IN THE NAME OF ALLAH

RINGS WHOSE CYCLICS ARE ESSENTIALLY EMBEDDABEL IN PROJECTIVE MODULES

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TO:

MY PARENTS

AND

TO ALL THOSE WHOM I LOVE

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Now that another page is turned, because of acknowledgement to God, I am gratefull to the suffering of all those that I am their guideness's own. I appreciate from my dear and honourable professor Mr. Dr. Majid Ershad due to his unsparingly guidnesses and efforts. Also, I appreciate from honourable professors, Mr. Dr. H. Sharif and Dr. Mehdi Hakim Hashemi, who undertook the consultant of this smallest student. At the end, I introduce my endlessness grateful to all of my teachers.

ABSTRACT

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For the first time Nakayama introduced QF-ring. In 1967 Carl.Faith and Elbert A. Walker showed that R is QF-ring if and only if each injective right R-module is projective if and only if each injective left R-modules is projective.

In 1987 S.K.Jain and S.R.Lopez-Permouth proved that every ring homomorphic images of R has the property that each cyclic S-module is essentially embeddable in direct summand of S if and only if R is a direct sum of right uniserial rings if and only if R is a semiperfect ring whose cyclics are essentially embeddable in a direct summand of R.

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CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

Throughout our dissertation, unless stated otherwise, all modules are unital.

As usual mod-R (R-mod) denotes the category of right(left) R-modules.

1.1 Categories

Definition 1.1.1 A category is a class C of objects (denoted by A, B, C, \ldots) together with (i) a class of disjoint sets, denoted by hom (A, B), one for each pair of objects in C; (an element f of hom (A, B) is called a morphism from A to B and is denoted by $f: A \longrightarrow B$) such that (ii) for each triple (A, B, C) of objects of C a function hom $(B, C) \times$ hom $(A, B) \longrightarrow$ hom(A, C) (for morphisms $f: A \longrightarrow B, g: B \longrightarrow C$ this function is written by $(g, f) \longrightarrow g \circ f$ and $g \circ f: A \longrightarrow C$ is called the composite of f and g); all subject to the axioms: (1) Associativity: If $f: A \longrightarrow B, g: B \longrightarrow C, h: C \longrightarrow D$ are morphisms of C, then $h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$.

(2) Identity: for each object B of C there exists a morphism $1_B: B \longrightarrow B$ such that for any $f: A \longrightarrow B, g: B \longrightarrow C, 1_B \circ f = f$ and $g \circ 1_B = g$.

1.2 Indecomposable module

Definition 1.2.1. A non-zero module M is indecomposable if o and

M are its only direct summands.

A pair of idempotents e_1 and e_2 in a ring R are said to be orthogonal if $e_1e_2=0=e_2e_1$.

An idempotent $e \in R$ is called a primitive idempotent in case $e \neq 0$ and for every pair e_1, e_2 of orthogonal idempotents

$$e = e_1 + e_2$$
 implies $e_1 = 0$ or $e_2 = 0$.

If $e = e^2 \in R$, then e and 1 - e are orthogonal idempotents such that 1 = e + (1 - e).

Proposition 1.2.1. Let M be a non-zero module. Then the following are equivalent:

- (a) M is indecomposable.
- (b) 0 and 1 are the only idempotents in End(M).
- (c) 1 is a primitive idempotent in End(M).

Proof. See [1, 5.10].

Proposition 1.2.2. Let e be a non-zero idempotent endemorphism of a left module M. Then the direct summand Me of M is indecomposable if and only if e is a primitive idempotent in End(M).

Proof. See [1, 5.11].

Proposition 1.2.3. Let $e \in R$ be a non-zero idempotent. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (a) e is a primitive idempotent;
- (b) Re is a primitive left ideal of R;
- (c) eR is a primitive right ideal of R;

- (d) Re is an idecomposable direct summand of RR;
- (e) eR is an indecomposable direct summand of R_R ;
- (f) The ring eRe has exactly one non-zero idempotent, namely e.

Proof. See [1, 7.4].

1.3 Free Modules

Definition 1.2.2. A subset X of a left R-module M is said to be linearly independent provided for distinct $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in X$ and $r_i \in R, r_1x_1 + \cdots + r_nx_n = 0$ implies that $r_i = 0$ for every i. If M is generatored as an R-module by a set Y then we say that Y spans M. If R has an identity and M is unitary, then Y spans M if and only if every element of M can be written as a linear combination $r_1y_1 + r_2y_2 + \cdots + r_ny_n(r_i \in R, y_i \in Y)$. A linearly independent subset of M that spans M is called a basis of M.

Theorem 1.2.4. Let R be a ring with identity, the following conditions on a unitary left R-module F are equivalent:

- (i) F has a nonempty basis.
- (ii) F is the internal direct sum of a family of cyclic modules, each of which is isomorphic as left R-module to R.
- (iii) F is R-module isomorphic to a direct sum of copies of the left R-module R.
- (iv) There exists a nonempty set X and function $i: X \longrightarrow F$ with the following property:

Given any unitary R-module M and function $F: X \longrightarrow M$, there is a

unique R-module homomorphism $\bar{f}: F \longrightarrow M$ such that $\bar{f}i = f$. In other words, F is a free object in the category of unitary R-modules.

Proof. See [8, iv.2.1].

Definition 1.2.3. A unitary module F over a ring R with identity which satisfies the equivalent conditions of the above theorem, is called a free R-module.

1.4 Projective and injective modules

Definition 1.2.4. Let R be a ring. A right R-module P is called projective if given any diagram of R-module homomorphisms

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & P & & \\ & \downarrow h & & \\ A & \xrightarrow{g} & B & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array}$$

with A and B are right R-modules and the bottom row is exact (that is g is an epimorphism), there exists an R-module homomorphism $f: P \longrightarrow A$ such that the diagram

$$P$$

$$f \swarrow \downarrow h$$

$$A \xrightarrow{g} B \longrightarrow 0$$

is commutative (that is gf = h).

Proposition 1.2.5. Every free right module F over a ring R with

identity is projective.

Proof. See [8, 3.2].

Theorem 1.2.6. Let R be a ring. The following conditions on a right R-module P are equivalent:

- (1) P is projective.
- (2) If P is a factor module of any module M, then P is a direct factor of M.
 - (3) P is direct summand of a free module.

Proof. See [8, 3.4].

Definition 1.2.5. A right R-module E is called injective, if given any diagram of R-module homomorphism

which A and B are right R-modules and the top row is exact (that is g is a monomorphism), there exists an R-module homomorphism $h: B \longrightarrow E$ such that the diagram

is commutative (that is hg = f).

Proposition 1.2.7. A direct product of R-modules $\Pi_{i \in I} J_i$ is injective

Dually, a submodule K of M is superfluous (or small) in M, abbreviated $K \ll M$, in case for every submodule $L \leq M$, K + L = M implies L = M.

A monomorphism $f: K \longrightarrow M$ is said to be essential in case $Imf \subseteq M$. An epimorphism $g: M \longrightarrow N$ is superfluous in case kerg << M.

Theorem 1.6.1 Let M be a module with submodules $K \leq N \leq M$ and $H \leq M$. Then

- (1) $K \trianglelefteq M$ iff $K \trianglelefteq N$ and $N \trianglelefteq M$;
- (2) $H \cap K \subseteq M$ iff $H \subseteq M$ and $K \subseteq M$.

Proof. (1) LEt $K \subseteq M$ and suppose $0 \neq L \leq M$, then $L \cap K \neq 0$. In particular this is true if $L \leq N$, so $K \subseteq N$. But also $K \leq N$ so $L \cap N \neq 0$ whence $N \subseteq M$.

Conversely, if $K \leq N$ and $N \leq M$ and $L \leq M$, then $L \cap K = 0$ implies $L \cap N = 0$ implies L = 0.

(2) one implication follows at once from (1). For the other, suppose $H \subseteq M$ and $K \subseteq M$ with $L \cap H \cap K = 0$, then $L \cap H = 0$; because $K \subseteq M$. whence L = 0 because $H \subseteq M$.

Theorem 1.6.2. Let M be a module with submodules $K \leq N \leq M$ and $H \leq M$. Then

- (1) $N \ll M$ iff $K \ll M$ and $\frac{N}{K} \ll \frac{M}{K}$;
- (2) H + K << M iff H << M and K << M.

Proof. See [1, 5.17].

Theorem 1.6.3. Suppose that $K_1 \leq M_1 \leq M$, $K_2 \leq M_2 \leq M$, and $M = M_1 \oplus M_2$; then

if and only if J_i is injective for every $i \in I$.

Proof. See [8, IV.3.7].

Proposition 1.2.8. Every unitary module A over a ring R with identity may be embedded in an injective R-module.

Proof. See[8, 3.12].

1.5 Idempotents

Definition 1.2.5. Let R be a ring. An element $e \in R$ is an idempotent in case $e^2 = e$. A ring always has at least two idempotents, namely 0 and 1. An idempotent e of R is a central idempotent in case it is in the center of R.

Definition 1.2.6. Let I be an ideal in a ring R and let g+I be an idempotent element of $\frac{R}{I}$. We say that this idempotent can be lifted (to e) modulo I in case there is an idempotent $e \in R$ such that g+I=e+I. We say that idempotents lift modulo I in case every idempotent in $\frac{R}{I}$ can be lifted to an idempotent in R.

A finite orthogonal set of idempotents e_1, \ldots, e_n in a ring R is said to be complete in case $e_1 + \cdots + e_n = 1 \in R$.

1.6 Module

Definition 1.2.7. A submodule K of M is essential (or large) in M, abbreviated $K \subseteq M$, in case for every submodule $L \subseteq M$, $K \cap L = 0$ implies L = 0.

Dually, a submodule K of M is superfluous (or small) in M, abbreviated $K \ll M$, in case for every submodule $L \leq M$, K + L = M implies L = M.

A monomorphism $f: K \longrightarrow M$ is said to be essential in case $Imf \subseteq M$. An epimorphism $g: M \longrightarrow N$ is superfluous in case kerg << M.

Theorem 1.6.1 Let M be a module with submodules $K \leq N \leq M$ and $H \leq M$. Then

- (1) $K \subseteq M$ iff $K \subseteq N$ and $N \subseteq M$;
- (2) $H \cap K \subseteq M$ iff $H \subseteq M$ and $K \subseteq M$.

Proof. (1) LEt $K \subseteq M$ and suppose $0 \neq L \leq M$, then $L \cap K \neq 0$. In particular this is true if $L \leq N$, so $K \subseteq N$. But also $K \leq N$ so $L \cap N \neq 0$ whence $N \subseteq M$.

Conversely, if $K \subseteq N$ and $N \subseteq M$ and $L \subseteq M$, then $L \cap K = 0$ implies $L \cap N = 0$ implies L = 0.

(2) one implication follows at once from (1). For the other, suppose $H \subseteq M$ and $K \subseteq M$ with $L \cap H \cap K = 0$, then $L \cap H = 0$; because $K \subseteq M$. whence L = 0 because $H \subseteq M$.

Theorem 1.6.2. Let M be a module with submodules $K \leq N \leq M$ and $H \leq M$. Then

- (1) $N \ll M$ iff $K \ll M$ and $\frac{N}{K} \ll \frac{M}{K}$;
- (2) H + K << M iff H << M and K << M.

Proof. See [1, 5.17].

Theorem 1.6.3. Suppose that $K_1 \leq M_1 \leq M$, $K_2 \leq M_2 \leq M$, and $M = M_1 \oplus M_2$; then

- (1) $K_1 \oplus K_2 << M_1 \oplus M_2$ iff $K_1 << M_1$ and $K_2 << M_2$;
- (2) $K_1 \oplus K_2 \unlhd M_1 \oplus M_2$ iff $K_1 \unlhd M_1$ and $K_2 \unlhd M_2$.

Proof. See [1, 5.20].

Definition 1.2.9. A nonzero module H is uniform in case each of its non-zero submodules is essential in H.

Definition 1.2.10. Let $(T_{\alpha})_{\alpha \in A}$ be an indexed set of simple submodules of M. If M is the direct sum of this set, then $M = \bigoplus_A T_{\alpha}$ is a semisimple decomposition of M. A module M is said to be semisimple in case it has a semisimple decomposition. Clearly every simple module is semisimple.

Definition 1.2.11. The ring R is called left semisimple when the left R-module R is semisimple. Similarly we define a right semisimple ring.

Theorem 1.2.12. For a left R-module the following statements are equivalent:

- (a) M is semisimple;
- (b) M is generated by simple modules;
- (c) M is the sum of some set of simple submodules;
- (d) M is the sum of its simple submodules;
- (e) Every submodule of M is a direct summand.

Proof. See [1,9.6].

Definition 1.2.12. A commutative ring is a local ring in case it has a

unique maximal ideal.

Definition 1.3.1. A ring R is left(right) self-injective in case $_RR(R_R)$ is injective.

Definition 1.3.2. An injective hull (or injective envelope) for a module A is any injective module which is an essential extension of A.

Theorem 1.3.2. In the category of left R-modules over a ring R:

- (1) M is injective if and only if M = E(M);
- (2) If $M \leq N$, then E(M) = E(N);
- (3) If $M \leq Q$, with Q injective, then $Q = E(M) \oplus E'$;
- (4) If $\bigoplus_A E(M_\alpha)$ is injective (for instance, if A is finite) then

$$E(Q_A M_\alpha) = \bigoplus_A E(M_\alpha).$$

Proof. See [1, 18.12].

1.3 Composition series

Definition 1.3.1. Let M be a non-zero module. A finite chain of n+1 submodules of M $M=M_0>M_1>\cdots>M_n=0$ is called a composition series of length n for M provided that $\frac{M_{i-1}}{M_i}$ is simple $(i=1,2,\ldots,n)$; *i.e.*, provided that each term in the chain is maximal in its predecessor.

Let M be an arbitary module and let $L \leq M$. Then whether or not L is a term in a composition series for M, if L has a maximal submodule