DIFFERENTIAL RINGS AND ORE EXTENSIONS: BROWN-McCOY RINGS

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Abstract. We consider here a ring K, a derivation D of K and the differential polynomial ring R = K[X;D]. The ring K is said to be a Brown-McCoy ring if the prime radical coincides with the Brown-McCoy radical in every homomorphic image of K. A D-Brown-McCoy ring is defined in a similar way. We prove the following conditions are equivalent: (i) K is a D-Brown-McCoy ring; (ii) K is a Brown-McCoy ring and for every maximal ideal K of K, K/(K) is a K-simple ring with K. In addition, we give some applications and examples on the study of the transfer of the property of being a Brown-McCoy ring between K and K.

Further, we study the relation between the prime and the $\mathcal{D}\text{-prime}$ ideals of a differential intermediate extension of a liberal extension.

Introduction. A ring K is a Brown-McCoy ring (abbr. BMCR) if the prime radical coincides with the Brown-McCoy radical in every homomorphic image of K. It is known that the polynomial ring K[X] is a BMCR if and only if K is a BMCR [10]. In the case of $S = K[X;\alpha]$, a skew polynomial ring of automorphism type, the question of whether S is a BMCR whenever K is a BMCR was considered in [5]. On the other hand, in [2], we studied the conditions under which a differential polynomial ring K[X;D]

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(called also a skew polynomial ring of derivation type in some papers) is a Jacobson ring whenever K is a Jacobson ring.

The central purpose of this paper is to study the transfer of the property of being a Brown-McCoy ring between K and R = K[X;D], where D is a derivation of K. A differential polynomial ring R over a BMCR K need not be a BMCR, even if K is a right Noetherian ring (Example 5.1). Stronger finiteness conditions than being right Noetherian are needed. We shall obtain here sufficient conditions for R to be a BMCR when K is a BMCR. Further, we shall give some classes of differential rings which satisfy these conditions.

In \S 1, we consider *D*-radicals and we define *D*-Brown-McCov rings. In $\S 2$, we shall prove that K is a D-BMCR if and only if R = K[X;D] is a BMCR and for every maximal ideal M of R, $K/M \cap K$ is a D-simple ring with 1.

A natural question to arise is whether K is a D-BMCR if and only if K is a BMCR, under some finiteness conditions. This question is studied in §3.

In $\S4$ we consider a differential ring (S,D) when S is a liberal extension of K and D is a K-derivation of S, and an intermediate extension $K \subseteq T \subseteq S$ with $D(T) \subseteq T$. For the differential ring (T,D) we shall prove that there is a one-toone correspondence between the set of all the prime ideals of $\it T$ and the set of all the D-prime ideals. Namely, if P is a prime ideal M(P), the maximum D-subideal of P, is D-prime and every D-prime is of this form. In this case we can apply the former results and T[X;D] is a BMCR if K is a BMCR.

Some remarks and examples are given in section 5,

Throughout this paper we shall use the same notation and terminology used in [2]. In particular, L(K) denotes the prime radical of K and $\mathcal{D}(K)$ denotes the D-prime radical of the differential ring (K,D) ([2], Theorem 1.1).

Let (K,D) be a differential ring. Following ([1], p. 116), for every $a \in K$ we denote by G(a) the ideal $\{ar + r + ar\}$ $\Sigma_i(x_i a y_i + x_i y_i) : r, x_i, y_i \in K$ of K and we put $G_D(\alpha) = \Sigma_{i>0} D^2(G(\alpha))$, the smallest D-ideal of K containing $G(\alpha)$. We say that α is a $\mathcal{D}G$ -regular element of K if $G_{\mathcal{D}}(\alpha) = K$. A \mathcal{D} -ideal I of K is a ${\it DG}$ -regular ideal if every element in ${\it I}$ is ${\it DG}$ -regular. The union $G_{\mathcal{D}}(K)$ of all the DG-regular ideals of K is called the D-Brown-McCoy radical of K. In a similar way to [1] it can easily be verified that $G_D(K)$ is a DG-regular ideal and contains every DG-regular ideal of K. Further, $K/G_D(K)$ is DG-semi-simple $(G_D(K/G_D(K)) = 0)$. Then a standard argument proves that $G_D(K)$ is equal to the intersection of all the D-ideals I of K such that K/I is D-simple and DG-semi-simple ([1], Lemma 66). Also, it is not hard to verify that a D-simple differential ring (K,D)is DG-semi-simple if and only if K has an identity element ([1], Lemma 67). Then we have the following (see [1], Theorem 43).

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Theorem 1.1. The *D*-Brown-McCoy radical $G_D(K)$ is equal to the intersection of all the D-ideals I of K such that K/I is a D-simple ring with an identity element.

We denote by G(K) the Brown-McCoy radical of K and by M(G(K)) the maximum D-subideal of G(K) ([3], p. 11).

Lemma 1.2. $M(G(K)) \subseteq G_D(K)$.

Proof. If $x \in M(G(K))$ and I is a D-ideal of K such that K/I is a D-simple ring with 1, consider an ideal A of K such that A/I is a maximal ideal of K/I. Then $D^{i}(x) \in A$ for i > 0. Hence $x \in M(A) = I$.

In general, $M(G(K)) \neq G_D(K)$. In fact, if (K,D) is the differential ring given in ([2], Example 5.1), we have G(K) = 100M(G(K)) = L(B)[Y] and $G_D(K) = G(B)[Y]$.

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We know that $\mathcal{D}(K) \subseteq M(L(K)) \subseteq M(J(K)) \subseteq M(G(K)) \subseteq G_D(K)$. A differential ring (K,D) is said to be a D-Brown-McCoy ring if $G_D(K/Q) = 0$ for every D-prime ideal Q of K. Hereafter, Brown-McCoy ring (resp. D-Brown-McCoy ring) is often abbreviated BMCR (resp. D-BMCR). If is clear that K is a D-BMCR if and only if $G_D(K/I) = \mathcal{D}(K/I)$ for every D-ideal I of K.

In [2], we said that a differential ring (K,D) is a quasifinite differential ring (QFDR for short) if M(L(K/Q)) = 0 for every D-prime ideal Q of K, and is said to be a D-Jacobson ring if M(J(K/Q)) = 0 for every D-prime ideal Q of K. If K is a D-BMCR, then it is a D-Jacobson ring. Then a D-BMCR is also a QFDR.

The following is easy to prove (see [2], Proposition 1.2).

Proposition 1.3. (K,D) is a D-BMCR if and only if (K^*,D^*) is a D-BMCR, where (K^*,D^*) is the usual extension by the ring of integers.

2. The Main Theorem

If $S = K[X;\alpha]$ is a skew polynomial ring, where α is an automorphism of K, the question of whether S is a BMCR was considered in ([5], section 3). The purpose of this section is to prove the following corresponding result.

Theorem 2.1. Let (K,D) be a differential ring and put R = [X;D]. Then K is a D-BMCR if and only if the following conditions hold.

- (I) R is a BMCR.
- (II) For every maximal ideal M of R, K/(M \cap K) is a D-simple ring with an identity element.

To prove the theorem we need some lemmas. We begin with the following

Lemma 2.2. If (K,D) is a D-simple differential ring with an identity 1, then G(R) = 0.

Proof. This can be proved in a similar way to ([10], Lemma 1).

If I is an ideal of K, I[X] denotes the left ideal of R of all polynomials Σ_i $\chi^i b_i$, b_i \in I. On the other hand, if L is an ideal of R, $\tau(L)$ denotes the D-ideal of K consisting of 0 and the leading coefficients of non-zero elements of L of least degree.

Lemma 2.3. Let L be a non-zero ideal of R with $L \cap K = 0$. If I is a proper ideal of K such that K/I is a ring with an identity 1 and $I + \tau(L) = K$, then $I[X] + L \neq R$.

Proof. Let $e \in K$ be an element such that e + I is the identity of K/I and let $0 \neq c \in \tau(L)$ with $e-c \in I$. Suppose that $g = x^n c + \ldots + c_0 \in L$, is a polynomial of minimal degree in L $(n \geq 1)$. If R = I[X] + L, then e = f+h with $f \in I[X]$ and $h \in L$. Moreover $c^v h = gq$ for some $q \in R$ and $v \leq \deg(h)-n+1$ by ([2], Lemma 3.2, (ii)). Hence $c^v e = c^v f + c^v h = c^v f + gq$ and so $e - c^v e = (e-gq)-c^v f$. Since $e - c^v e \equiv 0 \pmod{I}$ we have $e-gq \in I[X]$. From among all the polynomials $q \in R$ with $e-gq \in I[X]$, choose one of minimal degree, k say, and let d be the leading coefficient of q. Put $s = cq-x^k cd$. The polynomial s has degree less than k and $e-gs \in I[X]$, a contradiction.

Lemma 2.4. Let K be a D-prime ring with $G_D(K) = 0$. Suppose that $P \neq 0$ is an ideal of R such that $P \cap K = 0$ and $I \supseteq P$ is the ideal of R such that I/P = G(R/P). Then $I \cap K = 0$.

Proof. Let M be a D-ideal of K such that K/M is a D-simple ring with 1. If $\tau(P) \not \subseteq M$, then $M \ [X;D] + P \neq R$ by Lemma 2,3. Hence $0 = G_D(K) = (I \cap K)\tau(P)$, by the same way as in ([9], Lemma 4). Thus, $I \cap K = 0$.

Lemma 2.5. Let K be a D-prime ring with $G_D(K)=0$ and let M be a maximal ideal of R with $M\cap K=0$. Then K is a D-simple ring with 1.

Proof. Since $G_D(K) = 0$ there exists a D-ideal I of K such that K/I is a D-simple ring with 1. If $M \neq 0$, choose I such that $\tau(M) \not = I$. Hence $\tau(M) + I = K$ and so $I[X;D] \subseteq M$, by Lemma 2.3. Then I = 0, as required. The same result is clear if M = 0.

Now we are ready to prove the theorem.

Proof of Theorem 2.1. Suppose that K is a D-BMCR and let P be a prime ideal of R. By factoring out $P \cap K$ from K we may assume that K is D-prime, $P \cap K = 0$, and $G_D(K) = 0$. If $P \neq 0$, then G(R/P) = 0 by Lemma 2.4 and ([2], Lemma 3.3). If P = 0, for every D-ideal I of K such that K/I is D-simple with an identity we have G((K/I)[X;D]) = 0 by Lemma 2.2. Then $G(R) \subseteq I[X;D]$ and so $G(R/P) = G(R) \subseteq G_D(K)[X;D] = 0$. Therefore, R is a BMCR.

Now, let M be a maximal ideal of R. Put $\overline{K}=K/(M \cap K)$ $\overline{R}=\overline{K}[X;\mathcal{D}]$, and \overline{M} the image of M in \overline{K} . Then (II) follows from Lemma 2.5.

Conversely, suppose that the conditions (I) and (II) hold and let Q be a D-prime ideal of K. Then Q[X;D] is a prime ideal of R and so $Q[X;D] = \bigcap \{M: M \supseteq Q[X;D] \text{ and } R/M \text{ is a simple ring with } 1\} = \bigcap \{M: M \supseteq Q[X;D] \text{ is a maximal ideal of } R\}.$ Hence, Q is equal to the intersection of the ideals $M \cap K$ and then $G_D(K/Q) = 0$.

that P # O is an ideal of R such that P O X = O and I = P

3. Some Assumptions on (K,D)

Hereafter, we shall suppose that every ring has an identity element and if $K \subset S$ is a ring extension, then K and S share the identity 1. We shall consider the following condition.

(C) For every D-prime ideal Q of K such that M(L(K/Q))=0, then L(K/Q) is the maximum ideal among all the ideals I of K/Q with M(I)=0.

If the condition (C) holds and M is a maximal ideal of K, then M/M(M) = L(K/M(M)). Hence K/M(M) has a unique maximal ideal M/M(M) and so it is D-simple. Consequently, M(M) is a D-maximal ideal.

On the other hand, if (K,D) is a QFDR and the condition (C) is satisfied, for every D-prime ideal Q of K, L(K/Q) is the unique prime ideal of K/Q with M(L(K/Q)) = 0. Therefore, for every D-prime ideal Q of K there exists a unique prime P with M(P) = Q, where P is the ideal such that P/Q = L(K/Q). Moreover, Q is a D-maximal ideal if and only if P is a maximal ideal.

Theorem 3.1. Assume that the differential ring (K,D) satisfies the condition (C). Then K is a D-BMCR if and only if K is a BMCR and (K,D) is a QFDR.

Proof. Suppose that K is a D-BMCR. Then (K,D) is a QFDR. Further, if P is a prime ideal of K, put Q = M(P). Then $M(G(K/Q)) = G_D(K/Q) = 0$ and M(P/Q) = 0. Hence, by (C), G(K/Q) = P/Q = L(K/Q) and it follows that G(K/P) = G((K/Q)/(P/Q)) = 0. Therefore, K is a BMCR.

Conversely, if Q is a D-prime ideal, then $Q = \bigcap \{M(P): P \text{ prime}\}$, because (K,D) is a QFDR. Since every prime is an intersection of maximal ideals we have $Q = \bigcap \{M(M): M \text{ maximal}\}$. Then Q is the intersection of the D-maximal ideals M(M).

The following is clear. The following is clear.

Corollary 3.2. Suppose that (K,D) is a QFDR and the condition (C) is satisfied. Then the following statements are equivalent.

- (i) K is a BMCR.
- (ii) K is a D-BMCR.
- (iii) R = K[X;D] is a BMCR and for every maximal ideal M of R, M \cap K is a D-maximal ideal of K.

Now we shall consider some particular cases in which the condition (C) is satisfied. In [2], we said that a differential ring (K,D) is a FDR if D satisfies (F) on K, where (F) is the condition given in ([3], section 4). We say here that (K,D) is a strong finite differential ring (abbr. SFDR) if the following condition (SF) is satisfied:

(SF) For every $a \in K$ there exists a positive integer m = m(a) such that $D^m(b)$ is contained in the ideal of K generated by $b, D(b), \ldots, D^{m-1}(b)$, for each $b \in KaK$.

Lemma 3.3. Let (K,D) be a differential ring. Suppose that either K satisfies the descending chain condition on two sided ideals or (K,D) is a SFDR. Then the condition (C) is satisfied.

Proof. Let Q be a D-prime ideal of K and put $\overline{K}=K/Q$. Suppose that I is an ideal of \overline{K} with $I\supseteq L(\overline{K})$ and M(I)=0. For each $\alpha\in I$ we have $\bigcap_{i=0}^{\infty}D^{-i}(\overline{K}\alpha\overline{K})=M(\overline{K}\alpha\overline{K})=0.$ Then, from the assumption, there is an integer m such that $\bigcap_{i=0}^{m-1}D^{-i}(\overline{K}\alpha\overline{K})=0.$ Hence $(\overline{K}\alpha\overline{K})^m=0$ and so $\alpha\in L(\overline{K})$. Therefore, $I=L(\overline{K})$.

When K satisfies the descending chain condition on two sided ideals, it is not clear whether (K, D) must be a QFDR. We have

Lemma 3.4. Assume that K is a D-prime differential ring which satisfies the descending chain condition on two sided ideals. Then the following are equivalent.

- L(K) is a nilpotent ideal.
- (ii) L(K) is the union of all the nilpotent ideals of K.
- (iii) M(L(K)) = 0.

Proof. (i) → (ii). It is clear.

- $(\text{ii}) \rightarrow (\text{iii}). \quad \text{Let} \quad \alpha \in \mathit{M}(\mathit{L}(\mathit{K})) \quad \text{be.} \quad \text{Put} \quad \mathit{I}_{j} = \sum_{i=0}^{j} \mathit{KD}^{i}(\alpha)\mathit{K}$ and denote by $\mathit{L}(\mathit{I}_{j})$ the left annihilator of I_{j} in K . Then I_{j} is a nilpotent ideal and $\mathit{L}(\mathit{I}_{0}) \supseteq \mathit{L}(\mathit{I}_{1}) \supseteq \ldots \supseteq \mathit{L}(\mathit{I}_{n}) \supseteq \ldots$. There is an integer, m say, such that $\mathit{L}(\mathit{I}_{m}) = \mathit{L}(\mathit{I}_{s})$ for $\mathit{S} \geq \mathit{m}$. Then if $\mathit{x} \in \mathit{L}(\mathit{I}_{m})$ we have $\mathit{xI}_{j} = 0$ for all j , and so $\mathit{x} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathit{KD}^{i}(\alpha)\mathit{K} = 0$. Therefore, either $\mathit{a} = 0$ or $\mathit{L}(\mathit{I}_{m}) = 0$. If $\mathit{L}(\mathit{I}_{m}) = 0$, since I_{m} is nilpotent it follows easily that $\mathit{I}_{m} = 0$. Then $\mathit{a} = 0$.
- (iii) \rightarrow (i). Since $\int_{i=0}^{\infty} D^{-i}(L(K)) = M(L(K)) = 0$, there is an integer, m say, such that $\int_{i=0}^{\infty} D^{-i}(L(K)) = 0$, Then $L(K)^m = 0$.

Corollary 3.5. Let (K,D) be a differential ring and suppose that one of the following holds.

- (a) (K,D) is a SFDR.
- (b) K satisfies the descending chain condition on two sided ideals and for every D-prime ideal Q of K, $L\left(K/Q\right)$ coincides with the union of all the nilpotent ideals of K/Q.

Then the following are equivalent.

- (i) K is a BMCR.
- (ii) K is a D-BMCR.
- (iii) R is a BMCR and for every maximal ideal M of R, $M \cap K$ is a D-maximal ideal of K.

Proof. Since (K,D) is a QFDR, it follows easily by Corollary 3.2 and Lemmas 3.3 and 3.4.

Remark 3.6. Corollary 3.5 can be applied when K is a ring which satisfies the ascending and the descending chain conditions on two sided ideals. In fact, the ascending chain condition implies that (K,D) is a QFDR. On the other hand, it can also be applied

to obtain a corollary corresponding to ([2], Corollary 3.9). Thus, if T is a Galois extension of a BMCR K of characteristic $\mathcal P$ with a Galois p-group G and $T_K \oplus \times_K$, then T is also a BMCR.

4. Liberal and Intermediate Extensions

In this section we consider a liberal extension $S = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Ka_i$ of K and a K-derivation D of S, and an intermediate extension T with $D(T) \subseteq T$. We say that T is a differential intermediate extension. Applying the methods used in [7] and [8] we study the relation between the prime and the D-prime ideals of T. As a consequence we shall see that Corollary 3.2 can be applied in this case.

Firstly, we prove the following.

Lemma 4.1. Let K be a centrally closed prime ring with center C and M a torsion free liberal R-bimodule with a generating set of n centralizing elements. If $\phi: M \to M$ is a K-bimodule homomorphism, then $c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_{n-1}$ in C exist such that $\phi^n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_i \phi^i(x)$, for every $x \in M$.

Proof. We can suppose that $M = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Km_i$ is free over K with the centralizing basis $\{m_i\}$. Then the centralizer of K in M, V say, is equal to $\sum_{i=1}^{n} Cm_i$ and $\phi(V) \subseteq V$. Since C is a field, there exists $t \leq n$ such that $m_1, \phi(m_1), \dots, \phi^{t-1}(m_1)$ are linear independent over C and $\phi^t(m_1) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i \phi^i(m_1)$, for $c_i \in C$. Then, $N = \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} K \phi^i(m_1)$ is a K-sub-bimodule and $\phi(N) \subseteq N$. Moreover, $\phi^t(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} c_i \phi^i(x)$, for all $x \in N$, as it can easily be verified.

On the other hand, we can find a subset of the generators m_{t+1}, \ldots, m_n say, such that $E = \{m_1 \phi(m_1), \ldots, \phi^{t-1}(m_1), m_{t+1}, \ldots, m_n\}$ is a basis of V. Since $M \cong K \otimes_C V$ ([7], Lemma 2.2), E is a centralizing basis of M. Let $\bar{M} = M/N = \sum_{i=t+1}^m \bar{K} m_i$ and $\bar{\phi} \colon \bar{M} \to \bar{M}$ the map induced by ϕ . Then \bar{M} has a basis $\bar{m}_{t+1}, \ldots, \bar{m}_n$.

By induction, d_{t+1},\dots,d_n in C exist such that $\bar{\phi}^{n-t}(\bar{x}) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-t-1} d_j \bar{\phi}^j(\bar{x}), \quad \text{for all } \bar{x} \in \bar{M}. \quad \text{Hence } y = \phi^{n-t}(x) - \frac{n-t-1}{\sum_{j=0}^{n-t-1}} d_j \phi^j(x) \in \mathbb{N} \quad \text{and so } \phi^t(y) = \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} c_i \phi^i(y). \quad \text{It follows that}$ $\phi^n(x) = \sum_j d_j \phi^{t+j}(x) + \sum_i c_i \phi^{i+n-t}(x) - \sum_{i,j} c_i d_j \phi^{i+j}(x), \quad \text{for}$

Let $S = \sum_{i=1}^{n} K\alpha_i$ a liberal extension of K, D a K-derivation of S and T a differential intermediate extension. If S is D-prime, then K is prime and we can consider CK, the central closure of K. Furthermore, CS is a liberal extension of CK and there is a CK-derivation D^* of CS such that $D^*/S = D$, where CS is also a D^* -prime ring (see [2], section 4). Finally, CT is a differential intermediate extension. In the rest of this section we use this notation.

The following improves Theorem 4.3 of [2].

Theorem 4.2. For every D-prime ideal Q of T there exists a prime ideal P such that M(P) = Q.

Proof. As in ([7], Theorem 3.2) we can see that $Q \cap K$ is prime and there exists a D-prime ideal Q' of S such that $Q' \cap K = Q \cap K$ and $Q' \cap T \subseteq Q$. By factoring out from K, T and S respectively the ideals $Q' \cap K$, $Q' \cap T$ and Q' we may suppose

that K is prime, S is a D-prime liberal extension and Q is a D-prime ideal of T with $Q \cap K = 0$.

If K is a centrally closed prime ring, (T,D) is a SFDR by the former lemma. Then, there exists a maximal ideal, P say, with respect to M(P) = Q, and P is clearly prime.

In general, consider $CK \subseteq CT \subseteq CS$ and the derivation D^* . Then CQ is a D^* -ideal of CT and $CQ \cap T = Q$. This can easily be verified as in the proof of Theorem 3.3 in [7]. Let Q' be a D^* -maximal ideal of T with respect to Q' = CQ and $Q' \cap T = Q$. Then Q' is a D^* -prime ideal of CT and $Q' \cap CK = 0$. From the first part there is a prime ideal P' of CT such that M(P') = Q'. Therefore, $P = P' \cap T$ is a prime ideal of T and M(P) = Q.

The following corollary completes the results of [2] concerning with intermediate extensions (see Corollary 4.5 in [2])

Corollary 4.3. Let K be a Jacobson ring and T a differential intermediate extension. Then T[X;D] is also a Jacobson ring.

Proof. Since (T,D) is a QFDR, we can apply ([2], Corollary 3.6). Then we must prove that T is a Jacobson ring. But this is an easy consequence of going up ([6], Corollary 4.2) and incomparability ([7], Theorem 3.3).

Theorem 4.4. The differential ring (T,D) satisfies the condition (C). Moreover, if Q is a D-prime ideal and I is an ideal with M(I) = Q, then $I^n \subseteq Q$.

Proof. By factoring out convenient ideals we may suppose, as in Theorem 4.2, that K is prime, S is a D-prime liberal extension, T is a differential intermediate extension and Q is a D-prime ideal of T such that $Q \cap K = 0$.

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differential ring (T/Q,D) and we apply Lemma 4.1. If A is an ideal with M(A)=0, as in Lemma 3.3 we have $A^n\subseteq \bigcap_{i=0}^{n-1}D^{-i}(A)=0$. Then $I^n\subseteq Q$.

In general, consider the central closure CK of K . Then $\mathit{CK} \subseteq \mathit{CT} \subseteq \mathit{CS}$, where CS is a D^* -prime ring and $\mathit{D}^*(\mathit{CT}) \subseteq \mathit{CT}$. Firstly, suppose that P is a prime ideal of T with $\mathit{M}(\mathit{P}) = \mathit{Q}$. We now use the same way used in ([7], Theorem 3.3). Then $\mathit{CQ} \cap \mathit{T} = \mathit{Q}$ and there exists a D^* -prime ideal Q' of CT which is D^* -maximal with respect to $\mathit{Q}' \supseteq \mathit{CQ}$ and $\mathit{Q}' \cap \mathit{T} = \mathit{Q}$. Also there exists a prime ideal P' of CT which is maximal with respect to $\mathit{P}' \supseteq \mathit{CP} + \mathit{Q}'$ and $\mathit{P}' \cap \mathit{T} = \mathit{P}$. Further, $\mathit{P}' \cap \mathit{CK} = 0$ and $\mathit{M}(\mathit{P}') \supseteq \mathit{Q}'$. By Theorem 4.2, $\mathit{Q}' = \mathit{M}(\mathit{H})$ for a prime ideal H of CT . Then $\mathit{H}^n \subseteq \mathit{Q}' \subseteq \mathit{P}'$ and hence $\mathit{H} \subseteq \mathit{P}'$. It follows that $\mathit{H} = \mathit{P}'$, by ([7], Theorem 3.3). Therefore, $\mathit{P}^n \subseteq \mathit{P}'^n \cap \mathit{T} \subseteq \mathit{Q}' \cap \mathit{T} = \mathit{Q}$.

Finally, suppose that M(I) = Q. Then $I \cap K = 0$ and let P be an ideal of T which is maximal with respect to $P \supseteq I$ and $P \cap K = 0$. Hence P is prime. Furthermore, Q = M(H) for a prime ideal H and we can see that H = P as above. It follows that $I^n \subseteq P^n \subseteq Q$ and the proof has been completed.

Combining the above results we have the following.

Corollary 4.5. For every D-prime ideal Q of T there is a unique prime ideal P of T such that M(P)=Q. Moreover, P is the ideal of T such that P/Q=L(T/Q), and $P^{n}\subseteq Q$. Finally, Q is D-maximal if and only if P is maximal.

Corollary 4.6. The following conditions are equivalent

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- x (ii) a Toris a BMCR. at post a sense and a set (0, x) oels bas
- (iii) T is a D-BMCR.
- (iv) R = T[X;D] is a BMCR and for every maximal ideal M of R, M \bigcap T is a D-maximal ideal of T.

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Proof. (i) \longleftrightarrow (ii) It can easily be proved using going up and incomparability ([6], Corollary 4.2 and [7], Theorem 3.3).

(ii) \longleftrightarrow (iii) \longleftrightarrow (iv) It is a direct consequence of Corollary 3.2, and Theorems 4.2 and 4.4.

5. Remarks and Examples Wanter CVIV of below your ame of the Bay Won ak

If K is a right Noetherian Jacobson ring and D is a derivation of K, then K[X;D] is also a Jacobson ring ([2] and [4]). The same result is not true for Brown-McCoy rings.

Example 5.1. Let K = Q[Y] be a polynomial ring over the field Q of the rational numbers and let D be the Q-derivation of K defined by D(Y) = Y. Then K is a BMCR and (K,D) is a QFDR. We can easily see that $G_D(K) = (Y)$, the ideal generated by Y, and D(K) = 0. Hence K is not a D-BMCR. If M is a maximal ideal of R = K[X;D], then $M \cap K = (Y)$ is D-maximal. Therefore, R is not a BMCR, by Theorem 2.1.

There is an alternative definition of a D-BMCR. In [2], we said that K is a D-Jacobson ring if M(J(K/Q)) = 0, for every D-prime ideal Q of K. We say here that K is a weakly D-Brown-McCoy ring (abbr. wD-BMCR) if M(G(K/Q)) = 0, for every D-prime ideal Q of K. Thus, a D-BMCR is a wD-BMCR, but the converse is not true. In fact, the differential ring given in example 5.1 is a wD-BMCR. This example also shows that if K is a wD-BMCR. R = K[X;D] need not be a BMCR.

If K is a right Noetherian ring, then K satisfies the ascending and the descending chain conditions on two sided ideals and also (K,D) is a FDR. Hence, if Q is a D-prime ideal of K, then there exists a prime P with M(P)=Q and P/Q=L(K/Q) by Lemma 3.3. Therefore, the prime radical L(K/Q) is prime (see also [4], Theorem 2.2). This result is similar to that in Corollary 4.5.

Now, if the abelian group (K,+) is torsion free we can easily see that M(L(K)) = L(K). Then, if we suppose in addition that K is an algebra over the field Q we have 0 = M(P/Q) = M(L(K/Q)) = L(K/Q) = P/Q and so P = Q. Finally, if P is a given prime we put Q = M(P) and as above we have P = M(P) is a D-prime ideal. Therefore the set of all prime ideals coincides with the set of all D-prime ideals in this case.

More generally, suppose that the condition (C) is satisfied and let P be a prime such that (K/M(P),+) is torsion free. As above we get P=M(P) is a D-ideal of K. Thus if K is an algebra over Q and the condition (C) holds, every prime ideal of K is a D-prime ideal.

Suppose in addition that (K,D) is a QFDR. Then for every D-prime ideal Q there is a prime P with Q = M(P) = P. Therefore, we again have that the set of all prime ideals coincides with the set of all D-prime ideals in this case. Thus we have

- **Remark 5.2**. Suppose that T is an algebra over the field of rational numbers and D is a derivation of T, and assume that one of the following conditions is satisfied.
- (i) The ascending and the descending chain conditions on two sided ideals of \it{T} .
 - (ii) (T,D) is a SFDR.
- (iii) T is a differential intermediate extension of K and D/K=0.

Then the set of all the $\mathcal{D}\text{-prime}$ ideals of \mathcal{T} coincides with the set of all the prime ideals.

Finally, the following examples are easy to verify.

Example 5.3. Let (K,D) be the differential ring given in ([2], section 2). Then K is a BMCR, R = K[X;D] is not a BMCR, and K is not a wD-BMCR. Further, the condition (II) in Theorem 2.1 also holds in this case.

Example 5.4. Let (K,D) be the differential ring given in ([2], Example 5.2). Then K is not a BMCR, but it is a D-BMCR and R = K[X;D] is a BMCR.

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