



ACTIONS OF FINITE GROUPS ON COMMUTATIVE RINGS AND INVARIANT IDEALS

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Abstract

Let R be a commutative ring with \cdot , and let $Aut(R)$ denote the group of ring automorphisms of R . We will usually consider a group $G \subseteq Aut(R)$. In this paper we will study the relation between G -invariant ideals and their traces. Also we study C.P modules and C.F modules.

تكن R حلقة إبدالية ذات عنصر محايد 1 ، ولتكن $G \subseteq Aut(R)$ زمرة منتهية من التشاكلات المتقابلة الذاتية من R إلى R ذات رتبة n . في هذا البحث سوف ندرس العلاقة بين المثالي اللامتغاير بفعل G وأثره. كذلك سوف ندرس المقاسات من النمط C.P ومن النمط C.F.

Introduction

Let R be a commutative ring with \cdot , and let $Aut(R)$ denote the group of ring automorphisms of R . We shall usually consider a group $G \subseteq Aut(R)$. The identity automorphism will be denoted by e . The fixed subring of G on R is $R^G = \{r \in R; g(r) = r, \text{ for all } g \in G\}$. An ideal I of the ring R is called a G -invariant ideal if $g(I) = I$, for all $g \in G$.

In this paper we study the relation between G -invariant ideals and their traces. On the other hand one can consider R as a module over R^G in the obvious way. In this paper we will study C.P modules and C.F modules. In fact we prove That if R is a Goldie ring that has no non-zero nilpotent elements and if R is a hereditary (flat) then R is a C.P (C.F) R^G -module.

We note finally that G in this paper is a finite group of order $|G| = n$.

1. The trace of R as R^G -module

Let R be a ring, and let G be a group of automorphisms of R . Let R^G denotes the fixed ring of R , we consider R as an R^G -module in the obvious way. Note that $R^G \neq 0$. Moreover since $1 \in R$, then R is a faithful R^G -module.

Proposition 1.1: Let R be any ring, and let G be a group of automorphisms of R . If R is a cyclic R^G -module, then $R = R^G$, and $G = \{e\}$. The converse is clear.

Proof: Since R is cyclic, then $\exists 0 \neq x \in R$, such that $R = R^G x$. But $1 \in R$ Then $\exists 0 \neq y \in R^G$, such that $1 = yx$. Thus y is invertible in R , and hence is invertible in R^G .

Thus $\exists 0 \neq z \in R^G$, such that $1 = yz$. Then $x = xyz = z$, which implies that $R = R^G z \subseteq R^G$, and hence $R = R^G$.

Next we give the following definitions:

Definition 1.1: Let G be a group of automorphisms of R , and let $|G|=n$, be the order of G . Assume $|G|$ is invertible in R , hence is invertible in R^G . We define the trace of R to be the function $T(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g_i(x)$, for each $x \in R$, where $G = \{g_1=e, g_2, \dots, g_n\}$.

Remark 1.1:

1. Note that $T(x) \in R^G$. Moreover, if one considers R as an R^G -module, then T is an R^G -module, homomorphism. Observe that

$$1 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g_i(1), \text{ and hence } T(R) = R^G, \text{ and } T(1) = 1.$$

2. $T(I)$ is an ideal in R^G ; for each ideal I in R . For any ring S , recall that for an S -module M , $\text{trace}(M) = T_S(M) = \sum_f f(M)$, where the sum is taken overall $f \in M^* = \text{Hom}(M, S)$, [1]. And the S -module M is called a generator, if $T_S(M) = S$, [9].

Since the map $T: R \rightarrow R^G$ is an R^G -homomorphism, then $T \in \text{Hom}_{R^G}(R, R^G)$

Moreover, by remark 1.1, if $|G|^{-1} \in R$, then $T(R) = R^G$. Thus $\text{trace}_{R^G} R = T(R) = R^G$. Hence we have:

Proposition 1.2: Let R be any ring, and let G be a finite group of automorphisms of R . If $|G|^{-1} \in R$, then R is a generator as an R^G -module.

An R -module M is called a self-generator, if for every cyclic submodule Ra , $Ra = \sum_{\varphi} \varphi(M)$,

where the sum is taken over all $\varphi: M \rightarrow Ra$. This implies that for each submodule N of M ; $N = \sum_{\varphi: M \rightarrow N} \varphi(M)$ where the sum is taken over all $\varphi: M \rightarrow N$, [9]. And a special self-generator, if for each cyclic submodule N of M , there exists $\varphi: M \rightarrow N$ such that $\varphi(M) = N$. Thus every special self-generator is a self-generator, [9].

Hence we have the following:

Proposition 1.3: Let R be any ring, with $|G|^{-1} \in R$, then R is a special self-generator R^G -module.

Proof: Let $T: R \rightarrow R^G$ be defined by $T(x) = |G|^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n g_i(x)$; $\forall x \in R$, and let

$\varphi_a: R^G \rightarrow R^G$ be defined by $\varphi_a(r) = ra$, $\forall r \in R^G$. $\varphi_a \circ T$ is an R^G -homomorphism, and $(\varphi_a \circ T)(R^G) = R^G$.

An R -module M is called a cancellation module, if whenever $AM = BM$ for some ideals A and B in R , then $A = B$, [12]. It is known that every faithful generator module is a cancellation module, [12], hence by proposition 1.3, we have:

Corollary 1.1: R is a cancellation R^G -module, provided $|G|^{-1} \in R$.

Recall that an R -module M is called a multiplication module, if for each submodule N of M , $N = IM$ for some ideal I of R , [13].

Proposition 1.4: Let R be any ring, and let G be a finite group of automorphisms of R . If R is a multi R plication R^G -module, With $|G|^{-1} \in R$ then R is a finitely generated R^G -module, and hence $\text{End}_{R^G}(R) = R^G$. Thus $\text{End}_{R^G}(R)$ is commutative.

Proof: R is a faithful R^G -module. Moreover, by corollary 1.1, R is a cancellation R^G -module. Thus by [12], R is finitely generated. The last assertion follows from [14].

2. G-invariant ideals

In this section we study G-invariant ideals in R . In fact we study the relation between G-invariant ideals and their traces. First we start by the following definition.

Definition 2.1: Let I be an ideal in a ring R , and let G be a group of automorphisms of R . I is said to be G-invariant ideal of R or G-ideal, if $g(I) \subseteq I$, $\forall g \in G$. Equivalently $g(I) = I$, for each $g \in G$, where $g(I) = \{g(a); a \in I\}$.

Examples and remarks 2.1:

1. If I is a G-invariant ideal, then $T(I) \subseteq I$. In fact, if $x \in T(I)$ then $x = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n g_k(a)$, for some $a \in I$, hence $x \in I$.

2. For any set $I = \{a_i, a_i \in R^G, i \in \Lambda\}$, the ideal RI in R generated by the set I in a G-invariant ideal. In fact, if $x \in I$, then $x = \sum r_i a_i, r_i \in R, a_i \in I$.

Let $y \in T(RI)$, then $y = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n g_k(x)$, for some $x \in RI$. Hence

$$y = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n g_k \left(\sum_i r_i a_i \right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \sum_{k=1}^n g_k(r_i) a_i, \text{ thus}$$

$y \in RI$. Therefore $T(RI) \subseteq RI$.

3. If I is any subset of R^G , then $\text{ann}_R(I)$ is a G-invariant ideal. In particular for each

$x \in R^G$, $ann_R(a)$ in G-invariant ideal. In fact, $\forall r \in ann_R(I)$, and $\forall x \in I, rx = 0$. Thus $0 = g(rx) = g(r)g(x) = g(r)x$, i.e. $g(r) \in ann_R(I)$.

- ξ. Note that every ideal of R^G is G-invariant ideal, but there are ideals not in R^G , that are G-invariant as is seen by the following example. This example shows also that the trace of a G-invariant ideal may be $\{0\}$.
- ο. Let F be a field of characteristics $\neq 2$, and let $R = F[x_1, x_2, \dots]$ be the ring of polynomials in an infinite countable set of indeterminates x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m , with the relation $x_i x_j = 0, \forall i, j$, in particular $x_i^2 = 0, \forall i$. Define $g : R \rightarrow R$ by $g(x_i) = -x_i, \forall i$ and $g(a) = a, \forall a \in F$, and then extend this action to all the elements of R in the obvious way to make g an automorphism of R . It is clear that $g^2 = e$, and if $G = \{e, g\}$ then $R^G = F$.

Now let $A = \{ax_1, a \in F\}$, then A is an ideal in R , A is a G-invariant ideal, since $g(ax_1) = g(a)g(x_1) = -ax_1$. However A is not contained in R^G . Note that $T(A) = 0$. Moreover, it is easily seen that every ideal in R is G-invariant, moreover, if $A_1 = id(x_1), A_2 = id(x_2)$, then $T(A_1) = 0, T(A_2) = 0$ but $A_1 \neq A_2$.

The following theorem shows that under certain conditions, $T(I)$ is not zero, but first we make the following simple remarks.

Remark 2.3: If I is a G-invariant ideal in R , then $T(I) = I \cap R^G$.

Remark 2.4: Let I be a subset of R^G . And let $RI, R^G I$ be the ideals generated by I in R and R^G respectively, then $T(RI) = R^G I$.

We observed in 2.2 (example ο) that $T(I)$ may be zero even if I is G-invariant. The following theorem shows that under certain conditions, $T(I)$ is not zero.

Theorem (Bergman-Issacs) 2.5. [11]

Let R be any ring with no non zero nilpotent elements, and let I be a non zero G-invariant ideal of R , with $|G| \in R$, then $T(I) \neq \{0\}$.

We need the following stronger result:

Proposition 2.6. [12]: Let R be any ring which has no non-zero nilpotent elements, and $|G| \in R$, then $T(I)$ does not vanish for any non-zero ideal I of R .

Proof: Suppose $T(I) = 0$, then $T(a) = 0$, for all $a \in I$. Let

$$J = \sum_{k=1}^n g_k(I) = \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n g_k(a), a \in I \right\}$$

Then it is easily checked that J is a G-invariant non-zero ideal of R . with $T(J) = \{0\}$. Thus by theorem 2.5, $J = \{0\}$, which is a contradiction.

Observe that example 2.2 (ο) shows that theorem 2.5 is false if the ring R has nilpotent elements.

Note: We will assume in what follows, that R is a ring with G a subgroup of $Aut(R)$, and $|G| \in R$, unless otherwise stated.

Proposition 2.7: Let I be a G-invariant ideal of R . if I is a prime ideal in R . then $T(I)$ is a prime ideal in R^G .

Proof: Let $a, b \in R^G$, such that $a \cdot b \in T(I)$. Since I is G-invariant, then $a \cdot b \in I$, hence either $a \in I$ or $b \in I$. Assume $a \in I$ then $a \in I \cap R^G$. And by remark 2.3, $a \in T(I)$.

Corollary 2.8. [11]: Let I be a subset of R^G , and let $RI, R^G I$ be the ideals, generated by I in R and R^G respectively. if RI is a prime ideal in R then $R^G I$ is a prime ideal in R^G .

Proof: By remark 2.4, $T(RI) = R^G I$, and hence by proposition 2.7 $R^G I$ Is Prime.

Proposition 2.9: Let I be a maximal ideal in R , then $T(I)$ is a maximal ideal in R^G .

Proof: Let $y \in R^G$, and $y \notin T(I)$, then $y = T(y)$, and hence $y \notin I$. Since I is maximal in R , then $R = Ry + I$. Hence $1 = ry + m$, where $r \in R, m \in I$.

Now $1 = T(1) = T(ry) + T(m) = T(r)y + T(m)$, and thus $R^G = R^G y + T(I)$ which implies that $T(I)$ is a maximal ideal in R^G .

Corollary 2.10: Let I be a subset of R^G , and let $RI, R^G I$ be the ideals generated by I in R and R^G respectively. If RI is maximal in R , then $R^G I$ is maximal in R^G .

The converse of proposition 2.9 is not true even if I is G-invariant as example (ο) in remark 2.3 shows.

3. small ideals and essential ideals

In this section we study the relation between small (essential) ideals in R and small (essential) ideals in R^G respectively.

Recall that an ideal I of a ring R is small, if whenever $I + J = R$, where J is ideal in R , then $J = R$, [1]. We have the following result.

Proposition 3.1: Let I be a G-invariant ideal in R . If I is small in R , then $T(I)$ is small in R^G .

The converse is true if every ideal in R is G-invariant.

Proof: Let I be a small ideal in R , to prove $T(I)$ is small in R^G . Let $T(I)+J=R^G$, where J is an ideal in R^G . Hence $1=T(a)+b$, where $a \in I$ and $b \in J$. Since I is G-invariant, then $T(I) \subseteq I$, hence $\forall x \in R, x = x(T(a)+b)$, and thus $R = I + RJ$. But I is small in R , then $RJ = R$. Now, $J = R^G J = T(RJ) = T(R) = R^G$. Thus $T(I)$ is small in R^G .

To prove the converse, let $I + K = R$, where K is an ideal in R . Then $T(I) + T(K) = T(R) = R^G$, thus $T(I) + K \cap R^G = R^G$. But $T(I)$ is small in R^G , then $K \cap R^G = R^G$, hence $K \supseteq R^G$. But $1 \in R^G$, then $1 \in K$, and $K = R$.

Corollary 3.2: Let I be a subset of R^G , and let $RI, R^G I$ be the ideals generated by I in R and R^G respectively. If RI is small in R , then $R^G I$ is small in R^G . The converse is true if every ideal in R is G-invariant.

Let us say that a ring R satisfies (A.C.C.) on small ideals if every ascending chain of small ideals is stationary.

Corollary 3.3: Let R be a ring that satisfies A.C.C. on small ideals. If every ideal in R is G-invariant, then R satisfies A.C.C. on small ideals.

Proof: Let $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \dots \subseteq I_n \subseteq \dots$ be an ascending chain of small ideals in R , and let $RI_1, RI_2, \dots, RI_n, \dots$ be the ideals in R generated by $I_1, I_2, \dots, I_n, \dots$ respectively. Hence $RI_1 \subseteq RI_2 \subseteq \dots \subseteq RI_n \subseteq \dots$ is an ascending chain of small ideals in R (by proposition 3.1). Then $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}$, such that $RI_k = RI_{k+1} = \dots$, hence $T(RI_k) = T(RI_{k+1}) = \dots$, and by remark 3.4, $R^G I_k = R^G I_{k+1} = \dots$.

The converse of corollary 3.3 is false. In remark 3.3 example (o) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $I_n = id\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$. Then $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \dots \subseteq I_n \subseteq \dots$. Each of the ideals I_n is small. In fact, if $I_n + J = R$, where J is an ideal in R , then $1 = a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \dots + a_n x_n + b$ where $b \in J$, and $a_i \in F, 1 \leq i \leq n$. Thus $b = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i$. It is easily seen that b is invertible in R , in fact

$b^{-1} = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i$, thus $J = R$. This shows that R

does not satisfy A.C.C. on small ideals. However $R^G = F$ satisfies this condition.

Recall that an ideal I of a ring R is said to be essential, if whenever $I \cap J \neq \emptyset$, where J is an ideal in R implies that $J \neq \emptyset$. Equivalently, I is essential if and only if $\forall \emptyset \neq r \in R, \exists t \in R$, such that $\emptyset \neq rt \in I$, [14].

We have the following result:

Proposition 3.4: Let R be any ring which has no non-zero nilpotent elements. If I is an essential ideal in R , then $T(I)$ is an essential ideal in R^G . The converse is true if I is G-invariant.

Proof: Let I be an essential ideal in R , and let $\emptyset \neq x \in R^G$, then $x \in R$, hence $\exists y \in R$, such that $\emptyset \neq xy \in I$. Let $A = id(xy)$ in R , then by proposition 3.6 $\exists a \in A$, such that $T(a) \neq \emptyset$. Hence $\exists r \in R$, such that $a = rxy$, thus $0 \neq T(rxy) = xT(ry) \in T(I)$.

Now let $T(I)$ be an essential ideal in R , and let $0 \neq x \in R$. Let $B = id(x)$ in R , then by proposition 3.6, $\exists b \in B$, such that $0 \neq T(b)$ in R^G . But $T(I)$ is essential in R , thus $\exists \emptyset \neq y \in R$ such that $0 \neq yT(b) \in T(I)$. Hence $0 \neq T(yrx)$, thus $yrx \in I$, since if $yrx \notin I$, then $T(yrx) \notin T(I)$, and $yrx \neq \emptyset$, for if $yrx = \emptyset$, then $0 = T(yrx) = yT(rx)$, a contradiction, hence I is essential in R .

Corollary 3.5: Let R be any ring which has no non-zero nilpotent elements. Let I be a subset of R^G , and let $RI, R^G I$ be the ideals generated by I in R and R^G respectively, then $R^G I$ is essential in R^G iff RI is essential in R .

4. Annihilator ideals

In this section we study annihilator ideals. First we recall the following definition.

Definition 4.1: An ideal I of a ring R is called an annihilator ideal, if I is the annihilator of some subset of R .

Note that if $I = ann_R(S)$, for some subset of R . then $I = ann_R(RS)$.

It is well known, and is easy to check, that I is an annihilator ideal in R if and only if $I = ann_R(ann_R(I))$, [14].

We prove the following theorem:

Theorem 4.2: Let I be a subset of R^G . and let $RI, R^G I$ be the ideals generated by I in R and R^G respectively. If $R^G I$ is an annihilator ideal in R^G , then RI is an annihilator ideal in R . The converse is true if R has no non-zero nilpotent elements.

Proof: Let $R^G I = \text{ann}_{R^G}(S)$, where S is a subset of R^G . We claim that $RI = \text{ann}_R(RS)$, where RS is the ideal in R generated by S . Let $a \in I$, then $a \in R^G I$, thus $a(RS) = (aS)R = 0$, hence $RI \subseteq \text{ann}_R(RS)$.

Now let $x \in \text{ann}_R(RS)$, then $xRS = 0$, and $xS = 0$. Thus $T(x)S = 0$ and $T(x) \in \text{ann}_{R^G}(S)$. Therefore, $T(x) \in R^G I$, hence $x \in RI$, that is $\text{ann}_R(RS) \subseteq RI$. Thus $RI = \text{ann}_R(RS)$.

To prove the converse, let $RI = \text{ann}_R(S)$, where S is an ideal in R . We claim that $R^G I = \text{ann}_{R^G}(T(S))$, where $T: R \rightarrow R^G$ is the trace map. Let $a \in R^G I$, then $a \in \text{ann}_{R^G}(S)$, and $aS = 0$. Therefore, $0 = aT(S)$, hence $a \in \text{ann}_{R^G}(T(S))$ and $R^G I \subseteq \text{ann}_{R^G}(T(S))$.

Now let $b \in \text{ann}_{R^G}(T(S))$, then $bT(S) = 0$, $\forall s \in S$. Hence $T(bs) = 0, \forall s \in S$, thus $T(bs) = 0$. But R has no non-zero nilpotent elements, then by proposition 3.7, $bs = 0$, and $b \in \text{ann}_{R^G}(S) \subseteq \text{ann}_R(S)$, hence $b \in RI \cap R^G = R^G I$.

A ring R is said to satisfy the ascending chain condition (A.C.C) on annihilator ideals, if every ascending chain of annihilator ideals $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \dots$ terminates after a finite number of steps, that is there exists $k \in N$, such that: $I_k = I_{k+1}$, [4].

A ring R is said to have no infinite direct sum of non-zero ideals if every direct sum of non-zero ideals in R has a finite number of terms, [4].

Recall that a ring R is said to be Goldie ring, if R satisfies the (A.C.C.) on annihilator ideals and R has no infinite direct sum of ideals, [4].

We prove the following:

Proposition 4.3: If R satisfies the (A.C.C.) on annihilator ideals, then R satisfies the (A.C.C.) on annihilator ideals.

Proof: Let $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \dots \subseteq I_n \subseteq \dots$ be an ascending chain of annihilator ideals in R^G . Let RI_j be the

ideal generated by $I_j, j=1, 2, \dots$. Then by theorem 4.2, $RI_j, j = 1, \dots, n, \dots$, is an annihilator ideal in R . Moreover $RI_1 \subseteq RI_2 \subseteq \dots \subseteq RI_n \subseteq \dots$ is an ascending chain, thus $\exists k \in N$ such that: $RI_k = RI_{k+1} = \dots$, hence $RI_k \cap R^G = RI_{k+1} \cap R^G = \dots$ i.e. $R^G I_k = R^G I_{k+1} = \dots$.

Proposition 4.4: Let R be any ring which has no non-zero nilpotent elements. If R has no infinite direct sum of non-zero ideals, then R^G has no infinite direct sum non-zero ideals.

Proof: Let $R^G I_1 \oplus R^G I_2 \oplus \dots$ be a direct sum of ideals in R^G where $I_n \subseteq R^G, \forall n$. Let RI_n be the ideal in R generated by $I_n, \forall n$. Let $RJ_n = \bigoplus_{k \neq n} RI_k, R^G J_n = \bigoplus_{k \neq n} R^G I_k$, then $R^G J_n \cap R^G I_n = \{0\}$.

Now, $T(RJ_n \cap RI_n) = T(RI_n) \cap T(RJ_n) = R^G J_n \cap R^G I_n = \{0\}$. Thus by proposition 3.7 $RJ_n \cap RI_n = 0$, hence $\sum_n RI_n$ is a direct sum in R , hence is finite. Thus $\bigoplus_n R^G I$ is finite.

Propositions 4.3 and 4.4 give the following:

Theorem 4.5: If R is a Goldie ring which has no non-zero nilpotent elements, then R^G is a Goldie ring.

The converse of theorem 4.5 is true, [5]

Proposition 4.6: Let R be any ring which has no non-zero nilpotent elements. If R^G is a Goldie ring then R is a Goldie ring.

5. The R^G -module as a submodule of a free R^G -module

In this section we state a theorem of Montgomery, [5], which shows that under certain condition on R, R may be considered as a submodule of a free R^G -module of finite rank, and we will use this theorem to prove that under extra conditions on RI, RI is a C.P.(C.F) module.

Theorem 5.1 [5]: Let R be a Goldie ring which has no non-zero nilpotent elements. Then R can be embedded in $\bigoplus_{i=1}^m R^G$ as R^G -module of finite rank.

It is known that if R is Noetherian (Artinian) ring, with $|G|^{-1} \in R$, then R^G is a Noetherian (an Artinian) ring. Moreover, it was proved by Farkas and Sinder in [6], that if R^G is a

Noetherian ring which has no non-zero nilpotent elements, then R is a Noetherian ring. We give a similar result for Artinian rings.

Proposition 2.2: Let R^G be an Artinian ring which has no non-zero nilpotent elements, then R is a finitely generated R^G -module. In fact R is an Artinian R^G -module in particular, R is an Artinian ring.

Proof: Since R^G is Artinian, then R^G is Goldie, then by, [1], R is a Goldie ring, and by theorem 2.1, R is isomorphic to a submodule of the free R^G -module $\left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^m R^G\right)$ since R^G is Artinian

hence Noetherian, $\bigoplus_{i=1}^m R^G$ is Artinian R^G -module, and $\bigoplus_{i=1}^m R^G$ is Noetherian R^G -module.

And thus R is finitely generated R^G -module. And since every finitely generated module over an Artinian ring is Artinian, [1], then R is an Artinian R^G -module.

Recall that an R -module M is called a C.P module, if every cyclic submodule of M is projective, and M is a C.F module, if every cyclic submodule of M is flat. The following results are well known, [10].

Proposition 2.3: If R is a P.P. ring, and M is a projective R -module, then M is a C.P module. And if R is a hereditary (semi-hereditary) ring, and M is a projective R -module, then every submodule (finitely generated submodule) of M is projective.

Proposition 2.4, [2]: If R is a P.F. ring and M is a flat R -module, then M is a C.F module. And if R is an F.F. ring and M is a flat R -module, then every submodule of M is flat. Hence we have:

Theorem 2.5, [2]: Let R be a Goldie ring which has no non-nilpotent elements. If R^G is a hereditary ring, then R is projective R^G -module and every submodule of R is projective. In particular R is a C.P. R^G -module.

Theorem 2.6, [2]: let R be a Noetherian ring which has no non-zero nilpotent elements. If R^G is a hereditary ring, then R is a finitely generated projective R^G -module, and every submodule of R is projective. In particular R is a C.P. R^G -module.

Next we give similar results for flat rings.

Theorem 2.7: Let R be a Goldie ring which has non-zero nilpotent elements. If R is a flat ring,

then R is a flat R^G -module, and every R^G -submodule of R is flat, hence R is a C.F. R^G -module.

Proof: By theorem 2.1 R is isomorphic to a submodule of the free R^G -module $\left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^m R^G\right)$ of finite rank, hence flat, [6]. And by proposition 2.4; every R^G -submodule of R is flat, and hence R is a C.F. R^G -module.

Recall that an R -module M is faithfully flat, if and only if M is a flat cancellation module, [12]. Thus we have:

Corollary 2.8: Let R be a flat Goldie ring, then R is a faithfully flat R^G -module.

Proof: By Corollary 1.6, R is a cancellation R^G -module. Now since R is isomorphic to a submodule of the free R^G -module $\left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^m R^G\right)$, and R is flat, then by [13], R^G is a flat ring. But $\bigoplus_{i=1}^m R^G$ is a flat R^G -module, hence by proposition 2.4 R is a flat R^G -module, then R is a faithfully flat R^G -module.

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