

On radicals and polynomial rings

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Abstract. For any class \mathcal{M} of rings, it is shown that the class $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$ of all rings each non-zero homomorphic image of which contains either a non-zero left ideal in \mathcal{M} or a proper essential left ideal is a radical. Some characterizations and properties of these radicals are presented. It is also shown that, for radicals γ under certain constraints, one can obtain a strictly decreasing chain of radicals $\gamma = \gamma_{(1)} \supset \gamma_{(2)} \supset \cdots \supset \gamma_{(n)} \supset \cdots$ where, for each positive integer n , $\gamma_{(n)}$ is the radical consisting of all rings A such that $A[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is in γ , thus giving a negative answer to a question posed by Gardner. Moreover, classes \mathcal{M} of rings are constructed such that there exist several such radicals γ in the interval $[\mathcal{E}_\ell(0), \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})]$.

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1. Introduction

All rings considered in this note are associative. Let us recall that a (Kurosh–Amitsur) radical γ is a class of rings which is closed under homomorphisms, extensions (I and A/I in γ imply that A in γ) and has the inductive property (if $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq I_\alpha \subseteq \cdots$ is an ascending chain of ideals of A such that each I_α is in γ , then also $\bigcup I_\alpha \in \gamma$). The unique largest γ -ideal $\gamma(A)$ of A is then called the γ -radical of A . A class \mathcal{M} of rings is said to be regular if every non-zero ideal of a ring in \mathcal{M} has a non-zero homomorphic image in \mathcal{M} . Starting from a regular class \mathcal{M} of rings, the upper radical operator \mathfrak{U} yields a radical class:

$$\mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M} = \{A \mid A \text{ has no non-zero homomorphic image in } \mathcal{M}\}.$$

The definitions and significant radical theoretic properties used throughout this text may be found in [2], [9]. As usual, $I \triangleleft A$ indicates that I is an ideal of the ring A . A ring (ideal) belonging to a class \mathcal{M} will be called an \mathcal{M} -ring (\mathcal{M} -ideal).

2. Upper radicals and essential left ideals

For any class \mathcal{M} of rings, we show that the class $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$ of all rings each non-zero homomorphic image of which contains either a non-zero left ideal in \mathcal{M} or a proper essential left ideal is a radical. For certain classes \mathcal{M} of rings, $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$ is characterized as an upper radical (for example, the Thierrin radical) and we also show that the collection of all the radicals $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$ forms a meet sublattice of the lattice of all radicals.

Let us recall that a simple ring means a ring without nontrivial ideals. A ring without nontrivial left ideals shall be called a left simple ring. We remind the reader that such rings are simple zero-rings or division rings. An essential left ideal of a ring A is a left ideal which has non-zero intersection with every non-zero ideal of A .

It is well known [4] that if a ring A has a homomorphic image with a proper essential ideal, then A has a proper essential ideal. We now show, in a similar way, that the same holds for left-sided ideals.

Lemma 1. *If A has a homomorphic image with a proper essential left ideal, then A has a proper essential left ideal.*

Proof. Let A/I be a non-zero homomorphic image of A with L/I a proper essential left ideal of A/I . Then I is a proper ideal of A and $L \neq A$. To show that L is essential in A , let $0 \neq J \triangleleft A$. If $J \subseteq L$, then $J \cap L = J \neq 0$, as desired. If $J \not\subseteq L$, then $J \not\subseteq I$ and $0 \neq (J+I)/I \triangleleft A/I$ so that $[(J+I)/I] \cap [L/I] \neq 0$. Thus, there exists $a+b \in J+I$ and $l \in L$ such that $(a+b)+I = l+I \neq I$. This implies that $a+b+b_1 = l+b_2$ for some $b_1, b_2 \in I$. Since $I \subseteq L$, we have $b+b_1 \in L$ and $l+b_2 \in L$. Therefore, $a = (l+b_2) - (b+b_1) \in L$ and so $a \in J \cap L$. If $a = 0$, then $b+b_1 = l+b_2$, which implies that $l \in I$. However, this is impossible since $l+I \neq I$. Hence $J \cap L \neq 0$, as required. \square

Theorem 2. $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$ is a radical class for any class \mathcal{M} of rings.

Proof. Clearly, $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$ is a homomorphically closed class of rings. Now suppose that $A \notin \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$. Then A has a non-zero homomorphic image \bar{A} which has neither a non-zero left ideal in \mathcal{M} nor a proper essential left ideal. Let \bar{K} be a non-zero $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$ -ideal of \bar{A} . By [3], Theorem 5, \bar{K} must be a direct summand of \bar{A} and then also, \bar{K} is a homomorphic image of \bar{A} . Since $\bar{K} \in \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$, it must have a proper essential left ideal or a non-zero left ideal in \mathcal{M} . But, if \bar{K} has a proper essential left ideal, then Lemma 1 forces \bar{A} to have a proper essential left ideal, contrary to the choice of \bar{A} . Also, if \bar{K} has a non-zero left ideal in \mathcal{M} , then this left ideal of \bar{K} is actually a left ideal of \bar{A} , since \bar{K} is a direct summand of \bar{A} . Again this is impossible. Thus \bar{A} has no non-zero ideal in $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$. \square

Let \mathcal{M} be any class of rings. In the sequel, \mathcal{M}_1 stands for the class of all simple rings contained in \mathcal{M} , and \mathcal{M}_0 denotes the class of all left simple rings contained in \mathcal{M} . The class of rings complementary to the class \mathcal{M} is denoted by \mathcal{M}' .

Proposition 3. *For any class \mathcal{M} of rings, $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}) = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_0) = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_1)$.*

Proof. Obviously, $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_0) \subseteq \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_1) \subseteq \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$. Let $A \in \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$ and let \bar{A} be any non-zero homomorphic image of A . If \bar{A} has no proper essential left ideal, then, according to [3], Theorem 5, \bar{A} is a direct sum of left simple rings and hence contains a non-zero \mathcal{M}_0 -ideal. Thus $A \in \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_0)$. □

Theorem 4. *For any class \mathcal{M} of left simple rings, $\mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}'_0) = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}'_1)$.*

Proof. Suppose $A \notin \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M}$. Then $\bar{A} \in \mathcal{M}$ for some non-zero homomorphic image of A . So, \bar{A} has neither a proper essential left ideal nor a non-zero left ideal in \mathcal{M}'_1 . Hence, $A \notin \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}'_1)$. On the other hand, if $A \notin \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}'_1)$, then A has a non-zero homomorphic image \bar{A} without a proper essential left ideal or a non-zero left ideal in \mathcal{M}'_1 . Then \bar{A} is a direct sum of simple rings having only trivial left ideals, each of which can be considered an ideal of \bar{A} . These simple rings are obviously in \mathcal{M} . Moreover, each of these summands is a homomorphic image of \bar{A} and thus of A . Therefore $A \notin \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M}$. □

Corollary 5. *If \mathcal{M} is a homomorphically closed class of rings, then $\mathfrak{L}\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$ if and only if $\mathfrak{L}\mathcal{M} = \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M}'_0$, where $\mathfrak{L}\mathcal{M}$ denotes the lower radical determined by \mathcal{M} .*

Proof. This is clear since $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}) = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_1) = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_0) = \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M}'_0$. □

Corollary 6. *If \mathcal{M} is a regular class of rings, then there exists a class \mathcal{N} of rings such that $\mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{N})$ if and only if $\mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M} = \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M}_0$.*

Proof. If $\mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{N})$ for some class \mathcal{N} of rings, then $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{N}'_0) = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{N}) = \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M}$, where $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{N}'_0) = \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{N}'_0$. Hence $\mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M} = \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{N}'_0$. But $\mathcal{N}'_0 \subseteq \mathcal{M}_0$, for $B \in \mathcal{N}'_0$ implies that $B \notin \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{N}'_0 = \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M}$, whence $B \in \mathcal{M}$. Thus $\mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M}_0 \subseteq \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{N}'_0$. Moreover, $\mathcal{M}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{N}'_0$. In fact, A left simple and $A \notin \mathcal{N}'_0$ implies that $A \in \mathcal{N}'_0 \subseteq \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M}$. Therefore $A \notin \mathcal{M}$ and consequently $A \notin \mathcal{M}_0$. We have now that $\mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M} = \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M}_0$.

Conversely, $\mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M} = \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M}_0 = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}'_0)$. □

Corollary 7. *Let \mathcal{M} be a regular class of rings which contains non-zero left simple rings. Then there exists a class \mathcal{N} of rings such that $\mathfrak{U}\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{N})$ if and only if every non-zero \mathcal{M} -ring has a left simple non-zero homomorphic image in \mathcal{M} .*

Remark 8. Let γ be a hypernilpotent radical (that is, all nilpotent rings are γ -rings) and let $\mathcal{S}\gamma$ be the semisimple class of γ . If \mathcal{M} is any class of rings such that $\mathcal{M}_0 = \gamma_0$ then we have, by Theorem 4,

$$\mathcal{U}\gamma'_0 = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\gamma_0) = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}),$$

where γ'_0 , the class of left simple rings in the complementary class of γ , clearly coincides with the class of division rings in $\mathcal{S}\gamma$.

Notice that if \mathcal{D} is the class of all division rings and $\mathcal{U}\mathcal{D} \subseteq \gamma$, then γ'_0 coincides with the class of division rings in $\mathcal{S}\gamma$ (hence γ'_0 is a special class of rings) and $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$ is a special radical.

Example 9. If \mathcal{D} again denotes the class of all division rings, and \mathcal{Z} is the class of all simple zero-rings, then

$$\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{Z}) = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{D}'_0) = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{D}$$

and $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{D}) = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{Z}'_0) = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{Z}$.

Example 10. Consider the subclass $\mathcal{E}_\ell(0)$ of all rings each non-zero homomorphic image of which has a proper essential left ideal. Obviously, left simple rings cannot belong to $\mathcal{E}_\ell(0)$. For $\mathcal{S} = \{A \mid A \text{ is either a division ring or a prime order zero ring}\}$ and $\mathcal{T} = \{\text{all direct sums of members of } \mathcal{S}\}$, we have:

$$\mathcal{E}_\ell(0) = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{D} \cap \mathcal{U}\mathcal{Z}.$$

In fact, from Theorem 4 and the definition of $\mathcal{E}_\ell(0)$, it follows that $\mathcal{E}_\ell(0) = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{T}$. Also, $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$, so $\mathcal{U}\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{U}\mathcal{S}$. Conversely, if $A \in \mathcal{U}\mathcal{S}$ then R , having no non-zero image in \mathcal{S} , cannot have an image in \mathcal{T} , so that $A \in \mathcal{U}\mathcal{T}$ and so $\mathcal{E}_\ell(0) = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{S}$. It is easily seen that $\mathcal{U}\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{U}\mathcal{D} \cap \mathcal{U}\mathcal{Z}$.

In order to prove the next proposition, we require the following result.

Lemma 11. *The following conditions are equivalent for an abelian group G :*

- (i) *Every non-zero homomorphic image of G has a proper essential subgroup;*
- (ii) *G is divisible.*

Proof. (i) implies (ii). Suppose $pG \neq G$ for some prime p . Then the cyclic group $\mathbb{Z}(p)$ of order p is a homomorphic image of G/pG and therefore of G . But $\mathbb{Z}(p)$ has no proper essential subgroup; a contradiction. Thus $pG = G$ for every prime p and so G is divisible.

(ii) implies (i). If G is non-zero and divisible, then $G = A \oplus B$ where $A \cong \mathbb{Q}$ or $A \cong \mathbb{Z}(p^\infty)$ for some prime p . If $0 \neq a \in A$, then $\langle a \rangle \oplus B$ is a proper essential subgroup of G , where $\langle a \rangle$ is the cyclic subgroup of G generated by a . Now we just observe that all homomorphic images of G are also divisible. □

Proposition 12. *The radical $\mathcal{E}_\ell(0)$ is polynomially extensible; that is, $A \in \mathcal{E}_\ell(0)$ implies that $A[x] \in \mathcal{E}_\ell(0)$.*

Proof. Let $A \in \mathcal{E}_\ell(0)$ and consider an arbitrary non-zero homomorphic image $A[x]/I$ of the polynomial ring $A[x]$. If $A \not\subseteq I$, then $0 \neq (A + I)/I \cong A/(A \cap I)$ and $(A + I)/I$ has a proper essential left ideal. But $(A + I)/I$ is a homomorphic image of $A[x]/I$. In fact, $\varphi : A[x]/I \rightarrow (A + I)/I$ defined by $\varphi(a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n + I) = a_0 + I$ is a ring epimorphism. Hence, by Lemma 1, $A[x]/I$ has a proper essential left ideal. If $A \subseteq I$, then $a_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 + \dots \in I$ for all $a_0 \in A, b_i \in A^2$, so $A[x]/I$ is a homomorphic image of $\{(c_1 + A^2)x + (c_2 + A^2)x^2 + \dots \mid c_i \in A\} \cong A/A^2 \oplus A/A^2 \oplus \dots$. Now $A \neq A^2$, since otherwise $I = A[x]$. Since $A \in \mathcal{E}_\ell(0)$ it follows that $0 \neq A/A^2 \in \mathcal{E}_\ell(0)$. By the previous lemma, A/A^2 is a divisible zero-ring and hence also $A[x]/I$. By the first part of the proof, $A[x]/I$ has a proper essential left ideal. \square

Proposition 13. (1) *For any class \mathcal{M} of rings, $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})) = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$.*
 (2) *For any family $\{\mathcal{M}_i \mid i \in \Lambda\}$ of classes of rings, we have*

$$\bigcap_{i \in \Lambda} \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_i) = \mathcal{E}_\ell\left(\bigcap_{i \in \Lambda} \mathcal{M}_i\right).$$

Proof. (1) It is clear that $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}) \subseteq \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}))$. On the other hand, suppose that $A \in \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}))$ and let \bar{A} be any non-zero homomorphic image of A . Suppose that \bar{A} has no proper essential left ideals. Then \bar{A} has a non-zero left ideal $\bar{L} \in \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$ and, by [3], Theorem 5, \bar{L} is a direct summand of \bar{A} ; that is, $\bar{A} = \bar{L} \oplus \bar{K}$ for some ideal \bar{K} of \bar{A} . But then any left ideal of \bar{L} is also a left ideal of \bar{A} . Now, if \bar{L} has a proper essential left ideal, then by

$$\bar{A}/\bar{K} = (\bar{L} + \bar{K})/\bar{K} \simeq \bar{L}/(\bar{L} \cap \bar{K}) \simeq \bar{L}$$

and Lemma 1, \bar{A} has a proper essential left ideal, a contradiction. Hence \bar{L} has a non-zero left ideal in \mathcal{M} , which is also a left ideal in \bar{A} . Therefore $A \in \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$.

(2) Clearly, $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\bigcap_{i \in \Lambda} \mathcal{M}_i) \subseteq \bigcap_{i \in \Lambda} \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_i)$. Let $A \in \bigcap_{i \in \Lambda} \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_i)$ and suppose that \bar{A} is any non-zero homomorphic image of A . If \bar{A} has no proper essential left ideal, then \bar{A} has a non-zero left ideal $\bar{S} \in \mathcal{M}_1$ which is a left simple ring and a summand of \bar{A} . We claim that $\bar{S} \in \mathcal{M}_i$ for each $i \in \Lambda$. If $\bar{S} \notin \mathcal{M}_i$ for some $i \in \Lambda$, then \bar{S} , as a homomorphic image of A , has neither a proper essential left ideal nor a non-zero left ideal in \mathcal{M}_i , contradicting $A \in \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_i)$. Therefore, $A \in \mathcal{E}_\ell(\bigcap_{i \in \Lambda} \mathcal{M}_i)$. \square

Remark 14. (i) The lattice of all radicals $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$ is atomic and coatomic. The atoms are the radicals $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\{P\})$ and the coatoms are the radicals $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{S} - \{P\})$, where P is a non-zero left simple ring and \mathcal{S} is the class of all left simple rings.

(ii) The collection of all radicals $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$ forms a meet subsemilattice of the lattice of all radicals. Indeed, if $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_1)$ and $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_2)$ are any two such radical classes, then $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_1) \wedge \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_2) = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_1) \cap \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_2) = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_1 \cap \mathcal{M}_2)$.

(iii) [11], Example 5, also shows that this collection of radical classes $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M})$ is not a sublattice of the lattice of all radical classes with respect to \wedge and \vee . However, like the collection of the Olson and Jenkins radical classes, this collection also forms a Boolean lattice with respect to the operators \wedge and \vee' , where $\mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_1) \vee' \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_2) = \mathcal{E}_\ell(\mathcal{M}_1 \cup \mathcal{M}_2)$ for arbitrary classes \mathcal{M}_1 and \mathcal{M}_2 of rings.

3. Polynomial rings and radicals

For a ring A , $A[x]$ and $A[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ denote, respectively, the ring of polynomials over A in one indeterminate and the ring of polynomials over A in n commuting indeterminates and P_n denotes the class of all polynomial rings $A[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$.

For a radical γ , let $\gamma_{(1)}$ denote the class $\{A \mid A[x] \in \gamma\}$ and let $\gamma^{(1)}$ denote the lower radical $\mathfrak{Q}(\gamma \cap P_1)$.

Proposition 15 ([1], Theorem 1). *$\gamma_{(1)}$ is a radical class for any radical class γ .*

Defining $\gamma_{(n)} = \{A \mid A[x_1, \dots, x_n] \in \gamma\}$ and $\gamma^{(n)} = \mathfrak{Q}(\{P_n \cap \gamma\})$, we obtain the chains

$$\gamma \supseteq \gamma_{(1)} \supseteq \dots \supseteq \gamma_{(n)} \supseteq \dots$$

and

$$\gamma \supseteq \gamma^{(1)} \supseteq \dots \supseteq \gamma^{(n)} \supseteq \dots$$

Clearly,

$$\gamma_{(n)} \subseteq \gamma^{(n)}.$$

In [1], Gardner posed the following question:

Does the chain

$$\gamma = \gamma_{(0)} \supseteq \gamma_{(1)} \supseteq \dots \supseteq \gamma_{(n)} \supseteq \dots$$

terminate for every radical class γ ? We shall give a negative answer to this question, but first we need some preliminary results.

Proposition 16 ([1]). *Let A be a ring with unity and S a ring with unity and no other non-zero idempotents. Then S belongs to $\mathfrak{Q}(\{A\})$ if and only if it is a homomorphic image of A .*

Let A be a ring. A ring I is said to be an accessible subring of A if $I = I_1 \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft I_n = A$ for some natural number n .

Lemma 17. *Let A be a ring with unity and B a ring with unity and no other non-zero idempotents. Then the $\mathfrak{L}(\{A\})$ -radical of B is non-zero if and only if B is a homomorphic image of A .*

Proof. Let $\mathfrak{L}(\{A\}) \neq 0$. Then $\mathfrak{L}(\{A\})(B)$ has a non-zero accessible subring I such that I is a homomorphic image of A . Since $\mathfrak{L}(\{A\})(B) \triangleleft B$, I is an accessible subring of B . Similarly to the proof of Proposition 16, we obtain that $I = B$. Hence B is a homomorphic image of A . The converse is clear. □

Lemma 18. *Let γ be a radical and let I be an accessible subring of a ring A . If $I \in \gamma$, then $\gamma(A) \neq 0$.*

Proof. Suppose that $I = I_1 \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft I_n = A$. Since $I \in \gamma$ and $I \triangleleft I_2$, $0 \neq \gamma(I) \subseteq \gamma(I_2)$ and, by induction, $0 \neq \gamma(I) \subseteq \gamma(I_2) \subseteq \cdots \subseteq \gamma(I_n) = \gamma(A)$. □

We denote by \mathcal{C}_p the class of all commutative prime rings and $\mathcal{C} = \mathfrak{U}\mathcal{C}_p$. If \mathcal{U} is a class of rings with unity, we put $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{U}} = \mathfrak{L}(\mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{U})$.

Proposition 19. *Let \mathcal{U} be a class of rings with unity and let $A \neq 0$ be a commutative reduced ring with unity and no other non-zero idempotent. Then $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{U}}(A) \neq 0$ if and only if A is a homomorphic image of a ring $B \in \mathcal{U}$.*

Proof. Suppose that $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{U}}(A) \neq 0$. Since A is a commutative reduced ring, $R = \mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{U}}(A)$ is also a commutative reduced ring. Therefore, for each $0 \neq a \in R$, there exists an ideal K_a of R , which is maximal with respect to the exclusion of a^n for any natural number n . Clearly, R/K_a is a prime commutative ring. Since $0 \neq a \in R$ is arbitrary, R is a subdirect sum of the rings R/K_a . Hence R is a \mathcal{C} -semisimple ring. By Lemma 18, R has no non-zero accessible subring which is a homomorphic image of a ring $B \in \mathcal{C}$. Therefore R has an accessible subring I such that I is a homomorphic image B in \mathcal{U} . Hence, by Lemma 18, $\mathfrak{L}(\{B\})(A) \neq 0$, because I is an accessible subring of A . By Lemma 17, A is a homomorphic image of B . The converse is clear. □

We denote by $|A|$ the cardinality of a ring A .

Lemma 20. *Let A be a simple ring with $|A| \geq \aleph_0$. Then $|A| = |B|$ for every non-zero homomorphic image B of $A[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$.*

Proof. Since A is infinite, we have $|A[x_1, \dots, x_n]| = |A|$. Therefore $|B| \leq |A|$ for every homomorphic image of $A[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. Let $B = A[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I \neq 0$.

We show that $A \cap I = 0$. Suppose that $A \cap I \neq 0$. Since $0 \neq A \cap I \triangleleft A$ and A is a simple ring, $A = A \cap I$. Clearly $A^2 = A$ because A is infinite. Therefore $A[x_1, \dots, x_n] = A^2[x_1, \dots, x_n] \subseteq I$. Hence $A[x_1, \dots, x_n] = I$, a contradiction to $A[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I \neq 0$. Thus $A \cap I = 0$. Since $(A + I)/I \cong A/(A \cap I) \cong A$, we have $|A| = |(A + I)/I| \leq |A[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I| = |B|$. Thus $|A| = |B|$. \square

Remark 21. Notice that we may find fields $F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n, \dots$, of zero characteristic such that $|F_1| < |F_2| < \dots < |F_n| < \dots$ and $|F_1| \geq \aleph_0$. Therefore, we can assume that $F_1 = \mathbb{Q}$, where \mathbb{Q} is the field of rational numbers.

In what follows, let

$$\mathcal{S} = \{F_n[x_1, \dots, x_n] \mid F_n \text{ is a field and } F_n[x_1, \dots, x_n] \text{ is not a homomorphic image of } F_m[x_1, \dots, x_m] \text{ for any } m \neq n\}$$

and $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{S}} = \mathfrak{Q}(\mathfrak{U}\mathcal{F}^1 \cup \mathcal{S})$, where \mathcal{F}^1 is the class of all fields. We are now in a position to prove the following result.

Theorem 22. *Let $F_1 = \mathbb{Q}, F_2, \dots, F_n, \dots$ be fields such that $|F_i| < |F_{i+1}|$ for each $i = 1, 2, \dots$. If γ is any radical such that*

$$\mathcal{S} \subseteq \gamma \subseteq \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{S}},$$

then $\gamma = \gamma_{(1)} \supset \gamma_{(2)} \supset \dots \supset \gamma_{(n)} \supset \dots$.

Proof. By assumption, we have $F_n \in \mathfrak{Q}(\mathcal{S})_{(n)} \subseteq \gamma_{(n)} \subseteq (\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{S}})_{(n)}$. We claim that $F_n \notin \gamma_{(n+1)}$. It is sufficient to show that $F_n[x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}] \notin \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{S}}$. Suppose that $F_n[x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}] \in \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{S}}$. Clearly, $F_n[x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}]$ is a commutative reduced ring with unity and no other non-zero idemotents. By an argument similar to the one used in the proof of Proposition 19, $F_n[x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}]$ is a homomorphic image of some B_S in S . Let $B_S = F_s[x_1, \dots, x_s]$ and $F_n[x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}] \cong B_S/I$. Then $n = s$. Indeed, if $n \neq s$, then we have, by Lemma 20, $|F_n[x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}]| = |F_n|$ and $|F_s| = |F_s[x_1, \dots, x_s]/I| = |B_S/I|$. Since $F_n[x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}] \cong B_S/I$, it follows that $|F_n[x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}]| = |B_S/I|$. But $|F_n| \neq |F_s|$, a contradiction. Thus $n = s$ and $F_n[x_1, \dots, x_n, x_{n+1}]$ is a homomorphic image of $F_n[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. By [10], Theorem 29, this is impossible. Therefore $F_n \notin \gamma_{(n+1)}$ and so $\gamma_{(n)} \neq \gamma_{(n+1)}$. \square

We notice that Theorem 22 is true for any \mathcal{S} . For example, take $F_i = \mathbb{Z}_{p(i)}$, where $p(i)$ is a prime number such that $p(i) \neq p(j)$ for $i \neq j$.

Remark 23. Recall that a radical γ is said to be subidempotent if γ consists of idempotent rings. Clearly, $A = F_n[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, where n is a positive integer, is an idempotent ring and hence the radical $\mathfrak{Q}(\mathcal{S})$ is subidempotent.

We now consider the following well-known radicals:

- The Baer radical β . This is the upper radical determined by the class of all prime rings.
- The locally nilpotent radical \mathcal{L} . This is the radical class of all locally nilpotent rings.
- The Brown-McCoy radical \mathcal{G} . This is the upper radical determined by the class of all simple rings with unity.
- The nil radical \mathcal{N} . This is the radical class of all nil rings.
- Let \mathcal{W} be the class of all rings A such that for each element $a \in A$, there exist elements $a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_n \in A$ and $m \in \mathcal{N}$ with $a^m + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i[a, b_i] = 0$. In [7], Tumurbat and Wiegandt proved that \mathcal{W} is a radical class and that \mathcal{W} coincides with $\mathcal{G}_{(1)}$.

We notice that $\beta \subset L \subset N \subset W \subset C \subset \mathfrak{UF}^1$.

Corollary 24. (i) *If γ is one of the radicals*

$$\mathfrak{Q}(\beta \cup \mathcal{S}), \quad \mathfrak{Q}(\mathcal{L} \cup \mathcal{S}), \quad \mathfrak{Q}(\mathcal{N} \cup \mathcal{S}),$$

or γ is any radical in the interval $[\mathfrak{Q}(\mathcal{E}_\ell(0) \cup \mathcal{S}), \mathfrak{F}_\mathcal{S}]$, then

$$\gamma_{(1)} \supset \gamma_{(2)} \supset \dots \supset \gamma_{(n)} \supset \dots$$

(ii) *There exists a radical γ such that $\gamma_{(n)} \neq \gamma_{(n+1)}$. Moreover, $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \bigcap \gamma_{(n)}$.*

Let A be a ring. We denote by $M(A)$ the ring of all infinite matrices over A having only finitely many non-zero elements. We show that the polynomial ring $M(A)[X] \in \bigcap \mathcal{G}_{(n)}$ for any set X of commuting or noncommuting indeterminates. First, however, we need some preliminary results.

Lemma 25. *Let A be a ring with unity and I an ideal of $M(A)$. Then there exists an ideal K of A such that $I = M(K)$.*

Proof. Consider a matrix $B = (b_{ij}) \in I$ and let $(A)_{uv}$ denote the subset of $M(A)$ having non-zero elements only at the (u, v) -entry. For arbitrary indices k and l , we have

$$(A)_{ki}B(A)_{jl} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & Ab_{ij}A & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix} \subseteq (A)_{kl} \cap I.$$

Since A has a unity,

$$k \begin{pmatrix} & & & l \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & b_{ij} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in I$$

Clearly, $K = \{a \in A \mid a = b_{ij}, (b_{ij}) \in I\} \triangleleft A$ and $I \subseteq M(K)$. Since

$$k \begin{pmatrix} & & & l \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & a & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in I$$

we have $M(K) \subseteq I$. Therefore $M(K) = I$. □

Corollary 26. *Let A be an arbitrary ring and I an ideal of $M(A)$. Then there exist ideals K and J of A such that $M(K) \subseteq I \subseteq M(J)$ and $M(J)^3 \subseteq M(K)$.*

Proof. We denote by A^1 the ring A with an identity adjoined. Clearly, $I \triangleleft M(A) \triangleleft M(A^1)$. Let $\langle I \rangle$ be the ideal of $M(A^1)$ generated by I . By Lemma 25, there exists an ideal J of A^1 such that $\langle I \rangle = M(J)$. By Andrunakievich's Lemma, $M(J)^3 \subseteq I$. Clearly, $J \subseteq A$. Since $M(J)^3 \triangleleft M(A^1)$, $M(J)^3 = M(K)$, where $K \triangleleft A^1$ and also $K \triangleleft A$. □

Corollary 27. *Let A be an arbitrary ring and let I be a semiprime ideal of $M(A)$. Then there exists an ideal K of A such that $I = M(K)$.*

Theorem 28. *Let A be an arbitrary ring. If $B \in M(A)$, then there exist $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \in M(A)$ and a positive integer m such that*

$$B^m + \sum_{i=1}^n B_i[B, A_i] = 0$$

and so $M(A) \in \mathcal{W}$.

Proof. First, we shall show that if $M(A)$ is a semiprime ring, then $M(A)$ has zero center. Suppose that $0 \neq B \in Z(M(A))$, where, for a ring T , $Z(T)$ denotes the center of T and

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & \cdots & b_{1n} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & & \\ b_{n1} & & b_{nn} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & & 0 & 0 & & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & & 0 & 0 & & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then $b_{ij} \neq 0$ for some i, j . Let x be an arbitrary element of A and let

$$\bar{X} = \begin{pmatrix} & & i & & \\ 0 & \cdots & & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & x & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix}_{n+1}.$$

Clearly, $B\bar{X} = 0$. Since $B \in Z(M(A))$, $\bar{X}B = 0$ and thus $xb_{ij} = 0$. Since $M(A)$ is semiprime, A is a semiprime ring. But $Ab_{ij} = 0$, a contradiction. Now we show that every non-zero prime homomorphic image of $M(A)$ has zero center. Let $M(A)/I$ be a non-zero prime homomorphic image of $M(A)$. By Corollary 27, $I = M(K)$ for an ideal K of A and so $M(A)/I = M(A)/M(K) \cong M(A/K)$. Since $M(A)/I$ is a prime ring, $Z(M(A)/I) = 0$. Thus, by [5], $M(A) \in \mathcal{G}_{(1)}$ and, by [7], for arbitrary $B \in M(A)$, there exist $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \in M(A)$ and a positive integer m such that $B^m + \sum_{i=1}^n B_i[B, A_i] = 0$. \square

Corollary 29. *Let A be an arbitrary ring. Then $M(A)[x_1, \dots, x_n] \in \mathcal{W}$ for any positive integer n .*

Proof. In view of $M(A)[x_1] \cong M(A[x_1]) \in \mathcal{W}$, it follows by induction that $M(A)[x_1, \dots, x_n] \in \mathcal{W}$. \square

Theorem 30. *Let A be an arbitrary ring. Then $M(A)[X] \in \bigcap \mathcal{G}_{(n)}$, for any set X of commuting or noncommuting indeterminates.*

Proof. This follows from Corollary 29 and [8], Corollary 2.18(ii). □

Corollary 31. *If $\gamma_\infty = \bigcap \gamma$ for a radical γ , then we have:*

- (i) $\mathcal{N} \subset \mathcal{W}_\infty \subset \mathfrak{L}(\mathcal{W} \cup \mathcal{S})_\infty$;
- (ii) $\beta = \beta_\infty \subseteq \mathcal{W}_\infty \subseteq \mathcal{W} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$.

Remark 32. (i) All the known examples of radicals γ with $\gamma_{(n)} \neq \gamma_{(n+1)}$ for any positive integer n are not hereditary. We do not know, however, whether for all hereditary radicals the chain terminates.

(ii) We have $\gamma_{(n)} = \gamma_{(n+1)}$ if and only if $\gamma^{(n)} = \gamma^{(n+1)}$; hence there exist many radicals such that $\gamma^{(n+1)} \subset \gamma^{(n)}$ for any positive integer n .

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