

ANNIHILATORS IN IDEALS OF COEFFICIENTS OF ZERO-DIVIDING POLYNOMIALS

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Abstract. We continue the study of the McCoy ring property through examining constant annihilators in the ideals of coefficients of zero-dividing polynomials. In the process we introduce the ideal-McCoy property which is between strongly McCoy and McCoy properties, showing that none of implications can be replaced by an equivalence. We give an example of a right ideal-McCoy ring that is not left ideal-McCoy. We also investigate relations between the ideal-McCoy property and other standard ring theoretic properties. For example, we find possible basic forms of finite right ideal-McCoy rings of minimal order.

1. RIGHT IDEAL-MCCOY RINGS

Throughout this note every ring is associative with identity unless otherwise stated. Let R be a ring and we use $R[x]$ to denote the polynomial ring with an indeterminate x over R . Denote the n by n full matrix ring over R by $Mat_n(R)$ and the n by n upper (resp. lower) triangular matrix ring over R by $U_n(R)$ (resp. $L_n(R)$). Use e_{ij} for the matrix with (i, j) -entry 1 and elsewhere 0. \mathbb{Z} and \mathbb{Z}_n denote the set of integers and the ring of integers modulo n , respectively. Note $Mat_n(R)[x] \cong Mat_n(R[x])$ and $U_n(R)[x] \cong U_n(R[x])$, $L_n(R)[x] \cong L_n(R[x])$. We will apply these isomorphisms freely.

McCoy [20, Theorem 2] showed the following fact in 1942:

$$f(x)g(x) = 0 \text{ implies } f(x)r = 0 \text{ for some nonzero } r \in R,$$

where $f(x)$ and $0 \neq g(x)$ are polynomials over a commutative ring R . Many generalizations have been studied based on this result. Nielsen [21] in 2006 called a ring

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R (possibly without identity) *right McCoy* when the equation $f(x)g(x) = 0$ implies $f(x)r = 0$ for some nonzero $r \in R$, where $f(x), 0 \neq g(x)$ are polynomials in $R[x]$. Left McCoy rings are defined symmetrically. Nielsen [21, Section 3 and Section 4] showed that the McCoy condition is not left-right symmetric. Hong et al. [9] called a ring R (possibly without identity) *strongly right McCoy* if $f(x)g(x) = 0$ implies $f(x)r = 0$ for some nonzero r in the right ideal of R generated by the coefficients of $g(x)$, where $f(x)$ and $0 \neq g(x)$ are polynomials in $R[x]$. Strongly left McCoy rings are defined symmetrically. This strong McCoy condition is not left-right symmetric by [12, Remark 2.6(3)]. A ring is called *reduced* if it has no nonzero nilpotent elements. Due to Cohn [3], a ring R is called *reversible* if $ab = 0$ implies $ba = 0$ for $a, b \in R$. Reduced rings are reversible through a simple computation. Reversible rings are strongly left and right McCoy by [9, Theorem 1.6] or the proof of [21, Theorem 2]. A ring is called *right* (resp. *left*) *duo* if each right (resp. left) ideal is two-sided. Right (resp. left) duo rings are strongly right (resp. left) McCoy by [9, Theorem 1.11] or the proof of [2, Theorem 8.2]. A ring is called *Abelian* if every idempotent is central. The class of Abelian rings contains reversible rings and one-sided duo rings. But one-sided strongly McCoy rings need not be Abelian by [9, Example 1.10].

Now we will study a natural generalization of the strongly McCoy property, considering annihilators in two-sided ideals of coefficients. So a ring R (possibly without identity) will be called *right ideal-McCoy* if $f(x)g(x) = 0$ implies $f(x)r = 0$ for some nonzero r in the ideal of R generated by the coefficients of $g(x)$, where $f(x)$ and $0 \neq g(x)$ are polynomials in $R[x]$. Left ideal-McCoy rings are defined symmetrically. In the following we see that the ideal-McCoy property is not left-right symmetric.

Let R be an algebra (with or without identity) over a commutative ring S . Following Dorroh [4], the *Dorroh extension* of R by S is the Abelian group $R \oplus S$ with multiplication given by $(r_1, s_1)(r_2, s_2) = (r_1r_2 + s_1r_2 + s_2r_1, s_1s_2)$ for $r_i \in R$ and $s_i \in S$.

Proposition 1.1. (1) *Let A be an algebra generated by a, b over a commutative domain K , satisfying the relations*

$$a^2 = a, b^2 = 0, \text{ and } ba = 0.$$

Let R be the subalgebra of A which contains all elements with zero constant term. Then the Dorroh extension of R by K is right ideal-McCoy but not left ideal-McCoy.

(2) *If the algebra A satisfies the relations $a^2 = a, b^2 = 0$, and $ab = 0$ then the Dorroh extension of R by K is left ideal-McCoy but not right ideal-McCoy.*

Proof. (1) Let D be the Dorroh extension of R by K . Every element in A is expressed by

$$k_0 + k_1a + k_2b + k_3ab$$

where $k_i \in K$ for $i = 0, 1, 2, 3$, and $R = \{k_1a + k_2b + k_3ab \mid k_i \in K \text{ for all } i\}$. Note

that

$$\begin{aligned}(k_0 + k_1a + k_2b + k_3ab)a &= (k_0 + k_1)a, (k_0 + k_1a + k_2b + k_3ab)ab \\ &= (k_0 + k_1)ab, (k_0 + k_1a + k_2b + k_3ab)b = k_0b + k_1ab,\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}a(k_0 + k_1a + k_2b + k_3ab) &= (k_0 + k_1)a + (k_2 + k_3)ab, b(k_0 + k_1a + k_2b + k_3ab) \\ &= k_0b, ab(k_0 + k_1a + k_2b + k_3ab) = k_0ab.\end{aligned}$$

Now suppose that $0 \neq f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m (a_i, b_i)x^i$ and $0 \neq g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n (c_j, d_j)x^j$ in $D[x]$ with $f(x)g(x) = 0$. We can rewrite $f(x) = (f_1(x), f_2(x))$ and $g(x) = (g_1(x), g_2(x))$, where $f_1(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i$, $f_2(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m b_i x^i$, $g_1(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n c_j x^j$ and $g_2(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n d_j x^j$. We can also express $f_1(x), g_1(x)$ by

$$f_1(x) = h_1(x)a + h_2(x)b + h_3(x)ab \text{ and } g_1(x) = k_1(x)a + k_2(x)b + k_3(x)ab$$

where $h_i(x), k_i(x) \in K[x]$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$. Let $h_0(x) = f_2(x)$ and $k_0(x) = g_2(x)$.

We will show that D is right ideal-McCoy. From the equality $0 = f(x)g(x) = (f_1(x)g_1(x) + f_1(x)g_2(x) + f_2(x)g_1(x), f_2(x)g_2(x))$, we have that $h_0(x) = 0$ or $k_0(x) = 0$. Let L be the ideal of D generated by the coefficients of $g(x)$.

Case 1. $h_0(x) = 0$ and $k_0(x) = 0$

We have $0 = f_1(x)g_1(x) = h_1(x)k_1(x)a + (h_1(x)k_2(x) + h_1(x)k_3(x))ab$ in this case. So $h_1(x)k_1(x) = 0$ and $h_1(x)(k_2(x) + k_3(x)) = 0$.

Subcase 1-1. $h_1(x) = 0$

We have $f_1(x) = h_2(x)b + h_3(x)ab$, and so $f(x)L = 0$ since $L \subseteq (Ka + Kb + Kab, 0)$.

Subcase 1-2. $h_1(x) \neq 0$

From $h_1(x) \neq 0$, we have $k_1(x) = 0$ and $k_2(x) = -k_3(x) \neq 0$. So $g_1(x) = k_2(x)b - k_2(x)ab = k_2(x)(b - ab)$ and so L contains $(\alpha(b - ab), 0)$ for some $0 \neq \alpha \in K$. Now we get

$$f(x)(\alpha(b - ab), 0) = (\alpha(h_1(x)a + h_2(x)b + h_3(x)ab)(b - ab), 0) = 0.$$

Case 2. $h_0(x) = 0$ and $k_0(x) \neq 0$

In this case we have

$$\begin{aligned}0 = f(x)g(x) &= (h_1(x)(k_0(x) + k_1(x))a \\ &\quad + (h_1(x)(k_2(x) + k_3(x)) + h_3(x)k_0(x))ab + h_2(x)k_0(x)b, 0).\end{aligned}$$

This yields

$$h_1(x)(k_0(x) + k_1(x)) = h_1(x)(k_2(x) + k_3(x)) + h_3(x)k_0(x) = h_2(x)k_0(x) = 0.$$

Then $h_2(x) = 0$ from $k_0(x) \neq 0$. Here assume $h_1(x) = 0$, i.e., $f_1(x) = h_3(x)ab$. Then $h_3(x)k_0(x)ab = 0$ and this yields $h_3(x) = 0$, entailing $f(x) = 0$. This induces a contradiction, and so $h_1(x) \neq 0$. This yields $k_1(x) = -k_0(x)$ and $g_1(x) = -k_0(x)a + k_2(x)b + k_3(x)ab$. Whence L contains $(\alpha(b - ab), 0)$ for some $0 \neq \alpha \in K$ since $g(x)(b, 0) = (g_1(x)b + k_0(x)b, 0) = (-k_0(x)ab + k_0(x)b, 0) = (k_0(x)(b - ab), 0)$ and $k_0(x) \neq 0$. Now we get

$$f(x)(\alpha(b - ab), 0) = (\alpha(h_1(x)a + h_2(x)b + h_3(x)ab)(b - ab), 0) = 0.$$

Case 3. $h_0(x) \neq 0$ and $k_0(x) = 0$

In this case we have

$$\begin{aligned} 0 = f(x)g(x) &= ((h_0(x)k_1(x) + h_1(x)k_1(x))a + (h_0(x)k_3(x) \\ &\quad + h_1(x)k_2(x) + h_1(x)k_3(x))ab + h_0(x)k_2(x)b, 0). \end{aligned}$$

This yields

$$h_0(x)k_1(x) + h_1(x)k_1(x) = h_0(x)k_3(x) + h_1(x)k_2(x) + h_1(x)k_3(x) = h_0(x)k_2(x) = 0.$$

Then $k_2(x) = 0$ from $h_0(x) \neq 0$, entailing $g_1(x) = k_1(x)a + k_3(x)ab \neq 0$. Further, we get

$$(h_0(x) + h_1(x))k_1(x) = 0 \text{ and } (h_0(x) + h_1(x))k_3(x) = 0.$$

Here assume $h_0(x) + h_1(x) \neq 0$. Then $k_1(x) = 0$ and $k_3(x) = 0$; hence $g(x) = 0$, a contradiction. So $h_0(x) + h_1(x) = 0$ and $f_1(x) = -h_0(x)a + h_2(x)b + h_3(x)ab$. Since $k_1(x) \neq 0$ or $k_3(x) \neq 0$, L contains $(\beta ab, 0)$ for some $0 \neq \beta \in K$ from $g(x)(b, 0) = (g_1(x)b, 0) = (k_1(x)ab, 0)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(x)(\beta ab, 0) &= (f_1(x), h_0(x))(\beta ab, 0) \\ &= ((-h_0(x)a + h_2(x)b + h_3(x)ab)\beta ab + h_0(x)\beta ab, 0) \\ &= (-\beta h_0(x)ab + \beta h_0(x)ab, 0) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Now by the computations of Cases 1, 2, 3, we can conclude that D is right ideal-McCoy.

Next consider two nonzero polynomials

$$f(x) = (a, 0) + (ab, 0)x \text{ and } g(x) = (-a, 1) - (ab, 0)x$$

in $D[x]$. Then $f(x)g(x) = 0$. Consider the ideal J of D generated by the coefficients of $f(x)$. Then $J = (Ka + Kab, 0) = (Ka, 0) + (Kab, 0)$ by the computation above, so we have

$$\begin{aligned} & ((\alpha a, 0) + (\beta ab, 0))g(x) \\ &= ((\alpha a, 0) + (\beta ab, 0))((-a, 1) - (ab, 0)x) = (\beta ab, 0) - (\alpha ab, 0)x \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

for every nonzero $\alpha a + \beta ab \in J$ with $\alpha, \beta \in K$ since $\alpha \neq 0$ or $\beta \neq 0$. This implies that D is not left ideal-McCoy.

The proof of (2) is similar. ■

Example 1.2. (1) Let K be a commutative domain. Let $a = e_{11} + e_{12}, b = e_{23}$ in $Mat_3(K)$. Then $a^2 = a, b^2 = 0$, and $ba = 0$. Let R be the subring of $Mat_3(K)$ generated by Ka, Kb . Then $R = Ka + Kb + Kab$, and so $E = K + R$ is isomorphic to the Dorroh extension of R by K . Thus E is right ideal-McCoy but not left ideal-McCoy by Proposition 1.1(1).

(2) Let K be a commutative domain. Let $a = e_{33} + e_{23}, b = e_{12}$ in $Mat_3(K)$. Then $a^2 = a, b^2 = 0$, and $ab = 0$. Let R be the subring of $Mat_3(K)$ generated by Ka, Kb . Then $R = Ka + Kb + Kba$, and so $E = K + R$ is isomorphic to the Dorroh extension of R by K . Thus E is left ideal-McCoy but not right ideal-McCoy by Proposition 1.1(2). ■

In Proposition 1.1(1), consider the right annihilators taken in the ideal generated by the coefficients of $g(x)$. They are also contained in the right ideal generated by the coefficients of $g(x)$, and so the Dorroh extension is also strongly right McCoy. So this example also provides a ring that asserts that the strongly McCoy property is not left-right symmetric. A ring will be called *ideal-McCoy* if it is both left and right ideal-McCoy.

Strongly right McCoy rings are clearly right ideal-McCoy, but the converse need not hold by the following.

Example 1.3. We use the ring in [2, Proposition 3.2]. Let K be a field and $A = K\langle a_i, b_i, c_i, d_i | i \in \mathbb{N} \rangle$ be the free algebra with non-commuting indeterminates a_i, b_i, c_i, d_i over K , where \mathbb{N} denotes the set of nonnegative integers. Set I_0 be the ideal generated by the relations

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a_i c_{n-i} = 0, \sum_{i=0}^n (a_i d_{n-i} + b_i c_{n-i}) = 0, \sum_{i=0}^n b_i d_{n-i} = 0$$

for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $R_0 = A/I_0$, and equate the indeterminates with their images in R_0 . Let F_0 be the set of all finite subsets of indeterminates in R_0 . For every set

$S_0 \in F_0$, adjoin two new variables x_{S_0} and y_{S_0} to R_0 and let I_1 be the ideal generated by the relations

$$x_{S_0}a_i = x_{S_0}b_i = c_i y_{S_0} = d_i y_{S_0} = 0, \text{ for all } i \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } x_{S_0}s = sy_{S_0} = 0, \text{ for all } s \in S_0.$$

Then we obtain an overring

$$R_1 = K\langle a_i, b_i, c_i, d_i, x_{S_0}, y_{S_0} \mid i \in \mathbb{N}, S_0 \in F_0 \rangle / \cup_{i=0}^1 I_i.$$

Through this construction, we can obtain two ascending chains $R_0 \subset \dots \subset R_n \subset R_{n+1} \subset \dots$ and $I_0 \subset \dots \subset I_n \subset I_{n+1} \subset \dots$, where I_i is the ideal of R_i . Note

$$R_{n+1} = K\langle a_i, b_i, c_i, d_i, x_{S_j}, y_{S_j} \mid i \in \mathbb{N}, j = 0, \dots, n \text{ and } S_j \in F_j \rangle / \cup_{i=0}^{n+1} I_i.$$

Put $R = \cup_1^\infty R_i$. Then R is not strongly right McCoy by [9, Example 1.9].

We will show that R is right ideal-McCoy. Consider nonzero polynomials $f(x), g(x)$ in $R[x]$ with $f(x)g(x) = 0$. Then there exists $k \geq 1$ such that $f(x), g(x) \in R_k[x]$. Let T be the set of all indeterminates in R_k which occur lastly in sum-factors of coefficients of $f(x)$. Then $f(x)y_T = 0$. But $y_T g(x) \neq 0$ and so $y_T \beta \neq 0$ for some coefficient β of $g(x)$. Now we get $f(x)y_T \beta = 0$, entailing that R is right ideal-McCoy. In fact every R_i ($i \geq 1$) is right ideal-McCoy by the same method as just above, and so R is also shown to be right ideal-McCoy by Proposition 2.9(1). ■

The preceding construction is excellent but somewhat complicated to handle. So we will find a simpler constructing method which provides a right ideal-McCoy ring but not strongly right McCoy over given any strongly right McCoy ring. In the following we see a typical kind of ring extension of right ideal-McCoy rings. For any ring A and $n \geq 2$, let

$$D_n(A) = \left\{ \left(\begin{array}{ccccc} a & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ 0 & a & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ 0 & 0 & a & \cdots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & a \end{array} \right) \mid a, a_{ij} \in A \right\}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} V_n(A) &= \{m = (m_{ij}) \in D_n(A) \mid m_{st} \\ &= m_{(s+1)(t+1)} \text{ for } s = 1, \dots, n - 2 \text{ and } t = 2, \dots, n - 1\}. \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 1.4. *For a ring R and $n \geq 2$, the following conditions are equivalent:*

- (1) R is right ideal-McCoy;
- (2) $D_n(R)$ is right ideal-McCoy for any n ;
- (3) $V_n(R)$ is right ideal-McCoy for any n .

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2): Let R be right ideal-McCoy. We will use the ring isomorphism $(D_n(R))[x] \cong D_n(R[x])$ freely. Let

$$f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} f_{11}(x) & f_{12}(x) & \cdots & f_{1n}(x) \\ 0 & f_{11}(x) & \cdots & f_{2n}(x) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & f_{11}(x) \end{pmatrix} = A_0 + A_1x + \cdots + A_mx^m$$

and

$$g(x) = \begin{pmatrix} g_{11}(x) & g_{12}(x) & \cdots & g_{1n}(x) \\ 0 & g_{11}(x) & \cdots & g_{2n}(x) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & g_{11}(x) \end{pmatrix} = B_0 + B_1x + \cdots + B_lx^l$$

be nonzero polynomials in $D_n(R)[x]$ such that $f(x)g(x) = 0$, where $A_h = (a(h)_{st})$, $B_k = (b(k)_{uv}) \in D_n(R)$ for $h = 0, \dots, m, k = 0, \dots, l$ and $f_{st}(x) = \sum_{h=0}^m a(h)_{st}x^h$, $g_{uv}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^l b(k)_{uv}x^k \in R[x]$. Note $f_{11}(x)g_{11}(x) = 0$. Since $g(x) \neq 0$, we can take a nonzero $g_{ij}(x)$ such that $f_{11}(x)g_{ij}(x) = 0$ as follows. If $g_{11}(x) \neq 0$ then $f_{11}(x)g_{11}(x) = 0$. Assume $g_{11}(x) = 0$. Then we can find i, j such that i, j are both largest with respect to the property of $g_{ij}(x) \neq 0$. Note that $i < j$ and the (i, j) -entry of $f(x)g(x)$ is $f_{11}(x)g_{ij}(x) = f_{ii}(x)g_{ij}(x) = 0$. Recall $g_{ij}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^l b(k)_{ij}x^k$. Since R is right ideal-McCoy, there exists nonzero α in $\sum_{k=0}^l Rb(k)_{ij}R$, say $\alpha = \sum_{c=1}^d r_c\beta_c s_c$ with $r_c, s_c \in R$ and $\beta_c \in \{b(0)_{ij}, \dots, b(l)_{ij}\}$ for all c , such that $f_{11}(x)\alpha = 0$. Let $\Omega = \sum_{c=1}^d (r_c I_n) B_c (s_c I_n) \in D_n(R)$, where $B_c \in \{B_0, \dots, B_l\}$ and I_n is the n by n identity matrix. Then the (i, j) -entry of Ω is α . Now consider $\Omega' = e_{1i}\Omega e_{jn} = \alpha e_{1n}$. Then Ω' is contained in the ideal of $D_n(R)$ generated by B_k 's and $f(x)\Omega' = 0$. This implies that $D_n(R)$ is right ideal-McCoy.

(2) \Rightarrow (1): Let $D_n(R)$ be right ideal-McCoy for any n , and let $0 \neq f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i, 0 \neq g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j x^j \in R[x]$ with $f(x)g(x) = 0$. Letting

$$a(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m \begin{pmatrix} a_i & 0 \\ 0 & a_i \end{pmatrix} x^i \text{ and } b(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n \begin{pmatrix} b_j & 0 \\ 0 & b_j \end{pmatrix} x^j,$$

we have $a(x) = \begin{pmatrix} f(x) & 0 \\ 0 & f(x) \end{pmatrix}$ and $b(x) = \begin{pmatrix} g(x) & 0 \\ 0 & g(x) \end{pmatrix}$ with $a(x)b(x) = 0$. Since

$D_2(R)$ is right ideal-McCoy, there exists nonzero $C \in \sum_{j=0}^n D_2(R) \begin{pmatrix} b_j & 0 \\ 0 & b_j \end{pmatrix} D_2(R)$ such that $a(x)C = 0$. Here say

$$C = \sum_{t=0}^u \begin{pmatrix} c_{1t} & c_{2t} \\ 0 & c_{1t} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_{s_t} & 0 \\ 0 & b_{s_t} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d_{1t} & d_{2t} \\ 0 & d_{1t} \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{t=0}^u \begin{pmatrix} c_{1t}b_{s_t}d_{1t} & c_{1t}b_{s_t}d_{2t} + c_{2t}b_{s_t}d_{1t} \\ 0 & c_{1t}b_{s_t}d_{1t} \end{pmatrix},$$

where $b_{s_t} \in \{b_0, \dots, b_n\}$. Since C is nonzero, we have that $\sum_{t=0}^u c_{1t} b_{s_t} d_{1t} \neq 0$ or $\sum_{t=0}^u (c_{1t} b_{s_t} d_{2t} + c_{2t} b_{s_t} d_{1t}) \neq 0$. Now $a(x)C = 0$ yields that $f(x)(\sum_{t=0}^u c_{1t} b_{s_t} d_{1t}) = 0$ or $f(x)(\sum_{t=0}^u (c_{1t} b_{s_t} d_{2t} + c_{2t} b_{s_t} d_{1t})) = 0$, entailing that R is right ideal-McCoy.

The proof for (1) \Leftrightarrow (3) is similar to the preceding case. \blacksquare

Corollary 1.5. *A ring R is right ideal-McCoy if and only if so is $R[x]/(x^n)$, where $n \geq 2$ and (x^n) is the ideal of $R[x]$ generated by x^n .*

Proof. We get the proof from Theorem 1.4 and the isomorphism $V_n(R) \cong R[x]/(x^n)$. \blacksquare

Strongly right McCoy rings are clearly right ideal-McCoy, but the converse need not hold also by Theorem 1.4 since $D_n(A)$ (when $n \geq 3$) cannot be strongly right McCoy, over any strongly right McCoy ring A , by Remark after [9, Theorem 2.2]. Thus we can say that given any strongly right McCoy ring we can construct right ideal-McCoy rings but not strongly right McCoy.

Right ideal-McCoy rings are clearly right McCoy, but the converse need not hold by the following.

Example 1.6. Let K be a field and $A = K\langle a, b, c, d, e \rangle$ be the free algebra generated by the noncommuting indeterminates a, b, c, d, e over K . Let I be the ideal of A generated by

$$ab, ad + cb, cd, es, se$$

where $s \in \{a, b, c, d, e\}$. Set $R = A/I$ and identify a, b, c, d, e with their images in R for simplicity. Then $(a + cx)(b + dx) = 0$. Let J be the ideal of R generated by b, d . Since $ab = eb = cd = ed = 0$, every element of J is of the form

$$r = a\alpha_1 + b\alpha_2 + c\alpha_3 + d\alpha_4$$

where α_i is a polynomial in A generated by a, b, c, d for $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$. So

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= (a + cx)r = (a + cx)(a\alpha_1 + b\alpha_2 + c\alpha_3 + d\alpha_4) \\ &= (a^2\alpha_1 + acc\alpha_3 + ada\alpha_4) + (ca\alpha_1 + cb\alpha_2 + c^2\alpha_3)x \end{aligned}$$

yields

$$a^2\alpha_1 + acc\alpha_3 + ada\alpha_4 = 0 \text{ and } ca\alpha_1 + cb\alpha_2 + c^2\alpha_3 = 0.$$

Consider $ca\alpha_1 + cb\alpha_2 + c^2\alpha_3 = 0$. Then $c(a\alpha_1 + b\alpha_2 + c\alpha_3) = 0$ and so $a\alpha_1 + b\alpha_2 + c\alpha_3 = 0$. This yields $a\alpha_1 + c\alpha_3 = -b\alpha_2$, and so we must get $b\alpha_2 = 0$, entailing $a\alpha_1 + c\alpha_3 = 0$. Recall $ad + cb = 0$, and so we must have that either $a\alpha_1 = c\alpha_3 = 0$ or $\alpha_1 = d\beta, \alpha_3 = b\beta$ for some $\beta \in A$. Consequently we now have $r = d\alpha_4$ and $0 = (a + cx)d\alpha_4 = ad\alpha_4$. This also implies $d\alpha_4 = 0$, entailing $r = 0$. These conclude that R is not right ideal-McCoy.

Next we will show that R is McCoy. Let $f(x), g(x)$ be nonzero polynomials in $R[x]$ such that $f(x)g(x) = 0$. We can write

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= s(x) + h_1(x)a + h_2(x)b + h_3(x)c + h_4(x)d + h_5(x)e \quad \text{and} \\ g(x) &= t(x) + k_1(x)a + k_2(x)b + k_3(x)c + k_4(x)d + k_5(x)e \end{aligned}$$

where $s(x), t(x) \in K[x]$ and $h_i(x), k_i(x) \in R[x]$ for $i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$. Assume $s(x) \neq 0$. Then $t(x) = 0$ clearly and so $g(x) = k_1(x)a + k_2(x)b + k_3(x)c + k_4(x)d + k_5(x)e$. Next we can obtain $g(x) = 0$ through a similar computation to the preceding one, a contradiction. Thus we must have $f(x) = h_1(x)a + h_2(x)b + h_3(x)c + h_4(x)d + h_5(x)e$, and so $f(x)e = 0$. This implies that R is right McCoy. The left McCoy property of R can be proved symmetrically. ■

2. PROPERTIES AND EXAMPLES OF RIGHT IDEAL-MCCOY RINGS

In this section we observe various kinds of properties of right ideal-McCoy rings, examining ordinary ring extensions of right ideal-McCoy rings. We also investigate the basic forms of finite right ideal-McCoy rings.

A ring R is called (*von Neumann*) *regular* if for each $a \in R$ there exists $x \in R$ such that $a = axa$. Due to Feller [6], a ring is called *right* (resp. *left*) *duo* if every right (resp. left) ideal is two-sided. Right or left duo rings are clearly Abelian via a simple computation. Right duo rings are strongly right McCoy by [9, Theorem 1.11].

Proposition 2.1. *Given a regular ring R the following conditions are equivalent:*

(1) R is reduced; (2) R is reversible; (3) R is right duo; (4) R is Abelian; (5) R is strongly right McCoy; (6) R is right ideal-McCoy; (7) R is right McCoy.

Proof. It suffices to prove (7) \Rightarrow (1) by [7, Theorem 3.2]. Let R be right McCoy and assume on the contrary that there exists nonzero $a \in R$ with $a^2 = 0$. Since R is regular, there exists $b \in R$ with $aba = a$. Note $baba = ba$. Consider two nonzero polynomials

$$f(x) = (1 - ba) + ax \quad \text{and} \quad g(x) = ba - ax$$

in $R[x]$. Then $f(x)g(x) = 0$. But since R is right McCoy, there exists nonzero $c \in R$ such that $f(x)c = 0$. This yields $(1 - ba)c = 0$ and $ac = 0$, entailing $c = c - bac = (1 - ba)c = 0$. This induces a contradiction. ■

A ring R is called π -*regular* if for each $a \in R$ there exist a positive integer n , depending on a , and $b \in R$ such that $a^n = a^n b a^n$. Regular rings are clearly π -regular. So one may conjecture that right (ideal-)McCoy π -regular ring may be reduced. However the following argument answers negatively. Note that $D_n(A)$ ($n \geq 2$) is π -regular over a division ring A . Further, it is right (ideal-)McCoy by Theorem 1.4, but not reduced.

- Remark 2.2.** (1) $Mat_n(A)$ cannot be one-sided McCoy for any ring A and $n \geq 2$.
 (2) $U_n(A)$ cannot be one-sided McCoy for any ring A and $n \geq 2$.
 (3) The class of right (ideal-)McCoy rings is not closed under subrings.
 (4) The class of right ideal-McCoy rings is not closed under homomorphic images.

Proof. (1) and (2) are shown by [11, Proposition 1.6] and [11, Example 1.3] respectively.

(3) We use the ring in [2, Theorem 7.1] and arguments in [9, Examples 1.10 and 1.12]. Let K be a field and $K\{e, x, y, z\}$ be the free algebra with noncommuting indeterminates e, x, y, z over K . Due to [2, Theorem 7.1], set R be the factor ring of $K\{e, x, y, z\}$ with the relations $e^2 = e, ex = x, xe = 0, ey = ye = 0, ez = ze = z, x^2 = y^2 = z^2 = xy = xz = yx = yz = zx = zy = 0$. Then R is strongly right McCoy (hence right ideal-McCoy) by the computation in [9, Examples 1.10]. Next consider the subring of R generated by $\{\alpha, e, x \mid \alpha \in K\}$, according to [9, Examples 1.12]. Then this subring is not right McCoy by the argument in [9, Examples 1.12], recalling that the overring R is right ideal-McCoy.

(4) Let R be the ring of quaternions with integer coefficients. Then R is a domain, so ideal-McCoy. However for any odd prime integer q , the ring R/qR is isomorphic to $Mat_2(\mathbb{Z}_q)$ by the argument in [8, Exercise 2A]. Thus R/qR is not one-sided ideal-McCoy by (1). ■

One may conjecture that a ring R may be right ideal-McCoy when R/I and I are both right ideal-McCoy rings for any nonzero proper ideal I of R , where I is considered as a ring without identity. However the answer is negative by the following.

Example 2.3. Let F be a field and consider $R = U_2(F)$. Then R is not right McCoy (hence not right ideal-McCoy) by Remark 2.2(2). Note that all nonzero proper ideals of R are

$$\begin{pmatrix} F & F \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & F \\ 0 & F \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & F \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We will show that R/I and I are both right ideal-McCoy for any nonzero ideal I of R . First, let $I = \begin{pmatrix} F & F \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Then $R/I \cong F$ is right ideal-McCoy. Let $f(x)g(x) = 0$ for $0 \neq f(x) = A_0 + A_1x + \cdots + A_mx^m$ and $0 \neq g(x) = B_0 + B_1x + \cdots + B_nx^n$ in $I[x]$, where $A_i = \begin{pmatrix} a_i & b_i \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $B_j = \begin{pmatrix} c_j & d_j \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ for $1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n$. We can write $f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x) & f_2(x) \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $g(x) = \begin{pmatrix} g_1(x) & g_2(x) \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ where $f_1(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i, f_2(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m b_i x^i$ and $g_1(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n c_j x^j, g_2(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n d_j x^j$. From $f(x)g(x) = 0$ we have $f_1(x)g_1(x) = 0$ and $f_1(x)g_2(x) = 0$. If $f_1(x) \neq 0$, then

$g_1(x) = 0 = g_2(x)$ and so $g(x) = 0$, a contradiction. Thus $f_1(x) = 0$ and $f_2(x) \neq 0$, i.e., $f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & f_2(x) \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. This yields that $f(x)C = 0$ for every nonzero C in the ideal of I generated by B_j 's. Next let $I = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & F \\ 0 & F \end{pmatrix}$. Then $R/I \cong F$ is right ideal-McCoy. Let $f(x)g(x) = 0$ for $0 \neq f(x) = A_0 + A_1x + \cdots + A_mx^m = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & f_1(x) \\ 0 & f_2(x) \end{pmatrix}$ and $0 \neq g(x) = B_0 + B_1x + \cdots + B_nx^n = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & g_1(x) \\ 0 & g_2(x) \end{pmatrix} \in I[x]$, where $A_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & a_i \\ 0 & b_i \end{pmatrix}$ and $B_j = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & c_j \\ 0 & d_j \end{pmatrix}$ for $1 \leq i \leq m$, $1 \leq j \leq n$. Since $f_1(x) \neq 0$ or $f_2(x) \neq 0$, we get $g_2(x) = 0$ from $f(x)g(x) = 0$, entailing $g(x) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & g_1(x) \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. This yields that $f(x)D = 0$ for every nonzero D in the ideal of I generated by B_j 's. Finally let $I = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & F \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Then $R/I = F \oplus F$ is right ideal-McCoy. I is clearly right ideal-McCoy since $I^2 = 0$. ■

In ring theoretical process, it is also natural to observe the McCoy and ideal-McCoy properties to be hereditary to ideals. According to Ramamurthi [22], a ring R (possibly without identity) is *right* (resp. *left*) *weakly regular* if $I^2 = I$ for every right (resp. left) ideal I of R . It is shown, by [22, Proposition 1], that a ring R is right (resp. left) weakly regular if and only if $a \in (aR)^2$ (resp. $a \in (Ra)^2$) for every $a \in R$.

Remark 2.4. Let R be a ring and I be a proper ideal of R .

- (1) If R is right ideal-McCoy then I is right McCoy as a ring without identity.
- (2) The class of right McCoy rings is not closed under ideals.
- (3) Suppose that if $Iv \neq 0$ for $v \in I$ then $vI \neq 0$. If R is strongly right McCoy then I is strongly right McCoy as a ring without identity.
- (4) Suppose that R is right weakly regular. If R is strongly right McCoy then I is strongly right McCoy as a ring without identity.
- (5) Suppose that R is right weakly regular. If R is right ideal-McCoy then I is right ideal-McCoy as a ring without identity.

Proof. (1) Consider nonzero polynomials $f(x), g(x)$ in $I[x]$ with $f(x)g(x) = 0$. Say $g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n b_jx^j$. Since R is right ideal-McCoy, there exists nonzero $c \in \sum_{j=0}^n Rb_jR$ such that $f(x)c = 0$. But $c \in I$ and so I is right McCoy.

(2) Consider the ring R in Example 1.6 and let K be the ideal of R generated by $\{a, b, c, d\}$. Consider two polynomials $f(x) = a + cx, g(x) = b + dx$ in $K[x]$. Every element in K is of the form $a\alpha_1 + b\alpha_2 + c\alpha_3 + d\alpha_4$ where α_i is a polynomial in A

generated by a, b, c, d for $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$. So the right annihilator of $f(x)$ in K is only zero, entailing that K is not right McCoy.

(3) Consider nonzero polynomials $f(x), g(x)$ in $I[x]$ with $f(x)g(x) = 0$. Say $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i, g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j x^j$. If $f(x)b_k = 0$ for some $k \in \{0, \dots, n\}$ then we are done. So assume that $f(x)b_j \neq 0$ for every nonzero b_j , i.e., $\{a_0 b_j, \dots, a_m b_j\} \neq 0$ for every nonzero b_j . This yields $Ib_j \neq 0$ for every nonzero b_j . Then, by hypothesis, we get $b_j I \neq 0$ for every nonzero b_j , and so $g(x)I \neq 0$. Say $\sum_{j=0}^n b_j c x^j = g(x)c \neq 0$ for some $c \in I$. Then $f(x)g(x)c = 0$ clearly. Since R is strongly right ideal-McCoy, there exists nonzero d in the right ideal of R generated by $b_j c$'s such that $f(x)d = 0$. Say $d = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j c r_j$ with r_j 's in R . Then $d = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j (c r_j) \in \sum_{j=0}^n b_j I$. This implies that I is strongly right McCoy.

(4) Let $Iv \neq 0$ for $v \in I$. Then $IvR \neq 0$. Since R is right weakly regular, $IvIvR = IvRIvR = IvR \neq 0$ and so vI must be nonzero. Thus I is strongly right McCoy by (3) when R is strongly right McCoy.

(5) Let R be right ideal-McCoy. Consider nonzero polynomials $f(x), g(x)$ in $I[x]$ with $f(x)g(x) = 0$. Say $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i, g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j x^j$. Since R is right ideal-McCoy, there exists a nonzero α in the ideal J of R generated by b_j 's such that $f(x)\alpha = 0$. Since R is right weakly regular, we have $J = J^2 = J^3 = \dots$. Note that $J = RBR$ with $B = \{b_0, \dots, b_n\}$. This yields $\alpha \in J = (RBR)^3 = (RBR)B(RBR) \subseteq IBI$, and so I is right ideal-McCoy. ■

Questions. (1) Is the class of right ideal-McCoy rings closed under ideals?

(2) Is the class of strongly right McCoy rings closed under ideals?

Finite dimensional algebras need not be right (ideal-)McCoy as we see in $U_n(A)$ ($n \geq 2$) over any finite ring A . We next investigate the basic forms of finite right ideal-McCoy rings.

Given a ring R the Jacobson radical is written by $J(R)$. Recall that R is called *local* if $R/J(R)$ is a division ring. Local rings are Abelian through a simple computation. R is called *semilocal* if $R/J(R)$ is semisimple Artinian, and R is called *semiperfect* if R is semilocal and idempotents can be lifted modulo $J(R)$. Local rings are clearly semilocal.

Lemma 2.5. (1) (Eldridge) [5, Theorem]. *Let R be a finite ring of order m with an identity. If m has a cube free factorization, then R is a commutative ring.*

(2) (Eldridge) [5, Proposition]. *If a noncommutative ring with identity is of order p^3 , p a prime, then it is isomorphic to $U_2(\mathbb{Z}_p)$.*

(3) *A ring R is Abelian, semiperfect, and right ideal-McCoy if and only if R is a finite direct product of local right ideal-McCoy rings.*

(4) *A ring R is Abelian, semiperfect, and right McCoy if and only if R is a finite direct product of local right McCoy rings.*

Proof. (3) Let R be a semiperfect right ideal-McCoy ring. The proof of [10, Lemma 2.2(3)] is applied. Since R is semiperfect, R has a finite orthogonal set $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ of local idempotents whose sum is 1 by [16, Corollary 3.7.2]. This implies that $R = \prod_{i=1}^n e_i R$ such that each $e_i R e_i$ is a local ring. Since R is Abelian, every $e_i R = e_i R e_i$ is an ideal of R . Moreover each $e_i R$ is a right ideal-McCoy ring by Proposition 2.9(2) to follow. Conversely suppose that R is a finite direct product of local right ideal-McCoy rings. Then R is Abelian and semiperfect since local rings are both Abelian and semiperfect. Next Proposition 2.9(2) implies that R is right ideal-McCoy.

(4) The proof is obtained by [2, Lemma 4.1] and a similar method to (3). ■

Due to Lambek [18], a ring R is called *symmetric* if $rst = 0$ implies $rts = 0$ for all $r, s, t \in R$. Lambek proved that a ring R is symmetric if and only if $r_1 r_2 \cdots r_n = 0$, with n any positive integer, implies $r_{\sigma(1)} r_{\sigma(2)} \cdots r_{\sigma(n)} = 0$ for any permutation σ of the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and $r_i \in R$, in [18, Proposition 1]. Symmetric rings are strongly left and right McCoy by [9, Proposition 1.7]. Commutative rings are clearly symmetric. A simple computation gives that symmetric rings are Abelian. Reduced rings are symmetric by [1, Theorem I.3], but there are many non-reduced commutative (so symmetric) rings. $GF(p^n)$ denotes the Galois field of order p^n . Xue [23] proved that finite rings are right duo if and only if they are left duo. We will characterize minimal noncommutative right ideal-McCoy rings, analyzing the following examples.

Let $R_1 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a^2 \end{pmatrix} \in U_2(GF(2^2)) \mid a, b \in GF(2^2) \right\}$, according to Xue [24, Example 2]. Then $J(R_1) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mid b \in GF(2^2) \right\}$, $R_1/J(R_1) \cong GF(2^2)$; hence R_1 is local. Note that R_1 is symmetric (hence strongly left and right McCoy) by the argument in [10, Example 2.5]. Further, R_1 is both left and right duo through a simple computation.

Let $R_2 = D_3(\mathbb{Z}_2)$. Then $J(R_2) = \{m \in D_3(\mathbb{Z}_2) \mid \text{the diagonal entries of } m \text{ are zero}\}$ and $R_2/J(R_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$; hence R_2 is local. Note that R_2 is ideal-McCoy by Theorem 1.4, moreover R_2 is strongly left and right McCoy by [14, Proposition 2]. But R_2 is neither left nor right duo, considering the left ideal $R_2 e_{12}$ and right ideal $e_{23} R_2$.

According to Xue [24, Example 2], let $R_3 = \mathbb{Z}_4\{x, y\}/I$, where $\mathbb{Z}_4\{x, y\}$ is the free algebra with non-commuting indeterminates x, y over \mathbb{Z}_4 and I is the ideal of $\mathbb{Z}_4\{x, y\}$ generated by $x^3, y^3, yx, x^2 - xy, x^2 - 2, y^2 - 2, 2x, 2y$. Then R_3 is duo by the argument in [24, Example 2], and thus R_3 is strongly left and right McCoy by [9, Theorem 1.11]. Note that $J(R_3) = \langle 2, x, y \rangle$ (hence $R_3/J(R_3) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$) and $J(R_3)^3 = 0$.
 $||$ denotes the cardinality.

Lemma 2.6. *If R is a noncommutative right (or left) McCoy ring of order 16, then*

$|J(R)|$ is 4 or 8.

Proof. Let R be a noncommutative right McCoy ring of order 16. We have four cases of $|J(R)| = 0$, $|J(R)| = 2$, $|J(R)| = 4$, or $|J(R)| = 8$. Assume $|J(R)| = 0$. Since R is noncommutative and $|R| = 16$, $R \cong \text{Mat}_2(\mathbb{Z}_2)$ by Wedderburn-Artin theorem. But $\text{Mat}_2(\mathbb{Z}_2)$ is not right McCoy by Remark 2.2(1), entailing that this case is impossible. Assume $|J(R)| = 2$. If R is local (i.e., $R/J(R)$ is a field), then $J(R)$ is a vector space over $R/J(R)$. This entails $|J(R)| \geq 8$ since $R/J(R) \cong GF(2^3)$, a contradiction. Thus we must have that $R/J(R) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$, and $|J(R)| = 2$. Note $J(R)^2 = 0$. We can obtain orthogonal nonzero idempotents e_1, e_2, e_3 , such that $e_1 + e_2 + e_3 = 1$, by [16, Corollary 3.7.2], and we have

$$R = \{x + y \mid x \in I, y \in J(R)\}$$

where $I = \{0, 1, e_1, e_2, e_3, 1 - e_1, 1 - e_2, 1 - e_3\}$. Note that I is a commutative ring since e_1, e_2, e_3 are orthogonal each other. Say $J(R) = \{0, a\}$. Assume that $e_i a = 0$ (resp. $ae_i = 0$) for all i . Then $a = 1a = (e_1 + e_2 + e_3)a = 0$ (resp. $a = a1 = a(e_1 + e_2 + e_3) = 0$), a contradiction. So $e_k a \neq 0$ (resp. $ae_k \neq 0$) for some k . Here assume that $e_j a \neq 0$ for $j \neq k$. Then $e_k a = e_j a = a$ since $e_k a, e_j a \in J(R)$, and so this entails $0 = e_k e_j a = e_k a = a$, a contradiction. Thus $e_j a = 0$ for all $j \neq k$ if $e_k a \neq 0$. Similarly, $ae_j = 0$ for all $j \neq i$ if $ae_i \neq 0$. Here assume that $e_i a \neq 0$ and $ae_i \neq 0$ for some i . Then $e_i a = a = ae_i$ and $e_j a = 0 = ae_j$ for all $j \neq i$. This implies that R is commutative, a contradiction. So if $e_i a \neq 0$ for some i then $ae_i = 0$, entailing $ae_j \neq 0$ for some $j \neq i$. Say $e_1 a \neq 0, ae_2 \neq 0$, i.e., $e_1 a = ae_2 = a$. Then $e_2 a = e_3 a = 0$ and $ae_1 = ae_3 = 0$. Now consider two polynomials

$$f(x) = (e_1 + e_3) + ax \text{ and } g(x) = e_2 - ax \in R[x].$$

Then $f(x)g(x) = 0$ but there cannot exist $0 \neq r \in R$ such that $f(x)r = 0$, entailing that R is not right McCoy. The computations for remaining cases are similar. So this case of $|J(R)| = 2$ is also impossible. Therefore $|J(R)|$ is either 4 or 8. The proof for the left case is similar. ■

As an application of Lemma 2.6, $\text{Mat}_2(\mathbb{Z}_2)$ cannot be right (ideal-)McCoy since the Jacobson radical is zero.

In the following we can see all possible basic forms of finite right ideal-McCoy rings of minimal order. We use the term “minimal” in the names of such kinds of rings. The characteristic of a ring R is written by $\text{char}(R)$.

Theorem 2.7. *If R is a minimal noncommutative Abelian right McCoy ring, then R is of order 16 and is isomorphic to R_i for some $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, where R_i 's are the rings above.*

Proof. Suppose that R is a minimal noncommutative right McCoy ring. Then $|R|$ has a cube factor by Lemma 2.5(1) since R is noncommutative. $U_2(A)$ is not right McCoy by Remark 2.2(2) for any ring A . So Lemma 2.5(2) implies that $|R|$ is not of the form p^3 for some prime p since R is right McCoy. These yield that $|R|$ is equal to or larger than 2^4 since R is minimal such a ring. But the rings R_i 's above are right McCoy rings of order 16, and so R must be of order 16. Note that R is semiperfect.

Now since R is a noncommutative right McCoy ring of order 16, we have two cases of $|J(R)| = 4$ and $|J(R)| = 8$, by Lemma 2.6.

Case 1. $|J(R)| = 4$.

R is local by Lemma 2.5(4) since R is a minimal noncommutative Abelian right McCoy ring. Then R is a noncommutative duo ring of order 16 by the proof of [10, Theorem 2.6], and thus R is isomorphic to the ring R_1 above by [24, Theorem 3].

Case 2. $|J(R)| = 8$.

Since R is local with $|R/J(R)| = 2$, we have $R = \{x + y \mid x \in I, y \in J(R)\}$ where $I = \{0, 1\}$. Thus R is commutative if and only if $J(R)$ is commutative. Then, by applying the argument for the case of $|J(R)| = 8$ in the proof of [13, Theorem 2.3], we have that R is isomorphic to R_2 (when $\text{char}(R) = 2$) or R_3 (when $\text{char}(R) = 4$) above. ■

Question. What are the shapes of non-Abelian right ideal-McCoy rings R such that $|R| = 16$ and $|J(R)| = 4$?

Every ring R_i above is actually strongly left and right McCoy, and thus we get the following with the help of Theorem 2.7. A strongly McCoy ring means a strongly left and right McCoy ring.

Corollary 2.8. R is a minimal noncommutative Abelian right McCoy ring if and only if R is a minimal noncommutative Abelian right ideal-McCoy ring if and only if R is a minimal noncommutative Abelian strongly right McCoy ring if and only if R is a minimal noncommutative Abelian strongly McCoy ring.

Considering Corollary 2.8, one may conjecture that the ideal-McCoy property is left-right symmetric for the case of finite rings. However the answer is negative by Example 1.2, letting K be a finite field.

Finally, we deal with some kinds of ring extensions over right ideal-McCoy rings. Camillo and Nielsen showed, in [2, Lemma 4.1], that a direct product of rings R_i ($i \in I$) is right McCoy if and only if so is every R_i . They also showed, in [2, Proposition 4.3], that If I is an infinite set then the direct sum of rings R_i ($i \in I$) is right McCoy. Also Hong, et al. [9, Proposition 2.6] proved that the class of (strongly) right McCoy rings is closed under direct limits. Π and Σ denote direct product and direct sum, respectively.

Remark 2.9. (1) The class of right ideal-McCoy rings is closed under direct limits.

(2) Let $R = \prod_{i \in I} R_i$ be the direct product of rings R_i . Then R is right ideal-McCoy if and only if R_i is right ideal-McCoy for every $i \in I$.

(3) Let $R = \prod_{i \in I} R_i$ be the direct product of rings R_i . Then R is strongly right McCoy if and only if R_i is strongly right McCoy for every $i \in I$.

(4) Let $R = \sum_{i \in I} R_i$ be a direct sum of rings R_i . Then R (possibly without identity) is right ideal-McCoy if and only if R_i is right ideal-McCoy for every $i \in I$.

(5) Let $R = \sum_{i \in I} R_i$ be a direct sum of rings R_i . Then R (possibly without identity) is strongly right McCoy if and only if R_i is strongly right McCoy for every $i \in I$.

Lei, et al. [17, Theorem 1] proved that a ring R is right McCoy if and only if so is $R[x]$. Also Hong, et al. [9, Proposition 2.4] proved that if $R[x]$ is strongly right McCoy then so is R . By a similar method as in the proof of [9, Proposition 2.4], we can get that if $R[x]$ is right ideal-McCoy then so is R .

However we do not know whether $R[x]$ is strongly right ideal-McCoy if R is a strongly right McCoy ring.

Question. If R is a right ideal McCoy ring then is $R[x]$ right ideal-McCoy?

A ring R is called *right* (resp. *left*) *Ore* if given $a, b \in R$ with b (resp. a) regular there exist $a_1, b_1 \in R$ with b_1 (resp. a_1) regular such that $ab_1 = ba_1$ (resp. $a_1b = b_1a$). Note that R is a right (resp. left) Ore ring if and only if the classical right (resp. left) quotient ring of R exists. There exist many reduced rings which are neither right nor left Ore as can be seen by the free algebra in two indeterminates over a field (this ring is a domain but cannot have its classical right (left) quotient ring).

Hong, et al. [9, Theorem 2.1] proved that letting R be a right Ore ring with the classical right quotient ring Q then R is strongly right McCoy if and only if so is Q , and R is right McCoy if and only if so is Q .

Proposition 2.10. *Let R be a right Ore ring with the classical right quotient ring Q . If R is right ideal-McCoy then so is Q .*

Proof. The set of all regular elements in R is denoted by $C(R)$, and [19, Proposition 2.1.16] is referred to freely. Let $F(x)G(x) = 0$ for $F(x), 0 \neq G(x) \in Q[x]$. We can write $F(x) = a_0u^{-1} + a_1u^{-1}x + \cdots + a_mu^{-1}x^m$ and $G(x) = b_0v^{-1} + b_1v^{-1}x + \cdots + b_nv^{-1}x^n$ for $a_i, b_j \in R$ and $u, v \in C(R)$, where $i = 0, \dots, m$ and $j = 0, \dots, n$. Since R is right Ore, there exists $u_1 \in C(R)$ for all j 's such that $u^{-1}b_j = b'_ju_1^{-1}$ for some $b'_j \in R$. Next set $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_ix^i$, $g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n b_jx^j$, $g_1(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n b'_jx^j$, and $u_2 = vu_1$. Then $F(x) = f(x)u^{-1}$, $G(x) = g(x)v^{-1}$, $u^{-1}g(x) = g_1(x)u_1^{-1}$, and

$$F(x)G(x) = f(x)g_1(x)u_1^{-1}v^{-1} = f(x)g_1(x)u_2^{-1},$$

noting that $g(x) \neq 0$ and $g_1(x) \neq 0$. Let B (resp. B') be the ideal of Q (resp. R) generated by the coefficients of $G(x)$ (resp. $g_1(x)$). Since $u^{-1}b_ju_1 = b'_j$ and $b_j = b_jv^{-1}v$, we have $B' \subseteq B$ and $g(x), g_1(x) \in B[x]$. Now from $F(x)G(x) = 0$, we also get $f(x)g_1(x) = 0$. Since R is right ideal-McCoy and $g_1(x) \neq 0$, there exists $0 \neq r \in B'$ such that $f(x)r = 0$. Further, we have

$$0 = f(x)r = f(x)u^{-1}ur = F(x)ur$$

for $0 \neq ur \in B$. Thus Q is right ideal-McCoy. \blacksquare

In the preceding situation, we do not know of any example of a right ideal McCoy ring Q such that R is not right ideal McCoy.

Question. Let R and Q as before. If Q is right ideal-McCoy then is R right ideal-McCoy?

The following can be compared with Proposition 1.1.

Proposition 2.11. *Let R be an algebra with identity over a commutative ring S .*

- (1) *R is right ideal-McCoy if and only if so is the Dorroh extension of R by S .*
- (2) *R is strongly right McCoy if and only if so is the Dorroh extension of R by S .*
- (3) *R is right McCoy if and only if so is the Dorroh extension of R by S .*
- (4) *The left versions of (1), (2), and (3) also hold.*

Proof. (1) Let D be the Dorroh extension of R by S , and suppose that $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m (a_i, b_i)x^i = (f_1(x), f_2(x))$ and $g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n (c_j, d_j)x^j = (g_1(x), g_2(x))$ in $D[x]$ such that $f(x)g(x) = 0$, where $f_1(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i$, $f_2(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m b_i x^i$, $g_1(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n c_j x^j$ and $g_2(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n d_j x^j$. Then $(f_1(x)g_1(x) + f_1(x)g_2(x) + f_2(x)g_1(x), f_2(x)g_2(x)) = 0$ and so $f_1(x)g_1(x) + f_1(x)g_2(x) + f_2(x)g_1(x) = 0$ and $f_2(x)g_2(x) = 0$. Note that $s \in S$ is identified with $s1 \in R$, and so S is considered as a subring of R . We refer to [9, Theorem 1.6] freely.

Case 1. $(f_2(x) \neq 0$ and $g_2(x) \neq 0)$

Since $f_2(x)g_2(x) = 0$ and S is commutative, there exists nonzero $\alpha \in \sum_{j=0}^n Sd_jS$, say $\alpha = \sum_s u_s d_s v_s$, such that $f_2(x)\alpha = 0$. Then $(f_1(x), f_2(x))(-\alpha, \alpha) = 0$ with

$$(-\alpha, \alpha) = \left(-\sum_s u_s d_s v_s, \sum_s u_s d_s v_s\right) = \sum_s (-u_s, u_s)(c_s, d_s)(-v_s, v_s) \in \sum_{j=0}^n D(c_j, d_j)D.$$

Case 2. $(f_2(x) \neq 0$ and $g_2(x) = 0)$

Since $(f_1(x), f_2(x))(g_1(x), 0) = (f_1(x)g_1(x) + f_2(x)g_1(x), 0) = 0$, $(f_1(x) + f_2(x))g_1(x) = 0$. If $f_1(x) + f_2(x) = 0$, then $(f_1(x), f_2(x))(\beta, 0) = 0$ for any $0 \neq (\beta, 0) \in \sum_{j=0}^n D(c_j, 0)D$. If $f_1(x) + f_2(x) \neq 0$, then there exists nonzero

$\beta \in \sum_{j=0}^n Rc_jR$, say $\beta = \sum_t u_t c_t v_t$, such that $(f_1(x) + f_2(x))\beta = 0$. Thus $(f_1(x), f_2(x))(\beta, 0) = 0$ with

$$(\beta, 0) = \left(\sum_t u_t c_t v_t, 0\right) = \sum_t (u_t, 0)(c_t, 0)(v_t, 0) \in \sum_{j=0}^n D(c_j, 0)D.$$

Case 3. ($f_2(x) = 0$ and $g_2(x) \neq 0$)

Since $(f_1(x), 0)(g_1(x), g_2(x)) = (f_1(x)g_1(x) + f_1(x)g_2(x), 0) = 0$, $f_1(x)(g_1(x) + g_2(x)) = 0$. If $g_1(x) + g_2(x) = 0$ (i.e., $d_j = -c_j$ for all j), then $(f_1(x), 0)(\gamma, -\gamma) = 0$ for any $0 \neq (\gamma, -\gamma) \in \sum_{j=0}^n D(c_j, -c_j)D$. If $g_1(x) + g_2(x) \neq 0$, then there exists nonzero $\gamma \in \sum_{j=0}^n R(c_j + d_j)R$, say $\gamma = \sum_w u_w (c_w + d_w)v_w$, such that $f_1(x)\gamma = 0$. Thus $(f_1(x), 0)(\gamma, 0) = 0$ with

$$(\gamma, 0) = \left(\sum_w u_w (c_w + d_w)v_w, 0\right) = \sum_w (u_w, 0)(c_w, d_w)(v_w, 0) \in \sum_{j=0}^n D(c_j, d_j)D.$$

Case 4. ($f_2(x) = 0$ and $g_2(x) = 0$)

Since $(f_1(x), 0)(g_1(x), 0) = (f_1(x)g_1(x), 0) = 0$, $f_1(x)g_1(x) = 0$. Since R is right ideal-McCoy, there exists nonzero $\delta \in \sum_{j=0}^n Rc_jR$, say $\delta = \sum_l u_l c_l v_l$, such that $f_1(x)\delta = 0$. Thus $(f_1(x), 0)(\delta, 0) = 0$ with

$$(\delta, 0) = \left(\sum_l u_l c_l v_l, 0\right) = \sum_l (u_l, 0)(c_l, 0)(v_l, 0) \in \sum_{j=0}^n D(c_j, 0)D.$$

By Cases 1, 2, 3, and 4, D is right ideal-McCoy.

Conversely let D be right ideal-McCoy, and suppose that $a(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i$ and $b(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j x^j$ in $R[x]$ such that $a(x)b(x) = 0$. Then we also have $f(x)g(x) = 0$ in $D[x]$, letting $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m (a_i, 0)x^i$ and $g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n (b_j, 0)x^j$. Since D is right ideal-McCoy, there exists nonzero $c \in \sum_{j=0}^n D(b_j, 0)D$, say $c = \sum_k (u_k, s_k)(b_k, 0)(v_k, t_k)$ with $(u_k, s_k), (v_k, t_k) \in D$, such that $f(x)c = 0$. Note that every $s \in S$ is identified with $s1 \in R$ and so $R = \{r + s \mid (r, s) \in D\}$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} c &= \sum_k (u_k, s_k)(b_k, 0)(v_k, t_k) \\ &= \sum_k ((u_k + s_k)b_k, 0)(v_k, t_k) = \sum_k ((u_k + s_k)b_k(v_k + t_k), 0). \end{aligned}$$

Setting $d_k = (u_k + s_k)b_k(v_k + t_k)$ gives

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= f(x)c = \left(\sum_{i=0}^m (a_i, 0)x^i\right)\left(\sum_k (d_k, 0)\right) \\ &= \left(\sum_{i=0}^m (a_i, 0)x^i\right)\left(\sum_k d_k, 0\right) = (a(x)\left(\sum_k d_k\right), 0). \end{aligned}$$

But $0 \neq \sum_k d_k \in \sum_{j=0}^n Rb_jR$, and this shows that R is right ideal-McCoy.

The proofs of (2), (3), and (4) are quite similar to one of (1). ■

The preceding proposition need not hold for the case that the ring R does not have the identity, as we see in Proposition 1.1.

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