

r -ideals in commutative rings

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Abstract: In this article we introduce the concept of r -ideals in commutative rings (note: an ideal I of a ring R is called r -ideal, if $ab \in I$ and $\text{Ann}(a) = (0)$ imply that $b \in I$ for each $a, b \in R$). We study and investigate the behavior of r -ideals and compare them with other classical ideals, such as prime and maximal ideals. We also show that some known ideals such as z° -ideals are r -ideals. It is observed that if I is an r -ideal, then so too is a minimal prime ideal of I . We naturally extend the celebrated results such as Cohen's theorem for prime ideals and the Prime Avoidance Lemma to r -ideals. Consequently, we obtain interesting new facts related to the Prime Avoidance Lemma. It is also shown that R satisfies property A (note: a ring R satisfies property A if each finitely generated ideal consisting entirely of zerodivisors has a nonzero annihilator) if and only if for every r -ideal I of R , $I[x]$ is an r -ideal in $R[x]$. Using this concept in the context of $C(X)$, we show that every r -ideal is a z° -ideal if and only if X is a ∂ -space (a space in which the boundary of any zeroset is contained in a zeroset with empty interior). Finally, we observe that, although the socle of $C(X)$ is never a prime ideal in $C(X)$, the socle of any reduced ring is always an r -ideal.

Key words: r -ideal, pr -ideal, annihilator, property A , zerodivisor, uz -ring, z° -ideal, r -multiplicatively closed, almost P -space, ∂ -space, socle

1. Introduction

Throughout this paper all rings are commutative with $1 \neq 0$. Let R be a ring. For $a \in R$ we define $\text{Ann}_R(a) = \{r \in R : ra = 0\}$ (briefly, $\text{Ann}(a)$) and a is said to be a regular (resp., zerodivisor) element if $\text{Ann}(a) = (0)$ (resp., $\text{Ann}(a) \neq (0)$). aR denotes the principal ideal generated by $a \in R$. If S is a subset of R and I is an ideal of R , then we define $(I : S) = \{a \in R : aS \subseteq I\}$, clearly $(0 : S) = \text{Ann}(S)$. By $r(R)$, $zd(R)$, and $u(R)$ we mean the set of all regular elements, zerodivisor elements, and unit elements of R , respectively. An ideal I of R is called a regular ideal if it contains at least a regular element, i.e. $I \cap r(R) \neq \emptyset$. If I is an ideal of R , then $\text{Min}(I)$ denotes the set of all minimal prime ideals of I and we use $\text{Min}(R)$ instead of $\text{Min}((0))$. Similarly, $\text{Max}(R)$ (resp., $\text{Spec}(R)$) denotes the set of all maximal (resp., prime) ideals of R . For each $a \in R$, P_a (resp., M_a) is the intersection of all minimal prime (resp., maximal) ideals containing a . We use $\text{rad}(R)$ (resp., $\text{Jac}(R)$) instead of P_0 (resp., M_0). A proper ideal I of R is called a z° -ideal (resp., z -ideal) if for each $a \in I$ we have $P_a \subseteq I$ (resp., $M_a \subseteq I$). Equivalently, I is a z° -ideal if $a \in I$, $b \in R$, and $\text{Ann}(a) = \text{Ann}(b)$ imply that $b \in I$. For more information about the aforementioned ideals in general commutative rings we refer the reader to [[2], [8], [26]]. If S is a subset of R , then an element $a \in S$ is called a

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von Neumann regular element if there exists $b \in S$ such that $a = a^2b$. Whenever we say a ring R or a subset of R is von Neumann regular, it means that all of their elements are von Neumann regular. An ideal I in a ring R is called a pure ideal if for each $a \in I$ there exists $b \in I$ such that $a = ab$. Let us also recall the following properties: A ring R satisfies a) property A : if each finitely generated (briefly, $f.g.$) ideal $I \subseteq \text{zd}(R)$ has nonzero annihilator; b) annihilator condition (briefly, a.c.): if for each $f.g.$ ideal I of R there exists an element $b \in R$ with $\text{Ann}(I) = \text{Ann}(b)$; c) strong annihilator condition (briefly, s.a.c.): if for each $f.g.$ ideal I of R there exists an element $b \in I$ with $\text{Ann}(I) = \text{Ann}(b)$. We refer the reader to [[1], [2], [18], [25]] for the necessary background about the above concepts.

Let $C(X)$ (resp., $C^*(X)$) be the ring of (resp., bounded) real valued continuous functions on a Tychonoff space X . If $f \in C(X)$, then $Z(f) = \{x \in X : f(x) = 0\}$ is the zeroset of f and by $\text{int}Z(f)$ we mean the interior of $Z(f)$. Recall that an ideal I of $C(X)$ is a z -ideal if $f \in I$, $g \in C(X)$, and $Z(f) = Z(g)$ imply that $g \in I$. It is known that if $f, g \in C(X)$, then $\text{int}Z(f) = \text{int}Z(g)$ if and only if $\text{Ann}(f) = \text{Ann}(g)$; see [[5]]. Hence, an ideal I in $C(X)$ is a z° -ideal if $f \in I$, $g \in C(X)$ and $\text{int}Z(f) = \text{int}Z(g)$ imply that $g \in I$; see [[7], [9]]. For more information about the ideals in $C(X)$, see [[7], [10], [12], [16]], and for details about topological spaces, see [[14], [16]].

In Section 2, we introduce r -ideals and pr -ideals in general commutative rings. It is shown that every z° -ideal is an r -ideal, and if I is an r -ideal of R and $P \in \text{Min}(I)$, then P is an r -ideal, too. We also show in this section that the socle of every reduced ring is an r -ideal. In Section 3, we investigate the relations between r -ideals and prime ideals. We observe that every maximal r -ideal in a ring is a prime ideal. We show that in order for every prime r -ideal of a ring R to be minimal prime, it is necessary and sufficient that the classical ring of quotients of R be a von Neumann regular ring. Finally, we naturally extend the celebrated results such as Cohen's theorem for prime ideals and the Prime Avoidance Lemma to r -ideals. In Section 4, we observe that whenever I is an ideal of a ring R and $I[x]$ is an r -ideal, then trivially I is also an r -ideal, but the converse may not be true. In this section, we prove a ring R satisfies property A if and only if for every r -ideal I of R , $I[x]$ is an r -ideal in $R[x]$. Section 5 is devoted to the investigation of r -ideals in $C(X)$. We show that every r -ideal is a z° -ideal if and only if X is a ∂ -space. It is observed that every ideal in $C(X)$ is an r -ideal if and only if X is an almost P -space. Using some appropriate facts in $C(X)$, we answer some natural questions in general. By giving several examples, we compare and contrast r -ideals with some well-known ideals, such as z -ideals and z° -ideals.

2. r -ideals

Our aim in this section is to study the r -ideals in commutative rings. We begin with the following definition.

Definition 2.1 *A proper ideal I in a ring R is called an r -ideal (resp., pr -ideal), if $ab \in I$ with $\text{Ann}(a) = (0)$ implies that $b \in I$ (resp., $b^n \in I$, for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$), for each $a, b \in R$.*

Let I be an ideal of R and S be a multiplicatively closed (briefly, m.c.) subset in R . Clearly, $I_S = \{x \in R : sx \in I \text{ for some } s \in S\}$ is an ideal of R containing I . Now we call an ideal I an s -ideal if $I = I_S$, for some m.c. subset S of R . In case $S = \text{r}(R)$, each s -ideal is an r -ideal. Recall that if $S = \text{r}(R)$, then the ring $S^{-1}R$ is called the classical ring of quotients of R , which is denoted by $Q(R)$. Let $\varphi : R \rightarrow Q(R)$ be the natural homomorphism. For each ideal \mathcal{J} in $Q(R)$, we put $\varphi^{-1}[\mathcal{J}] = \mathcal{J}^c$. Clearly, \mathcal{J}^c is an ideal of R and it is called the contraction of \mathcal{J} in R . For the details of the concept of contraction, see [[3]].

Proposition 2.2 *Let R be a ring and I be an ideal of R . Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- a) I is an r -ideal.
- b) $rR \cap I = rI$, for each $r \in r(R)$.
- c) $I = (I : r)$, for each $r \in r(R) \setminus I$.
- d) $I = \mathcal{J}^c$, where \mathcal{J} is an ideal in $Q(R)$.

Proof It is evident. □

Recall that part (c) of the previous proposition is similar to this statement about prime ideals, which says that a proper ideal P of a ring R is prime if and only if $P = (P : a)$, for each $a \in R \setminus P$. We should remind the reader that part (b) of the previous proposition may not be true if I is a prime ideal. The reason that part (b) is valid for an r -ideal I is the fact $I \cap r(R) = \emptyset$; this immediately implies that part (b) is trivially true for prime ideal P with $P \cap r(R) = \emptyset$.

We observe several elementary properties concerning r -ideals in any ring R as follows:

Remark 2.3 a) *If $f : R \rightarrow S$ is an isomorphism, then $f[I]$ is an r -ideal in S whenever I is an r -ideal in R , and $f^{-1}[J]$ is an r -ideal in R whenever J is an r -ideal in S .*

- b) *The zero ideal is an r -ideal.*
- c) *The intersection of any family of r -ideals is an r -ideal.*
- d) *If I is an r -ideal, then $I \subseteq \text{zd}(R)$.*
- e) *Every r -ideal is a pr -ideal.*

f) *A prime ideal is an r -ideal if and only if it consists entirely of zerodivisors. Consequently, every minimal prime ideal is an r -ideal.*

g) *If I is an r -ideal, $S \subseteq R$ and $S \not\subseteq I$, then $(I : S)$ is an r -ideal. In particular, $\text{Ann}(S)$ is always an r -ideal.*

h) *It is well known that if I is a minimal ideal of a reduced ring R , and then $I = eR = \text{Ann}(1 - e)$, where $e \in R$ is an idempotent element, i.e. $e^2 = e$. Hence, by part (g), every minimal ideal in a reduced ring is an r -ideal.*

i) *Every pure ideal and also every von Neumann regular ideal is an r -ideal.*

j) *If R satisfies the s.a.c., and I is an ideal of R , then I is an r -ideal if and only if for every ideal of J and K of R , whenever $JK \subseteq I$ and $\text{Ann}(J) = (0)$, then $K \subseteq I$.*

k) *The product of two r -ideals is not necessarily an r -ideal; see Example [?].*

l) *The sum of two r -ideal is not necessarily an r -ideal; see Example [?].*

Remark 2.4 *It is well known that $\mathcal{I}^c \mathcal{J}^c \subseteq (\mathcal{I}\mathcal{J})^c$ and $\mathcal{I}^c + \mathcal{J}^c \subseteq (\mathcal{I} + \mathcal{J})^c$, where \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{J} are ideals of $Q(R)$. Now suppose that I and J are r -ideals of R ; hence, by part (d) of Proposition [?], $I = \mathcal{I}^c$ and $J = \mathcal{J}^c$, for some ideals \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{J} in $Q(R)$. One can easily show that:*

- a) *IJ is an r -ideal in R if and only if $(\mathcal{I}\mathcal{J})^c \subseteq \mathcal{I}^c \mathcal{J}^c$ (in fact, $(\mathcal{I}\mathcal{J})^c = \mathcal{I}^c \mathcal{J}^c$).*
- b) *$I + J$ is an r -ideal in R if and only if $(\mathcal{I} + \mathcal{J})^c \subseteq \mathcal{I}^c + \mathcal{J}^c$ (in fact, $(\mathcal{I} + \mathcal{J})^c = \mathcal{I}^c + \mathcal{J}^c$).*

We need the following lemma in the sequel.

Lemma 2.5 *Let R be a ring and I be an ideal of R . Then:*

a) I is an r -ideal if and only if whenever J and K are ideals of R with $J \cap r(R) \neq \emptyset$ and $JK \subseteq I$, then $K \subseteq I$.

b) If $I \subseteq \text{zd}(R)$ is not an r -ideal, then there exist ideals J and K such that $J \cap r(R) \neq \emptyset$, $I \not\subseteq J, K$, and $JK \subseteq I$.

Proof a) It is evident.

b) Suppose that I is not an r -ideal. Then there exist $r \in r(R)$, $x \in R$ with $rx \in I$ but $x \notin I$. Now put $J = (I : x)$ and $K = (I : J)$. Clearly, $r \in J \setminus I$, $J \cap r(R) \neq \emptyset$, $x \in K \setminus I$, and $JK \subseteq I$. \square

The proof of the following result is evident by the above lemma.

Proposition 2.6 a) Let R be a ring and I be an ideal of R with $I \cap r(R) \neq \emptyset$. If J and K are r -ideals of R such that $IJ = IK$ or $I \cap J = I \cap K$, then $J = K$.

b) Let R be a ring and I and J be ideals of R with $J \cap r(R) \neq \emptyset$. If IJ is an r -ideal of R , then $I = IJ$. In particular, I is an r -ideal.

In Remark [?], we observe that an intersection of r -ideals is an r -ideal. In the following proposition we show that the converse is also true for prime ideals in the finite case. The result may not be true for an infinite number of primes; take the intersection of nonzero prime ideals in \mathbb{Z} .

Proposition 2.7 Suppose that P_1, \dots, P_n are prime ideals in a ring R , which are not comparable. If $\bigcap_{i=1}^n P_i$ is an r -ideal, then P_i is an r -ideal, for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Proof Let $rx \in P_i$ with $\text{Ann}(r) = (0)$ and take $y \in (\prod_{j \neq i} P_j) \setminus P_i$. Hence, $rx y \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n P_i$. Since $\bigcap_{i=1}^n P_i$ is an r -ideal, we infer that $xy \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n P_i$, and therefore $xy \in P_i$. This implies that $x \in P_i$, i.e., P_i is an r -ideal. \square

It is well known that a ring R is a field if and only if $I = (0)$ is the only maximal ideal of R . However, we cannot extend this to domains by claiming that R is a domain if and only if $I = (0)$ is its only prime ideal. By trading off the prime ideals with the r -ideals, we get the next interesting fact.

Proposition 2.8 Let R be a ring. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- a) R is a domain.
- b) The zero ideal is the only r -ideal of R .
- c) $\text{Ann}(ab) = \text{Ann}(a) \cup \text{Ann}(b)$, for every $a, b \in R$.

Proof ($a \Rightarrow b$) Let R be a domain and $(0) \neq I$ be a proper ideal of R . Hence, there exists $0 \neq a \in I$. By our hypothesis, we have $\text{Ann}(a) = (0)$, so I is not an r -ideal (note: otherwise $1 \in I$, which is absurd).

($b \Rightarrow c$) We know that $\text{Ann}(x)$ is an r -ideal, for each $0 \neq x \in R$. Hence, by our hypothesis, we have $\text{Ann}(x) = (0)$, for each $0 \neq x \in R$. This immediately implies that $\text{Ann}(ab) = \text{Ann}(a) \cup \text{Ann}(b)$, for each $a, b \in R$.

($c \Rightarrow a$) Let $ab = 0$, where $a, b \in R$. Then $R = \text{Ann}(ab) = \text{Ann}(a) \cup \text{Ann}(b)$ implies that $1 \in \text{Ann}(a) \cup \text{Ann}(b)$. This means that $a = 0$ or $b = 0$, i.e. R is a domain. \square

Remark 2.9 We should remind the reader that part (d) of Proposition [?] is quite natural with regard to some known facts. For example, if Q is the quotient field of a domain R , the zero ideal of R , which is the only r -ideal of R , is the contraction of the only proper ideal of Q (i.e. (0)). We also note that whenever P is a

prime ideal in a ring R and $S = R \setminus P$, then each prime ideal of $S^{-1}R$ is contracted to a prime ideal of R . Finally, if in a ring R , we take $S = r(R)$, then the contractions of all proper ideals of $Q(R)$ are naturally r -ideals in R (note: proper ideals of $Q(R)$ are all r -ideals).

In Example [?], we will observe that the sum of two r -ideals need not be an r -ideal. In the following result we show that the sum of two special annihilator ideals of a ring and also the sum of a minimal prime ideal and an annihilator ideal in a reduced ring are r -ideal.

Proposition 2.10 a) Let R be a ring and $a, b \in R$ with $a + b = 1$. Then $I = \text{Ann}(a) + \text{Ann}(b)$ is an r -ideal.

b) Let R be a reduced ring, $P \in \text{Min}(R)$ and $e \in R$ be an idempotent element. Then $I = P + \text{Ann}(e)$ is an r -ideal.

Proof a) Suppose that $xy \in I$ and $\text{Ann}(x) = (0)$. Hence, there exist $r \in \text{Ann}(a)$ and $s \in \text{Ann}(b)$ such that $xy = r + s$. Clearly, $xyab = 0$, and since $\text{Ann}(x) = (0)$, we infer that $yab = 0$. Consequently, $ya \in \text{Ann}(b)$ and $yb \in \text{Ann}(a)$. Therefore, $y = y(a + b) = ya + yb$, i.e., $y \in I$.

b) Let $rx \in I$ with $\text{Ann}(r) = (0)$ and $x \in R$. Hence, $rx = a + b$, where $a \in P$ and $be = 0$. Clearly, there exists $y \notin P$ such that $ay = 0$. Therefore, $eyrx = 0$, we have $eyx = 0$, and hence $ex \in P$. Now $x = ex + (1 - e)x \in P + \text{Ann}(e) = I$, and therefore I is an r -ideal. \square

If in the equality $a + b = 1$ of part (a) of the previous proposition, we replace 1 by R and a, b by two subsets A, B in R , then $\text{Ann}(A) + \text{Ann}(B)$ will be also an r -ideal.

In general, if R is a ring such that every ideal of R is an annihilator ideal (i.e. for every ideal I there exists $S \subseteq R$ such that $I = \text{Ann}(S)$), then every ideal of R is an r -ideal. Also, if for any two ideals I and J in the ring R , there exists an ideal K such that $\text{Ann}(I) + \text{Ann}(J) = \text{Ann}(K)$, then $\text{Ann}(I) + \text{Ann}(J)$ is an r -ideal. We should remind the reader that the latter case may happen in certain rings. In what follows we mention some examples. We recall that if X is an extremally disconnected space (i.e. every open subset of X has an open closure), then $C(X)$ has the above property; see [[6]]. In [[11]], the concepts of SA -ring and IN -ring are introduced and it is shown that these rings also satisfy the above property. We should also emphasize that in contrast with the latter fact the sum of two r -ideals is not necessarily an r -ideal in general; we refer the reader to Example 5.14 in this regard. However, it is worthwhile to remind the reader that any direct summand of an r -ideal is always an r -ideal (i.e. if $I = J \oplus K$, and I is an r -ideal, then so too are J and K).

Remark 2.11 In contrast to the latter fact the summand of prime ideals may not be prime. To see this, take a von Neumann regular ring that is not a finite direct product of fields, and then take a prime ideal P that is not $f.g.$ (note: von Neumann regular rings that are not a finite direct product of fields cannot be Noetherian; hence, by Cohen's theorem, it contains a prime ideal that is not $f.g.$), and notice that all of its $f.g.$ subideals are direct summands, which are not prime ideal.

Recall that the socle of a ring R , which is denoted by $\text{soc}(R)$, is the sum of all minimal ideals of R . We also recall that the socle of a reduced ring R is of the form $\text{soc}(R) = \bigoplus_{i \in A} e_i R$, where $\{e_i : i \in A\}$ is the set of idempotents of R ; see [[23]]. By the following proposition we observe that the sum of principal ideals generated by idempotents is an r -ideal, from which the socle of a reduced ring is an r -ideal. We know that the socle plays an important role in the structure theory of rings, especially in the context of noncommutative rings and

$C(X)$. For details about the socle in general rings, see [[23]], and for a topological characterization of the socle of $C(X)$, see [[22]].

Proposition 2.12 *Let R be a ring, and $\{e_i : i \in A\}$ is a set of idempotents of R . Then $I = \sum_{i \in A} e_i R$ is an r -ideal.*

Proof Let $rx \in I$, where $x \in R$ and $\text{Ann}(r) = (0)$. We are to show that $x \in I$. Since $I = \sum_{i \in A} e_i R$, we infer that $rx = \sum_{k=1}^n e_{i_k} r_{i_k}$ for some $i_1, \dots, i_n \in A$ and $r_{i_1}, \dots, r_{i_n} \in R$. Let us put $y = \prod_{k=1}^n (1 - e_{i_k})$. It is manifest that $rx y = 0$, and hence $x y = 0$. On the other hand, there exists $s \in I$ such that $y = 1 - s$. Therefore, $x(1 - s) = 0$, so $x = x s \in I$. □

Corollary 2.13 *Let R be a reduced ring. Then $\text{soc}(R)$ is an r -ideal. In particular, there exists an ideal \mathcal{J} of $Q(R)$ such that $\text{soc}(R) = \mathcal{J}^c$.*

It is interesting that in $C(X)$, where X is an infinite topological space, the socle of $C(X)$ is an r -ideal that is not prime; see [[4], [15]].

Remark 2.14 *Let M be a projective R -module, where R is a von Neumann regular ring. Then M is isomorphic to a direct sum of countably generated r -ideals. To see this, we note that by a celebrated theorem of Kaplansky $M = \oplus_{i \in A} M_i$, where each M_i is a countably generated submodule of M . Since M is a regular module (i.e. each cyclic submodule of M is a direct summand), we infer that each $M_i = \oplus_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n R$ is regular too. Hence, by [[[20], Lemma 2], we conclude that $M_i \cong \oplus_{n=1}^{\infty} e_n R$, where each e_n is idempotent. Now by Proposition [?], each M_i is isomorphic to an r -ideal, and we are done.*

We recall that in the ring $C(X)$, the sum of two minimal prime ideals is either a prime ideal or all of $C(X)$; see [[16]]. In contrast to this fact, the sum of two minimal prime ideals in general is not necessarily an r -ideal; see also the next example.

Example 2.15 *Let $R = \frac{F[x,y]}{xyF[x,y]}$, where F is a field. Then $P = \frac{x F[x,y]}{xy F[x,y]}$ and $Q = \frac{y F[x,y]}{xy F[x,y]}$ are minimal prime ideals of R . Clearly, $P + Q \neq R$ and $(x + y) + xy F[x,y] \in P + Q$ is a regular element. Hence, $P + Q$ is not an r -ideal.*

The following is a counterpart of the well-known fact that Q is a primary ideal of a ring R if and only if \sqrt{Q} is a prime ideal.

Proposition 2.16 *Let R be a ring and I be an ideal of R . Then I is a pr -ideal if and only if \sqrt{I} is an r -ideal.*

Proof Suppose that I is a pr -ideal and $ab \in \sqrt{I}$ with $\text{Ann}(a) = (0)$. Then there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $a^n b^n \in I$. Clearly, $\text{Ann}(a^n) = (0)$, so there exists $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $b^{nm} \in I$ and therefore $b \in \sqrt{I}$. Conversely, we assume that $ab \in I$ with $\text{Ann}(a) = (0)$. Since $ab \in \sqrt{I}$ we infer that $b \in \sqrt{I}$ and so there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $b^n \in I$. □

As we observed in the previous proposition, whenever \sqrt{I} is an r -ideal, then I is an pr -ideal. In the following example, we show that \sqrt{I} may be an r -ideal where I may not be an r -ideal. This example also shows that a pr -ideal is not necessarily an r -ideal.

Example 2.17 Let S be a reduced ring with subring \mathbb{Z} and $P \neq (0)$ be a minimal prime ideal in S with $P \cap \mathbb{Z} = (0)$. By [[10]], Lemma 3.6], $Q = xP[x] \subseteq S[x]$ is a minimal prime ideal in $R = \mathbb{Z} + xS[x]$, and hence it is also an r -ideal. Now we consider $Q_n = x^n P[x]$ with $1 \neq n \in \mathbb{N}$. Clearly $\sqrt{Q_n} = Q$ is an r -ideal and by Proposition [?] we conclude that Q_n is a pr -ideal. We claim that Q_n is not an r -ideal. To see this, put $f(x) = x^{n-1}a$, where $0 \neq a \in P$ and $g(x) = x$. Thus, $f(x)g(x) = x^n a \in Q_n$. Now it is clear that $\text{Ann}(g) = (0)$ and $f \notin Q_n$. Consequently, Q_n is not an r -ideal.

Clearly, if I and J are r -ideals in a ring R , then IJ is a pr -ideal of R , but it may not be an r -ideal; for instance, in the previous example, the ideal Q is an r -ideal, while Q^2 is not an r -ideal (note: for a prime ideal P , P^2 is prime if and only if $P^2 = P$).

Using the previous proposition and Proposition [?], we have the next corollary.

Corollary 2.18 Let R be a ring and I be an ideal of R . Then the following statements are equivalent:

- a) I is a pr -ideal.
- b) $rR \cap \sqrt{I} = r\sqrt{I}$, for any $r \in r(R)$.
- c) $\sqrt{I} = \sqrt{(I : r)}$, for any $r \in r(R) \setminus I$.
- d) $I = \mathcal{J}^c$, where \mathcal{J} is a primary ideal in $Q(R)$.

In the next section we will show that an r -ideal is not necessarily a z° -ideal; see part (d) of Remark [?]. In the following theorem, however, we observe that the converse holds.

Theorem 2.19 a) Every z° -ideal in a ring R is an r -ideal.

- b) Every ideal consisting entirely of zerodivisors in a ring is contained in a prime r -ideal.

Proof a) Let I be a z° -ideal, $ab \in I$ and $\text{Ann}(a) = (0)$. Clearly, $\text{Ann}(b) = \text{Ann}(ab)$. Since I is a z° -ideal, we conclude that $b \in I$.

- b) It is evident. □

Let S be a m.c. subset of a reduced ring R . Clearly, $I = \sum_{a \in S} \text{Ann}(a)$ is a z° -ideal, so by part (a) of the previous theorem, I is also an r -ideal.

We remind the reader that if I is a z° -ideal (resp., z -ideal) and $P \in \text{Min}(I)$, then P is a z° -ideal (resp., z -ideal); see [[8]], Theorem 1.16] (resp., see [[10], [26]]). The following is a similar result.

Theorem 2.20 Let R be a ring and $P \in \text{Min}(I)$, where I is an r -ideal of R . Then P is an r -ideal.

Proof Suppose that $ab \in P$ and $\text{Ann}(a) = (0)$. By [[18]], Theorem 1.2], there exist $x \notin P$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x(ab)^n = xa^n b^n \in I$. Since $\text{Ann}(a^n) = (0)$ and I is an r -ideal, we infer that $xb^n \in I \subseteq P$. Since $x \notin P$, we infer that $b^n \in P$ and therefore $b \in P$. □

We conclude this section with the following example and the proposition that follows it.

Example 2.21 For two r -ideals I and J of R , with $J \supseteq I$, the ideal $\frac{J}{I}$ of $\frac{R}{I}$ may not be an r -ideal in $\frac{R}{I}$. To see this, suppose that $P \in \text{Min}(R)$ and $M \in \text{Max}(R)$ such that $P \subsetneq M \subseteq \text{zd}(R)$; for maximal ideals of this kind, see [[8]]. Clearly, P and M are r -ideals of R . However, $(0) \neq \frac{M}{P}$ and $\frac{R}{P}$ is a domain, so $\frac{M}{P}$ is not an r -ideal of $\frac{R}{P}$.

Proposition 2.22 *Let I be an r -ideal in R contained in ideal J . If $\frac{J}{I}$ is an r -ideal in $\frac{R}{I}$, then J is also an r -ideal in R .*

Proof It is evident. □

3. r -ideals vs. prime ideals

This section is devoted to the relations between r -ideals and prime ideals and natural extensions of Cohen's theorem and the Prime Avoidance Lemma for r -ideals. We start with the following proposition.

Proposition 3.1 *Let R be a ring. Then every maximal r -ideal of R is a prime ideal.*

Proof Suppose that P is a maximal r -ideal of R , $xy \in P$ and $x \notin P$, and we are to show that $y \in P$. Clearly, $(P : x)$ is an r -ideal, $P \subseteq (P : x)$ and $y \in (P : x)$. Now by the maximality of P we have $P = (P : x)$. This implies that $y \in P$. □

Using [[[8]], Corollary 1.22], every maximal ideal consisting entirely of zerodivisors in a reduced ring with property A is a z° -ideal. In the following proposition we show that maximal r -ideals in reduced rings with property A are also z° -ideals.

Proposition 3.2 *Let R be a reduced ring with property A . Then every maximal r -ideal of R is a z° -ideal.*

Proof Suppose that P is a maximal r -ideal of R . Therefore, $P \subseteq \text{zd}(R)$, and so by [[[8]], Proposition 1.21], there is a z° -ideal J such that $P \subseteq J$. By part (a) of Theorem [?], J is an r -ideal. Now the maximality of P implies that $P = J$. Hence, P is a z° -ideal. □

Recall that a nonzero ideal I in a ring R is called essential if for every nonzero ideal J of R we have $I \cap J \neq (0)$.

Proposition 3.3 *Let I be a nonzero r -ideal of a reduced ring R , which is not essential. Then there is a minimal prime ideal P containing I , which is a maximal r -ideal.*

Proof Since I is not an essential ideal, there is a nonzero ideal J of R such that $I \cap J = (0)$. Since R is reduced and $(0) \neq J$, we infer that there exists $P \in \text{Min}(R)$ such that $J \not\subseteq P$ and hence there exists $x \in J \setminus P$. On the other hand, by Zorn's Lemma, there exists a maximal r -ideal N containing I such that $N \cap J = (0)$. Hence, $JN = (0)$; that is to say, $xN = (0) \subseteq P$. Now we conclude that $N \subseteq P$ and so $I \subseteq N = P$. (Note that N is a prime ideal by Proposition [?].) □

It is well known that every element of $Q(R)$ is either a unit or a zerodivisor. Motivated by this fact, we call a ring R a uz -ring if every element of R is either a unit or a zerodivisor. In this case, clearly $R = Q(R)$. For example, every von Neumann regular ring and any Artinian ring is a uz -ring. If R is a domain, then obviously R is a field if and only if R is a uz -ring. Clearly, a ring R is a field if and only if every ideal in R is prime. Similarly, R is a uz -ring if and only if every ideal in R is an r -ideal. More generally, we have the following result.

Proposition 3.4 *For any ring R the following statements are equivalent:*

- a) R is a uz -ring.
- b) Every essential ideal of R is an r -ideal.
- c) Every principal ideal of R is an r -ideal.

- d) Every prime ideal of R is an r -ideal.
- e) Every maximal ideal of R is an r -ideal.

Proof It is evident. □

The proof of the next result is similar to the proof of [[[8]], Proposition 1.26].

Proposition 3.5 *Let R be a reduced ring. Then $Q(R)$ is a von Neumann regular ring if and only if every prime r -ideal of R is a minimal prime ideal.*

Proof Let $Q(R)$ be a von Neumann regular ring and P be a prime r -ideal of R that is not minimal prime, and seek a contradiction. Therefore, there exists $a \in P$ such that $\text{Ann}_R(a) \subseteq P$. Hence, $\frac{a}{1} \in S^{-1}P$ and $\text{Ann}_{Q(R)}(\frac{a}{1}) \subseteq S^{-1}P$. We conclude that $S^{-1}P \notin \text{Min}(Q(R))$, which is a contradiction. Conversely, since R is reduced, by a well-known theorem of Kaplansky on characterization of von Neumann regular rings, it suffices to show that each prime ideal is a minimal prime ideal. To see this, we prove in fact that each maximal ideal is a minimal prime ideal. Let $\mathcal{M} \in \text{Max}(Q(R))$; since $Q(R)$ is a uz -ring, we have $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \text{zd}(Q(R))$, so \mathcal{M} is a z° -ideal of $Q(R)$. Hence, $\mathcal{M}^c = \mathcal{M} \cap R$ is a prime z° -ideal of R and so it is a prime r -ideal of R , too. Now by our hypothesis we conclude that $\mathcal{M}^c \in \text{Min}(R)$. Therefore, $\mathcal{M} \in \text{Min}(Q(R))$. This implies that $Q(R)$ is a von Neumann regular ring. □

In the following result we characterize the regularity of $Q(R)$ in terms of r -ideals of R . Recall that an ideal I is semiprime if $\sqrt{I} = I$.

Proposition 3.6 *Let R be a ring. Then:*

- a) $Q(R)$ is a von Neumann regular ring if and only if every r -ideal of R is a semiprime ideal.
- b) If $IJ = I \cap J$, where I and J are r -ideals of R , then $Q(R)$ is a von Neumann regular ring.
- c) If every r -ideal of R is idempotent, then $Q(R)$ is a von Neumann regular ring.

Proof It is evident. □

The following proposition is a counterpart of the celebrated Prime Avoidance Lemma for r -ideals; see [[[21]]] for recent work on this lemma. First we need the next definition.

Definition 3.7 *Let $B \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$, where B, A_i s are subsets of a ring R . This inclusion is called irreducible if no A_i can be removed from the union.*

Theorem 3.8 *Let $I \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n J_i$, where I and J_i s are ideals of a ring R , be an irreducible inclusion. If J_1 is an r -ideal and the others have regular elements, then $I \subseteq J_1$.*

Proof Since $I \not\subseteq \bigcup_{i=2}^n J_i$, there exists $a \in I \setminus \bigcup_{i=2}^n J_i$. This implies that $a \in J_1$. Let $x \in I \cap (\bigcap_{i=2}^n J_i)$; clearly $x + a \notin \bigcup_{i=2}^n J_i$. Since $x + a \in I \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n J_i$, we infer that $x \in J_1$. This implies that $I \cap (\bigcap_{i=2}^n J_i) \subseteq J_1$ and hence $I(\prod_{i=2}^n J_i) \subseteq J_1$. Since $(\prod_{i=2}^n J_i) \cap r(R) \neq \emptyset$, by part (a) of Lemma [?], we conclude that $I \subseteq J_1$. □

The following fact is an interesting variant of the Prime Avoidance Lemma.

Corollary 3.9 *Let $Q \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n P_i$, where Q and P_i s are ideals of a ring R , be an irreducible inclusion. If $P_1 \in \text{Min}(R)$ and $P_i \cap r(R) \neq \emptyset$, for all $i \geq 2$, then $Q \subseteq P_1$. Moreover, if Q is a prime ideal, then $Q = P_1$, i.e. $Q \in \text{Min}(R)$.*

Proposition 3.10 *Let R be a reduced ring with $|\text{Min}(R)| < \infty$ and $Q \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n P_i$, where Q and P_i s are ideals of the ring R , be an irreducible inclusion. If $P_1 \in \text{Min}(R)$ and P_i is an essential ideal for all $i \geq 2$, then $Q \subseteq P_1$. Moreover, if Q is a prime ideal, then $Q = P_1$, i.e. $Q \in \text{Min}(R)$.*

Proof Since R is a Goldie ring (see [[[23]], Theorem 11.43]), we infer that each P_i contains a regular element for all $i \geq 2$; see [[[23]], Theorem 11.46]. Consequently, by the above corollary we are done. \square

Definition 3.11 *Let R be a ring and S be a subset of R . We say that S is an r -multiplicatively closed (briefly, r -m.c.) set if $0 \notin S$, $1 \in S$, S contains at least a regular element $t \neq 1$, and $rx \in S$ for all regular elements $r \in S$ and all $x \in S$ (e.g., $S = R \setminus I$, where I is an r -ideal).*

We remind the reader that if S is a m.c. subset, then $S' = S \cup \text{u}(R) \cup \{ux : u \in \text{u}(R), x \in S\}$ is a m.c. subset containing all units. Clearly, if I is an ideal, then $I \cap S = \emptyset$ if and only if $I \cap S' = \emptyset$. Hence, for all practical purposes we may assume that whenever S is a m.c. subset, then $\text{u}(R) \subseteq S$. Note that P is a prime ideal if and only if $S = R \setminus P$ is a m.c. set.

Similarly, let S be an r -m.c. subset and A be a m.c. subset containing a regular element (e.g., $A = \{r^n : n = 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$, where $r \in \text{r}(R)$); then $S' = S \cup A \cup \{ax : a \in A, x \in S\}$ is an r -m.c. subset. In particular, we may take A to be $\text{r}(R)$. Hence, from now on we may assume that whenever S is an r -m.c. subset, then $\text{r}(R) \subseteq S$ (note: if I is an r -ideal, then $S = R \setminus I$ naturally contains $\text{r}(R)$). Therefore, I is an r -ideal of R if and only if $S = R \setminus I$ is an r -m.c. subset.

The following theorem is the counterpart of the celebrated theorem of IS Cohen for r -ideals.

Theorem 3.12 *Let I be an ideal of a ring R and S be an r -m.c. subset in R with $I \cap S = \emptyset$. Then there exists an r -ideal J such that $I \subseteq J$ and $J \cap S = \emptyset$.*

Proof Put $\mathcal{A} = \{K : K \text{ is an ideal of } R \text{ such that } I \subseteq K \text{ and } K \cap S = \emptyset\}$. Clearly, $\mathcal{A} \neq \emptyset$, and by Zorn's Lemma, \mathcal{A} has a maximal element, namely J , with $I \subseteq J$ and $J \cap S = \emptyset$. We now claim that J is an r -ideal. Let $rx \in J$, $\text{Ann}(r) = (0)$, and $x \notin J$. We are to seek a contradiction. Clearly, $x \in (J : r)$ and so $J \subsetneq (J : r)$. Now it is sufficient to show that $(J : r) \cap S = \emptyset$. To see this, let $t \in (J : r) \cap S$, and then $t \in S$ and $rt \in J$. Since $r \in \text{r}(R) \subseteq S$, we infer that $rt \in S$, i.e. $rt \in J \cap S$, which is a contradiction. \square

Definition 3.13 *Let S be a subset of a ring R . We say that S is an r -saturated m.c. subset if S is an r -m.c. Subset, and moreover, when $xy \in S$, then $x, y \in S$ for every $x, y \in R$.*

We should bring to the attention of the reader that whenever \mathcal{A} is a set of r -ideals, then clearly $S = R \setminus \bigcup_{I \in \mathcal{A}} I$ is an r -saturated m.c. subset of R . In the following result we aim to show that every r -saturated m.c. subset of R is of the latter form, which is the counterpart of its corresponding fact for saturated m.c. sets.

Proposition 3.14 *Let S be an r -saturated m.c. subset of a ring R and*

$$\mathcal{A} = \{I : I \text{ is an } r\text{-ideal of } R \text{ with } I \cap S = \emptyset\}.$$

Then $S = R \setminus \bigcup_{I \in \mathcal{A}} I$.

Proof Since $(0) \cap S = \emptyset$, we infer that $(0) \in \mathcal{A}$. This implies that $\mathcal{A} \neq \emptyset$ and it is manifest that $S \subseteq R \cup \bigcup_{I \in \mathcal{A}} I$. Now suppose that $x \in R \setminus \bigcup_{I \in \mathcal{A}} I$ but $x \notin S$ and seek a contradiction. Since $xR \cap S = \emptyset$, by the previous theorem there exists an r -ideal I containing x such that $I \cap S = \emptyset$. Consequently, $I \in \mathcal{A}$. By our assumption x does not belong to any member of \mathcal{A} , whereas $x \in I \in \mathcal{A}$, which is the desired contradiction. \square

Remark 3.15 Let $R \subseteq T$ be rings. It is possible that J is an r -ideal of T , but $J \cap R = I$ is not an r -ideal of R . To see this, let $A = \mathbb{Z}$ and $T = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$. Clearly, $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ defined by $\varphi(x) = (x, 0)$ is a monomorphism. Then $R = \varphi(\mathbb{Z})$ is a domain. Also, it is clear that $J = \text{Ann}((0, 1))$ is a nonzero r -ideal in T . On the other hand, $R \subseteq J$, and hence $I = R = J \cap R$ is not an r -ideal in R .

Definition 3.16 Let R and T be rings with $R \subseteq T$. We say that R is essential in T , if $R \cap I \neq (0)$, for every nonzero ideal of T .

For example, $C^*(X)$ is essential in $C(X)$. To see this, let I be an ideal in $C(X)$ and $0 \neq f \in I$, and clearly $0 \neq g = \frac{f}{1+f^2} \in I \cap C^*(X)$. More generally, R is essential in $Q(R)$.

In contrast to the fact in Remark [?], we have the following result.

Proposition 3.17 Let $R \subseteq T$ be rings such that R is essential in T . If I is an r -ideal in T , then $I \cap R = J$ is an r -ideal in R .

Proof Suppose that $r, x \in R$ and $rx \in J$ with $\text{Ann}_R(r) = (0)$. We are to show that $x \in J$. Clearly, $rx \in I$. We claim that $\text{Ann}_T(r) = (0)$. To see this, let $\text{Ann}_T(r) \neq (0)$, and then by our hypothesis, we have $\text{Ann}_T(r) \cap R \neq (0)$, so there exists $0 \neq y \in R$ such that $y \in \text{Ann}_T(r)$, i.e. $yr = 0$. Consequently, we have $y \in \text{Ann}_R(r)$, which is a contradiction. Thus, $x \in I$ and hence $x \in J$. \square

4. r -ideals in polynomial rings

Let $R[x]$ denote the ring of polynomials with coefficients in R . If $f = \sum_{i=0}^n f_i x^i \in R[x]$, then the content of f , by definition, is the ideal of R generated by the coefficients of f and is denoted by $c(f)$, and the set of coefficients of f is denoted by $C(f)$, i.e. $C(f) = \{f_0, f_1, \dots, f_n\}$. If I is an ideal of R then $I[x]$ is denoted by the set $\{f \in R[x] : C(f) \subseteq I\}$. Also let $R[[x]]$ be the ring of formal power series with coefficients in R . If $f = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} f_i x^i \in R[[x]]$, then $C(f)$ is the sequence $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$.

Remark 4.1 a) Let R be a reduced ring and $f \in R[x]$; then by [[[2]], Theorem 3.3], we have $\text{Ann}(f) = \text{Ann}(C(f))[x]$. Also, if $f \in R[[x]]$, then clearly $\text{Ann}(f) = \text{Ann}(C(f))[[x]]$.

b) If $I[x]$ is an r -ideal in $R[x]$, then I is an r -ideal in R . The converse is true if and only if R satisfies property A; see Theorem [?] (note: $R[x]$ and $C(X)$ have property A). We should also remind the reader that if $I = \text{Ann}(a)$ with $0 \neq a \in R$, then $I[x]$ is an r -ideal in $R[x]$.

c) Let $I[[x]]$ be an r -ideal in $R[[x]]$, and then I is an r -ideal in R . The converse is true if R satisfies the c.a.c.; see Proposition [?]. It is also clear that if $I = \text{Ann}(a)$ where $0 \neq a \in R$, then $I[[x]]$ is an r -ideal in $R[[x]]$.

d) Let I be a semiprime ideal of a reduced ring R . Assume that $f, g \in R[[x]]$, where $f = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} f_i x^i$ and $g = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} g_i x^i$. Then one can easily show that $fg \in I[[x]]$ if and only if $f_n g_m \in I$, for $n, m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$.

e) If (I, x) is an r -ideal in $R[x]$, then I is an r -ideal in R . The converse is not true in general. For example, the ideal $I = (0)$ in R is an r -ideal, but $(I, x) = xR[x]$ is not an r -ideal in $R[x]$.

f) If $\mathcal{M} \in \text{Max}(R[x])$, then by [[[19]], Theorem 150] there exists $f \in \mathcal{M}$ such that $\text{Ann}_{R[x]}(f) = (0)$, so \mathcal{M} is not an r -ideal. This implies that $R[x]$ is never a uz -ring.

g) If R satisfies property A , $f \in R[x]$ and $\text{Ann}_{R[x]}(f) = (0)$, then by [[[18]], Theorem 2.6], there exists $a \in c(f)$ such that $\text{Ann}_R(a) = (0)$, and hence $c(f)$ is not an r -ideal.

h) Let R be a uz -ring and $\mathcal{M} \in \text{Max}(R[x])$, and then there is $f \in \mathcal{M}$ such that $\text{Ann}_{R[x]}(f) = (0)$, by part (f). Whenever $I = c(f) \neq R$, then I is an r -ideal, whereas $I[x]$ is not an r -ideal.

In the following proposition we show that if I is an r -ideal in a reduced ring R , then $I[x]$ is an r -ideal in $R[x]$ if and only if R satisfies property A .

Theorem 4.2 *Let R be a ring. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

a) R satisfies property A .

b) I is an r -ideal in R if and only if $I[x]$ is an r -ideal in $R[x]$, for every ideal I of R .

Proof ($a \Rightarrow b$) Let I be an r -ideal of R , $f, g \in R[x]$ and $fg \in I[x]$ with $\text{Ann}_{R[x]}(g) = (0)$. Hence, by [[[2]], Proposition 3.5], we conclude that $c(g) \not\subseteq \text{zd}(R)$. Therefore, there exists $r \in c(g)$ such that $\text{Ann}_R(r) = (0)$. Clearly, $C(fg) \subseteq I$ and so $c(fg) \subseteq I$. Now by [[[17]], Theorem 28.1], we have $c(g)^{n+1}c(f) = c(g)^n c(fg)$, where n is the degree of f . This implies that $c(g)^{n+1}c(f) \subseteq I$. Since $r^{n+1} \in c(g)^{n+1}$, we infer that $r^{n+1}c(f) \subseteq I$. On the other hand, we have $\text{Ann}_R(r^{n+1}) = (0)$. Now we conclude that $c(f) \subseteq I$. Thus, $f \in I[x]$. The converse is evident.

($b \Rightarrow a$) Suppose, on the contrary, that R does not satisfy property A . We are to seek a contradiction. By [[[2]], Proposition 3.5], there exists $f \in R[x]$ such that $\text{Ann}_{R[x]}(f) = (0)$ and $I = c(f) \subseteq \text{zd}(R)$. Now by part (b) of Theorem [?], there exists a prime r -ideal P such that $I \subseteq P$, i.e. $c(f) \subseteq P$. Hence, $f \in P[x]$, while f is a regular element. Thus, $P[x]$ is not an r -ideal, which is the desired contradiction. \square

Corollary 4.3 *Let R be a uz -ring. Then R satisfies property A if and only if $I[x]$ is an r -ideal in $R[x]$, for every ideal I of R .*

A ring R is said to have the finite (resp., countable) annihilator condition or briefly to have the f.a.c. (resp., the c.a.c.) if for every finite (resp., countable) subset S of R there exists an element $a \in S$ with $\text{Ann}(S) = \text{Ann}(a)$.

For example, the ring \mathbb{Z}_p^n , where p is a prime number and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, satisfies the f.a.c. To see this, let $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n$, and hence there exists $0 \leq r \leq n$, such that $a = p^r a_1$, with a_1 and p being relatively prime. One can easily show that $\text{Ann}_{\mathbb{Z}_p^n}(a) = p^{n-r} \mathbb{Z}_p^n$. Now if $b = p^s b_1$, with $r \leq s$, then $\text{Ann}(a, b) = \text{Ann}(a) \cap \text{Ann}(b) = p^{n-r} \mathbb{Z}_p^n \cap p^{n-s} \mathbb{Z}_p^n = p^{n-s} \mathbb{Z}_p^n = \text{Ann}(b)$. More generally, if in a ring R , the set of all $\text{Ann}(r)$, where $r \in R$, is a chain, then R satisfies the f.a.c. Clearly, if R is a finite ring, which satisfies the f.a.c., then R satisfies the c.a.c. Also, if F is a field, then $R = \frac{F[x]}{x^2 F[x]}$ satisfies the c.a.c.

It is clear that if R satisfies the f.a.c., then it satisfies the s.a.c., and so it satisfies the a.c. A ring R may satisfy property A , but it may not satisfy a.c. and also f.a.c.; see [[2]], Example 4.1].

Proposition 4.4 *Let R be a ring satisfying the f.a.c. (c.a.c.) and I be a semiprime ideal of R . Then I is an r -ideal in R if and only if $I[x]$ ($I[[x]]$) is an r -ideal in $R[x]$ ($R[[x]]$).*

Proof Let $f, g \in R[x]$ and $fg \in I[x]$ with $\text{Ann}_{R[x]}(f) = (0)$. Thus, $\text{Ann}_R(C(f)) = (0)$. By our hypothesis, there exists $a \in C(f)$ such that $\text{Ann}_R(C(f)) = \text{Ann}_R(a)$. Therefore, $\text{Ann}_R(a) = (0)$. It is easy to show that $aC(g) \subseteq I$. Since I is an r -ideal in R , we infer that $C(g) \subseteq I$. This implies that $g \in I[x]$, i.e. $I[x]$ is an r -ideal in $R[x]$. The converse is evident. In case ($I[[x]]$), whenever R satisfies the c.a.c., the proof is similar. \square

5. r -ideals in $C(X)$

In this section we will investigate the relations between r -ideals, z° -ideals, and z -ideals in $C(X)$. We characterize the topological spaces X for which r -ideals coincide with others. In this section, for the sake of brevity, $r(C(X))$, $zd(C(X))$, and $u(C(X))$ are replaced by $r(X)$, $zd(X)$, and $u(X)$. It is easy to see that $f \in C(X)$ is a regular element if and only if $\text{int}Z(f) = \emptyset$; see also [[7]]. Let us recall the following definitions.

Definitions 5.1 *A topological space X is said to be:*

- a) *P -space if every prime ideal of $C(X)$ is a z -ideal.*
- b) *F -space if finitely generated ideals of $C(X)$ are principal.*
- c) *Almost P -space if every nonempty zero set has a nonempty interior, or equivalently every z -ideal of $C(X)$ is a z° -ideal.*
- d) *Quasi F -space if finitely generated ideals containing a nondivisor of 0 in $C(X)$ are principal, or equivalently the sum of two z° -ideals of $C(X)$ is a z° -ideal.*
- e) *m -space if every prime z° -ideal of $C(X)$ is minimal prime ideal, or equivalently if for every zero set Z in X there exists a zero set F in X such that $Z \cup F = X$ with $\text{int}Z \cap \text{int}F = \emptyset$.*
- f) *Quasi m -space if every prime z° -ideal of $C(X)$ is either a minimal prime or a maximal ideal.*
- g) *W . almost P -space if for every two zero sets Z and F , with $\text{int}Z \subseteq \text{int}F$, there exists a zero set E in X such that $Z \subseteq F \cup E$ and $\text{int}E = \emptyset$.*
- h) *∂ -space if for every zero set Z in X there exists a zero set F in X such that $\partial(Z) \subseteq F$ and $\text{int}F = \emptyset$, where $\partial(Z) = Z \setminus \text{int}Z$ is the boundary of Z .*

For more details about P -spaces and F -spaces, see [[16]]. For almost P -spaces, see [[5], [24]]; for quasi F -spaces, see [[13]]; and for other spaces, see [[9]].

We cite the following facts from [[9]].

- Proposition 5.2**
- a) *Every z -ideal $I \subseteq zd(X)$ of $C(X)$ is a z° -ideal if and only if X is an almost P -space.*
 - b) *Every prime z -ideal $P \subseteq zd(X)$ of $C(X)$ is a z° -ideal if and only if X is a w . almost P -space.*
 - c) *Every prime ideal $P \subseteq zd(X)$ of $C(X)$ is a z° -ideal if and only if X is a ∂ -space.*

Proposition 5.3 For a topological space X the following statements are equivalent:

- a) X is an almost P -space.
- b) Every ideal I of $C(X)$ is an r -ideal.
- c) Every ideal $I \subseteq \text{zd}(X)$ of $C(X)$ is an r -ideal.

Proof ($a \Leftrightarrow b$) By [[5], Theorem 2.2] we know that X is an almost P -space if and only if $C(X)$ is a uz -ring. Therefore, every ideal in $C(X)$ is an r -ideal if and only if X is an almost P -space.

($b \Rightarrow c$) It is clear.

($c \Rightarrow a$) Suppose that $0 \neq f \in C(X)$ and $\text{int}Z(f) = \emptyset$, and we are to show that $Z(f) = \emptyset$. Assume that $x \notin Z(f)$; therefore, there exist $g, h \in C(X)$ such that $x \in \text{int}Z(g)$, $Z(f) \subseteq \text{int}Z(h)$, and $Z(g) \cap Z(h) = \emptyset$. Now we put $I = fgC(X)$. Clearly, I is consisting entirely of zerodivisors, for $\text{int}Z(fg) = \text{int}Z(g) \neq \emptyset$. Thus, by our hypothesis, I is an r -ideal. Since $fg \in I$ and f is regular, we conclude that $g \in I$ and hence $g = fgk$ for some $k \in C(X)$. Now using $Z(f) \subseteq Z(g)$, we have $Z(f) = Z(f) \cap Z(g) \subseteq Z(h) \cap Z(g) = \emptyset$. This implies that $Z(f) = \emptyset$ and we are done. □

Proposition 5.4 Every r -ideal of $C(X)$ is a z° -ideal if and only if X is a ∂ -space.

Proof The necessary is clear by part (c) of Proposition [?]. For sufficiency, the proof is similar to that of [[9], Theorem 4.4]. □

Let us remind the reader that in part (1) of Remark [?], we have noticed that the sum of two r -ideals is not necessarily an r -ideal. It is interesting to observe, in what follows, that in a ∂ -space quasi F -space, the sum of r -ideals becomes an r -ideal.

Corollary 5.5 Let X be a ∂ -space. Then the following statements hold:

- a) I is an r -ideal in $C(X)$ if and only if it is a z° -ideal.
- b) I is an r -ideal in $C(X)$ if and only if \sqrt{I} is an r -ideal.
- c) I is an r -ideal in $C(X)$ if and only if every minimal prime ideal of I is an r -ideal.
- d) Every prime ideal in $C(X)$ is an r -ideal in $C(X)$ if and only if every prime ideal is a z° -ideal.
- e) The sum of two r -ideals of $C(X)$ is an r -ideal if and only if X is a quasi F -space.

Since a ∂ -space almost P -space is a P -space, the following corollary is immediate.

Corollary 5.6 Let X be a ∂ -space. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- a) X is a P -space.
- b) Every ideal is an r -ideal in $C(X)$.
- c) Every prime ideal is an r -ideal in $C(X)$.

Proposition 5.7 Every prime r -ideal of $C(X)$ is a z° -ideal if and only if X is an m -space.

Proof It is evident. □

Lemma 5.8 Let X be an m -space. Then every r -ideal of $C(X)$ is a z -ideal.

Proof Suppose that I is an r -ideal, $f, g \in C(X)$, $f \in I$, and $Z(f) = Z(g)$; we are to show that $g \in I$. By our hypothesis, there exists $0 \leq h \in C(X)$ such that $hf^{\frac{1}{3}} = 0$ and $\text{int}Z(h + f^{\frac{2}{3}}) = \emptyset$. Clearly, $f^{\frac{1}{3}}(h + f^{\frac{2}{3}}) = f \in I$. Since I is an r -ideal, we infer that $f^{\frac{1}{3}} \in I$ and hence $f^{\frac{2}{3}} \in I$. On the other hand, $Z(h) \cup Z(f^{\frac{2}{3}}) = Z(h) \cup Z(f) = Z(h) \cup Z(g) = X$ implies that $gh = 0$. Now we have $g(h + f^{\frac{2}{3}}) = gf^{\frac{2}{3}} \in I$. Hence, by our hypothesis, we conclude that $g \in I$. \square

The following corollary is now evident.

Corollary 5.9 *Let X be an m -space, $f \in C(X)$ and $I = fC(X)$. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- a) $\text{int}Z(f) = Z(f)$.
- b) I is an r -ideal.
- c) I is a z -ideal.
- d) I is a z° -ideal.

Using Proposition [?] and the fact that every almost P -space that is also a ∂ -space is a P -space, the following corollary is now evident.

Corollary 5.10 *Let X be an almost P -space. Then the following statements are equivalent:*

- a) X is a P -space.
- b) Every r -ideal in $C(X)$ is a z -ideal.
- c) Every r -ideal in $C(X)$ is a z° -ideal.

Theorem 5.11 *Every r -ideal in the class of all z -ideals of $C(X)$ is a z° -ideal if and only if X is w. almost P -space.*

Proof Let I be an r -ideal that is also a z -ideal. Assume that $\text{int}Z(f) \subseteq \text{int}Z(g)$ and $f \in I$, and we must show that $g \in I$. By definition of w. almost P -spaces, there exists $h \in C(X)$ such that $\text{int}Z(h) = \emptyset$ and $Z(f) \subseteq Z(gh)$. Since I is a z -ideal, we infer that $gh \in I$. Since I is an r -ideal we conclude that $g \in I$. Conversely, it suffices to show that every prime z -ideal consisting entirely of zerodivisors is a z° -ideal, by [[[9]], Theorem 4.2]. To this end, we just notice that every prime ideal consisting entirely of zerodivisors is an r -ideal. \square

Let us recall that the socle of $C(X)$, denoted by $C_F(X)$, is of the form $C_F(X) = \{f \in C(X) : X \setminus Z(f) \text{ is a finite subset of } X\}$; see [[[22]], Proposition 3.3]. It is also shown that $C_F(X)$ is never a prime ideal in $C(X)$; see [[[4], Proposition 2.5] and [[15]]. One can easily show that $C_F(X)$ is a z° -ideal. Note that we have already shown (see Corollary [?]) that the socle of any reduced ring is an r -ideal.

Remark 5.12 *We should emphasize that $C_F(X)$ is an r -ideal, as we may present in a direct proof, in which we do not need to use Theorem [?] or Corollary [?]. Let $fg \in C_F(X)$, $\text{int}Z(f) = \emptyset$, and $g \in C(X)$. Clearly, $\text{cl}(X \setminus Z(f)) = X$, and hence*

$$X \setminus Z(g) \subseteq \text{cl}(X \setminus Z(g)) = \text{cl}(X \setminus Z(fg)) = X \setminus Z(fg).$$

Therefore, $X \setminus Z(g)$ is a finite subset of X , i.e. $g \in C_F(X)$.

One can easily see that other ideals in $C(X)$ of this kind, such as $C_K(X) = \{f \in C(X) : \text{cl}(X \setminus Z(f)) \text{ is a compact subset of } X\}$, are r -ideals, too.

Remark 5.13 *Suppose that X is an almost P -space that is not P -space.*

a) $C(X)$ is a uz -ring but it is not a von Neumann regular ring.

b) Any r -ideal is not necessarily a pure ideal. For example, by [[[1]], Corollary 2.4] there exists $x \in X$ such that $M_x = \{f \in C(X) : f(x) = 0\}$ is not a pure ideal, while this ideal is an r -ideal. More generally, whenever A is regular closed in X , i.e. $\text{cl}(\text{int}(A)) = A$ (X is not necessarily an almost P -space), then $M_A = \{f \in C(X) : A \subseteq Z(f)\}$ is an r -ideal.

c) Any r -ideal is not necessarily a von Neumann regular ideal. Since X is not a P -space, there exists $f \in C(X)$ such that f is not a von Neumann regular element. Now ideal $I = fC(X)$ is not von Neumann regular ideal, while this ideal is an r -ideal.

d) Any r -ideal is not necessarily a z -ideal and so is not a z° -ideal either. Since X is not a P -space, there exists an ideal I in $C(X)$ such that it is not a z -ideal, while this ideal is an r -ideal.

It is well known that the sum of two prime ideals (z -ideals) in $C(X)$ is either $C(X)$ or is a prime ideal (z -ideal); see [[16]]. The next example shows that r -ideals do not have this property.

Example 5.14 *The sum of two r -ideals may not be an r -ideal. For example, we consider two ideals in $C(\mathbb{R})$, namely $M_{[0, \infty)} = \{f \in C(\mathbb{R}) : [0, \infty) \subseteq Z(f)\}$ and $M_{(-\infty, 0]} = \{f \in C(\mathbb{R}) : (-\infty, 0] \subseteq Z(f)\}$. Clearly, these ideals are z° -ideals and by part (a) of Theorem [?] are r -ideals. Now we put $f(x) = 0$ if $0 \leq x$, $f(x) = x$ if $x < 0$, and $g(x) = 0$ if $x \leq 0$, $g(x) = x$, if $0 < x$. Clearly, $f \in M_{[0, \infty)}$, $g \in M_{(-\infty, 0]}$ and $f + g = i$, where $i \in C(\mathbb{R})$ is the identity function. Hence, $i \in M_{[0, \infty)} + M_{(-\infty, 0]}$. On the other hand, $Z(i) = \{0\}$ implies $\text{int}Z(i) = \emptyset$, and so i is a regular element. Therefore, $M_{[0, \infty)} + M_{(-\infty, 0]}$ is not an r -ideal.*

The next example shows that every ideal consisting of zerodivisors is not necessarily an r -ideal (even if it is a semiprime or even a z -ideal). Recall that every z -ideal in $C(X)$ is a semiprime ideal.

Example 5.15 *Any z -ideal consisting entirely of zerodivisors is not necessarily an r -ideal. For example, in $C(\mathbb{R})$ we consider $I = \{f \in C(\mathbb{R}) : [0, 1] \cup \{2\} \subseteq Z(f)\}$. Clearly, I is a z -ideal consisting entirely of zerodivisors. Now suppose that $Z(g) = [0, 1]$ and $Z(h) = \{2\}$, where $g, h \in C(\mathbb{R})$. It is obvious that $[0, 1] \cup \{2\} = Z(g) \cup Z(h) = Z(gh)$, so $gh \in I$. Since $\text{int}Z(h) = \emptyset$ and $g \notin I$, we conclude that I is not an r -ideal.*

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