# Commutativity of Banach Algebras Characterized by Primitive Ideals and Spectra 

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This paper is dedicated to Dr. Mehdi Mohammadzadeh Karizaki


#### Abstract

This study is an attempt to prove the following main results. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a Banach algebra and $\mathfrak{H}=\mathcal{A} \bigoplus \mathbb{C}$ be its unitization. By $\prod_{c}(\mathfrak{H})$, we denote the set of all primitive ideals $\mathcal{P}$ of $\mathfrak{A}$ such that the quotient algebra $\frac{\mathscr{U}}{\mathcal{P}}$ is commutative. We prove that if $\mathcal{A}$ is semi-prime and $\operatorname{dim}\left(\bigcap_{\mathcal{P} \in \Pi_{c}(2)} \mathcal{P}\right) \leq 1$, then $\mathcal{A}$ is commutative. Moreover, we prove the following: Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a semi-simple Banach algebra. Then, $\mathcal{A}$ is commutative if and only if $\subseteq(a)=\left\{\varphi(a) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\} \bigcup\{0\}$ or $\mathfrak{S}(a)=\left\{\varphi(a) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\}$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$, where $\subseteq(a)$ and $\Phi_{\mathcal{A}}$ denote the spectrum of an element $a \in \mathcal{A}$, and the set of all non-zero multiplicative linear functionals on $\mathcal{A}$, respectively.


## 1. Introduction and Preliminaries

Throughout this paper, $\mathcal{A}$ denotes a Banach algebra over the complex field $\mathbb{C}$. If $\mathcal{A}$ is unital, then 1 stands for its unit element. We denote the center of $\mathcal{A}$ by $Z(\mathcal{A})$, i.e. $Z(\mathcal{A})=\{x \in \mathcal{A} \mid$ ax $=$ xa for all $a \in \mathcal{A}\}$. Moreover, $\mathcal{A}$ is called semi-prime if $a \mathcal{A} a=\{0\}$ implies that $a=0$. Recall that a linear mapping $d: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ is called a derivation if it satisfies the Leibnitz rule $d(a b)=d(a) b+a d(b)$ for all $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$. We call $d$ an inner derivation if there exists an element $x \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $d(a)=[x, a]=x a-a x$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$.

A non-zero linear functional $\varphi$ on $\mathcal{A}$ is called a character if $\varphi(a b)=\varphi(a) \varphi(b)$ holds for every $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$. By $\Phi_{\mathcal{A}}$ we denote the set of all characters on $\mathcal{A}$. It is well known that, $\operatorname{ker} \varphi$ the kernel of $\varphi$ is a maximal ideal of $\mathcal{A}$, where $\varphi$ is an arbitrary element of $\Phi_{\mathcal{A}}$. If $\mathcal{A}$ is a Banach $*$-algebra, then we denote the set of all projections in $\mathcal{A}$ by $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$ (,i.e. $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}=\left\{p \in \mathcal{A} \mid p^{2}=p, p^{*}=p\right\}$ ), and by $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{A}}$ we denote the set of all self-adjoint elements of $\mathcal{A}$ (,i.e. $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{A}}=\left\{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid a^{*}=a\right\}$ ). The set of those elements in $\mathcal{A}$ which can be represented as finite real-linear combinations of mutually orthogonal projections, is denoted by $O_{\mathcal{A}}$. Hence, we have $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}} \subseteq O_{\mathcal{A}} \subseteq \mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{A}}$. Note that if $\mathcal{A}$ is a von Neumann algebra, then $O_{\mathcal{A}}$ is norm dense in $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{A}}$. More generally, the same is true for $A W^{*}$-algebras. Recall that a $W^{*}$-algebra is a weakly closed self-adjoint algebra of operators on a Hilbert space, and an $A W^{*}$-algebra is a $C^{*}$-algebra satisfying:
(i) In the partially ordered set of projections, any set of orthogonal projections has a least upper bound (LUB),
(ii) Any maximal commutative self-adjoint subalgebra is generated by its projections. That is, it is equal to

[^0]the smallest closed subalgebra containing its projections.
The above-mentioned definitions and results can be found in [6, 10, 17]. This paper, has been motivated by [7, 8, 15]. An algebra $\mathcal{A}$ can always be embedded into an algebra with identity as follows. Let $\mathfrak{A}$ denote the set of all pairs $(x, \lambda), x \in \mathcal{A}, \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, that is, $\mathfrak{H}=\mathcal{A} \bigoplus \mathbb{C}$. Then $\mathfrak{A}$ becomes an algebra if the linear space operations and multiplication are defined by $(x, \lambda)+(y, \mu)=(x+y, \lambda+\mu), \mu(x, \lambda)=(\mu x, \mu \lambda)$ and $(x, \lambda)(y, \mu)=(x y+\lambda y+\mu x, \lambda \mu)$ for $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$. A simple calculation shows that the element $\mathbf{e}=(0,1) \in \mathfrak{A}$ is an identity for $\mathfrak{A}$. Moreover, the mapping $x \rightarrow(x, 0)$ is an algebra isomorphism of $\mathcal{A}$ onto an ideal of codimension one in $\mathfrak{A}$. Obviously, $\mathfrak{A}$ is commutative if and only if $\mathcal{A}$ is commutative.

Now suppose that $\mathcal{A}$ is a normed algebra. We introduce a norm on $\mathfrak{A}$ by $\|(x, \lambda)\|=\|x\|+|\lambda|$, for $x \in \mathcal{A}$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. It is straightforward that this turns $\mathfrak{A}$ into a normed algebra. Clearly, if $\mathcal{A}$ is a Banach algebra, then $\mathfrak{A}$ is a Banach algebra, too. Some authors call $\mathfrak{A}$ the unitization of $\mathcal{A}$.

Let $B$ be a subset of $\mathcal{A}$, the commutant of $B$ is denoted by $B^{\prime}$ and defined by $B^{\prime}=\{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid a b=b a$ for every $b \in$ $B\}$. The double commutant of $B$ is denoted by $B^{\prime \prime}$, and we have $B^{\prime \prime}=\left\{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid a x=\right.$ xa for every $\left.x \in B^{\prime}\right\}$. A straightforward verification shows that $B^{\prime}$ is a closed subalgebra of $\mathcal{A}, B \subseteq B^{\prime \prime}$, and if $B$ is a commutative set, then so is $B^{\prime \prime}$. Indeed, if $B$ is commutative, then $B^{\prime \prime}$ is a commutative Banach algebra (see p. 293 of [16]).

The spectrum of an element $a$ is the set $\subseteq(a)=\{\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \mid \lambda \mathbf{1}-a$ is not invertible $\}$. The spectral radius of $a$ is $r(a)=\sup \{|\lambda|: \lambda \in \mathbb{S}(a)\}$. The element $a$ is said to be quasi-nilpotent if $r(a)=0$. We shall henceforth find it convenient to write $\lambda \mathbf{1}$ simply as $\lambda$.

Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a commutative Banach algebra. It follows from Theorem 1.3.4 of [14] that
(1) if $\mathcal{A}$ is unital, then $\mathfrak{S}(a)=\left\{\varphi(a) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\}$,
(2) if $\mathcal{A}$ is non-unital, then $\subseteq(a)=\left\{\varphi(a) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\} \bigcup\{0\}$.

In this article, we are going to study the converse of this result. Indeed, we will show that if $\mathcal{A}$ is a semisimple Banach algebra, then $\mathcal{A}$ is commutative if and only if $\mathfrak{S}(a)=\left\{\varphi(a) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\}$ or $\mathfrak{S}(a)=\{\varphi(a) \mid \varphi \in$ $\left.\Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\} \bigcup\{0\}$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Moreover, we prove that if $\delta: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ is a bounded derivation such that $\mathfrak{S}(\delta(a))=\left\{\varphi(\delta(a)) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\}$ or $\subseteq(\delta(a))=\left\{\varphi(\delta(a)) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\} \cup\{0\}$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$, then $\delta(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{A})$, where $\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{A})$ denotes the Jacobson radical of $\mathcal{A}$. By $\prod_{c}(\mathfrak{H})$, we denote the set of all primitive ideals $\mathcal{P}$ of $\mathfrak{A}$ such that the quotient algebra $\frac{\mathfrak{U}}{\mathcal{P}}$ is commutative. Moreover, the set of all maximal ideals $\mathcal{M}$ of $\mathfrak{H}$ such that the quotient algebra $\frac{\mathscr{H}}{\mathcal{M}}$ is commutative, is denoted by $\mathfrak{M}_{c}(\mathfrak{H})$. We prove that if $\mathcal{A}$ is semi-prime and $\operatorname{dim}\left(\bigcap_{\mathcal{P}_{\in} \Pi_{c}(\mathbb{2})} \mathcal{P}\right) \leq 1$, then $\mathcal{A}$ is commutative.

## 2. Results and Proofs

We begin with the following theorems which will be used to prove our main results.
Theorem 2.1. [[19], Theorem 4.4] Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a commutative Banach algebra and $\delta: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be a derivation. Then, $\delta(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{A})$.

Theorem 2.2. [[11], page 246] Let d be a derivation on a Banach algebra $\mathcal{A}$. Then, the following three conditions are equivalent:
(i) $[a, d(a)] \in \operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{A})$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$;
(ii) $d$ is spectrally bounded;
(iii) $d(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{A})$;

Note that each member of $\Phi_{\mathcal{A}}$ is continuous (see Proposition 5.1.1 of [5]). In this study, we assume that $\Phi_{\mathcal{A}}$ is a non-empty set. The following theorem is motivated by $[7,8,15]$.
 In particular, if $\mathcal{A}$ is semi-prime and $\operatorname{dim}\left(\bigcap_{\mathcal{P} \in \Pi_{c}(2)} \mathcal{P}\right) \leq 1$, then $\delta=0$.

Proof. First, we define $\Delta: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ by $\Delta(a, \alpha)=(\delta(a), 0)=\delta(a)$. Clearly, $\Delta$ is a bounded derivation. Hence, if $\mathcal{P}$ is an arbitrary primitive ideal of $\mathfrak{M}$, then $\Delta(\mathcal{P}) \subseteq \mathcal{P}$ (see Theorem 6.2.3 of [5]). Assume that $\mathcal{P}$ is an arbitrary element of $\prod_{c}(\mathfrak{A})$. It means that $\frac{\mathfrak{U}}{\mathcal{P}}$ is commutative. Furthermore, according to Proposition 1.4.44
(ii) of [6], $\frac{\mathfrak{L}}{\mathcal{P}}$ is a primitive algebra, and so $\frac{\mathfrak{N}}{\mathcal{\rho}}$ is semi-simple. Now, we define the linear map $D: \frac{\mathfrak{U}}{\mathcal{P}} \rightarrow \frac{\mathfrak{U}}{\mathcal{P}}$ by $D((a, \alpha)+\mathcal{P})=\Delta(a, \alpha)+\mathcal{P}$. If $(a, \alpha)+\mathcal{P}=(b, \beta)+\mathcal{P}$, then $(a-b, \alpha-\beta) \in \mathcal{P}$. Since $\Delta(\mathcal{P}) \subseteq \mathcal{P}, \Delta(a-b, \alpha-\beta) \in \mathcal{P}$. Hence, $\Delta(a, \alpha)+\mathcal{P}=\Delta(b, \beta)+\mathcal{P}$ and it means that $D$ is well-defined. For convenience, $(a, \lambda)$ is denoted by $a_{\lambda}$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}, \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. A straightforward verification shows that $D$ is a derivation. It follows from Theorem
 ideal of $\mathfrak{A}$ is a (maximal) modular ideal (see the last paragraph of page 4 of [14]). Moreover, it follows from Proposition 1.4.34 (iv) of [6] that each maximal modular ideal in $\mathfrak{A}$ is a primitive ideal. Therefore, $\mathfrak{M}_{c}(\mathfrak{H}) \subseteq \Pi_{c}(\mathfrak{H})$ and it implies that $\bigcap_{\mathcal{P}_{\in} \in \Pi_{c}(\mathfrak{Y})} \mathcal{P} \subseteq \bigcap_{\mathcal{M} \in \mathfrak{M}_{c}(\mathfrak{2 l})} \mathcal{M}$, where $\Pi_{c}(\mathfrak{H})$ and $\mathfrak{M}_{c}(\mathfrak{H})$ were introduced in the introduction. According to Proposition 3.1.2 of [5], $\operatorname{ker} \widetilde{\varphi}$ is a maximal ideal of $\mathfrak{A}$ for every $\widetilde{\varphi} \in \Phi_{\mathfrak{A}}$. Note that $\widetilde{\varphi}\left(a_{\alpha} b_{\beta}\right)=\widetilde{\varphi}\left(a_{\alpha}\right) \widetilde{\varphi}\left(b_{\beta}\right)=\widetilde{\varphi}\left(b_{\beta}\right) \widetilde{\varphi}\left(a_{\alpha}\right)=\widetilde{\varphi}\left(b_{\beta} a_{\alpha}\right)$ for all $a_{\alpha}, b_{\beta} \in \mathfrak{H}$. Hence, $a_{\alpha} b_{\beta}-b_{\beta} a_{\alpha} \in \operatorname{ker} \widetilde{\varphi}$. Thus, $\left(a_{\alpha}+\operatorname{ker} \widetilde{\varphi}\right)\left(b_{\beta}+\operatorname{ker} \widetilde{\varphi}\right)=\left(b_{\beta}+\operatorname{ker} \widetilde{\varphi}\right)\left(a_{\alpha}+\operatorname{ker} \widetilde{\varphi}\right)$, and it means that $\frac{\mathscr{2}}{\operatorname{ker} \widetilde{\varphi}}$ is a commutative algebra. Hence, $\left\{\operatorname{ker} \widetilde{\varphi} \mid \widetilde{\varphi} \in \Phi_{\mathfrak{t}\}}\right\} \subseteq \mathfrak{M}_{c}(\mathfrak{H})$ and it is concluded that $\bigcap_{\mathcal{P}_{\in \Pi_{c}(\mathfrak{N l})} \mathcal{P} \subseteq \bigcap_{\mathcal{M} \in \mathfrak{M}_{c}(\mathfrak{N})} \mathcal{M} \subseteq \bigcap_{\widetilde{\varphi} \in \Phi_{\mathcal{F}}} \operatorname{ker} \widetilde{\varphi} \text {. Therefore, we }}$ have $\Delta(\mathfrak{H}) \subseteq \bigcap_{\mathcal{P}_{\in \Pi_{c}(\mathfrak{Y l}} \mathcal{P} \subseteq \bigcap_{\mathcal{M} \in \mathfrak{M}_{c}(\mathfrak{Y l})} \mathcal{M} \subseteq \bigcap_{\widetilde{\varphi} \in \Phi_{\mathscr{I}}} \operatorname{ker} \widetilde{\varphi} \text {. Based on the offered discussion in the first paragraph }}$ of page 15 of [14], we obtain that $\bigcap_{\widetilde{\varphi} \in \Phi_{\mathscr{I}}} \operatorname{ker} \widetilde{\varphi}=\bigcap_{\varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}} \operatorname{ker} \varphi$. Hence, $\delta(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \bigcap_{\mathcal{P}_{\in \Pi_{c}(2)}} \mathcal{P} \subseteq \bigcap_{\mathcal{M} \in \mathfrak{M}_{c}(2)} \mathcal{M} \subseteq$ $\bigcap_{\varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}} \operatorname{ker} \varphi$, and it completes the first part of our proof.

Suppose that $\mathcal{A}$ is semi-prime and $\operatorname{dim}\left(\bigcap_{\mathcal{P} \in \Pi_{c}(2)} \mathcal{P}\right) \leq 1$. It is obvious that if $\operatorname{dim}\left(\bigcap_{\mathcal{P} \in \Pi_{c}(2)} \mathcal{P}\right)=0$, then $\delta(\mathcal{A})=\{0\}$. Now, assume that $\operatorname{dim}\left(\bigcap_{\left.\mathcal{P}_{\in \Pi_{c}(2)} \mathcal{P}\right)}=1\right.$. Since $\operatorname{dim}\left(\bigcap_{\left.\mathcal{P}_{\in \Pi_{c}(2)} \mathcal{P}\right)} \mathcal{P}=1\right.$, there exists a non-zero
 $\psi: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that $\delta(a)=(\delta(a), 0)=\psi(a) x_{\lambda}=\psi(a)(x, \lambda)=(\psi(a) x, \psi(a) \lambda)$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. So, $\psi(a) \lambda=0$, and it implies that either $\psi(a)=0$ or $\lambda=0$. If $\lambda \neq 0$, then $\psi(a)=0$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$, and consequently, $\delta$ is zero. In this case, our goal is achieved. Now, we suppose $\lambda=0$. We want to show that $\delta$ is identically zero. To obtain a contradiction, assume $\delta$ is a non-zero derivation. Therefore, there is an element $a_{0}$ of $\mathcal{A}$ such that $\delta\left(a_{0}\right) \neq 0$. Clearly, $\psi\left(a_{0}\right) \neq 0$, too. Thus, we have $\delta\left(a_{0}\right)=\psi\left(a_{0}\right) x$. Putting $b=\frac{1}{\psi\left(a_{0}\right)} a_{0}$, we obtain $\delta(b)=\delta\left(\frac{1}{\psi\left(a_{0}\right)} a_{0}\right)=\frac{1}{\psi\left(a_{0}\right)} \psi\left(a_{0}\right) x=x$ and it implies that $\psi(b)=1$. We will show that $a x+x a$ is a scalar multiple of $x$ for any $a$ in $\mathcal{A}$. Let $a$ be an arbitrary element of $\mathcal{A}$. Then, $\left.\delta\left(a^{2}\right)=\psi\left(a^{2}\right) x \quad{ }^{*}\right)$. On the other hand, we have $\delta\left(a^{2}\right)=\delta(a) a+a \delta(a)=\psi(a) x a+a \psi(a) x=\psi(a)(x a+a x) \quad\left({ }^{* *}\right)$. Comparing $\left({ }^{*}\right)$ and $\left({ }^{* *}\right)$, we find that $\psi\left(a^{2}\right) x=\psi(a)(a x+x a)$. If $\psi(a) \neq 0$, then $a x+x a=\frac{\psi\left(a^{2}\right)}{\psi(a)} x$. If $\psi(a)=0$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\psi(a b+b a) x & =\delta(a b+b a) \\
& =\delta(a) b+a \delta(b)+\delta(b) a+b \delta(a) \\
& =\psi(a) x b+a \psi(b) x+\psi(b) x a+b \psi(a) x \\
& =a x+x a
\end{aligned}
$$

and this proves that $a x+x a$ is a scalar multiple of $x$ for any $a$ in $\mathcal{A}$. Next, it will be shown that $x^{2}=0$. Suppose that $\psi(x)=0$. We have $\psi\left(b^{2}\right) x=\delta\left(b^{2}\right)=\delta(b) b+b \delta(b)=\psi(b) x b+b \psi(b) x=x b+b x$. Applying $\delta$ on this equality and then using the fact that $\delta(x)=\psi(x) x=0$, we obtain that $x^{2}=0$. Now, suppose $\psi(x) \neq 0$. Therefore, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\psi\left(x^{2}\right) x=\delta\left(x^{2}\right)=\delta(x) x+x \delta(x)=\psi(x) x^{2}+\psi(x) x^{2}=2 \psi(x) x^{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\psi\left(x^{2}\right)=0$, then it follows from previous equality that $x^{2}=0$. Assume that $\psi\left(x^{2}\right) \neq 0$; so $x^{2}=\frac{\psi\left(x^{2}\right)}{2 \psi(x)} x$. Simplifying the notation, we put $\gamma=\frac{\psi\left(x^{2}\right)}{2 \psi(x)}$. Replacing $x^{2}$ by $\gamma x$ in $2 \psi(x) x^{2}=\delta\left(x^{2}\right)$, we have $2 \psi(x) \gamma x=\gamma \delta(x)=$ $\gamma \psi(x) x$. Since $\psi(x) \neq 0, \gamma x=0$ and it implies that either $\gamma=0$ or $x=0$, which is a contradiction. This contradiction shows that $\psi\left(x^{2}\right)=0$ and by using (1) it is obtained that $x^{2}=0$. We know that $x a+a x=\mu x$, where $\mu \in \mathbb{C}$. Multiplying the previous equality by $x$ and using the fact that $x^{2}=0$, we see that $x a x=0$ for any $a$ in $\mathcal{A}$. Since $\mathcal{A}$ is semi-prime, $x=0$. This contradiction shows that $\delta$ must be zero.

We are now ready for the following conclusions.

Corollary 2.4. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a Banach algebra and $\delta: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be a bounded derivation. If $\subseteq(\delta(a))=\left\{\varphi(\delta(a)) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\}$ or $\mathfrak{G}(\delta(a))=\left\{\varphi(\delta(a)) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\} \bigcup\{0\}$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$, then $\delta(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{A})$. In particular, if $\mathcal{A}$ is semi-simple, then $\delta$ is zero.

Proof. It follows from Theorem 2.3 that $\delta(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \bigcap_{\varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}} \operatorname{ker} \varphi$. This fact and our assumption concerning $\mathbb{S}(\delta(a))$ imply that $\mathbb{S}(\delta(a))=\{0\}$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$. It means that $\delta$ is spectrally bounded. At this moment, Theorem 2.2 completes the proof.

Remark 2.5. Let $\left\{d_{n}\right\}$ be a higher derivation on an algebra $\mathcal{A}$ with $d_{0}=I$, where $I$ is the identity mapping on $\mathcal{A}$. Based on Proposition 2.1 of [12] there is a sequence $\left\{\delta_{n}\right\}$ of derivations on $\mathcal{A}$ such that

$$
(n+1) d_{n+1}=\sum_{k=0}^{n} \delta_{k+1} d_{n-k}
$$

for each non-negative integer $n$. Therefore, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& d_{0}=I \\
& d_{1}=\delta_{1} \\
& 2 d_{2}=\delta_{1} d_{1}+\delta_{2} d_{0}=\delta_{1} \delta_{1}+\delta_{2}, \\
& d_{2}=\frac{1}{2} \delta_{1}^{2}+\frac{1}{2} \delta_{2} \\
& 3 d_{3}=\delta_{1} d_{2}+\delta_{2} d_{1}+\delta_{3} d_{0}=\delta_{1}\left(\frac{1}{2} \delta_{1}^{2}+\frac{1}{2} \delta_{2}\right)+\delta_{2} \delta_{1}+\delta_{3} \\
& d_{3}=\frac{1}{6} \delta_{1}^{3}+\frac{1}{6} \delta_{1} \delta_{2}+\frac{1}{3} \delta_{2} \delta_{1}+\frac{1}{3} \delta_{3} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, assume that $\left\{d_{n}\right\}$ is a bounded higher derivation (,i.e. $d_{n}$ is a bounded linear map for every non-negative integer n). Obviously, $\delta_{1}=d_{1}$ is bounded. Hence, $\delta_{2}=2 d_{2}-\delta_{1}^{2}$ is also bounded. Based on the $d_{3}$ formula, we have $\delta_{3}=3 d_{3}-\frac{1}{2} \delta_{1}^{3}-\frac{1}{2} \delta_{1} \delta_{2}-\delta_{2} \delta_{1}$. Using the boundedness of $d_{3}, \delta_{1}$ and $\delta_{2}$, we obtain that $\delta_{3}$ is a bounded derivation. In the next step, we will show that every $\delta_{n}$ is a bounded derivation for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. To reach this aim, we use induction on $n$. According to the above-mentioned discussion, $\delta_{1}, \delta_{2}$ and $\delta_{3}$ are bounded derivations. Now, suppose that $\delta_{k}$ is a bounded derivation for $k \leq n$. We will show that $\delta_{n+1}$ is also a bounded derivation. Based on the proof of Theorem 2.3 in [12], we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta_{n+1}=(n+1) d_{n+1}-\sum_{i=2}^{n+1}\left(\sum_{\sum_{j=1}^{i} r_{j}=n+1}(n+1) a_{r_{1}, \ldots, r_{i}} \delta_{r_{1}} \ldots \delta_{r_{i}}\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the inner summation is taken over all positive integers $r_{j}$ with $\sum_{j=1}^{i} r_{j}=n+1$. From $\sum_{j=1}^{i} r_{j}=r_{1}+r_{2}+\ldots+r_{i}=$ $n+1$ along with the condition that $r_{j}$ is a positive integer for every $1 \leq j \leq i$, we find that $1 \leq r_{j} \leq n$ for every $1 \leq j \leq i$. Since we are assuming $d_{n}$ and $\delta_{k}$ are bounded linear mappings for all non-negative integer $n$ and $k \leq n$, it follows from (2) that $\delta_{n+1}$ is a bounded derivation.

Corollary 2.6. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a Banach algebra such that $\mathcal{S}(a)=\left\{\varphi(a) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\} \cup\{0\}$ or $\subseteq(a)=\left\{\varphi(a) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\}$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$. If $\left\{d_{n}\right\}$ is a bounded higher derivation ( that means $d_{n}$ is a bounded linear map for every $n$ ), then $d_{n}(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{A})$ for every $n \geq 1$.

Proof. This is an immediate conclusion from Corollary 2.4, Remark 2.5, and Theorem 2.3 of [12].
In the next corollary, we offer a spectrum criterion for the commutativity of Banach algebras.
Corollary 2.7. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a semi-simple Banach algebra. Then, $\mathcal{A}$ is commutative if and only if $\mathfrak{S}(a)=\{\varphi(a) \mid \varphi \in$ $\left.\Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\} \bigcup\{0\}$ or $\subseteq(a)=\left\{\varphi(a) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\}$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$.

Proof. Suppose that $\mathcal{A}$ is a commutative Banach algebra. It follows from Theorem 1.3.4 of [14] that $\mathcal{S}(a)=$ $\left\{\varphi(a) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\} \bigcup\{0\}$ or $\subseteq(a)=\left\{\varphi(a) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\}$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$. To prove the converse statement we assume that $\mathfrak{G}(a)=\left\{\varphi(a) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\} \bigcup\{0\}$ or $\mathfrak{S}(a)=\left\{\varphi(a) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}\right\}$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Evidently, $\delta_{a_{0}}(a)=\left[a, a_{0}\right]$ is a bounded derivation on $\mathcal{A}$, where $a_{0}$ is an arbitrary fixed element of $\mathcal{A}$. Corollary 2.4 then yields that $\delta$ is zero, and since $a_{0}$ is arbitrary, $\mathcal{A}$ is commutative.

Corollary 2.8. Let $\delta: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be a derivation and $\mathcal{P}$ be a primitive ideal of $\mathcal{A}$ such that $\delta(\mathcal{P}) \subseteq \mathcal{P}$. If $\subseteq(a+\mathcal{P})=$ $\left\{\varphi(a+\mathcal{P}) \left\lvert\, \varphi \in \Phi_{\frac{\mathcal{P}}{\mathcal{P}}}\right.\right\} \bigcup\{0\}$ or $\mathfrak{S}(a+\mathcal{P})=\left\{\varphi(a+\mathcal{P}) \left\lvert\, \varphi \in \Phi_{\frac{\mathcal{P}}{\mathcal{P}}}\right.\right\}$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$, then $\delta(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \mathcal{P}$.

Proof. According to Proposition 1.4 .44 (ii) of [6], $\frac{\mathcal{P}}{\mathcal{P}}$ is a primitive algebra, and so $\frac{\mathcal{F}}{\mathcal{P}}$ is semi-simple. Let us define $\Delta: \frac{\mathcal{P}}{\mathcal{P}} \rightarrow \frac{\mathcal{P}}{\mathcal{P}}$ by $\Delta(a+\mathcal{P})=\delta(a)+\mathcal{P}$. One can easily show that $\Delta$ is a derivation. It follows from Theorem 2.3.2 of [18] that $\Delta$ is a bounded derivation, and so, Corollary 2.4 implies that $\Delta$ is zero. Consequently, $\delta(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \mathcal{P}$.

In the following two corollaries, we extend Corollary 2.5 and Corollary 2.6 in [8] to any semi-prime Banach algebra.

Corollary 2.9. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a semi-prime Banach algebra such that $\operatorname{dim}\left(\bigcap_{\left.\mathcal{P}_{\in \Pi_{c}(\mathfrak{l l}}\right)} \mathcal{P}\right) \leq 1$. Then $\mathcal{A}$ is commutative.
Proof. Let $x_{0}$ be a non-zero arbitrary fixed element of $\mathcal{A}$. Define $d_{x_{0}}: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ by $d_{x_{0}}(a)=a x_{0}-x_{0} a$. Obviously, $d_{x_{0}}$ is a bounded derivation. It follows from Theorem 2.3 that $d_{x_{0}}(a)=0$, i.e. $a x_{0}=x_{0} a$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Since $x_{0}$ is arbitrary, $\mathcal{A}$ is commutative. This is exactly what we had to prove.

Corollary 2.10. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a semi-prime Banach algebra, and $\left\{d_{n}\right\}$ be a bounded higher derivation from $\mathcal{A}$ into $\mathcal{A}$. If $\operatorname{dim}\left(\bigcap_{\mathcal{P} \in \Pi_{c}(2)} \mathcal{P}\right) \leq 1$, then $d_{n}=0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. Let $\left\{d_{n}\right\}$ be the above-mentioned higher derivation. According to Theorem 2.3 of [12] there exists a sequence $\left\{\delta_{n}\right\}$ of derivations on $\mathcal{A}$ such that

$$
d_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\sum_{\sum_{j=1}^{i} r_{j}=n}\left(\prod_{j=1}^{i} \frac{1}{r_{j}+\ldots+r_{i}}\right) \delta_{r_{1}} \ldots \delta_{r_{i}}\right)
$$

, where the inner summation is taken over all positive integers $r_{j}$ with $\sum_{j=1}^{i} r_{j}=n$. It follows from Remark 2.5 that $\delta_{n}$ is a bounded derivation for every positive integer $n$. At this moment, Theorem 2.3 completes the proof.

The question under which conditions all derivations are zero on a given Banach algebra have attracted much attention of authors (for instance, see [7, 8, 11, 15, 20]). In the following propositions, we also concentrate on this topic.

Proposition 2.11. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a Banach *-algebra such that $\overline{O_{\mathcal{A}}}=\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{A}}$ and $\delta: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ be a bounded derivation. Suppose that $B=\left\{\delta(p) \mid p \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}\right\}$ is a commutative set, and furthermore, if $\varphi \in \Phi_{B^{\prime \prime}}$, then $\varphi(p)$ exists for every $p \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$. Then, $\delta(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{A})$. In particular, if $\mathcal{A}$ is semi-simple, then $\delta$ is zero.

Proof. Since $B$ is commutative, we have $\delta(p) \delta(q)=\delta(q) \delta(p)$ for all $p, q \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$. Let $a_{1}$ and $b_{1}$ be two arbitrary elements of $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{A}}=\overline{O_{\mathcal{A}}}$. Hence, there are two sequences $\left\{x_{r}\right\}$ and $\left\{y_{s}\right\}$ in $O_{\mathcal{A}}$ such that $\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} x_{r}=a_{1}$ and $\lim _{s \rightarrow \infty} y_{s}=b_{1}$. From this and using the fact that $B$ is a commutative set, we deduce that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta\left(a_{1}\right) \delta\left(b_{1}\right)=\delta\left(b_{1}\right) \delta\left(a_{1}\right) \text { for all } a_{1}, b_{1} \in \mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{A}} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is well-known that if $a$ is an arbitrary element of $\mathcal{A}$, then there exist two self-adjoint elements $a_{1}, a_{2}$ such that $a=a_{1}+i a_{2}$. This fact with (3) imply that $\delta(a) \delta(b)=\delta(b) \delta(a)$ for all $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$. Assume that $a_{1} \in \mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{A}}=\overline{\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{A}}}$. Then, there is a sequence $\left\{x_{r}\right\} \subseteq O_{\mathcal{A}}$ such that $\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} x_{r}=a_{1}$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta\left(a_{1}\right) & =\delta\left(\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} x_{r}\right)=\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} \delta\left(x_{r}\right) \\
& =\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} \delta\left(\sum_{k_{r}=1}^{n_{r}} \alpha_{k_{r}} p_{k_{r}}\right) \\
& =\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k_{r}=1}^{n_{r}} \alpha_{k_{r}} \delta\left(p_{k_{r}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

It is evident that, $\sum_{k_{r}=1}^{n_{r}} \alpha_{k_{r}} \delta\left(p_{k_{r}}\right)$ is a sequence in $B^{\prime \prime}$ and since $B^{\prime \prime}$ is a commutative Banach algebra, $\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k_{r}=1}^{n_{r}} \alpha_{k_{r}} \delta\left(p_{k_{r}}\right)=\delta\left(a_{1}\right) \in B^{\prime \prime}$. Hence, $\delta^{n}(a) \in B^{\prime \prime}$ for every natural number $n$ and each $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Since $B^{\prime \prime}$ is a commutative Banach algebra, $\Phi_{B^{\prime \prime}}$ is a non-empty set (see Theorem 2.3.25 of [6]). If we define $d_{n}=\frac{\delta^{n}}{n!}$ with $d_{0}=I$, the identity mapping on $\mathcal{A}$, then we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{n}(a b) & =\frac{1}{n!} \delta^{n}(a b)=\frac{1}{n!} \sum_{k=0}^{n}\binom{n}{k} \delta^{n-k}(a) \delta^{k}(b) \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{1}{n!} \cdot \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!} \delta^{n-k}(a) \delta^{k}(b) \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{n} d_{n-k}(a) d_{k}(b) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Define $F(t)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_{n}(p) t^{n}$, where $|t|<1$ and $p$ is an arbitrary, non-trivial fixed element of $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$ (see [13]). Note that

$$
\left\|d_{n}\right\|=\left\|\frac{\delta^{n}}{n!}\right\| \leq \frac{1}{n!}\|\delta\|^{n}<\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\|\delta\|^{n}}{n!}=e^{\|\delta\|}
$$

It means that $\left\{d_{n}\right\}$ is a uniformly bounded sequence of linear mappings. Hence, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_{n}(p) t^{n}\right\| & \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left\|d_{n}(p) t^{n}\right\| \\
& =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left\|d_{n}(p)\right\| \| t^{n} \mid \\
& \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left\|d_{n}\right\|\left\|| |\left|\| t^{n}\right|\right. \\
& \leq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{\|\delta\|}\|p\|\left\|t^{n} \mid=e^{\|\delta\|}\right\| p \| \frac{1}{1-|t|}<\infty
\end{aligned}
$$

This fact ensures that $F$ is well-defined. Hence, the m-th derivative of $F$ exists and is given by the formula
$F^{(m)}(t)=\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{(n-m)!} d_{n}(p) t^{n-m}$. Furthermore, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
F(t) F(t)= & \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_{n}(p) t^{n}\right)\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_{n}(p) t^{n}\right) \\
& =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left(\sum_{k=0}^{n} d_{n-k}(p) d_{k}(p)\right) t^{n} \\
& =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_{n}(p) t^{n} \\
& =F(t)
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $\varphi$ be an arbitrary fixed element of $\Phi_{B^{\prime \prime}}$. It is clear that the function $G=\varphi F:(-1,1) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ defined by $G(t)=\varphi F(t)=\varphi(F(t))=\varphi\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} d_{n}(p) t^{n}\right)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \varphi\left(d_{n}(p)\right) t^{n}$ is continuous on $|t|<1$. Hence, $G(t)^{2}=$ $(\varphi(F(t)))^{2}=\varphi(F(t))=G(t)$ implies that $G(t)=0$ or $G(t)=1$. It is observed that $G(t)$ is a power series in $\mathbb{C}$. Thus, the m-th derivative of $G$ exists and is given by $G^{(m)}(t)=\sum_{n=m}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{(n-m)!} \varphi\left(d_{n}(p)\right) t^{n-m}$. We continue the proof by using the presented argument in Theorem 2.2 of [8]. Since the function $G$ is constant, we have $G^{(m)}(t)=0$ for every $m \in \mathbb{N} \backslash\{0\}$ and every $|t|<1$. So, $\varphi\left(d_{1}(p)\right)+2 \varphi\left(d_{2}(p)\right) t+3 \varphi\left(d_{3}(p)\right) t^{2}+4 \varphi\left(d_{4}(p)\right) t^{3}+\ldots=G^{(1)}(t)=0$. Putting $t=0$ in the former equation, it is obtained that $\varphi\left(d_{1}(p)\right)=0$. Using an argument similar to what was described concerning $\varphi\left(d_{1}(p)\right)$, we conclude that $\varphi\left(d_{2}(p)\right)=0$. By continuing this procedure, it is proved that $\varphi\left(d_{n}(p)\right)=0$ for all $n \geq 1$. Our next task is to show that $\varphi\left(d_{n}(a)\right)=0$ for every $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Let $x$ be an arbitrary element of $\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{A}}$. Hence, $x=\sum_{i=1}^{m} r_{i} p_{i}$, where $p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{m}$ are mutually orthogonal projections and $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{m}$ are real numbers. We have $\varphi\left(d_{n}(x)\right)=\varphi\left(d_{n}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} r_{i} p_{i}\right)\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{m} r_{i} \varphi\left(d_{n}\left(p_{i}\right)\right)=0$. Since $\overline{O_{\mathcal{A}}}=\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{A}}$, $\varphi\left(d_{n}(a)\right)=0$ for every $a \in \mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{A}}$. It is well-known that each $a$ in $\mathcal{A}$ can be represented as $a=a_{1}+i a_{2}, a_{1}, a_{2} \in \mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{A}}$; therefore, $\varphi\left(d_{n}(a)\right)=\varphi\left(d_{n}\left(a_{1}+i a_{2}\right)\right)=\varphi\left(d_{n}\left(a_{1}\right)\right)+i \varphi\left(d_{n}\left(a_{2}\right)\right)=0$ for all $n \geq 1, a \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\varphi \in \Phi_{B^{\prime \prime}}$. It means that $d_{n}(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \bigcap_{\varphi \in \Phi_{B}^{\prime \prime}} \operatorname{ker} \varphi$. According to Theorem 11.22 of [16] and Theorem 1.3.4 of [14], it is achieved that $\mathfrak{S}_{\mathcal{A}}\left(d_{n}(a)\right)=\mathfrak{S}_{B^{\prime \prime}}\left(d_{n}(a)\right)=\left\{\varphi\left(d_{n}(a)\right) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{B^{\prime \prime}}\right\} \bigcup\{0\}\left(o r=\left\{\varphi\left(d_{n}(a)\right) \mid \varphi \in \Phi_{B^{\prime \prime}}\right\}\right)=\{0\}$. Hence, $r\left(d_{n}(a)\right)=0$ for all $n \geq 1$ and $a \in \mathcal{A}$. It means that $d_{n}$ is spectrally bounded for every $n \geq 1$. Since $d_{1}=\delta$ is spectrally bounded, Theorem 2.2 shows that $\delta(\mathcal{A}) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{A})$. Evidently, if $\mathcal{A}$ is semi-simple, i.e. $\operatorname{rad}(\mathcal{A})=\{0\}$, then $\delta$ is zero.

Before proving Proposition 2.13, we define the socle of $\mathcal{A}$. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a semi-simple Banach algebra. Then the sum of all the minimal left ideals of $\mathcal{A}$ coincides with the sum of all the minimal right ideals of $\mathcal{A}$, is called the socle of $\mathcal{A}$, and it will be denoted by $\operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{A})$. We refer the reader to [2-4] for more information on the socle of a Banach algebra.

Proposition 2.12. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a semi-simple Banach algebra, and let $d$ be a derivation on $\mathcal{A}$ satisfying $\# \subseteq(d(a))=1$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Here, $\sharp \subseteq(x)$ denotes the cardinality of the spectrum of $x$. Then, $d$ is zero.

Proof. It follows from Theorem 1.2 of [4] that $d$ is an inner derivation induced by an element $u \in \operatorname{soc}(\mathcal{F})$. It means that $d(a)=[u, a]=u a-a u$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. According to the aforementioned assumption, we have $1=\sharp \Im(d(a))=\sharp \subseteq(u a-a u)$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Now, Theorem 5.2.1 of [1] implies that $u \in Z(\mathcal{A})$, and consequently, $d$ is zero.

Now, the article is ended with a problem which has attracted the author's attention .
Problem 2.13. Let $d$ be a derivation on a given Banach algebra $\mathcal{A}$. Under which conditions, $\sharp \subseteq(d(a))=1$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$ ?

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