#### Some Results On Dedekind Rings

# C. JAYARAM

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**Abstract**. In this paper we establish several equivalent conditions for a commutative ring to be a Dedekind ring.

### 1 Introduction

Throughout this paper R denotes a commutative ring with identity. L(R) denotes the lattice of all ideals of R. In this paper we establish some conditions for a quasi-regular ring R to be a Dedekind ring (see Theorem 2.9). Using this result, we establish some equivalent conditions for a quasi-regular ring R in which every regular principal ideal of R is a finite intersection of prime power ideals to be a Dedekind ring (see Theorem 2.10). Next we obtain some equivalent conditions for a quasi-regular ring R in which every regular principal ideal of R is a finite intersection of primary ideals to be a Dedekind ring (see Theorem 2.11). We also establish some equivalent conditions for a quasi-regular ring R in which every regular principal ideal of R is a finite product of primary ideals to be a Dedekind ring (see Theorem 2.12). Using these results, we characterize Dedekind rings in terms of quasi-regular weak  $\pi$ -rings (see Theorem 2.13).

We use  $\subset$  for proper set containment. For any  $A, B \in L(R)$ , we denote  $A \setminus B = \{x \in A \mid$  $x \notin B$ . For any  $a \in R$ , the principal ideal generated by a is denoted by (a). An element  $a \in R$ is said to be regular (zero divisor) if ((0):(a))=(0) (ra=0 for some  $0\neq r\in R$ ). An ideal I of R is regular (faithful) if it contains a regular element (((0): I) = (0)). A principal ideal (a) of R is said to be a regular principal ideal if a is a regular element of R. For any  $I \in L(R)$ , we denote  $\sqrt{I} = \{a \in R \mid \underline{a}^n \in I \text{ for some positive integer } n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . An ideal I of R is said to be a radical ideal if  $I = \sqrt{I}$ . An ideal I of R is a semi-primary ideal if its radical is a prime ideal. Rings in which semi-primary ideals are primary have been studied in [8] and [9] and [10]. A ring R is said to satisfy *Property* (A) if every finitely generated faithful ideal is regular. Recall that an ideal I of R is called a multiplication ideal if for every ideal  $J \subseteq I$ , there exists an ideal K with J = KI. An ideal M of R is called a quasi-principal ideal [19, Exercise 10, Page 147] (or a principal element of L(R) [20]) if it satisfies the following identities (i)  $(A \cap (B:M))M = AM \cap B$  and (ii) ((A+BM):M) = (A:M)+B, for all  $A, B \in L(R)$ . Obviously a finite product of quasi-principal ideals is quasi-principal and every quasi-principal ideal is a multiplication ideal. It is well known that a multiplication ideal is locally principal [1, Theorem 1]. It is also known that an ideal I of R is finitely generated and locally principal if and only if I is a finitely generated multiplication ideal [1, Theorem 3]. In fact, an ideal I of R is quasi-principal if and only if it is finitely generated and locally principal (see [20, Theorem 2]). For any  $A, B \in L(R)$ , we say A and B are comaximal if A + B = R. A prime ideal P of R is said to be branched if there exists a P-primary ideal Q of R such that  $Q \neq P$ . P is said to be unbranched if P is the only P-primary ideal. A prime ideal P of R is said to be an  $\ell$ -prime if the set of all P-primary ideals of R is linearly ordered. For any prime ideal P of R, we denote  $P^{\nabla} = \bigcap \{Q \in L(R) \mid Q \text{ is } P\text{-primary}\}.$  For any prime ideals  $M, P \in L(R)$ , we say M covers P if  $P \subset M$  and there is no prime ideal  $P_1$  of R such that  $P \subset P_1 \subset M$ . A non-minimal prime ideal P of R is said to be a C-prime ideal if  $P^{\nabla}$  is prime, P covers  $P^{\nabla}$  and any prime  $Q \subset P$ implies  $Q \subseteq P^{\nabla}$ .

If  $\{P_{\alpha}\}$  is the collection of all minimal prime ideals of an ideal I of R, then by an *isolated*  $P_{\alpha}$ -primary component of I we mean the intersection  $Q_{\alpha}$  of all  $P_{\alpha}$ -primary ideals which contain I. The kernel of I is the intersection of all  $Q_{\alpha}'^{s}$ . It is well known that every ideal is equal to its

kernel if and only if the semiprimary ideals are primary [10, Theorem 4]

An ideal I of R is said to be quasi-invertible if it is quasi-principal and faithful. I is said to be quasi-regular, if it contains a quasi-invertible ideal of R. If R satisfies Property (A), then by [12, Lemma 18.1, page 110], an ideal I of R is quasi-invertible (quasi-regular) if and only if I is invertible (regular). Recall that R is called a von Neumann Regular ring, if for each  $a \in R$ , there exists  $x \in R$  such that axa = a. It is well known that R is a von Neumann Regular ring if and only if every ideal of R is a radical ideal of R. R is called a quasi-regular ring, if its classical ring of quotients is a von-Neumann regular ring. For various characterizations of quasi-regular rings, the reader is referred to [7] and [13]. R is a reduced ring if the zero element is the only nilpotent element. Note that every quasi-regular ring is a reduced ring [7, Theorem 2.2] and in reduced rings minimal prime ideals are unbranched prime ideals. R is called a *Marot ring* if every regular ideal is generated by its set of regular elements. By [7, Theorem 2.2] and [13, Theorem 2], quasi-regular rings satisfy Property (A) and non minimal prime ideals in a quasi-regular ring are regular ideals. Also by [12, Theorem 4.5, Theorem 7.2 and Theorem 7.4], quasi-regular rings are Marot rings. A ring R is said to be *arithmetical*, if its ideal lattice is distributive. R is said to satisfy the condition (\*), if every regular principal ideal is a finite intersection of primary ideals. An ideal I of R is weak invertible, if I is quasi-principal and (0): I = (e) for some idempotent  $e \in R$ . R is said to be a WI-ring if every finitely generated ideal is weak invertible. A reduced ring R is said to be a *Dedekind ring*, if every ideal not contained in any minimal prime ideal is a multiplication ideal. A reduced ring R is said to be an almost Dedekind ring if (i) every ideal not contained in any minimal prime ideal is locally principal and (ii) for every  $a \in R$ , the ideal (a) + ((0) : (a)) is a finitely generated ideal of R. Weak invertible rings, Dedekind rings and almost Dedekind rings have been studied in [16] and [17]. R is said to be a weak  $\pi$ -ring [18] if every regular principal ideal is a finite product of prime ideals. R is said to be an almost weak  $\pi$ -ring if for each regular principal ideal  $(a) \in L(R)$ ,  $(a)_M$  is a finite product of prime ideals in  $R_M$  for all maximal ideals M containing a. For more information on weak  $\pi$ -rings and almost weak  $\pi$ -rings, the reader is referred to [18]. R is a multiplication ring if every ideal is a multiplication ideal. R is an almost multiplication ring if  $R_M$  is a multiplication ring, for every maximal ideal M of R. For more information on multiplication rings and almost multiplication rings the reader may consult [4] and [21]. R is said to be a valuation ring if any two ideals are comparable. It is well known that R is an arithmetical ring if and only if for every maximal ideal M of R,  $R_M$  is a valuation ring. R is said to be a discrete valuation ring if R is a Dedekind domain with only one proper (different from (0) and (1)) prime ideal. Following [6], R is an  $\alpha$ -ring, if R satisfies the ascending chain condition for prime ideals and every primary ideal is a power of its radical.

Throughout this paper, all ideals are assumed to be proper (i.e.,  $\neq R$ ). For general background and terminology, the reader may consult [11] and [19].

# 2 Dedekind rings

In this section we establish several equivalent conditions for  ${\cal R}$  to be a Dedekind ring. We now prove some useful lemmas.

**Lemma 2.1.** Suppose R is a quasi-regular ring in which every regular principal ideal of R is a finite intersection of prime power ideals and for every non minimal prime ideal M of R,  $M^n$  is M-primary for every positive integer n. If P is a C-prime ideal, then rank P=1.

Proof. Suppose P is a C-prime ideal. Then P is non minimal,  $P^{\nabla}$  is prime, P covers  $P^{\nabla}$  and any prime properly contained in P is contained in  $P^{\nabla}$ . We claim that  $P^{\nabla}$  is a minimal prime ideal. Suppose  $P^{\nabla}$  is a non minimal prime ideal. As R is quasi-regular, it follows that  $P^{\nabla}$  is regular. Choose a regular element  $x \in P^{\nabla}$ . As R is quasi-regular, it follows that R is a Marot ring. Since P covers  $P^{\nabla}$ , there exists a regular element  $y \in P$  such that  $y \notin P^{\nabla}$ . By hypothesis, there exist prime ideals  $Q_1, Q_2, \ldots, Q_n$  such that  $(xy) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n Q_i^{\alpha_i}$ . Suppose  $Q_i \subseteq P^{\nabla}$  for  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, k$  and  $Q_j \not\subseteq P^{\nabla}$  for  $j = k + 1, \ldots, n$ . Note that each  $Q_i$   $(1 \le i \le k)$  is a non minimal prime ideal, so by hypothesis,  $Q_i^{\alpha_i}$  is  $Q_i$ -primary for  $1 \le i \le k$ . Again since  $xy \in \bigcap_{i=1}^k Q_i^{\alpha_i}$  and  $y \notin Q_i$   $(1 \le i \le k)$ , it follows that  $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^k Q_i^{\alpha_i}$ . Therefore  $(xy)_P = \bigcap_{i=1}^k (Q_i^{\alpha_i})_P$ 

 $=(x)_P$  (in  $R_P$ ). Therefore by Nakayama's lemma,  $(x)_P=(0)_P$ , a contradiction as x is regular. This shows that  $P^{\nabla}$  is a minimal prime ideal and hence rank P=1.

**Lemma 2.2.** Let R satisfy the hypothesis of Lemma 2.1 and let P be a C-prime ideal. Then  $R_P$  is a discrete valuation ring.

*Proof.* By Lemma 2.1, rank P=1. Let  $P^{\nabla}$  be the minimal prime ideal properly contained in P. As R is reduced, it follows that  $R_P$  is a one dimensional domain. Now we claim that  $P_P$  is principal in  $R_P$ . If  $P=P^2$ , then by hypothesis,  $(y)_P=P_P$  (in  $R_P$ ) for some regular element  $y\in P\setminus P^{\nabla}$ . As  $P_P$  is idempotent and principal, it follows that  $P_P=(0)_P$  (in  $R_P$ ), a contradiction. Therefore  $P\neq P^2$ . Choose any regular element  $x\in P\setminus P^2$ . Note that  $x\notin P^{\nabla}$  as x is regular and  $P^{\nabla}$  is a minimal prime ideal. By hypothesis  $(x)=\bigcap_{i=1}^n P_i^{\alpha_i}$  for some prime ideals  $P_1,P_2,\ldots,P_n$  of R. Since  $x\notin P^2$ , it follows that  $\alpha_i=1$  for every  $P_i\subseteq P$ . Therefore  $(x)_P=P_P$  (in  $R_P$ ). As  $P_P$  is principal in  $R_P$  and  $R_P$  is a one dimensional domain, it follows that  $R_P$  is a discrete valuation ring and the proof is complete.

**Lemma 2.3.** Let R satisfy the hypothesis of Lemma 2.1 and let M be an idempotent prime ideal. If every non minimal prime ideal, which is minimal over a finitely generated ideal, is a C-prime ideal, then M is a minimal prime ideal.

Proof. We claim that M is a minimal prime ideal. Suppose M is not a minimal prime ideal. Then M is regular. Choose a regular element  $x \in M$ . Note that by hypothesis, the principal ideal (x) has only finitely many minimal primes over (x). Let  $Q_1, Q_2, \ldots, Q_k$  be the minimal primes over (x) contained in M. Suppose  $M = Q_i$  for some i. Then  $M = Q_i$  for all i. Again since  $M = M^2$ , by hypothesis,  $(x)_M = M_M$  (in  $R_M$ ). As  $M = M^2$ , by Nakayama's lemma,  $M_M = (0)_M$  (in  $R_M$ ), so M is a minimal prime ideal, a contradiction. Therefore assume that  $M \neq Q_i$  for all i. Choose any  $g \in M$  such that  $g \notin \bigcup_{i=1}^k Q_i$ . Let  $g \in M$  be a prime ideal minimal over  $g \in M$ . As  $g \in M$  it follows that  $g \in M$  is non minimal. Again by hypothesis,  $g \in M$  is a  $G \in M$ -prime ideal and hence by Lemma 2.1, rank  $g \in M$ . This shows that  $g \in M$  is minimal over  $g \in M$  is a minimal prime ideal and the proof is complete.

**Lemma 2.4.** Let R be a quasi-regular ring satisfying the condition (\*). Suppose M is a C-prime ideal of R. Then  $R_M$  is a one dimensional domain. Further if M is a non idempotent  $\ell$ -prime ideal and  $M^n$  is M-primary for every positive integer n, then  $R_M$  is a discrete valuation ring.

Proof. Choose any regular element  $a \in M$  such that  $a \notin M^{\nabla}$ . Suppose  $M^{\nabla}$  is a non minimal prime ideal. Choose a regular element  $x \in M^{\nabla}$ . By hypothesis  $(xa) = \bigcap\limits_{i=1}^n Q_i$  for some primary ideals  $Q_1, Q_2, \ldots, Q_n$  of R. Suppose  $Q_i \subseteq M^{\nabla}$  for  $i=1,2,\ldots,k$  and  $Q_j \not\subseteq M^{\nabla}$  for  $j=k+1,\ldots,n$ . Again since  $xa \in Q_i$  and  $a \notin \sqrt{Q_i}$  for  $i=1,2,\ldots,k$ , it follows that  $x \in \bigcap\limits_{i=1}^k Q_i$  and hence  $(x)_M = (x)_M(a)_M$  (in  $R_M$ ). Now by Nakayama's lemma,  $(x)_M = (0)_M$  (in  $R_M$ ), a contradiction as x is regular. Therefore  $M^{\nabla}$  is a minimal prime ideal and hence  $R_M$  is a one dimensional domain. Further if M is a non idempotent  $\ell$ -prime ideal and  $M^n$  is M-primary for every positive integer n, then  $M_M = (x)_M$  for any  $x \in M \setminus M^2$  and hence  $R_M$  is a discrete valuation ring.

**Lemma 2.5.** Let R be a quasi-regular ring satisfying the condition (\*). Suppose every non minimal branched prime ideal is a C-prime ideal. If the prime ideal M is unbranched, then M is a minimal prime ideal.

*Proof.* Suppose the prime ideal M is unbranched. We claim that M is a minimal prime ideal. Suppose M is a non minimal prime ideal. Choose a regular element  $x \in M$ . By hypothesis, the principal ideal (x) has only finitely many minimal primes. Let  $Q_1, Q_2, \ldots, Q_k$  be the minimal primes over (x). If  $M = Q_i$  for some i, then by hypothesis,  $(x)_M = (x)^2_M = M_M$  (in  $R_M$ ) as M is unbranched. So by Nakayama's lemma,  $(x)_M = (0)_M$  (in  $R_M$ ), a contradiction as x is a regular element. Therefore  $M \neq Q_i$  for all i. Choose any  $y \in M$  such that  $y \notin \bigcup_{i=1}^k Q_i$ . Let Q be

a minimal prime over (x) + (y). If Q is unbranched, then  $((x) + (y))_Q = (((x) + (y))^2)_Q = Q_Q$  (in  $R_Q$ ), so by Nakayama's lemma,  $Q_Q = (0)_Q$  (in  $R_Q$ ) and hence Q is a minimal prime ideal of R, a contradiction. Therefore Q is a branched non minimal prime ideal. Again by hypothesis, Q is a C-prime ideal and hence by Lemma 2.4,  $dimR_Q = 1$ . As rank Q = 1, it follows that Q is a minimal prime ideal over (x), which is again a contradiction. This shows that M is a minimal prime ideal.

For any ideal  $I \in L(R)$ , we denote  $\theta(I) = \sum \{(I_1 : I) \mid I_1 \subseteq I \text{ and } I_1 \text{ is a finitely generated ideal} \}$ .

**Lemma 2.6.** Suppose R is a quasi-regular ring in which every regular principal ideal is a finite product of primary ideals. Suppose I is a regular ideal of R such that I is locally principal and every prime minimal over I is a maximal ideal. Then I is invertible.

Proof. By [12, Lemma 18.1, page 110], it is enough if we show that I is finitely generated. We claim that  $\theta(I) = R$ . Suppose  $\theta(I) \neq R$ . Then  $\theta(I) \subseteq M$  for some maximal ideal M of R. By hypothesis, I is generated by regular elements. Again since I is locally principal, by [3, Theorem 1], I is locally completely join irreducible, so  $I_M = (x)_M$  for some regular element  $x \in I$ . By hypothesis, there exist primary ideals  $Q_1, Q_2, \ldots, Q_n$  such that  $(x) = Q_1Q_2\cdots Q_n$ . Without loss of generality, assume that  $Q_i \subseteq M$  for  $i=1,2,\ldots,k$  and  $Q_j \not\subseteq M$  for j=k+1,  $k+2,\ldots,n$ . Then  $I_M=(x)_M=(Q_1)_M(Q_2)_M\cdots(Q_k)_M$ . Since  $I_M\subseteq (Q_i)_M$ , it follows that  $I\subseteq Q_i$  for  $i=1,2,\ldots,k$ . Since M is minimal over I, it follows that each  $Q_i$  is M-primary and hence  $Q_1Q_2\cdots Q_k$  is M-primary. Therefore  $I\subseteq Q_1Q_2\cdots Q_k$ . Choose elements  $x_j\in Q_j$  such that  $x_j\notin M$  for  $j=k+1,k+2,\ldots,n$ . Let  $z=x_{k+1}x_{k+2}\cdots x_n$ . Since  $I\subseteq Q_1Q_2\cdots Q_k$  and  $z\in Q_{k+1}Q_{k+2}\cdots Q_n$ , it follows that  $Iz\subseteq Q_1Q_2\cdots Q_n=(x)$ , so  $z\in ((x):I)\subseteq \theta(I)\subseteq M$ , which is a contradiction. Therefore  $\theta(I)=R$  and hence  $R=\sum_{i=1}^n (I_i:I)$ , where  $I_i^{'s}$  are finitely  $I_i$ 

generated ideals contained in I. Therefore  $I = \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_i$  and hence I is a finitely generated ideal.  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 2.7.** Let R be a quasi-regular ring in which every regular principal ideal of R is a finite product of primary ideals. Suppose M is a C-prime ideal of R. Then  $R_M$  is a one dimensional domain. Further if M is a non idempotent  $\ell$ -prime and  $M^n$  is M-primary for every positive integer n, then  $R_M$  is a discrete valuation ring.

*Proof.* By hypothesis, M is non minimal and so M is a regular ideal. Choose any regular element  $a \in M$  such that  $a \notin M^{\nabla}$ . Then  $(a)_M$  is  $M_M$ -primary (in  $R_M$ ), so  $M^{\nabla}{}_M \subset (a)_M$ . We claim that  $M^{\nabla}$  is a non regular ideal. Suppose  $M^{\nabla}$  is a regular ideal. Let  $x \in M^{\nabla}$  be a regular element of R. By hypothesis (x) = QA for some primary ideal  $Q \subseteq M^{\nabla}$ . Note that  $Q_M = (a)_M Q_M$ . Therefore  $(x)_M = Q_M A_M = Q_M (a)_M A_M = (x)_M (a)_M$  (in  $R_M$ ) and hence by Nakayama's lemma,  $(x)_M = (0)_M$ , which is a contradiction as x is a regular element. Therefore  $M^{\nabla}$  is a non regular ideal and so  $M^{\nabla}$  is a minimal prime ideal. As R is reduced, it follows that,  $R_M$  is a one dimensional domain. Further if M is a non idempotent  $\ell$ -prime and  $M^n$  is M-primary for every positive integer n, then  $M_M = (x)_M$  for any  $x \in M \setminus M^2$  and hence  $R_M$  is a discrete valuation ring.

**Lemma 2.8.** Let R be a quasi-regular ring in which every regular principal ideal is a finite product of primary ideals. Suppose every non minimal branched prime ideal is a C-prime ideal. If the prime ideal M is unbranched, then M is minimal.

*Proof.* By using Lemma 2.7 and by imitating the proof of Lemma 2.5, we can get the result.  $\Box$ 

We now establish some conditions for R to be a Dedekind ring (see Theorem 2.9).

**Theorem 2.9.** *R* is a Dedekind ring if and only if *R* satisfies the following conditions:

- (i) R is a quasi-regular ring.
- (ii) Every regular principal ideal of R is a finite intersection of prime power ideals.
- (iii) For every non minimal prime ideal P of R,  $P^n$  is P-primary for every positive integer n.
- (iv) Every non minimal maximal ideal is a C-prime ideal.

*Proof.* Suppose R is a Dedekind ring. By [17, Theorem 1], R satisfies the conditions (i) and (ii). By [16, Theorem 3.8 and Theorem 3.13], R is an almost multiplication ring, so by [21, Theorem 1 and Theorem 4],  $dimR \le 1$  and hence every non minimal prime ideal is maximal. Again by [16, Theorem 3.13(v)], non minimal prime ideals are invertible prime ideals, so by [21, Lemma 21], non minimal prime ideals are C-prime ideals. Consequently, R satisfies the conditions (iii) and (iv).

Conversely, assume that R satisfies the conditions (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv). Let M be a maximal ideal. If M is minimal, then  $R_M$  is a field. Suppose M is a non minimal prime ideal. Then by Lemma 2.1 and Lemma 2.2,  $R_M$  is a discrete valuation ring. Therefore R is an arithmetical ring, so by [16, Theorem 3.3], R is a WI-ring. Observe that by hypothesis, R satisfies the condition (\*). Let P be a regular prime ideal. By [13, Theorem 2], P is a non minimal prime ideal. Since P is locally principal, by [2, see the remark after Theorem 13], P is invertible, so by [16, Theorem 3.13(iii)], R is a Dedekind ring and the proof is complete.

In Theorem 2.10 and Theorem 2.11, we obtain some equivalent conditions for a quasi-regular ring in which every regular principal ideal is a finite intersection of prime power ideals (primary ideals) to be a Dedekind ring.

**Theorem 2.10.** Suppose R is a quasi-regular ring in which every regular principal ideal of R is a finite intersection of prime power ideals. Then the following statements on R are equivalent:

- (i) R is a Dedekind ring.
- (ii) Every semiprimary ideal is primary.
- (iii) Every primary ideal is a power of its radical.
- (iv) R is an  $\alpha$ -ring.
- (v) Every non minimal prime ideal is a multiplication ideal.
- (vi)  $R_M$  is a valuation ring, for every prime ideal M of R.

*Proof.* (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii). Suppose (i) holds. By [16, Theorem 3.8 and Theorem 3.13], R is an almost multiplication ring, so by [21, Theorem 4], every semiprimary ideal is primary. Thus (ii) holds.

(ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii). Suppose (ii) holds. Let Q be a primary ideal of R. If  $\sqrt{Q}=M$  is a minimal prime ideal, then Q=M as M is unbranched. Suppose M is non minimal. By [9, Corollary 2.2],  $dimR \leq 1$  and also by [9, Corollary 2.3], every non minimal maximal prime ideal is a C-prime ideal. Therefore M is a C-prime ideal. Again by Lemma 2.3, non minimal prime ideals are non idempotent. So M is a non idempotent maximal ideal. Choose any regular element  $x \in M \setminus M^2$ . Then by hypothesis,  $(x)_M = M_M$  (in  $R_M$ ), so  $R_M$  is a discrete valuation ring. Consequently, Q is a power of M and therefore (iii) holds.

(iii) $\Rightarrow$ (iv). Suppose (iii) holds. Let M be a non minimal maximal ideal of R. Observe that by [5, Theorem 3], each  $P^n$  ( $n \in Z^+$ ) is P-primary, for every non minimal prime ideal P of R. Also if P is a non minimal prime ideal and minimal over a finitely generated ideal, then P is not the union of a chain of primes properly contained in P, so by [5, Corollary 1],  $P \neq P^2$ , and hence by [5, Theorem 3], P is a C-prime ideal. Therefore by Lemma 2.3, non minimal prime ideals are non idempotent. Again by [5, Theorem 3], non minimal prime ideals are C-prime ideals. Consequently, by Lemma 2.1, rank M=1 and hence  $dimR \leq 1$ . Therefore R is an  $\alpha$ -ring.

(iv) $\Rightarrow$ (v). Suppose (iv) holds. Let P be a non minimal prime ideal of R. By the ascending chain condition for prime ideals, there exists a prime ideal  $P_1$  such that P covers  $P_1$ . Note that P is minimal over  $P_1 + (x)$  for any  $x \in P \setminus P_1$ , so by [5, Theorem 1 and Theorem 3], P is a C-prime ideal. Clearly, each  $Q^n$  ( $n \in Z^+$ ) is Q-primary for every non minimal prime ideal Q of Q [5, Theorem 3]. Hence by Theorem 2.9, Q is a Dedekind ring. Thus (v) holds.

 $(v)\Rightarrow(vi)$ . Suppose (v) holds. Let M be a maximal ideal of R. If M is minimal, then  $R_M$  is a field. Suppose M is non minimal. Then M is regular. By hypothesis, M is locally principal. Note that by [2, Lemma 1], R satisfies the condition (\*). Again by [2, see the remark after Theorem 13], M is an invertible ideal and so by [21, Lemma 21], M is a C-prime ideal. Again by [2, Lemma 1] and by Lemma 2.1 and Lemma 2.2,  $R_M$  is a discrete valuation ring and therefore (vi) holds.

 $(vi)\Rightarrow(i)$ . Suppose (vi) holds. Observe that if P is a non minimal prime ideal, then by [6, Theorem 4.19],  $P^n$  is P-primary for every positive integer n. Also if P is non minimal and

minimal over a finitely generated ideal, then by [14, Lemma 7], P is a C-prime ideal. Therefore by Lemma 2.3, non minimal prime ideals are non idempotent and hence non minimal prime ideals are branched prime ideals. Again by [14, Lemma 8], non minimal prime ideals of R are C-prime ideals. Now by Theorem 2.9, R is a Dedekind ring and the proof is complete.

**Theorem 2.11.** Suppose R is a quasi-regular ring which satisfies the condition (\*). Then the following statements on R are equivalent:

- (i) R is a Dedekind ring.
- (ii) Every maximal ideal is locally principal.
- (iii) Every non minimal maximal ideal is a finitely generated  $\ell$ -prime ideal.
- (iv) Every primary ideal is a power of its radical.
- (v) Every idempotent maximal ideal of R is unbranched and any two incomparable primary ideals are comaximal.
- (vi) Every idempotent maximal ideal of R is unbranched, every non minimal branched prime ideal is a C-prime ideal and every maximal ideal is an  $\ell$ -prime ideal.
- *Proof.* (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii). Suppose (i) holds. Let M be a maximal ideal of R. If M is minimal, then  $R_M$  is a field. If M is non minimal, then by (i), M is a multiplication ideal and hence M is locally principal. So (ii) holds.
- (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii). Suppose (ii) holds. Let M be a non minimal maximal ideal. Then M is regular, so by hypothesis and [2, see the remark after Theorem 13], M is an invertible ideal. Now the result follows from [21, Lemma 21].
- (iii) $\Rightarrow$ (iv). Suppose (iii) holds. Let Q be P-primary. If P is a minimal prime ideal, then Q=P as R is a reduced ring. Suppose P is a non minimal prime ideal of R. Suppose  $P\subseteq M$  for some maximal ideal M of R. Then by [14, Lemma 7], M is a C-prime ideal. Again by Lemma 2.4,  $R_M$  is a discrete valuation ring. Consequently, P=M and hence Q is a power of P. Therefore (iv) holds.
  - (iv) $\Rightarrow$ (v) follows from Theorem 2.10(vi) and (v) $\Rightarrow$ (vi) follows from [14, Lemma 8].
- $(vi)\Rightarrow(i)$ . Suppose (vi) holds. Let M be a maximal ideal of R. If  $M=M^2$ , then by (vi), M is unbranched, so by Lemma 2.5, M is a minimal prime ideal and hence  $R_M$  is a field. Suppose  $M \neq M^2$ . Since in reduced rings minimal prime ideals are unbranched, it follows that M is a non minimal prime ideal as M is a branched prime ideal. Therefore by Lemma 2.4,  $R_M$  is a discrete valuation ring. Consequently, every primary ideal is a power of its radical. Again by Theorem 2.10, R is a Dedekind ring and the proof is complete.

Next we establish some equivalent conditions for a quasi-regular ring in which every regular principal ideal is a finite product of primary ideals to be a Dedekind ring (see Theorem 2.12).

**Theorem 2.12.** Suppose R is a quasi-regular ring in which every regular principal ideal is a finite product of primary ideals. Then the following conditions on R are equivalent:

- (i) R is a Dedekind ring.
- (ii) Every maximal ideal is locally principal.
- (iii) Every non minimal maximal ideal is a finitely generated  $\ell$ -prime.
- (iv) Every primary ideal is a power of its radical.
- (v) Every idempotent maximal ideal of R is unbranched and any two incomparable primary ideals are comaximal.

*Proof.* (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) is well known.

- (ii)⇒(iii) follows from Lemma 2.6 and [21, Lemma 21].
- (iii) $\Rightarrow$ (iv). Suppose (iii) holds. Let M be a maximal ideal of R. Suppose M is non minimal. Then M is non idempotent. Also by Lemma 7 of [14], M is a C-prime ideal and hence by Lemma 2.7,  $R_M$  is a discrete valuation ring. If M is minimal, then  $R_M$  is a field. Consequently, R is an almost multiplication ring and hence (iv) holds [21, Theorem 4].
- (iv) $\Rightarrow$ (v). Clearly, every idempotent maximal ideal is unbranched. Let M be a maximal ideal. If M is minimal, then  $R_M$  is a field. Suppose M is non minimal. By [5, Theorem 3], every non minimal branched prime ideal is a C-prime ideal. So by Lemma 2.8, M is branched and also by [5, Theorem 3], M is a non idempotent C-prime ideal. Therefore by Lemma 2.7,  $R_M$  is a discrete valuation ring and hence (v) holds.

 $(v)\Rightarrow$ (i). Suppose (v) holds. Let M be a maximal ideal of R. If  $M=M^2$ , then by [14, Lemma 8] and Lemma 2.8,  $R_M$  is a field. Suppose  $M\neq M^2$ . Since in reduced rings, minimal prime ideals are unbranched prime ideals, it follows that M is non minimal. So by Lemma 2.7 and [14, Lemma 8],  $R_M$  is a discrete valuation ring. Therefore R is an almost multiplication ring and hence by [21, Theorem 3 and Theorem 4], every ideal is equal to its kernal. Therefore R satisfies the condition (\*). Now the result follows from Theorem 2.11 and the proof is complete.

We now characterize Dedekind rings in terms of quasi-regular weak  $\pi$ -rings (see Theorem 2.13).

#### **Theorem 2.13.** The following statements on R are equivalent:

- (i) R is a Dedekind ring.
- (ii) R is a quasi-regular weak  $\pi$ -ring in which primary ideals are powers of its radicals.
- (iii) R is a quasi-regular weak  $\pi$ -ring in which any two incomparable primary ideals are comaximal.
- (iv) R is a quasi-regular weak  $\pi$ -ring in which every maximal ideal is an  $\ell$ -prime ideal and the ascending chain condition (a. c. c) for prime ideals is valid.
  - (v) R is a quasi-regular weak  $\pi$ -ring in which non minimal prime ideals are C-prime ideals.
- *Proof.* (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii). Suppose (i) holds. By [16, Theorem 3.8 and Theorem 3.13], R is a quasi-regular weak  $\pi$ -ring. So by Theorem 2.12, every primary ideal is a power of its radical.
  - $(ii) \Rightarrow (iii)$  follows from Theorem 2.12.
- $(iii)\Rightarrow(iv)$ . Suppose (iii) holds. By hypothesis and [14, Lemma 8], every non minimal branched prime ideal is a C-prime ideal, so by Lemma 2.8, non minimal prime ideals are C-prime ideals. Therefore by Lemma 2.7, every non minimal maximal ideal is a rank one prime ideal and hence (iv) holds.
- (iv) $\Rightarrow$ (v). Suppose (iv) holds. Let M be a non minimal maximal  $\ell$ -prime ideal. By the a. c. c for prime ideals and by immitating the proof of [14, Lemma 7], it can be easily shown that M is a C-prime ideal. By Lemma 2.7, M is a rank one prime ideal. Consequently, non minimal prime ideals are C-prime ideals. Therefore (v) holds.
- $(v)\Rightarrow(i)$ . Suppose (v) holds. Observe that by hypothesis and Lemma 2.7, non minimal maximal ideals are rank one prime ideals. Again since R is a quasi-regular weak  $\pi$ -ring and any factor of an invertible ideal is invertible, it follows that, non minimal maximal ideals are rank one invertible prime ideals. Let I be an ideal not contained in any minimal prime ideal. As R is quasi-regular, it follows that I is a regular ideal. Note that every prime ideal minimal over I is non minimal. Therefore every prime ideal minimal over I is a rank one invertible maximal ideal. By [15, Lemma 5], I has only finitely many minimal primes. Now we show that I is a finite product of invertible maximal ideals. Let  $M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_n$  be the distinct prime ideals minimal over I. Note that  $M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_n$  are rank one invertible maximal ideals. So by [21, Lemma 21], there exist positive integers  $k_i$  for  $i=1,2,\ldots,n$  such that  $I\subseteq M_i{}^{k_i}$  and  $I\not\subseteq M_i{}^{k_{i+1}}$ . So  $I\subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^n M_i{}^{k_i}=M_1{}^{k_1}M_2{}^{k_2}\cdots M_n{}^{k_n}$  as powers of  $M_i{}^{*}$ s are pairwise comaximal ideals. Also by [15, Lemma 5], I contains a finite product of primes which are minimal over I. Suppose  $J=M_1{}^{\alpha_1}M_2{}^{\alpha_2}\cdots M_s{}^{\alpha_s}\subseteq I$ . As powers of  $M_i{}^{*}$ s are invertible, it can be easily shown that s=n and  $\alpha_i=k_i$  for  $i=1,2,\ldots,n$ . Therefore  $I=M_1{}^{k_1}M_2{}^{k_2}\cdots M_n{}^{k_n}$ . Again by [16, Theorem 3.13(v)], R is a Dedekind ring. This completes the proof of the theorem.

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# **Author information**

C. JAYARAM, Department of Computer Science, Mathematics and Physics, The University of the West Indies, Cave Hill Campus, P.O. Box 64, Bridgetown, BARBADOS.

E-mail: jayaram.chillumu@cavehill.uwi.edu

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