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Applications and generalizations of idempotents

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Abstract. In this paper, we introduce the concepts of one-sided *x*-idempotents, one-sided *x*-equal elements, one-sided *x*-projections, and list some properties of them. Furthermore, we apply these elements to describe generalized inverses in rings with involution.

1. Introduction

Throughout, all rings are associative and unital, the symbols \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Z}_+ , N(R), E(R) and Z(R) stand for the ring of integers, the set of positive integers, the set of all nilpotent elements, the set of all idempotents and the center of R, respectively. In the studies of ring theory, idempotents play an important role. For example, the definitions of clean rings [21], left quasi-duo rings [23], quasi-normal rings [26] are related to idempotents. Furthermore, idempotents are often used to describe rings satisfying given conditions. For instances, in [24], based on the works [7] and [5], Wei defined the generalized weakly symmetric rings, and use idempotents to describe generalized weakly symmetric rings. Then, Meng et al. in [11], [12] and [13] used idempotents to study *e*-symmetric rings and weak *e*-symmetric rings, where $e \in E(R)$. The studies of properties of idempotents in rings appear in [8], [9] and [10]. For other studies of idempotents in rings, one can refer [3], [4], [6], [25] and [29]. Motivated by the previous works, we give the definitions of one-sided *x*-idempotents, one-sided *x*-equal elements and one-sided *x*-projections in this article and study their properties. Moreover, we apply these elements to characterize EP and SEP elements in involution rings.

An element $e \in R$ is said to be anti-idempotent if $e^2 = -e$. We call an element $e \in E(R)$ left (resp. right) minimal idempotent of R if Re (resp. eR) is a minimal left (resp. right) ideal of R. Denote the set of all left (resp. right) minimal idempotents of R by $ME_l(R)$ (resp. $ME_r(R)$). An idempotent $e \in R$ is called left (resp. right) semicentral if ae = eae (resp. ea = eae) for any $a \in R$. Moreover, if e is both left and right semicentral, then e is a central idempotent. An element $a \in R$ is said to be regular if there exists $b \in R$ such that a = aba, where b is called an inner inverse of a. The set of all regular elements of R is denoted by R^{reg} . In general, the

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inner inverse of *a* is not unique, we denote the set of all inner inverses of *a* by $a\{1\}$, and a^- stands for some fixed inner inverse of *a*. We say that an element $a \in R$ is group invertible if there exists $a^{\#} \in R$ satisfying

$$a = aa^{\#}a, a^{\#} = a^{\#}aa^{\#}, aa^{\#} = a^{\#}a$$

where $a^{\#}$ is called the group inverse of *a*, and if $a^{\#}$ exists, then it is unique [22].

A map $* : R \rightarrow R$ is said to be an involution of *R* if

$$(a^*)^* = a, (a+b)^* = a^* + b^*, (ab)^* = b^*a^*.$$

A ring with an involution * is an involution ring (or *-ring). We call an element $a \in R$ Hermitian if $a^* = a$ [14], and the set of all Hermitian elements of R is denoted by R^{Her} . In particular, if $e \in E(R)$ is Hermitian, then e is called a projection, and we write R^{proj} for the set of all projections of R. Furthermore, if $e \in R^{proj}$ is central, then e is a central projection. An element $a \in R$ is said to be a partial isometry if $a = aa^*a$ [19], and the set of all partial isometries of R is denoted by R^{PI} . We call a^+ the Moore-Penrose inverse (MP-inverse) of a, if

$$a = aa^{+}a, a^{+} = a^{+}aa^{+}, (aa^{+})^{*} = aa^{+}, (a^{+}a)^{*} = a^{+}a.$$

 a^+ is unique if it exists [22]. Denote the set of all MP-invertible elements of R by R^+ . In particular, if $a \in R^{\#} \cap R^+$ and $a^{\#} = a^+$, then a is called EP [20]. R^{EP} stands for the set of all EP elements of R. Moreover, a is said to be SEP if $a \in R^{\#} \cap R^+$ and $a^{\#} = a^+ = a^*$ [14]. The set of all SEP elements of R is denoted by R^{SEP} . In recent years, the studies of characterizations of EP and SEP elements in involution rings are popular [15–18, 27, 29]. a_l^{\bigoplus} is called a left core inverse of a if $aa_l^{\bigoplus}a = a$, $a_l^{\bigoplus}aa_l^{\bigoplus} = a_l^{\bigoplus}$, $a_l^{\bigoplus}a^2 = a$ and $(aa_l^{\bigoplus})^* = aa_l^{\bigoplus}$ [2]. a^{\bigoplus} is said to be a core inverse of a if $aa^{\bigoplus^2} = a^{\bigoplus}$, $a^{\oplus}a^2 = a$ and $(aa^{\bigoplus})^* = aa^{\bigoplus}$ [1]. It is noted that $a^{\bigoplus} = aa^{\bigoplus^2} = a^{\bigoplus}a^2a^{\bigoplus^2} = (a^{\bigoplus}a)(aa^{\bigoplus^2}) = a^{\bigoplus}aa^{\bigoplus}$ and $a = a^{\bigoplus}a^2 = aa^{\bigoplus^2}a^2 = (aa^{\bigoplus})(a^{\bigoplus}a^2) = aa^{\oplus}a$. In this paper, we will first define the one-sided x-idempotents, one-sided x-equal elements and one-sided x-projections, and then apply these elements to characterize EP and SEP elements.

The paper is organized as follows: In Section 2, we define one-sided *x*-idempotents and give some results. In Section 3, we give the definition of one-sided *x*-equal elements, and study the properties of them. In Section 4, we propose the concept of one-sided *x*-projections, and give some characterizations of them. In Section 5, we apply these elements to describe EP and SEP elements in involution rings.

2. One-sided x-idempotent

Definition 2.1. Let $x \in R$. Then an element $a \in R$ is called a left (resp. right) x-idempotent if $a^2 = xa$ (resp. $a^2 = ax$).

Consider the non-commutative polynomial ring $\mathbb{Z} < x, y > /(x^2 - yx, y^2 - xy)$. It is easy to check that $x^2 = yx \neq xy$ and $y^2 = xy$, which implies that one-sided *x*-idempotent is not unique and a left *x*-idempotent is not necessary a right *x*-idempotent. Furthermore, for the same element $0 \neq a \in R$, *a* can both be a left (resp. right) *x*-idempotent and a left (resp. right) *y*-idempotent with $x \neq y$.

Proposition 2.2. *Let* $x \in R$ *. Then*

(1) *x* is a left and right *x*-idempotent.

(2) $0 \neq x \in N(R)$ if and only if there exists $0 \le n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that x is a left (right) $(x + x^n)$ -idempotent.

- (3) $x \in N(R)$ if and only if there exists some $k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ such that x^k is a left (right) 0-idempotent.
- (4) x is anti-idempotent if and only if x is a left (right) (2x + 1)-idempotent.

Proof. (1) It is obvious.

(2) \Rightarrow If $0 \neq x \in N(R)$, then there exists some $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ such that $x^n = 0$. Thus, $x^2 = (x + x^{n-1})x$. \Leftarrow Provided that $0 \le n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x^2 = (x + x^n)x$, then $x^{n+1} = 0$. It follows that $x \in N(R)$. (3) \Rightarrow If $x^n = 0$, then taking k = n, we have $(x^k)^2 = x^{2n} = 0 = 0x^k$.

Proposition 2.3. Let $e \in R$. Then the following statements are equivalent: (1) $e \in E(R)$;

(2) e is a left 1-idempotent;
(3) e is a right 1-idempotent;
(4) e is a left (2e - 1)-idempotent;
(5) e is a right (2e - 1)-idempotent.

Proof. It follows from a straightforward verification. \Box

Theorem 2.4. Let $a, x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then a is a left (resp. right) x-idempotent if and only if x - a is a right (resp. left) x-idempotent.

Proof. \Rightarrow By $a^2 = xa$, we have $(x - a)^2 = x^2 - xa - ax + a^2 = x^2 - ax = (x - a)x$, which gives the desired result. \Leftarrow If $(x - a)^2 = x^2 - xa - ax + a^2 = (x - a)x = x^2 - ax$, then $a^2 - xa = 0$, i.e., $a^2 = xa$. It follows that *a* is a left *x*-idempotent. \Box

Theorem 2.5. Let $e \in E(R)$. Then e is a left (resp. right) semicentral element if and only if xe (resp. ex) is a left (resp. right) x-idempotent for each $x \in R$.

Proof. \Rightarrow If *exe* = *xe*, then for any $x \in R$, $(xe)^2 = x(exe) = x(xe)$. It follows that *xe* is a left *x*-idempotent. \Leftarrow Taking $y, z \in R$, then

$$(ye)^2 = y^2e$$
, $(ze)^2 = z^2e$, $((y+z)e)^2 = (y+z)^2e$.

Hence, yeze + zeye = yze + zye. Setting y = 1 - e, we obtain (1 - e)ze = 0. This shows that *e* is left semicentral. \Box

Corollary 2.6. Let $e \in E(R)$. Then *e* is left (resp. right) semicentral if and only if x - xe (resp. x - ex) is a right (resp. left) *x*-idempotent for every $x \in R$.

Proof. It follows from Theorems 2.4 and 2.5. \Box

Theorem 2.7. Let $e \in R$. Then the following statements are equivalent: (1) $e \in E(R)$; (2) e is a left (x + 1)-idempotent for each $x \in l(e)$, where $l(e) = \{y \in R | ye = 0\}$; (3) e is a right (x + 1)-idempotent for every $x \in r(e)$, where $r(e) = \{y \in R | ey = 0\}$.

Proof. (1)⇒(2) By $e^2 = e$, for any $x \in l(e)$, $(x + 1)e = xe + e = e^2$. (2)⇒(1) If $x \in l(e)$, then $e^2 = (x + 1)e = e$. (1)⇔(3) The proof is similar. Note that if $e \in E(R)$, then (1 - e)e = e(1 - e) = 0. Thus, from Theorem 2.7 we infer the following corollary.

Corollary 2.8. Let $e \in R$. Then the following statements are equivalent: (1) $e \in E(R)$; (2) e is a left (x(1 - e) + 1)-idempotent for every $x \in R$; (3) e is a right ((1 - e)x + 1)-idempotent for each $x \in R$.

Theorem 2.9. Let $e, x \in R$. Then the following statements are equivalent: (1) *e* is a left *x*-idempotent;

$$(2) \begin{pmatrix} e & 0 \\ 0 & y \end{pmatrix} \text{ is a left } \begin{pmatrix} x & 0 \\ 0 & y \end{pmatrix} \text{-idempotent for each } y \in R;$$

$$(3) \begin{pmatrix} e & y \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ is a left } \begin{pmatrix} x & u \\ 0 & v \end{pmatrix} \text{-idempotent for any } y \in r(e-x), u, v \in R;$$

$$(4) \begin{pmatrix} e & y \\ 0 & e \end{pmatrix} \text{ is a left } \begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ 0 & x \end{pmatrix} \text{-idempotent for every } y \in r(e-x).$$

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2) By $e^2 = xe$,

$$\begin{pmatrix} e & 0 \\ 0 & y \end{pmatrix}^2 = \begin{pmatrix} e^2 & 0 \\ 0 & y^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} xe & 0 \\ 0 & y^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x & 0 \\ 0 & y \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e & 0 \\ 0 & y \end{pmatrix}.$$

(2) \Rightarrow (3) By assumption, one has $e^2 = xe$. By a straightforward computation,

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} e & y \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right)^2 = \left(\begin{array}{cc} e^2 & ey \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right),$$

and

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} x & u \\ 0 & v \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{cc} e & y \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} xe & xy \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right)$$

Since $y \in r(e - x)$, xy = ey. Thus $\begin{pmatrix} e^2 & ey \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} xe & xy \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. This gives the desired result. (3) \Rightarrow (4) By hypothesis, $e^2 = xe$. Moreover, ey = xy by $y \in r(e - x)$. Thus,

$$\begin{pmatrix} e & y \\ 0 & e \end{pmatrix}^2 = \begin{pmatrix} e^2 & ey + ye \\ 0 & e^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} xe & xy + ye \\ 0 & xe \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ 0 & x \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e & y \\ 0 & e \end{pmatrix}.$$

This proves (4).

(4)⇒(1) By assumption, we have $e^2 = xe$. This shows (1). Similarly, we have the following proposition.

Proposition 2.10. Let $e, x \in R$. Then the following statements are equivalent: (1) *e* is a right *x*-idempotent;

 $(2)\begin{pmatrix} e & 0\\ 0 & y \end{pmatrix} \text{ is a right} \begin{pmatrix} x & 0\\ 0 & y \end{pmatrix} \text{-idempotent for every } y \in R;$ $(3)\begin{pmatrix} e & 0\\ y & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ is a right} \begin{pmatrix} x & 0\\ u & v \end{pmatrix} \text{-idempotent for any } y \in l(e-x), u, v \in R;$ $(4)\begin{pmatrix} e & 0\\ y & e \end{pmatrix} \text{ is a right} \begin{pmatrix} x & 0\\ y & x \end{pmatrix} \text{-idempotent for each } y \in l(e-x).$

Notice that *x* is a left and right *x*-idempotent, and in this case, $y \in l(0)$, r(0) for any $y \in R$. Hence, by Theorem 2.9 and Proposition 2.10, we have the following corollary.

Corollary 2.11. Let
$$x, y \in R$$
. Then

$$(1) \begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ is a left } \begin{pmatrix} x & u \\ 0 & v \end{pmatrix} \text{-idempotent for any } u, v \in R.$$
$$(2) \begin{pmatrix} x & 0 \\ y & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ is a right } \begin{pmatrix} x & 0 \\ u & v \end{pmatrix} \text{-idempotent for any } u, v \in R.$$

Proposition 2.12. Let $a, x \in R$ and a be a left x-idempotent. Then axa is a left ax^2 -idempotent.

Proof. Assume that $a^2 = xa$, then $(axa)^2 = axa^2xa = ax^2axa = ax^2(axa)$. \Box

In general, the converse of Proposition 2.12 is not true. For example, in (\mathbb{Z}_4 , +, ×), we set a = [1] and x = [0], then [0] is a left [0]-idempotent, however [1] is not a left [0]-idempotent. The following result states when the converse of Proposition 2.12 holds.

Proposition 2.13. *Let* $a, x \in R$ *and axa be a left ax^2-idempotent. Then a be a left x-idempotent if one of the following statements holds:*

(1) $x = a^{\#};$ (2) $x_{l}^{\oplus} = a;$ (3) $a^{\oplus} = x;$ (4) $x^{\oplus} = a.$

Proof. By hypothesis, $axa^2xa = ax^2axa$.

(1) If $x = a^{\#}$, then $aa^{\#}a^{2}a^{\#}a = a^{2}a^{\#}a = a^{2}$ and $a(a^{\#})^{2}aa^{\#}a = a(a^{\#})^{2}a = a^{\#}a$. Then $a^{2} = a^{\#}a = xa$ by assumption.

(2) By $x_l^{(\text{ff})} = a$, one has xax = x, axa = a and $ax^2 = x$. Thus $axa^2xa = (axa)(axa) = a^2$ and $ax^2axa = xaxa = xa$. Hence, $a^2 = xa$.

The proofs of (3) and (4) are similar to the proof of (2). \Box

Proposition 2.14. Let $x, y, z \in R$ and y, z be left (resp. right) x-idempotents. Then y + z is a left (resp. right) x-idempotent if and only if yz + zy = 0.

Proof. Since *y*, *z* are left *x*-idempotents, $y^2 = xy$ and $z^2 = xz$. Then $(y+z)^2 = y^2 + yz + zy + z^2 = xy + yz + zy + xz = x(y+z) + yz + zy$. Hence, $(y+z)^2 = x(y+z)$ if and only if yz + zy = 0. Thus the proof is completed. \Box

Theorem 2.15. Let $e \in R$. Then $e \in E(R)$ if and only if e is a left (x - xe + e)-idempotent (a right (x - ex + e)-idempotent) for any $x \in R$.

Proof. \Rightarrow Suppose that $e^2 = e$, then

$$(x - xe + e)e = xe - xe^{2} + e^{2} = xe - xe + e = e.$$

⇐ By $(x - xe + e)e = xe - xe^2 + e^2 = e^2$, then $xe - xe^2 = 0$. In particular, taking x = 1, then $e = e^2$. Hence, $e \in E(R)$. \Box

Proposition 2.16. Let $e \in ME_l(R)$ (resp. $e \in ME_r(R)$) and e be left (resp. right) semicentral. Then for any $x \in R$ with $xe \neq 0$ (resp. $ex \neq 0$), there exists some $y \in R$ such that e is a left xy-idempotent (resp. a right yx-idempotent).

Proof. Since $xe \neq 0$, Rxe = Re. Assume that e = yxe, we obtain e = yexe, and so $ye \neq 0$. By Rye = Re, we suppose that e = zye. Hence, ze = z(yexe) = (zye)(xe) = exe = xe, and so e = zye = zeye = xeye = xye. It follows that $e^2 = e = xye$, and thus e is a left xy-idempotent. \Box

Proposition 2.17. For any $x \in R$ with $xe \neq 0$ (resp. $ex \neq 0$), if there always exists some $y \in R$ such that e is a left *xy*-idempotent (resp. a right *yx*-idempotent), then e is left (resp. right) semicentral.

Proof. Taking any $x \in R$, if $(1 - e)xe \neq 0$, then by the assumption, there exists some $y \in R$ such that $e = e^2 = (1 - e)xye$, a contradiction. Hence, (1 - e)xe = 0 for any $x \in R$, which implies that e is left semicentral. \Box

From Propositions 2.16 and 2.17, we infer the following corollary immediately.

Corollary 2.18. Let $e \in ME_l(R)$ (resp. $e \in ME_r(R)$). Then e is left (resp. right) semicentral if and only if for any $x \in R$ with $xe \neq 0$ (resp. $ex \neq 0$), there exists some $y \in R$ such that e is a left xy-idempotent (resp. a right yx-idempotent).

Theorem 2.19. Let $x \in R$. Then $x \in Z(R)$ if and only if for each $a \in R$, xa - ax is a left (resp. right) xa-idempotent and a left (resp. right) (xa + a)-idempotent.

Proof. \Rightarrow If $x \in Z(R)$, then it is obvious that xa - ax = 0 is a left xa-idempotent and a left (xa + a)-idempotent. \Leftrightarrow By $(xa - ax)^2 = xa(xa - ax)$, we have ax(ax - xa) = 0, i.e., ax[a, x] = 0. According to $(xa - ax)^2 = (xa + a)(xa - ax)$, then a(xa - ax) = 0, i.e., a[a, x] = 0. Since $a + 1 \in R$, (a + 1)[a + 1, x] = 0, thus [a, x] = 0. It follows that $x \in Z(R)$. \Box

Theorem 2.20. Let $x \in R$. Then $x \in Z(R)$ if and only if xa - ax is a left (right) a-idempotent for each $a \in R$.

Proof. ⇒ Note that $x \in Z(R)$, then xa - ax = 0, and so it is a left *a*-idempotent for any $a \in R$. \Leftarrow By a straightforward computation, [a, x] = [a + 1, x]. Thus, by assumption, we have

 $a[a, x] = (xa - ax)^2 = (x(a + 1) - (a + 1)x)^2 = (a + 1)[a, x].$

Hence, [a, x] = 0 for any $a \in R$, and so $x \in Z(R)$. \Box

Theorem 2.21. Let $e \in R$. Then $e \in R^{PI}$ if and only if e is a left $(x - xee^* + e)$ -idempotent (a right $(x - e^*ex + e)$ -idempotent) for each $x \in R$.

Proof. ⇒ If $e = ee^*e$, then $(x - xee^* + e)e = xe - xee^*e + e^2 = e^2$. \Leftarrow By $(1 - ee^* + e)e = e^2$, one gets $e = ee^*e$. □

3. One-sided *x*-equal elements

Definition 3.1. Let $a, b, x \in R$, a and b are called left (resp. right) x-equal if xa = xb (resp. ax = bx).

In particular, for the case of left *x*-equal in Definition 3.1, if x = a, then *a* is a right *b*-idempotent; provided that x = b, then *b* is a right *a*-idempotent.

Proposition 3.2. Let $a, x \in R$. Then a is a left (resp. right) x-idempotent if and only if a and x are right (resp. left) *a*-equal.

Proof. It follows from a straightforward verification. \Box

Proposition 3.3. Let $a, b, x \in R$. Then a and b are left (resp. right) x-equal if and only if a - x and b - x are left (resp. right) x-equal.

Proof. ⇒ If xa = xb, then x(a - x) = x(b - x). \Leftarrow By x(a - x) = x(b - x), one gets xa = xb. \Box

Proposition 3.4. Let $a, b, x \in R$, and a and b be left (resp. right) x-equal. Then if ab = ba, we have a^2 and b^2 are left (resp. right) x-equal.

Proof. Since xa = xb and ab = ba, we have

$$xa^2 = (xa)a = (xb)a = (xa)b = (xb)b = xb^2.$$

Proposition 3.5. Let $a, b, x \in R$, and a and b be left (resp. right) x-equal. Then a and b are left (resp. right) x^n -equal, where $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$.

Proof. By xa = xb, we have

$$x^n a = x^{n-1}(xa) = x^{n-1}(xb) = x^n b.$$

(1) $e \in E(R)$; (2) 1 - e and 0 are left e-equal; (3) 1 - e and 0 are right e-equal; (4) e and 0 are left (1 - e)-equal; (5) e and 0 are right (1 - e)-equal; (6) 2e - 1 and e are left e-equal; (7) 2e - 1 and e are right e-equal.

Proof. (1)⇒(2) By $e^2 = e$, we have $e(1 - e) = e^2 - e = 0$. (2)⇒(3) It follows from e(1 - e) = (1 - e)e. (3)⇒(4) It is obvious. (4)⇒(5) It follows from (1 - e)e = e(1 - e). (5)⇒(6) By (1 - e)e = 0, $e^2 = e$. Thus,

$$e(2e-1) = 2e^2 - e = e = e^2$$
.

(6)⇒(7) It follows from e(2e - 1) = (2e - 1)e. (7)⇒(1) By $e^2 = (2e - 1)e = 2e^2 - e$, one gets $e^2 = e$. □

Theorem 3.7. Let $e \in E(R)$. Then *e* is left (resp. right) semicentral if and only if for each $x \in E(R)$, if *e* and *x* are left (resp. right) *e*-equal, then *e* and *x* are right (resp. left) *e*-equal.

Proof. \Rightarrow By $e^2 = e$, exe = xe and $e^2 = ex$, then

 $xe = exe = e^3 = e^2$.

⇐ For any $y \in R$, let x = e - (1 - e)ye. Then xe = x, $ex = e^2$, and $x^2 = (xe)x = x(ex) = xe^2 = xe = x$. Note that $ex = e^2$, hence $xe = e^2$ by hypothesis, and so x = xe = e. It follows that (1 - e)ye = 0, i.e., e is a left semicentral. \Box

Theorem 3.8. Let $a, b, x, y, u \in R$, and x = uyx (resp. x = xyu). Then a and b are left (resp. right) x-equal if and only if a and b are left yx-equal (resp. right xy-equal).

Proof. \Rightarrow If xa = xb, then y(xa) = yxb. \Leftarrow By yxa = yxb, we have

xa = uyxa = uyxb = xb.

Theorem 3.9. Let $a, b, x \in R$. Then a and b are left (resp. right) x-equal if and only if a + b and 2a are left (resp. right) x-equal.

Proof. \Rightarrow If xa = xb, then x(a + b) = xa + xb = 2xa = x(2a). \Leftarrow Assume that x(a + b) = x(2a) = 2xa, then xa = xb. \Box

Theorem 3.10. Let $e \in R$. Then e is left (resp. right) semicentral if and only if x and ex (resp. x and xe) are right (resp. left) e-equal for each $x \in R$.

Proof. \Rightarrow Since *e* is left semicentral, *exe* = *xe* for any *x* \in *R*.

⇐ By assumption, exe = xe for every $x \in R$. In particular, taking x = 1, then $e^2 = e$. Hence, e is left semicentral. \Box

Theorem 3.11. Let $e \in R$. Then e is left (resp. right) semicentral if and only if xy and xey are right (resp. left) e-equal for any $x, y \in R$.

Proof. \Rightarrow By *exe* = *xe* and *eye* = *ye*, then *xeye* = *xye*.

⇐ By hypothesis, *xeye* = *xye* for each $x, y \in R$. Taking x = 1, then *eye* = *ye*. Furthermore, setting x = y = 1, then $e^2 = e$. Thus *e* is left semicentral. \Box

Theorem 3.12. Let $x \in R$. Then $x \in Z(R)$ if and only if xy and yx are left (right) y-equal for any $y \in R$.

Proof. ⇒ If $x \in Z(R)$, then $yxy = y^2x$. \Leftarrow By $yxy = y^2x$ and $(y + 1)x(y + 1) = (y + 1)^2x$, then xy = yx for any $y \in R$. Hence, $x \in Z(R)$. \Box

Theorem 3.13. Let $x \in R$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. Then $x \in Z(R)$ if and only if xy and yx are left (right) y^n -equal for each $y \in R$.

Proof. ⇒ If $x \in Z(R)$, then $y^n xy = y^{n+1}x$. \Leftarrow By $y^n(xy - yx) = 0$ and $(y + 1)^n(x(y + 1) - (y + 1)x) = 0$, i.e., $(y + 1)^n(xy - yx) = 0$. Then,

$$(1 + \binom{n}{n-1}y + \dots + \binom{n}{2}y^{n-2} + \binom{n}{1}y^{n-1}[x, y] = 0.$$
⁽¹⁾

Multiplying (1) on the left by y^{n-1} , then by $y^n(xy - yx) = 0$, one gets $y^{n-1}[x, y] = 0$. Repeating the above procedures, one has [x, y] = 0, and hence $x \in Z(R)$. \Box

4. One-sided *x*-projections

Definition 4.1. Let $a, x \in R$. Then a is called a left (resp. right) x-projection if $a^2 = xa$ (resp. $a^2 = ax$) and $a^* = a$.

From Definitions 4.1 and 2.1, we get the following conclusion.

Proposition 4.2. Let $a, x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then a is a left (resp. right) x-projection if and only if $a \in \mathbb{R}^{Her}$ and a is a left (resp. right) x-idempotent.

By Proposition 4.2, one gets the following corollary.

Corollary 4.3. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then x is a left (right) x-projection if and only if $x \in \mathbb{R}^{Her}$.

Corollary 4.4. Let $x \in R$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. Then (1) $(xx^*)^n$ is a left (right) $(xx^*)^n$ -projection. (2) $(x^*x)^n$ is a left (right) $(x^*x)^n$ -projection. (3) $x + x^*$ is a left (right) $(x + x^*)$ -projection.

Proof. It follows from Corollary 4.3. \Box

Lemma 4.5. Let *a* be a left *x*-projection and *m*, $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. Then (1) $ax^* = xa$. (2) $x^m a^n = a^{m+n}$. (3) $a^n (x^*)^m = a^{m+n}$. (4) $(ax^*)^n = (xa)^n = a^{2n}$. (5) $(ax)^n = a^{2n-1}x$. (6) $(x^*a)^n = x^*a^{2n-1}$. *Proof.* (1) $ax^* = a^*x^* = (xa)^* = (a^2)^* = a^2 = xa$. (2) By $xa = a^2$, then

$$x^{m}a^{n} = x^{m-1}(xa)a^{n-1}$$

= $x^{m-1}a^{n+1}$
= $x^{m-2}(xa)a^{n}$
= $x^{m-2}a^{n+2}$
= \cdots
= a^{m+n} .

(3) By $ax^* = a^2$, then

$$a^{n}(x^{*})^{m} = a^{n-1}(ax^{*})(x^{*})^{m-1}$$

= $a^{n+1}(x^{*})^{m-1}$
= $a^{n}(ax^{*})(x^{*})^{m-2}$
= $a^{n+2}(x^{*})^{m-2}$
= \cdots
= a^{m+n} .

(4) By $ax^* = xa = a^2$, then

$$(ax^*)^n = (xa)^n = (a^2)^n = a^{2n}.$$

(5) By
$$xa = a^2$$
, then

$$(ax)^{n} = (ax)^{n-2}a(xa)x$$

= $(ax)^{n-2}a^{3}x$
= $(ax)^{n-3}a(xa)a^{2}x$
= $(ax)^{n-3}a^{5}x$
= ...
= $a^{2n-1}x$.

(6) By $ax^* = a^2$, then

$$(x^*a)^n = (x^*a)^{n-2}x^*(ax^*)a$$

= $(x^*a)^{n-2}x^*a^3$
= $(x^*a)^{n-3}x^*(ax^*)a^3$
= $(x^*a)^{n-3}x^*a^5$
= ...
= x^*a^{2n-1} .

Theorem 4.6. Let a be a left x-projection and $n, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. Then

(1) a^n is a left x^n -projection.

(2) a^n is a left $a^p x^q$ -projection, where p + q = n.

(3) a^n is a right $(x^*)^n$ -projection.

(4) a^n is a right $(x^*)^p a^q$ -projection, where p + q = n.

Proof. (1) By Lemma 4.5 (2), then $x^n a^n = a^{2n}$. (2) By Lemma 4.5 (2), $(a^p x^q) a^n = a^p (x^q a^n) = a^{p+q+n} = a^{2n}$. (3) By Lemma 4.5 (3), $a^n (x^*)^n = a^{2n}$. (4) By Lemma 4.5 (3), $a^n ((x^*)^p a^q) = (a^n (x^*)^p) a^q = a^{n+p+q} = a^{2n}$.

By Theorem 4.6, one has the following conclusion.

Corollary 4.7. Let a be a left x-projection and $m, n, s, t, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. Then (1) $a^n(x^*)^t x^s a^m$ is a left $a^{n+m+s+t}$ -projection. (2) $a^n(x^*)^t x^s a^m$ is a left $a^n(x^*)^t x^{s+m}$ -projection. (3) $(ax^*)^n (xa)^s$ is a left a^{2n+2s} -projection. (4) $(ax^*)^n (xa)^s$ is a left $(ax^*)^n x^{2s}$ -projection. (5) $a^n x^s (x^*)^t a^m$ is a left $a^n x^s (x^*)^t x^m$ -projection. (6) $x^s a^m (x^*)^t$ is a left a^{m+s+t} -projection. (7) $x^s a^m (x^*)^t$ is a left $x^s a^{m+t}$ -projection. (8) $x^{s}(ax^{*})^{t}$ is a left a^{s+2t} -projection. (9) $x^{s}(ax^{*})^{t}$ is a left $x^{s}a^{2t}$ -projection. (10) $x^s a^m (x^*)^t$ is a left a^{m+s+t} -projection. (11) $x^{s}(ax^{*})^{t}$ is a left a^{s+2t} -projection. (12) $(xax^*)^s$ is a left a^{3s} -projection. (13) $a^n(x^*)^t x^s a^m$ is a left $a^{m+n+s+t}$ -projection. (14) $a^n(x^*)^t x^s a^m$ is a left $a^p x^q$ -projection, where p + q = m + n + s + t. (15) $(ax^*)^n x^s a^m$ is a left a^{2n+m+s} -projection. (16) $(ax^*)^n x^s a^m$ is a left $a^p x^q$ -projection, where p + q = 2n + m + s. (17) $(ax^*)^n (xa)^s$ is a left a^{2n+2s} -projection. (18) $(ax^*)^n (xa)^s$ is a left $a^p x^q$ -projection, where p + q = 2n + 2s. (19) $a^n(x^*)^t(xa)^s$ is a left a^{n+2s+t} -projection. (20) $a^n(x^*)^t(xa)^s$ is a left a^px^q -projection, where p + q = n + 2s + t. (21) $a^n(x^*)^t x^s a^m$ is a right $(x^*)^{n+m+s+t}$ -projection. (22) $a^n(x^*)^t x^s a^m$ is a right $(x^*)^p a^q$ -projection, where p + q = n + m + s + t. (23) $(ax^*)^n x^s a^m$ is a right $(x^*)^{2n+m+s}$ -projection. (24) $(ax^*)^n x^s a^m$ is a right $(x^*)^p a^q$ -projection, where p + q = 2n + m + s. (25) $a^n(x^*)^t(xa)^s$ is a right $(x^*)^{n+2s+t}$ -projection. (26) $a^n(x^*)^t(xa)^s$ is a right $(x^*)^p a^q$ -projection, where p + q = n + 2s + t. (27) $(ax^*)^n(xa)^s$ is a right $(x^*)^{2n+2s}$ -projection. (28) $(ax^*)^n (xa)^s$ is a right $(x^*)^p a^q$ -projection, where p + q = 2n + 2s. (29) $a^n(x^*)^t x^s a^m$ is a right $(x^*)^{n+m+s+t}$ -projection. (30) $a^n(x^*)^t x^s a^m$ is a right $(x^*)^p a^q$ -projection, where p + q = n + m + s + t. (31) $(ax^*)^n x^s a^m$ is a right $(x^*)^{2n+m+s}$ -projection. (32) $(ax^*)^n x^s a^m$ is a right $(x^*)^p a^q$ -projection, where p + q = 2n + m + s. (33) $a^n(x^*)^t(xa)^s$ is a right $(x^*)^{n+2s+t}$ -projection. (34) $a^n(x^*)^t(xa)^s$ is a right $(x^*)^p a^q$ -projection, where p + q = n + 2s + t. (35) $(ax^*)^n (xa)^s$ is a right $(x^*)^{2n+2s}$ -projection. (36) $(ax^*)^n (xa)^s$ is a right $(x^*)^p a^q$ -projection, where p + q = 2n + 2s.

Proposition 4.8. *Let* $e, a \in R$ *. Then*

(1) $e \in \mathbb{R}^{proj}$ if and only if e is a left (right) 1-projection.

(2) Assume that $x \in \mathbb{R}^{Her}$, then a is a left x-projection if and only if a - x is a right (-x)-projection.

(3) a is a left x-projection if and only if a is a right x^* -projection.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow If $e \in \mathbb{R}^{proj}$, then $e^2 = e$ and $e^* = e$, and hence e is a left 1-projection.

 $\Leftarrow By \ e^2 = e \text{ and } e^* = e, \text{ we have } e \in \mathbb{R}^{proj}.$

(2) \Rightarrow If $x^* = x$, $a^* = a$ and $a^2 = xa$, then

 $(a - x)^2 = a^2 - ax - xa + x^2 = -ax + x^2 = (a - x)(-x)$, and $(a - x)^* = a^* - x^* = a - x$.

It follows that a - x is a right (-x)-projection.

 \leftarrow By hypothesis, $x \in \mathbb{R}^{Her}$, $(a - x)^* = a - x$, and $(a - x)^2 = (a - x)(a - x)$. Thus, one gets $a^* = a$ and $a^2 = xa$, which implies that *a* is a left *x*-projection.

(3) It follows from Lemma 4.5 (1). \Box

Proposition 4.9. *Let* $e \in R$ *. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

(1) $e \in R^{proj}$;

(2) e is a left (2e – 1)-projection;

(3) e is a right (2e – 1)-projection.

Proof. (1)⇒(2) Since $e^2 = e$ and $e^* = e$, we obtain that e is a left (2e − 1)-projection. (2)⇒(3) It follows from e(2e - 1) = (2e - 1)e. (3)⇒(1) By $e^2 = e(2e - 1) = 2e^2 - e$, one gets $e = e^2$. Thus, $e \in \mathbb{R}^{proj}$ by $e = e^*$. \Box

Proposition 4.10. *Let* $a, x \in R$ *and a be a left x-projection. Then*

(1) $x^2 a = axa$. (2) if $a^2 = 1$, then x = a. (3) $x \in a\{1\}$ if and only if $a^3 = a$. (4) *a* is a left $(x + ax - x^2)$ -projection.

Proof. By assumption, $a = a^*$ and $a^2 = xa$. (1) $x^2a = x(xa) = xa^2 = (xa)a = a^2a = aa^2 = axa$. (2) If $a^2 = 1$, then $x = xa^2 = (xa)a = a^3 = a$. (3) \Rightarrow If a = axa, then $a^3 = aa^2 = axa = a$. \Leftarrow By $a^3 = a$, then $a(xa) = a^3 = a$. (4) $(x + ax - x^2)a = xa + axa - x^2a = a^2 + a^3 - xa^2 = a^2 + a^3 - a^3 = a^2$. Then by $a^* = a$, a is a left $(x + ax - x^2)$ -projection. \Box

Proposition 4.11. *Let* $e \in R$ *. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

(1) $e \in \mathbb{R}^{proj}$; (2) 1 - e is a left (1 - 2e)-projection; (3) 1 - e is a right (1 - 2e)-projection; (4) e is a left $(e + e^* - 1)$ -projection; (5) e is a right $(e + e^* - 1)$ -projection.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2) If $e^2 = e = e^*$, then $(1 - e)^2 = 1 - 2e + e^2 = 1 - e$ and $(1 - 2e)(1 - e) = 1 - 3e + 2e^2 = 1 - e$. Hence, $(1 - e)^2 = (1 - 2e)(1 - e)$, and so 1 - e is a left (1 - 2e)-projection.

(2) \Rightarrow (3) It follows from (1 - 2e)(1 - e) = (1 - e)(1 - 2e). (3) \Rightarrow (4) By $1 - e = 1 - e^*$ and $(1 - e)^2 = (1 - e)(1 - 2e)$, one gets $e = e^*$ and $e = e^2$. Hence,

$$(e + e^* - 1)e = e^2 + ee^* - e = e = e^2.$$

(4)⇒(5) By hypothesis, $e = e^*$ and $e^2 = (e + e^* - 1)e$, then $e^*e = e$. Thus $e(e + e^* - 1) = e^2 + ee^* - e = e^2$. (5)⇒(1) If $e = e^*$ and $e^2 = e(e + e^* - 1)$, then $ee^* = e$, and so $e^2 = ee^* = e$. □ **Proposition 4.12.** Let $a \in \mathbb{R}^{reg}$ and a be a left (resp. right) x-projection. Then a is a left $(x + u - uaa^{-})$ -projection (resp. a right $(x + u - a^{-}au)$ -projection) for any $u \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. If $a = a^*$ and $a^2 = xa$, then $(x + u - uaa^-)a = xa + ua - uaa^-a = xa + ua - ua = xa$. \Box

Theorem 4.13. Let $e \in E(R)$ and ea^* be a left (right) a-idempotent for each $a \in R$. Then e is a central projection.

Proof. By hypothesis, for any $a \in R$,

 $ea^*ea^* = aea^*$, and $e(a + 1)^*e(a + 1)^* = (a + 1)e(a + 1)^*$.

Then $ea^*e = ae$. Taking $a = e^*$, then $e = e^*e$, which implies that $e \in R^{proj}$. For any $x \in R$, let g = e + (1 - e)xe. Then

$$eq = e$$
, $qe = q$, and $q^2 = q$.

By hypothesis, eg^* is a left *g*-idempotent. Then $eg^*eg^* = geg^*$, and hence $gg^* = geg^* = (geg^*)^* = (eg^*eg^*)^* = gege = g$. It follows that $g \in R^{proj}$, and so $g = g^* = (ge)^* = e^*g^* = eg = e$. Hence, (1 - e)xe = 0 for any $x \in R$, which shows that *e* is left semicentral, and so e^* is right semicentral. Notice that $e \in R^{proj}$, hence *e* is central. \Box

Remark 4.14. In Theorem 4.13, if ea^* is replaced by a^*e or $a - ea^*$ or $a - a^*e$, then the assertion also holds.

Proposition 4.15. Let $a, x, y \in R$ and x and y be left (resp. right) *a*-projections. Then x + y is a left (resp. right) *a*-projection if and only if xy + yx = 0.

Proof. By assumption, $x^* = x$, $y^* = y$, $x^2 = ax$ and $y^2 = ay$. \Rightarrow If $(x + y)^2 = a(x + y)$, then by $x^2 = ax$ and $y^2 = ay$, one gets xy + yx = 0. \Leftarrow By xy + yx = 0, then $(x + y)^2 = x^2 + xy + yx + y^2 = ax + ay = a(x + y)$. \Box

Theorem 4.16. *Let* $e \in R$ *. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

(1) $e \in \mathbb{R}^{proj}$; (2) e is a left $(a + 1 - xe^*e + xe)$ -projection for each $a \in l(e)$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$;

(3) *e* is a right $(a + 1 - ee^*y + ey)$ -projection for every $a \in r(e)$ and $y \in R$.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2) If $e^2 = e = e^*$, then

 $(a + 1 - xe^*e + xe)e = ae + e - xe^*e^2 + xe^2$ = ae + e= e $= e^2.$

(2) \Rightarrow (3) By hypothesis, $e^* = e$ and $e^2 = (a + 1 - xe^*e + xe)e$, then one gets $e^2 = e$. Thus,

$$e(a + 1 - ee^*y + ey) = ea + e - e^2e^*y + e^2y$$
$$= e$$
$$- e^2$$

 $(3) \Rightarrow (1)$ It follows from a straightforward verification.

Notice that if $e \in E(R)$, then (1 - e)e = e(1 - e) = 0. Thus, we have the following corollary of Theorem 4.16.

Corollary 4.17. *Let* $e \in R$ *. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

(1) $e \in R^{proj}$;

(2) *e* is a left $(a(1 - e) + 1 - xe^*e + xe)$ -projection for any $a, x \in R$;

(3) *e* is a right $((1 - e)a + 1 - ee^*y + ey)$ -projection for any $a, y \in R$.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declared that they have no conflict of interest.

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