

# PROPERTIES OF PRIMARY NONCOMMUTATIVE RINGS

BY

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**Introduction.** In a series of papers [7; 8; 9; 10], E. Snapper discussed extensively the properties of completely primary rings, primary rings, and associated topics for the commutative case. This paper extends some of the theory of [7] to the noncommutative case. Most of [7] extends intact for duo rings which are rings where every right ideal is a left ideal and every left ideal is a right ideal. Some of this theory for general noncommutative rings is proved here.

An example in §5 of this paper answers Snapper's tempting conjecture [7, p. 678].

**1. Preliminary discussion and definitions.** Let  $R$  be a ring with identity.

**DEFINITION 1.1.** Let  $a$  be a two sided ideal of  $R$ . The union of all ideals  $b$  such that  $b^n \subseteq a$  for some positive integer  $n$  is a two sided ideal of  $R$  and is called the radical of  $a$  which we shall denote by  $N(a)$ .

**DEFINITION 1.2.** Let  $a$  be a two sided ideal of  $R$ . The set of all elements  $x \in R$  such that  $x^n \in a$  for some positive integer  $n$  is said to be the nil-radical of  $a$  which we shall denote by  $P(a)$ .

If  $a$  is 0 in the previous definitions we use the symbols  $N$  and  $P$  for the radicals of 0. Although  $P$  is not always a two sided ideal, *we shall be interested in  $P$  only when it is a two sided ideal.*

**DEFINITION 1.3.** The set of all elements  $x \in R$  such that  $yx+1$  is a unit of  $R$  for all  $y \in R$  is a two sided ideal of  $R$  and is called the *Jacobson radical* of  $R$  which we denote by  $J$ .

If  $x \in J$  then  $xy+1$  will also be a unit of  $R$  for all  $y \in R$ .

**DEFINITION 1.4.** A ring  $R$  is called *duo* provided every right ideal is a left ideal and every left ideal is a right ideal.

If follows immediately from the above definition that if  $R$  is a duo ring then  $Ra = aR$  for all  $a \in R$ , i.e., for  $a, b \in R$  there exists an element  $c \in R$  such that  $ab = ca$ . Hence in this case  $P$  is a two sided ideal.

**DEFINITION 1.5.** A ring  $R$  is said to be *completely  $N$  primary* provided  $R/N$  is a division ring<sup>(1)</sup>.

In this definition if we substitute for  $N$  the symbols  $J$  and  $P$  we have the definitions for a *completely  $J$  primary ring* and a *completely  $P$  primary ring* when  $P$  is a two sided ideal.

**DEFINITION 1.6.** A two sided ideal  $q$  of  $R$  is said to be *completely prime*

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(<sup>1</sup>) Every Grassmann algebra with finite basis is a completely  $N$  primary duo ring.

provided  $ab \in q$ ,  $a \in R$ ,  $b \in R$ , implies at least one of these elements is contained in  $q$ .

**DEFINITION 1.7.** A two sided ideal  $q$  is called *right  $N$  primary* provided  $ab \in q$ ,  $b \notin q$  implies  $a \in N(q)$ . The ideal  $q$  is called *left  $N$  primary* provided  $ab \in q$ ,  $a \notin q$  implies  $b \in N(q)$ . The ideal  $q$  is said to be  *$N$  primary* provided it is both right and left  $N$  primary.

If, in Definition 1.7 we substitute the symbols  $P$  and  $J$  for  $N$  we have the definitions of right  $P$  primary, left  $P$  primary,  $P$  primary, right  $J$  primary, left  $J$  primary and  $J$  primary.

**DEFINITION 1.8.** A ring  $R$  is said to be a *right  $N$  primary ring* provided  $0$  is a right  $N$  primary ideal. Similarly, a *left  $N$  primary ring* is defined. A ring  $R$  is  *$N$  primary* provided it is both left and right  $N$  primary.

If, in Definition 1.8 we substitute the symbols  $P$  and  $J$  for  $N$  we have the definition for right  $P$  primary ring, left  $P$  primary ring,  $P$  primary ring, right  $J$  primary ring, left  $J$  primary ring, and  $J$  primary ring.

Suppose  $P$  is a two sided ideal. Then  $N \subseteq P \subseteq J$  and it follows that  $N$  primary  $\Rightarrow P$  primary  $\Rightarrow J$  primary. In addition, suppose  $R$  is  $N$  primary. Then since the elements of  $P$  are nilpotent  $P = N$  and  $P$  is a two sided ideal. Further, since  $R$  is then  $P$  primary, it follows from the proof of Theorem 2.2 of [1] that  $P$ , which is equal to  $N$ , is a completely prime ideal, i.e.,  $R/N$  is an integral domain.

If  $R$  is a completely  $N$  primary ring certainly  $N$  is a two sided ideal which is a maximal right ideal of  $R$ . Hence  $N = P = J$ . In this case suppose  $ab = 0$ , then if  $a \neq 0$ ,  $b$  must be contained in  $N$  otherwise it would have an inverse. Similarly if  $ab = 0$ ,  $b \neq 0$  then  $a \in N$ . Hence, completely  $N$  primary implies  $N$  primary.

If  $R$  satisfies the A.C.C. for right ideals and is  $P$  primary, one can easily show from the proof of Theorem 2.2 of [1] and from [5] that  $P$  is a two sided ideal and  $P^n = 0$  for some positive integer  $n$ . Hence in this case  $P$  primary  $\Rightarrow N = P \Rightarrow N$  primary.

Many of the properties of  $N$  primary rings follow from the fact that divisors of zero are contained in  $J$ .

**STATEMENT 1.1.** If  $R$  is  $J$  primary and if  $x \in R$  is a right unit then  $x$  is a unit. If  $xy$  is a right unit both  $x$  and  $y$  are units.

**Proof.** Suppose  $xz = 1$ , then  $(1 - zx)z = 0$ . Hence  $1 - zx \in J$ , which implies that  $zx = 1 + w$  for  $w \in J$ . Hence  $zx$  is a unit. The proof of the second statement follows from the first.

**STATEMENT 1.2.** Let  $R$  be  $J$  primary and  $x \neq 0$  and  $y$  be elements of  $R$ , then  $xy = x$  or  $yx = x$  implies  $y$  is a unit. Hence  $1$  is the only nonzero idempotent.

**Proof.** If  $xy = x$ , then  $x(y - 1) = 0 \Rightarrow y - 1 \in J$ . Hence  $y = 1 + z$  for  $z \in J$ . Thus  $y$  is a unit. The proof for  $yx = x$  is the same. To prove the second part suppose  $x^2 = x$ , then  $x$  is a unit. Consequently  $x = (x^{-1}x)x = x^{-1}x^2 = x^{-1}x = 1$ .

If  $R$  is a completely  $N$  primary ring then of course  $N=J$ . However, there exist rings which are not completely  $N$  primary and where  $N=J$ . (See [7, p. 668]).

STATEMENT 1.3. Let  $R$  be a ring with identity. Then the following conditions are equivalent.

- (1) The Jacobson radical  $J$  is a maximal right ideal.
- (2) The set of nonunits of  $R$  coincide with  $J$ .
- (3) The set of nonunits of  $R$  is a two sided ideal.
- (4)  $R$  contains a unique maximal right ideal.

**Proof.** If  $J$  is a maximal right ideal and  $x \notin J$ , then  $J+xR=R$ . This implies that there exists  $y \in J$ ,  $z \in R$  such that  $y+xz=1$ . Hence  $xz=1-y$ , which implies that  $xz$  is a unit and therefore  $x$  is a right unit. Similarly  $x$  is a left unit since  $J$  is also a maximal left ideal. Thus (1) $\Rightarrow$ (2) while it is trivial that (2) $\Rightarrow$ (3) $\Rightarrow$ (4). To show that (4) $\Rightarrow$ (1) let  $q$  be the unique maximal right ideal. We will show that  $q \subseteq J$ . If  $x \in q$  then  $xy+1 \notin q$  for all  $y \in R$ . Suppose  $xy+1$  is not a right unit, then  $(xy+1)P \subset R$  and hence  $xy+1$  would be contained in maximal right ideal, namely  $q$ , which is impossible. Hence  $xy+1$  is a right unit for all  $y$ . Thus  $x \in J$ .

2. **Relationship between  $R$  and  $R/N$ .** Let  $R$  be a ring with identity and radicals  $N$ ,  $P$  and  $J$  as defined in §1. Let  $H$  denote the natural homomorphism of  $R$  onto  $R/N$ . If  $q$  is any subset of  $R$  let  $\bar{q}$  denote the subset  $qH$  of  $R/N$ . Thus  $\bar{R}=R/N$ .

2a. *Units.* One can easily see that  $H$  maps units of  $R$  on units of  $R/N$ . The following statement shows the converse to be true.

STATEMENT 2.1. If  $m$  is a two sided ideal of  $R$  the following conditions are equivalent.

- (1) An element  $x \in R$  is a unit if and only if the coset of  $x$  modulo  $m$  is a unit of  $R/m$ .
- (2)  $m \subseteq J$ .

**Proof.** (1) $\Rightarrow$ (2). If  $x \in m$  then certainly  $xy+1 \pmod m$  is a unit. Hence  $xy+1$  is a unit of  $R$  for all  $y \in R$ . Thus  $x \in J$ . To show now that (2) $\Rightarrow$ (1). Let  $x$  be an element of  $R$  whose coset is a unit of  $R/m$ . Then  $xy=1+u$  for  $u \in J$ . Consequently  $x$  is a right unit of  $R$ . Similarly  $zx=1+w$  for  $w \in J$  and  $x$  is a left unit.

Hence  $\text{unit} \Leftrightarrow \text{unit mod } N$  and  $\text{unit ideal} \Leftrightarrow \text{unit ideal mod } N$ .

2b. *Relatively prime.*

DEFINITION 2.1. Two right ideals  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  are termed *relatively prime* provided  $q_1+q_2=R$ . Two elements  $x$  and  $y$  are *relatively prime* if  $xR+yR=R$ .

Clearly if  $q_1+q_2=R$  then  $\bar{q}_1+\bar{q}_2=\bar{R}$  and from 2a the converse follows immediately. Hence *relatively prime*  $\Leftrightarrow$  *relatively prime mod  $N$*  where we used only the fact that  $N \subseteq J$ .

2c. *Divisors and associates.*

DEFINITION 2.2. If  $x$  and  $y$  are nonzero elements of  $R$ , then  $x$  is termed

either a *left factor* of  $y$  or a *right divisor* of  $y$  if  $yR \subseteq xR$ , i.e.,  $y = xa$ . Similarly we define *right factor* and *left divisor*. The element  $x$  is a *factor* of  $y$  if it is both a right and left factor of  $y$ .

**DEFINITION 2.3.** Two elements  $x$  and  $y$  of  $R$  are called *right associates* if  $xR = yR$ , *left associates* if  $Rx = Ry$ , and *associates* if they are both right and left associates.

Clearly if  $x$  and  $y$  are right (left) associates then  $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$  are right (left) associates. Hence *right (left) associates*  $\Rightarrow$  *right (left) associates mod  $N$* . If two elements are right (left) associates, they are clearly both zero or nonzero and either both left (right) divisor of zero or not left (right) divisors of zero.

**STATEMENT 2.2.** If  $R$  is a  $J$  primary ring and if  $x$  and  $y$  are nonzero right associates, then  $x = yv$  where  $v$  is a unit of  $R$ . If  $x$  and  $y$  are left associates then  $x = vy$  where  $v$  is a unit of  $R$ .

**Proof.** If  $xR = yR$  then  $x = yv$  and  $y = xw$ . Consequently  $x = xwv$  and from Statements 1.1 and 1.2 we conclude that  $v$  is a unit.

2d. *Proper divisors.*

**DEFINITION 2.4.** An element  $x \in R$  is called a *proper right divisor* of  $y \in R$  if  $yR \subset xR$ , and a *proper left divisor* of  $y \in R$  if  $Ry \subset Rx$ . The element  $x$  is a *proper divisor* if it is both a proper left and right divisor.

Clearly *proper right (left) divisor*  $\Rightarrow$  *proper right (left) divisor mod  $N$* . In addition, we have the following converse for a  $J$  primary ring.

**STATEMENT 2.3.** Let  $m$  be an ideal contained in  $J$  and let  $x \in R$ ,  $x \notin m$ . Let  $R/m$  be  $J$  primary. Then, if  $y \in R$ , the following are equivalent.

(1)  $y$  is a proper right (left) divisor of  $x$ .

(2)  $y$  is a right (left) divisor of  $x$  and  $\bar{y}$  is a proper (left) right divisor of  $\bar{x}$ .

**Proof.** Obviously (2)  $\Rightarrow$  (1). If (1) holds then  $x = yz$  where  $z$  is not a unit. Hence from 2.1 we conclude that  $\bar{x} = \bar{y}\bar{z}$  where  $\bar{z}$  is not a unit of  $R/m$ , while  $x \notin m$  implies that  $\bar{x}$  is not the zero element of  $R/m$ . Statement 2.2 implies that  $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$  are not associates and hence  $\bar{y}$  is a proper divisor of  $\bar{x}$ .

2e. *Irreducibles and fundamental irreducibles.*

**DEFINITION 2.5.** An element  $x$  is called *irreducible* provided  $x = yz$  implies that either  $y$  or  $z$  is a unit.

From this definition, it follows for a  $J$  primary ring or a duo ring that a unit is necessarily an irreducible.

**STATEMENT 2.4.** If  $m$  is an ideal contained in  $J$  and  $x$  is irreducible in  $R/m$ , then  $x$  is irreducible in  $R$ .

**Proof.** If  $x = yz$  then  $\bar{x} = \bar{y}\bar{z}$  in  $R/m$ . Hence since  $\bar{x}$  is irreducible we can assume that  $\bar{y}$  is a unit. From Statement 2.1 then  $y$  is a unit. Hence  $x$  is irreducible.

This shows that *irreducible mod  $N$*   $\Rightarrow$  *irreducible*. In view of the direction of this implication we made the following definition.

**DEFINITION 2.6.** An element  $x \in R$  is called a *fundamental irreducible* if its coset  $\bar{x}$  is irreducible in  $R/N$ .

Accordingly the fundamental irreducibles are irreducible and the units are fundamental irreducibles for  $J$  primary or duo rings.

2f. *Completely prime ideals and prime elements in duo rings.*

STATEMENT 2.5. A two sided ideal  $p$  is completely prime if and only if  $N \subseteq p$  and  $p/N$  is a completely prime ideal of  $R/N$ .

**Proof.** If  $x \in N$  we have  $x^n = 0 \in p$  for some positive integer  $n$ . Hence  $x \in p$  which implies that  $N \subseteq p$ . If now  $N \subseteq p$  then  $\bar{R}/\bar{p} \cong R/p$ . From this we can conclude that  $p$  is completely prime in  $R$  if and only if  $\bar{p}$  is completely prime in  $\bar{R}$ .

If  $N$  is a completely prime ideal then  $N$  is the only nil completely prime ideal and if  $N$  is not completely prime then  $R$  contains no completely prime nilpotent ideals. If  $N = P$  and  $N$  is not completely prime, then  $R$  contains no nil completely prime ideals.

We make the following definition for duo rings.

DEFINITION 2.7. An element  $x$  of a duo ring  $R$  is termed prime if  $xR = Rx$  is a completely prime ideal.

This definition is equivalent to the statement that  $x$  is prime if  $x = yz$  implies that either  $y$  or  $z$  is an associate of  $x$ .

STATEMENT 2.6. If  $R$  is a  $J$  primary duo ring then every nonzero prime element is irreducible.

**Proof.** If  $x$  is prime and  $x = yz$  then either  $yR = xR$  or  $zR = xR$  which implies by Statement 2.2 that either  $y$  or  $z$  must be a unit.

If a two sided ideal  $p$  is a *maximal right* ideal then  $R/p$  is a division ring. We call such an ideal a *right maximal two sided ideal*. It is obvious that a two sided ideal  $p$  is right maximal if and only if (1).  $N \subseteq p$  and (2).  $\bar{p}$  is right maximal in  $\bar{R}$ .

2g. *Radical  $N$  of a two sided ideal.* If  $a$  is a two sided ideal then as in §1 let  $N(a)$  denote the union of all nilpotent two sided ideals mod  $a$ . Clearly  $N(a + N) = N(a) + N = N(a)$ , where  $N$  is  $N(0)$ .

STATEMENT 2.7. If  $a$  and  $b$  are two sided ideals of  $R$ , then<sup>(2)</sup>:

- (1)  $N(\bar{a}) = \{N(a)\}^-$ ,
- (2)  $N(\bar{a}) \subseteq N(\bar{b}) \iff N(a) \subseteq N(b)$ ,
- (3)  $N(\bar{a}) = N(\bar{b}) \iff N(a) = N(b)$ ,
- (4)  $\bar{a} = \bar{b} \iff N(a) = N(b)$ .

**Proof.** (1). If  $q$  is a two sided ideal of  $R$  and  $\bar{q}$  is contained in  $N(\bar{a})$ , then  $\bar{q}^h \subseteq a + N$ . Hence  $q \subseteq N(a + N) = N(a)$ . Conversely, if  $\bar{q} \subseteq \{N(a)\}^-$  then  $q \subseteq N + N(a) = N(a)$ . Hence  $q^h \subseteq a$  and therefore  $\bar{q}^h \subseteq \bar{a}$  which shows that  $\bar{q} \subseteq N(\bar{a})$ .

(2). If  $N(a) \subseteq N(b)$  then  $\{N(a)\}^- \subseteq \{N(b)\}^-$  and by (1)  $N(\bar{a}) \subseteq N(\bar{b})$ . Conversely, if  $N(\bar{a}) \subseteq N(\bar{b})$  let  $q \subseteq N(a)$ . Then  $q^h \subseteq a$  and hence  $\bar{q}^h \subseteq \bar{a}$ . It follows

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<sup>(2)</sup> In certain places to simplify printing, the bar over a symbol is replaced by  $\{ \}^-$ , i.e., if  $R$  is a ring with radical  $N$  and  $q$  is a subset of  $R$  then the image of  $q$  under the natural homomorphism from  $R$  to  $R/N$  is denoted by either  $\bar{q}$  or  $\{q\}^-$ .

that  $\bar{q} \subseteq N(\bar{a}) \subseteq N(\bar{b}) = \{N(b)\}^-$  and hence  $q \subseteq N + N(b) = N(b)$ . Conversely,  $N(a) \subseteq N(b)$  and (2) is proved.

It follows immediately that  $(2) \Rightarrow (3) \Rightarrow (4)$ .

2h. *Residue class rings.* If  $q$  is a two sided ideal of  $R$  then  $N(R/q)$  is equal to  $N(q)/q$ , i.e.,  $N(R/q)$  consists of the images of  $N(q)$  under the natural homomorphism from  $R$  to  $R/q$ . We denote again by  $\{R/q\}^-$  the residue class ring of  $R/q$  modulo its radical  $N(R/q)$ , i.e.,  $\{R/q\}^- = (R/q)/(N(q)) = [R/q]/[N(q)/q]$ . Since  $q \subseteq N(q) \subseteq R$  then  $R/N(q) \cong [R/q]/[N(q)/q] = \{R/q\}^-$ . Since  $N \subseteq N(q) \subseteq R$  then  $R/N(q) \cong [R/N]/[N(q)/N] \cong \bar{R}/\{N(q)\}^-$ . Hence we have  $\{R/q\}^- \cong R/N(q) \cong \bar{R}/\{N(q)\}^-$ . In particular we see that if  $b$  is a nilpotent two sided ideal, then  $N(b) = N$  and  $\{R/b\}^- \cong R/N$ . Thus the residue class ring  $R/b$  modulo its radical is isomorphic to  $R$  modulo its radical.

3. **Right primary ideals.** We defined a two sided ideal  $q$  to be right  $P$  primary provided  $ab \in q$  and  $b \notin q$  implies  $a^n \in q$  for some positive integer  $n$ . In order to discuss the right primary ideals we impose three conditions, namely:

(i)  $P(q)$  is a two sided ideal where  $q$  is any right  $P$  primary two sided ideal<sup>(3)</sup>.

(ii)  $P = N$ .

(iii) The nontrivial completely prime two sided ideals of  $R/N$  are maximal right ideals.

3a. *Right primary nil ideals.* It is easy to discuss the right  $P$  primary nil two sided ideals. For if  $q$  is such an ideal then  $P(q)$  is  $P$  and in this case  $P$  is a completely prime ideal. Consequently if  $P$  is not completely prime there are no right  $P$  primary nil two sided ideals. If however  $P$  is completely prime  $R$  may have many such primary ideals. In fact if  $R$  is completely  $P$  primary every nil two sided ideal is right  $P$  primary.

3b. *Not nil primary ideals.*

STATEMENT 3.1. Let  $R$  be a ring satisfying (i), (ii), and (iii). Then a nontrivial not nil two sided ideal  $p$  is a completely prime ideal if and only if  $p$  is a maximal right ideal. A not nil two sided ideal  $q$  is  $P$  primary if and only if  $P(q)$  is a completely prime ideal.

**Proof.** Let  $p$  be a nontrivial not nil completely prime two sided ideal of  $R$ . If  $p$  is completely prime we conclude from 2f that  $\bar{p}$  is completely prime and nontrivial by 2a. Hence  $\bar{p}$  is a maximal right ideal of  $\bar{R}$ . We conclude that  $p$  is a two sided ideal which is a maximal right ideal by 2f. This proves the first part of the statement.

It follows from [1] and (i) that if  $q$  is a  $P$  primary two sided ideal then  $P(q)$  is a completely prime ideal. If  $P(q) = R$  then  $q = R$  since  $R \in 1$  and in this case  $q$  is completely prime. If  $P(q) \subset R$  then  $P \subseteq P(q) \subset R$ . Consequently  $P(q)$  is a maximal right ideal. Hence  $R/P(q)$  is a division ring which implies that  $q$  is  $P$  primary<sup>(4)</sup>.

(3) This is true if  $R$  satisfies the A.C.C. for right ideals or if  $R$  is duo.

(4) In this case all the right (left)  $P$  primary two sided ideals are  $P$  primary.

We can now easily show that if  $R$  satisfies the conditions (i), (ii), (iii), then *right  $P$  primary*  $\Rightarrow$  *right  $P$  primary mod  $N$* . For if  $q$  is a right  $P$  primary two sided ideal then  $P(q)$  is completely prime and by 2f and 2g it follows that  $\{P(q)\}^- = P(\bar{q})$  is a completely prime ideal. Then since  $\bar{R}$  will necessarily satisfy conditions (i), (ii), (iii), it follows that  $\bar{q}$  will be right  $P$  primary.

**DEFINITION 3.1.** An element  $x$  contained in a duo ring  $R$  is said to be  $P$  primary provided  $xR = Rx$  is  $P$  primary.

From the preceding discussion in this section we can conclude that *an element  $x$  contained in a duo ring  $R$  which satisfies (i), (ii), (iii), is  $P$  primary and not nilpotent if and only if  $\bar{x}$  is a  $P$  primary, nonzero element of  $\bar{R}$* .

Note that if  $\bar{q}$  is a nonzero completely prime ideal of  $\bar{R}$  we can only conclude that  $q$  is  $P$  primary in  $R$ . (See [7, p. 673].)

For our case, when  $q$  is a  $P$  primary, not nil, nontrivial, two sided ideal of  $R$ , then  $P(q) = p$  is a maximal right ideal of  $R$ . Hence from 2h, we have  $\{R/q\}^- \cong R/p \cong \{R/p\}^-$  and therefore  $\{R/q\}^-$  is a division ring. Consequently if  $R$  is a ring satisfying (i), (ii), (iii) and if  $q$  is a  $P$  primary two sided ideal which is not nil or trivial with  $P$  radical  $p$ , then  $R/q$  is a completely  $P$  primary ring whose residue class is isomorphic to  $R/p \cong \bar{R}/\bar{p}$ .

This section depended heavily on conditions (i), (ii), (iii). One should note that if these conditions are satisfied in  $R$  then they will be satisfied in  $R/N$  where  $n$  is a two sided ideal contained in  $P = N$ .

**4. Factorization in duo rings.** In this section  $R$  will be a duo ring with identity. For such a ring we have the following property. If  $x \in R$  then for every element  $y_1, y_2 \in R$  there exists  $z_1, z_2 \in R$  such that  $xy_1 = z_1x$  and  $y_2x = xz_2$ . Most of the theorems for commutative rings on factorization in primary rings will be valid for  $N$  primary duo rings<sup>(6)</sup>.

We want to discuss the factorization of a duo ring  $R$  when  $R/N$  is a unique factorization domain whose nontrivial completely prime ideals are maximal.

**DEFINITION 4.1.** A duo ring  $A$  with identity is called a *unique factorization domain* if the following two conditions are satisfied.

(1) Every nonzero element of  $A$  is a product of a finite number of irreducible elements.

(2) If  $a_1a_2 \cdots a_s = b_1b_2 \cdots b_t$  where  $a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_s$  and  $b_1, b_2, \cdots, b_t$  are nontrivial irreducibles, then  $s = t$  and for a suitable ordering of the subscripts  $a_i$  is an associate of  $b_i$ , for  $i = 1, 2, \cdots, s$ .

For a duo ring the following three properties are valid.

(1) If  $x$  is irreducible then  $xv$  and  $vx$  are irreducible where  $v$  is a unit.

(2) If  $x$  is irreducible and  $v$  is a unit then  $vx = xw$  implies that  $w$  is a unit.

(3) If  $x = ab$  and  $b = vd$  where  $a, b$ , and  $d$  are irreducible then  $x = uad$  where  $u$  is a unit.

<sup>(6)</sup> The factorization theorems for commutative rings are given in [7, pp. 674-678].

LEMMA 4.1. *A duo ring  $A$  which is a unique factorization domain is an integral domain.*

**Proof.** Let  $a_1 \cdots a_n$  be a product of irreducibles elements of  $A$ . We shall show that  $a_1 \cdots a_n \neq 0$ . If  $n=1$  this statement follows from the fact that 0 is reducible, i.e.,  $0=00$ . We assume that the statement is valid for less than  $n$  irreducibles. If  $a_1 \cdots a_n = 0$  then none of the irreducibles is zero. For in that case less than the product of  $n$  irreducibles would be zero. Furthermore  $a_1 a_1 \cdots a_n = 0 \cdot a_1 = 0 = a_1 \cdots a_n$  which contradicts Definition 4.1. Thus  $a_1 \cdots a_n \neq 0$ . Since every two elements  $x$  and  $y$  of  $A$  can be factored into irreducibles certainly  $xy \neq 0$  if  $x \neq 0$  and  $y \neq 0$ .

If  $A$  is a unique factorization domain then since it is an integral domain it follows that an irreducible element is prime. For suppose  $bc \in aR = Ra$  where  $a$  is irreducible. Then  $bc = ad$  and hence since  $a$  is irreducible  $a$  must appear in the factorization of either  $b$  or  $c$ . Say  $c = g_1 g_2 \cdots g_i a g_{i+2} \cdots g_n$ . Then since  $g_i a = ah_i$ ,  $i=1, 2, \cdots, n$  where the  $h_i$  must be irreducible since  $A$  is a unique factorization domain, we have  $c = af$ , i.e.,  $c$  is contained in  $aR$ .

We refer to a duo ring which is at the same time a principal ideal ring and an integral domain as a *duo principal ideal domain*.

THEOREM 4.1. *A duo ring  $A$  is a unique factorization domain whose completely prime ideals are maximal if and only if  $A$  is a principal ideal domain.*

**Proof.** One can using the classical method of [4, pp. 114–122] and the fact that  $R$  is duo show quite easily that a duo principal ideal domain is a unique factorization domain<sup>(6)</sup>. Certainly the completely prime ideals are maximal. For from Statement 2.6 we can conclude that prime elements are irreducible. In a duo principal ideal ring an irreducible element will generate a maximal ideal.

To prove the converse let the duo ring  $A$  be a unique factorization domain whose prime ideals are maximal. We first show that if  $x$  and  $y$  are two elements of an ideal  $q$ , then any greatest common divisor of  $x$  and  $y$  belongs to  $q$ <sup>(7)</sup>. If  $x$  or  $y$  is zero, this is obvious. Let the g.c.d. of  $x \neq 0$  and  $y \neq 0$  be  $d$  and then  $x = x_1 d$  and  $y = y_1 d$ . If either  $x_1$  or  $y_1$  is a unit, obviously  $d \in q$ . Hence we can assume that  $x_1$  and  $y_1$  are not units and hence  $x_1 = a_1 \cdots a_n$  and  $y_1 = b_1 \cdots b_m$  are the factorizations of  $x_1$  and  $y_1$  into nontrivial irreducibles. None of the  $a_i$ ,  $i=1, 2, \cdots, n$  could be associates of the  $b_i$ ,  $i=1, 2, \cdots, m$  since  $d$  is the g.c.d. of  $x$  and  $y$ . Then since the irreducible elements are prime the ideals  $a_i R$  and  $b_j R$ ,  $i=1, 2, \cdots, n$ ,  $j=1, 2, \cdots, m$  are maximal. Consequently the  $a_i$  and  $b_j$  are relatively prime. Hence  $x_1$  and  $y_1$  are relatively

<sup>(6)</sup> This statement also follows from [3, p. 34]. For similar elements of duo rings are associates.

<sup>(7)</sup> One can easily show using the classical methods of [4, Chapter IV] that every two elements have a g.c.d. which is unique up to the multiplication by a unit.



prime. Hence there exists  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  in  $A$  such that  $\lambda_1 x + \lambda_2 y = 1$ . From this it follows that  $\lambda_1 x + \lambda_2 y = d$ . Therefore  $d \in q$ . We shall now show that every ideal of  $A$  is principal. If an ideal  $q$  is zero it is principal. If  $q$  is not the zero ideal we can choose from the element in  $q$  an element  $x$  with the least number of irreducible factors. We prove that  $q = xR$ . Let  $y \in q$  and let  $d$  be the g.c.d. of  $x$  and  $y$ . Then  $x = x_1 d$  and  $y = y_1 d$  and we know that  $d \in q$ . Hence  $d$  is a divisor of  $x$  with the same number of nontrivial irreducibles. Consequently  $dR = xR$  and  $y \in xR$ . This proves our theorem.

**PRINCIPAL LEMMA FOR DUO RINGS.** *Let  $x$  be an element of the duo ring  $R$  and let  $x = a_1 \cdots a_m \bmod N$  where  $a_1, \dots, a_m$  are elements of  $R$  which are relatively prime in pairs. Then there exists elements  $b_1, \dots, b_m$  such that:*

(1)  $b_i = a_i \bmod N$  for  $i = 1, \dots, m$  and hence  $b_1, \dots, b_m$

*are also relatively prime in pairs.*

(2)  $x = b_1 \cdots b_m$ .

The proof of this lemma follows closely the proof of the similar lemma for the commutative case (see [7, p. 672]) and is therefore omitted.

If  $R$  is a duo ring where  $R/N$  is a principal ideal domain then  $R$  satisfies the conditions (i), (ii), (iii) of §3 and therefore  $N = P$ , the nontrivial prime ideal of  $R/N$  are maximal, and  $P(q)$  is an ideal where  $q$  is an ideal of  $R$ .

**THEOREM 4.2.** *Let  $R$  be a duo ring with identity and let  $R/N$  be a principal ideal domain then:*

(1) *Every not nilpotent element  $x$  of  $R$  can be factored as  $x = va_1 \cdots a_n$ , where  $v$  is a unit and where  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  are  $P$  primary, not nilpotent, nonunits, which are relatively prime in pairs.*

(2) *If  $va_1 \cdots a_n = ub_1 \cdots b_m$ , where  $v$  and  $u$  are units,  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  are  $P$  primary nonunits which are relatively prime in pairs, and where the same is true for  $b_1, \dots, b_m$ ; then  $n = m$  and for a suitable rearrangement of the subscripts  $a_i$  is associated with  $b_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . If  $n > 1$ , the elements  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ ,  $b_1, \dots, b_n$  are not nilpotent.*

**Proof.** We first show that (2) is valid. Since  $R$  is duo it follows that  $(a_1 R) \cdot (a_2 R) \cdots (a_n R) = (b_1 R) \cdot (b_2 R) \cdots (b_m R)$ . In addition since these are relatively prime in pairs and since  $R$  is duo it follows that  $(a_1 R) \cap (a_2 R) \cap \cdots \cap (a_n R) = (b_1 R) \cap (b_2 R) \cap \cdots \cap (b_m R)$ . From [2] it follows that these ideals in some order are equal and  $n = m$ . If  $n > 1$ , none of the  $a_i$ 's or  $b_i$ 's can be nilpotent. For if  $a_1$  is nilpotent and  $a_2$  and  $a_1$  are relatively prime then 2a implies that  $a_2$  is a unit which is not the case.

To prove (1) let  $x$  be a not nilpotent element of  $R$ . Then  $\bar{x}$  is a nonzero element of  $\bar{R}$  and hence  $\bar{x}$  can be factored as  $\bar{x} = \bar{v} \bar{a}_1^{h_1} \bar{a}_2^{h_2} \cdots \bar{a}_n^{h_n}$  where  $\bar{v}$  is a unit of  $\bar{R}$  and  $\bar{a}_1, \bar{a}_2, \dots, \bar{a}_n$  are irreducible, not associated, nonunits of  $\bar{R}$ . Consequently  $a_1^{h_1}, a_2^{h_2}, \dots, a_n^{h_n}$  are  $P$  primary, not zero, nonunits of  $R$  which

are relatively prime in pairs. It follows then from the principal lemma for duo rings that  $x = ub_1 \cdots b_n$  where  $v = u \bmod N$ , and  $a_i = b_i \bmod N$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . We conclude from 3b that  $b_1, \dots, b_n$  are  $P$  primary and not nilpotent elements of  $R$  and from 2a and 2b that  $u$  is a unit of  $R$  and  $b_1, \dots, b_n$  are relatively prime in pairs.

We shall now discuss some of the implications of this theorem for a duo ring  $R$  where  $R/P$  is a principal ideal domain.

4a. *The primary not nilpotent elements of  $R$ .* From §3, since the conditions (i), (ii), and (iii) are satisfied, and element  $a \in R$  is  $P$  primary, not nilpotent nonunit if and only if  $a$  is a  $P$  primary, nonzero, nonunit of  $R$ . Therefore  $\bar{a} = \bar{v}\bar{\pi}^h$  where  $\bar{v}$  is a unit of  $\bar{R}$  and  $\bar{\pi}$  is a nontrivial irreducible element of  $\bar{R}$ . Thus we have an element  $a \in R$  is a  $P$  primary, nonnilpotent, nonunit, if and only if  $a = v\pi^h + d$  where  $v$  is a unit and  $\pi$  is a nontrivial fundamental irreducible while  $h \geq 1$  and  $d \in P$ . If  $a = v_1\pi_1^{h_1} + d_1 = v_2\pi_2^{h_2} + d_2$  then  $\bar{v}_1\bar{\pi}_1^{h_1} = \bar{v}_2\bar{\pi}_2^{h_2}$ . Hence  $h_1 = h_2$  and  $\pi_1 R = \pi_2 R$ . Conversely if  $a = v_1\pi_1^{h_1} + d_1$  and  $\pi_2 = v'\pi_1 + d'$  then  $a = v_2\pi_2^{h_1} + d_2$  for suitable  $v_2$  and  $d_2$ . Thus if  $a = v\pi^h + d$  then  $a = v_1(v_2\pi + d_2)^h + d_1$  for all units  $v_2$  of  $R$  and all  $d_2 \in P$  where  $v_1$  and  $d_1$  are suitably chosen and these include all such representations. The nontrivial fundamental irreducibles  $v\pi + d$  for all  $v$  and  $d$  are called the *fundamental irreducibles of the  $P$  primary element  $a$* .

4b. *The not nilpotent elements of  $R$ .* Let  $x$  be a not nilpotent element of  $R$ . Then  $x = va_1 \cdot a_2 \cdots a_n$  where  $v$  is a unit and the  $a_i$  are  $P$  primary. Then if  $v_i\pi_i + d_i$  is a nontrivial fundamental irreducible of  $a_i$  of multiplicity  $h_i$ , we say that  $v_i\pi_i + d_i$  is a nontrivial fundamental irreducible of  $x$  of multiplicity  $h_i$ . From Theorem 4.2 and §4a the nontrivial fundamental irreducibles of  $x$  and their unique multiplicities are determined by  $x$  and do not depend upon any factorization of  $x$ . Consequently we have that two not nilpotent elements of  $R$  are relatively prime if and only if they have no nontrivial fundamental irreducibles in common.

4c. *Irreducible elements of  $R$ .* We shall show that if  $x$  is an irreducible not nilpotent element of  $R$  then  $x$  is a  $P$  primary element of  $R$ . From §3 all we need show is that  $\bar{x}$  is a nonzero  $P$  primary element of  $\bar{R}$ . If  $\bar{x}$  is not primary then  $\bar{x} = \bar{a}\bar{b}$  where  $\bar{a}$  and  $\bar{b}$  are nonunits which are relatively prime. Then from the principal lemma for duo rings we have  $x = ab$  where  $a$  and  $b$  are nonunits which is a contradiction. Hence  $x = v\pi^h + d$ .

5. **Factorization in general noncommutative rings where  $R/P$  is a principal ideal domain.** Let  $R$  be a ring with identity where  $R/P$  is a principal ideal domain. If  $u$  is a right unit of  $R$  then by 2a,  $\bar{u}$  is a right unit of  $R/P$ . Consequently  $\bar{u}$  is also a left unit of  $R/P$  and again by 2a  $u$  is a left unit of  $R$ . Consequently every right or left unit of  $R$  is a unit. In this way the units of  $R$  are trivial irreducibles. From [3, p. 34] we know that every nonzero element  $\bar{a}$  of  $R/P$  which is not a unit may be written as  $\bar{b}_1 \cdots \bar{b}_n$ , where  $\bar{b}_i$  are nontrivial irreducible; and if  $\bar{a} = \bar{c}_1 \cdots \bar{c}_m$ , where  $\bar{c}_i$  are nontrivial irreducible then  $m = n$  and the  $\bar{b}_i$ 's and  $\bar{c}_i$ 's may be arranged into similar pairs in  $R/P$ .

Suppose  $\bar{a}$  is a nonnilpotent, nonunit of  $R/P$  and  $\bar{a} = \bar{b}_1 \cdots \bar{b}_n$  where  $\bar{b}_i$  are nontrivial irreducible in  $R/P$ . Suppose  $a = c_1 c_2 \cdots c_m$  where  $c_i$  are nonunits, then  $\bar{a} = \bar{c}_1 \bar{c}_2 \cdots \bar{c}_m$  and consequently  $m \leq n$ . Thus we have:

**THEOREM 5.1.** *If  $R$  is a ring with identity where  $R/P$  is a principal ideal domain then every nonnilpotent, nonunit element of  $R$  can be expressed as a product of nontrivial irreducible elements. The number of irreducible elements in such a product will be less than or equal to the unique number of irreducible elements in  $R/P$  whose product is equal to  $\bar{a}$ .*

It would be tempting to conjecture as in [7, p. 678] that the number of irreducible elements is unique in  $R$ . However, this is not the case as the following example shows.

**EXAMPLE.** Consider the following commutative ring. Let  $R$  be the set of all elements  $a + bx$  where  $a, b \in I$ , the ring of integers. Equality is defined by:  $a_1 + b_1x = a_2 + b_2x$  if and only if  $a_1 = a_2$  and  $b_1 = b_2$ . Addition is defined by  $(a_1 + b_1x) + (a_2 + b_2x) = (a_1 + a_2) + (b_1 + b_2)x$ . Define  $x^2 = 0$ . Then multiplication is defined by the usual polynomial multiplication, i.e.,  $(a_1 + b_1x)(a_2 + b_2x) = a_1a_2 + (a_1b_2 + a_2b_1)x$ . Hence  $xR = N$  is the radical of  $R$ . In  $R$  we have:

$$(1) \quad 16 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2,$$

$$(2) \quad 16 = (4 - x)(4 + x).$$

We assert in (1) and (2) that 16 is a product of nonnilpotent, nonunits which are irreducible in  $R$ . Obviously this is true for (1). In (2),  $(4 + x)$  is obviously not nilpotent and is a nonunit by 2a. We shall now show that  $(4 \pm x)$  is irreducible. Suppose:

(3)  $(a_1 + b_1x)(a_2 + b_2x) = (4 \pm x)$  where  $(a_1 + b_1x)$  and  $(a_2 + b_2x)$  are nonnilpotent, nonunits.

Then  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  are not zero, nor can they be  $\pm 1$ . Equation (3) implies that  $a_1a_2 = 4$ , which in turn implies that  $a_1 = a_2 = \pm 2$ . From this equation (3) implies that  $\pm 2(b_1 + b_2) = \pm 1$ , which is impossible.

Thus, as this example displays, the number of irreducible elements in a factorization in  $R$  is not unique.

**6. Polynomial ring over a duo ring.** Suppose  $R$  is a duo ring with identity. Let  $R[x]$  denote the ring of polynomials with coefficients in  $R$  where  $ax = xa$  for all  $a$  contained in  $R$ . The ring  $R[x]$  will not necessarily be duo but does have the following property. If  $f$  is any polynomial there exist polynomials  $g$  and  $h$  such that  $af = ga$  and  $fa = ah$  for all  $a \in R$ . The degree of a nonzero polynomial  $f$  in  $R[x]$  is the exponent of the highest power of  $x$  which occurs in  $f$  with a nonzero coefficient. The degree of  $f$  is denoted by  $D(f)$ .

For each ring  $R$  in this section we shall denote the set of nilpotent elements by  $P(R)$ .

**LEMMA 6.1.** *If  $R$  is a duo ring with identity the following conditions are equivalent:*

(1) *The radical  $P(R)=0$ .*

(2) *If  $f$  is any nonzero polynomial and  $g$  is a regular<sup>(8)</sup> polynomial of  $R[x]$ , then  $D(fg) \geq D(f)$ .*

*Hence if  $P(R)=0$  and  $f$  is regular then  $D(f)$  is the minimum degree of the regular polynomials of  $fR[x]$  and  $R[x]f$ .*

**Proof.** (2) $\Rightarrow$ (1). Let  $a$  be a nonzero nilpotent element of  $R$  and say  $a^s=0$ ,  $a^{s-1} \neq 0$  where  $s \geq 2$ . If  $b$  is any regular element of  $R$  let  $f=a^{s-1}x-c$  and  $g=a^{s-1}x+b$ , where  $ca^{s-1}x=a^{s-1}xb$ . Then  $g$  is regular and  $fg=-cb$  which has degree zero. This contradicts (2).

We shall now show that (1) $\Rightarrow$ (2). Suppose  $P(R)=0$ . Let  $f=a_nx^n+\dots+a_1x+a_0$  and  $g=b_sx^s+\dots+b_1x+b_0$ , where  $a_n \neq 0$ . In addition suppose  $D(fg) < n$ . We need only show that  $g$  is not regular. We shall prove that  $a_nb_s=a_n^2b_{s-1}=\dots=a_n^{s+1}b_0=0$ . Certainly  $a_nb_s=0$  since  $D(fg) < n$ , and hence we shall make the induction hypothesis that  $a_nb_s=\dots=a_n^{s-t+1}b_i=0$  for some  $i$ ,  $i=1, 2, \dots, s$ . Since  $R$  is a duo ring there exists a polynomial  $h$  of degree  $n$  such that  $a_n^{s-t+1}f=ha_n^{s-t+1}$  where the leading coefficient of  $h$  is  $a_n$ . Then  $(ha_n^{s-t+1}g)=ha_n^{s-t+1}(b_{i-1}x^{i-1}+\dots+b_0)$  where  $D(ha_n^{s-t+1}g)=D(a_n^{s-t+1}fg) \leq D(fg) < D(f)=n$ . Thus  $a_n^{s-t+1}b_{i-1}$ , which is the coefficient of  $x^{n+i-1}$  in  $ha_n^{s-t+1}$ , must be zero. This completes the inductive portion of the proof. Consequently the statement is true for all integers  $i$ . Hence  $a_nb_s=\dots=a_n^{s+1}b_0=0$ . It follows that  $a_n^{s+1}b_s=\dots=a_n^{s+1}b_0=0$  and hence since  $a_n \neq 0$  and  $P(R)=0$ , we have  $a_n^{s+1}g=0$ . Thus  $g$  is not regular.

**LEMMA 6.2.** *Let  $f$  be a polynomial in  $R[x]$  where  $R$  is a duo ring. If  $fg=0$ , where  $g$  is also a polynomial in  $R[x]$ , there exists an element  $c \neq 0$  of  $R$  such that  $f(x)c=0$ .*

The proof of this lemma is very similar to the proof for the commutative case and is therefore omitted. (See [6, p. 34].)

Since a polynomial  $f$  is contained in  $P(R[x])$  if and only if its coefficients are contained in  $P(R)$ , we have that  $P(R[x])$  is a two sided ideal of  $R[x]$  and that  $\sum \bar{a}_i x^i = 0$  if and only if each  $\bar{a}_i = 0$ . (The single bar denotes the image under the natural homomorphism from  $R[x]$  to  $R[x]/P(R[x])$ ). Hence we can consider  $R[x]/P(R[x])$  as the polynomial ring  $(R/P)[x]$  where  $P$  is the radical  $P(R)$ .

**THEOREM 6.1.** *A polynomial  $f=a_nx^n+\dots+a_1x+a_0$  is a unit of  $R[x]$ , where  $R$  is a duo ring, if and only if  $a_0$  is a unit of  $R$  and the other coefficients are nilpotent elements of  $R$ .*

**Proof.** If  $a_0$  is a unit and  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  are nilpotent, then  $f$  is a unit of  $(R/P)[x]$ . Consequently by 2a  $f$  is a unit of  $R[x]$ . Conversely, if  $f$  is a unit of

(8) An element  $g$  is regular if it is neither a left nor right divisor of zero.

$R[x]$ , then  $\bar{f} = \bar{a}_n \bar{x}^n + \cdots + \bar{a}_0$  is a unit of  $(R/P)[x]$  and hence  $\bar{f}(R/P)[x]$  contains a regular polynomial of degree zero. We conclude from Lemma 6.1, since  $P(R/P) = 0$ , that  $f$  has degree zero. Consequently  $\bar{a}_n = \cdots = \bar{a}_1 = \bar{0}$  and  $\bar{a}_0$  is a unit of  $R/P$ . Hence  $a_n, \cdots, a_1$  are nilpotent and from 2a  $a_0$  is a unit of  $R$ .

**THEOREM 6.2.** *The Jacobson radical  $J(R[x])$  and the radical  $P(R[x])$  of a polynomial ring  $R[x]$ , where  $R$  is a duo ring, are the same.*

**Proof.** We need only show that  $J(R[x]) \subseteq P(R[x])$ . If  $f = a_n x^n + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0 \in J(R[x])$ , then  $xf + 1 = a_n x^{n+1} + \cdots + a_1 x^2 + a_0 x + 1$  is a unit. Hence  $a_n, \cdots, a_0$  are nilpotent.

**THEOREM 6.3.** *If  $R$  is a duo ring the following statements are equivalent.*

- (1)  $R$  is a right  $P$  primary ring.
- (2)  $R[x]$  is a right  $P$  primary ring.
- (3)  $R[x]$  is a right  $J$  primary ring.

**Proof.** Obviously, by Theorem 6.2, (2) and (3) are equivalent. (2) immediately implies (1). We shall now show that (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2). Suppose  $fg = 0$  and  $g \neq 0$ . Then, by Lemma 6.2, there exists a nonzero element  $c$  in  $R$  such that  $fc = 0$ . Hence the coefficients of  $R$  are left divisor of zero and therefore are contained in  $P(R)$ . Consequently  $f$  is contained in  $P(R[x])$ .

From the preceding discussion it would seem natural to investigate algebraic extensions of  $R$  where  $R$  is a completely  $N$  primary ring or a duo completely  $N$  primary ring.

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