

## On the uniqueness of rings of coefficients in skew polynomial rings

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**Abstract.** Let  $R$  be a ring, let  $\alpha$  be an automorphism of  $R$ , and let  $\delta$  be an  $\alpha$ -derivation of  $R$ . The ring  $R$  is said to be *strongly invariant* in a skew polynomial ring  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  if for any isomorphism  $\Psi$  of  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  to any skew polynomial ring  $S[Y, \beta, \partial]$ , there holds  $\Psi(R) = S$ . We consider what conditions imply that  $R$  is strongly invariant in  $T$ .

### 1. Introduction

Throughout this paper, all rings are associative with unit. Let  $\alpha$  be an automorphism of a ring  $R$ . An  $\alpha$ -derivation of  $R$  is any additive map  $\delta : R \rightarrow R$  such that  $\delta(ab) = \alpha(a)\delta(b) + \delta(a)b$  for all  $a, b \in R$ . The skew polynomial ring  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  is a ring of polynomials in  $X$  over  $R$  with the usual addition and with multiplication subject to the rule  $Xa = \alpha(a)X + \delta(a)$  for all  $a \in R$  (see [2, Definition, p. 10]). A ring  $T$  may be viewed as a skew polynomial ring over a subring  $T'$  if and only if there exists an isomorphism  $\Phi$  from a skew polynomial ring  $R[X, \alpha, \delta]$  to  $T$  such that  $\Phi(R) = T'$ . In fact, if there exists such an isomorphism  $\Phi$ , then  $\alpha' = \Phi\alpha\Phi^{-1}$  is an automorphism of  $T' = \Phi(R)$ ,  $\delta' = \Phi\delta\Phi^{-1}$  is an  $\alpha'$ -derivation of  $T'$ ,  $T$  is a free left  $T'$ -module with the basis  $1, \Phi(X), \Phi(X)^2, \dots$  and  $\Phi(X)a = \alpha'(a)\Phi(X) + \delta'(a)$  for all  $a \in T'$ . Therefore we obtain  $T = T'[\Phi(X); \alpha', \delta']$ . There may possibly be many different ways to represent  $T$  as a skew polynomial ring over a subring. For example, consider the first Weyl algebra  $A_1(K)$  over a field  $K$ . This is an algebra over  $K$  generated by

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$x, y$  with relation  $xy - yx = 1$ . We may write  $A_1(K) = K[y] \left[ x; 1, \frac{d}{dy} \right] = K[x] \left[ y; 1, -\frac{d}{dx} \right]$ . Hence two different subrings  $K[y], K[x]$  can become rings of coefficients of  $A_1(K)$ . In this paper, we consider what conditions imply  $R$  to be unique as a ring of coefficients of  $T = R[X; \alpha, \delta]$ .

## 2. Strongly invariant rings

To discuss the uniqueness of rings of coefficients in skew polynomial rings, we need the following two definitions.

*Definition 1.* A ring  $R$  is *strongly invariant* in a skew polynomial ring  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  if for any isomorphism  $\Psi$  of  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  to any skew polynomial ring  $S[Y; \beta, \partial]$ , there holds  $\Psi(R) = S$ .

*Definition 2.* A ring  $R$  is *reduced* if  $R$  contains no nonzero nilpotent elements. A reduced ring  $R$  with an automorphism  $\alpha$  is  $\alpha$ -*reduced* if, for any  $r \in R$ ,  $r\alpha(r) = 0$  implies  $r = 0$ .

We give an example of a reduced ring which is not  $\alpha$ -reduced. Let  $K$  be a field, and let  $R = K \oplus K$ . Then  $R$  is reduced. Consider the automorphism  $\alpha$  of  $R$  given by  $\alpha(a, b) = (b, a)$ . Then  $(1, 0)\alpha(1, 0) = (1, 0)(0, 1) = (0, 0)$ . Therefore  $R$  is not  $\alpha$ -reduced.

Now we begin with the following lemma.

**Lemma 1.** *Let  $R$  be a ring, let  $\alpha$  be an automorphism of  $R$ , and let  $\delta$  be an  $\alpha$ -derivation of  $R$ . Suppose that  $R$  is  $\alpha$ -reduced and let  $a, b \in R$ .*

- (1) *If  $ab = 0$ , then  $\alpha^i(a)\alpha^j(b) = 0$  for any integers  $i, j$ .*
- (2) *If  $ab = 0$ , then  $\delta^i(a)\delta^j(b) = 0$  for any non-negative integers  $i, j$ .*
- (3) *If  $ab = 0$ , then  $aX^m bX^n = 0$  in  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  for any nonnegative integers  $m, n$ .*

PROOF. (1) Assume  $ab = 0$ . Then  $b\alpha(a)\alpha(b\alpha(a)) = b\alpha(ab)\alpha^2(a) = 0$ . Since  $R$  is  $\alpha$ -reduced, we have  $b\alpha(a) = 0$ . Since  $R$  is reduced,  $(\alpha(a)b)^2 = 0$  implies  $\alpha(a)b = 0$ . Similarly  $(ba)^2 = 0$  implies  $ba = 0$ . Hence, by the same way as above, we obtain  $a\alpha(b) = 0$ . Using these repeatedly, we obtain  $\alpha^i(a)\alpha^j(b) = 0$  for any non-negative integers  $i, j$ . Take a positive integer  $n$  and apply  $\alpha^{-n}$  to this equation, we have  $\alpha^{i-n}(a)\alpha^{j-n}(b) = 0$ . This proves the claim.

(2) Since  $R$  is reduced,  $ab = 0$  implies  $ba = 0$ , and hence  $b\alpha(a) = 0$  by (1). Since  $0 = \delta(ab) = \alpha(a)\delta(b) + \delta(a)b$ ,  $\{\alpha(a)\delta(b)\}^2 = -\delta(a)b\alpha(a)\delta(b) = 0$ ,

so that  $\alpha(a)\delta(b) = 0$ . Hence  $a\delta(b) = 0$  by (1). Using  $ba = 0$ , we similarly obtain  $\delta(a)b = 0$ . Using these repeatedly, we can prove our claim.

(3) Using the rule  $Xr = \alpha(r)X + \delta(r)$  for each  $r \in R$ , we can write  $aX^m bX^n = c_{m+n}X^{m+n} + c_{m+n-1}X^{m+n-1} + \dots + c_1X + c_0$ . Then we see that  $c_{m+n} = a\alpha^m(b)$ ,  $c_{m+n-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a\alpha^{m-i-1}\delta\alpha^i(a)$ , and in general  $c_k$  is the sum of some terms of the form  $a\alpha^{i_1}\delta^{j_1}\alpha^{i_2}\delta^{j_2}\dots\alpha^{i_t}\delta^{j_t}(b)$  with  $i_1 + j_1 + \dots + i_t + j_t = m$ . However, using (1) and (2), we see  $a\alpha^{i_1}\delta^{j_1}\alpha^{i_2}\delta^{j_2}\dots\alpha^{i_t}\delta^{j_t}(b) = 0$  for each  $i_1, \dots, i_t, j_1, \dots, j_t$ , and therefore  $c_k = 0$  for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, m + n$ .

The following theorem improves [4, Proposition 3.4].

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $R$  be a ring, let  $\alpha$  be an automorphism of  $R$ , and let  $\delta$  be an  $\alpha$ -derivation of  $R$ . If  $R$  is  $\alpha$ -reduced, then the set of all units in  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  equals the set of all units in  $R$ .*

PROOF. Let  $f(X) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i X^i$  be a unit in  $R[X, \alpha, \delta]$  and let  $g(X) = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j X^j$  be its inverse. Then we can write  $1 = f(X)g(X) = \sum_{k=0}^{m+n} (\sum_{i+j=k} a_i X^i b_j X^j) = c_{m+n}X^{m+n} + c_{m+n-1}X^{m+n-1} + \dots + c_1X + c_0$ . We prove that  $f(X) \in R$ . Suppose, on the contrary, that  $m > 0$  and  $a_m \neq 0$ . We claim that  $a_s b_t = 0$  for  $s + t \geq m$ . We can easily see that  $c_{m+n} = a_m \alpha^m(b_n) = 0$ . Thus we obtain  $a_m b_n = 0$  by Lemma 1(1). This proves our claim for  $s + t = m + n$ . Let  $p$  be an integer such that  $m + n > p \geq m$ , and suppose that  $a_s b_t = 0$  if  $s + t > p$ . We shall prove that  $a_s b_t = 0$  when  $s + t = p$ . By Lemma 1(3), we have  $\sum_{i+j=u} a_i X^i b_j X^j = 0$  for  $u = m + n, m + n - 1, \dots, p + 1$ . Hence we obtain

$$(1) \quad c_p = \sum_{i+j=p} a_i \alpha^i(b_j) = 0.$$

Since  $a_s b_t = 0$  for  $s + t > p$ ,  $a_s \alpha^s(b_t) = 0$  for  $s + t > p$  by Lemma 1(1), and hence  $\alpha^s(b_t) a_s = 0$  for  $s + t > p$  because  $R$  is reduced. Multiplying the equation (1) on the right by  $a_p$ , we obtain

$$0 = \left\{ \sum_{i+j=p} a_i \alpha^i(b_j) \right\} a_p = a_p \alpha^p(b_0) a_p.$$

Since  $R$  is reduced,  $a_p \alpha^p(b_0) = 0$ , so that  $a_p b_0 = 0$  by Lemma 1(1). Now the equation (1) becomes

$$(2) \quad \sum_{\substack{i+j=p \\ j \geq 1}} a_i \alpha^i(b_j) = 0.$$

Multiplying the equation (2) on the right by  $a_{p-1}$ , we have  $a_{p-1}\alpha^{p-1}(b_1) \times a_{p-1} = 0$ . Hence  $a_{p-1}\alpha^{p-1}(b_1) = 0$ , so that  $a_{p-1}b_1 = 0$ . Continuing this process, we have  $a_i b_j = 0$  for all  $i, j$  with  $i + j = p$ . Thus we have proved  $a_s b_t = 0$  for  $s + t \geq m$ . In particular, we have  $a_m b_n = a_m b_{n-1} = \cdots = a_m b_0 = 0$ . Thus  $a_m X^m g(X) = 0$  by Lemma 1(3), and hence  $(\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i X^i)g(X) = 1$ . Therefore we obtain  $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i X^i = (\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i X^i)g(X)f(X) = f(X) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i X^i$ . This implies  $a_m = 0$ , a contradiction. This completes the proof.

As a consequence of Theorem 2, we obtain the following corollary.

**Corollary 3.** *Let  $R$  be a ring, let  $\alpha$  be an automorphism of  $R$ , and let  $\delta$  be an  $\alpha$ -derivation of  $R$ . Suppose that  $R$  is  $\alpha$ -reduced and that  $R$  is generated by its units. Then  $\Psi(R) = R$  for any automorphism  $\Psi$  of  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$ .*

A ring is called an integral domain if the product of nonzero elements is always nonzero. For example, a division ring is an integral domain.

**Corollary 4.** *If  $R$  is an integral domain generated by its units, then  $R$  is strongly invariant in  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  for any automorphism  $\alpha$  and for any  $\alpha$ -derivation  $\delta$ .*

PROOF. Let  $S$  be a ring with an automorphism  $\beta$  and with a  $\beta$ -derivation  $\partial$ , and assume that  $\Psi : R[X; \alpha, \delta] \rightarrow S[Y; \beta; \partial]$  is an isomorphism. Since  $S$  also is an integral domain, the set of all units in  $S[Y; \beta, \partial]$  equals the set of all units in  $S$  by Theorem 2. Hence, by hypothesis, we have  $\Psi(R) \subseteq S$ . Clearly  $\Psi(X) \notin S$ , and so we can write  $\Psi(X) = s_k Y^k + \cdots + s_1 Y + s_0$  with some  $s_0, \dots, s_k (\neq 0) \in S$  and some  $k > 0$ . We have to prove  $\Psi(R) = S$ . Suppose, on the contrary, that  $\Psi(R) \subsetneq S$  and take an element  $s \in S - \Psi(R)$ . Then there is  $f(X) = r_n X^n + r_{n-1} X^{n-1} + \cdots + r_1 X + r_0 \in R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  with  $n > 0$  and some  $r_0, \dots, r_n (\neq 0) \in R$  such that  $\Psi(f(X)) = s$ . Then  $\Psi(r_n)\Psi(X)^n + \cdots + \Psi(r_1)\Psi(X) + (\Psi(r_0) - s) = 0$ . Since the coefficient of  $Y^{nk}$  is zero, we obtain  $\Psi(r_n)s_k \beta^k(s_k) \beta^{2k}(s_k) \cdots \beta^{(n-1)k}(s_k) = 0$ . Since  $r_n \neq 0$  and  $s_k \neq 0$ , this is a contradiction. Consequently we obtain  $\Psi(R) = S$ .

An integral domain  $R$  is called a local domain if  $R/J(R)$  is a division ring, where  $J(R)$  denotes the Jacobson radical of  $R$ . It is easy to see that a local domain  $R$  is generated by its units. Hence, by Corollary 4,  $R$  is strongly invariant in any skew polynomial ring  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$ . We give an example of a commutative local domain with a non-trivial automorphism  $\alpha$  and with a non-trivial  $\alpha$ -derivation.

*Example.* Let  $K[[x]]$  denote the ring of formal power series over a field  $K$ , and  $\alpha$  the automorphism of  $K[[x]]$  defined by  $\alpha(f(x)) = f(-x)$  for all  $f(x) \in K[[x]]$ . We define a map  $\delta : K[[x]] \rightarrow K[[x]]$  by

$$\delta \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^i \right) = - \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_{2i+1} x^{2i}.$$

We can easily see that  $\delta$  is an  $\alpha$ -derivation of  $K[[x]]$ . Since  $K[[x]]$  is a local domain, it is generated by its units. By Corollary 4,  $K[[x]]$  is strongly invariant in  $K[[x]][Y; \alpha, \delta]$ .

Recall that  $R$  is said to be *von Neumann regular* if, for each element  $a$  of  $R$ , there exists an element  $x$  of  $R$  such that  $a = axa$ . A reduced von Neumann regular ring is called a *strongly regular ring*. It is well-known that a von Neumann regular ring  $R$  is strongly regular if and only if every idempotent of  $R$  is central.

**Lemma 5.** *Let  $R$  be a ring, let  $\alpha$  be an automorphism of  $R$ , and let  $\delta$  be an  $\alpha$ -derivation of  $R$ . If  $R$  is  $\alpha$ -reduced, then  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  is reduced. In this case,  $\alpha(e) = e$  and  $\delta(e) = 0$  for any idempotent  $e \in R$ . Conversely, if  $R$  is a strongly regular ring and if  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  is reduced, then  $R$  is  $\alpha$ -reduced.*

PROOF. Let  $R$  be a  $\alpha$ -reduced ring. Suppose, on the contrary, that  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  is not reduced. Then there exists a nonzero element  $f \in R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  such that  $f^2 = 0$ . Since  $R$  is reduced,  $f \notin R$ . Let  $f = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i X^i$  with  $a_0, \dots, a_m (\neq 0) \in R$ . Since  $f^2 = 0$ , we have  $a_m \alpha^m(a_m) = 0$ . By Lemma 1(1) we obtain  $a_m^2 = 0$ , and hence  $a_m = 0$ , a contradiction. Therefore  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  is reduced. Note that every idempotent in a reduced ring is central (see [5, Lemma I.12.2, p. 40]). Let  $e$  be any idempotent in  $R$ . Then  $e$  is central in  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$ , and hence  $eX = Xe = \alpha(e)X + \delta(e)$ . This implies  $\alpha(e) = e$  and  $\delta(e) = 0$ . Next assume that  $R$  is a strongly regular ring. If  $R$  is not  $\alpha$ -reduced, then there exists a nonzero element  $r \in R$  such that  $r\alpha(r) = 0$ . Since  $R$  is strongly regular, there exists an element  $x \in R$  such that  $r^2x = r$  and  $rx = xr$ . If we set  $e = rx$ , then  $e$  is a nonzero central idempotent of  $R$  and  $e\alpha(e) = xr\alpha(r)\alpha(x) = 0$ . Let  $f = eXe - eX$ . Then  $f^2 = 0$ , but  $f = e(\alpha(e)X + \delta(e))e - eX = e\delta(e) - eX \neq 0$ . Therefore  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  is not reduced.

The following theorem generalizes [1, Theorem 3] and also improves [4, Theorem 4.5].

**Theorem 6.** *Let  $R$  be a strongly regular ring, let  $\alpha$  be an automorphism of  $R$ , and let  $\delta$  be an  $\alpha$ -derivation of  $R$ . Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- (1)  $R$  is strongly invariant in  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$ .
- (2)  $\Psi(R) = R$  for any automorphism  $\Psi$  of  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$ .
- (3)  $R$  is  $\alpha$ -reduced.

PROOF. (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2) is trivial.

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3). Suppose that  $R$  is not  $\alpha$ -reduced. Then, by the same way as in the proof of Lemma 5, we can find a nonzero central idempotent  $e$  of  $R$  such that  $e\alpha(e) = 0$  and  $f = eXe - eX = e\delta(e) - eX \neq 0$ . Let  $\Psi$  denote the automorphism of  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  defined by  $\Psi(a) = (1 + f)a(1 - f)$  for all  $a \in R[X; \alpha, \delta]$ . Then  $\Psi(e) = (1 + f)e(1 - f) = e - e\delta(e) + eX \notin R$ , and hence  $\Psi(R) \not\subseteq R$ .

(3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1). Since  $R$  is  $\alpha$ -reduced,  $R[X; \alpha, \delta]$  is reduced by Lemma 5. Let  $S$  be a ring with an automorphism  $\beta$  and a  $\beta$ -derivation  $\partial$  and assume that  $\Psi : R[X; \alpha, \delta] \rightarrow S[Y; \beta, \partial]$  is an isomorphism. Since  $S[Y; \beta, \partial]$  is reduced, [3, Theorem 3.15] implies that the set of all idempotents in  $S[Y; \beta, \partial]$  is contained in  $S$ . Let  $P$  be any prime ideal of  $R$ . Since  $R$  is strongly regular, for each  $a \in P$ ,  $Ra$  is generated by a central idempotent (cf. [5, Proposition I.12.3, p. 40]). Since  $P = \sum_{a \in P} Ra$ , there exists a set  $\{e_i \mid i \in I\}$  of central idempotents such that  $P = \sum_{i \in I} Re_i$ . By Lemma 5,  $\alpha(e_i) = e_i$  and  $\delta(e_i) = 0$  for each  $i \in I$ . Hence  $P$  is stable under  $\alpha$  and  $\delta$ . Similarly  $\sum_{i \in I} S\Psi(e_i)$  is stable under  $\beta$  and  $\partial$ . Since  $\Psi(P(R[X; \alpha, \delta])) = \Psi(\sum_{i \in I} e_i R[X; \alpha, \delta]) = \sum_{i \in I} \Psi(e_i)S[Y, \beta, \partial]$ ,  $\Psi$  induces an isomorphism  $\bar{\Psi} : (R/P)[X; \bar{\alpha}, \bar{\delta}] \rightarrow (S/\sum_{i \in I} S\Psi(e_i))[Y; \bar{\beta}, \bar{\partial}]$ , where  $\bar{\alpha}$ ,  $\bar{\delta}$ ,  $\bar{\beta}$  and  $\bar{\partial}$  are the maps induced by  $\alpha$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\partial$  respectively. Since  $R$  is strongly regular,  $R/P$  is a division ring. By Corollary 4 we obtain  $\bar{\Psi}(R/P) = S/\sum_{i \in I} S\Psi(e_i)$ , that is,  $S = \Psi(R) + \sum_{i \in I} S\Psi(e_i)$ . Hence we have  $\Psi(R) \subseteq S$ . We need to prove  $\Psi(R) = S$ . Suppose, on the contrary, that  $\Psi(R) \subsetneq S$ . Then  $\Psi^{-1}(S) \subsetneq R$ . Hence there is an element  $f(X) = a_n X^n + a_{n-1} X^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 X + a_0 \in \Psi^{-1}(S)$  with  $n > 0$  and some  $a_0, \dots, a_n (\neq 0) \in R$ . Recall that the prime radical  $N(R)$  of  $R$  is the intersection of all prime ideals of  $R$ . Since  $N(R)$  is a nil ideal by [5, Proposition XV.1.2, p. 283] and since  $R$  is reduced,  $N(R) = 0$ , that is, the intersection of all prime ideals of  $R$  is zero. Since  $a_n \neq 0$ , there exists a prime ideal  $Q$  of  $R$  such that  $a_n \notin Q$ . By a similar way as above, we can easily see that  $\Psi$  induces an

isomorphism  $\tilde{\Psi} : (R/Q)[X; \tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\delta}] \rightarrow (S/\Psi(P)S)[Y; \tilde{\beta}, \tilde{\partial}]$ , where  $\tilde{\alpha}$ ,  $\tilde{\delta}$ ,  $\tilde{\beta}$  and  $\tilde{\partial}$  are the maps induced by  $\alpha$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\partial$ , respectively. Since  $R$  is strongly regular,  $R/Q$  is a division ring, so that  $\tilde{\Psi}(R/Q) = S/\Psi(Q)S$  by Corollary 4. Therefore we have  $S = \Psi(R) + \Psi(Q)S$ . Hence  $\Psi(f(X)) \in S = \Psi(R) + \Psi(Q)S \subseteq \Psi(R + Q(R[X; \alpha, \delta]))$ . This implies  $f(X) \in R + Q(R[X; \alpha, \delta])$ , and hence  $a_n \in Q$ , a contradiction. Consequently we obtain  $\Psi(R) = S$ .

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