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#### **Recommended** Citation

Henriksen, Melvin. "Some sufficient conditions for the Jacobson radical of a commutative ring with identity to contain a prime ideal." Portugaliae Mathematica 36.3-4 (1977): 257-269.

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# PORTUGALIAE MATHEMATICA

# VOLUME 36

Edição da SOCIEDADE PORTUGUESA DE MATEMÁTICA

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PORTUGALIAE MATHEMATICA Av. da República, 37-4.º 1000 LISBOA — PORTUGAL PORTUGALIAE MATHEMATICA Vol. 36 Fasc. 3-4 - 1977

### SOME SUFFICIENT CONDITIONS FOR THE JACOBSON RADICAL OF A COMMUTATIVE RING WITH IDENTITY TO CONTAIN A PRIME IDEAL

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#### 1. Introduction

Throughout, the word «ring» will abbreviate the phrase «commutative ring with identity element 1» unless the contrary is stated explicitly. An ideal I of a ring R is called *pseudoprime* if ab = 0implies a or b is in I. This term was introduced by C. Kohls and L. Gillman who observed that if I contains a prime ideal, then I is pseudoprime, but, in general, the converse need not hold. In [9 p. 233], M. Larsen, W. Lewis, and R. Shores ask if whenever the Jacobson radical J(R) of an arthmetical ring is pseudoprime, it follows that J(R) contains a prime ideal?

In Section 2, I answer this question affirmatively. Indeed, if R is arithmetical and J(R) is pseudoprime, then the set N(R) of nilpotent elements of R is a prime ideal (Corollary 9). Along the way, necessary and sufficient conditions for J(R) to contain a prime ideal are obtained.

In Section 3, I show that a class of rings introduced by A. Bouvier [1] are characterized by the property that every minimal prime ideal of R is contained in J(R). The remainder of the section is devoted to rings with pseudoprime Jacobson radical that satisfy

Received June 8, 1976.

a variety of chain conditions. In particular, it is shown that if R is a Noetherian multiplication ring with pseudoprime Jacobson radical J(R), then J(R) contains a unique minimal prime ideal (Theorem 20), but there is a Noetherian semiprime ring R such that J(R) is pseudoprime and fails to contain a prime ideal (Example 21).

#### 2. The ideal mI and pseudoprime ideals

As in [5], if I is an ideal of a ring R, let

$$m\mathbf{I} = \bigcup \left\{ \mathcal{A}(1 - i): i \in \mathbf{I} \right\}$$

where  $\mathcal{A}(a) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}: ax = 0\}$ . In [5], the following assertions are proved.

1. LEMMA (Jenkins-McKnight) If I and K are ideals of a ring R and I  $\subset$  K, then

(a) mI is an ideal of R contained in I

(b) 
$$mI = \{a \in \mathbb{R} : I + \mathcal{A}(a) = \mathbb{R}\}$$

- (c)  $mI \subset mK$
- (d) m(I + J(R)) = mI.

Recall that the Jacobson radical J(R) of a commutative ring R with identity is the intersection of all the maximal ideals of R, and that  $a \varepsilon J(R)$  if and only if (1 - ax) is a unit for every  $x \varepsilon R$  [11, Section 30].

Let  $\mathcal{U}(\mathbf{R})$  denote the set of units of a ring R, let  $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{R})$ denote the set of maximal ideals of R, and let  $S(\mathbf{R}) = \Sigma \{ m\mathbf{M} : \mathbf{M} \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{R}) \}$ . By Lemma 1,  $S(\mathbf{R}) = \Sigma \{ m\mathbf{I} : \mathbf{I} \text{ a proper ideal of } \mathbf{R} \} = \Sigma \{ \mathcal{A}(1-i) : i \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \mathcal{U}(\mathbf{R}) \}$  is the smallest ideal containing  $\mathcal{A}(1-i)$  for every non unit  $i \in \mathbf{R}$ .

The next lemma indicates the importance of the ideals mI in the study of rings with pseudoprime Jacobson radical.

2. LEMMA. The Jacobson radical J(R) of a ring R is pseudoprime if and only if  $S(R) \subset J(R)$ .

**PROOF.** To prove the lemma, it suffices to show that J(R) is pseudoprime if and only if  $mI \subset J(R)$  for every proper ideal I of R.

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If J(R) is pseudoprime, I is a proper ideal of J(R), and  $a \varepsilon m I$ , there is an  $i \varepsilon I$  such that a(1 - i) = 0. But  $(1 - i) \notin J(R)$ , so  $a \varepsilon J(R)$ .

Suppose, conversely, that  $mI \subset J(R)$  for every proper ideal I of R, ab = 0, and  $b \notin J(R)$ . Then there is a 1  $x \in R$  such that 1 - bx is not a unit. Thus a(1 - bx) = a, so  $a \in m((1 - bx)R) \subset J(R)$ .

Suppose I is a proper ideal of a ring R (which need not have an identity element). A proper prime ideal of R that fails to contain properly any other prime ideal of R is said to be a *minimal prime ideal* of R. Let  $\mathcal{P}(R)$  denote the set of minimal prime ideals of R. It is well known that  $\bigcap \{P: P \in \mathcal{P}(R)\}$  is the set N(R) of nilpotent elements of R [11, p. 100], and that a prime ideal P is minimal if for every  $a \in P$ , there is a  $b \notin P$  such that  $ab \in N(R)$  [5, lemma 3.1].

If  $N(R) = \{0\}$ , then R is called a *semiprime* ring.

For any ideal I of R, the *radical*  $\sqrt{1}$  of I is the intersection of all the prime ideals of R containing I. Equivalently,  $\sqrt{1} = \{a:a^n \in I\}$ for some positive integer *n*. The next proposition describes  $\sqrt{mI}$ as an intersection of minimal prime ideals of R.

- 3. PROPOSITION. Suppose I is a proper ideal of R and P is a minimal prime ideal of R
  - (a)  $mI \subset P$  if and only if  $I + P \neq R$
  - (b)  $\sqrt{mI} = \bigcap \{ P \in \mathcal{D}(R) \colon I + P \neq R \}$
  - (c) If M is a maximal ideal of R, then  $\sqrt{mM} = \bigcap \{ P \varepsilon \mathcal{D}(R) \colon P \subset M \}$
  - (d) If R is semiprime, then  $\sqrt{mI} = mI$ .

PROOF OF (a). If I + P = R, there is an  $i \in I$  and a  $p \in P$  such that i + p = 1. Since  $P \in \mathcal{P}(R)$ , there is a  $q \notin P$  such that  $q(1 - i) = qp \in N(R)$ . Hence there is a positive integer n such that  $q^n(1 - i)^n = 0$ . By the binomial theorem  $(1 - i)^n = (1 - i')$  for some  $i' \in I$ , so  $q^n \in mI \setminus P$ . We have shown that I + P = R implies  $mI \notin P$ .

If, conversely, there is an a  $\varepsilon mI \setminus P$ , then a(1-i) = 0 for some  $i\varepsilon I$ . Since  $a \notin P$ ,  $1 - i\varepsilon P$  and I + P = R. This completes the proof of (a).

To get (b) from (a), it suffices to show that  $\sqrt{mI}$  is the intersection of all the minimal prime ideals containing it. It follows from [7, Theorem 10], that mI is the intersection of all the prime ideals of R such that  $P/_{mI}$  is a minimal prime ideal of  $R/_{mI}$ . Suppose a is an element of such a prime ideal P. Then there is a  $b \notin P$  and a positive integer n such that  $(ab)^n \varepsilon mI$ . Hence  $a^n b^n (1-i) = 0$  for some  $i \varepsilon I$ . Suppose  $b^n (1-i)\varepsilon P$ . Now  $b \notin P$ , so  $(1-i)\varepsilon P$  since P is a prime ideal. Thus I + P = R, and by (a),  $mI \notin P$ . This contradiction shows that  $a^n [b^n (1-i)] = 0$  and  $b^n (1-i) \notin P$ . Hence  $P \varepsilon \mathcal{D}(R)$  and (b) holds.

Clearly (c) follows from (b).

If  $a\varepsilon \sqrt{mI}$ , then  $a^n \varepsilon mI$  for some positive integer *n*. So there is an  $i\varepsilon I$  such that  $a^n(1-i) = 0 = [a(1-i)]^n$ . Since R is semiprime, a(1-i) = 0 and  $a\varepsilon mI$ . Thus (d) holds.

For any ring R, let G(R) denote the multiplicative semigroup generated by  $\{(1 - i): i \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathcal{U}(\mathbb{R})\}$  and let  $T(\mathbb{R}) = \{a \in \mathbb{R}: ax = 0 \text{ for} some x \in G(\mathbb{R})\}$ . Note that  $T(\mathbb{R})$  is an ideal of R which is proper if and only if  $0 \notin G(\mathbb{R})$ . Also,  $S(\mathbb{R}) \subset T(\mathbb{R})$ . For, if  $a \in S(\mathbb{R})$ , then there is a finite set  $\{M_1, \dots, M_n\}$  of maximal ideals, and elements  $m_i \in M_i$ for  $i = 1, \dots, n$  such that  $a \in \sum_{i=1}^n \mathcal{A}(1 - m_i)$ . Then  $a \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - m_i) = 0$ , so  $a \in T(\mathbb{R})$ .

- 4. **Proposition.** The following properties of a minimal prime P of a ring R are equivalent
  - (a)  $P \subset J(R)$ .
  - (b)  $P \supset S(R)$ .
  - (c)  $P \supset T(R)$ .

**PROOF.** If  $P \subset J(R)$  and M is a maximal ideal of R, then  $P \subset M$ . Hence by Proposition 3,  $mM \subset P$ , so  $S(R) = \Sigma\{mM:M \in \mathcal{M}(R)\} \subset P$ . Thus (a) implies (b).

Suppose next that there is an  $a \in T(\mathbb{R}) \setminus \mathbb{P}$ . Then there is an  $x \in G(\mathbb{R})$  such that  $ax = 0 \in \mathbb{P}$ . Since  $a \notin \mathbb{P}$ , we have  $x \in \mathbb{P}$ . Since  $x \in G(\mathbb{R})$ , there is finite set  $\{M_1, \ldots, M_n\}$  of maximal ideals of  $\mathbb{R}$  and elements  $m_i \in M_i$  for  $i = 1, \ldots, n$  such that  $x = (1 - m_1) \dots (1 - m_n) \in \mathbb{P}$ . Hence  $(1 - m_i) \in \mathbb{P}$  for some i, so  $\mathbb{P} + M_i = \mathbb{R}$ . By Proposition 3,  $mM_i \notin \mathbb{P}$  and therefore  $\mathbb{P} \neq S(\mathbb{R})$ . Thus we have shown that (b) implies (c).

If  $P \supset T(R)$ , then  $P \supset S(R) \supset mM$  for every maximal ideal M of R. So, by Proposition 3,  $P \subset J(R)$ . Thus (c) implies (a) and the proof of Proposition 4 is complete.

Since every proper ideal of R is contained in a prime ideal, the following corollary follows immediately from Proposition 4 and the remarks preceding it. It may also be derived easily from [2, Proposition 3.3].

5. COROLLARY. The Jacobson radical of a ring R contains a prime ideal if for every positive integer n, whenever  $m_1, \ldots, m_n$  is a finite set of non units of R, it follows that  $\prod_{i=1}^{n} (1 - m_i) \neq 0$ .

Another easy consequence of Proposition 4 follows.

6. COROLLLARY. If R is a ring with pseudoprime Jacobson radical J(R), and P is a minimal prime ideal of R such that  $P \supset J(R)$ , then P = J(R).

**PROOF.** Since J(R) is pseudoprime and  $P \supset J(R)$ , then  $P \supset J(R) \supset S(R)$ . Hence by Proposition 4,  $P \subset J(R)$ , so P = J(R).

The next theorem and its corollaries solves the problem posed by M. Larsen, W. Lewis, and R. Shores in [9, p. 233]. Recall that if  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  are proper ideals of a ring R and  $I_1 + I_2 = R$ , then  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  are said to be *co-maximal*.

7. THEOREM. Suppose R is a ring with pseudoprime Jacobson radical.

- (a) If S(R) contains a prime ideal P, then P = S(R) is the unique minimal prime ideal of R contained in J(R).
- (b) If  $\sqrt{mP}$  is a prime ideal, then P = N(R).

PROOF. The prime ideal P contains a minimal prime ideal  $P_0$ , and by Lemma 2,  $P_0 \subset P \subset S(R) \subset J(R)$ . By Proposition 4,  $S(R) \subset P_0$ , so  $P_0 = P = S(R)$ . Using Proposition 4 again yields that S(R) is the unique minimal prime ideal contained in J(R), and (a) holds.

If  $\sqrt{mP} = Q$  is a prime ideal, then by Proposition 4,  $Q \in \mathcal{D}(R)$ . But  $\sqrt{mP} \subset P$ , so  $\sqrt{mP} = P \subset J(R)$ . By Lemma 1,  $mP = m\sqrt{mP} = \{0\}$ . Hence  $P = \sqrt{\{0\}} = N(R)$ , and (b) holds.

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8. COROLLARY. The following properties of a ring R are equivalent.

- (a) J(R) is pseudoprime and there is a minimal prime ideal P of R co-maximal with every other minimal prime ideal of R
- (b) N(R) is a prime ideal.

**PROOF.** If (a) holds, then  $\sqrt{mP} = P \subset J(R)$  by Proposition 3 and Lemma 2. Hence S(R) contains a prime ideal, so (b) holds by Theorem 7.

If (a) holds, then  $N(R) \subset J(R)$  and N(R) is the unique element of  $\mathcal{P}(R)$ . So (a) holds and Corollary 8 follows.

A ring is called *arithmetical* if its lattice of ideals is distributive.

In [6, Corollary 2] C. Jensen has shown that incomparable prime ideals of an arithmetical ring are co-maximal. Hence we have:

9. COROLLARY. If the Jacobson radical J(R) of an arithmetical ring R is pseudoprime, then N(R) is a prime ideal contained in J(R).

#### 3. Other classes of rings whose Jacobson radicals are pseudoprime

In [1], A. Bouvier calls a ring R presimplifiable if whenever  $x,y \in \mathbb{R}$  and xy = x, then x = 0 or y is a unit, and the studies factorization properties of such rings. By Lemma 1, R is presimplifiable if and only if  $S(\mathbb{R}) = \{0\}$ . These rings are characterized in the next theorem.

10. THEOREM. The following properties of a ring R are equivalent.

- (a) R is presimplifiable
- (b)  $mM \subset N(R)$  for every maximal ideal M of R.
- (c) Every minimal prime ideal of R is contained in J(R).
- (d) Every proper divisor of 0 in R is contained in J(R).

PROOF. If R is presimplifiable and M is a maximal ideal of R, then  $mM = \{0\} \subset N(R)$ , so (a) implies (b).

If (b) holds, then  $mM \subset N(R) \subset P$  for every  $P \in \mathcal{D}(R)$  and maximal ideal M of R. So, by Proposition 3, if  $P \in \mathcal{D}(R)$ , then P

is contained in every maximal ideal of R. That is,  $P \subset J(R)$ , so (c) holds.

Every proper divisor of 0 is contained in some minimal prime ideal of R [4, Section 2], so (c) implies (d).

If (d) holds, then  $\mathcal{A}(a) \subset M \subset J(R)$  for every maximal ideal M of R. Hence by Lemma 1,  $mM = \{a \in R : M + \mathcal{A}(a) = R\} = \{0\}$ , so R is presimplifiable. This completes the proof of Theorem 10.

In the remainder of the paper, rings satisfying various chain conditions, and which have a pseudoprime Jacobson radica' are studied.

Suppose R is a ring (which does not necessarily have an identity element). If  $A \subset R$ , let  $h(A) = \{P \in \mathcal{D}(R) : A \subset P\}$ , and if  $S \subset \mathcal{D}(R)$ , let  $k(S) = \bigcap \{P \in \mathcal{D}(R) : P \in S\}$ . If we call a subset S of  $\mathcal{D}$  closed if S = hk(S), then it is known that  $\mathcal{D}(R)$  becomes a Hausdorff topological space with  $B = \{h\mathcal{A}(a) : a \in R\}$  as a base for its open sets. Moreover, for any  $a \in R, h\mathcal{A}(a) \bigcap h(a) = \emptyset$  and  $h\mathcal{A}(a) \bigcup h(a) = \mathcal{D}(R)$ , so the hull of each element of R is both closed and open. Moreover,  $\mathcal{D}(R)$  and  $\mathcal{D}(R^N(R))$  are homeomorphic. [4, Section 2].

If R is semiprime and for every  $x,y \in \mathbb{R}$ , there is a  $z \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\mathcal{A}(x) \cap \mathcal{A}(y) = \mathcal{A}(z)$ , R is said to satisfy the annhilator condition, or to be an *a.c.-ring*. The following assertions are proved in [4, Theorem 3,4]. Recall that if  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  is not a proper divisor of 0, then a is called a *regular element* of R, and an ideal containing a regular element is called a *regular ideal* of R.

11. LEMMA. (Henriksen and Jerison). The following properties of a semiprime ring (not necessarily with an identity element) are equivalent.

- (a)  $\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{R})$  is compact and satisfies the annhibitor condition.
- (b)  $[h(a): a \in \mathbb{R}]$  is a base for the open subsets of  $\mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$ . If (a) holds, then
- (c) R has a regular element, and
- (d) a proper ideal of R is contained in a minimal prime ideal of R if (and only if) it is not regular.

The next lemma is probably known, but does not seem to appear in the literature.

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12. LEMMA. If R is a semiprime ring (not necessarily with an identity element) and  $\mathcal{P}(R)$  is finite, then R satisfies the annhilator condition.

**PROOF.** By Lemma 11 (a,b,c), if  $S \subset \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$ , there is an  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  such that h(a) = S. Hence if  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , there is a  $z \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $h(z) = h(x) \cap h(y)$ . By [4, Lemma 3.1], since  $\mathbb{R}$  is semiprime,  $\mathcal{A}(z) = \mathcal{A}(x) \cap \mathcal{A}(y)$  and  $\mathbb{R}$  an a.c.-ring.

13. PROPOSITION. The following properties of an a. c.-ring R such that  $\mathcal{D}(R)$  is compact are equivalent

- (a) J(R) contains a prime ideal of R.
- (b) S(R) is not a regular ideal.

**PROOF.** If (a) holds, then J(R) contains a  $P \varepsilon \mathcal{D}(R)$ , by Proposition 4,  $S(R) \subset P$ . But no element of a minimal prime ideal is regular, so (b) holds.

If (b) holds, then by Lemma 11 (c), S(R) is contained in some  $P \varepsilon \mathcal{D}(R)$ . So by Proposition 4, (b) holds.

The following corollary is an immediate consequence of Lemma 12 and Proposition 13.

14. COROLLARY. If R is a semiprime ring such that  $\mathcal{D}(R)$  is finite, then J(R) contains a prime ideal if and only if S(R) is not a regular ideal.

15. REMARKS. (a) The hypothesis of Corollary 14 is satisfied if R is a semiprime ring that satisfies the ascending chain condition on annhilator ideals [7, Theorem 88], or if R has few zero divisors in the sense of [10. p. 152].

(b) Since  $N(R) \subset J(R)$  and  $N(R) \subset P$  for every  $P \in \mathcal{D}(R)$ , it follows easily that J(R) is pseudoprime (resp. J(R) contains a prime ideal of R) if and only if  $J(^{R}/N(R))$  is pseudoprime (resp.  $J(^{R}/N(R))$  contains a prime ideal of N(R)).

Next, I examine consequences of the assumption that mI is finitely generated. For any ideal I of R let  $\mathcal{F}(I)$  denote the set of

finitely generated ideals F of I such that FI = F. It is shown in [7, Theorem 76] that:

(1) If  $F \in \mathcal{F}(I)$ , there is an i $\in I$  such that a(1 - i) = 0 for all  $a \in F$ . That is,  $F \subset mI$ .

Suppose I is an ideal of a ring R. If  $ab \epsilon I$  and  $a \notin I$  imply  $b \epsilon \sqrt{I}$ , the I is called a *primary ideal* The radical of a primary ideal is a prime ideal [13, p. 152]. If whenever A and B are ideals of R, AB  $\subset$  I, and A  $\notin$  I imply B<sup>n</sup>  $\subset$  I for some positive integer *n*, then I is called a *strongly primary* ideal. It is known that a pirmary ideal with finitely generated radical is strongly primary [13, p. 200, proof of 2)].

Let  $I^{\omega} = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I^n$ , and note that if  $a \varepsilon m I$ , there is an i $\varepsilon I$  such that  $a = ai = ai^2 = \ldots = ai^n$  for every positive integer *n*. Thus  $m I \subset I^{\omega}$ .

- 16. PROPOSITION. Suppose I is an ideal of a ring R.
- (a) If mI is finitely generated, then mI is the largest element of  $\mathcal{F}(I)$  and mI =  $\mathcal{A}(1 i)$  for some izI.
- (b) If  $I^{\omega}$  is finitely generated, then  $mI = I^{\omega}$  if and only if  $I^{\omega}I = I^{\omega}$ .
- (c) If  $I^{\omega}$  is finitely generated and  $I^{\omega}I$  is an intersection of strongly primary ideals, then  $mI = I^{\omega}$ .
- (d) If R is Noetherian, then  $mI = I^{\omega}$ .

**PROOF.** Since (mI)I = mI, (a) follows from (1), and (b) follows from (a) and the fact that  $mI \subset I^{\omega}$ .

Suppose  $I^{\omega}I$  is contained in a strongly primary ideal Q. If  $I \notin \sqrt{Q}$ , then  $I^{\omega} \subset Q$  since Q is primary. If  $I \subset \sqrt{Q}$ , then there is a positive integer *n* such that  $I^{\omega} \subset I^n \subset Q$  since Q is strongly primary. Hence  $I^{\omega}I = I^{\omega}$  and (c) follows from (b).

Finally (d) follows from (c) since every ideal of a Noetherian ring is an intersection of (strongly) primary ideals [11, p. 199].

Proposition 16 (d) is also proved in [12, p. 49].

The next two examples show that some of the assumptions made in Proposition 16 (c) are necessary. 17. EXAMPLE. An integral domain  $D_1$  such that if M is a maximal ideal of  $D_1$  then  $M^{\omega}M = J(D_1)$  is a prime ideal, but  $mM \neq M^{\omega}$ .

Let  $D_1$  denote the ring of formal power series  $a(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ with rational coefficients such that  $a(0) = a_0$  is an integer. As is noted in [3, p. 162], M is a maximal ideal of  $D_1$  if and only if there is a prime integer p such that  $M_1 = pD_1$ . Moreover  $(pD_1)^{\omega} =$  $= \{a(x) \in D_1: a(0) = 0\} = J(D_1)$ , and, clearly  $(pD_1)^{\omega}(pD_1) = (pP_1)^{\omega}$ . Since  $D_1$  is an integral domain  $m(pD_1) = \{0\} \neq (pD_1)^{\omega}$ . Note that  $(pD_1)^{\omega}$  is not finitely generated since for  $n = 0, 1, 2, ..., \left(\frac{1}{2^n}x\right)D_1$  is a strictly ascending chain of ideals contained in  $(pD_1)^{\omega}$ .

18. EXAMPLE. An integral domain with a prime ideal P such that  $P^{\omega}$  is both prime and principal, but  $mP \neq P^{\omega}$ .

If  $D_1$  is the ring of Example 17, let  $D_2 = D_1$  [[y]] denote the the ring of formal power series with coefficients in  $D_1$ . Let

 $P = \{a(y) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x)y^n : a_n(x) \ge D_1 \text{ for } n \ge 0 \text{ and } a_0(x) \ge J(D_1)\}.$ Thus  $a(y) \ge P$  if and only if when we write  $a_0(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{0n}x^n$ , we have  $a_{0n} = 0$ . It is easily verified that P is a prime ideal, and  $P^{\omega} = \{a(y) \ge D_2: a(0) = 0\} = yD_2$  is also a prime ideal. Since  $D_2$  is an integral domain,  $mP = \{0\} \ne yD_2 = P^{\omega}$ . Note finally that  $\sqrt{PP^{\omega}} = \sqrt{P \cap P^{\omega}} = \sqrt{P^{\omega}} = P^{\omega}$  is a prime ideal, but, by Proposition 16,  $PP^{\omega}$  is not an intersection of strongly primary ideals.

The next proposition provides another sufficient condition for J(R) to contain a prime ideal.

19. PROPOSITION. Suppose P is a minimal prime ideal of a ring R such that

- (i) P is finitely generated, and
- (ii) there is a maximal ideal  $M \supset P$  and an ideal B of R for which P = MB.

Then:

- (a)  $\sqrt{mP} = P$  if P = M and mM = P if  $P \neq M$ .
- (b) If J(R) is pseudoprime, then it contains a unique minimal prime ideal of R.

**PROOF.** If P = M = MR, then (a) holds by Proposition 3. If  $P \neq M$ , then  $B \subset P$  since P is prime, and  $P = MB \subset MP \subset P$ . Thus

P = MP, so  $P \subset mM$  by (1) and  $mM \subset P$  by Proposition 3. Hence P = mP and (a) holds in this case as well.

Part (b) follows from (a) and Theorem 7.

An ideal B of a ring R is called a *multiplication ideal* if whenever A is an ideal of R such that  $A \subset B$ , there is an ideal C of R such that A = BC. If every ideal of R is a multiplication ideal, then R is called a *multiplication ring*. The ring R is called an *almost multiplication ring* if every ideal with a prime radical is a power of its radical. The following facts are known.

- (2) Every multiplication ring is an almost multiplication ring and every Noetherian almost multiplication ring is a multiplication ring [10, p. 216 and p. 213, Theorem 9.21].
- (3) If P is a prime ideal and M is a maximal ideal of an almost multiplication ring such that  $P \subset M$  and  $P \neq M$ , then

P = MP. [10, p. 224, Ex. 9]

With the aid of (2) and (3) the following consequences of Proposition 19 follow.

20. THEOREM. If the Jacobson radical J(R) of a ring R is a pseudoprime multiplication ideal and if every radical ideal of R contained in J(R) is finitely generated, then R is an integral domain or J(R) is a minimal prime ideal of R. In particular, the Jacobson radical of a Noetherian (almost) multiplication ring contains a unique minimal prime.

**PROOF.** By Proposition 19 and (3), J(R) contains a unique minimal prime ideal P. Since J(R) is a multiplication ideal, if  $P \neq J(R)$  there is an ideal B of R such that P = J(R)B. Since P is prime,  $B \subset P$ , so  $P = J(R)B \subset J(R)P \subset P$ , and hence P = J(R)P. Hence by (1) and Lemma 1,  $P \subset mJ(R) = \{0\}$ . Thus R is an integral domain. This completes the proof of the theorem.

The next example shows that a Noetherian ring may have a pseudoprime Jacobson radical which contains no prime ideal.

21. EXAMPLE. A semiprime Noetherian ring R with pseudoprime Jacobson radical J(R) which has exactly three minimal prime ideals, none of which are in J(R). If F is any field, let  $T = F[x_1, x_2, x_3]$  denote

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the ring of polynomials in three indeterminates  $x_1, x_2, x_3$ . Let  $I = x_1x_2T + x_1x_3T + x_2x_3T$ , and let  $T^* = \left\{\frac{a}{1-i} : a \in T, i \in I\right\}$  denote the quotient ring of R with respect to the multiplicative system  $\{1-i:i \in I\}$ . Finally, let  $R = T^*/(x_1x_2x_3)T^*$ , and let  $\overline{b} = b + x_1x_2x_3T^*$  for any  $b \in T^*$ .

Since T is a Noetherian unique factorization domain, R is Noetherian, and each of its proper divisors of 0 is a multiple of  $\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2$ , or  $\bar{x}_3$ . Clearly, also,  $\bar{1} = \bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 R + \bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_3 R + \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3 R \subset J(R)$ , and it follows that J(R) is pseudoprime. Since every element of a minimal prime ideal is a proper divisor of 0, the minimal prime ideals of R are  $P_t = \bar{x}_t \bar{R}$  for i = 1,2,3, none of which are contained in J(R) since  $\bar{1} - \bar{x}_i$  is not a unit of R. Finally, R is sempirime because  $\bar{P}_1 \cap \bar{P}_2 \cap \bar{P}_3 = \{\bar{0}\}$ .

In view of Example 22, the following proposition may not seem so special.

22. PROPOSITION. If R is a ring with no more than two minimal prime ideals and J(R) is pseudoprime, then J(R) contains a prime ideal.

PROOF. If R has exactly one minimal prime ideal, it must be  $N(R) \subset J(R)$ . Suppose R two minimal prime ideals  $P_1, P_2$ . By Remark 15(b), we may assume that R is semiprime. By Proposition 3, if  $M \in \mathcal{M}(R)$ , then mM is  $P_1, P_2$ , or  $P_1 \cap P_2 = \{0\}$ . Hence  $S(R) = \{0\}$ . or S(R) contains a prime ideal. In the first case, the conclusion follows from Theorem 10, and in the second case it follows from Theorem 7.

I conclude with an example that shows that the hypothesis of Proposition 22 can be satisfied for a ring R without R being presimplifiable.

23. EXAMPLE. A semiprime Noetherian ring R with two minimal prime ideals such that  $J(R) \in \mathcal{P}(R)$  and R is not presimplifiable. Le. S denote the ring of formal power series with 0 constant term with coefficients from the ring of integers mod 2. clearly S is Noetherian and J(S) = S. If Z denotes the ring of integers, let  $R = S*Z = \{(a,n):a \in S, n \in Z\}$  where for  $a_1, a_2 \in R, n_1 n_2 \in Z, (a_1, n_2) + (a_2, n_2) = (a_1, n_1) + (a_2, n_2)$  and  $(a_1, n_1)(a_2, n_2) = (a_1 a_2 + n_2 a_1 + n_1 a_2, n_1 n_2)$ . It is well known that R is a Noetherian ring with identity and the mapping

 $a \rightarrow (a,0)$  is an injection of S onto a prime ideal  $\overline{S}$  of R. It is easily verified that  $\overline{S} = J(R)$ . Also since (a,0)(0,2) = (0,0) for every  $a \in S, J(R) = \overline{S}$  is a minimal prime ideal of R. By the same reasoning  $P = \{(0,2n):n \in Z\} \in \mathcal{D}(R)$ , and any other prime ideal of R contains a regular element. So  $\mathcal{D}(R) = \{J(R), P\}$ , and R is not presimplifiable since  $P \neq J(R)$ . Finally, R is semiprime since  $P \cap J(R) \subset = \{0\}$ .

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