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PRIMARY DECOMPOSITION OF ELEMENTS IN COMPACTLY GENERATED INTEGRAL MULTIPLICATIVE LATTICES

Dedicated to Professor Keizo Asano on his 60th birthday

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1. Introduction

A complete lattice L is said to be compactly generated, when it has a subset Σ which satisfies that (1) if $x \leq \sup N$ for an element x of Σ and a subset N of Σ , there exists a finite number of elements x_1, \dots, x_n of N satisfying $x_1 \cup \dots \cup x_n \geq x$, and (2) every element of L is expressible as a join (supremum) of a subset of Σ . Σ is called a compact generator system of L ¹⁾. The purpose of the present paper is to investigate primary decompositions of elements in compactly generated integral multiplicative lattices²⁾.

Throughout this paper, we let L be a compactly generated integral multiplicative lattice with a compact generator system Σ . In Section 2 we define a μ -system as a suitable subset of Σ , which is somewhat different from the one introduced in [13]. By using the μ -systems, we define radicals of elements in L and consider meet decompositions of radicals by prime elements. In Section 3 right primary elements are defined by using radicals defined in Section 2. The result in this section is a uniqueness theorem of short decomposition for elements having right primary decompositions. Section 4 deals with right upper M -components of elements, where M is a μ -system. A right upper M -component is defined by using the concept of M - ν -systems, which are also somewhat different from the one introduced in [13]. It will be shown in this section that the right upper M -component of an element has two different representations (Theorem 3). Section 5 is mainly concerned with minimal primes of elements and decompositions of upper isolated p -components of elements. The results in this section are obtained under two conditions. The

1) In [12, §9] Σ is called an aj -system of L . It can be proved that a lattice is compactly generated in the sense of Dilworth and Crawley ([5], [6]), if and only if it has an aj -system, that is, it is compactly generated in our sense.

2) Cf. [3, CHAP. XIII].

one is the ascending chain condition for elements, and the other is the condition (N), which is concerned with weight and type of product-forms. Under some modified semi-modularity for L , it can be proved, in Section 6, that every element of L has right primary decomposition if and only if L has right weak Artin-Rees property. The proofs of the results obtained in this section are similar as in [7], [9] and [10]. But in order to make this paper self-contained we include proofs of the results. Section 7 lays two applications. The ideal theory in non-associative rings has been developed in [2] and [8]. The results obtained in the first half of this section are generalizations of the classical primary decompositions of ideals in commutative rings to ideals in (N)-rings (non-associative and non-commutative), and which are concerned with [2], [8], [10] and [15]. In [3] Birkhoff has pointed out that the lattice of normal subgroups of a group is a commutative integral residuated *cm*-lattice under the commutator-product and the set-inclusion. It is easy to see that the set of the normal subgroups with single generators is a compact generator system of the lattice. In the latter half of this section, primary decompositions of normal subgroups of (N)-groups are obtained as an application of the results in the preceding sections, where (N)-groups are regarded as a generalization of nilpotent groups. Recently primary decomposition theory has been studied in various algebraic systems ([1], [17], [18], etc.). In particular, the theory in groupoids is obtained, among others, in [1]. We shall note here that the results in Sections 2~6 are applicable to subsystems of some sorts of groupoids, but which is not collected in this paper.

Elements of L will be denoted, throughout this paper, by a, b, c, \dots , and those of Σ , in particular, by x, y, z, \dots with or without suffices. The greatest element of L will be denoted by e , which is not necessarily multiplicative unit of L ([3, CHAP. XIII]). $ab \leq a$ and $ab \leq b$ are assumed for two elements a, b of L . An element a is said to be less than b if $a \leq b$. The symbols \vee and \wedge will denote the set-theoretic union and the intersection respectively. By $\{a \in A \mid a \text{ has property } P\}$ we mean the set of all elements a in A , each of which has property P .

2. Radicals of elements

Let a, b be any two elements of L . The set of the elements x of Σ such that $xb \leq a$ is not void. The join (supremum) of such elements x will be denoted by a/b , and called a (*right*) *quotient* of a by b . It is easily verified that a/b is not necessarily the join of the elements c of L such that $cb \leq a$. The quotient has the following properties: (1) $a \leq a/b$, (2) $(a/b)b \leq a$, (3) $b \leq a$ implies $a/b = e$, (4) $b \leq a$ implies $b/c \leq a/c$, (5) $c \leq b$ implies $a/b \leq a/c$, (6) $\inf_{\lambda} (a/b_{\lambda}) = a/(\sup_{\lambda} b_{\lambda})$ and (7) $\inf_{\lambda} (a_{\lambda}/b) = (\inf_{\lambda} a_{\lambda})/b$.

From now on, the symbols $P(a)$ and $\Sigma(a)$ will mean the sets $\{x \in \Sigma \mid a/x = a\}$ and $\{x \in \Sigma \mid x \leq a\}$, respectively. The complements of $P(a)$ and $\Sigma(a)$ in Σ will be denoted by $P'(a)$ and $\Sigma'(a)$ respectively. It is then easy to see that $P(a)$ is contained in $\Sigma'(a)$ for every element $a \neq e$.

DEFINITION 1. A subset M of Σ is called a μ -system, if there exists an z of M such that $z \leq xy$ for any two elements x, y of M . The void set is to be element considered as a μ -system.

An element p of L is said to be prime if whenever a product of two elements of L is less than p , then at least one of the factors is less than p .

Lemma 1. *The following conditions are equivalent to one another.*

- 1) p is prime,
- 2) $xy \leq p$ ($x, y \in \Sigma$) implies $x \leq p$ or $y \leq p$,
- 3) $\Sigma'(p)$ is a μ -system.

Lemma 2. *An element p ($\neq e$) is prime if and only if $P(p) = \Sigma'(p)$.*

Proofs. These two lemmas are immediate.

The following lemma is somewhat different from Lemma 1 in [14].

Lemma 3. *Let a be an element of L , and let M be a μ -system which does not meet $\Sigma(a)$. Then there exists an element p which is maximal in the set consisting of the elements b such that $b \geq a$ and $\Sigma(b)$ does not meet M . p is necessarily a prime element.*

Proof. Since L is compactly generated, we can show, by Zorn's lemma, the existence of p mentioned in the first part of the lemma. To prove the last part of the lemma, we suppose that $xy \leq p$, $x \not\leq p$ and $y \not\leq p$ for x, y in Σ . Then there exist x' and y' in M such that $x' \leq p \cup x$ and $y' \leq p \cup y$. Since there exists an element u of M such that $u \leq x'y'$, we obtain that $u \leq (p \cup x)(p \cup y) \leq p \cup xy = p$. This is a contradiction.

DEFINITION 2. Let a be an element of L . A **radical** of a , denoted by $\text{rad}(a)$, is the join of all elements x of Σ having the property that every μ -system which contains x meets $\Sigma(a)$.

Theorem 1. *For every element a of L , $\text{rad}(a)$ is the meet (infimum) of the primes p_λ such that $p_\lambda \geq a$.*

Proof. First we shall show that $\text{rad}(a) \leq p_\lambda$ for every prime p_λ such that $p_\lambda \geq a$. If we suppose that there exists p such that $p \geq a$ and $p \not\geq \text{rad}(a)$, we can take an element x of Σ such that $x \not\leq p$ and $x \leq \text{rad}(a)$. Then there exists a finite number of elements x_1, \dots, x_n such that $x \leq x_1 \cup \dots \cup x_n$ and each x_i has the property that every μ -system which contains x_i meets $\Sigma(a)$. Now, since

there exists x_j such that $x_j \not\leq p$, $\Sigma'(p)$ meets $\Sigma(a)$, which is a contradiction. We have therefore $\text{rad}(a) \leq \inf_{\lambda} p_{\lambda}$. Next, let x be any element of Σ such that it is not less than $\text{rad}(a)$. Then there exists a μ -system M which does not meet $\Sigma(a)$ and contains x . Hence by using Lemma 3 we can take a prime element p such that $p \geq a$ and $\Sigma(p)$ does not meet M . Then evidently x is not less than p . Therefore x is not less than $\inf_{\lambda} p_{\lambda}$. This completes the proof.

DEFINITION 3. Let a be an element of L . A prime element p of L is said to be a *minimal prime belonging to a* , if (1) $p \geq a$ and (2) there exists no prime element p' such that $a \leq p' < p$.

Let p be a prime element such that $p \geq a$. Then it is proved that the set of the primes which are in the closed interval $[a, p]$ is inductive for downwards; that is, for every descending chain C consisting of primes in $[a, p]$, $\inf C$ is a prime in $[a, p]$. Hence Zorn's lemma assures the existence of a minimal prime belonging to a which is less than p . Therefore we obtain the following

Corollary. For every element a of L , $\text{rad}(a)$ is the meet of the minimal primes belonging to a .

For radicals we can prove the following

Lemma 4. (1°) $a \leq \text{rad}(a)$, (2°) $a \leq b$ implies $\text{rad}(a) \leq \text{rad}(b)$, (3°) $\text{rad}(\text{rad}(a)) = \text{rad}(a)$, (4°) $\text{rad}(a \cap b) = \text{rad}(a) \cap \text{rad}(b) = \text{rad}(ab)$.

3. Elements with right primary decompositions

DEFINITION 4. An element q of L is said to be (*right*) *primary*, if whenever $xy \leq q$ and $y \not\leq \text{rad}(q)$ for x, y in Σ , then $x \leq q$.

It is easy to see that q is primary if and only if $ab \leq q$ and $b \not\leq \text{rad}(q)$ imply $a \leq q$ for a, b in L .

Lemma 5. An element q of L is primary if and only if $\Sigma(\text{rad}(q))$ contains $P'(q)$.

Proof. This is immediate.

Lemma 6. If q_1, \dots, q_n is a finite number of primary elements with the same radicals, say $\text{rad}(q_i) = c$ ($i=1, \dots, n$), then $q = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n$ is primary and has the radical c .

Proof. It is evident that $\text{rad}(q) = c$ by the property (4°) in Lemma 4. In order to prove that q is primary, we suppose that $xy \leq q$ and $y \not\leq \text{rad}(q) = c$. Then $xy \leq q_i$ and $y \not\leq \text{rad}(q_i)$; hence $x \leq q_i$ for $i=1, \dots, n$. We obtain therefore $x \leq q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n = q$, completing the proof.

Lemma 7. Let $a = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n$ be an irredundant decomposition of a into

a finite number of primary elements q_i . If $\text{rad}(q_i) \neq \text{rad}(q_k)$ for some i and k , a is not primary.

Proof. Put $t_j = q_1 \cap \cdots \cap_{j-1} q_{j-1} \cap q_{j+1} \cap \cdots \cap q_n$. Then $t_j q_j \leq a$. Since $t_j \not\leq a$, we have $q_j \leq \text{rad}(a) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n \text{rad}(q_i)$. Hence $\text{rad}(q_j) \leq \bigcap_{i=1}^n \text{rad}(q_i)$ for $j=1, \dots, n$. We obtain therefore $\text{rad}(q_1) = \cdots = \text{rad}(q_n)$, a contradiction.

DEFINITION 5. An irredundant decomposition

$$a = q_1 \cap \cdots \cap q_n \quad (*)$$

of a into primary elements q_i is called a *short decomposition* of a , if none of the meets of two (or more) of q_1, \dots, q_n are primary.

Theorem 2. *If an element a of L can be decomposed as a meet of a finite number of primary elements, a has a short decomposition. In any two short decompositions of a , the number of primary components as well as their radicals are necessarily the same.*

Proof. By Lemmas 6 and 7, a has a short decomposition. Now, let $(*)$ and $a = q_1^* \cap \cdots \cap q_m^*$ be any two short decompositions of a . Take a maximal element in the po -set $\{\text{rad}(q_1), \dots, \text{rad}(q_n), \text{rad}(q_1^*), \dots, \text{rad}(q_m^*)\}$. We may suppose, without loss of generality, that the maximal element is $\text{rad}(q_1)$. We now show that $\text{rad}(q_1)$ occurs among $\text{rad}(q_k^*)$, $k=1, \dots, m$. Assume that $\text{rad}(q_1) \neq \text{rad}(q_k^*)$ for all k . Then we have that $q_1 \not\leq \text{rad}(q_k^*)$ for all k . Because, if contrary, we have a contradiction by using (2°) , (3°) in Lemma 4 and the maximality of $\text{rad}(q_1)$. On the other hand it is easily verified that $q_i/q_1 = q_i$ for $i \neq 1$, and $q_k^*/q_1 = q_k^*$ for $k=1, \dots, m$. Hence we obtain that $a = q_1^* \cap \cdots \cap q_m^* = (q_1^*/q_1) \cap \cdots \cap (q_m^*/q_1) = (q_1/q_1) \cap (q_2/q_1) \cap \cdots \cap (q_n/q_1) = e \cap q_2 \cap \cdots \cap q_n = q_2 \cap \cdots \cap q_n$, which is a contradiction. We can now suppose, without loss of generality, that $\text{rad}(q_1) = \text{rad}(q_1^*)$, and make

$$(q_2/q_1) \cap \cdots \cap (q_n/q_1) = (q_1^*/q_1) \cap \cdots \cap (q_m^*/q_1) \quad (\alpha).$$

Then since $q_1 \not\leq \text{rad}(q_i)$ for $i \neq 1$, and $q_1 \not\leq \text{rad}(q_k^*)$ for $k \neq 1$, we have $q_i/q_1 = q_i$ ($i \neq 1$), and $q_k^*/q_1 = q_k^*$ ($k \neq 1$). Hence by (α) we have $q_2 \cap \cdots \cap q_n = (q_1^*/q_1) \cap q_2^* \cap \cdots \cap q_m^*$, and have

$$(q_2/q_1^*) \cap \cdots \cap (q_n/q_1^*) = ((q_1^*/q_1)/q_1^*) \cap (q_2^*/q_1^*) \cap \cdots \cap (q_m^*/q_1^*) \quad (\beta).$$

Since it is easily verified that $q_1^* \not\leq \text{rad}(q_i)$ for $i \neq 1$, and $q_1^* \not\leq \text{rad}(q_k^*)$ for $k \neq 1$, and since $q_1^*/q_1 \geq q_1^*$, we have $q_i/q_1^* = q_i$ for $i \neq 1$; $q_k^*/q_1^* = q_k^*$ for $k \neq 1$ and $(q_1^*/q_1)/q_1^* = e$. Hence by (β) , we have

$$q_2 \cap \cdots \cap q_n = q_2^* \cap \cdots \cap q_m^* \quad (\gamma).$$

Continuing an exactly similar argument for (γ) , we attain after a finite number of steps that $m=n$, and $\text{rad}(q_i)=\text{rad}(q_i^*)$ for $i=1, \dots, m=n$.

4. Isolated components of elements

DEFINITION 6. A subset N of Σ is called a (right) M - ν -system, if (1) N contains a μ -system M and (2) for every element u of N and every element x of M there exists an element z of N such that $z \leq ux$. If M is void, the only M - ν -system is, by definition, the void set itself.

Let a be an element of L and M a μ -system which does not meet $\Sigma(a)$. Then it is easily verified that the set-union N^* of all M - ν -systems, each of which does not meet $\Sigma(a)$, is the unique maximal M - ν -system which does not meet $\Sigma(a)$. N^* is uniquely determined by a and M .

Lemma 8. *Let $a (\neq e)$ be an element of L , M a μ -system, and N an M - ν -system. If $\Sigma(a)$ does not meet N , there exists an element q which is maximal in the set consisting of the elements c such that $c \geq a$ and $\Sigma(c)$ does not meet N , and $P(q)$ contains M .*

Proof. Since L is compactly generated, we can prove, by using Zorn's lemma, the existence of q mentioned in the first part of the lemma. In order to prove the last part of the lemma, it is sufficient to show that $q/x > q$ implies $x \notin M$. Take an element y of Σ such that $y \leq q/x$ and $y \not\leq q$. Then, since $q < q \cup y$, we can take an element v of N such that $v \leq q \cup y$. Hence we have that $vx \leq (q \cup y)x = qx \cup yx \leq q$. If we suppose that $x \in M$, we can choose an element z of N such that $z \leq vx$. Hence $z \leq q$, that is, $\Sigma(q)$ meets N , which is a contradiction.

Lemma 9. *Suppose that $M \neq \phi$, $a \neq e$. Then $\Sigma'(a)$ forms an M - ν -system if and only if $P(a)$ contains M .*

Proof. First we suppose that $\Sigma'(a)$ is an M - ν -system. If $P(a)$ does not contain M , we can take an element y such that $y \in M$ and $y \in P'(a)$. Since $a < a/y$, there exists an element x of Σ such that $x \leq a/y$ and $x \not\leq a$. Then we have that $z \leq a$ for every element z of Σ satisfying $z \leq xy$. On the other hand, since $\Sigma'(a)$ is an M - ν -system, there exists an element u of Σ such that $u \leq xy$ and $u \not\leq a$. This is a contradiction. Next, we suppose that $a \neq e$ and $P(a)$ contains M . Then, since $P(a)$ is contained in $\Sigma'(a)$, we have $u \not\leq a = a/x$ for any u of $\Sigma'(a)$ and x of M . Hence ux is not less than a . Therefore we can take an element z of Σ such that $z \leq ux$ and $z \not\leq a$. This shows that $\Sigma'(a)$ is an M - ν -system.

Lemma 10. *Let $a (\neq e)$ be an element of L , let $M (\neq \phi)$ be a μ -system such that it does not meet $\Sigma(a)$, let N^* be the unique maximal M - ν -system which does*

not meet $\Sigma(a)$, and let $S(a, M)$ be the set of the elements s of L having the properties that $s \geq a$ and $P(s)$ contains M . Then the join of the complement of N^* in Σ , say $\sup(\Sigma \setminus N^*)$, is a minimal element in $S(a, M)$.

Proof. By Lemma 8, there exists a maximal element q such that $q \geq a$ and $\Sigma(q)$ does not meet N^* , and $P(q)$ contains M . Since $\Sigma'(q)$ contains $P(q)$, it forms an M - ν -system by the "if part" of Lemma 9. Obviously $\Sigma'(q)$ contains N^* . Hence $\Sigma'(q) = N^*$ by the maximality of N^* . Hence $\Sigma(q) = \Sigma \setminus N^*$. Therefore we have that $q = \sup \Sigma(q) = \sup(\Sigma \setminus N^*)$. It remains to prove that $P(c)$ does not contain M for every c such that $q > c \geq a$. If we suppose that $P(c)$ contains M , then $\Sigma'(c)$ is an M - ν -system by Lemma 9, and meets $\Sigma(a)$. Hence we can find an element u of Σ such that u is less than a and not less than c , a contradiction.

Lemma 11. Suppose that a, M, N^* and $S(a, M)$ are the same as in Lemma 10. If q is a minimal element in $S(a, M)$ and $q \neq e$ then $q = \sup(\Sigma \setminus N^*)$.

Proof. By Lemma 9, $\Sigma'(q)$ is an M - ν -system, and it is evident that $\Sigma'(q)$ does not meet $\Sigma(a)$. By using Lemma 10, we have that $a \leq \sup(\Sigma^* \setminus N) \equiv q'$, and q' is a minimal element such that $\Sigma(q')$ contains M . Then, since $\Sigma'(q)$ is contained in N^* , we have that $q = \sup \Sigma(q) \geq \sup(\Sigma \setminus N^*) = q'$. Therefore we obtain $q = q'$ by the minimality of q .

DEFINITION 7. Let a be an element of L , and let M be a μ -system which does not meet $\Sigma(a)$. A (right) upper M -component of a is the join of all elements x of Σ such that every M - ν -system which contains x meets $\Sigma(a)$. The upper M -component of a will be denoted by $u(a, M)$.

Theorem 3. Let a be an element of L , $M (\neq \phi)$ a μ -system which does not meet $\Sigma(a)$, and N^* the unique maximal M - ν -system which does not meet $\Sigma(a)$. If $S(a, M)$ contains an element $\neq e$, then

$$u(a, M) = \inf(S(a, M)) = \sup(\Sigma \setminus N^*).$$

Proof. For simplicity, we put $q = \inf(S(a, M))$. First, we shall prove that $q = \sup(\Sigma \setminus N^*)$. Since $q/x = \inf_{s \in S(a, M)} \{s/x\} = \inf_{s \in S(a, M)} \{s\} = \inf(S(a, M)) = q$ for every element x of M , $P(q)$ contains M . Hence, by Lemma 11 we obtain $q = \sup(\Sigma \setminus N^*)$. Next we prove that $u(a, M) = q$. Evidently every element of $\Sigma(q)$ is not contained in N^* . Since N^* is the unique maximal M - ν -system which does not meet $\Sigma(a)$, every M - ν -system which contains x of $\Sigma(q)$ meets $\Sigma(a)$, that is, x is less than $u(a, M)$. This implies that $q \leq u(a, M)$. Let x be any element of $\{x \in \Sigma \mid x \in N(M\text{-}\nu\text{-system}) \Rightarrow N \cap \Sigma(a) \text{ is not void}\}$. Then evidently x is not contained in N^* . Hence x is less than $\sup(\Sigma \setminus N^*) = q$. Therefore we have $u(a, M) \leq q$, completing the proof.

Corollary 1. *Let a, b be two elements of L such that $a \geq b$, and let M be a μ -system which does not meet $\Sigma(a)$. Then $u(a, M) \geq u(b, M)$.*

Proof. Since $S(b, M)$ contains $S(a, M)$, this is immediate by Theorem 3.

Corollary 2. *Let a be an element of L , and let M_1, M_2 be two μ -systems such that M_1 contains M_2 , and M_1 does not meet $\Sigma(a)$. Then $u(a, M_1) \geq u(a, M_2)$.*

Proof. Let N_i^* be the maximal M_i - ν -systems ($i=1, 2$), each of which does not meet $\Sigma(a)$. Then it is easy to see that N_1^* is contained in N_2^* . Therefore we obtain that $u(a, M_1) = \sup(\Sigma \setminus N_1^*) \geq \sup(\Sigma \setminus N_2^*) = u(a, M_2)$.

DEFINITION 8. Let p be a prime element such that $p \geq a$, and let $M = \Sigma'(p)$. $u(a, M)$ is called a (right) upper isolated p -component of a , and denoted by $u(a, p)$.

Suppose that $(*)$ in §3 is a decomposition of a into primary elements q_i , and suppose that each $\Sigma'(\text{rad}(q_i))$ contains the unique maximal μ -system M_i , $i=1, \dots, n$. If p is a prime element such that $M_1 \supseteq \Sigma'(p), \dots, M_s \supseteq \Sigma'(p), M_{s+1} \not\supseteq \Sigma'(p), \dots, M_n \not\supseteq \Sigma'(p)$, then $u(a, p) = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_s$. Because, for $i=1, \dots, s$, we have $u(a, p) \leq u(a, M_i)$ by Corollary 2 to Theorem 3. Now by Lemma 5, we have $P(q_i) \supseteq \Sigma'(\text{rad}(q_i))$. Hence $P(q_i)$ contains M_i . Hence we have, by Theorem 3, $u(a, M_i) \leq q_i$. Therefore $u(a, p) \leq q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_s$. If $s=n$, we obtain $a \leq u(a, p) \leq q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n = a$, $u(a, p) = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n$. If $s < n$, then, since $\Sigma'(p)$ is not contained in $\Sigma'(\text{rad}(q_j))$, we have $\text{rad}(q_j) \not\leq p$, and have $q_j \not\leq p$ for $j > s$ (by Theorem 1). Hence we can take elements x_j such that $x_j \leq q_j$ and $x_j \in \Sigma'(p)$, $j=s+1, \dots, n$. Since $\Sigma'(p)$ is a μ -system, there exists a finite number of elements y_j in $\Sigma'(p)$ such that $y_{s+1} \leq x_{s+1} \cdot x_{s+2}$, $y_{s+2} \leq y_{s+1} \cdot x_{s+3}$, \dots , $y_{n-1} \leq y_{n-2} \cdot x_n$. Then we have $y_{n-1} \leq (\dots((x_{s+1} \cdot x_{s+2})x_{s+3})\dots)x_n \leq q_{s+1} \cap \dots \cap q_n$. Let z be an arbitrary element of Σ such that $z \leq q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_s$. Then we obtain $zy_{n-1} \leq (q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_s) \cap (q_{s+1} \cap \dots \cap q_n) = a$. Now, take any $\Sigma'(p)$ - ν -system N containing z . Then there exists an element v of N such that $v \leq zy_{n-1}$. Since $v \leq a$, N meets $\Sigma(a)$. Hence we have $z \leq u(a, p)$, $q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_s \leq u(a, p)$. Therefore we obtain $q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_s = u(a, p)$, completing the proof.

5. Ascending chain condition, Condition (N)

We shall assume, throughout this section, that the ascending chain condition (a. c. c.) holds for elements of L .

Lemma 12. *Every element of L has a finite number of minimal primes belonging to it.*

Proof. Let c be an element of L . If c is prime, the lemma is trivially evident. Suppose now that c is not prime. If there exists an infinite number

of minimal primes p_λ belonging to c , then, since $a_1 \not\leq c$, $b_1 \not\leq c$ and $a_1 b_1 \leq c$ for suitable elements a_1, b_1 of L , a_1 or b_1 is less than p_λ for an infinite number of p_λ . Suppose that it is a_1 , and put $c_1 = c \cup a_1$. Then evidently $c < c_1$ and $c_1 \leq p_\lambda$. c_1 is not prime. Hence c_1 has the same property as that of c . Continuing in this way, we obtain an ascending chain $c < c_1 < c_2 < \dots$, which is a contradiction.

Lemma 13. *Let p_1, \dots, p_n be the minimal primes belonging to an element c of L . Then there exists a product $\mathfrak{P}(p_{i_1}, \dots, p_{i_m})$ which is less than c , where \mathfrak{P} denote a product-form of some type of weight m , and i_1, \dots, i_m is some finite permutation of $1, \dots, n$ with repetitions allowed.*

Proof. The lemma is evident if c is prime. Suppose that c is not prime. Then there exist two elements x and y of Σ such that $x \not\leq c$, $y \not\leq c$ and $xy \leq c$. Put $a_1 = c \cup x$ and $b_1 = c \cup y$. Then $c < a_1$ and $c < b_1$. Now, let p'_1, \dots, p'_r and p''_1, \dots, p''_s be the minimal primes belonging to a_1 and b_1 respectively. If we suppose that both a_1 and b_1 have the same property that we wish to prove of c , so that $\mathfrak{P}'(p'_{j_1}, \dots, p'_{j_\lambda}) \leq a_1$ and $\mathfrak{P}''(p''_{k_1}, \dots, p''_{k_\mu}) \leq b_1$, then, since $a_1 b_1 = (c \cup x) \cdot (c \cup y) \leq c \cup xy = c$, we have $\mathfrak{P}'(p'_{j_1}, \dots, p'_{j_\lambda}) \cdot \mathfrak{P}''(p''_{k_1}, \dots, p''_{k_\mu}) \leq c$. The interval $[c, p'_{j_\rho}]$ contains a minimal prime belonging to c , $\rho = 1, \dots, \lambda$, and similarly for $[c, p''_{k_\sigma}]$, $\sigma = 1, \dots, \mu$. Hence we have $\mathfrak{P}(p_{i_1}, \dots, p_{i_m}) \leq c$, where p_{i_1}, \dots, p_{i_m} are minimal primes belonging to c , and $\mathfrak{P} = \mathfrak{P}' \cdot \mathfrak{P}''$. Hence, if the lemma is false for c , it is false for a_1 or for b_1 . Continuing in this way, we attain a contradiction of the a. c. c.

DEFINITION 9. A product-form $\mathfrak{Q}(X_1, \dots, X_m) = (\dots((X_1 X_2) X_3) \dots) X_m$ is called that it has a (right) nested type of weight m , where X_i are indeterminates over L .

We now consider the following condition:

(N) *For every product-form \mathfrak{P} of weight n , and for every elements c_1, \dots, c_n (repetitions allowed) of L , there exists a product-form \mathfrak{Q} with nested type of weight m such that*

$$\mathfrak{Q}(c_{i_1}, \dots, c_{i_m}) \leq \mathfrak{P}(c_1, \dots, c_n),$$

where $i_1 \leq \dots \leq i_m$.

If L is associative, the condition (N) is satisfied trivially. But there are important examples which are compactly generated non-associative multiplicative lattices satisfying the condition (N), which will be shown in the last section of this paper.

Lemma 14. *Suppose that the condition (N) holds for L . Then, for every element a ($\neq e$) of L , there exists a minimal prime p of a such that $a/p > a$.*

Proof. If a is prime, the lemma is trivially evident. Suppose that a is not

prime. Then by Lemma 13 and the condition (N), there exist minimal primes p_1, \dots, p_m (not necessarily distinct) belonging to a and a product form Ω of nested type such that $\Omega(p_1, \dots, p_m) \leq a$. It is then easy to see that $m > 1$, and that there exists p_i such that $a/p_i > a$. This completes the proof.

Behrens showed in [2] that the radicals of primary ideals in non-associative rings are not necessarily prime. He gave two examples in that paper. Each of those examples is a commutative algebra with some finite base over a field. It is now easily verified that the ideals in each of the algebras is a compactly generated multiplicative lattice. Accordingly, those examples assure the existence of the lattices in which the radicals of primary elements are not prime. Now we have the following

Theorem 4. *Suppose that the condition (N) holds for L . Then the radical of every primary element is prime.*

Proof. Let q be a primary element of L . If $q=e$, the theorem is evident. We suppose that $q < e$. Then by Lemma 14, we can find a minimal prime p belonging to q such that $x_z \cdot z \leq q$ and $x_z \not\leq q$ for an arbitrary element z of $\Sigma(p)$ and a suitable element x_z of Σ . Hence $z \leq \text{rad}(q)$, and hence $p \leq \text{rad}(q)$. On the other hand, since $\text{rad}(q) \leq p$ by Theorem 1, we obtain $\text{rad}(q)=p$, as desired.

REMARK. Under the condition (N) for L , we can show that if $\text{rad}(c)=p$ is prime for an element $c (\neq e)$, then $c/p > c$. Because, the assertion is trivially evident if $p=c$. Hence we can suppose that $p > c$. Then by Lemma 13 and the condition (N), there exists a nested product Ω of p such that $\Omega \equiv \Omega' p \leq c$. If we suppose that $c/p=c$, then $\Omega' \equiv \Omega'' p \leq c$. Continuing in this way, we obtain $p=c$, which is a contradiction.

Theorem 5. *Suppose that (*) (in §3) is a decomposition of a into primary elements q_i with prime radicals p_i . Then the minimal primes belonging to a coincide with the minimal elements in the po-set $\{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$.*

Proof. By Lemma 13, we have that $\mathfrak{P}^{(i)}(p_i) \equiv \mathfrak{P}^{(i)}(p_i, \dots, p_i) \leq q_i$ for suitable product-forms $\mathfrak{P}^{(i)}$, $i=1, \dots, n$. Hence, for any product-form of n -th weight, we obtain $\mathfrak{P}(\mathfrak{P}^{(1)}(p_1), \dots, \mathfrak{P}^{(n)}(p_n)) \leq \mathfrak{P}(q_1, \dots, q_n) \leq q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n = a$. This implies the existence of p_i such that $p_i \leq p$ for any prime p satisfying $p \geq a$. In particular, any minimal prime belonging to a coincides with some p_i , and there is no p_j such that $p_j < p_i$. Conversely, let p_i be any minimal element in the po-set $\{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$. If p is a prime element contained in $[a, p_i]$, we can show, similarly as above, the existence of a prime element p_k such that $p_k \leq p$. We obtain therefore $p_k \leq p_i$, $p_k=p_i$, completing the proof.

The following theorem have been established by the last part of §4.

Theorem 6. *Suppose that (*) is a decomposition of a into primary elements*

q_i with prime radicals p_i . If $p(\neq e)$ is a prime element such that $p_1 \leq p, \dots, p_s \leq p$, $p_{s+1} \not\leq p, \dots, p_n \not\leq p$, then

$$u(a, p) = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_s.$$

Theorem 7. Suppose that (*) is a short decomposition of a into primary elements q_i with prime radicals p_i . If p is any minimal prime element belonging to a then $u(a, p) = q_i$ for some i , and $u(a, p)$ is primary.

Proof. By Theorem 5, we have $p = p_i$ for some i . Since there exists no j such that $p_j \leq p$ ($j \neq i$), we obtain $u(a, p) = q_i$ by Theorem 6.

REMARK. If $p = e$ in Theorem 7, a is primary such as $\text{rad}(a) = e$.

Corollary 1. Suppose that (*) is a short decomposition of a , and let p_1, \dots, p_s be the minimal primes belonging to a ($i=1, \dots, s$). Then

$$a = u(a, p_1) \cap \dots \cap u(a, p_s) \cap q_{s+1} \cap \dots \cap q_n.$$

Corollary 2. Suppose that a has a decomposition into primary elements with prime radicals. If p_1, \dots, p_s are the minimal primes belonging to a , then $u(a, p_1), \dots, u(a, p_s)$ are primary.

Proof. This is immediate by Theorems 2, 5 and 7.

Now let V be a compactly generated lattice with compact generator system Σ . If Σ is a join-semi-lattice, Σ is said to be join-closed. Let Σ be any compact generator system of V . Then it can be proved that the join-semi-lattice Σ' generated by Σ satisfies the conditions (1) and (2) in §1. Hence Σ' is a join-closed compact generator system of V .

In the rest of this section we suppose that Σ is join-closed. Then it is easy to see by the a.c.c. that Σ coincides with L . But it is convenient to remain the symbol Σ .

Lemma 15. Let p_1, \dots, p_n be a finite number of prime elements of a compactly generated multiplicative lattice with a join-closed compact generator system. If $\Sigma(a)$ is contained in the set-union $\bigvee_{i=1}^n \Sigma(p_i)$, there exists p_i such that $p_i \geq a$.

Proof. If $n=1$, the lemma is trivially evident. If $n=2$, then $\Sigma(a)$ is contained in $\Sigma(p_1) \vee \Sigma(p_2)$. Suppose that $a \not\leq p_1$ and $a \not\leq p_2$. Then we can take z_i of Σ such that $z_i \leq a$, $z_i \leq p_i$ ($i=1, 2$), $z_1 \not\leq p_2$ and $z_2 \not\leq p_1$. Since $z_1 \cup z_2$ is less than a , $\Sigma(z_1 \cup z_2)$ is contained in $\Sigma(p_1)$ or $\Sigma(p_2)$. This implies $z_2 \leq p_1$ or $z_1 \leq p_2$, which is a contradiction. If $n \geq 3$, we can assume, no loss of generality, that $\Sigma(a)$ is contained in $\bigvee_{i=1}^m \Sigma(p_i)$ ($m \leq n$), and not contained in $\bigvee_{i=1}^{k-1} \Sigma(p_i) \vee \bigvee_{i=k+1}^m \Sigma(p_i)$ for every $k=2, \dots, m-1$. Then we can take elements z_k of Σ such that $z_k \leq a$, $z_k \leq p_k$ and $z_k \not\leq p_i$ for $i \neq k$; $i, k=1, \dots, m$. Since z_2, \dots, z_m are contained in a μ -system $\Sigma'(p_1)$, we can find a finite number of elements

v_1, \dots, v_{m-2} of $\Sigma'(p_1)$ such that $v_1 \leq z_2 z_3, v_2 \leq v_1 z_4, \dots, v_{m-2} \leq v_{m-3} z_m$. Then we have $v^{(1)} \equiv v_{m-2} \leq ((\dots((z_2 \cdot z_3) z_4) \dots) z_{m-1}) z_m \leq p_j$ for $j=2, \dots, m$, and $v^{(1)} \not\leq p_1$. Similarly, we can find $v^{(i)}$ of $\Sigma'(p_i)$ such that $v^{(i)} \leq p_j$ ($j \neq i$) and $v^{(i)} \not\leq p_i$ for $i=2, \dots, m$. Now let $v \equiv v^{(1)} \cup \dots \cup v^{(m)}$. Then, since Σ is closed under finite join operation, v is contained in $\Sigma(a)$. Hence we have $v \leq p_i$ for a suitable prime p_i . This implies $v^{(i)} \leq p_i$, which is a contradiction. This completes the proof.

Theorem 8. *Suppose that (*) is a short decomposition of a with prime radicals, and let p be a prime element such that $a \leq p \neq e$. Then $p = \text{rad}(q_i)$ for some q_i , if and only if $u(a, p)/p > u(a, p)$.*

Proof. We have, by Theorem 6, $u(a, p) = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_k$, where q_1, \dots, q_k are those whose radicals p_i are less than p . This is a short decomposition of $u(a, p)$, and p is one of p_1, \dots, p_k . Since an element x of $\Sigma = L$ is contained in $P'(u(a, p))$ if and only if $x \leq p$, we have $u(a, p)/p > u(a, p)$. Conversely, let $u(a, p)/p > u(a, p)$. Then the minimal primes of a are the minimal elements in the po -set $\{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$. Hence $p_i \leq p$ for some p_i . We let p_1, \dots, p_k be the primes such that $p_i \leq p$ ($i=1, \dots, k$). Then $u(a, p) = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_k$, $\text{rad}(q_i) = p_i$, and that is a short decomposition of $u(a, p)$. Now by the assumption $\Sigma(p)$ is contained in $P'(u(a, p)) = \bigvee_{i=1}^k \Sigma(p_i)$. Hence, we have by Lemma 15 $p \leq p_i$ for a suitable p_i ($1 \leq i \leq k$). We obtain therefore $p = p_i$.

6. Artin-Rees property

In this section, we let L be a compactly generated integral multiplicative lattice with the compact generator system Σ .

DEFINITION 10. L is said to have the (right) weak Artin-Rees property, if for any a in L and any x in Σ , there exists a product \mathfrak{P} of x such that $a \cap \mathfrak{P} \leq ax$.

Theorem 9. *Suppose that the a.c.c. holds for elements of L . If every element of L may be decomposed into a meet of a finite number of primary elements, then the weak Artin-Rees property holds for L .*

Proof. Let $a \in L$, and $x \in \Sigma$, and suppose that $ax = q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_n$ is a primary decomposition of ax . If $a \leq q_i$ for every $i=1, \dots, n$, we have that $a \cap x \leq a = ax$. Hence we can suppose that $a \not\leq q_i$ for $i=1, \dots, m$, where $1 \leq m \leq n$. Then $ax = a \cap q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_m$. Since there exists an element u of Σ such that $ux \leq q_i$ and $u \not\leq q_i$ ($1 \leq i \leq m$), we obtain $x \leq \text{rad}(q_i)$ ($1 \leq i \leq m$). Hence we have that $\mathfrak{P}_i \equiv \mathfrak{P}_i(x, \dots, x) \leq q_i$ for suitable product-forms \mathfrak{P}_i ($1 \leq i \leq m$). Hence $\mathfrak{P}' \equiv (\dots((\mathfrak{P}_1 \cdot \mathfrak{P}_2) \mathfrak{P}_3) \dots) \mathfrak{P}_m \leq q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_m$. Therefore we obtain $a \cap \mathfrak{P}' \leq a \cap q_1 \cap \dots \cap q_m = ax$, completing the proof.

Let Σ^* be the multiplicative monoid generated by Σ .

DEFINITION 11. L is called a *strictly upper semi-modular lattice related to Σ^** , if the relations $a \cap u < b < a < a \cup u$ hold for $a, b \in L$, and $u \in \Sigma^*$, then there exists an element c of L such that $a \cap u < c \leq u$ and $(c \cup b) \cap a = b$.

This is a modification of the semi-modular lattice defined in [19, §45].

Lemma 16. *Let L be a strictly upper semi-modular lattice related to Σ^* , and let q be an irreducible element of L . If $q \cap u = a \cap u$ and $q < a$ for $a \in L, u \in \Sigma^*$, then $u \leq q$.*

Proof. Put $b = (q \cup u) \cap a$. Then $q \leq b$. If $b = q$, then since $q = (q \cup u) \cap a$ and $q < a$, we have $q = q \cup u, u \leq q$. Next we suppose that $q < b$. Now we have that $a \cap u \leq q < a \leq a \cup u$. If $a = a \cup u$, then $u \leq a, u = a \cap u = q \cap u$. This implies $u \leq q$. If $a \cap u = q$, then $q \cap u = q, q \leq u$. This implies $q \cup u = u$. Hence we have $b = a \cap u = q \cap u = q$, a contradiction. Now it remains to consider the case of $a \cap u < q < a < a \cup u$. Then there exists an element c of L such that $a \cap u < c \leq u$ and $q = (q \cup c) \cap a$. Since q is irreducible, we have $q = q \cup c$. Hence $c \leq q < a, c \leq a \cap u$. This contradicts $a \cap u < c$.

Lemma 17. *A non-void μ -system M meets $\Sigma(\mathfrak{P}(x, \dots, x))$ for every element $x \in M$ and every product-form \mathfrak{P} .*

Proof. The proof will be given by induction with respect to the weight m of \mathfrak{P} . If $m=1$, the lemma is evident. We suppose that the lemma has been proved for \mathfrak{P}' with any weight $m' < m$. Now \mathfrak{P} is expressible as $\mathfrak{P} = \mathfrak{P}_1 \cdot \mathfrak{P}_2$. Of course the weight of \mathfrak{P}_i is strictly less than that of \mathfrak{P} . Hence by the induction hypothesis M meets $\Sigma(\mathfrak{P}_i)$; accordingly there exists u_i such that $u_i \in M$ and $u_i \leq \mathfrak{P}_i$ ($i=1, 2$). Since there exists an element u of M such that $u \leq u_1 u_2$, M meets $\Sigma(\mathfrak{P})$, as desired.

Theorem 10. *Let L be a strictly upper semi-modular lattice related to Σ^* , and suppose that the a. c. c. holds for elements of L . If the weak Artin-Rees property holds for L , every element of L is decomposed into a meet of a finite number of primary elements.*

Proof. Since L satisfies the a. c. c., it is sufficient to show that every irreducible element of L is primary. Suppose that q is irreducible, and let $xy \leq q$ but $x \not\leq q$ for two elements x, y in Σ . Put $a = x \cup q$. Then $a > q$ and $ay = (x \cup q)y = xy \cup qy \leq q$. Now let $\mathfrak{P} \equiv \mathfrak{P}(y, \dots, y)$ be a product of y such that $a \cap \mathfrak{P} \leq ay \leq q$. Then we have $a \cap \mathfrak{P} \leq q \cap \mathfrak{P}$. Hence $a \cap \mathfrak{P} = q \cap \mathfrak{P}$. Since $q < a$, we have by Lemma 16 $\mathfrak{P} \leq q$. Next, we let M be an arbitrary μ -system containing y . Then by Lemma 17 $M \wedge \Sigma(\mathfrak{P})$ is not void. Since $\mathfrak{P} \leq q$, we have that $M \wedge \Sigma(\mathfrak{P}) \subseteq M \wedge \Sigma(q)$. Therefore M meets $\Sigma(q)$, that is, $y \leq \text{rad}(q)$, as desired.

7. Applications

[1] Let R be a non-associative (not necessarily) ring with or without unity quantity. The word “ideals” will mean always “two-sided ideals” of R . Ideals of R will be denoted by A, B, P, Q, \dots . For an element x of R , (x) will denote the principal ideal generated by x . (x) consists of the elements u such of that $u = \Sigma \mathfrak{P}(\dots, x, \dots)$, where $\mathfrak{P}(\dots, x, \dots)$ is a product with x as its factor, and Σ is a finite sum.

Now it can be proved that the set of all ideals of R forms a compactly generated integral multiplicative lattice with the compact generator system consisting of the principal ideals. The results in the preceding sections are accordingly applicable to the ideals of R .

Throughout [1], there is a complete parallelism between the theory of right-side and that of left-side. We shall therefore state the results for right-side only.

For any two ideals A and B , the (right) quotient A by B , denoted by A/B , is the set of the elements u in R such that $(u)B \subseteq A$ (Cf. [2], [8]). Then A/B is an ideal of R , and it can be proved easily that A/B coincides with the set-union of all the principal ideals (u) such that $(u)B \subseteq A$. An element x of R is said to be (*right*) *related* an ideal A , if and only if $A/(x)$ contains A properly. Otherwise x is said to be (*right*) *unrelated* to A . It is then easily seen that if x is related to A , every element in (x) is also related to A .

A family \mathfrak{M} of principal ideals of R is called a μ -system, if there exists (z) of \mathfrak{M} such that $(z) \subseteq (x)(y)$ for any two principal ideals (x) and (y) in \mathfrak{M} . The void set is also defined to be a μ -system. Let P be a prime ideal of R (Cf. [2]). It is then easily verified that the family of principal ideals $\mathfrak{M}_P = \{(x) \mid (x) \text{ is not contained in } P\}$ forms a μ -system. Conversely, if \mathfrak{M}_P is a μ -system for an ideal P , then P is prime. Let A be an ideal of R , and let \mathfrak{M} be a μ -system which does not contain any ideal $(x) \subseteq A$. Then we can show that the existence of the (maximal) prime ideal P such that P contains A and every principal ideal in P does not contained in \mathfrak{M} (Cf. [16, §14]).

Let M be an M -system in the sense of Behrens [2]. If we make the family $\mathfrak{M} = \{(x) \mid x \in M\}$ of principal ideals, it is easily verified that \mathfrak{M} is a μ -system. But, for any μ -system \mathfrak{M} , it can not be proved in general, that the set $\{x \mid (x) \in \mathfrak{M}\}$ is an M -system in the sense of Behrens. By Definition 2, we define the radical of an ideal A , which is denoted by $\text{rad}(A)$, is the ideal generated by the set-union of principal ideals (x) with the property that every μ -system which contains (x) contains a principal ideal in A . Definition of a minimal prime ideal of an ideal is the same as in the case of an associative ring (Cf. [11]). Then by Corollary to Theorem 1, we obtain that the radical of an ideal A is the intersection of all the minimal prime ideals of A . Therefore we obtain that $\text{rad}(A)$ coincides with the Behrens' radical $\mathfrak{r}(A)$.

In order that an ideal Q of R is (right) primary (Cf. [2]) it is necessary and sufficient that every element which is (right) related to Q is contained in $\mathfrak{r}(Q)$. Irredundant decomposition of an ideal of R is defined as usual. Let

$$A = Q_1 \cap \cdots \cap Q_n \quad (*)$$

be an irredundant decomposition of an ideal A into primary components Q_i .

The representation $(*)$ of A is called a short decomposition of A , if none of the meets of two (or more) of Q_1, \dots, Q_n are primary. By Theorem 2, we obtain the following statement.

1) *If an ideal A of R can be decomposed as an intersection of a finite number of primary ideals, A has a short decomposition. In any two short decompositions of A , the number of primary components as well as their radicals are necessarily the same.*

Let \mathfrak{M} be a non-void μ -system. A family \mathfrak{R} of principal ideals of R is called a (right) \mathfrak{M} - ν -system of R , if \mathfrak{R} contains \mathfrak{M} and if for every (u) in \mathfrak{R} and every (x) in \mathfrak{M} , there exists an ideal (z) in \mathfrak{R} such that $(z) \subseteq (u)(x)$. If \mathfrak{M} is void, the \mathfrak{M} - ν -system is also void. Let \mathfrak{M} be a μ -system such that every ideal in \mathfrak{M} is not contained in an ideal A . A (right) upper \mathfrak{M} -component of A is defined to be the ideal generated by the set-union of all the principal ideals (x) having the property that every \mathfrak{M} - ν -system which contains (x) has an ideal in A . The upper \mathfrak{M} -component of A will be denoted by $U(A, \mathfrak{M})$. Let P be a prime ideal containing A . Then the (right) upper isolated P -component of A , which is denoted by $U(A, P)$, means $U(A, \mathfrak{M})$, where $\mathfrak{M} = \{(x) \mid (x) \text{ is not contained in } P\}$. If P is a minimal prime of A , $U(A, P)$ is called an isolated (right) primary component of A . Now let $\mathfrak{M} (\neq \phi)$ be a μ -system which does not contain any ideal in A , and let \mathfrak{M}^* be the (unique) maximal \mathfrak{M} - ν -system such that every ideal in \mathfrak{M}^* is not contained in A . Then by Theorem 3 $U(A, \mathfrak{M})$ is the intersection of all the ideals B having the property that (1) B contains A and (2) $\{(x) \mid B/(x) = B\}$ contains \mathfrak{M} . Moreover $U(A, \mathfrak{M})$ is the ideal generated by the set-union of all the principal ideals, each of which is not in \mathfrak{M}^* .

A product-form $\mathfrak{Q}(X_1, \dots, X_m) = (\cdots((X_1 X_2) X_3) \cdots) X_m$ is called that it has a (right) nested type of weight m , where X_i are indeterminates over the ideal- m -lattice of R .

A non-associative ring R is called here an (N)-ring if it satisfies the following condition:

(N) *For every product-form \mathfrak{P} of weight n , and for every ideals A_1, \dots, A_n (repetitions allowed) of R , there exists a product-form \mathfrak{Q} with nested type of weight m such that*

$$\mathfrak{Q}(A_{i_1}, \dots, A_{i_m}) \subseteq \mathfrak{P}(A_1, \dots, A_n),$$

where $i_1 \leq \dots \leq i_m$.

Any associative ring is evidently an (N)-ring. Any nilpotent Lie ring is also an (N)-ring. Now we have the following statement.

2) *Suppose that the a. c. c. holds for ideals of an (N)-ring R . Then the radical of every primary ideal of R is prime.* (by Theorem 4).

We now suppose that (*) in this section is an irredundant decomposition of an ideal A of a ring R into primary ideals Q_i with prime radicals P_i . If the a. c. c. holds for ideals of R , the minimal primes belonging to A coincide with the minimal elements in the po-set $\{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$. This is the immediate consequence of Theorem 5. In particular, we obtain the following:

3) *Assume that the a. c. c. holds for ideals of an (N)-ring R . If (*) is a decomposition of an ideal A into primary ideals Q_i , the minimal primes belonging to A coincide with the minimal elements in the po-set consisting of the radicals of Q_i* (by Theorem 5).

In the rest of this paragraph, we let R be an (N)-ring with the a. c. c. for ideals of R . Then by Theorems 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 we have the followings 4)~8).

4) *Suppose that (*) is a decomposition of an ideal A of R into primary ideals Q_i with prime radicals P_i . If $P(\neq R)$ is a prime ideal such that $P_1 \subseteq P, \dots, P_s \subseteq P, P_{s+1} \not\subseteq P, \dots, P_n \not\subseteq P$, then*

$$U(A, P) = Q_1 \cap \dots \cap Q_s.$$

5) *Suppose that (*) is a short decomposition of A with (prime) radicals $P_i = \text{rad}(Q_i)$. If P is any minimal prime ideal belonging to A and $P \neq R$, then $U(A, P) = Q_i$ for some i , and $U(A, P)$ is primary.*

6) *Suppose that (*) is a short decomposition of A , and let P_1, \dots, P_s be the minimal primes belonging to A . Then*

$$A = U(A, P_1) \cap \dots \cap U(A, P_s) \cap Q_{s+1} \cap \dots \cap Q_n.$$

7) *Suppose that (*) is a short decomposition of A , and let P be a prime ideal such that $A \subseteq P \neq R$. Then $P = \text{rad}(Q_i)$ for some Q_i , if and only if $U(A, P)/P \cong (A, P)$.*

R is said to have the (right) weak Artin-Rees property, if for any ideal A and any principal ideal (x) of R , there exists a product \mathfrak{P} of (x) such that $A \cap \mathfrak{P} \subseteq A(x)$. (Cf. [8]). Then we have

8) *In order that every ideal of R is decomposed into a meet of a finite number of primary ideals, it is necessary and sufficient that the weak Artin-Rees property holds for R .*

[2] Let G be a group. The set of all normal subgroups A, B, N, \dots of G is a commutative residuated cm -lattice under commutator-product $[A, B]$ and the set-inclusion relation. The residual of A by B , which is denoted by $A:B$, is defined as the set-union of the elements $u \in G$ such that $[(u), B] \subseteq A$, where (u) is the normal subgroup generated by $u \in G$, that is, $(u) = \{\prod x_\rho^{-1} u^\rho x_\rho \mid x \in G, \rho \in Z$

(the integers)). Then it can be proved that $A:B$ is a normal subgroup of G . It is easily seen that the *cm*-lattice has the *zero element* 1 (the group identity) (Cf. [3]). Now we can show that the set of the normal subgroups of G is a compactly generated multiplicative lattice with the compact generator system consisting of normal subgroups, each of which is generated by a single element.

An element x of G is said to be *unrelated* to a normal subgroup N , if $N:(x) = N$. Otherwise, x is *related* to N . A family \mathbf{M} consisting of normal subgroups with single generators is called a μ -system, if there exists (z) of \mathbf{M} such that $(z) \subseteq [(x), (y)]$ for any two (x) and (y) of \mathbf{M} . The void set is also defined to be a μ -system. A normal subgroup P of G is said to be prime, if $[A, B] \subseteq P$ implies $A \subseteq P$ or $B \subseteq P$. Then it can be proved that P is prime if and only if $[(x), (y)] \subseteq P$ implies $(x) \subseteq P$ or $(y) \subseteq P$. If P is prime, the family $\{(x) | x \notin P\}$ forms a μ -system. Moreover a normal subgroup $P (\neq G)$ of G is prime if and only if $\{(x) | x \text{ is related to } P\}$ is a μ -system.

Let \mathbf{M} be a μ -system which does not contain (x) such that $(x) \subseteq A$. Then there exists a normal subgroup P which is maximal in the family of normal subgroups B such that $B \supseteq A$ and $(b) \notin \mathbf{M}$ for every $b \in B$. P is necessarily prime.

A *radical* of normal subgroup N of G is the normal subgroup generated by the set-union of (x) with the property that the every μ -system containing (x) contains a subgroup in N . In symbol: $\text{rad}(N)$. Minimal primes of a normal subgroup is defined in the obvious way. Then by Corollary to Theorem 1 we obtain that $\text{rad}(N)$ is the intersection of all minimal primes of N .

A normal subgroup Q of G is called *primary*, if $[(x), (y)] \subseteq Q$ and $(y) \notin \text{rad}(Q)$ imply that $(x) \subseteq Q$.

Let

$$N = Q_1 \cap \cdots \cap Q_n \quad (**)$$

be an irredundant decomposition of a normal subgroup N into primary normal subgroups Q_i . The representation (**) of N is called a short decomposition of N , if none of the meets of two (or more) of Q_1, \dots, Q_n are primary. By Theorem 2, we obtain the following statement.

1) *If a normal subgroup N of G can be decomposed as an intersection of a finite number of primary normal subgroups, then N has a short decomposition. In any two short decompositions of N , the number of primary components as well as their radicals are necessarily the same.*

Let \mathbf{M} be a non-void μ -system. A family \mathbf{N} of principal normal subgroups of G is called an \mathbf{M} - ν -system, if \mathbf{N} contains \mathbf{M} and if for every (u) in \mathbf{N} and every (x) in \mathbf{M} there exists (z) in \mathbf{N} such that $(z) \subseteq [(u), (x)]$. If \mathbf{M} is void, the \mathbf{M} - ν -system is also void. By using \mathbf{M} - ν -system, the *upper \mathbf{M} -component* $U(N, \mathbf{M})$ of N is defined in an obvious way. In particular, *upper isolated P -component* $U(N, P)$ of N is defined for any minimal prime of N . Now let \mathbf{M}

be a μ -system which does not contain a normal subgroup (of G) in N , and let N^* be the (unique) maximal M - ν -system such that every normal subgroup in N^* does not contained in N . Then by Theorem 3 $U(N, M)$ is the intersection of all the normal subgroups H having the property that (1) $H \supseteq N$ and (2) $\{(a) | H:(a)=H\} \supseteq M$. Moreover $U(N, M)$ is the normal subgroup generated by the set-union of all the normal subgroups such that each of which has a single generator and is not contained in N^* .

A product-form $\mathfrak{Q}(X_1, \dots, X_m) = (\dots((X_1 X_2) X_3) \dots) X_m$ is called here that it has a *nested* type of weight m , where X_i are the indeterminates over the m -lattice of the normal subgroups of G .

A group G is called an (N)-group if it satisfies the following condition:

(N) For every product-form \mathfrak{P} of weight n , and for every normal subgroup N_1, \dots, N_n (repetitions allowed) of G , there exists a product-form \mathfrak{Q} with nested type of weight m such that

$$\mathfrak{Q}(N_{i_1}, \dots, N_{i_m}) \subseteq \mathfrak{P}(N_1, \dots, N_n),$$

where $i_1 \leq \dots \leq i_m$.

Nilpotent groups are evidently (N)-groups.

Now we let G be an (N)-group with the a. c. c. for normal subgroups. Then by Theorems 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 we obtain the following statements:

2) The radical of any normal subgroup of G is prime.

3) If $(**)$ is an irredundant decomposition of a normal subgroup N of G into primary normal subgroups Q_i , the minimal primes belonging to N coincide with the minimal elements in the po-set consisting of the $\text{rad}(Q_i)$.

4) Suppose that $(**)$ is a decomposition of a normal subgroup N of G into primary normal subgroups Q_i with prime radicals P_i . If $P(\neq G)$ is a prime normal subgroup such that $P_1 \subseteq P, \dots, P_s \subseteq P, P_{s+1} \not\subseteq P, \dots, P_n \not\subseteq P$, then

$$U(N, P) = Q_1 \cap \dots \cap Q_s.$$

5) Suppose that $(**)$ is a short decomposition of N with (prime) radicals $P_i = \text{rad}(Q_i)$. If P is any minimal prime belonging to N and $P \neq G$, then $U(N, P) = Q_i$ for some i , and $U(N, P)$ is primary.

6) Suppose that $(**)$ is a short decomposition of N , and let P_1, \dots, P_s be the minimal primes belonging to N such that $P_i \neq G$ ($i=1, \dots, s$). Then

$$N = U(N, P_1) \cap \dots \cap U(N, P_s) \cap Q_{s+1} \cap \dots \cap Q_n.$$

7) Suppose that $(**)$ is a short decomposition of N , and let P be a prime normal subgroup such that $N \subseteq P \neq G$. Then $P = \text{rad}(Q_i)$ for some Q_i , if and only if $U(N, P) : P \cong U(N, P)$.

G is said to have the weak Artin-Rees property, if for any normal subgroup N of G and for any normal subgroup (x) with single generator x , there exists a commutator-product \mathfrak{P} of (x) such that $N \cap \mathfrak{P} \subseteq [N, (x)]$. Then we obtain

8) *In order that every normal subgroup of G is decomposed into a finite number of primary normal subgroups, it is necessary and sufficient that the weak Artin-Rees property holds for G .*

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