# Generalizations of prime submodules 

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#### Abstract

Let $R$ be a commutative ring with identity and $M$ a unitary $R$-module, and $n>1$ an integer number. As a generalization of the concept of prime submodules, a proper submodule $N$ of $M$ will be called $n$-almost prime, if for $r \in R$ and $x \in M$ with $r x \in N \backslash(N: M)^{n-1} N$, either $x \in N$ or $r \in(N: M)$. We study $n$-almost prime submodules, in this paper.


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## 1. Introduction

Throughout this paper all rings are commutative with identity and all modules are unitary. Also we consider $R$ to be a commutative ring with identity, $M$ an $R$-module, $n>1$ a positive integer and $\mathbb{N}$ the set of positive integers.

Let $N$ be a submodule of an $R$-module $M$. The set $\{r \in R \mid r M \subseteq N\}$ is denoted by ( $N: M$ ) and particularly we denote $\{r \in R \mid r N=0\}$ by $\operatorname{ann}(N)$.

Let $N$ a proper submodule of $M$. It is said that $N$ is a prime submodule of $M$, if for $r \in R$ and $x \in M$ with $r x \in N$, either $x \in N$ or $r M \subseteq N$. In this case, if $P=(N: M)$, then $P$ is a prime ideal. The concept of prime submodules has been studied in many papers in recent years (see, for example, $[3,8]$ ).
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## 2. $n$-Almost Prime Submodules

According to [1] an ideal $I$ of $R$ is called an $n$-almost prime ideal if for $a, b \in R$ with $a b \in I \backslash I^{n}$, either $a \in I$ or $b \in I$. The case $n=2$ is called an almost prime ideal and it is due to [5]. We will generalize this definition to modules as follows:
Definition. Let $n>1$ be an integer number. A proper submodule $N$ of $M$ will be called $n$-almost prime, if for $r \in R$ and $x \in M$ with $r x \in N \backslash(N: M)^{n-1} N$, either $x \in N$ or $r \in(N: M)$. A 2-almost prime submodule will be called an almost prime submodule.

Evidently every prime submodule is an $n$-almost prime submodule, for any integer $n>1$.

The following remark is an evident consequence of the definition of being almost prime submodules.

## Remark.

(i) The zero submodule is an almost prime submodule.
(ii) Let $N$ be a proper submodule of $M$ such that $(N: M)^{n-1} N=N$. Then $N$ is n -almost prime.
(iii) Let $N$ be a proper submodule of a torsion-free divisible module $M$. Then $N$ is prime if and only if $N$ is n-almost prime.
(iv) Every $n$-almost prime submodule of an $R$-module $M$ is $m$-almost prime, where $3 \leq n$ and $1<m \leq n$.
2.1. Lemma. Let $M$ be an $R$-module, and $I$ an ideal of $R$.
(i) If $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $(I M: M)^{n} M=I^{n} M$.
(ii) If $K$ is a submodule of $M$ such that $(K: M)$ is a maximal ideal, then $K$ is a prime submodule.
(iii) If $1<n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $M \neq I M=I^{n} M$, then $I M$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule.
(iv) Let $F$ be a free $R$-module. Then $I$ is an $n$-almost prime ideal of $R$ if and only if $I F$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule of $F$.
(v) Consider the $R$-module $F=\oplus_{i \in \mathbb{N}} R$ and let $N=I \oplus\left(\oplus_{1<i \in \mathbb{N}} R\right)$. Then the following are equivalent:
(a) $N$ is a prime submodule of $F$;
(b) $N$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule of $F$;
(c) $I$ is a prime ideal of $R$.

Proof. The proofs of (i),(ii) and (iii) are clear.
(iv) Consider $F=\oplus_{i \in \alpha} R$. It is easy to see that $(I F: F)=I$, for any ideal $I$ of $R$. Then $I$ is a proper ideal of $R$ if and only if $I F$ is a proper submodule of $F$. Also $(I F: F)^{n-1} I F=I^{n} F$.

Suppose $I$ is a proper ideal of $R$, which is not $n$-almost prime. Then there exist $a, b \in R \backslash I$ such that $a b \in I \backslash I^{n}$. So $a(b, 0,0,0, \cdots) \in I F \backslash I^{n} F$, but $a \notin I=(I F: F)$, also $(b, 0,0,0, \cdots) \notin I F$, that is $I F$ is not an $n$-almost prime submodule.

For the converse, suppose $I$ is an $n$-almost prime ideal of $R$. We consider the following two cases:

Case 1. $F=R \oplus R$, that is rank $F=2$.
Let $r(a, b) \in I F \backslash I^{n} F$, where $r \in R \backslash(I F: F)=I$ and $a, b \in R$. Then $r a, r b \in I$, and $r a$ or $r b$ is not in $I^{n}$. Without loss of generality, we may assume $r a \notin I^{n}$. Then $r a \in I \backslash I^{n}$ and as $r \notin I, a \in I$. Similarly if $r b \notin I^{n}$, then $b \in I$ and so $(a, b) \in I F$.

Now let $r b \in I^{n}$. Then $r(a+b) \in I$, and $r a \notin I^{n}$, and so $r(a+b) \in I \backslash I^{n}$, and $r \notin I$, hence $a+b \in I$. Also $a \in I$, therefore $b \in I$, that is $(a, b) \in I F$.

Case 2. $F$ is a free module of arbitrary rank.

If $a \in F$, then $a \in \oplus_{i=1}^{n} R a_{i}$, where $a_{1}, a_{2}, \cdots, a_{n} \in F$ for some integer $n$. Now by using case 1 , we get the results.
(v) The proofs of $(\mathrm{a}) \Longrightarrow(\mathrm{b})$ and $(\mathrm{c}) \Longrightarrow(\mathrm{a})$ are straightforward.
(b) $\Longrightarrow(\mathrm{c})$ It is easy to see that $I$ is an $n$-almost prime ideal of $R$. Now if $I$ is not a prime ideal, then there exists $a, b \in R \backslash I$ such that $a b \in I$. Since $I$ is an $n$-almost prime ideal, $a b \in I^{n}$. Therefore $a(b, 1,1,1, \cdots) \in N \backslash(N: M)^{n-1} N$, however $a \notin I=(N: M)$ and $(b, 1,1,1, \cdots) \notin N$, which is a contradiction.

Examples.
(1) If $I$ is an ideal of $R$ generated by idempotents, then by Lemma 2.1(iii), $I M$ is an almost prime submodule, or $I M=M$, for any $R$-module $M$. For a specific example, let $R^{\prime}$ be an arbitrary ring, and consider $R=\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} R^{\prime}$ and $I=\oplus_{n=1}^{\infty} R^{\prime}$, particularly $I$ is an almost prime ideal.
(2) Let $R=K\left[\left[X^{3}, X^{4}, X^{5}\right]\right]$, where $K$ is a field, and $I=\left\langle X^{3}, X^{4}\right\rangle$. By [1, Example 11], $I$ is an almost prime ideal, which is not a 3 -almost prime ideal.

Let $F$ be a free $R$-module. By Lemma 2.1(iv), the submodule $I F$ is an almost prime submodule, which is not a 3 -almost prime submodule.
(3) Let $R$ be an Artinian ring. Then for any ideal $I$ of $R$, there exists an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $I^{n}=I^{n+1}$. So the ideal $J=I^{n}$ is an almost prime ideal, and by Lemma 2.1(iv), for any free $R$-module $F$, the submodule $J F$ is an almost prime submodule.

Let $M, M^{\prime}$ be two $R$-modules. For a projective resolution
$\cdots \xrightarrow{f_{3}} P_{2} \xrightarrow{f_{2}} P_{1} \xrightarrow{f_{1}} P_{0} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} M \longrightarrow 0, \quad$ of $M$, consider the complexes
$\cdots \xrightarrow{f_{3}} P_{2} \xrightarrow{f_{2}} P_{1} \xrightarrow{f_{1}} P_{0} \xrightarrow{f_{0}=0} 0, \quad$ and $\quad \cdots \xrightarrow{f_{3} \otimes 1} P_{2} \otimes M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f_{2} \otimes 1} P_{1} \otimes M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f_{1} \otimes 1} P_{0} \otimes M^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f_{0} \otimes 1} 0$.
Now recall that $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}\left(M, M^{\prime}\right)$ is defined to be $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}\left(M, M^{\prime}\right)=\frac{\operatorname{Ker}\left(f_{n} \otimes 1\right)}{\operatorname{Im}\left(f_{n+1} \otimes 1\right)}$.
2.2. Proposition. Let $M$ be an $R$-module, and suppose that $I$ is an ideal of $R$ with $I M \neq M$. If $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}\left(\frac{R}{I}, \frac{M}{I M}\right)=0$, then $I M$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule for each $1<n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. Put $K=I M$. By the short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow M \rightarrow \frac{M}{K} \rightarrow 0$, and according to [7, Theorem 6.26], there is an exact sequence

$$
0=\operatorname{Tor}_{1}\left(\frac{R}{I}, \frac{M}{K}\right) \xrightarrow{f} \frac{R}{I} \otimes_{R} K \xrightarrow{g} \frac{R}{I} \otimes_{R} M .
$$

The natural homomorphism $h: K \longrightarrow \frac{M}{I M}$ induces a homomorphism $\bar{h}: \frac{K}{I K} \longrightarrow \frac{M}{I M}$. Also note that there is an isomorphism $\theta_{L}: \frac{R}{I} \otimes_{R} L \longrightarrow \frac{L}{I L}$, for each $R$-module $L$.

In the following diagram the rows are exact and it is easy to see that the rectangle is commutative:

$$
\begin{array}{cccccc} 
& 0=\operatorname{Tor}_{1}\left(\frac{R}{I}, \frac{M}{K}\right) & \xrightarrow{f} & \frac{R}{I} \otimes_{R} K & \xrightarrow{g} & \frac{R}{I} \otimes_{R} M \\
& \downarrow \theta_{K} & & \downarrow \theta_{M} \\
0 \longrightarrow & \operatorname{Ker} \bar{h} & \longrightarrow & \frac{K}{I K} & \xrightarrow{\bar{h}} & \frac{M}{I M}
\end{array}
$$

It follows that $\operatorname{Ker} \bar{h} \cong \operatorname{Kerg}=\operatorname{Imf}=0$. On the other hand, $\operatorname{Ker} \bar{h}=\frac{I M}{I K}$, hence $K=I M=I K$. Therefore by Lemma 2.1, $(K: M) K=(I M: M) I M=I(I M: M) M=$ $I(I M)=I K=K$, and evidently $(K: M) K=K$ implies that $K$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule for each $1<n \in \mathbb{N}$.
2.3. Corollary. Let $M$ be an $R$-module and $I$ an ideal of $R$ with $I M \neq M$. Then $I M$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule of $M$, for each $1<n \in \mathbb{N}$, if one of the following holds:
(i) $\frac{M}{I M}$ is a flat $\frac{R}{A n n M}$-module.
(ii) $\frac{R}{I}$ is a flat $R$-module.

Proof. Put $K=I M$. Note that $\frac{\left(K:_{R} M\right)}{A n n M}=\left(K:_{\frac{R}{A n} M} M\right)$, thus $K$ is an $n$-almost prime $R$-submodule of $M$, if and only if it is an $n$-almost prime $\frac{R}{A n n M}$-submodule of $M$. Therefore we can replace $\frac{R}{A n n M}$ with $R$ for simplification.

We know that if $\frac{R}{I}$ or $\frac{M}{K}$ is a flat $R$-module, then $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}\left(\frac{R}{I}, \frac{M}{K}\right)=0$ (see for example [7, Theorem 7.2]). Now the proof follows from Proposition 2.2.

The following example shows that the converse of Corollary 2.3 is not necessarily true.
Example. Let $M=R=\mathbb{Z}$, and $I=2 \mathbb{Z}$. Then evidently $2 \mathbb{Z}$ is a prime ideal [resp. submodule] of $R$ [resp. the $R$-module $M$ ], with $\operatorname{Ann} M=0$. However $\frac{R}{I}$ is not a flat $R$-module, since it is not torsion-free.

Recall that a ring $R$ is called a Von Neumann regular ring, if for any $a \in R, R a=R a^{2}$. By [7, Corollary 4.10], every semi-simple ring is a Von Neumann regular ring.
2.4. Corollary. Let $M$ be an $R$-module, where $R$ is a Von Neumann regular ring and suppose $I$ is an ideal of $R$. If $I M \neq M$, then $I M$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule for each $1<n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. According to [7, Theorem 4.9], every module over a Von Neumann regular ring is flat. So the proof is given by Corollary 2.3.
2.5. Lemma. Let $N$ be an $n$-almost prime submodule of $M$.
(i) If there exist $x \in M \backslash N$ and $r \in R \backslash(N: M)$ with $r x \in N$, then $r N \cup(N$ : $M) x \subseteq(N: M)^{n-1} N$.
(ii) If $0 \neq x+N \in \frac{M}{N}$, where $x \in M$, then $(\operatorname{ann}(x+N)) N \subseteq(N: M) N$.
(iii) $(N: M) N=\left(\bigcup_{x \in M \backslash N} \operatorname{ann}(x+N)\right) N$.

Proof. (i) As $N$ is $n$-almost prime, $r x \in(N: M)^{n-1} N$. Let $y$ be an arbitrary element of $N$. Then $y+x \notin N$ and $r(y+x)=r y+r x \in N$ and since $N$ is $n$-almost prime, $r(y+x) \in(N: M)^{n-1} N$. Therefore $r y \in(N: M)^{n-1} N$, and so $r N \subseteq(N: M)^{n-1} N$.

Now let $s$ be an arbitrary element of $(N: M)$. Clearly $r+s \notin(N: M)$ and $(r+s) x \in N$ and as $N$ is $n$-almost prime, $(r+s) x \in(N: M)^{n-1} N$. Then since $r x \in(N: M)^{n-1} N$, $s x \in(N: M)^{n-1} N$. Hence $(N: M) x \subseteq(N: M)^{n-1} N$.
(ii) Let $r \in \operatorname{ann}(x+N)$. Then $r x \in N$. If $r \in(N: M)$, then clearly $r N \subseteq(N: M) N$. If $r \notin(N: M)$, then in this case by part (i), $r N \subseteq(N: M)^{n-1} N \subseteq(N: M) N$.
(iii) Evidently $(N: M) \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in M \backslash N} \operatorname{ann}(x+N)$. Then by part (ii) we have,
$(N: M) N \subseteq\left(\bigcup_{x \in M \backslash N} \operatorname{ann}(x+N)\right) N \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in M \backslash N}(\operatorname{ann}(x+N) N) \subseteq(N: M) N$.
2.6. Proposition. Let $I$ be an ideal of a ring $R$ and $N$ a submodule of an $R$-module M.
(i) If $I M \neq I N, I N \neq N$, then $K=I N$ is $n$-almost prime if and only if $K=(K$ : $M)^{n-1} K$.
(ii) If for some positive integer $k>1, I^{k-1} M \neq I^{k} M=K$, then $K$ is $n$-almost prime if and only if $K=(K: M)^{n-1} K$. Consequently in this case $K$ is almost prime if and only if $K$ is $n$-almost prime, for any (or some) positive integer $n \geq 3$.
(iii) Let $R$ be an integral domain and M a Noetherian module with $\operatorname{ann}(N)=0$. Then for every proper ideal $I$ of $R$ with $I M \neq I N, I N$ is not $n$-almost prime.

Proof. (i) If $K=(K: M)^{n-1} K$, then clearly $K$ is $n$-almost prime. Now assume $K$ is $n$-almost prime. Evidently $K$ is almost prime. If $K \neq(K: M) K$, then consider $a \in I$ and $x \in N$, where $a x \notin(K: M) K$. Then since $a x \in I N=K \backslash(K: M) K$, either $a \in(K: M)$ or $x \in K$. Let $a \in(K: M)$. As $K=I N \subset I M, I \nsubseteq(K: M)$ and so we can choose an element $r \in I \backslash(K: M)$. As $r x \in I N=K$, Lemma 2.5(i) implies that $(K: M) x \subseteq(K: M) K$, and so $a x \in(K: M) K$.

Now suppose that $x \in K$. By our assumption $N \nsubseteq K$, hence there exists $z \in N \backslash K$. Note that $a z \in I N=K$. Again by Lemma 2.5(i), $a K \subseteq(K: M) K$. Then in this case $a x \in(K: M) K$.

Therefore $K=(K: M) K$, and consequently $K=(K: M)^{n-1} K$.
(ii) We have $I M \neq K$, otherwise $I^{k-1} M \subseteq I M=K=I^{k} M \subseteq I^{k-1} M$, which is impossible. Now apply part (i) for $N=I^{k-1} M$.
(iii) Clearly $N \neq I N$, otherwise by Nakayama's lemma, there exists $s \in I$ such that $(s+1) N=0$ and since $\operatorname{ann}(N)=0,1=-s \in I$, which is a contradiction with the fact that $I \neq R$.

Note that $(I N: M) N \subseteq I N$. If $I N$ is $n$-almost prime, then $I N$ is almost prime and so by part (i), $I N=(I N: \bar{M}) I N=I(I N: M) N \subseteq I^{2} N \subseteq I N$, that is $I N=I^{2} N$. Again by Nakayama's lemma, for some $t \in I,(t+1) I N=0$. As $\operatorname{ann}(N)=0,(t+1) I=0$. So $1=-t \in I$ or $I=0$, which is a contradiction with the fact that $I \neq R$ and $I M \neq I N$. Consequently $I N$ is not $n$-almost prime.

Recall that a ring $R$ is said to be ZPI-ring, if every non-zero proper ideal of $R$ can be written as a product of prime ideals of $R$ (see [6, Chapters VI and IX]). According to [6, Theorem 9.10], every ZPI-ring is a Noetherian ring.
2.7. Theorem. Let $M$ be an $R$-module and $I$ an ideal of $R$ with $I M \neq M$.
(i) If $R$ is a ZPI-ring and $I M$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule, then $I M=I^{n} M$, or $I M=P M$, where $P$ is a prime ideal of $R$.
(ii) If $R$ is a Dedekind domain, then $I M$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule if and only if $I M=I^{n} M$ or $I M$ is a prime submodule of $M$.
(iii) If $(R, m)$ is a local ZPI-ring and $I M$ is finitely generated, then $I M$ is $n$-almost prime if and only if $I M=0$ or $I M=m M$.

Proof. (i) Let $I=P_{1}^{k_{1}} \ldots P_{m}^{k_{m}}$, where $P_{i}^{\prime} s$ are distinct prime ideals of $R$ and $k_{i}^{\prime} s$ are positive integers.

Assume that $I M \neq P M$ for each prime ideal $P$ of $R$. Then $I M=P_{1}^{k_{1}} \ldots P_{m}^{k_{m}} M$ and without loss of generality we may suppose that $I M \neq P_{1}^{k_{1}-1} P_{2}^{k_{2}} \ldots P_{m}^{k_{m}} M$ and $\left(k_{1}-1\right)+$ $k_{2}+k_{3}+\cdots+k_{m}>0$.

Put $N=P_{1}^{k_{1}-1} P_{2}^{k_{2}} \ldots P_{m}^{k_{m}} M$ and $K=I M$. Then $K=P_{1} N$ and $P_{1} M \neq K$ and $K \neq$ $N$, then by Proposition 2.6(i), $K=(K: M)^{n-1} K$, that is $I M=(I M: M)^{n-1}(I M)$, and by Lemma 2.1(i), $(I M: M)^{n-1}(I M)=I(I M: M)^{n-1} M=I^{n} M$. Thus $I M=I^{n} M$.
(ii) Let $R$ be a Dedekind domain and suppose $I M$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule. By part (i), $I M=I^{n} M$, or $I M=P M$, where $P$ is a prime ideal of $R$.

If $I M=P M$, where $P$ is a prime ideal of $R$, then $P=0$ or $P$ is a maximal ideal of $R$. Evidently $P=0$ implies that $I^{n} M=0=I M$. Now suppose $P$ is a maximal ideal of $R$. As $P \subseteq(P M: M)$, we have $P=(P M: M)$ or $P M=M$. By our hypothesis $P M=I M \neq M$, then $(I M: M)=(P M: M)=P$ and so $I M$ is a prime submodule of $M$, by Lemma 2.1(ii).

Now for the converse, suppose that $I M=I^{n} M$. Then by Lemma 2.1(iii), $I M$ is $n$-almost prime.
(iii) If $I M=m M$, then by Lemma 2.1 (ii), $m M$ is a prime submodule. Also clearly 0 is an $n$-almost prime submodule.

Now assume that $I M$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule of $M$. By [ 6 , Theorem 9.10], $R$ is a Noetherian ring. If $m=m^{2}$, by Nakayama's lemma, $m=0$, then $R$ is a field and so $I M=0$.

Now let $m^{2} \neq m$. Choose $x \in m \backslash m^{2}$. Then $m^{2} \subset m^{2}+R x \subseteq m$. By [6, Theorem 9.10], there are no ideals of $R$ strictly between $m^{2}$ and $m$. So $m^{2}+R x=m$ and by Nakayama's lemma, $m=R x$.

Now let $P$ be a non-zero prime ideal of $R$, and $0 \neq y \in P$. By the Krull Intersection Theorem, we have $\cap_{n=1}^{+\infty} m^{n}=0$. Thus there is a positive integer $k$ such that $y \in m^{k}$ and $y \notin m^{k+1}$. Since $y \in m^{k}=R x^{k}$, there exists an element $u \in R$ such that $y=u x^{k}$, and since $y \notin m^{k+1}, u \notin m$. Then $u$ is a unit element of $R$. Hence $x^{k}=u^{-1} y \in P$. We know that $P$ is a prime ideal of $R$, so $x \in P$, that is $m=P$. Whence $m$ is the only nonzero prime ideal of $R$. Now by part (i), $I M=I^{n} M$ or $I M=m M$

If $I M=m M$, then Lemma 2.1(ii) implies that $I M$ is a prime submodule.
In case $I M=I^{n} M$, Nakayama's lemma implies that $I M=0$.
The following result is an obvious consequence of the above theorem.
2.8. Corollary. Let $R$ be a ZPI-ring and $I$ a proper ideal of $R$.
(i) $I$ is an $n$-almost prime ideal if and only if $I=I^{n}$ or $I$ is a prime ideal.
(ii) If $(R, m)$ is a local ring, then $I$ is an $n$-almost prime ideal if and only if $I=$ 0 or $I=m$.
2.9. Proposition. Let $M$ be an $R$-module, and $I$ an ideal which is a product of a finite number of maximal ideals of $R$. Then $I M$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule if and only if $I M$ is a prime submodule of $M$, or $I M=I^{n} M$.

Proof. For each maximal ideal $P$ of $R$, we have $P \subseteq(P M: M)$, then by Lemma 2.1(ii), $P M$ is a prime submodule or $P M=M$. Thus if $I M$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule, which is not a prime submodule, then there exist maximal ideals $P_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq m$ and positive numbers $k_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq m$ such that $I M=P_{1}^{k_{1}} P_{2}^{k_{2}} \cdots P_{m}^{k_{m}} M$ and $I M \neq$ $P_{1}^{k_{1}-1} P_{2}^{k_{2}} \cdots P_{m}^{k_{m}} M$. Therefore if we put $N=P_{1}^{k_{1}-1} P_{2}^{k_{2}} \cdots P_{m}^{k_{m}} M$ and $K=P_{1} N$, since $K$ is not prime, we get $K \neq P_{1} M$, also $K=P_{1} N \neq N$, hence by Proposition 2.6(i), $K=(K: M)^{n-1} K$.

Consequently by Lemma 2.1(i), $K=I M=(I M: M)^{n-1}(I M)=I(I M: M)^{n-1} M=$ $I^{n} M$.

For the converse suppose $I M=I^{n} M$. Then according to Lemma 2.1(iii), $I M$ is $n$ almost prime.

Recall that a multiplicatively closed subset of a ring $R$ is a subset $S$ such that $0 \notin S$ and $1 \in S$ and $x y \in S$ for each $x, y \in S$.

The following result studies when the localization of an $n$-almost prime submodule is $n$-almost prime.
2.10. Proposition. Let $N$ be an $n$-almost prime submodule of an $R$-module $M$, and $S$ a multiplicatively closed subset of $R$.
(i) If $S \cap(N: M)=\emptyset$ and for some $x \in M \backslash N, S \cap\left((N: M)^{n-1} N: x\right)=\emptyset$, then $S^{-1} N \neq S^{-1} M$.
(ii) If $S^{-1} N \neq S^{-1} M$, then $S^{-1} N$ is an n-almost prime submodule of $S^{-1} M$.

Proof. (i) Let $x \in M \backslash N$. If $S^{-1} N=S^{-1} M$, then there exists an element $s \in S$ such that $s x \in N$. Since $S \cap\left((N: M)^{n-1} N: x\right)=\emptyset$, $s x \notin(N: M)^{n-1} N$. As $N$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule and $x \notin N, s \in(N: M) \cap S$, which is a contradiction. Hence $S^{-1} N \neq S^{-1} M$.
(ii) Let for $\frac{r}{s} \in S^{-1} R, \frac{y}{t} \in S^{-1} M, \frac{r}{s} \frac{y}{t} \in S^{-1} N \backslash\left(S^{-1} N: S^{-1} M\right)^{n-1} S^{-1} N$. Then there exists an element $u \in S$ such that ury $\in N$. If ury $\in(N: M)^{n-1} N$, then $\frac{r y}{s t}=$ $\frac{u r y}{u s t} \in S^{-1}\left((N: M)^{n-1} N\right) \subseteq\left(S^{-1} N: S^{-1} M\right)^{n-1} S^{-1} N$, a contraction. Hence ury $\in$ $N \backslash(N: M)^{n-1} N$. As $N$ is almost prime, either $u r \in(N: M)$ or $y \in N$, so either $\frac{r}{s}=\frac{u r}{u s} \in S^{-1}(N: M) \subseteq\left(S^{-1} N: S^{-1} M\right)$ or $\frac{y}{t} \in S^{-1} N$.

## 3. Essential multiplicatively closed subsets

Recall that an ideal $I$ of a ring $R$ is said to be essential if $I \cap J \neq 0$, for each nonzero ideal $J$ of $R$ (that is $J \nsubseteq 0$ ). In this section we introduce a similar notion for multiplicatively closed subsets of $R$, and we find some connections between this notion and $n$-almost primes.

Definition. Let $S$ be a multiplicatively closed subset of $R$ and $P$ a prime ideal of $R$ with $S \cap P=\emptyset$. Then $S$ will be called $P$-essential, if $S \cap J \neq \emptyset$, for each ideal $J$ with $J \nsubseteq P$.

Evidently $R \backslash P$ is a $P$-essential multiplicatively closed subset, for each prime ideal $P$ of $R$.

Recall that a multiplicatively closed subset $S$ of $R$ is said to be saturated if

$$
x y \in S \Longleftrightarrow x, y \in S
$$

The following lemma is a well known result (see [2, p. 44, Exercise 7 (ii)]).
3.1. Lemma. Let $S$ be a multiplicatively closed subset of $R$. Then

$$
\bar{S}=R \backslash \cup\{P \mid P \text { is a prime ideal with } P \cap S=\emptyset\}
$$

is a saturated multiplicatively closed subset of $R$ containing $S$ and there is no saturated multiplicatively closed subset of $R$ strictly between $S$ and $\bar{S}$.

It is obvious that for each prime ideal $P$ of $R$, the ring $R_{P}$ is a local ring and the ideal $P_{P}$ is a maximal ideal of $R_{P}$. The following result shows that $S^{-1} R$ being a local ring is indeed related to $P$-essentiality of $S$.

Let $S$ be a multiplicatively closed subset of $R$. For any ideal $J$ of $S^{-1} R$, we consider $J^{c}=\{r \in R \mid r / 1 \in J\}$.
3.2. Proposition. Let $S$ be a multiplicatively closed subset of $R$ and $P$ a prime ideal of $R$ with $S \cap P=\emptyset$. Then the following are equivalent:
(i) $S$ is $P$-essential;
(ii) $S^{-1} R=R_{P}$;
(iii) $\bar{S}=R \backslash P$;
(iv) $S^{-1} P$ is the only maximal ideal of $S^{-1} R$.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ Clearly $S^{-1} R \subseteq R_{P}$, since $S \subseteq R \backslash P$. Now suppose that $\frac{y}{t} \in R_{P}$. Hence as $t \in R \backslash P$, for some $r \in \bar{R}$, we have $r t \in S \subseteq R \backslash P$, and so $r \in R \backslash P$. Then $\frac{y}{t}=\frac{r y}{r t} \in S^{-1} R$ and hence $S^{-1} R=R_{P}$.
(ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) Since $P \cap S=\emptyset$, by Lemma 3.1, $\bar{S} \subseteq R \backslash P$. Now let $r \in R \backslash P$. We have $1 / r \in R_{P}=S^{-1} R$, then there exists $s \in S, x \in R$ with $1 / r=x / s$. Thus for some $s^{\prime} \in S$ we have $s^{\prime} r x=s s^{\prime} \in S \subseteq \bar{S}$, and so $r \in \bar{S}$, because $\bar{S}$ is saturated.
$(i i i) \Rightarrow(i v)$ Let $m$ be a maximal ideal of $S^{-1} R$. Then $m^{c}$ is a prime ideal of $R$ with $m^{c} \cap S=\emptyset$. Note that $R \backslash\left(P \cup m^{c}\right)$ is a saturated multiplicatively closed subset of $R$ and since $S \subseteq R \backslash\left(P \cup m^{c}\right) \subseteq(R \backslash P)=\bar{S}$, Lemma 3.1 implies that $R \backslash\left(P \cup m^{c}\right)=(R \backslash P)=\bar{S}$. Hence $m^{c} \subseteq\left(P \cup m^{c}\right)=P$, and thus $m=S^{-1}\left(m^{c}\right) \subseteq S^{-1} P$, and so $m=S^{-1} P$, because of maximality of $m$.
$(i v) \Rightarrow(i)$ Let $J$ be an ideal of $R$ such that $J \nsubseteq P$. If $J \cap S=\emptyset$, since $S^{-1} P$ is the only maximal ideal of $S^{-1} R$, we have $S^{-1} J \subseteq S^{-1} P$. So $J \subseteq P$, which is impossible. Consequently $S$ is $P$-essential.
3.3. Theorem. Let $N$ be an $n$-almost prime submodule of an $R$-module $M$ with $I=$ $(N: M)$. Then $S=\left[(R \backslash I) \cup\left(I^{n-1} N: M\right)\right] \backslash P$ is $P$-essential, for each prime ideal $P$ of $R$.

Proof. First to prove that $S$ is multiplicatively closed, let $r, s \in S$. If $r s \notin S$, then $r s \in I$. Also $r s \notin P$, because if $r s \in P$, then $r \in P$ or $s \in P$, although $S \cap P=\emptyset$. Thus $r s \in I \backslash P$.

If $r \in\left(I^{n-1} N: M\right)$ or $s \in\left(I^{n-1} N: M\right)$, then $r s \in\left(I^{n-1} N: M\right) \backslash P$, and so $r s \in S$.
Now on the contrary suppose $r, s, r s \notin\left(I^{n-1} N: M\right)$. Hence there exists $m \in M$ such that $r s m \notin I^{n-1} N$, and we know that $r s \in I=(N: M)$, therefore $r s m \in N \backslash I^{n-1} N$.

As $r, s \in S \subseteq\left[(R \backslash I) \cup\left(I^{n-1} N: M\right)\right]$ and $r, s \notin\left(I^{n-1} N: M\right)$, we have $r, s \notin I=$ $(N: M)$. Note that $r s m \in N \backslash I^{n-1} N$ and $r, s \notin(N: M)$ and $N$ is $n$-almost prime, thus $m \in N$.

Now consider $m^{\prime} \in M \backslash N$. If $r s m^{\prime} \notin I^{n-1} N$, the above argument shows that $m^{\prime} \in N$, which is impossible.

Then we may assume $r s m^{\prime} \in I^{n-1} N$. Thus for $x=m+m^{\prime}$, we have $r s x \in N \backslash I^{n-1} N$. Now since $m \in N$ and $m^{\prime} \notin N$, we have $x \notin N$, consequently $r \in(N: M)=I$ or $s \in(N: M)=I$, which is a contradiction.

Next we will prove that $S$ is $P$-essential. Let $J$ be an ideal of $R$ such that $J \nsubseteq P$. If $I \subseteq P$, then $S=R \backslash P$, and obviously $S$ is $P$-essential. So suppose that $I \nsubseteq P$.

If $J \cap S=\emptyset$, it is easy to see $J \cap\left[(R \backslash I) \cup\left(I^{n-1} N: M\right)\right] \subseteq P$ and so $J \subseteq I \cup P$. Therefore $J \subseteq I$

Note that $I=(N: M)$, so $I^{n} M=I^{n-1}(N: M) M \subseteq I^{n-1} N$, that is $I^{n} \subseteq\left(I^{n-1} N\right.$ : $M)$. Hence $J^{n} \subseteq J \cap I^{n} \subseteq J \cap\left(I^{n-1} N: M\right) \subseteq P$, which is impossible. Consequently $J \cap S \neq \emptyset$ and so $S$ is $P$-essential.
3.4. Corollary. Let $I$ be an ideal of $R$ such that $N(R) \subseteq I^{n}$ and consider $S_{P}=$ $\left[(R \backslash I) \cup I^{n}\right] \backslash P$. Then the following are equivalent:
(i) $I$ is $n$-almost prime;
(ii) $S_{P}$ is multiplicatively closed for any prime ideal $P$;
(iii) $S_{P}$ is multiplicatively closed for any minimal prime ideal $P$.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ The proof is given by Theorem 3.3.
(ii) $\Rightarrow($ iii $)$ The proof is evident.
(iii) $\Rightarrow(i)$ Let $a b \in I \backslash I^{n}$. So $a b \notin N(R)$ and there exists a minimal prime ideal $P$ of $R$ such that $a b \notin P$. Then $a b \notin S_{P}$. Hence $a \notin S_{P}$ or $b \notin S_{P}$. Therefore $a \in I$ or $b \in I$.
3.5. Corollary. Let $R$ be an integral domain and $M$ an $R$-module.
(i) If $N$ is an $n$-almost prime submodule of $M$ with $(N: M)=I$, then $S=$ $[(R \backslash I) \cup(I N: M)] \backslash\{0\}$ is a multiplicatively closed subset of $R$ and $S^{-1} R$ is a field.
(ii) An ideal $I$ of $R$ is $n$-almost prime if and only if $S=\left[(R \backslash I) \cup I^{n}\right] \backslash\{0\}$ is a multiplicatively closed subset of $R$. When this is the case, $S^{-1} R$ is a field.

Proof. (i) The proof is given by Theorem 3.3 and Proposition 3.2.
(ii) The proof of the first part is given by Corollary 3.4. By part (i), $S^{-1} R$ is a field, if $I$ is $n$-almost prime.

The following remark studies the converse of the above corollary.
Remark. Let $S$ be a saturated multiplicatively closed subset of $R$ such that $S^{-1} R$ is a field. Then there exist prime ideals $I$ and $P$ of $R$ such that $S=\left[(R \backslash P) \cup I^{2}\right] \backslash P$.

Proof. Since $S$ is a multiplicatively closed subset of $R$, there exists a prime ideal $P$ of $R$ with $P \cap S=\emptyset$. Then $S^{-1} P$ is a proper ideal of $S^{-1} R$ and $S^{-1} R$ is a field, so $S^{-1} P$ is the only maximal ideal of $S^{-1} R$. Hence by Proposition 3.2, $\bar{S}=R \backslash P$. Note that $S$ is a saturated multiplicatively closed subset of $R$, then by Lemma 3.1, $S=\bar{S}=R \backslash P$. Thus it is enough to consider $I=P$.

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