

## On the Amitsur property of radicals

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Communicated by L. Márki

**ABSTRACT.** The Amitsur property of a radical says that the radical of a polynomial ring is again a polynomial ring. A hereditary radical  $\gamma$  has the Amitsur property if and only if its semisimple class is polynomially extensible and satisfies:  $f(x) \in \gamma(A[x])$  implies  $f(0) \in \gamma(A[x])$ . Applying this criterion, it is proved that the generalized nil radical has the Amitsur property. In this way the Amitsur property of a not necessarily hereditary normal radical can be checked.

### 1. Introduction

All rings considered are associative, not necessarily with unity element. Radicals are meant in the sense of Kurosh and Amitsur. A radical  $\gamma$  is *hereditary*, if  $I \triangleleft A \in \gamma$  implies  $I \in \gamma$ . For details of radical theory the readers are referred to [3].

Many classical radicals, for instance, the Baer, Levitzki, Köthe, Jacobson, and Brown–McCoy radicals, enjoy an important property concerning polynomial rings, called the Amitsur property: the radical of a polynomial ring is again a polynomial ring.

In several cases it is not so easy to decide that a given radical has the Amitsur property. So it seems to be desirable to have equivalent conditions (as Krempa’s condition [5]) for testing the Amitsur property of radicals. We are going to prove such a criterion for hereditary radicals in Theorem 2.4.

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*Research supported by the Hungarian OTKA Grant # T043034*

**2000 Mathematics Subject Classification:** 16N60.

**Key words and phrases:** *Amitsur property, hereditary, normal and generalized nil radical.*

A radical  $\gamma$  has the *Amitsur property*, if for every polynomial ring  $A[x]$  it holds

$$\gamma(A[x]) = (\gamma(A[x]) \cap A)[x]. \tag{A}$$

The Amitsur property of a radical states that the radical of a polynomial ring is again a polynomial ring. It seems to be folklore that also the converse is true.

**Proposition 1.1.** *A radical  $\gamma$  has the Amitsur property if and only if  $\gamma(A[x])$  is a polynomial ring in  $x$ .*

*Proof.* If  $\gamma(A[x])$  is a polynomial ring  $B[x]$ , then the constant polynomials on both sides are equal. Hence  $\gamma(A[x]) \cap A = B$ , and so  $\gamma$  has the Amitsur property.  $\square$

A useful criterion for the Amitsur property of a radical was given by Krempa [5].

**Proposition 1.2.** *For a radical  $\gamma$  to have the Amitsur property a necessary and sufficient condition is*

$$\gamma(A[x]) \cap A = 0 \text{ implies } \gamma(A[x]) = 0 \tag{K}$$

for all rings  $A$ .

Let  $Z(A^1)$  denote the center of the Dorroh extension  $A^1$  of a ring  $A$ . We say that a radical  $\gamma$  is closed under *linear substitutions*, if  $f(x) \in \gamma(A[x])$  implies  $f(ax + b) \in \gamma(A[x])$  for all rings  $A$  and all  $a, b \in Z(A^1)$ .

**Proposition 1.3.** *If a radical  $\gamma$  has the Amitsur property, then  $\gamma$  is closed under linear substitutions. If a radical  $\gamma$  is closed under linear substitutions, then  $\gamma$  satisfies condition*

$$f(x) \in \gamma(A[x]) \text{ implies } f(0) \in \gamma(A[x]) \tag{T}$$

for all rings  $A$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that  $\gamma$  has the Amitsur property and let

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n c_i x^i \in \gamma(A[x]) = (\gamma(A[x]) \cap A)[x].$$

Then for any  $a, b \in Z(A^1)$  we have

$$f(ax + b) = \sum_{i=0}^n c_i (ax + b)^i = g(x).$$

Since each  $c_i \in \gamma(A[x]) \cap A$  and  $a, b \in Z(A^1)$ , all the coefficients of  $g(x)$  are in  $\gamma(A[x]) \cap A$ . Hence

$$f(ax + b) = g(x) \in (\gamma(A[x]) \cap A)[x] = \gamma(A[x]).$$

If a radical  $\gamma$  is closed under linear substitutions then  $\gamma$  satisfies trivially condition (T).  $\square$

We say that the *semisimple class*  $\mathcal{S}\gamma$  of a radical  $\gamma$  is *polynomially extensible* if  $A \in \mathcal{S}\gamma$  implies  $A[x] \in \mathcal{S}\gamma$ . This notion was introduced and studied in connection with the Amitsur property in [9].

**Proposition 1.4.** *If a radical  $\gamma$  has the Amitsur property, then its semisimple class*

*$\mathcal{S}\gamma$  is polynomially extensible.*

*Proof.* The statement is a special case of [9, Proposition 3.4].  $\square$

Let us observe that *the Amitsur property of a radical  $\gamma$  is independent from the polynomial extensibility of  $\gamma$*  (that is  $A \in \gamma$  implies  $A[x] \in \gamma$ ), as proved in [9, Corollary 3.8 (iii)].

## 2. Hereditary radicals and the Amitsur property

We shall denote by  $(f(x))_{A[x]}$  the principal ideal of the polynomial ring  $A[x]$  generated by the polynomial  $f(x) \in A[x]$ .

**Proposition 2.1.** *For a hereditary radical  $\gamma$  condition (T) is equivalent to*

$$(f(x))_{A[x]} \in \gamma \text{ implies } (f(0))_{A[x]} \in \gamma. \quad (\text{S})$$

*Proof.* Straightforward.  $\square$

The following Lemma may be useful also in other contexts.

**Lemma 2.2.** *Let  $\gamma$  be a hereditary radical. If  $A \in \gamma$  and  $\gamma(A[x]) \subseteq xA[x]$ , then  $\gamma(A[x]) = 0$ .*

*Proof.* Let us consider the set

$$K = \{f \in xA[x] \mid xf \in \gamma(A[x])\}.$$

Clearly  $\gamma(A[x]) \subseteq K \triangleleft A[x]$ .

For arbitrary polynomials  $f, g \in K$  we have  $xfg \in \gamma(A[x])$  and  $g = xh$  with a suitable polynomial  $h \in A[x]$ . Hence  $fh \in K$ , so  $fg = xfh \in \gamma(A[x])$ . Thus  $K^2 \subseteq \gamma(A[x])$ , that is,  $(K/\gamma(A[x]))^2 = 0$ .

We define a mapping  $\varphi : K \rightarrow \gamma(A[x])/x\gamma(A[x])$  by the rule

$$\varphi(f) = xf + x\gamma(A[x]) \quad \forall f \in K.$$

Obviously this mapping preserves addition. Further,

$$\ker \varphi = \{f \in K \mid xf \in x\gamma(A[x])\},$$

so to each  $f \in \ker \varphi$  there exists a  $g \in \gamma(A[x])$  such that  $xf = xg$ , that is,  $x(f - g) = 0$ . Since  $x$  is an indeterminate,  $f = g$  follows. Hence  $\ker \varphi \subseteq \gamma(A[x])$ . The inclusion  $\gamma(A[x]) \subseteq \ker \varphi$  is obvious, therefore  $\ker \varphi = \gamma(A[x])$ . Taking into account that

$$\text{im } \varphi \cong K/\ker \varphi = K/\gamma(A[x]),$$

by  $(K/\gamma(A[x]))^2 = 0$  we conclude that  $\varphi$  is a ring homomorphism. Since  $\gamma$  is hereditary, from

$$K/\gamma(A[x]) \cong \text{im } \varphi \triangleleft \gamma(A[x])/x\gamma(A[x]) \in \gamma$$

it follows that  $K/\gamma(A[x]) \in \gamma$ . We have also

$$K/\gamma(A[x]) \triangleleft A[x]/\gamma(A[x]) \in \mathcal{S}\gamma,$$

and therefore  $K/\gamma(A[x]) \in \gamma \cap \mathcal{S}\gamma = 0$ . Thus  $K = \gamma(A[x])$ .

Let us define the ideal

$$M = \{f \in A[x] \mid xf \in \gamma(A[x])\}$$

of  $A[x]$ . Obviously  $M \cap xA[x] = K = \gamma(A[x])$ . Then  $M/\gamma(A[x]) \triangleleft A[x]/\gamma(A[x]) \in \mathcal{S}\gamma$  implies  $M/\gamma(A[x]) \in \mathcal{S}\gamma$ . Further,

$$M/\gamma(A[x]) = M/(M \cap xA[x]) \cong (M + xA[x])/xA[x] \triangleleft A[x]/xA[x] \cong A.$$

Since  $A \in \gamma$ , by the hereditariness of  $\gamma$  we have

$$(M + xA[x])/xA[x] \in \gamma \cap \mathcal{S}\gamma = 0,$$

and so  $M \subseteq xA[x]$ . This implies

$$\gamma(A[x]) = M \cap xA[x] = M.$$

Suppose that  $\gamma(A[x]) \neq 0$  and  $p = \sum_{i=1}^t a_i x^i \in \gamma(A[x])$  is a polynomial of minimal degree. Taking into consideration that  $\gamma(A[x]) \subseteq xA[x]$ , we have  $a_0 = 0$  and  $p = xq$  with an appropriate polynomial  $q \in A[x]$ . By the definition of  $M$  we have that  $q \in M = \gamma(A[x])$ . But the degree of  $q$  is  $t - 1 < t$ , a contradiction. This proves  $\gamma(A[x]) = 0$ .  $\square$

The next statement is crucial in proving Theorem 2.4.

**Lemma 2.3.** *Let  $\gamma$  be a hereditary radical. If  $\gamma$  satisfies condition (T) and the semisimple class  $\mathcal{S}\gamma$  is polynomially extensible, then  $\gamma$  satisfies Krempa's condition (K).*

*Proof.* For proving the validity of Krempa's condition (K), we suppose that  $\gamma(A[x]) \cap A = 0$ , and have to show that  $\gamma(A[x]) = 0$ .

Let us consider an arbitrary polynomial  $f(x) \in \gamma(A[x])$ . By the assumption *condition (T) implies that  $f(0) \in \gamma(A[x]) \cap A = 0$* . Hence we have got that  $\gamma(A[x]) \subseteq xA[x]$ .

If  $A \in \gamma$  then an application of Lemma 2.2 yields that  $\gamma(A[x]) = 0$ .

If  $\gamma(A) = 0$ , then *by the polynomial extensibility of  $\mathcal{S}\gamma$*  it follows that  $\gamma(A[x]) = 0$ , and Krempa's condition is trivially fulfilled.

Hence we may confine ourselves to the case  $0 \neq \gamma(A) \neq A$ . We have to prove that  $\gamma(A[x]) = 0$ . Since *the semisimple class  $\mathcal{S}\gamma$  is polynomially extensible*,  $A/\gamma(A) \in \mathcal{S}\gamma$  implies that

$$A[x]/\gamma(A)[x] \cong (A/\gamma(A))[x] \in \mathcal{S}\gamma.$$

Hence  $\gamma(A[x]) \subseteq \gamma(A)[x]$ . For the radical  $B = \gamma(A)$  of  $A$ , the hereditari-ness of  $\gamma$  yields

$$\gamma(B[x]) = \gamma(A[x]) \cap B[x] \subseteq \gamma(A[x]),$$

and so

$$\gamma(B[x]) \cap B \subseteq \gamma(A[x]) \cap A = 0$$

follows. Hence applying Lemma 2.2 to  $B = \gamma(A) \in \gamma$ , we get that  $\gamma(B[x]) = 0$ . Thus, we arrive at

$$\gamma(A[x]) = \gamma(\gamma(A[x])) \subseteq \gamma(\gamma(A)[x]) = \gamma(B[x]) = 0.$$

□

From Propositions 1.2, 1.3, 1.4, Lemmas 2.2 and 2.3 we get immedi-ately

**Theorem 2.4.** *A hereditary radical  $\gamma$  has the Amitsur property if and only if  $\gamma$  satisfies condition (T) and its semisimple class  $\mathcal{S}\gamma$  is polynomially extensible.* □

### 3. Strict and special radicals

In this section we shall look at the Amitsur property of strict special radicals.

A radical  $\gamma$  is *strict* if  $S \subseteq A$  and  $S \in \gamma$  imply  $S \subseteq \gamma(A)$  for every subring  $S$  of every ring  $A$ .

**Proposition 3.1.** *If  $\gamma$  is a strict radical, then  $\gamma$  satisfies condition (T).*

*Proof.* The mapping  $\varphi : A[x] \rightarrow A$  defined by  $\varphi(f(x)) = f(0)$  for all  $f(x) \in A[x]$ , is obviously a homomorphism onto  $A$ . Since  $\gamma$  is strict, we have

$$\varphi(\gamma(A[x])) \subseteq \gamma(A) \subseteq \gamma(A[x]).$$

Hence  $f(x) \in \gamma(A[x])$  implies that  $f(0) \in \gamma(A[x])$ . □

An ideal  $I$  of  $A$  is said to be *essential* in  $A$  if  $I \cap K \neq 0$  for every nonzero ideal  $K$  of  $A$ , and we denote this fact by  $I \triangleleft \cdot A$ . A hereditary class  $\varrho$  of prime rings is called a *special class* if  $I \triangleleft \cdot A$  and  $I \in \varrho$  imply  $A \in \varrho$ . The upper radical

$$\gamma = \mathcal{U}\varrho = \{A \mid A \longrightarrow f(A) \in \varrho \Rightarrow f(A) = 0\}$$

is called a special radical. As is well known, every special radical is hereditary and every  $\gamma$ -semisimple ring  $A \in \mathcal{S}\gamma$  is a subdirect sum of rings in  $\varrho$ , that is,  $\mathcal{S}\gamma$  is the subdirect closure  $\bar{\varrho}$  of the class  $\varrho$  (see, for instance [3, Theorem 3.7.12 and Corollary 3.8.5]).

**Proposition 3.2.** *For a special class  $\varrho$  and special radical  $\gamma = \mathcal{U}\varrho$  the following conditions are equivalent.*

- (i)  $A \in \varrho$  implies  $A[x] \in \bar{\varrho}$ ,
- (ii) the semisimple class  $\bar{\varrho} = \mathcal{S}\gamma$  is polynomially extensible.

*Proof.* The implication (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) is trivial.

Assume the validity of (i), and let  $A \in \bar{\varrho}$ . Then  $A$  is a subdirect sum of rings  $A/I_\lambda \in \varrho$ ,  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  and  $\cap I_\lambda = 0$ . By condition (i) we have  $(A/I_\lambda)[x] \in \bar{\varrho}$  for every  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ . Since

$$A[x]/I_\lambda[x] \cong (A/I_\lambda)[x]$$

and  $\cap I_\lambda[x] = 0$ , the ring  $A[x]$  is a subdirect sum of  $(A/I_\lambda)[x] \in \bar{\varrho}$ . Hence  $A[x] \in \bar{\varrho}$  holds. □

**Example 3.3.** The *generalized nil radical*  $\mathcal{N}_g$  is the upper radical of all domains, that is, of all rings without zero-divisors. It is well known that  $\mathcal{N}_g$  is a strict special radical and the semisimple class  $\mathcal{S}\mathcal{N}_g$  is the

class of all reduced rings, that is, of all rings which do not possess nonzero nilpotent elements (see, for instance, [3, Theorem 4.11.11 and Proposition 4.11.12]). Hence by Proposition 3.1 the radical  $\mathcal{N}_g$  satisfies condition (T) and a moment's reflection shows – without making use of Proposition 3.2 – that the semisimple class  $\mathcal{SN}_g$  is polynomially extensible. Thus by Theorem 2.4 *the generalized nil radical  $\mathcal{N}_g$  has the Amitsur property.*

Let us mention that by Puczyłowski [6] the generalized nil radical  $\mathcal{N}_g$  is the smallest strict special radical.

#### 4. Subidempotent, normal and $A$ -radicals

A hereditary radical  $\gamma$  is called *subidempotent*, if the radical class  $\gamma$  consists of idempotent rings, or equivalently, the semisimple class  $\mathcal{S}\gamma$  contains all nilpotent rings.

**Proposition 4.1.**  *$\gamma(A[x]) = 0$  for every subidempotent radical  $\gamma$  and every ring  $A$ , and every subidempotent radical  $\gamma$  has the Amitsur property.*

*Proof.* If  $\gamma(A[x]) \neq 0$  for a ring  $A$ , then by the hereditariness of  $\gamma$  we have that  $x\gamma(A[x]) \in \gamma$ . Hence

$$0 \neq x\gamma(A[x]) / (x\gamma(A[x]))^2 \in \gamma,$$

and so the subidempotent radical  $\gamma$  contains a non-zero ring with zero multiplication, a contradiction. Thus  $\gamma(A[x]) = 0$  follows. This means that Krempa's condition (K) in Proposition 1.2 is trivially fulfilled, and therefore  $\gamma$  has the Amitsur property.  $\square$

A radical  $\gamma$  is said to be an  *$A$ -radical*, if the radicality depends only on the additive group of the ring; this may be defined as follows:  $A \in \gamma$  if and only if the zero-ring  $A^0 \in \gamma$ .

**Proposition 4.2.** *Every  $A$ -radical  $\gamma$  has the Amitsur property.*

*Proof.* Gardner's [2, Proposition 1.5 (ii)] states that  $\gamma(A[x]) = \gamma(A)[x]$ . Hence by Proposition 1.1 the assertion follows.  $\square$

Next, we shall focus our attention to *normal radicals* which are defined via Morita contexts and characterized as left strong and principally left hereditary radicals. A radical  $\gamma$  is said to be *left strong*, if  $L \triangleleft_\ell A$  and  $L \in \gamma$  imply  $L \subseteq \gamma(A)$ , and *principally left hereditary* if  $A \in \gamma$  implies  $Aa \in \gamma$  for every  $a \in A$ . Jaegermann and Sands [4] proved the following result. Let

$$\gamma^0 = \{A \mid A^0 \in \gamma\}$$

be the  $A$ -radical determined by a radical  $\gamma$ ,  $\beta$  the Baer (prime) radical and  $\mathcal{L}(\gamma \cup \beta)$  the lower radical generated by  $\gamma$  and  $\beta$ , that is,  $\mathcal{L}(\gamma \cup \beta)$  is the union  $\gamma \vee \beta$  in the lattice of all radicals.

**Proposition 4.3.** *Every normal radical  $\gamma$  is the intersection  $\gamma = \gamma^0 \cap \mathcal{L}(\gamma \cup \beta)$ .*  $\square$

Notice that the normal radical  $\gamma$  as well as the  $A$ -radical  $\gamma^0$  need not be hereditary, but  $\mathcal{L}(\gamma \cup \beta)$ , as a supernilpotent normal radical is hereditary (cf. [3, Theorem 3.18.12]).

Puczyłowski [7] and Tumurbat [8] kindly informed us about

**Proposition 4.4.** *The radicals with Amitsur property form a sublattice in the lattice of all radicals.*

*Proof.* Let  $\gamma, \delta$  be radicals with Amitsur property. The union  $\gamma \vee \delta$  in the lattice of all radicals is the lower radical  $\vartheta = \mathcal{L}(\gamma \cup \delta)$  generated by  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$ . By Krempa's criterion (K) it suffices to show that  $\vartheta(A[x]) \neq 0$  implies  $\vartheta(A[x]) \cap A \neq 0$ . If  $\vartheta(A[x]) \neq 0$ , then either  $\gamma(A[x]) \neq 0$  or  $\delta(A[x]) \neq 0$ . Thus by (K) one of them has nonzero intersection with  $A$ . Since both of them are contained in  $\vartheta(A[x])$ , necessarily also  $\vartheta(A[x]) \neq 0$ .

The meet  $\tau = \gamma \wedge \delta$  is just the intersection  $\tau = \gamma \cap \delta$  of the radical classes. For a given ring  $A$ , let  $I$  be the smallest ideal of  $A$  such that  $\tau(A[x]) \subseteq I[x]$ . Such an ideal  $I$  exists, it is the intersection of all ideals containing  $\tau(A[x])$ . We have

$$\tau(A[x]) = \tau(I[x]) \subseteq \gamma(A[x]),$$

and by the Amitsur property of  $\gamma$  it holds  $\gamma(A[x]) = J[x]$  with some ideal  $J$  of  $I$ . Moreover,  $J[x] = \gamma(I[x]) \triangleleft A[x]$ , therefore  $J \triangleleft A$ . Hence by the minimality of  $I$  we conclude that  $I = J$ . Thus  $I[x] \in \gamma$ . By the same token also  $I[x] \in \delta$ . Consequently,  $\tau(A[x]) = I[x]$  which means by Proposition 1.1 that  $\tau$  has the Amitsur property.  $\square$

The next result shows that for the Amitsur property of a normal radical  $\gamma$  it is enough to check the hereditary radical  $\mathcal{L}(\gamma \cup \beta)$ .

**Proposition 4.5.** *A normal radical  $\gamma$  has the Amitsur property if and only if the hereditary normal radical  $\mathcal{L}(\gamma \cup \beta)$  has the Amitsur property.*

*Proof.* Suppose that  $\gamma$  has the Amitsur property. Since  $\beta$  has the Amitsur property, by Proposition 4.4 also  $\mathcal{L}(\gamma \cup \beta)$  has it.

Assume that  $\mathcal{L}(\gamma \cup \beta)$  has the Amitsur property. Then by Propositions 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4 also  $\gamma = \gamma^0 \cap \mathcal{L}(\gamma \cup \beta)$  has the Amitsur property.  $\square$

**Corollary 4.6.** *A normal radical  $\gamma$  has the Amitsur property if and only if the hereditary radical  $\mathcal{L}(\gamma \cup \beta)$  satisfies condition (T) and its semisimple class is polynomially extensible.*

*Proof.* Apply Theorem 2.4 and Proposition 4.5.  $\square$

The authors are indebted to the referee for many improvements in the manuscript.

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Received by the editors: 04.04.2005  
and in final form 28.09.2005.