PRIME M-IDEALS, M-PRIME SUBMODULES, M-PRIME RADICAL AND M-BAER'S LOWER NILRADICAL OF MODULES

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ABSTRACT. Let M be a fixed left R-module. For a left R-module X, we introduce the notion of M-prime (resp. M-semiprime) submodule of X such that in the case M=R, it coincides with prime (resp. semiprime) submodule of X. Other concepts encountered in the general theory are M-m-system sets, M-n-system sets, M-prime radical and M-Baer's lower nilradical of modules. Relationships between these concepts and basic properties are established. In particular, we identify certain submodules of M, called "prime M-ideals", that play a role analogous to that of prime (two-sided) ideals in the ring R. Using this definition, we show that if M satisfies condition H (defined later) and $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X) \neq 0$ for all modules X in the category $\sigma[M]$, then there is a one-to-one correspondence between isomorphism classes of indecomposable M-injective modules in $\sigma[M]$ and prime M-ideals of M. Also, we investigate the prime M-ideals, M-prime submodules and M-prime radical of Artinian modules.

1. Introduction

All rings in this paper are associative with identity and modules are unitary left modules. Let R be a ring and X be an R-module. If Y is a submodule (resp. proper submodule) of X we write $Y \leq X$ (resp. $Y \subsetneq X$).

In the literature, there are many different generalizations of the notion of prime two-sided ideals to left ideals and also to modules. For instance, a proper left ideal L of a ring R is called prime if, for any elements a and b in R such that $aRb \subseteq L$, either $a \in L$ or $b \in L$. Prime left ideals have properties reminiscent of prime ideals in commutative rings. For example, Michler [19] and Koh [12] proved that the ring R is left Noetherian if and only if every prime left ideal is finitely generated. Moreover, Smith [20], showed that if R is left Noetherian (or even if R has finite left Krull dimension) then

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a left R-module X is injective if and only if, for every essential prime left ideal L of R and homomorphism $\varphi:L\to X$, there exists a homomorphism $\theta: R \to X$ such that $\theta|_L = \varphi$. Let us mention another generalization of the notion of prime ideals to modules. Let X be a left R-module. If $X \neq 0$ and $Ann_R(X) = Ann_R(Y)$ for all nonzero submodules Y of X then X is called a prime module. A proper submodule P of X is called a prime submodule if X/Pis a prime module, i.e., for every ideal $I \subseteq R$ and every submodule $Y \subseteq X$, if $IY \subseteq P$, then either $Y \subseteq P$ or $IX \subseteq P$. The notion of prime submodule was first introduced and systematically studied by Dauns [7] and recently has received some attention. Several authors have extended the theory of prime ideals of R to prime submodules (see [2, 3, 4, 7, 10, 15, 17, 18]). For example, the classical result of Cohen is extended to prime submodules over commutative rings, namely a finitely generated module is Noetherian if and only if every prime submodule is finitely generated (see [15, Theorem 8] and [11]) and also any Noetherian module contains only finitely many minimal prime submodules (see [18, Theorem 4.2]).

We assume throughout the paper $_RM$ is a fixed left R-module. The category $\sigma[M]$ is defined to be the full subcategory of R-Mod that contains all modules $_RX$ such that X is isomorphic to a submodule of an M-generated module (see [21] for more detail).

Let C be a class of modules in R-Mod, and let Ω be the set of kernels of R-homomorphisms from M in to C. That is,

$$\Omega = \{ K \subseteq M \mid \exists W \in \mathcal{C} \text{ and } f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, W) \text{ with } K = \ker(f) \}.$$

Then the annihilator of C in M, denoted by $\operatorname{Ann}_M(C)$, is defined to be the intersection of all elements of Ω , i.e., $\operatorname{Ann}_M(C) = \bigcap_{K \in \Omega} K$.

Let N be a submodule of M. Following Beachy [1], for each module $_{R}X$ we define

$$N \cdot X = \operatorname{Ann}_X(\mathcal{C}),$$

where \mathcal{C} is the class of modules $_RW$ such that f(N) = (0) for all $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, W)$. It follows immediately from the definition that

$$N \cdot X = (0)$$
 if and only if $f(N) = (0)$ for all $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, X)$.

Clearly the class \mathcal{C} in the definition of $N \cdot X$ is closed under formation of submodules and direct products, and so $N \cdot X$ is the smallest submodule $Y \subseteq X$ such that $N \cdot (X/Y) = (0)$.

The submodule N of M is called an M-ideal if there is a class $\mathcal C$ of modules in $\sigma[M]$ such that $N = \mathrm{Ann}_M(\mathcal C)$. Note that although the definition of an M-ideal is given relative to the subcategory $\sigma[M]$, it is easy to check that N is an M-ideal if and only if $N = \mathrm{Ann}_M(\mathcal C)$ for some class $\mathcal C$ in R-Mod (see [1, Page 4651]).

In this article for a left R-module X, we introduce the notions of M-prime submodule, M-semiprime submodule of X and prime M-ideal of M as follows:

Definition 1.2. A proper M-ideal P of M is called a *prime* M-ideal (resp. semiprime M-ideal) if there exists an M-prime module (resp. M-semiprime module) $_RX$ such that $P = \operatorname{Ann}_M(X)$.

It is clear that in case M=R, the notion of an R-prime submodule (resp. R-semiprime submodule) reduces to the familiar definition of a prime submodule (resp. semiprime submodule). Also, the notion of an R-ideal (resp. prime R-ideal) of R reduces to the familiar definition of an ideal (resp. a prime ideal) of R.

Recently, the idea of M-prime module was introduced and extensively studied by Beachy [1] by defining a module $_RX$ to be M-prime if $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X) \neq 0$, and $\operatorname{Ann}_M(Y) = \operatorname{Ann}_M(X)$ for all submodules $Y \subseteq X$ such that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,Y) \neq 0$. Also, he defined an M-ideal P to be a prime M-ideal if there exists an M-prime module $_RX$ such that $P = \operatorname{Ann}_M(X)$. Clearly, our definition of M-prime module is slightly different than Beachy, and hence, for the sake of clarity, for the remainder of the paper we will use the term "Beachy-M-prime module" (resp. "Beachy-prime M-ideal") rather than "M-prime module" (resp. "prime M-ideal") of Beachy [1], respectively.

In ring theory, prime ideals are closely tied to m-system sets (a nonempty set $S \subseteq R$ is said to be an m-system set if for each pair a, b in S, there exists $r \in R$ such that $arb \in S$). The complement of a prime ideal is an m-system, and given an m-system set S, an ideal disjoint from S and maximal with respect to this property is always a prime ideal. Moreover, for an ideal I in a ring R, the set $\sqrt{I} := \{s \in R \mid \text{every m-system containing } s \text{ meets } I\}$ equals the intersection of all the prime ideals containing I. In particular, \sqrt{I} is a semiprime ideal in R and $\sqrt{(0)}$ is called Baer-McCoy radical (or prime radical) of R (see for example [14, Chapter 4], for more details). In this paper, we extend these facts for Mprime submodules. Relationships between these concepts and basic properties are established. In Section 2, among other results, for an R-module X we define M-Baer-McCoy radical (or M-prime radical) of X, denoted rad_M $(X) = {}^{M}/(0)$, to be the intersection of all the M-prime submodules in X. Also, in Section 3, we extend the notion of nilpotent and strongly nilpotent element of modules to M-nilpotent and strongly M-nilpotent element of modules $X \in \sigma[M]$ for a fixed module M. Also, for an R-module $X \in \sigma[M]$, we define M-Baer's lower nilradical of X, denoted by M-Nil_{*}($_RX$), to be the set of all strongly M-nilpotent elements of X. In particular, it is shown that if M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, then for each $X \in \sigma[M]$, $\operatorname{Nil}_*(M) \cdot X \subseteq M\operatorname{-Nil}_*(RX) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}_M(X)$ (see Proposition 3.6).

In Section 4, we rely on the prime M-ideals of M that play a role analogous to that of prime ideals in the ring R. The module $_RX$ is called M-injective if each R-homomorphism $f: K \to X$ defined on a submodule K of M can be extended to an R-homomorphism $\hat{f}: M \to X$ with $f = \hat{f}i$, where i: $K \to M$ is the natural inclusion mapping. We note that Baer's criterion for injectivity shows that any R-injective module is injective in the category R-Mod of all left R-modules. It is well-known that if R is a commutative Noetherian ring, then there is a one-to-one correspondence between isomorphism classes of indecomposable injective R-modules and prime ideals of R. Gabriel showed in [8] that this one-to-one correspondence remains valid for any left Noetherian ring that satisfies what he called condition H. In current terminology, a module _RX is said to be finitely annihilated if there is a finite subset x_1, \ldots, x_n of X with $\operatorname{Ann}_R(X) = \operatorname{Ann}_R(x_1, \dots, x_n)$. Then by definition the ring R satisfies condition H if and only if every cyclic left R-module is finitely annihilated. It follows immediately that, the ring R satisfies condition H if and only if every finitely generated left R-module is finitely annihilated. We note the stronger result due to Krause [13] that if R is left Noetherian, then there is a one-to-one correspondence between isomorphism classes of indecomposable injective left R-modules and prime ideals of R if and only if R is a left fully bounded ring (see [9, Theorem 8.12] for a proof). In [1, Theorem 6.7], Beachy shown that Gabriel's correspondence can be extended to M-injective modules, provided that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X) \neq 0$ for all modules X in $\sigma[M]$. In Section 4, by using our definition of prime M-ideal, we show that also there is a Gabriel correspondence between indecomposable M-injective modules in $\sigma[M]$ and our prime M-ideals.

Finally, in Section 5, we study the prime M-ideals, M-prime submodules and M-prime radical of Artinian modules. The prime radical of the module M, denoted by P(M), is defined to be the intersection of all prime M-ideals of M. Recall that a proper submodule P of M is virtually maximal if the factor module M/P is a homogeneous semisimple R-module, i.e., M/P is a direct sum of isomorphic simple modules. It is shown that if M is an Artinian M-prime module, then M is a homogeneous semisimple module (see Proposition 5.1). In particular, if M is an Artinian R-module such that it is projective in $\sigma[M]$, then every prime M-ideal of M is virtually maximal and M/P(M) is a Noetherian R-module (see Theorem 5.6). Moreover, either P(M) = M or there exist primitive (prime) M-ideals P_1, \ldots, P_n of M such that $P(M) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n P_i$ (see Theorem 5.7).

2. *M*-prime submodules and *M*-prime radical of modules

We begin this section with the following three useful lemmas.

Lemma 2.1 ([1, Proposition 1.6]). Let N be a submodule of M. Then for any R-module X, $N \cdot X = (0)$ if and only if $N \subseteq Ann_M(X)$.

Lemma 2.2 ([1, Proposition 1.9]). Let N and K be submodules of M.

- (a) If $N \subseteq K$, then $N \cdot X \subseteq K \cdot X$ for all submodules ${}_{R}X$.
- (b) If K is an M-ideal, then so is $N \cdot K$.
- (c) The submodule $N \cdot M$ is the smallest M-ideal that contains N.
- (d) If N is an M-ideal, then $N \cdot K \subseteq N \cap K$.

Lemma 2.3. Let Y_1 , Y_2 be submodules of $_RX$. If $Y_1 \subseteq Y_2$, then $N \cdot Y_1 \subseteq N \cdot Y_2$, for each submodule N of M.

Proof. Suppose $N \leq M$ and Y_1, Y_2 are submodules of ${}_RX$ with $Y_1 \subseteq Y_2$. Then $N \cdot Y_1 = \operatorname{Ann}_{Y_1}(\mathcal{C})$ and $N \cdot Y_2 = \operatorname{Ann}_{Y_2}(\mathcal{C})$, where \mathcal{C} is the class of modules ${}_RW$ such that f(N) = (0) for all $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, W)$. On the other hand $N \cdot Y_i = \bigcap_{K \in \Omega_i} K$ (i = 1, 2), where

$$\Omega_i = \{ K \subseteq Y_i \mid \exists W \in \mathcal{C} \text{ and } f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(Y_i, W) \text{ with } K = \ker(f) \}$$

Clearly, for each $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(Y_2, W)$, $f|_{Y_1} \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(Y_1, W)$, where $f|_{Y_1}$ is the restriction of f on Y_1 . Since $\ker(f|_{Y_1}) \subseteq \ker(f)$, we conclude that for each $K \in \Omega_2$, there exists $K' \in \Omega_1$ such that $K' \subseteq K$. Thus $N \cdot Y_1 \subseteq N \cdot Y_2$.

The following evident proposition offers several characterizations of an M-prime module.

Proposition 2.4. Let X be a nonzero R-module. Then the following statements are equivalent.

- (1) X is an M-prime module.
- (2) For every submodule $N \subseteq M$ and every nonzero submodule $Y \subseteq X$, if $N \cdot Y = (0)$, then $N \cdot X = (0)$.
- (3) For every M-ideal $N \subseteq M$ and every nonzero submodule $Y \subseteq X$, if $N \cdot Y = (0)$, then $N \cdot X = (0)$.
 - (4) For all nonzero submodules $Y_1, Y_2 \subseteq X$, $Ann_M(Y_1) = Ann_M(Y_2)$.
 - (5) Every nonzero submodule $Y \subseteq X$ is an M-prime module.
- (6) $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X) = 0$ or for every nonzero submodule $Y \subseteq X$, $P = \operatorname{Ann}_M(Y)$ is a prime M-ideal of M and $P = \operatorname{Ann}_M(X)$.

Proof. $(1) \Rightarrow (2) \Rightarrow (3)$ is clear.

- $(3) \Rightarrow (4)$. Let Y_1, Y_2 be two nonzero submodules of X and let $N_1 := \operatorname{Ann}_M(Y_1), \ N_2 := \operatorname{Ann}_M(Y_2)$. Thus by Lemma 2.1, $N_1 \cdot Y_1 = (0)$ and $N_2 \cdot Y_2 = (0)$. Since $N_1, \ N_2$ are M-ideals, $N_1 \cdot X = N_2 \cdot X = (0)$ by (3). Thus $N_1 \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}_M(X)$ and $N_2 \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}_M(X)$. On the other hand $\operatorname{Ann}_M(X) \subseteq N_1$ and $\operatorname{Ann}_M(X) \subseteq N_2$. Thus $N_1 = N_2 = \operatorname{Ann}_M(X)$.
- $(4)\Rightarrow (5)$. Let Y be a nonzero submodule of X. Assume that N is a submodule of M and Z be a nonzero submodule of Y such that $N\cdot Z=(0)$. So $N\subseteq \mathrm{Ann}_M(Z)$. By (4), $\mathrm{Ann}_M(Z)=\mathrm{Ann}_M(X)$ and so it follows that $N\subseteq \mathrm{Ann}_M(X)$ and hence $N\cdot X=(0)$. Since $N\cdot Y\subseteq N\cdot X$, so $N\cdot Y=(0)$. Thus Y is an M-prime module.

$$(5) \Rightarrow (1)$$
 and $(5) \Rightarrow (6) \Rightarrow (4)$ are clear.

Remark 2.5. Clearly every simple R-module X is an M-prime module. Now let R be a domain which is not a field and let M be a nonzero divisible R-module. Then every nonzero simple R-module X is an M-prime module, but X is not a Beachy-M-prime module, since $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M,X)=0$.

The following lemma shows that in the case $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X) \neq 0$, if X is an M-prime module then X is also a Beachy-M-prime module.

Lemma 2.6 ([1, Proposition 2.2]). Let X be an R-module such that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,$ $X \neq 0$. Then the following statements are equivalent.

- (1) X is a Beachy-M-prime module.
- (2) For every M-ideal N of M and every nonzero submodule Y of X with $M \cdot Y \neq (0)$, if $N \cdot Y = (0)$, then $N \cdot X = (0)$.
- (3) For each $m \in M \setminus Ann_M(X)$ and each $0 \neq f \in Hom_R(M,X)$, there exists $g \in Hom_R(M, f(M))$ such that $g(m) \neq 0$.
- (4) For any M-ideal $N \subseteq M$ and any M-generated submodule $Y \subseteq X$, if $N \cdot Y = (0)$, then $N \cdot X = (0)$.

Proposition 2.7. Let X be an R-module such that $Hom_R(M,X) \neq 0$. If X is an M-prime module then X is a Beachy-M-prime module.

Proof. By Proposition 2.4 and Lemma 2.6, it is clear.

The following example shows that the converse of Proposition 2.7 is not true in general.

Example 2.8. Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$. For each prime number p, $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}_{p_{\infty}}, \mathbb{Z}_{p_{\infty}}) \neq 0$ and for each proper \mathbb{Z} -submodule $Y \subsetneq \mathbb{Z}_{p_{\infty}}, \mathbb{Z}_{p_{\infty}} \cdot Y = (0)$, since $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}_{p_{\infty}}, Y)$ = (0). Thus by Lemma 2.6, $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{\infty}}$ is a Beachy- $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{\infty}}$ -prime module but it is not a $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{\infty}}$ -prime module, since $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{\infty}} \cdot \mathbb{Z}_{p_{\infty}} \neq (0)$.

Lemma 2.9 ([1, Proposition 5.5]). Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, and let N be any submodule of M. The following conditions hold for any module $_RX$ in $\sigma[M]$ and any submodule $Y\subseteq X$.

- (a) $N \cdot X = \sum_{f \in Hom_R(M,X)} f(N)$. (b) $N \cdot (X/Y) = (0)$ if and only if $N \cdot X \subseteq Y$.
- (c) If $N = Ann_M(X/Y)$, then $Ann_M(X/(N \cdot X)) = N$.

Proposition 2.10. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, and let $_RX \in \sigma[M]$. Then

- (i) For a submodule $P \subseteq X$, if P is an M-prime submodule of X, then X/Pis an M-prime module.
 - (ii) For an M-ideal $P \subseteq M$, the following conditions are equivalent.
 - (1) P is a prime M-ideal.
 - (2) P is an M-prime submodule of M.
 - (3) M/P is an M-prime module.

Proof. (i). Let N be a submodule of M and Y/P be a nonzero submodule of X/P such that $N \cdot (Y/P) = (0)$. By Lemma 2.9(b), $N \cdot Y \subseteq P$. Since P is an

- M-prime submodule, either $N \cdot X \subseteq P$ or $Y \subseteq P$. If $Y \subseteq P$, then Y/P = (0), a contradiction. Thus $N \cdot X \subseteq P$ and so $N \cdot (X/P) = (0)$ by Lemma 2.9(b). Thus by Proposition 2.4, X/P is an M-prime module.
- (ii) (1) \Rightarrow (2). Suppose that P is a prime M-ideal and $N \cdot K \subseteq P$, for an M-ideal N and submodule K of M with $K \not\subseteq P$. By assumption there is an M-prime module X with $P = \operatorname{Ann}_M(X)$, and so there exists $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M/P, X)$ with $f((K+P)/P) \neq (0)$. Since $N \cdot K \subseteq P$, we have $N \cdot K \subseteq P \cap K$. Now Lemma 2.9(b) implies that $N \cdot (K/(P \cap K)) = (0)$ and hence $N \cdot f((K+P)/P) = (0)$ (since $(K+P)/P \cong K/(P \cap K)$). Since X is an M-prime module, $N \cdot X = (0)$ by Proposition 2.4, and so $N \subseteq P$ (since $P = \operatorname{Ann}_M(X)$).
- $(2)\Rightarrow (3)$. Let N be an M-ideal and K/P be a nonzero submodule of M/P such that $N\cdot (K/P)=(0)$. Since M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, so $N\cdot K\subseteq P$ by Lemma 2.9(b). Now by (2) either $N\subseteq P$ or $K\subseteq P$. Since $K/P\neq (0)$, so $K\nsubseteq P$ and hence $N\subseteq P$. On the other hand $N\cdot M=N$, since N is an M-ideal. Thus $N\cdot M\subseteq P$ and hence by Lemma 2.9(b), $N\cdot (M/P)=(0)$. Now M/P is an M-prime module by Proposition 2.4.
- $(3) \Rightarrow (1)$. Since P is an M-ideal, $P = \operatorname{Ann}_M(M/P)$ and since M/P is an M-prime module, we conclude that P is a prime M-ideal. \square

The following example shows that even in the case the R-module M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, an M-prime module need not be a Beachy-M-prime module.

Example 2.11. Let $R = \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}$, $M = \mathbb{Q} \times \{0\}$ and $X = \{0\} \times \mathbb{Q}$. Then M is projective as an R-module, but $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, X) = 0$ implies on the on hand that X is an M-prime module, but it is not a Beachy-M-prime module.

Now we have to adapt the notion of an M-m-system set to modules ${}_{R}X$ (Behboodi in [2], has generalized the notion of m-system of rings to modules).

- **Definition 2.12.** Let X be an R-module. A nonempty set $S \subseteq X \setminus \{0\}$ is called an M-m-system if, for each submodule $N \subseteq M$, and for all submodules $Y, Z \subseteq X$, if $(Y+Z) \cap S \neq \emptyset$ and $(Y+N \cdot X) \cap S \neq \emptyset$, then $(Y+N \cdot Z) \cap S \neq \emptyset$.
- **Corollary 2.13.** Let X be an R-module. Then a submodule $P \subsetneq X$ is M-prime if and only if $X \setminus P$ is an M-m-system.
- *Proof.* (⇒). Suppose $S = X \setminus P$. Let N be a submodule of M and Y, Z be submodules of X such that $(Y + Z) \cap S \neq \emptyset$ and $(Y + N \cdot X) \cap S \neq \emptyset$. If $(Y + N \cdot Z) \cap S = \emptyset$ then $Y + N \cdot Z \subseteq P$. Hence $N \cdot Z \subseteq P$ and since P is an M-prime submodule, $Z \subseteq P$ or $N \cdot X \subseteq P$. It follows that $(Y + Z) \cap S = \emptyset$ or $(Y + N \cdot X) \cap S = \emptyset$, a contradiction. Therefore, $S \subseteq X \setminus \{0\}$ is an M-m-system set.
- (⇐). Let $S = X \setminus P$ be an M-m-system in X. Suppose $N \cdot Z \subseteq P$, where N is a submodule of M and Z is a submodule X. If $Z \not\subseteq P$ and $N \cdot X \not\subseteq P$, then $Z \cap S \neq \emptyset$ and $(N \cdot X) \cap S \neq \emptyset$. Thus $(N \cdot Z) \cap S \neq \emptyset$, a contradiction. Therefore, P is an M-prime submodule of X.

Proposition 2.14. Let X be an R-module, P be a proper submodule of X and $S := X \setminus P$. Then the following statements are equivalent.

- (1) P is an M-prime submodule.
- (2) S is an M-m-system.
- (3) For every submodule $N \leq M$ and for every submodule $Z \leq X$, if $Z \cap S \neq \emptyset$ and $(N \cdot X) \cap S \neq \emptyset$, then $(N \cdot Z) \cap S \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. $(1) \Leftrightarrow (2)$ is by Corollary 2.13.

- $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$ is clear.
- $(3) \Rightarrow (1)$. Suppose that $N \leq M$ and $Z \leq X$ such that $N \cdot Z \subseteq P$. If $N \cdot X \nsubseteq P$ and $Z \nsubseteq P$, then $(N \cdot X) \cap S \neq \emptyset$ and $Z \cap S \neq \emptyset$. It follows that $(N \cdot Z) \cap S \neq \emptyset$ by (3), i.e., $N \cdot Z \nsubseteq P$, a contradiction.

Proposition 2.15. Let X be an R-module, $S \subseteq X$ be an M-m-system and P be a submodule of X maximal with respect to the property that P is disjoint from S. Then P is an M-prime submodule of X.

Proof. Suppose $N \cdot Z \subseteq P$, where $N \leq M$ and $Z \leq X$. If $Z \not\subseteq P$ and $N \cdot X \not\subseteq P$, then by the maximal property of P, we have, $(P+Z) \cap S \neq \emptyset$ and $(P+N \cdot X) \cap S \neq \emptyset$. Thus $(P+N \cdot Z) \cap S \neq \emptyset$ and it follows that $P \cap S \neq \emptyset$, a contradiction. Thus P must be an M-prime submodule. \square

Next we need a generalization of the notion of \sqrt{Y} for any submodule Y of X. We adopt the following:

Definition 2.16. Let X be an R-module. For a submodule Y of X, if there is an M-prime submodule containing Y, then we define

$$\sqrt[M]{Y} = \{x \in X : \text{every } M\text{-m-system containing } x \text{ meets } Y\}.$$

If there is no M-prime submodule containing Y, then we put $\sqrt[M]{Y} = X$.

Theorem 2.17. Let X be an R-module and $Y \leq X$. Then either $\sqrt[M]{Y} = X$ or $\sqrt[M]{Y}$ equals the intersection of all M-prime submodules of X containing Y.

Proof. Suppose that $\sqrt[M]{Y} \neq X$. This means that

 $\{P:\ P \text{ is an }M\text{-prime submodule of }X \text{ and }Y\subseteq P\}\neq\emptyset.$

We first prove that

$$\sqrt[M]{Y} \subseteq \bigcap \{P : | P \text{ is an } M\text{-prime submodule of } X \text{ and } Y \subseteq P\}.$$

Let $x \in \sqrt[M]{Y}$ and P be any M-prime submodule of X containing Y. Consider the M-m-system $X \setminus P$. This M-m-system cannot contain x, for otherwise it meets Y and hence also P. Therefore, we have $x \in P$. Conversely, assume $x \notin \sqrt[M]{Y}$. Then, by Definition 2.16, there exists an M-m-system S containing S which is disjoint from S. By Proposition 2.15, S which is maximal with respect to being disjoint from S. By Proposition 2.15, S is an S-prime submodule of S, and we have S is a desired. \square

Also, the following evident proposition offers several characterizations of M-semiprime modules.

Proposition 2.18. Let X be an R-module. Then the following statements are equivalent.

- (1) X is an M-semiprime module.
- (2) For every submodule $N \subseteq M$ and every submodule $Y \subseteq X$, if $N^2 \cdot Y = (0)$, then $N \cdot Y = (0)$.
 - (3) Every nonzero submodule $Y \subseteq X$ is an M-semiprime module.
- (4) For every nonzero submodule $Y \subseteq X$, $P = Ann_M(Y)$ is a semiprime M-ideal.

Proof. $(1) \Rightarrow (2) \Rightarrow (3) \Rightarrow (4)$ is clear.

 $(4) \Rightarrow (1)$. Suppose $(0) \neq Y \leq X$ and $N \leq M$ such that $N^2 \cdot Y = (0)$. It follows that $N^2 \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}_M(Y)$ and since $P = \operatorname{Ann}_M(Y)$ is a semiprime M-ideal, there exists an M-semiprime module Z such that $\operatorname{Ann}_M(Y) = \operatorname{Ann}_M(Z)$. Thus $N^2 \cdot Z = (0)$ and so $N \cdot Z = (0)$, i.e., $N \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}_M(Z) = \operatorname{Ann}_M(Y)$. Thus $N \cdot Y = (0)$. Therefore X is an M-semiprime module.

Proposition 2.19. Let X be an R-module. Then any intersection of M-semiprime submodules of X is an M-semiprime submodule.

Proof. Suppose $Z_i \subseteq X$ $(i \in I)$ are M-semiprime submodules of X and put $Z = \bigcap_{i \in I} Z_i$. Suppose $Y \subseteq X$ and $N \subseteq M$ such that $N^2 \cdot Y \subseteq Z$. It follows that $N^2 \cdot Y \subseteq Z_i$ for each i. Since each Z_i is an M-semiprime submodule, $N \cdot Y \subseteq Z_i$ for each i. Thus $N \cdot Y \subseteq Z$ and so Z is an M-semiprime submodule. \square

We recall the definition of the notion of n-system in a ring R. A nonempty set $T \subseteq R$ is said to be an n-system set if for each a in T, there exists $r \in R$ such that $ara \in T$ (see for example [14, Chapter 4], for more details). The complement of a semiprime ideal is an n-system set, and if T is an n-system in a ring R such that $a \in T$, then there exists an m-system $S \subseteq T$ such that $a \in S$ (see [14, Lemma 10.10]). This notion of n-system of rings has also generalized by Behboodi in [2] for modules. Now we have to adapt the notion of an M-n-system set to modules RX.

Definition 2.20. Let X be an R-module. A nonempty set $T \subseteq X \setminus \{0\}$ is called an M-n-system if, for every submodule $N \subseteq M$, and for all submodules $Y, Z \subseteq X$, if $(Y + N \cdot Z) \cap T \neq \emptyset$, then $(Y + N^2 \cdot Z) \cap T \neq \emptyset$.

Proposition 2.21. Let X be an R-module. Then a submodule $P \subsetneq X$ is an M-semiprime submodule if and only if $X \setminus P$ is an M-n-system.

Proof. (\Rightarrow). Let $T = X \setminus P$. Suppose N is a submodule of M and Y, Z are submodules of X such that $(Y + N \cdot Z) \cap T \neq \emptyset$. If $(Y + N^2 \cdot Z) \cap T = \emptyset$, then $(Y + N^2 \cdot Z) \subseteq P$. Since P is M-semiprime submodule, $(Y + N \cdot Z) \subseteq P$. Thus $(Y + N \cdot Z) \cap T = \emptyset$, a contradiction. Therefore, T is an M-n-system set in X.

(\Leftarrow). Suppose that $T = X \setminus P$ is an M-n-system in X. Suppose $N^2 \cdot Z \subseteq P$, where $N \leq M$, $Z \leq X$, but $N \cdot Z \nsubseteq P$. It follows that $(N \cdot Z) \cap T \neq \emptyset$ and so $(N^2 \cdot Z) \cap T \neq \emptyset$, a contradiction. Therefore, P is an M-semiprime submodule of X. □

The proof of the next proposition is similar to the proof of Proposition 2.14.

Proposition 2.22. Assume that P be a proper submodule of X and $T := X \setminus P$. Then the following statements are equivalent.

- (1) P is an M-semiprime submodule.
- (2) T is an M-n-system set.
- (3) For every submodule $N \leq M$ and for every submodule $Z \leq X$, if $(N \cdot Z) \cap T \neq \emptyset$, then $(N^2 \cdot Z) \cap T \neq \emptyset$.

Lemma 2.23 ([1, Proposition 5.6]). Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, and let K, N be submodules of M. Then $(K \cdot N) \cdot X = K \cdot (N \cdot X)$ for any module RX in $\sigma[M]$.

Proposition 2.24. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, and let $X \in \sigma[M]$. Then any M-prime submodule of X is an M-semiprime submodule.

Proof. Let $P \subsetneq X$ be an M-prime submodule of X and $N \subseteq M$, $Y \subseteq X$ such that $N^2 \cdot Y \subseteq P$. Since M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, so $N^2 \cdot Y = (N \cdot N) \cdot Y = N \cdot (N \cdot Y)$ by Lemma 2.23. Hence $N \cdot (N \cdot Y) \subseteq P$. Now by assumption, $N \cdot X \subseteq P$ or $N \cdot Y \subseteq P$. If $N \cdot Y \subseteq P$, then P is an M-semiprime submodule. If $N \cdot X \subseteq P$, then $N \cdot Y \subseteq N \cdot X \subseteq P$. Thus P is an M-semiprime submodule. \square

Corollary 2.25. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$ and $X \in \sigma[M]$. Then any intersection of M-prime submodules of X is an M-semiprime submodule.

Proof. It follows by Proposition 2.19 and Proposition 2.24. \Box

Corollary 2.26. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, and let $X \in \sigma[M]$. Then for each submodule Y of X, either $\sqrt[M]{Y} = X$ or $\sqrt[M]{Y}$ is an M-semiprime submodule of X.

Proof. By Theorem 2.17 and Corollary 2.25, it is clear. \Box

Definition 2.27. Let M be an R-module. For any module X, we define $\mathrm{rad}_M(X) = \sqrt[M]{(0)}$. This is called M-Baer-McCoy radical or M-prime radical of X. Thus if X has an M-prime submodule, then $\mathrm{rad}_M(X)$ is equal to the intersection of all the M-prime submodules in X but, if X has no M-prime submodule, then $\mathrm{rad}_M(X) = X$.

The following two propositions have been established in [2] for prime radical of modules. Now by the same method as [2], we extend these facts to M-prime radical of modules.

Proposition 2.28. Let X be an R-module and $Y \leq X$. Then $rad_M(Y) \subseteq rad_M(X)$.

Proof. Let P be any M-prime submodule of X. If $Y \subseteq P$, then $\operatorname{rad}_M(Y) \subseteq P$. If $Y \not\subseteq P$, then it is easy to check that $Y \cap P$ is an M-prime submodule of Y, and hence $\operatorname{rad}_M(Y) \subseteq (Y \cap P) \subseteq P$. Thus in any case, $\operatorname{rad}_M(Y) \subseteq P$. It follows that $\operatorname{rad}_M(Y) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}_M(X)$.

Lemma 2.29. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, and let X be an R-module in $\sigma[M]$ such that $X = \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}$ is a direct sum of submodules X_{λ} ($\lambda \in \Lambda$). Then for every submodule $N \subseteq M$, we have

$$N\cdot X=\bigoplus_{\lambda\in\Lambda}N\cdot X_\lambda.$$

Proof. Since for every $\lambda \in \Lambda$, $X_{\lambda} \subseteq X$, $N \cdot X_{\lambda} \subseteq N \cdot X$ for every $\lambda \in \Lambda$. It follows that $\bigoplus_{\Lambda} N \cdot X_{\lambda} \subseteq N \cdot X$. On the other hand, since M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, so $N \cdot X = \sum_{f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X)} f(N)$ and for every $\lambda \in \Lambda$, $N \cdot X_{\lambda} = \sum_{f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X_{\lambda})} f(N)$ by Lemma 2.9 (a). Now let $x \in N \cdot X$. Thus $x = \sum_{i=1}^t f_i(n_i)$ where $t \in \mathbb{N}$, $n_i \in N$ and $f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X)$. Since $f_i(n_i) \in X$, so for every $1 \leq i \leq t$, $f_i(n_i) = \{x_{\lambda}^{(i)}\}_{\Lambda}$, where $x_{\lambda}^{(i)} \in X_{\lambda}$. Thus $x = \{x_{\lambda}^{(1)} + \dots + x_{\lambda}^{(t)}\}_{\Lambda} = \{\pi_{\lambda}f_1(n_1) + \dots + \pi_{\lambda}f_t(n_t)\}_{\Lambda}$, where $\pi_{\lambda} : X \longrightarrow X_{\lambda}$ is the canonical projection for every $\lambda \in \Lambda$. It is clear that by Lemma 2.9, $\sum_{i=1}^t \pi_{\lambda}f_i(n_i) \in N \cdot X_{\lambda}$ for every $\lambda \in \Lambda$. Thus $x \in \bigoplus_{\Lambda} N \cdot X_{\lambda}$.

We note that, since in Lemma 2.29 we assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, so our product coincides with the product defined in [6, Definition 1.1]. Thus Lemma 2.29 is also proved in [6, Proposition 1.3 (8)].

Proposition 2.30. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, and let X be an R-module in $\sigma[M]$ such that $X = \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}$ is a direct sum of submodules X_{λ} ($\lambda \in \Lambda$). Then

$$rad_M(X) = \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} rad_M(X_{\lambda}).$$

Proof. By Proposition 2.28, $\operatorname{rad}_M(X_\lambda) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}_M(X)$ for all $\lambda \in \Lambda$. Thus $\bigoplus_{\Lambda} \operatorname{rad}_M(X_\lambda) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}_M(X)$. Now let $x \notin \bigoplus_{\Lambda} \operatorname{rad}_M(X_\lambda)$, for some $x \in X$. Then there exists $\mu \in \Lambda$ such that $\pi_{\mu}(x) \notin \operatorname{rad}_M(X_{\mu})$, where $\pi_{\mu} : X \to X_{\mu}$ denotes the canonical projection. Thus there exists an M-prime submodule Y_{μ} of X_{μ} such that $\pi_{\mu}(x) \notin Y_{\mu}$. Let $Z = Y_{\mu} \bigoplus (\bigoplus_{\lambda \neq \mu} X_{\lambda})$. It is easy to check by Lemma 2.29 that Z is an M-prime submodule of X and $X \notin Z$. Thus $X \notin \operatorname{rad}_M(X)$. It follows that $\operatorname{rad}_M(X) \subseteq \bigoplus_{\Lambda} \operatorname{rad}_M(X_{\lambda})$.

3. M-Baer's lower nilradical of modules

We recall the definition of a nilpotent element in a module. An element x of an R-module X is called nilpotent if $x = \sum_{i=1}^r a_i x_i$ for some $a_i \in R$, $x_i \in X$ and $r \in \mathbb{N}$, such that $a_i{}^k x_i = 0 (1 \le i \le r)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and x is called $strongly \ nilpotent$ if $x = \sum_{i=1}^r a_i x_i$, for some $a_i \in R$, $x_i \in X$ and $r \in \mathbb{N}$, such that for every i $(1 \le i \le r)$ and every sequence $a_{i1}, a_{i2}, a_{i3}, \ldots$ where $a_{i1} = a_i$

and $a_{in+1} \in a_{in}Ra_{in}(\forall n)$, we have $a_{ik}Rx_i = 0$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$ (see [4]). It is clear that every strongly nilpotent element of a module X is a nilpotent element but the converse is not true (see the example 2.3 [4]). In case that R is a commutative ring, nilpotent and strongly nilpotent are equal.

This notion has been generalized to modules over a projective module M in $\sigma[M].$

Definition 3.1. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, and let X be an R-module in $\sigma[M]$. Then an element $x \in X$ is called M-nilpotent if $x = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i f_i(m_i)$ for some $r_i \in R$, $m_i \in M$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, Rx_i)$, where $x_i \in X$ such that $r_i{}^k f_i(m_i) = 0 (1 \le i \le n)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Also, an element $x \in X$ is called $strongly\ M$ -nilpotent if $x = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i f_i(m_i)$ for some $r_i \in R$, $m_i \in M$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, Rx_i)$, where $x_i \in X$ such that for every $i(1 \le i \le n)$ and every sequence $r_{i1}, r_{i2}, r_{i3}, \ldots$, where $r_{i1} = r_i$ and $r_{it+1} \in r_{it}Rr_{it}$ ($\forall t$), we have $r_{ik}Rf_i(m_i) = 0$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proposition 3.2. Let X be an R-module. Then an element $x \in X$ is strongly nilpotent if and only if x is strongly R-nilpotent.

Proof. (\Rightarrow). Suppose that $x \in X$ is strongly nilpotent. Then $x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i x_i$ for some $r_i \in R$, $x_i \in X$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for every i $(1 \le i \le n)$ and for every sequence $r_{i1}, r_{i2}, r_{i3}, \ldots$, where $r_{i1} = r_i$ and $r_{it+1} \in r_{it}Rr_{it}$ ($\forall t$), we have $r_{ik}Rx_i = 0$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Now consider $f_i : R \to Rx_i$ such that $f_i(r) = rx_i$. Then $f_i(1) = x_i$ and it follows that $x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i f_i(1)$. Since $r_{ik}Rx_i = 0$ $(1 \le i \le n)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we conclude that $r_{ik}Rf_i(1) = 0$ $(1 \le i \le n)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, i.e., x is a strongly R-nilpotent element of X.

(\Leftarrow). Assume that $x \in X$ is strongly R-nilpotent. Thus $x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i f_i(a_i)$ for some $r_i, a_i \in R$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(R, Rx_i)$, where $x_i \in X$ such that for every i $(1 \le i \le n)$ and for every sequence $r_{i1}, r_{i2}, r_{i3}, \ldots$, where $r_{i1} = r_i$ and $r_{it+1} \in r_{it}Rr_{it}$ $(\forall t)$, we have $r_{ik}Rf_i(a_i) = 0$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Since $f_i(a_i) \in Rx_i \subseteq X$, we conclude that x is a strongly nilpotent element of X. \square

Proposition 3.3. Let X be an R-module. Then an element $x \in X$ is nilpotent if and only if x is R-nilpotent.

Proof. (⇒). Assume that $x \in X$ is nilpotent. Thus $x = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i x_i$ for some $r_i \in R$, $x_i \in X$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $r_i{}^k x_i = 0 (1 \le i \le n)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Now consider $f_i : R \to Rx_i$ such that $f_i(r) = rx_i$, so $f_i(1) = x_i$. It follows that $x = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i f_i(1)$. Since $r_i{}^k x_i = 0$ $(1 \le i \le n)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, so $r_i{}^k f_i(1) = 0$ $(1 \le i \le n)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, i.e., x is an R-nilpotent element of X. (⇐). Assume that $x \in X$ is an R-nilpotent element. Thus $x = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i f_i(a_i)$ for some $r_i, a_i \in R$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(R, Rx_i)$, where $x_i \in X$ such that $r_i{}^k f_i(a_i) = 0 (1 \le i \le n)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Since $f_i(a_i) \in Rx_i \subseteq X$, we conclude that x is a nilpotent element of X.

Proposition 3.4. Assume that R is a commutative ring, M is projective in $\sigma[M]$ and $X \in \sigma[M]$. Then an element $x \in X$ is M-nilpotent if and only if x is strongly M-nilpotent.

Proof. (\(\Rightarrow\)). Assume that $x \in X$ is M-nilpotent. Thus $x = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i f_i(m_i)$ for some $r_i \in R$, $m_i \in M$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, Rx_i)$, where $x_i \in X$ such that $r_i{}^k f_i(m_i) = 0$ $(1 \le i \le n)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Consider the sequence $r_{i1}, r_{i2}, r_{i3}, \ldots$, where $r_{i1} = r_i$ and $r_{it+1} \in r_{it}Rr_{it}$ for every $1 \le i \le n$ and $(\forall t)$. Thus there exists an element $r_{ik} = r_{i1}{}^k r'$ (where $r' \in R$) such that $r_{ik}Rf_i(m_i) = r_{i1}{}^k r'Rf_i(m_i) = 0$ (since R is commutative and $r_{i1}{}^k f_i(m_i) = 0$). Thus $x \in X$ is a strongly M-nilpotent element.

(⇐). Suppose that $x \in X$ is a strongly M-nilpotent element. Thus $x = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i f_i(m_i)$ for some $r_i \in R$, $m_i \in M$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, Rx_i)$, where $x_i \in X$ such that for every i $(1 \le i \le n)$ and for every sequence $r_{i1}, r_{i2}, r_{i3}, \ldots$, where $r_{i1} = r_i$ and $r_{it+1} \in r_{it}Rr_{it}$ (∀t), we have $r_{ik}Rf_i(m_i) = 0$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Consider the sequence $r_{i1}, r_{i2}, r_{i3}, \ldots$, where $r_{i1} = r_i$ and $r_{i2} = r_{i1}^2 = r_{i1}1r_{i1} \in r_{i1}Rr_{i1}$, $r_{i3} = r_{i1}^4 = r_{i1}1r_{i1}1r_{i1}1r_{i1} \in r_{i2}Rr_{i2}, \ldots$ By assumption, we have $r_{ik}Rf_i(m_i) = 0$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Since $r_{ik} = r_{i1}^{k'}$ for some $k' \in \mathbb{N}$, so $r_{i1}^{k'}Rf_i(m_i) = r_{ik}Rf_i(m_i) = 0$. Now for r = 1, we have $r_{i1}^{k'}1f_i(m_i) = 0$. Thus x is an M-nilpotent element.

We recall the definition of Baer's lower nilradical in a module. For any module X, $\operatorname{Nil}_*(_RX)$ is the set of all strongly nilpotent elements of X. In case R is a commutative ring, $\operatorname{Nil}_*(_RX)$ is the set of all nilpotent elements of X.

Definition 3.5. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$. For any module X in $\sigma[M]$, we define M- $Nil_*(_RX)$ to be the set of all strongly M-nilpotent elements of X. This is called M-Baer's lower nilradical of X.

Proposition 3.6. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$. Then for any module X in $\sigma[M]$

$$Nil_*(M) \cdot X \subseteq M - Nil_*(RX) \subseteq rad_M(X).$$

Proof. Since M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, by Lemma 2.9(a),

$$\operatorname{Nil}_*(M) \cdot X = \sum_{f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X)} f(\operatorname{Nil}_*(M)).$$

Now let $x \in \operatorname{Nil}_*(M) \cdot X$. Thus $x = \sum_{i=1}^s f_i(m_i)$ for some $m_i \in \operatorname{Nil}_*(M)$, $s \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X)$. Since $m_i \in \operatorname{Nil}_*(M)$, so $m_i = \sum_{j=1}^t r_{i_j} n_{i_j}$ for some $r_{i_j} \in R$, $n_{i_j} \in M$, $t \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for every j $(1 \leq j \leq t)$ and for every sequence $r_{i_{j_1}}, r_{i_{j_2}}, r_{i_{j_3}}, \ldots$, where $r_{i_{j_1}} = r_{i_j}$ and $r_{i_{j_{u+1}}} \in r_{i_{j_u}} Rr_{i_{j_u}}$ $(\forall u)$, we have $r_{i_{j_k}} Rn_{i_j} = 0$ for some $k_i \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus $x = \sum_{i=1}^s f_i(m_i) = \sum_{i=1}^s f_i(\sum_{j=1}^t r_{i_j} n_{i_j}) = \sum_{i=1}^s \sum_{j=1}^t r_{i_j} f_i(n_{i_j})$. Since $r_{i_{j_{k_i}}} Rn_{i_j} = 0$, we conclude that $0 = f_i(r_{i_{j_{k_i}}} Rn_{i_j}) = r_{i_{j_{k_i}}} Rf_i(n_{i_j})$ for some $k_i \in \mathbb{N}$, where $(1 \leq i \leq s)$ and $(1 \leq j \leq t)$. Thus $x \in M$ -Nil $_*(RX)$.

Let $x \in M$ -Nil $_*(RX)$ and $x \notin \operatorname{rad}_M(X) = \sqrt[M]{(0)}$. So $x = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i f_i(m_i)$ for some $a_i \in R$, $m_i \in M$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, Rx_i)$ such that for every i $(1 \leq i \leq n)$ and for every sequence $a_{i1}, a_{i2}, a_{i3}, \ldots$, where $a_{i1} = a_i$ and $a_{iu+1} \in a_{iu} Ra_{iu}$ ($\forall u$), we have $a_{ik} Rf_i(m_i) = 0$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Without loss of generality, we can assume that $a_1 f_1(m_1) \notin \operatorname{rad}_M(X)$. Thus there exists an M-m-system S such that $a_1 f_1(m_1) \in S$ and $0 \notin S$. On the other hand $a_1 f_1(m_1) \in Ra_1(Rm_1) \cdot (Rx_1)$. Thus $Ra_1(Rm_1) \cdot (Rx_1) \cap S \neq \emptyset$ and hence $Ra_1(Rm_1) \cdot X \cap S \neq \emptyset$. Therefore, if we put $N = Ra_1(Rm_1), Y = (0)$ and $Z = Ra_1(Rm_1) \cdot (Rx_1)$, then $(Ra_1(Rm_1))^2 \cdot (Rx_1) \cap S \neq \emptyset$ by Proposition 2.14. Since M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, by Lemma 2.9(a) and Lemma 2.23, we conclude that

$$(Ra_1(Rm_1))^2 \cdot (Rx_1) = (Ra_1(Rm_1) \cdot Ra_1(Rm_1)) \cdot (Rx_1)$$

$$= (Ra_1(Rm_1)) \cdot (Ra_1(Rm_1) \cdot (Rx_1))$$

$$= \sum_{f \in \text{Hom}_R(M, Ra_1(Rm_1) \cdot (Rx_1))} f(Ra_1(Rm_1)).$$

Assume that $s_1 = 1$, $a_{11} = a_1$ and $a_1 f_1(t_1 a_1 s_2 m_1) \in (Ra_1(Rm_1))^2 \cdot (Rx_1) \cap S$, where $s_2, t_1 \in R$. Since $a_1 f_1(t_1 a_1 s_2 m_1) = s_2 a_1 t_1 a_1 f_1(m_1)$ and $a_{12} = a_1 t_1 a_1$, so $s_2 a_{12} f_1(m_1) \in Ra_{12}(Rm_1) \cdot (Rx_1) \cap S$. It follows that $Ra_{12}(Rm_1) \cdot (Rx_1) \cap S \neq \emptyset$ and so

$$(Ra_{12}(Rm_1))^2 \cdot (Rx_1) \cap S \neq \emptyset.$$

Thus there exists $s_3a_{13}f_1(m_1) \in (Ra_{12}(Rm_1))^2 \cdot (Rx_1) \cap S$, where $s_3 \in R$, and $a_{13} := a_{12}t_2s_2a_{12}$ for some $t_2 \in R$. We can repeat this argument to get sequences $\{s_u\}_{u \in N}$ and $\{a_{1u}\}_{u \in \mathbb{N}}$ in R, where $a_{11} = a_1$ and $a_{1u+1} \in a_{1u}Ra_{1u}$ ($\forall u$), such that $s_ua_{1u}f_1(m_1) \in S$ for all $u \geq 1$. Now by our hypothesis $a_{1k}Rf_1(m_1) = 0$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, and so $s_ka_{1k}f_1(m_1) = 0 \in S$, a contradiction.

In case M = R, by Proposition 3.6, $\operatorname{Nil}_*(R) \cdot X \subseteq R\operatorname{-Nil}_*(RX) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}_R(X)$. Since by Proposition 3.2, $R\operatorname{-Nil}_*(RX)$ is the set of all strongly $R\operatorname{-nilpotent}$ elements of X, so we have $R\operatorname{-Nil}_*(RX) = \operatorname{Nil}_*(RX)$ (see also, [2, Lemma 3.2]).

Corollary 3.7. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$. Then

$$Nil_*(M) = Nil_*(M) \cdot M = M - Nil_*(M).$$

Proof. By Proposition 3.6, $\operatorname{Nil}_*(M) \cdot M \subseteq M - \operatorname{Nil}_*(M)$. Also, we have $\operatorname{Nil}_*(M) \cdot M = \sum_{f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)} f(\operatorname{Nil}_*(M))$, by Lemma 2.9 (a). Since $1_M \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,M)$, so $\operatorname{Nil}_*(M) \subseteq \operatorname{Nil}_*(M) \cdot M$. On the other hand, if $x \in M - \operatorname{Nil}_*(M)$, then $x = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i f_i(m_i)$ for some $r_i \in R$, $m_i \in M$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f_i \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,Rx_i)$, where $x_i \in M$ such that for every i $(1 \leq i \leq n)$ and for every sequence $r_{i1}, r_{i2}, r_{i3}, \ldots$, where $r_{i1} = r_i$ and $r_{it+1} \in r_{it}Rr_{it}$ $(\forall t)$, we have $r_{ik}Rf_i(m_i) = 0$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Since $f_i(m_i) \in Rx_i \subseteq M$, it follows that x is a strongly nilpotent element of M. So $x \in \operatorname{Nil}_*(M)$. It follows that $M - \operatorname{Nil}_*(M) \subseteq \operatorname{Nil}_*(M)$

and $\operatorname{Nil}_*(M) \subseteq \operatorname{Nil}_*(M) \cdot M \subseteq M - \operatorname{Nil}_*(M) \subseteq \operatorname{Nil}_*(M)$. Thus $\operatorname{Nil}_*(M) = \operatorname{Nil}_*(M) \cdot M = M - \operatorname{Nil}_*(M)$.

Corollary 3.8. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$. Then $rad_R(M) \subseteq rad_M(M)$.

Proof. By Proposition 3.6, we have $M\text{-Nil}_*(M) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}_M(M)$. On the other hand $\operatorname{Nil}_*(M) = M\text{-Nil}_*(M)$ by Corollary 3.7. Thus $\operatorname{Nil}_*(M) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}_M(M)$. Since M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, $\operatorname{rad}_R(M) = \operatorname{Nil}_*(M)$ by [2, Theorem 3.8]. Thus $\operatorname{rad}_R(M) = \operatorname{Nil}_*(M) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}_M(M)$.

Proposition 3.9. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$. If $X \in \sigma[M]$ such that $rad_M(X) = M\text{-Nil}_*(X)$, then $rad_M(Y) = M\text{-Nil}_*(Y)$ for any direct summand Y of X.

Proof. Suppose that $X=Y\oplus Z$, where Z,Y are submodules of X. By Proposition 3.6, M-Nil $_*(Y)\subseteq \operatorname{rad}_M(Y)$. Let $x\in\operatorname{rad}_M(Y)$. By Proposition 2.28, $x\in\operatorname{rad}_M(X)$. By hypothesis $x\in M$ -Nil $_*(X)$. Thus $x=\sum_{i=1}^n r_i f_i(m_i)$ for some $r_i\in R$, $m_i\in M$, $n\in\mathbb{N}$ and $f_i\in\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,Rx_i)$, where $x_i\in X$ such that for every i $(1\leq i\leq n)$ and for every sequence $r_{i1},r_{i2},r_{i3},\ldots$, where $r_{i1}=r_i$ and $r_{it+1}\in r_{it}Rr_{it}$ $(\forall t)$, we have $r_{ik}Rf_i(m_i)=0$ for some $k\in\mathbb{N}$. Since $x_i\in X$, there exist elements $y_i\in Y$, $z_i\in Z$ such that $x_i=y_i+z_i$ for each i $(1\leq i\leq n)$. On the other hand, $f_i(m_i)\in Rx_i$ for each i, and hence $f_i(m_i)=a_i(y_i+z_i)$ for some $a_i\in R$ $(1\leq i\leq n)$. It is clear that $x=r_1a_1y_1+r_2a_2y_2+\cdots+r_na_ny_n$, and $r_{ik}Ra_iy_i=0$ for some $k\in\mathbb{N}$ $(1\leq i\leq n)$. Now for each i $(1\leq i\leq n)$, we consider $g_i:M\xrightarrow{f_i}Rx_i\subseteq X\xrightarrow{\pi_i}Ry_i\subseteq Y$, where π_i is the natural projection map such that $g_i(m_i)=\pi_if_i(m_i)=\pi_i(a_i(y_i+z_i))=a_iy_i$. Thus $x=r_1a_1y_1+r_2a_2y_2+\cdots+r_na_ny_n=\sum_{i=1}^n r_ig_i(m_i)$, where $g_i\in\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,Ry_i)$ and $r_{ik}Ra_iy_i=r_{ik}Rg_i(m_i)=0$. It follows that $x\in M$ -Nil $_*(Y)$. Thus $\operatorname{rad}_M(Y)=M$ -Nil $_*(Y)$.

4. M-injective modules and prime M-ideals

The module $_RX$ is said to be M-generated if there exists an R-epimorphism from a direct sum of copies of M onto X. Equivalently, for each nonzero R-homomorphism $f:X\to Y$ there exists an R-homomorphism $g:M\to X$ with $fg\neq 0$. The trace of M in X is defined to be

$$tr^M(X) = \sum_{f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X)} f(M)$$

and thus X is M-generated if and only if $tr^{M}(X) = X$.

We recall the definition of prime M-ideal. The proper M-ideal P is said to be a prime M-ideal if there exists an M-prime module ${}_RX$ such that $P = \operatorname{Ann}_M(X)$.

Proposition 4.1. Let M an R-module with $Hom_R(M,X) \neq 0$ for every $X \in \sigma[M]$ and P be a proper M-ideal. Then P is a prime M-ideal if and only if P is a Beachy-prime M-ideal.

Proof. Assume that P is a prime M-ideal. Thus there exists an M-prime module X such that $P = \operatorname{Ann}_M(X)$. Since $P \neq M$, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X) \neq 0$. Thus by Proposition 2.7, X is a Beachy-M-prime module. Thus P is a Beachy-prime M-ideal.

Conversely, let P be a Beachy-prime M-ideal. Thus there exists a Beachy-M-prime module X in $\sigma[M]$ such that $P = \operatorname{Ann}_M(X)$. Since $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X) \neq 0$, so $X \neq (0)$. Now assume that Y is a nonzero submodule of X. So $Y \in \sigma[M]$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,Y) \neq 0$ by assumption. Therefore, $\operatorname{Ann}_M(X) = \operatorname{Ann}_M(Y)$ by the definition of Beachy-M-prime module. Thus by Proposition 2.4, X is an M-prime module and hence P is a prime M-ideal. \square

The module $_RX$ in $\sigma[M]$ is said to be finitely M-generated if there exists an epimorphism $f:M^n\to X$, for some positive integer n. It is said to be finitely M-annihilated if there exists a monomorphism $g:M/\mathrm{Ann}_M(X)\to X^m$, for some positive integer m. Also, the module $_RM$ is said to satisfy condition H if every finitely M-generated module is finitely M-annihilated. Note that if M=R and R is a fully bounded Noetherian ring, then M satisfies condition H. The same is true if M is an Artinian module, since then M/K has the finite intersection property.

In [1, Theorem 6.7], it is shown that if M is a Noetherian module such that M satisfies condition H and $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X) \neq 0$ for all modules X in $\sigma[M]$, then there is a one-to-one correspondence between isomorphism classes of indecomposable M-injective modules in $\sigma[M]$ and Beachy-prime M-ideals. Next, in the main result of this section, we show this fact is also true for a Noetherian module with condition H and the assumption $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,X) \neq 0$ for all modules X in $\sigma[M]$ via prime M-ideals.

Corollary 4.2. Let M be a Noetherian R-module. If M satisfies condition H and $Hom_R(M,X) \neq 0$ for all modules X in $\sigma[M]$, then there is a one-to-one correspondence between isomorphism classes of indecomposable M-injective modules in $\sigma[M]$ and prime M-ideals.

Proof. By [1, Theorem 6.7] and Proposition 4.1, it is clear. \Box

5. Prime M-ideals and M-prime radical of Artinian modules

Let M be an R-module. Recall that a proper submodule P of M is virtually maximal if the factor module M/P is a homogeneous semisimple R-module, i.e., M/P is a direct sum of isomorphic simple modules. Clearly, every virtually maximal submodule of M is prime. Also, every maximal submodule of M is virtually maximal and for M=R and R commutative, this is equivalent to the notion of maximal ideal in R.

We recall that Soc(M) is the sum of all minimal submodules of M. If M has no minimal submodule, then Soc(M) = (0).

Proposition 5.1. Let M be an Artinian R-module. If M is an M-prime module, then M is a homogeneous semisimple module.

Proof. Since M is an Artinian R-module, $\operatorname{Soc}(M) \neq (0)$. Hence there exists a simple submodule Rm of M where $0 \neq m \in M$. Since M is an M-prime module, $\operatorname{Ann}_M(Rm) = \operatorname{Ann}_M(M) = (0)$ by Proposition 2.4. Thus $(0) = \operatorname{Ann}_M(Rm) = \bigcap_{f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,Rm)} \ker(f)$. Since $Rm \cong M/\ker(f)$ for every $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,Rm)$, (0) is an intersection of maximal submodules and since M is Artinian, (0) must be a finite intersection of maximal submodules. It follows that M is isomorphic to a finite direct sum of copies of Rm. Thus M is a homogeneous semisimple module.

An M-ideal P is said to be a *primitive* M-ideal if $P = \operatorname{Ann}_M(S)$ for a simple module ${}_RS$ (see [1, Definition 3.5]).

Proposition 5.2. Let P be a proper M-ideal. If P is a primitive M-ideal, then P is a prime M-ideal.

Proof. If P is a primitive M-ideal, then $P = \operatorname{Ann}_M(S)$ for a simple R-module S. Since S has no nonzero proper submodule, S is an M-prime module by Proposition 2.4. Thus P is a prime M-ideal.

Proposition 5.3. Let M be an M-prime module with $Soc(M) \neq (0)$. Then (0) is a primitive M-ideal.

Proof. Since $\operatorname{Soc}(M) \neq (0)$, there exists a simple submodule Rm of M where $0 \neq m \in M$. Since M is an M-prime module, so $\operatorname{Ann}_M(Rm) = \operatorname{Ann}_M(M) = (0)$. Therefore, (0) is a primitive M-ideal.

Proposition 5.4. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$. If M is an Artinian R-module, then every prime M-ideal of M is virtually maximal.

Proof. Suppose that $P \subsetneq M$ is a prime M-ideal. Since M is projective in $\sigma[M], M/P$ is an M-prime module by Proposition 2.10. Since M/P is also an Artinian module, $\operatorname{Soc}(M/P) \neq (0)$ and hence there exists a simple submodule $R\bar{m}$ of M/P where $0 \neq \bar{m} \in M/P$. Since M/P is an M-prime module, $\operatorname{Ann}_M(R\bar{m}) = \operatorname{Ann}_M(M/P) = P$. On the other hand, $P = \operatorname{Ann}_M(R\bar{m}) = \bigcap_{f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,R\bar{m})} \ker(f)$. Since $R\bar{m} \cong M/\ker(f)$ for every $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,R\bar{m})$, P must be an intersection of maximal submodules. Since M/P is Artinian, P must be a finite intersection of maximal submodules, and so M/P is isomorphic to a finite direct sum of copies of $R\bar{m}$. Thus M/P is a homogeneous semisimple module, i.e., P is a virtually maximal submodule of M.

Definition 5.5. The *prime radical* of the module M, denoted by P(M), is defined to be the intersection of all prime M-ideals.

We note that each prime M-ideal is the annihilator of an M-prime module in M. It follows that $P(M) = \operatorname{rad}_{\mathcal{C}}(M)$, where \mathcal{C} is the class of all M-prime left R-modules. If RX is any module with a submodule Y such that X/Y is an M-prime module, then $\operatorname{rad}_{\mathcal{C}}(X) \subseteq Y$. In this case it follows from [1, Lemma 1.8] that $P(M) \cdot X \subseteq Y$.

Theorem 5.6. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$. If M is an Artinian R-module, then every prime M-ideal of M is virtually maximal and M/P(M) is a Noetherian R-module.

Proof. If M does not contain any prime M-ideal, then P(M) = M. Suppose that M contains a prime M-ideal. By Proposition 5.4, every prime M-ideal of M is virtually maximal. Let N be minimal in the collection $\mathcal S$ of M-ideals of M which are finite intersections of primes. If P is any prime M-ideal of M, then $P \cap N \in \mathcal S$ and $P \cap N \subseteq N$. Thus $N = P \cap N \subseteq P$ by minimality of N in $\mathcal S$. It follows that N = P(M). On the other hand, for each prime M-ideal, the factor module M/P is a homogeneous semisimple module with DCC. So M/P is Noetherian. Thus M/P is Noetherian for every prime M-ideal P of M. Since P(M) is a finite intersection of prime M-ideals, M/P(M) is also a Noetherian R-module.

The following theorem is a generalization of [2, Theorem 2.11].

Theorem 5.7. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$. If M be an Artinian R-module, then P(M) = M or there exist primitive M-ideals P_1, \ldots, P_n of M such that $P(M) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n P_i$.

Proof. Let P be a prime M-ideal of M. Since M is projective in $\sigma[M]$, so M/P is an M-prime module by Proposition 2.10 (ii). Since M/P is an Artinian R-module, $\operatorname{Soc}(M/P) \neq (0)$. Thus there exists a simple submodule $R\bar{m}$ of M/P where $0 \neq \bar{m} \in M/P$. Since M/P is an M-prime module, $\operatorname{Ann}_M(R\bar{m}) = \operatorname{Ann}_M(M/P)$. On the other hand, $\operatorname{Ann}_M(M/P) = P$, since P is an M-ideal. Thus P is a primitive M-ideal. Since P is an arbitrary prime M-ideal, so every prime M-ideal of M is a primitive M-ideal. On the other hand by Proposition 5.2, we have that every primitive M-ideal is a prime M-ideal. Thus P(M) is the intersection all of primitive M-ideals of M. Now let N be minimal in the collection S of M-ideals of M which are finite intersections of primes. If Q is any prime M-ideal of M, then $Q \cap N \in S$ and $Q \cap N \subseteq N$. Thus $N = Q \cap N \subseteq Q$ by minimality of N in S. It follows that N = P(M). Thus P(M) is a finite intersection of prime M-ideals. So there exist primitive M-ideals P(M) is a finite intersection of primitive P(M) is an P(M) is

Corollary 5.8. Assume that M is projective in $\sigma[M]$. If M be an Artinian M-prime module, then P(M) = (0).

Proof. By Proposition 5.3, (0) is a primitive M-ideal of M. It follows that P(M) = (0) by Theorem 5.7.

Minimal M-prime submodules are defined in a natural way. By Zorn's Lemma one can easily see that each M-prime submodule of a module X contains a minimal M-prime submodule of X. In [18, Theorem 5.2], it is shown that every Noetherian module contain only finitely many minimal prime submodules. It is easy to show that if X is a Noetherian module, then X contain only finitely many minimal M-prime submodules.

We conclude this paper with the following interesting result, which is a generalization of [2, Theorem 2.1].

Theorem 5.9. Let X be a Noetherian R-module. If every M-prime submodule of X is virtually maximal, then $X/rad_M(X)$ is an Artinian R-module.

Proof. By our hypotheses, for each M-prime submodule P of X, X/P is a homogeneous semisimple R-module. Since X is a Noetherian R-module, X/P is also Noetherian. This implies that X/P is an Artinian R-module. On the other hand $\operatorname{rad}_M(X) = P_1 \cap \cdots \cap P_n$ where P_1, \ldots, P_n are all minimal M-prime submodules of M. Thus $X/P_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus X/P_n$ is also an Artinian R-module. It follows that $X/\operatorname{rad}_M(X)$ is an Artinian R-module.

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