

Extensions of linearly McCoy rings

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ABSTRACT. A ring R is called linearly McCoy if whenever linear polynomials $f(x), g(x) \in R[x] \setminus \{0\}$ satisfy $f(x)g(x) = 0$, there exist nonzero elements $r, s \in R$ such that $f(x)r = sg(x) = 0$. In this paper, extension properties of linearly McCoy rings are investigated. We prove that the polynomial ring over a linearly McCoy ring need not be linearly McCoy. It is shown that if there exists the classical right quotient ring Q of a ring R , then R is right linearly McCoy if and only if so is Q . Other basic extensions are also considered.

1. Introduction

All rings are associative with unity. For a ring R , the polynomial ring over R is denoted by $R[x]$ with x its indeterminate, and E_{ij} stands for the usual matrix unit (i.e., with 1 at (i, j) -entry and 0 elsewhere).

McCoy proved in 1942 [14] that if two polynomials annihilate each other over a commutative ring, then each polynomial has a nonzero annihilator in the base ring. Rege and Chhawchharia [16] and Nielsen [15] independently introduced the notion of a McCoy ring. A ring R is *right McCoy* if the equation $f(x)g(x) = 0$ with $f(x), g(x) \in R[x] \setminus \{0\}$ implies there exists a nonzero $r \in R$ such that $f(x)r = 0$; left McCoy rings are defined similarly. A ring R is called *McCoy* if it is both right and left McCoy. The class of McCoy rings contains the class of Armendariz rings (These rings are defined through the condition ‘whenever polynomials $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i, g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j x^j \in R[x]$ satisfy $f(x)g(x) = 0$, then $a_i b_j = 0$ for every i and j [16]’). A ring R is *semi-commutative* provided $ab = 0$ implies $aRb = 0$ for $a, b \in R$. In [7] it was claimed that all semi-commutative rings were McCoy. However, Hirano’s claim assumed that $R[x]$ is semi-commutative if R is semi-commutative, and this was shown to be false in [8]. In 2006, Nielsen [15] gave an example of semi-commutative ring which is not right McCoy. The concept of a linearly McCoy ring, which properly generalizes McCoy rings and semi-commutative rings, was introduced by Camillo and Nielsen [4] in 2008. Recall that a ring R

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is called (*right or left*) *linearly McCoy* if the McCoy condition holds for nonzero linear polynomials $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x$, $g(x) = b_0 + b_1x \in R[x]$. Related results on McCoy conditions can be found in [4, 5, 10, 12, 15, 16, 17], etc. Recently, the McCoy and the Armendariz conditions were extended to their module versions (see [3, 6]). Due to Lee and Wong [11], a ring R is called *weak Armendariz* (also called *linearly Armendariz* in literature) if for given $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x$ and $g(x) = b_0 + b_1x \in R[x]$, $f(x)g(x) = 0$ implies that $a_i b_j = 0$ for each i, j . Weak Armendariz rings are clearly linearly McCoy; the falsity of the converse can be deduced from [9, Example 1.2(4)].

The polynomial extension property of rings plays an important role in ring theory. For rings that admit Armendariz or McCoy condition, it was proved in [1] (resp., [12]) that a ring R is Armendariz (resp., McCoy) if and only if $R[x]$ is Armendariz (resp., McCoy). But it is still an open question of whether the polynomial ring over a weak Armendariz ring is weak Armendariz (see [9]). In this paper, we show that the polynomial ring over a semi-commutative ring is not linearly McCoy. It is proved that if R is a linearly McCoy ring, then $R[x]/(x^n)$ is linearly McCoy for any integer $n \geq 1$; and if there exists a classical right quotient ring Q of a ring R , then R is right linearly McCoy if and only if Q is right linearly McCoy. Some other basic extensions of linearly McCoy rings are also considered.

2. Polynomial rings

In this section, we investigate the polynomial ring over a linearly McCoy ring. We first recall a fact in [4].

Lemma 2.1. *All semi-commutative rings are linearly McCoy.*

Anderson and Camillo [1] proved that a ring R is Armendariz if and only if $R[x]$ is Armendariz, and Lei et al. [12] showed the same property holds for McCoy rings. It is natural to consider whether polynomial rings over linearly McCoy rings are still linearly McCoy. Motivated by results in [15], we have the following result.

Theorem 2.2. *There exists a semi-commutative ring over which the polynomial ring is not linearly McCoy.*

Proof. Let $K = \mathbb{F}_2\langle a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, b_0, b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$ be the free associative algebra (with 1) over \mathbb{F}_2 generated by nine indeterminates (as labeled above). Let I be the ideal generated by the following relations:

$$\begin{aligned} & \langle a_0b_0, a_0b_1 + a_1b_0, a_0b_2 + a_1b_1 + a_2b_0, a_1b_2 + a_2b_1 + a_3b_0, a_2b_2 + a_3b_1, a_3b_2, \\ & a_0b_3 + a_4b_0, a_1b_3 + a_4b_1, a_2b_3 + a_4b_2, a_3b_3, a_4b_3, a_0a_j \ (0 \leq j \leq 4), \\ & a_3a_j \ (0 \leq j \leq 4), a_4a_j \ (0 \leq j \leq 4), a_1a_j + a_2a_j \ (0 \leq j \leq 4), \\ & b_ib_j \ (0 \leq i, j \leq 3), b_ia_j \ (0 \leq i \leq 3, 0 \leq j \leq 4) \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Let $R = K/I$. Set $F(y) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + a_4y$, $G(y) = b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 + b_3y$. Note that the first and the second rows of relations in I guarantee $F(y)G(y) = 0$ in $R[x][y]$.

The degree of each nonzero monomial $\alpha \in R$ is defined as the number of indeterminates in α , denote it by $\deg(\alpha)$; the degree of each element $\gamma = \sum_i r_i \in R$ is defined as $\deg(\gamma) = \max\{\deg(r_i) : i \in \mathbb{N}\}$, where r_i is the part of degree i in γ .

Let H_n be the set of all linear combinations of monomials of degree n over \mathbb{F}_2 . Notice that H_n is finite for any n and the ideal I of R is homogeneous (i.e., if $\sum_{i=1}^s r_i \in I$ with $r_i \in H_i$, then $r_i \in I$). The proof will be divided into the following four claims.

Claim 1. Let $\gamma \in R$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma = & f_0 + f_1(a_2)a_1 + f_2(a_2)a_2 + f_3(a_2)a_3 + f_4(a_2)a_4 + g(a_2)a_0 \\ & + [r_0 + r_1(a_2)a_1 + r_2(a_2)a_2 + r_3(a_2)a_3 + r_4(a_2)a_4]b_0 \\ & + [s_0 + s_1(a_2)a_1 + s_2(a_2)a_2 + s_3(a_2)a_3 + s_4(a_2)a_4]b_1 \\ & + [t_0 + t(a_2)a_4]b_2 + h_0b_3 \end{aligned}$$

with $f_0, r_0, s_0, t_0, h_0 \in \mathbb{F}_2$ and $f_i, g, r_j, s_k, t \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$ ($1 \leq i, j, k \leq 4$), and the expression is unique.

Proof of Claim 1. We directly adopt the diamond lemma (see [2]), one may reduce any given monomial through the relations specified in the definition of I as follows.

Firstly, check whether the monomial we plan to reduce has any occurrence of $a_0b_0, a_3b_2, a_3b_3, a_4b_3, a_0a_j, a_3a_j, a_4a_j, b_ib_j, b_ia_j$. If so, then the monomial is zero. If not, repeatedly replace all occurrences of $a_0b_1, a_0b_2, a_1b_2, a_2b_2, a_0b_3, a_1b_3, a_2b_3, a_1a_j$ with $a_1b_0, a_1b_1+a_2b_0, a_2b_1+a_3b_0, a_3b_1, a_4b_0, a_4b_1, a_4b_2, a_2a_j$, respectively. Then the resulting monomial will be in reduced form, and any element of R is just a sum of monomials. Hence, each element of R can be written uniquely as the form above. \square

Claim 2. The ring R is semi-commutative.

Proof of Claim 2. Let $\gamma, \gamma' \in R$ with $\gamma\gamma' = 0$, where γ, γ' are written in the form of Claim 1. We write f_1 for $f_1(a_2)$, and do the same for other polynomials in the variable a_2 . Then $\gamma = f_0 + f_1a_1 + f_2a_2 + \dots + h_0b_3$, $\gamma' = f'_0 + f'_1a_1 + f'_2a_2 + \dots + h'_0b_3$. Throughout we use the fact that I is a homogeneous ideal, so the sum of all monomials of any given degree in $\gamma\gamma'$ is zero.

For all $r \in R$, we prove that $\gamma r \gamma' = 0$. Clearly, it is true if either γ or γ' is zero. So we may assume that γ, γ' are nonzero in R . $\gamma\gamma' = 0$ implies that $f_0f'_0 = 0$. So $f_0 = 0$ or $f'_0 = 0$. Suppose that $f_0 = 0$. Let $\lambda \neq 0$ be the sum of the (nonzero) terms of γ with lowest degree. Since I is homogeneous, $\lambda f'_0 = 0$, and so $f'_0 = 0$. Similarly, if $f'_0 = 0$ we obtain $f_0 = 0$. Thus, $f_0 = f'_0 = 0$.

Suppose that $\deg(r) = 1$. Notice that $b_i\gamma' = 0$ for $0 \leq i \leq 3$ since $f'_0 = 0$. Therefore $\gamma b_i\gamma' = 0$. So it suffices to check $\gamma a_j\gamma' = 0$ for $0 \leq j \leq 4$. By Claim 1, we get $\gamma a_j = (f_1 + f_2)a_2a_j$. So if $f_1 = f_2$, then we have $\gamma a_j\gamma' = 0$. In what follows, assume that $f_1 \neq f_2$. We show below that this contradicts the assumption $\gamma' \neq 0$.

Computing the reduced form of $\gamma\gamma'$ yields

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \gamma\gamma' \\ &= (f_1 + f_2)a_2(f'_1a_1 + f'_2a_2 + f'_3a_3 + f'_4a_4 + g'a_0) \\ &\quad + (r'_0f_1 + s'_0g + (f_1 + f_2)a_2r'_1)a_1b_0 + (r'_0f_2 + t'_0g + (f_1 + f_2)a_2r'_2)a_2b_0 \\ &\quad + (r'_0f_3 + t'_0f_1 + (f_1 + f_2)a_2r'_3)a_3b_0 + (r'_0f_4 + h'_0g + (f_1 + f_2)a_2r'_4)a_4b_0 \\ &\quad + (s'_0f_1 + t'_0g + (f_1 + f_2)a_2s'_1)a_1b_1 + (s'_0f_2 + t'_0f_1 + (f_1 + f_2)a_2s'_2)a_2b_1 \\ &\quad + (s'_0f_3 + t'_0f_2 + (f_1 + f_2)a_2s'_3)a_3b_1 + (s'_0f_4 + h'_0f_1 + (f_1 + f_2)a_2s'_4)a_4b_1 \\ &\quad + (t'_0f_4 + h'_0f_2 + (f_1 + f_2)a_2t')a_4b_2. \end{aligned}$$

For ease of notation, we denote the coefficient of $a_k b_l$ in $\gamma\gamma'$ by $\otimes_{a_k b_l}$. That is

$$\begin{aligned} \otimes_{a_1 b_0} &= r'_0f_1 + s'_0g + (f_1 + f_2)a_2r'_1, \\ \otimes_{a_2 b_0} &= r'_0f_2 + t'_0g + (f_1 + f_2)a_2r'_2, \\ &\dots \\ \otimes_{a_4 b_2} &= t'_0f_4 + h'_0f_2 + (f_1 + f_2)a_2t'. \end{aligned}$$

Since $f_1 + f_2 \neq 0$, it follows that $f'_1 = f'_2 = f'_3 = f'_4 = g' = 0$. From the last five lines of $\gamma\gamma'$ we obtain

$$\otimes_{a_i b_0} = \otimes_{a_i b_1} = \otimes_{a_4 b_2} = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, 4.$$

Assume that $s'_0 = 1$. If $t'_0 = 1$, then Eq. $\otimes_{a_2 b_1}$ implies $\deg((f_1 + f_2)a_2) \leq \deg(f_1 + f_2)$, which is impossible since $f_1 \neq f_2$. So $t'_0 = 0$. But then adding Eqs. $\otimes_{a_1 b_1}$ and $\otimes_{a_2 b_1}$ causes the same contradiction.

Thus we have $s'_0 = 0$. If $t'_0 = 1$, then adding Eqs. $\otimes_{a_2 b_1}$ and $\otimes_{a_3 b_1}$ reaches the same contradiction as above. Therefore, $t'_0 = 0$.

Suppose that $r'_0 = 1$ and $h'_0 = 1$, then adding Eqs. $\otimes_{a_1 b_0}$ and $\otimes_{a_2 b_0}$, Eqs. $\otimes_{a_4 b_1}$ and $\otimes_{a_4 b_2}$, respectively. We also obtain the preceding contradiction. So $r'_0 = 0$ and $h'_0 = 0$. Because $f_1 \neq f_2$, we have $r'_i = s'_j = t' = 0$, where $1 \leq i, j \leq 4$. Hence $\gamma' = 0$, contradicting our previous assumption that $\gamma' \neq 0$.

This shows that $\gamma r\gamma' = 0$ if $\deg(r) = 1$. Repeating the above argument replacing γ by γr , $\gamma r\gamma' = 0$ also holds when r is a monomial of any positive degree. Clearly, if $r = 1$ then $\gamma r\gamma' = 0$. Since any element of R is just a sum of monomials, putting this all together yields $\gamma r\gamma' = 0$ for all $r \in R$. Therefore, R is a semi-commutative ring. \square

Due to Claim 1, one may check that $F(y), G(y) \neq 0$ in $R[x][y]$.

Claim 3. The polynomial ring $R[x]$ is not right linearly McCoy.

Proof of Claim 3. We conclude that $r_{R[x]}(a_4) = \{\sum_i k_i b_3 x^i : k_i \in \mathbb{F}_2, i \in \mathbb{N}\} + \sum_{j=0}^4 a_j R[x]$. Obviously, by the construction of the ideal I , each polynomial of the right side set in the equation above annihilates a_4 on the right. Meanwhile, for any $p(x) \in r_{R[x]}(a_4)$, write $p(x) = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 x + \gamma_2 x^2 + \dots + \gamma_n x^n$ with $\gamma_i \in R$ written in the form as Claim 1. So we let $\gamma_i = f_0^{(i)} + f_1^{(i)} a_1 + \dots + h_0^{(i)} b_3, 0 \leq i \leq n$. Since $a_4 \gamma_i = 0$, we have $f_0^{(i)} = r_0^{(i)} = s_0^{(i)} = t_0^{(i)} = 0$. Thus $\gamma_i \in \{k b_3 : k \in \mathbb{F}_2\} + \sum_{j=0}^4 a_j R$, i.e., $p(x) \in \{\sum_i k_i b_3 x^i : k_i \in \mathbb{F}_2, i \in \mathbb{N}\} + \sum_{j=0}^4 a_j R[x]$.

For any $p(x) \in R[x]$, if $F(y)p(x) = 0$, then $p(x) \in r_{R[x]}(a_4)$ since $a_4 p(x) = 0$. So let $p(x) = (k_0 b_3 + k'_0 p_0) + (k_1 b_3 + k'_1 p_1)x + (k_2 b_3 + k'_2 p_2)x^2 + \dots + (k_n b_3 + k'_n p_n)x^n$, where $k_i, k'_i \in \mathbb{F}_2, p_l \in \sum_{j=0}^4 a_j R, 0 \leq l \leq n$, and each p_l is written uniquely as Claim 1. If some p_{l_0} does not occur in the coefficients of $p(x)$ (i.e., $p_{l_0} = 0$), then let $k'_{l_0} = 0$.

From the equation $F(y)p(x) = 0$, we also get $(a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3)p(x) = 0$. This implies the following system of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} (0) \quad & a_0(k_0 b_3 + k'_0 p_0) = 0, \\ (1) \quad & a_0(k_1 b_3 + k'_1 p_1) + a_1(k_0 b_3 + k'_0 p_0) = 0, \\ (2) \quad & a_0(k_2 b_3 + k'_2 p_2) + a_1(k_1 b_3 + k'_1 p_1) + a_2(k_0 b_3 + k'_0 p_0) = 0, \\ (3) \quad & a_0(k_3 b_3 + k'_3 p_3) + a_1(k_2 b_3 + k'_2 p_2) + a_2(k_1 b_3 + k'_1 p_1) + a_3(k_0 b_3 + k'_0 p_0) = 0, \\ & \vdots \\ (n+1) \quad & a_1(k_n b_3 + k'_n p_n) + a_2(k_{n-1} b_3 + k'_{n-1} p_{n-1}) + a_3(k_{n-2} b_3 + k'_{n-2} p_{n-2}) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Notice that $a_0 p_i = 0$ and $a_k p_i = a_k b_3 = 0$, where $k = 3, 4; i = 0, 1, \dots, n$. So from Eq.(0) we have $k_0 = 0$, and Eq. (1) implies that $k'_0 = 0, k_1 = 0$. Continuing this process, Eq.($i + 1$) yields $k'_i = k_{i+1} = 0$ for $1 \leq i \leq n - 1$, and we get $k'_n = 0$ from Eq.($n + 1$). Thus, $p(x) = 0$, which implies that $R[x]$ is not right linearly McCoy. \square

Claim 4. The ring R is left McCoy (so $R[x]$ is left linearly McCoy).

Proof of Claim 4. For completeness of the proof, we adapt the method used in [15, Claim 8]. Let $\alpha(x), \beta(x) \in R[x] \setminus \{0\}$ satisfy $\alpha(x)\beta(x) = 0$. Set $\alpha(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m p_i x^i, \beta(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n q_i x^i$. If each q_i has zero constant term, then $b_0 q_i = 0$, whence $b_0 \beta(x) = 0$, and we are done. Next we assume that there exists some q_i has a nonzero constant term. Let l_0 be the smallest index such that q_{l_0} satisfies this property.

For each $p_i \neq 0$, let p'_i be the sum of nonzero terms of p_i with smallest degree. And for $p_i = 0$, put $p'_i = 0$. Also, let k_0 be the smallest index such that, among the members of $\{p'_0, p'_1, \dots, p'_m\} \setminus \{0\}$, we have p'_{k_0} with minimal degree, since $\alpha(x) \neq 0, k_0$ exists.

Notice that the degree $l_0 + k_0$ part of $\alpha(x)\beta(x) = 0$ we obtain

$$(*) \quad \sum_{s,t:s+t=l_0+k_0} p_s q_t = 0.$$

Since I is a homogeneous ideal, each term of any fixed degree in Eq. (*) must add to zero. From our choice of k_0 and l_0 , the term of smallest degree in Eq. (*) is $p'_{k_0} \cdot 1 = p'_{k_0} \neq 0$, which comes from $p_{k_0}q_{l_0}$. So this causes a contradiction.

Hence R is a left McCoy ring. In view of [12, Theorem 1], the polynomial ring $R[x]$ is left linearly McCoy. \square

This completes the proof of Theorem 2.2. \square

By virtue of Theorem 2.2, a well-known result relating to semi-commutativity can be obtained (cf. [4, Example 8.6], [8, Example 2]).

Corollary 2.3. *The polynomial rings over semi-commutative rings need not be semi-commutative.*

Proposition 2.4. *Let R be a ring and Ω be a multiplicatively closed subset of R consisting of central regular elements. Then R is linearly McCoy if and only if $\Omega^{-1}R$ is linearly McCoy.*

Proof. “ \Rightarrow ”. Let $f(x) = \alpha + \beta x$, $g(x) = \alpha' + \beta' x$ be nonzero elements of $\Omega^{-1}R[x]$ such that $f(x)g(x) = 0$, where $\alpha, \beta, \alpha', \beta' \in \Omega^{-1}R$. Then there exist $u, v \in \Omega$ such that $\alpha = u^{-1}a$, $\beta = u^{-1}b$, $\alpha' = v^{-1}c$, $\beta' = v^{-1}d$. Since Ω is contained in the center of R , we have $f(x)g(x) = u^{-1}(a + bx)v^{-1}(c + dx) = (uv)^{-1}(a + bx)(c + dx) = 0$. Set $f_1(x) = a + bx$, $g_1(x) = c + dx$. Obviously, $f_1(x), g_1(x) \in R[x] \setminus \{0\}$ and $f_1(x)g_1(x) = 0$. There exist nonzero $s, t \in R$ such that $f_1(x)s = tg_1(x) = 0$ since R is linearly McCoy. Then $f(x)\gamma = \delta g(x) = 0$, where $\gamma = w^{-1}s$, $\delta = w^{-1}t$ and nonzero $w \in \Omega$. Therefore, $\Omega^{-1}R$ is linearly McCoy.

“ \Leftarrow ”. Suppose that $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x$ and $g(x) = b_0 + b_1x$ are nonzero elements of $R[x]$ with $f(x)g(x) = 0$. Also, $f(x), g(x) \in \Omega^{-1}R[x] \setminus \{0\}$. Because $\Omega^{-1}R$ is linearly McCoy, there exist $\alpha = u^{-1}a$, $\beta = v^{-1}b \in \Omega^{-1}R \setminus \{0\}$ such that $f(x)\alpha = \beta g(x) = 0$. It follows that $f(x)a = bg(x) = 0$. Thus R is linearly McCoy. \square

The ring of *Laurent polynomials* in x , coefficients in a ring R , consisting of all formal sums $\sum_{i=k}^n m_i x^i$ with obvious addition and multiplication, where $m_i \in R$ and k, n are (possibly negative) integers; denote it by $R[x; x^{-1}]$.

Corollary 2.5. *For a ring R , $R[x]$ is linearly McCoy if and only if $R[x; x^{-1}]$ is linearly McCoy.*

Proof. Let $\Omega = \{1, x, x^2, \dots\}$. Then Ω is a multiplicatively closed subset of $R[x]$ consisting entirely of central regular elements. Since $R[x; x^{-1}] = \Omega^{-1}R[x]$, by Proposition 2.4, we are done. \square

3. Matrix rings and classical quotient rings

In this section, we study the property “linearly McCoy” of some subring of the upper triangular matrix ring; the trivial extension of a linearly McCoy ring and its classical quotient ring are also investigated.

Let R be a ring. We consider the ring

$$R_n = \left\{ \left(\begin{array}{cccccc} a & a_{12} & a_{13} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ 0 & a & a_{23} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ 0 & 0 & a & \dots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & a \end{array} \right) : a, a_{kl} \in R \right\},$$

where $n (\geq 1)$ is a positive integer.

Proposition 3.1. *For any $n \geq 1$, a ring R is linearly McCoy if and only if the ring R_n is linearly McCoy.*

Proof. “ \Rightarrow ”. Let $H(x) \in R_n[x]$. Then $H(x)$ can be expressed as the form of a matrix, and the (i, j) -entry of $H(x)$ is denoted by $h_{ij}(x) = [H(x)]_{i,j}$. Clearly, $h_{ij}(x) \in R[x]$.

Suppose that $F(x), G(x)$ are nonzero linear polynomials of $R_n[x]$ with $F(x)G(x) = 0$. We show that there exist $A, B \in R_n \setminus \{0\}$ such that $F(x)A = BG(x) = 0$. Now we proceed with the following cases.

Case 1. If $f_{11}(x) \neq 0, g_{11}(x) \neq 0$, then $f_{11}(x)g_{11}(x) = 0$, where $f_{11}(x) = [F(x)]_{1,1}, g_{11}(x) = [G(x)]_{1,1}$. Since R is linearly McCoy, there exist $s, t \in R \setminus \{0\}$ such that $f_{11}(x)s = tg_{11}(x) = 0$. Put $A = sE_{1n}, B = tE_{1n}$. Then $F(x)A = BG(x) = 0$.

Case 2. If $f_{11}(x) \neq 0, g_{11}(x) = 0$, then there exists $g_{kl}(x) \neq 0$ satisfying $g_{(k+u)l}(x) = 0$ for some k, l and $1 \leq u \leq n - k$ since $G(x) \neq 0$. So $f_{11}(x)g_{kl}(x) = 0$. Hence there exists $s \in R \setminus \{0\}$ such that $f_{11}(x)s = 0$. Write $A = sE_{1n}$. Then $F(x)A = AG(x) = 0$.

Case 3. If $f_{11}(x) = 0, g_{11}(x) \neq 0$, then there exist $A, B \in R_n \setminus \{0\}$ such that $F(x)A = BG(x) = 0$. The proof is similar to Case 2.

Case 4. If $f_{11}(x) = 0, g_{11}(x) = 0$, then for any $s \in R \setminus \{0\}, F(x)A = AG(x) = 0$ with $A = sE_{1n}$.

Therefore, R_n is linearly McCoy.

“ \Leftarrow ”. Assume that $f(x)g(x) = 0$, where $f(x), g(x)$ are nonzero linearly polynomials of $R[x]$. Let $F(x) = f(x)E_n, G(x) = g(x)E_n$ with E_n the $n \times n$ identity matrix. Then $F(x), G(x) \in R_n[x] \setminus \{0\}$ and $F(x)G(x) = 0$. Since R_n is linearly McCoy, there exist $A, B \in R_n \setminus \{0\}$ such that $F(x)A = BG(x) = 0$. Obviously, there exist nonzero $a, b \in R$ such that $f(x)a = bg(x) = 0$. So the proof is complete. \square

Given a ring R and an (R, R) -bimodule M , the *trivial extension* of R by M is the ring $T(R, M) = R \oplus M$ with the usual addition and the following multiplication:

$$(r_1, m_1)(r_2, m_2) = (r_1r_2, r_1m_2 + m_1r_2).$$

This is isomorphic to the ring of all matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} r & m \\ 0 & r \end{pmatrix},$$

where $r \in R$ and $m \in M$ and the usual matrix operations are used.

Corollary 3.2. *A ring R is linearly McCoy if and only if the trivial extension $T(R, R)$ is linearly McCoy.*

However, the trivial extension $T(R, S)$ of a ring R by a ring S being right linearly McCoy does not imply that of S .

Example 3.3. Let K be a commutative ring, $R = \{ \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & a \end{pmatrix} : a \in K \}$ and $S = \{ \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ 0 & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} : a_{ij} \in K \}$. Then the ring R and the trivial extension $H = T(R, S)$ are right linearly McCoy, but S is not.

Proof. Since $R \cong K$, R is a linearly McCoy ring. But S is not right linearly McCoy by [4, Proposition 10.2]. It is easy to check that S is an (R, R) -bimodule. We next show that $H = T(R, S)$ is right linearly McCoy. Let

$$F(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f(x) & 0 \\ 0 & f(x) \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} f_{11}(x) & f_{12}(x) \\ 0 & f_{22}(x) \end{pmatrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} f(x) & 0 \\ 0 & f(x) \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and}$$

$$G(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} g(x) & 0 \\ 0 & g(x) \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} g_{11}(x) & g_{12}(x) \\ 0 & g_{22}(x) \end{pmatrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} g(x) & 0 \\ 0 & g(x) \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$$

be nonzero linear polynomials of $H[x]$ with $F(x)G(x) = 0$, where $f(x) = a+a'x$, $f_{ij}(x) = a_{ij} + a'_{ij}x$, $g(x) = b + b'x$, $g_{ij}(x) = b_{ij} + b'_{ij}x \in K[x]$ and $1 \leq i \leq j \leq 2$. From $F(x)G(x) = 0$, we have $f(x)g(x) = 0$, $f(x)g_{11}(x) + f_{11}(x)g(x) = 0$, $f(x)g_{12}(x) + f_{12}(x)g(x) = 0$ and $f(x)g_{22}(x) + f_{22}(x)g(x) = 0$. For any $s \in K$, write $E_{12}(s) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \begin{pmatrix} s & s \\ 0 & s \end{pmatrix} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in H$.

Case 1. If $f(x) = 0$, then for any nonzero $r \in K$, let $A = E_{12}(r)$. Then $F(x)E_{12}(r) = 0$.

Case 2. If $f(x) \neq 0$, $g(x) \neq 0$, then there exists $s \in K \setminus \{0\}$ such that $f(x)s = 0$ since $f(x)g(x) = 0$ and K is linearly McCoy. Let $B = E_{12}(s)$. Then $F(x)B = 0$.

Case 3. If $f(x) \neq 0$, $g(x) = 0$, then $f(x)g_{11}(x) = f(x)g_{12}(x) = f(x)g_{22}(x) = 0$. Note that $G(x) \neq 0$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $g_{11}(x) \neq 0$. So there exists $t \in K \setminus \{0\}$ such that $f(x)t = 0$. Write $C = E_{12}(t)$. Then $F(x)C = 0$.

Hence, H is a right linearly McCoy ring. □

Remark 3.4. Based on Proposition 3.1, one may suspect that the matrix ring and the upper triangular matrix ring over a linearly McCoy ring are linearly McCoy. But it gives a negative answer by [4, Proposition 10.2]. So the linearly McCoy property is badly behaved with regards to Morita invariance.

In view of [5, Example 2.1], the class of linearly McCoy rings is not closed under homomorphic images. Nevertheless, we have the following theorem.

Theorem 3.5. *Let R be a ring and n any positive integer. If R is linearly McCoy, then $R[x]/(x^n)$ is a linearly McCoy ring, where (x^n) is the ideal generated by x^n .*

Proof. Denote \bar{x} in $R[x]/(x^n)$ by u . Then $R[x]/(x^n) \cong R[u] = R + Ru + \dots + Ru^{n-1}$, where u commutes with elements in R and $u^n = 0$.

Let $F(y) = f_0(u) + f_1(u)y$, $G(y) = g_0(u) + g_1(u)y$ be nonzero elements of $R[u][y]$ such that $F(y)G(y) = 0$, where $f_i(u) = \sum_{p=0}^{n-1} a_i^p u^p$ and $g_j(u) = \sum_{q=0}^{n-1} b_j^q u^q$ with $i, j = 0, 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= F(y)G(y) \\ &= (f_0(u) + f_1(u)y)(g_0(u) + g_1(u)y) \\ &= \left(\sum_{p=0}^{n-1} a_0^p u^p + \sum_{p=0}^{n-1} a_1^p u^p y\right) \left(\sum_{q=0}^{n-1} b_0^q u^q + \sum_{q=0}^{n-1} b_1^q u^q y\right) \\ &= \left[\sum_{p=0}^{n-1} (a_0^p + a_1^p y) u^p\right] \left[\sum_{q=0}^{n-1} (b_0^q + b_1^q y) u^q\right]. \end{aligned}$$

In particular, we have

$$(*) \quad (a_0^0 + a_1^0 y)(b_0^k + b_1^k y) = 0$$

with minimal k such that $b_0^k + b_1^k y \neq 0$. Such k exists since $G(y) \neq 0$.

Assume that $a_0^0 = a_1^0 = 0$. Let $h(u) = u^{n-1}$. Then $f_0(u)h(u) = f_1(u)h(u) = 0$, whence $F(y)h(u) = 0$ since $u^n = 0$.

Suppose that $a_i^0 \neq 0$ for some i . Since R is linearly McCoy, Eq. (*) implies that there exists $r \in R \setminus \{0\}$ such that $(a_0^0 + a_1^0 y)r = 0$. Let $h(u) = ru^{n-1}$. Then $f_i(u)h(u) = 0$ for $i = 0, 1$, and thus $F(y)h(u) = 0$.

Hence $R[x]/(x^n) \cong R[u]$ is right linearly McCoy. $R[x]/(x^n)$ is left linearly McCoy can be shown in the same manner. \square

A classical right quotient ring for R is a ring Q which contains R as a subring in such a way that every regular element (i.e., non-zero-divisor) of R is invertible in Q and $Q = \{a\mu^{-1} : a, \mu \in R, \mu \text{ regular}\}$. The free algebra $L\langle x, y \rangle$ in two indeterminates over a field L is a well-known example of a domain which does not have a classical right quotient ring.

Theorem 3.6. *Suppose that there exists the classical right quotient ring Q of a ring R . Then R is right linearly McCoy if and only if Q is right linearly McCoy.*

Proof. “ \Rightarrow ”. Let $f(x) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x$ and $g(x) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x \in Q[x] \setminus \{0\}$ satisfy $f(x)g(x) = 0$. By [13, Proposition 2.1.16], we may assume that $\alpha_i = a_i u^{-1}$, $\beta_j = b_j v^{-1}$ with $a_i, b_j \in R$ for $i, j = 0, 1$ and regular elements $u, v \in R$. For each j , there exist $c_j \in R$ and a regular element $w \in R$ such

that $u^{-1}b_j = c_jw^{-1}$ also by [13, Proposition 2.1.16]. Denote $f_1(x) = a_0 + a_1x$ and $g_1(x) = c_0 + c_1x$. Then the equation

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(x)g_1(x)(vw)^{-1} &= \sum_{i=0}^1 \sum_{j=0}^1 (a_i c_j)(vw)^{-1} x^{i+j} \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^1 \sum_{j=0}^1 a_i (u^{-1} b_j) v^{-1} x^{i+j} \\ &= f(x)g(x) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

implies $f_1(x)g_1(x) = 0$. Since R is right linearly McCoy, there exists $s \in R \setminus \{0\}$ such that $f_1(x)s = 0$, i.e., $a_i s = 0$ for $i = 0, 1$. Then $\alpha_i(us) = a_i s = 0$ for every i , which implies that $f(x)(us) = 0$ and us is nonzero in Q . This proves that Q is right linearly McCoy.

“ \Leftarrow ”. Let $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x$, $g(x) = b_0 + b_1x \in R[x] \setminus \{0\} \subseteq Q[x] \setminus \{0\}$ satisfy $f(x)g(x) = 0$. Then there exists $\alpha \in Q \setminus \{0\}$ such that $f(x)\alpha = 0$ since Q is right linearly McCoy. Because Q is a classical right quotient ring, we can take $\alpha = au^{-1}$ for some $a \in R \setminus \{0\}$ and regular element u . Then $f(x)au^{-1} = f(x)\alpha = 0$, implies that $f(x)a = 0$. Therefore, R is a right linearly McCoy ring. \square

Goldie theorem reveals that if R is a semiprime two-sided Goldie ring, then R has the classical left and right quotient rings. Hence there exists a class of rings satisfying the following hypothesis.

Corollary 3.7. *Suppose that there exists the classical left and right quotient ring Q of a ring R . Then R is linearly McCoy if and only if Q is linearly McCoy.*

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