sigma$ -derivation. Then  $d(1) = d(1^2) = 2d(1)\sigma(1)$ . Thus  $(2\sigma(1) - 1)d(1) = 0$ . This implies that  $2\sigma(1) - 1$  and  $d(1)$  are polynomials of degree 0.

**Proposition 2.1.** *Let  $d : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  be a  $\sigma$ -derivation with  $d(1) = \lambda$ , where  $\lambda$  is a nonzero complex number. Then  $2\sigma$  is a homomorphism and  $d = 2\sigma$ .*

*Proof.* We have  $(2\sigma(1) - 1)\lambda = (2\sigma(1) - 1)d(1) = 0$ . Thus  $2\sigma(1) = 1$  and so

$$2d(f) = 2d(f)\sigma(1) + 2\sigma(f)d(1) = d(f) + 2\sigma(f)$$

for all  $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ . This implies that  $d = 2\sigma$ . Now we have

$$2\sigma(fg) = d(fg) = d(f)\sigma(g) + \sigma(f)d(g) = (2\sigma(f))(2\sigma(g))$$

for all  $f, g \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ . Hence  $2\sigma$  is a homomorphism.  $\square$

Under the above discussion, from now on we assume that  $d(1) = 0$ .

**Lemma 2.2.** *Let  $d : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  be a  $\sigma$ -derivation. If  $d_k = d(x^k)$  and  $s_k = \sigma(x^k)$  for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , then*

- (i)  $d_{k+\ell} = d_k s_\ell + s_k d_\ell$ ;
- (ii)  $(s_k - s_1 s_{k-1})d_1 = d_{k-1}(s_2 - s_1^2)$ ;
- (iii)  $d_k = d_1 \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} s_1^{k-1-i} s_i$ ;
- (iv)  $s_k d_1 = [s_1 s_{k-1} + (s_2 - s_1^2) \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} s_1^{k-2-i} s_i]d_1$ ;
- (v)  $s_k d_1 = [2s_1 s_{k-1} + (s_2 - 2s_1^2)s_{k-2}]d_1$ .

*Proof.* (i) We have

$$d_{k+\ell} = d(x^{k+\ell}) = d(x^k x^\ell) = d(x^k)\sigma(x^\ell) + \sigma(x^k)d(x^\ell) = d_k s_\ell + s_k d_\ell.$$

(ii) By (i) we can write

$$(d_{k-1}s_1 + s_{k-1}d_1)s_1 + s_k d_1 = d_{k+1} = d_{k-1}s_2 + s_{k-1}d_2 = d_{k-1}s_2 + 2s_{k-1}s_1 d_1,$$

which implies (ii).

(iii) We use induction on  $k$ . For  $k = 1$ , the result is obvious. Let (iii) be true for  $k$ . Thus

$$d_{k+1} = d_k s_1 + s_k d_1 = s_1 d_1 \left( \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} s_1^{k-1-i} s_i \right) + s_k d_1 = d_1 \left( \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} s_1^{k-i} s_i + s_k \right) = d_1 \sum_{i=0}^k s_1^{k-i} s_i.$$

(iv) This is obvious by (ii) and (iii).

(v) By (iv) we have  $s_{k-1} d_1 = [s_1 s_{k-2} + (s_2 - s_1^2) \sum_{i=0}^{k-3} s_1^{k-3-i} s_i] d_1$  and so

$$\begin{aligned} [s_1 s_{k-1} + (s_2 - 2s_1^2) s_{k-2}] d_1 &= [s_1^2 s_{k-2} + (s_2 - s_1^2) \sum_{i=0}^{k-3} s_1^{k-2-i} s_i \\ &\quad + (s_2 - s_1^2) s_{k-2} - s_1^2 s_{k-2}] d_1 \\ &= [(s_2 - s_1^2) \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} s_1^{k-2-i} s_i] d_1. \end{aligned}$$

Now we can write

$$\begin{aligned} s_k d_1 &= [s_1 s_{k-1} + (s_2 - s_1^2) \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} s_1^{k-2-i} s_i] d_1 \\ &= [s_1 s_{k-1} + s_1 s_{k-1} + (s_2 - 2s_1^2) s_{k-2}] d_1 \\ &= [2s_1 s_{k-1} + (s_2 - 2s_1^2) s_{k-2}] d_1. \end{aligned}$$

□

In the following lemma we symbolically use a matrix representation to have a simple recursive formula for  $s_k$ .

**Lemma 2.3.** *Let  $d : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  be a  $\sigma$ -derivation. If  $d_k = d(x^k)$ ,  $s_k = \sigma(x^k)$  and*

$$S_k = \begin{bmatrix} s_k & s_{k-1} \\ s_{k-1} & s_{k-2} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } T = \begin{bmatrix} 2s_1 & 1 \\ s_2 - 2s_1^2 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

then for each natural number  $k \geq 3$  we have  $d_1 S_k = d_1 S_3 T^{k-3}$ .

*Proof.* We use induction on  $k$ . For  $k = 3$  the assertion is obvious. If  $d_1 S_k = d_1 S_3 T^{k-3}$  then, by (v) of Lemma 2.2,

$$\begin{aligned} d_1 S_{k+1} &= d_1 \begin{bmatrix} s_{k+1} & s_k \\ s_k & s_{k-1} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= d_1 \begin{bmatrix} 2s_1 s_k + (s_2 - 2s_1^2) s_{k-1} & s_k \\ 2s_1 s_{k-1} + (s_2 - 2s_1^2) s_{k-2} & s_{k-1} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= d_1 \begin{bmatrix} s_k & s_{k-1} \\ s_{k-1} & s_{k-2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2s_1 & 1 \\ s_2 - 2s_1^2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= d_1 S_k T = d_1 (S_3 T^{k-3}) T = d_1 S_3 T_{k-2}. \end{aligned}$$

□

We can summarize our results as follows:

**Theorem 2.4.** *Let  $d : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  be a  $\sigma$ -derivation. Then for each  $f = \sum_{k=0}^m \gamma_k x^k \in \mathbb{C}[x]$  we have  $d(f) = \sum_{k=1}^m \gamma_k d_k$ , where  $d_k = d_1 \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} s_1^{k-1-i} s_i$  and  $s_k$ 's are determined by the recursive relation*

$$d_1 \begin{bmatrix} s_k & s_{k-1} \\ s_{k-1} & s_{k-2} \end{bmatrix} = d_1 \begin{bmatrix} 3s_1 s_2 - 2s_1^3 & s_2 \\ s_2 & s_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2s_1 & 1 \\ s_2 - 2s_1^2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{k-3}.$$

Note that the definition of  $d$  is just related to  $s_1, s_2$  and  $d_1$ . Indeed, we can say that each  $\sigma$ -derivation is determined by these three polynomials. For each three arbitrary polynomials  $s_1, s_2$  and  $d_1$ , is the mapping  $d$  defined as above a  $\sigma$ -derivation? We affirmatively answer this question.

Suppose that  $\sigma : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  is a linear mapping. Then  $\sigma$  is called derivable if there is a nonzero linear mapping  $d : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  such that  $d$  is a  $\sigma$ -derivation. Our arguments show that if  $\sigma$  is derivable, then it is uniquely determined by  $s_1 = \sigma(x)$  and  $s_2 = \sigma(x^2)$ . Furthermore, we have the following result.

**Proposition 2.5.** *A derivable mapping  $\sigma : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  is a homomorphism if and only if  $\sigma(1) = 1$  and  $\sigma(x^2) = \sigma(x)^2$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose that  $s_1 = \sigma(x)$ ,  $s_2 = \sigma(x^2)$  and  $s_2 = s_1^2$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} s_k & s_{k-1} \\ s_{k-1} & s_{k-2} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 3s_1s_2 - 2s_1^3 & s_2 \\ s_2 & s_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2s_1 & 1 \\ s_2 - 2s_1^2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{k-3} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} s_1^3 & s_1^2 \\ s_1^2 & s_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2s_1 & 1 \\ -s_1^2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{k-3} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} s_1^4 & s_1^3 \\ s_1^3 & s_1^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2s_1 & 1 \\ -s_1^2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{k-4} \\ &= \dots \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} s_1^k & s_1^{k-1} \\ s_1^{k-1} & s_1^{k-2} \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence if  $f = \sum_{k=0}^m \gamma_k x^k \in \mathbb{C}[x]$  then  $\sigma(f) = \sum_{k=0}^m \gamma_k s_1^k$ . This shows that

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma \left( \left( \sum_{k=0}^m \gamma_k x^k \right) \left( \sum_{\ell=0}^n \lambda_\ell x^\ell \right) \right) &= \sigma \left( \sum_{i=0}^{n+m} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^i \gamma_k \lambda_{i-k} \right] x^i \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{n+m} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^i \gamma_k \lambda_{i-k} \right] s_1^i \\ &= \left( \sum_{k=0}^m \gamma_k s_1^k \right) \left( \sum_{\ell=0}^n \lambda_\ell s_1^\ell \right) \\ &= \sigma \left( \sum_{k=0}^m \gamma_k x^k \right) \sigma \left( \sum_{\ell=0}^n \lambda_\ell x^\ell \right), \end{aligned}$$

where  $s_1^0 = \sigma(1) = 1$ . Thus  $\sigma$  is a homomorphism. The converse is trivial.  $\square$

**Theorem 2.6.** *Let  $\sigma : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  be a linear mapping and  $s_k = \sigma(x^k)$ . Then  $\sigma$  is derivable if and only if  $S_k = S_3 T^{k-3}$  for each  $k \geq 3$ , where*

$$S_k = \begin{bmatrix} s_k & s_{k-1} \\ s_{k-1} & s_{k-2} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } T = \begin{bmatrix} 2s_1 & 1 \\ s_2 - 2s_1^2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

*Proof.* Let  $S_k = S_3 T^{k-3}$  or equivalently  $s_k = s_1 s_{k-1} + (s_2 - s_1^2) \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} s_1^{k-2-i} s_i$ . For arbitrary function  $d_1$  in  $\mathbb{C}[x]$  with  $d_1 \neq 0$ , define  $d : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  by

$$d \left( \sum_{k=0}^m \gamma_k x^k \right) = \sum_{k=1}^m \gamma_k d_k,$$

where  $d_k = d_1 \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} s_1^{k-1-i} s_i$ . Then we can inductively prove that  $d_{k+1} = d_k s_1 + s_k d_1$ , and this inductively implies that  $d_{k+l} = d_k s_l + s_k d_l$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} d \left( \left( \sum_{k=0}^m \gamma_k x^k \right) \left( \sum_{\ell=0}^n \lambda_\ell x^\ell \right) \right) &= d \left( \sum_{i=0}^{n+m} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^i \gamma_k \lambda_{i-k} \right] x^i \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n+m} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^i \gamma_k \lambda_{i-k} \right] d_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n+m} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^i \gamma_k \lambda_{i-k} (d_k s_{i-k} + s_k d_{i-k}) \right] \\ &= \left( \sum_{k=1}^m \gamma_k d_k \right) \left( \sum_{\ell=0}^n \lambda_\ell s_\ell \right) + \left( \sum_{k=0}^m \gamma_k s_k \right) \left( \sum_{\ell=1}^n \lambda_\ell d_\ell \right) \\ &= d \left( \sum_{k=0}^m \gamma_k x^k \right) \sigma \left( \sum_{\ell=0}^n \lambda_\ell x^\ell \right) \\ &\quad + \sigma \left( \sum_{k=0}^m \gamma_k x^k \right) d \left( \sum_{\ell=0}^n \lambda_\ell x^\ell \right). \end{aligned}$$

The converse is clear. □

*Remark 2.7.* The recursive relation  $d_1 S_k = d_1 S_3 T^{k-3}$  has some other consequences. For example, taking determinant of both sides of the relation we have  $d_1 (s_k s_{k-2} - s_{k-1}^2) = d_1 (3s_1^2 s_2 - 2s_1^4 - s_2^2) (2s_1^2 - s_2)^{k-3}$ . This again implies that if  $s_2 = s_1^2$  then  $s_k s_{k-2} - s_{k-1}^2 = 0$  which yields  $s_k = s_1^k$ .

**Corollary 2.8.** *A  $\sigma$ -derivation  $d : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  is a homomorphism if and only if  $\sigma = \frac{d}{2}$ .*

*Proof.*  $d$  is a homomorphism if and only if  $d_k = d_1^k$ . On the other hand,  $d_1^2 = d_2 = 2d_1 s_1$ . Hence  $s_1 = \frac{d_1}{2}$ . Thus  $d_1^{k-1} s_1 + s_{k-1} d_1 = d_k = d_1^k$  and so

$$s_{k-1} d_1 = d_1^k - d_1^{k-1} s_1 = d_1^k - d_1^{k-1} \frac{d_1}{2} = \frac{d_1^k}{2}.$$

This implies that  $s_k = \frac{d_1^k}{2} = \frac{d_k}{2}$ . Thus  $\sigma = \frac{d}{2}$ .

Conversely, each homomorphism  $d$  is obviously a  $\frac{d}{2}$ -derivation. □

**Corollary 2.9.** *A nonzero  $\sigma$ -derivation  $d : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  is an ordinary derivation if and only if  $\sigma(x) = x$  and  $\sigma(x^2) = x^2$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $d(fg) = d(f)\sigma(g) + \sigma(f)d(g)$  and  $d(fg) = d(f)g + fd(g)$  for each  $f, g \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ . Then we must have

$$d(f)(\sigma(g) - g) + d(g)(\sigma(f) - f) = 0,$$

and so for  $f = g = x$  we have  $2d(x)(\sigma(x) - x) = 0$  or equivalently  $\sigma(x) = x$ . Also for  $f = x$  and  $g = x^2$  we have  $d(x)(\sigma(x^2) - x^2) + d(x^2)(\sigma(x) - x) = 0$  or equivalently  $d(x)(\sigma(x^2) - x^2) = 0$  which implies that  $\sigma(x^2) = x^2$ . The converse is obvious.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.10.** *A nonzero  $\sigma$ -derivation  $d : \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x]$  is an ordinary derivation if and only if  $d(x^2) = 2xd(x)$  and  $d(x^3) = 3x^2d(x)$ .*

*Proof.* We have  $\sigma(x) = x$  and  $\sigma(x^2) = x^2$  if and only if  $d(x^2) = 2xd(x)$  and  $d(x^3) = 3x^2d(x)$ .  $\square$

As we noticed, we can arbitrarily choose  $s_1, s_2$  and a nonzero  $d_1$  to construct a derivable mapping  $\sigma$  and its relative  $\sigma$ -derivation  $d$ . To illustrate this, let us give an example.

**Example 2.11.** Suppose that  $\sigma(1) = 1, s_1 = \frac{x}{2}$  and  $s_2 = 2s_1^2$ , so that  $\sigma$  is not a homomorphism. We have  $T = \begin{bmatrix} x & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and so  $T^k = \begin{bmatrix} x^k & x^{k-1} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ . Thus we can write

$$\begin{aligned} S_k = S_3 T^{k-3} &= \begin{bmatrix} 3s_1s_2 - 2s_1^3 & s_2 \\ s_2 & s_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x^{k-3} & x^{k-4} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x^3}{2} & \frac{x^2}{2} \\ \frac{x^2}{2} & \frac{x}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x^{k-3} & x^{k-4} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x^k}{2} & \frac{x^{k-1}}{2} \\ \frac{x^{k-1}}{2} & \frac{x^{k-2}}{2} \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $\sigma(x^k) = \frac{x^k}{2}$  and so  $\sigma(f) = \frac{f+f(0)}{2}$ , since  $\sigma(1) = 1$ . On the other hand,

$$d_k = d_{k-1}s_1 + s_{k-1}d_1 = d_{k-1}\frac{x}{2} + \frac{x^{k-1}}{2}d_1,$$

and we can inductively deduce that  $d_k = x^k d_1$ . Thus  $d(f) = [f - f(0)]d_1$ , since  $d(1) = 0$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned} d(fg) &= [fg - f(0)g(0)]d_1 \\ &= [f - f(0)]d_1 \left( \frac{g + g(0)}{2} \right) + \left( \frac{f + f(0)}{2} \right) [g - g(0)]d_1 \\ &= d(f)\sigma(g) + \sigma(f)d(g). \end{aligned}$$

*Remark 2.12.* Let  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  be two algebras,  $\mathcal{X}$  be a  $\mathcal{B}$ -bimodule and  $\sigma, \tau : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$  be two linear mappings. A linear mapping  $d : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$  is called a  $(\sigma, \tau)$ -derivation if  $d(ab) = d(a)\sigma(b) + \tau(a)d(b)$  for all  $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ . If  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  are involutive algebras and  $\sigma, \tau, d$  preserve  $*$  then using the fact that  $d(b^*a^*) = d(ab)^* = \sigma(b^*)d(a^*) + d(b^*)\tau(a^*)$  we can conclude that  $d$  is also a  $(\tau, \sigma)$ -derivation and so it is  $(\frac{\sigma+\tau}{2}, \frac{\sigma+\tau}{2})$ -derivation. Hence in the case of  $*$ -linear mappings we can study  $\sigma$ -derivations instead of  $(\sigma, \tau)$ -derivations. As  $\mathbb{C}[x]$  can be regarded as an involutive algebra, our results hold for  $(\sigma, \tau)$ -derivations on  $\mathbb{C}[x]$ , provided that  $\sigma, \tau$  and  $d$  preserve  $*$ .

*Remark 2.13.* Let  $\sigma : \mathbb{C}[x, y] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x, y]$  be a linear mapping and  $d : \mathbb{C}[x, y] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x, y]$  be a  $\sigma$ -derivation. Since  $d(x^k y^\ell) = d(x^k)\sigma(y^\ell) + \sigma(x^k)d(y^\ell)$ , we can determine  $d$  by  $d(x), d(y), \sigma(x), \sigma(y)$  and  $\sigma(x^2), \sigma(y^2)$ . This shows that if  $\sigma : \mathbb{C}[x, \dots, x_n] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  is a linear mapping and  $d : \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  is a  $\sigma$ -derivation, then  $d$  can be determined by  $d(x_1), \dots, d(x_n), \sigma(x_1), \dots, \sigma(x_n)$  and  $\sigma(x_1^2), \dots, \sigma(x_n^2)$ .

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