

Andrei V. Kelarev

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*Commentationes Mathematicae Universitatis Carolinae*, Vol. 35 (1994), No. 3, 575--580

Persistent URL: <http://dml.cz/dmlcz/118698>

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## On the Jacobson radical of strongly group graded rings

A.V. KELAREV

*Abstract.* For any non-torsion group  $G$  with identity  $e$ , we construct a strongly  $G$ -graded ring  $R$  such that the Jacobson radical  $J(R_e)$  is locally nilpotent, but  $J(R)$  is not locally nilpotent. This answers a question posed by Puczyłowski.

*Keywords:* strongly graded rings, radicals, local nilpotency

*Classification:* Primary 16A03; Secondary 16A20

Several interesting results of ring theory establish the local nilpotency of the Jacobson radical of some ring constructions (cf. [9]). In this paper we consider an analogous question for strongly group graded rings. Let  $G$  be a group. An associative ring  $R = \bigoplus_{g \in G} R_g$  is said to be *strongly  $G$ -graded* if  $R_g R_h = R_{gh}$  for all  $g, h \in G$ . Strongly group graded rings have been intensively investigated for several years (cf., for example, [12],[15],[20]). In [18] the following question was posed: is it true that for every free group  $G$  of rank  $\geq 2$  the Jacobson radical of each strongly  $G$ -graded ring is locally nilpotent? (As it is noted in [18], the question is also connected with [14], Problem 24, and with a problem on the local nilpotency of the Jacobson radical of a skew polynomial ring, cf. [19].) It follows from the results of [6] that the answer is positive in the case when  $R_e$  satisfies the ascending chain condition for left annihilators, where  $e$  is the identity of  $G$ . It is also known that the answer is positive for group rings of free groups of rank  $\geq 2$  (cf. [18]). The answer to the analogous question for the rings of polynomials in at least two non-commuting variables is also positive (cf. [18]).

We shall show that in general the answer is negative. Namely, for an arbitrary group  $G$ , we construct a strongly  $G$ -graded ring  $R$  such that the Jacobson radical  $J(R)$  is not nil. On the other hand, we shall prove that, for the positive answer to the question above, it suffices to assume that  $J(R_e)$  is left  $T$ -nilpotent. It will also be shown that the weaker condition that  $J(R_e)$  is equal to the Baer radical  $B(R_e)$ , is not sufficient for the local nilpotency of  $J(R)$ .

Our proofs are based on the previous results of [7], [10] and [21].

**Theorem 1.** *For each group  $G$ , there exists a strongly  $G$ -graded ring  $R$  such that the Jacobson radical  $J(R)$  is not nil.*

**Lemma 1.** *Let  $R = \bigoplus_{g \in G} R_g$  be a  $G$ -graded ring, and let  $h \in G$ . Then there exists a  $G$ -graded ring  $Q = \bigoplus_{g \in G} Q_g$  such that  $Q \supseteq R, J(Q) \supseteq J(R), Q_g \supseteq R_g$  and  $Q_g Q_h \supseteq R_{gh}$  for each  $g \in G$ .*

PROOF: Let  $Z$  be the ring of integers,  $R^1$  the ring  $R$  with identity 1 adjoined,  $Z[x, y]$  the ring of polynomials with non-commuting variables  $x, y$ . Denote by  $W$  the free product of  $R$  and  $Z[x, y]$ . For  $w \in W$ , let  $\langle w \rangle$  be the subring generated in  $W$  by  $w$ . Put  $M = R + Ry + xR + xRy, S = M + \langle xy \rangle + \langle xy \rangle x + y \langle xy \rangle + \langle yx \rangle$ . To simplify the notation, we shall denote by the same letters elements and their images in the quotient rings which will be introduced. If we factor out the ideal generated in  $W$  by  $x^2, y^2, yR, Rx$  and all  $r - yxr, r - ryx$ , where  $r$  runs over  $R$ , then the resulting quotient ring  $Q$  is equal to  $Z + \langle x \rangle + \langle y \rangle + S$ . Clearly,  $S$  and  $M$  are ideals of  $Q$ . It is routine to verify that

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} R & Ry \\ xR & xRy \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$S/M = \begin{bmatrix} \langle xy \rangle & \langle xy \rangle x \\ y \langle xy \rangle & \langle yx \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

are Morita contexts (cf. [1]). Further,  $R, xRy \cong R$  and  $Ry, xR \cong R^0$ , where  $R^0$  stands for the ring with zero multiplication defined on the additive group of  $R$ . Since  $\langle xy \rangle$  and  $\langle yx \rangle$  are semiprime rings and  $S/M$  satisfies the left annihilator condition in the sense of [21], then [21], Lemma 2.6, implies that  $S/M$  is semiprime. Therefore  $J(S) = J(M)$ .

Take any  $q \in J(Q)$ , say  $q = a + bx + cy + s$ , where  $a, b, c \in Z, s \in S$ . If  $a \neq 0$ , then  $qxy \notin M$  and so  $0 \neq qxy \in J(S/M)$ , a contradiction. If  $a = 0, b \neq 0$ , then  $0 \neq qy \in J(S/M)$  gives a contradiction. Finally, if  $a = b = 0, c \neq 0$ , then  $0 \neq qx \in J(S/M)$ , a contradiction again. Therefore  $a = b = c = 0$ , that is  $q \in J(M)$ . Thus  $J(Q) = J(M)$ .

Denote by  $I$  the ideal generated in  $Q$  by  $J(R)$ . Then

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} J(R) & J(R)y \\ xJ(R) & xJ(R)y \end{bmatrix}.$$

Clearly,  $I$  is the largest ideal of  $M$  satisfying the property that  $I \cap R \subseteq J(R)$  and  $I \cap xRy \subseteq J(xRy) = xJ(R)y$ . In view of [10], Corollary 1, and [11], Corollary 6, we conclude  $I = J(M)$ . Hence  $I = J(Q)$ . In particular,  $J(Q) \supseteq J(R)$ .

To make  $Q$  a  $G$ -graded ring, we put  $x \in Q_h, y \in Q_{h^{-1}}, Z \subseteq Q_e$ , and then the grading naturally comes from  $R$ . For example,  $xR_g y \subseteq Q_{hgh^{-1}h} \subseteq Q_{hg}$ . Since  $R_{gh}y \subseteq Q_g$  and  $x \in Q_h$ , we get  $Q_g Q_h \supseteq (R_{gh}y)x = R_{gh}$ , as required.  $\square$

**Lemma 2.** *Let  $R = \bigoplus_{g \in G} R_g$  be a  $G$ -graded ring. Then there exists a  $G$ -graded ring  $Q = \bigoplus_{g \in G} Q_g$  such that  $Q \supseteq R$ ,  $J(Q) \supseteq J(R)$ ,  $Q_g \supseteq R_g$  and  $Q_g Q_h \supseteq R_{gh}$  for all  $g, h \in G$ .*

PROOF: Denote by  $R^{(h)}$  the ring constructed by  $R$  and  $h$  in Lemma 1. We may order the set  $G$ , identify the elements of  $G$  with ordinal numbers and define an ascending chain of  $G$ -graded rings  $T_\alpha$  by putting  $T_1 = R^{(1)}$ ,  $T_\alpha = (\bigcup_{\beta < \alpha} T_\beta)^{(\alpha)}$ .

The transfinite induction shows that  $J(T_\alpha) \supseteq J(R)$  in view of Lemma 1. However,  $G = \{\alpha | \alpha \leq \tau\}$  for some  $\tau$ . Hence a straightforward verification shows that  $Q = \bigcup_{\alpha \leq \tau} T_\alpha$  is the desired ring. □

**Lemma 3.** *Let  $R = \bigoplus_{g \in G} R_g$  be a  $G$ -graded ring. Then there exists a strongly  $G$ -graded ring  $Q = \bigoplus_{g \in G} Q_g$  such that  $Q \supseteq R$ ,  $J(Q) \supseteq J(R)$ , and  $Q_g \supseteq R_g$  for all  $g \in G$ .*

PROOF: Denote by  $R'$  the ring constructed in Lemma 2, and put  $R^{[1]} = R'$ ,  $R^{[n+1]} = (R^{[n]})'$ . Then it is routine to verify that  $Q = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} R^{[n]}$  is the required example. □

PROOF OF THEOREM 1 easily follows from Lemma 3 if we take any quasi-regular but not nil ring  $R$  and make it  $G$ -graded with  $R_e = R$ .

Now we shall give a new condition sufficient for the Jacobson radical of a ring strongly graded by a free group to be locally nilpotent. In fact, our condition is applicable not only to free groups, but also to all u.p.-groups. A group  $G$  is called a *unique product (u.p.-)group* if, for any non-empty subsets  $X, Y$  of  $S$ , there exists at least one element uniquely presented in the form  $xy$ , where  $x \in X, y \in Y$  (cf. [16], § 13.1). The radicals of rings graded by u.p.-groups were considered, in particular, in [6] and [7]. A ring  $R$  is said to be *left  $T$ -nilpotent* if, for every sequence  $x_1, x_2, \dots \in R$ , there exists  $n$  such that  $x_1 \dots x_n = 0$ . The class of left  $T$ -nilpotent rings lies strictly between the class of nilpotent rings and the Baer radical class (cf. [5]).

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $G$  be a u.p.-group,  $R = \bigoplus_{g \in G} R_g$  a strongly  $G$ -graded ring. If  $J(R_e)$  is left  $T$ -nilpotent, then  $J(R)$  is locally nilpotent.*

PROOF: Given that  $G$  is a u.p.-group, it follows from [7], Theorem 2.2, that the Levitzky radical  $L(R)$  is homogeneous, i.e.  $L(R) = \bigoplus_{g \in G} L(R) \cap R_g$ . Since  $R/L(R)$

is strongly  $G$ -graded, we may assume that from the very beginning  $L(R) = 0$ .

Suppose to the contrary that  $J(R) \neq 0$ . For  $r \in R, g \in G$ , denote by  $r_g$  the projection of  $r$  on  $R_g$ , and put  $\text{supp}(r) = \{g \in G | r_g \neq 0\}$ . Let  $l(r) = |\text{supp}(r)|$ . Choose a non-zero element  $s$  in  $J(R)$  with minimal length  $l(s)$ , and take any  $h \in \text{supp}(s)$ . If  $s_h R_{h^{-1}} = 0$ , then  $s_h R_{h^{-1}} R = 0$ , and so  $s_h \in A = \{r \in R | rR = 0\}$ . However,  $A \subseteq L(R) = 0$ , because  $A^2 = 0$ . Thus  $s_h R_{h^{-1}} \neq 0$ . Therefore the set  $P = \{r_e | r \in J(R), l(r) = l(s)\}$  is non-zero. Given that  $G$  is a u.p.-group, Theorem 3.2 of [7] tells us that  $P \subseteq J(R_e)$ . Denote by  $I$  the ideal generated in  $R$  by  $P$ . We claim that  $I$  is left  $T$ -nilpotent.

Suppose that there exists a sequence of elements  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  of  $I$  such that  $x_1 \dots x_n \neq 0$  for all  $n$ . Each  $x_i$  is a finite sum of elements of the form  $ar_e b$ , where  $r \in J(R), l(r) = l(s), a$  and  $b$  are homogeneous elements of  $R^1$ . We may assume that all  $b$  belong to  $R$ . (Indeed, if  $b \in Z$ , then we can replace  $x_i$  by  $x_i x_{i+1}$ , and consider the sequence  $x_1, \dots, x_i x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, \dots$ ) Denote by  $S(x_i)$  the set of such summands of  $x_i$ . For arbitrarily large  $n$  we can pick  $y_1 \in S(x_1), \dots, y_n \in S(x_n)$  such that  $y_1 \dots y_n \neq 0$ . Since all the  $S(x_i)$  are finite, a standard argument shows that there exists an infinite sequence  $y_1, y_2, \dots$  where  $y_i \in S(x_i)$  and  $y_1 \dots y_n \neq 0$  for all  $n$ . Then  $y_i = a^{(i)} r_e^{(i)} b^{(i)}$  where  $r^{(i)} \in J(R), l(r^{(i)}) = l(s), a^{(i)}$  and  $b^{(i)}$  are homogeneous elements of  $R^1$ , and  $b^{(i)} \in R$ . Given that  $R$  is strongly graded,  $b^{(2)} \in R$ , and  $G$  is a group, it follows that  $b^{(2)} = c^{(2)} d^{(2)}$  for some homogeneous elements  $c^{(2)}, d^{(2)}$  such that  $b^{(1)} a^{(2)} r_e^{(2)} c^{(2)} \in R_e$ . Similarly, for any  $i \geq 3$ , there exist homogenous elements  $c^{(i)}, d^{(i)}$  such that  $b^{(i)} = c^{(i)} d^{(i)}$  and  $d^{(i-1)} a^{(i)} r_e^{(i)} c^{(i)} \in R_e$ . Let  $z_1 = r_e^{(1)}, z_2 = b^{(1)} a^{(2)} r_e^{(2)} c^{(2)}$ , and  $z_i = d^{(i-1)} a^{(i)} r_e^{(i)} c^{(i)}$  for  $i \geq 3$ . Then,  $z_1, z_2, z_3, \dots \in P$ . Since  $J(R_e)$  is left  $T$ -nilpotent and contains  $P$ , we get  $z_1 \dots z_n = 0$  for some  $n > 1$ . Hence  $y_1 \dots y_n = a^{(1)} z_1 \dots z_n d^{(n)} = 0$ .

This contradiction shows that  $I$  is left  $T$ -nilpotent, and so  $I \subseteq L(R) = 0$ . Therefore  $J(R) = 0$ , which completes the proof. □

Let  $\mathbb{P}$  denote the set of positive integers. The well-known Golod's example of a nil but not locally nilpotent ring  $R$  is  $\mathbb{P}$ -graded (cf. [16]). Therefore one cannot replace strongly graded rings by arbitrary graded rings in Theorem 2. Now we shall show that the left  $T$ -nilpotence cannot be weakened to Baer radicalness, either.

**Theorem 3.** *Let  $G$  be a non-periodic group with identity  $e$ . Then there exists a strongly  $G$ -graded ring  $Q$  such that  $J(Q_e) = B(Q_e)$  but  $J(Q) \neq L(Q)$ .*

PROOF: Let  $R$  be the Golod ring. Since  $R$  is  $\mathbb{P}$ -graded,  $R$  can easily be made  $G$ -graded with  $R_e = 0$ . Take any  $h \in G$  and denote by  $Q, S, M$  the rings constructed by  $R$  as in the proof of Lemma 1. It has been proved that  $J(Q) = J(M)$ . The same reasoning shows that  $B(Q) = B(M)$ . Further,

$$M \cong \begin{bmatrix} R & Ry \\ xR & xRy \end{bmatrix},$$

whence

$$M_e = \begin{bmatrix} R_e & R_h y \\ xR_{h^{-1}} & xR_e y \end{bmatrix}.$$

Evidently  $R_e$  and  $xR_e y$  are isomorphic to  $R_e$  which satisfies  $J(R_e) = B(R_e)$ , because it is zero. It follows from [10], Corollary 1, and [11], Corollary 6, that  $J(M_e)$  is equal to the largest ideal  $I$  of  $M_e$  with the property that  $I \cap R_e \subseteq J(R_e)$  and  $I \cap xR_e y \subseteq J(xR_e y)$ . Besides, [10], Corollary 3, and [11], Corollary 6, imply that  $B(M_e)$  is the largest ideal of  $M_e$  with the property that  $I \cap R_e \subseteq B(R_e)$  and  $I \cap xR_e y \subseteq B(xR_e y)$ . Therefore  $J(M_e) = B(M_e)$ . Further,  $Q_e/S_e \cong Z$  and  $S_e/M_e = \langle xy \rangle + \langle yx \rangle$  imply  $J(Q_e) = B(M_e)$ . Thus  $J(Q_e) = B(Q_e)$ . It follows from [21], Lemma 2.3, that  $J(Q_e) \supseteq J(R_e)$ . This and transfinite induction show that all rings  $Q$  obtained from  $R$  in Lemmas 2 and 3 satisfy  $J(Q_e) = B(Q_e)$ . However  $J(Q)$  is not locally nilpotent, because  $J(Q) \supseteq J(R)$ . Thus  $Q$  is the required example.  $\square$

Note that in the opposite case, where  $G$  is locally finite, it follows from the results of [2] and [3] that  $J(R_e) = L(R_e)$  implies  $J(R) = L(R)$  (cf. [13], Lemma 1.1). Analogous results were obtained in [2] for the more general case of rings graded by locally finite semigroups. A sufficient condition for the Jacobson radical of an algebra graded by a finite group to be nilpotent follows from the main theorem of [17].

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DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, UNIVERSITY OF TASMANIA, G.P.O.BOX 252 C, HOBART, TASMANIA 7001, AUSTRALIA

(Received December 10, 1993)