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Research Article

Kurosh-Amitsur Right Jacobson Radical of Type 0 for Right Near-Rings

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By a near-ring we mean a right near-ring. J_0^r , the right Jacobson radical of type 0, was introduced for near-rings by the first and second authors. In this paper properties of the radical J_0^r are studied. It is shown that J_0^r is a Kurosh-Amitsur radical (KA-radical) in the variety of all near-rings R, in which the constant part R_c of R is an ideal of R. So unlike the left Jacobson radicals of types 0 and 1 of near-rings, J_0^r is a KA-radical in the class of all zero-symmetric near-rings. J_0^r is not s-hereditary and hence not an ideal-hereditary radical in the class of all zero-symmetric near-rings.

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1. Introduction

R denotes a right near-ring and all near-rings considered are right near-rings and not necessarily zero-symmetric.

In [1, 2], the first author studied the structure of near-rings in terms of right ideals, and showed that as in rings, matrix units determined by right ideals identify matrix near-rings. To show the importance of the right Jacobson radicals of near-rings in the extension of a form of the Wedderburn-Artin theorem of rings involving the matrix rings to near-rings, the right Jacobson radicals of type ν were introduced and studied by the first and second authors in [3–6], $\nu \in \{0,1,2,s\}$. In [6], Wedderburn-Artin theorem was extended to near-rings, and some generalizations of it were presented.

In this paper, properties of the right Jacobson radical of type 0 are studied. It is known that the left Jacobson radicals of types 0 and 1 are not KA-radicals in the class of all

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zero-symmetric near-rings, and only the left Jacobson radicals of types 2 and 3 are KA-radicals in the class of all zero-symmetric near-rings. Surprisingly, J_0^r , the right Jacobson radical of type 0, is a KA-radical in the class of all zero-symmetric near-rings. It is also shown that J_0^r is a KA-radical even in a bigger class of near-rings, namely, in the variety of all near-rings R, in which the constant part of R is an ideal of R. Moreover, J_0^r is not s-hereditary, and hence not an ideal-hereditary radical in the class of all zero-symmetric near-rings.

2. Preliminaries

Near-rings considered are right near-rings and not necessarily zero-symmetric. Unless otherwise specified, *R* stands for a right near-ring. Near-ring notions not defined here can be found in [7].

 R_0 and R_c denote the zero-symmetric part and the constant part of R, respectively.

 \mathcal{F} denotes the class of near-rings R, in which the constant part R_c of R is an ideal of R. In [8], Fuchs has shown that the class of near-rings \mathcal{F} is a variety. Obviously, \mathcal{F} contains all zero-symmetric, constant, and abstract affine near-rings. Now we give here some definitions and results of [3], which will be used later.

An element $a \in R$ is called *right quasiregular* if and only if the right ideal of R generated by the set $\{x - ax \mid x \in R\}$ is R. A right ideal (left ideal, ideal, subset) K of R is called a *right quasiregular right ideal* (left ideal, ideal, subset) of R if each element of K is right quasiregular.

A right ideal K of R is called *right modular* if there is an element $e \in R$ such that $x - ex \in K$ for all $x \in R$. In this case, we say that K is *right modular by e*.

A maximal right modular right ideal of R is called a right 0-modular right ideal of R.

 $J_{1/2}^r(R)$ is the intersection of all right 0-modular right ideals of R, and if R has no right 0-modular right ideals, then $J_{1/2}^r(R) = R$.

The largest ideal of R contained in $J_{1/2}^r(R)$ is denoted by $J_0^r(R)$ and called the *right Jacobson radical of R of type 0*.

The largest ideal contained in a right 0-modular right ideal of R is called a *right 0-primitive* ideal of R. R is called a *right 0-primitive near-ring* if $\{0\}$ is a right 0-primitive ideal of R.

A group (G, +) is called a *right R-group* if there is a mapping $((g, r) \rightarrow gr)$ of $G \times R$ into G such that (i) (g + h)r = gr + hr and (ii) g(rs) = (gr)s for all $g,h \in G$ and $r,s \in R$. A subgroup (normal subgroup) H of a right R-group G is called an R-subgroup (ideal) of G if $hr \in H$ for all $h \in H$ and $r \in R$.

Let *G* be a right *R*-group. An element $g \in G$ is called a *generator* of *G* if gR = G and g(r+s) = gr + gs for all $r,s \in R$. *G* is said to be *monogenic* if *G* has a generator.

G is said to be *simple* if $G \neq \{0\}$, and *G* and $\{0\}$ are the only ideals of *G*.

A monogenic right *R*-group *G* is said to be a *right R*-group of type 0 if *G* is simple.

The *annihilator* of a right *R*-group *G*, denoted by (0:G), is defined as $(0:G) = \{a \in R \mid Ga = \{0\}\}$.

Lemma 2.1. *The constant part of R is right quasiregular.*

Lemma 2.2. A nilpotent element of R is right quasiregular.

Theorem 2.3. $J_{1/2}^r(R)$ is the largest right quasiregular right ideal of R.

Theorem 2.4. $J_0^r(R)$ is the largest right quasiregular ideal of R.

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Theorem 2.5. $J_0^r(R)$ is the intersection of all right 0-primitive ideals of R.

Theorem 2.6. Let P be an ideal of R. P is a right 0-primitive ideal of R if and only if R/P is a right 0-primitive near-ring.

Proposition 2.7. Let G be a right R-group of type 0 and g_0 a generator of G. Then $(0:g_0) := \{r \in R \mid g_0r = 0\}$ is a right 0-modular right ideal of R.

Proposition 2.8. Let G be a right R-group. G is a right R-group of type 0 if and only if there is a maximal right modular right ideal K of R such that G is R-isomorphic to R/K.

Proposition 2.9. Let P be an ideal of a zero-symmetric near-ring R. P is right 0-primitive if and only if P is the largest ideal of R contained in (0:G) for some right R-group G of type 0.

Let Q be a mapping which assigns to each near-ring R an ideal Q(R) of R. Such mappings are called ideal-mappings. We consider the following properties which Q may satisfy:

(H1) $h(Q(R)) \subseteq Q(h(R))$ for all homomorphisms h of R;

(H2) $Q(R/Q(R)) = \{0\}$ for all R;

Q is *r*-hereditary if $I \cap Q(R) \subseteq Q(I)$ for all ideals *I* of *R*;

Q is *s*-hereditary if $Q(I) \subseteq I \cap Q(R)$ for all ideals *I* of *R*;

Q is *ideal-hereditary* if it is both *r*-hereditary and *s*-hereditary, that is, if $Q(I) = I \cap Q(R)$ for all ideals *I* of *R*;

Q is *idempotent* if Q(Q(R)) = Q(R) for all *R*;

Q is *complete* if Q(I) = I and *I* is an ideal of *R* that implies $I \subseteq Q(R)$.

With Q we associate two classes of near-rings \mathbb{R}_Q and \mathbb{S}_Q defined by $\mathbb{R}_Q := \{R \mid Q(R) = R\}$, $\mathbb{S}_Q := \{R \mid Q(R) = \{0\}\}$, and are called a Q-radical class and a Q-semisimple class, respectively.

An ideal-mapping Q is a *Hoehnke* radical (H-radical) if it satisfies conditions (H1) and (H2).

An ideal-mapping Q is a Kurosh-Amitsur radical (KA-radical) if it is a complete idempotent H-radical.

Let \mathbb{M} be a class of near-rings. Classes of near-rings are always assumed to be abstract, that is, they contain the one element near-ring and are closed under isomorphic copies. With every near-ring R, we associate two ideals of R, depending on \mathbb{M} . These ideals are defined by the following:

$$\mathbb{M}(R) := \Sigma\{I \mid I \text{ is an ideal of } R, I \in \mathbb{M}\},$$

$$(R)\mathbb{M} := \cap\{I \mid I \text{ is an ideal of } R, R/I \in \mathbb{M}\}.$$

$$(2.1)$$

The mapping P defined by $P(R) := (R)\mathbb{M}$ is always an H-radical and is called the H-radical corresponding to \mathbb{M} .

From Theorems 2.5 and 2.6, we have the following.

Proposition 2.10. J_0^r is an H-radical corresponding to the class of all right 0-primitive near-rings.

3. Properties of the radical J_0^r

If (A, +) is a group and T is a subset of A, then the subgroup (normal subgroup) of A generated by T is denoted by $\langle T \rangle_s (\langle T \rangle_n)$.

Remark 3.1. Let *G* be a right *R*-group. It is clear that $H = \{g \in G \mid gR = \{0\}\}$ is an ideal of *G*. So if *G* is simple and $gR = \{0\}$, then g = 0 provided $GR \neq \{0\}$.

Theorem 3.2. Let G be a right R-group of type 0. Suppose that S is an invariant subnear-ring and a right ideal of R. If $GS \neq \{0\}$, then G is also a right S-group of type 0.

Proof. Suppose that $GS \neq \{0\}$. Clearly, G is a right S-group. Let $g \in G$ and $gS := \{gs \mid s \in G\}$ $S \subseteq G$. Consider the normal subgroup $\langle gS \rangle_n$ of (G,+). Let $r \in R$, $h \in \langle gS \rangle_n$. Now h = $(x_1 + \delta_1(gs_1) - x_1) + (x_2 + \delta_2(gs_2) - x_2) + \dots + (x_k + \delta_k(gs_k) - x_k), s_i \in S, x_i \in G, \delta_i \in \{1, -1\}.$ Since $SR \subseteq S$, $hr = (x_1r + \delta_1(g(s_1r)) - x_1r) + (x_2r + \delta_2(g(s_2r)) - x_2) + \dots + (x_kr + \delta_k(g(s_kr)) - x_kr) \in \langle gS \rangle_n$. So $\langle gS \rangle_n$ is an ideal of the right R-group G, and hence it is also an ideal of the right S-group G. Let $0 \neq h \in G$. Suppose that $hS = \{0\}$. Since $hR \neq \{0\}$, $\langle hR \rangle_n$ is a nonzero ideal of the right *R*-group *G*. Since *G* is a simple right *R*-group, $\langle hR \rangle_n = G$. So $GS = \langle hR \rangle_n S \subseteq \langle hS \rangle_n = \{0\}$, a contradiction to $GS \neq \{0\}$. Therefore, $hS \neq \{0\}$. Let g_0 be a generator of the right R-group G. So g_0 is a distributive element of the right R-group G and $g_0R = G$. Clearly, g_0 is a distributive element of the right S-group G and hence g_0S is a subgroup of (G,+). We have $(g_0S)R =$ $g_0(SR)g_0S$. So g_0S is an R-subgroup of G. Let $g \in G$ and $s \in S$. Since $g_0R = G$, $g = g_0r$ for some r ∈ R. So $g + g_0 s - g = g_0 r + g_0 s - g_0 r = g_0 (r + s - r) ∈ g_0 S$, as S is a normal subgroup of (R, +). Therefore, g_0S is an ideal of the right R-group G and hence $g_0S = G$. So g_0 is also a generator of the right S-group G. Let K be a nonzero ideal of the right S-group G. Let $0 \neq y \in K$. As seen above, $\langle yS \rangle_n$ is a nonzero ideal of the right R-group G, and hence $\langle yS \rangle_n = G$. Since $G = \langle yS \rangle_n \subseteq K$, G = K. Therefore, $\{0\}$ and G are the only ideals of the right S-group G and hence *G* is a right *S*-group of type 0.

Proposition 3.3. Let G be a right R-group of type 0 and let T be a right quasiregular invariant subnearing of R. If T is a right ideal of R, then $GT = \{0\}$.

Proof. Suppose that *T* is a right ideal of *R* and g_0 is a generator of *G*. So $g_0(r+s)=g_0r+g_0s$ for all $r,s \in R$ and $g_0R=G$. Now $L:=(0:g_0)=\{r\in R\mid g_0r=0\}$ is a right 0-modular right ideal of *R*. Therefore, *L* contains the largest right quasiregular right ideal of *R*. Since *T* is a right quasiregular right ideal of *R*, $T\subseteq L$, that is, $g_0T=\{0\}$. Let $g\in G$ and $t\in T$. Now $g=g_0r$ for some $r\in R$. $gt=g_0(rt)=0$, as $rt\in T$. Therefore, $GT=\{0\}$. □

Since R_c is right quasiregular in R, we have the following.

Corollary 3.4. If R_c is a normal subgroup of (R, +), then $GR_c = \{0\}$ for all right R-groups G of type 0.

Corollary 3.5. Let $R \in \mathcal{F}$. If G is a right R-group of type 0, then $GJ_0^r(R) = \{0\}$.

Proof. Let *G* be a right *R*-group of type 0. We have that $I := J_0^r(R)$ is the largest right quasiregular ideal of *R*. Since R_c is a right quasiregular ideal of *R*, $R_c \subseteq I$. So *I* is an invariant ideal of *R*. Therefore, by Proposition 3.3, $GI = \{0\}$.

Proposition 3.6. Let $R \in \mathcal{F}$. Let I be an ideal of R and $K := I + R_c$. If G is a right K-group of type 0, then G is a right I-group of type 0.

Proof. Suppose that *G* is a right *K*-group of type 0 and g_0 is a generator of *G*. So g_0 is distributive over *K* and $g_0K = G$. Let K_c be the constant part of *K*. Since $K_c = R_c$ is a normal subgroup of *K*, by Corollary 3.4, $GR_c = \{0\}$. Clearly, *G* is a right *I*-group. Now $G = g_0K = g_0(I + R_c) = g_0I$,

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and hence g_0 is a generator of the right *I*-group *G*. Let *H* be a nonzero ideal of the right *I*-group *G*. Let $h \in H$ and $k \in K$. $k = i + r_c$, $i \in I$, $r_c \in R_c$ and $h = g_0t$, $t \in I$. $hk = g_0t(i + r_c) = g_0((t(i + r_c) - ti) + ti) = g_0(t(i + r_c) - ti) + g_0(ti) = 0 + (g_0t)i = hi \in H$. Therefore, *H* is a nonzero ideal of the right *K*-group *G* and hence H = G. So *G* is a right *I*-group of type 0.

We show now that the Hoehnke radical J_0^r is complete in the variety \mathcal{F} .

Theorem 3.7. Let $R \in \mathcal{F}$. If I is an ideal of R and $J_0^r(I) = I$, then $I \subseteq J_0^r(R)$.

Proof. Let I be an ideal of R and $J_0^r(I) = I$. Suppose that $I \not\subseteq J_0^r(R)$. So $K := I + R_c$ is an ideal of R and $K \not\subseteq J_0^r(R)$. We get a right R-group G of type 0 such that $GK \neq \{0\}$. Since K is an invariant ideal of R, by Theorem 3.2, G is a right K-group of type 0. Therefore, by Proposition 3.6, G is a right I-group of type 0. This is a contradiction to the fact that $J_0^r(I) = I$. Therefore, $I \subseteq J_0^r(R)$. \square

Theorem 3.8. J_0^r is a complete Hoehnke radical in the variety \mathcal{F} .

Theorem 3.9. J_0^r is a complete Hoehnke radical in the class of all zero-symmetric near-rings.

Theorem 3.10. Suppose that S is an invariant subnear-ring of R. If G is a right S-group of type 0, then G is also a right R-group of type 0.

Proof. Suppose that *G* is a right *S*-group of type 0 and g_0 is a generator. We have that g_0 is distributive over *S* and $g_0S = G$. For $g \in G$ and $r \in R$, define $gr := g_0(sr)$, if $g = g_0s$, $s \in S$. We show now that this operation is well defined. Suppose that $g = g_0s = g_0t$, $s, t \in S$. Let $r \in R$ and $h := g_0(sr) - g_0(tr)$. Now $hk = (g_0(sr) - g_0(tr))k = g_0((sr)k) - g_0((tr)k) = g_0(s(rk)) - g_0(t(rk)) = g(rk) - g(rk) = 0$ for all $k \in S$. Therefore, $hS = \{0\}$, and hence h = 0, that is, $g_0(sr) = g_0(tr)$. We show that *G* is a right *R*-group of type 0. It is clear that *G* is a right *R*-group. $g_0 = g_0e$ for some $e \in S$. Now $G \supseteq g_0R = g_0(eR) \supseteq g_0(eS) = g_0S = G$. So $g_0R = G$. Let $p, q \in R$ and $x = g_0(p + q) - (g_0p + g_0q)$. $xs = (g_0(p + q) - (g_0p + g_0q))s = (g_0(p + q))s - ((g_0p + g_0q))s = g_0(ps + qs) - (g_0ps + g_0qs) = (g_0(ps) + g_0(qs)) - (g_0(ps) + g_0(qs)) = 0$ for all $s \in S$. Therefore, $s \in S$ 0, and hence $s \in S$ 1 and extension of the right *R*-group *G*2. It can be easily verified that the action of *R*3 on *G*3 is an extension of the action of *S*3 on *G*3. So an ideal of the right *R*-group *G*3 is also an ideal of the right *S*-group *G*3. Since the right *S*-group *G*3 has no nontrivial ideals, the right *R*-group *G*3 also has no nontrivial ideals. Therefore, *G*3 is also a right *R*-group of type 0.

We show now that the Hoehnke radical J_0^r is idempotent in the variety \mathcal{F} .

Theorem 3.11. *Let* $R \in \mathcal{F}$. *Then* $J_0^r(J_0^r(R)) = J_0^r(R)$.

Proof. Let $I := J_0^r(R)$. I is the largest right quasiregular ideal of R. Since R_c is a right quasiregular ideal of R, $R_c \subseteq I$. So I is an invariant ideal of R. Suppose that $J_0^r(I) \neq I$. So there is a right I-group G of type 0. By Theorem 3.10, G is an R-group of type 0. Now, by Corollary 3.5, $GI = GJ_0^r(R) = \{0\}$. This is a contradiction to the fact that G is an I-group of type 0. Therefore, $J_0^r(I) = I$, that is, $J_0^r(J_0^r(R)) = J_0^r(R)$.

From Theorems 3.7 and 3.11, we have the following.

Theorem 3.12. J_0^r is a Kurosh-Amitsur radical in the variety \mathcal{F} .

Theorem 3.13. J_0^r is a Kurosh-Amitsur radical in the class of all zero-symmetric near-rings.

Theorem 3.14. J_0^r is not s-hereditary in the class of all zero-symmetric near-rings.

Proof. Consider $G := Z_8$, the group of integers under addition modulo 8. Now $T: G \to G$, defined by T(g) = 5g, for all $g \in G$, is an automorphism of G. T fixes 0, 2, 4, and 6, and maps 1 to 5 and 3 to 7. $A := \{I, T\}$ is an automorphism group of G. $\{0\}$, $\{2\}$, $\{4\}$, $\{6\}$, $\{1, 5\}$, and $\{3, 7\}$ are the orbits. Let R be the centralizer near-ring $M_A(G)$, the near-ring of all self maps of G which fix 0 and commute with T. An element of R is completely determined by its action on $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 6\}$. An element $f \in R$ maps 2G into 2G and f(1) and f(3) are arbitrary in G. This example was considered in [9] and showed that $P := \{0: 2G\} = \{f \in R \mid f(h) = 0, \text{ for all } h \in 2G\}$ is the only nontrivial ideal of R. Let f_0 be the element of P which fixes all the elements in G - 2G. Clearly $f - f_0 f \in (2G: G) = \{t \in R \mid t(G) \subseteq 2G\}$ for all $f \in R$. Since $\{G\} = G\}$ is a proper right ideal of $\{G\} = G\}$ is not right quasiregular in $\{G\} = G\}$. Since $\{G\} = G\}$ is the largest right quasiregular ideal of $\{G\} = G\}$ is a nonzero ideal of $\{G\} = G\}$. Since a nil ideal is right quasiregular, $\{G\} = G\}$ is a right quasiregular ideal of $\{G\} = G\}$. Therefore, $\{G\} = G\}$. Since a nil ideal is right quasiregular, $\{G\} = G\}$ is not $\{G\} = G\}$ is not $\{G\} = G\}$. Since a right quasiregular ideal of $\{G\} = G\}$. Since a nil ideal is right quasiregular, $\{G\} = G\}$ is not $\{G\} = G\}$. Since a nil ideal is right quasiregular, $\{G\} = G\}$ is not $\{G\} = G\}$. Since a nil ideal is right quasiregular, $\{G\} = G\}$ is not $\{G\} = G\}$. Since a nil ideal is right quasiregular, $\{G\} = G\}$ is not $\{G\} = G\}$. Since a nil ideal is right quasiregular, $\{G\} = G\}$ is not $\{G\} = G\}$. Since a nil ideal is right quasiregular, $\{G\} = G\}$ is not $\{G\} = G\}$. Since a nil ideal is right quasiregular, $\{G\} = G\}$ is not $\{G\} = G\}$. Since a nil ideal is right quasiregular, $\{G\} = G\}$. Since a nil ideal is right quasiregular. Therefore, $\{G\} = G\}$ is not $\{G\} = G\}$. Since a nil ideal is right quasiregular. Therefore, $\{$

Corollary 3.15. J_0^r is not s-hereditary in the class of all near-rings.

Theorem 3.16. J_0^r is not an ideal-hereditary radical in the class of all zero-symmetric near-rings.

It is not known to the authors whether J_0^r is a KA-radical in the class of all near-rings. J_0^r may fail to be idempotent and thus Kurosh-Amitsur in the class of all near-rings.

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