MULTIPLICATION IDEALS, MULTIPLICATION RINGS, AND THE RING R(X)

D. D. ANDERSON

1. Introduction. Let R be a commutative ring with an identity. An ideal A of R is called a *multiplication ideal* if for every ideal $B \subseteq A$ there exists an ideal C such that B = AC. A ring R is called a *multiplication ring* if all its ideals are multiplication ideals. A ring R is called an *almost multiplication ring* if R_M is a multiplication ring for every maximal ideal M of R. Multiplication rings and almost multiplication rings have been extensively studied—for example, see [4; 8; 9; 11; 12; 15; and 16].

In Section 2 we investigate multiplication ideals. The key result is that a multiplication ideal in a quasi-local ring is principal. Multiplication ideals are then studied outside the quasi-local case.

In Section 3 multiplication rings and almost multiplication rings are studied.

We characterize those almost multiplication rings having few zero-divisors. Finally we show that the polynomial ring R[X] is an almost multiplication ring if and only if R is von Neumann regular.

In Section 4 we consider the ring R(X). We show that R is an (almost) multiplication ring if and only if R(X) is an (almost) multiplication ring. We also show that if R is an arithmetical ring, then R(X) is a Bézout ring and that R and R(X) have isomorphic lattices of ideals. Conversely, if R and R(X) have isomorphic lattices of ideals, then R is arithmetical.

2. Multiplication ideals. W. W. Smith [17] has shown that a finitely generated multiplication ideal in a quasi-local ring is principal. Our first theorem states that every multiplication ideal in a quasi-local ring is principal.

THEOREM 1. In a quasi-local ring every multiplication ideal is principal.

Proof. Let (R, M) be a quasi-local ring and A a multiplication ideal in R. Suppose that $A = \sum (x_{\alpha})$. Then $(x_{\alpha}) = AL_{\alpha}$ for some ideal L_{α} since A is a multiplication ideal. Hence $A = \sum (x_{\alpha}) = \sum AL_{\alpha} = A (\sum L_{\alpha})$. If $\sum L_{\alpha} = R$, then $L_{\alpha_0} = R$ for some index α_0 because R is quasi-local. In this case $A = AL_{\alpha_0} = (x_{\alpha_0})$. If $\sum L_{\alpha} \neq R$, then A = MA. Suppose that $0 \neq x \in A$. Then there exists an ideal C such that (x) = AC. But then (x) = AC = (MA)C = M(AC) = M(x), so x = 0 by Nakayama's Lemma.

Suppose that R is a commutative ring, S is a multiplicatively closed set in R, and that A is a multiplication ideal in R. Then A_S is a multiplication ideal in

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 R_s . Indeed, suppose that $N \subseteq A_s$ is an ideal in R_s . Then $(N \cap R) \cap A \subseteq A$ so that $(N \cap R) \cap A = BA$ for some ideal B in R. Hence $N = N \cap A_s = ((N \cap R) \cap A)_s = B_s A_s$. In particular, if A is a multiplication ideal and P is a prime ideal in R, then by Theorem 1, A_P is a principal ideal in R_p .

From these remarks we draw several well-known conclusions. First, any localization of a multiplication ring is a multiplication ring. Theorem 1 yields that a quasi-local multiplication ring is a principal ideal ring and hence either a DVR or a special principal ideal ring. Thus an almost multiplication ring is simply a ring R such that for every maximal ideal M of R, R_M is either a DVR or a special principal ideal ring. Hence a multiplication ring is an almost multiplication ring and any localization of an almost multiplication ring is still an almost multiplication ring.

While a multiplication ideal A is locally principal (that is, A_M is a principal ideal in R_M for every maximal ideal M of R), a locally principal ideal need not be a multiplication ideal. However, it is easily verified that a finitely generated locally principal ideal is a multiplication ideal (see Theorem 3). For a discussion of such ideals, the reader is referred to [3] and [13]. As every ideal generated by idempotents is a multiplication ideal, one sees that a multiplication ideal need not be finitely generated. However, under circumstances somewhat more general than Theorem 1 we may still conclude that a multiplication ideal is principal.

LEMMA 1. Let A be an ideal in a ring R such that (O:A) is contained in only finitely many maximal ideals M_1, \ldots, M_n of R. If A_{M_i} is a principal ideal in R_{M_i} for $i = 1, \ldots, n$, then A is a principal ideal in R.

Proof. Let $A_{M_i} = (x_i)_{M_i}$, where $x_i \in A$. If M is a maximal ideal of R distinct from M_1, \ldots, M_n , then $A_M = O_M$. Hence $A_M = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)_M$ for all maximal ideals M of R so that $A = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$. Choose $v_i \in \bigcap_{j \neq i} M_j - M_i$ and set $v = v_1 x_1 + \ldots + v_n x_n$. Then A = (v) locally, and hence globally.

The next theorem is a generalization of both our Theorem 1 and Theorem 1 of [3].

THEOREM 2. Let A be a multiplication ideal in a ring R such that (O:A) is contained in only finitely many maximal ideals of R. Then A is a principal ideal.

Proof. Theorem 2 follows from Lemma 1 and the fact that multiplication ideals are locally principal.

COROLLARY 2.1. Let R be a semi-quasi-local ring and A an ideal in R. The following statements are equivalent:

(1) A is a multiplication ideal,

(2) A is a locally principal ideal, and

(3) A is a principal ideal.

COROLLARY 2.2. A semi-quasi-local (almost) multiplication ring is a principal ideal ring.

Let *R* be a ring. An ideal *A* of *R* is called a *weak-cancellation ideal* if $AB \subseteq AC$ implies that $B \subseteq C + (O : A)$. Thus every principal ideal is a weak-cancellation ideal. A *cancellation ideal* is an ideal *A* of *R* such that the condition AB = AC implies that B = C. Hence *A* is a cancellation ideal if and only if *A* is a weak-cancellation ideal with (O : A) = 0.

The following theorem characterizes finitely generated multiplication ideals. Janowitz in [11, page 655] remarked without proof that the implication $(1) \Rightarrow (2)$ is valid.

THEOREM 3. For an ideal A in a commutative ring R, the following statements are equivalent:

(1) A is both a multiplication ideal and a weak-cancellation ideal,

(2) A is a finitely generated multiplication ideal, and

(3) A is finitely generated and locally principal.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2): Suppose that $A = \sum (x_{\alpha})$. Then $(x_{\alpha}) \subseteq A$ implies that $(x_{\alpha}) = AL_{\alpha}$ so that $AR = A = \sum (x_{\alpha}) = \sum AL_{\alpha} = A(\sum L_{\alpha})$. Since A is a weak-cancellation ideal, $R = (\sum L_{\alpha}) + (O : A)$. Because R has an identity, $R = L_1 + \ldots + L_n + (O : A)$ for some finite subset $\{L_1, \ldots, L_n\}$ of $\{L_{\alpha}\}$. Hence $A = A(L_1 + \ldots + L_n + (O : A)) = (x_1) + \ldots + (x_n)$, so that A is finitely generated. The implication $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$ follows from Theorem 1 and the remark following it. The implication $(3) \Rightarrow (1)$ is given by McCarthy [13]. Briefly, if (3) holds, then (1) holds locally and hence globally since A is finitely generated.

3. Almost multiplication rings and multiplication rings. Mott [15] has shown that a ring in which every prime ideal is a multiplication ideal is actually a multiplication ring. We offer a slight extension of this result.

THEOREM 4. For a commutative ring R with identity, the following statements are equivalent:

- (1) R is a multiplication ring,
- (2) R is an almost multiplication ring all of whose maximal ideals are multiplication ideals,
- (3) every prime ideal of R is a multiplication ideal, and
- (4) every prime ideal that is either maximal or lies directly below a maximal ideal is a multiplication ideal.

Proof. The implication $(1) \Rightarrow (2)$ is immediate. $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$: Because R is an almost multiplication ring, dim $R \leq 1$. Since, by hypothesis, the maximal ideals of R are multiplication ideals, we only need show that every nonmaximal minimal prime ideal is a multiplication ideal. So let $P \subsetneq M$ be such a prime where M is a maximal ideal containing P and let $A \subseteq P$. Now $P_M = O_M$ and $P_N = R_N$ for all maximal ideals N of R not containing P. Thus AP = A because the equality is true locally. The implication $(3) \Rightarrow (4)$ is clear. We show that $(4) \Rightarrow (3)$. It is sufficient to show that dim $R \leq 1$. Suppose that M

is a maximal ideal with rank $M \ge 1$. Since M is a multiplication ideal, M_M is a nonminimal principal prime ideal in R_M . Thus $Q = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} M_M^n$ is a prime ideal in R_M and every prime ideal of R_M other than M_M is contained in Q (this observation is due to J. Matijevic). Thus $Q \cap R$ lies directly below M. By hypothesis $Q \cap R$ is a multiplication ideal in R and hence $Q = (Q \cap R)_M$ is a principal prime ideal in R_M . Since $Q \subsetneq M_M$ are principal prime ideals, $Q = M_M Q$ and thus $Q = O_M$ by Nakayama's Lemma. Thus rank M = 1 and R_M is a DVR. The implication (3) \Rightarrow (1) is proved in [15].

A ring R is said to have *few zero-divisors* if Z(R), the set of zero-divisors of R, is a finite union of prime ideals. Mott [15] has shown that an almost multiplication ring with few zero-divisors is a finite direct product of almost Dedekind domains and special principal ideal rings. (An almost multiplication ring without zero-divisors is called an *almost Dedekind domain*.) We give another characterization of such almost multiplication rings. We need the following lemma concerning the zero-divisors in an almost multiplication ring.

LEMMA 2. Let R be an almost multiplication ring. An ideal not contained in any minimal prime ideal of R has zero annihilator. Thus Z(R) is the union of the minimal prime ideals of R.

Proof. Suppose that A is an ideal of R that is not contained in any minimal prime ideal of R. Suppose that As = 0 for some $s \in R$. Since A is not contained in any minimal prime ideal of R, s is contained in every minimal prime ideal of R, and hence s is nilpotent. Let M be a maximal ideal of R. We show that s/1 = 0/1 in R_M . In any case s/1 is nilpotent in R_M . Thus if rank M = 1, then s/1 = 0/1 since R_M is a DVR. Suppose that rank M = 0. Then $A_M = R_M$ and $A_M(s/1) = (0/1)$ implies that s/1 = 0/1 in R_M . The second statement follows from the first because any minimal prime ideal consists of zero-divisors.

THEOREM 5. For an almost multiplication ring R, the following statements are equivalent:

- (1) R has few zero-divisors,
- (2) R has only finitely many minimal prime ideals,
- (3) R is a finite direct product of special principal ideal rings and almost Dedekind domains, and
- (4) the minimal prime ideals of R are finitely generated.

Proof. The equivalence of (1) and (2) follows from Lemma 2 and the fact that any maximal ideal in an almost multiplication ring contains a unique minimal prime ideal. (2) \Rightarrow (3): Suppose that P_1, \ldots, P_n are the minimal prime ideals of R. Since each P_{iP_i} is nilpotent in R_{P_i} , there exists an integer s such that $(P_1 \ldots P_n)^s$ is locally zero and hence equal to the zero ideal of R. Hence (0) is a product of powers of the P_i 's and P_1, \ldots, P_n are comaximal. Thus R splits into the direct product $R \cong R/P_1^s \times \ldots \times R/P_n^s$. If P_i is a maximal ideal, then R/P_i^s is a special principal ideal ring. If P_i is not a

maximal ideal, then $P_i = P_i^s$ (for the equality holds locally) and $R/P_i^s = R/P_i$ is an almost Dedekind domain. (The equivalence of (2) and (3) is also proved in [15].) As (3) \Rightarrow (4) is obvious, it remains to prove (4) \Rightarrow (2). Suppose that R is an almost multiplication ring in which the minimal prime ideals are finitely generated. It suffices to show that the total quotient ring T of R is zero-dimensional. For then the prime ideals of T will all be extensions of the minimal prime ideals of R and hence will be finitely generated. Thus by Cohen's Theorem T will be Noetherian and hence will have only finitely many prime ideals. Let M be a rank one prime ideal in R; we show that M contains a non-zero-divisor. Let P be the unique minimal prime contained in M. By hypothesis, P is finitely generated. Also, $P = P^2$. Hence P = (p) where p is idempotent. Now $(1 - p)M \neq 0$, so there exists an $m \in M - (p)$ such that $(1 - p)m \neq 0$. Let x = (1 - p)m + p so that $x \in M - (p)$. If $x \in Z(R)$, then by Lemma 2, x belongs to a minimal prime Q of R distinct from P = (p). But then $p = px \in Q$, a contradiction.

We end this section by characterizing the multiplication rings and almost multiplication rings which are polynomial rings. A ring R is called an *arithmetical ring* if L(R), its lattice of ideals, is distributive.

THEOREM 6. For a commutative ring R the following statements are equivalent: (1) R is von Neumann regular,

- (2) R[X] is an almost multiplication ring, and
- (3) R[X] is an arithmetical ring.

Proof. (1) ⇒ (2). Suppose that *R* is von Neumann regular and let *M* be a maximal ideal in *R*[*X*]. Then *P* = *M* ∩ *R* is a maximal ideal in *R* and hence R_P is a field. Thus $R[X]_M \cong (R_P[X])_M$ is a localization of a *PID* and hence a *DVR*. (2) ⇒ (3). Clearly any almost multiplication ring has a distributive lattice of ideals since locally its lattice of ideals is totally ordered. (3) ⇒ (1). Suppose that R[X] has a distributive lattice of ideals. Then for $a \in R$, (*a*) = (*a*) ∩ {(*X* − *a*) + (*X*)} = (*a*) ∩ (*X* − *a*) + (*a*) ∩ (*X*), so *a* = f(X)(X - a) + g(X)X, where $f(X), g(X) \in R[X]$ and $f(X)(X - a) \in (a), g(X)X \in (a)$. Let $f(X) = b_0X^n + \ldots + b_n$, then $b_0X^{n+1} + (b_1 - ab_0)X^n + \ldots + (b_n - ab_{n-1})X - b_na = f(X)(X - a) \in (a)$. Thus $(b_n - ab_{n-1})X \in (a)$ so $b_n \in aR$. Letting $b_n = ra$, $a = -b_na = a(-r)a$. Thus *R* is von Neumann regular.

The implication $(3) \Rightarrow (1)$ is found in Camillo [5], but our proof is simpler. The equivalence of (1) and (3) also occurs as an exercise in [7, page 321]. It follows from Theorem 3.2 [18] that R[X] is Bézout whenever R is von Neumann regular.

COROLLARY 6.1. For a ring R, the following conditions are equivalent: (1) R is a finite direct product of fields, (2) R[X] is a multiplication ring. *Proof.* The implication $(1) \Rightarrow (2)$ is obvious. Conversely suppose that R[X] is a multiplication ring. Theorem 6 implies that R is von Neumann regular. Let M be a maximal ideal in R. It suffices to show that M is finitely generated, for Cohen's Theorem then implies that R is Noetherian. The ideal M' = MR[X] + (X) is a rank one prime ideal in R[X]. Thus M' is locally a cancellation ideal, and hence a cancellation ideal. By Theorem 3, M' is finitely generated. (In particular any rank one prime ideal in a multiplication ring is finitely generated.) Hence M is finitely generated.

Let R be a non-Noetherian von Neumann regular ring. Then R[X] is an almost multiplication ring which is not a multiplication ring. We note that R[X] is locally a *DVR*. In fact, R[X] is semihereditary [14]. Also note that for every minimal prime ideal P in R[X], $R[X]/P = R[X]/(P \cap R)R[X] \cong (R/P \cap R)[X]$ is a *PID*.

4. The ring R(X). Let R be a ring and let $\{X_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ be a set of indeterminates over R. For $f \in R[\{X_{\alpha}\}]$ we let C(f) be the ideal of R generated by the coefficients of R. Let $S = \{f \in R[\{X_{\alpha}\}] | C(f) = R\}$. Then $S = R[\{X_{\alpha}\}] - \bigcup \{MR[\{X_{\alpha}\}] | M$ is a maximal ideal in $R\}$ is a multiplicatively closed set consisting entirely of regular elements. The ring $R[\{X_{\alpha}\}]_S$ is denoted by $R(\{X_{\alpha}\})$. For properties of $R(\{X_{\alpha}\})$, the reader is referred to [7]. While all the results of this section are true for $R(\{X_{\alpha}\})$, where $\{X_{\alpha}\}$ is an arbitrary set of indeterminates, for simplicity of notation we only state our results for R(X). The following proposition is well-known.

PROPOSITION 1. Let R be a commutative ring. Then

- (1) There is a one-to-one correspondence between the (minimal prime) maximal ideals of R and the (minimal prime) maximal ideals of R(X) given by $M \leftrightarrow MR(X)$.
- (2) If Q is an ideal of R, then $QR(X) \cap R = Q$. If Q is P-primary, then QR(X) is PR(X)-primary.

The following theorem, while probably well-known, could not be found in the literature.

THEOREM 7. Let $f \in R[X]$ be a polynomial with C(f) locally principal. Then C(f)R(X) = fR(X). If $g \in R[X]$ satisfies $C(g) \subseteq C(f)$, then $gR(X) \subseteq fR(X)$.

Proof. By localization we may assume that R is quasi-local and that C(f) is a principal ideal in R. Let $f = a_0 + a_1X + \ldots + a_nX^n$, so that $C(f) = (a_0, \ldots, a_n)$. Since C(f) is principal, $C(f) = (a_{i_0})$ for some i_0 with $1 \leq i_0 \leq n$. Let $a_i = r_i a_{i_0}$ and $h = r_0 + r_1X + \ldots + r_nX^n$. Note that $h \in S$ because $r_{i_0} = 1$. Hence $C(f)R(X) = (a_{i_0})R(X) = (a_{i_0})hR(X) = fR(X)$. Suppose that $C(g) \subseteq C(f)$. Let $g = c_0 + c_1X + \ldots + c_mX^m$. Then $(c_i) \subseteq C(g) \subseteq C(f) = (a_{i_0})$, so that $c_i = e_i a_{i_0}$ for $i = 1, \ldots, m$. Hence $g \in (a_{i_0})R(X) = fR(X)$.

COROLLARY 7.1. Let A be a finitely generated locally principal ideal in R. Then AR(X) is a principal ideal in R(X).

Proof. Let $A = (a_0, ..., a_n)$. If $f = a_0 + a_1X + ... + a_nX^n$, then C(f) = A. By Theorem 7, AR(X) = C(f)R(X) = fR(X).

Our next theorem gives another construction for multiplication rings and almost multiplication rings. A ring in which every finitely generated ideal is principal is called a *Bézout ring*. We note that (1) of Theorem 8 is proved in the domain case by Arnold [2]. Another generalization of Arnold's results is found in [10].

THEOREM 8. Let R be a commutative ring.

- (1) R is an arithmetical ring if and only if R(X) is an arithmetical ring, and in that case R(X) is actually a Bézout ring.
- (2) If R is an arithmetical ring, then the map $\theta : L(R) \to L(R(X))$ given by $\theta(A) = AR(X)$ is a lattice isomorphism which preserves multiplication. Conversely, if θ is surjective, then R is arithmetical.
- (3) R is an almost multiplication ring if and only if R(X) is an almost multiplication ring.
- (4) R is a multiplication ring if and only if R(X) is a multiplication ring.

Proof. (1). Suppose that *R* is an arithmetical ring. We show that R(X) is a Bézout ring. Let $0 \neq f_1, f_2 \in R[X]$ and define $f = f_1 + X^n f_2$, where n = (degree of f_1) + 1. Then $C(f) = C(f_1) + C(f_2)$, and hence $f_1R(X) + f_2R(X) = C(f_1)R(X) + C(f_2)R(X) = C(f)R(X)$ is principal. Thus any finitely generated ideal in R(X) is principal. Conversely, suppose that R(X) is arithmetical. Let *A*, *B* and *C* be three ideals in *R*. Then $\{A \cap (B + C)\}R(X) = AR(X) \cap \{BR(X) + CR(X)\} = AR(X) \cap BR(X) + AR(X) \cap CR(X) = (A \cap B + A \cap C)R(X)$. Contracting back into *R* yields $A \cap (B + C) = A \cap B + A \cap C$.

(2). The map θ is one-to-one by Proposition 1. It is easily seen that θ preserves order, arbitrary sums, finite intersections, and products. Moreover θ is onto because fR(X) = C(f)R(X) for every $f \in R[X]$ (Theorem 7). Hence θ preserves arbitrary intersections and thus θ is a complete lattice isomorphism. Conversely suppose that the map $\theta : L(R) \to L(R(X))$ is surjective. Then for each maximal ideal M of R, the map $\theta : L(R_M(X)) \to L(R_M(X))$ is a surjection. Hence we may assume that R is quasi-local. Let $a, b \in R$; we show that (a, b) is principal and hence that R is Bézout. Now (a + bX)R(X) = BR(X) for some ideal B in R. Since R is quasi-local, one sees that B must actually be principal, say B = (c), so that (a + bX)R(X) = cR(X). Hence a + bX = c(f/g) where $f, g \in R[X]$ with C(g) = R. Let $g = a_0 + a_1X + \ldots + a_nX^n$ and assume that i_0 is the greatest integer such that a_{i_0} is a unit. (Since R is quasi-local and C(g) = R, some coefficient of g must be a unit). We may assume that $a_{i_0} = 1$. Let $f = b_0 + b_1X + \ldots + b_mX^m$. Hence

$$aa_0 + (aa_1 + ba_0)X + \ldots + (aa_n + ba_{n-1})X^n + ba_nX^{n+1} = g(a + bX)$$
$$= cf = cb_0 + cb_1 + \ldots + cb_mX^m.$$

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Hence $aa_{i_0+1} + ba_{i_0} = cb_{i_0+1}$ and $aa_{i_0} + ba_{i_0-1} = cb_{i_0}$. (If $i_0 = n$, then we take $a_{i_0+1} = 0$). Substituting $a_{i_0} = 1$ yields $b = -aa_{i_0+1} + cb_{i_0+1}$ and $a = -ba_{i_0-1} + cb_{i_0}$.

Substituting the value for *b* in the second equation gives $(1 - a_{i_0+1}a_{i_0-1})a \in (c)$ and hence $a \in (c)$ since $1 - a_{i_0+1}a_{i_0-1}$ is a unit. Hence also $b \in (c)$. Set a = a'cand b = b'c so that a + bX = c(a' + b'X). Hence (cR(X))(a' + b'X)R(X)= (a + bX)R(X) = cR(X). By Nakayama's Lemma, (a' + b'X)R(X) = R(X). Hence (a', b') = C(a' + b'X) = R. Thus (a, b) = c(a', b') = (c).

To prove (3) we make the following observation. For M a maximal ideal in R, the rings $R(X)_{MR(X)}$, $R_M(X)$, $R[X]_{MR[X]}$, and $R_M[X]_{M_MR_M[X]}$ are all naturally isomorphic. (Thus when dealing with the ring R(X) we can often reduce to the case where R is quasi-local.) Hence the rings $R(X)_{MR(X)}$ and R_M are simultaneously principal ideal rings and therefore the rings R and R(X) are simultaneously almost multiplication rings. To complete the proof of Theorem 8, we observe that (4) follows immediately from (2).

COROLLARY 8.1. Given any arithmetical ring R, there exists a Bézout ring R' such that R and R' have isomorphic lattices of ideals.

Corollary 8.1 generalizes the result in [1] that given a Prüfer domain D there exists a Bézout domain D' such that D and D' have isomorphic lattices of ideals. A different method of proof was used, however. Combining implications (1) through (4) we see that given an (almost) multiplication ring R there exists an (almost) multiplication ring R' such that R' is a Bézout ring and R and R' have isomorphic lattices of ideals. Of special interest is the case where D is a Dedekind domain. Then D(X) is a *PID* and infact an Euclidean domain as follows from theorem 5.3 [6].

The R(X) construction may be extended to R-modules. Let A be an Rmodule. With the notation preceding Proposition 1, we define $A(X) = A[X]_S$ and note that $A(X) \approx A \otimes R(X)$ is an R(X)-module. Theorem 8 generalized
to modules yields

THEOREM 9. Let R be a commutative ring and A an R-module.

- (1) A is arithmetical if and only if A(X) is arithmetical and in this case A(X) is actually Bézout.
- (2) If A is arithmetical, then the map $\theta : L_R(A) \to L_{R(X)}(A(X))$ given by $\theta(N) = R(X)N$ is a lattice isomorphism which preserves the scalar product. Conversely, if θ is surjective, then A is arithmetical.

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University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri