# FINITE RINGS IN WHICH 1 IS A SUM OF TWO NON-p-th POWER UNITS 

DAVID JACOBSON

Introduction. Let $R$ be a finite ring with 1 and let $R^{*}$ denote the group of units of $R$. Let $p$ be a prime number. In this paper we consider the question of whether there exist $a, b$ in $R^{*}$ such that $a$ and $b$ are non- $p$-th powers whose sum is 1 . If such units $a, b$ exist in $R$, we say that $R$ is an $N(p)$-ring. Of course if $p$ does not divide $\left|R^{*}\right|$, the order of $R^{*}$, then every element in $R^{*}$ is a $p$ th power.

Let $J$ denote the Jacobson radical of $R$. Hence $R / J$ is a direct product of full matrix rings over finite fields. If the two-element field occurs as a factor in $R / J$, then clearly 1 cannot be written as a sum of two units in $R$. On the other hand, if the two-element field does not occur in $R / J$, then it follows from [3, Theorem 11] that every element of $R$ is a sum of two units. So henceforth we assume that $R$ is a ring of this type.

We say that $R$ is an $N$-ring if $R$ is an $N(p)$-ring for all primes $p$ dividing $\left|R^{*}\right|$. For example, it is shown that a ring of one of the following kinds is an $N$-ring, namely a commutative ring, or a ring of odd order, or the ring $F_{n}$ of all $n \times n$ matrices over a finite field $F$ where $|F|>2$. However if $|F|=2$ and $p$ divides $\left|F_{n}{ }^{*}\right|$, then $F_{n}$ is an $N(p)$-ring except if the order of $2(\bmod p)$ is $n-1$ or $p=2$ and $n=2,3,5$ (see Theorem 2).

In Section 1 we consider finite commutative rings and in Section 2 we deal with finite semisimple rings. Section 3 is devoted to rings of odd order and finally in Section 4 we deduce additional results.

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1. Commutative rings. Let $R$ be a finite commutative ring and let $J$ be its Jacobson radical. We prove the following theorem.

Theorem 1. Let $R$ be a finite commutative ring such that the two-element field does not occur as a factor in $R / J$. Then $R$ is an $N$-ring.

Proof. Let $p$ be any prime dividing $\left|R^{*}\right|$. We prove that $R$ is a $N(p)$-ring. Since $R$ is a direct product of local rings, we may assume that $R$ is a local ring with maximal ideal $J$. Let $F$ denote the finite field $R / J$. There exists an epimorphism $R^{*} \rightarrow F^{*}$ with kernel $1+J$. As $|J|$ and $\left|F^{*}\right|$ are relatively prime, $R^{*}$ is isomorphic to the direct product of the groups $1+J$ and $F^{*}$. Now let $S$ (resp. $N$ ) denote the set of $p$ th (resp. non- $p$-th) powers in $R^{*}$ which are not in

[^0]$1+J$. Let $g: N \rightarrow R$ be the mapping defined by $g(a)=1-a$ for $a$ in $N$. Since $J$ is the set of all non-units in $R, g(N) \subseteq S \cup N$ and as $|N|=|g(N)|$, it suffices to prove that $|N|>|S|$. We distinguish the two cases $p\left|\left|F^{*}\right|\right.$ and $\left.p\right||J|$.

First suppose that $p \| F^{*} \mid$. Let $S_{1}$ be the subgroup of $p$-th powers in $F^{*}$. As every element in $1+J$ is a $p$-th power,

$$
|S|=|J|\left(\left|S_{1}\right|-1\right) \text { and }|N|=|J|\left(\left|F^{*}\right|-\left|S_{1}\right|\right) .
$$

Thus it suffices to prove that $\left|F^{*}\right|+1>2\left|S_{1}\right|$. Let $f$ be the $p$ th power map in $F^{*}$. Then $\left|F^{*}\right|=|\operatorname{Ker} f|\left|S_{1}\right|$ where $|\operatorname{Ker} f|=p$ since $F^{*}$ is cyclic. Hence $\left|F^{*}\right|+1>2\left|S_{1}\right|$, proving that $|N|>|S|$.

Assume now that $p \| J \mid$. Let $S_{0}$ be the subgroup of $p$ th powers in $1+J$. As every element in $F^{*}$ is a $p$ th power,

$$
|S|=\left|S_{0}\right|\left(\left|F^{*}\right|-1\right) \text { and }|N|=\left(|J|-\left|S_{0}\right|\right)\left(\left|F^{*}\right|-1\right)
$$

Since $\left|F^{*}\right|-1>0$, it suffices to show that $|J|>2\left|S_{0}\right|$. Let $f_{0}$ be the $p$ th power map in $1+J$. Then $|J|=\left|\operatorname{Ker} f_{0}\right|\left|S_{0}\right|$ where $\left|\operatorname{Ker} f_{0}\right| \geqq p$. Thus if $p>2$, then $|N|>|S|$. So let $p=2$. Suppose that $\left|\operatorname{Ker} f_{0}\right|=2$, that is, $1+J$ has a unique element of order 2 . Since $1+J$ is an abelian 2 -group, $1+J$ is cyclic and hence $R^{*}$ is cyclic. Referring to the classification in [2], we see that $R$ is isomorphic to one of the following rings: $Z /(4), F_{0}[x] /\left(x^{m}\right)$ where $F_{0}=Z /(2)$ and $m=2$ or 3 , or $Z[x] /\left(4,2 x, x^{2}-2\right)$. However each of these rings has a residue field of order 2 , contrary to our hypothesis. Hence $\left|\operatorname{Ker} f_{0}\right|>2$ and again $|N|>|S|$, completing the proof.
2. Semisimple rings. Let $n$ be a positive integer and $F$ a finite field. As usual, we let $F_{n}$ denote the ring of all $n \times n$ matrices with entries in $F$.

Theorem 2. Let $F$ be a finite field.
(1) If $|F|>2$, then $F_{n}$ is an $N$-ring.
(2) If $|F|=2$ and $p$ divides $\left|F_{n}{ }^{*}\right|$, then $F_{n}$ is an $N(p)$-ring except if
(a) $p \mid 2^{n-1}-1$ and $n-1$ is the least positive integer with this property or
(b) $p=2$ and $n=2,3,5$.

The proof of the theorem is preceded by the following lemma.
Lemma 1. Let $F$ be a finite field of characteristic $p$. Let $A$ be a matrix in $F_{n}$ whose minimum polynomial is $f(x)$. If $f(x)$ and $f^{\prime}(x)$ are relatively prime, then $A$ is a pth power. Conversely if $A$ is a pth power and $f(x)$ has degree $n$, then $f(x)$ and $f^{\prime}(x)$ are relatively prime.

Proof. Let $F[A]$ denote the $F$-subalgebra generated by $A$. We prove that $f(x)$ and its derivative $f^{\prime}(x)$ are relatively prime if and only if $A$ is a $p$ th power in $F[A]$.

Let $f(x)$ and $f^{\prime}(x)$ be relatively prime. It follows that

$$
f(x)=f_{1}(x) \ldots f_{m}(x)
$$

where $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{m}$ are distinct monic irreducibles in $F[x]$. Hence $F[A]$ is isomorphic to the direct product of the finite fields

$$
F[x] /\left(f_{1}\right), \ldots, F[x] /\left(f_{m}\right)
$$

each of characteristic $p$ and thus $(F[A])^{p}=F[A]$.
Conversely let $A=B^{p}$ for $B$ in $F[A]$. Since $F[A]$ is isomorphic to $F[x] /(f(x))$ where $A \rightarrow x+(f(x))$, there exist $g(x)$ and $h(x)$ in $F[x]$ such that

$$
x-[g(x)]^{p}=f(x) h(x)
$$

Differentiating each side yields that $1=f(x) h^{\prime}(x)+f^{\prime}(x) h(x)$, proving that $f(x)$ and $f^{\prime}(x)$ are relatively prime.

Finally suppose that $A=B^{p}$ where $B$ is in $F_{n}$ and $f(x)$ has degree $n$. To prove that $f(x)$ and $f^{\prime}(x)$ are relatively prime, it suffices to show that $B \in F[A]$. Now $F[A] \subseteq F[B]$ and thus $|F[A]| \leqq|F[B]|$, that is $|F|^{n} \leqq|F|^{n_{1}}$ where $n_{1}$ is the degree of the minimum polynomial of $B$. However $n_{1} \leqq n$ and hence $F[A]=F[B]$, completing the proof of the lemma.

Note that if $A$ is a unit in $F_{n}$ such that $p$ divides $|A|$ and $f(x)$ is of degree $n$, then $A$ is not a $p$ th power in $F_{n}$.

We also remark that Lemma 1 does not always hold if $\operatorname{deg} f(x)<n$. For let $n=p^{2}$ and let $B$ be a matrix in $F_{n}$ whose minimum polynomial is $(x-\alpha)^{n}$ where $\alpha$ is in the prime subfield of $F$. Then $A=B^{p}$ has minimum polynomial $f(x)=(x-\alpha)^{p}$, whence $f^{\prime}(x)=0$.

We now return to the proof of the theorem. Let $|F|=q$. It is well known that

$$
\left|F_{n}{ }^{*}\right|=q^{(n-1) n / 2}\left(q^{n}-1\right) \ldots(q-1)
$$

Let $p$ be a prime dividing $\left|F_{n}{ }^{*}\right|$.
We first assume that $p=$ char. $F$, so that $n \geqq 2$. Let $q>2$ and choose $\alpha$ in $F$, $\alpha \neq 0,1$. Let $A=\alpha I_{n}+E$, where $E$ is the matrix with 1 in the ( $i, i+1$ ) entry and zeros elsewhere. Set $B=I_{n}-A$. Then the minimum polynomials of $A$ and $B$ are respectively $(x-\alpha)^{n}$ and $(x-(1-\alpha))^{n}$. Hence by Lemma $1, A$ and $B$ are non- $p$-th power units in $F_{n}$ whose sum is $I_{n}$.

Now let $q=2$, so that $p=2$. We prove that $F_{n}$ is an $N(2)$-ring if and only if $n=4$ or $n \geqq 6$.

Suppose that $n=2 m$ where $m \geqq 2$. Let $A$ in $F_{n}$ be the companion matrix of $f(x)=\left(x^{2}+x+1\right)^{m}$ and let $A+B=I_{n}$. Thus the minimum polynomial of $B$ is $f(x+1)=f(x)$ and by Lemma $1, A$ and $B$ are non-square units in $F_{n}$.

Now let $n=2 m+3$ where $m \geqq 2$. Let $A$ in $F_{n}$ be the companion matrix of

$$
f(x)=\left(x^{2}+x+1\right)^{m}\left(x^{3}+x+1\right)
$$

and let $A+B=I_{n}$. Thus the minimum polynomial of $B$ is

$$
f(x+1)=\left(x^{2}+x+1\right)^{m}\left(x^{3}+x^{2}+1\right)
$$

and again by the lemma, $A$ and $B$ are non-square units in $F_{n}$.

This proves that $F_{n}$ is an $N(2)$-ring for $n=4$ or $n \geqq 6$.
Assume now that $A$ is a non-square unit in $F_{n}$ where $n$ is 2,3 or 5 . Let $f(x)$ be the minimum polynomial of $A$. Since $f(x)$ and $f^{\prime}(x)$ are not relatively prime and $x \nmid f(x)$, it is easy to verify that $x+1$ is a divisor of $f(x)$. Hence if $A+B=I_{n}$, then $B$ is a non-unit in $F_{n}$ since $x$ divides $f(x+1)$, the minimum polynomial of $B$.

Now suppose that $p$ divides $\left|F_{n}{ }^{*}\right|$ and $p \neq$ char. $F$. Let $k$ be the least integer in $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that $p \mid\left(q^{k}-1\right)$. Let $f_{0}(x)$ be a monic irreducible in $F[x]$ of degree $k$ and let $A_{0}$ in $F_{k}$ be the companion matrix of $f_{0}(x)$. Let $\left\langle A_{0}\right\rangle_{k}$ denote the $F$-subalgebra of $F_{k}$ generated by $A_{0}$. Thus $\left\langle A_{0}\right\rangle_{k}$ is a field of order $q^{k}$. Hence there exist non-p-th power units $A_{1}, A_{2}$ in $\left\langle A_{0}\right\rangle_{k}$ such that $A_{1}+A_{2}=I_{k}$. Moreover the subfield $\left\langle A_{1}\right\rangle_{k}$ is of order $q^{k_{1}}$. However if $k_{1}<k$, then $p \nmid\left(q^{k_{1}}-1\right)$, which contradicts that $A_{1}$ is not a $p$ th power in $\left\langle A_{1}\right\rangle_{k}$. Hence the minimum polynomial $f_{1}(x)$ of $A_{1}$ is of degree $k$ and irreducible in $F[x]$. It follows that $A_{1}$ is not a $p$ th power in $F_{k}$. Similarly $A_{2}$ is not a $p$ th power in $F_{k}$. Thus if $k=n$, then $F_{n}$ is an $N(p)$-ring.

So let $1 \leqq k<n$. Suppose that there exists a monic irreducible $g_{1}(x)$ in $F[x]$ of degree $n-k$ such that $f_{1}(x)$ and $g_{1}(x)$ are relatively prime and neither $x$ nor $x-1$ divides $g_{1}(x)$. Then we claim that $F_{n}$ is a $N(p)$-ring. For let $B_{1}$ in $F_{n-k}$ be the companion matrix of $g_{1}(x)$. Let

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{c|c}
A_{1} & 0 \\
\hline 0 & B_{1}
\end{array}\right]
$$

belong to $F_{n}$. Clearly there is a monomorphism of the ring $\langle A\rangle_{n}$ into the direct product of the fields $\left\langle A_{1}\right\rangle_{k}$ and $\left\langle B_{1}\right\rangle_{n-k}$ where $A \rightarrow\left(A_{1}, B_{1}\right)$. Thus $A$ is not a $p$-th power in $\langle A\rangle_{n}$. However the minimum polynomial of $A$ is $f_{1}(x) g_{1}(x)$ of degree $n$ and hence $A$ is not a $p$ th power in $F_{n}$. Now let $A+B=I_{n}$. A similar argument shows that $B$ is not a $p$ th power in $F_{n}$. Since $A$ and $B$ are units in $F_{n}$, the claim is established.

It is easy to see that there exists a $g_{1}(x)$ with the above properties except for the cases (i) $q=3, n=2, k=1$, (ii) $q=2, n=4, k=2$ and (iii) $q=2$, $n-k=1$.

We now consider these remaining cases.
(i) Let $q=3, n=2, k=1$, whence $p=2$. Let $f(x)=x^{2}-x-1$. As $f(1-x)=f(x)$, it is clear that there exist $A, B$ in $F_{2}$ such that $A+B=I_{2}$ and $f(x)$ is their minimum polynomial. Since $f\left(x^{2}\right)=x^{4}-x^{2}-1$ is irreducible in $F[x]$, it follows that $A$ and $B$ are non-square units in $F_{2}$.
(ii) Let $q=2, n=4, k=2$, whence $p=3$. Clearly we may choose $A, B$ in $F_{4}$ such that $A+B=I_{4}$ and $x^{2}+x+1$ is their minimum polynomial. However $x^{6}+x^{3}+1$ is irreducible in $F[x]$ and thus $A$ and $B$ are non-cube units in $F_{4}$.
(iii) Finally let $q=2, k=n-1$. As $p \mid 2^{n-1}-1, n \geqq 3$. Let $A$ be any non- $p$-th power unit in $F_{n}$. We show that $I_{n}-A$ is a non-unit in $F_{n}$. Let $f(x)$ be
the minimum polynomial of $A$. Thus

$$
f(x)=f_{1} l_{1} \ldots f_{s}^{l_{s}}
$$

where $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{s}$ are distinct monic irreducibles in $F[x]$. Let $\langle A\rangle$ denote the $F$-subalgebra generated by $A$. Hence $\langle A\rangle$ is isomorphic to the direct product $R_{1} \times \ldots \times R_{s}$ where each

$$
R_{i}=F[x] /\left(f_{i}^{l_{i}}\right) .
$$

However $R_{i}$ is a local ring whose residue field is isomorphic to $F[x] /\left(f_{i}\right)$. Thus letting $d_{i}$ denote the degree of $f_{i}$, we have

$$
\left|R_{i}{ }^{*}\right|=2^{d_{i}\left(l_{i}-1\right)}\left(2^{d_{i}}-1\right)
$$

and

$$
\left|\langle A\rangle^{*}\right|=\left|R_{1}{ }^{*}\right| \ldots\left|R_{s}^{*}\right|
$$

Since $A$ is not a $p$ th power, $p$ divides $\left|\langle A\rangle^{*}\right|$ and as $p$ is prime to 2 , we may suppose that $p \mid\left(2^{d_{1}}-1\right)$. Thus $d_{1}=n$ or $d_{1}=n-1$. If $d_{1}=n$, then $p$ divides $\left(2^{n}-1\right)-\left(2^{n-1}-1\right)$, that is $p \mid 2^{n-1}$, a contradiction. So $d_{1}=n-1$. However

$$
d_{1} l_{1}+\ldots+d_{s} l_{s} \leqq n
$$

and since $n>2$, it follows that $f(x)=f_{1}$ or $f(x)=f_{1} f_{2}$. Let $g(x)$ be the characteristic polynomial of $A$. It is well known that $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ have the same irreducible factors. Thus $f(x)=f_{1}$ is impossible since $f_{1}$ contains no linear factor. Hence $f(x)=f_{1} f_{2}$ where $f_{2}$ is of degree 1 . As $A$ is a unit, $f_{2}=x+1$. Now let $A+B=I_{n}$. Thus the minimum polynomial of $B$ is $f(x+1)=x f_{1}(x+1)$, so that $B$ is not a unit. This completes the proof of Theorem 2.

For example, if $|F|=2$, then $F_{3}$ is neither an $N(2)$ - nor an $N(3)$-ring, but $F_{7}$ is an $N$-ring.

Note that if $|F|=2$ and $p$ is a fixed odd prime, then $F_{n}$ is an $N(p)$-ring for all $n \geqq m+2$ where $m$ is the order of $2(\bmod p)$.

A finite ring $R$ is semisimple if its radical $J=(0)$. By the Wedderburn theorem, $R$ is semisimple if and only if it is a direct product of finite simple rings $R_{1}, \ldots, R_{m}$, where each $R_{i}$ is isomorphic to a matrix ring over a finite field.

Theorem 3. Let $R$ be a direct product of finite simple rings, $R_{1}, \ldots, R_{m}$ such that $\left|R_{i}\right|>2$ for $i=1, \ldots, m$.
(i) $R$ is an $N(p)$-ring if and only if some $R_{i}$ is an $N(p)$-ring.
(ii) If the center of each $R_{i}$ has more than two elements, then $R$ is an $N$-ring.

Proof. (i) Let $R$ be an $N(p)$-ring. It follows that there exist units $a_{i}, b_{i}$ in some $R_{i}$ such that $a_{i}$ is not a $p$ th power in $R_{i}$ and $a_{i}+b_{i}=1$. If the center $F_{i}$ of $R_{i}$ is not the two-element field, then $R_{i}$ is a $N(p)$-ring by (1) of Theorem 2. On the other hand, let $\left|F_{i}\right|=2$. Since $b_{i}$ is a unit in $R_{i}$, the proof of Theorem 2
shows that neither (a) nor (b) applies to $p$. Hence $R_{i}$ is an $N(p)$-ring. The converse is clear.
(ii) The result follows immediately from (1) of Theorem 2 and part (i).
3. Rings of odd order. In the sequel we shall often use the next result.

Lemma 2. Let $K$ be an ideal of the finite ring $R$ where $K \subseteq J$, the Jacobson radical of $R$.
(i) If $p$ is a prime divisor of $\left|R^{*}\right|$, then $p$ divides $|K|$ or $p$ divides $\left|(R / K)^{*}\right|$.
(ii) If $R / K$ is an $N(p)$-ring, then $R$ is an $N(p)$-ring.

Proof. Since units lift $(\bmod J)$, the natural $\operatorname{map} R \rightarrow R / K$ induces an epimorphism $R^{*} \rightarrow(R / K)^{*}$ with kernel $1+K$. Hence (i) and (ii) follow.

In the remainder of this section we assume that $R$ is a ring of odd order.
Theorem 4. Let $R$ be a ring of odd order. Then $R$ is an $N$-ring.
Proof. Since a finite ring is a direct product of rings of prime power order, we may assume that $|R|=p_{0}{ }^{m}$ where $p_{0}$ is an odd prime. Thus $R / J$ is a direct product of matrix rings over finite fields of characteristic $p_{0}$ and by Theorem $3, R / J$ is an $N$-ring. If $p$ is a prime divisor of $\left|R^{*}\right|$ and $p \neq p_{0}$, then $p$ divides $\left|(R / J)^{*}\right|$ and hence $R$ is an $N(p)$-ring by Lemma 2 . Thus it remains to prove that if $p_{0}$ divides $\left|R^{*}\right|$, then $R$ is an $N\left(p_{0}\right)$-ring. Of course if $p_{0}$ divides $\left|(R / J)^{*}\right|$, then $R$ is an $N\left(p_{0}\right)$-ring.

So we can assume that $p_{0}$ divides $\left|R^{*}\right|$ but $p_{0}$ does not divide $\left|(R / J)^{*}\right|$. It follows that $J \neq(0)$ and $R / J$ is a direct product of finite fields each of characteristic $p_{0}$.

We first consider the case that $R$ is a ring of characteristic $p_{0}$. Let $F_{0}$ denote the subfield of $R$ of order $p_{0}$ generated by 1 . Since $R$ is a finite dimensional algebra over $F_{0}$, the Wedderburn Factor Theorem [1, p. 471] yields that $R=S+J$ where $S$ is a subring isomorphic to $R / J$ and $S \cap J=0$. Thus $F_{0} \subseteq S$ and we note that if $a \in S$ and $a^{p_{0}}=\alpha \in F$, then $a=\alpha$. Now as $J$ is nilpotent and non-zero, there exists $x$ in $J$ such that $x$ is not in the ideal $J^{p_{0}}$. Let $\alpha \in F_{0}$. We claim that $\alpha+x$ is not a $p_{0}$ th power in $R$. For let

$$
(a+y)^{p_{0}}=\alpha+x
$$

where $a \in S$ and $y \in J$. Then $a^{p_{0}}+y_{1}=\alpha+x$ where $y_{1} \in J$. Thus $a^{p_{0}}=\alpha$ and as noted $a=\alpha$. However $\alpha$ is in the center of $R$ and char. $R=p_{0}$, so that

$$
(\alpha+y)^{p_{0}}=\alpha^{p_{0}}+y^{p_{0}} .
$$

Hence $y^{p_{0}}=x$, which contradicts that $x \notin J^{p_{0}}$ and establishes the claim. As $p_{0}>2$ there exist units $\alpha, \beta$ in $F_{0}$ such that $\alpha+\beta=1$ and hence $\alpha+x$ and $\beta-x$ are non- $p_{0}$-th power units in $R$ whose sum is 1 .

Now let $R$ not be of characteristic $p_{0}$. The ideal $p_{0} R$ is contained in $J$. Suppose that $p_{0} R$ is not equal to $J$. Let $R_{1}=R / p_{0} R$. Then the Jacobson radical of $R_{1}$ is $J_{1}=J / p_{0} R$ and $p_{0}$ divides $\left|R_{1}{ }^{*}\right|$. Since $R_{1} / J_{1}$ is isomorphic to
$R / J$ and char. $R_{1}=p_{0}$, the preceding case shows that $R_{1}$ is an $N\left(p_{0}\right)$-ring and hence by Lemma $2, R$ is an $N\left(p_{0}\right)$-ring.

Thus we may suppose that $J=p_{0} R$. Assume that $J^{2}=(0)$. We prove that $R$ is a commutative ring. As $R / J$ is a direct product of finite fields, there exists an integer $r>1$ such that $a^{r}-a \in J$ for all $a$ in $R$. By [4, Theorem 3.2.3, p. 81], it suffices to prove that $J$ is contained in the center of $R$. Let $x \in J$ and let $a \in R$. Then $x=p_{0} b$ where $b \in R$ and hence $a x-x a=p_{0}(a b-b a)$. However $a b-b a \in J$ and $(0)=J^{2}=p_{0}{ }^{2} R$, so that $a x=x a$. Thus $R$ is commutative and by Theorem $1, R$ is an $N\left(p_{0}\right)$-ring.

Finally let $J^{2} \neq(0)$. Since $J$ is nilpotent, $J^{2} \neq J$. Let $R_{2}=R / J^{2}$. The radical of $R_{2}$ is $J_{2}=J / J^{2}$ and $p_{0}$ divides $\left|R_{2}{ }^{*}\right|$. Since $J_{2}=p_{0} R_{2}$ and $J_{2}{ }^{2}=(0)$, the above argument shows that $R_{2}$ is commutative. Hence $R_{2}$ is an $N\left(p_{0}\right)$-ring and by Lemma $2, R$ is an $N\left(p_{0}\right)$-ring. This completes the proof of the theorem.

Theorem 5. A ring of odd order is an $N(2)$-ring.
Proof. Let $R$ be a ring of odd order. Then $R / J$ is of odd order and hence $R / J$ is an $N$-ring by Theorem 4. However 2 divides $\left|(R / J)^{*}\right|$ and thus Lemma 2 yields that $R$ is an $N(2)$-ring.

## 4. Additional results.

Theorem 6. Let $R$ be a finite dimensional algebra over a finite field $F$ of characteristic $p_{0}>2$. Then $R$ is an $N$-ring.

Proof. Let $m=\operatorname{dim}_{F} R$. Then $|R|=|F|^{m}$ and since $p_{0}$ is an odd prime, $R$ is of odd order. Thus by Theorem $4, R$ is an $N$-ring.

Theorem 7. Let $R$ be a finite ring with Jacobson radical J.
(1) If the two-element field does not occur as a factor in $R / J$, then for $n \geqq 2, R_{n}$ is an $N(2)$-ring.
(2) If the two element field does not occur as a factor in the center of $R / J$, then for $n \geqq 2, R_{n}$ is an $N$-ring.
(3) If $R / J$ is a direct product of finite fields each having more than two elements, then for $n \geqq 2, R_{n}$ is an $N$-ring.

Proof. Since a ring of odd order is both an $N$-ring and an $N(2)$-ring, it suffices to prove the theorem for the case that $|R|$ is a power of 2 .
(1) Suppose that the two-element field does not occur as a factor in $R / J$. As $|R|=2^{m}$, it follows that each factor in $R / J$ is of the form $F_{k}$ where $F$ is a field of characteristic 2 and $k>1$ if $|F|=2$. Now let $n \geqq 2$. The radical of $R_{n}$ is $J_{n}$ and

$$
R_{n} / J_{n} \cong(R / J)_{n}
$$

Hence each factor in $R_{n} / J_{n}$ is of the form $F_{k n}$ where $k n=4$ or $k n \geqq 6$ if $|F|=2$, while $k n \geqq 2$ if $|F|>2$. Thus by Theorem 2 , each $F_{k n}$ is an $N(2)$-ring and hence $R_{n}$ is an $N(2)$-ring.
(2) Suppose that each factor in $R / J$ is of the form $F_{k}$ where $F$ is a field of characteristic 2 and $|F|>2$. Let $n \geqq 2$. Then by (1), $R_{n}$ is an $N(2)$-ring. However by Theorem $3, R_{n} / J_{n}$ is an $N$-ring. Since $|R|=2^{m}$, it follows that $R$ is an $N$-ring.
(3) This is an immediate consequence of (2).

Theorem 8. Let $R$ be a finite commutative ring such that the two-element field does not occur as a factor in $R / J$. Then for all $n, R_{n}$ is an $N$-ring.

Proof. For $n \geqq 2, R_{n}$ is an $N$-ring by Theorem 7(2), while $R$ itself is an $N$-ring by Theorem 1.

Theorem 9. Let $R$ be the ring of lower (upper) triangular matrices over a finite field $F$ where $|F|>2$. Then for all $n, R_{n}$ is an $N$-ring.

Proof. $R$ is a subring of $F_{k}$ for some $k$. Let $J$ be the radical of $R$. Then $R / J$ is a direct product of $k$ copies of $F$ and hence by Theorem 7 (3), $R_{n}$ is an $N$-ring for $n \geqq 2$. We now prove that $R$ itself is an $N$-ring. We may take $k \geqq 2$. Let $p=$ char. $F$. Since $R / J$ is an $N$-ring and $|R|$ is a power of $p$, it remains to prove that $R$ is an $N(p)$-ring. However the proof of Theorem 2 showed that there exist $A, B$ in $R$ such that $A+B=1$ and $A, B$ are non- $p$-th power units in $F_{k}$. Hence $A, B$ are also non- $p$-th power units in $R$, which completes the proof.

We note that if $R$ is an $N$-ring, then $R_{n}$ is not always an $N$-ring. For $R=F_{7}$ is an $N$-ring where $F$ is the two-element field, but $R_{2} \cong F_{14}$ is not an $N$-ring since $2^{13}-1$ is a prime.

Raghavendran [6, Theorem 3] has shown that a finite local ring of prime characteristic $p_{0}$ whose radical $J$ satisfies $J^{2}=(0)$ is isomorphic to the ring $R$ of all $n \times n$ matrices of the form

$$
\left[\begin{array}{lllll}
a_{1} & b_{2} & b_{3} & \ldots & b_{n} \\
0 & a_{1}{ }^{s_{2}} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & 0 & a_{1}{ }^{s_{3}} & \ldots & 0 \\
. & & & & \\
. & & & & \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & a_{1}{ }^{s_{n}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $a_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n}$ range over the field of order $p_{0}{ }^{r}$ and for $i=2, \ldots, n$, $s_{i}=p_{0}{ }^{t_{i}}$ for fixed integers $t_{i}$ with $1 \leqq t_{i} \leqq r$. Conversely for every choice of the integers $t_{i}, R$ is local of characteristic $p_{0}$ and its radical $J$ satisfies $J^{2}=(0)$.

If $p_{0}>2$, then $R$ is an $N\left(p_{0}\right)$-ring by Theorem 4 . However for $p_{0}=2, R$ is not always an $N(2)$-ring. Namely we prove the following.

Theorem 10. Let $R$ be the above ring of matrices where $p_{0}=2$ and $n \geqq 2$. Then $R$ is not an $N(2)$-ring if and only if $G C D\left(t_{i}, r\right)=1$ for all $i$.
Proof. The radical $J$ of $R$ consists of those matrices for which $a_{1}=0$. Also $R=F \oplus J$ where $F$ is the field consisting of those matrices for which all $b_{i}=0$.

We shall identify $a_{1}$ in the field of order $2^{r}$ with

$$
\operatorname{diag}\left(a_{1}, a_{1}^{s_{2}}, \ldots, a_{1}^{s_{n}}\right) \text { in } F
$$

Let $Y_{i}$ be the matrix with 1 in the $(1, i)$ position and zeros elsewhere. Then $Y_{2}, \ldots, Y_{n}$ is a left $F$-basis for $J$ and

$$
Y_{i} a=a^{s_{i}} Y_{i}
$$

for $a$ in $F$ and all $i$. Let $x$ be an element in $R$. Then there exist unique elements $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}$ in $F$ such that

$$
x=a_{1}+a_{2} Y_{2}+\ldots+a_{n} Y_{n}
$$

Since $J^{2}=(0)$,

$$
x^{2}=a_{1}^{2}+a_{2}\left(a_{1}+a_{1}^{s_{2}}\right) Y_{2}+\ldots+a_{n}\left(a_{1}+a_{1}^{s_{n}}\right) Y_{n}
$$

Now as $|F|=2^{r}$, note that if $G C D(t, r)=1$ and $a \in F$, then $a+a^{2^{t}}=0$ only for $a=0,1$. It follows that if $G C D\left(t_{i}, r\right)=1$ for all $i$, then every non-square unit of $R$ belongs to $1+J$ and thus $R$ is not an $N(2)$-ring.

Conversely suppose that for some $i, G C D\left(t_{i}, r\right)>1$. Then there exists $a_{1}$ in $F$ such that

$$
a_{1}+a_{1}{ }^{2 t}=0 \text { and } a_{1} \neq 0,1
$$

Hence $x_{1}=a_{1}{ }^{2}+Y_{i}$ is a non-square unit in $R$. Since char. $R=2, x_{1}+1$ is also a non-square unit, which proves that $R$ is an $N(2)$-ring.

Theorem 10 provides an example of a ring $R$ such that $R / J$ is an $N$-ring but $R$ is not an $N$-ring.

We now give an example of an $N$-ring $R$ such that $R / J$ is not an $N$-ring. Let $S=F_{2}$ where $F$ is the two-element field. Let $x$ be an indeterminate over $S$ and let $R=S[x] /\left(x^{2}\right)$. We may identify $S$ as a subring of $R$ and moreover each element of $R$ can be written uniquely as

$$
a+b y \text { where } a, b \in S \text { and } y=x+\left(x^{2}\right)
$$

Clearly $J=S y$ and $R / J \cong S$. By Theorem $2, S$ is an $N(3)$-ring but not an $N(2)$-ring. Thus as $\left|R^{*}\right|=\left(2^{5}\right) 3$, we have only to show that $R$ is an $N(2)$-ring. Define

$$
T(a+b y)=\operatorname{trace}(b)
$$

Then $T\left((a+b y)^{2}\right)=0$ since $(a+b y)^{2}=a^{2}+(a b+b a) y$ and char. $R=2$. Let $a_{1}, a_{2}$ be units in $S$ such that $a_{1}+a_{2}=1$. Choose $b_{0}$ in $S$ such that $\operatorname{trace}\left(b_{0}\right)=1$. Hence $a_{1}+b_{0} y$ and $a_{2}+b_{0} y$ are non-square units in $R$ whose sum is 1 , that is $R$ is an $N(2)$-ring. This proves that $R$ is an $N$-ring.

Finally we deduce the following result which is well known for fields [5, Theorem 12, p. 15].

Theorem 11. Let $R$ be a commutative local ring of odd order. Then for any units $a, b$ in $R$, the equation $a x^{2}+b y^{2}=1$ is solvable in $R$.

Proof. Let $a, b$ be units in $R$. If $a$ or $b$ is a square, the result is immediate. So let $a, b$ be non-squares. By Theorem 4, there exist non-square units $a_{1}, b_{1}$ such that $a_{1}+b_{1}=1$. However the index $\left[R^{*}: S\right]=2$ where $S$ is the subgroup of squares in $R^{*}$. Hence $a^{-1} a_{1}=x^{2}$ and $b^{-1} b_{1}=y^{2}$ for $x, y$ in $R^{*}$, completing the proof.

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University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba


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