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## ON INJECTIVE MV-MODULES


#### Abstract

In this paper, by considering the notion of $M V$-module, which is the structure that naturally correspond to $l u$-modules over $l u$-rings, we study injective $M V$-modules and we investigate some conditions for constructing injective $M V$ modules. Then we define the notions of essential $A$-homomorphisms and essential extension of $A$-homomorphisms, where $A$ is a product $M V$-algebra, and we get some of there properties. Finally, we prove that a maximal essential extension of any $A$-ideal of an injective $M V$-module is an injective $A$-module, too.


Keywords: ( $M V, P M V$ )-algebra, $M V$-module, injective $M V$-module, essential extension.

Mathematical Subject Classification (2010): 06D35, 06F99, 16D80.

## 1. Introduction

$M V$-algebras were defined by C.C. Chang [2] as algebras corresponding to the Lukasiewicz infinite valued propositional calculus. These algebras have appeared in the literature under different names and polynomially equivalent presentation: $C N$-algebras, Wajsberg algebras, bounded commutative $B C K$-algebras and bricks. It is discovered that $M V$-algebras are naturally related to the Murray-von Neumann order of projections in operator algebras on Hilbert spaces and that they play an interesting role as invariants of approximately finite-dimensional $C^{*}$-algebras. They are also naturally related to Ulam's searching games with lies. $M V$-algebras admit a natural lattice reduct and hence a natural order structure. Many important properties can be derived from the fact, established by Chang that nontrivial
$M V$-algebras are subdirect products of $M V$-chains, that is, totally ordered $M V$-algebras. To prove this fundamental result, Chang introduced the notion of prime ideal in an $M V$-algebra. The categorical equivalence between $M V$-algebras and $l u$-groups leads to the problem of defining a product operation on $M V$-algebras, in order to obtain structures corresponding to $l$-rings. A product $M V$-algebra (or $P M V$-algebra, for short) is an $M V$ algebra which has an associative binary operation ".". It satisfies an extra property which will be explained in Preliminaries. During the last years, $P M V$-algebras were considered and their equivalence with a certain class of $l$-rings with strong unit was proved. It seems quite natural to introduce modules over such algebras, generalizing the divisible $M V$-algebras and the $M V$-algebras obtained from Riesz spaces and to prove natural equivalence theorems. Hence, the notion of $M V$-modules was introduced as an action of a $P M V$-algebra over an $M V$-algebra by A. Di Nola [5]. Recently, some reasearchers worked on $M V$-modules (see $[1,10,7]$. For example, in $2016, \mathrm{R}$. A. Borzooei and S. Saidi Goraghani introduced free $M V$-modules. Since $M V$-modules are in their infancy, stating and opening of any subject in this field can be useful.

Now, in this paper, we present the definition of injective $M V$-modules and obtain some interesting results on them. Also, we define the notions of essential $A$-homomorphisms and essential extension of $A$-homomorphisms, where $A$ is a $P M V$-algebra. Finally, we prove that every maximal essential extension of an $A$-ideal in injective $A$-module $I$ is injective if it was included in $I$. In fact, we open new fields to anyone that is interested to studying and development of $M V$-modules.

## 2. Preliminaries

In this section, we review some definitions and related lemmas and theorems that we use in the next sections.
DEfinition 2.1. [3] An $M V$-algebra is a structure $M=\left(M, \oplus,{ }^{\prime}, 0\right)$ of type $(2,1,0)$ such that:
(MV1) $(M, \oplus, 0)$ is an Abelian monoid,
(MV2) $\left(a^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=a$,
(MV3) $0^{\prime} \oplus a=0^{\prime}$,
$(M V 4)\left(a^{\prime} \oplus b\right)^{\prime} \oplus b=\left(b^{\prime} \oplus a\right)^{\prime} \oplus a$,
If we define the constant $1=0^{\prime}$ and operations $\odot$ and $\ominus$ by $a \odot b=\left(a^{\prime} \oplus b^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}$,
$a \ominus b=a \odot b^{\prime}$, then
$(M V 5)(a \oplus b)=\left(a^{\prime} \odot b^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}$,
$(M V 6) x \oplus 1=1$,
$(M V 7)(a \ominus b) \oplus b=(b \ominus a) \oplus a$,
$(M V 8) a \oplus a^{\prime}=1$,
for every $a, b \in M$.
Now, let $M=\left(M, \oplus{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}, 0\right)$ be an $M V$-algebra. It is clear that $(M, \odot, 1)$ is an Abelian monoid. If we define auxiliary operations $\vee$ and $\wedge$ on $M$ by $a \vee b=\left(a \odot b^{\prime}\right) \oplus b$ and $a \wedge b=a \odot\left(a^{\prime} \oplus b\right)$, for every $a, b \in M$, then $(M, \vee, \wedge, 0)$ is a bounded distributive lattice. An $M V$-algebra $M$ is a Boolean algebra if and only if the operation " $\oplus$ " is idempotent, that is $x \oplus x=x$, for every $x \in M$.

A subalgebra of an $M V$-algebra $M$ is a subset $S$ of $M$ containing the zero element of $M$, closed under the operation of $M$ and equipped with the restriction to $S$ of these operations. In an $M V$-algebra $M$, the following conditions are equivalent: (i) $a^{\prime} \oplus b=1$, (ii) $a \odot b^{\prime}=0$, (iii) $b=a \oplus(b \ominus a)$, (iv) $\exists c \in M$ such that $a \oplus c=b$, for every $a, b, c \in M$. For any two elements $a, b$ of the $M V$-algebra $M, a \leq b$ if and only if $a, b$ satisfy the above equivalent conditions $(i)-(i v)$. An ideal of $M V$-algebra $M$ is a subset $I$ of $M$, satisfying the following conditions: $(I 1): 0 \in I,(I 2): x \leq y$ and $y \in I$ imply $x \in I,(I 3): x \oplus y \in I$, for every $x, y \in I$.

In an $M V$-algebra $M$, the distance function $d: M \times M \rightarrow M$ is defined by $d(x, y)=(x \ominus y) \oplus(y \ominus x)$ which satisfies $(i): d(x, y)=0$ if and only if $x=y,(i i): d(x, y)=d(y, x),(i i i): d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) \oplus d(y, z),(i v)$ : $d(x, y)=d\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right),(v): d(x \oplus z, y \oplus t) \leq d(x, y) \oplus d(z, t)$, for every $x, y, z, t \in$ $M$.

Let $I$ be an ideal of $M V$-algebra $M$. We denote $x \sim y\left(x \equiv_{I} y\right)$ if and only if $d(x, y) \in I$, for every $x, y \in M$. So $\sim$ is a congruence relation on M. Denote the equivalence class containing $x$ by $\frac{x}{I}$ and $\frac{M}{I}=\left\{\frac{x}{I}: x \in M\right\}$. Then $\left(\frac{M}{I}, \oplus,^{\prime}, \frac{0}{I}\right)$ is an $M V$-algebra, where $\left(\frac{x}{I}\right)^{\prime}=\frac{x^{\prime}}{I}$ and $\frac{x}{I} \oplus \frac{y}{I}=\frac{x \oplus y}{I}$, for all $x, y \in M$.

Let $M$ and $K$ be two $M V$-algebras. A mapping $f: M \rightarrow K$ is called an MV-homomorphism if $(H 1): f(0)=0,(H 2): f(x \oplus y)=f(x) \oplus f(y)$ and (H3): $f\left(x^{\prime}\right)=(f(x))^{\prime}$, for every $x, y \in M$. If $f$ is one to one (onto), then $f$ is called an $M V$-monomorphism ( $M V$-epimorphism) and if $f$ is onto and one to one, then $f$ is called an $M V$-isomorphism.

Lemma 2.2. [3] In every MV-algebra M, the natural order " $\leq$ " has the following properties:
(i) $x \leq y$ if and only if $y^{\prime} \leq x^{\prime}$,
(ii) if $x \leq y$, then $x \oplus z \leq y \oplus z$, for every $z \in M$.

Lemma 2.3. [3] Let $M$ and $N$ be two $M V$-algebras and $f: M \rightarrow N$ be an MV-homomorphism. Then the following properties hold:
(i) For each ideal $J$ of $N$, the set

$$
f^{-1}(J)=\{x \in M: f(x) \in J\}
$$

is an ideal of $A$. Hence, $\operatorname{Ker}(f)=f^{-1}(\{0\})$ is an ideal of $M$,
(ii) $f(x) \leq f(y)$ if and only if $x \ominus y \in \operatorname{Ker}(f)$,
(iii) $f$ is injective if and only if $\operatorname{Ker}(f)=\{0\}$.

Definition 2.4. [4] A product MV-algebra (or PMV-algebra, for short) is a structure $A=\left(A, \oplus, .,{ }^{\prime}, 0\right)$, where $\left(A, \oplus,{ }^{\prime}, 0\right)$ is an MV-algebra and "." is a binary associative operation on $A$ such that the following property is satisfied: if $x+y$ is defined, then $x . z+y . z$ and $z . x+z . y$ are defined and $(x+y) . z=x . z+y . z, z .(x+y)=z . x+z . y$, for every $x, y, z \in A$, where " + " is the partial addition on $A$. A unit of PMV-algebra $A$ is an element $e \in A$ such that $e . x=x . e=x$, for every $x \in A$. If $A$ has a unit, then $e=1$. A PMV-homomorphism is an MV-homomorphism which also commutes with the product operation.
Lemma 2.5. [4] Let $A$ be a PMV-algebra. Then $a \leq b$ implies that $a . c \leq b . c$ and $c . a \leq c . b$, for every $a, b, c \in A$.
Definition 2.6. [5] Let $A=\left(A, \oplus, .,^{\prime}, 0\right)$ be a $P M V$-algebra, $M=\left(M, \oplus,{ }^{\prime}, 0\right)$ be an $M V$-algebra and the operation $\Phi: A \times M \longrightarrow M$ be defined by $\Phi(a, x)=a x$, which satisfies the following axioms:
(AM1) if $x+y$ is defined in $M$, then $a x+a y$ is defined in $M$ and $a(x+y)=$ $a x+a y$,
(AM2) if $a+b$ is defined in $A$, then $a x+b x$ is defined in $M$ and $(a+b) x=$ $a x+b x$,
(AM3) (a.b) $x=a(b x)$, for every $a, b \in A$ and $x, y \in M$.
Then $M$ is called a (left) $M V$-module over $A$ or briefly an A-module. We say that $M$ is a unitary $M V$-module if $A$ has a unit and (AM4) $1_{A} x=x$, for every $x \in M$.
Corollary 2.7. [7] Let $M$ be a unitary $A$-module. If $N \subseteq M$ is a nonempty set, then we have:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
(N]=\left\{x \in M: x \leq \alpha_{1} x_{1} \oplus \alpha_{2} x_{2} \oplus \cdots \oplus \alpha_{n} x_{n}, \text { for some } x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n} \in N,\right. \\
\left.\alpha_{1}, \cdots, \alpha_{n} \in A\right\} .
\end{array}
$$

In particular, for $a \in M,(a]=\{x \in M: x \leq n(\alpha a)$, for some integer $n \geq$ 0 and $\alpha \in A\}$.
Lemma 2.8. [5] Let $A$ be a PMV-algebra and $M$ be an $A$-module. Then
(a) $0 x=0, a 0=0$
(b) ( $n a) x=a(n x)$, for any $n \in N$,
(c) $a x^{\prime} \leq(a x)^{\prime}$,
(d) $a^{\prime} x \leq(a x)^{\prime}$,
(e) $(a x)^{\prime}=a^{\prime} x+(1 x)^{\prime}$,
(f) $x \leq y$ implies $a x \leq a y$,
(g) $a \leq b$ implies $a x \leq b x$,
(h) $a(x \oplus y) \leq a x \oplus a y$,
(i) $d(a x, a y) \leq a d(x, y)$,
( $j$ ) if $x \equiv_{I} y$, then $a x \equiv_{I}$ ay, where $I$ is an ideal of $A$,
( $k$ ) if $M$ is a unitary $M V$-module, then $(a x)^{\prime}=a^{\prime} x+x^{\prime}$, for every $a, b \in A$ and $x, y \in M$.
Definition 2.9. [5] Let $A$ be a $P M V$-algebra and $M_{1}, M_{2}$ be two $A$ modules. A map $f: M_{1} \rightarrow M_{2}$ is called an $A$-module homomorphism (or A-homomorphism, for short) if $f$ is an $M V$-homomorphism and (H4): $f(a x)=a f(x)$, for every $x \in M_{1}$ and $a \in A$.
Definition 2.10. [5] Let $A$ be a $P M V$-algebra and $M$ be an $A$-module.
Then an ideal $N \subseteq M$ is called an $A$-ideal of $M$ if (I4): ax $\in N$, for every $a \in A$ and $x \in N$.
Definition 2.11. [10] Let $M$ be a unitary $A$-module and there exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}^{\prime} m_{i} \leq\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} m_{i}\right)^{\prime}$, for every $1 \leq n \leq k, a_{i} \in A$ and $m_{i} \in M$. Then $M$ is called an $A_{k}$-module. If $\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}^{\prime} m_{i} \leq\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} m_{i}\right)^{\prime}$, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $M$ is called an $A_{\mathbb{N}}$-module.
Lemma 2.12. [10] In PMV-algebra $A,(\alpha \oplus \beta) a \leq \alpha m \oplus \beta a$, for every $\alpha, \beta, a \in A$.

## 3. Injective $M V$-modules

In the follows, let $A$ be a $P M V$-algebra and $M$ be an $M V$-algebra unless otherewise specified.

In this section, we present the definition of injective $M V$-modules and we give some properties about them.
Definition 3.1. [8] Let $M$ be an $A$-module. $M$ is called an injective $A$ module if for every $m \in M$ and $0 \neq a \in A$, there exists $c \in M$ such that $a c=m$.
Example 3.2. Consider the real unit interval $[0,1]$. Let $x \oplus y=\min \{x+$ $y, 1\}$ and $x^{\prime}=1-x$, for all $x, y \in[0,1]$. Then $\left([0,1], \oplus,^{\prime}, 0\right)$ is an $M V$ algebra, where " + " and " - " are the ordinary operations in $\mathbb{R}$. Also, the rational numbers in $[0,1]$ and for each integer $n \geq 2$, the $n$-element set

$$
L_{n}=\left\{0, \frac{1}{n-1}, \cdots, \frac{n-2}{n-1}, 1\right\}
$$

yield examples of subalgebras of $[0,1]$ (See [3]). Now, by using this example, we get some injective $M V$-modules.
(i) Consider $a b=a . b$, for every $a, b \in L_{2}$, where "." is ordinary operation in $\mathbb{R}$. Then $\left(L_{2}, \oplus, .,^{\prime}, 0\right)$ is a PMV-algebra and $L_{2}$ as $L_{2}$-module is an injective $L_{2}$-module.
(ii) $[0,1]$ as $L_{2}$-module is an injective $L_{2}$-module.
(iii) Consider $a . b=\max \{a, b\}$, for every $a, b \in L_{3}$. Then it is routine to show that $\left(L_{3}, \oplus,{ }^{\prime}, ., 0\right)$ is a PMV-algebra and by cosidering $a b=a . b$, we have $L_{3}$ is a $L_{3}$-module. Moreover, $L_{3}$ is an injective $L_{3}$-module.
Definition 3.3. Let $I$ be an ideal of $M$ and $a \in I$. If every $b \in I$ can be showed as $b=x a$, for some $x \in A$, then we say $I$ is an $M V$-principle ideal of $M$, and we write $I=\prec a \succ$.
Example 3.4. Let $A=\{0,1,2,3\}$ and the operations " $\oplus$ " and "." be defined on $A$ as follows:

| $\oplus$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 |
| 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |


| . | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| 3 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

Consider $0^{\prime}=3,1^{\prime}=2,2^{\prime}=1$ and $3^{\prime}=0$. Then it is easy to show that $\left(A, \oplus,{ }^{\prime}, ., 0\right)$ is a $P M V$-algebra. Also $I=\{0,1,2\}$ and $J=\{0,1\}$ are ideals of $A$. Since $1=1.2,2=2.2, I=\prec 2 \succ$ is an $M V$-principle ideal of $A$. Also, $J=\prec 1 \succ$ is an $M V$-principle ideal of $A$.

Proposition 3.5. Let $M$ be an $A_{2}$-module, where $M$ is a boolean algebra. Then $I=\{x a: x \in A\}$ is an $M V$-principle ideal of $M$, for every $a \in M$.
Proof: It is clear that $0 \in I$. Let $x a, y a \in I$, for any $x, y \in A$. Since $x \leq x \oplus y$ and $y \leq x \oplus y$, by Lemma $2.8(f)$, we have $a x \leq a(x \oplus y)$ and $a y \leq a(x \oplus y)$, for every $a \in A$ and $x, y \in M$. So by Lemma 2.2(ii), we have $a x \oplus a y \leq a(x \oplus y) \oplus a y$ and $a(x \oplus y) \oplus a y \leq a(x \oplus y) \oplus a(x \oplus y)=a(x \oplus y)$. Hence, $a x \oplus a y \leq a(x \oplus y)$, for every $a \in A$ and $x, y \in M$. Now, by Lemma 2.12, $a x \oplus a y=a(x \oplus y)$ and so $a x \oplus a y \in I$. Let $t \leq x . a \in I$, for $t \in M$. Then $1 . t^{\prime} \oplus x . a=1$ and so $\left(t^{\prime} \oplus a\right)^{\prime} \oplus x^{\prime} a=0$. It results that $\left(t^{\prime} \oplus a\right)^{\prime}=0$ and so $t^{\prime} \oplus a=1$. Hence we have
$t=t \wedge x a=\left(t^{\prime} \oplus\left(t^{\prime} \oplus x a\right)^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=\left(t^{\prime} \oplus\left(t^{\prime} \oplus a\right)^{\prime} \oplus x^{\prime} a\right)^{\prime}=\left(t^{\prime} \oplus x^{\prime} a\right)^{\prime}=\left(t^{\prime} \oplus a\right)^{\prime} \oplus x a=x a$.
It means that $t \in I$. Therefore, $I$ is an ideal of $M$.
Note. We can consider $A$ as $A_{2}$-module. Then in proposition $3.5, I=$ $\{x . a: x \in A\}$ is an $M V$-principle ideal of $A$.
Definition 3.6. [10] Let $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ be two A-modules. Then the map $f: M_{1} \rightarrow M_{2}$ is called an $A^{\prime}$-homomorphism if and only if it satisfies in $(H 1),(H 3),(H 4)$ and
$\left(H^{\prime} 2\right):$ if $x+y$ is defined in $M_{1}$, then $h(x+y)=h(x \oplus y)=h(x) \oplus h(y)$, for every $x, y \in M_{1}$, where " + " is the partial addition on $M_{1}$. If $h$ is one to one (onto), then $h$ is called an $A^{\prime}$-monomorphism (epimorphism). If $h$ is onto and one to one, then $h$ is called an $A^{\prime}$-isomorphism and we write $M_{1} \cong M_{2}$.
THEOREM 3.7. Let all ideals of $A$ be $M V$-principle and $M$ be an injective $A$-module. Then for every $A$-module $C$ and every $A^{\prime}$-homomorphism $\alpha: C \longrightarrow M$ and $A^{\prime}$-monomorphism $\mu: C \longrightarrow B$, there is an $A$ homomorphism $\beta: B \longrightarrow M$ such that the diagram

is commutative, that is $\beta \mu=\alpha$.
Proof: Let $M$ be an injective $A$-module, $\mu: D \longrightarrow B$ be an $A^{\prime}$-monomorphism and $\alpha: D \longrightarrow M$ be an $A$-homomorphism, for $M V$-algebras $D$
and $B$. With out lost of generality, let $D$ be an $A$-ideal of $B$ (because $\mu$ is an $A$-monomorphism). Consider

$$
\Omega=\left\{\left(D_{j}, \alpha_{j}\right): D \subseteq D_{j} \subseteq B, \alpha_{j}: D_{j} \longrightarrow M,\left.\alpha_{j}\right|_{D}=\alpha\right\} .
$$

Then by Zorn's lemma, $\Omega$ has a maximal element $\left(D_{m}, \alpha_{m}\right)$. We claim that $D_{m}=B$. If $D_{m} \neq B$, then $D_{m} \varsubsetneqq B$ and so there is $b \in B$ such that $b \notin D$. Let $I=\left\{a \in A: a b \in D_{m}\right\}$. Since $0 \in I$, we have $I \neq \emptyset$. We show that $I$ is an ideal of $A$. Let $a_{1}, a_{2} \in I$. Then $a_{1} b, a_{2} b \in D_{m}$. By Lemma 2.12, $\left(a_{1} \oplus a_{2}\right) b \leq a_{1} b \oplus a_{2} b \in D_{m}$ and so $a_{1} \oplus a_{2} \in I$. Now, let $t \leq a \in I$, for some $t \in A$. Then by Lemma $2.8(g), t b \leq a b \in D_{m}$ and so $t b \in D_{m}$. It means that $t \in I$. Hence $I$ is an ideal of $A$ and so there is $a_{0} \in A$ such that $I=\prec a_{0} \succ$. If $a_{0}=0$, then we consider an arbitrary element $c \in M$. If $a_{0} \neq 0$, then we consider $a_{0} b \in D_{m}$ and so $m=\alpha_{m}\left(a_{0} b\right) \in M$. Since $M$ is an injective $A$-module, there is $c \in M$ such that $m=\alpha_{m}\left(a_{0} b\right)=a_{0} c$. Now, let $D_{M}=\left\{a_{m} \oplus t b: t \in A, a_{m} \in D_{m}\right\}$. Since $b \notin D_{m}$, we have $D_{m} \subset D_{M}$. We define $\alpha_{M}: D_{M} \longrightarrow M$ by
$\alpha_{M}\left(a_{m} \oplus t b\right)= \begin{cases}\alpha_{m}\left(a_{m}\right)+t c, & \text { if } \alpha_{m}\left(a_{m}\right)+t c, a_{m}+t b \text { are defined } \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}$
The first, we show that $\alpha_{M}$ is well defined. It is sufficient that we show $\alpha_{m}(t b)=t c$. Since $t b \in D_{m}$, we have $t \in I$ and since $I=\prec a_{0} \succ$, there is $z \in A$ such that $t=z a_{0}$ and so

$$
\alpha_{m}(t b)=\alpha_{m}\left(z a_{0} b\right)=z \alpha_{m}\left(a_{0} b\right)=z a_{0} c=t c
$$

The proof of $(H 1)$ is clear. If $a_{m 1}+t_{1} b+a_{m 2}+t_{2} b$ is defined, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left.\alpha_{M}\left(a_{m_{1}} \oplus t_{1} b\right) \oplus\left(a_{m_{2}} \oplus t_{2} b\right)\right) & =\alpha_{M}\left(a_{m_{1}} \oplus a_{m_{2}} \oplus t_{1} b \oplus t_{2} b\right) \\
& =\alpha_{M}\left(a_{m 1}+a_{m 2}+t_{1} b+t_{2} b\right) \\
& =\alpha_{M}\left(a_{m 1}+a_{m 2}+\left(t_{1}+t_{2}\right) b\right) \\
& =\alpha_{m}\left(a_{m 1}+a_{m 2}\right)+\left(t_{1}+t_{2}\right) c \\
& =\alpha_{m}\left(a_{m 1}\right)+t_{1} c \oplus \alpha_{m}\left(a_{m 2}\right)+t_{2} c \\
& =\alpha_{M}\left(a_{m 1}\right) \oplus \alpha_{M}\left(a_{m 2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and so (H2)' is true, for any $a_{m 1} \oplus t_{1} b, a_{m 2} \oplus t_{2} b \in D_{M}$. By definition of $\alpha_{m}$, for every $a_{m} \oplus t b \in D_{M}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\alpha_{M}\left(a_{m} \oplus t b\right)\right)^{\prime} & =\left(\alpha_{m}\left(a_{m}\right) \oplus t c\right)^{\prime} \\
& =\left(\alpha_{m}\left(a_{m}\right) \oplus \alpha_{m}(t b)\right)^{\prime} \\
& =\left(\alpha_{m}\left(a_{m} \oplus t b\right)\right)^{\prime} \\
& \left.=\alpha_{m}\left(\left(a_{m}\right) \oplus t b\right)^{\prime}\right) \\
& \left.=\alpha_{m}\left(\left(a_{m}\right) \oplus t b\right)^{\prime}\right) \oplus 0 \\
& \left.\left.=\alpha_{M}\left(\left(a_{m}\right) \oplus t b\right)^{\prime} \oplus 0\right)=\alpha_{M}\left(\left(a_{m}\right) \oplus t b\right)^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and so (H3) is true. Now, for every $a \in A$ and $a_{m} \oplus t b \in D_{M}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\alpha_{M}\left(a\left(a_{m} \oplus t b\right)\right)\right. & =\alpha_{M}\left(a a_{m} \oplus(a . t) b\right) \\
& =\alpha_{m}\left(a a_{m}\right) \oplus(a . t) c \\
& =a \alpha_{m}\left(a_{m}\right) \oplus a(t c) \\
& =a\left(\alpha_{m}\left(a_{m}\right) \oplus t c\right) \\
& =a \alpha_{M}\left(a_{m} \oplus t b\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and so $(H 4)$ is true. Hence $\alpha_{M}$ is an $A^{\prime}$-homomorphism and so $\left(D_{m}, \alpha_{m}\right) \nsupseteq$ $\left(D_{M}, \alpha_{M}\right)$, which is a contradiction, by maximality of $\left(D_{m}, \alpha_{m}\right)$. Therefore, $D_{m}=B$.

Example 3.8. $[0,1]$ as $L_{2}$-module satisfies in the conditions of Theorem 3.7. THEOREM 3.9. Every non cyclic $L_{2}$-module can be embeded in an injective $L_{2}$-module.

Proof: Let $M$ be a non cyclic $L_{2}$-module. It is clear that $M \neq 0$ and so there is $0 \neq a \in M$. Consider $A$-ideal ( $a]$ of $M$. We define $\alpha:(a] \longrightarrow[0,1]$ by $\alpha(x)=m \frac{p}{q}$, where $\frac{p}{q} \in[0,1]$ and by using of Corollary 2.7,

$$
m=\min \left\{n \mid x \leq n(\beta a), \text { for some integer } n \geq 0 \text { and } \beta \in L_{2}\right\}
$$

It is easy to see that $\alpha$ is well defined. We show that $\alpha$ is an $M V$ homomorphism. Since $\alpha(0)=0,(H 1)$ is true. Let $x_{1}, x_{2} \in(a]$. Then $m_{1}=\min \left\{n: x_{1} \leq n(\beta a)\right.$, for some integer $n \geq 0$ and $\left.\beta \in L_{2}\right\}$ and $m_{2}=\min \left\{n: x_{2} \leq n(\beta a)\right.$, for some integer $n \geq 0$ and $\left.\beta \in L_{2}\right\}$. Let $m=m_{1}+m_{2}$ and $q$ be the smallest common multiple of $m, m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$. Then
$\alpha\left(x_{1} \oplus x_{2}\right)=m \frac{p}{q}=\left(m_{1}+m_{2}\right) \frac{p}{q}=m_{1} \frac{p}{q}+m_{2} \frac{p}{q}=\alpha\left(x_{1}\right)+\alpha\left(x_{2}\right)=\alpha\left(x_{1}\right) \oplus \alpha\left(x_{2}\right)$
and so (H2) is true. Now, let $\frac{s}{g} \in[0,1]$ and $x \in(a]$. Since $x \leq n(\beta a)$, for some integer $n \geq 0$ and $\beta \in L_{2}$, by Lemma $2.8(b)$ and $(f)$, we have $\frac{s}{g} x \leq \frac{s}{g}(n(\beta a))=\left(n \frac{s}{g}\right)(\beta a)$ and so $m=k \frac{s}{g}$, where

$$
k=\min \left\{n \left\lvert\, \frac{s}{g} x \leq n\left(\frac{s}{g}\right)(\beta a)\right., \text { for some integer } n \geq 0 \text { and } \beta \in L_{2}\right\}
$$

Hence $\alpha\left(\frac{s}{g} x\right)=m \frac{p_{1}}{q_{1}}=k \frac{s}{g} \frac{p_{1}}{q_{1}}$, where $q_{1} \mid k$. On the other hand, $\frac{s}{g} \alpha(x)=$ $\frac{s}{g} k \frac{p_{1}}{q_{1}}$ and so $(H 4)$ is true. Since $M$ is not cyclic, $1 \notin(a]$ and so $x^{\prime} \notin$ (a], for every $x \in(a]$. It means that $(H 3)$ is true. Hence $\alpha$ is an $M V$ homomorphism. If we consider the inclusion map $\mu:(a] \longrightarrow M$, then by Example 3.8 and Theorem 3.7, the following diagram

is commutative, that is $\beta \mu=\alpha$. It is routine to see that $\beta$ is an $A$ monomorphism. Hence $M$ is embeded in an injective $L_{2}$-module.
Open Problem. Under what suitable an $A$-module can be embeded in an injective $A$-module?
Theorem 3.10. Let $A$ be unital, $a . b=b$ implies that $a=1$, for every $a, b \in$ $A$ and for every $A$-module $C$, every $A^{\prime}$-homomorphism $\alpha: C \longrightarrow M$ and $A^{\prime}$-monomorphism $\mu: C \longrightarrow B$ there is an $A$-homomorphism $\beta: B \longrightarrow M$ such that the diagram

is commutative, that is $\beta \mu=\alpha$. Then $M$ is an injective $A$-module.
Proof: Let for every $A$-module $C$ and every $A^{\prime}$-homomorphism $\alpha: C \longrightarrow$ $M$ and $A^{\prime}$-monomorphism $\mu: C \longrightarrow B$ there is an $A$-homomorphism $\beta$ : $B \longrightarrow M$ such that $\beta \mu=\alpha$. Also, let $m \in M$ and $0 \neq a \in A$. Consider $\alpha: A \longrightarrow M$ by $\alpha(1)=m($ or $\alpha(t)=t m)$ and $\mu: A \longrightarrow A$ by $\mu(1)=a$
(or $\mu(t)=t a$ ), for every $t \in A$. It is easy to see that $\alpha$ and $\mu$ are $A^{\prime}$ homomorphism. Let $x \in k e r \mu$. Then $\mu(x)=x a=0$ and so $x^{\prime} a \oplus a^{\prime}=$ 1. It means that $a \leq x^{\prime} a \leq a$ and so $x^{\prime} a=a$. Hence $x^{\prime}=1$ and so $x=0$. It results that $\operatorname{ker} \mu=\{0\}$ and so by Lemma 2.3 (ii), $\mu$ is an $A^{\prime}$-monomorphism. Then by hypothesis, there is an $A$-homomorphism $\beta$ : $A \longrightarrow M$ such that $\beta \mu=\alpha$. Since $A$ is an $A$-module, we have

$$
m=\alpha(1)=\beta \mu(1)=\beta(\mu(1))=\beta(a)=\beta(a 1)=a \beta(1) .
$$

Now, consider $c=\beta(1)$ and so $M$ is an injective $A$-module.
Example 3.11. The example 3.4 satisfies in the condition : a.b $=b$ implies that $a=1$, for every $a, b \in A$ (note that $1_{A}=3$ ).
Lemma 3.12. Every $A^{\prime}$-homomorphism $f: I \longrightarrow Q$ extends to an $A^{\prime}$ homomorphism $F: A \longrightarrow Q$, for any ideal I of $A$ if and only if for every $A^{\prime}$ homomorphisms $f: M \longrightarrow N$ and $g: M \longrightarrow Q$, there is $A$-homomorphism $\varphi: N \longrightarrow Q$ such that the diagram

is commutative, that is $\varphi f=g$.
Proof: $(\Rightarrow)$ Let $\Omega=\left\{(C, \phi): M \subseteq C \subseteq N, \phi: C \longrightarrow Q,\left.\phi\right|_{M}=g\right\}$. A routine application of Zorn's lemma shows that $\Omega$ has a maximal element $(D, \varphi)$. We show that $D=N$ and therefore $\varphi$ would be required extension of $g$. Let $n \in N$. Then by the proof of Theorem 3.7, $I_{n}=\{a \in A: a n \in D\}$ is an ideal of $A$. Define $\alpha: I_{n} \longrightarrow Q$ by $\alpha(a)=\varphi(a n)$. Note that
$\alpha\left(a^{\prime}\right)=\varphi\left(a^{\prime} n\right)=\left(\varphi\left(a n+n^{\prime}\right)\right)^{\prime}=\left(\varphi(a n)+\varphi\left(n^{\prime}\right)\right)^{\prime}=\left(\alpha(a)+(\alpha(1))^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=(\alpha(a))^{\prime}$.
Hence $\left(H^{\prime}\right)$ is true. The proof of $(H 1),(H 3)$ and $(H 4)$ are routine. Then $\alpha$ is an $A^{\prime}$-homomorphism and so $\alpha$ extends to $A^{\prime}$-homomorphism $\beta: I_{n} \longrightarrow$ $Q$. Define $\varphi^{\prime}: D \oplus A n \longrightarrow Q$ by $\varphi^{\prime}(d \oplus a n)=\varphi(d) \oplus \beta(a)$, for every $d \in D$ and $a \in A$. Since $\beta(a)=\alpha(a)=\varphi(a n)$, for every $a \in I_{n}$ and $\beta(a)=\phi(a n)$, for every $a \in I_{n}$, we conclude that $\varphi^{\prime}$ is well defined. It is routine to see that $\varphi^{\prime}$ is an $A^{\prime}$-homomorphism. Since $(D, \varphi) \leq\left(D \oplus A n, \varphi^{\prime}\right)$, by maximality $(D, \varphi)$, we have $D=D \oplus A n$ and so $D=N$.
$(\Leftarrow)$ The proof is clear.

Theorem 3.13. Let $A$ be unital, all ideals of $A$ be principle and a.b=1 implies that $a=1$, for every $a, b \in A$. Then $M$ is an injective $A$-module. Proof: Let $I$ be an ideal of $A$ and $f: I=\prec a \succ \longrightarrow M$ be an $A^{\prime}$ homomorphism. Define $F: A \longrightarrow M$ by $F(x)=f(x . a)$. It is clear that $F$ is well defined. We show that $F$ is an $A^{\prime}$-homomorphism. The proofs of $\left(H_{1}\right)$ and $\left(H_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ are routine. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
F\left(x^{\prime}\right) & =f\left(x^{\prime} \cdot a\right)=\left(f\left(x \cdot a+a^{\prime}\right)\right)^{\prime}=\left(f(x \cdot a)+f\left(a^{\prime}\right)\right)^{\prime}= \\
& =\left(F(x)+(f(a))^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=\left(F(x)+(F(1))^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=(F(x))^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, $F$ is an $A^{\prime}$-homomorphism and so by Lemma 3.12 and Theorem $3.10, M$ is an injective $A$-module.

## 4. Essential extensions

In this section, we define the notions of essential $A$-homomorphisms and essential extension of an $A$-homomorphism, where $A$ is a $P M V$-algebra and we obtain more results on them. Then by these notions, we obtain some results on injective $M V$-modules.
DEFINITION 4.1. Let $\mu: M \longrightarrow B$ be an $A^{\prime}$-monomorphism such that $\mu(M) \cap H \neq\{0\}$, for every no zero $A$-ideal $H$ of $B$. Then $\mu$ is called an essential $A$-homomorphism. In special case, if $M$ is an $A$-ideal of $B$ ( $\mu$ is inclusion map), then $B$ is called an essential extension of $\mu$.
Proposition 4.2. [9] Let $A$ be a $P M V$-algebra. Then $\sum_{i=1}^{n} A$ is a $P M V$ algebra.
Example 4.3. By Proposition 4.2, $A \oplus A$ is an $M V$-algebra. If operation $\bullet: A \times(A \oplus A) \longrightarrow(A \oplus A)$ is defined by $a \bullet(b, c)=(a . b, a . c)$, for every $a, b, c \in A$, then it is easy to show that $A \oplus A$ is an $A$-module. consider $A=L_{2}$ and $\phi: A \oplus A \longrightarrow L_{4}$, where $\phi(1,0)=\frac{1}{3}, \phi(0,1)=\frac{2}{3}, \phi(0,0)=0$ and $\phi(1,1)=1$. Then it is clear that $\phi$ is well defined. It is easy to show that $\phi$ is an $A^{\prime}$-homomorphism. Since $\phi\left(L_{2} \oplus L_{2}\right)=L_{4}, \phi$ is an essential A-homomorphisms.
Theorem 4.4. Let $M$ be an $A$-module and $B$ be an $A$-ideal of $M$. Then $M$ is an essential extension of $B$ if and only if for every $0 \neq b \in M$, there exist $a \in A$ and $c \in B$ such that $c \leq n(a b)$, for some integer $n$.
Proof: $(\Rightarrow)$ Let $M$ be an essential extension of $B$ and $0 \neq b \in M$. Then $H=(b]$ is a non zero $A$-ideal of $M$ and so $B \cap H \neq\{0\}$. It results that there
exists $0 \neq c \in M \cap H$. Since $c \in H$, there is $a \in A$ such that $c \leq n(a b)$, for some integer $n$.
$(\Leftarrow)$ Let for every $0 \neq b \in M$, there exists $a \in A$ and $c \in B$ such that $c \leq n(a b)$, for some integer $n$. Also, let $H$ be a non zero $A$-ideal of $M$. Then there is $0 \neq b \in H$ such that $c \leq n(a b) \in H$ and so $c \in H$. Hence $B \cap H \neq\{0\}$ and so $B$ is an essential extension of $B$.
Proposition 4.5. Let $M$ be an $A$-module and $B$ be a non zero $A$-ideal of $M$. Then there is a maximal essential extension $E$ of $B$ such that $B \subseteq$ $E \subseteq M$.
Proof: Let
$K=\left\{C_{i} \mid C_{i}\right.$ is an $A$-ideal of $M$ that is an essential extension of $\left.B\right\}$
Since $B \in K, K \neq 0$. For every chain $\left\{C_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ of elements of $K, C=$ $\bigcup_{i \in I} C_{i}$ is an $A$-ideal of $M$. Now, let $b \in B$. Since $C_{i}$ is an essential extension of $B$, there are $a \in A$ and $c \in C_{i}$ such that $c \leq n(a b)$, for every $i \in I$ and for some integer $n$. Hence, for every $b \in B$, there are $a \in A$ and $c \in C$ such that $c \leq n(a b)$ and so by Theorem 4.4, $C$ is an essential extension of $B$. Now, by Zorn's Lemma, $K$ has a maximal elements as $E$ that is essential extension of $B$ inclusion in $M$.

In the follow, we will show that every maximal essential extension of an $A$-ideal of injective $A$-module $I$ is injective if it was included in $I$. The first we prove the following lemma that we call the short five lemma and its corollaries in $M V$-modules:
Definition 4.6. Let $\left\{M_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be a family of $A$-modules and $\left\{f_{i}: M_{i} \rightarrow\right.$ $\left.M_{i+1}: i \in I\right\}$ be a family of $A$-module homomorphism. Then

$$
\cdots \rightarrow M_{i-1} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{f}_{\mathrm{i}}-1} M_{i} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{f}_{\mathrm{i}}} M_{i+1} \rightarrow \cdots
$$

is exact if $\operatorname{Im} f_{i}=\operatorname{Kerf}_{i+1}$, for every $i \in I$. In special case,

$$
0 \rightarrow M_{1} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{f}_{1}} M_{2} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{~g}_{7}} M_{3} \rightarrow 0
$$

is called a short exact sequence.
Example 4.7. (i) Let $M$ be an $A$-module and $N$ be an $A$-ideal of $M$. Then

$$
0 \rightarrow N \stackrel{\subsetneq}{\rightrightarrows} M \xrightarrow{\pi} \frac{M}{N} \rightarrow 0
$$

is a short exact sequence.
(ii) Let $f: M_{1} \rightarrow M_{2}$ be an $A$-module homomorphism. Then

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Kerf} \stackrel{\subsetneq}{\rightrightarrows} M_{1} \xrightarrow{\pi} \frac{M_{1}}{\operatorname{Kerf}} \rightarrow 0
$$

is a short exact sequence.
Lemma 4.8. (i) Let

$$
0 \rightarrow A_{1} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{f}_{1}} B_{1} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{~g}_{7}} C_{1} \rightarrow 0
$$

and

$$
0 \rightarrow A_{2} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{f}_{2}} B_{2} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{~g}_{2}} C_{2} \rightarrow 0
$$

be two exact sequences of $A$-modules, $\alpha: A_{1} \rightarrow A_{2}$ and $\gamma: C_{1} \rightarrow C_{2}$ be $A$-isomorphism, $\beta: B_{1} \rightarrow B_{2}$ be an $A$-homomorphism, $\beta \circ f_{1}=f_{2} \circ \alpha$ and $\gamma \circ g_{1}=g_{2} \circ \beta$. Then $\beta$ is an $A$-isomorphism.
(ii) For the short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow A_{1} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{f}} B \xrightarrow{\mathrm{~g}} A_{2} \rightarrow 0
$$

of $A$-modules, if there is an $A$-homomorphism $k: B \rightarrow A_{1}$ such that $k f=I$ ( $I$ is identity map), then $B \simeq A_{1} \oplus A_{2}$, where $A_{1} \oplus A_{2}=\left\{a_{1} \oplus a_{2}: a_{1} \in\right.$ $\left.A_{1}, a_{2} \in A_{2}\right\}$ (we say $0 \rightarrow A_{1} \rightarrow^{\mathrm{f}} B \rightarrow^{\mathrm{g}} A_{2} \rightarrow 0$ is split exact).
(iii) If $J$ is a unitary $A$-module, then $J$ is an injective $A$-module if and only if every short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow J \rightarrow T \rightarrow B \rightarrow 0
$$

of $A$-modules is split exact.
Proof: ( $i$ ) It is routine to see that $\beta$ is an $A$-monomorphism. We show that $\beta$ is an $A$-epimorphism. Consider arbitrary element $x \in B_{2}$. Then $g_{2}(x) \in C_{2}$ and so there is $z \in C_{1}$ such that $\gamma(z)=g_{2}(x)$. Since $g_{1}$ is an $A$ epimorphism, there is $b_{1} \in B_{1}$ such that $g_{1}\left(b_{1}\right)=z$ and so $\gamma g_{1}\left(b_{1}\right)=g_{2}(x)$. It results that $g_{2} \beta\left(b_{1}\right)=g_{2}(x)$ and so by Lemma 2.3, $\beta\left(b_{1}\right) \ominus x \in \operatorname{Kerg}_{2}=$ $I m g f_{2}$. Hence there is $a \in A_{2}$ such that $f_{2}(a)=\beta\left(b_{1}\right) \ominus x$. Since $a \in A_{2}$, there is $d \in A_{1}$ such that $\alpha(d)=a$ and so $f_{2} \alpha(d)=\beta\left(b_{1}\right) \ominus x$. It results that $\beta\left(f_{1}(d)\right)=\beta\left(b_{1}\right) \ominus x$. Now, let $y=b_{1} \ominus f_{1}(d)$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \beta(y)=\beta\left(\left(b_{1}^{\prime} \oplus f_{1}(d)\right)^{\prime}\right)=\left(\beta\left(b_{1}^{\prime} \oplus f_{1}(d)\right)\right)^{\prime}=\left(\beta\left(b_{1}^{\prime}\right) \oplus \beta\left(f_{1}(d)\right)\right)^{\prime}= \\
& \left(\beta\left(b_{1}^{\prime}\right) \oplus \beta\left(b_{1}\right) \ominus x\right)^{\prime}=(1 \ominus x)^{\prime}=x .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, $\beta$ is an $A$-epimorphism and so $\beta$ is an $A$-isomorphism. (ii), (iii) The proofs are routine.

Theorem 4.9. Let $I$ be an injective $A$-module, $B$ be an $A$-ideal of $I$ and $E$ be a maximal essential extension of $B$ such that $E \subseteq I$. Then $E$ is an injective $A$-module.
Proof: Let

$$
D=\{H: H \text { is an } A-\text { ideal of } I, H \cap E=\{0\}\}
$$

Since $\{0\} \in D$, we have $D \neq \emptyset$. By Zorn's Lemma, $D$ has maximal element $H^{\prime}$. Then $H^{\prime} \cap E=\{0\}$. Now, consider the mapping $\pi: I \longrightarrow \frac{I}{H^{\prime}}$. If $\delta=\left.\pi\right|_{E}$, then $\delta$ is an $A$-monomorphism. We show that $\delta$ is an essential monomorphism. Consider $A$-ideal $\frac{K}{H^{\prime}}$ of $\frac{I}{H^{\prime}}$, where $H^{\prime} \subset K$ (It is not possible $K=H^{\prime}$ ). Then there is $0 \neq b \in K \cap E$ and $b \notin H^{\prime}$ and so $\delta(b)=\frac{b}{H^{\prime}} \neq \frac{0}{H^{\prime}}$. It means that $\delta(E) \cap \frac{K}{H^{\prime}} \neq\{0\}$ and so $\delta$ is an essential extension of $E$. Since $E$ can not accept any essential $A$-monomorphism except trivial $A$-monomorphism, $\delta: E \longrightarrow \frac{I}{E^{\prime}}$ is an $A$-isomorphism. Now, consider the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow H^{\prime} \xlongequal{\subsetneq} I \xrightarrow{\delta^{-1} \pi} E \rightarrow 0
$$

If $f: E \longrightarrow I$ be conclusion mapping, then $\delta^{-1} \pi f(a)=\delta^{-1} \pi(a)=$ $\delta^{-1}\left(\frac{a}{H^{\prime}}\right)=a$, for every $a \in I$. Hence $\delta^{-1} \pi f=I_{E}$ and so by Lemma 4.8 (iii), the above sequence is a split exact sequence. It results that $I \simeq E \oplus H^{\prime}$. Since $I$ is an injective $A$-module, $E$ is an injective $A$-module, too.

## 5. Conclusion

The categorical equivalence between $M V$-algebras and $l u$-groups leads to the problem of defining a product operation on $M V$-algebras, in order to obtain structures corresponding to $l$-rings. In fact, by defining $M V$ modules, $M V$-algebras were extended. Hence, $M V$-modules are fundamental notions in algebra. IN 2016, free $M V$-modules were defined [10]. We introduced injective $M V$-modules and obtained some essential properties in this field. The obtained results encourage us to continue this long way. It seems that one can introduces notion of projective $M V$-module and obtain the relationship between free $M V$-modules and projective (or injective) $M V$-modules. In fact, there are many questions in this field that should be verified.

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