VoL. 53 (1996) [299-303]

# ON SQUARES OF JACOBSON RADICAL RINGS 

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We construct several examples of Jacobson radical rings which are not squares of other rings.

Denote by $J$ and $N$ the classes of Jacobson radical rings and nilpotent rings, respectively. Let $J_{2}=\left\{A \mid\right.$ there is a Jacobson radical ring $R$ such that $\left.A=R^{2}\right\}$. Obviously $J$ is equal to the lower radical class determined by $J_{2} \cup N$. This was noted in [5], Theorem 1, in the context of a problem of Divinsky [4] to represent the Jacobson radical as a lower radical class. However it is not clear whether the representation is non trivial (that is, whether $J \neq J_{2} \cup N$ ). In [5] an example showing that $N \nsubseteq J_{2}$ was constructed (which obviously does not clarify the relation between $J$ and $J_{2} \cup N$ ) and the problem of finding more examples in $J \backslash J_{2}$ was raised. In this note we obtain some results which can be used to construct many such examples. They in particular show that $J \neq J_{2} \cup N$.

The question studied in this paper is a special case of the following extension problem: given rings $A$ and $B$, describe all rings $R$ such that $A \simeq I$, where $I$ is an ideal of $R$ and $R / I \simeq B$. For some results and further references concerning that problem and its applications we refer to [1] and [6].

All rings in this paper are associative. To denote that $I$ is an ideal of a ring $R$ we write $I \triangleleft R$. Given a subset $S$ of a ring $A$, we denote by $l_{A}(S)$ and $r_{A}(S)$ the left and right annihilators of $S$ in $A$, respectively.

Proposition 1. Suppose that $P$ is a ring with an identity, $p \in P, l_{P p}(P p)=$ 0 and $P p \triangleleft R$. Then
(i) for every $r \in R$ and $s \in P, s(p r)=(s p) r$;
(ii) $S=\{s \in P \mid s p \in p R\}$ is a subring of $P$;
(iii) $l_{P}(p) \triangleleft S$ and $r_{R}(p) \triangleleft R$;
(iv) there is an isomomorphism $f: R / r_{R}(p) \rightarrow S / l_{P}(p)$ such that

$$
f\left(\left(P p+r_{R}(p)\right) / r_{R}(p)\right)=\left(p P+l_{P}(p)\right) / l_{P}(p)
$$

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Proof: (i) Take any $x \in P p$. Since $s, p, p r, x$ and $r x$ are in $P,[s(p r)] x=$ $s[(p r) x]$ and $(s p)(r x)=s[p(r x)]$. On the other hand $p, r, x$ and $s p$ are in $R$, so $p(r x)=(p r) x$ and $[(s p) r] x=(s p)(r x)$. Consequently $[s(p r)-(s p) r] x=0$. Note also that since $P p \triangleleft R, s(p r)$ and $(s p) r$ are in $P p$. These show that $s(p r)-(s p) r \in$ $l_{P p}(P p)=0$, so $s(p r)=(s p) r$.
(ii) Obviously $S$ is an additive subgroup of $P$. Take $s_{1}, s_{2} \in S$. There are $r_{1}, r_{2} \in R$ such that $s_{i} p=p r_{i}, i=1,2$. Now $\left(s_{1} s_{2}\right) p=s_{1}\left(s_{2} p\right)=s_{1}\left(p r_{2}\right)$. By applying (i) we get that $\left(s_{1} s_{2}\right) p=s_{1}\left(p r_{2}\right)=\left(s_{1} p\right) r_{2}=\left(p r_{1}\right) r_{2}=p\left(r_{1} r_{2}\right) \in p R$. Hence $s_{1} s_{2} \in S$.
(iii) Clearly $l_{P}(p)$ is a left ideal of $S$. Now if $s \in S$, then there is $r \in R$ such that $s p=p r$. By applying (i) we get that $\left(l_{P}(p) s\right) p=l_{P}(p)(s p)=l_{P}(p)(p r)=\left(l_{P}(p) p\right) r=$ 0 . Hence $l_{P}(p)$ is also a right ideal of $S$.

Since $p \in P p \triangleleft R$, for every $x \in R$, there is $s \in P$ such that $p x=s p$. By (i), $p\left(x r_{R}(p)\right)=(p x) r_{R}(p)=s\left(p r_{R}(p)\right)=0$. Consequently $R r_{R}(p) \subseteq r_{R}(p)$, so $r_{R}(p)$ is an ideal of $R$.
(iv) Since $p \in P p$ and $P p \triangleleft R$, for every $r \in R$ there exists $s \in S$ such that $s p=p r$. Observe that if $s^{\prime} p=p r$ for some $s^{\prime} \in S$, then $s-s^{\prime} \in l_{P}(p)$. This shows that on putting $g(r)=s+l_{P}(p)$ we get a well defined map $g: R \rightarrow S / l_{P}(p)$. Clearly $g$ is an additive homomorphism of $R$ onto $S / l_{P}(p)$. If $r_{1}, r_{2} \in R$, then by applying (i) we get that $p\left(r_{1} r_{2}\right)=\left(g\left(r_{1}\right) p\right) r_{2}=g\left(r_{1}\right)\left(p r_{2}\right)=\left(g\left(r_{1}\right) g\left(r_{2}\right)\right) p$. Hence $g\left(r_{1} r_{2}\right)=g\left(r_{1}\right) g\left(r_{2}\right)$ and so $g$ is a ring epimorphism of $R$ onto $S / l_{P}(p)$. Clearly $g(P p)=\left(p P+l_{P}(p)\right) / l_{P}(p)$. Moreover ker $g=\{r \in R \mid p r=0\}=r_{R}(p)$. The isomorphism $f: R / r_{R}(p) \rightarrow S / l_{P}(p)$ induced by $g$ is the desired isomorphism.

Corollary 1. Under the notation of Proposition 1, if $R^{2}=P p$, then $S^{2}=$ $p P+l_{P}(p)$. In particular if $l_{P}(p)=0$, then $S^{2}=p P$.

By applying the above Corollary one can easily find examples of rings in $J \backslash$ $\left(J_{2} \cup N\right)$.

Example 1. Let $A$ be a ring with an identity and $P=A\{x\}$ be the power series ring over $A$ in the indeterminate $x$. For $p=x, P p \in J$ and $l_{P}(p)=0$. We claim that $P p \notin J_{2}$. Indeed, assuming that $P p \triangleleft R$ and $R^{2}=P p$ we would get by Corollary 1 that there is a subring $S$ of $P$ such that $S^{2}=p P$, which is impossible.

Example 2. Let $P$ be a commutative local ring with the maximal ideal $M$. Obviously $M \in J$. Since $P / M$ is a field, it follows from Corollary 1 that if $M$ is a principal ideal of $P$ generated by a regular element $p$, then $M \notin J_{2}$ or $M=M^{2}$. However if $M=M^{2}$, then $p=p^{2} x$ for some $x \in P$. Consequently $p(1-p x)=0$ and since $p$ is regular, $1=p \boldsymbol{x}$. Thus $M=P$, a contradiction.

As a particular $P$ one can take any commutative principal ideal domain localised
at a maximal ideal.
Observe that if $F$ is a field, then $P=F+x^{2} F\{x\}$ is a local ring whose maximal ideal $M=x^{2} F\{x\}$ is not principal. Since $M=(x F\{x\})^{2}, M \in J_{2}$.

Proposition 1 can be also applied to some other cases of the extension problem. For instance we have:

Corollary 2. Suppose that $P$ is a ring with an identity and $p$ is a central regular element of $P$ such that the ring $P / p P$ is reduced. If $p P \triangleleft R$ and $R / p P$ is a nil ring, then $R=p P \oplus I$ for a nil ideal $I$ of $R$.

Proof: By applying Proposition 1 we get that there is a subring $S$ of $P$ such that $p P \subseteq S$ and $S / p P \simeq R /\left(p P+r_{R}(p)\right)$. However $S / p P$ is a reduced ring and $R /\left(p P+r_{R}(p)\right)$, being a homomorphic image of $R / p P$, is a nil ring. Hence both of them are equal to zero. Consequently $R=p P+r_{R}(p)$. Since $p$ is a central element of $P$, by applying Proposition 1 (i), we get that $\left(p P \cap r_{R}(p)\right) p=0$. However $p$ is a regular element of $P$, so $p P \cap r_{R}(p)=0$. Consequently $R=p P \oplus r_{R}(p)$ and, since $R / p P \simeq r_{R}(p), r_{R}(p)$ is a nil ideal of $R$.

Now we shall present another method of finding rings in $J \backslash J_{2}$.
An algebra over a ring $D$ is called a left chain algebra if the left $D$-ideals of the algebra form a chain. In the case when $D$ is the ring of integers left chain algebras are called left chain rings. Obviously every $D$-algebra which is a left chain ring is a left chain $D$-algebra but not conversely. Commutative left chain algebras are called simply chain algebras.

Many examples of left chain rings can be found in $[2,3]$.
Proposition 2. Suppose that $A \in J$ is a left chain algebra over a field $F$. If for a ring $R, A \triangleleft R$ and $R^{2}=A$, then $A^{2}=A$ or $A^{2}=0$.

Proof: Take $0 \neq a \in A$. Suppose first that $a \in F(R a)$. Then for every $b \in A$, $a b \in F(R a) b=R a F b=F(R a b)$ and further $a b \in F(R a b) \subseteq F(R(R a F b))=R^{2} a F b=$ $A a F b=A a b$. Hence, since $A \in J, a b=0$. Consequently $a A=0$.

Suppose now that $a \notin F(R a)$. Then $I=A a+F a \nsubseteq F(R a)$. Since $I$ and $F(R a)$ are left $F$-ideals of $A$ and $A$ is a left chain $F$-algebra, $A a \subseteq F(R a) \subset I$. Since $\operatorname{dim}_{F} I / A a=1, A a=F(R a)$. This implies that $A a \subseteq R a \subseteq F(R a)=A a$, so $R a=A a$. Now $A a=R^{2} a=R(R a)=R(A a) \subseteq A a$. Thus $A a=R A a$ and further $R A a=R^{2} A a=A^{2} a$, which imply that $A a=A^{2} a$. Consequently for every $x \in A$ there exists $y \in A^{2}$ such that $x a=y a$. This gives that $A=A^{2}+l_{A}(a)$. Since $l_{A}(a)$ and $A^{2}$ are left $F$-ideals of $A, l_{A}(a) \subseteq A^{2}$ or $A^{2} \subseteq l_{A}(a)$. In the former case $A=A^{2}$ and we are done. In the latter $A=l_{A}(a)$. This and the conclusion of the last paragraph imply that if $A \neq A^{2}$, then for every $a \in A, A a=0$ or $a A=0$. Thus $l_{A}(A) \cup r_{A}(A)=A$. Consequently $l_{A}(A)=A$ or $r_{A}(A)=A$. The result follows.

Example 3. Let $A=x F[x] / x^{n} F[x]$, where $n$ is an integer $>2$ and $F[x]$ is the polynomial ring over a field $F$ in the interminate $x$. It is easy to check that $A$ is a chain $F$-algebra. Obviously $0 \neq A^{2} \neq A$, so by Proposition $2 A \in J \backslash J_{2}$.

Observe that for $n=2$ the algebra $A$ belongs to $J_{2}$. Indeed, in that case $A \simeq$ $x^{2} F[x] / x^{3} F[x]$ and $x^{2} F[x] / x^{3} F[x]=\left(x F[x] / x^{3} F[x]\right)^{2}$.
Example 4. Let $G$ be a linearly ordered Abelian group (written multiplicatively) and let $P$ be the semigroup of positive elements of $G$. Let $R=F[P \cup\{1\}]$ be the semigroup algebra of the semigroup $P \cup\{1\}$ over a field $F$. Observe that $F[P]$ is a maximal ideal of $R$, so for $S=R \backslash F[P], A=S^{-1} R$ is a local $F$-algebra with the maximal ideal $M=S^{-1} F[P]$. Every principal proper ideal of $A$ is of the form $A p$ for some $p \in P$ and if $p, q \in P, p \leqslant q$, then $A q \subseteq A p$. Hence $A$ is a chain ring. All $F$-ideals of $M$ are ideals of $A$, so $M$ is a chain $F$-algebra. Observe that $A^{2}=A$ if and only if $P^{2}=P$. Thus Proposition 2 implies that if $P^{2} \neq P$, then $A \in J \backslash J_{2}$.

The algebra $A$ in Example 4 is a chain ring. However its ideal $M$ is a chain ring if and only if $F$ is a finite prime field. It is a consequence of the following more general observation.

Proposition 3. If an algebra $R$ over a field $F$ is a Jacobson radical left chain ring, then $F$ is a finite prime field.

Proof: Let $K$ be the subring of $F$ generated by 1. It suffices to show that $K=F$. Take $0 \neq r \in R$ and $f \in F$. Observe that $K f r+R r$ and $K r+R r$ are left ideals of the ring $R$. Thus $K f r+R r \subseteq K r+R r$ or $K r+R r \subseteq K f r+R r$. In the former case $f r \in k r+R r$ for some $k \in K$. If $f \neq k$, then $r \in R r$, which contradicts the assumption that $R \in J$. Thus $f=k \in K$. In the later case, $r \in k f r+R r$ for some $k \in K$. Hence ( $1-k f$ ) $r \in R r$. If $k f \neq 1$, then $r \in R r$, a contradiction. Thus $k=f^{-1} \in F$. Consequently $K=F$ and the result follows.

It is natural to ask whether if $A \in J_{2}$ is a left chain ring, then $A=A^{2}$ or $A^{2}=0$. We close by showing that the answer to this question is negative.

Example 5. Let $R$ be the ring of integers localised at the set of odd integers. Clearly $R$ is a commutative local ring with the maximal ideal $M=2 R$. Every non-zero ideal of $R$ is of the form $2^{k} R$ for a non-negative integer $k$. Moreover for every $k$, the additive group of $R / 2^{k} R$ is cyclic of order $2^{k}$. Let $A=M^{2}$. Take an ideal $I$ in $A$ and put $\bar{I}=R I$. Obviously $\bar{I}$ and $4 \bar{I}$ are ideals of $R$, so the additive group of $\bar{I} / 4 \bar{I}$ is cyclic of order 4. However $4 \bar{I}=4 R I=M^{2} I \subseteq I \subseteq \bar{I}$, so $I=\bar{I}$ or $I=2 \bar{I}$ or $I=4 \bar{I}$. In all cases $I \triangleleft R$. Hence $A$ is a chain ring. Clearly $A \in J_{2}$ and $A \neq A^{2} \neq 0$.

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[^0]:    Received 14th June, 1995
    This research was supportet by the Technical University of Białystok, Poland and the Open University, England.

