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V-MODULES AND GENERALIZED V-MODULES

by

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A THESIS

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Department of Mathematics and Statistics

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled, "V-modules and Generalized V-modules" submitted by Mohamed F.M. Yousif in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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ABSTRACT

In this thesis we obtain results about V-modules, GV-modules and P-V-modules complementing results of K.R. Fuller and Y. Hirano. We also introduce the notions of weakly GV-modules, DSI-modules and P-V'-modules.

The class of V-modules turns out to be a hereditary pretorsion class and thus gives rise to a left exact preradical ν . In general ν is not a radical. We study the associated hereditary torsion class and the arising Loewy series of modules. We introduce the notions of semi-V-modules and semi-V-rings, and generalize some results of H. Bass on perfect rings.

We also introduce the concept of an SI-module, extending the notion of an SI-ring introduced by K.R. Goodearl. The connections between SI-modules, regular modules and the preceeding modules are studied.

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I wish to express my thanks to Mrs. Tae Nosal for her accurate typing of the manuscript.

To my wife Lois

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INTRODUCTION

A ring R is called a (Von Neumann) regular ring if for each a in R there exists an x in R such that a = axa. If R is commutative, I. Kaplansky has proved that R is regular if and only if every simple R-module is injective. Subsequently a ring R is called a left V-ring if every simple left R-module is injective. Such rings were called V-rings after O.Villamayor, who characterized left V-rings as those rings in which every proper left ideal is an intersection of maximal left ideals.

The notion of regularity has been extended to modules in [18], [50] and [60], while the notion of a V-ring has been extended to modules in [21], [35] and [46]. In this thesis, following H. Tominaga [46], we call a module $_{\rm R}$ M a V-module if every proper R-submodule is an intersection of maximal submodules. Such a module M has also been called "co-semisimple" by K.R. Fuller in [21]. A result of Fuller asserts that the class of V-modules is closed under submodules, homomorphic images and arbitrary direct sums. A class with these properties is defined by Stenström [44] to be a hereditary pretorsion class.

This thesis is intended to give further contributions to the study of V-modules and their generalizations. We shall also introduce and study the left exact preradical associated with the pretorsion class of V-modules.

In Chapter 1, several characterizations of V-modules are given and the relationship between V-modules and M-flatness is studied. We prove, among other things, that a module M is a V-module if and only if every cofinitely generated module is M-injective. We also prove that if R is a commutative ring and $_{R}^{M}$ is a projective module then M is a V-module if and only if every simple R-module is M-flat.

Chapter 2 is devoted to the study of Noetherian V-modules. We characterize them in terms of semisimple modules as well as minimal generating sets. We prove that a finitely generated module M is a Noetherian V-module if and only if every semisimple module is M-injective, which extends a similar result for rings in [8] and [40]. It is also proven that a finitely generated module M is a Noetherian V-module if and only if every submodule of M has a minimal generating set and if L is a homomorphic image of M, then every minimal generating set of any submodule of L can be extended to a minimal generating set for L, which extends a similar result for rings by B. Sarath in [39].

In Chapter 3, we study Generalized V-modules (GV-modules) and introduce the notion of weakly GV-modules. Following Y. Hirano [28], a module $_{R}M$ is called a GV-module if every simple singular left R-module is M-injective. Many known results on GV-rings will be extended to GV-modules. We will call a module M a Weakly GV-module (WGV-module) if every proper essential submodule of M is an intersection of maximal submodules. It is shown that a module M is a GV-module if and only if M is a WGV-module and $J(M) \cap Z(M) = 0$. We also prove that a module M

is a WGV-module if and only if M|Soc(M) is a V-module. A ring R is called a left WGV-ring if the left R-module $_{R}$ R is a WGV-module. The ring R is shown to be left WGV-ring if and only if all left R-modules are WGV-modules. The class of WGV-modules turns out to be a hereditary pretorsion class. A necessary and sufficient condition for a WGV-module to be a V-module is given.

In Chapter 4, we consider the notion of P-M-injectivity. A module $_{R}^{U}$ is called P-M-injective if every non-zero R-homomorphism of any cyclic submodule of M into U can be extended to an R-homomorphism of M into U. If every simple (resp. simple singular) module is P-M-injective, M is called a P-V-module (resp. a P-V'-module). Known results on P-V-rings and P-V'-rings are extended to modules. We will also introduce the notion of P-M-flatness and as in Chapter 1, we prove that if R is a commutative ring and $_{R}^{M}$ is a projective module then M is a P-V-module if and only if every simple R-module is P-M-flat. Using this result and a result of Y. Hirano [28], we prove that if R is a commutative ring and M is a projective R-module then the following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) M is a V-module.
- (ii) M is a GV-module.
- (iii) M is a P-V-module.

(iv) M is a P-V'-module.

Chapter 5 consists of two sections. In Section 1, we introduce the notions of SI-modules and P-SI-modules. SI-modules are natural

extensions of Goodearl's SI-rings [22]. A module M will be called an SI-module (resp. P-SI-module) if every singular module is M-injective (resp. P-M-injective). Many known results on SI-rings are extended to SI-modules. The connections between regular modules, V-modules, GV-modules and SI-modules are studied. A structure theorem for finitely generated projective SI-modules over commutative rings is obtained. In Section 2, we introduce a generalization of SI-rings. A ring R will be called a left P-SI-ring if the left R-module $_{\rm p}$ R is a P-SI-module. We prove, among others, if R is a ring with essential left socle then R is a left P-SI-ring if and only if $Soc_{p}R$ is projective and $\mathbb{R}|Soc_{\mathbb{R}}^{\mathbb{R}}$ is a regular ring. We also prove that if $\mathbb{R}|J(\mathbb{R})$ is semisimple then R is a left P-SI-ring if and only if R is a right P-SI-ring.

In Chapter 6, the focus is once again on V-modules. We show that V-modules can be as useful as semisimple modules in characterizing various types of rings. We characterize rings whose V-modules are injective, rings whose singular V-modules are injective and non-singular rings whose singular modules are V-modules.

Chapter 7 is divided into three sections. In Section 1, we introduce the left exact preradical ν associated with the hereditary pretorsion class \underline{C}_{ν} of V-modules. For every left R-module M, $\nu(M)$ denotes the sum of all submodules of M belonging to \underline{C}_{ν} . An example is given to show that in general ν is not a radical. We shall give necessary and sufficient conditions for the class \underline{C}_{ν} to be closed under

extensions, injective hulls and respectively direct products. We prove, among other things, a ring R is a left V-ring if and only if the class \underline{C}_{ν} has the lifting property [48]. In Section 2, we consider Amitsur's transfinite process of associating a left exact radical $\overline{\nu}$ with ν , which yields an ascending chain of preradicals $\{\nu_{\alpha}\}$ for each ordinal α , thus gives rise to a ν -Loewy series for each module M. We shall study the ν -Loewy series and obtain results similar to known results on the usual Loewy series associated with the left exact preradical Soc. We will introduce the notions of semi-V-modules and semi-V-rings. A module M will be called semi-V-module if $\nu_{\alpha}(M) = M$, for some ordinal α ; and a ring R will be called a left semi-V-ring (or a ν -Loewy ring) if the left R-module _pR is a semi-V-module. An example is given to show that there are V-modules with zero socle. Thus every semiartinian ring is a semi-V-ring but not vice-versa. In his work on perfect rings, H. Bass has proved that if R is a right semiartinian ring then J(R) is left T-nilpotent. We shall extend this result to the class of semi-V-rings. We show that a ring R is a left semi-V-ring if and only if J(R) is right T-nilpotent and R|J(R) is a left semi-V-ring. We also prove that if R is a commutative Noetherian ring then R is a semi-V-ring if and only if R is a perfect ring.

In Section 3, we shall investigate finite or infinite sequences of submodules of a given module M, of the form $\{0\} = M_0 \subseteq M_1 \subseteq M_2 \subseteq \ldots$ or of the form $M = M^0 \supseteq M^1 \supseteq M^2 \supseteq \ldots$, where all the factor modules $M_{i+1}|M_i$ or $M^i|M^{i+1}$ are V-modules.

CHAPTER 0

NOTATIONS AND DEFINITIONS

Throughout this thesis, unless otherwise indicated, a ring R is an associative ring with identity; all modules are unitary left R-modules. For any ring R, R-mod denotes the category of left R-modules. For any module M we denote by Z(M), J(M), Soc(M) and E(M) the singular submodule, the Jacobson radical, the socle and the injective hull respectively of M. A module $_{R}^{M}$ is semisimple if it is a direct sum of simple modules. $_{R}M$ is called semiartinian if every non-zero homomorphic image of M has a non-zero socle. A submodule N of M is "large" or "essential" in M if for all nonzero x in M, $Rx \cap N \neq 0$. Given a subset A of M, we denote the submodule generated by A by <A>. Given a submodule L of M, we write L* for the intersection of all maximal submodules of M containing L. Given a subset N of a module M. the annihilator of N in R, denoted by $Ann_{R}(N)$, is the set of those $r \in \mathbb{R}$ such that rx = 0 for all $x \in \mathbb{N}$. A module M is indecomposable if the only direct sum decompositions $M = M_1 \oplus M_2$ are those in which $M_1 =$ 0 or $M_2 = 0$. If M and N are modules, then the phrase "map from M to N" or the notation "f : M \rightarrow N", refers to an R-homomorphism. When N \subseteq M, we sometimes use the notation $x \mapsto \overline{x}$ for the natural homomorphism $M \longrightarrow$ MN. The ring of all endomorphisms of an R-module M is denoted $\operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{M})$.

Let M and U be R-modules. Following G. Azumaya [3], we say that U is M-injective if for each submodule K of M every R-homomorphism from K into U can be extended to an R-homomorphism from M into U. According to Sandomierski [38] U is M-injective if and only if every R-homomorphism Υ : M \rightarrow E(U) has its image in U.

An R-module U is said to be injective if given any exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{i} B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ of left R-modules and any map $g : A \rightarrow U$, there exists a map $f : B \rightarrow U$ satisfying $g = f \circ i$. It is well-known (Baer's criterion) that U is injective if and only if U is R-injective. We refer to [2] for the definition and properties of M-injective modules.

A module M is called cofinitely generated, if $E(M) = E(S_1) \oplus \cdots \oplus E(S_k)$ for some integer k > 0, with each S_i simple. Equivalently if every family of submodules of M with intersection 0 contains a finite subfamily with zero intersection. Such a module M has also been called "finitely embedded (f.e.)" by P. Vámos in [47] and "finitely cogenerated" by K.R. Fuller in [21].

A ring R is called (Von Neumann) regular ring if given any $x \in R$ there exists $a \in R$ with x = xax. Equivalently if every finitely generated left ideal of R is generated by an idempotent. The notion of regularity has been extended to modules by D. Fieldhouse [18], J. Zelmanowitz [60] and R. Ware [50]. The first two authors considered arbitrary modules while the third author dealt with projective modules only. However their definitions agree for projective modules. In this thesis, following Zelmanowitz [60], we call a module $_{R}^{M}$ regular if given any $m \in M$ there exists $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{R}}(M,\mathbb{R})$ with (m)fm = m. The following proposition is needed for our later purposes. For the proof see [50, Theorem 2.2], [60, Proposition 2.1] and [18, Theorem 1]. <u>Proposition 0.1</u>: Let R be a ring and $_{\mathbb{R}}^{M}$ be a projective module. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (i) M is a regular module.
- (ii) Every homomorphic image of M is flat.
- (iii) Every cyclic submodule of M is a direct summand.
- (iv) Every finitely generated submodule of M is a direct summand.
- (v) For every submodule K of M and every right ideal I of R, IM \cap K = IK.

(vi) For every submodule K of M, the sequence $0 \rightarrow E \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} K \rightarrow E \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} M$ is exact for all right R-modules E (i.e. every submodule K of M is pure in the sense of P.M. Cohn [18]).

Following B. Zimmermann-Huisgen [62] we say that a module $_{R}M$ is locally projective if M satisfies the following condition: For all diagrams

with exact upper row and a finitely generated submodule F of M there is a map $g' \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M,A)$ such that $g|F = f \circ g'|F$. It is known that every regular module is locally projective. A preradical σ of R-mod assigns to each module M a submodule $\sigma(M)$ in such a way that every homomorphism $M \to N$ induces $\sigma(M) \to \sigma(N)$ by restriction. In other words, a preradical is a subfunctor of the identity functor of R-mod. A preradical σ is idempotent if $\sigma\sigma = \sigma$ and is called a radical if $\sigma(M|\sigma(M)) = 0$ for every module M. A preradical σ is called left exact if $\sigma(N) = N \cap \sigma(M)$ for every submodule N of M.

A class <u>C</u> of modules is called a pretorsion class if it is closed under homomorphic images and direct sums, and is a pretorsion-free class if it is closed under submodules and direct products. There is a bijective correspondence between idempotent preradicals of R-mod and pretorsion classes of R-modules. A pretorsion class is called hereditary if it is closed under submodules. There is a bijective correspondence between left exact preradicals and hereditary pretorsion classes. A pretorsion class (resp. a pretorsion-free class) is called a torsion (resp. a torsion-free) class if it is closed under extensions. A torsion theory for R-mod is a pair $(\underline{C}, \underline{F})$ of classes of R-modules such that \underline{C} is a torsion class and $\underline{\underline{F}} = [\underline{N} \in \underline{R} - mod: Hom_{\underline{R}}(\underline{M}, \underline{N}) = 0 \text{ for all } \underline{M} \in \underline{\underline{C}} \}.$ Then $\underline{\underline{F}}$ is automatically a torsion free class. There is a bijective correspondence between torsion theories and idempotent radicals. A torsion theory $(\underline{C}, \underline{F})$ is called hereditary if \underline{C} is hereditary, and is called stable if \underline{C} is closed under injective hulls.

In this thesis we will follow the terminology of B. Stenström [44] regarding "torsion theories".

CHAPTER 1

V-MODULES

A ring R is called a left (right) V-ring if every simple left (right) R-module is injective. Life was given to this class of rings by Kaplansky [19] when he proved that a commutative ring R is regular in the sense of Von Neumann if and only if every simple R-module is injective. Such rings were called V-rings (by C. Faith in [17]) after Villamayor who characterized left V-rings as those in which every proper left ideal is an intersection of maximal left ideals. V-rings have been extensively studied by many authors. The notion of V-rings has been extended to modules by V.S. Ramamurthi in [35], K.R. Fuller in [21] and H. Tominaga in [46]. In this thesis, following H. Tominaga [46], we call a module ${}_{\!\!R}{}^{\!\!M}$ a V-module if every proper submodule of M is an intersection of maximal submodules. Such a module M has also been called "Co-semisimple" by K.R. Fuller in [21]. The connections between regular modules, V-modules and their endomorphism rings are studied by Y. Hirano in [28] and R. Wisbauer in [51]. In [28], known results on V-rings are extended to modules. In this chapter several new characterizations of V-modules are given. We prove among others that a module M is a V-module if and only if every Artinian module is M-injective (Proposition 1.1) extending a similar result for rings by A.K. Gupta and K. Varadarajan [25]. We also prove that a module M is a

V-module if and only if for any essential submodule L of M and for any maximal submodule K of L, $K^* \neq L^*$ (Proposition 1.5) extending a similar result due to Yue Chi Ming for rings [58]. In Proposition 1.14, we show that if $_{R}M$ is a projective module over a commutative ring R then M is a V-module if and only if every simple R-module is M-flat, which extends a well-known result for V-rings by R. Ware in [50].

Now we begin with the following proposition.

<u>Proposition 1.1.</u>: Let $_{R}^{M}$ be a left R-module. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (i) Every simple R-module is M-injective.
- (ii) J(A) = 0 for every factor module A of M.
- (iii) Every proper submodule of M is an intersection of maximal submodules.
- (iv) If $K \subseteq M$, $x \in M$, $x \notin K$ there is an R-homomorphism $\Upsilon : M \longrightarrow S$, with S simple, such that $\Upsilon(K) = 0$ and $\Upsilon(x) \neq 0$.
- (v) If $K \subseteq M$, $x \in M$, $x \notin K$ there is a maximal submodule L of M with $K \subseteq L$ and $x \notin L$.
- (vi) Every cofinitely generated factor module of M is a finite direct sum of simple modules.
- (vii) Every cofinitely generated module is M-injective.
- (viii) Every Artinian module is M-injective.

(The equivalence of conditions (i) to (vi) is due to K.R. Fuller [21, Proposition 3.1]).

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Let η : M \rightarrow A be an R-epimorphism of R-modules. If A = 0, clearly J(A) = 0. If A \neq 0, let x be any non-zero element of A. By Zorn's lemma choose a submodule B of A maximal with respect to $x \notin B$. Let-: A \rightarrow A|B denote the quotient map and write $\bar{x} = x + B$. Clearly Rx is a simple module which is contained in every non-zero submodule of A|B. Then by (i), Rx is M-injective and so A|B-injective by [2, Proposition 16.13, p.188]. Therefore Rx is a direct summand of A|B. But since Rx is an essential submodule of A|B, it follows that A|B = Rx. This means that B is a maximal submodule of A with $x \notin B$. whence $x \notin J(A)$, and so J(A) = 0.

 $(ii) \rightarrow (iii)$: Clear.

<u>(iii)</u> \rightarrow (iv): Let K be a submodule of M, $x \in M$ and $x \notin K$. Since K is an intersection of maximal submodules of M and $x \notin K$, there exists a maximal submodule L of M with $K \subseteq L$ and $x \notin L$. Let S = M|L and $\Upsilon : M \rightarrow S$ denote the quotient map. Clearly $\Upsilon(K) \subseteq \Upsilon(L) = 0$ and $\Upsilon(x) = x + L \neq 0$.

 $(iv) \rightarrow (v): \text{ Let } K \text{ be a submodule of } M, x \in M \text{ and } x \notin K.$ By (iv), there exists a simple module S and an R-homomorphism $\Upsilon: M \rightarrow S$, such that $\Upsilon(K) = 0$ and $\Upsilon(x) \neq 0$. This implies that $\Upsilon \neq 0$ and $L = \ker(\Upsilon)$ is a maximal submodule of M such that $K \subseteq L$ and $x \notin L$. $(v) \rightarrow (iii):$ Let K be a proper submodule of M. By (v), $\forall y \notin K$ there exists a maximal submodule L_y of M such that $y \notin L_y$ and $K \subseteq L_y$. Now, it is an easy task to see that $K = \bigcap L_y$. Whence every proper $y \notin K$ submodule of M is an intersection of maximal submodules. (iii) → (i): Let S be a simple R-module and f be a non-zero R-homomorphism from a submodule N of M into S. Let K = ker(f). By (iii), since K ≠ N, there exists a maximal submodule L of M with K ⊆ L and N ⊄ L, it follows that L ∩ N = K. Thus M|K = (L+N)|K = L|K ⊕ N|K. If \tilde{f} : N|K → S is the map induced by f in the obvious way, define \tilde{g} : M|K → S by $\tilde{g}|(N|K) = \tilde{f}$ and $\tilde{g}|(L|K) = 0$. Thus the map g : M → S, defined by g(m) = $\tilde{g}(m+K)$, $\forall m \in M$, extends f. (iii) → (vi): Let M $\stackrel{\epsilon}{\longrightarrow}$ A → 0 be an exact sequence of left

R-modules, with A cofinitely generated. If N = Ker ϵ , then N is an intersection of maximal submodules. Let N = $\bigcap_{i \in I} L_i$, for some set I, where each L_i is a maximal submodule of M. Since M|N is cofinitely generated and $\bigcap_{i \in I} (L_i|N) = 0$, there exists a finite subset $J \subseteq I$, such $i \in I$ that N = $\bigcap_{i \in J} L_i$. Define $\phi : M \to \bigoplus_{i \in J} (M|L_i)$ by $\phi(m) = \sum_{i \in J} (m + L_i)$. Clearly Ker $\phi = N$. Whence A can be embedded in a finite product of simple modules.

<u>(vi) \rightarrow (i)</u>: Let S be a simple module and Υ : $M \rightarrow E(S)$ be a non-zero R-homomorphism. Since S is simple, we get $S \subseteq \Upsilon(M) \subseteq E(S)$. Thus $\Upsilon(M)$ is a cofinitely generated homomorphic image of M and hence semisimple by (vi). Since $Soc(\Upsilon(M)) = S$, it follows that $\Upsilon(M) = S$ and hence S is M-injective (Proposition 3.21 of [25]).

<u>(vii)</u> \rightarrow (viii): Clear, since every Artinian module is cofinitely generated.

 $(viii) \rightarrow (i)$: Clear, since every simple module is Artinian.

 $(iv) \rightarrow (vii)$: Let N be a cofinitely generated module and write $E(N) = E(S_1) \oplus \cdots \oplus E(S_k)$ for a finite set of simple modules S_i , $1 \le i \le k$. Let L be a non-zero submodule of M and f : L \rightarrow N a non-zero R-homomorphism. We want to show that f can be extended to an R-homomorphism g : M \rightarrow N. Consider the following diagram:



Since E(N) is injective, there exists an R-homomorphism $g : M \to E(N)$ such that g(x) = f(x), $\forall x \in L$. For each i, $1 \leq i \leq n$, denote by $\pi_i : E(N) \to E(S_i)$ the projection map, and consider the R-homomorphisms $\pi_i \circ g : M \to E(S_i)$. By (i), since every S_i is M-injective, we get $\pi_i \circ g(M) \subseteq S_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$. Whence $g(M) \subseteq S_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus S_n$. But since Soc(N) = Soc(E(N)) $= S_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus S_n$ we get $g(M) \subseteq Soc(N) \subseteq N$. Thus the map $g : M \to N$ is the required map. \Box

A result of K.R. Fuller asserts that the class of V-modules is closed under submodules, homomorphic images and arbitrary direct sums. We include a proof here.

<u>Proposition 1.2</u> (K.R. Fuller [21]): (i) Submodules and homomorphic images of V-modules are also V-modules.

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(ii) ⊕ M is a V-module if and only if each M is a V-module.
i∈Iⁱ

<u>Proof</u>: (i) Let M be a V-module and N a non-zero submodule of M. Let S be a simple R-module and f a non-zero R-homomorphism from a submodule K of N into S. We want to show f can be extended to an R-homomorphism $g : N \rightarrow S$. Since M is a V-module, the map f can be extended to an R-homomorphism $\overline{f} : M \rightarrow S$. Thus the map $g = (\overline{f}|N) : N \rightarrow S$ is the required map.

Now, let $M \xrightarrow{\epsilon} A \longrightarrow 0$ be an exact sequence of non-zero R-modules. We want to show that A is a V-module. Let S be a simple R-module and $f : A \longrightarrow E(S)$ be a non-zero R-homomorphism. We must show $f(A) \subseteq S$. But since M is a V-module, the map $f \circ \epsilon : M \longrightarrow E(S)$ has its image in S. Thus $f(\epsilon(M)) = f(A) \subseteq S$.

(ii) Suppose $M = \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$ is a V-module. By (i), since every submodule of a V-module is also a V-module, it follows that each M_i is a V-module. Conversely, suppose that each M_i is a V-module. Let S be a simple module and $\Upsilon : M \rightarrow E(S)$ be a non-zero R-homomorphism. For each $i \in I$, denote by Υ_i to the restriction of the map Υ to M_i . Then $\Upsilon_i(M_i) \subseteq S$, $\forall i \in I$, since S is M_i -injective. Therefore $\Upsilon(M) \subseteq S$, which implies that S is M-injective and hence M is a V-module. \Box <u>Proposition 1.3</u>: For any ring R the following statements are equivalent:

- (i) R is a left V-ring.
- (ii) Every left R-module is a V-module.
- (iii) Every cyclic left R-module is a V-module.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii). Let $M \in \mathbb{R}$ -mod and S any simple \mathbb{R} -module. Then S is injective and hence M-injective.

 $(ii) \rightarrow (iii)$ and $(iii) \rightarrow (i)$ are trivial.

<u>Definition 1.4</u>: Let N be a submodule of a module M. A relative complement for N in M is any submodule L of M which is maximal with respect to the property $N \cap L = 0$. Such submodules L always exist, by virtue of Zorn's lemma. And it is easy to see that $N \oplus L$ is essential in M.

<u>Proposition 1.5</u>: (cf. [58, Theorem 3]): The following conditions are equivalent:

(i) M is a V-module.

(ii) If L is either a proper essential submodule or a relative complement of a simple submodule of M, then $L = L^*$. (Here L^* = intersection of maximal submodules of M containing L).

(iii) If K is a maximal submodule of a proper essential submodule L of M, then $K^* \neq L^*$.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Clear, since in a V-module every proper submodule is an intersection of maximal submodules.

<u>(ii)</u> \rightarrow (iii): Let L be an essential submodule of M and K a maximal submodule of L. If K were essential in L, then K is essential in M and hence K = K^{*} and L = L^{*} which implies that K^{*} \neq L^{*}. Otherwise, suppose that K \cap N = 0 for some non-zero submodule N of L. Since K is a maximal submodule of L, L = K \oplus N and N is a simple submodule of M. Let T be a submodule of M, maximal with respect to K \subseteq T and T \cap N = 0. Since T is a relative complement of the simple module N, it follows that $T = T^*$. Thus there exists a maximal submodule Q of M such that $T \subseteq Q$ but $L \not\subset Q$ (otherwise if $L \subseteq T^*$ then $N \subseteq L \subseteq T^* = T$, a contradiction with $T \cap N = 0$). Therefore $K \subseteq Q$ and $L \not\subset Q$, and hence $K^* \neq L^*$.

(iii) \rightarrow (i): Let S be a simple module, N a proper essential submodule of M and f : N \rightarrow S a non-zero homomorphism. If K = Ker(f) then K is a maximal submodule of N and so $K^* \neq N^*$. Choose a maximal submodule T of M with K \subseteq T and N $\not\subset$ T. The maximality of T in M and of K in N implies that M = T + N and T \cap N = K; hence $\frac{M}{K} = \frac{T}{K} \oplus \frac{N}{K}$. Thus the map f can be extended to a map g : M \rightarrow S in the obvious way. This proves that S is M-injective. Thus M is a V-module.

<u>Corollary 1.6</u> (cf. [58, Corollary 3.1]) If M is a regular module, then M is a V-module if and only if given any essential submodule L of M either L is finitely generated or $K = K^*$ for every maximal submodule K of L.

<u>Proof:</u> <u>"only if" part</u>: Obvious.

<u>"If" part</u>: Let S be a simple module, N an essential submodule of M and f : N \rightarrow S a non-zero homomorphism. If N were finitely generated then from the regularity of M and by [60, Theorem 1.6] it follows that M = N \oplus T for some submodule T of M. Thus f can be extended to a homomorphism $\tilde{f} : M \rightarrow S$. Otherwise, suppose that K = K^{*}, where K = Ker(f). Then there is a maximal submodule L of M such that K \subseteq L and N $\not\subset$ L, from which we infer that the map f may be extended to a homomorphism $\tilde{f} : M \rightarrow S$. Let us recall the definitions of Co-Noetherian and Co-Artinian modules as they were introduced by A.K. Gupta and K. Varadarajan [25]. <u>Definition 1.7</u>: (i) Let $\underline{C}_{a}(R)$ (resp. $\underline{C}_{n}(R)$) denote the class of all Artinian (resp. Noetherian) R-modules. For any R-module M, we set

$$\begin{split} \sigma_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{M}) &= \cap \{\mathbf{N} : \mathbf{N} \subseteq \mathbf{M}, \ \mathbf{M} \mid \mathbf{N} \in \underline{\mathbb{C}}_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{R}) \} \\ \sigma_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{M}) &= \cap \{\mathbf{N} : \mathbf{N} \subseteq \mathbf{M}, \ \mathbf{M} \mid \mathbf{N} \in \underline{\mathbb{C}}_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{R}) \}. \end{split}$$

It is clear that both σ_a and σ_n are radicals and that $\sigma_a(M)\subseteq J(M)$ and $\sigma_n(M)\subseteq J(M).$

(ii) A left R-module M is said to be Co-Noetherian (Co-Artinian) if $\sigma_{a}(N) = 0$ (resp. $\sigma_{n}(N) = 0$) for any factor module N of M^(I) (direct sum of I-copies of M), where I is any set.

<u>Proposition 1.8</u>: Every V-module is Co-Noetherain and Co-Artinian. <u>Proof</u>: Immediate consequence of Proposition 1.1, Proposition 1.2 and the observations $\sigma_a \leq J$ and $\sigma_n \leq J$.

A result, originally due to Roger Ware [50, Proposition 2.5] asserts that if R is a commutative ring and S is a simple R-module then S is flat if and only if S is injective. In particular a commutative ring R is a V-ring if and only if every simple R-module is flat. Our aim is to extend this result to modules.

Following P.M. Cohn, a submodule K of a left R-module M is called pure if the sequence $0 \longrightarrow E \otimes_R K \longrightarrow E \otimes_R M$ is exact for every right R-module E. Dually, we have the following:

<u>Definition 1.9 [2]</u>: Let U be a right R-module and M be a left R-module. U is said to be flat relative to M (or M-flat) if for every submodule K of M, the sequence $0 \rightarrow U \otimes_{R} K \rightarrow U \otimes_{R} M$ is exact. The following is an immediate consequence of (i) \leftrightarrow (vi) of Proposition 0.1.

<u>Proposition 1.10</u>: If M is a projective left R-module, then M is a regular module if and only if every right R-module is M-flat. <u>Lemma 1.11</u>: Let _RM be a projective module and _RU any left R-module. Then the following are equivalent:

(i) U is M-injective.

(ii) $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M|N,U) = 0$ for every submodule N of M.

<u>Proof</u>: If $0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow M \rightarrow M | N \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of R-modules, then there is a long exact sequence with natural connecting homomorphisms:

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M|N,U) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M,U) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N,U) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M|N,U)$$
$$\longrightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M,U) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(N,U) \longrightarrow \cdots$$

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Since M is projective, $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M,U) = 0$, and so U is M-injective if and only if $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M|N,U) = 0$, for every submodule N of M. <u>Lemma 1.12</u>: Let M_R be a flat right R-module and _RU a left R-module. Then the following are equivalent:

(i) U is M-flat.

(ii) $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M|N,U) = 0$, for every submodule N of M.

<u>Proof</u>: Given an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow M \rightarrow M | N \rightarrow 0$ there exists a long exact sequence:

 $\begin{array}{cccc} & \cdots \longrightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M,U) \ \longrightarrow \ \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M|N,U) \ \longrightarrow \ N \ \otimes \ U \ \longrightarrow \ M \ \otimes \ U \ \longrightarrow \ M|N \ \otimes \ U \ \longrightarrow \ 0 \end{array} .$ Since M is flat, $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M,U) = 0$, and so U is M-flat if and only if $\operatorname{Tor}_1^R(M|N,U) = 0$ for every submodule N of M. \Box

The next proposition is an extension of [50, Lemma 2.6] to modules and the proof is patterned after that of Lemma 2.6 of [50].

<u>Proposition 1.13</u>: Let R be a commutative ring, M a projective R-module and S a simple R-module. Then S is M-flat if and only if S is M-injective.

<u>Proof</u>: Let S_i , $i \in I$, be a set of representatives of the distinct isomorphism classes of simple R-modules and set $E = E(\bigoplus_{i \in I} S_i)$. It is easy to see that for any R-module L, $\operatorname{Hom}_R(L, E) = 0$ if and only if L = 0. Now if S is any simple submodule of E then $S \cap (\bigoplus_{i \in I} S_i) \neq 0$ since $\bigoplus_{i \in I} S_i$ is an essential submodule of E. Since S is simple and hence cyclic, there exist finitely many indices i_1, \ldots, i_n in I with $S \subset S_{i_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus S_{i_n}$. Let $0 \neq x \in S$. Then S = Rx and $x = x_{i_1} + \cdots + x_{i_n}$ with $x_{i_p} \in S_{i_p}$ and not all x_{i_p} zero. Let $\lambda \in \operatorname{Ann}_R(x)$. Then $\lambda x_{i_1} + \cdots + \lambda x_{i_n} = 0$. Hence $\lambda x_{i_p} = -\sum_{j \neq \mu} \lambda x_{i_j} \in S_{i_p} \cap (\sum_{j \neq \mu} S_{i_j}) = 0$. This means $\lambda x_{i_p} = 0$ for $1 \leq \mu \leq n$. Since S is simple, $\operatorname{Ann}_R(x)$ is a maximal ideal in R. Hence either $\operatorname{Ann}_R x_{i_p} = \operatorname{R}$ or $\operatorname{Ann}_R(x)$. Since S_{i_1}, \ldots, S_{i_n} are mutually non-isomorphic, we get $\operatorname{Ann}_R(x) = \operatorname{Ann}_R(x_{i_k})$ for some k and $x_{i_p} = 0$ for $\mu \neq k$. Thus $x = x_{i_k}$ and hence $S = S_{i_k}$.

Now let S be any simple R-module and let S_{i_k} be the copy of S in E. Then $\operatorname{Hom}_R(S,S_{i_k}) \subseteq \operatorname{Hom}_R(S,E)$ and if $0 \neq f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(S,E)$ then $S \cong Im(f) \subseteq E$, and so by the above we must have $Im(f) = S_{i_k}$. Therefore $Hom_R(S,S_{i_k}) = Hom_R(S,E)$. Thus we have $Hom_R(S,E) = Hom_R(S,S_{i_k}) \cong Hom_R(S,S)$ and since R is commutative $Hom_R(S,S) \cong S$ as R-modules. And since E is injective we have an isomorphism:

$$\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(X, \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(S, E)) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(X, S), E),$$

for any R-module X. Whence for any submodule N of M we have:

$$\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M|N,S) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M|N, \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(S,E))$$
$$\cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M|N, S),E).$$

Now the result follows from Lemma 1.11, Lemma 1.12 and the fact that E is a cogenerator for R-mod. <u>Corollary 1.14</u> (cf. [50, Lemma 2.6]). Suppose R is a commutative ring and S is a simple R-module. Then S is flat if and only if S is injective.

<u>Proposition 1.15</u>: Let R be a commutative ring and M a projective R-module. Then the following are equivalent:

(i) M is a V-module.

- (ii) M is a regular module.
- (iii) Every simple R-module is M-flat.

(iv) Every simple homomorphic image of M is injective.

(v) Every simple homomorphic image of M is flat.

(vi) Every simple homomorphic image of M is M-injective.

(vii) Every simple homomorphic image of M is M-flat.

(The equivalence between (i), (ii) and (vi) has been given by Y. Hirano in [28, Theorem 4.8] using different techniques.)

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \leftrightarrow (iii): By Proposition 1.13.

 $(iv) \leftrightarrow (v)$: By Corollary 1.14.

<u>(vi) \leftrightarrow (vii)</u>: By Proposition 1.13.

(ii) \rightarrow (i): If M is a regular module, then by Proposition 1.10, every R-module is M-flat, and by Proposition 1.13, it follows that every simple R-module is M-injective. Therefore M is a V-module.

<u>(iii) \rightarrow (vii)</u>: Obvious.

 $(iv) \leftrightarrow (ii)$: By [35, Theorem 4].

 $(vi) \rightarrow (iv)$: By [28, Theorem 4.8].

CHAPTER 2.

NOETHERIAN V-MODULES

In this chapter we study modules with the property that arbitrary direct sums of simple left R-modules are M-injective. We call them DSI-modules. We prove that a finitely generated left R-module M is a DSI-module if and only if M is a Noetherian V-module, which extends a similar result for rings by B. Sarath and K. Varadarajan in [40] and K.A. Byrd in [8]. We also prove that a finitely generated left R-module M is a DSI-module if and only if every submodule N of M has a minimal generating set and if L is any homomorphic image of M then every minimal generating set of any submodule of L can be extended to a minimal generating set for L, which extends a similar result for rings by B. Sarath in [39].

<u>Definition 2.1</u> (B. Sarath and K. Varadarajan [40]). A ring R is called a left DSI-ring if every direct sum of simple left R-modules is injective. Such rings were also called "SSI-rings" by K.A. Byrd in [8]. It was proved in [8] and [40] that for a ring R the Following statements are equivalent:

(i) R is a left Noetherian left V-ring.

(ii) Every semisimple left R-module is injective.

In the next proposition we extend this result to modules.

<u>Proposition 2.2</u>: The following conditions are equivalent for a finitely generated R-module M.

(i) M is a Noetherian V-module.

(ii) Every semisimple left R-module is M-injective.

(iii) Every countably generated semisimple left R-module isM-injective.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Since M is Noetherian, it follows from [4, Theorem 2.5] that, any direct sum of M-injective modules is M-injective. And since M is a V-module it follows from Proposition 1.1, that every semisimple left R-module is M-injective.

 $(ii) \rightarrow (iii)$: Obvious.

Let us call a module $_{R}^{M}$ a DSI-module if every semisimple R-module is M-injective.

With the same argument used in the proof of Proposition 1.2 one obtains the following:

<u>Proposition 2.3</u>: (i) Submodules and homomorphic images of DSI-modules are also DSI-modules.

(ii) ⊕ M_i is a DSI-module if and only if every M_i is a DSI-module.
 i∈I
 The next proposition can easily be verified.

Proposition 2.4: For any ring R the following are equivalent:

- (i) R is a left DSI-ring.
- (ii) Every left R-module is a DSI-module.

(iii) Every cyclic left R-module is a DSI-module.

Lemma 2.5: A module M is finitely generated semisimple if and only if M is finite dimensional and every cyclic submodule of M is a direct summand of M.

<u>Proof</u>: (cf. [22, Proposition 1.22]): Clearly finitely generated semisimple modules are finite dimensional. Conversely, when M is finite dimensional it is a finite direct sum of indecomposable modules, hence it suffices to assume that M is indecomposable with all cyclic submodules being direct summands, and then show that M is simple. But this is clear, since under these hypotheses any cyclic submodule of M must be 0 or M.

<u>Proposition 2.6</u>: Suppose that R is a commutative ring and M is a finitely generated projective R-module. Then M is a DSI-module if and only if M is a finite direct sum of simple R-modules.

<u>Proof</u>: If M is a DSI-module, then by Proposition 2.2, M is a Noetherian V-module and by Proposition 1.15, M is a Noetherian regular module. Now by Proposition 0.1 and Lemma 2.5, M is a finite direct sum of simple modules.

B. Sarath [39, Theorem 1.6] proved that a ring R is a left Noetherian left V-ring if and only if given any minimal generating set of a submodule N of any module M, it can be extended to a minimal generating set for M. In the next proposition we shall extend this result for modules.

<u>Definition 2.7</u>: Let M be a left R-module and B a subset of M. We say B is "irredundant" if and only if $A \subseteq B$, $\langle A \rangle = \langle B \rangle \Rightarrow A = B$. If B is not irredundant we call it redundant. A subset B of M will be called a "minimal generating set" for M if B is irredundant and M = $\langle B \rangle$. <u>Lemma 2.8</u>: (i) If $B \subseteq M$ is irredundant and $A \subseteq B$, then A is irredundant.

(ii) If $\{B_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is a family of irredundant subsets of M totally ordered by inclusion then U B_{α} is irredundant. $\alpha \in J$

(iii) B is redundant if and only if for some subset $A \subseteq B$, $\langle A \rangle = \langle A \setminus \{a\} \rangle$, for some $a \in A$.

<u>Lemma 2.9</u>: Let B be an irredundant subset of L, $\{L_b\}_{b\in B}$ a collection of maximal submodules of L satisfying $b \notin L_b$ and $\langle B \setminus \{b\} \rangle \subset L_b$. Let $I = \langle B \rangle$, $N = \bigcap_{b\in B} L_b$ and $j : L|N \longrightarrow \prod_{b\in B} L|L_b$ the natural embedding. Then j maps (I+N)|N isomorphically onto $\bigoplus_{b\in B} L|L_b$. The above two lemmas are due to B. Sarath and the proofs are straightforward, see [39, Remark 1.2 and Lemma 1.3].

<u>Proposition 2.10</u>: The following conditions are equivalent for a finitely generated left R-module M.

(i) M is a DSI-module.

(ii) If K is a submodule of M and L is a homomorphic image of K then given any irredundant generating set of any submodule N of L, it can be extended to an irredundant generating set for L.

(iii) Every submodule N of M has a minimal generating set, and if L is any homomorphic image of M then every minimal generating set of any submodule of L can be extended to a minimal generating set for L. <u>Proof: (i) \rightarrow (ii)</u>: Adapted from [39, Theorem 2.8]. Let C be an irredundant generating set for a submodule N of L, where L is a homomorphic image of a submodule K of M. Let E = {B : C \subseteq B \subseteq L, with B irredundant}. E is non-empty, and when partially ordered by inclusion, by Lemma 2.8 (ii) and Zorn's lemma, has a maximal element say B. Suppose \langle B $\rangle \neq$ L. Since L is a V-module and B is irredundant, there exist maximal submodules {L_b}_{b \in B} of L with b \notin L_b and \langle B\{b} $\rangle \subseteq$ L_b. Let I,N and j be as in Lemma 2.9. We now consider two cases:

<u>Case 1</u>: $I \supset N$.

By Lemma 2.9, (I+N)|N is isomorphic to ⊕ (L|L_b) whence b∈BL-injective, since L is a Noetherian V-module and each L|L_b is simple. Therefore (I+N|N) = I|N is a direct summand of L|N. Write $L|N = (I|N) \oplus (I'|N)$ for some non-zero submodule I' of L with $N \subseteq I'$ (note, $I = \langle B \rangle \neq L$). Then $I \cap I' = N$. Let $u \in I'\setminus N$. Now $B' = B \cup \{u\}$ is irredundant, since $u \notin \langle B \rangle = I$ and $\langle B' \setminus \{b\} \rangle \cap I \subseteq (\langle B \setminus \{b\} \rangle + I') \cap I$ $\subseteq \langle B \setminus \{b\} \rangle + N \subseteq L_b$ and hence $b \notin \langle B' \setminus \{b\} \rangle$ for all $b \in B$. This contradicts the maximality of B, and hence it follows that $\langle B \rangle = L$. <u>Case 2</u>: $I \gg N$.

Pick $u \in N$, $u \notin I$. Then $B' = B \cup \{u\}$ is irredundant, since $u \notin \langle B \rangle = I$ and $b \notin \langle B' \setminus \{b\} \rangle \subseteq \langle B \setminus \{b\} \rangle + N \subseteq L_b$, $\forall b \in B$. This contradicts the maximality of B.

(ii) \rightarrow (iii): Inasmuch as the zero submodule has a minimal generating set, namely {0}, we infer from the hypothesis that every submodule N of M has a minimal generating set. The rest of the assertion is clear. (iii) \rightarrow (i): We first show that M is a V-module. We do this by proving that every cofinitely generated homomorphic image of M is a finite direct sum of simple modules and hence by Proposition 1.1, M is a V-module. Let L be a cofinitely generated homomorphic image of M. Then S = Soc(L) is finitely generated and essential in L. Write $S = S_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus S_n$, with each S_i simple. We must show L = S. Suppose $L \neq S$. Let $0 \neq x_k \in S_k$, $1 \leq k \leq n$. Then $C = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is an irredundant generating set of S. S is a submodule of L and L is a quotient of M, hence there exists an irredundant generating set D of L with $D \supseteq C$ (if D = C, then L = S). Let $x \in D \setminus C$. Since $x \neq 0$ and S is essential in L, there exist $\lambda, \lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$, $1 \leq i \leq n$, with $0 \neq \lambda x = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i$. Hence $\lambda_i x_i \neq 0$ for some i, $1 \leq i \leq n$. Without loss of generality we may assume that $\lambda_n x_n \neq 0$. Since S_n is simple, there exists $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ with $\mu\lambda_n x_n = x_n$, so $\mu(\lambda x - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \lambda_i x_i) = \mu\lambda_n x_n = x_n$. Then $x_n \in \langle x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}, x \rangle$, but this means that $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n, x\}$ is redundant, a contradiction with Lemma 2.8 (i) and the irredundancy of D.

Now to see that M is Noetherian, we will prove that every submodule N of M is finitely generated. But if N is any submodule of M, then by hypotheses N has a minimal generating set say C. Extend C to a minimal generating set D for M. Inasmuch as M is finitely generated and D is irredundant, we infer that D must be finite. Thus C is finite and N is finitely generated.

<u>Corollary 2.11</u>: For any ring R the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) R is a left Noetherian left V-ring.

(ii) If $I \supseteq J$ are left ideals of R, then every minimal generating set of any R-submodule of the left R-module I|J can be extended to a minimal generating set for I|J.

(iii) Every left ideal I of R has a minimal generating set and given any minimal generating set of a submodule N of any cyclic R-module M, it can be extended to a minimal generating set for M.

(iv) Given any minimal generating set of a submodule N of any R-moduleM, it can be extended to a minimal generating set for M.
CHAPTER 3.

GENERALIZED V-MODULES

According to V.S. Ramamurthi and K.M. Rangaswamy [36], a ring R is called a Generalized left V-ring (left GV-ring) if every simple singular left R-module is injective. GV-rings were also studied by J.S. Alin and E.P. Armendariz in [1], H. Tominaga in [46], Yue Chi Ming in [57] and many other authors. The following theorem characterizes GV-rings and is due to Ramamurthi and Rangaswamy [36].

<u>Theorem 3.1</u>: For any ring R the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) $Z(R) \cap J(R) = 0$, and every proper essential left ideal of R is an intersection of maximal left ideals.

(ii) R is a left GV-ring.

(iii) The module J(M) vanishes for any left R-module M with Z(M) essential in M.

(iv) If M is any left R-module, then every proper essential submodule of M is an intersection of maximal submodules of M and $Z(M) \cap J(M) = 0$.

In [49], K. Varadarajan has proved that the condition $Z(M) \cap J(M) = 0$ for all $M \in R$ -mod, automatically implies that any proper essential submodule of a module M is an intersection of maximal submodules of M.

In [5], G. Baccella has given an alternative description of GV-rings which involves the socle. It was proved in [5] that for a ring R the following statements are equivalent:

(i) R is a left GV-ring.

(ii) $Soc(_{\mathbb{R}}^{\mathbb{R}}) \cap Z(_{\mathbb{R}}^{\mathbb{R}}) = 0$, and every proper essential left ideal of R is an intersection of maximal left ideals.

(iii) $Soc(_{R}R)$ is projective and $R|Soc(_{R}R)$ is a left V-ring.

In [28], GV-modules were introduced and studied. Following Y. Hirano [28], a module M is called a GV-module if every simple singular left R-module is M-injective. The present chapter is intended to give further contributions to the study of GV-modules. We also study modules with the property that proper essential submodules are intersections of maximal submodules, we call them weakly GV-modules (WGV-modules). We prove that a module M is a WGV-module if and only if M|Soc(M) is a V-module, then using this result we show that the class of weakly GV-modules is closed under taking submodules, factor modules and arbitrary direct sums.

We now begin with the following proposition.

Proposition 3.2: The following conditions are equivalent.

(i) Every simple singular left R-module is M-injective.

(ii) $Z(M) \cap J(M) = 0$ and J(M|N) = 0 for any essential submodule N of M.

(iii) Every simple singular submodule of M is a direct summand of M and J(M|N) = 0 for any essential submodule N of M.

(iv) Every singular cofinitely generated R-module is M-injective.

(v) Every singular Artinian module is M-injective.

<u>Proof</u>: (The equivalence between (i), (ii) and (iii) is due to Y. Hirano [28, Theorem 3.15].)

(i) \rightarrow (ii): Let N be an essential submodule of M. Want to show that J(M|N) = 0. Suppose not, and let $\tilde{x} = x + N$ be a non-zero element of J(M|N). Let $\mathcal{F} = \{K \subseteq M: K \text{ is a submodule of M with } x \notin K \text{ and } N \subseteq K\}$. \mathcal{F} is non-empty and when partially ordered by inclusion, it is easy to see that every totally ordered subset of \mathcal{F} has an upper bound, and so by Zorn's lemma \mathcal{F} has a maximal element T. Clearly T is essential in M with $x \notin T$. Let $\bar{x} = x + T \in M|T$. Then $R\bar{x}$ is a simple singular essential submodule of M|T. By assumption $R\bar{x}$ is M|T-injective and by [2, Proposition 16.13, p.188], it follows that $R\bar{x}$ is essential in M|T, it follows that $R\bar{x} = M|T$ which implies that T is a maximal submodule of M with $x \notin T$ and $N \subseteq T$. This is a contradiction to the fact that $\tilde{x} \in J(M|N) =$ the intersection of all maximal submodules of M containing N.

Now suppose on the contrary, $Z(M) \cap J(M)$ contains a non-zero element x. Then by Zorn's lemma, there is a submodule Y of M which is maximal among the submodules X of M with $x \notin X$. Write $\overline{x} = x + Y \in M|Y$. Then $R\overline{x}$ is a simple singular submodule of M|Y, and so the map $\overline{}: Rx \longrightarrow R\overline{x}$ can be extended to an R-homomorphism $g : M \longrightarrow R\overline{x}$. Therefore K = Ker(g) is a maximal submodule of M with $x \notin K$, a contradiction with the fact that $x \in J(M)$.

(ii) \rightarrow (iii): Let S be a simple singular submodule of M. Since $Z(M) \cap J(M) = 0$, there is a maximal submodule L of M such that $S \cap L = 0$. Then clearly $M = S \oplus L$.

(iii) \rightarrow (i): Let S be a simple singular module, N an essential submodule of M and f : N \rightarrow S any non-zero R-homomorphism. We want to show that f can be extended to a map g : M \rightarrow S. Let K = Ker(f). If K is essential in N then K is essential in M and so there exists a maximal submodule L of M with K \subseteq L and N $\not\subset$ L. Since K is a maximal submodule of N it follows that K = N \cap L. And since N $\not\subset$ L and L is a maximal submodule of M it follows that M = N + L and so $\frac{M}{K} = \frac{N+L}{K} = \frac{N}{K} \oplus \frac{L}{K}$. Now if \tilde{f} : N|K \rightarrow S, is the map induced by f in the obvious way, then clearly \tilde{f} can be extended to an R-homomorphism \tilde{g} : M|K \rightarrow S. And if we define g : M \rightarrow S, by g(m) = \tilde{g} (m+K) for every m \in M, then clearly g is an extension of f.

Now suppose $K \cap I = 0$ for some non-zero submodule I of N. Thus $I(\cong S)$ is a simple singular submodule of M, and by hypothesis we see that $M = I \oplus L$ for some submodule L of M. Then f can be extended to an R-homomorphism of M to S.

<u>(i) \rightarrow (iv)</u>: Let N be a singular cofinitely generated left R-module. Write N \subseteq E(N) = E(S₁) $\oplus \cdots \oplus$ E(S_n), for a finite family of simple R-modules S_j, $1 \leq j \leq n$. Since Soc(N) = Soc(E(N)) = S₁ $\oplus \cdots \oplus S_n \subseteq N$, it follows from the singularity of N that each S_i is a simple singular module and hence M-injective. Let f : K \rightarrow N be a non-zero R-homomorphism, where K \neq 0 is a submodule of M, and consider the following diagram:



Since E(N) is injective, there exists a map $g : M \to E(N)$ such that $g(x) = f(x), \forall x \in K$. If $\pi_i : E(N) \to E(S_i)$ denotes the projection map, $1 \le i \le n$, then $\pi_i \circ g : M \to E(S_i)$ is an R-homomorphism, and so $\pi_i \circ g(M) \subseteq S_i$ by the M-injectivity of S_i . Thus $g(M) \subseteq S_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus S_n \subseteq N$ and the map g is the required map. $(\underline{iv}) \to (\underline{v})$: Obvious, since every Artinian module is cofinitely generated.

 $(v) \rightarrow (i)$: Clear, since every simple module is Artinian. <u>Remarks 3.3</u>: From Proposition 3.2 (ii), it follows that if M is a GV-module then $J(M) \subseteq Soc(M)$. This is because Soc(M) is the intersection of all essential submodules of M and every proper essential submodule of M is an intersection of maximal submodules. And since $J(M) \cap Z(M) = 0$, it follows that J(M) is a direct sum of simple projective modules.

With the same argument used in the proof of Proposition 1.2 one can easily prove the following:

<u>Proposition 3.4</u>: (i) Submodules and homomorphic images of GV-modules are also GV-modules.

 (ii) ⊕ M_i is a GV-module if and only if every M_i is a GV-module. □ i∈I
 Proposition 3.5: For any ring R the following statements are equivalent:

(i) R is a left GV-ring.

(ii) Every left R-module is a GV-module.

(iii) Every cyclic left R-module is a GV-module. □

The next proposition is an extension of [49, Theorem 4.2(2)] to modules.

<u>Proposition 3.6</u>: For any module $_{R}^{M}$ the following are equivalent:

(i) M is a GV-module.

(ii) $Z(L) \cap J(L) = 0$, for every homomorphic image L of M.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): If M is a GV-module then by Proposition 3.3(ii), every homomorphic image L of M is a GV-module. Hence $Z(L) \cap J(L) = 0$. (ii) \rightarrow (i): Let N be a proper essential submodule of M. Since M|N is singular, it follows that Z(M|N) = M|N and so by assumption J(M|N) = 0. Whence by Proposition 3.2, M is a GV-module.

In [21, Theorem 3.1], K.R. Fuller proved that a module M is a V-module if and only if every cofinitely generated factor module of M is a finite direct sum of simple modules (see Proposition 1.1(vi)). For GV-modules we have the following:

<u>Proposition 3.7</u>: Suppose M is a GV-module. Then every singular cofinitely generated factor module of M is a finite direct sum of simple modules.

<u>Proof</u>: Let $M \xrightarrow{\delta} A \longrightarrow 0$ be an exact sequence of R-modules with A cofinitely generated and Z(A) = A. By Proposition 3.3, A is a GV-module and hence $Z(A) \cap J(A) = 0$. But since Z(A) = A, J(A) = 0. If $N = Ker(\delta)$, then N is an intersection of maximal submodules of M. Write $N = \bigcap_{i \in I} L_i$, for some set I, where each L_i is a maximal submodule of M. Write N = $\bigcap_{i \in I} L_i$, for some set I, where each L_i is a maximal submodule of M. Write N = $\bigcap_{i \in I} L_i$, for some set I, where each L_i is a maximal submodule entry of M. Now, since M|N is cofinitely generated and $\bigcap_{i \in I} (L_i|N) = 0$, there exists a finite subset $J \subseteq I$, such that $N = \bigcap_{i \in J} L_i$ and hence A can be embedded in a finite direct sum of simple modules.

We do not know whether the converse to Proposition 3.7 holds. However, for non-singular rings we have the following: <u>Proposition 3.8</u>: Suppose R is a left non-singular ring. Then the

following conditions are equivalent:

(i) _pM is a GV-module.

(ii) Every singular cofinitely generated homomorphic image of M is a finite direct sum of simple modules.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Follows from Proposition 3.7.

<u>(ii) \rightarrow (i)</u>: Let S be a simple singular module and f : M \rightarrow E(S) be a non-zero R-homomorphism. Since S is simple, we get S \subseteq f(M) \subseteq E(S). Since R is non-singular, f(M) is singular. Whence f(M) is a cofinitely generated singular homomorphic image of M and so by (ii), f(M) is semisimple. But since Soc(E(S)) = S, f(M) = S; and S is M-injective. \Box

As immediate corollaries to Proposition 3.2 and Proposition 3.8, we have the following.

<u>Corollary 3.9</u>: For any ring R the following statements are equivalent:

(i) R is a left GV-ring.

(ii) Every singular cofinitely generated R-module is injective.

(iii) Every singular Artinian module is injective.

<u>Corollary 3.10</u>: If R is a left non-singular ring then R is a left GV-ring if and only if every singular cofinitely generated R-module is a finite direct sum of simple modules.

<u>Proof</u>: Let L be a singular cofinitely generated module.

Write $L \subseteq E(L) = E(S_1) \oplus \cdots \oplus E(S_n)$, with each S_i being simple. If every simple singular module is injective then $S_i = E(S_i)$, for each i, and hence $L = E(L) = S_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus S_n$.

Conversely, let S be a simple singular module. Since R is non-singular, E(S) is a singular cofinitely generated module and hence semisimple by assumption. Thus S = E(S) and S is injective. Therefore R is a left GV-ring.

As we have mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, G. Baccella [5], has given an alternative description of GV-rings in terms of the socle. For locally projective modules we have the following proposition which corresponds to [5, Theorem 2.2].

<u>Proposition 3.11</u>: If M is a locally projective module. Then the following are equivalent:

(i) M is a GV-module.

(ii) $Soc(M) \cap Z(M) = 0$ and every proper essential submodule of M is an intersection of maximal submodules.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): We claim that every simple submodule of M is projective. For if S were a simple singular submodule of M then by Proposition 3.2, S is direct summand of M. But since M is locally projective then clearly S is projective. Contradicting the singular nature of S. Whence Soc(M) is projective and so Soc(M) \cap Z(M) = 0. The rest of the assertion is clear.

<u>(ii) \rightarrow (i)</u>: Note that Soc(M) is the intersection of all the essential submodules of M. And since every proper essential submodule of M is an intersection of maximal submodules, it follows that $J(M) \subseteq$ Soc(M), and hence $J(M) \cap Z(M) = 0$, and by Proposition 3.2, M is a GV-module. <u>Remark 3.12</u>: If M is a locally projective GV-module then Soc(M) is projective.

It was proved in [36, Proposition 3.7] that a ring R is left V-ring if and only if R is a left GV-ring and every minimal left ideal of R is an absolute summand of R. In the next proposition we extend this result to modules.

<u>Definition 3.13</u>: Let M be a left R-module. A submodule L of M will be called an absolute summand if for any submodule T of M, such that T is maximal with respect to $L \cap T = 0$, we have $L \oplus T = M$.

<u>Proposition 3.14</u>: The following conditions are equivalent:

(i) M is a V-module.

(ii) M is a GV-module, and every simple submodule of M is an absolute summand.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \longrightarrow (ii): Let M be a V-module and let S be a simple submodule of M. Let T be a submodule of M maximal with respect to $S \cap T = 0$. If $A = S \oplus T$ and $\pi : A \longrightarrow S$ denotes the projection map, then π can be extended to a map $\tilde{\pi} : M \longrightarrow S$. Since $\tilde{\pi}|S = \pi$, Ker($\tilde{\pi}$) $\cap S = 0$, and since $\pi(T) = 0$, $T \subseteq \text{Ker}(\tilde{\pi})$. Thus by the choice of T it follows that $T = \text{Ker}(\tilde{\pi})$. Whence T is a maximal submodule of M and therefore $M = T \oplus S$.

(ii) \rightarrow (i): Let M be a GV-module and assume that every simple submodule of M is an absolute summand. Let S be a simple module. If S is singular then it is M-injective. Suppose S is a simple projective module and f : N \rightarrow S a non-zero R-homomorphism, where N is a submodule of M. Let K = Ker(f). By the projectivity of S, the following exact sequence 0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow N \rightarrow S \rightarrow 0 splits. Write N = K \oplus L, for some submodule L(\cong N|K \cong S) of N. Inasmuch as L is a simple submodule of M we infer that if T is a submodule of M containing K and maximal with respect to T \cap L = 0, then L \oplus T = M.

Now if $g : M \rightarrow L$ denotes the projection map then the map f ° g : M \rightarrow S extends f, and hence every simple module is M-injective. By Proposition 1.1, M is a V-module.

The following proposition is an extension of [58, Theorem 3'] to modules.

<u>Proposition 3.15</u>: The following conditions on a left R-module M are equivalent:

(i) M is a GV-module.

(ii) If K is a submodule of any essential submodule L of M such that L|K is simple singular then $K^* \neq L^*$.

Proof: (i) → (ii): Let L be an essential submodule of M and K be a submodule of L such that L|K is simple singular. If K is essential in L, then K is essential in M and hence K = K^{*} and L = L^{*} which implies that $K^* \neq L^*$ (since K is a maximal submodule of L). Otherwise, let $K \cap N = 0$ for some non-zero submodule N of L. Since K is a maximal submodule of L, L = K \oplus N, and N is a simple singular submodule of M. Let $\eta : L \to N$ denotes the projection map. Since M is a GV-module, η can be extended to a map g : M → N. Inasmuch as g(x) = x, ∀x ∈ N, we infer that the submodule N is a direct summand of M, in fact $M = N \oplus \text{Ker}(g)$. Now, since g(k) = $\eta(k) = 0 \forall k \in K$, it follows that $K \subseteq \text{Ker}(g)$. Let T = Ker(g), then T is a maximal submodule of M with $K \subseteq T$ and L $\notin T$. Thus $K^* \neq L^*$.

(ii) \rightarrow (i): Let S be a simple singular R-module, N an essential submodule of M and f : N \rightarrow S a non-zero R-homomorphism. If K = Ker(f), then N|K is a simple singular module, and thus by hypothesis N^{*} \neq K^{*}. Choose a maximal submodule L of M with K \subseteq L and N $\not\subset$ L. By the maximality of L, we have M = L + N, and since K is maximal in N, it follows that K = L \cap N and so $\frac{M}{K} = \frac{L}{K} \oplus \frac{N}{K}$. Thus the map f can be extended to a map g : M \rightarrow S in the obvious way. \Box <u>Proposition 3.16</u>: Let R be a commutative ring and $_{R}^{M}$ a projective module. Then the following are equivalent:

(i) M is a regular module.

(ii) M is a V-module.

(iii) M is a GV-module.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \leftrightarrow (ii): By Proposition 1.15.

 $(ii) \rightarrow (iii)$: Clear.

<u>(iii) \rightarrow (ii)</u>: Let S be a simple R-module. If S is singular then it is M-injective. If S is projective then it is M-flat and by Proposition 1.13, S is M-injective. Thus every simple module is M-injective and hence M is a V-module.

The following proposition has been proved in [5, Proposition 2.1]. However we shall reprove it here because of the important role it plays in what follows.

<u>Proposition 3.17</u> (G. Baccella): For any ring R the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) R|Soc_RR is a left V-ring.

(ii) If M is a left R-module, then every essential submodule of M is an intersection of maximal submodules.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Let M be a left R-module and L an essential submodule of M. Since $(Soc_R R)M \subseteq Soc(M)$, $(Soc_R R)M \subseteq L$. If $R|Soc_R R$ is a left V-ring, then $L|(Soc_R R)M$, as left $(R|Soc_R R)$ -submodule of $M|(Soc_R R)M$, is an intersection of maximal $R|(Soc_R R)$ -submodules of $M|(Soc_R R)M$. This is enough to conclude that L is an intersection of maximal submodules of M.

 $\underbrace{\text{(ii)} \longrightarrow \text{(i)}}_{\text{R}}: \text{ Let S be a simple left } \mathbb{R}|(\operatorname{Soc}_{\mathbb{R}}^{\mathbb{R}})-\operatorname{module}, \text{ let } \underline{a} \text{ be a left}$ ideal of R, with $(\operatorname{Soc}_{\mathbb{R}}^{\mathbb{R}}) \subseteq \underline{a}$ and $\underline{a}|(\operatorname{Soc}_{\mathbb{R}}^{\mathbb{R}})$ essential in $\mathbb{R}|(\operatorname{Soc}_{\mathbb{R}}^{\mathbb{R}})$, and

let $f : \underline{a} | (Soc_R^R) \to S$ be a non-zero $(R | Soc_R^R)$ -homomorphism. We claim that if $\pi : \underline{a} \longrightarrow \underline{a} | (Soc_R^R)$ is the canonical epimorphism and $\underline{b} = \text{Ker}(f0\pi)$, then \underline{b} is essential in \underline{a} . If not, then by the definition of <u>b</u>, there is a minimal left ideal <u>n</u> of R such that $\underline{a} = \underline{b} \oplus \underline{n}$, in contradiction with the fact that $\operatorname{Soc}_{R} R \subseteq \underline{b}$. Inasmuch as $\underline{a}|(\operatorname{Soc}_{R} R)$ is essential in $R \mid (Soc_{R}R)$, <u>a</u> is essential in R and hence <u>b</u> is essential in Since $\underline{b} \neq \underline{a}$, from (ii) it follows that there is a maximal left R. ideal <u>m</u> of R such that $\underline{b} \subseteq \underline{m}$ and $\underline{a} \not \subset \underline{m}$. <u>b</u> being maximal in <u>a</u>, we have that $\underline{b} = \underline{a} \cap \underline{m}$. It follows that $\underline{a} + \underline{m} = R$ and hence $\frac{R}{b} = \frac{\underline{a}}{b} \oplus \frac{\underline{m}}{b}$. $f0\pi : \underline{a} \to S$ is zero on \underline{b} , hence induces $\overline{f} : \frac{\underline{a}}{\underline{b}} \to S$. Then $\overline{g} : \frac{R}{\underline{b}} \to S$ given by $\overline{g} | \left(\frac{\underline{a}}{\underline{b}} \right) = \overline{f}, \ \overline{g} | \left(\frac{\underline{m}}{\underline{b}} \right) = 0$ extends \overline{f} . If $\eta : \frac{R}{(Soc_{p}R)} \rightarrow \frac{R}{\underline{b}}$ is the quotient map then $g = \overline{g} \circ \eta$ extends f, from $R|(Soc_p R)$ to S. This shows that S is injective as a left $R \mid (Soc_{R}R) - module.$ Π

As a result of the preceding proposition, we are now in a position to introduce the notion of weakly GV-modules.

<u>Definition 3.18</u>: A module _RM is called a weakly GV-module (WGV-module) if every proper essential submodule of M is an intersection of maximal submodules.

R is said to be a left WGV-ring if the left R-module ${}_{\rm R}{}^{\rm R}$ is a WGV-module.

Clearly every GV-module is a WGV-module. The next result is an extension of Proposition 3.17 to modules.

<u>Proposition 3.19</u>: For a module $_{R}^{M}$ the following are equivalent.

(i) M is a WGV-module.

(ii) M|Soc(M) is a V-module.

<u>Proof</u>: (ii) \rightarrow (i): If L is a proper essential submodule of M then Soc(M) \subseteq L; whence L|Soc(M), as a submodule of M|Soc(M), is an intersection of maximal submodules of M|Soc(M), and so L is an intersection of maximal submodules of M.

<u>(i) \rightarrow (ii)</u>: Let S be a simple R-module. We want to show that S is M|Soc(M)-injective. Let N|Soc(M) be an essential submodule of M|Soc(M)and $f:N|Soc(M) \rightarrow S$ be any non-zero R-homomorphism. If Ker(f) = K|Soc(M), then K is a maximal submodule of N. We claim that K is an essential submodule of N. For if not, then $K \cap I = 0$ for some non-zero submodule I of N. Whence $N = K \oplus I$ and I is a simple submodule of M, i.e. $I \subseteq Soc(M) \subseteq K - a$ clear contradiction.

Now, since K is a proper essential submodule of M and a maximal submodule of N, by (i) there exists a maximal submodule L of M, such that $K \subseteq L$ and $N \not \subset L$. If $\overline{}: M \to M|Soc(M)$ denotes the quotient map, then $\frac{\overline{M}}{\overline{K}} = \frac{\overline{N} + \overline{L}}{\overline{K}} = \frac{\overline{N}}{\overline{K}} \oplus \frac{\overline{L}}{\overline{K}}$. And if $\tilde{f} : \overline{N}|\overline{K} \to S$ is the map induced by f in the obvious way, then clearly \tilde{f} can be extended to an R-homomorphism $\tilde{g} : \overline{M}|\overline{K} \to S$. And if we define $g : \overline{M} \to S$, by $g(\overline{m}) = \tilde{g}(\overline{m} + \overline{K})$ for every $m \in M$, then clearly g is an R-homomorphism which extends f. \Box <u>Corollary 3.20</u>: For any ring R the following are equivalent:

- (i) $R|(Soc_p R)$ is a left V-ring.
- (ii) R is a left WGV-ring.

- (iii) Every left R-module is a WGV-module.
- (iv) Every cyclic left R-module is a WGV-module.

In the next proposition we show that the class of WGV-modules is closed under taking submodules, factor modules and arbitrary direct sums - a fact that is hardly obvious from the definition of WGV-modules.

<u>Proposition 3.21</u>: (i) Submodules and homomorphic images of WGV-modules are also WGV-modules.

(ii) ⊕ M_i is a WGV-module if and only if each M_i is a WGV-module. i∈I
Proof: (i) Let M be a WGV-module and N be a submodule of M. Since Soc(N) = N ∩ Soc(M) it follows that N|Soc(N) = N|(N ∩ Soc(M)) ≅ (N + Soc(M))|Soc(M) and since the latter is a submodule of the V-module M|Soc(M), it follows from Proposition 1.2(i) that N|Soc(N) is a V-module and by Proposition 3.19 that N is a WGV-module.

Now, let $M \xrightarrow{\epsilon} A \longrightarrow 0$ be an exact sequence of left R-modules, with M a WGV-module. Then $A \cong M|N$ for some submodule N of M. If L|N is a proper essential submodule of M|N, then L is a proper essential submodule of M, and so L is an intersection of maximal submodules of M. Whence L|N is an intersection of maximal submodules of M|N.

(ii) Let $M = \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$. If M is a weakly GV-module then by (i), each $i \in I$ M_i is a weakly GV-module. Conversely, suppose each M_i is a WGV-module. Then $M|Soc(M) = (\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i)|Soc(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i) = (\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i)|(\bigoplus_{i \in I} Soc M_i)$ and since $i \in I$ $i \in I$ the latter is isomorphic to $\bigoplus_{i \in I} (M_i|Soc M_i)$, it follows from Proposition $i \in I$ 1.2(ii) that M|Soc(M) is a V-module and hence M is a WGV-module. \Box

In the next proposition we give a necessary and sufficient condition for a WGV-module to be a V-module.

<u>Proposition 3.22</u>: For a module R^{M} the following are equivalent:

(i) M is a V-module.

(ii) M is a WGV-module and every simple submodule of M isM-injective.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Clear.

(ii) → (i): Let S be a simple R-module and let $f : N \rightarrow S$ be any non-zero R-homomorphism where N is any proper essential submodule of M. Let K = Ker(f). If K were not essential in N then K ∩ I = 0 for some non-zero submodule I of N. Then $f|I : I \cong S$, and I is a simple submodule of M. By (ii), it follows that S is M-injective. If K is essential in N then K is a proper essential submodule of M, and since M is a WGV-module, there is a maximal submodule L of M such that K \subseteq L and N $\not\leftarrow$ L. Hence M|K = (L|K) \oplus (N|K) and the map f can be extended to an R-homomorphism g : M \rightarrow S. Whence every simple R-module is M-injective. □

As we have pointed out before, G. Baccella has charactrized GV-rings in terms of the socle. It was proven, among other things, that a ring R is a left GV-ring if and only if Soc_{R} R is projective and $R|(\text{Soc}_{R}R)$ is a left V-ring - see [5, Theorem 2.2]. In the next proposition we extend this result to modules and the proof follows from Proposition 3.11 and Proposition 3.19.

<u>Proposition 3.23</u>: For a locally projective R-module M the following are equivalent:

(i) M is a GV-module.

٩,

(ii) Soc(M) is projective and M|Soc(M) is a V-module. □
 Example 3.24: The following is an example of a WGV-module which is not a GV-module.

Let $M = Z_{P^2}$. Then $J(Z_{P^2}) = Z_P$ and $Z(Z_{P^2}) = Z_{P^2}$. Thus $J(Z_{P^2}) \cap Z(Z_{P^2}) = Z_P \neq 0$ and hence Z_{P^2} is not a GV-module. But $Soc(Z_{P^2}) = Z_P, Z_{P^2}|Soc(Z_{P^2}) \cong Z_P$ whence M is a WGV-module. In fact the same example shows that the class of GV-modules is not closed under extensions.

CHAPTER 4

P-V-MODULES AND P-V'-MODULES

A module M is said to be P-injective if for any principal left ideal I of R and $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(I,M)$ there exists an element $m \in M$ such that f(x) = xm, for all $x \in I$. Equivalently M is P-injective if $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(R|xR,M) = 0$ for each $x \in R$. A ring R is defined to be a left P-V-ring (resp. P-V'-ring) if every simple (resp. simple singular) left R-module is P-injective. Such rings were introduced and studied by H. Tominaga in [46]; and by Yue Chi Ming in [55], [56], [57] and [58].

In [28], Y. Hirano has introduced the notion of P-V-modules. In this chapter we introduce the notions of P-V'-modules, f-V-modules and f-V'-modules. Known results for P-V-rings (resp. P-V'-ring) are extended to modules. The connections between regular modules, V-modules, P-V-modules and P-V'-modules are given. We also introduce the notion of P-M-flatness and prove that if $_{\rm R}$ M is a projective module over a commutative ring R, then M is a P-V-module if and only if M is a P-V'-module if and only if every simple R-module is P-M-flat; from which we infer that M is a P-V'-module if and only if M is a V-module. <u>Definition 4.1</u> [28]: Let M and U be R-modules. U is said to be P-M-injective if every R-homomorphism of any cyclic submodule of M into U can be extended to an R-homomorphism of M into U. U is said to be

Definition 4.2: Let M and U be R-modules. U is said to be

f-M-injective if every R-homomorphism of any finitely generated submodule of M into U can be extended to an R-homomorphism of M into U. U is said to be f-injective if it is f-R-injective.

<u>Definition 4.3</u> [28]: Let M be a left R-module. If every simple R-module is P-M-injective, M is called a P-V-module.

<u>Definition 4.4</u>: A module _R^M is called a P-V'-module if every simple singular R-module is P-M-injective.

<u>Definition 4.5</u>: A module M is called an f-V-module (resp. f-V'-module) if every simple (resp. simple singular) module is f-M-injective. <u>Proposition 4.6</u>: The following conditions are equivalent for a locally projective R-module M.

(i) Every cyclic submodule of M is projective.

(ii) Every quotient of a P-M-injective module is P-M-injective.

(iii) Every quotient of an injective module is P-M-injective.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Let K $\xrightarrow{\epsilon}$ L \rightarrow 0 be an exact sequence of left R-modules with K being P-M-injective. Consider the following diagram:



with exact rows and a cyclic submodule N of M. Since N is projective, there exists a map $g : N \to K$ such that $\epsilon \circ g = f$. Now since K is P-M-injective, the map g can be extended to a map $\tilde{g} : M \to K$. Now the map $\epsilon \circ \tilde{g} : M \to L$ is an extension of f.

$(ii) \rightarrow (iii)$: Clear.

<u>(iii) \rightarrow (i)</u>: Let N be a cyclic submodule of M and consider the following diagram:



with exact rows and with B being injective. Since A is P-M-injective, the map f can be extended to a map $g : M \rightarrow A$. And since M is locally projective there exists a map $h : M \rightarrow B$ such that $(\epsilon \circ h) | N = g | N$. If we set $\tilde{h} = h | N$, then $\epsilon \circ \tilde{h} = f$. By [10, Proposition 5.1, Chap I], it follows that N is projective.

It was proved in [55] that a ring R is regular if and only if every R-module is P-injective. The following proposition is an extension of this result to modules.

<u>Proposition 4.7</u> (cf [56,Lemma 2]): The following statements are equivalent for any projective R-module _RM.

(i) M is a regular module.

(ii) Every R-module is P-M-injective.

(iii) Every cyclic R-module is P-M-injective.

(iv) Every cyclic module L with J(L) = 0 is P-M-injective.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): If M is a regular module then by Proposition 0.1, every cyclic submodule of M is a direct summand of M, therefore any R-homomorphism of any cyclic submodule of M into a module U can be extended to an R-homomorphism of M into U. Thus every R-module U is P-M-injective.

 $(ii) \rightarrow (iii)$: Obvious.

<u>(iii) \rightarrow (iv)</u>: Obvious.

 $(iv) \rightarrow (i)$: Note that by hypothesis, every simple module is P-M-injective. We show that if L is any cyclic submodule of M then J(L) = 0. Then it will follow that every cyclic submodule of M is a direct summand of M and by Proposition 0.1, M would be a regular module.

Now, let 0 ≠ b ∈ L, and let F be the set of all submodules K of Rb such that b ∉ K. Clearly F is non-empty and when partially ordered by inclusion it is easy to see that every chain of elements of F has an upper bound. By Zorn's lemma, F has a maximal member T. Then Rb|T is a simple module, hence J(Rb|T) = 0 and therefore Rb|T is P-M-injective. Hence the quotient map η : Rb \rightarrow Rb |T can be extended to an R-homomorphism $\tilde{\eta} : M \to Rb | T$. Let $\phi = \tilde{\eta} | L$. Then $\phi : L \to Rb | T$ is an onto map and hence L|Ker ϕ is a simple module. Thus Ker ϕ is a maximal submodule of L with $b \notin \text{Ker } \phi$, and so J(L) = 0. Ω Proposition 4.8: If M is a P-V-module (resp. a P-V'-module) then every submodule of M is a P-V-module (resp. a P-V'-module). <u>Proof</u>: Let N be a submodule of M. We want to show that every simple (resp. simple singular) module is P-N-injective. Let S be a simple (resp. simple singular) module, Rm a cyclic submodule of N and $f : Rm \rightarrow S$ a non-zero homomorphism. Since M is a P-V-module (resp. a P-V'-module), f can be extended to a map $g : M \rightarrow S$. Then the map $\tilde{f} = (g|N)$ extends f from N into S.

<u>Proposition 4.9</u>: If M is a P-V-module, then J(M) = 0.

<u>Proof</u>: Suppose on the contrary, there is a non-zero element $x \in J(M)$. Since Rx is finitely generated, it has a maximal submodule N. Let $\eta : Rx \to Rx | N$ denotes the canonical quotient map. Extend η to a map $\tilde{\eta} : M \to Rx | N$. Then Ker $\tilde{\eta}$ is a maximal submodule of M with $x \notin \text{Ker } \tilde{\eta}$, this is a clear contradiction.

<u>Remark 4.10</u>: From Proposition 4.9, we can see that if N is a submodule of a P-V-module M then J(N) = 0, in particular every non-zero submodule of a P-V-module contains a maximal submodule.

<u>Proposition 4.11</u>: Let M be a P-V'-module. Then $J(M) \cap Z(M) = 0$ and $J(M) \subseteq Soc(M)$. In particular J(M) is a direct sum of simple projective modules.

<u>Proof</u>: Suppose on the contrary, there exists a non-zero element $x \in J(M) \cap Z(M)$. By Zorn's lemma choose a submodule L of M maximal with respect to $x \notin L$. Let $\eta : M \to M|L$ denotes the quotient map and write $\overline{x} = x + L$. Then $R\overline{x}$ is a simple singular submodule of the factor module M|L. Let $\phi = \eta |Rx$. Since M is a P-V'-module, ϕ can be extended to an epimorphism $\Psi : M \to R\overline{x}$. Thus M|Ker $\Psi \cong R\overline{x}$ and Ker Ψ is a maximal submodule of M with $x \notin Ker \Psi$, a clear contradiction with the choice of x.

To see that $J(M) \subseteq Soc(M)$, suppose on the contrary there exists an element $x \in M$ with $x \in J(M)$ and $x \notin Soc(M)$. Since Soc(M) is the intersection of all the essential submodules of M, it follows that $x \notin T$ for some proper essential submodule T of M. By Zorn's lemma, the

set of all essential submodules I of M such that $x \notin I$ has a maximal member L. Let Π : M \rightarrow M|L denote the canonical quotient map and write $\overline{x} = II(x) = x + L$. Writing \overline{M} for the factor module M/L, we see that $0 \neq \overline{x} \in \overline{M}$ and any non-zero submodule of \overline{M} must contain \overline{x} . Therefore $R\overline{x}$ is a simple singular submodule of \overline{M} . Let η denote the restriction of the map π to the submodule Rx. Clearly η : Rx \rightarrow Rx is onto. Since M is a P-V'-module, η can be extended to a map η : M \rightarrow Rx. Clearly η is If N = Ker $(\overline{\eta})$ then M N \cong Rx and N is a maximal submodule of M onto. with $x \notin N$, a contradiction with the fact that $x \in J(M)$. <u>Remark 4.12</u>: If M is a locally projective P-V'-module then $Soc(M) \cap Z(M) = 0$. For, if S were a singular simple submodule of M then S is a direct summand of M. And since M is locally projective, it follows that S is projective, a contradiction. Thus every simple submodule of M is projective.

In the next proposition we show that every Artinian P-V'-module is Noetherian. In particular every Artinian GV-module is Noetherian. <u>Proposition 4.13</u>:: Every Artinian P-V'-module is Noetherian. <u>Proof</u>: Let M be a P-V'-module. If M is semisimple then we are done. Otherwise, suppose M has a proper essential submodule L and let x be a non-zero element of M which is not contained in L.

Let $F = \{K \subseteq M : K \text{ is a submodule of } M \text{ with } L \subseteq K \text{ and } x \notin K\}$. Since $L \in F$, F is not empty, and it is easy to see that every totally ordered subset of F has an upper bound. By Zorn's lemma let K be a

maximal element of F. Let $\eta : M \to M | K$ denote the canonical quotient map and write $\overline{x} = \eta(x) = x + K$. It is not difficult to see that $R\overline{x}$ is a simple singular submodule of the factor module M | K. If we define f to be the restriction of the map η to Rx, then f is an R-epimorphism. And since M is a P-V'-module, f can be extended to an R-epimorphism $g : M \to R\overline{x}$. Whence $M | Ker g \cong R\overline{x}$. Thus M has a maximal submodule, namely Ker g. Whence $J(M) \neq M$.

Now, since every submodule of a P-V'-module is also a P-V'-module, $J(N) \neq N$ for every submodule N of M. Let L_1 be a maximal submodule of M. If L_1 is not simple, let L_2 be a maximal submodule of L_1 , and so on. Since M is Artinian we must stop after a finite number of steps and $M = L_b \supset L_1 \supset L_2 \supset \cdots \supset L_n = 0$ is a composition series for M. Whence M is Noetherian. \Box

<u>Remark 4.14</u>: Note that along the lines of the above proof we have shown that every submodule of a P-V'-module contains a maximal submodule. In particular if R is a left GV-ring then every R-module is a GV-module and hence contains a maximal submodule. Thus every left GV-ring is a B-ring (max-ring) in the sense of [17].

Proposition 4.15: The following conditions are equivalent:

(i) M is a P-V-module.

(ii) If K is a maximal submodule of a cyclic submodule N of M, then $K^* \neq N^*$. (Here K^* = intersection of maximal submodules of M containing K, similar definition for N^*).

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<u>Proof:</u> (i) \rightarrow (ii): Suppose on the contrary there exists a cyclic submodule N of M and a maximal submodule K of N such that $K^* = N^*$. Let $f : N \rightarrow N | K$ denote the quotient map. Since M is a P-V-module, f can be extended to a map $g : M \longrightarrow N | K$. Let $h = g | N^*$. Then H = Ker(h)contains K and $H \subseteq N^* = K^*$. Whence $K \subseteq H \subseteq K^*$, which implies that $H^* = K^*$. Now, if G = Ker(g), then G is a maximal submodule of M with $G \cap N^* = H$, and $N^* = H^* \subseteq G$ ($H^* \subseteq G$, since G is a maximal submodule of M containing H). Thus $h(N^*) = 0$, consequently h(N) = 0. But h|N = fthe quotient map $N \rightarrow N | K$. Therefore N = K - a clear contradiction. $(ii) \rightarrow (i)$: Let S be a simple R-module, L a cyclic submodule of M, and f : L \rightarrow S a non-zero R-homomorphism. Let K = Ker(f). Since K is a maximal submodule of L, $K^* \neq L^*$. Hence there is a maximal submodule T of M with $K \subseteq T$ and $L \not\subset T$. Then M = T + L and $M|K = T|K \oplus L|K$, which shows that f can be extended to a map g : M \rightarrow S. This proves that every simple module is P-M-injective.

<u>Corollary 4.16</u>: Let M be a P-V-module. Then for any submodule L of M either $L = L^*$ or L^* is not cyclic.

<u>Proof</u>: Suppose there exists a submodule L of M such that $L \neq L^*$ and $L^* = N$ is cyclic. Since N|L is a cyclic module, it has a maximal submodule T|L. By Proposition 4.14, $T^* \neq N^*$. But since $L \subseteq T \subseteq N$, it follows that $L^* \subseteq T^* \subseteq N^*$ and since $L^* = N^*$, we get $T^* = L^*$ and hence $T^* = N^*$, a clear contradiction.

The next three results will be stated without proofs. The proofs are similar to the proof of Proposition 4.15.

<u>Proposition 4.17</u>: The following are equivalent for a left R-module M. (i) M is a P-V'-module.

(ii) If K is a submodule of any cyclic submodule L of M, such that L|K is simple singular then $K^* \neq L^*$.

<u>Proposition 4.18</u>: The following are equivalent for a left R-module M.(i) M is an f-V-module.

(ii) If K is a maximal submodule of a finitely generated submodule L of M then $K^* \neq L^*$.

Proposition 4.19: The following are equivalent for a left R-module M.

(i) M is an f-V'-module.

(ii) If K is a submodule of any finitely generated submodule L of M such that L | K is simple singular then $K^* \neq L^*$.

<u>Proposition 4.20</u>: Let M be left R-module. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) M is a V-module.

(ii) Every simple submodule of M is M-injective and every singular homomorphic image of M has zero radical.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Immediate consequence of Proposition 1.1 and 1.2.

<u>(ii) \longrightarrow (i)</u>: Let S be a simple module, N an essential submodule of M and f : N \longrightarrow S a non-zero homomorphism. Let K = Ker(f). If K \cap T = 0 for some non-zero submodule T of N then by the maximality of K in N we infer that T is a simple submodule of M with $T \cong S$. Thus S is M-injective. Otherwise suppose K is essential in N. In this case both K and N are essential submodules of M and hence J(M|K) = J(M|N) = 0yielding K = K^{*}, N = N^{*}. Since K \neq N there is a maximal submodule L of M such that K \subseteq L and N $\not\subset$ L. Thus $\frac{M}{K} = \frac{L}{K} \oplus \frac{N}{K}$ and the map f can be extended to an R-homomorphism from M into S. Whence M is a V-module. \Box <u>Definition 4.21</u>: Let M be a right R-module and U be a left R-module. U is said to be P-M-flat if for every cyclic submodule K of M the sequence 0 \longrightarrow K \otimes_R U \longrightarrow M \otimes_R U is exact. U is said to be P-flat if it is P-R-flat.

<u>Lemma 4.22</u>: ([18, Theorem 9]) Suppose $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow M \rightarrow L \rightarrow 0$ is exact with K finitely generated and M projective. Then K is a pure submodule of M if and only if K is a direct summand.

<u>Proof</u>: Since any direct summand is pure, it suffices to show the converse. Suppose then that K is a pure submodule of M and let $\{x_i : x_i \in K, 1 \le i \le n\}$ be a generating set for K. Since M is projective, it is isomorphic to a direct summand of a free module F. Without loss of generality we may assume that $F = M \oplus M'$. Since K is pure in M and M is pure in F, it follows that K is pure in F. Then, by [18, Theorem 8], there exists $\Upsilon : F \to K$ such that $\Upsilon(x_i) = x_i$, $1 \le i \le n$. Let $\delta = \Upsilon | M$. Then $\delta : M \to K$, with $\delta(x_i) = \Upsilon(x_i) = x_i$ for all i. If $\Pi : K \to M$ is the natural injection, then we have $\delta \circ \Pi = Id_K$, whence K is a direct summand of M. \Box From the above lemma we can easily see the following.

<u>Proposition 4.23</u>: A projective module _R^M is regular if and only if every right R-module is P-M-flat.

<u>Corollary 4.24</u>: A ring R is regular if and only if every R-module is P-flat.

The next three results will be stated without proof. The proofs are similar to those of corresponding results in Chapter 1.

Lemma 4.25: If M is a projective module and U is any R-module, then the following are equivalent:

(i) U is P-M-injective.

(ii) $Ext_{R}^{1}(M|N,U) = 0$, for every cyclic submodule N of M.

Lemma 4.26: If M is a flat right R-module and U is any left R-module. Then the following are equivalent:

(i) U is P-M-flat.

(ii) $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M|N,U) = 0$, for every cyclic submodule N of M. <u>Proposition 4.27</u>: Let R be a commutative ring and M a projective R-module. If S is any simple R-module then the following are equivalent:

(i) S is P-M-injective.

(ii) S is P-M-flat.

<u>Proposition 4.28</u>: Let R be a commutative ring and M a projective R-module. Then the following are equivalent:

(i) M is a regular module.

(ii) M is a V-module.

(iii) M is a GV-module.

- (iv) M is a P-V-module.
- (v) M is a P-V'-module.
- (vi) M is an f-V-module.
- (vii) M is an f-V'-module.
- (viii) Every simple R-module is M-flat.
- (ix) Every simple singular R-module is M-flat.
- (x) Every simple R-module is P-M-flat.
- (xi) Every simple singular R-module is P-M-flat.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \leftrightarrow (ii) \leftrightarrow (iii) \leftrightarrow (viii) By Proposition 1.15 and Proposition 3.16.

- (iii) \leftrightarrow (ix): By Proposition 1.13.
- $(iv) \leftrightarrow (ix)$: By Proposition 4.27.
- $(v) \leftrightarrow (xi)$: By Proposition 4.27.
- $(iv) \rightarrow (v)$: Obvious.

 $(v) \rightarrow (iv)$: Let S be a simple R-module. If S is projective, then S is flat and hence P-M-flat; and by Proposition 4.26, S is

P-M-injective. If S is singular then automatically S is P-M-injective. Thus every simple module is P-M-injective.

- $(ii) \rightarrow (iv)$: Clear.
- $(iv) \rightarrow (ii)$: By [28, Theorem 4.8 and Proposition 3.7].

 $(ii) \rightarrow (vi) \rightarrow (vii) \rightarrow (v)$: Clear.

CHAPTER 5.

SI-MODULES

A ring R is called a left SI-ring if every singular left R-module is injective. SI-rings were introduced and studied by K.R. Goodearl. In this chapter we say that a left R-module M is an SI-module provided that every singular left R-module is M-injective. It was shown by K.R. Goodearl [22] that a ring R is a left SI-ring if and only if $Z(_{R}R) = 0$ and for every essential left ideal I of R, R|I is semisimple. Commutative SI-rings were also investigated by V.C. Cateforis and F.L. Sandomierski in [11] and [12]. It was proved in [12] that for a commutative ring R the following are equivalent:

(i) R is an SI-ring.

(ii) R is (von Neumann) regular and R|Soc(R) is semisimple.

In Section 1, we show that results of this type can be obtained for SI-modules. The connections between regular modules, V-modules, GV-modules and SI-modules are studied. We show, among other things, that a finitely generated projective module over a commutative ring is an SI-module if and only if it is a finite direct sum of regular modules each of which has at most two essential submodules.

In Section 2, we introduce and study P-SI-rings. A ring R will be called a left P-SI-ring if every singular left R-module is P-injective. We prove, among many other things, that if R is a ring with essential left socle then R is a left P-SI-ring if and only if $Soc(_RR)$ is projective and $\mathbb{R}|(Soc_{\mathbb{R}}^{\mathbb{R}})$ is a regular ring. Known results for SI-rings are extended to P-SI-rings.

Section 1. SI-modules.

<u>Definition 5.1.1</u>: A left R-module M is called an SI-module (resp. P-SI-module) if every singular left R-module is M-injective (resp. P-M-injective). Clearly every SI-module (resp. P-SI-module) is a GV-module (resp. P-V'-module). A ring R is called a left SI-ring (resp. P-SI-ring) if the left R-module _RR is an SI-module (resp. P-SI-module).

With the same argument used in the proof of Proposition 1.2 one can easily verify the following:

<u>Proposition 5.1.2</u>: (i) Submodules and homomorphic images of SI-modules are also SI-modules.

 (ii) ⊕ M_i is an SI-module if and only if each M_i is an SI-module. i∈I
 Proposition 5.1.3: Suppose that _RM is an SI-module. Then the following statements are true.

(i) Every singular homomorphic image of M is semisimple.

(ii) M|N is semisimple for every essential submodule N of M.

(iii) $J(M) \subseteq Soc(M), Z(M) \subseteq Soc(M) \text{ and } J(M) \cap Z(M) = 0.$

<u>Proof</u>: (i) If L is a singular homomorphic image of M then by Proposition 5.1.2 (i), L is a singular SI-module. Whence every submodule of L, which necessarily has to be singular, is L-injective. Hence every submodule of L is a direct summand of L, and so L is semisimple. (ii) If N is an essential submodule of M then M|N is a singular homomorphic image of M, whence semisimple from above.

(iii) Since Soc(M) is an intersection of essential submodules of M and every proper essential submodule of M is an intersection of maximal submodules, it follows that $J(M) \subseteq Soc(M)$. Since Z(M) is a singular SI-module (since submodules of SI-modules are again SI-modules), by (i) we infer that Z(M) is semisimple, and hence $Z(M) \subseteq Soc(M)$. Since every SI-module is a GV-module, it follows from Proposition 3.2(ii) that $J(M) \cap Z(M) = 0$.

<u>Proposition 5.1.4</u>: For a locally projective module $_{R}^{M}$ the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) M is an SI-module.

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(ii) Z(M) = 0 and every singular homomorphic image of M is semisimple.

(iii) Z(M) = 0 and M|N is semisimple for every essential submodule N of M.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Suppose Z(M) \neq 0 and let x be a non-zero element of Z(M). Then Rx is a singular submodule of M and hence a direct summand of M. Since M is locally projective it follows that Rx is projective. Now consider the following exact sequence of left R-modules 0 \rightarrow Ann_R(x) \rightarrow R $\xrightarrow{\eta}$ Rx \rightarrow 0, where η is given by $\eta(r) = rx$, $\forall r \in \mathbb{R}$. Since Rx is projective the sequence splits, and hence Ann_R(x) is not essential in _RR, contradicting the choice of x. Now the rest of the assertion follows from Proposition 5.1.3(i).

$(ii) \rightarrow (iii)$: Clear.

<u>(iii) \rightarrow (i)</u>: Let L be a singular R-module. We want to show that L is M-injective. So, let N be a proper essential submodule of M and f : N \rightarrow L be any non-zero homomorphism. Let K = Ker(f). We claim that K is essential in N. For, if K \cap I = 0 for some non-zero submodule I of N, then f|I : I \rightarrow L is a monomorphism. So I is a non-zero singular submodule of M, a clear contradiction since Z(M) = 0. Now, since K is essential in M, it follows that M|K is semisimple and N|K is a direct summand of M|K. Whence f can be extended to a map g : M \rightarrow L in the obvious way.

Note that along the lines of the above proof we have shown that every locally projective SI-module is non-singular. In fact with the same argument one can prove the following:

<u>Proposition 5.1.5</u>: Every locally projective P-SI-module is non-singular.

<u>Proposition 5.1.6</u>: Let M be a non-singular module. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) M is an SI-module.

(ii) $Z(L) \subseteq Soc(L)$, for every homomorphic image L of M.

(iii) Every singular homomorphic image of M is semisimple.

(iv) M|N is semisimple, for every essential submodule N of M.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): If L is a homomorphic image of M then L is an SI-module and hence $Z(L) \subseteq Soc(L)$, by Proposition 5.1.3 (iii). The proof of the other implications is similar to that of Proposition 5.1.4. \Box

Observe that if R is a left SI-ring then for any left R-module M, every singular module is M-injective. As a consequence of this observation we have the following:

Proposition 5.1.7: For any ring R the following are equivalent:

(i) R is a left SI-ring.

(ii) Every left R-module is an SI-module.

(iii) Every cyclic left R-module is an SI-module. □

 Proposition 5.1.8:
 For a locally projective module M the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) M is an SI-module with essential socle.

(ii) Soc(M) is projective and M|Soc(M) is semisimple.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Since M is a locally projective SI-module, Z(M) = 0 by Proposition 5.1.4, and hence Soc(M) is projective. Since Soc(M) is essential in M, it follows from Proposition 5.1.3(ii) that M|Soc(M) is semisimple.

(ii) → (i): If Soc(M) ∩ I = 0 for some non-zero submodule I of M, then I \cong (I + Soc(M))|Soc(M) \subseteq M|Soc(M) which implies that I is semisimple and hence I \subseteq Soc(M), a contradiction. Thus Soc(M) is essential in M. Now, if Z(M) is non-zero, then Z(M) ∩ Soc(M) ≠ 0, a contradiction with the projectivity of Soc(M). Thus Z(M) = 0. Now if N is any essential submodule of M then Soc(M) \subseteq N and hence M|N, being a factor module of M|Soc(M), is semisimple, and we can apply Proposition 5.1.6. □

<u>Proposition 5.1.9</u>: Let M be a locally projective module with M|J(M) semisimple. Then the following are equivalent:

(i) M is a GV-module.

(ii) M is an SI-module.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Since M is a GV-module, by Proposition 3.2(ii), it follows that Z(M) \cap J(M) = 0, and hence Z(M) \cong (Z(M) \oplus J(M))|J(M) is a semisimple module being isomorphic to a submodule of the semisimple module M|J(M). This means that Z(M) \subseteq Soc(M). But since M is a locally projective GV-module, by Proposition 3.11, it follows that Z(M) \cap Soc(M) = 0, and hence Z(M) must be zero.

Now Let L be any singular R-module, N any essential submodule of M and f : N \rightarrow L any non-zero R-homomorphism. Let K = Ker(f). Then one can easily see that K is essential in M and hence J(M) \subseteq Soc(M) \subseteq K. Whence N|K is a direct summand of M|K and the map f can be extended to a map g : M \rightarrow L. Therefore M is an SI-module.

 $(ii) \rightarrow (i)$: Obvious.

It was proved in [12, Theorem 1 and Theorem 5] that for a commutative ring R the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) R is an SI-ring.

(ii) R is a regular ring and R|Soc(R) is semisimple.

In [22, Theorem 3.9] K.R. Goodearl has proved that the above conditions are equivalent to saying that:

(iii) R is a finite direct sum of non-singular rings which have at most two essential ideals.

In our next proposition we shall extend these results to modules. But first we need the following lemma which extends [22, Proposition 3.6] to modules.

Lemma 5.1.10: If M is a finitely generated SI-module then M|Soc(M) is Noetherian.

Proof: (Adapted from [22, Proposition 3.6])

We will show that every submodule of M|Soc(M) is finitely generated. Let J = Soc(M) and I be a submodule of M with $I \supseteq J$. Let K be a submodule of I maximal with respect to $K \cap J = 0$. Then $J \oplus K$ is essential in I and $I|(J \oplus K)$ is a singular module. Since $M|(J \oplus K)$ is an SI-module we see that $I|(J \oplus K)$ is a direct summand of $M|(J \oplus K)$. Thus $I|(J \oplus K)$ is finitely generated. Our aim is to show that I|J is finitely generated. From the exactness of the sequence $0 \longrightarrow K \longrightarrow I | J \longrightarrow I | (J \oplus K) \longrightarrow 0$, it suffices to prove that K is finitely generated. We first show that K is finite dimensional. If not, then there exists an infinite direct sum $K_1 \oplus K_2 \oplus \cdots$ of non-zero submodules of K. Since $K \cap J = 0$, none of the K_i are semisimple; whence each K, has a proper essential submodule H. Inasmuch as $M(\Theta H_i)$ -injective, it follows that $(\Theta K_i)|(\Theta H_i)$ is a direct i=1 i=1 i=1 summand of M(\bigoplus H_i) and so is finitely generated, which contradicts i=1 the fact that it is an infinite direct sum of non-zero modules. By the finite dimensionality of K, Let $\{E_i\}_{i=1}^n$ be a maximal family of non-zero
cyclic submodules of K such that the sum $\sum_{i=1}^{N} E_i$ is direct. Clearly

 $E = \bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} E_i$ is essential in K, and hence K|E is singular. Inasmuch as M|E is an SI-module, it follows that K|E is a direct summand of M|E and thus is finitely generated. Whence K is finitely generated. <u>Corollary 5.1.11</u>: If M is a finitely generated regular module then the following statements are equivalent:

(i) M is an SI-module.

(ii) M Soc(M) is semisimple.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Note first M|Soc(M) is Noetherian, by Lemma 5.1.10. We claim that Soc(M) is essential in M, for if $I \cap Soc(M) = 0$ for some non-zero submodule I of M it follows that $I \cong \frac{I \oplus Soc(M)}{Soc(M)} \subseteq M|Soc(M)$, which implies that I is a Noetherian module. And since submodules of regular modules are again regular, we conclude from Lemma 2.5 that I is semisimple. Whence $I \subseteq Soc(M)$, a clear contradiction. Now by Proposition 5.1.3(ii) it follows that M|Soc(M) is semisimple.

 $(\underline{ii}) \rightarrow (\underline{i})$: Since M is a regular module, it follows that every simple submodule is a direct summand and hence projective. Hence Soc(M) is projective. Since M|Soc(M) is semisimple, Soc(M) is essential in M. Inasmuch as M is regular, and hence locally projective, it follows from Proposition 5.1.8 that M is an SI-module.

Following M.S. Shirkhande [41], a module M is called hereditary (resp. semihereditary) if every submodule (resp. finitely generated submodule) of M is projective.

<u>Proposition 5.1.12</u>: If R is a commutative ring and M is a finitely generated projective R-module. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) M is an SI-module.

(ii) M is a regular module and M |Soc(M) is semisimple.

(iii) M is a semihereditary module and M|Soc(M) is semisimple.

(iv) M is non-singular and M|Soc(M) is semisimple.

(v) M is a finite direct sum of regular modules each of which has at most two essential submodules.

(vi) M is a finite direct sum of non-singular modules each of which has at most two essential submodules.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Since every SI-module is a GV-module it follows from Proposition 1.1 that M is a regular module, and hence M|Soc(M) is semisimple by Corollary 5.1.11.

(ii) \rightarrow (iii): Clear, since every regular module is semihereditary (iii) \rightarrow (iv): Clear, since every semihereditary module is non-singular.

 $(v) \rightarrow (vi)$: Obvious since every regular module is non-singular.

 $(\underline{vi}) \rightarrow (\underline{i})$: Let $M = M_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_n$, where each $M_{\underline{i}}$ is non-singular and has at most two essential submodules. By Proposition 5.1.2 (ii), it is enough to show that each $M_{\underline{i}}$ is an SI-module. But if I is any essential submodule of $M_{\underline{i}}$ then $M_{\underline{i}}|I$ is either zero or simple, and by Proposition 5.1.4 (iii) it follows that each $M_{\underline{i}}$ is an SI-module.

 $(iv) \rightarrow (i)$: Let L be any non-zero singular R-module, N any essential submodule of M and f : N \rightarrow L any non-zero R-homomorphism. Let K = Ker(f). Since M is non-singular, it is not difficult to see that K is essential in M, and so Soc(M) \subseteq K. Now since $M|K \cong (M|Soc(M))|(K|Soc(M))$ is a semisimple module, we see that N|K is a direct summand of M|K and the map f can be extended to a map $g : M \rightarrow L$. Whence every singular module is M-injective, and so M is an SI-module.

(ii) \rightarrow (v): Since M Soc(M) is a finite direct sum of simple modules, it has a composition series. We shall prove our assertion by induction on the composition length of M|Soc(M). If $\ell(M|Soc(M)) = 0$, then M = Soc(M) and M is a finite direct sum of simple projective modules. Assume that $\ell(M|Soc(M)) > 0$, then M|Soc(M) has a non-zero simple submodule I|Soc(M). Let K = Soc(M) and choose some $x \in I$ with $x \notin K$. Thus $Rx | (K \cap Rx) \neq 0$. Hence $Rx | (K \cap Rx) \cong I | K$. Because I | K is simple. it follows that $Soc(Rx) = K \cap Rx$ is a maximal submodule of Rx. Inasmuch as M is a regular module we see that Rx is a projective summand of M. Write $M = Rx \oplus N$, for some submodule N of M. Since Soc(Rx) is an intersection of essential submodules of Rx and Soc(Rx) is a maximal submodule of Rx, it follows that Rx has only two essential submodules, namely Rx and Soc(Rx). Since $M|K = \frac{Rx \oplus N}{Soc(Rx \oplus N)} \cong$ $\frac{Rx}{Soc(Rx)} \oplus \frac{N}{Soc(N)}$, We have $\ell(N|Soc(N)) = \ell(M|K) - 1$, and hence may use an inductive hypothesis on the module N.

<u>Remark 5.1.13</u>: The above proposition remains valid if we replace "regular module" by " λ -module", where λ stands for one of the symbols V, GV, P-V, P-V' or P-SI, see Proposition 4.28 and the next proposition.

<u>Proposition 5.1.14</u>: If R is a commutative ring and M is a projective R-module then the following are equivalent:

(i) M is a regular module.

(ii) M is a P-SI-module.

In particular a commutative ring R is regular if and only if R is a P-SI-ring.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): By Proposition 4.7, if M is a projective regular module then every R-module is P-M-injective. Thus M is a P-SI-module. (ii) \rightarrow (i): If M is a P-SI-module then M is a P-V'-module and hence by Proposition 4.28 M is a regular module.

Section 2. P-SI-rings.

Recall that a module $_{R}^{M}$ is said to be P-injective if for any principal left ideal I of R and $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(I,M)$ there exists an element $m \in M$ such that f(x) = xm, for all $x \in I$. It was proved in [56] that a ring R is regular if and only if every R-module is P-injective. A ring R is defined to be a left P-V-ring if every simple left R-module is P-injective. P-V-rings were introduced and studied by Yue Chi Ming in [55] and [56], and by H. Tominaga in [46]. We defined a ring R to be a left P-SI-ring if every singular left R-module is P-injective (Definition 5.1.1). In this section we establish the following characterization: <u>Proposition 5.2.1</u> For a ring R with essential left socle, the following statements are equivalent:

(i) R is a left P-SI-ring.

(ii) $Soc(_{R}R)$ is projective and $R|(Soc_{R}R)$ is a regular ring. (iii) $R|(Soc_{R}R)^{2}$ is a regular ring.

We postpone the proof until some of the ideas involved have been sufficiently developed below.

Let \underline{K} be a two-sided ideal of R. G. Azumaya has proved in [3(II), Proposition 10(ii)] that, every injective right R<u>K</u>-module is injective as a right R-module if and only if R<u>K</u> is flat as a left R-module. For P-injective modules we have the following:

<u>Proposition 5.2.2</u> Let \underline{K} be a two sided ideal of R. Then every P-injective right $R|\underline{K}$ -module is P-injective as a right R-module if and only if $R|\underline{K}$ is flat as a left R-module.

"Only if" part: adapted from [3(II), Proposition 10]. Proof: Let $a \in K$ and consider the right R-modules aR, aK and aR aK. Let ϕ : aR \rightarrow aR | aK denote the canonical quotient mapping. aR aK is annihilated by \underline{K} , and so can be regarded as a right $\mathbb{R}|\underline{K}$ -module. Let Q = E(aR|aK) be the injective hull of the right R|K-module aR|aK. Then Q is P-injective as a right R|K-module, whence P-injective as a right R-module, by assumption. Now the map ϕ : aR \rightarrow Q can be regarded as a map of R-modules. Therefore ϕ can be extended to an R-homomorphism $\overline{\phi}$: $\mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Q}$. Let $\overline{\phi}(1) = y, y \in \mathbb{Q}$. Then $\phi(x) = yx, \forall x \in a\mathbb{R}$. But $aR \subseteq \underline{K}$, and Q is annihilated by \underline{K} , so $yx = 0 \forall x \in aR$. Thus $\phi = 0$, and

aR = a<u>K</u>. Since a was arbitrarly chosen from <u>K</u>, $a \in a\underline{K} \lor a \in K$ and it follows from a well-known result of G. Azumaya [3(II), Proposition 5] that $_{\mathbf{P}}(\mathbf{R}|\underline{K})$ is flat.

"if" part: Suppose $_{R}(R|\underline{K})$ is flat as a left R-module. And let Q be a P-injective right R|<u>K</u>-module. Want to show $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(R|xR,Q) = 0$ for every x ∈ R. So, let x be any element of R and consider the following exact sequence of right R-modules $0 \to xR \to R \to R|xR \to 0$. Since $_{R}(R|\underline{K})$ is flat, it follows that: $(R|\underline{K})|(\underline{K}+xR|\underline{K}) \cong (R|xR) \otimes_{R} (R|\underline{K})$ and that $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(R|xR,Q) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{R|\underline{K}}^{1}(R|xR \otimes_{R} R|\underline{K},Q)$, whence $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(R|xR,Q) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{R|\underline{K}}^{1}(R|(\underline{K}+xR),Q)$. Now since Q is P-injective as a right $R|\underline{K}$ -module and $(\underline{K}+xR)|\underline{K}$ is a principal right ideal of $R|\underline{K}$ we get $\operatorname{Ext}_{R|\underline{K}}^{1}(R|(\underline{K}+xR),Q) = 0$, and so $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(R|xR,Q) = 0$ for every $x \in R$ and Q is P-injective as a right R-module. \Box

With the same argument used in the "if" part of the above proof one can also verify the following:

<u>Proposition 5.2.3</u>: Let <u>K</u> be a two-sided ideal of R, R|K flat as a left R-module and Q a right R|K-module. If Q is P-injective as a right R-module then it is also P-injective as a right R|K-module.

We shall also make use of the following result, which was proved in [6, Proposition 1.4 and Proposition 1.10].

<u>Proposition 5.2.4</u>: For every ring R one has $\operatorname{Soc}_{\underline{P}}(_{R}^{R}) = (\operatorname{Soc}(_{R}^{R}))^{2}$, where $\operatorname{Soc}_{P}(_{R}^{R})$ denotes the projective homogeneous component of the left socle of R. Moreover, if \underline{K} is a two-sided ideal contained in $Soc(_{R}^{R})$, then the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) $\underline{K}^2 = \underline{K}$.

(i) → (ii): By Proposition 5.1.5, since R is a left P-SI-ring, R is left non-singular and so Soc_R^R is projective. Now, in order to show that R|(Soc_R^R) is a regular ring we must prove that every left R|(Soc_R^R)-module is P-injective. So, let M be a left R|(Soc_R^R)-module. Since $\operatorname{Soc}(_R^R)$ is essential in $_R^R$ it follows that M is a singular left R-module, whence M is P-injective as a left R-module. Now since $\operatorname{Soc}(_R^R)$ is projective, it follows from Proposition 5.2.4 that R|(Soc_R^R) is flat as a right R-module and so by Proposition 5.2.3, it follows that M is P-injective as a left R|(Soc_R^R)-module.

(ii) \rightarrow (iii): Inasmuch as $\text{Soc}_{R}R$ is projective, it follows from Proposition 5.2.4 that $\text{Soc}_{R}R = (\text{Soc}_{R}R)^{2}$ and hence $R|(\text{Soc}_{R}R)^{2}$ is a regular ring.

 $\underbrace{(\text{iii}) \rightarrow (\text{i})}: \text{ Since } \mathbb{R} | (\operatorname{Soc}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R})^2 \text{ is a regular ring, and hence fully} \\ \text{right idempotent, it follows from [5, Proposition 1.4] that } \operatorname{Soc}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R} \text{ is} \\ \text{projective and hence by Proposition 5.2.4, we have } (\operatorname{Soc}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R})^2 = \operatorname{Soc}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R}, \\ \text{whence } \mathbb{R} | (\operatorname{Soc}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R}) \text{ is a regular ring. Now let } \mathbb{M} \text{ be any singular left} \\ \mathbb{R}\text{-module. By the singularity of } \mathbb{M} \text{ we have } (\operatorname{Soc}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R}) \cdot \mathbb{M} = 0, \text{ and so } \mathbb{M} \text{ can} \\ \text{be regarded as a left } \mathbb{R} | (\operatorname{Soc}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R})\text{-module. Since } \mathbb{R} | (\operatorname{Soc}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R}) \text{ is a regular} \\ \text{ring, } \mathbb{M} \text{ is } \mathbb{P}\text{-injective as a left } \mathbb{R} | (\operatorname{Soc}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R})\text{-module. By Proposition} \\ \end{aligned}$

5.2.4, since $\text{Soc}_{R}R$ is projective, $(R|\text{Soc}_{R}R)_{R}$ is flat as a right R-module. Now by Proposition 5.2.2, it follows that M is P-injective as a left R-module. Hence R is a left P-SI-ring.

We do not know whether Proposition 5.2.1 holds for modules. However we have the following:

<u>Proposition 5.2.5</u>: Let M be a left R-module. If Soc(M) is projective and M|Soc(M) is a regular module then M is a P-SI-module. <u>Proof</u>: Let N be a cyclic submodule of M, L a singular R-module and $f : N \rightarrow L$ a non-zero homomorphism. We want to show that f can be extended to a map $g : M \rightarrow L$. Let K = Ker(f). If K \cap I = 0 for some non-zero submodule I of N, then f : I \rightarrow L is a monomorphism and I is a non-zero singular submodule of M. Thus I \cap Soc(M) = 0, and hence I \cong (I + Soc(M))|Soc(M) \subseteq M|Soc(M), which implies that I is a regular submodule of M. But since every regular module is non-singular, it follows that Z(I) = 0, a clear contradiction with the singularity of I. Thus K is essential in N, and hence Soc(N) \subseteq K.

Now define ϕ : N|Soc(N) \rightarrow (N + Soc(M))|Soc(M), by $\phi(n + Soc(N)) = n + Soc(M)$. Then ϕ is an isomorphism. Let $\overline{}$: M \rightarrow M|Soc(M) denote the canonical quotient map, and write $\overline{M} = M|Soc(M)$. Since \overline{M} is a regular module and \overline{N} is a cyclic submodule of \overline{M} , we can write $\overline{M} = \overline{N} \oplus \overline{T}$, for some submodule \overline{T} of \overline{M} . Since $soc(N) \subseteq Ker(f)$, there is a map \widetilde{f} : N|Soc(N) \rightarrow L, such that $\widetilde{f}(n + Soc(N)) = f(n)$. Thus $\widetilde{f} \circ \phi^{-1}$: $\overline{N} \rightarrow L$. Extend ($\widetilde{f} \circ \phi^{-1}$) to a map \widetilde{g} : $\overline{M} = \overline{N} \oplus \overline{T} \rightarrow L$ in the obvious way. Define g : $M \rightarrow L$, by $g(m) = \widetilde{g}(\overline{m}), \forall m \in M$. Now if $x \in N$ then:

$$g(x) = \tilde{g}(\bar{x}) = g(x + \text{Soc}(M))$$
$$= (\tilde{f} \circ \phi^{-1})(x + \text{Soc}(M))$$
$$= \tilde{f}(\phi^{-1}(x + \text{Soc}(M)))$$
$$= \tilde{f}(x + \text{Soc}(N))$$
$$= f(x).$$

Thus the map g is the required map.

It was proved in [22, Proposition 3.5] that for a ring R with R|J(R) semisimple, the following statements are equivalent:

(i)
$$Z_{n}(R) = 0$$
 and R is a right SI-ring.

(ii)
$$Z_r(R) = 0$$
 and $[J(R)]^2 = 0$.

- (iii) $Z_{\ell}(R) = 0$ and $[J(R)]^2 = 0$.
- (iv) $Z_{\ell}(R) = 0$ and R is a left SI-ring.

However in view of our Proposition 5.1.5, R is a right SI-ring $\Rightarrow Z_r(R) = 0$ (similarly R is a left SI-ring $\Rightarrow Z_{\ell}(R) = 0$). Thus in (i) we can remove the condition $Z_r(R) = 0$ (similarly in (iv) we can remove the condition $Z_{\ell}(R) = 0$).

In the next Proposition we shall prove also that, under the same hypothesis, a ring R is a right P-SI-ring if and only if R is a left P-SI-ring.

<u>Proposition 5.2.6</u>: If R is a ring with R|J(R) semisimple, then the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) R is a right SI-ring.

(ii) R is a left SI-ring.

- (iii) $Z_r(R) = 0$ and $[J(R)]^2 = 0$.
- (iv) $Z_{g}(R) = 0$ and $[J(R)]^{2} = 0$.
- (v) R is a right P-SI-ring.
- (vi) R is a left P-SI-ring.
- (vii) R is a right GV-ring.
- (viii) R is a left GV-ring.
- (ix) R is a right P-V'-ring.
- (x) R is a left P-V'-ring.
- (xi) R is right semihereditary and $[J(R)]^2 = 0$.
- (xii) R is left semihereditary and $[J(R)]^2 = 0$.
- (xiii) R is right hereditary and $[J(R)]^2 = 0$.
- (xiv) R is left hereditary and $[J(R)]^2 = 0$.

$$\underline{Proof}: (v) \rightarrow (ix): Clear.$$

(ix) → (iii): Inasmuch as R is a right P-V'-ring, $[J(R)]^2 = 0$ and $J(R) \cap Z_r(R) = 0$, by Proposition 4.11. Hence

 $Z_r(R) \cong \frac{J(R) \oplus Z_r(R)}{J(R)} \subseteq R|J(R)$. Whence $Z_r(R)$ is a semisimple right

R-module and so $Z_r(R) \subseteq Soc(R_R)$. But since R is a right P-V'-ring it

follows that every minimal right ideal of R must be projective.

Therefore
$$Z_r(R) = 0$$
.

- (iii) \rightarrow (i): By [22, Proposition 3.5].
- $(i) \rightarrow (v)$: Obvious.

 $(x) \leftrightarrow (vi) \leftrightarrow (iv) \leftrightarrow (ii)$: By symmetry.

- (i) \leftrightarrow (ii): By [22, Proposition 3.5].
- (i) \leftrightarrow (vii): By Proposition 5.1.8.

 $(xiii) \rightarrow (xi)$: Clear.

 $\underline{(xi)} \rightarrow \underline{(iii)}$: If x is any non-zero element of R then the sequence $0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(x) \rightarrow R \rightarrow xR \rightarrow 0$ splits, where $\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(x)$ denotes the right annihilator of x in R. Whence $Z_{r}(R) = 0$.

(i) \rightarrow (xiii): By [22, Proposition 3.3].

 $(xiv) \leftrightarrow (xii) \leftrightarrow (iv) \leftrightarrow (i)$: By symmetry.

Finally we conclude this section with the following. <u>Proposition 5.2.7</u>: For a left self-injective ring R, the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) R is a left P-SI-ring.

(ii) R is a regular ring.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): By Proposition 5.1.5, since R is a left P-SI-ring it follows that R is left non-singular. And since R is left self-injective, J(R) = 0 and R is a regular ring.

(ii) \rightarrow (i): Since R is a regular ring, every R-module is P-injective, in particular every singular left R-module is P-injective, and hence R is a left P-SI-ring.

CHAPTER 6.

MORE ON V-MODULES

In this chapter we show that V-modules can be as useful as semisimple modules in characterizing different types of rings. We characterize rings whose V-modules are injective, rings whose singular V-modules are injective and non-singular rings whose singular modules are V-modules.

<u>Proposition 6.1</u>: A ring R is semisimple Artinian if and only if every V-module is injective.

<u>Proof</u>: If R is semisimple Artinian then every R-module is injective. Conversely, if every V-module is injective then in particular every simple R-module is injective and hence R is a left V-ring. Therefore, ~ every R-module is a V-module and hence injective. Thus R is semisimple Artinian.

Recall that a ring R is a left SI-ring if every singular left R-module is injective. In the next proposition we characterize SI-rings in terms of V-modules.

Propsition 6.2: The following are equivalent for a ring R.

(i) R is a left SI-ring.

(ii) Every singular V-module is injective.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Clear.

<u>(ii) \rightarrow (i)</u>: Let M be a singular R-module. We want to show that J(M) = 0. Let $0 \neq x \in M$. By Zorn's lemma, let L be a submodule of M maximal with respect to $x \notin L$. Let $\overline{} : M \rightarrow M|L$ denote the canonical

quotient map and write $\bar{x} = x + L \in M|L$. Clearly the left R-module $R\bar{x}$ is a simple singular essential submodule of M|L. By hypothesis, since $R\bar{x}$ is injective, it is a direct summand of M|L. But since $R\bar{x}$ is essential in M|L, $R\bar{x} = M|L$ and hence L is a maximal submodule of M with $x \notin L$. Therefore J(M) = 0.

Now if N is any submodule of M then M[N is singular, and hence J(M|N) = 0 by the earlier paragraph. Whence every proper submodule of M is an intersection of maximal submodules; therefore M is a V-module, and so injective by hypothesis. Hence R is a left SI-ring. \Box <u>Proposition 6.3</u>: If R is a left GV-ring, then every singular R-module is a V-module.

<u>Proof</u>: Let M be a singular R-module. Since R is a left GV-ring, every R-module is a GV-module. Therefore $J(M|N) \cap Z(M|N) = 0$ for every submodule N of M, see Proposition 3.2(ii). Since M is singular, J(M|N) = 0 for every submodule N of M. Thus M is a V-module.

We do not know whether the converse to Proposition 6.3 holds. However, for non-singular rings we have the following.

<u>Proposition 6.4</u>: If R is a left non-singular ring then the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) R is a left GV-ring.

(ii) Every singular left R-module is a V-module.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): By Proposition 6.3.

<u>(ii) \rightarrow (i)</u>: By Proposition 3.10 it is enough to show that every singular cofinitely generated left R-module is semisimple.

Let L be a singular cofinitely generated left R-module. By hypothesis L is a cofinitely generated V-module and hence a finite direct sum of simple modules by Proposition 1.1(vi).

CHAPTER 7.

V-TORSION THEORY

In this chapter we will follow the terminology of Stenström [44] and Varadarajan [48]. As we have seen in Proposition 1.2, the class of left V-modules is closed under submodules, homomorphic images and arbitrary direct sums, and so is a herditary pretorsion class which will be denoted by \underline{C}_{ν} . If M·is an arbitrary left R-module and $\nu(M)$ denotes the sum of all submodules of M belonging to \underline{C}_{ν} , then clearly $\nu(M) \in \underline{C}_{\nu}$ as well. In this way \underline{C}_{ν} gives rise to a preradical ν of R-mod, and ν is clearly left exact. By [44, Proposition 4.2] we get a pretorsion theory $(\underline{C}_{\nu}, \underline{F}_{\nu})$ for R-mod with

$$\underline{\underline{C}}_{\nu} = \{ \underline{M} \in \mathbb{R}\text{-mod}; \quad \nu(\underline{M}) = \underline{M} \}$$
$$\underline{\underline{F}}_{\nu} = \{ \underline{M} \in \mathbb{R}\text{-mod}; \quad \nu(\underline{M}) = 0 \}$$

and $F = \{I : I \text{ is a left ideal of } R \text{ with } R | I \in \underline{\underline{C}}_{\nu}\}$ the corresponding linear topology.

In 7.1.1, an example is given to show that \underline{C}_{ν} is not necessarily closed under extensions, and so in general ν is not a radical. Thus, Amitsur's transfinite process of associating a left exact radical $\overline{\nu}$ with ν yields an ascending series of preradicals $\{\nu_{\alpha}\}$ for each ordinal α , and gives rise to a ν -Lowey series for each module M.

In the first part of this chapter we study the class \underline{C}_{ν} and its associated left exact preradical ν . We prove, among other things, that \underline{C}_{ν} is closed under direct products if and only if $\mathbb{R}|J(\mathbb{R})$ is a left.

V-ring, and in this case $\nu(M) = r_M(J(R))$, a result which was noted by K.R. Fuller in [21]. We also show that \underline{C}_{ν} is closed under injective envelopes (i.e. stable) if and only if R is a left V-ring. In Proposition 7.1.10, it is proved that a ring R is a left V-ring if and only if the class \underline{C}_{ν} has the lifting property (L.P), (see [48]).

In the second part, we study the ν -Loewy series and obtain results similar to known results on the usual Loewy series associated to the left exact preradical Soc. An example is given to show that there are V-modules with zero socle. A ring R will be called a left semi-V-ring if every left R-module has a V-submodule. Clearly every semiartinian ring is a semi-V-ring but not vice-versa. In his work on perfect rings, H. Bass has proved that if R is a semiartinian ring then J(R) is left T-nilpotent. We shall extend this result to a larger class of rings, namely the class of semi-V-rings. We show that a ring R is a left semi-V-ring if and only if J(R) is left T-nilpotent and R|J(R) is a left semi-V-ring.

We shall also investigate finite or infinite sequences of submodules, of a given module M, of the form $\{0\} = M_0 \subseteq M_1 \subseteq M_2 \subseteq \cdots$ or of the form $M = M^0 \supseteq M^1 \supseteq \cdots$, where all the factor modules $M_{i+1}|M_i$ or $M^i|M^{i+1}$ are V-modules. Many known properties of such series (with factor modules being semisimple) for a module over a ring R with R|J(R)semisimple will be generalized.

<u>Section 1</u>. On the preradical ν .

We start this section with an example to show that in general ν is not a radical.

Example 7.1.1: Consider the following exact sequence of abelian groups $0 \rightarrow Z_p \rightarrow Z_p \rightarrow Z_p \rightarrow 0$. Since every simple module is a V-module, $\nu(Z_p) = Z_p$. And since $J(Z_p 2) = Z_p \neq 0$, $Z_p 2$ is not a V-module (in fact $\nu(Z_p 2) = Z_p$). Thus the class of V-modules is not necessarily closed under extensions, whence in general ν is not a radical.

Note that since there are left V-rings which are not right V-rings (and vise-versa), it follows that $\nu(R_R) \neq \nu(R_R)$, i.e. ν is not left-right symmetric.

$$\frac{\text{Proposition 7.1.2:}}{I \in F} \quad \text{(i)} \quad J(\mathbb{R}) = \bigcap I_{\mathcal{I}}$$

(ii) $J(R) = \bigcap_{M \in \underline{C}} Ann_{R}(M)$.

(iii) $\nu(R^R) \le \nu(M)$, for every left R-module M, (a fact which is valid for any preradical σ).

(iv) If M is a cofinitely generated module then $\nu(M) = Soc(M)$.

(v) $\nu({}_{R}R) \cap J(R)$ and $\nu(R_{R}) \cap J(R)$ are nilpotent ideals. In particular if R is a semiprime ring then $\nu({}_{R}R) \cap J(R) = \nu(R_{R}) \cap J(R) = 0$.

(vi) If R is a left Noetherian ring with $\text{Soc}_{R} R \neq 0$, then $\text{Soc}_{R} R$ is a direct summand of $\nu(R)$.

<u>Proof</u>: The proof of (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv) are straightforward. (v): Set $A = \nu(R^R) \cap J(R)$. Since R^A is a left V-module it follows that J(A) = 0 and hence J(R)A = 0. But since $A \subseteq J(R)$, we get AA = 0, i.e. $A^2 = 0$. Similarly $[\nu(R_R) \cap J(R)]^2 = 0$.

(iv) Let $J = Soc(_RR)$ and $K = \nu(_RR)$. Since $_RK$ is a noetherian left V-module and $_RJ$ is a semisimple submodule of $_RK$, it follows from Proposition 2.2 that $_RJ$ is a direct summand of $_RK$. Note that if M is a V-module then J(M) = 0 and hence J(R)M = 0, i.e. every V-module is an R|J(R)-module. Also if R|J(R) is a left V-ring and M is a left R-module with J(R)M = 0, then M is an R|J(R)-module and hence M is a V-module as an R|J(R)-module, whence a V-module as a left R-module, observing that R-submodules of M are the same as R|J(R)-submodules of M.

Now if $\mathbb{R}|J(\mathbb{R})$ is a semisimple ring and M is a left V-module then by the above remarks M is semisimple. In particular if \mathbb{R}^{M} is a V-module over a semiperfect ring then \mathbb{R}^{M} is semisimple. In the next proposition we show that if $\mathbb{R}|J(\mathbb{R})$ is a left V-ring then $\nu(M) = r_{M}(J(\mathbb{R}))$ (a fact which was noted by K.R. Fuller in [21]). In particular if $\mathbb{R}|J(\mathbb{R})$ is semisimple then $\nu(M) = \operatorname{Soc}(M) = r_{M}(J(\mathbb{R}))$, for every R-module M.

<u>Proposition 7.1.3</u>: The following conditions on a ring R are equivalent:

(i) R|J(R) is a left V-ring.

(ii) J(M) = J(R)M for every left R-module M.

(iii) \underline{C}_{ν} is closed under direct products.

(iv) $J(M|N) = \frac{J(M) + N}{N}$, for every $_{R}M$ and every submodule N of M.

(v) The Jacobson radical J preserves epimorphisms (i.e., if $M \xrightarrow{g} L \longrightarrow 0$ is exact then $J(M) \xrightarrow{g} J(L) \longrightarrow 0$ is exact).

(vi) The class $\tau = \{M \in R - mod: J(M) = 0\}$ is closed under quotients.

And in this case $\nu(M) = r_M(J(R))$, for every left R-module M.

<u>Proof</u> (i) \rightarrow (ii): Let $_{\mathbb{R}}^{\mathsf{M}}$ be a left \mathbb{R} -module. The factor module $\mathsf{M}|\mathsf{J}(\mathbb{R})\mathsf{M}$ is an $\mathbb{R}|\mathsf{J}(\mathbb{R})$ -module, and since $\mathbb{R}|\mathsf{J}(\mathbb{R})$ is a left V-ring, $\mathsf{M}|\mathsf{J}(\mathbb{R})\mathsf{M}$ is a V-module. Thus $\mathsf{J}(\mathsf{M}|\mathsf{J}(\mathbb{R})\mathsf{M}) = 0$. But since $\mathsf{J}(\mathbb{R})\mathsf{M} \subseteq \mathsf{J}(\mathsf{M})$, for every module M , it follows that $0 = \mathsf{J}(\mathsf{M}|\mathsf{J}(\mathbb{R})\mathsf{M}) = \frac{\mathsf{J}(\mathsf{M})}{\mathsf{J}(\mathbb{R})\mathsf{M}}$, and hence $\mathsf{J}(\mathsf{M}) = \mathsf{J}(\mathbb{R})\mathsf{M}$.

<u>(ii) \rightarrow (i)</u>: Suppose J(M) = J(R)M for every left R-module M. Now, if M is an R|J(R)-module then J(R)M = 0 and hence J(M) = 0. Thus R|J(R) is a left V-ring.

 $\underbrace{(i) \longrightarrow (iv)}: \text{ Let } M \text{ be a left } R\text{-module and } N \text{ a submodule of } M. \text{ Let } \\ \varphi : M|N \longrightarrow M|(J(M) + N) \text{ denote the canonical quotient map. Then } \\ \text{Ker}(\varphi) = \frac{J(M) + N}{N} \text{ . Inasmuch as } R|J(R) \text{ is a left } V\text{-ring, we infer that } \\ M|(J(M) + N) \text{ is a } V\text{-module (being isomorphic to a factor module of the } \\ V\text{-module } M|J(M)). \text{ Thus } J\left(\frac{M}{J(M) + N}\right) = 0, \text{ and hence } \varphi(J(M|N)) = 0, \text{ which } \\ \text{implies that } J(M|N) \subseteq \text{Ker}(\varphi) = \frac{J(M) + N}{N} \text{ . Since } \frac{J(M) + N}{N} \subseteq J(M|N) \text{ is } \\ \text{always true, we conclude that } J(M|N) = \frac{J(M) + N}{N} \text{ . }$

 $(iv) \rightarrow (i)$: Let A|J(R) be a left ideal of R|J(R). Since $J(R|A) = \frac{J(R) + A}{A} = 0$, it follows that A is an intersection of maximal left ideals of R and hence A|J(R) is an intersection of maximal left ideals of $\mathbb{R}|J(\mathbb{R})$. Thus $\mathbb{R}|J(\mathbb{R})$ is a left V-ring. (ii) \rightarrow (v): Let M \xrightarrow{f} N \rightarrow 0 be exact. Then assuming (ii), f(J(M)) = f(J(R)M) = J(R)f(M) = J(R)N = J(N), whence $J(M) \xrightarrow{f} J(N) \longrightarrow 0$ is exact. $(\underline{v}) \longrightarrow (\underline{i}\underline{i}): \text{ For any } m \in M, \text{ define } \mu_{\underline{m}} : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow M \text{ by } \mu_{\underline{m}}(r) = rm.$ Then $\mu_m(J(R)) = J(R)m$ and the maps $\{\mu_m\}_{m \in M}$ determine an epimorphism μ : R^(M) \rightarrow M, where R^(M) denote the direct sum of M copies of R. By (v), we have $J(M) = \mu(J(R^{(M)})) = \mu((J(R))^{(M)}) = J(R)M$. $(v) \rightarrow (vi)$: Let M \xrightarrow{f} N \longrightarrow O be an exact sequence in R-mod with J(M) = 0. By (v), 0 = f(J(M)) = J(N). Whence $N \in \tau$. $(\underline{vi}) \rightarrow (\underline{v})$: Let $M \xrightarrow{f} N \longrightarrow 0$ be an exact sequence in R-mod. We must show that f(J(M)) = J(N). Inasmuch as J is a preradical, we have $f(J(M)) \subseteq J(N)$. And since J is a radical, we have J(N|f(J(M))) = J(N)|f(J(M)). Let $M|J(M) \xrightarrow{\overline{f}} N|f(J(M)) \longrightarrow 0$ be the map induced by f in the obvious way. Since J(M|J(M)) = 0, it follows from (vi) that J(N|f(J(M))) = 0. Whence J(N)|f(J(M)) = 0, and so J(N) = f(J(M)).

Now suppose that one of the above conditions is satisfied. We want to show that $\nu(M) = r_M(J(R))$. Clearly $\nu(M)$ is contained in $r_M(J(R))$. And if $m \in r_M(J(R))$ then Rm is an R|J(R)-module and hence a V-module, therefore $Rm \subseteq \nu(M)$, i.e. $m \in \nu(M)$. Thus $\nu(M) = r_M(J(R))$. \Box

<u>Corollary 7.1.4</u>: Let R be a ring with $\mathbb{R}|J(\mathbb{R})$ semisimple. Then $\nu(M) = Soc(M) = r_M(J(\mathbb{R})).$

<u>Proof</u>: By Proposition 7.1.3 and [2, Proposition 15.17].

(i) R is a left V-ring.

(ii) <u>C</u>, is closed under injective envelopes.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Clear, since \underline{C}_{ν} = R-mod, when R is a left V-ring. (ii) \rightarrow (i): Let S be a simple R-module. Since E(S) is a cofinitely generated V-module, it is semisimple by Proposition 1.1. Therefore S = E(S) and hence S is injective. Whence R is a left V-ring. <u>Proposition 7.1.6</u>: The following conditions on a ring R are equivalent:

(i) R is a left V-ring.

(ii) R is a left GV-ring and \underline{C}_{ν} is closed under extensions. <u>Proof:</u> (i) \rightarrow (ii): Clear, since \underline{C}_{ν} = R-mod, when R is a left V-ring. (ii) \rightarrow (i): Let S be a simple left R-module and consider the exact sequence $0 \rightarrow S \rightarrow E(S) \rightarrow E(S) | S \rightarrow 0$. Inasmuch as R is a left GV-ring and E(S) | S is a singular module, it follows from Proposition 6.3 that E(S) | S is a V-module. Whence E(S) is a cofinitely generated V-module and hence semisimple by Proposition 1.1. Therefore S = E(S) and S is injective. Whence R is a left V-ring. \Box <u>Proposition 7.1.7</u>: For a left non-singular ring R the following statements are true: (i) R is a left SI-ring if and only if $Z(L) \subseteq Soc(L)$ for every left R-module L.

(ii) R is a left GV-ring if and only if $Z(L) \subseteq \nu(L)$ for every left R-module L.

Proof: See Proposition 5.1.6 (ii) and Proposition 6.4.

Now, as in [48], let $\underline{\mathbb{G}}_{c}$, $\underline{\mathbb{G}}_{f}$, $\underline{\mathbb{G}}_{n}$, $\underline{\mathbb{G}}_{ss}$ and respectively $\underline{\mathbb{G}}_{a}$ denote the class of cyclic, finitely generated, noetherian, semisimple, respectively artinian R-modules, and let $\underline{\mathbb{G}}_{s}$ denote the class constituted by all simple R-modules and the zero module. Define the classes $\underline{\mathbb{T}}^{\lambda}$ and the functions $\underline{\mathbb{G}}_{\lambda}$ in R-mod as follows: $\underline{\mathbb{T}}^{\lambda} = \{M : \forall N \subseteq M, M | N \notin \underline{\mathbb{C}}_{\lambda}\}$ and $\underline{\mathbb{G}}_{\lambda}(M) = \bigcap\{N : N \subseteq M \text{ and } M | N \in \underline{\mathbb{C}}_{\lambda}\},$ where λ stands for any one of the symbols c, f, s, ss, a or ν . Also let $\underline{\mathbb{T}}_{T} = \{M : J(M) = M\}.$

It was proved in [48, Proposition 1.3] that for any ring R, $\underline{\underline{T}}^{C} = \underline{\underline{T}}^{f} = \underline{\underline{T}}^{s} = \underline{\underline{T}}^{ss}$. In the next proposition we show that $\underline{\underline{T}}^{\nu} = \underline{\underline{T}}^{\lambda}$, where λ stands for one of the symbols c, f, n, s or ss. <u>Proposition 7.1.8</u>: $\underline{\underline{T}}^{\nu} = \underline{\underline{T}}^{s}$.

<u>Proof</u>: Since every simple R-module is a V-module then clearly $\underline{C}_{s} \subseteq \underline{C}_{\nu}$ and $\underline{\underline{T}}^{\nu} \subseteq \underline{\underline{T}}^{s}$. Conversely, if there is an R-module M with $M \in \underline{\underline{T}}^{s}$ and $M \notin \underline{\underline{T}}^{\nu}$, then there exists a proper submodule N of M with $M|N \in \underline{C}_{\nu}$. Since V-modules have maximal submodules, let L|M be a maximal submodule of M|N. Then L is a proper submodule of M with $M|L \in \underline{C}_{s}$, which is a clear contradiction. <u>Remarks</u>: (i) Since $\underline{\underline{T}}_{J} = \{M : J(M) = M\} = \{M : \forall N \subseteq M, M | N \notin \underline{\underline{C}}_{S}\}$. Then $\underline{\underline{T}}^{\nu} = \underline{\underline{T}}^{S} = \underline{\underline{T}}_{J}$. Whence by [48, Corollary 1.2(i)] $\underline{\underline{T}}^{\nu}$ is a torsion class.

(ii) Since the class of V-modules is closed under submodules it follows from [48, Proposition 1.5] that G_{ν} is a radical. And we have the following:

Proposition 7.1.9: For any R-module M we have

$$J(M) = G_{S}(M) = G_{SS}(M) = G_{\nu}(M)$$

<u>Proof</u>: $G_{\nu}(M) = \bigcap \{N : N \subseteq M \text{ and } M | N \in \underline{C}_{\nu} \}$. Clearly if L is a maximal submodule of M then $G_{\nu}(M) \subseteq L$, and hence $G_{\nu}(M) \subseteq J(M)$. Conversely, if N is a submodule of M with $M | N \in \underline{C}_{\nu}$, then N is an intersection of maximal submodules of M, thus $J(M) \subseteq N$. Whence $J(M) \subseteq G_{\nu}(M)$. \Box

Following K. Varadarajan [48, Definition 2.3], a class $\underline{\mathbb{C}}$ of modules is said to have the lifting property (L.P) if $M \xrightarrow{\varphi} N \longrightarrow 0$ is exact in R-mod, and $B \subseteq N$, $B \in \underline{\mathbb{C}}$ implies the existence of an $A \subseteq M$ with $A \in \underline{\mathbb{C}}$ and $\phi(A) = B$.

It was proved in [48, Theorem 2.6] that for a ring R the following are equivalent:

(i) R is semisimple artinian.

- (ii) The class $\underline{\underline{C}}_{ss}$ has the L.P.
- (iii) The class \underline{C}_{s} has the L.P.

For left V-rings we obtain the following.

Proposition 7.1.10: For any ring R the following are equivalent:

- (i) R is a left V-ring.
- (ii) The class \underline{C}_{μ} has the L.P.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii): Since $\underline{C}_{\nu} = \mathbb{R}$ -mod, when R is a left V-ring. (ii) \rightarrow (i): First we show that $\nu(M) \neq 0$ for any non-zero left R-module M. Let M be a non-zero left R-module and let $0 \neq x \in M$. Since Rx is finitely generated, it has a maximal submodule L. If $S = \mathbb{R}x | L$, then S is a simple R-module and hence a V-module. By (ii) and the exactness of the sequence $\mathbb{R}x \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{R}x | L = S \longrightarrow 0$, there exists a submodule N of Rx with $N \in \underline{C}_{\nu}$ and $\varphi(N) = S$. Now, since N is a V-module, $\nu(\mathbb{R}x) \neq 0$, and since ν is a preradical, $\nu(M) \neq 0$.

Now, we want to show that every left R-module is a V-module. Suppose M is a non-zero left R-module with $\nu(M) \neq M$. Then $N = M|\nu(M) \neq 0$ and hence $\nu(N) \neq 0$ by the earlier paragraph. Let $\overline{x} = x + \nu(M)$ be a non-zero element of $\nu(N)$. Then $R\overline{x}$ is a left V-module. If the map $\eta : M \to M|\nu(M)$ denotes the canonical mapping, then the sequence $\eta^{-1}(R\overline{x}) \xrightarrow{\eta'} R\overline{x} \to 0$ is exact, where $\eta' = \eta|\eta^{-1}(R\overline{x})$. Now, since $R\overline{x} \in \underline{C}_{\nu}$, there exists a submodule $A \subseteq \eta^{-1}(R\overline{x}) \subseteq M$ with $A \in \underline{C}_{\nu}$ and $\eta(A) = R\overline{x}$. But since A is a V-submodule of M, $A \subseteq \nu(M)$. And since $\nu(M) \subseteq \operatorname{Ker}(\eta'), \eta'(A) = 0$; whence $R\overline{x} = 0$, a clear contradiction. Thus $\nu(M) = M$ for every left R-module M. Whence R is a left V-ring. \Box

Section 2. ν -Loewy series.

The socle series for a module M is defined transfinitely by $\operatorname{Soc}_{0}(M) = 0$, $\operatorname{Soc}_{\alpha+1}(M) |\operatorname{Soc}_{\alpha}(M) = \operatorname{Soc}(M|\operatorname{Soc}_{\alpha}(M))$ and, if α is a limit ordinal, $\operatorname{Soc}_{\alpha}(M) = \bigcup_{\beta < \alpha} \operatorname{Soc}_{\beta}(M)$, see [17, P.470]. If $M = \operatorname{Soc}_{\alpha}(M)$ for some ordinal α , M is called a Loewy module [9], [20] and its Loewy length is the smallest such ordinal α . A ring R is called a left Loewy ring (or said to be left semi-artinian) in case _RR is a Loewy module or, equivalently, every non-zero left R-module contains a simple submodule, such rings were also called left socular rings by C. Faith in [17].

Loewy rings and Loewy series have been studied by many authors (e.g. H. Bass [7], S.E. Dickson [16], M Teply [45], C. Nastasescu and N. Popescu [33], T. Shores [42], [43], L. Fuchs [20], V.P. Camillo and K.R. Fuller [9] and John Dauns [15]).

The aim of this section is to introduce the notion of ν -Loewy series, ν -Loewy rings and obtain results similar to known results on the usual Loewy series and Loewy rings.

<u>Definition 7.2.1</u>: Let M be a left R-module. The ν -Loewy series for M is defined transfinitely by

$$\begin{split} \nu_0^{}(M) &= 0 \\ \nu_{\alpha+1}^{}(M) \left| \nu_{\alpha}^{}(M) \right| &= \nu(M \left| \nu_{\alpha}^{}(M) \right|), \text{ and} \\ \nu_{\alpha}^{}(M) &= \bigcup_{\beta \leq \alpha} \nu_{\beta}^{}(M), \text{ if } \alpha \text{ is a limit ordinal.} \end{split}$$

The set $\{\nu_i(M)\}_i$ is sometimes called the ascending ν -Loewy chain of M.

For each module $_{\rm R}^{\rm M}$ there is a smallest ordinal λ , not exceeding the cardinality of M, such that $\nu_{\lambda}({\rm M}) = \nu_{\lambda+1}({\rm M})$. In this case $\lambda = \lambda({\rm M})$ will be called the ν -length of M (is also called the ν -Loewy length of M). If $\nu_{\lambda}({\rm M}) = {\rm M}$, we shall say M is a ν -Loewy module (or a semi-V-module). A ring R is called a ν -Lowey ring (or a semi-V-ring) if $_{\rm B}^{\rm R}$ is a ν -Loewy module. The functor $\overline{\nu}$ on R-mod defined by

$$\overline{\nu}(M) = \nu_{\lambda(M)}(M)$$

is the smallest radical such that $\nu \leq \overline{\nu}$. A module M will be called a $\overline{\nu}$ -module if $\overline{\nu}(M) = M$. We state some useful remarks:

<u>Remarks 7.2.2</u>: (i) $Soc_{\alpha}(M) \subseteq \nu_{\alpha}(M), \forall \alpha$.

(ii) Each ν_{α} is a left exact preradical.

(iii) A left R-module M is a $\overline{\nu}$ -module if and only if M is a semi-V-module if and only if every non-zero homomorphic image of M has a non-zero V-submodule.

(iv) A ring R is a left semi-V-ring if and only if every left R-module has a V-submodule, if and only if $\nu(M)$ is essential in M, for every left R-module M, if and only if every left R-module is a semi-V-module. (v) $\overline{\nu}$ is a left exact radical.

(vi) $\nu(M)$ is an essential submodule of $\overline{\nu}(M)$.

(vii) For every left R-module M, $\overline{\nu}(M)$ is the smallest submodule L of M such that $M|L \in \underline{F}_{\nu}$ (i.e. $\nu(M|L) = 0$).

Next we give an example of a left semi-V-ring which is not left semi-artinian. Thus there are V-modules with zero socle.

<u>Example 7.2.3</u>: consider the ring R = k[y,D] of differential

polynomials over a universal field k. In [14], Cozzens has proved that R has the following properties:

(i) R is a left Noetherian ring.

(ii) R is a left V-ring.

(iii) R is not regular.

It follows from (ii) that, every left R-module is a V-module. Thus R is a semi-V-ring. If R is left semi-artinian then Soc(M) is essential in M, for every left R-module M. Inasmuch as R is left Noetherian left V-ring, and hence every semisimple module is injective, it follows that Soc(M) is a direct summand of M, for every left R-module M. Thus M = Soc(M) for every left R-module M, and therefore R is a semisimple ring - a clear contradiction with (iii). Hence R is not semiartinian. Thus there exists a left R-module M with soc(M) = 0, in particular R is not a right perfect ring. \Box

Recall that a module M is called a weakly GV-module (WGV-module) if every proper essential submodule of M is an intersection of maximal submodules. A ring R is said to be a left WGV-ring if the left R-module $_{\rm P}$ R is a WGV-module.

<u>Proposition 7.2.4</u>: If M is a left WGV-module then $\nu_2(L) = L$, for every homomorphic image L of M. In particular every WGV-module is a semi-V-module.

<u>Proof</u>: Let M be a WGV- module and L be a homomorphic image of M. By Proposition 3.21 (i), L is a WGV-module and by Proposition 3.19, L|Soc(L) is a V-module. Since $Soc \leq \nu$, it follows that $L|\nu(L)$ is a V-module, and hence $\nu_2(L) = L$. Whence M is a semi-V-module. <u>Corollary 7.2.5</u>: If R is a left WGV-ring then $\nu_2(M) = M$ for every left R-module M. In particular $\nu(M)$ is essential in M for every $_{\rm R}^{\rm M}$.

In [7], Bass proved that a ring R is left perfect (i.e. J(R) is left T-nilpotent and R|J(R) is semisimple) if and only if R is right Loewy and contains no infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. In [33], Nastasescu and Popescu proved that a ring R is right Loewy ring if and only if its radical J is left T-nilpotent and R|J is right Loewy. In the next proposition we extend this result to semi-V-rings. <u>Proposition 7.2.6</u>: The following conditions on a ring R are equivalent:

(i) R is a left semi-V-ring.

(ii) J(R) is right T-nilpotent and R|J(R) is a left semi-V-ring. <u>Proof</u>: (i) \rightarrow (ii) (Adopted from [7, Theorem P]).

Let $\{\nu_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha}$ be the ascending ν -Loewy series of the left R-module $_{R}R$. Since R is a left semi-V-ring, $R = \nu_{\alpha}$ for some ordinal α . For each $a \in R$, define h(a) to be the smallest ordinal α such that $a \in \nu_{h(a)}$. Then it is easy to see that h(a) is not a limit ordinal, for any $a \in R$. Write h(a) = β + 1, for some ordinal β , and let J = J(R). Inasmuch as $\nu_{\beta+1} | \nu_{\beta} = \nu(R|\nu_{\beta})$ is a V-module, it follows that $J \cdot (\nu_{\beta+1} | \nu_{\beta}) = 0$, and hence $J \cdot \nu_{\beta+1} \subseteq \nu_{\beta}$. Thus h(ba) < h(a) for every $b \in J$, unless a = 0. Now, suppose that there is an infinite sequence $\{a_n\}$ of elements of J such that $a_n \dots a_1 \neq 0$ for every $n \in N$. Then there is a strictly decreasing chain of ordinals $h(a_1) > h(a_2a_1) > \dots > h(a_n \dots a_1) > \dots$, which is impossible. Hence J(R) is right T-nilpotent. Clearly R a left semi-V-ring implies that R|J(R) is a left semi-V-ring. (<u>(ii) \rightarrow (i)</u>: We want to show that $\nu(M) \neq 0$ for every non-zero left R-module M. Let $_{R}M$ be a non-zero module and suppose $J(R)N \neq 0$ for every submodule N of M. Then there exists $a_1 \in J(R)$, such that

 $a_1M \neq 0$. Thus $Ra_1M \neq 0$, and there is $a_2 \in J(R)$ such that $a_2a_1M \neq 0$. Proceeding this way, we can find a_1, a_2, \ldots a sequence of non-zero elements of J(R) such that $a_1 \ldots a_1 \neq 0$ for each $n \in N$, a contradiction with the T-nilpotence of J(R). Thus there is a non-zero submodule N of M with J(R)N = 0, i.e. N can be regarded as an R|J(R)-module, and hence N has a V-submodule, i.e. $0 \neq \nu(N) \subseteq \nu(M)$.

<u>Corollary 7.2.7</u>: If $\mathbb{R}|J(\mathbb{R})$ is a left V-ring. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) R is a semi-V-ring.

(ii) J(R) is right T-nilpotent.

(iii) Every left R-module has a maximal submodule.

<u>Proof</u>: Since $\mathbb{R}|J(\mathbb{R})$ is a left semi-V-ring, the equivalence between (i) and (ii) is an immediate consequence of Proposition 7.2.6. (<u>iii) \rightarrow (iiii</u>): Let M be a non-zero left R-module. From the right T-nilpotency of J(R), it follows that J(R)M \neq M, and hence M|J(R)M is a non-zero $\mathbb{R}|J(\mathbb{R})$ -module. Since $\mathbb{R}|J(\mathbb{R})$ is a left V-ring, M|J(R)M has a maximal submodule, N|J(R)M say. Hence N is a maximal submodule of M. (<u>iii) \rightarrow (ii</u>): a well-known result, due to H.Bass. However the proof included here is due to Rosenberg and Zelinsky [37]). Let x_1, \ldots, x_n, \ldots be a countable basis of a free module P, let a_1, \ldots, a_n, \ldots be an infinite sequence of elements of J(R), and let f be the element of S = End_{\mathbb{R}}^{\mathbb{P}} mapping $x_i \mapsto a_i x_{i+1}$, $i = 1, 2, \ldots$. Since $J(\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{P},\mathbb{P})) = \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbb{P},J(\mathbb{R})\cdot\mathbb{P})$ (see[17, Corollary 22.3]), it follows that $f \in J(S)$, hence (1-f) is a unit in S. Let $y = (1-f)^{-1}x_1$, and write $y = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} b_i x_i$ with $b_i \in \mathbb{R}$, $b_n = 0$, $n \ge k$. Then $x_1 = (1-f)y = (\Sigma b_i x_i) - (\Sigma b_i a_i x_{i+1})$ $= b_1 x_1 + (b_2 - b_1 a_1) x_2 + \sum_{n>2} (b_n - b_{n-1} a_{n-1}) x_n$

since $\{x_n : n \ge 1\}$ is a free basis, then $b_1 = 1$ and $b_n = a_1 a_2 \cdots a_{n-1}$, $n \ge 2$. Thus $b_k = a_1 a_2 \cdots a_{k-1} = 0$.

<u>Proposition 7.2.8</u>: If R is a left Noetherian, left semi-V-ring then every R-module has a maximal submodule.

Let $\{\nu_{\alpha}(\mathbf{R}^{R})\}_{\alpha}$ be the ν -Loewy series associated with the left <u>Proof</u>: R-module R. Since R is a left semi-V-ring, R = ν_{λ} (R), for some ordinal λ , and since R is left Noetherian λ must be finite. We claim that $\nu_{\lambda}(M) = M$ for every left R-module M. Suppose on the contrary $\nu_{\lambda}(M) \neq M$ for some non-zero left R-module M. Let $y \in M \setminus \nu_{\lambda}(M)$. Then $y \notin \nu_{\lambda}(Ry)$, since ν_{λ} is a preradical. Let $g : R \longrightarrow Ry$ be the obvious epimorphism. Then $g(\nu_{\lambda}(R)) \subseteq \nu_{\lambda}(Ry)$, and hence Ry = g(R) = $g(\nu_{\lambda}(\mathbb{R})) \subseteq \nu_{\lambda}(\mathbb{R}y)$, which implies that $y \in \nu_{\lambda}(\mathbb{R}y)$, a contradiction. Now, if M is a non-zero V-module then clearly M has a maximal submodule. Otherwise M has a ν -Loewy series of length $n \leq \lambda$, for some positive integer n > 1, and in this case $M|\nu_{n-1}(M) = \nu_n(M)|\nu_{n-1}(M)$ is a V-module and so has a maximal submodule, $N|v_{n-1}(M)$ say. Thus N is a maximal submodule of M. ¢ Proposition 7.2.9: For a commutative Noetherian ring R the following

conditions are equivalent:

(i) R is a semi-artinian ring.

(ii) R is a semi-V-ring.

(iii) Every R-module has a maximal submodule.

(iv) J(R) is T-nilpotent and R|J(R) is regular.

- (v) R is a perfect ring.
- (vi) R is an Artinian ring.

<u>Proof</u>: The equivalence between (iii) and (iv) is satisfied for any commutative ring, see Koifman's theorem [31, Theorem 1.8]. For the equivalence between (iii), (v) and (vi), see Hamsher's result [26, Theorem 1]. For the equivalence between (i) and (iii), see [33, Corollary 3.1].

(i) \rightarrow (ii): Since every simple module is a V-module.

(ii) \rightarrow (iii): By Proposition 7.2.8.

Section 3: Chains of modules with V-quotients.

In this section we will study finite or infinite sequences of submodules, of a given module M, of the form $\{0\} = M_0 \subseteq M_1 \subseteq \cdots$ or of the form $M = M^0 \supseteq M^1 \supseteq \cdots$, where all the factor modules $M_{i+1}|M_i$ or $M^i|M^{i+1}$ are V-modules. And we will generalize those results which have been obtained in [15].

From now on it will be assumed that $\mathbb{R}|J(\mathbb{R})$ is a left V-ring, J = J(R) and J^k the k-th power of J, where k > 0 (if k = 0 we define $J^0 = \mathbb{R}$).

<u>Theorem 7.3.1</u> Let R be a ring with R|J(R) a left V-ring and M be a left R-module. Then the following hold for all integers k = 0, 1, 2, ...(i) $\nu_k(M) = Ann_M(J^k) = \{m \in M : J^k_m = 0\}.$

If $\{0\} = M_0 \subseteq M_1 \subseteq M_2 \subseteq \cdots$ is any series of submodules of M (ii)with V-quotient modules $M_{k+1} | M_k$ for k = 0, 1, 2, ..., then $M_k \subseteq \nu_k(M)$. <u>Proof</u>: (i) If k = 0 then by definition $J^0 = R$ and $\nu_0(M) = 0$, and hence $\nu_0(M) = Ann_M(J^0) = 0$. Assume (i) is true for k - 1, i.e. $\nu_{k-1}(M) = Ann_M(J^{k-1})$. Let $L = \nu_{k}(M) | \nu_{k-1}(M)$. Since L is a V-module, J(L) = 0 and hence J(R)L = 0. Whence $J \cdot \nu_k(M) \subseteq \nu_{k-1}(M)$. But $\nu_{k-1}(M) = Ann_M(J^{k-1})$ and hence $J \cdot \nu_k(M) \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}_M(J^{k-1})$, i.e. $J^{k-1} \cdot J \cdot \nu_k(M) = 0$. Thus $J^k \nu_k(M) = 0$, i.e. $\nu_k(M) \subseteq Ann_M(J^k)$. On the other hand, since $J^k \cdot Ann_M(J^k) = 0$, it follows that $J^{k-1} \cdot J \cdot Ann_M(J^k) = 0$, whence $J \cdot Ann_M(J^k) \subseteq Ann_M(J^{k-1})$ and the module $\operatorname{Ann}_{M}(J^{k})|\operatorname{Ann}_{M}(J^{k-1})$ can be regarded as an R|J-module. Since R|J is a left V-ring, $\operatorname{Ann}_{M}(J^{k})|\operatorname{Ann}_{M}(J^{k-1})$ is a V-module. From the induction step, it follows that $\operatorname{Ann}_{M}(J^{k}) | \nu_{k-1}(M)$ is a V-module and hence $\operatorname{Ann}_{M}(J^{k})|_{\nu_{k-1}}(M) \subseteq \nu(M|_{\nu_{k-1}}(M)) = \frac{\nu_{k}(M)}{\nu_{k-1}(M)}$. Therefore, $\operatorname{Ann}_{\mathbf{M}}(\mathbf{J}^{\mathbf{k}}) \subseteq \nu_{\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{M}).$ Whence $\nu_{\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{M}) = \operatorname{Ann}_{\mathbf{M}}(\mathbf{J}^{\mathbf{k}}).$ (ii) Clearly $M_0 = \nu_0(M) = 0$ and $\nu_1(M) = \nu(M) \supseteq M_1$. Assume $M_{k-1} \subseteq \nu_{k-1}(M)$. Since $M_k[M_{k-1}]$ is a V-module, it follows that $J \cdot M_k \subseteq M_{k-1}$ and hence that $J \cdot M_k \subseteq \nu_{k-1}(M)$. Thus, $J^k M_k \subseteq$ $J^{k-1}\nu_{k-1}(M) = 0$, i.e. $M_k \subseteq Ann_M(J^k)$, therefore $M_k \subseteq \nu_k(M)$ by (i). <u>Corollary 7.3.2</u>: If R|J(R) is semisimple, then the following holds for all integers k = 0, 1, 2, ... $Soc_{\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{M}) = \operatorname{Ann}_{\mathbf{M}}(\mathbf{J}^{\mathbf{k}}).$ (i)

(ii) If $\{0\} = M_0 \subseteq M_1 \subseteq \cdots$ is any series of submodules of M with semisimple quotient modules $M_{k+1} | M_k$ for $k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$, then $M_k \subseteq Soc_k(M)$. <u>Proof</u>: Since $\mathbb{R}|J(\mathbb{R})$ is semisimple, $\nu(M) = Soc(M)$ for every \mathbb{R} -module M and hence $\nu_k(M) = Soc_k(M)$ for every k = 0, 1, 2, ...

This is Theorem 2 in [15].

<u>Corollary 7.3.3</u>: If J is nilpotent with index of nilpotency equal to n (i.e. $J^{n-1} \neq 0$ and $J^n = 0$). Then the ν -length of R is exactly n. In particular the ν -length of any left R-module is at most n. <u>Definition 7.3.4</u>: For a left R-module M over an arbitrary ring R, set $J_0(M) = M$, $J_1(M) = J(M)$ the intersection of all the maximal submodules of M (the empty intersection is by convention all of M). For any positive integer k = 1, 2, ... the submodule $J_{k+1}(M)$ is defined inductively by $J_{k+1}(M) = J(J_k(M))$. If $J_{\alpha}(M)$ has been defined for all ordinals $\alpha < \beta$ where β is a limit ordinal, set $J_{\beta}(M) = \bigcap\{J_{\alpha}(M) : \alpha < \beta\}$ and define $J_{\beta+1}(M)$ to be $J_{\beta+1}(M) = J(J_{\beta}(M))$. The series $M = J_0(M) \supseteq J_1(M) \supseteq \cdots$ is called the upper Loewy series of M over R (see [15]).

<u>Remark 7.3.5</u>: If J = J(R) then $J^k = J_k$ for every integer k = 0, 1, 2, ...(since R|J(R) is a left V-ring, J(M) = J(R)M for every left R-module M. Thus $J_{k+1}(R) = J(R) \cdot J_k(R)$, and by inductive hypothesis, $J_{k+1}(R) = J \cdot J^k = J^{k+1}$).

<u>Theorem 7.3.6</u>: Let R be a ring with R|J(R) a left V-ring. Write J = J(R). Then the following hold for all k = 0, 1, 2, ...

- (i) $J_k(M) | J_{k+1}(M)$ is a V-module.
- (ii) $J_k(M) = J_k(R)M.$

(iii) If $M = M_0 \supseteq M_1 \supseteq \cdots$ is any series of submodules of M with each quotient $M_k | M_{k+1}$ is a V-module for $k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ then $M_k \supseteq J_k(M)$. <u>Proof</u>: (i) $J(J_k(M)|J_{k+1}(M)) = J(J_k(M)|J(J_k(M))) = 0$ and hence $J(R) \cdot (J_k(M)|J_{k+1}(M)) = 0$ and consequently the module $J_k(M)|J_{k+1}(M)$ can be regarded as an R|J(R)-module and hence a V-module, since R|J(R) is a left V-ring.

(ii) If k = 1, then $J_1(M) = J(M)$ and $J_1(R)M = J(R)M = J(M)$, since R is a left V-ring. Assume by induction that $J_{k-1}(M) = J_{k-1}(R)M$. Then

$$\begin{split} J_{k}(\mathbb{R})\mathbb{M} &= J(J_{k-1}(\mathbb{R}))\mathbb{M} \\ &= J(\mathbb{R}) \cdot J_{k-1}(\mathbb{R})\mathbb{M}, \text{ by Proposition 7.1.3 (i \longrightarrow ii).} \\ &= J(\mathbb{R}) \cdot J_{k-1}(\mathbb{M}), \text{ induction step.} \\ &= J(J_{k-1}(\mathbb{M})), \text{ since } \mathbb{R}[J(\mathbb{R}) \text{ is a left } \mathbb{V}\text{-ring.} \\ &= J_{k}(\mathbb{M}). \end{split}$$

(iii) If k = 0, $J_0(M) = M = M_0$.

Assume it is valid for k - 1, i.e. $J_{k-1}(M) \subseteq M_{k-1}$. Since $M_{k-1}|M_k$ is a V-module, it follows that $J(M_{k-1}|M_k) = 0$ and hence $J(R) \cdot M_{k-1} \subseteq M_k$. Since $J_k(M) = J(J_{k-1}(M)) = J(R) \cdot J_{k-1}(M)$ we get $J_k(M) \subseteq J(R)M_{k-1} \subseteq M_k$. \Box <u>Corollary 7.3.7</u>: For an arbitrary ring R the following conditions are equivalent:

(i) R|J(R) is a left V-ring.

(ii) For any left R-module M and any submodule N of M, $J_k(M|N) = (J_k(M) + N) |N$, for every non-negative integer k. (iii) For every left R-module M and every k = 0,1,2,... $J_k(M) = J_k(R)M$.

<u>Proof</u>: An immediate consequence of Proposition 7.1.3 and Proposition 7.3.6.

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