HEREDITARY RADICALS IN JORDAN RINGS

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ABSTRACT. The object of this paper is to examine some radical properties of quadratic Jordan algebras and to show that under certain conditions, $R(\mathfrak{B}) = \mathfrak{B} \cap R(\mathfrak{J})$ where $\mathfrak{B}$ is an ideal of a quadratic Jordan algebra $\mathfrak{J}$, $R(\mathfrak{B})$ is the radical of $\mathfrak{B}$, and $R(\mathfrak{J})$ is the radical of $\mathfrak{J}$.

1. Preliminaries. We adopt the notation and terminology of an earlier paper [2] concerning quadratic Jordan algebras (defined by the quadratic operators U_x) as opposed to linear Jordan algebras (defined by the linear operators L_x). Thus we have a product $U_x y$ linear in y and quadratic in x satisfying the following axioms as well as their linearizations:

(UQJ I) $U_1 = I$ (I the unit);

(UQJ II) $U_{U(x)y} = U_x U_y U_x$;

(UQJ III) $U_x V_{y,x} = V_{x,y} U_x$ ($V_{x,y} z = \{x, y, z\} = U_{x,z} y$).

Throughout this paper $\mathfrak{J}$ will denote a quadratic Jordan algebra over an arbitrary ring of scalars Φ .

Define a property R of a class of rings (e.g. associative rings or Jordan rings) to be a *radical property* if it satisfies the following three conditions [1]:

(a) Every homomorphic image of an R ring is again an R ring.

(b) Every ring $\mathfrak{J}$ contains an R ideal $R(\mathfrak{J})$ which contains every other R ideal of $\mathfrak{J}$. The maximal R ideal $R(\mathfrak{J})$ is called the *R radical* of $\mathfrak{J}$.

(c) For $\mathfrak{B}$ an ideal of $\mathfrak{J}$, if $\mathfrak{B}$ and $\mathfrak{J}/\mathfrak{B}$ are R rings, then so is $\mathfrak{J}$.

An immediate consequence of this definition is $R(\mathfrak{B}/R(\mathfrak{B})) = 0$. If $R(\mathfrak{B}) = 0$, $\mathfrak{B}$ is said to be *R semisimple*.

Many well-known radical properties, but not all, satisfy a further condition:

(d) Every ideal of an R ring is again an R ring (i.e. property R is inherited by ideals of an R ring).

If a radical property satisfies condition (d) that property is called *hereditary*.

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In this paper we shall consider all radical properties R of $\mathfrak{J}$ such that if $\mathfrak{J}$ contains no R ideals then $\mathfrak{J}$ contains no absolute zero divisors (where $z \in \mathfrak{J}$ is an absolute zero divisor if $U_z = 0$). Henceforth such radical properties will be called *radical properties of type A*.

Two of the more prominent radical properties are quasi-invertibility and nil: An element z belonging to a Jordan algebra $\mathfrak{J}$ is *quasi-invertible* (q.i.) with quasi-inverse $w \in \mathfrak{J}$ if $1 - z$ is invertible with inverse $1 - w$ in $\Phi 1 \oplus \mathfrak{J}$. A subset is called quasi-invertible if all of its elements are quasi-invertible in $\mathfrak{J}$. The maximal quasi-invertible ideal of an algebra is usually called the *Jacobson radical* and plays an important role in the structure theory. If we define an element $z \in \mathfrak{J}$ to be nilpotent if $z^n = 0$ for some n (here powers of an element are defined recursively by $z^0 = 1$, $z^1 = z$, $z^{n+2} = U_z z^n$), then a *nil ideal* is one all of whose elements are nilpotent. There is a unique maximal nil ideal containing all other nil ideals and this is called the nil radical. In [3] McCrimmon shows that nil and quasi-invertibility are radical properties of type A.

A lesser known radical property is that of antiprime: An algebra $\mathfrak{J}$ is *strongly semiprime* if it contains no absolute zero divisors. An algebra $\mathfrak{J}$ is an *antiprime algebra* (henceforth called a P -algebra) if no nonzero homomorphic image of $\mathfrak{J}$ is strongly semiprime (i.e. every homomorphic image of $\mathfrak{J}$ contains an absolute zero divisor).

PROPOSITION. P is a radical property.

PROOF. (a) Every homomorphic image $\rho(\mathfrak{J})$ of a P -algebra $\mathfrak{J}$ is again a P -algebra for if not, then for some homomorphism δ , $\delta(\rho(\mathfrak{J})) = \delta\rho(\mathfrak{J})$ is strongly semiprime and nonzero.

(b) For $\mathfrak{B}$ an ideal of $\mathfrak{J}$ and for $\mathfrak{B}$ and $\mathfrak{J}/\mathfrak{B}$ P -algebra, $\mathfrak{J}$ is also a P -algebra for if not, then some nonzero homomorphic image $\mathfrak{J}/\mathfrak{R}$ ($\mathfrak{R} \subset \mathfrak{J}$) is strongly semiprime.

Case 1. If $\mathfrak{B} \subset \mathfrak{R}$, then $\mathfrak{J}/\mathfrak{R}$ is a strongly semiprime nonzero homomorphic image (projection) of $\mathfrak{J}/\mathfrak{B}$ which is assumed to be a P -algebra, a contradiction.

Case 2. If $\mathfrak{B} \not\subset \mathfrak{R}$, $\mathfrak{B}/(\mathfrak{B} \cap \mathfrak{R})$ is a nonzero homomorphic image of the P -algebra $\mathfrak{B}$. So there is an element $x \in \mathfrak{B}$, $x \notin \mathfrak{R}$, such that $U_x \mathfrak{B} \subset \mathfrak{R}$. If $U_x \mathfrak{J} \subset \mathfrak{R}$, then x ($\notin \mathfrak{R}$) is a nonzero absolute zero divisor in $\mathfrak{J}/\mathfrak{R}$ which is assumed to be strongly semiprime: contradiction. If $U_x \mathfrak{J} \not\subset \mathfrak{R}$, examine $U_{U(x)j} \mathfrak{J}$ (where $U_x j \notin \mathfrak{R}$). $U_{U(x)j} \mathfrak{J} = U_x U_j U_x \mathfrak{J} \subset U_x U_j \mathfrak{B} \subset U_x \mathfrak{B} \subset \mathfrak{R}$. So $U_x j$ is a nonzero absolute zero divisor of $\mathfrak{J}/\mathfrak{R}$, a contradiction. Hence $\mathfrak{J}$ must be a P -algebra.

(c) Every P -algebra $\mathfrak{J}$ contains a P -ideal $\mathfrak{R}$ which contains every other P -ideal of $\mathfrak{J}$: Let $\mathfrak{R} = \sum \mathfrak{B}_\alpha$ be the sum of all the P -ideals of $\mathfrak{J}$. We claim

$\mathfrak{R}$ is a P -ideal, for take any nonzero homomorphic image $\rho(\mathfrak{R})$ of $\mathfrak{R}$: $\rho(\mathfrak{R}) = \sum \rho(\mathfrak{B}_\alpha)$. We must find an absolute zero divisor in $\rho(\mathfrak{R})$. Since $\rho(\mathfrak{R}) \neq 0$, $\rho(\mathfrak{B}_\alpha) \neq 0$ for some α ; and since $\mathfrak{B}_\alpha$ is a P -ideal, there exists a nonzero element $z \in \rho(\mathfrak{B}_\alpha)$ such that $U_z \rho(\mathfrak{B}_\alpha) = 0$. If $U_z \rho(\mathfrak{R}) = 0$, z is an absolute zero divisor in $\rho(\mathfrak{R})$. So assume $U_z \rho(\mathfrak{R}) \neq 0$ and examine $U_x \rho(\mathfrak{R})$ ($x = U_z y$, $y \in \rho(\mathfrak{R})$, $x \neq 0$). $U_x \rho(\mathfrak{R}) = U_z U_y U_z \rho(\mathfrak{R}) \in U_z \rho(\mathfrak{B}_\alpha) = 0$. Hence x is an absolute zero divisor of $\rho(\mathfrak{R})$. $\mathfrak{R}$ is therefore a P -algebra.

It is easy to see that P is a radical property of type A because the ideal spanned by all absolute zero divisors is clearly a P -ideal.

In the case of associative algebras one has the following theorem: For $\mathfrak{R}$ an ideal of an associative algebra $\mathfrak{A}$, $R(\mathfrak{R}) = \mathfrak{R} \cap R(\mathfrak{A})$ where R is the Jacobson radical. In [4] McCrimmon proves this theorem for quadratic Jordan algebras. We now prove this theorem for all hereditary radical properties of type A.

2. The proof.

LEMMA. For $\mathfrak{B}$ an ideal of a quadratic Jordan algebra $\mathfrak{J}$, for any radical property R of type A, and for $x \in \mathfrak{B}$, $U_x \mathfrak{B} \subset R(\mathfrak{B}) \Rightarrow x \in R(\mathfrak{B})$.

PROOF. $U_x \mathfrak{B} \subset R(\mathfrak{B})$ implies $U_{\bar{x}}(\mathfrak{B}/R(\mathfrak{B})) = 0$, i.e., $\bar{x}$ is an absolute zero divisor of $\bar{\mathfrak{B}} = \mathfrak{B}/R(\mathfrak{B})$. But since R is a radical property of type A, $R(\mathfrak{B}/R(\mathfrak{B})) = 0$ implies $\mathfrak{B}/R(\mathfrak{B})$ contains no nonzero absolute zero divisors. Hence $\bar{x} = \bar{0}$ or $x \in R(\mathfrak{B})$.

THEOREM 1. For $\mathfrak{B}$ an ideal of a quadratic Jordan algebra $\mathfrak{J}$, and for R any radical property of type A, $R(\mathfrak{B}) \subset \mathfrak{B} \cap R(\mathfrak{J})$.

PROOF. Since $R(\mathfrak{B}) \subset \mathfrak{B}$, it is sufficient to show that $R(\mathfrak{B})$ is an R ideal of $\mathfrak{J}$ and therefore $R(\mathfrak{B}) \subset R(\mathfrak{J})$. That is, we must show

- (1) $U_{R(\mathfrak{B})} \mathfrak{J} \subset R(\mathfrak{B})$,
- (2) $U_{\mathfrak{J}} R(\mathfrak{B}) \subset R(\mathfrak{B})$.

Note. We may as well assume that $\mathfrak{J}$ is unital since any quadratic Jordan algebra $\mathfrak{J}$ can be imbedded in a unital quadratic Jordan algebra $\mathfrak{J}' = \Phi 1 \oplus \mathfrak{J}$, and any ideal in $\mathfrak{J}$ will be an ideal in $\mathfrak{J}'$. To prove (1), let $z \in U_{R(\mathfrak{B})} \mathfrak{J}$, i.e., let z be a finite linear combination of elements of the form $U_{x_i} y_i$ where $x_i \in R(\mathfrak{B})$ and $y_i \in \mathfrak{J}$. In view of our lemma, since $z \in \mathfrak{B}$ it is sufficient to prove $U_z \mathfrak{B} \subset R(\mathfrak{B})$. Also since $U_z = U_{\sum U_{(x_i) y_i}} = \sum U_{U_{(x_i) y_i}} + \sum_{i < j} U_{U_{(x_i) y_i} \cdot U_{(x_j) y_j}}$, it is now clear that we will be done if $U_{U_{(x) y}} \mathfrak{B} \subset R(\mathfrak{B})$ for $x \in R(\mathfrak{B})$ and $y \in \mathfrak{J}$; for then $U_{U_{(x_i) y_i}} \mathfrak{B} \subset R(\mathfrak{B})$ implies $U_{x_i y_i} \in R(\mathfrak{B})$ which in turn implies $U_{U_{(x_i) y_i} \cdot U_{(x_j) y_j}} \mathfrak{B} \subset R(\mathfrak{B})$. But $U_{U_{(x) y}} \mathfrak{B} = U_x U_y U_x \mathfrak{B} \subset U_x U_y R(\mathfrak{B})$ (since $R(\mathfrak{B})$ is an ideal of $\mathfrak{B}$) $\subset U_x \mathfrak{B} \subset R(\mathfrak{B})$.

To prove (2) we now let $z \in U_{\mathfrak{J}} R(\mathfrak{B})$, i.e., let z be a finite linear combination of elements of the form $U_{x_i} y_i$ where $x_i \in \mathfrak{J}$ and $y_i \in R(\mathfrak{B})$. Again

we are done if $U_{U(x)y}\mathfrak{B} \subset R(\mathfrak{B})$ for $x \in \mathfrak{J}$ and $y \in R(\mathfrak{B})$. By repeated application of the lemma it is sufficient to show $U_p\mathfrak{B} \subset R(\mathfrak{B})$ for $p = U_q b'$, $q = U_r b$, $r = U_x y$ where now $x \in \mathfrak{J}$, $y \in R(\mathfrak{B})$, b and b' are arbitrary elements of $\mathfrak{B}$. But

$$\begin{aligned} U_p\mathfrak{B} &= U_{U(q)b'}\mathfrak{B} = U_q U_{b'} U_q \mathfrak{B} = U_{U(r)b} U_{b'} U_{U(r)b} \mathfrak{B} \\ &= U_r U_b U_r U_{b'} U_r U_b U_r \mathfrak{B} = U_{U(x)y} U_b U_{U(x)y} U_{b'} U_{U(x)y} U_b U_{U(x)y} \mathfrak{B} \\ &= (U_x U_y U_x)(U_b U_x U_y)(U_x U_{b'} U_x)(U_y U_x U_b U_x U_y U_x) \mathfrak{B} \quad (\text{by UQJ III}). \end{aligned}$$

So

$$\begin{aligned} U_p\mathfrak{B} &\subset (U_{U(x)y})(U_b U_x U_y)(U_{U(x)b'}) U_y \mathfrak{B} \quad (\text{since } \mathfrak{B} \text{ is an ideal of } \mathfrak{J}) \\ &\subset (U_{\mathfrak{B}})(U_b U_x U_y)(U_{\mathfrak{B}}) R(\mathfrak{B}) \quad (\text{since } y \in R(\mathfrak{B}), \text{ an ideal of } \mathfrak{B}) \\ &\subset (U_{\mathfrak{B}})(U_b U_x U_y) R(\mathfrak{B}) \\ &\subset U_{\mathfrak{B}}(U_{U(b,y)x} + U_{U(b)x, U(y)x} - U_y U_x U_b - U_{b,y} U_x U_{b,y}) R(\mathfrak{B}) \\ &\quad (\text{by a linearization of UQJ III}) \\ &\subset U_{\mathfrak{B}}(U_{\mathfrak{B}} + U_{\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{B}} - U_{R(\mathfrak{B})} U_{\mathfrak{J}} U_{(\mathfrak{B})} - U_{\mathfrak{B}, R(\mathfrak{B})} U_{\mathfrak{J}} U_{R(\mathfrak{B})}) R(\mathfrak{B}) \\ &\subset U_{\mathfrak{B}} R(\mathfrak{B}) \subset R(\mathfrak{B}). \end{aligned}$$

THEOREM 2. *If R is any hereditary radical property of type A in a quadratic Jordan algebra $\mathfrak{J}$ and if $\mathfrak{B}$ is an ideal of $\mathfrak{J}$, then $R(\mathfrak{B}) = \mathfrak{B} \cap R(\mathfrak{J})$.*

PROOF. By Theorem 1 it is sufficient to show $R(\mathfrak{B}) \supset \mathfrak{B} \cap R(\mathfrak{J})$. But since R is a hereditary radical property, any ideal of an R ring is again an R ring. In particular, $\mathfrak{B} \cap R(\mathfrak{J})$ is an ideal of $R(\mathfrak{J})$ and is therefore an R ring and an ideal in $\mathfrak{B}$. Therefore $\mathfrak{B} \cap R(\mathfrak{J}) \subset R(\mathfrak{B})$.

COROLLARY. *For R nil or quasi-invertible, and for $\mathfrak{B}$ an ideal of $\mathfrak{J}$, $R(\mathfrak{B}) = \mathfrak{B} \cap R(\mathfrak{J})$. So, $\mathfrak{J}$ R -semisimple $\Rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ R -semisimple.*

PROOF. It has been mentioned that nil and quasi-invertibility are radical properties of type A. It remains to show that they are hereditary radical properties. But it is clear that every ideal of a nil ring is again nil. Furthermore, the explicit expression for the quasi-inverse of an element z is $w = U_{(1-z)}^{-1}(z^2 - z)$ since

$$(1 - z)^{-1} = U_{(1-z)}^{-1}(1 - z) = U_{(1-z)}^{-1}(1 - z)^2 - U_{(1-z)}^{-1}(z^2 - z) = 1 - w.$$

If $\mathfrak{B}$ is any ideal then the quasi-inverse of any quasi-invertible element of $\mathfrak{B}$ also belongs to $\mathfrak{B}$. Quasi-invertibility, therefore, is a hereditary radical property.

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