

## FUNCTORIAL RADICALS AND NON-ABELIAN TORSION, II

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The object of this paper is to complete and continue some matters in [1].

In [1], Section 2, the torsion and torsion-free functors, whose operation on the category of abelian groups are well known, were extended to the category of all groups as follows. For a group  $A$ , put  $t_0(A)=0$  and  $t_1(A)$ =the subgroup of  $A$  generated by the torsion elements of  $A$ . Inductively define  $t_{n+1}(A)/t_n(A)=t_1(A/t_n(A))$ , for every positive integer  $n$ . Then  $T(A)=\bigcup_n t_n(A)$  is the smallest subgroup  $H$  of  $A$  such that  $A/H$  is torsion-free, [1], Th. 2.2. A group  $A$  satisfying  $T(A)=A$  was called a *pre-torsion group*. In [1], 2.12 an example was constructed of a group  $A$  satisfying  $t_1(A) \neq t_2(A)=A$ . The question was posed whether for every positive integer  $n$  there exist groups  $A$ , satisfying  $t_{n-1}(A) \neq t_n(A)=A$ . Here we give an affirmative answer. In fact, such groups will be constructed, as well as pre-torsion groups  $A$  with  $t_k(A) \neq A$  for every positive integer  $k$ , see Section 1.

In [1], Section 4, results concerning radicals and pre-radicals on the category  $(\Lambda, \Sigma)$ -mod of modules over a near-ring  $\Lambda$  distributively generated by a monoid  $\Sigma$ , were briefly presented. In Section 2 of this paper, proofs are supplied, as promised in [1], and some more results are given.

### 1.

We denote by  $A * B$  the free product of groups  $A, B$ . For groups  $A < B$  we denote by  $[A]$  the normal closure of  $A$  in  $B$ .

**Lemma 1.1.** *For groups  $A, B$  and for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $t_n(A * B) = [t_n(A) * t_n(B)]$ .*

**Proof.** The only periodic elements in  $A * B$  are conjugates of periodic elements in  $A$  or in  $B$ . Hence  $t_1(A * B)$  is indeed the normal closure of  $t_1(A) * t_1(B)$  in  $A * B$ . In proceeding from  $n$  to  $n + 1$ , it suffices to show that

$$t_1(A * B/[t_n(A) * t_n(B)]) = [t_{n+1}(A) * t_{n+1}(B)]/[t_n(A) * t_n(B)].$$

Now

$$A * B/[t_n(A) * t_n(B)] \cong A/t_n(A) * B/t_n(B)$$

(see [3], p. 194), hence

$$t_1(A * B/[t_n(A) * t_n(B)]) \cong [t_1(A/t_n(A)) * t_1(B/t_n(B))] = [t_{n+1}(A)/t_n(A) * t_{n+1}(B)/t_n(B)];$$

here the normal closure is taken in  $A/t_n(A) * B/t_n(B)$ . But

$$t_{n+1}(A)/t_n(A) * t_{n+1}(B)/t_n(B) \cong t_{n+1}(A) * t_{n+1}(B)/[t_n(A) * t_n(B)],$$

hence the normal closure of this group is isomorphic to

$$[t_{n+1}(A) * t_{n+1}(B)]/[t_n(A) * t_n(B)]$$

and our claim is established for  $n + 1$ .

**Definition 1.2.** A group  $A$  will be called  $n$ -torsion-generated ( $n$  a positive integer) if

$$t_n(A) = A \neq t_{n-1}(A) \tag{1}$$

In [1] a 1-torsion-generated group was said to be torsion-generated.

**1.3.** We construct inductively groups  $A_n$  which are  $n$ -torsion-generated. Clearly, any non-trivial torsion-generated group (for instance any non-trivial periodic group) may serve as  $A_1$ . Suppose  $A_n$  has been constructed which is  $n$ -torsion-generated. Take two copies of  $A_n$ , say  $B_n^1, B_n^2$  and put  $H_n = B_n^1 * B_n^2$ . It follows (by 1.1 and by [1], 2.16) that  $H_n$  is  $n$ -torsion-generated. By assumption there exist  $b_i \in B_n^i \setminus t_{n-1}(B_n^i)$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ . Then  $(b_1 b_2)^m \notin t_{n-1}(H_n)$  for every positive integer  $m$ . Add a free generator to  $H_n$ , namely consider  $H_n * \langle v_{n+1} \rangle$  and define  $A_{n+1}$  to be the quotient group of  $H_n$  modulo  $v_{n+1}^2 = b_1 b_2$ . Clearly  $t_{n+1}(A_{n+1}) = A_{n+1}$  but  $t_n(A_{n+1}) \neq A_{n+1}$  since  $v_{n+1} \notin t_n(A_{n+1})$ .

Observe that the construction may begin with any non-trivial group which is generated by its periodic elements. For example take  $A_1 = \langle x; x^2 = 1 \rangle$  a group of order 2. Then, by the construction  $H_2 = \langle x, y; x^2 = y^2 = 1 \rangle$  and  $A_2 = \langle x, y, v; x^2 = y^2 = 1, v^2 = xy \rangle$ . This is precisely the group  $A$  of [1], 2.12, namely  $\langle x_1, x_2; x_1^2 = 1, (x_1 x_2^2)^2 = 1 \rangle$ , via the mapping  $x_1 \mapsto x, x_2 \mapsto v$  (so  $x_1 x_2^2 \mapsto y$ ).

*Observation.*  $A_2$  is 2-solvable since  $A_2/[v]$  is clearly a group of order 2. Hence the fact  $T(A) = t_1(A)$ , which is true for nilpotent groups ([1], 2.11), is not true for solvable groups.

**1.4.** The construction in 1.3 exhibits a multitude of  $n$ -torsion-generated groups (which may be constructed to be finitely presented). It may be generalised in the following sense. Consider a set of groups  $\mathcal{S}, |\mathcal{S}| \geq 2$ , with  $t_n(H) = H$  for all  $H \in \mathcal{S}$  and with  $t_{n-1}(H_0) \neq H_0$  for at least one  $H_0$  in  $\mathcal{S}$ . Take a free product  $G = \left( \begin{matrix} * & H \\ & H \in \mathcal{S} \end{matrix} \right) * F$  with  $F$  free and consider any  $1 \neq f \in F, 1 \neq h_j \in H_j \in \mathcal{S}$  (for  $j = 1, \dots, r$ ),  $h_0 \in H_0 \setminus t_{n-1}(H_0), k \geq 2$ . Then  $G$  modulo  $f^k = h_0 h_1 \dots h_r$  is  $(n + 1)$ -torsion-generated.

1.5. Every  $n$ -torsion-generated group is evidently pre-torsion,  $T(A) = A$ . We construct a group  $A_\omega$  with

$$T(A_\omega) = A_\omega \neq t_n(A) \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}. \tag{2}$$

In 1.3 consider  $A_n = B_n^1 \hookrightarrow H_n \twoheadrightarrow A_{n+1}$ . This is clearly an embedding, so we take the limit  $A_\omega = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n$ . Then, by [1] 2.16,  $A_\omega$  satisfies (2). (Clearly,  $A_\omega$  may be constructed to be countably presented.) The following is established.

**Theorem 1.6.** *Every  $n$ -torsion-generated group may be embedded into a  $(n + 1)$ -torsion-generated group. Every  $n$ -torsion-generated group may be embedded into a pre-torsion group which is not  $k$ -torsion-generated for every  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .*

2.

We consider the collection Rad of radicals on  $(\Lambda, \Sigma)$ -mod, namely functors on  $(\Lambda, \Sigma)$ -mod which are normal subfunctors of the identity and satisfy  $R(X/R(X)) = 0$  for all  $X$ . We assume the condition (a) of [1], hence the word “normal” may be omitted. Each radical  $R$  determines the class  $\mathcal{B}_R$  of radical objects, which are the  $(\Lambda, \Sigma)$ -modules  $X$  satisfying  $R(X) = X$ , and the class  $\mathcal{C}_R$  of semisimple objects, i.e.,  $X$  such that  $R(X) = 0$ , see [1].

For radicals  $R, S$  the composed functor  $RS$  is a radical, as shown in the next proposition. Is there any relationship between the classes of semisimple objects  $\mathcal{C}_R, \mathcal{C}_S$  and  $\mathcal{C}_{RS}$ ? Employing a common construction in varieties [3], we define  $\mathcal{C}_R \circ \mathcal{C}_S =$  the collection of  $(\Lambda, \Sigma)$ -modules  $X$  such that there is a normal submodule  $X'$  in  $X$  with  $X' \in \mathcal{C}_R$  and  $X/X' \in \mathcal{C}_S$ . It turns out that  $\mathcal{C}_{RS}$  is precisely  $\mathcal{C}_R \circ \mathcal{C}_S$ . Moreover, the class  $\mathbb{C} = \{\mathcal{C}_R \mid R \in \text{Rad}\}$  with the operation just defined turns into a monoid which is an epimorphic image of Rad, as shown by

- Proposition 2.1.** (i) Rad is a monoid with respect to composition of functors
- (ii)  $\mathbb{C}$  is a monoid with respect to the operation  $\circ$  defined above;
- (iii) The map  $R \mapsto \mathcal{C}_R$  is an epimorphism of Rad onto  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Proof.** For  $R, S \in \text{Rad}$ ,  $RS$  is clearly a normal subfunctor of the identity. Under the natural epimorphism  $\phi: A/RS(A) \rightarrow A/S(A)$ ,  $\phi(S(A/RS(A))) \subset S(A/S(A)) = 0$ , and so  $S(A/RS(A)) \subset \ker \phi = S(A)/RS(A)$ . Therefore  $RS(A/RS(A)) \subset R(S(A)/RS(A)) = 0$ . Now  $A \in \mathcal{C}_{RS}$  if and only if  $RS(A) = 0$ , i.e., iff  $S(A) \in \mathcal{C}_R$ . Since  $A/S(A) \in \mathcal{C}_S$ ,  $S(A) \in \mathcal{C}_R$  iff  $A \in \mathcal{C}_R \circ \mathcal{C}_S$ . Conversely, if  $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\eta} A/K \rightarrow 0$ , with  $K \in \mathcal{C}_R$  and  $A/K \in \mathcal{C}_S$ , then  $\eta(S(A)) \subset S(A/K) = 0$ , i.e.,  $S(A) \subset K$ , and so  $RS(A) \subset R(K) = 0$ . Hence  $A \in \mathcal{C}_{RS}$ .

The operation  $\circ$  in  $\mathbb{C}$  generalises the composition of varieties in groups. Therefore the collection of varieties is a submonoid of  $\langle \mathbb{C}, \circ \rangle$ .

Given a set  $\mathcal{R}$  of radicals we define the intersection  $S = \bigcap_{R \in \mathcal{R}} R$  by  $S(X) = \bigcap_{R \in \mathcal{R}} R(X)$ .

**Proposition 2.2** *The intersection  $S = \bigcap_{R \in \mathcal{R}} R$  is a radical;  $\langle \text{Rad}, \cap \rangle$  is a monoid.*

**Proof.** For  $f: X \rightarrow Y$ ,  $f(S(X)) \subset \cap f(R(X)) \subset \cap R(Y) = S(Y)$ . Now  $R(X/S(X)) \subset R(X)/S(X)$  for all  $R \in \mathcal{R}$  since  $X/S(X) \rightarrow X/R(X)$  (epimorphism with kernel  $R(X)/S(X)$ ) takes  $R(X/S(X))$  into 0. So  $S(X/S(X)) \subset \cap (R(X)/S(X)) = 0$ .

The intersection was employed in [1] to construct an idempotent radical  $\bar{R}$  from a given radical  $R$ , such that  $\mathcal{B}_{\bar{R}} = \mathcal{B}_R$ . For ordinals  $\nu$ , denote  $R^{\nu+1} = R \circ R^\nu$  and  $R^\nu = \bigcap_{i < \nu} R^i$  for limit ordinals  $\nu$ . Then put  $\bar{R} = R^\nu$ ,  $\nu$  the first ordinal such that  $R^\nu = R^{\nu+1}$ .

We denote by  $p\text{Rad}$  the collection of *pre-radicals* on  $(\Lambda, \Sigma)\text{-mod}$ , namely normal subfunctors of the identity on  $(\Lambda, \Sigma)\text{-mod}$ . Evidently  $\langle p\text{Rad}, \circ \rangle$  is a monoid. With  $\mathbb{B} = \{\mathcal{B}_R \mid R \in p\text{Rad}\}$  we have an obvious isomorphism of monoids  $\langle p\text{Rad}, \circ \rangle$  and  $\langle \mathbb{B}, \cap \rangle$ .

The following additional operation was defined on  $p\text{Rad}$ , in [1]. For  $R, S \in p\text{Rad}$  and  $A \in (\Lambda, \Sigma)\text{-mod}$ ,  $(R \times S)(A)/S(A) = R(A/S(A))$ . This operation was employed to construct a radical  $\tilde{R}$  from a pre-radical  $R$  as follows. For every ordinal  $\nu$ ,  $R_{\nu+1} = R \times R_\nu$  and  $R_\nu = \bigcup_{i < \nu} R_i$  for limit ordinals. Then put  $\tilde{R} = R_\nu$ ,  $\nu$  the first ordinal for which  $R_\nu = R_{\nu+1}$ . Then  $\tilde{R}$  is a radical, and  $\tilde{R}$  is idempotent if  $R$  is. (The classes  $\mathcal{B}_R, \mathcal{C}_R$  are defined identically for pre-radicals, as they were for radicals.)

**Proposition 2.3.** *Let  $R$  be an idempotent pre-radical. Then  $\mathcal{B}_{R_n} \circ \mathcal{B}_{R_m} \subset \mathcal{B}_{R_{n+m}}$  for all positive integers  $n, m$ .*

**Proof.** Let  $B \triangleleft A$ ,  $B \in \mathcal{B}_{R_n}$ ,  $A/B \in \mathcal{B}_{R_m}$ . Now  $B = R_n(B) \subset R_n(A)$ , so  $R_m(A/R_n(A)) = A/R_n(A)$ . Therefore, for  $m=1$  we obtain  $R_{n+1}(A)/R_n(A) = R(A/R_n(A)) = A/R_n(A)$ , i.e.,  $R_{n+1}(A) = A$ . For  $m > 1$ , put  $R_{m-1}(A/R_n(A)) = K/R_n(A)$ . Then clearly  $R_{m-1}(K/R_n(A)) = K/R_n(A)$ , and  $R_n(R_n(A)) = R_n(A)$ . Therefore we may inductively assume that  $R_{n+m-1}(K) = K$ . Now

$$\begin{aligned} A/K &\cong (A/R_n(A))/(K/R_n(A)) = R_m(A/R_n(A))/R_{m-1}(A/R_n(A)) \\ &= R((A/R_n(A))/R_{m-1}(A/R_n(A))) = R((A/R_n(A))/(K/R_n(A))) \\ &\cong R(A/K). \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $R(A/K) = A/K$ , and  $R_{n+m-1}(K) = K$ . Therefore  $R_{n+m}(A) = A$ .

**Proposition 2.4.** *Let  $R \in p\text{Rad}$ . Then  $\mathcal{C}_{R_n} \circ \mathcal{C}_{R_m} \subset \mathcal{C}_{R_{n+m}}$  for all positive integers,  $n, m$ .*

**Proof.** Let  $K \triangleleft A$ , with  $R^n(K) = R^m(A/K) = 0$ . Then  $(R^m(A) + K)/K \subset R^m(A/K) = 0$ , and so  $R^m(A) \subset K$ . Therefore  $R^{n+m}(A) = R^n(R^m(A)) \subset R^n(K) = 0$ .

A well-known example in group theory: Let  $K \triangleleft A$ ,  $K$  a group nilpotent of class  $\leq n$ ,  $A/K$  nilpotent of class  $\leq m$ . Then  $A$  is nilpotent of class  $\leq n+m$ .

The previous example suggests the importance of extending beyond the classes  $\mathcal{C}_{R_n}$ ,  $R$  a pre-radical, or radical, in order to obtain a theory which would include the class of nilpotent groups, and the class of solvable groups. This may be done as follows:

**Lemma 2.5.** *Let  $\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{T}$  be subsets of  $\text{Rad}$ . Put*

$$\mathcal{R}\mathcal{C} = \bigcup_{R \in \mathcal{R}} \mathcal{C}_R, \quad \mathcal{S}\mathcal{C} = \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \mathcal{C}_S, \quad \mathcal{T}\mathcal{C} = \bigcup_{T \in \mathcal{T}} \mathcal{C}_T.$$

Then

$$(\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C} \circ \mathcal{S}\mathcal{C}) \circ \mathcal{T}\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{A}\mathcal{C} \circ (\mathcal{S}\mathcal{C} \circ \mathcal{T}\mathcal{C}).$$

**Proof.** Let  $A \in (\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C} \circ \mathcal{S}\mathcal{C}) \circ \mathcal{T}\mathcal{C}$ . Then there exists  $B \triangleleft A$  such that  $B \in \mathcal{A}\mathcal{C} \circ \mathcal{S}\mathcal{C}$  and  $A/B \in \mathcal{T}\mathcal{C}$ . Also there exists  $C \triangleleft B$  such that  $C \in \mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}$  and  $B/C \in \mathcal{S}\mathcal{C}$ . Therefore there exist  $R \in \mathcal{R}$ ,  $S \in \mathcal{S}$  and  $T \in \mathcal{T}$  such that  $C \in \mathcal{C}_R$ ,  $B/C \in \mathcal{C}_S$ , and  $A/B \in \mathcal{C}_T$ . Hence  $A \in (\mathcal{C}_R \circ \mathcal{C}_S) \circ \mathcal{C}_T = \mathcal{C}_R \circ (\mathcal{C}_S \circ \mathcal{C}_T)$ , Proposition 2.1. Clearly  $\mathcal{C}_R \circ (\mathcal{C}_S \circ \mathcal{C}_T) \subset \mathcal{A}\mathcal{C} \circ (\mathcal{S}\mathcal{C} \circ \mathcal{T}\mathcal{C})$ . The proof of the opposite inclusion is similar.

**Consequence 2.6.** Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be a subset of  $\text{Rad}$ , and put  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C} = \bigcup_{R \in \mathcal{R}} \mathcal{C}_R$ . Then for every positive integer  $n$ ,  $(\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C})^n = \mathcal{A}\mathcal{C} \circ \mathcal{A}\mathcal{C} \circ \dots \circ \mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}$  is independent of parenthesisation.

For example, let  $\mathcal{N}$  denote the class of nilpotent groups. Then  $\mathcal{N}^n$  is well defined for every positive integer  $n$ .

**Consequence 2.7.** Let  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}$  be as in 2.6 and let  $0 \neq G \in (\Lambda, \Sigma)\text{-mod}$ . If all the factors of the finite subnormal series  $0 = G_0 \triangleleft G_1 \triangleleft \dots \triangleleft G_n = G$  belong to  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}$ , then  $G$  possesses a non-trivial normal submodule belong to  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}$ .

In view of 2.6, Consequence 2.7 in effect states that if  $G \in (\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C})^n$ , then  $G$  possesses a non-trivial, normal submodule belonging to  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{C}$ .

For a  $(\Lambda, \Sigma)$ -module  $A$  and a pre-radical  $R$  we call a series of  $(\Lambda, \Sigma)$ -modules  $0 \triangleleft A_1 \triangleleft \dots \triangleleft A_\alpha = A$  an *ascending R-series* if  $A_{\beta+1}/A_\beta \in \mathcal{B}_R$  for every ordinal  $\beta$  and  $A_\beta = \bigcup_{\nu < \beta} A_\nu$  for every limit ordinal  $\beta$ . A *descending R-series* is a series  $0 = A_\alpha \triangleleft \dots \triangleleft A_1 \triangleleft A$  which satisfies  $A_\beta/A_{\beta+1} \in \mathcal{C}_R$  for every ordinal  $\beta$  and  $A_\beta = \bigcap_{\nu < \beta} A_\nu$  for every limit ordinal  $\beta$ .

**Proposition 2.8.** Let  $R$  be an idempotent pre-radical. Then  $A \in \mathcal{B}_R$  iff there exists an ascending  $R$ -series for  $A$ . In this case the sequence  $0 \triangleleft R(A) \triangleleft \dots \triangleleft \tilde{R}(A) = A$  is the unique upper  $R$ -series for  $A$ .

**Proof.** If  $A \in \mathcal{B}_R$  then clearly  $0 \triangleleft R(A) \triangleleft \dots \triangleleft R_\alpha(A) = \tilde{R}(A) = A$  is an ascending  $R$ -sequence for  $A$ . Conversely, let  $0 \triangleleft A_1 \triangleleft \dots \triangleleft A_\alpha = A$  be such a sequence. We claim:  $A_\beta \subset R_\beta(A)$  for every index ordinal  $\beta$ . Assume  $A_\nu \subset R_\nu(A)$  for all  $\nu < \beta$ . First take  $\beta$  not a limit ordinal, say  $\beta = \nu + 1$ . Since  $A_\beta$  and  $R_\nu(A)$  are normal submodules it follows (since  $\Lambda$  is distributively generated) that  $Y = A_\beta + R_\nu(A)$  is a normal submodule and

$$Y/R_\nu(A) \cong A_\beta/A_\beta \cap R_\nu(A) \cong (A_\beta/A_\nu)/((A_\beta \cap R_\nu(A))/A_\nu),$$

and since  $A_\beta/A_\nu \in \mathcal{B}_R$  it follows that  $Y/R_\nu(A) \in \mathcal{B}_R$ , [1] 4.2. Therefore

$$Y/R_\nu(A) = R(Y/R_\nu(A)) \subset R(A/R_\nu(A)) = R_\beta(A)/R_\nu(A).$$

Thus  $Y \subset R_\beta(A)$  and so  $A_\beta \subset R_\beta(A)$ . Finally if  $\beta$  is a limit ordinal then

$$A_\beta = \bigcup_{\nu < \beta} A_\nu \subset \bigcup_{\nu < \beta} R_\nu(A) = R_\beta(A).$$

**Proposition 2.9.** *Let  $R$  be a radical. Then  $A \in \mathcal{C}_R$  iff there exists a descending  $R$ -series for  $A$ . In this case the series  $0 = \bar{R}(A) \triangleleft \dots \triangleleft R(A) = A$  is the unique lower  $R$ -series for  $A$ .*

**Proof.** If  $\beta = \nu + 1$  and  $Y$  is the submodule generated by  $R^\nu(A) + A_\beta$  then  $Y/A_\beta \in \mathcal{C}_R$  and under the natural map  $Y \rightarrow Y/A_\beta$  the submodule  $R^\beta(A)$  goes to 0. So  $R^\beta(A) \subset A_\beta$ . The rest is similar to the proof of the preceding proposition.

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