IDENTITIES WHICH IMPLY THAT A RING IS BOOLEAN

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The following theorem is proved: In a unitary ring of characteristic 2 the identity $x^n = x$ implies that the ring is Boolean if and only if n - 1 is not divisible by $2^p - 1$ for any prime p.

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For some time problems of the sort "Show that in a unitary ring the identity $x^6 = x$, or the identity $x^{12} = x$ implies that $x^2 = x$ " appeared in the literature (cf. Năstăsescu *et al.* [3], Problem A19, p. 88, Năstăsescu *et al.* [4], Problem 64, Capitolul XXI, p. 126). On the other hand, the identity $x^{10} = x$ does not imply that $x^2 = x$ as the example of the Galois field of four elements \mathbb{F}_4 readily shows.

This naturally gives rise to the question: In a unitary ring, for which n does the identity $x^{2n} = x$ imply that the ring is Boolean? More generally, which polynomial identities imply that a ring is Boolean?

The following results answer these questions, the second one for rings of characteristic 2, the first one completely.

Theorem 1. In a unitary ring R of characteristic 2 the polynomial identity f(x) = 0 implies that the ring is Boolean if and only if $x^2 + x$ is the greatest common divisor of some polynomials $f(g_i(x))$, where $g_i \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$ $(1 \le i \le k)$.

Theorem 2. In a unitary ring R of characteristic 2 the identity $x^n = x$ implies that the ring is Boolean if and only if n - 1 is not divisible by $2^p - 1$ for any prime p.

Theorem 2 has already been proved by Hansen, Luh and Ye [1], as pointed out by an anonymous referee. Our proof, based on Theorem 1, is different.

Corollary 1. In a unitary ring R the identity $x^{2n} = x$ implies that the ring is Boolean if and only if 2n - 1 is not divisible by $2^p - 1$ for any prime p.

Corollary 2. The number N(x) of integers $n \le x$ satisfying the conditions of Corollary 1 is

$$C_2x + O\left(e^{\frac{logx}{loglogx-1}}\right)$$
,

where

$$C_2 = \prod_{p \in P} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^p - 1} \right) \approx 0.54830083128209840767764049152267,$$

and P denotes the set of (positive) primes.

Proof of Theorem 1. Necessity. Let us order all elements of $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$ in a sequence $g_1 = x, g_2, \dots$ and put

$$d_k = GCD(f(g_1), \dots, f(g_k)) \ (k = 1, 2, \dots).$$

Since $d_{k+1}|d_k$ and d_1 has only finitely many divisors, there exists an integer n such that

$$d_n|f(g(x))$$
 for all $g \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$. (1)

Since f(g(0)) = f(g(1)) = 0 for all $g \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$, we have

$$x^2 + x | d_n$$
.

If now $x^2 + x \neq d_n$, it follows that

$$x^2 + x \not\equiv 0 \mod d_n. \tag{2}$$

Take for R the residue ring of $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$ mod d_n . By (1) we have f(a) = 0 for every $a \in R$, while by (2) $x^2 + x \neq 0$ in R.

Sufficiency. By the Euclidean property of the g.c.d., there exist $u_i \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$ such that

$$x^2 + x = \sum_{i} u_i(x) f(g_i(x)),$$

hence f(x) = 0 for every x in R implies $x^2 + x = 0$.

Proof of Theorem 2. Necessity. If $2^p - 1 | n - 1$ we have for every $g \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$

$$q^{2^p} + q|q^n + q$$
.

Since, by the property of \mathbb{F}_{2^p} ,

$$h|a^{2^p}+a$$

for every irreducible polynomial $h \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$ of degree p, it follows that

$$h|g^n+g$$

and, by Theorem 1, n has not the required property.

Sufficiency. Let

$$x^{n} + x = x(1+x)^{m} \prod_{i=1}^{k} f_{i}(x)$$

be the factorization of the polynomial $x^n + x$ into irreducible factors over \mathbb{F}_2 , and let $d_i = \deg f_i \geq 2$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$ (k may be zero). Let p_i be a prime factor of d_i . Since the multiplicative group of $\mathbb{F}_{2^{d_i}}$ is cyclic, there exists a polynomial $g_i \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{d_i}}[x]$ such that

$$g_i \not\equiv 0 \mod f_i \tag{3}$$

$$g_i^e \equiv 1 \mod f_i \Rightarrow e \equiv 0 \mod d_i$$
 (4)

Consider now the greatest common divisor d of the polynomials

$$x^{n} + x, (x+1)^{n} + x + 1, g_{1}^{n} + g_{1}, \dots, g_{k}^{n} + g_{k}.$$

Clearly $x^2 + x | d$. On the other hand

$$(x+1)^2 / (x+1)^n + x + 1$$

and, since $2^{p_i} - 1|n-1$, by (3) and (4) we obtain

$$f_i \chi q_i^n + q_i$$

Hence $d = x^2 + x$ and, by Theorem 1, n has the required property.

Remark 1. Theorems 1 and 2 carry over to ℓ -rings (for definition see [2], p.144). The number 2 has to be replaced by ℓ and the polynomial $x^2 + x$ by $x^{\ell} - x$.

Proof of Corollary 1. Since $-x = (-x)^{2n} = x^{2n} = x$, the ring has characteristic 2 and the assertion follows at once from Theorem 2.

Proof of Corollary 2. Let p_i be the *i*-th prime and define k by the inequality

$$p_k \le \frac{\log 2x}{\log 2} < p_{k+1}. \tag{5}$$

For $n \leq x$ we have

$$2n - 1 \le 2x - 1 \le 2^{p_k + 1} - 1 \tag{6}$$

and hence $2p_i-1$ /(2n-1) for i>k. Moreover $GCD(2^{p_i}-1,2^{q_j}-1)=1$, for $i\neq j$. Since for D odd, the number of $n\leq x$ satisfying D|2n-1 is $\left\lfloor \frac{x+(D-1)/2}{D}\right\rfloor$, we have

$$N(x) = \sum_{d|p_1 \cdots p_k} \mu(d) \left[\frac{x + (\prod_{p|d} (2^p - 1) - 1)/2}{\prod_{p|d} (2^p - 1)} \right] = x \sum_{d|p_1 \cdots p_k} \frac{\mu(d)}{\prod_{p|d} (2^p - 1)} + O(2^k),$$
(7)

where μ is the Möbius function. Now,

$$\sum_{d|p_1\cdots p_k} \frac{\mu(d)}{\prod_{p|d} (2^p - 1)} = \prod_{i=1}^k \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^{p_i} - 1}\right) = C_2 \prod_{i=k+1}^\infty \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^{p_i} - 1}\right)^{-1} \tag{8}$$

and by (6)

$$1 \le \prod_{i=k+1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^{p_i} - 1} \right)^{-1} = \exp\left(-\sum_{i=k+1}^{\infty} \log\left(1 - \frac{1}{2^{p_i} - 1} \right) \right)$$

$$\le \exp\sum_{i=k+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{p_i} - 1} \le \exp\frac{2}{2^{p_{k+1}} - 2} \le \exp\frac{2}{2x - 2} = 1 + O\left(\frac{1}{x}\right). \tag{9}$$

On the other hand, by (5) and the strong form of the prime number theorem, we get that for every $\epsilon > 0$ and $x > x_0(\epsilon)$

$$k \leq \frac{p_k}{log p_k - 1 - \epsilon} \leq \frac{log 2x/log 2}{log log 2x - log log 2 - 1 - \epsilon}$$

and hence for $x > x_0(-loglog2)$

$$2^{k} \le \exp\left(\frac{log2x}{loglog2x - 1}\right) = O\left(\exp\left(\frac{logx}{loglogx - 1}\right)\right). \tag{10}$$

Now the corollary follows from (7)-(10).

Remark 2. In the case of ℓ -rings the constant C_2 is replaced by

$$C_{\ell} = \frac{\ell - 2}{\ell - 1} + \frac{1}{\ell - 1} \prod_{p \in P} \left(1 - \frac{\ell - 1}{\ell^p - 1} \right).$$

It is easy to obtain numerical results about these constants, e.g. $C_3 \approx 0,842974678, C_5 \approx$ $0,951602563, C_7 \approx 0,976555991, C_{11} \approx 0,990971747, ..., C_{37} \approx 0,999249768, etc.$ We thank a second anonymous referee for a question which led to the obtaining the asymptotic term of Corollary 2.

Examples. Some non trivial examples of polynomial identities which satisfy the conditions of Theorem 1 are

$$\begin{array}{ll} 1) & f(x) & = x + x^3 + x^9 + x^{12} + x^{18} + x^{20} \\ & = x(1+x)(1+x+x^9)(1+x^8+x^9) = 0 \\ (\text{use } g_1(x) = x \text{ and } g_2(x) = x^3), \end{array}$$

2)
$$f(x) = x + x^2 + x^3 + x^5 + x^6 + x^{10} + x^{13} + x^{14} + x^{17} + x^{21} + x^{22} + x^{24} + x^{25} + x^{26} = x(1+x)(1+x+x^3+x^4+x^5+x^6+x^8) \times (1+x^2+x^3+x^4+x^7+x^8)(1+x+x^2+x^4+x^6+x^7+x^8) = 0$$

(again use $g_1(x) = x$ and $g_2(x) = x^3$).

The fact that $GCD(f(x), f(x^3)) = x^2 + x$ is easily verified by using a Computer Algebra System (CAS).

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