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## Some Properties on Baer PP and PS Rings

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**Abstract**: This paper gives some results on Strong-Armendariz rings and the Ore-extensions  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  of Bare, PP and PS rings. And the main two results are: (1) R is a Bear (PP) ring if and only if R[[x]] is a Baer (PP) ring; (2) If R is an  $\alpha$ -rigid ring, then R is a Baer (PP, PS) ring if and only if  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is a Baer (PP, PS) ring.

Key words: Baer ring; PP ring; PS ring; Strong-Armendariz ring; Ore extension. MSC(2000): 13B02 CLC number: O153

#### 1. Introduction

Through this paper, all rings are associative with identity. This paper is composed of three parts. The first part concerns the relationship between Strong-Armendariz rings and reduced rings, being motivated by [1,2]. Armendariz rings which was initiated by Armendariz<sup>[1]</sup> and Rege and Chhawchharia<sup>[3]</sup> is related to polynomial rings, while Strong-Armendariz rings are related to formal polynomial rings. A ring R is called an Armendariz ring if whenever  $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i x^i, g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} b_j x^j \in R[x]$  satisfy f(x)g(x) = 0, we have  $a_i b_j = 0$  for each i, j. A ring R is called a Strong-Armendariz ring if whenever  $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^i, g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j x^j \in R[x]$ satisfy f(x)g(x) = 0, we have  $a_ib_j = 0$  for each  $i, j \ge 0$ . A ring is called reduced if it has nonzero nilpotent elements. We will also show in this paper that the properties of Baer, PP and PS of R are closed under formal polynomial extension when R is a Strong-Armendariz ring. By Kaplansky<sup>[4]</sup>, a ring R is called Baer if the right annihilator of every nonempty subset of R is generated by an idempotent. PP rings are closely related to these rings. A ring is called a right PP ring if each principle right ideal of R is projective, or equivalently, if the right annihilator of each element of R is generated by an idempotent. A ring R is called a PP ring if it is both a right and a left PP ring. Baer rings are clearly right PP rings. A ring R is called a left PS ring if  $Soc(_RR)$  is projective.

We denote the right annihilator over a ring R by  $r_R(-)$  and the left annihilator  $l_R(-)$ . The second part of this paper concerns the generalization of McCoy's theorem. McCoy<sup>[5]</sup> proved that if R is a commutative ring, then whenever g(x) is a zero-divisor in R[x] there exists a nonzero element  $c \in R$  such that cg(x) = 0. Yasuyuki Hirano<sup>[6]</sup> generalized this result as follows: Let

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f(x) be an element of the polynomial ring R[x] over a (not necessarily commutative) ring R. If  $r_{R[x]}(f(x)R[x]) \neq 0$ , then  $\Psi(r_{R[x]}(f(x)R[x])) = r_{R[x]}(f(x)R[x]) \cap R \neq 0$ . We will show in this paper that it is still right when  $R[x, x^{-1}]$  instead of R[x]. The definition is stated later. The last part concerns the Skew Laurent polynomial  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$ . Recall the Skew Laurent polynomial ring  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  with a ring automorphism  $\alpha : R \to R$  and relation:  $x^{-1}a = a^{-1}x^{-1}; xa = \alpha(a)x; xx^{-1} = u; x^{-1}x = \alpha^{-1}(u), u$  is a central entire,  $a, u \in R$ . When  $\alpha = 1$ , we write  $R[x, x^{-1}]$  instead of  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$ . we will show in this paper that the properties of Baer, PP, PS, weakly PP and PS are closed under Ore extension. A ring R is called weakly PP if every principle left ideal  $_e Rer$  is projective for each  $r \in R$  and each primitive idempotent  $e \in R$ . We give an example in this paper about  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  which is quasi-Baer, but R is not quasi-Baer. A ring is called quasi-Baer if the left annihilator of every ideal is generated, as a left ideal, by an idempotent.

#### 2. Strong-Armendariz ring

Lemma 2.1 If R is a reduced ring, then R is a Strong-Armendariz ring.

**Proof** Let  $f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n + \dots, f(x) = b_0 + b_1 x + \dots + b_n x^n + \dots \in R[[x]]$  with  $0 = f(x)g(x) = a_0b_0 + (a_1b_0 + a_0b_1)x + \dots + (a_nb_0 + a_{n-1}b_1 + a_0b_n)x^n + \dots$  So we have the following system of equations:

- (0)  $a_0b_0 = 0;$
- (1)  $a_1b_0 + a_0b_1 = 0;$
- ...; (n)  $a_n b_0 + a_{n-1} b_1 + \dots + a_0 b_n = 0;$ 
  - ···;

Multiply Eq.(1) on the right side by  $a_1b_0$ , we get  $a_1b_0a_1b_0 + a_0b_1a_1b_0 = 0$ . But  $a_0b_1a_1b_0 = 0$ since R is reduced and  $a_0b_0 = 0$ . Hence  $(a_1b_0)^2 = a_1b_0a_1b_0 = 0$ , that is  $a_1b_0 = 0$ . So Eq.(1) becomes  $a_0b_1 = 0$ . Now assume that k is a positive integer such that  $a_ib_j = 0$  for all  $i + j \le k$ . Multiply Eq.(k + 1) on the right side by  $a_{k+1}b_0$ , we get  $a_{k+1}b_0 = 0$ . Eq.(k + 1) becomes  $a_kb_1 + \cdots + a_0b_{k+1} = 0$ . Continue the method we get  $a_ib_j = 0$ , for all i + j = k + 1. Therefore  $a_ib_j = 0$ , for all  $i, j \ge 0$ . Then R is Strong-Armendariz.

A ring is called abelian if every idempotent of it is central.

Lemma 2.2 If R is a Strong-Armendariz ring, then R is an abelian ring.

**Proof** Let f(x) = (ere - er) + ex,  $g(x) = (ere - er) + (e - 1)x \in R[[x]]$ , for any  $e, r \in R, e^2 = e$ . ere - er = e(ere - er) = 0, since R is Strong-Armendariz and f(x)g(x) = 0. Let f(x) = (ere - re) + (e - 1)x,  $g(x) = (ere - re) + (e - 1)x \in R[[x]]$ , for any  $e, r \in R, e^2 = e$ . We get ere - re = (e - 1)(ere - re) = 0 by the same reason. Hence er = re, for any  $e, r \in R, e^2 = e$ . Then R is abelian.

**Lemma 2.3**<sup>[1]</sup> Suppose that a ring R is abelian, then we have the following:

(1) Every idempotent of R[x] is in R and R[x] is abelian.

(2) Every idempotent of R[[x]] is in R and R[[x]] is abelian.

**Lemma 2.4** If R is a Strong-Armendariz ring, then for any idempotent  $e \in R$ , eRe is a Strong-Armendariz ring.

**Proof** Let  $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^i, g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j x^j \in eRe[[x]]$  be polynomials satisfy f(x)g(x) = 0. Obviously  $eRe \subseteq R$ , then  $f(x), g(x) \in R[[x]]$ . Since R is Strong-Armendariz, then  $a_i b_j = 0$  for any  $i, j \ge 0$ . Then eRe is Strong-Armendariz.

One may suspect that if eRe is a Strong-Armendariz ring for any nonidentity idempotent e of R, then R is a Strong-Armendariz ring. However, it is not true in general by the following example.

**Example 2.1** Let  $Z_2$  be the ring of integers modulo 2 and consider the ring  $R = \begin{pmatrix} Z_2 & Z_2 \\ 0 & Z_2 \end{pmatrix}$ . Then by Example 1 in [1], R is not Armendariz, so is not Strong-Armendariz. Notice that the only nontrivial nonidentity idempotents of R are

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc}1&0\\0&0\end{array}\right), \left(\begin{array}{cc}0&0\\0&1\end{array}\right), \left(\begin{array}{cc}1&1\\0&0\end{array}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\begin{array}{cc}0&1\\0&1\end{array}\right),$$

and that  $eRe \cong Z_2$  is a Strong-Armendariz ring for any nontrivial nonidentity idempotent e in R.

**Lemma 2.5** Let R be a Strong-Armendariz ring. Then R is a Baer ring if and only if R[[x]] is a Baer ring.

**Proof** Assume that R is Baer. Let A be a nonempty subset of R[[x]], and  $R^*$  be the set of all coefficients of elements of A. Then  $R^*$  is a nonempty subset of R, and so  $r_R(A^*) = eR$  for some idempotent  $e \in R$ . Since  $e \in r_{R[[x]]}(A)$ , we get  $eR[[x]] \subseteq r_{R[[x]]}(A)$ . Now, let  $g = b_0 + b_1x + \cdots + b_nx^n + \cdots \in r_{R[[x]]}(A)$ . Then Ag = 0 and hence fg = 0 for any  $f \in A$ . Thus  $b_0, b_1, \cdots, b_n, \cdots \in r_R(A^*) = eR$  since R is a Strong-Armendariz ring. Hence there exists  $c_0, c_1, \cdots, c_n, \cdots \in R$ , such that  $g = ec_0 + ec_1 + \cdots + ec_n + \cdots = e(c_0 + c_1 + \cdots + c_n + \cdots) \in eR[[x]]$ . Therefore, R[[x]] is Baer.

Conversely, assume that R[[x]] is a Baer ring. Let B be a nonempty subset of R. Then  $r_{R[[x]]}(B) = eR[[x]]$  for some idempotent  $e \in R$  by Lemma 2.3. Hence  $r_R(B) = eR$  and R is a Baer ring.

**Theorem 2.6** Let R be a Strong-Armendariz ring. Then R is a PP ring if and only if R[[x]] is a PP ring.

**Proof** Assume that R is a PP ring. Let  $p = a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_n x^n + \dots \in R[[x]]$ . There exists  $e_i^2 = e_i \in R$  such that  $r_R(a_i) = e_i R$ , for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n, \dots$ . Let  $e = e_0 e_1 \dots e_n \dots$ . Then by Lemma 2.2,  $e^2 = e \in R$  and  $eR = \bigcap_{i=0}^{\infty} r_R(a_i)$ . So  $pe = a_0 e + a_1 ex + \dots + a_n ex^n + \dots = 0$ . Hence  $eR[[x]] \subseteq r_{R[[x]]}(p)$ . Let  $q = b_0 + b_1 + \dots + b_n x^n + \dots \in r_{R[[x]]}(p)$ . Since pq = 0 and R is a Strong-Armendariz,  $a_i b_j = 0$  for all  $i, j \ge 0$ . Then  $b_j \in eR$  for all  $j = 0, 1, \dots, n, \dots$ . Hence  $q \in eR[[x]]$ . Consequently,  $eR[[x]] = r_{R[[x]]}(p)$  and R[[x]] is a PP ring.

Conversely, assume that R[[x]] is a PP ring. Let  $a \in R$ . By Lemma 2.3, there exists an idempotent  $e \in R$  such that  $r_{R[[x]]}(a) = eR[[x]]$ . Hence,  $r_R(a) = r_{R[[x]]}(a) \cap R = eR$  and R is a PP ring.

**Theorem 2.7** Let R be an Armendariz ring. Then R is a PS ring if and only if R[x] is a PS ring.

**Proof** By the same method in the proof of Theorem 2.6.

**Theorem 2.8** Let R be a Strong-Armendariz ring. Then R is a PS ring if and only if R[[x]] is a PS ring.

**Proof** If R is a PS ring, then R[[x]] is a PS ring according to the Theorem 3.1 in [7].

Conversely, if L is a maximal ideal of R, then I = L[[x]] is a maximal ideal of R[[x]]. According to the fact that R[[x]] is a PS ring, we have  $r_{R[[X]]}(I) = eR[[x]], e^2 = e \in R$ , because R is a Strong-Armendariz ring and Lemma 2.3. So  $r_R(L) \supseteq eR$ . Assume there exists an element  $0 \neq a \in r_R(L) - eR, a \neq 0$ . For any element  $g = b_m x^m + b_{m+1} x^{m+1} + \cdots + b_n x^n \in I, b_m \neq 0, ga = 0$ . That is  $a \in r_{R[[x]]}(I) = eR[[x]]$ , a contradiction. Thus  $r_R(L) = eR$  as required.

**Theorem 2.9** Let R be a reduced ring. Then R is a PS ring if and only if R[x] or R[[x]] is a PS ring.

**Proof** We prove the result for R[[x]] only; The proof for R[x] is similar.

The "if" part has been proved by [7]. Let us see the "only if" part. It is clear that  $R[[x]] = R[[x;\alpha]]$ , where  $\alpha = 1$ . By hypothesis R is a reduced ring, then if  $r\alpha(r) = r^2 = 0$ , we have r = 0. Thus R[[x]] is a 1-rigid ring. Let L be the maximal ideal of R, then I = L[[x]] is a maximal ideal of R[[x]]. So  $r(I) = eR[[x]], e^2 = e \in R$  according to R[[x]] is a 1-rigid ring. Hence  $r(L) \supseteq eR$ . If there exists an element  $0 \neq a \in (r_R(L) - eR)$ . For any element  $g = b_m x^m + b_{m+1} x^{m+1} + \cdots \in I, b_m \neq 0, b_{m+1}, \cdots \in L, ga = 0$ . So  $a \in eR[[x]] \cap R = eR$ , a contradiction. Thus r(L) = eR as required.

#### 3. A generalization of McCoy's theorem

First define the degree of  $f(x) = \sum_{i=m}^{n} a_i x^i \in R[x, x^{-1}]$  in this way that  $\deg(f(x)) = |n|$  if n = m;  $\deg(f(x)) = n - m$ , if  $n \neq m$ .

We begin with the following lemma.

**Lemma 3.1** Let f(x) and g(x) be two elements of  $R[x, x^{-1}]$ . Then f(x)Rg(x) = 0 if and only if  $f(x)R[x, x^{-1}]g(x) = 0$ .

**Proof** Assume that f(x)Rg(x) = 0 and take an arbitrary element  $\sum_{k=p}^{q} c_k x^k$  of  $R[x, x^{-1}]$ . Then  $f(x)(\sum_{k=p}^{q} c_k x^k)g(x) = \sum_{k=p}^{q} f(x)c_k g(x)x^k = 0$ . This implies  $f(x)R[x, x^{-1}]g(x) = 0$ . The "only if part" is clear. **Theorem 3.2** Let f(x) be an element of  $R[x, x^{-1}]$ . If  $r_{R[x, x^{-1}]}(f(x)R[x, x^{-1}]) \neq 0$ , then  $r_{R[x, x^{-1}]}(f(x)R[x, x^{-1}]) \cap R \neq 0$ .

**Proof** We freely use Lemma 3.1 without mention it. Let  $f(x) = \sum_{i=m}^{n} a_i x^i \in R[x, x^{-1}]$ . If  $\deg(f(x)) = 0$  or f = 0, the assertion is clear. So let  $\deg(f(x)) = n - m > 0$ . Assume contrary, let  $0 \neq g(x) = \sum_{j=s}^{t} x^j \in R[x, x^{-1}] \in r_{R[x, x^{-1}]}(f(x)R[x, x^{-1}])$  with minimal degree. Since

$$(\sum_{i=m}^{n} a_i x^i) R[x, x^{-1}] (\sum_{j=s}^{t} b_j x^j) = 0,$$
$$(\sum_{i=m}^{n} a_i x^i) R(\sum_{j=s}^{t} b_j x^j) = 0,$$

then  $a_n R b_t = 0$ . Hence

$$a_n R[x, x^{-1}]g(x) = a_n R[x, x^{-1}](b_{t-1}x^{t-1} + \dots + b_s x^s)$$

and

$$(f(x)R[x,x^{-1}]a_n)R[x,x^{-1}](b_{t-1}x^{t-1}+\cdots+b_sx^s) = (f(x)R[x,x^{-1}]a_n)R[x,x^{-1}]g(x) = 0.$$

Since g(x) is of minimal degree, we have

$$a_n R[x, x^{-1}](b_{t-1}x^{t-1} + \dots + b_s x^s) = 0.$$

Therefore,

$$a_n \in l_R(R[x, x^{-1}]b_t x^t + R[x, x^{-1}](b_{t-1}x^{t-1} + \dots + b_s x^s)).$$

Hence,

$$(a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_mx^m)R[x, x^{-1}](b_tx^t + \dots + b_sx^s) = 0$$
 and  $a_{n-1}Rb_t = 0.$ 

Thus we obtain

$$f(x)R[x,x^{-1}](a_{n-1}R[x,x^{-1}](b_{t-1}x^{t-1}+\dots+b_sx^s)) = f(x)(R[x,x^{-1}]a_{n-1}R[x,x^{-1}])g(x) = 0.$$

Since g(x) is of minimal degree, we obtain  $a_{n-1}R[x, x^{-1}](b_{t-1}x^{t-1} + \dots + b_s x^s) = 0$ . Therefore,

$$a_n, a_{n-1} \in l_R(R[x, x^{-1}]b_t x^t + R[x, x^{-1}](b_{t-1}x^{t-1} + \dots + b_s x^s)).$$

Repeating, we obtain

$$a_n, a_{n-1}, \cdots, a_m \in l_R(R[x, x^{-1}]b_t x^t + R[x, x^{-1}](b_{t-1}x^{t-1} + \cdots + b_s x^s)).$$

This implies that

$$b_s, b_{s-1}, \cdots, b_t \in r_{R[x, x^{-1}]}(f(x)R[x, x^{-1}]).$$

Contradicted.

**Corollary 3.3** Let R be a semi-commutative ring. If f(x) is a zero-divisor in R[x], then there exists a nonzero element  $c \in R$  such that f(x)c = 0.

### 4. Ore extension of $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$

**Lemma 4.1**<sup>[9]</sup> Let R be an  $\alpha$ -rigid ring,  $\alpha$  is a ring automorphism,  $a, b \in R$ , then we have:

- (1) If ab = 0, then  $a\alpha^n(b) = \alpha^n(a)b = 0$ , for any  $n \in Z$ .
- (2) If  $a\alpha^k(b) = \alpha^k(a)b = 0$ , for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then ab = 0.
- (3) If a is central entire, then  $\alpha(a)$  is still a central entire in R.

**Lemma 4.2** Ore extension  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is reduced if and only if R is an  $\alpha$ -rigid ring. In this case,  $\alpha(e) = e$ , for some  $e^2 = e \in R$ .

**Proof** Suppose that R is  $\alpha$ -rigid. Assume to the contrary that  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is not reduced. Then there exists  $0 \neq f \in R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  such that  $f^2 = 0$ . Since R is reduced,  $f \notin R$ . Thus we put  $f = \sum_{i=n}^{m} a_i x^i$ , where  $a_i \in R$ , for  $n \leq i \leq m$  and  $a_n \neq 0, a_m \neq 0$ . Since  $f^2 = 0$ , we have  $a_m \alpha^m(a_m) = 0, a_n \alpha^n(a_n) = 0$ . By Lemma 4.1,  $a_m^2 = 0, a_n^2 = 0$  and so  $a_m = 0, a_n = 0$ , which is a contradiction. Therefore,  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is reduced.

Conversely, suppose that  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is reduced. Clearly, R is reduced as a subring. If  $a\alpha(a) = 0$  and  $\alpha(a)xa = 0$ . Thus  $0 = \alpha(a)\alpha(a)x = (\alpha(a))^2 x$ , and so  $\alpha(a) = 0$ . Since  $\alpha$  is an automorphism, we have a = 0. Therefore, R is  $\alpha$ -rigid.

Next, let e be an idempotent in R. Then e is central, and so  $ex = xe = \alpha ex$ . This implies that  $\alpha e = e$ .

**Lemma 4.3**<sup>[9]</sup> Let R be an  $\alpha$ -rigid ring. If  $p = \sum_{i=n}^{m} a_i x^i$ ,  $q = \sum_{j=s}^{t} b_j x^j \in R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$ , m, n, s, t are integers, then pq = 0 if  $a_i b_j = 0$ , for any  $n \leq i \leq m, s \leq j \leq t$ .

**Lemma 4.4** Let R be an  $\alpha$ -rigid ring. If  $e^2 = e \in R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha], e = e_n x^n + \dots + e_0 + \dots + e_m x^m$ , then  $e = e_0$ .

**Proof** Since  $1 - e = (1 - e_0) - \sum_{i=n}^{-1} - \sum_{j=1}^{m} e_j x_j$ , we get  $e_0(1 - e_0) = 0$  and  $e_i^2 = 0$  for all  $n \le i \le -1, 1 \le i \le m$  by Lemma 4.3. Thus  $e_i = 0$  for all  $n \le i \le m, i \ne 0$ , and so  $e = e_0 = e_0^2 \in R$ .

Birkermeier proved if R is a quasi-Baer ring, then  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is a quasi-Baer ring. However the following example shows that there exists  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  which is quasi-Baer, but R is not quasi-Baer.

**Example 4.1** Let Z be the ring of integers and consider the ring  $Z \oplus Z$  with the usual addition and multiplication. Then the subring  $R = \{(a, b) \in Z \oplus Z \mid a \equiv b \pmod{2}\}$  of  $Z \oplus Z$  is a commutative reduced ring. Note that only idempotents of R are (0,0) and (1,1). In fact, if  $(a,b)^2 = (a,b)$ , then  $(a^2,b^2) = (a,b)$  and so  $a^2 = a, b^2 = b$ . Since  $a \equiv b \pmod{2}$ , then (a,b) =(0,0) or (a,b) = (1,1). Now we claim that R is not quasi-Baer. For  $(2,0) \in R$ , we note that  $r_R((2,0)) = \{(0,2n) \mid n \in Z\}$ . So we can see that  $r_R((2,0))$  does not contain a nonzero idempotent of R. Hence R is not a quasi-Baer ring.

Now let  $\alpha : R \to R$  be defined by  $\alpha((a,b)) = (b,a)$ . Then  $\alpha$  is an automorphism of R. Note that R is not  $\alpha$ -rigid. We claim that  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is quasi-Baer. Let I be a nonzero right ideal of  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  and  $p \in I$ , put  $p = (a_i, b_i)x^i + \dots + (a_m, b_m) \neq 0$ . Then for some positive integer 2k - i > |i| + |m| + |j| + |n|, j, n is the integer in q, it will be stated later in the following.  $p(1, 1)x^{2k-i} = (a_i, b_i) \prod_{h=0}^{-\min\{0,j\}} a^{-h}(u)x^{2k} + \dots + (a_m, b_m) \prod_{h=0}^{-\min\{0,m\}} a^{-h}(u)x^{2k+m-i} \in I$  and  $p(1, 1)x^{2k+1-i} = (a_i, b_i) \prod_{h=0}^{-\min\{0,j\}} a^{-h}(u)x^{2k+1} + \dots + (a_m, b_m) \prod_{h=0}^{-\min\{0,m\}} a^{-h}(u)x^{2k+m+1-i} \in I$  (where  $a^{-2}(u) = \alpha^{-1}(\alpha^{-1}(u)), h = 2$ ). Suppose that  $0 \neq q \in r_{R[x,x^{-1};\alpha]}(I)$  and put  $q = (u_j, v_j)x^j + \dots + (u_n, v_n)x^nx^n$ , where n-j is the smallest integer such that  $(a_i, b_i) \neq 0, (a_m, b_m) \neq 0$ . Then  $p(1, 1)x^{2k-i}q = 0$  and  $p(1, 1)x^{2k+1-i}q = 0$ . So we have

$$(a_i, b_i) \prod_{h=0}^{-\min\{0,i\}} \alpha^{-h}(u) x^{2k}(u_j, v_j) x^j + \dots = (a_i, b_i)(u_j, v_j) \prod_{h=0}^{-\min\{0,i\}} \alpha^{-h}(u) u^{-\min\{0,j\}} x^{2k+j} + \dots$$

and

$$(a_i, b_i) \prod_{h=0}^{-\min\{0, i\}} \alpha^{-h}(u) x^{2k+1}(u_j, v_j) x^j + \dots = (a_i, b_i)(u_j, v_j) \prod_{h=0}^{-\min\{0, i\}} \alpha^{-h}(u) u^{-\min\{0, j\}} x^{2k+1+j} + \dots$$

Hence  $(a_i u_j, b_i v_j) = (0, 0)$  and  $(a_i v_j, b_i u_j) = (0, 0)$ . This implies that  $a_i u_j = b_i v_j = 0$  and  $a_i v_j = b_i u_j = 0$ . Since  $(a_i, b_j) \neq 0, a_i$  or  $b_i$  is nonzero. Then we have  $(u_j, v_j) = (0, 0)$ , which is a contradiction. So  $r_{R[x,x^{-1}]}(I) = (0,0)$  and hence  $R[x,x^{-1}]$  is quasi-Baer.

**Lemma 4.5** Let R be an  $\alpha$ -rigid ring. Then R is a PP ring if and only if  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is a PP ring.

**Proof** Assume that R is a PP ring. Let  $p = a_n x^n + \cdots + a_m x^m \in R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$ . There exists an idempotent  $e_i \in R$  such that  $r_R(a_i) = e_i R$  for  $i = n, \cdots, m$ . Let  $e = e_n \cdots e_m$ . Then  $e^2 = e \in R, eR = \bigcap_{i=n}^m r_R(a_i)$ . So by Lemma 4.2,  $pe = a_n \alpha^n(e) x^n + \cdots + a_m \alpha^m(e) x^m = a_n ex^n + \cdots + a_m ex^m = 0$ . Hence  $eR[x, x^{-1}; \alpha] \subseteq r_{R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]}(p)$ . Let  $q = b_s x^s + \cdots + b_t x^t \in r_{R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]}(p)$ . Since  $pq = 0, a_i b_j = 0$  for all  $n \leq i \leq m, s \leq j \leq t$ . Then  $b_j \in eR$  for  $s \leq j \leq t$ , and so  $q \in R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$ . Consequently,  $eR[x, x^{-1}; \alpha] = r_{R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]}(p)$ . Thus  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is a PP ring.

Conversely, assume that  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is a PP ring. Let  $a \in R$  by Lemma 4.4, there exists an idempotent einR such that  $r_{R[x,x^{-1};\alpha]}(a) = eR[x,x^{-1};\alpha]$ . Hence  $r_R(a) = eR$ . Therefore, R is a PP ring.

According to [3,Lemma 1]. Let R be a reduced ring. Then the following statement are equivalent:

(1) R is a PP ring; (2) R is a p.q-Baer ring.

Then we have the following corollary:

**Corollary 4.6** Let R be an  $\alpha$ -rigid ring. Then R is a p.q-Baer ring if and only if  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is a p.q-Baer ring.

**Theorem 4.7** Let R be an  $\alpha$ -rigid ring. Then R is a weakly PP ring if and only if  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$ 

is a weakly PP ring.

**Proof** For every  $f = \sum_{i=n}^{m} b_i x^i \in R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  and every primitive idempotent  $e \in R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$ , by Lemma 4.4,  $e \in R$ . If ef = 0, then  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]ef$  is projective. Suppose that  $ef \neq 0$ . Then there exists an integer  $n \leq k \leq m$  such that  $eb_k \neq 0$ . It is obvious that  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha](1 - e) \subseteq l_{R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]}(ef)$ . Conversely, for any  $g \in l_{R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]}(ef), g = \sum_{j=s}^{t} a_j x^j, gef = 0$ . Then by Lemma 4.3,  $a_j eb_i = 0$ . From  $eb_k \neq 0$  and R is a weakly PP ring, we get  $l_R(eb_k) = R(1 - e)$ , thus  $a_j \in R(1 - e)$ . By Lemma 4.2,  $g \in R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha](1 - e)$ . Hence  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha](1 - e) \subseteq l_{R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]}(ef)$ . Hence  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is a weakly PP ring.

Conversely, if  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is a weakly PP ring, then for every  $r \in R$  and every primitive idempotent  $e \in R$ , we have  $l_{R[x,x^{-1};\alpha]}(ef) = R[x,x^{-1};\alpha]f$ ,  $f^2 = f \in R[x,x^{-1};\alpha]$ . Hence R is a weakly PP ring.

**Theorem 4.8** Let R be an  $\alpha$ -rigid ring. Then R is a PS ring if and only if  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is a PS ring.

**Proof** If L is a maximal ideal of  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  we show that  $r_{R[x,x^{-1};\alpha]}(L) = eR[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  for an idempotent  $e^2 = e \in R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$ . Let I denote the set of all constant coefficients of polynomials in L. Let J be the left ideal of R which is generated by I. If J = R, then there exists  $s_1, \dots, s_n \in I$ ,  $r_1, \dots, r_n \in R$ , such that  $1 = r_1s_1 + \dots + r_ns_n$ . Assume  $h \in r_{R[x,x^{-1};\alpha]}(L), h_0 \neq 0, h_0$  is the constant coefficient of h for any  $f = \sum_{i=s}^t f_i x^i \in L, f_0h_0 = 0$ , for the arbitrary of f, we get  $s_ih_0 = 0, 1 \leq i \leq n$ , so  $h_0 = 0$ , a contradiction. Hence  $r_{R[x,x^{-1};\alpha]}(L) = 0$ .

Now assume  $J \neq R$  we show that J is a maximal left ideal of R. Let  $r \in (R - J)$ , obviously  $r \in R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$ , if  $r \in L$ , then  $r \in J$ , a contradiction. So  $r \notin L$ . Then  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha] = L + R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]r$ . Hence  $1 = f + gr = f_0 + g_0r$ ,  $g \in R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$ . If  $f_0 = 0$ , then  $1 \in Rr$ , R = J + Rr. If  $f_0 \neq 0$ , then  $f_0 \in J$ , R = J + Rr. Hence J is a maximal left ideal of R.

Because R is a PS ring, then there exists an idempotent  $e \in R$ , such that  $r_R(J) = eR$ . So Le = 0. Hence  $r_{R[x,x^{-1};\alpha]}(L) \supseteq eR[x,x^{-1};\alpha]$ . Conversely, let  $g = \sum_{j=k}^{m} b_j x^j \in r_{R[x,x^{-1};\alpha]}(L)$ ,  $b_k \neq 0$ , for any  $f = \sum_{i=t}^{n} a_i x^i \in L$ ,  $a_t \neq 0$ , fg = 0. By Lemma 4.3,  $a_i b_j = 0$ ,  $t \leq i \leq n$ ,  $k \leq j \leq m$ . Particularly,  $a_0 b_j = 0$ , where  $a_0$  is the constant coefficient of f. For the arbitrary of  $f, b_j \in r_R(J) = eR$ . So  $g \in eR[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$ . Hence  $r_{R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]}(L) \subseteq eR[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$ . Thus  $r_{R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]}(L) = eR[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$ . R[ $x, x^{-1}; \alpha$ ] is a PS ring.

Conversely, if L is a maximal left ideal of R, then  $I = L[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  is a maximal left ideal of  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$ . By hypothesis and Lemma 4.4,  $r(I) = eR[x, x^{-1}; \alpha], e^2 = e \in R$ . Hence  $r(L) \supseteq eR$ . Assume there exists an element  $0 \neq a \in r(L) - eR$ . For any  $g = \sum_{i=s}^{t} g_i t^i \in I, ga = 0$ . By using Lemma 4.1, then  $a \in r(I) = eR[x, x^{-1}; \alpha] \cap R = eR$ , a contradiction. Hence r(L) = eR.

At last we prove the following two Theorems.

Recall that for a ring R with a ring endomorphism  $\alpha : R \to R$  and an  $\alpha$ -derivation  $\delta : R \to R$ , the Ore extension  $R[x; \alpha, \delta]$  of R is the ring obtained by giving the polynomial ring over R with the new multiplication

$$xr = \alpha(r)x + \delta(r)$$

for all  $r \in R$ . If we have  $\delta = 0$ , we write  $R[x; \alpha, 0]$  is stead of  $R[x; \alpha, 0]$  and  $R[x, \alpha]$  is called Ore extension of endomorphism type (also called a skew polynomial ring). While  $R[[x; \alpha]]$  is called a skew power series ring.

**Theorem 4.9** Let R be an  $\alpha$ -rigid ring. Then  $R[x; \alpha, \delta]$  is a PS ring if and only if R is a PS ring.

**Proof** The "if" part has been proved in [9]. Let us see the "only if" part. Let L be the maximal left ideal of R. Then L[x] is a maximal left ideal of  $R[x; \alpha, \delta]$  is a PS ring. So  $r_{R[x;\alpha,\delta]}(L[x]) = eR[x; \alpha, \delta], e^2 = e \in R$ . Hence  $r_R(L) \supseteq eR$ . If there exists an element  $0 \neq a \in r_R(L) - eR$ , for any element  $g = b_0 + b_1 + \cdots + b_m x^m \in L[x], ga = 0$ . Hence  $a \in r_{R[x;\alpha,\delta]}(L[x]) \cap R = eR$ , a contradiction. Thus  $r_R(L) = eR$ .

**Theorem 4.10** Let R be an R be an  $\alpha$ -rigid ring. Then  $R[[x; \alpha]]$  is a PS ring if and only if R is a PS ring.

**Proof** The proof of this theorem is similar to the proof of Theorem 4.9.

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# 关于 Baer PP 和 PS 环的一些性质

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摘要: 在此文中,我们对 Strong-Armendariz 环和 Baer PP 及 PS 环 Ore- 扩张  $R[x, x^{-1}; \alpha]$  的 一些性质进行了讨论研究,并得到了一些结果. 主要证明了 R 是 Baer (PP) 环当且仅当 R[[x]] 是 Baer(PP) 环及 R 是  $\alpha$ -rigid 环时, R 是 Baer(PP,PS) 环当且仅当 R[[x]] 是 Baer (PP,PS) 环

关键词: Bare 环; PP 环; PS 环; Strong-Armendariz 环; Ore- 扩张.