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Research Article

# Quasinilpotents in rings and their applications 

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#### Abstract

An element $a$ of an associative ring $R$ is said to be quasinilpotent if $1-a x$ is invertible for every $x \in R$ with $x a=a x$. Nilpotents and elements in the Jacobson radical of a ring are well-known examples of quasinilpotents. In this paper, properties and examples of quasinilpotents in a ring are provided, and the set of quasinilpotents is applied to characterize rings with some certain properties.


Key words: Quasinilpotent, nilpotent, idempotent, local ring, Boolean ring

## 1. Introduction

Rings are associative with identity. Let $R$ be a ring. The symbols $U(R), I d(R)$, and $R^{\text {nil }}$ stand for the sets of all units, all idempotents, and all nilpotents of $R$, respectively. The commutant of $a \in R$ is defined by $\operatorname{comm}_{R}(a)=\{x \in R \mid a x=x a\}$ (if there is no ambiguity, we simply use comm (a) for short). For an integer $n \geq 1$, we write $M_{n}(R)$ for the $n \times n$ matrix ring over $R$ whose identity element we write as $I_{n}$ or $I$.

The intersection of all maximal left (right) ideals of $R$ is said to be the Jacobson radical of $R$, which is denoted by $J(R)$. As is well known, $J(R)=\{a \in R \mid 1-a x \in U(R)$ for all $x \in R\}$. Due to Harte [10], an element $a \in R$ is called quasinilpotent if $1-a x \in U(R)$ for every $x \in \operatorname{comm}(a)$; the set of all quasinilpotents of $R$ is denoted by $R^{\text {qnil }}$. It is clear that both $R^{\text {nil }}$ and $J(R)$ are contained in $R^{\text {qnil }}$. It is worth noting that quasinilpotents play an important role in a Banach algebra $\mathcal{A}$. According to [9], $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{qnil}}=\left\{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\|a^{n}\right\|^{1 / n}=0\right\}=\{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid x-a \in U(\mathcal{A})$ for all nonzero complex $x\}$. By means of quasinilpotents, some interesting concepts are introduced, such as strongly $J$-clean rings [3], nil clean rings [7], generalized Drazin inverses [11], quasipolar rings [16], etc. However, there were few results concerning properties of quasinilpotents in a ring. Recall that a ring $R$ is local [13] if $R=U(R) \cup J(R)$, and it was shown in [4] that $R$ is a division ring or a Boolean ring if and only if $R=U(R) \cup I d(R)$. A natural question is: What can be said about a ring $R$ for which $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }}$ (resp., $\left.R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {nil }} ; R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }} \cup I d(R)\right)$ ?

Motivated by the above, we study properties and structures of quasinilpotents in a ring and provide several illustrative examples. Jacobson's lemma for quasinilpotents is also considered. Furthermore, the sets $I d(R), U(R)$, and $R^{\text {qnil }}$ are used to characterize rings. We prove that a ring $R$ is local if and only if $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }}$, a ring $R$ is local with $J(R)$ nil if and only if $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {nil }}$, and if $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }} \cup I d(R)$, then $R$ is a local ring or a Boolean ring or a nonabelian directly finite ring with char $R=2$.

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## 2. Quasinilpotents in rings

We begin with the following examples, which will reveal that quasinilpotents in a ring $R$ are very different from elements in $J(R)$ and nilpotents of $R$.

Example 2.1 (1) Let $R=M_{2}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}\right)$ where $\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}=\left\{\left.\frac{b}{a} \right\rvert\, a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, 2 \nmid a\right\}$. Take $A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1\end{array}\right) \in R$. Then $A^{2} \in J(R)$, and so $A \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ (as for any $X \in \operatorname{comm}(A),\left(I_{2}-A X\right)\left(I_{2}+A X\right)=I_{2}-A^{2} X^{2} \in U(R)$ implies $\left.I_{2}-A X \in U(R)\right)$. Clearly, $A$ is neither nilpotent nor in $J(R)$.
(2) Define an operator $A$ on the Banach space $l^{1}$ by the infinite matrix $\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & 1 / 2 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & 1 / 3 & 0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots\end{array}\right)$. In view of [15, Example 4.2], A is quasinilpotent in the Banach algebra $L\left(l^{1}\right)$ of all bounded linear operators on $l^{1}$. However, $A$ is not nilpotent and $A \notin J\left(L\left(l^{1}\right)\right)$ as $J\left(L\left(l^{1}\right)\right)=0$.

Example 2.2 Let $R$ be a division ring and $S=M_{n}(R)$. Then $S^{\mathrm{qnil}}=S^{\text {nil }}$.
Proof Let $A \in S$. Note that $S$ can be viewed as the endomorphism ring of an $n$-dimensional vector space over $R$. Then $S$ is a simple Artinian ring, and so the chain $A S \supseteq A^{2} S \supseteq \cdots$ must terminate. In view of [2, Lemma 1], there exist an integer $k \geq 1$ and $X \in S$ such that $A^{k}=A^{k+1} X$ and $A X=X A$. Assume that $A \in S^{\text {qnil }}$. Then $I_{n}-A X \in U(S)$. From $A^{k}\left(I_{n}-A X\right)=A^{k}-A^{k+1} X=0$, we have $A^{k}=0$, so $S^{\text {qnil }} \subseteq S^{\text {nil }}$, and therefore $S^{\text {qnil }}=S^{\text {nil }}$.

Lemma 2.3 Let $f: R \rightarrow S$ be an isomorphism of rings. Then $a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ if and only if $f(a) \in S^{\text {qnil }}$. In particular, if $a \in R^{\mathrm{qnil}}$, then $u^{-1} a u \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ for any $u \in U(R)$.

Proof It suffices to show that if $a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ then $f(a) \in S^{\text {qnil }}$. Let $s \in \operatorname{comm}_{S}(f(a))$. Then there exists $b \in R$ such that $s=f(b)$, so we have $f(a b)=f(a) s=s f(a)=f(b a)$. Since $f$ is an isomorphism, $a b=b a$. It follows that $1-a b \in U(R)$ as $a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$. Thus, $1-f(a) s=f(1-a b) \in U(S)$, from which $f(a) \in S^{\text {qnil }}$.

The polynomial ring over a ring $R$ in the indeterminate $t$ is denoted by $R[t]$. For a monic polynomial $f(t)=t^{n}-a_{n-1} t^{n-1}-\cdots-a_{1} t-a_{0} \in R[t]$, the $n \times n$ matrix $C_{f}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & a_{0} \\ I & \alpha\end{array}\right)$ is called the companion matrix of $f(t)$, where $\alpha=\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n-1}\right)^{T}$. A matrix $C \in M_{n}(R)$ is called a companion matrix if $C=C_{f}$ for a monic polynomial $f(t) \in R[t]$ of degree $n$. The following result is due to Diesl and Dorsey.

Lemma 2.4 Let $R$ be a commutative ring and $C$ be a companion matrix of a monic polynomial of degree $n$. Then $\operatorname{comm}_{M_{n}(R)}(C)=\{h(C) \mid$ for every $h(t) \in R[t]\}$.

Proof It is enough to prove that $\operatorname{comm}_{M_{n}(R)}(C) \subseteq\{h(C) \mid$ for every $h(t) \in R[t]\}$. Let $C=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{0} \\ 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & a_{1} \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & a_{2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & a_{n-1}\end{array}\right)$. Write $e_{0}=(1,0, \ldots, 0)^{T}$, $e_{1}=(0,1, \ldots, 0)^{T}, \ldots, e_{n-1}=(0,0, \ldots, 1)^{T}$. Then $C e_{i}=e_{i+1}$ for every $0 \leq i \leq n-2$ and $C e_{n-1}=a_{0} e_{0}+a_{1} e_{1}+\cdots+a_{n-1} e_{n-1}$.

Suppose that $X \in M_{n}(R)$ and $C X=X C$. Set $X=\left(X_{0}, X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n-1}\right)$ with column vectors $X_{i}$. Then, for every $0 \leq i \leq n-2$, we have

$$
C X_{i}=C\left(X e_{i}\right)=X\left(C e_{i}\right)=X e_{i+1}=X_{i+1}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
C X_{n-1} & =C\left(X e_{n-1}\right)=X C e_{n-1} \\
& =X\left(a_{0} e_{0}+a_{1} e_{1}+\cdots+a_{n-1} e_{n-1}\right) \\
& =a_{0} X e_{0}+a_{1} X e_{1}+\cdots+a_{n-1} X e_{n-1} \\
& =a_{0} X_{0}+a_{1} X_{1}+\cdots+a_{n-1} X_{n-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Write $X_{0}=\left(b_{0}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n-1}\right)^{T}$. Then all $X_{i}$ (and thus $X$ ) can be constructed by $X_{0}$. We claim that $X=b_{0} I+b_{1} C+\cdots+b_{n-1} C^{n-1}$. Indeed, we only need to verify that it agrees on $e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n-1}$. Note that

$$
\left(b_{0} I+b_{1} C+\cdots+b_{n-1} C^{n-1}\right) e_{0}=b_{0} e_{0}+b_{1} e_{1}+\cdots+b_{n-1} e_{n-1}=X_{0}=X e_{0}
$$

and similarly, for each $1 \leq i \leq n-1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
X e_{i} & =X\left(C^{i} e_{0}\right)=C^{i}\left(X e_{0}\right) \\
& =C^{i}\left(b_{0} I+b_{1} C+\cdots+b_{n-1} C^{n-1}\right) e_{0} \\
& =\left(b_{0} I+b_{1} C+\cdots+b_{n-1} C^{n-1}\right)\left(C^{i} e_{0}\right) \\
& =\left(b_{0} I+b_{1} C+\cdots+b_{n-1} C^{n-1}\right) e_{i} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This completes the proof.
For a ring $R$, let $\sqrt{J(R)}=\left\{x \in R \mid x^{n} \in J(R)\right.$ for some integer $\left.\mathrm{n} \geq 1\right\}$. One may easily check that $\sqrt{J(R)} \subseteq R^{\text {qnil }}$. It is shown in [15] that $S^{\text {qnil }}=\sqrt{J(S)}$ if $S$ is a $2 \times 2$ matrix ring over a commutative ring. We have the following result.

Theorem 2.5 If $R$ is a commutative local ring and $S=M_{n}(R)$, then $S^{\text {qnil }}=\sqrt{J(S)}$.

Proof It suffices to prove that $S^{\text {qnil }} \subseteq \sqrt{J(S)}$. Let $A \in S^{\text {qnil }}$. Then for any polynomial $f(t) \in R[t], I-A f(A)$ is a unit of $M_{n}(R)$. Thus, $\bar{I}+\bar{A} \overline{f(A)}$ is invertible in $M_{n}(R / J(R)) \cong S / J(S)$. Note that $R / J(R)$ is a field. Thus, $\bar{A}$ is similar to its rational canonical form $C:=\left(\begin{array}{llll}C_{f_{1}} & & & \\ & C_{f_{2}} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & C_{f_{l}}\end{array}\right)$ where $C_{f_{i}}$ is the companion matrix over $R / J(R)$. Since $\bar{I}-\bar{A} \overline{f(A)}$ is invertible, it follows that $\bar{I}-C_{f_{i}} \overline{f\left(C_{f_{i}}\right)}$ is invertible for $i=1,2, \ldots, l$. As $\overline{f(t)} \in \bar{R}[t]$ is arbitrary, by Lemma 2.4 all $C_{f_{i}}$ are quasinilpotent. In view of Example 2.2, $C_{f_{i}}$ is nilpotent where $1 \leq i \leq l$. By Lemma 2.3, one has $(\bar{A})^{k}=0 \in S / J(S)$ for some integer $k$, which implies $A^{k} \in J(S)$. Therefore, $S^{\text {qnil }} \subseteq \sqrt{J(S)}$, as desired.

For a ring $R$, the center of $R$ is denoted by $C(R)$.

Proposition 2.6 Let $R$ be a ring. Then $R^{\text {qnil }}=J(R)$ if one of the following holds:
(1) $R^{\text {qnil }} \subseteq C(R)$.
(2) $R^{\text {qnil }}$ is an one-sided ideal of $R$.

Proof (1) Let $a \in R^{\text {qnil }} \subseteq C(R)$. Then for any $x \in R$, $a x=x a$, so we have $1-a x \in U(R)$, which implies $a \in J(R)$.
(2) Assume that $R^{\text {qnil }}$ is a right ideal of $R$. Given any $a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$, then $a x \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ for any $x \in R$. Thus, $1-a x \in U(R)$, and hence $a \in J(R)$.

Clearly, $R^{\text {qnil }}$ coincides with $J(R)$ if $R$ is a commutative ring.

Proposition 2.7 Let $R$ be a ring and $a \in R, c \in C(R)$.
(1) If $a^{n} \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ for some integer $n \geq 1$, then $a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$.
(2) If $a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$, then $a c \in R^{\text {qnil }}$. The converse holds if $c \in U(R)$.

Proof (1) Take $x \in \operatorname{comm}(a)$. Then we have $x^{n} a^{n}=a^{n} x^{n}$. Write $b=1+a x+(a x)^{2}+\cdots+(a x)^{n-1}$. It follows that $b(1-a x)=(1-a x) b=1-(a x)^{n}=1-a^{n} x^{n} \in U(R)$ since $a^{n} \in R^{\text {qnil }}$, so $1-a x \in U(R)$. This proves $a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$.
(2) Let $x \in R$ with $(a c) x=x(a c)$. As $c \in C(R), a(c x)=(c x) a$, so $a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ implies that $1-a c x \in U(R)$, which yields $a c \in R^{\text {qnil }}$. Conversely, assume that $c \in U(R)$ and $y \in \operatorname{comm}(a)$. Then $a c\left(y c^{-1}\right)=\left(y c^{-1}\right) a c$. Since $a c \in R^{\text {qnil }}, 1-a y=1-a c\left(y c^{-1}\right) \in U(R)$, which implies that $a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$.

Lemma 2.8 Let $q \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ and $e^{2}=e \in R$. If $e q=q e$, then $e q \in R^{\text {qnil }} \cap e R e=(e R e)^{\text {qnil }}$.
Proof In view of [16, Lemma 3.5], $R^{\text {qnil }} \cap e R e=(e R e)^{\text {qnil }}$. We only need to show that $e q \in R^{\text {qnil }}$. Let $t \in R$ with $t(e q)=(e q) t$. As $e q=q e$, we have $q\left(q e t^{2} e\right)=(q e q e) t^{2} e=q e t^{2} q e=\left(q e t^{2} e\right) q$. Since $q \in R^{\text {qnil }}$, it follows that $(1-t e q)(1+t e q)=1-(t e q)(t e q)=1-\left(q e t^{2} e\right) q \in U(R)$. Thus, $1-t e q \in U(R)$, and hence $e q \in R^{\text {qnil }}$.

The condition " $e q=q e$ " in Lemma 2.8 is not superfluous. Let $E=\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)$ and $Q=\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1\end{array}\right)$ be in $M_{2}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$, where $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ is the ring of integers $\mathbb{Z}$ modulo 2 . Then $E^{2}=E$ and $Q$ is nilpotent, but $E Q=\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)=(E Q)^{2}$ is not quasinilpotent in $M_{2}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$.

Proposition 2.9 Let $e^{2}=e \in R$, and $a \in R$ with $a e=e a$. The following are equivalent:
(1) ae is quasinilpotent in $R$.
(2) For any $y \in \operatorname{comm}_{R}(a e), R e \subseteq R(1-a y)$ and $l(1-y a) \subseteq l(e)$.
(3) For any $y \in \operatorname{comm}_{R}(a e), R e \subseteq(1-y a) R$ and $r(1-a y) \subseteq r(e)$.

Proof By Lemma 2.8, the proof can be shown in a similar manner as [6, Corollary 3.2].
Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a Banach algebra. It is well known that for any $a \in \mathcal{A}^{\text {qnil }}$ and $b \in \mathcal{A}$, if $a b=b a$ then $a b \in \mathcal{A}^{\text {qnil }}$, and in addition, $a+b \in \mathcal{A}^{\text {qnil }}$ if $b \in \mathcal{A}^{\text {qnil }}$ (see also [10]). However, it is still unknown whether the above results hold for a ring. For a ring $R$, let $Q(R)=\{q \in R \mid 1+q \in U(R)\}$.

Proposition 2.10 Let $R$ be a ring with $Q(R)=R^{\text {qnil }}$ or $U(R)=1+R^{\text {qnil }}$.

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(1) If $a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ and $b \in \operatorname{comm}(a)$, then $a b \in R^{\text {qnil }}$.
(2) If $a, b \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ and $a b=b a$, then $a+b \in R^{\text {qnil }}$.

Proof We first show the following claim.
Claim: $Q(R)=R^{\text {quil }}$ if and only if $U(R)=1+R^{\text {qnil }}$.
Proof of the Claim. Assume that $U(R)=1+R^{\text {qnil }}$. Clearly, $Q(R) \supseteq R^{\text {qnil }}$. Take $q \in Q(R)$. Then $1+q \in U(R)=1+R^{\text {qnil }}$. Therefore, $q \in R^{\text {qnil }}$, and thus $Q(R) \subseteq R^{\text {qnil }}$. Conversely, suppose that $Q(R)=R^{\text {qnil }}$. To show that $U(R)=1+R^{\text {qnil }}$, it suffices to prove that $U(R) \subseteq 1+R^{\text {qnil }}$. Let $u \in U(R)$. Since $1+(u-1)=u \in U(R)$, we have $u-1 \in Q(R)=R^{\text {qnil }}$, which implies that $u \in 1+R^{\text {qnil }}$, as desired.
(1) Since $a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ and $a b=b a$, one has $1+a b \in U(R)$. Thus, $a b \in Q(R) \subseteq R^{\text {qnil }}$.
(2) As $a, b \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ and $a b=b a, 1+a \in U(R)$ and $(1+a)^{-1} \in \operatorname{comm}(b)$. It follows that $1+a+b=$ $(1+a)\left[1+(1+a)^{-1} b\right] \in U(R)$, so $a+b \in Q(R) \subseteq R^{\text {qnil }}$.

For a ring $R$, Jacobson's lemma states that for any $a, b \in R$, if $1-a b \in U(R)$ then $1-b a \in U(R)$ and $(1-b a)^{-1}=1+b(1-a b)^{-1} a$. We have the following result.

Theorem 2.11 Let $a, b \in R$. If $1-a b \in R^{\text {qnil }}$, then $1-b a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ if and only if $a, b \in U(R)$.
Proof Assume that $a, b \in U(R)$. Let $x \in \operatorname{comm}(1-b a)$. Then multiplying $(1-b a) x=x(1-b a)$ by $a$ on the left and by $b$ on the right yields $(1-a b) a x b=a x b(1-a b)$. Thus, $(a b) a x b=a x b(a b)$. It follows that $\left[(a b)^{-1} a x b\right](1-a b)=(1-a b)\left[(a b)^{-1} a x b\right]$. Since $1-a b \in R^{\text {qnil }}, 1-\left[(a b)^{-1} a x b\right](1-a b)=1-(a b)^{-1} a x(1-b a) b=$ $1-b^{-1} x(1-b a) b \in U(R)$. By Jacobson's lemma, $1-x(1-b a) b b^{-1}=1-x(1-b a) \in U(R)$. This proves $1-b a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$.

Conversely, $1-a b \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ implies $a b \in-1+R^{\text {qnil }} \subseteq U(R)$. Similarly, we can get $b a \in U(R)$ from the assumption $1-b a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$. Thus, $a, b \in U(R)$.

Recall that a ring $R$ is directly finite if $a b=1$ implies $b a=1$ for all $a, b \in R$ (equivalently, $a R=R$ implies $R a=R)$. We have the following result immediately.

Corollary 2.12 Let $R$ be a ring. Then for any $a, b \in R, 1-a b \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ implies $1-b a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ if and only if $R$ is a directly finite ring.

Corollary 2.13 Let $a, b \in R$. If $1-a b \in R^{\text {nil }}$, then $1-b a \in R^{\text {nil }}$ if and only if $a, b \in U(R)$.

Proof One direction follows from Theorem 2.11. Now suppose that $a, b \in U(R)$ and $(1-a b)^{k}=0$ for some integer $k$. Then

$$
(a b)^{-1}=[1-(1-a b)]^{-1}=1+(1-a b)+(1-a b)^{2}+\cdots+(1-a b)^{k-1}
$$

Thus, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
(1-b a)^{k+1} & =\sum_{i=0}^{k+1} C_{k+1}^{i}(-1)^{i}(b a)^{i} \\
& =1-C_{k+1}^{1}(b a)+C_{k+1}^{2}(b a)^{2}+\cdots+(-1)^{i} C_{k+1}^{i}(b a)^{i}+\cdots+(-1)^{k+1}(b a)^{k+1} \\
& =1-b\left[C_{k+1}^{1}-C_{k+1}^{2}(b a)+\cdots+(-1)^{i-1} C_{k+1}^{i}(b a)^{i-1}+\cdots+(-1)^{k}(b a)^{k}\right] a \\
& =1-b\left[1+(1-a b)+(1-a b)^{2}+\cdots+(1-a b)^{k-1}\right] a \\
& =1-b(a b)^{-1} a=1-b b^{-1} a^{-1} a=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $1-b a \in R^{\text {nil }}$, and the proof is completed.

Corollary 2.14 Let $a, b \in R$. If $1-a b \in J(R)$, then $1-b a \in J(R)$ if and only if $a, b \in U(R)$.
Proof By Theorem 2.11, it suffices to show that if $a, b \in U(R)$ then $1-b a \in J(R)$. For any $x \in R$, $1-(b a)^{-1} x(1-b a) b a=1-(b a)^{-1} x b(1-a b) a \in U(R)$ since $1-a b \in J(R)$. By Jacobson's lemma, $1-x(1-b a) b a(b a)^{-1}=1-x(1-b a) \in U(R)$, so $1-b a \in J(R)$.

Cline proved in 1965 [5] that if $a b$ is Drazin invertible then so is $b a$. Many authors generalized the above result to elements of rings with some kind of property. For example, similar results hold for strongly clean elements [8], strongly nil clean elements [12], etc.

Lemma 2.15 [14, Lemma 2.2] Let $a, b \in R$. If $a b$ is quasinilpotent in $R$, then so is $b a$.
For positive integers $m, n$, let $R^{m \times n}$ be the set of all $m \times n$ matrices over the ring $R$.
Proposition 2.16 Let $A \in R^{m \times n}$ and $B \in R^{n \times m}$. Then $A B$ is quasinilpotent in $M_{m}(R)$ if and only if $B A$ is quasinilpotent in $M_{n}(R)$.

Proof If $m=n$, the result follows by Lemma 2.15. Assume that $m>n$. Let $A_{1}=(A, O), B_{1}=\binom{B}{O} \in M_{m}(R)$ where $O$ is a matrix with all entries zeros. Clearly, $A_{1} B_{1}=A B$ and $B_{1} A_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}B A & O \\ O & O\end{array}\right) \in M_{m}(R)$. Since $A B \in\left(M_{m}(R)\right)^{\text {qnil }}$, Lemma 2.15 implies that $\left(\begin{array}{cc}B A & O \\ O & O\end{array}\right) \in\left(M_{m}(R)\right)^{\text {qnil }}$. Clearly, $\left(\begin{array}{cc}B A & O \\ O & O\end{array}\right)$ is also quasinilpotent in $\left(\begin{array}{cc}M_{n}(R) & O \\ O & O\end{array}\right)$. We note that, as a subring of $M_{m}(R),\left(\begin{array}{cc}M_{n}(R) & O \\ O & O\end{array}\right)$ is isomorphic to $M_{n}(R)$. By Lemma 2.3, $B A \in\left(M_{n}(R)\right)^{\text {qnil }}$. If $m<n$, the result can be proved by a similar manner as above.

## 3. Applications

This section focuses on the study of rings with some certain properties by means of $U(R), I d(R)$, and $R^{\text {qnil }}$. We first give the following lemma, which will be used freely.

Lemma 3.1 Let $R$ be a ring. Then $R^{\text {qnil }} \cap U(R)=\emptyset$ and $R^{\text {qnil }} \cap I d(R)=0$.
Theorem 3.2 Let $R$ be a ring. The following are equivalent:
(1) $R$ is a local ring.
(2) For every $a \in R, a$ is invertible or $a$ is quasinilpotent.
(3) $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }}$.
(4) $R=U(R) \cup J(R)$.

Proof $(1) \Rightarrow(2) \Rightarrow(3)$ and $(4) \Rightarrow(1)$ are clear.
$(3) \Rightarrow(4)$. For any $a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$, we first show that $a x \notin U(R)$ for all $x \in R$. Suppose that there exists $y \in R$ such that $a y \in U(R)$. Then $(a y) z=a(y z)=1$ for some $z \in U(R)$. Clearly, $((y z) a)^{2}=(y z) a$. As $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }}$, we have $(y z) a=0$ or $(y z) a=1$. If $(y z) a=0$ then $y z=(y z) a(y z)=0$, which contradicts $a(y z)=1$. Therefore, $(y z) a=1$, and so $a \in U(R)$, which is impossible by Lemma 3.1. Thus, $a x \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ for all $x \in R$. It follows that $1-a x \in U(R)$. Therefore, $a \in J(R)$.

Corollary 3.3 Let $R$ be a ring. Then $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {nil }}$ if and only if $R$ is a local ring and $J(R)$ is nil.
Proof Suppose that $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {nil }}$. Since $R^{\text {nil }} \subseteq R^{\text {qnil }}$, we have $R=\left(U(R) \cup R^{\text {nil }}\right) \subseteq\left(U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }}\right) \subseteq R$. Thus, $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }}$ and $R^{\text {qnil }}=R^{\text {nil }}$. By Theorem 3.2, $R$ is a local ring, and hence $R^{\text {qnil }}=J(R)$. It follows that $J(R)=R^{\text {nil }}$. This proves that $J(R)$ is nil.

Conversely, assume that $R$ is a local ring and $J(R)$ is nil. In view of Theorem 3.2, $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }}$ and $R^{\text {qnil }}=J(R)$. As $J(R)$ is nil, we have $R^{\text {qnil }}=J(R) \subseteq R^{\text {nil }}$. Thus, $R^{\text {qnil }}=R^{\text {nil }}$ and $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {nil }}$.

Recall that a ring $R$ is called reduced if it has no nonzero nilpotents, and $R$ is said to be abelian if all idempotents of $R$ are central. It is well known that reduced rings are abelian, and abelian rings are directly finite.

In [1, Theorem 14], the authors proved that a commutative ring $R=U(R) \cup I d(R)$ if and only if $R$ is a field or a Boolean ring. Chen and Cui [4] extended the above result to the case of noncommutative rings. We give a simpler proof here.

Proposition 3.4 Let $R$ be a ring. Then $R=U(R) \cup I d(R)$ if and only if $R$ is a division ring or a Boolean ring.

Proof One direction is obvious. Suppose that $R=U(R) \cup I d(R)$. If $2 \in U(R)$, then for any $e \in I d(R) \backslash\{1\}$, we have $-e \in I d(R)$, so $(-e)^{2}=e^{2}=e=-e$, and then $2 e=0$. Thus, $e=0$, and this proves that $R$ is a division ring with $I d(R)=\{0,1\}$. If $2 \in I d(R)$, then $2=0$ as $2=2^{2}$. Note that $R$ is reduced and thus abelian. We may choose $e \in I d(R) \backslash\{0,1\}$. For any $u \in U(R)$, then either $(u+e)^{2}=u+e$ or $(u+e) v=1$ for some $v \in U(R)$. As $2=0,(u+e)^{2}=u+e$ yields $u=1$. If $(u+e) v=1$ then $u v=1-e v$. Since $e \notin U(R)$, we have $(e v)^{2}=e v$, which implies $u v=1-e v \in U(R) \cap I d(R)=\{1\}$, so $e=0$, a contradiction. Thus, the only unit of $R$ is 1 , and so $R$ is a Boolean ring.

For a ring $R$, we say that $I d(R)$ (resp., $U(R) ; R^{\text {qnil }}$ ) is trivial whenever $I d(R)=\{0,1\}$ (resp., $\left.U(R)=\{1\} ; R^{\text {quil }}=0\right)$.

Theorem 3.5 Let $R$ be a ring. If $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }} \cup I d(R)$, then exactly one of the following holds:
(1) $R$ is a local ring.
(2) $R$ is a Boolean ring.
(3) $R$ is a nonabelian directly finite ring and $\operatorname{char} R=2$.

Proof The proof is divided into the following cases.
Case 1. If $R^{\text {qnil }}$ is trivial, then $R=U(R) \cup I d(R)$. By Proposition 3.4, $R$ is local as a division ring or $R$ is a Boolean ring.

Case 2. Assume that $R^{\text {qnil }} \neq 0$. Then choose $q \in R^{\text {qnil }} \backslash\{0\}$. Thus, $U(R)$ is nontrivial as $1+q \in$ $U(R) \backslash\{1\}$.

Subcase 1. If $I d(R)$ is trivial, then by Theorem 3.2, $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }}$ is a local ring.
Subcase 2. Suppose that $U(R), R^{\text {qnil }}$, and $I d(R)$ are all nontrivial. Set fixed elements $e \in I d(R) \backslash\{0,1\}$ and $u=1+q \in U(R) \backslash\{1\}$. We conclude that $2 \notin U(R)$. Otherwise, $2 \in U(R)$. Clearly, $2 e \notin U(R)$. If $2 e \in I d(R)$, then $(2 e)^{2}=2 e$ implies $e=0$, which contradicts the assumption $e \in \operatorname{Id}(R) \backslash\{0,1\}$. Thus, $2 e \in R^{\text {qnil }}$. Notice that $2 \in C(R)$. By Proposition $2.7(2), e \in R^{\text {qnil }}$, from which $e=0$, and this causes the same contradiction as above. Hence, $2 \in I d(R)$ or $2 \in R^{\text {qnil }}$.

If $2^{2}=2$ then $2=0$. If $2 \in R^{\text {qnil }}$, then $3 \in U(R)$. Clearly, $3 e \notin U(R)$ as $e \neq 1$. If $3 e \in R^{\text {qnil }}$, then by Proposition $2.7(2)$, $e \in R^{\text {qnil }} \cap I d(R)=0$. Thus, $3 e \in I d(R)$, and $(3 e)^{2}=3 e$ yields $6 e=0$. One thus gets $2 e=0$ as $3 \in U(R)$. Now replacing $e$ by $1-e$, a similar argument will reveal that $2(1-e)=0$. Therefore, $2=2 e+2(1-e)=0$. Thus, char $R=2$. We now show that $R$ is nonabelian. Assuming the contrary, then $e u=u e$. Clearly, $u e \notin U(R)$ and $u e \notin R^{\text {qnil }}$ (since $1-u^{-1}(u e)=1-(u e) u^{-1}$ is not a unit), so $(u e)^{2}=u e \in I d(R)$, which gives $u e=e$. Similarly, we can obtain $u(1-e)=1-e$. Combining $u e=e$ with $u(1-e)=1-e$, we have $u=1$, a contradiction. Thus, $R$ is a nonabelian ring and char $R=2$.

We finish the proof by showing that $R$ is directly finite. Let $a, b \in R$ with $a b=1$. Suppose that $a \in R^{\text {qnil }}$. Then $b \in R^{\text {qnil }}$ (indeed, $a b=1$ implies $b \notin U(R)$, and if $b \in I d(R)$ then $1-b=a b(1-b)=0$, so $b=1$ and $a=1 \in U(R))$. Since char $R=2$, it follows that $a+b=(1+a)(1+b):=v \in U(R)$. Multiplying the equation $a+b=v$ by $b$ on the left, we have $b(a+b)=b v$. Clearly, $b v \notin U(R)$. If $b v \in I d(R)$, then $0=(b v)^{2}-b v=(b v b-b) v=b^{3} v$, so $b^{3}=0$, but this contradicts $1=a b=a^{3} b^{3}$. Thus, $b v \in R^{\text {qnil }}$. In view of Lemma 2.15, we have $v b \in R^{\text {qnil }}$. However, $v b=(a+b) b=1+b^{2} \in U(R)$ as $b \in R^{\text {qnil }}$. Therefore, $a \notin R^{\text {qnil }}$. If $a \in U(R)$, then we are done. If $a \in I d(R)$, then $1-a=(1-a)(a b)=\left(a-a^{2}\right) b=0$, so $a=1$ and $b a=1$. Hence, $R$ is directly finite.

There are plenty of rings that satisfy $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }} \cup I d(R)$. For instance, let $R=T_{2}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ be the $2 \times 2$ upper triangular matrix ring over $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$. Then $U(R)=\left\{I_{2},\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)\right\}, \operatorname{Id}(R)=\left\{O, I_{2},\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)\right\}$, and $R^{\text {qnil }}=\left\{O,\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)\right\}$. Clearly, $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }} \cup I d(R)$. One may check that $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }} \cup I d(R)$ does also hold if $R=M_{2}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$.

Remark 3.6 There exists a nonabelian directly finite ring $R$ with char $R=2$ but $R \neq U(R) \cup R^{\mathrm{qnil}} \cup I d(R)$. Let $R=M_{2}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}[[x]]\right)$ where $\mathbb{Z}_{2}[[x]]$ is the power series ring over $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$. Clearly, $R$ is a nonabelian ring and char $R=2$. As $\mathbb{Z}_{2}[[x]]$ is commutative, $R$ is directly finite. Take $A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 0 & x\end{array}\right) \in R$. Then $A \notin U(R)$ and $A \notin I d(R)$. Notice that $I_{2}-A \notin U(R)$, so $A \notin U(R) \cup R^{\mathrm{qnil}} \cup I d(R)$.

Note that local rings and Boolean rings are abelian (and thus directly finite). We thus have the following result immediately.

Corollary 3.7 If $R=U(R) \cup R^{\text {qnil }} \cup I d(R)$, then $R$ is a directly finite ring.

Corollary 3.8 Let $R$ be a commutative ring. The following are equivalent:
(1) $R=U(R) \cup J(R) \cup I d(R)$.
(2) $R$ is a local ring or a Boolean ring.
(3) $R=U(R) \cup J(R)$ or $R=U(R) \cup I d(R)$.

Proof $(1) \Rightarrow(2)$. Since $R$ is a commutative ring, $R^{\text {qnil }}=J(R)$. Note that $R$ is abelian. The result follows from Theorem 3.5.
$(2) \Rightarrow(3)$ follows from Theorem 3.2 and Proposition 3.4.
$(3) \Rightarrow(1)$. If $R=U(R) \cup J(R)$, take $I d(R)=\{0,1\}$ and then $R=U(R) \cup J(R) \cup I d(R)$. If $R=U(R) \cup I d(R)$, then the result follows by taking $J(R)=0$.

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