# On a generalization of $C_{2}$-modules 

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#### Abstract

A module $M$ is called a $C_{21}$-module if, whenever $A$ and $B$ are submodules of $M$ with $A \cong B, A$ is nonsingular and $B$ is a direct summand of $M$, then $A$ is a direct summand of $M$. Various examples of $C_{21}$-modules are presented. Some basic properties of these modules are investigated. It is shown that the class of rings $R$ over which every $C_{21}{ }^{-}$ module is a $C_{2}$-module is exactly that of right SI-rings. Also, we prove that for a ring $R$, every $R$-module has ( $C_{21}$ ) if and only if $R$ is a right t -semisimple ring.


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## 1. Introduction

Among many generalizations of (quasi-) injective modules, the notion of continuous modules and its related properties have attracted considerable attention since 1971 (see, for example, [13, 20-22, 25, 27]). Following [21, Definition 2.3], a module $M$ is called continuous if $M$ satisfies the following two conditions:
$\left(C_{1}\right)$ : Every submodule of $M$ is essential in a direct summand of $M$;
$\left(C_{2}\right)$ : If a submodule $N$ of $M$ is isomorphic to a direct summand of $M$, then $N$ is a direct summand of $M$.

A module $M$ is said to be extending if $M$ satisfies the condition $\left(C_{1}\right)$ (see [8]). Also, a module $M$ is called quasi-continuous if $M$ is extending and whenever $A$ and $B$ are direct summands of $M$ with $A \cap B=0$, then $A \oplus B$ is a direct summand of $M$ (see [21]). Asgari and Haghany introduced and studied some generalizations of these notions. According to [4, Definition 2.10 and Theorem 2.11], a module $M$ is called $t$-extending if every submodule of $M$ which contains $Z_{2}(M)$ is essential in a direct summand of $M$. A module $M$ is called $t$-continuous if $M$ is t-extending and every submodule of $M$ which contains $Z_{2}(M)$ and is isomorphic to a direct summand of $M$, is itself a direct summand (see [2]). Also, a module $M$ is called $t$-quasi-continuous if $M$ is t-extending and whenever $A$ and $B$ are

[^0]nonsingular direct summands of $M$ with $A \cap B=0$, then $A \oplus B$ is a direct summand of $M$ (see [3]). It was shown in [2, Corollary 2.5] that a module $M$ is t -continuous if and only if $M$ is t-extending and every nonsingular submodule of $M$ which is isomorphic to a direct summand of $M$, is itself a direct summand. Motivated by this result, we introduce and investigate the notion of $C_{21}$-modules which is a generalization of the notion of $C_{2^{-}}$ modules. A module $M$ is called a $C_{21}$-module if every nonsingular submodule of $M$ which is isomorphic to a direct summand of $M$, is itself a direct summand of $M$.

Various examples of $C_{21}$-modules are presented in Section 2. For instance, it is shown that every module $M$ for which $M / Z_{2}(M)$ is a $C_{2}$-module is a $C_{21}$-module. Also, we provide an example to show that the concept of $C_{21}$-modules is a proper generalization of that of $C_{2}$-modules.

We begin Section 3 by showing that all direct summands of a $C_{21}$-module inherit the property. On the other hand, some examples are exhibited to prove that the class of $C_{21}$-modules is not closed under direct sums. Then we investigate some basic properties of $C_{21}$-modules. Moreover, we shed some light on the endomorphism ring of a hereditary $C_{21}$-module.

In Section 4, a number of characterizations of classes of rings in terms of $C_{21}$-modules are provided. Among others, we first investigate the natural question of when every $C_{21^{-}}$ module over a ring $R$ has ( $C_{2}$ ). It turns out that this condition is equivalent to the fact that every singular $R$-module is injective (i.e., $R$ is a right SI-ring). It is also shown that rings over which every module has $\left(C_{21}\right)$ are precisely the right t-semisimple rings (i.e., the rings $R$ for which $R / Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right)$ is a semisimple ring). Moreover, we prove that a ring $R$ is a right GV-ring (i.e., every singular simple $R$-module is injective) if and only if every $C_{21}$-module is simple-direct-injective.

Throughout, all rings have identities and all modules are unital right modules. Let $R$ be a ring. For an $R$-module $M$, we denote by $\operatorname{Rad}(M), \operatorname{Soc}(M), Z(M), Z_{2}(M)$, and $E(M)$ the Jacobson radical, the socle, the singular submodule of $M$, the second singular submodule of $M$, and the injective hull of $M$, respectively. The notation $N \subseteq M$ means that $N$ is a subset of $M$ and we write $N \leq M$ if $N$ is a submodule of $M$. By $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Z}$, and $\mathbb{N}$, we denote the set of rational numbers, the set of integers, and the set of positive integers, respectively. For a prime number $p$, the Prüfer $p$-group is denoted by $\mathbb{Z}\left(p^{\infty}\right)$.

## 2. Examples

Let $M$ be an $R$-module. Recall that the singular submodule $Z(M)$ of $M$ is defined by

$$
Z(M)=\{m \in M \mid m I=0 \text { for some essential right ideal } I \text { of } R\} .
$$

The Goldie torsion submodule $Z_{2}(M)$ of $M$ (also known as the second singular submodule of $M$ ) is defined to be the submodule of $M$ which contains $Z(M)$ such that $Z(M / Z(M))=$ $Z_{2}(M) / Z(M)$. The module $M$ is called singular if $Z(M)=M$ and is called nonsingular if $Z(M)=0$ (equivalently, $Z_{2}(M)=0$ ). The module $M$ is said to be $Z_{2}$-torsion if $Z_{2}(M)=M$. Recall that $Z_{2}(N)=Z_{2}(M) \cap N$ for every submodule $N$ of $M$. Recall further that, $M / Z_{2}(M)$ is a nonsingular module. Moreover, for every class of $R$-modules $M_{\lambda}(\lambda \in \Lambda)$, we have $Z\left(\oplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} M_{\lambda}\right)=\oplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} Z\left(M_{\lambda}\right)$ and $Z_{2}\left(\oplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} M_{\lambda}\right)=\oplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} Z_{2}\left(M_{\lambda}\right)$.
Definition 2.1. (i) An $R$-module $M$ is called a $C_{21}$-module (or has $\left(C_{21}\right)$ ) if every nonsingular submodule of $M$ which is isomorphic to a direct summand of $M$ is itself a direct summand of $M$.
(ii) The ring $R$ is called a (left) right $C_{21}$-ring if the (left) right $R$-module $\left({ }_{R} R\right) R_{R}$ is a $C_{21}$-module.

In this section we exhibit many examples of $C_{21}$-modules.
Example 2.2. Let $R$ be a ring and let $I$ be an essential right ideal of $R$. By [2, Example 2.6(i)], $E \oplus R / I$ is a $C_{21}$-module for any injective $R$-module $E$.

Let $M$ be an indecomposable module. Then clearly $M$ has $\left(C_{21}\right)$ if and only if $M$ has no nonzero proper nonsingular submodule isomorphic to $M$. For example, the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\mathbb{Z}\left(p^{\infty}\right)$ (where $p$ is any prime) has ( $C_{21}$ ) but the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\mathbb{Z}$ is not a $C_{21}$-module. Next, we shed more light on the structure of indecomposable $C_{21}$-modules.
Proposition 2.3. The following are equivalent for an indecomposable module $M$ :
(i) $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module;
(ii) $Z(M) \neq 0$ or $M$ is a nonsingular $C_{2}$-module.

Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) This follows from the fact that the class of nonsingular modules is closed under submodules (see [11, Proposition 1.22(a)]).
(ii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) Assume that $Z(M) \neq 0$. Let $N$ be a nonsingular submodule of $M$ which is isomorphic to a direct summand $K$ of $M$. Since $M$ is indecomposable and $Z(M) \neq 0$, we have $N=0$ and hence $N$ is a direct summand of $M$. Therefore $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module.

Proposition 2.4. The following are equivalent for an indecomposable $\mathbb{Z}$-module $M$ :
(i) $M$ is a $C_{2}$-module;
(ii) $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module;
(iii) $M \cong \mathbb{Z}\left(p^{\infty}\right)$ or $M \cong \mathbb{Z} / p^{n} \mathbb{Z}$ or $M \cong \mathbb{Q}$, where $p$ is a prime number and $n$ is a positive integer.
Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) This is obvious.
(ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) Let $T(M)$ denote the torsion submodule of M. Suppose that $T(M) \neq 0$. Using [14, Theorem 10], we deduce that $M \cong \mathbb{Z}\left(p^{\infty}\right)$ or $M \cong \mathbb{Z} / p^{n} \mathbb{Z}$ for some prime number $p$ and some positive integer $n$. Now assume that $T(M)=0$. Then $q M \cong M$ for any prime number $q$. Since $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module, we conclude that $q M=M$ for every prime number $q$. That is, $M$ is injective. This yields $M \cong \mathbb{Q}$.
(iii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) This is clear.

Example 2.5. Let $M$ be a module whose endomorphism ring is a division ring. Then clearly $M$ is indecomposable. Moreover, if $N$ is a submodule of $M$ such that $M$ is isomorphic to $N$ then $N=M$. So $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module. Many examples belonging to this class of modules are given in [19].
Note that one can easily observe that every module having no nonzero nonsingular direct summands, is a $C_{21}$-module. Next, we show that this idea provides a rich source of examples of $C_{21}$-modules.
Example 2.6. (i) Every $Z_{2}$-torsion module is a $C_{21}$-module, since the only nonsingular submodule of a $Z_{2}$-torsion module is the zero submodule.
(ii) From (i), it follows that every module $M$ for which $Z(M)$ is essential in $M$ (for instance, $M$ is a singular module) has $\left(C_{21}\right)$. In particular, $R / I$ is a $C_{21}-R$-module for every essential right ideal $I$ of a ring $R$. Also, for any module $M, E(M) / M$ is a $C_{21^{-}}$ module.
(iii) Let $M$ be a torsion $\mathbb{Z}$-module. Since $M$ is singular, $M$ has $\left(C_{21}\right)$ by (ii).

An abelian group $G$ is called cotorsion if $\operatorname{Ext}(J, G)=0$ for every torsion-free abelian group $J$ (see [9, p. 232]). An abelian group $G$ is called algebraically compact if $G$ is a direct summand in every abelian group $H$ that contains $G$ as a pure subgroup (see [9, p. 159]). This is equivalent to the fact that $G$ is a direct summand of a direct product of cocyclic abelian groups (see [9, Theorem 38.1]). For example, the abelian group $M=\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{Z} / p^{n} \mathbb{Z}$ (where $p$ is a prime) is algebraically compact. By [9, Proposition 54.1], an abelian group is cotorsion if and only if it is an epimorphic image of an algebraically compact abelian group. A cotorsion reduced abelian group $G$ is called adjusted if $G$ has no nonzero torsion-free direct summands (see [9, p. 238]).

It was shown in [9, Theorem 55.5] that any reduced cotorsion abelian group $G$ is the direct sum $G=A \oplus C$ of a torsion-free algebraically compact abelian group $A$ and an
adjusted cotorsion abelian group $C$. Moreover, $C$ is a uniquely determined subgroup of $G$ and $C \cong \operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}, T(G))$ where $T(G)$ denotes the torsion subgroup of $G$.

Example 2.7. (i) It is clear that every reduced cotorsion adjusted abelian group is a $C_{21}$-module. So $\operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}, T)$ has $\left(C_{21}\right)$ for any torsion abelian group $T$ by [9, Lemma 55.4].
(ii) Let $T$ be a reduced unbounded torsion abelian group and let $G=\operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}, T)$. By [10, p. 186 Example 1], $G$ is an adjusted abelian group whose torsion part is $T(G)=T$. Moreover, $T$ is not a direct summand of $G$. In particular, $G$ is a mixed abelian group.
(iii) Let $p$ be a prime number and consider the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $M=\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{Z} / p^{n} \mathbb{Z}$. Note that $M$ is a reduced module. Indeed, $M$ has no nonzero elements of infinite $p$-height. Let $T(M)$ denote the torsion submodule of $M$. Since $M / T(M)$ is not divisible, it follows that $M$ is not adjusted by [12, Proposition 2.2]. On the other hand, by [9, Theorem 55.5], $M$ has an adjusted direct summand $N$ which contains $T(M)$.

Let $M$ be an $R$-module. It is clear that if $M$ is a $C_{2}$-module, then $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module. Note that the converse holds when $M$ is noncosingular but it is not true, in general, as illustrated in the following two examples.

Example 2.8. Consider the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $M=\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} / 8 \mathbb{Z}$. Clearly, $M$ is a torsion module. So, by Example 2.6 (iii), $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module. On the other hand, consider the element $x=(\overline{0}, \overline{4})$ of $M$. It is clear that $x \mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}$. So $x \mathbb{Z}$ is isomorphic to the direct summand $\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z} \oplus 0$ of $M$. However, $x \mathbb{Z}$ is not a direct summand of $M$. This implies that $M$ is not a $C_{2}$-module.

In the next example, we present a (right) $C_{21}$-ring which is not a (right) $C_{2}$-ring.
Example 2.9. Let $p$ be a prime number and consider the trivial extension $R=\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}\left(p^{\infty}\right)$. Since $\mathbb{Z}\left(p^{\infty}\right)$ is a faithful module, we have $Z(R)=p \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}\left(p^{\infty}\right)$ (see [11, p. 37 Exercise 16]). Note that the ideals of $R$ are $0 \oplus N$ and $n \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}\left(p^{\infty}\right)$, where $N$ is a submodule of $\mathbb{Z}\left(p^{\infty}\right)$ and $n$ is a positive integer. It is easily seen that every nonzero ideal of $R$ is essential in $R$. So $R$ is a uniform $R$-module. In particular, $R$ is an indecomposable $R$-module. Also, since $Z(R)$ is essential in $R, R$ is a $Z_{2}$-torsion $R$-module. Hence $R$ is a (right) $C_{21}$-ring (see Example 2.6(i)). On the other hand, taking a prime number $q \neq p$ and any element $x \in M$, we can check that $\operatorname{ann}_{R}((q, x))=0$. Therefore $(q, x) R \cong R$. It is clear that $(q, x)$ is not invertible in $R$. This forces $(q, x) R \neq R$. Consequently, $R$ is not a (right) $C_{2}$-ring.

The next proposition provides more examples of $C_{21}$-modules.
Proposition 2.10. Let $M$ be a module such that $M / Z_{2}(M)$ is a $C_{21}$-module (i.e., $M / Z_{2}(M)$ is a $C_{2}$-module). Then $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module.
Proof. Let $N$ be a nonsingular submodule of $M$ and let $K$ be a direct summand of $M$ such that $N \cong K$. Then $Z_{2}(N)=N \cap Z_{2}(M)=0$ and $Z_{2}(K)=K \cap Z_{2}(M)=0$. Hence,

$$
\left(N+Z_{2}(M)\right) / Z_{2}(M) \cong N /\left(N \cap Z_{2}(M)\right) \cong K /\left(K \cap Z_{2}(M)\right) \cong\left(K+Z_{2}(M)\right) / Z_{2}(M) .
$$

Since $Z_{2}(M)$ is fully invariant in $M,\left(K+Z_{2}(M)\right) / Z_{2}(M)$ is a direct summand of $M / Z_{2}(M)$. As $M / Z_{2}(M)$ is a nonsingular $C_{21}$-module, it follows that $\left(N+Z_{2}(M)\right) / Z_{2}(M)$ is a direct summand of $M / Z_{2}(M)$. Let $L$ be a submodule of $M$ with $Z_{2}(M) \subseteq L$ and $M / Z_{2}(M)=\left(\left(N+Z_{2}(M)\right) / Z_{2}(M)\right) \oplus\left(L / Z_{2}(M)\right)$. Thus $M=N+L$. Moreover, $N \cap L \subseteq Z_{2}(M) \cap N=0$. Therefore $M=N \oplus L$. So $M$ has $\left(C_{21}\right)$.
Corollary 2.11. Let $M=M_{1} \oplus M_{2}$ be a direct sum of submodules $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ such that $Z_{2}\left(M_{1}\right)=M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ is a nonsingular $C_{21}$-module. Then $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module.
Proof. Since $Z\left(M_{2}\right)=0$, we have $Z_{2}\left(M_{2}\right)=0$. Therefore $Z_{2}(M)=Z_{2}\left(M_{1}\right)=M_{1}$. Thus $M / Z_{2}(M) \cong M_{2}$ has $\left(C_{21}\right)$. So $M$ has $\left(C_{21}\right)$ by Proposition 2.10.

Remark 2.12. Consider the ring $R$ given in Example 2.9. So $R / Z_{2}(R)=0$ is a $C_{2}$-module, but the $R$-module $R$ does not have $\left(C_{2}\right)$. This shows that the analogue of Proposition 2.10 for $C_{2}$-modules does not hold true in general.

Note that all the modules presented in Example 2.6 are $Z_{2}$-torsion. So they are tcontinuous. As an application of Proposition 2.10, we get the following three examples. The first one exhibits a $C_{21}$-module that is not t-continuous.
Example 2.13. Consider the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $M=\prod_{p \in \mathbb{P}} \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ where $\mathbb{P}$ is the set of all prime
 (injective) $\mathbb{Z}$-module. In particular, $M / Z_{2}(M)$ is a $C_{2}$-module. So $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module by Proposition 2.10. On the other hand, the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $M$ is not t -continuous by [4, Example 2.16].

Example 2.14. Let $R$ be a right nonsingular ring (i.e., $Z\left(R_{R}\right)=0$ ) and let $E$ be an injective module. Let $N$ be a proper submodule of $E$ and set $M=E / N$. By [11, Proposition 1.23(a)], $Z(M / Z(M))=0$. This gives $Z_{2}(M)=Z(M)$. Using [23, Theorem 2.10], it follows that $M / Z_{2}(M)$ is an injective module. Therefore $M / Z_{2}(M)$ is a $C_{21}{ }^{-}$ module. From Proposition 2.10, we conclude that $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module.
Example 2.15. Let $R$ be a right semiartinian ring in which every maximal right ideal is essential (for example, $R$ can be a local semiartinian ring which is not a division ring). Let $M$ be an $R$-module. Then $\operatorname{Soc}(M)$ is essential in $M$. Moreover, we have $\operatorname{Soc}(M) \subseteq$ $Z(M) \subseteq Z_{2}(M)$. Thus $Z_{2}(M)$ is an essential submodule of $M$. This implies that $M / Z_{2}(M)$ is a singular module and hence $M / Z_{2}(M)$ is a $C_{21}$-module. Applying Proposition 2.10, it follows that every $R$-module is a $C_{21}$-module.

## 3. Some properties of $C_{21}$-modules

In this section we establish some properties of $C_{21}$-modules. We begin by showing that having ( $C_{21}$ ) is preserved by direct summands but it is not preserved under direct sums.
Proposition 3.1. Any direct summand of a $C_{21}$-module is again a $C_{21}$-module.
Proof. Let $M$ be a $C_{21}$-module and let $N$ be a direct summand of $M$. Let $K$ and $L$ be two isomorphic nonsingular submodules of $N$ such that $K$ is a direct summand of $N$. Note that $K$ is a direct summand of $M$. Then $L$ is a direct summand of $M$. Hence $M=L \oplus L^{\prime}$ for some submodule $L^{\prime}$ of $M$. By modularity, we have $N=N \cap\left(L \oplus L^{\prime}\right)=L \oplus\left(N \cap L^{\prime}\right)$. Hence $L$ is a direct summand of $N$. Therefore $N$ is a $C_{21}$-module.

A direct sum of $C_{21}$-modules (or even $C_{2}$-modules) need not be a $C_{21}$-module as the next two examples show. Note that the first one appeared in [21, Example 2.9] to show that a direct sum of quasi-continuous modules may not be quasi-continuous. Also, this example appeared in [22, p. 170] to show that a direct sum of $C_{2}$-modules need not be a $C_{2}$-module.
Example 3.2. Consider the ring $R=\left[\begin{array}{ll}F & F \\ 0 & F\end{array}\right]$ and its right ideals $A=\left[\begin{array}{cc}F & F \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right]$ and $B=\left[\begin{array}{ll}0 & 0 \\ 0 & F\end{array}\right]$, where $F$ is a field. Clearly, $R_{R}=A \oplus B$. Since $B_{R}$ is simple, $B_{R}$ has $\left(C_{2}\right)$. Moreover, $A_{R}$ has exactly one proper nonzero submodule $J(R)=\left[\begin{array}{ll}0 & F \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right]$, and $J(R)$ is not isomorphic to $A_{R}$. Thus $A_{R}$ has $\left(C_{2}\right)$. On the other hand, the $R$-module $R_{R}$ is not a $C_{2}$-module (see [22, p. 168] or [21, Example 2.9]). In addition, it is well known that $R$ is a right hereditary ring (see for example, [8, Example 13.6]). Therefore $R_{R}$ is a nonsingular $R$-module by [11, Proposition $1.27(\mathrm{a})]$. Hence the $R$-module $R_{R}$ could not be a $C_{21}$-module.

Example 3.3. Let $T$ be a commutative local ring such that $T$ is a unique factorization domain (UFD). Assume also that $T$ has infinitely many nonassociate prime elements, but $T$ is not a principal ideal domain (for example, $T$ can be the ring of power series in two variables over an infinite field or the polynomial ring $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ in one indeterminate, over the domain $\mathbb{Z}$ of integers). Then there exist two nonassociate prime $p$ and $q$ in $T$ such that $T p+T q \neq T$. Let $M$ be the direct sum of all $T / p T, p$ ranging over the primes of $T$. Consider the trivial extension $R=T \oplus M$ of $T$ by $M$. From [15, p. 63 Exercise 7], it follows that no nonzero element of $R$ annihilates $R(p, 0)+R(q, 0)$. Using [16, Corollary 2.4], we conclude that $R$ has a finitely generated free $R$-module $F$ which is not a $C_{2}$-module. On the other hand, $R$ is a $C_{2}$-ring by [16, p. 285 Question]. Now we claim that $Y=0 \oplus M$ is an essential ideal in $R$. To show this, let $\mathfrak{I}$ be an ideal of $R$ such that $\mathfrak{I} \cap Y=0$. Then there exist an ideal $I$ of $T$ and a $T$-submodule $N$ of $M$ such that $\mathfrak{I}=I \oplus N, I M \subseteq N$ and $\mathfrak{I} \cap Y=0 \oplus N=0$. Thus $N=0$. Moreover, since $I M \subseteq N$, we have $I M=0$. As $T$ is a UFD, we deduce that $I=0$ and hence $\mathfrak{I}=0$. In addition, since $Y^{2}=0$, we obtain $Y \subseteq Z(R)$. This implies that $Z(R)$ is an essential ideal in $R$. It follows that $R / Z(R)$ is a singular $R$-module. We thus get $Z_{2}(R)=R$. So $Z_{2}(F)=F$ and hence $F$ is a $C_{21}$-module.
Proposition 3.4. Let $M$ be a $C_{21}$-module. Then the following hold:
(i) For every direct summands $A$ and $B$ of $M$ such that $A \cap B=0$ and $B$ is nonsingular, $A \oplus B$ is a direct summand of $M$.
(ii) Assume that $M=A \oplus B$ such that at least one of the submodules $A$ and $B$ is nonsingular. Then for any homomorphism $f: A \longrightarrow B$ such that Kerf is a direct summand of $A, \operatorname{Imf}$ is a direct summand of $B$.
Proof. (i) Let $A$ and $B$ be two direct summands of $M$ such that $Z(B)=0$ and $A \cap B=0$. Then $M=A \oplus L$ for some submodule $L$ of $M$. Let $\pi: M \longrightarrow L$ be the natural projection map. It follows that $\pi_{/ B}: B \longrightarrow \pi(B)$ is an isomorphim. Since $M$ has $\left(C_{21}\right), \pi(B)$ is a direct summand of $M$. Hence $\pi(B)$ is a direct summand of $L$. Thus $L=\pi(B) \oplus X$ for some $X \leq L$. It follows that $M=(A \oplus \pi(B)) \oplus X=(A \oplus B) \oplus X$. So $A \oplus B$ is a direct summand of $M$.
(ii) Let $f: A \longrightarrow B$ be a homomorphism such that $\operatorname{Ker} f$ is a direct summand of $A$. Then $A=\operatorname{Kerf} \oplus N$ for some submodule $N$ of $A$. Hence $\operatorname{Imf} \cong A / \operatorname{Ker} f \cong N$. From the hypothesis, we infer that $\operatorname{Imf}$ is nonsingular. Since $M$ has $\left(C_{21}\right)$, we conclude that $\operatorname{Imf}$ is a direct summand of $M$. Thus $\operatorname{Imf}$ is a direct summand of $B$.

The next corollary follows directly from Proposition 3.4(ii).
Corollary 3.5. Let $A$ and $B$ be submodules of a $C_{21}$-module $M$ such that $Z(A)=0$ or $Z(B)=0$ and $M=A \oplus B$. If $f: A \longrightarrow B$ is a monomorphism, then Imf is a direct summand of $B$.

Corollary 3.6. Let $M$ be a nonsingular $R$-module such that $M \oplus E(M)$ is a $C_{21}$-module. Then $M$ is an injective module.
Proof. Consider the inclusion map $\mu: M \longrightarrow E(M)$. Then, by Corollary 3.5, $\mu(M)=M$ is a direct summand of $E(M)$. This implies that $M$ is injective, as required.

Let $R$ be a ring. Recall that an $R$-module $M$ is said to be (semi)hereditary if every (finitely generated) submodule of $M$ is a projective module. It is well known that projective right modules over a right hereditary ring are hereditary modules (see e.g., [29, 39.16]). Note that for any nonzero element $x$ in a semihereditary $R$-module $M, a n n_{R}(x)$ is a direct summand of $R_{R}$. So every semihereditary module is nonsingular. Next, we will be concerned with the endomorphism ring of a (semi)hereditary $C_{21}$-module.
Proposition 3.7. Let $M$ be a $C_{21-m o d u l e . ~ A s s u m e ~ t h a t ~ o n e ~ o f ~ t h e ~ f o l l o w i n g ~ c o n d i t i o n s ~}^{\text {- }}$ is satisfied:
(i) $M$ is a hereditary module.
(ii) $M$ is a semihereditary finitely generated module.

Then $\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$ is a von Neumann regular ring.
Proof. (i) Suppose $M$ is a hereditary module and let $f \in \operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$. Then $\operatorname{Imf}$ is a projective module. Since $M / \operatorname{Ker} f \cong \operatorname{Imf}$, it follows that $\operatorname{Kerf}$ is a direct summand of $M$. Thus $M=\operatorname{Kerf} \oplus L$ for some submodule $L$ of $M$. Hence $\operatorname{Imf} \cong L$. Since $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module and $\operatorname{Imf}$ is nonsingular, we deduce that $\operatorname{Imf}$ is a direct summand of $M$. Therefore $\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$ is a von Neumann regular ring by [29, 37.7(2)].
(ii) This follows by the same method as in (i).

The following corollary is a direct consequence of Proposition 3.7.
Corollary 3.8. The following conditions are equivalent for a ring $R$ :
(i) $R$ is a right semihereditary right $C_{21}$-ring;
(ii) $R$ is a von Neumann regular ring.

The next example shows that the condition " $M$ is a semihereditary module" in the hypothesis of Proposition 3.7 is not superfluous.
Example 3.9. It is clear that the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $M=\mathbb{Z} / 4 \mathbb{Z}$ is not semihereditary. Moreover, since $M$ is a torsion $\mathbb{Z}$-module, $M$ is a singular module. Hence $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module. On the other hand, $E n d_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z} / 4 \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z} / 4 \mathbb{Z}$ is not a von Neumann regular ring.

Recall that a module $M$ is called regular if every cyclic submodule of $M$ is a direct summand of $M$. Equivalently, every finitely generated submodule of $M$ is a direct summand of $M$ (see [26, p. 67]).

Corollary 3.10. Let $M$ be a hereditary $C_{21}$-module over a ring $R$. Then the following implications hold:
(i) If $M$ is indecomposable, then $\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$ is a division ring.
(ii) If $M$ has finite uniform dimension, then $\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$ is a semilocal ring.
(iii) If $R$ is a commutative ring and $M$ is a noetherian $R$-module, then $M$ is a semisimple module.

Proof. (i) This follows from Proposition 3.7.
(ii) Let $f: M \longrightarrow M$ be a monomorphism. Then $\operatorname{Imf} \cong M$. Since $M$ has finite uniform dimension, $\operatorname{Imf}$ is an essential submodule of $M$ by [8, 5.8(1)]. Moreover, $\operatorname{Imf}$ is a direct summand of $M$ by Proposition 3.7. This yields $\operatorname{Imf}=M$. From [7, Proposition 19.5], it follows that $E n d_{R}(M)$ is a semilocal ring.
(iii) By Proposition 3.7, $E n d_{R}(M)$ is von Neumann regular. Using [28, Corollary 3.10], we see that $M$ is a regular module. Since $M$ is noetherian, it follows that $M$ is a semisimple module.

The condition " $M$ has $\left(C_{21}\right)$ " in the hypothesis of Corollary 3.10 is not superfluous. To see this, consider the following example.
Example 3.11. Consider the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $M=\mathbb{Z}$ which is not a $C_{21}$-module by Proposition 2.4. Since every nonzero submodule of $M$ is isomorphic to $M, M$ is a hereditary module. Also, $M$ is an indecomposable noetherian module (hence $M$ has finite uniform dimension). However, $E n d_{\mathbb{Z}}(M) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ is neither a division ring nor a semilocal ring and $M$ is not semisimple.

## 4. Rings over which certain modules have $\left(C_{21}\right)$

In this section, we characterize some classes of rings in terms of $C_{21}$-modules. We begin with the following characterization of the class of rings $R$ for which every $C_{21}$-module is a $C_{2}$-module. This result should be contrasted with Examples 2.8 and 2.9.

Recall that a ring $R$ is said to be a right SI-ring if every singular right $R$-module is injective (see $[8, \mathrm{p} .160]$ ). A module $M$ is called a $C_{3}$-module if whenever $A$ and $B$ are direct summands of $M$ with $A \cap B=0$, then $A \oplus B$ is a direct summand of $M$ (see, for example, [21]).
Theorem 4.1. The following conditions are equivalent for a ring $R$ :
(i) $R$ is a right SI-ring;
(ii) Every $C_{21}-R$-module is a $C_{2}$-module;
(iii) Every $C_{21}$-R-module is a $C_{3}$-module;
(iv) Every $Z_{2}$-torsion $R$-module is a $C_{3}$-module.

Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) Suppose that $R$ is a right $S I$-ring. Let $A$ be an $R$-module. Since $Z(A)$ is singular, it follows that $Z(A)$ is an injective module. Thus $Z(A)$ is a direct summand of $A$. Now let $M$ be a $C_{21}-R$-module. To prove that $M$ is a $C_{2}$-module, let $N$ and $K$ be submodules of $M$ such that $N \cong K$ and $K$ is a direct summand of $M$. Therefore there exist submodules $N^{\prime}$ and $K^{\prime}$ of $M$ such that $N=Z(N) \oplus N^{\prime}$ and $K=Z(K) \oplus K^{\prime}$. Since $N \cong K$, it follows easily that $Z(N) \cong Z(K)$ and $N^{\prime} \cong N / Z(N) \cong K / Z(K) \cong K^{\prime}$. Note that $K^{\prime}$ is a direct summand of $M$ and $N^{\prime}$ is nonsingular. Since $M$ has $\left(C_{21}\right)$, it follows that $N^{\prime}$ is a direct summand of $M$. This implies that $M=N^{\prime} \oplus L$ for some submodule $L$ of $M$. So $Z(M)=Z(L) \subseteq L$. As $Z(M)$ is injective, there exists a submodule $L^{\prime}$ of $L$ such that $L=Z(M) \oplus L^{\prime}$. Thus $M=N^{\prime} \oplus Z(M) \oplus L^{\prime}$. Moreover, since $Z(N)$ is injective, $Z(M)=Z(N) \oplus B$ for some submodule $B$ of $M$. Consequently, $M=N^{\prime} \oplus Z(N) \oplus B \oplus L^{\prime}=$ $N \oplus B \oplus L^{\prime}$. It follows that $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module.

The implications (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) $\Rightarrow$ (iv) are clear.
(iv) $\Rightarrow$ (i) Let $M$ be a singular $R$-module. Clearly, $M$ is $Z_{2}$-torsion. It is well known that the class of $Z_{2}$-torsion modules is closed under essential extensions and direct sums (see [11, p. 37 Exercise 21]). Then $M \oplus E(M)$ is a $Z_{2}$-torsion module. By (iv), $M \oplus E(M)$ is a $C_{3}$-module. Consider the inclusion map $\mu: M \rightarrow E(M)$. Thus, according to [1, Corollary 2.4], we deduce that $\mu(M)=M$ is a direct summand of $E(M)$. Hence $M$ is an injective module. It follows that $R$ is a right SI-ring.
Remark 4.2. Let $R$ be a ring which is not a right SI-ring. From Theorem 4.1, it follows that $R$ has a $C_{21}$-module that is not a $C_{2}$-module.

It is shown in [5, Theorem 3.2] that for a ring $R, R / Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right)$ is a semisimple ring if and only if every nonsingular $R$-module is injective. Moreover, the authors called a ring $R$ which satisfies these equivalent conditions a right $t$-semisimple ring. In the next result, we determine the class of rings $R$ for which every (nonsingular) $R$-module has ( $C_{21}$ ).
Proposition 4.3. Let $R$ be a ring with $\bar{R}=R / Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right)$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $R$ is a right t-semisimple ring;
(ii) Every $R$-module is a $C_{21}$-module;
(iii) Every nonsingular $R$-module is a $C_{21}$-module;
(iv) Every $R$-submodule of $\bar{R} \oplus \bar{R}$ is a $C_{21}$-module.

Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) This follows from the definition of $C_{21}$-modules and the fact that every nonsingular module over a right $t$-semisimple ring is injective.

The implications (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) $\Rightarrow$ (iv) are obvious.
(iv) $\Rightarrow$ (i) Let $\bar{I}$ be a right ideal of $\bar{R}$. Thus $\bar{I} \oplus \bar{R}$ being an $R$-submodule of $\bar{R} \oplus \bar{R}$ is a $C_{21}-R$-module by (iv). Let $\mu: \bar{I} \rightarrow \bar{R}$ be the inclusion map. Note that $\bar{R}$ is nonsingular. Then $\bar{I}$ is a direct summand of $\bar{R}$ by Corollary 3.5 . Therefore $\bar{R}$ is a semisimple ring. This completes the proof.

It is shown in Example 2.6 that every $Z_{2}$-torsion module has $\left(C_{21}\right)$. Also, in Example 2.13, we provide a $C_{21}$-module which is not $Z_{2}$-torsion. Next, we characterize the class
of rings $R$ for which each $C_{21}$ - $R$-module is $Z_{2}$-torsion. It turns out that this class is a subclass of that of $t$-semisimple rings.

Proposition 4.4. The following conditions are equivalent for a ring $R$ :
(i) $R_{R}$ is a $Z_{2}$-torsion $R$-module;
(ii) Every $C_{21}-R$-module is $Z_{2}$-torsion.

In this case, every $R$-module is a $C_{21}$-module.
Proof. Let us first note that for any module $R$-homomorphism $f: M \rightarrow N$, we have $f\left(Z_{2}(M)\right) \subseteq Z_{2}(N)$. Let $M$ be an $R$-module. Given $a \in Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right)$, we consider the $R$ homomorphism $\varphi: R \rightarrow a R$ defined by $\varphi(r)=a r$ for all $r \in R$. Then $\varphi\left(Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right)\right)=$ $a Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right) \subseteq Z_{2}(M)$. It follows that $M Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right) \leq Z_{2}(M)$.
(i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) Suppose that $Z_{2}(R)=R$ and let $M$ be an $R$-module. Then $M Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right)=$ $M \subseteq Z_{2}(M)$. Hence $M$ is a $Z_{2}$-torsion module. Therefore $M$ has $\left(C_{21}\right)$.
(ii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) Note that $E\left(R_{R}\right)$ is a $C_{21}$-module. Then $E\left(R_{R}\right)$ is $Z_{2}$-torsion. But the class of $Z_{2}$-torsion modules is closed under submodules. Thus $R_{R}$ is $Z_{2}$-torsion.

For a ring $R$ and an $R$-module $M$, the (Goldie) reduced rank of $M$ (of $R$ ) is the uniform dimension of $M / Z_{2}(M)$ (of $R_{R} / Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right)$ ) (see for example, [17, Definition 7.34]). The next result shows that the class of rings $R$ for which every direct sum of injective $R$-modules has $\left(C_{21}\right)$ is exactly that of rings having finite reduced rank. Note that the proof of the implication (iii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) of this result is similar to that of $[3$, Theorem $4.9((1) \Rightarrow(2))]$, but it is given for completeness.
Proposition 4.5. The following conditions are equivalent for a ring $R$ :
(i) $R$ is of finite reduced rank;
(ii) Every direct sum of injective $R$-modules is a $C_{21}$-module;
(iii) Every direct sum of nonsingular injective $R$-modules is a $C_{21}$-module.

Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) Suppose that $R$ is of finite reduced rank and let $M$ be an $R$-module which is a direct sum of injective submodules. By [3, Proof of Theorem $4.9((2) \Rightarrow(1))]$, $M=Z_{2}(M) \oplus M^{\prime}$ for some injective submodule $M^{\prime}$ of $M$. Clearly, $M / Z_{2}(M) \cong M^{\prime}$ is a continuous module. By Proposition 2.10, $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module.
(ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) This is clear.
(iii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) Since $R / Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right)$ is a right nonsingular ring, it suffices to show that every direct sum of nonsingular injective $R / Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right)$-modules is an injective $R / Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right)$-module by [11, Theorem 3.17]. Let $M=\oplus_{i \in I} M_{i}$ be a direct sum of nonsingular injective $R / Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right)$ modules $M_{i}(i \in I)$. Then by [11, p. 48 Exercise 22], each $M_{i}(i \in I)$ is a nonsingular injective $R$-module. Since $M$ is nonsingular, so is $E(M)$. Thus, by hypothesis, $M \oplus E(M)$ is a $C_{21}$-module. Now using Corollary 3.6, it follows that $M$ is an injective $R$-module. Hence $M$ is an injective $R / Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right)$-module (see [11, p. 48 Exercise 22]).

It is easily seen that every right $t$-semisimple ring is of finite reduced rank. Using the $C_{21}$ property, we provide in the next theorem a necessary and sufficient condition for a ring of finite reduced rank to be right $t$-semisimple. We first prove the following lemma.
Lemma 4.6. Let $R$ be a ring such that every 2-generated $R$-module is a $C_{21 \text {-module or }}$ every direct sum of two uniform modules is a $C_{21}$-module. Then:
(i) Every nonsingular uniform $R$-module is simple and injective.
(ii) Every nonsingular $R$-module having finite uniform dimension is a semisimple injective module.
Proof. (i) Let $U$ be a nonsingular uniform $R$-module. Then clearly $E(U)$ is a nonsingular uniform module. Let $0 \neq x \in E(U)$ and take $0 \neq y \in x R$. By hypothesis, $x R \oplus y R$ is a $C_{21}$-module. Clearly, $x R$ is a nonsingular $R$-module. So by Corollary 3.5, it follows that $y R$ is a direct summand of $x R$. Since $x R$ is a uniform module, $x R$ is indecomposable
and hence $x R=y R$. This implies that $x R$ is a simple module. Therefore $E(U)$ is a semisimple module. As $E(U)$ is indecomposable, we see that $E(U)$ is a simple module. Thus $U=E(U)$ is a simple injective $R$-module.
(ii) Let $M$ be a nonsingular module having finite uniform dimension. So there exists a non-negative integer $n$ such that $M$ has an essential submodule $N=\oplus_{i=1}^{n} U_{i}$ which is a direct sum of uniform submodules $U_{i}(1 \leq i \leq n)$ of $M$. It is clear that each $U_{i}$ $(1 \leq i \leq n)$ is a nonsingular $R$-module. From (i), it follows that each $U_{i}(1 \leq i \leq n)$ is a simple injective $R$-module. Therefore $N$ is semisimple and injective. This implies that $N$ is a direct summand of $M$ and hence $M=N$. This completes the proof.
Theorem 4.7. The following conditions are equivalent for a ring $R$ :
(i) $R$ is of finite reduced rank and every 2 -generated $R$-module is a $C_{21}$-module;
(ii) $R$ is of finite reduced rank and every direct sum of two uniform $R$-modules is a $C_{21}$-module;
(iii) $R$ is a right $t$-semi-simple ring.

Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) Since $R$ is of finite reduced rank, the $R$-module $\bar{R}=R_{R} / Z_{2}\left(R_{R}\right)$ has finite uniform dimension. Moreover, $\bar{R}$ is a nonsingular $R$-module. Then $\bar{R}$ is a semisimple $R$-module by Lemma 4.6. Hence $R$ is a right $t$-semi-simple ring.
(iii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) This follows from Proposition 4.3.
(ii) $\Leftrightarrow$ (iii) This follows by similar arguments as in the equivalence (i) $\Leftrightarrow$ (iii).

Proposition 4.8. Let $R$ be a ring and let $\mathfrak{C}$ be a class of $R$-modules such that $\mathfrak{C}$ contains every direct sum of nonsingular injective modules and every direct sum of two uniform modules. Then the following assertions are equivalent:
(i) Every module in $\mathcal{C}$ has $\left(C_{21}\right)$;
(ii) $R$ is a right t-semisimple ring.

Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) Using Proposition 4.5, it follows that the ring $R$ is of finite reduced rank. Now we infer from Theorem 4.7 that $R$ is a right $t$-semisimple ring.
(ii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) By Proposition 4.3.

Let $N$ be a submodule of a module $M$. A complement of $N$ in $M$ is a submodule $K$ of $M$ maximal with respect to the property $N \cap K=0$. Recall that a module $M$ is said to be a $C_{11}$-module if every submodule of $M$ has a complement which is a direct summand. By [24, Theorem 2.4], every direct sum of injective modules is a $C_{11}$-module and every direct sum of two uniform modules is also a $C_{11}$-module. As an application of Proposition 4.8, one can take the class $\mathcal{C}$ to be the class of $C_{11}$-modules. So the following corollary is a direct consequence of the preceding proposition.
Corollary 4.9. The following conditions are equivalent for a ring $R$ :
(i) Every $C_{11}$-module has $\left(C_{21}\right)$;
(ii) $R$ is a right $t$-semisimple ring.

Recall that a module $M$ is called regular if every cyclic submodule of $M$ is a direct summand. Following [18], a module $M$ is said to be $d$-Rickart if $\operatorname{Im\varphi }$ is a direct summand of $M$ for every endomorphism $\varphi$ of $M$.

Next, we provide a characterization in terms of $C_{21}$-modules for a right semi-hereditary ring to be von Neumann regular.
Proposition 4.10. The following conditions are equivalent for a right semi-hereditary ring $R$ :
(i) Every finitely generated projective $R$-module is a $C_{2}$-module;
(ii) Every finitely generated projective $R$-module is a $C_{21}$-module;
(iii) Every finitely generated projective $R$-module is a d-Rickart module;
(iv) Every finitely generated projective $R$-module is a regular module;
(v) $R$ is a von Neumann regular ring.

Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) This is immediate.
(ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) Let $M$ be a finitely generated projective $R$-module and let $f$ be an endomorphism of $M$. It is clear that $\operatorname{Imf}$ is finitely generated. Then $\operatorname{Imf} \oplus M$ is a $C_{21}$-module. Since $R$ is right semi-hereditary, $R$ is right nonsingular. Hence $M$ is nonsingular by [29, 39.13(2)] and [11, Proposition 1.22(a)]. Using Corollary 3.5, we deduce that Imf is a direct summand of $M$. Thus $M$ is a d-Rickart module.
(iii) $\Rightarrow$ (v) By (iii), $R_{R}$ is a d-Rickart module. So $R$ is a von Neumann regular ring by [18, Remark 2.2].
(v) $\Rightarrow$ (iv) This follows from [26, Proposition 6.7(4)].
(iv) $\Rightarrow$ (i) Let $M$ be a finitely generated projective $R$-module. Let $N$ and $K$ be submodules of $M$ such that $N \cong K$ and $K$ is a direct summand of $M$. Since $K$ is finitely generated, so is $N$. Therefore $N$ is a direct summand of $M$ as $M$ is regular. Hence $M$ is a $C_{2}$-module.

Proposition 4.11. The following assertions are equivalent for a ring $R$ :
(i) $R$ is right hereditary and every projective $R$-module is a $C_{21}$-module;
(ii) $R$ is a semi-simple ring.

Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) Let $I$ be a right ideal of $R$. Since $R$ is right hereditary, $I$ is a projective nonsingular right $R$-module. By assumption, $I \oplus R_{R}$ is a $C_{21}$-module. We infer from Colloary 3.5 that $I$ is a direct summand of $R_{R}$. Consequently, $R$ is a semisimple ring.
(ii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) This is obvious.

In 2014, Camillo, Ibrahim, Yousif and Zhou [6] introduced and studied the notion of simple-direct-injective modules which is another generalization of the notion of $C_{2}$ modules. Recall that an $R$-module $M$ is called simple-direct-injective if, whenever $A$ and $B$ are simple submodules of $M$ with $A \cong B$ and $B$ is a direct summand of $M$, then $A$ is a direct summand of $M$. Moreover, a ring $R$ is called a right generalized $V$-ring (or a right $G V$-ring) if every simple $R$-module is either injective or projective; equivalently, every singular simple $R$-module is injective.

In the next proposition, we characterize right GV-rings, but first we need the following lemma.

Lemma 4.12. Let $R$ be a ring. Then every direct sum of a singular $R$-module and an injective $R$-module is a $C_{21}$-module.

Proof. Let an $R$-module $N=M \oplus E$ be a direct sum of submodules $M$ and $E$ such that $M$ is singular and $E$ is injective. Note that by [2, Theorem $2.4((1) \Leftrightarrow(3))]$, every direct sum of a $Z_{2}$-torsion module and a nonsingular continuous module is t-continuous. Now, since $E$ is injective, $E=Z_{2}(E) \oplus E^{\prime}$ for some submodule $E^{\prime}$ of $E$ such that $E^{\prime}$ is nonsingular and injective (see [8, 7.11]). Thus $N=\left(M \oplus Z_{2}(E)\right) \oplus E^{\prime}$. Moreover, it is clear that $M \oplus Z_{2}(E)$ is $Z_{2}$-torsion and $E^{\prime}$ is continuous. Therefore $N$ is a t-continuous module, and so $N$ is a $C_{21}$-module by [2, Corollary 2.5].

Proposition 4.13. The following statements are equivalent for a ring $R$ :
(i) $R$ is a right $G V$-ring;
(ii) Every $C_{21}$-module is simple-direct-injective.

Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) Let $M$ be a $C_{21}$-module and let $A$ and $B$ be simple submodules of $M$ with $A \cong B$ and $B$ is a direct summand of $M$. If $A$ is singular, then, by hypothesis, it is injective. Thus $A$ is a direct summand of $M$. Now, suppose that $A$ is nonsingular. Since $M$ is a $C_{21}$-module, $A$ is a direct summand of $M$. Hence $M$ is simple-direct-injective.
(ii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) Let $M$ be a singular simple $R$-module and $E(M)$ be the injective hull of $M$. Then, by Lemma 4.12, $M \oplus E(M)$ is a $C_{21}$-module. Therefore, by hypothesis, $M \oplus E(M)$ is simple-direct-injective. Consequently, the inclusion map $i: M \rightarrow E(M)$ splits by
[6, Proposition 2.1]. It follows that $M$ is a direct summand of $E(M)$. Hence $M$ is injective and $R$ is a right GV-ring, as required.

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