

## Concrete radicals in general modules

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### § 1. Introduction

Let  $A$  be an associative ring, (without any assumptions on commutativity or the existence of a unity element), and denote by  ${}_A\mathcal{M}$  the category of all left  $A$ -modules. For this category we take over the concept of a radical as it is employed in *torsion theory* for unitary modules over a ring with unity element; (see e.g. [6]). We define: A preradical of  ${}_A\mathcal{M}$  is a functor  $r: {}_A\mathcal{M} \rightarrow {}_A\mathcal{M}$  such that for all  $M, N \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$ ,

- (i)  $M \mapsto r(M)$ , a submodule of  $M$ ;
- (ii)  $(f \in \text{Hom}_A(M, N)) \mapsto r(f) = f|_{r(M)} \in \text{Hom}_A(r(M), r(N))$ .

A preradical  $r$  is said to be *idempotent* if  $r(r(M)) = r(M)$  for all  $M \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$ , and  $r$  is called a *radical* if  $r(M/r(M)) = 0$  for all  $M \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$ . If  $r$  is a radical the submodule  $r(M)$  is called the *r-radical* of the module  $M$ , and  $M$  is said to be *r-radical* (*r-semisimple*), if  $r(M) = M, (r(M) = 0)$ .

Our purpose is to construct a class of radicals of this type and to produce a few concrete examples of such radicals.

### § 2. Radicals of ${}_A\mathcal{M}$ defined by intersections

The basic tool in our construction is the well known one used in the theory of radicals in rings, namely *taking intersections*. Some terminology will be necessary: We consider a property  $\Sigma$  of submodules which defines within each module  $M \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$  a subsystem  $\Sigma_M$  of submodules, called the  $\Sigma$ -submodules of  $M$ . For a given  $\Sigma$  the system  $\Sigma_M$  may be empty, e.g. when the  $\Sigma$ -submodules are defined to be the maximal submodules. A defining property as described above will be called an *isolator*.

*2.1 Definition.* An isolator  $\Sigma$  is said to be *stable* on  ${}_A\mathcal{M}$  if for each  $A$ -epimorphism  $f: M \rightarrow N$  the assignment  $P \mapsto f(P)$  defines a bijection between  $\{P \in \Sigma_M | \text{Ker } f \subset P\}$  and  $\Sigma_N$ .

A direct consequence of this definition is that  $S \in \Sigma_M$  if and only if  $0 \in \Sigma_{M/S}$ .

*2.2 Definition.* A *transferring* isolator  $\Sigma$  is one which satisfies the following condition: If  $M \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$ ,  $T$  a submodule of  $M$  and  $S \in \Sigma_M$ , then  $T \cap S \neq T$  implies that  $T \cap S \in \Sigma_T$ .

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With each stable transferring isolator  $\Sigma$  we now associate the assignment  $r: {}_A\mathcal{M} \rightarrow {}_A\mathcal{M}; M \mapsto r(M)$  and  $(f: M \rightarrow N) \mapsto r(f) = f|_{r(M)}: r(M) \rightarrow N$ ; where we define  $r(M) = \bigcap_{S \in \Sigma_M} S$  if  $\Sigma_M \neq \emptyset$  and  $r(M) = M$  if  $\Sigma_M = \emptyset$ . We show that this assignment defines a radical of  ${}_A\mathcal{M}$ .

**2.3 Lemma.** *If  $M \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$  and  $T$  is a submodule of  $M$ , then  $r(T) \subset T \cap r(M)$ .*

PROOF. If either  $\Sigma_M = \emptyset$  or  $T \subset S$  for all  $S \in \Sigma_M$ , there is nothing to prove. If  $T \cap S \neq T$  for at least one  $S \in \Sigma_M$ , then  $T \cap S \in \Sigma_T$  and hence  $r(T) = \bigcap_{K \in \Sigma_T} K \subset \bigcap_{S \in \Sigma_M} (T \cap S) = T \cap \left( \bigcap_{S \in \Sigma_M} S \right) = T \cap r(M)$ .

**2.4 Theorem.**  *$r$  is a radical of  ${}_A\mathcal{M}$ , i.e. every  $A$ -homomorphism  $f: M \rightarrow N$  induces  $r(M) \rightarrow r(N)$  by restriction and  $r(M/r(M)) = 0$  for all  $M \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$ .*

PROOF. To prove the first part of the theorem we consider an arbitrary  $A$ -homomorphism  $f: M \rightarrow N$ . We need obviously only consider the case where  $r(N) \neq N$ . If  $r(M) = M$ , then the stableness of  $\Sigma$  shows that  $r(\text{Im}f) = \text{Im}f$ . Since now  $\text{Im}f \subset r(N)$ , by 2.3, we have that  $r(M) \rightarrow r(N)$ . If  $r(M) \neq M$  we consider the set  $\{S_\alpha \in \Sigma_M \mid \text{Ker} f \subset S_\alpha\}$ , which is non-empty since  $r(N) \neq N$ . Now

$$f(r(M)) \subset f\left(\bigcap_{\alpha} S_\alpha\right) \subset \bigcap_{\alpha} f(S_\alpha) = r(\text{Im}f) \subset \text{Im}f \cap r(N) \subset r(N).$$

Hence  $r(M) \rightarrow r(N)$  in this case also.

Concerning the second part of the theorem we may clearly confine ourselves to modules  $M \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$  with  $0 \neq r(M) \neq M$ . Now considering the canonical projection  $M \rightarrow M/r(M)$  we have the bijection  $\Sigma_M \leftrightarrow \Sigma_{M/r(M)}$ ,  $K_\beta \leftrightarrow K_\beta/r(M)$ . So if  $x + r(M) \in r(M/r(M))$  then  $x + r(M) \in K_\beta/r(M)$  for all  $\beta$  so that  $x \in K_\beta$  for all  $\beta$ . Hence  $x \in r(M)$ , or equivalently,  $x + r(M) = 0$ . This completes the proof.

As an immediate consequence of the construction of  $r(M)$  we also have the following criterion.

**2.5 Corollary.** *A non-zero module  $M$  in  ${}_A\mathcal{M}$  is isomorphic to a subdirect product of all modules  $M/S$ , ( $S \in \Sigma_M$ ), if and only if  $r(M) = 0$ .*

### § 3. Concrete radicals in ${}_A\mathcal{M}$

In view of theorem 2.4 we may now substitute different stable transferring isolators for  $\Sigma$  to obtain concrete examples of radicals of  ${}_A\mathcal{M}$ . Our basic isolator (which we shall denote by  $\Sigma^1$ ) is defined as follows:

**3.1 Definition.** A submodule  $S$  of a module  $M \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$  shall be called a  $\Sigma^1$ -submodule of  $M$  if  $x \in M$  and  $Ax \subset S$  imply that  $x \in S$ .

**3.2 Lemma.**  $\Sigma^1$  is a stable transferring isolator.

PROOF. Let  $f: M \rightarrow N$  be an  $A$ -epimorphism and let  $P \in \Sigma_M^1$  such that  $\text{Ker} f \subset P$ . Let  $An \subset f(P)$  and  $m$  a fixed element of  $M$  with  $f(m) = n$ . Then  $Af(m) \subset f(P)$  implies that  $f(am) \in f(P)$  for all  $a \in A$ . Hence for each  $a \in A$  there is a  $p_a \in P$  such that  $f(am - p_a) = 0$  so that  $am - p_a \in \text{Ker} f \subset P$ . This shows that  $Am \subset P$ . Since

$P \in \Sigma_M^1$  we must have that  $m \in P$  and consequently  $n \in f(P)$ . Hence  $f(P) \in \Sigma_N^1$ . On the other hand, if  $Q \in \Sigma_N^1$ , then  $Am_1 \subset f^{-1}(Q)$  implies that  $Af(m_1) \subset Q$  so that  $f(m_1) \in Q$  and hence  $m_1 \in f^{-1}(Q)$ . Thus we have that  $f^{-1}(Q) \in \Sigma_M^1$ . From the identity  $f(f^{-1}(Q)) = Q$  for all  $Q \in \Sigma_N^1$  we obtain the surjectivity of the mapping  $\{P \in \Sigma_M^1 \mid \text{Ker } f \subset P\} \rightarrow \Sigma_N^1, P \mapsto f(P)$ . The injectivity follows from equally well known elementary arguments. Thus the stableness of  $\Sigma^1$  is established. That this isolator also has the transferring property is a direct consequence of its definition.

The following properties of  $\Sigma^1$  relative to an arbitrary  $M \in \mathcal{A}\text{-}\mathcal{M}$  are stated for reference; the verifications are straightforward.

**3.3 Lemma.** (i)  $\Sigma_M^1$  is closed under intersections. (ii) If  $P, Q$  and  $R$  are submodules of  $M$  such that  $P \in \Sigma_Q^1$  and  $Q \in \Sigma_R^1$ , then  $P \in \Sigma_R^1$ . (iii) If  $S$  is a submodule of  $M$  and  $\bar{S} = \{x \in M \mid Ax \subset S\}$ , then  $S \in \Sigma_M^1$  if and only if  $S = \bar{S}$ .

We now consider the radical  $r_1$  associated with  $\Sigma^1$ . Let  $M \in \mathcal{A}\text{-}\mathcal{M}$ . Then 3.3 (i) shows that  $r_1(M) = 0$  if and only if  $0 \in \Sigma_M^1$ . Consequently, the subdirect decomposition of an  $r_1$ -semisimple module according to 2.5 is a trivial representation. Next we observe that  $r_1$  is idempotent. For if  $r_1(r_1(M)) \subsetneq r_1(M)$  for some  $M \in \mathcal{A}\text{-}\mathcal{M}$ , then there is a  $Q \subsetneq r_1(M)$  in  $\Sigma_{r_1(M)}^1$ . Since  $r_1(M) \in \Sigma_M^1$  by 3.3 (i), the property 3.3 (ii) shows that  $Q \in \Sigma_M^1$ . This contradicts the definition of  $r_1(M)$ .

Finally in connection with  $r_1$  we characterize  $r_1(M)$  under various conditions, mainly on the ground ring  $A$ . First we note that the submodules

$$M_n = \{x \in M \mid A^n x = 0\},$$

$n \in \mathbb{N}$ , are all contained in  $r_1(M)$ , for  $x \in M_n$  implies that  $A^n x = 0$  so that  $A^n x \subset r_1(M)$ . This shows that  $A(a'x) \subset r_1(M)$  for all  $a' \in A^{n-1}$  so that  $A^{n-1}x \subset r_1(M)$ , because  $r_1(M) \in \Sigma_M^1$ . Continuing this process, we eventually obtain  $Ax \subset r_1(M)$  and then  $x \in r_1(M)$ . Since clearly  $M_n \subset M_{n+1}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we have an ascending chain

$$(1) \quad M_1 \subset M_2 \dots \subset \dots \subset M_n \subset \dots \subset r_1(M),$$

in which  $M_1 = \{x \in M \mid Ax = 0\}$  is the maximal trivial submodule of  $M$ .

**3.4 Corollary.** If there is an  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $A^n = A^{n+1} = \dots$ , then  $r_1(M) = M_n$ .

**PROOF.** If  $Ax \subset M_n$  then  $A^n(ax) = 0$  for all  $a \in A$ . Hence  $A^{n+1}x = 0$  so that  $A^n x = 0$ , or equivalently  $x \in M_n$ . Thus we have that  $M_n \in \Sigma_M^1$  which together with  $M_n \subset r_1(M)$  show that  $r_1(M) = M_n$ . In particular, if  $A$  is left or right artinian there exists an  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $r_1(M) = M_n$ , and if  $A$  is idempotent then  $r_1(M) = M_1$ . Apart from conditions on  $A$  we note that the chain (1) may also be employed in the same direct manner as in 3.4 to derive the following characterization.

**3.5 Corollary.** If  $M$  is noetherian, then  $r_1(M) = M_n$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Returning to our arbitrary  $M \in \mathcal{A}\text{-}\mathcal{M}$  we assume for the moment that  $A$  has a unity element  $e$ . Then 3.4 shows that  $r_1(M) = M_1$ . Furthermore, if  $\lambda: A \rightarrow \text{End}^l(M)$  is the ring homomorphism which supplies the module structure of  $M$  and if we identify  $\lambda(e)$  with  $e$ , we note that the submodule  $E = \{ex - x \mid x \in M\}$  is contained in  $M_1 = r_1(M)$ , because  $a(ex - x) = 0$  for all  $a \in A$ . However,  $E \in \Sigma_M^1$ , for  $Ay \subset E$  implies that  $ey \in E$  so that  $y \in E$ . Hence we have that  $r_1(M) = M_1 = E$ . Using the

characterization  $r_1(M) = M_1$  we see that  $r_1$ -radicality is equivalent with triviality, while the characterization  $r_1(M) = E$  establishes the equivalence between  $r_1$ -simplicity and unitariness.

Once again we let  $A$  be an arbitrary ring and we now consider the  $\Sigma^1$ -maximal submodules of an arbitrary module  $M \in \mathcal{A}\mathcal{M}$ ; these submodules will be termed the  $\Sigma^2$ -submodules of  $M$ . It is obvious that  $\Sigma^2 \subset \Sigma^1$ , and the restriction of  $P \mapsto f(P)$  in the proof of 3.2 to  $\{P \in \Sigma_M^2 \mid \text{Ker } f \subset P\}$  immediately yields the stableness of  $\Sigma^2$ . Moreover, if  $T$  is a submodule of  $M$  and  $L \in \Sigma_M^2$ , a direct application of the definition of  $\Sigma^1$  shows that  $T \cap L \neq T$  implies that  $T \cap L \in \Sigma_T^1$ . The relation  $T \cap L \in \Sigma_T^2$  now follows from  $T/(T \cap L) \cong (T+L)/L = M/L$ , which is a simple module. Hence we have shown that  $\Sigma^2$  is a stable transferring isolator, and we may consider the radical  $r_2$  associated with it. First we observe that for every unitary  $Z$ -module (abelian group)  $M$ ,  $r_2(M) = \Phi(M)$ , the Frattini submodule of  $M$ , and hence that  $r_2$  is not idempotent. The latter observation immediately yields the expected fact that  $r_1 \neq r_2$ . We shall employ the radical  $r_2$  to fit into our scheme a well known module radical:

**3.6 Theorem.** *The radical  $r_2$  coincides with the Kertész radical.*

*Remark.* The Kertész radical, which we shall denote by  $k$ , is discussed in [2; 3]. For an arbitrary  $M \in \mathcal{A}\mathcal{M}$  it is defined by  $k(M) = \{x \in M \mid Ax \subset \Phi(M)\}$ . Using the easily verifiable fact that  $L \in \Sigma_M^2$  if and only if  $M/L$  is irreducible, we note that our theorem is already partially covered in [2; 3], where modules which are not  $k$ -radical are being characterized. We give here a complete proof within the framework of our approach.

PROOF. If  $M$  has no maximal submodules, then also  $\Sigma_M^2 = \emptyset$ , so that  $r_2(M) = k(M) = M$ . In the other alternative we consider the set  $\{L_\gamma \mid \gamma \in C\}$  of all maximal submodules of  $M$  and the corresponding set  $\{\bar{L}_\gamma \mid \gamma \in C\}$ . (See 3.3.) For each  $\gamma \in C$  we have that  $\bar{L}_\gamma$  is a submodule of  $M$ , that  $L_\gamma \subset \bar{L}_\gamma \subset M$  and hence (by the maximality of  $L_\gamma$ ) that  $L_\gamma = \bar{L}_\gamma$  or  $\bar{L}_\gamma = M$ . Since  $x \in k(M)$  if and only if  $Ax \subset L_\gamma$  for all  $\gamma$ , and since the latter condition is equivalent with  $x \in \bar{L}_\gamma$  for all  $\gamma$ , we have that

$$(2) \quad k(M) = \bigcap_{\gamma} \bar{L}_\gamma.$$

Furthermore, 3.3 (iii) shows that  $L_\gamma \in \Sigma_M^2$  if and only if  $L_\gamma = \bar{L}_\gamma$ . Hence if  $\bar{L}_\gamma = M$  for all  $\gamma$ , then  $\Sigma_M^2 = \emptyset$  and, applying (2), we obtain  $r_2(M) = M = \bigcap_{\gamma} \bar{L}_\gamma = k(M)$ .

On the other hand, if at least one  $\bar{L}_\gamma \neq M$ , i.e.  $\bar{L}_\gamma = L_\gamma$ , then the redundancy of the (possible)  $M$ 's in  $\bigcap_{\gamma} \bar{L}_\gamma$  in (2) shows that  $k(M) = \bigcap_{L \in \Sigma_M^2} L = r_2(M)$ . This completes the proof.

Our final application of theorem 2.4 is the construction of one more radical based on a concept of 'modularity' of maximal submodules in the following sense.

**3.7 Definition.** A maximal submodule  $L$  of a module  $M \in \mathcal{A}\mathcal{M}$  is called a  $\Sigma^3$ -submodule of  $M$  if there exists an  $a \in A$  such that  $ax - x \in L$  for all  $x \in M$ .

It easily follows that  $\Sigma_M^3 \subset \Sigma_M^2$ , and if  $A$  has a unity element  $e$ , the reverse inclusion also holds; for in this case, if  $L \in \Sigma_M^2$  we have that  $ex - x \in r_1(M) \subset L$  for all  $x \in M$ . Thus we have:

**3.8 Lemma.** For each  $M \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$ : (i)  $\Sigma_M^3 \subset \Sigma_M^2 \subset \Sigma_M^1$ ; (ii) if  $A$  has a unity element then  $\Sigma_M^2 = \Sigma_M^3$ .

The validity of the following auxiliary result may also be checked directly.

**3.9 Lemma.**  $\Sigma^3$  is a stable transferring isolator on  ${}_A\mathcal{M}$ .

Denoting the radical associated with  $\Sigma^3$  by  $r_3$  we may state the following immediate consequence of lemma 3.8.

**3.10 Corollary.** For each  $M \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$ : (i)  $r_1(M) \subset r_2(M) \subset r_3(M)$ ; (ii) if  $A$  has a unity element then  $r_2(M) = r_3(M)$ .

Regarding the second part of this corollary we note that in the case of a unitary left  $A$ -module  $M$  the radicals  $r_2$  and  $r_3$  coincide with the radical usually employed in this case, namely  $\Phi(M)$ . This also shows that  $r_3$  is not idempotent.

For an arbitrary  $M \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$ , ( $A$  arbitrary), the stableness of  $\Sigma^3$  has the implication that  $L \in \Sigma_M^3$  if and only if  $0 \in \Sigma_{M/L}^3$ . This means that for  $L \in \Sigma_M^3$  the factor module  $M/L$  has a 'quasi-unitary' property in the sense that there is an  $a \in A$  such that  $a(x+L) = x+L$  for all  $x+L \in M/L$ . Since  $L$  is maximal we have the additional property that  $M/L$  is irreducible. Calling a module  $N \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$  quasi-unitary if there exists an element  $a \in A$  with  $ax = x$  for all  $x \in N$ , we have the following result in view of 2.5.

**3.11 Corollary.** A non-zero module  $M$  in  ${}_A\mathcal{M}$  is isomorphic to a subdirect product of quasi-unitary irreducible modules in  ${}_A\mathcal{M}$  if and only if  $r_3(M) = 0$ .

We observe that if  $A$  has a unity element, the  $r_i$ -semisimple modules, ( $i=1, 2, 3$ ), are in fact unitary, for  $r_i(M) = 0$  implies that  $M = M/r_i(M) = M/r_1(M) \cong AM$ . Finally in this section we must mention that the exact relationship between  $r_2$  and  $r_3$  has not yet been settled. The probability seems to weigh in the direction of a difference.

#### § 4. The module radicals $r_i$ of ${}_A\mathcal{M}$ confined to the ground ring $A$

We conclude our discussion by comparing the module radicals  $r_i(A)$ , ( $i=1, 2, 3$ ), with ring radicals of  $A$ . The Baer lower radical  $\beta$ , the Jacobson radical  $J$  and the Brown—McCoy radical  $B$  were the best known candidates for this purpose.

**4.1 Theorem.** For every associative ring  $A$ : (i)  $r_1(A) \subset \beta(A)$ , (ii)  $(r_2A) \subset J(A)$ , (iii)  $r_3(A) \subset B(A)$ .

**PROOF.** We need only prove (i) and (iii) since (ii) has already been established in [3, 7]. (i) Let  $P$  be a prime ideal of  $A$  and let  $x \in A$  with  $Ax \subset P$ . Each element of the ideal product  $A(x)$  may be written as a finite sum of elements of the form  $ax + \sum a_i x a'_i$ , where  $a, a_i, a'_i \in A$ . Since  $Ax \subset P$  we therefore have that  $A(x) \subset P$  and since  $P$  is a prime ideal we obtain  $x \in P$ . This shows that  $P \in \Sigma_A^1$ , and we may conclude that  $r_1(A) \subset \beta(A)$ . (iii) Clearly, every modular maximal ideal of  $A$ , (cf. [5]), belongs to  $\Sigma_A^3$ . Hence  $r_3(A) \subset B(A)$ . This completes the proof.

In the case where  $A$  has a unity element it was already noted that  $r_2(M) = r_3(M)$  for all  $M \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$ . Considering the module  $A \in {}_A\mathcal{M}$  in this case, we observe that  $\Sigma_A^2$  and  $\Sigma_A^3$  coincide with the set of modular maximal left ideals of  $A$ , so that  $r_2(A) = r_3(A) = J(A)$ . If  $A$  is a commutative ring (with or without unity element), we know that  $J(A) = B(A)$ . Moreover, the modular maximal ideals of  $A$  are exactly the  $\Sigma^3$ -ideals of  $A$ . Finally in this case, if  $L \in \Sigma_A^2$ , then  $A^2 \not\subseteq L$  and hence a result in [4] ensures the modularity of  $L$ . Thus if  $A$  is a commutative ring we have that  $r_2(A) = r_3(A) = J(A) = B(A)$ .

Concerning  $r_1$  no positive results are ensured by either of the above mentioned 'natural' conditions on  $A$ . If  $A$  has a unity element then  $r_1(A) = 0$ , and in the case of commutative rings the Zassenhaus example  $A$  mentioned in [1], p. 20, supplies a counter example. Here  $\beta(A) = A$ , while  $A^2 = A$  shows that  $r_1(A) = A_1 \neq A$ .

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