# A NOTE ON UPPER RADICALS IN RINGS 

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#### Abstract

A class (called c-radicals) is defined such that, given a $c$-radical $P$, there is in any class $M^{\prime}$ a certain internal criterion that its upper radical $U M^{\prime}=P$. For $P$ a non- $c$-radical (calied a $q$-radical) there exists no smallest class $M$ such that $U M=P$, and $P$ is a $q$-radical if and only if for some $M$ with $P=U M$ there exists $0 \neq R \in M$ such that when an image $\bar{R}$ of $R$ has a non-zero image in $M$ there exists an infinite chain of epimorphisms $\bar{R} \rightarrow R_{1} \rightarrow R_{2} \rightarrow \cdots$ with all $R_{1} \in M$ and no $R_{i}$ the image of any $R_{i}$ with $j>i$. Several examples of such rings are constructed including a ring all of whose images are primitive. Thus all radicals contained in the Jacobson radical are $q$-radicals.


## 1. Introduction

All rings to be considered are associative and it will be assumed that a class of rings always contains all rings isomorphic to any member of the class. For a ring $R$ write $I<R$ to mean $I$ is an ideal of $R$ and let $\bar{R}$ always designate some non-zero homomorphic image of $R$. For a class $M$ of rings let

$$
\begin{aligned}
U M & =\{R \mid \text { every } \bar{R} \notin M\} \\
S M & =\{R \mid \text { for every } 0 \neq I<R \text { we have } I \notin M\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is known by Theorem 1 of Enersen and Leavitt (1973) that $U M$ is radical (in the Kurosh-Amitsur sense; see Divinsky (1965), page 4) if and only if every $0 \neq R \in M$ has some $\bar{R} \in S U M$, and when this is the case $U M$ is the "upper radical" defined by $M$. Note that in defining $U M$ it makes no difference whether $0 \in M$ or not. For convenience we will assume that 0 is a member of all classes. An upper radical $U M$ is said to have "property (Int) relative to $M$ " if for $R$ an arbitrary ring, $U M(R)$ is the intersection of a set $\left\{I_{i}\right\}$ of ideals of $R$ for which $R / I_{i} \in M$ (equivalently, if every $R \in S U M$ is a subdirect sum of members of $M$ ). A class $M$ which is closed under taking ideals is called "hereditary".

It is well-known that classes $M^{\prime} \neq M$ can exist for which $U M=U M^{\prime}$. For example, the prime radical (Lower Baer radical) is equal to both $U M$ and $U M^{\prime}$
when $M$ is the class of all prime rings and $M^{\prime}$ is the class of all semiprime rings. One of the unsolved problems of radical theory is to find, for a given class $M$, internal criteria on a class $M^{\prime}$ so that $U M^{\prime}=U M$. We do have criteria in certain special cases. For example, it was shown in Enersen and Leavitt (1973) that

Proposition 1. A sufficient condition that $U M=U M^{\prime}$ is that every $0 \neq R \in M \cup M^{\prime}$ has a non-zero homomorphic image in $M \cap M^{\prime}$ and if either $M$ or $M^{\prime}$ is homomorphically closed or contains nothing but Noetherian rings then the condition is also necessary.

Lemma 2. If every $0 \neq R \in M$ has a non-zero image in $M^{\prime}$ then $U M^{\prime} \subseteq$ UM.

Proof. If $R \notin U M$ then $R$ has a non-zero image in $M$ and so a non-zero image in $M^{\prime}$. Thus $R \notin U M^{\prime}$ and we conclude that $U M^{\prime} \subseteq U M$.

This implies an easy criterion in the special case $M^{\prime} \subseteq M$, namely:
Proposition 3. For a given class $M$, if $M^{\prime} \subseteq M$ then $U M^{\prime}=U M$ if and only if every $0 \neq R \in M$ has some $\bar{R} \in M^{\prime}$.

Proof. The necessity is clear and the sufficiency follows from Proposition 1 (or Lemma 2).

Remark that neither of the criteria of Propositions 1 or 3 can be properly called "internal" criteria on $M$ ' since reference needs to be made to conditions on rings outside $M^{\prime}$.

The author wishes to express his thanks to the referee who pointed out a serious gap in the first version of this paper (namely, that the "cycles" of the next section cannot be ruled out).

## 2. $c$-Radicals and $s$-radicals

A pair $\{R, K\}$ of rings is called a cycle if there exist epimorphisms $R \rightarrow K$ and $K \rightarrow R$, and when this is the case we will say $R$ and $K$ are equivalent (written $R \sim K$ ). Note that a set $\left\{R_{1}, \cdots, R_{n}\right\}$ of rings is a "general cycle", that is there exist epimorphisms $R_{1} \rightarrow R_{2} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow R_{n} \rightarrow R_{1}$ if and only if all $R_{i} \sim R_{j}$. Also note that the relation $\sim$ is an equivalence relation. Two classes $M, N$ of rings will be called equivalent (written $M \sim N$ ) if every $R \in M$ is equivalent to some $K \in N$ and conversely. For a class $M$ of rings we define the cycle closure $\bar{M}=\{K \mid K \sim R$ for some $R \in M\}$. Clearly $\bar{M}$ is cycle-closed (that is, $\overline{\bar{M}}=\bar{M}$ ) and also $\bar{M} \sim M$. Then we have:

Proposition 4. For $M, N$ arbitrary classes, $M \sim N$ implies $U M=U N$. Thus $U M=U \bar{M}$ for any class $M$.

Proof. Since every non-zero $R \in M$ has some $\bar{R} \in N$ it follows from Lemma 2 that $U N \subseteq U M$, and symmetrically $U M \subseteq U N$.

A ring $R$ in a class $M$ will be said to have property (c) relative to $M$ if $R \sim \bar{R}$ whenever an image $\bar{R} \in M$.

Remark 1. If $R$ has property (c) relative to $M$ then:
(i) $R$ has property (c) relative to any $M^{\prime} \subseteq M$, and
(ii) $R$ has property (c) relative to $\bar{M}$.

A class $M$ will be called a $c$-class if every $R \in M$ has property (c) relative to $M$ and a radical $P$ is called a $c$ radical if $P=U M$ for some $c$-class $M$. By Remark 1 every $c$-class $M$ is contained in a (cycle-closed) $c$-class $\bar{M}$.

THEOREM 5. If $M$ is a c-class and $M^{\prime}$ an arbitrary class, then $U M^{\prime}=U M$ if and only if (i) every $0 \neq R \in M^{\prime}$ has some $\bar{R} \in \bar{M} \cap M^{\prime}$, and (ii) $\bar{M} \cap M^{\prime} \sim$ $\bar{M}$.

Proof. The sufficiency is clear since Propositions 3 and 4 imply $U M^{\prime}=$ $U\left(\bar{M} \cap M^{\prime}\right)=U \bar{M}=U M$. On the other hand suppose that $U M^{\prime}=U \bar{M}$. If $0 \neq R \in M^{\prime}$ then $R \notin U M^{\prime}=U \bar{M}$ so there is some $\bar{R} \in \bar{M}$. But then $\bar{R}$ has an image $0 \neq K \in M^{\prime}$ which in turn has an image $0 \neq H \in \bar{M}$. Then property (c) implies $\bar{R} \sim H$ and so $\bar{R} \sim K$. Since $\bar{M}$ is cycle-closed $K \in \bar{M} \cap M^{\prime}$. Also for any $R \in \bar{M}$ the same argument produces some $K \in M^{\prime}$ such that $R \sim K$ and so $K \in \bar{M} \cap M^{\prime}$, that is $\bar{M} \sim \bar{M} \cap M^{\prime}$.

Corollary 6. Let $M_{1}$ be a class of rings such that $U M_{1}=P$ for a c-radical $P$, then there exists a c-class $N_{1} \subseteq M_{1}$ such that $U N_{1}=U M_{1}$. For any other class $M_{2}$ of rings containing a c-class $N_{2}$ such that $U N_{2}=U M_{2}$ we have $U M_{2}=P$ if and only if $\bar{N}_{2}=\bar{N}_{1}$.

Proof. If $P=U M$ for a $c$-class $M$ then from Theorem 5 we can take $N_{1}=M_{1} \cap \bar{M} \sim \bar{M}$ whence $\bar{N}_{1}=\bar{M}$. Then if $P=U M_{2}=U N_{2}$ where $N_{2}$ is a $c$-class we have $N_{2} \cap \bar{M} \sim \bar{M}$ and $\bar{N}_{2} \cap M \sim \bar{N}_{2}$, and so $\bar{N}_{2}=\bar{M}=\bar{N}_{1}$. Also if $\bar{N}_{2}=\bar{N}_{1}$ then $U N_{2}=U \bar{N}_{2}=U \bar{N}_{1}=U N_{1}=P$.

We now consider a special case of property (c). We will say a ring $R \in M$ has property ( $s$ ) relative to $M$ if $R \cong \bar{R}$ whenever an image $\bar{R} \in M$. A class $M$ is an s-class if every $R \in M$ has property ( $s$ ) relative to $M$ and a radical $P$ is an $s$-radical if $P=U M$ for some $s$-class $M$.

Corollary 7. If $M$ is a class of simple rings then $P=U M$ is an s-radical. For this case, $\bar{M}=M$ so $U M^{\prime}=P$ for a class $M^{\prime}$ if and only if $M \subseteq M^{\prime}$ and every $0 \neq R \in M^{\prime}$ has some $\bar{R} \in M$.

Remark 2. From Corollary 7 many well-known radicals (such as the Brown-McCoy radical) are $s$-radicals (hence $c$-radicals). There are also many $s$-radicals which are not upper radicals of classes of simple rings, such as $U M$ for a hereditary class $M$ containing none of the proper (i.e. non-isomorphic) images of any of its members. For example, $M=\{I \mid I<Z\}$ where $Z=$ the integers.

Remark 3. There are $s$-classes $M$ for which $U M$ is not radical. For example $M=\{R\}$ for any ring $R$ is (trivially) an $s$-class but $U M$ would rarely be radical. One can also construct $c$-classes which are not $s$-classes but whether or not there exists a $c$-radical which is not an $s$-radical is open.

Proposition 8. Let $M^{\prime} \subseteq M$ and $U M^{\prime}=U M$. Then $M^{\prime}$ is an $s$-class if and only if no proper subclass $M^{\prime \prime} \subset M^{\prime}$ has the property $U^{\prime \prime}=U M$.

Proof. Let $M^{\prime}$ be an $s$-class. If $M^{\prime \prime}$ is a proper subclass of $M^{\prime}$ then $U M^{\prime} \subseteq U M^{\prime \prime}$ and there is some $R \in M^{\prime}, R \notin M^{\prime \prime}$. If any $\bar{R} \in M^{\prime \prime}$ then $R$ would have a proper image in $M^{\prime}$ contradicting $M^{\prime}$ being an $s$-class. Thus $R \in U M^{\prime \prime}$ whereaş $R \notin U M^{\prime}$. On the other hand, if $M^{\prime}$ is not an $s$-class then some $R \in M^{\prime}$ has a proper image $\bar{R} \in M^{\prime}$. Let $M^{\prime \prime}=M^{\prime} \backslash R$ then Proposition 3 implies $U M^{\prime \prime}=U M^{\prime}$.

Remark 4. If $M$ is any cycle-closed $c$-class then $M$ can be partitioned into equivalence classes relative to the relation $\sim$. Each equivalence class is a set, and it may happen that there exists a class $M_{1}$ containing exactly one representative from each of these equivalence sets. (For example, if $M$ is itself a set then the axiom of choice can be used.) When this is the case $M_{1}$ is an $s$-class for which $U M_{1}=U M$. Even when $M$ is too big to be a set, one might only be concerned with the radicals in a certain set of rings. In this case one could take a universal class $V$ containing the rings in question but small enough to be a set, and consider the upper radical relative to $V$, namely $U_{V}(M \cap V)=(U M) \cap V$, whose radical would coincide with $U M(R)$ in all $R \in V$. Again there would exist a smallest class (that is, an $s$-class) $M_{1} \subseteq M \cap V$ such that $U_{V}\left(M_{1}\right)=$ $U_{v}(M \cap V)$.

## 3. q-Radicals

A radical will be called a $q$-radical if it is not a $c$-radical, and in this section we will consider the problem of characterizing such radicals. For a class $M$ of rings a sequence $\left\{R_{1}, R_{2}, \cdots\right\}$ will be called a chain in $M$ if: (1) all $R_{i} \in M$, (2) for all $n \geqq 1$ there exists an epimorphism $R_{n} \rightarrow R_{n+1}$, and (3) for all $m, n \geqq 1$ there
exists no epimorphism $R_{m+n} \rightarrow R_{n}$. We will say that a chain $R_{1} \rightarrow R_{2} \rightarrow \cdots$ is initiated by a ring $R$ if there exists an epimorphism $R \rightarrow R_{1}$.

A ring $R \in M$ will be said to have property $(q)$ relative to $M$ if for every $\bar{R}$ which has an image $0 \neq K \in M$ there exists an infinite chain in $M$ initiated by $\bar{R}$.

Proposition 9. If $R \in M$ does not have property $(q)$ relative to $M$ then $R$ has an image $0 \neq K \in M$ with property (c) relative to $M$.

Proof. Let $R \in M$ with $\bar{R}$ an image which has a non-zero image in $M$ but does not initiate any infinite chain in $M$. Now if every chain $R_{1} \rightarrow R_{2} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow R_{n}$ of length $n$ initiated by $\bar{R}$ were extendable to a longer chain in $M$ then one could define a sequence $\left\{R_{1}\right\} \subset\left\{R_{1}, R_{2}\right\} \subset \cdots$ whose union would be an infinite chain in $M$ initiated by $\bar{R}$. Thus there must exist some $R_{n} \in M$ such that when $\bar{R}_{n} \in M$ there exists an epimorphism $\bar{R}_{n} \rightarrow R_{j}$ for some $j \leqq n$. But then $R_{n} \sim \vec{R}_{n}$, that is $R_{n}$ has property (c) relative to $M$.

Theorem 10. A radical $P$ is a $q$-radical if and only if $P=U M$ for some class $M$ containing a ring with property $(q)$ relative to $M$.

Proof. Let $P$ be a $c$-radical, that is $P=U N$ for some $c$-class $N$. Let $M$ be any class for which $P=U M$. If $R \in M$ then there exists some $\bar{R} \in N$ where $\bar{R}$ has some image $0 \neq K \in M$. Suppose $\bar{R} \rightarrow R_{1} \rightarrow R_{2}$ where $R_{1}, R_{2} \in M$. Then $R_{2}$ has an image $0 \neq H \in N$ so property (c) in $N$ implies $\bar{R} \sim H$. Therefore, $R_{1} \sim R_{2}$ and so $\bar{R}$ cannot initiate any chain in $M$. Thus $M$ contains no elements with property $(q)$ relative to $M$.

On the other hand suppose $P=U M$ where $M$ contains no ring with property $(q)$ relative to $M$. Let $M_{1}=\{K \in M \mid K$ has property ( $c$ ) relative to $M\}$. Then $U M \subseteq U M_{1}$ and by Proposition 9 if $R \in M$ then $R$ has a non-zero image in $M_{1}$. Thus $U M=U M_{1}$ and so $P$ is a $c$-radical.

Note that the last part of this proof shows, in fact, that if there exists any $M$ with $P=U M$ and $M q$-free then $P$ is a $c$-radical. Thus we have:

Corollary 11. A radical $P$ is a $q$-radical if and only if every class $M$ for which $P=U M$ contains a ring with property $(q)$ relative to $M$.

We can say even more, namely that for any $q$-radical there is a ring which is "universal" for the $(q)$ property:

Theorem 12. A radical $P$ is a $q$-radical if and only if there exists a ring $R$ such that, for any class $M$, if $P=U M$ then there is some $\bar{R} \in M$ with property $(q)$ relative to $M$.

Proof. The sufficiency is obvious, so suppose $P$ is a $q$-radical then by Theorem 10 there exists a class $N$ such that $P=U N$ containing a ring $R$ with property $(q)$ relative to $N$. Let $M$ be any class for which $U M=P$. Then there is some $\bar{R} \in M$ and if $\bar{R}$ does not have property $(q)$ relative to $M$ then by Proposition 9 it has an image $0 \neq K \in M$ with property ( $c$ ) relative to $M$. But $K$ has an image in $N$ so since $R$ has property $(q)$ relative to $N$, there is in $N$ an infinite chain $R_{1} \rightarrow R_{2} \rightarrow \cdots$ initiated by $K$. But $R_{2} \in N$ implies $R_{2}$ has an image $0 \neq \mathrm{H} \in \mathrm{M}$ and since $K$ has property (c) relative to $M$, we have $K \sim H$ so $R_{1} \sim R_{2}$. From this contradiction we conclude that indeed $\bar{R}$ has property ( $q$ ) relative to $M$.

Note, in fact, that if $P$ is a $q$-radical there must be such a ring "universal" for the ( $q$ ) property residing in every class $M$ such that $P=U M$.

## 4. Some constructions of $q$-radicals

Example 1. Let $\left\{K_{1}, K_{2}, \cdots\right\}$ be a sequence of simple rings without unit of increasing infinite ( $\geqq \boldsymbol{N}_{0}$ ) cardinality $c_{1}<c_{2}<\cdots$ and each ring of characteristic 0 . Let $\left\{B_{i}\right\}$ be the set of all ideals of the direct sum $B=\stackrel{\infty}{\oplus} K_{i}$ and let $\left\{F_{i}\right\}$ be the set of all such ideals which are finite direct sums. We will write $K_{i} \subseteq B_{j}$ to mean $K_{i}$ is one of the summands appearing in $B_{j}$. Now $B$ is an algebra over the rationals $Q$ and so we may construct the split direct $\operatorname{sum} R=B+Q$, and we will write $R_{j}=R / F_{j}$. Note that an arbitrary $\bar{R}$ has form $R / B_{j} \cong B_{i}+Q$, where any $K_{r} \subseteq B_{i}$ if and only if $K_{r} \subseteq B_{i}$. Also notice that this way of representing $R / B_{j}$ is unique for if $K_{r} \subseteq B_{i}$ and say, $K_{r} \unrhd B_{s}$, then $B_{i}+Q \not \equiv B_{s}+Q$ since the first has an ideal of cardinality $c_{r}$ whereas all ideals of $B_{s}+Q$ have cardinality greater than or less than $c_{r}$.

Lemma 13. If there exists an epimorphism $R / B_{j} \rightarrow R / B_{k}$ then $B_{j} \subseteq B_{k}$.
Proof. We have $R / B_{j} \cong B_{s}+Q$ where any $K_{i} \subseteq B_{s}$ if and only if $K_{i} \nsubseteq B_{j}$. Thus if $R / B_{j}$ has an image $R / B_{k} \cong\left(B_{s}+Q\right) / B_{u} \cong B_{t}+Q$ then any $K_{i} \subseteq B_{t}$ if and only if $K_{i} \subseteq B_{s}$ but $K_{i} \subset B_{u}$, that is $B_{i} \subseteq B_{s}$. But this implies $B_{i} \subseteq B_{k}$.

We now proceed with our construction of a $q$-radical, defining the class $N=\left\{R, R_{j}, B_{i}\right\}$. Since the only proper ideals of $R$ or $R_{j}$ are members of $\left\{B_{j}\right\}$ the class $N$ is hereditary and so $U N$ is radical. Then we have:

Theorem 14. The ring $R$ of Example 1 has property ( $q$ ) relative to the class $N$ so $U N$ is a q-radical.

Proof. If $\bar{R}=R / B_{j}$ has an image $R_{j}=R / F_{j} \in N$ then from Lemma 13 it follows that $B_{j} \subseteq F_{j}$, that is $B_{j}$ is a finite direct sum. Thus $B_{j}=F_{j_{1}}$ and there
exists an infinite properly ascending chain $F_{j_{1}} \subset F_{h_{2}} \subset \cdots$ of members of $\left\{F_{i}\right\}$. Thus $\bar{R}$ initiates an infinite chain $R_{j_{1}} \rightarrow R_{k_{2}} \rightarrow \cdots$ in $N$.

Since $P=U N$ is a $q$-radical we know from Proposition 8 that there cannot exist a minimal class $M$ such that $P=U M$. We can say even more, namely:

Theorem 15. For the radical $P=U N$ of Example 1 if $N^{\prime}$ is a class such that $P=U N^{\prime}$ has property (Int) relative to $N^{\prime}$ then there is a class $N^{\prime \prime}$ properly contained in $N^{\prime}$ such that $P=U N^{\prime \prime}$ has property (Int) relative to $N^{\prime \prime}$.

Proof. If $U N=U N^{\prime}$ then some $\bar{R} \in N^{\prime}$ and since $\bar{R}$ has an image in $N$, we have as above that $\bar{R} \cong R / F_{j}$ for some finite direct sum $F_{j}$. We can therefore find $K_{r}, K_{s}$ with $K_{r} \neq K_{s}$ and neither a summand of $F_{j}$. We can regard $K_{r}$ and $K_{s}$ as ideals of $\bar{R}$ with $K_{r} \cap K_{s}=0$. Thus $\bar{R}$ is a subdirect sum of $\bar{R} / K_{r}$ and $\bar{R} / K_{s}$ each a proper image of $\bar{R}$. Each of these is in $N \subseteq S P$ and since $P=U N^{\prime}$ has property (Int) relative to $N^{\prime}$ each of them is a subdirect sum of members of $N^{\prime}$ none of which, by Lemma 13 , could be isomorphic with $\bar{R}$. Therefore any subdirect sum of members of $N^{\prime}$ is also a subdirect sum of members of $N^{\prime \prime}=N^{\prime} \backslash \bar{R}$. Thus $P=U N^{\prime \prime}$ also has property (Int) relative to $N^{\prime \prime}$.

Remark 5. Any radical $P$ has (trivially) property (Int) relative to $S P$. Thus starting with $S U N$, this theorem provides an infinite properly descending sequence of classes $\left\{N_{i}\right\}$ such that $U N=U N_{i}$ has property (Int) relative to $N_{i}$.

Remark 6. Notice that every ring in the hereditary class $N$ has a simple image. Thus $N \subseteq S U M$ where $M$ is the class of all simple rings. We therefore have an $s$-radical whose semisimple class contains a class not containing an $s$-class (in fact, a class $N$ such that $U N$ is a $q$-radical).

Remark 7. In Example 1 if $B_{r} \notin\left\{F_{j}\right\}$ then $R / B$, has no images in $N$ so $R / B, \in U N$. But any such ring has some $B_{j} \in N$ as an ideal so $U N$ is not a hereditary radical. Note that if the $\left\{K_{i}\right\}$ are constructed by the method of Heyman and Leavitt (using algebras over fields of increasing cardinality) then each $K_{i}$ contains an idempotent so is primitive. Thus the Jacobson radical $J \subset U N$ and since all $R / B_{r} \notin J$ the inclusion is proper. On the other hand, the $\left\{K_{i}\right\}$ could be constructed by the Sa̧siada method; see Sąsiada and Cohn (1967) (using formal power series over fields of increasing cardinality) and in this case, $U N$ would be incomparable with $J$.

We now show that $J$ is a $q$-radical by constructing a ring with property $q$ relative to the class of all primitive rings.

Example 2. Let $\left\{r_{0}, r_{1} \cdots\right\}$ be a sequence of ordinals defined as follows: $r_{0}=0$ and for all $n \geqq 1, r_{n}=s_{n}+1$ where $s_{n}$ is defined by $\kappa_{u}=2^{\kappa_{v}}$, where $u=s_{n}$
and $v=r_{n-1}$. Let $h=\lim r_{n}$ and let $V$ be the vector space over $Z_{2}$ with basis a set $W$ of cardinality $\mathcal{N}_{h}$. Our ring $R$ will be the set of all linear transformations of $V$ of rank $<N_{h}$. It is easy to show (and well-known) that the ideals of $R$ are precisely the sets $I_{m}=\left\{\right.$ all linear transformations of rank $\left.<\mathcal{N}_{m}\right\}$ for all $0 \leqq m \leqq$ $h$. Note that for all $m<h, R / I_{m}$ is subdirectly irreducible with simple heart $I_{m+1} / I_{m}$.

Lemma 16. For all integers $n \geqq 1$ there does not exist an epimorphism $R / I_{m} \rightarrow R / I_{r_{n}}$ for any $m \geqq r_{n+1}$.

Proof. If such an epimorphism did exist then for some $k \geqq m \geqq r_{n+1}$ we would have an isomorphism $R / I_{k} \cong R / I_{r_{n}}$. For notational simplicity let us write $r_{n}=r, \boldsymbol{N}_{r}=a$ and $\boldsymbol{N}_{k}=b$. Such an isomorphism would imply isomorphic hearts, namely $I_{k+1} / I_{k} \cong I_{r+1} / I_{r}$. Let $S$ be a subset of the basis $W$ of cardinality $a$. Let $\alpha \in R$ be the identity on $S$ and zero on the complement $S^{\prime}=W \backslash S$. Then $\alpha \in I_{r+1}, \alpha \notin I_{r}$ and if $\bar{\alpha}$ is the image of $\alpha$ in $I_{r+1} / I_{r}$ there would be some corresponding $\bar{\beta} \in I_{k+1} / I_{k}$. Let $\beta$ be any preimage of $\bar{\beta}$ in $I_{k+1}$ so $\beta$ has rank $b$. Thus if $T$ is a basis for $V \beta$ then $T$ has cardinality $b$ and we may extend to a basis $T \cup T^{\prime}$ of $V$. Since $\bar{\beta}$ is idempotent, $\beta^{2}-\beta=\gamma \in I_{k}$. Thus the matrix of $\beta$ relative to $T \cup T^{\prime}$ has form

$$
\beta=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
I & 0 \\
B & 0
\end{array}\right]+G
$$

where $G$ is a matrix of rank $<b$ and $B$ is some submatrix in the columns corresponding to $T$. We now rearrange $T$ as the union of a set $\left\{T_{i}\right\}$ of $b$ (disjoint) sets each of cardinality $b$. Then relative to the basis $\left(\cup T_{i}\right) \cup T^{\prime}$ the matrix becomes

$$
\beta=\left[\begin{array}{ccccccc}
\cdot & & & & 0 & & \\
& & & & & \\
& & \cdot & & & & \\
& & & I_{i} & & & \\
& & 0 & & \cdot & & \\
& & & & & & \\
& & & & & & \\
& & & & & & \\
& \cdot & \cdot & B_{i} & \cdot & \cdot & \\
& & & 0
\end{array}\right]+G^{\prime}
$$

where $I_{i}$ is the identity on $T_{i}$ and $B_{i}$ is formed from the columns of $B$ corresponding to the $T_{i}$. Also $G^{\prime}$ (similar to $G$ ) has rank $<b$. If we let

$$
\beta_{i}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc} 
& 0 & \\
0 & I_{i} & 0 \\
& 0 & \\
0 & B_{i} & 0
\end{array}\right],
$$

we obtain a set $\left\{\beta_{i}\right\}$ of $b$ orthogonal idempotents with the property that $\beta \beta_{i} \beta-\beta_{i} \in I_{k}$. There would then exist a set $\left\{\bar{\alpha}_{i}\right\}$ of orthogonal idempotents in $I_{r+1} / I_{r}$ satisfying the relations $\bar{\alpha} \bar{\alpha}_{i} \bar{\alpha}=\bar{\alpha}_{i}$. Let $\left\{\alpha_{i}\right\}$ be any set of preimages in $I_{r+1}$ of the $\left\{\bar{\alpha}_{i}\right\}$. Since $\alpha$ is the identity on $S$ and zero on $S^{\prime}$ it follows that the matrix of $\alpha_{i}$ relative to $S \cup S^{\prime}$ has form

$$
\alpha_{i}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
A_{i} & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right]+H,
$$

where $A_{i}$ has non-zero elements only in the rows and columns relative to $S$ and $H$ has rank $<a$. Now the matrix $A_{i}$ has $a$ elements so the number of possible choices of such a matrix is $2^{a}=\boldsymbol{N}_{s_{n+1}}$. But $k \geqq m \geqq r_{n+1}=s_{n+1}+1$ so $b=\boldsymbol{N}_{k}>2^{a}$. Thus for some $i \neq j$ we would have $A_{i}=A_{i}$ whence $\alpha_{i}-\alpha_{i}$ would be of rank $<a$ contradicting $\bar{\alpha}_{i} \neq \bar{\alpha}_{i}$.

Remark 8. It has come to our attention that Divinsky (1975) has given a proof that the images of the ring of all linear transformations of rank $<\boldsymbol{N}_{\omega}$ of an $\boldsymbol{N}_{\omega}$-dimensional space are non-isomorphic. However, the construction is different from that given here and also the author assumes the generalized continuum hypothesis.

Remark 9. The field $F$ over which the space $V$ of Example 2 is defined is immaterial provided $V$ has sufficiently high dimension. That is, if $F$ has cardinality $\boldsymbol{\aleph}_{h}$ then one can begin with $\boldsymbol{r}_{0}=h$ and proceed exactly as in the example.

## Theorem 17. J is a q-radical.

Proof. It suffices to show that the ring $R$ of Example 2 has property ( $q$ ) relative to the class of all primitive rings. Note that every image $\bar{R}$ of $R$ is subdirectly irreducible and every ideal contains an idempotent, so every $\bar{R}$ is primitive. Now $R=I_{h}$ and if $\bar{R}=R / I$ is non-zero then $I=I_{t}$ for some $t<h$. But $h=\lim r_{n}$ so $t \leqq r_{n}$ for some $n$. Then by Lemma 16 there is an infinite chain $R / I_{r_{n}} \rightarrow R / I_{r_{n+1}} \rightarrow \cdots$ initiated by $\bar{R}$.

Corollary 18. All radicals contained in J are $q$-radicals.

Proof. If $P$ is a radical such that $P \subseteq J$ then $S J \subseteq S P$. Since $S J$ contains all primitive rings, the ring $R$ of Example 2 is in $S P$ and has property ( $q$ ) relative to $S P$.

Note that we can construct $(q)$-radicals larger than $J$ by restricting the class of primitive rings as follows:

Proposition 19. Let $M$ be the class of all homomorphic images of all ideals of the ring $R$ of Example 2. Then $U M$ is a q-radical properly containing $J$.

Proof. $M$ is a hereditary class so $U M$ is a radical such that $R$ has property $(q)$ relative to $M$. All rings in $M$ are primitive so $M \subseteq S J$ and thus $J \subseteq U M$. However, there are many non-Jacobson radical rings (such as any ring with unit) having no image in $M$. Thus the inclusion is proper.

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