



On uniform ideals and finite Goldie dimension in R -groups

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We consider an R -group G , where R is a (right) nearring. We introduce the notions relative uniform and strictly relative uniform ideals (or R -subgroup) which are not uniform, in general. We prove important properties and obtain a characterization for an R -subgroup to have finite Goldie dimension, in terms of strictly relative uniform R -subgroups. We provide the necessary examples.

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1. Introduction

The concept of uniform dimension in modules over rings is a generalization of the dimension of a vector space over a field. A module in which every non-zero submodule is essential is called uniform. Uniform submodules play a significant role in establishing various finite dimension conditions in modules over associative rings. Goldie [15] provided a characterization of equivalent conditions for a module to possess finite uniform dimension. In Bhavanari [4], the notion of uniform dimension was extended to modules over nearrings, (also known as, R -groups), with a characterization established for an R -group to have finite Goldie dimension (in short, $f.G.d$). Subsequently, aspects of Goldie dimension in modules over nearrings have been extensively explored by the authors [23, 7, 9]. However, the study of finite Goldie dimension in modules over rings, specifically in terms of pseudo uniform submodules, which do not necessarily adhere to the uniformity condition, was undertaken in [14]. In case of a module over a matrix nearring, the authors [10] introduced the concepts of essential ideals

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and uniform ideals, providing a characterization for a module over a matrix nearring to have *f.G.d.* Further exploration of prime and semiprime aspects in connection with *f.G.d.* in *R*-groups and matrix nearrings was conducted by the authors in [13, 16].

A (right) nearring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is an algebraic system (Pilz [22]), where R is an additive group (not necessarily Abelian), and a multiplicative semigroup, satisfying only one distributive axiom (say, right): $(p_1 + p_2)p_3 = p_1p_3 + p_2p_3$ for all $p_1, p_2, p_3 \in R$. In a right nearring, the properties such as $0p = 0$ and $(-p)q = -pq$ holds for all $p, q \in R$, though, in general, $p0 \neq 0$ for some $p \in R$. If $p0 = 0$ for all $p \in R$, then we say R is zero-symmetric (denoted as, $R = R_0$). An additive group $(G, +)$ is called an *R*-group (or module over a nearring R), denoted by ${}_R G$ (or simply by G) if there exists a mapping $R \times G \rightarrow G$ (image $(k, g) \rightarrow kg$), satisfying: $(k + l)g = kg + lg$; $(kl)g = k(lg)$ for all $g \in G$ and $k, l \in R$. It is evident that every nearring is an *R*-group (over itself). Additionally, if R is a ring, then each (left) module over R is an *R*-group. Throughout, G represents an *R*-group where R is a right nearring.

A subgroup $(H, +)$ of G with $RH \subseteq H$ is called an *R*-subgroup of G . A normal subgroup H of G is called an ideal if $n(g + h) - ng \in H$ for all $n \in R, h \in H, g \in G$. For any two *R*-groups G_1 and G_2 , a map $f: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ is called an *R*-homomorphism, $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$ and $f(nx) = nf(x)$ hold for all $x, y \in G_1$ and $n \in R$. If f is one-one and onto, then f is an *R*-isomorphism.

In case of a zero symmetric nearring, for any ideals A and B of G , $A + B$ is an ideal of G ([22], Corollary 2.3).

For each $g \in G, Rg$ is an *R*-subgroup of G . The ideal (or *R*-subgroup) generated by an element $g \in G$ is denoted by $\langle g \rangle$. For any subsets S, T of G , the noetherian quotient is defined as $(S : T) = \{n \in R : nT \subseteq S\}$, and if $S = \{0\}$, then $(0 : T)$ is called the annihilator of T . A proper ideal P of R is called semiprime, if an ideal I of R with $I^2 \subseteq P$, then $I \subseteq P$, R itself is semiprime, if (0) is a semiprime ideal.

An ideal T of an *R*-group G is essential (see, [23]), if for any ideal H of G , $T \cap H = (0)$ implies $H = (0)$. If every non trivial ideal $(0) \neq H$ of G is essential, then we say G is uniform. Further, an ideal (*R*-subgroup) T of G is said to be strictly uniform (see, [21]), if for any two *R*-subgroups P, Q of G , $P \subseteq T, Q \subseteq T, P \cap Q = (0)$ implies $P = (0)$ or $Q = (0)$.

In this paper, we consider the notions of uniform and strictly uniform ideal with respect to an arbitrary ideal (or *R*-subgroup) Ω of an *R*-group defined in [25]. We establish an equivalent condition for an *R*-subgroup to have a Ω -finite Goldie dimension (denoted by, Ω -*f.G.d.*) in terms of its strictly Ω -uniform *R*-subgroups.

For standard definitions and notations in nearrings, we direct the reader to [11, 22].

2. Uniform and strictly uniform ideals

We start this section with the definitions of Ω -uniform ideal (or *R*-subgroup) and strictly Ω -uniform ideal with suitable examples.

Definition 2.1. ([26], Definition 2.1) *An ideal H of G is said to be relative essential (resp. strictly relative essential), if there exists a proper ideal (resp. *R*-subgroup) Ω of G such that*

- (a) $H \not\subseteq \Omega$,
- (b) for any ideal (resp. *R*-subgroup) K of G , $H \cap K \subseteq \Omega$ implies $K \subseteq \Omega$.

We denote it by $H \leq_{\Omega}^e G$ (resp. $H \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$), and read as H is Ω -essential in G (resp. H is strictly Ω -essential in G).

We denote $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^e H_2$ when H_2 considered as an *R*-group. In case, $\Omega = (0)$, this is referred as *G*-essential, by the authors [4].

Definition 2.2. ([25], Definition 3.1)

*An ideal I of G is called relative uniform (resp. strictly relative uniform) if J is an ideal (resp. *R*-subgroup) of G , $J \subseteq I$, then $J \leq_{\Omega}^e I$ (resp. $J \leq_{\Omega}^{se} I$).*

Proposition 2.3. Let I be an ideal of G and $\Omega \neq G$ be an ideal of G . I is Ω -uniform if and only if for any ideals H_1, H_2 contained in I such that $H_1 \cap H_2 \subseteq \Omega$ implies $H_1 \subseteq \Omega$ or $H_2 \subseteq \Omega$.

Proof. Suppose that I is Ω -uniform. Let H_1, H_2 be ideals of G such that $H_1 \subseteq I, H_2 \subseteq I$, and $H_1 \cap H_2 \subseteq \Omega$. Assume that $H_i \not\subseteq \Omega$. Since I is Ω -uniform, and $H_1 \subseteq I$, we have $H_1 \leq_\Omega^e I$, and since $H_1 \cap H_2 \subseteq \Omega$, we get $H_2 \subseteq \Omega$.

On the other hand, let J be any ideal of G such that $J \subseteq I$ and $J \not\subseteq \Omega$. To prove $J \leq_\Omega^e I$, let K be an ideal of G contained in I such that $J \cap K \subseteq \Omega$. Since $J \not\subseteq \Omega$, by converse hypothesis, we have $K \subseteq \Omega$. Therefore, $J \leq_\Omega^e I$.

We give an example that Ω -uniform need not be uniform, in general.

Example 2.4. Let $R = (\mathbb{Z}_{12}, +_{12}, \cdot_{12})$ and $G = R$. Then R is considered as R -group (over itself). The ideals of ${}_R R$ are $H_1 = \{\bar{0}, \bar{2}, \bar{4}, \bar{6}, \bar{8}, \bar{10}\}$, $H_2 = \{\bar{0}, \bar{6}\}$, $H_3 = \{\bar{0}, \bar{3}, \bar{6}, \bar{9}\}$, $H_4 = \{\bar{0}, \bar{4}, \bar{8}\}$. Take $\Omega = H_3$. Then H_1 is Ω -uniform, but not uniform in G , as $H_2, H_4 \subseteq H_1$, $H_2 \cap H_4 = \{\bar{0}\}$, and $H_2 \neq \{\bar{0}\} \neq H_4$.

Example 2.5. Let $G = (\mathbb{Z}_8 \times \mathbb{Z}_3, +)$. Then G is an R -group, where $R = (\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$. Take $\Omega = \mathbb{Z}_8 \times (0)$, an ideal of ${}_R G$. Then the ideal $(2) \times \mathbb{Z}_3$ is Ω -uniform, but not uniform, as the ideals $(4) \times (0)$, $(4) \times \mathbb{Z}_3$ contained in $(2) \times \mathbb{Z}_3$ such that $(4) \times (0) \cap (4) \times \mathbb{Z}_3 = (0) \times (0)$, but $(4) \times (0) \neq (0) \times (0) \neq (4) \times \mathbb{Z}_3$.

The following corollary is straightforward.

Corollary 2.6. Let Ω be a proper ideal of G . Then G is Ω -uniform if and only if for any two ideals K and L of G , $K \cap L \subseteq \Omega \Rightarrow K \subseteq \Omega$ or $L \subseteq \Omega$.

Proposition 2.7. Let Ω be a proper ideal of G , and G is Ω -uniform. Then any finite intersection of Ω -essential ideals of G is Ω -essential in G , and converse also holds.

Proof. Let $\{H_i\}_{i=1}^n$ be a family of Ω -essential ideals of G . Write $H = \bigcap_{i=1}^n H_i$. Clearly $H_i \not\subseteq \Omega$ for each i , and since G is Ω -uniform, $H \not\subseteq \Omega$. To prove H is Ω -essential, we use the induction on the number n of Ω -essential ideals. Suppose that $n = 2$. Let L be an ideal of G such that $H \not\subseteq \Omega$, $H \cap L \subseteq \Omega$. Then $(H_1 \cap H_2) \cap L \subseteq \Omega$, implies that $H_1 \cap (H_2 \cap L) \subseteq \Omega$. Since $H_1 \leq_\Omega^e G$ and $H_2 \cap L$ is an ideal of G with $H_2 \cap L \subseteq \Omega$. Again, since $H_2 \leq_\Omega^e G$ and $H_2 \not\subseteq \Omega$, we get $L \subseteq \Omega$. Therefore the statement is true for $n = 2$. We assume the induction hypothesis for $(n - 1)$ ideals $\{H_i\}_{i=1}^{n-1}$ of G . Let L be an ideal of G such that $\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n H_i\right) \cap L \subseteq \Omega$ and $H \not\subseteq \Omega$. Then, $\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} H_i \cap H_n\right) \cap L \subseteq \Omega$. That is, $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} H_i \cap (H_n \cap L) \subseteq \Omega$. Since $H \not\subseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} H_i$ and $H \not\subseteq \Omega$, we have $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} H_i \not\subseteq \Omega$, hence, by induction hypothesis, it follows that $H_n \cap L \subseteq \Omega$. Now since $H_n \leq_\Omega^e G$, and L is an ideal of G , we have $L \subseteq \Omega$, which shows that $H \leq_\Omega^e G$.

Conversely, suppose that $H = \bigcap_{i=1}^n H_i \leq_\Omega^e G$. Since $\bigcap_{i=1}^n H_i \not\subseteq \Omega$, we get $H_i \not\subseteq \Omega$, for all i . Then to show that $H_i \leq_\Omega^e G$ for every i , $1 \leq i \leq n$, let L be any ideal of G such that $H_i \cap L \subseteq \Omega$. Now $H \cap L \subseteq H_i \cap L \subseteq \Omega$ and since $H \leq_\Omega^e G$, we have that $L \subseteq \Omega$. Since H_i ($1 \leq i \leq n$), is arbitrary, we conclude that $H_i \leq_\Omega^e G$ for every i .

Remark 2.8. The converse of the Proposition 2.7 do not hold, in general. Consider the following example:

Let $R = (\mathbb{Z}_{24}, +_{24}, \cdot_{24})$ and $G = R$. Then G is an R -group and the ideals are $H_1 = \langle \bar{2} \rangle, H_2 = \langle \bar{3} \rangle, H_3 = \langle \bar{4} \rangle, \Omega = H_4 = \langle \bar{6} \rangle, H_5 = \langle \bar{8} \rangle, H_6 = \langle \bar{12} \rangle$. Since $H_5 \cap H_3 = H_5$, we have

- (i) $H_5 \cap H_1 \subseteq H_3$
- (ii) $H_5 \cap H_1 \not\subseteq \Omega$

Then, $H_6 = \langle \overline{12} \rangle$ is the only ideal satisfying $H_6 \subseteq H_3$, $(H_5 \cap H_1) \cap H_6 \subseteq \Omega$, implies that $H_6 \subseteq \Omega$. Therefore, $H_5 \cap H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^e H_3$. Since $H_1 \not\subseteq H_3$, we conclude that $H_1 \not\leq_{\Omega}^e H_3$.

Definition 2.9. ([26], Definition 2.3) An R -subgroup H of G is said to be relative essential (resp. strictly relative essential), if there exists a proper ideal (resp. R -subgroup) Ω of G such that

- (a) $H \not\subseteq \Omega$,
- (b) for any ideal (resp. R -subgroup) K of G , $H \cap K \subseteq \Omega$ implies $K \subseteq \Omega$.

We denote it by $H \leq_{\Omega}^e G$ (resp. $H \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$), and read as H is Ω -essential in G (resp. H is strictly Ω -essential in G).

Definition 2.10. An R -subgroup I of G is called relative uniform (resp. strictly relative uniform) if there exists an ideal (resp. R -subgroup) Ω of G and any ideal (resp. R -subgroup) J of G , $J \not\subseteq \Omega$ and $J \subseteq I$ implies $J \leq_{\Omega}^e I$ (resp. $J \leq_{\Omega}^{se} I$) (here we consider I as an R -group).

Furthermore, G is called relative uniform (resp. strictly relative uniform) if there exists an ideal (resp. R -subgroup) Ω of G such that for each ideal (resp. R -subgroup) K of G and $K \not\subseteq \Omega$, then $K \leq_{\Omega}^e G$ (resp. $K \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$).

Table 1

+	0	a	2a	3a	b	a+b	2a+b	3a+b
0	0	a	2a	3a	b	a+b	2a+b	3a+b
a	a	2a	3a	0	a+b	2a+b	3a+b	b
2a	2a	3a	0	a	2a+b	3a+b	b	a+b
3a	3a	0	a	2a	3a+b	b	a+b	2a+b
b	b	3a+b	2a+b	a+b	0	3a	2a	a
a+b	a+b	b	3a+b	2a+b	a	0	3a	2a
2a+b	2a+b	a+b	b	3a+b	2a	a	0	3a
3a+b	3a+b	2a+b	a+b	b	3a	2a	a	0

Table 2

*1	0	a	2a	3a	b	a+b	2a+b	3a+b
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
a	0	a	2a	3a	b	a+b	2a+b	3a+b
2a	0	2a	0	2a	0	0	0	0
3a	0	3a	2a	a	b	a+b	2a+b	3a+b
b	0	b	2a	2a+b	b	a+b	2a+b	3a+b
a+b	0	a+b	0	a+b	0	0	0	0
2a+b	0	2a+b	2a	b	b	0	2a+b	3a+b
3a+b	0	3a+b	0	3a+b	0	0	0	0

Table 3

*2	0	a	2a	3a	b	a+b	2a+b	3a+b
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
a	0	a	2a	3a	b	a+b	2a+b	3a+b
2a	0	2a	0	2a	0	0	0	0
3a	0	3a	2a	a	b	a+b	2a+b	3a+b
b	0	b	2a	2a+b	b	0	2a+b	2a
a+b	0	a+b	0	a+b	0	a+b	+	a+b
2a+b	0	2a+b	2a	b	b	0	2a+b	2a
3a+b	0	3a+b	0	3a+b	0	a+b	0	a+b

Example 2.11. Consider the nearring with addition and multiplication tables listed in $K(135)$ and $K(139)$ of p.418 of Pilz [22]. Let $G = D_8 = \langle \{a, b \mid 4a = 2b = 0, a + b = b - a\} = \{a, 2a, 3a, 4a = 0, b, a + b, 2a + b, 3a + b\}$, where a is the rotation in an anti-clockwise direction about the origin through $\frac{\pi}{2}$ radians and b is the reflection about the line of symmetry, and $G = R$. Then G is an R -group.

- (1) Consider the operations in Table 1 and Table 2. The proper ideals are $I_1 = \{0, 2a\}$, $I_2 = \{0, a + b, 2a, 3a + b\}$, and R -subgroups are $J_1 = \{0, 2a\}$, $J_2 = \{0, b\}$, $J_3 = \{0, a + b\}$, $J_4 = \{0, 2a + b\}$, $J_5 = \{0, 3a + b\}$, $J_6 = \{0, b, 2a, 2a + b\}$, $J_7 = \{0, 2a, a + b, 3a + b\}$. Consider $H = I_2 = \{0, 2a, a + b, 3a + b\}$ and $\Omega = I_1 = \{0, 2a\}$. Now H is not strictly Ω -uniform, since the R -subgroups $J_3 = \{0, a + b\}$ and $J_7 = \{0, 2a, a + b, 3a + b\}$ which are contained in H with $J_3 \cap J_7 \subseteq \Omega$, but $J_3 \not\subseteq \Omega$, $J_7 \not\subseteq \Omega$. However, H is Ω -uniform, since the only ideals $I_1 = \{0, 2a\}$ and $I_2 = \{0, 2a, a + b, 3a + b\}$ contained in H satisfying $I_1 \cap I_2 \subseteq \Omega$ implies $I_1 \subseteq \Omega$.
- (2) Consider the operations in Table 1 and Table 3. Then the proper ideals are $I_1 = \{0, 2a\}$, $I_2 = \{0, 2a, b, 2a + b\}$, $I_3 = \{0, 2a, a + b, 3a + b\}$ and R -subgroups are $J_1 = \{0, 2a\}$, $J_2 = \{0, b\}$, $J_3 = \{0, a + b\}$, $J_4 = \{0, 2a + b\}$, $J_5 = \{0, b, 2a, 2a + b\}$, $J_6 = \{0, 2a, a + b, 3a + b\}$. Consider $H = I_3 = \{0, 2a, a + b, 3a + b\}$ and $\Omega = J_5 = \{0, 2a, b, 2a + b\}$. Here, H is strictly Ω -uniform, since the R -subgroups $J_1 = \{0, 2a\}$ and $J_3 = \{0, a + b\}$ which are contained in H with $J_1 \cap J_3 \subseteq \Omega$, we have $J_1 \subseteq \Omega$. Also, H is Ω -uniform, since the only ideals $I_1 = \{0, 2a\}$ and $I_3 = \{0, 2a, a + b, 3a + b\}$ contained in H satisfying $I_1 \cap I_3 \subseteq \Omega$ implies $I_1 \subseteq \Omega$.

Remark 2.12. Let Ω be a proper ideal of G , and K a Ω -uniform ideal of G . If L is an ideal of G such that $L \not\subseteq \Omega$ and $L \subseteq K$, then L is Ω -uniform.

Proof. Let L be an ideal of G and L_1, L_2 be ideals of G contained in L such that $L_1 \cap L_2 \subseteq \Omega$. Since $L_1, L_2 \subseteq L \subseteq K$, and K is Ω -uniform, we have $L_1 \subseteq \Omega$ or $L_2 \subseteq \Omega$. Hence L is Ω -uniform.

Proposition 2.13. Let Ω be a proper ideal of G . If G is Ω -uniform, then G/Ω is uniform, and Ω is semiprime.

Proof. Suppose G is Ω -uniform. Let K/Ω and L/Ω be ideals of G/Ω such that $K/\Omega \cap L/\Omega = (0)$ in G/Ω , where K and L are ideals of G , properly containing Ω . Then $K \cap L \subseteq \Omega$. Since G is Ω -uniform of G , we have $K \subseteq \Omega$ or $L \subseteq \Omega$. Therefore, $K/\Omega \subseteq (0)$ or $L/\Omega \subseteq (0)$ in G/Ω , hence G/Ω is uniform. Now to show Ω is semiprime, let I be an ideal of G such that $I^2 \subseteq \Omega$. Then $I \cap I \subseteq I^2 \subseteq \Omega$. Since G is Ω -uniform, we get $I \subseteq \Omega$.

Remark 2.14. In Proposition 2.13, G not necessarily Ω -uniform, even if G/Ω is uniform.

Consider the following examples.

- (i) Take $G = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_6$ and $R = \mathbb{Z}$. Then G is a module over a nearring. Consider the ideal $\Omega = \langle (\bar{1}, \bar{1}) \rangle$ of G . Since Ω is maximal, G/Ω is simple, by ([22], Prop 1.40), and hence uniform. However, G is not Ω -uniform, since $\langle (\bar{1}, \bar{2}) \rangle \cap \langle (\bar{0}, \bar{3}) \rangle \subseteq \Omega$, but $\langle (\bar{0}, \bar{3}) \rangle \not\subseteq \Omega$ and $\langle (\bar{1}, \bar{2}) \rangle \not\subseteq \Omega$.
- (ii) Take $G = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ and $R = \mathbb{Z}_2$. Then G is a module over a nearring. Consider an ideal $\Omega = \{(x, x) \mid x \in R\}$ of G . Clearly Ω is maximal ideal of G . Therefore, $G/\Omega = \{(\bar{0}, \bar{0}), (\bar{1}, \bar{1})\}$ is uniform. But $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times (\bar{0})$ is an ideal of G such that $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times (\bar{0}) \not\subseteq \Omega$, and $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times (\bar{0})$ is not Ω -essential in G , since $(0, 1) \in G \setminus \Omega$ for each $r \in R$, $r(\bar{0}, \bar{1}) \notin (\mathbb{Z}_2 \times (\bar{0})) \setminus \Omega$. Hence, G is not Ω -uniform.
- (iii) For each positive integer n , $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is uniform if and only if \mathbb{Z} is an $n\mathbb{Z}$ -uniform.

The following theorem provides a characterization for essentiality in R -subgroups of G , where G is an unitary R -group G (that is, $1 \in R$).

Theorem 2.15. Let $\Omega \subseteq H_1 \subseteq H_2$ be R -subgroups of G and $1 \in R$. Then the following are equivalent.

- (1) $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_2$;
- (2) For each $g \in H_2 \setminus \Omega$, there exists $n \in R$ such that $ng \in H_1 \setminus \Omega$.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2): Let $g \in H_2 \setminus \Omega$. Since $Rg \subseteq H_2$ and as $1 \in R$, we have $Rg \not\subseteq \Omega$. Since $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_2$, we get $H_1 \cap Rg \not\subseteq \Omega$.

Let $x \in H_1 \cap Rg$ such that $x \notin \Omega$. Then there exists $n \in R$ such that $x = ng \in H_1$, and $ng \notin \Omega$, implies that $ng \in H_1 \setminus \Omega$.

(2) \Rightarrow (1): Let L be an R -subgroup of G such that $L \subseteq H_2$ and $H_1 \cap L \subseteq \Omega$. If $L \not\subseteq \Omega$, then there exists $a \in L \setminus \Omega \subseteq H_2 \setminus \Omega$. Now by (2), there exists $n \in R$ such that $na \in H_1 \setminus \Omega$, though $na \in H_1 \cap L \subseteq \Omega$, a contradiction. Hence, $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_2$.

Theorem 2.16. Let $\Omega \subseteq H_1 \subseteq H_2$ be R -subgroups of G and $1 \in R$. Then the following are equivalent.

- (1) $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_2$;
- (2) $(H_1 : g) \leq_{(\Omega : g)}^{se} (H_2 : g)$, for each $g \in H_2 \setminus \Omega$.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2): Let $g \in H_2 \setminus \Omega$. By (2), there exists $n \in R$ such that $ng \in H_1 \setminus \Omega$, shows that $n \in (H_1 : g) \setminus (\Omega : g)$. Hence $(H_1 : g) \not\subseteq (\Omega : g)$.

Let I be an R -subgroup of R such that $(H_1 : g) \cap I \subseteq (\Omega : g)$. Clearly Ig is an R -subgroup of G . First we show that $H_1 \cap Ig \subseteq \Omega$. If $H_1 \cap Ig \not\subseteq \Omega$, then there exist $x \in H_1 \cap Ig$, but $x \notin \Omega$. So $x \in H_1$ and $x = ig$, for some $i \in I$. This means $x = ig \in H_1$, but $x = ig \notin \Omega$, implies $i \in (H_1 : g) \cap I$, but $i \notin (\Omega : g)$, a contradiction. Therefore, $H_1 \cap Ig \subseteq \Omega$. Since $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_2$, Ig is a R -subgroup of G contained in H_2 , it follows that $Ig \subseteq \Omega$. So, $I \subseteq (\Omega : g) \subseteq (H_2 : g)$, as $\Omega \subseteq H_2$. Therefore, I is an R -subgroup of R contained in $(H_2 : g)$, proves $(H_1 : g) \leq_{(\Omega : g)}^{se} (H_2 : g)$.

(2) \Rightarrow (1): Suppose that K is a (proper) R -subgroup of G such that $K \subseteq H_2$ and $H_1 \cap K \subseteq \Omega$. If $K \not\subseteq \Omega$, then there exists $x \in K \setminus \Omega \subseteq H_2 \setminus \Omega$. Now by (2), we get $(H_1 : x) \leq_{(\Omega : x)}^{se} (H_2 : x)$. Since $(H_1 : x) \not\subseteq (\Omega : x)$, there exists $a \in (H_1 : x)$, but $a \notin (\Omega : x)$. That is, $ax \in H_1$, but $ax \notin \Omega$. Now since K be an R -subgroup of G , and $a \in R$, $x \in K$, we get $ax \in K$. Thus, $ax \in H_1 \cap K$, but $ax \notin \Omega$, a contradiction. Therefore, $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_2$.

Definition 2.17. ([18]) Let G be an R -group. We say that R distributes over G if $d(g_1 + g_2) = dg_1 + dg_2$ for all $d \in R$, $g_1, g_2 \in G$.

In [6], the authors, used the condition that R distributes over G for obtaining aG an ideal of G , for any $a \in R$. In ([11], Remark 5.3.39), the authors provided the classes of nearrings where in every R -subgroup is an ideal. Among such classes, Boolean nearrings, and the classes of all strongly regular nearrings are the familiar ones. In [20], the authors extensively studied the class of all central Boolean rings. Further, if the R -group is tame ([22], Definition 9.165), then every R_0 -subgroup is an ideal.

In the rest of the paper, we consider classes of nearrings wherein every R -subgroup is an ideal. Therefore, we assume that the sum of two R -subgroups is again an R -subgroup.

Theorem 2.18. *Let Ω be a proper R -subgroup of G and let G_i, H_i be R -subgroups of G , $H_i \subseteq G_i$, for $i = 1, 2$ such that $H_1 \cap H_2 = \Omega = G_1 \cap G_2$. If $H_1 + H_2 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G_1 + G_2$ then $H_i \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G_i$, for $i = 1, 2$, and the converse holds if R distributes over G .*

Proof. Suppose $H_1 + H_2 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G_1 + G_2$ and $H_1 \not\leq_{\Omega}^{se} G_1$. Then for some R -subgroup A of G such that $A \subseteq G_1, H_1 \cap A \subseteq \Omega$ and $A \not\subseteq \Omega$. We show that $(H_1 + H_2) \cap A \subseteq \Omega$. Let $p \in (H_1 + H_2) \cap A$. Then $p = h_1 + h_2$, where $h_1 \in H_1, h_2 \in H_2$ and $p \in A$. Now $h_2 = -h_1 + p \in (H_1 + A) \cap H_2 \subseteq G_1 \cap G_2 = \Omega \subseteq H_1$. That is, $h_2 \in H_1$. Hence $p = h_1 + h_2 \in H_1 \cap A \subseteq \Omega$, implies $(H_1 + H_2) \cap A \subseteq \Omega$, a contradiction. Hence, $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G_1$. In a similar way, we will get $H_2 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G_2$.

Conversely, suppose $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G_1, H_2 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G_2$. To show $H_1 + H_2 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G_1 + G_2$. Let $l \in (G_1 + G_2) \setminus \Omega$. Then $l = x_1 + x_2$, for some $x_1 \in G_1, x_2 \in G_2$ and $x_1 + x_2 \notin \Omega$. This implies that $x_1 \notin \Omega$ or $x_2 \notin \Omega$. Suppose $x_1 \in G_1 \setminus \Omega$. Then by Theorem 2.15, there exists $n_1 \in R$ such that $n_1 x_1 \in H_1 \setminus \Omega$.

Case 1: If $n_1 x_2 \in H_2 \setminus \Omega$, then since R distributes over G , we have $n_1 l = n_1(x_1 + x_2) = n_1 x_1 + n_1 x_2 \in H_1 + H_2$.

Now we show that $n_1 l \notin \Omega$. If $n_1 l \in \Omega \subseteq H_1$, then $n_1 x_2 = n_1 l - n_1 x_1 \in H_1$. Since $n_1 x_2 \in H_2$, we get $n_1 x_2 \in H_1 \cap H_2 \subseteq G_1 \cap G_2 \subseteq \Omega$, a contradiction. Therefore, $n_1 l \in (H_1 + H_2) \setminus \Omega$. If $n_1 x_2 \in \Omega \subseteq H_1$, then by the same argument as above we will get $n_1 l = n_1(x_1 + x_2) \in H_1 \subseteq H_1 + H_2$. Now if $n_1 l \in \Omega$, then $n_1 x_1 = n_1 l - n_1 x_2 \in \Omega$, a contradiction. Therefore, $n_1 l \in (H_1 + H_2) \setminus \Omega$.

Case 2: Now let $n_1 x_2 \notin H_2 \setminus \Omega$. Subcase (i): If $n_1 x_2 \in \Omega \subseteq H_1$, then $n_1 l = n_1(x_1 + x_2) = n_1 x_1 + n_1 x_2 \in H_1 \subseteq H_1 + H_2$.

In this case if $n_1 l \in \Omega$, then $n_1 x_1 = n_1 l - n_1 x_2 \in \Omega$, a contradiction. Therefore, $n_1 l \in (H_1 + H_2) \setminus \Omega$.

Subcase (ii): If $n_1 x_2 \in G_2 \setminus \Omega$, then by Theorem 2.15, there exists $n_2 \in R$ such that $n_2 \cdot (n_1 x_2) \in H_2 \setminus \Omega$. Therefore, by a similar argument, $(n_2 \cdot n_1)l \in (H_1 + H_2) \setminus \Omega$, hence $(H_1 + H_2) \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G_1 + G_2$.

Corollary 2.19. *Let $\{G_i\}_{i=1}^n, \{H_i\}_{i=1}^n$ be R -subgroups of G and $H_i \subseteq G_i$ for $i = 1$ to n such that $\bigcap_{i=1}^n G_i = \Omega = \bigcap_{i=1}^n H_i$.*

If $\sum_{i=1}^n H_i \leq_{\Omega}^{se} \sum_{i=1}^n G_i$ then $H_i \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$ and the converse holds if R distributes over G .

Proof. By using Theorem 2.18 and induction on n .

Theorem 2.20. *Let $f: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ be an R -isomorphism. Let K and Ω be proper ideals of G_1 . Then K is Ω -uniform in G_1 if and only if $f(K)$ is $f(\Omega)$ -uniform in G_2 .*

Proof. Suppose K is Ω -uniform in G_1 . To prove $f(K)$ is $f(\Omega)$ -uniform in G_2 , let L_2 and L_1 be ideals of G_2 contained in $f(K)$ such that $L_1 \cap L_2 \subseteq f(\Omega)$. This implies that $f^{-1}(L_1 \cap L_2) \subseteq \Omega$. Since f is an R -isomorphism, we have $f^{-1}(L_1) \cap f^{-1}(L_2) \subseteq \Omega$. Now $f^{-1}(L_1)$ and $f^{-1}(L_2)$ are ideals of G_1 contained in K , and K is Ω -uniform, we get $f^{-1}(L_1) \subseteq \Omega$ or $f^{-1}(L_2) \subseteq \Omega$. Hence, $L_1 \subseteq f(\Omega)$ or $L_2 \subseteq f(\Omega)$.

Conversely, suppose $f(K)$ that is $f(\Omega)$ -uniform in G_2 . To show K is Ω -uniform in G_1 let H_1, H_2 be ideals of G_1 contained in K such that $H_1 \cap H_2 \subseteq \Omega$. Since f is an R -isomorphism, $f(H_1 \cap H_2) \subseteq f(\Omega)$, implies, $f(H_1) \cap f(H_2) \subseteq f(\Omega)$. Since $f(K)$ is $f(\Omega)$ -uniform, we have $f(H_1) \subseteq f(\Omega)$ or $f(H_2) \subseteq f(\Omega)$. As f is one-one, $H_1 \subseteq \Omega$ or $H_2 \subseteq \Omega$, desired.

The proof of the Corollary 2.21 follows from the fundamental homomorphism theorem for R -groups and Theorem 2.20.

Corollary 2.21. *If H and K are ideals of G and Ω a proper ideal of G such that $H \cap K = \Omega$. Then H is Ω -uniform if and only if $(H + K) / K$ is $f(\Omega)$ -uniform in G/K , where $f : H \rightarrow (H + K) / K$ is a canonical epimorphism.*

Theorem 2.22. *Let Ω be a proper ideal of G . If every Ω -essential R -subgroup is strictly Ω -essential, then every Ω -uniform ideal of G is strictly Ω -uniform.*

Proof. Suppose H is Ω -uniform. In a contrary, suppose that H is not strictly Ω -uniform. Then, for some R -subgroups I, J , we have $I, J \subseteq H$, $I \cap J \subseteq \Omega$ but $I \not\subseteq \Omega$ and $J \not\subseteq \Omega$. Consider $\mathcal{S} = \{X : X \cap I \subseteq \Omega, X \text{ is an ideal of } G\}$. Clearly $(0), \Omega \in \mathcal{S}$. Now \mathcal{S} is a non-empty partially ordered subset of ideals of G , in which every chain has an upper bound. Hence, by Zorn's lemma, let K be an ideal of G maximal with respect to $K \cap I \subseteq \Omega$. To show $I + K \leq_{\Omega}^e G$. Clearly, $I + K$ is an R -subgroup of G , by ([22], Proposition 2.15). Let L be any ideal of G such that $(I + K) \cap L \subseteq \Omega$. To show that $L \subseteq \Omega$, first we show that $I \cap (K + L) \subseteq \Omega$. Let $x \in I \cap (K + L)$. Then $x = i$ and $x = k + l$, for some $i \in I, k \in K, l \in L$, implies $l = i - k \in L \cap (I + K) \subseteq \Omega$. Hence, $l \in \Omega$, and so $i = k + l \in K + \Omega = K$, as K is maximal in \mathcal{S} . This implies $x = i \in I \cap K \subseteq \Omega$. Again by the maximality of K , it follows that $K + L \subseteq K$. Therefore, $L \subseteq K \subseteq \Omega$, which proves that $I + K \leq_{\Omega}^e G$. Now by hypothesis, $I + K \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$. As $J \not\subseteq \Omega$ and $I + K \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$, we have $(I + K) \cap J \not\subseteq \Omega$. Let $x \in (I + K) \cap J$ and $x \notin \Omega$. This implies that $x = i + k$ for some $i \in I, k \in K$, and $x = j$. Then $-i + x = k \in K \cap (I + J)$. Since $I \cap J \subseteq \Omega$ and $J \subseteq K, J \not\subseteq \Omega$, we get $k = -i + x \notin \Omega$. Write $K_1 = H \cap K$. Then $K_1 \not\subseteq \Omega$. Let T be an ideal of G such that $T \cap K_1 \subseteq \Omega$ and $T + K_1$ is Ω -essential. Since $T + K_1 \leq_{\Omega}^e G$ and $I \not\subseteq \Omega$, we have $I \cap (T + K_1) \not\subseteq \Omega$. As in the above similar argument, we get $T \cap H \not\subseteq \Omega$. Let $M = T \cap H \not\subseteq \Omega$. Then, $K_1, M \not\subseteq \Omega$ are ideals of G , and $K_1, M \subseteq H$ such that $K_1 \cap M = K_1 \cap (T \cap H) \subseteq K_1 \cap T \subseteq \Omega$, a contradiction to H is Ω -uniform.

3. Relative finite Goldie dimension

We define a finite Goldie dimension of an R -subgroup with respect to an arbitrary R -subgroup Ω . We provide examples and obtain a characterization for an R -subgroup to have Ω -f.G.d.

Definition 3.1. *Let Ω be a proper R -subgroup of G and let $\{I_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a family of R -subgroups of G . We say that $\{I_i\}_{i \in I}$ is Ω -direct if $I_i \cap \left(\sum_{j \neq i} I_j \right) \subseteq \Omega$.*

Definition 3.2. *Let Ω be a proper R -subgroup of G . An R -subgroup H of G is said to have Ω -finite Goldie dimension (denoted as, Ω -f.G.d) if H does not contain R -subgroups H_i 's of infinite number with $H_i \not\subseteq \Omega$ and its sum is Ω -direct.*

An R -group G has Ω -f.G.d if G does not contain an infinite number of R -subgroups $H_i \not\subseteq \Omega$ whose sum is Ω -direct.

Example 3.3.

(1) Let $G = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_6, R = \mathbb{Z}$. Then G is an R -group. Let $\Omega = \langle (\bar{0}, \bar{2}) \rangle$. Consider $H_1 = \langle (\bar{1}, \bar{2}) \rangle$,

$H_2 = \langle (\bar{1}, \bar{1}) \rangle, H_3 = \langle (\bar{0}, \bar{1}) \rangle$. Then $H_i \not\subseteq \Omega$ and $H_i \cap \left(\sum_{j \neq i} H_j \right) \subseteq \Omega$. Therefore, G has Ω -f.G.d.

(2) Let $R = (\mathbb{Z}_{24}, +_{24}, \cdot_{24})$ and $G = R$. Consider the R -subgroups $H = \langle \bar{2} \rangle, H_1 = \langle \bar{4} \rangle, H_2 = \langle \bar{6} \rangle, \Omega = \langle \bar{12} \rangle$.

Clearly, $H_1 \cap H_2 \subseteq \Omega, H_1 \not\subseteq \Omega, H_2 \not\subseteq \Omega$. Hence, there exist no infinite R -subgroups whose sum is Ω -direct. Therefore, H has Ω -f.G.d.

Theorem 3.4. *Let H, Ω (proper) be R -subgroups of G where every R -subgroup of G contained in H , contains Ω . Then H has Ω -f.G.d if and only if for every strictly increasing sequence of R -subgroups T_1, T_2, \dots of G contained in H , there exists an integer ' i ' such that $T_k \leq_{\Omega}^{se} T_{k+1}$ for all $k \geq i$.*

Proof. Suppose H has Ω -f.G.d. Let $T_1 \subsetneq T_2 \subsetneq \dots$ be R -subgroups of G such that $T_i \not\subseteq \Omega$ for all i . In a contrary way, suppose that for every integer i , there exists $k \geq i$ such that $T_k \not\leq_{\Omega}^{se} T_{k+1}$. For $i_1 = 1$, there exists $k_1 \geq 1$ such that $T_{k_1} \not\leq_{\Omega}^{se} T_{k_1+1}$. For $i_2 = k_1 + 1$, there exists $k_2 \geq i_2$ such that $T_{k_2} \not\leq_{\Omega}^{se} T_{k_2+1}$ and $k_2 \geq k_1 + 1$. Continuing the process, we get a subsequence $\{T_{k_i}\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ of $\{T_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ such that $T_{k_i} \not\leq_{\Omega}^{se} T_{k_i+1}$ and $k_{i+1} \geq k_i + 1$. Since $T_1 \subsetneq T_2 \subsetneq \dots$ is increasing we have that $Tk_{i+1} \supseteq Tk_{i+1}$. Since $T_{k_i} \not\leq_{\Omega}^{se} T_{k_i+1}$ and $Tk_{i+1} \supseteq Tk_{i+1}$ we have Tk_i is not strictly Ω -essential in Tk_{i+1} . Thus we get a subsequence $\{T_{k_i}\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ of $\{T_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ such that $T_{k_i} \not\leq_{\Omega}^{se} T_{k_i+1}$ for all i . Write $B_i = Tk_i$ for $i \geq 1$. Now $\{B_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ is an increasing sequence of R -subgroups of G contained in H such that $\Omega \subset B_i$ and $B_i \not\leq_{\Omega}^{se} B_{i+1}$, for all i . Therefore, for each i , there exists a non-zero R -subgroup $A_i \not\subseteq \Omega$ of G contained in H such that $\Omega \subset A_i \subseteq B_{i+1}$ and $B_i \cap A_i \subseteq \Omega$. Now we show that $A_i \cap (\sum_{i \neq j} A_j) \subseteq \Omega$. Let n be the number of such R -subgroups A_i 's. Suppose $n = 2$, and let $x \in A_1 \cap A_2$. Since $A_1 \subseteq B_2$, we have $x \in A_1 \cap A_2 \subseteq B_2 \cap A_2 \subseteq \Omega$. For $n = 3$, let $x \in A_1 \cap (A_2 + A_3)$. Since $A_1 \subseteq B_3$ and $A_2 \subseteq B_3$, by modular law, we have $x \in A_1 \cap (A_2 + A_3) \subseteq B_3 \cap (A_2 + A_3) = A_2 + (B_3 \cap A_3)$. Also, since $(B_3 \cap A_3) \subseteq \Omega$ and $\Omega \subset A_2$, we have $x \in A_2 + \Omega \subseteq A_2$. Now, $x \in A_1 \cap A_2 \subseteq B_2 \cap A_2 \subseteq \Omega$, shows that $A_1 \cap (A_2 + A_3) \subseteq \Omega$. Continuing the process, we get $A_i \cap (\sum_{i \neq j} A_j) \subseteq \Omega$. Therefore, $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ is Ω -direct, a contradiction to H has Ω -f.G.d. Converse follows from the definition of Ω -f.G.d.

Example 3.5. Let $G = (\mathbb{Z}_{48}, +_{48})$ and $R = (\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$. Then $\cdot_{48}: R \times G \rightarrow G$ is a R -group with respect to the external operation \cdot_{48} . Consider the R -subgroups $H_1 = \langle \overline{2} \rangle$, $H_2 = \langle \overline{3} \rangle$, $H_3 = \langle \overline{4} \rangle$, $H_4 = \langle \overline{6} \rangle$, $H_5 = \langle \overline{8} \rangle$, $H_6 = \langle \overline{12} \rangle$, $H_7 = \langle \overline{16} \rangle$, $H_8 = \langle \overline{24} \rangle$. Take $H = H_2$ and $\Omega = H_8$. Now we have

Chain 1: $H_8 \subsetneq H_6 \subsetneq H_4 \subsetneq H_2$. Then by the notation in the proof of Theorem 3.4 for $i = 2, k = 2, 3$, we have $H_6 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_4$ and $H_3 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_2$. Similarly,

Chain 2: $H_8 \subsetneq H_4 \subsetneq H_2$. For $i = 2, k = 2$, we have $H_4 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_2$. Therefore, H has Ω -f.G.d.

Example 3.6. Let $G = (\mathbb{Z}_{p^n}, +_p)$, where p is prime and $R = (\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$. Then $\cdot_p: R \times G \rightarrow G$ is a R -group with respect to the external operation \cdot_p . Consider the R -subgroups $H_i = p^{n-i}\mathbb{Z}_{p^n}$, $i \geq 0$. Take $\Omega = p^{n-1}\mathbb{Z}_{p^n}$ and $H = p\mathbb{Z}_{p^n}$. Then $H_k \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_{k+1}$, for all $k \geq 2$. Therefore, H is Ω -f.G.d.

Example 3.7. Let $R = \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathbb{Z}_{q^n} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, +_{q^n}, \cdot_{q^n} \right)$, where q is prime and $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Here R non-commutative ring and let $G = R$. Now G is considered as an R -group. The ideals as well as R -subgroups of G are $K_i = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & q^i \mathbb{Z}_{q^n} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} : n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \right\}$. Consider $K = K_{n-1}$ and $\Omega = K_1$. Then, $H_k \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_{k+1}$, for all $i \geq 2$. Therefore, K has Ω -f.G.d.

Example 3.8. Consider the narring with addition and multiplication tables listed below ([1], Table no 6/2(18)). Let $G = S_3$, the symmetric group, and $G = R$. Then G is an R -group.

+	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	1	2	3	4	5
1	1	0	3	2	5	4
2	2	4	0	5	1	3
3	3	5	1	4	0	2
4	4	2	5	0	3	1
5	5	3	4	1	2	0

+	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	1	0	0	1
2	0	2	2	0	0	2
3	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	0	5	5	0	0	5

The R -subgroups of G are $H_1 = \{0\}$, $H_2 = \{0, 1\}$, $H_3 = \{0, 2\}$, $H_4 = \{0, 3, 4\}$, $H_5 = \{0, 5\}$, $H_6 = G$. Consider $\Omega = H_4$. Then H_2 is not Ω -f.G.d, as $H_3, H_5 \not\subseteq H_2$, but the sum is not Ω -direct.

Example 3.9. Let R is a nearring and $R_i = R$, for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty} R_i$ is an R -group which has neither finite dimension not Ω -f.G.d.

For instance, let $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $G = \bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{Z}_i$, $\mathbb{Z}_i = \mathbb{Z}(i \geq 1)$. Then G is an R -group. Take $\Omega = 2\mathbb{Z} \times 2\mathbb{Z} \times \dots$. Then $I_i = (0, \dots, \mathbb{Z}, \dots, 0, \dots)$. It is clear that $I_i \not\subseteq \Omega$ for each i . Also $I_i \cap (\sum_{i \neq j} I_j) = (0) \times (0) \times \dots \subseteq \Omega$.

Therefore, $\{I_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ forms an infinite Ω -direct sum, hence G does not have Ω -f.G.d.

Lemma 3.10. If G has Ω -f.G.d, then every R -subgroup H of G , $H \not\subseteq \Omega$, contains a strictly Ω -uniform R -subgroup.

Proof. Suppose that G has Ω -f.G.d. On a contrary, suppose H contains no strictly Ω -uniform R -subgroup. Then H is not strictly Ω -uniform. So there exist R -subgroups H_1 and H_1' of G contained in H , and $H_1, H_1' \not\subseteq \Omega$ such that $H_1 \cap H_1' \subseteq \Omega$, $H_1 + H_1' \subseteq H$. Then by supposition H_1' is not strictly Ω -uniform, which implies that there exist R -subgroups H_2, H_2' contained in H_1' and $H_2, H_2' \not\subseteq \Omega$ such that $H_2 \cap H_2' \subseteq \Omega$, $H_2 + H_2' \subseteq H_1'$. If we continue, then we get $\{H_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}, \{H_i'\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ of two infinite sequences of R -subgroups of G , not contained in Ω such that $H_i \cap H_i' \subseteq \Omega$ and $H_i + H_i' \subseteq H_{i-1}'$, for $i \geq 2$. Thus, the sum $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} H_i$ is infinite Ω -direct, which contradict the fact that G has Ω -f.G.d.

Theorem 3.11. If G has Ω -f.G.d, then there exist finite number of strictly Ω -uniform R -subgroups of G , such that the sum is Ω -direct and strictly Ω -essential in G .

Proof. Since G has Ω -f.G.d, by Lemma 3.10, G contains a strictly Ω -uniform R -subgroup, say H_1 . If H_1 is strictly Ω -essential in G , then the conclusion is obvious. Suppose that H_1 is not strictly Ω -essential in G . Then there exists an R -subgroup K_1 of G with $H_1 \cap K_1 \subseteq \Omega$ but $K_1 \not\subseteq \Omega$. By Lemma 3.10, K_1 contains a strictly Ω -uniform R -subgroup, say H_2 . If $H_1 + H_2 \not\subseteq_{\Omega}^{se} G$, then there exists an R -subgroup K_2 of G such that $(H_1 + H_2) \cap K_2 \subseteq \Omega$, but $K_2 \not\subseteq \Omega$. Again by Lemma 1, there exists a strictly Ω -uniform R -subgroup, $H_3 \subseteq K_2$. Continuing this process, we get a strictly increasing chain $H_1 \subsetneq H_1 + H_2 \subsetneq H_1 + H_2 + H_3 \subsetneq \dots$, which must terminate as G has Ω -f.G.d. Hence $\sum_{i=1}^n H_i \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$, for some n .

Lemma 3.12. Let $H_1 \subseteq H_2 \subseteq H_3$, and Ω (proper) be R -subgroups of G . Then $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_3$ if and only if $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_2$ and $H_2 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_3$.

Proof. Let $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_3$ and $H_1 \cap L \subseteq \Omega$, where L is R -subgroup of G and $L \subseteq H_2$. Since $L \subseteq H_2 \subseteq H_3$ and $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_3$, we have that $L \subseteq \Omega$. Therefore, $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_2$. Next, let L be an R -subgroup of G such that $H_2 \cap L \subseteq \Omega$ and $L \subseteq H_3$. Now $H_1 \cap L \subseteq H_2 \cap L \subseteq \Omega$ and since $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_3$, we have $L \subseteq \Omega$. Therefore, $H_2 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_3$. Conversely, assume $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_2$ and $H_2 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_3$. Let L be an R -subgroup of G such that $H_1 \cap L \subseteq \Omega$ and $L \subseteq H_3$. We have $H_1 \cap (H_2 \cap L) \subseteq H_1 \cap L \subseteq \Omega$. Since $H_2 \cap L$ is R -subgroup of G , $H_2 \cap L \subseteq H_2$, and $H_1 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_2$, it follows that $H_2 \cap L \subseteq \Omega$. Also, as $H_2 \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_3$, it follows $L \subseteq \Omega$.

Theorem 3.13. Let R be distributes over G and Ω a proper R -subgroup of G . If G has strictly Ω -uniform R -subgroups H_1, H_2, \dots, H_n containing Ω such that $\sum_{i=1}^n H_i$ is Ω -direct and $\sum_{i=1}^n H_i \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$, then G has Ω -f.G.d (here, $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ is independent of the choice of H_i 's).

Proof. Suppose G has strictly Ω -uniform R -subgroups H_1, H_2, \dots, H_n such that its sum is Ω -direct and $\sum_{i=1}^n H_i \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$. Let L_1, L_2, \dots, L_m be R -subgroups of G such that $L_i \not\subseteq \Omega$, and $\sum_{i=1}^m L_i$ is Ω -direct.

Now to show $m \leq n$, first we show that if T is an R -subgroup of G such that $T \cap H_i \not\subseteq \Omega$ for all i , then $T \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$. Suppose $T \cap H_i \not\subseteq \Omega$. Since H_i is strictly Ω -uniform, by definition, every R -subgroup contained in H_i is strictly Ω -essential. In particular, $T \cap H_i$ is an R -subgroup contained in H_i and so $T \cap H_i \leq_{\Omega}^{se} H_i$. Now by Theorem 2.18, $\sum_{i=1}^n (T \cap H_i) \leq_{\Omega}^{se} \sum_{i=1}^n H_i$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n H_i \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$. Hence, by Lemma 3.12, we have $\sum_{i=1}^n (T \cap H_i) \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$. Again by Lemma 2.18, since $\sum_{i=1}^n (T \cap H_i) \subseteq T \subseteq G$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n (T \cap H_i) \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$, we get $T \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$. Now if $\sum_{i=2}^m L_i \leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$, then since $\sum_{i=2}^m L_i$ is Ω -direct, we have $\sum_{i=2}^m L_i \cap L_1 \subseteq \Omega$, but $L_i \not\subseteq \Omega$, a contradiction. Hence, $\sum_{i=2}^m L_i \not\leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$. So there exists an $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ such that $\sum_{i=2}^m L_i \cap H_j \subseteq \Omega$, and $H_j \not\subseteq \Omega$. Suppose $j = 1$, then $\sum_{i=2}^m L_i \cap H_1 \subseteq \Omega$, which shows that $\sum_{i=2}^m L_i + H_1$ is Ω -direct. Again, since $H_1 + \sum_{i=3}^m L_i \not\leq_{\Omega}^{se} G$, there exists $j \in \{2, \dots, n\}$ such that $\sum_{i=3}^m L_i + H_j \subseteq \Omega$, and $H_j \not\subseteq \Omega$, say $j = 2$, which implies that $\sum_{i=3}^m L_i + H_1 + H_2$ is Ω -direct. Continuing this process, we get $m \leq n$. Hence, G has Ω -f.G.d.

4. Conclusion

We have introduced the concept of uniform ideal (strictly uniform ideal) with respect to an arbitrary ideal Ω (or R -subgroup) in R -groups. Several properties of Ω -uniform ideals were proved and exhibited suitable examples or counterexamples. Finally, we have obtained Goldie theorems analog in terms of Ω -uniform R -subgroups. One can extend to study various dimensions properties involving quotient R -groups.

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