

## A CHARACTERIZATION OF THE JACOBSON RADICAL IN TERNARY ALGEBRAS

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**ABSTRACT.** The Jacobson radical  $\text{Rad } T$  for a ternary algebra  $T$  is characterized as one of the following: (i) the set of properly quasi-invertible elements in  $T$ ; (ii) the set of  $x \in T$  such that the principal right ideal  $\langle xTT \rangle$  or left ideal  $\langle TTx \rangle$  is quasi-regular in  $T$ ; (iii) the unique maximal quasi-regular ideal in  $T$ ; (iv) the set of  $x \in T$  such that  $\text{Rad } T^{(a)} = T^{(a)}$ . We also obtain ternary algebra-analogs of characterization of the radicals of certain subalgebras in an associative algebra.

**1. Introduction.** Let  $\Phi$  be a commutative ring with identity. A *ternary algebra* ( $\tau$ -algebra) over  $\Phi$  is defined as a unital  $\Phi$ -module  $T$  with a trilinear composition  $(x, y, z) \rightarrow \langle xyz \rangle$  satisfying

$$(1) \quad \langle \langle xyz \rangle uv \rangle = \langle x \langle yzu \rangle v \rangle = \langle xy \langle zuv \rangle \rangle.$$

In case  $\Phi = Z$ ,  $\tau$ -algebras are  $\tau$ -rings defined by Lister [1], who extensively studies ring-theoretic structures for  $\tau$ -rings, in particular, a module theory leading up to the Jacobson radical. Lister defines the Jacobson radical,  $R(T)$ , for a  $\tau$ -ring  $T$  to be the intersection of kernels of its irreducible modules and shows that  $R(T)$  is the intersection of all maximal modular ideals in  $T$  [1, Theorem 9]. Let  $T$  now be a  $\tau$ -algebra. For  $a \in T$ , we denote by  $T^{(a)}$  the algebra formed by setting

$$x \cdot_a y = \langle xay \rangle$$

on the module  $T$ . Then, by (1),  $T^{(a)}$  is an associative algebra. An element  $x \in T$  is called *properly quasi-invertible* (p.q.i.) in  $T$  if it is quasi-invertible (q.i.) in  $T^{(a)}$  for all  $a \in T$ .

**DEFINITION.** For a  $\tau$ -algebra  $T$ , the Jacobson radical,  $\text{Rad } T$ , of  $T$  is the set of all p.q.i. elements in  $T$ .

In this paper we establish  $\tau$ -algebra-analogs of characterization of the radical in associative or Jordan algebras. Specifically, we will show that  $\text{Rad } T$  is an ideal of  $T$  and coincides with the following: (i) the set of

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$x \in T$  such that  $\langle xTT \rangle$  (or  $\langle TTx \rangle$ ) is a quasi-regular right (or left) ideal in  $T$ ; (ii)  $\bigcap_{x \in T} \text{Rad } T^{(x)}$ ; (iii) the set of  $x \in T$  such that  $\text{Rad } T^{(x)} = T^{(x)}$ . As applications of this we obtain  $\tau$ -algebra-analogs of such results as Theorems 4, 6, and 7 given by McCrimmon in [3]. Also, the present radical  $\text{Rad } T$  coincides with  $R(T)$  if  $T$  is a  $\tau$ -ring of Lister.

$\tau$ -algebras have been called *associative triple systems of 1st kind* by Loos [2], who has obtained analogous results for *associative triple systems of 2nd kind*, defined by the rule

$$\langle\langle xyz \rangle uv \rangle = \langle x \langle uzy \rangle v \rangle = \langle xy \langle zuv \rangle \rangle.$$

The basic example of the 1st kind (or  $\tau$ -algebra) is a subspace of an associative algebra that is closed relative to  $\langle xyz \rangle \equiv xyz$ , while the basic example of the 2nd kind is a subspace of an associative algebra with involution, which is closed relative to  $\langle xyz \rangle \equiv x\bar{y}z$ . Setting  $P(x)y = \langle xyx \rangle$ , the 1st and 2nd kinds together with the quadratic mapping  $P$  become Jordan triple systems (JTS) introduced by K. Meyberg [4]. Some of our present results have been proved for JTS in [4] where its proofs use complicated identities.

**2. Preliminaries.** Throughout we assume  $T$  denotes a  $\tau$ -algebra over  $\Phi$ . Any  $\tau$ -algebra  $T$  can be imbedded into an associative algebra  $A = T + T^2$  regarded as a  $\tau$ -algebra [1, p. 39]. Then  $A$  is called an *enveloping algebra* of  $T$  and if  $A = T \oplus T^2$ , the imbedding is called *direct*. A  $\tau$ -algebra always possesses a direct enveloping algebra [1, p. 38]. If  $A = T + T^2$  and  $a \in A$ , we also denote by  $A^{(a)}$  the *a-homotope* of  $A$ . Thus if  $a \in T$ ,  $T^{(a)}$  is a subalgebra of  $A^{(a)}$ . Recall  $x \in A$  is q.i. in  $A$  if  $x + y = xy = yx$  for some  $y \in A$ .

For  $x, y \in T$  we introduce the useful operator

$$B(x, y) \equiv \text{Id} - L(x, y): z \mapsto \langle xyz \rangle$$

for  $z \in T$ . Then we directly see from (1) the following:

$$(2) \quad B(\langle xyz \rangle, u) = B(x, \langle yzu \rangle),$$

$$(3) \quad B(x, y)B(x, -y) = B(x, \langle yxy \rangle).$$

If  $x, y \in T$  and  $y$  is a quasi-inverse of  $x$  in  $T^{(u)}$ , then  $x + y = \langle xy \rangle$  and for all  $z \in T$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} B(x, u)B(-y, z)v &= v + \langle yzv \rangle - \langle xuv \rangle - \langle xu \langle yzv \rangle \rangle \\ &= v + \langle yzv \rangle - \langle xuv \rangle - \langle (x + y)zv \rangle \quad (\text{by (1)}) \\ &= B(x, u + z)v. \end{aligned}$$

Hence we have the Addition Formula: if  $x, y \in T$  are quasi-inverses in  $T^{(u)}$ ,  $B(x, u)B(-y, z) = B(x, u + z)$  for all  $z \in T$ .

LEMMA 1. If  $A = T \oplus T^2$ , then, for  $a, x \in T$ , the following are equivalent:

- (i)  $x$  is q.i. in  $T^{(a)}$ ;
- (i')  $a$  is q.i. in  $T^{(x)}$ ;
- (ii)  $x$  is q.i. in  $A^{(a)}$ ;
- (ii')  $a$  is q.i. in  $A^{(x)}$ ;
- (iii)  $xa$  is q.i. in  $A$ ;
- (iii')  $ax$  is q.i. in  $A$ ;
- (iv)  $B(x, a)$  is bijective on  $T$ ;
- (iv')  $B(a, x)$  is bijective on  $T$ .

PROOF. That (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) is obvious, and that (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) is a result of McCrimmon [3, Proposition 1]. (iii) $\Rightarrow$ (iv): since  $xa$  is q.i. in  $A$ , the left multiplication  $L(1-xa)$  in  $A$  is invertible on  $A$  (if  $A$  does not contain 1, adjoin an identity to  $A$ ). Then  $T$  and  $T^2$  are invariant under  $L(1-xa)$ , and  $B(x, a)$  is the restriction of  $L(1-xa)$  to  $T$ . Noting that an element in  $T^2$  is q.i. in  $T^2$  if and only if it is q.i. in  $A$  since the imbedding is direct, we have that  $B(x, a)$  is still invertible on  $T$ . (iv) $\Rightarrow$ (i): by surjectivity  $B(x, a)y = -x$  for some  $y \in T$ , i.e.,  $x + y = \langle yax \rangle$ . But

$$\begin{aligned} B(x, a)\langle yax \rangle &= \langle yax \rangle - \langle xa\langle yax \rangle \rangle = \langle yax \rangle - \langle \langle xay \rangle ax \rangle \\ &= \langle yax \rangle - \langle ax \rangle - \langle yax \rangle = -\langle ax \rangle \\ &= x + y - \langle xa(x + y) \rangle = B(x, a)(x + y) \end{aligned}$$

and so  $x + y = \langle yax \rangle$  too since  $B(x, a)$  is injective. By symmetry we prove that (i') $\Leftrightarrow$ (ii') $\Leftrightarrow$ (iii') $\Leftrightarrow$ (iv'). But that (iii) $\Leftrightarrow$ (iii') is well known for associative algebras, and the proof is complete.

By symmetry in Lemma 1 in  $x$  and  $a$ , we have a Symmetry Principle for  $T$ :

$$x \text{ is q.i. in } T^{(y)} \text{ if and only if } y \text{ is q.i. in } T^{(x)}.$$

From this we get a Shifting Principle for  $T$ :

$$x \text{ is q.i. in } T^{(\langle yzu \rangle)} \text{ if and only if } u \text{ is q.i. in } T^{(\langle xyz \rangle)},$$

since, by Lemma 1,  $x$  is q.i. in  $T^{(\langle yzu \rangle)}$  if and only if  $B(x, \langle yzu \rangle) = B(\langle xyz \rangle, u)$  (by (2)) is bijective if and only if  $u$  is q.i. in  $T^{(\langle xyz \rangle)}$ . Hence we obtain the Shifting Theorem for  $T$ :

THEOREM 1. The following conditions for  $x, y, z, u$  in a  $\tau$ -algebra  $T$  are equivalent:

- (i)  $x$  is q.i. in  $T^{(\langle yzu \rangle)}$ ;
- (ii)  $u$  is q.i. in  $T^{(\langle xyz \rangle)}$ ;
- (iii)  $y$  is q.i. in  $T^{(\langle zux \rangle)}$ ;
- (iv)  $z$  is q.i. in  $T^{(\langle uxy \rangle)}$ .

In view of the equivalence of (i), (ii), and (iii') in Lemma 1 we can state

LEMMA 2. *If  $A = T \oplus T^2$ , then  $x \in T$  is p.q.i. in  $T$  if and only if  $xa$  and  $ax$  are q.i. in  $T^2$  (or in  $A$ ) for all  $a \in T$ .*

3. **Characterization of the radical.** A subspace  $V$  of  $T$  is called a *right ideal* of  $T$  in case  $\langle VTT \rangle \subseteq V$ , a *left ideal* in case  $\langle TTV \rangle \subseteq V$ , a *medial ideal* in case  $\langle TVT \rangle \subseteq V$ , and  $V$  is called an *ideal* in  $T$  if it is right, left, and medial. Thus a right (left) ideal  $V$  in  $T$  is a right (left) ideal in all  $T^{(w)}$ . A right ideal  $V$  of  $T$  is called (right) *quasi-regular* (q.r.) [1, p. 45] if  $B(v, x)T = T$  for all  $v \in V$  and all  $x \in T$ , and a q.r. left ideal is similarly defined. Noting that  $V$  is (right) q.r. in all  $T^{(w)}$ , this condition is equivalent to that every  $v \in V$  is p.q.i. in  $T$ .

THEOREM 2. *For a  $\tau$ -algebra  $T$ , the radical  $\text{Rad } T$  is an ideal of  $T$ .*

PROOF. Let  $x \in T$  be p.q.i. in  $T$ . Then  $\alpha x$  is p.q.i. for  $\alpha \in \Phi$  since all  $B(\alpha x, y) = B(x, \alpha y)$  are bijective. Now,  $\langle xyz \rangle$  are p.q.i. for all  $y, z \in T$  since  $B(\langle xyz \rangle, u) = B(x, \langle yzu \rangle)$ , and all  $\langle yxz \rangle$  are p.q.i. since all  $B(y, \langle xzu \rangle)$  are bijective (Symmetry) and so are all  $B(u, \langle yxz \rangle)$  (Shifting). From this, using Symmetry and Shifting Principles, we also see that all  $\langle yzx \rangle$  are p.q.i. in  $T$ . Finally, let  $z, u$  be p.q.i. in  $T$  and let  $x \in T$ . By Symmetry  $x$  is q.i. in  $T^{(u)}$ , and if  $y$  is the quasi-inverse of  $x$  in  $T^{(u)}$  then by the Addition Formula  $B(x, u)B(-y, z) = B(x, u+z)$ . Since  $B(x, u)$  and  $B(-y, z)$  are bijective so is  $B(x, u+z)$  for all  $x \in T$ . Thus the set of all p.q.i. elements in  $T$  forms an ideal of  $T$ .

LEMMA 3. *If  $A = T \oplus T^2$ , the following are equivalent:*

- (i)  $x \in T$  is p.q.i. in  $T$ ;
- (ii)  $xT$  is a q.r. right ideal in  $T^2$ ;
- (ii')  $Tx$  is a q.r. left ideal in  $T^2$ ;
- (iii) the principal right ideal  $\langle xTT \rangle$  is q.r. in  $T$ ;
- (iii') the principal left ideal  $\langle TTx \rangle$  is q.r. in  $T$ .

PROOF. (i) $\Leftrightarrow$ (ii). This follows from Lemma 2. (i) $\Leftrightarrow$ (iii). If  $x$  is p.q.i. in  $T$ , all  $B(x, \langle yzu \rangle) = B(\langle xyz \rangle, u)$  are bijective and so by Theorem 2 all elements in  $\langle xTT \rangle$  are p.q.i., i.e.,  $\langle xTT \rangle$  is q.r. in  $T$ . Conversely, if  $\langle xTT \rangle$  is q.r. in  $T$ , all  $B(\langle xyz \rangle, u) = B(x, \langle yzu \rangle)$  are bijective. Then by (3) all  $B(x, t)B(x, -t)$  and  $B(x, -t)B(x, t)$  are bijective, so all  $B(x, t)$  are too. Since (i) is left-right symmetric, we get (i) $\Leftrightarrow$ (ii') $\Leftrightarrow$ (iii'), and the proof is complete.

In view of Theorem 2 and Lemma 3(i), (iii), (iii'), we have the following analogous result of associative algebras (also see [1]):

COROLLARY 1. *Rad  $T$  is a q.r. ideal in  $T$  and contains all q.r. right ideals and q.r. left ideals in  $T$ . Hence  $\text{Rad } T$  is the unique maximal q.r. ideal in  $T$ .*

REMARK. In case  $T$  is a  $\tau$ -ring, this corollary has been proved for the radical  $R(T)$  at characteristic  $\neq 2$  by Lister [1, Theorem 10]. Hence  $\text{Rad } T$  coincides with the radical  $R(T)$  defined by Lister.

COROLLARY 2. *If  $A = T \oplus T^2$ , then*

$$\text{Rad } T = \{x \in T \mid xT \subseteq \text{Rad } T^2\}.$$

PROOF. This follows from Lemma 3 and the well-known fact for associative algebras.

THEOREM 3. *For a  $\tau$ -algebra  $T$ , we have*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Rad } T &= \{x \in T \mid \langle xTT \rangle \text{ or } \langle TTx \rangle \text{ is q.r. in } T\} \\ &= \{x \in T \mid \text{Rad } T^{(x)} = T^{(x)}\} \\ &= \bigcap_{a \in T} \text{Rad } T^{(a)}. \end{aligned}$$

PROOF.  $\text{Rad } T$  equals the first set by Lemma 3(i), (iii), (iii'). If  $x \in \text{Rad } T$ ,  $x$  is q.i. in all  $T^{\langle zzz \rangle}$  and by Symmetry all  $\langle zxz \rangle$  are q.i. in  $T^{(x)}$ ; so are all  $z$  in  $T^{(x)}$  since  $\langle zxz \rangle = z^2$  in  $T^{(x)}$ . Hence  $\text{Rad } T^{(x)} = T^{(x)}$ . Conversely, if  $\text{Rad } T^{(x)} = T^{(x)}$ , all  $y$  are q.i. in  $T^{(x)}$  and by Symmetry  $x$  is p.q.i. in  $T$ , i.e.,  $x \in \text{Rad } T$ . Thus  $\text{Rad } T$  equals the second set. If  $x \in \bigcap \text{Rad } T^{(a)}$ ,  $x$  is q.i. in all  $T^{(a)}$  and is p.q.i. in  $T$ , while if  $x$  is p.q.i. in  $T$ , so is  $x$  in all  $T^{(a)}$  since the  $y$ -homotope of  $T^{(a)}$  is  $T^{\langle aya \rangle}$ . Hence  $\text{Rad } T = \bigcap \text{Rad } T^{(a)}$ . This completes the proof.

4. **Applications.** In this section we use the previous results to characterize the radicals of certain  $\tau$ -subalgebras of  $T$ . A left (or right, or left-right) ideal  $V$  of  $T$  is also a left (or right, or two-sided) ideal in all  $T^{(x)}$ , and  $V^{(a)}$  for every  $a \in T$  is a left, right, or two-sided ideal of  $T^{(a)}$ , according as  $V$  is left, right, or left-right. Hence, in any case,  $V$  is a strict inner ideal in all  $T^{(x)}$  and  $V^{(a)}$  is strictly inner in  $T^{(a)}$ . We now recall that if  $K$  is a strict inner ideal of an alternative algebra  $B$  and  $x \in K$  is q.i. in  $B$ , then  $x$  is q.i. in  $K$  [3, p. 571]. If  $U$  is an ideal in a  $\tau$ -ring  $T$ , Lister [1, p. 46] proves that  $R(U) = U \cap R(T)$ . We extend this to left-medial (or medial-right) ideals in a  $\tau$ -algebra  $T$  and give another proof of this as well.

THEOREM 4. *If  $V$  is a left-medial (or medial-right) ideal in  $T$ , then  $\text{Rad } V = V \cap \text{Rad } T$ .*

PROOF. We proceed as in [3, Theorem 3]. If  $x \in V \cap \text{Rad } T$ ,  $x$  is q.i. in all  $T^{(a)}$  and so q.i. in all  $V^{(a)}$  since  $V^{(a)}$  is a left ideal in  $T^{(a)}$ . Hence  $x$  is p.q.i. in  $V$  and so  $x \in \text{Rad } V$ . Conversely, if  $x \in \text{Rad } V$ ,  $x$  is q.i. in  $V^{\langle axa \rangle}$  (so in  $T^{\langle axa \rangle}$ ) for all  $a \in T$  since  $V$  is medial. Hence, by Symmetry, each  $\langle axa \rangle$ , which is the square of  $a$  in  $T^{(x)}$ , is q.i. in  $T^{(x)}$ . Thus all  $a$  are q.i. in  $T^{(x)}$  and by Symmetry  $x \in \text{Rad } T$ .

For left or right ideals of  $T$ , we obtain a result similar to [3, Theorem 4]:

**THEOREM 5.** *If  $V$  is a left ideal in  $T$ , then*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Rad } V &= \{z \in V \mid \langle VVz \rangle \subseteq \text{Rad } T\} \\ &= \{z \in V \mid \langle TVz \rangle \subseteq \text{Rad } T\}. \end{aligned}$$

**PROOF.** We only prove the second equality and the other case is entirely similar. Let  $z \in V$  be such that  $\langle TVz \rangle \subseteq \text{Rad } T$ . Then every  $x \in \langle TVz \rangle$  ( $\subseteq V$ ) is q.i. in all  $T^{(a)}$  and since  $V^{(a)}$  is a left ideal of  $T^{(a)}$ ,  $x$  is q.i. in all  $V^{(a)}$ , so in particular  $\langle VVz \rangle$  is a q.r. left ideal of  $V$ . Hence by Lemma 3,  $z \in \text{Rad } V$ . Conversely, if  $z \in \text{Rad } V$ , let  $a$  be any element of  $V$ . Then  $z$  is q.i. in  $V^{\langle xya \rangle}$  (so in  $T^{\langle xya \rangle}$ ) for all  $x, y \in T$ , and so, shifting, all  $x$  are q.i. in  $T^{\langle yaz \rangle}$ . Hence by Symmetry  $\langle yaz \rangle$  is q.i. in all  $T^{(a)}$  and  $\langle yaz \rangle \in \text{Rad } T$ . Thus  $\langle TVz \rangle \subseteq \text{Rad } T$ .

As usual, a subspace  $V$  of  $T$  is called an *inner ideal* of  $T$  if  $\langle aTa \rangle \subseteq V$  for all  $a \in V$ . Thus all left, right ideals and the subspaces  $\langle xTx \rangle$  are inner ideals in  $T$ . Furthermore, if  $V$  is an inner ideal in  $T$  then  $V^{(a)}$  is a strict inner ideal in  $T^{(a)}$  for all  $a \in T$  since  $\langle vav \rangle = v^2$  in  $V^{(a)}$  for  $v \in V$ . The following characterization of the radical is applied for all these examples.

**THEOREM 6.** *If  $V$  is an inner ideal in  $T$ , then*

$$\text{Rad } V = \{z \in V \mid \langle aza \rangle \in \text{Rad } T \text{ for all } a \in V\}.$$

**PROOF.** If  $z \in V$  and  $\langle aza \rangle \in \text{Rad } T$  for all  $a \in V$ ,  $\langle aza \rangle \in V$  is q.i. in all  $T^{(z)}$  and so is q.i. in all  $V^{(z)}$  since  $V^{(z)}$  is strictly inner in  $T^{(z)}$ . In particular, all  $\langle aza \rangle$  are q.i. in  $V^{(z)}$ , but  $\langle aza \rangle = a^2$  in  $V^{(z)}$  and so all  $a$  are q.i. in  $V^{(z)}$  (again recall  $V^{(z)}$  is strictly inner in  $T^{(z)}$ ). Thus by Symmetry  $z \in \text{Rad } V$ . The converse is the same as in [3, Theorem 7].

An element  $e \in T$  is called an *idempotent* if  $\langle eee \rangle = e^3 = e$ . If  $z \in \text{Rad } \langle eTe \rangle$  then  $z = \langle exe \rangle$  for some  $x \in T$  and so  $z = \langle e(eze)e \rangle \in \text{Rad } T$  by Theorem 6. Hence we obtain

**COROLLARY.** *If  $e$  is an idempotent in  $T$ , then*

$$\text{Rad } \langle eTe \rangle = \langle eTe \rangle \cap \text{Rad } T.$$

**5. Relations with Jordan triple systems.** For a  $\tau$ -algebra  $T$ , let  $T_J$  denote the JTS formed from  $T$  by setting  $P(a)x = \langle axa \rangle$ . From  $T^{(a)}$ , we also form a quadratic Jordan algebra  $T^{(a)+}$  by setting  $P_a(x) = P(x)P(a)$  and  $x^{2(a)} = P(a)x$ , and it is well known that  $\text{Rad } T^{(a)} = \text{Rad } T^{(a)+}$ . Thus, in view of Theorem 3 and [4], we have

**THEOREM 7.** *For a  $\tau$ -algebra  $T$ ,  $\text{Rad } T = \text{Rad } T_J$ .*

As usual,  $a \in T$  is called *von Neumann regular* if  $a = \langle axa \rangle$  for some  $x \in T$ , and  $b \in T$  is called *trivial* if  $\langle bTb \rangle = 0$ . While one-sided ideals or ideals in  $T$  are different from those in  $T_J$ ,  $T$  and  $T_J$  have the same inner ideals, idempotents, trivial elements, and von Neumann regularity. Hence, from Theorem 7 and the known result [4] for a JTS, we can state

**THEOREM 8.** *If  $T$  is a  $\tau$ -algebra satisfying the d.c.c. on inner ideals, then the following are equivalent:*

- (i)  $T$  is semisimple;
- (ii)  $T$  is von Neumann regular;
- (iii)  $T$  contains no nonzero trivial elements.

A proof of this for a JTS uses complicated identities [4], but some parts of the proof for  $T$  are considerably shorter. For example, to show that if  $a \in T$  is trivial then  $a \in \text{Rad } T$ , we simply observe that every element of  $\langle aTT \rangle$  is trivial and so  $\langle aTT \rangle$  is q.r. in  $T$ . Next, to see that if  $T$  is von Neumann regular then it is semisimple, let  $z \in \text{Rad } T$ . Then  $z = \langle zaz \rangle$  for some  $a$ , so  $B(z, a)z = 0$ ; but since  $B(z, a)$  is invertible,  $z = 0$ .

Finally, let  $B$  be an associative algebra. Then  $B$  becomes a  $\tau$ -algebra on iteration of its product, which we denote by  $B_*$ . Let  $B^+$  and  $B_J$ , respectively, denote the quadratic Jordan algebra and the JTS formed from  $B$  in the usual manner. Then from Theorems 3 and 7 we obtain

**THEOREM 9.** *If  $B$  is an associative algebra, then*

$$\text{Rad } B = \text{Rad } B^+ = \text{Rad } B_* = \text{Rad } B_J.$$

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