## RADICAL RING

In mathematics, a radical ring $R$ is a ring without unity which is equal to its Jacobson radical (see Ring (mathematics)). Finite radical rings yield set-theoretic solutions of the Yang-Baxter equation, and are examples of skew braces. They also yield examples of Hopf-Galois structures on Galois extensions of fields. ${ }^{[1]}$

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## Definitions

Radical ring. A radical ring $R$ is with the additional property that $R$ is equal to its Jacobson radical $J(R)$.

A ring $R$ without unity, sometimes called a rng, has two operations, + (addition) and $\cdot$ (multiplication), where $a \cdot b$ is typically written $a b$, and $a \cdot a \cdot \ldots \cdot a$ ( $n$ factors) is denoted $a^{n}$. With those operations, $R$ satisfies all of the properties of a ring (associativity of multiplication, left and right distributivity of multiplication over addition, etc.) except that there is no multiplicative identity element.

A radical ring $R$ is a ring without unity with the additional property that the ring $R$ is equal to its Jacobson radical $J(R)$ (See Jacobson radical. More explicitly, given any ring $R$, define the circle operation $\circ$ on $R$ by $a \circ b=a+b+a \cdot b$. It is easy to check that the operation $\circ$ is associative, and $a \circ 0=0 \circ a=a$, so $(R, \circ)$, the set $R$ with the circle operation $\circ$, is a monoid ( $R, \circ$ ) with identity element
equal to the additive identity element 0 of the ring $R$. Call an element $a$ of $R$ right quasi-regular if there exists an element $\bar{a}$ of $R$ so that $a+\bar{a}+a \cdot \bar{a}=0$ : that means that $a$ has a right inverse under the circle operation.

Then the ring $R$ is a radical ring if and only if ( $R, \circ$ ) is a group: that is, every element of $R$ is both right quasi-regular and left quasi-regular. The group $(R, \circ)$ is called the circle group or adjoint group of $R$.

Nilpotent ring. A nilpotent ring of index $n$ (some positive integer) is a ring without unity in which the product $a_{1} \cdot a_{2} \cdot \ldots \cdot a_{n}=0$ for all elements $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ of $R$. A nilpotent ring of index $n$ is a radical ring: given $a$ in $R$, the element

$$
\bar{a}=-a+a^{2}-a^{3}+a^{4}+\ldots
$$

is a finite sum because $a^{n}=0$, and is easily seen to be the left and right inverse of $a$ under the circle operation.

Conversely, if $R$ is a finite radical ring, then $R$ is Artinian, that is, satisfies the descending chain condition on left ideals (any descending chain of left ideals must have finite length), hence $R$ is a nilpotent ring, by a theorem of Hopkins [see [Her61]].

## Circle group

. An open question is to understand which finite groups can be the circle group of a finite radical ring.

It is known (see [AW73]) that if the radical ring $R$ is nilpotent of index $n$, then the circle group $G$ of $R$ is a nilpotent group of class at most $n-1$. For setting $R^{k}$ to be the subring generated by all products of $k$ elements of $R$, then in the chain of subring

$$
R \supset R^{2} \supset R^{3} \supset \ldots \supset R^{n-1} \supset R^{n}=0,
$$

each subring $R^{j}$ is a normal subgroup of the group ( $R, \circ$ ), and the commutator of any element of $R^{j}$ is in $R^{j+1}$. Ault and Watters [AW73] prove a partial converse: if $G$ is a finite nilpotent group of class 2, that is, if $G \supset Z(G) \supset(1)$ with $Z(G)$ the center of $G$ and $G / Z(G)$ is abelian, then $G$ is the circle group of a nilpotent ring of class 3. See also [Kru70].

## Some counting results

Radical algebras and rings with unity. A radical algebra $R$ over a field $K$ is a $K$-vector space which is a radical ring-that is, a $K$-algebra $R$ without unity for which $R=J(R)$. For $R$ finite dimensional over $K$, the dimension of $R$ as a $K$-vector space is called the rank of $R$. Then
the ring with unity $R^{\prime}=K \oplus R=s+a \mid s \in K, a \in R$ is a ring with multiplication

$$
(s+a)(t+b)=s t+s b+t a+t b
$$

and multiplicative identity $=1=1+0$, the multiplicative identity element of $K$. For $R$ commutative, then $R^{\prime}$ is a commutative local ring with unique maximal ideal $R$, since $R=J(R)=J\left(R^{\prime}\right)$. In that setting, there is an isomorphism from ( $R, \circ$ ) to ( $\left.R^{\prime}, \cdot\right)$ induced by $a \rightarrow 1+a$, for

$$
a \circ b=a+b+a b \mapsto 1+a+b+a b=(1+a)(1+b) .
$$

Counting isomorphism types of commutative nilpotent algebras. In [Po 08b], Poonen determines all 52 of the commutative local algebras of rank $\leq 6$ (up to isomorphism as $K$-algebras) over an algebraically closed field $K$; they all have the form $A=K \oplus R$ where $R$ is a commutative radical algebra of rank one less than the rank of $A$. In particular, over an algebraically closed field $F$ of characteristic $p$, the number of isomorphism types of commutative nilpotent algebras of rank $n \leq 5$ is independent of $p$. (Nearly all of the algebras can be defined over any field, not just algebraically closed fields, hence yield distinct examples of nilpotent algebras of index $\leq 5$ over any field.)

For $K$ the field of $p$ elements, the number of commutative nilpotent $K$-algebras $A$ of rank $n$ a over $K$ satisfying $A^{3}=0$ is a fixed number independent of $p$ for $n<5$, but examples in [ST68] show that the number of isomorphism types of commutative nilpotent $K$-algebras of rank 6 is at least $(p-5) / 6$, resp. $(p-1) / 6$ if $p$ is congruent to 5 , resp. 1 modulo 6 . So the number of isomorphism types for rank $\geq 6$ goes to infinity with $p$. Whether this is also true for algebras of rank 5 is apparently unknown (c.f. [Ch15]).

Number of rank $n$ commutative nilpotent $\mathbb{F}_{p}$-algebras for large $n$. Kruse and Price [KP70] determined that the number of isomorphism types of commutative nilpotent $\mathbb{F}_{p}$-algebras $A$ of rank $n$ over $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ and index 3 , that is, with $A^{3}=0$, is $p^{\frac{2}{27} n^{3}-\frac{4}{9} n^{2}+O(n)}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. For $p>3$, the circle group of any $\mathbb{F}_{p^{-}}$-algebra $A$ with $A^{3}=0$ is an elementary abelian $p$-group, a consequence of a lemma of Caranti ${ }^{[2]}$.

Poonen [Po08b] determined that for large $m$ the number of rank $m$ commutative local $\mathbb{F}_{p}$-algebras is $p^{\frac{2}{27} m^{3}+O\left(m^{8 / 3}\right)}$. Since local $\mathbb{F}_{p}$-algebras of rank $m$ coincide with nilpotent $\mathbb{F}_{p}$-algebras of rank $m-1$, this gives an asymptotic estimate of the number of commutative nilpotent $\mathbb{F}_{p^{-}}$ algebras of rank $n$, independent of index.

Number of nilpotent $K$-algebras of dimension $\leq 4$. In [DeG18], DeGraaf determined all isomorphism types of nilpotent associative (but not necessarily commutative) $K$-algebras of dimension $\leq 4$ over any field $K$ : if $K$ is a finite field with $q$ elements, then there are $5 q+20$ isomorphism types for $q$ odd and $5 q+17$ for $q$ even.

## Radical Rings and skew braces

A set $B$ with two operations, $*$ and $\circ$, is a left skew brace if $(B, *)$ is a group (where the inverse of $a$ is called $a^{-1}$ ), (B,o) is a group (where the inverse of $a$ is called $\bar{a}$ ), and the single defining relation relating the two operations is: for all $a, b, c$ in $B$,

$$
a \circ(b * c)=(a \circ b) * a^{-1} *(a \circ c) .
$$

If $(B, *)$ is an abelian group, then $B$ is called a brace. In that setting $(B, *)$ is usually called the "additive group" and the operation $*$ is usually replaced by + ; in that case the defining relation is

$$
a \circ(b+c)=(a \circ b)-a+(a \circ c) .
$$

Given a radical algebra $A=(A,+, \cdot)$, the circle operation $\circ$ on $A$ defined by

$$
a \circ b=a+b+a \cdot b
$$

makes $(A, \circ)$ into a group, and then $(A,+, \circ)$ is then a brace: for

$$
a \circ(b+c)=a+b+c+a(b+c) .
$$

while

$$
(a \circ b)-a+(a \circ c)=a+b+a b-a+a+c+a c .
$$

and the defining relation for a brace holds. (see [GV17], [SV18]).

Radical algebras and the set-theoretic Yang-Baxter EQUATION

The question of finding set-theoretic solutions of the Yang-Baxter equation was first raised by V. G. Drinfel'd in 1990 [Dr92]. That question has motivated considerable work in algebra since that time.

Any radical $K$-algebra $A$ yields a set-theoretical solution of the YangBaxter equation:

Given $A$, define $\lambda_{a}: A \rightarrow A$ by $\lambda_{a}(b)=a^{-1}(a \circ b)$. Then $a \circ b=a \lambda_{a} b$. We let $R: A \times A \rightarrow A \times A$ by

$$
R(a, b)=\left(\sigma_{a}(b), \tau_{b}(a)=\left(\lambda_{a}(b), \overline{\lambda_{a}(b)} \circ a \circ b\right.\right.
$$

where $\sigma_{a}(b)=a^{-1}(a \circ b)$ and $\tau_{b}(a)=\overline{\lambda_{a}(b)} \circ a \circ b$. The claim ([GV], Theorem 3.1) is that if $A$ is a skew left brace, then for all $x, y, z$ in $A$,

$$
(R \times i d)(i d \times R)(R \times i d)(x, y, z)=(i d \times R)(R \times i d)(i d \times R)(x, y, z)
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left.\sigma_{\sigma_{x}(y)}\left(\sigma_{\tau_{y}(x)}(z)\right), \tau_{\sigma_{\tau_{y}(x)}(z)}\left(\sigma_{x}(y)\right), \tau_{z}\left(\tau_{y}(x)\right)\right) \\
& =\left(\sigma_{x}\left(\sigma_{y}(z)\right), \sigma_{\left.\tau_{\sigma_{y}(z)}(x)\right)}\left(\tau_{z}(y)\right), \tau_{\tau_{z}(y)}\left(\tau_{\sigma_{y}(z)}(x)\right)\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

So there are three equalities to show:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sigma_{\sigma_{x}(y)}\left(\sigma_{\tau_{y}(x)}(z)\right)=\sigma_{x}\left(\sigma_{y}(z)\right), \\
\tau_{\sigma_{\tau_{y}(x)}(z)}\left(\sigma_{x}(y)\right)=\sigma_{\tau_{\sigma_{y}(z)}(x)}\left(\tau_{z}(y)\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
\left.\tau_{z}\left(\tau_{y}(x)\right)\right)=\tau_{\tau_{z}(y)}\left(\tau_{\sigma_{y}(z)}(x)\right)
$$

The fact that any radical algebra yields a set-theoretic solution to the YBE motivated the concept of left brace by W. Rump [Ru06], and subsequently the concept of skew left brace ([GV17]), as generalizations of a radical algebra: every skew brace yields a solution to the YBE and every solution to the set-theoretic YBE corresponds to a skew brace. (see, e. g [Ven19])

For a radical algebra $A, \sigma_{x}(y)=y+x y$ and $\tau_{y}(x)=\frac{x}{1+y+x y}$. Note that by embedding $A$ into $A^{\prime}=K \oplus A$ by $a \rightarrow 1+a$, we can identify $A$ as the set of elements $1+a$ in $A^{\prime}$, and they are all invertible in $A^{\prime}$. For if $\bar{a}$ is the inverse of $A$ in the circle group ( $A, \circ$ ), then in $A^{\prime}, 1+a$ for $a$ in $R$ has an inverse, $1+\bar{a}$. where $\bar{a}$ is the inverse of $a$ in the circle group ( $R, \circ$ ):

$$
0=a \circ a^{\prime}=a+a^{\prime}+a a^{\prime}
$$

iff $1=(1+a)(1+\bar{a})$. Thus $\tau_{y}(x)$ makes sense in $A^{\prime}$.
Thus for a radical algebra $A$ (or $A^{\prime}=K \oplus A$ ), the three equations that must hold for the function $R$ to yield a set-theoretic solution of the YBE are as follows: The left equation ( L ) is:

$$
\sigma_{\sigma_{x}(y)}\left(\sigma_{\tau_{y}(x)}(z)\right)=\sigma_{x}\left(\sigma_{y}(z)\right):
$$

both sides of equation $(L)$ equal

$$
(1+x)(1+y) z
$$

The middle equation (C) is

$$
\tau_{\sigma_{\tau_{y}(x)}(z)}\left(\sigma_{x}(y)\right)=\sigma_{\tau_{\sigma_{y}(z)}(x)}\left(\tau_{z}(y)\right):
$$

both sides of equation (C) equal

$$
\frac{(y(1+x)}{1+z(1+x)(1+y)} .
$$

The right equation is $(\mathrm{R})$ :

$$
\left.\tau_{z}\left(\tau_{y}(x)\right)\right)=\tau_{\tau_{z}(y)}\left(\tau_{\sigma_{y}(z)}(x)\right):
$$

both sides of equation (R) equal

$$
\frac{x}{(1+z)(1+y+y x)+x z}
$$

Thus a radical algebra yields a solution of the Yang-Baxter equation.

## See also

Jacobson radical, Yang-Baxter equation; for connections to HopfGalois theory and local algebraic number theory, see [CGKKKTU21]; for brace theory, see [GV17] and [SV18] and the references therein.

## Notes

[1]. For the connection between radical rings and Hopf-Galois extensions, see, for example, [Ch15] or [CGKKKTU21] and the references therein.
[2]. Caranti's Lemma says that if $A$ is a commutative nilpotent $\mathbb{F}_{p^{-}}$ algebra of dimension $n$ and index $\leq e$ (that is, $A^{e}=0$ ) where $e<p$, then the circle group $(A, \circ)$ is isomorphic to the additive group $(A,+)$.

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