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# On Differential Ideals of Differential rings

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### **Abstract**

In this paper we introduce two operators denoted by  $(\ )_{(n)}$  and  $(\ )_u$  of a differential ring constructed from a subset of a differential ring. We shall also discuss the relationship between these operators and the differential ideals in differential rings, and Keigher differential ring.

**Keywords:** Differential ring, Keigher differential ring, Prime differential spectrum.

## 1 Introduction

Rings considered in this paper are all commutative with unity. The 0 ring has 1=0. Also, all differential rings are ordinary, i.e., posses a single derivation Recall that by a derivation of a ring R we means any additive map  $\delta: R \to R$  satisfying  $\delta(ab) = \delta(a)b + a\delta(b)$  for every  $a,b \in R$ . A differential ring R is a ring with a derivation  $\delta$ . If R is a differential ring and  $a \in R$ , then  $a^{(n)}$  denotes the n th derivative of a. A subset A of R is called differential if  $\delta(A) \subseteq A$ . For any subset A of R, the set  $A_{\delta} = \{a \in A : \delta(a) \in A\}$  is called the differential of A.

Let R be a differential ring and let A be a subset of R. We define a subset, denoted by  $A_{(n)}$ , of R by  $A_{(n)} = \{a : a^{(n)} \in A, \text{ for all } n \ge 0\}$ . The following two theorems give some of the properties of  $A_{(n)}$ .

**Theorem 1.1**. Let R be a differential ring. Then

- (1) If  $A \subset R$ , then  $A_{(n)} \subset A$  and  $(A_{(n)})_{(n)} = A_{(n)}$ .
- (2) If  $A \subset R$ , then  $A_{(n)} = A$  iff A is differential subset of R.
- (3) If A,B are subsets of R with  $A \subset B$ , then  $A_{(n)} \subset B_{(n)}$ .
- (4) If  $\{A_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in I}$  is a family of subsets of R, then  $(\bigcap_{\alpha \in I} A_{\alpha})_{(n)} = \bigcap_{\alpha \in I} (A_{\alpha})_{(n)}$  and

$$(\bigcup_{\alpha\in I} A_{\alpha})_{(n)} \supset \bigcup_{\alpha\in I} (A_{\alpha})_{(n)}.$$

 $(\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_{\alpha})_{(n)} \supset \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} (A_{\alpha})_{(n)}.$   $If \quad A, B \ are \quad subsets \quad of \quad R, \quad then \qquad (A+B)_{(n)} \supset A_{(n)} + B_{(n)}$ (5) $and(A.B)_n \supset A_{(n)}.B_{(n)}.$ 

**Theorem 1.2.** Let R and S be differential rings and let  $\varphi: R \to S$  be differential ring homomorphism such that  $\varphi(1) = 1$ .. If A is a subset of R and B is a subset of S , then  $\varphi(A_{(n)}) = (\varphi(A))_{(n)}$  and  $\varphi^{-1}(B_{(n)}) = (\varphi^{-1}(B))_{(n)}$ .

The proof of these theorems is elementary and follows immediately from the definitions.

From theorems 1.1 and 1.2, we see that for any subset A of a differential ring R,  $A_{(n)}$  is a differential subset. Also, the union and the intersection of any family of differential subsets is again a differential subset, and finite sums and products of differential subsets are differential subsets. Moreover, direct and inverse images of differential subsets under a differential ring homomorphism are differential.

Let A be a subset of a differential ring R. We define a subset, denoted by  $A_u$ , of R by  $A_u = \{a \in A : \exists b \in A \text{ such that } ab = 1\}$ . Hence, if A is a subring of R,  $A_{\mu}$  is the set of units in A.

**Theorem 1.3.** Let R be a differential ring and S a subring of R. Then  $(S_{(n)})_{u} = S_{(n)} \cap S_{u}$ .

*Proof.* It is clear that  $(S_{(n)})_u \subset S_{(n)} \cap S_u$ , so let  $a \in S$  be such that  $a^{(n)} \in S$  for all  $n \ge 0$ , and suppose that ab = 1 for some  $b \in S$ . We want to show that  $b^{(n)} \in S$  for all  $n \ge 0$ . We may assume  $n \ge 1$  and that for each  $k < n, b^{(k)} \in S$ . Then by Leibnit z's rule [6] we have

$$0 = (ab)^{(n)} = ab^{(n)} + \sum_{k=1}^{n} {n \choose k} a^{(k)} b^{(n-k)},$$

So that

$$b^{(n)} = -b \left( \sum_{k=1}^{n} {n \choose k} a^{(k)} b^{(n-k)} \right) \in S$$

Hence,  $(S_{(n)})_{u} = S_{(n)} \cap S_{u}$ .

## 2. DIFFERENTIAL IDEALS AND KEIGHER RINGS

**Theorem 2.1.** Let R be a differential ring and let A be a subset of R, then

- (1) If A is a subring of R, then  $A_{(n)}$  is a subring of R.
- (2) If A is an ideal of R, then  $A_{(n)}$  is an ideal of R.

*Proof.* The proof of part (1) follows immediately from the definition. To prove part (2) ,suppose  $x \in R$  and  $a \in A_{(n)}$ . Then by Leibentiz's rule [6] we have

$$(x a)^{(n)} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} x^{(k)} a^{(n-k)}$$

Since every  $a^{(n-k)} \in A$  and A is an ideal of R,  $(x a)^{(n)} \in A$  and hence  $x a \in A_{(n)}$ . So that,  $A_{(n)}$  is an ideal of R.

Recall that by a Ritt algebra [5] we means any differential ring which contains the rational numbers. Also, if I is an ideal of a differential ring R, the set  $r(I) = \{a \in R : a^n \in I \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{Z}^+\}$  is called the radical of I. An ideal I of R is called a radical ideal if r(I) = I.

**Theorem 2.2.** Let R be a Ritt algebra and let I be a subset of R, then

- (1) If I is a prime ideal of R, then  $I_{(n)}$  is a prime ideal of R.
- (2) If I is a radical ideal of R, then  $I_{(n)}$  is a radical ideal of R.

*Proof.* (1) From theorem 1.4 we have  $I_{(n)}$  is an ideal of R, so suppose that  $a \notin I_{(n)}$  and  $b \notin I_{(n)}$ . Then there exist positive integers m,n such that  $a^{(m)} \notin I$ ,  $b^{(n)} \notin I$  and for all k < m and l < n,  $a^{(k)} \in I$  and  $b^{(l)} \in I$ . Now let

$$(ab)^{(m+n)} = \sum_{k=0}^{m+n} {m+n \choose k} a^{(k)} b^{(m+n-k)}$$

We note that,  $\binom{m+n}{k}a^{(k)}b^{(m+n-k)} \in I$  for k < m, while for k > m, i.e., for m+n-k < n,  $\binom{m+n}{k}a^{(k)}b^{(m+n-k)} \in I$ .

If k = m,  $a^{(m)}b^{(n)} \notin I$  since I is a prime ideal, and since R is a Ritt algebra  $\binom{m+n}{m}a^{(m)}b^{(n)}\notin I$ . Hence  $(ab)^{(m+n)}\notin I$ , so that  $I_{(n)}$  is a prime ideal.

(2) Note that every radical ideal of R is an intersection of prime ideals of R and conversely. Since the operator  $()_{(n)}$  preserves the intersection of ideals by Theorem 1.1 and prime ideals by part (1), we have well that  $()_{(n)}$  preserves the radical ideals.

**Definition 2.3 [7].** Let R be a differential ring, R is said to be a Keigher ring if for each prime ideal I in R,  $I_{(n)}$  is also prime ideal in R.

## Examples.

- **1.** Every Ritt algebra R is a Keigher ring by the above Theorem 2.2.
- **2.** Every differential field F is a keigher ring.
- **3.** Every ring R with trivial derivation (i.e.,  $a^{(n)} = 0$  for all  $a \in R$  and  $n \ge 1$ ) is a Keigher ring.

**Theorem 2.4.** Let R be a Keigher differential ring and  $\varphi: R \to S$  a surjective differential ring homomorphism. Then S is also a Keigher ring.

*Proof.* Since  $\varphi$  is surjective, then  $\varphi$  induces a one-to-one correspondence between prime ideals J in S and prime ideals I in R containing the kernel of  $\varphi$  via  $I = \varphi^{-1}(J)$  and  $J = \varphi(I)$ . Hence if J is a prime ideal in S, then we have  $J_{(n)} = \varphi(\varphi^{-1}(J_{(n)})) = \varphi((\varphi^{-1}(J))_{(n)})$ . But since R is a Keigher ring,  $(\varphi^{-1}(J))_{(n)}$  is prime ideal in R and hence  $J_{(n)}$  is prime ideal in S.

Recall that if *S* is a multiplicative subset of a differential ring *R*, then the ring opf fractions  $S^{-1}R$  is a differential ring via  $(\frac{r}{s})^{(1)} = \frac{s \, r^{(1)} - r \, s^{(1)}}{s^{(2)}}$ , see [2].

The following lemma was proved by Keigher in [7].

**Lemma 2.5.** Let R be a differential ring. Let S be a multiplicative subset of R and I a prime ideal in R such that  $I \cap S = \emptyset$ . Then in the differential ring  $S^{-1}R$  we have  $(S^{-1}I)_{(n)} = S^{-1}I_{(n)}$ .

**Theorem 2.6.** Let R be a Keigher differential ring and S a multiplicative subset of R. Then  $S^{-1}R$  is also a Keigher ring.

*Proof.* The proof follows immediately from the Lemma 2.1, since there is a one-to-one correspondence between prime ideals of  $S^{-1}R$  and prime ideals of R disjoint from S [7].

**Corollary 2.7.** Let R be a differential ring and let P be a prime ideal of R, then R is a Keigher differential ring if and only if  $R_P$  is a Keigher ring.

*Proof.* If R is a Keigher ring , then so every  $R_P$  by Theorem 2.4. Conversely , let P be a prime ideal of R and let  $f:R\to R_P$  be the canonical differential ring homomorphism . Let S=R-P , then since  $P=f^{-1}(S^{-1}P)$ , we see that  $P_{(n)}=f^{-1}((S^{-1}P)_{(n)})$  by Theorem 1.1, and since  $R_P$  is a Keigher ring  $(S^{-1}P)_{(n)}$  is prime in  $R_P$ . Hence  $P_{(n)}$  is prime in R and R is a Keigher ring.

**Theorem 2.8.** Let  $R = \prod_{i=1}^{n} R_i$ , where  $R_i$  is differential ring. Then R is a Keigher ring if and only if each  $R_i$  is a Keigher ring.

*Proof.* If R is a Keigher ring , then so is each  $R_i$  by Theorem 2.3 . Conversely suppose that I is a prime ideal of R, and let  $\pi_i:R\to R_i$ , i=1,2,...,n, be the canonical projections. Then  $\pi_k(I)=I_k$ ,  $1\le k\le n$ , is a prime ideal in  $R_k$  and  $\pi_j(I)=R_j$  for  $j\ne k$ . It is clear that  $I_{(n)}=\pi_k^{-1}((I_k)_{(n)})$ , and since  $R_k$  is a Keigher ring,  $I_{(n)}$  is prime ideal of R and R is a Keigher ring.

**Definition 2.9 [5].** A differential ring R is called a d-MP ring if the radical of a differential ideal I of R is again a differential ideal. This is equivalent, see [2], [3], [8], to each of the following:

- (1) Prime ideals minimal over differential ideals are differential ideals.
- (2) If I is a differential ideal of R and S is a multiplicative subset of R disjoint from I, then ideals maximal among differential ideals which contain I and are disjoint from S are prime.

**Theorem 2.10.** Let R be a differential ring. Then R is a Keigher ring if and only if it is a d-MP ring.

Proof. See [7].

Let R be a differential ring. A differential ideal I is prime if and only if there is a multiplicative subset S of R such that I is maximal among ideals disjoint from S [6].

Let R be a differential ring. A differential ideal I is called quasi-prime ideal if there is a multiplicative subset S of R such that I is maximal among differential ideals disjoint from S. It is clear that every prime differential ideal is quasi-prime, and every quasi-prime ideal is prime if and only if R is a Keigher ring.

**Theorem 2.11.** Let R be a differential ring. If I is a prime ideal of R then  $I_{(n)}$  is a quasi-prime.

*Proof*. Let I be a prime ideal of R and let S = R - I. It is clear that  $I_{(n)}$  is a differential ideal disjoint from S and if J is any differential ideal disjoint from S, then  $J \subset I$ , so that  $J = J_{(n)} \subset I_{(n)}$ . Hence  $I_{(n)}$  is maximal among differential ideals disjoint from S. Now let K be a quasi-prime ideal of R and let S be a multiplicative subset of R such that K is maximal among differential ideals disjoint from S. Then there exists a prime ideal I of R such that  $K \subset I$  and  $I \cap S = \emptyset$  [1]. Hence  $K = K_{(u)} \subset I_{(u)}$  and  $I_{(n)} \cap S = \emptyset$ , so that  $K = I_{(n)}$ .

## 3 The Prime Spectrum of a differential ring

In the sense of ring theory, for any commutative ring R,  $\operatorname{Spec}(R)$  denote the set of prime ideals in R with the Zariski topology [4]. The following two theorems show how to create a topological space from a commutative ring R.

This topological space is called the prime spectrum of R and the topology is called the Zariski topology.

**Theorem 3.1.** Let R be a commutative ring and let Spec(R) be the set of all prime ideals of R. For any subset A of R let V(A) be the set of all prime ideals of R that contain A. Then

- (1) V(A) = V((A)) for any subset A of R (where (A) is the ideal generated by A).
- (2) V(0) = Spec(R) and  $V(R) = \emptyset$ .
- (3) If  $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$  is a family of subsets of R, then  $V(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) = \bigcap_{i \in I} V(A_i)$ .
- (4) If A and B are two subsets of R, then  $V(A \cap B) = V(A) \cup V(B)$ .

Parts (2), (3) and (4) show that the sets V(A), as A runs over all subsets of R, satisfy the axioms for a collection of closed sets in a topological space. The subset V(A) of  $\operatorname{Spec}(R)$  are called Zarisky closed sets. Henceforth,  $\operatorname{Spec}(R)$  is considered to have the topology defined by taking the Zariski closed sets to be the closed sets – this is the Zariski topology on  $\operatorname{Spec}(R)$ .

**Theorem 3.2.** Let R and S be commutative rings and let  $\varphi: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism such that  $\varphi(1) = 1$ .

(1) If I is a prime ideal of S, then  $\varphi^{-1}(I)$  is a prime ideal of R. Thus  $\varphi$  induce a map

 $\varphi^*: Spec(S) \to Spec(R)$  defined by  $\varphi^*(I) = \varphi^{-1}(I)$  for all  $I \in Spec(S)$ .

- (2) For any ideal J in R,  $\varphi^{*^{-1}}(V(J)) = V((\varphi(J)))$  (where  $(\varphi(J))$  is the ideal generated by  $\varphi(J)$  in S). Deduce that  $\varphi^*$  is a continuous map with respect to the Zariski topology on Spec (S) and Spec (R).
  - (3) If  $\Omega: S \to T$  is also a homomorphism of commutative rings, then  $(\Omega \circ \varphi)^* = \varphi^* \circ \Omega^*$ .

*Proof*. The proof follows directly from the definitions, see [4].

If R is a differential ring, the set of prime differential ideals in R will be denoted by  $\operatorname{Spec}_d(R)$  and will be called the prime differential spectrum of R. As a topologi- cal space, the set  $\operatorname{Spec}_d(R)$  has the subspace topology from

Spec (R). So that the closed sets in  $\operatorname{Spec}_d(R)$  are defined by the form  $V_*(A) = V(A) \cap \operatorname{Spec}_d(R)$ , where A is a subset of R.

Denote by  $r_d(I)$  the differential radical of differential ideal I of R and I is called a differential radical ideal if  $I = r_d(I)$ .

For an element  $a \in R$  denote by [a] the smallest differential ideal containing a.

Some of properties of differential radical ideals are given in the following theorems.

**Theorem 3.3 [8].** For a differential ring R the following conditions are equivalent:

- (1) Every differential ideal of R is differential radical ideal.
- (2)  $I.J = I \cap J$  for all differential ideals I,J in R.
- (3)  $[a]^2 = [a]$  for all  $a \in R$ .

If r((A)) denotes the radical of the ideal in R generated by A,  $r_d(A)$  denotes the differential radical of A, and  $r_d(A)$  can be defined as following:

**Theorem 3.3[8]**. For any subset A of a differential ring R, the differential radical of A,  $r_d(A)$  is the intersection of all differential prime ideals in R containing A.

It is clear that  $A \subset r((A)) \subset r_d(A)$  and  $r_d(r_d(A)) = r_d(A)$ , where A is a subset of A. If Y is a subset of A is a subset of A. It is easy to show that A is a subset of A. It is easy to show that A is a subset of A.

- (1)  $V_d(Y)$  is a differential ideal of R, and the map from  $\operatorname{Spec}_d(R)$  to R given by  $Y \mapsto V_d(Y)$  is order reversing with respect to the partial ordering by inclusion in  $\operatorname{Spec}_d(R)$  and R.
  - (2)  $V_d(\emptyset) = R$ .
- (3) If  $\{Y_i\}_{i \in I}$  is a family of subsets of  $\operatorname{Spec}_d(R)$ , then  $V_d(\bigcup_{i \in I} Y_i) = \bigcap_{i \in I} V_d(Y_i)$ .

**Theorem 3.4.** Let R be a differential ring, A a subset of R, and Y a subset of

 $Spec_d(R)$ . Then

- (1)  $V_*(A)$  is closed in  $\operatorname{Spec}_d(R)$  and  $V_d(Y)$  is a differential radical ideal of R.
- (2)  $V_d(V_*(A))$  is the differential radical of A and  $V_*(V_d(Y))$  is the closure of Y in  $Spec_d(R)$ .

*Proof.* The proof follows from the definitions and the notes above.

Now let R and S be differential rings and  $\psi: R \to S$  be a differential ring homo-

morphism . Then  $\psi$  induce a continuous map  $\psi^* : \operatorname{Spec}(S) \to \operatorname{Spec}(R)$  given by

 $\psi^*(P) = \psi^{-1}(P)$  for all  $P \in \operatorname{Spec}(S)$ . It follows from Theorems 1.2, 3.2 that  $\psi^*$  restricts to give a continuous map  $\psi_d^* : \operatorname{Spec}_d(S) \to \operatorname{Spec}_d(R)$ . If  $\phi : S \to T$  is another differential ring homomorphism, then it is clearly that  $(\phi \circ \psi)_d^* = \psi_d^* \circ \phi_d^*$ .

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