

# ON PRIMARY IDEAL DECOMPOSITIONS IN NON-COMMUTATIVE RINGS<sup>1)</sup>

HISAO TOMINAGA

It is the purpose of this note to present the condition that every ideal in a (non-commutative) ring is represented as the intersection of a finite number of *s*-primary ideals. Although the fact that the well-known results of E. Noether hold in non-commutative case for those ideals which can be represented as the intersection of a finite number of right primary ideals has been shown under maximum condition [3]<sup>2)</sup>, a necessary and sufficient condition that such a representation exists for every ideal is still unknown.

Throughout this note, the term "ideals" will mean "two-sided ideals" and  $\mathfrak{R}$  will be a ring considered.

1. The *right [left] quotient*  $ab^{-1}[b^{-1}a]$  of the ideals  $a$  and  $b$  is defined by  $ab^{-1} = \{x \in \mathfrak{R} \mid xb \subseteq a\}$  [ $b^{-1}a = \{x \in \mathfrak{R} \mid bx \subseteq a\}$ ]. The following properties of quotients are easily verified:

- 1)  $(ab^{-1})c^{-1} = a(cb)^{-1}$ ,
- 2)  $(\bigcap_{\lambda} a_{\lambda})b^{-1} = \bigcap_{\lambda} a_{\lambda}b^{-1}$ ,
- 3)  $a(\sum_{\lambda} b_{\lambda})^{-1} = \bigcap_{\lambda} ab_{\lambda}^{-1}$ ,  $a, b, a_{\lambda}$  and  $b_{\lambda}$  are ideals.

Let  $a, b$  be ideals, if  $ab^{-1} \supset a$ , we say that  $b$  is *non-prime to*  $a$ . If, for some positive integer  $k$ ,  $ab^{-k} = ab^{-(k+1)}$ <sup>3)</sup>, then we say that  $ab^{-k}$  is the *right limit ideal of*  $a$  *by*  $b$ . Clearly, the right limit ideal  $ab^{-k} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} ab^{-i}$ . The *left limit ideal* is defined in the obvious way. In the case where the right limit ideal of  $a$  by  $b$  coincides with the left one, we call it the *limit ideal of*  $a$  *by*  $b$ .

An ideal  $p$  is said to be *prime* [1] if  $a^{-1}p = pa^{-1} = p$  for any ideal  $a \not\subseteq p$ . As well-known, for every prime divisor  $p$  of any ideal  $a$ , there exists a minimal prime divisor of  $a$  which are contained in  $p$  [1]. The intersection of all the minimal prime divisors of  $a$  is called the *radical* of  $a$  and denoted by  $\bar{a}$ .

An ideal  $q$  is called *right [left] primary* if  $qa^{-1} = q[a^{-1}q = q]$  for any ideal  $a \not\subseteq q$  [3]. An ideal called *primary* if it is both right and

1) This note has been completed by the encouragement of Prof. M. Moriya. I express him my hearty thanks.

2) Numbers in brackets refer to the bibliography at the end of the note.

3)  $ab^{-k}$  is defined as  $(ab^{-(k-1)})b^{-1}$  inductively.

left primary, and a [right, left] primary ideal is called *s-[right, left] primary* if its radical is nilpotent modulo the ideal.

**Theorem 1.** *The radical of an s-right primary ideal  $q$  is prime.*

In fact, let  $ab \subseteq q$ , then  $(ab)^n \subseteq q$  for a sufficiently large  $n$ . Let  $n$  be the least with this property. If  $a, b \not\subseteq \bar{q}$ , then  $(ab)^n = (ab)^{n-1}ab \subseteq q$  implies  $(ab)^{n-1} \subseteq q$  because  $q$  is right primary. (We set  $(ab)^{n-1} = \mathfrak{R}$  if  $n = 1$ .) But this contradicts with the minimality of  $n$ .

If a prime ideal is the radical of an s-primary ideal  $q$ , we say that  $q$  is an s-primary ideal *belonging to* the prime ideal. And a prime ideal  $p$  is called *a prime ideal associated with* an ideal  $\alpha$  [2] if there exists an s-primary ideal  $q$  belonging to  $p$  such that  $q = \alpha r^{-1}$ , where  $r$  is an ideal not contained in  $\alpha$ .

2. In this section, we assume that  $\alpha = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n$ , where  $q_i$  are s-primary and the representation is irredundant<sup>1)</sup>. As easily verified, a prime ideal  $p$  is a minimal prime divisor of  $\alpha$  if and only if  $p$  is minimal in the set  $\{\bar{q}_i\}$ . If  $\bar{q}_i = p'$  for all  $i$ , then  $\alpha$  is also a primary ideal with the radical  $p'$ . In fact,  $p'$  is the unique minimal prime divisor of  $\alpha$  and the rest of the proof is easy.

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $\alpha = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n$ , where  $q_i$  are s-primary, then  $\bar{\alpha}$  is nilpotent modulo  $\alpha$ .*

In fact, let  $k_i$  be the nilpotency index of  $\bar{q}_i$  modulo  $q_i$ , then  $(\bar{\alpha})^{k_1 + \dots + k_n} \subseteq \alpha$ .

From the preceding, we can assume, without loss of generality, that  $\bar{q}_i$  does not coincide with any  $\bar{q}_j$  ( $i \neq j$ ) and so that the representation  $\alpha = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n$  is a short representation of  $\alpha$ <sup>2)</sup>.

If  $n > 1$ , then  $\alpha$  is not primary. In fact, let  $\bar{q}_1$  be minimal in the set  $\{\bar{q}_i\}$ . Then there exist elements  $a_i$  ( $i = 2, \dots, n$ ) such that  $a_i \in \bar{q}_i \setminus \bar{q}_1$ , where  $\bar{q}_i \setminus \bar{q}_1$  means the complement of  $\bar{q}_1$  in  $\bar{q}_i$ . And so, for some positive integer  $m$ ,  $(a_i)^m \subseteq q_i$  ( $i = 2, \dots, n$ ), where  $(a_i)$  means the two-sided ideal generated by  $a_i$ . As clearly  $q_1 \supset \alpha$ , there exists an element  $q_1 \in q_1 \setminus \alpha$ , and  $(q_1) \prod_{i=2}^n (a_i)^m \subseteq \alpha$ . Suppose now that  $\alpha$  is primary, then  $(q_1) \not\subseteq \alpha$  implies  $\prod_{i=2}^n (a_i)^m \subseteq \bar{\alpha} \subseteq \bar{q}_1$ , but it is impossible.

In the rest of this section, we assume that  $\alpha = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n$  be

1) A representation  $\alpha = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n$  is called irredundant if none of the  $q_i$  contains the intersection of the remainings.

2) The term "short representations" will be used for representations as the intersection of a finite number of s-primary ideals.

a short representation of  $\alpha$ . By using the same argument as in p. 35 of [4], we can prove, for every short representation of  $\alpha$ , the uniqueness of the number of primary components and the radicals of the primary components. We state here the proof of the uniqueness of the isolated components<sup>1)</sup>.

If  $\mathfrak{p} \subset \mathfrak{R}$  is any prime ideal, then we denote by  $\alpha'(\mathfrak{p})$ , where  $\alpha'$  is an ideal, the set of all the elements  $b$  of  $\mathfrak{R}$  such that  $b\mathfrak{r} \subseteq \alpha'$  for some ideal  $\mathfrak{r} \not\subseteq \mathfrak{p}$ . (If  $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{R}$ ,  $\alpha'(\mathfrak{r}) = \alpha'$ , by definition.) As easily verified,  $\alpha'(\mathfrak{p})$  is a two-sided ideal containing  $\alpha'$ .

**Lemma 1.** *Let  $\alpha = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n$  be a short representation. If  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a prime ideal containing  $\bar{q}_1, \dots, \bar{q}_r$  ( $1 \leq r \leq n$ ) but not containing  $\bar{q}_{r+1}, \dots, \bar{q}_n$ , then  $\alpha(\mathfrak{p}) = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_r$ . If  $\mathfrak{p}$  contains none of the  $\bar{q}_i$ , then  $\alpha(\mathfrak{p}) = \mathfrak{R}$ .*

We first assume that  $\mathfrak{p}$  contains  $\bar{q}_1, \dots, \bar{q}_r$ . Let  $b$  be any element of  $\alpha(\mathfrak{p})$ , then for some ideal  $\mathfrak{s} \not\subseteq \mathfrak{p}$ ,  $b\mathfrak{s} \subseteq \alpha$  and so  $(b)\mathfrak{s} \subseteq q_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n$ ). As  $\mathfrak{s} \not\subseteq \bar{q}_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, r$ ) and  $q_i$  are  $s$ -primary,  $(b) \subseteq q_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, r$ ). Hence  $\alpha(\mathfrak{p}) \subseteq q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_r$ . The converse inclusion is proved as following. If  $n = r$ , it is trivial. Therefore, we assume that  $r < n$  and let  $c$  be any element of  $q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_r$ . For  $i = r + 1, \dots, n$ , we choose elements  $p_i \in \bar{q}_i \setminus \mathfrak{p}$ , then for some positive integer  $h$ ,  $(p_i)^h \subseteq q_i$  ( $i = r + 1, \dots, n$ ). If we set  $\mathfrak{r}' = (p_{r+1})^h \dots (p_n)^h$ , then  $\mathfrak{r}' \not\subseteq \mathfrak{p}$  and  $\mathfrak{r}' \subseteq q_{r+1} \cap \dots \cap q_n$ . Since  $c \in q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_r$  it follows that  $c\mathfrak{r}' \subseteq \alpha$ , and hence  $c \in \alpha(\mathfrak{p})$ .

If  $\mathfrak{p}$  contains none of the  $\bar{q}_i$ , then the last part of the above proof shows that there is an ideal  $\mathfrak{r}'' = (p_1)^h \dots (p_n)^h$  which is not contained in  $\mathfrak{p}$ , where  $p_i$  is in  $\bar{q}_i \setminus \mathfrak{p}$  and  $(p_i)^h \subseteq q_i$ . Hence,  $\mathfrak{r}'' \subseteq \alpha$  for all elements  $y \in \mathfrak{R}$ , that is,  $\alpha(\mathfrak{p}) = \mathfrak{R}$ .

**Corollary<sup>2)</sup>.** *Let  $\alpha = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n$  be a short representation. Then  $\alpha(\mathfrak{p})$  is  $s$ -primary if  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a minimal prime divisor of  $\alpha$ .*

This is the direct consequence of Lemma 1.

1) Let  $\alpha = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n$  be a short representation. Consider a subset  $S$  of the set  $\{\bar{q}_i\}$  having the property that if  $\bar{q}_i \in S$ , then  $\bar{q}_j \subseteq \bar{q}_i$  implies  $\bar{q}_j \in S$ . The intersection of the  $s$ -primary components belonging to the prime ideals in  $S$  is called an isolated component of  $\alpha$ .

2) D. C. Murdoch proved that if  $\alpha$  is represented as the intersection of a finite number of right primary ideals, then  $u(\alpha, \mathfrak{p})$  is right primary for every minimal prime divisor  $\mathfrak{p}$  of  $\alpha$ , where the maximum condition for ideals is assumed (Corollary 2 to Theorem 17 of [3]). In our case, we obtain that  $u(\alpha, \mathfrak{p}) = I(\alpha, \mathfrak{p}) = \alpha(\mathfrak{p})$ . Thus our corollary corresponds to the Murdoch's result stated above.

Let  $\mathfrak{b} = \mathfrak{q}_{i_1} \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{q}_{i_m}$  be an isolated component of  $\mathfrak{a}$ , then  $\mathfrak{a}(\bar{\mathfrak{q}}_s)$  ( $s = 1, \dots, m$ ) is represented as the intersection of the primary ideals belonging to a subset of  $\{\mathfrak{q}_{i_j}\}$  ( $j = 1, \dots, m$ ) containing  $\mathfrak{q}_{i_s}$ . It follows that  $\mathfrak{b} = \mathfrak{a}(\bar{\mathfrak{q}}_{s_1}) \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{a}(\bar{\mathfrak{q}}_{i_m})$ .

We summarize here the uniqueness theorems.

**Theorem 3** *If an ideal  $\mathfrak{a}$  is represented as the intersection of a finite number of  $s$ -primary ideals, then there exists a short representation of  $\mathfrak{a}$ . And,*

(1) *The number of  $s$ -primary components in every short representation of  $\mathfrak{a}$  and the radicals of them are uniquely determined.*

(2) *The radicals of primary ideals belonging to an isolated component of  $\mathfrak{a}$  uniquely determine the isolated component, and so the isolated components of  $\mathfrak{a}$  coincide in all the short representations.*

Let  $\mathfrak{b}$  be an arbitrary ideal contained in  $\bar{\mathfrak{q}}_i$ , then  $\mathfrak{b} = \mathfrak{q}_i \mathfrak{b}^{-k} = \mathfrak{q}_i \mathfrak{b}^{-(k+1)} = \mathfrak{b}^{-(k+1)} \mathfrak{q}_i = \mathfrak{b}^{-k} \mathfrak{q}_i$  for a sufficiently large  $k$ . On the other hand, if  $\mathfrak{b} \not\subseteq \bar{\mathfrak{q}}_i$ , then  $\mathfrak{q}_i = \mathfrak{q}_i \mathfrak{b}^{-h} = \mathfrak{b}^{-h} \mathfrak{q}_i$  for every positive integer  $h$ . Thus, for any ideal  $\mathfrak{c}$ , there exists a positive integer  $t$  such that  $\mathfrak{a} \mathfrak{c}^{-t} = \mathfrak{a} \mathfrak{c}^{-(t+1)} = \mathfrak{c}^{-(t+1)} \mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{q}_{i_1} \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{q}_{i_m}$ , where  $\{\mathfrak{q}_{i_1}, \dots, \mathfrak{q}_{i_m}\}$  is a subset of  $\{\mathfrak{q}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{q}_n\}$ . This proves the next

**Theorem 4.** *Let  $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{q}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{q}_n$  be a short representation. Then, for any ideal  $\mathfrak{b}$ , there exists the limit ideal of  $\mathfrak{a}$  by  $\mathfrak{b}$ . And the number of ideals which, starting from  $\mathfrak{a}$ , are obtained by repeating the procedures to make limit ideals successively is finite, and is uniquely determined by  $\mathfrak{a}$ .*

From the existence of the limit ideal of  $\mathfrak{a}$ , we see readily the following

**Corollary.**<sup>1)</sup>  *$\mathfrak{a} \mathfrak{b}^{-1} \supset \mathfrak{a}$  if and only if  $\mathfrak{b}^{-1} \mathfrak{a} \supset \mathfrak{a}$ , accordingly,  $\mathfrak{a}$  is primary if and only if  $\mathfrak{a}$  is right (or left) primary.*

Let  $\mathfrak{p}$  be a minimal prime divisor of  $\mathfrak{a}$  ( $\mathfrak{p} \subset \mathfrak{a}$ ) and let  $h$  be a positive integer such that  $\mathfrak{p}^h \subseteq \mathfrak{q}_i$  for all  $\mathfrak{q}_i$  with  $\bar{\mathfrak{q}}_i$  containing  $\mathfrak{p}$ , then clearly  $\mathfrak{a} \mathfrak{p}^{-h} \supset \mathfrak{a}$ . Hence we have

**Theorem 5.** *Let  $\mathfrak{q}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{q}_n = \mathfrak{a}$  be a short representation of  $\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathfrak{R}$ . If  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a minimal prime divisor of  $\mathfrak{a}$ , then  $\mathfrak{p}$  is non-prime to  $\mathfrak{a}$ .*

**Lemma 2.** *If  $\mathfrak{q}$  is  $s$ -primary, then for any ideal  $\mathfrak{r} \not\subseteq \mathfrak{q}$ ,  $\mathfrak{q} \mathfrak{r}^{-1}$  is  $s$ -left primary.*

Clearly,  $\bar{\mathfrak{q}} \mathfrak{r}^{-1} = \bar{\mathfrak{q}}$ .  $u \mathfrak{b} \subseteq \mathfrak{q} \mathfrak{r}^{-1}$  implies  $u \mathfrak{b} \mathfrak{r} \subseteq \mathfrak{q}$ , where  $u, \mathfrak{b}$  are ideals. If  $u \not\subseteq \bar{\mathfrak{q}} \mathfrak{r}^{-1}$ , then we have  $\mathfrak{b} \mathfrak{r} \subseteq \mathfrak{q}$ . Thus  $\mathfrak{b} \subseteq \mathfrak{q} \mathfrak{r}^{-1}$ .

1) This corollary is derived from only the fact that there exists the limit ideal of  $\mathfrak{a}$ .

**Theorem 6.** *If every ideal in  $\mathfrak{R}$  is represented as the intersection of a finite number of  $s$ -primary ideals, then a prime divisor  $\mathfrak{p}$  of an arbitrary ideal  $\alpha$  is a prime ideal associated with  $\alpha$  if and only if  $\mathfrak{p}$  coincides with one of the radicals  $\bar{q}_i$  in a short representation  $\alpha = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n$ . And every primary component  $q_j$  ( $j = 1, \dots, n$ ) has the following property: For any ideal  $c \subseteq q_j$ ,  $\nsubseteq \alpha$ ,  $\alpha c^{-1}$  is not an  $s$ -primary ideal belonging to  $\bar{q}_j$ .*

The second part of this theorem follows from  $\alpha c^{-1} = q_1 c^{-1} \cap \dots \cap q_{j-1} c^{-1} \cap q_{j+1} c^{-1} \cap \dots \cap q_n c^{-1}$ .

Now we shall prove the first part. As  $\alpha = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n$  is a short representation,  $\bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j \nsubseteq q_i$ . Clearly  $\alpha (\bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j)^{-1} = q_i (\bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j)^{-1}$ . By Lemma 2 and Corollary to Theorem 4,  $\alpha (\bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j)^{-1}$  is an  $s$ -primary ideal belonging to  $\bar{q}_i$ . (If  $n = 1$ , we set  $\bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j = \mathfrak{R}$ .) Conversely, let  $\mathfrak{p}$  be a prime ideal associated with  $\alpha$ , that is,  $q = \alpha r^{-1} (r \nsubseteq \alpha)$  be an  $s$ -primary ideal belonging to  $\mathfrak{p}$ . If  $r \subseteq q_1, \dots, q_r$  but  $\nsubseteq q_{r+1}, \dots, q_n$ , then  $\alpha r^{-1} = q_{r+1} r^{-1} \cap \dots \cap q_n r^{-1}$ . Again by Lemma 2 and Corollary to Theorem 4, the ideals  $q_{r+1} r^{-1}, \dots, q_n r^{-1}$  are  $s$ -primary. By Theorem 3. (1), we have  $\alpha r^{-1} = q_i r^{-1}$  for some  $i$  ( $r + 1 \leq i \leq n$ ). Hence  $\mathfrak{p}$  coincides with  $\bar{q}_i$ .

Summarizing the above-mentioned results, we obtain

**Theorem 7.** *In order that every ideal in  $\mathfrak{R}$  is represented as the intersection of a finite number of  $s$ -primary ideals, the following conditions are necessary:*

- (A) *The radical of any ideal  $\alpha$  is nilpotent modulo  $\alpha^1$ .*
- (B) *For any ideals  $\alpha, b$ , there exists the limit ideal of  $\alpha$  by  $b$  and there exists a finite number  $n(\alpha)$  of ideals which, starting from  $\alpha$ , are obtained by repeating the procedures to make limit ideals successively. The number  $n(\alpha)$  is uniquely determined by  $\alpha$ .*
- (C) *Each minimal prime divisor of any ideal  $\alpha \subset \mathfrak{R}$  is non-prime to  $\alpha$ .*
- (D) *If  $\mathfrak{p}$  is an arbitrary prime ideal associated with an ideal  $\alpha$ , there exists an  $s$ -primary ideal  $q \supseteq \alpha$  belonging to  $\mathfrak{p}$  such that, for any ideal  $b \subseteq q$ ,  $\nsubseteq \alpha$ ,  $\alpha b^{-1}$  is no primary ideal belonging to  $\mathfrak{p}$ .*

3. In this section, we assume first the condition (B) in Theorem 7. Let  $\alpha$  be an ideal and let  $\mathfrak{p} \subset \mathfrak{R}$  be a minimal prime divisor of  $\alpha$ .

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1) In any ring with maximum condition for ideals, the condition (A) is satisfied. See, for example, Theorem 10 of [3].

Then we consider the set  $M$  of the limit ideals of  $\alpha$  by  $r'$ , where  $r'$  runs over all ideals not contained in  $\mathfrak{p}$ . Clearly, by (B),  $M$  is a finite set. Therefore, there exists a maximal ideal  $\alpha_0$  in  $M$  and, for some ideal  $r \not\subseteq \mathfrak{p}$ ,  $\alpha_0 = \alpha r^{-k} = \alpha r^{-(k+1)} = r^{-(k+1)}\alpha = r^{-k}\alpha$ , where  $k$  is a sufficiently large positive integer. Being  $r^k \not\subseteq \mathfrak{p}$ ,  $\mathfrak{p}$  is obviously a minimal prime divisor of  $\alpha_0$ . By the definition,  $\alpha_0 \subseteq \alpha(\mathfrak{p})$ . Let now  $b$  be any element in  $\alpha(\mathfrak{p})$ . Then there exists an ideal  $\mathfrak{s} \not\subseteq \mathfrak{p}$  such that  $b\mathfrak{s} \subseteq \alpha \subseteq \alpha_0$ . Hence,  $b \in \alpha_0 \mathfrak{s}^{-1} = \alpha(\mathfrak{s}r^k)^{-1} \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha(\mathfrak{s}r^k)^{-i}$ . Since  $\alpha_0 \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha(\mathfrak{s}r^k)^{-i} \in M$  and  $\alpha_0$  is maximal in  $M$ , then  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha(\mathfrak{s}r^k)^{-i} = \alpha_0$ , whence  $b \in \alpha_0$ . Thus, we have  $\alpha(\mathfrak{p}) = \alpha_0$  and, furthermore,  $\alpha_0 = \alpha_0 \mathfrak{s}^{-1}$  for every  $\mathfrak{s} \not\subseteq \mathfrak{p}$ .

Let us assume next the condition (C) in Theorem 7, in addition to (B). If  $\overline{\alpha(\mathfrak{p})} \neq \mathfrak{p}$ , then there exists a minimal prime divisor  $\mathfrak{p}' \neq \mathfrak{p}$  of  $\alpha(\mathfrak{p})$ . Since, by (C),  $\mathfrak{p}'$  is non-prime to  $\alpha(\mathfrak{p})$ , for some ideal  $b \not\subseteq \alpha(\mathfrak{p})$ ,  $b\mathfrak{p}' \subseteq \alpha(\mathfrak{p})$ . But  $b \subseteq \alpha(\mathfrak{p})\mathfrak{p}'^{-1} = \alpha(\mathfrak{p})$ . This contradiction shows  $\overline{\alpha(\mathfrak{p})} = \mathfrak{p}$ . Hence we have proved the following

**Lemma 3.** *Let  $\mathfrak{R}$  satisfy the conditions (B) and (C) in Theorem 7. Then  $\alpha(\mathfrak{p})$  is primary, where  $\mathfrak{p} \subset \mathfrak{R}$  is a minimal prime divisor of  $\alpha$ , and there exists an ideal  $r_0 \not\subseteq \mathfrak{p}$  such that  $\alpha(\mathfrak{p}) = \alpha r_0^{-1} = r_0^{-1}\alpha$ .*

We prove next the following

**Lemma 4.** *If  $\mathfrak{R}$  satisfies the conditions (A) and (B) in Theorem 7, then the number of prime ideals associated with a non-primary ideal  $\alpha$  is finite.*

Let  $\{\mathfrak{p}_\sigma\}$  be the set of all prime ideals associated with  $\alpha$  and let  $q_\sigma = \alpha r_\sigma^{-1}$  ( $r_\sigma \not\subseteq \alpha$ ) be a primary ideal belonging to  $\mathfrak{p}_\sigma$ . By Lemma 3 and the condition (A), the set  $\{\mathfrak{p}_\sigma\}$  is not empty.

At first, let  $\mathfrak{p}_1 \supset \mathfrak{p}_2 \supset \dots \supset \mathfrak{p}_k$  be a chain in  $\{\mathfrak{p}_\sigma\}$ , then  $k \leq n(\alpha)$ . If not, we define the ideals  $r'_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, k$ ) by setting  $r'_1 =$  the limit ideal of  $\alpha$  by  $\mathfrak{p}_1$ ,  $r'_i =$  the limit ideal of  $r'_{i-1}$  by  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  ( $i > 1$ ). Then, for some positive integer  $h$ ,  $\mathfrak{p}_1^h \dots \mathfrak{p}_j^h r'_j \subseteq \alpha$ , where, by (A), we assume  $\mathfrak{p}_m^h \subseteq q_m$  for every  $m$  ( $1 \leq m \leq j$ ). As  $q_m r_m \subseteq \alpha$  and  $\mathfrak{p}_1^h \dots \mathfrak{p}_j^h \subseteq \mathfrak{p}_m^h$ , we have  $r_m \subseteq r'_j$ . But, if  $t > j$ ,  $r_t \not\subseteq r'_j$ , because  $\mathfrak{p}_1^h \dots \mathfrak{p}_j^h r_t \subseteq \alpha$  implies  $\mathfrak{p}_1^h \dots \mathfrak{p}_j^h \subseteq q_t \subseteq \mathfrak{p}_t$ . Hence, we have an ascending chain  $\alpha \subset r'_1 \subset \dots \subset r'_k$  in which each term is the limit ideal of the preceding one and whose length is  $k$ . But it contradicts with the condition (B). From this, we can easily see that there is a maximal one in  $\{\mathfrak{p}_\sigma\}$ .

Next, let  $\{\mathfrak{p}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{p}_k\}$  be a finite subset of  $\{\mathfrak{p}_\sigma\}$  and let every  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  be not contained in any remaining one. Then  $k \leq n(\alpha)$ . If not, by

using the above argument, we can construct an ascending chain  $\alpha \subset r_1'' \subset \dots \subset r_k''$  in which each term is the limit ideal of the preceding one and whose length is  $k$ .

By the facts proved above, we see that there exists a finite number of maximal elements in  $\{p_\sigma\}$ . Now, we omit from the set  $\{p_\sigma\} = M_1$  all the maximal elements  $p_{1,1}, \dots, p_{1,s_1}$ , and denote by  $M_2$  the set of the remaining ideals. Since  $M_2$  has obviously a finite number of maximal elements  $p_{2,1}, \dots, p_{2,s_2}$ , we obtain the set  $M_3$  by omitting  $p_{2,1}, \dots, p_{2,s_2}$  from  $M_2$ . Clearly, each ideal of  $p_{2,1}, \dots, p_{2,s_2}$  is contained in some of  $p_{1,i}$ 's. Repeating this procedure, we obtain a descending chain  $M_1 \supseteq M_2 \supseteq \dots$ , but  $M_{n(\alpha)+1}$  is the empty set, because, otherwise, there exists a descending chain of prime ideals from  $\{p_\sigma\}$  whose length exceeds  $n(\alpha) - 1$ . *q.e.d.*

We assume here the condition (D) besides (A), (B) and (C) in Theorem 7.

Let  $p_1, \dots, p_n$  be all the prime ideals associated with an non primary ideal  $\alpha$  (by Lemma 4), and let  $q_1, \dots, q_n$  be the primary divisors of  $\alpha$  belonging to  $p_1, \dots, p_n$  respectively which possess the property in (D). We set  $\delta = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n (\supseteq \alpha)$ . By Lemma 3, every minimal prime divisor of  $\alpha$  is a prime ideal associated with  $\alpha$ . Hence  $\delta \subseteq \bar{\alpha}$ . As  $\bar{\alpha}$  is nilpotent modulo  $\alpha$  (by (A)),  $\alpha\delta^{-1} \supseteq \alpha$ . We suppose now that  $\delta \supseteq \alpha$ . If  $\alpha\delta^{-1}$  is non primary, by Lemma 3, we have, for some ideal  $r_0 \not\subseteq \alpha\delta^{-1}$ , a primary ideal  $\alpha\delta^{-1}r_0^{-1} \subset \mathfrak{R}$  and set  $r = r_0\delta$ . On the other hand, if  $\alpha\delta^{-1}$  is primary, we set  $\delta = r$ . Hence, in either case, we have a primary ideal  $q = \alpha r^{-1}$ , where  $r \not\subseteq \alpha$ ,  $r \subseteq \delta$ , and  $\bar{q}$  is a prime ideal associated with  $\alpha$ . Therefore, for some  $i$ ,  $\bar{q} = p_i$ . Since  $r \subseteq \delta \subseteq q_i$ , the ideal  $q = \alpha r^{-1}$  is not primary (by (D)), but this is a contradiction. Hence, we have  $\alpha = \delta$ . This proves the sufficiency part of the next principal theorem.

**Theorem 8.** *Every ideal in  $\mathfrak{R}$  is represented as the intersection of a finite number of  $s$ -primary ideals if and only if the conditions (A), (B), (C) and (D) are satisfied.*

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DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS,  
OKAYAMA UNIVERSITY

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