# ON THE ENDOMORPHISM RING OF A SEMI-INJECTIVE MODULE 

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#### Abstract

Let $R$ be a ring. A right $R$-module $M$ is called quasi-principally (or semi-) injective if it is $M$-principally injective. In this paper, we show: (1) The following are equivalent for a projective module $M$ : (a) Every $M$-cyclic submodule of $M$ is projective; (b) Every factor module of an $M$-principally injective module is $M$-principally injective; (c) Every factor module of an injective $R$-module is $M$ principally injective. (2) The endomorphism ring $S$ of a semi-injective module is regular if and only if the kernel of every endomorphism is a direct summand. (3) For a semi-injective module $M$, if $S$ is semiregular, then for every $s \in S \backslash J(S)$, there exists a nonzero idempotent $\alpha \in S s$ such that $\operatorname{Ker}(s) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(\alpha)$ and $\operatorname{Ker}(s(1-\alpha)) \neq$ 0 . The converse is also considered.


## 1. Introduction

Let $R$ be a ring. A right $R$-module $M$ is called principally injective if every $R$-homomorphism from a principal right ideal of $R$ to $M$ can be extended to an $R$-homomorphism from $R$ to $M$. This notion was introduced by Camillo [2] for commutative rings. In [7], Nicholson and Yousif studied the struture of principally injective rings and gave some applications. In [9], Sanh and others extended this notion to modules. A right $R$-module $N$ is called $M$-principally injective if every $R$-homomorphism from an $M$-cyclic submodule of $M$ to $N$ can be extended to $M$. In [10], Tansee and Wongwai introduced the dual notion, a right $R$-module $N$ is called $\boldsymbol{M}$-principally projective if every $R$-homomorphism from $N$ to an $M$-cyclic submodule of $M$ can be lifted to an $R$-homomorphism from $N$ to $M$. A module $M$ is called quasi-principally (or semi-) projective if it is $M$-principally projective. Dual to this module and following Wisbauer [12] we consider a semiinjective module.

Throughout this paper, $R$ is an associative ring with identity. Let $M$ be a right $R$-module, the endomorphism ring of $M$ is denoted by $S=\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$. A module $N$ is called $\boldsymbol{M}$-generated if there is an epimorphism $M^{(I)} \rightarrow N$ for some index set $I$. If $I$ is finite, then $N$ is called finitely $M$-generated. In particular, a submodule $N$ of $M$ is called $\boldsymbol{M}$-cyclic submodule of $M$ if it is isomorphic to $M / X$ for some submodule $X$ of $M$. By the notation $N \subset{ }^{\oplus} M\left(N \subset{ }^{e} M\right)$ we mean

[^0]that $N$ is a direct summand (an essential submodule) of $M$. We denote the socle and the singular submodule of $M$ by $\operatorname{Soc}(M)$ and $Z(M)$ respectively, and that $J(M)$ denotes the Jacobson radical of $M$.

## 2. Principal Injectivity

Definition 2.1. [9] Let $M$ be a right $R$-module. A right $R$-module $N$ is called $M$-principally injective if every $R$-homomorphism from an $M$-cyclic submodule of $M$ to $N$ can be extended to $M$. Equivalently, for any endomorphism $s$ of $M$, every homomorphism from $s(M)$ to $N$ can be extended to a homomorphism from $M$ to $N . N$ is called principally injective if it is $R$-principally injective.
Lemma 2.2. Let $M$ and $N$ be $R$-modules. Then $N$ is $M$-principally injective if and only if for each $s \in S=\operatorname{End}_{R}(M), \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) s=\left\{f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)\right.$ : $f(\operatorname{Ker}(s))=0\}$.

Proof. Clearly, $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) s \subset\left\{f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N): f(\operatorname{Ker}(s))=0\right\}$. Let $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ such that $f(\operatorname{Ker}(s))=0$. This leads to $\operatorname{Ker}(s) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(f)$. Then there is an $R$-homomorphism $\varphi: s(M) \rightarrow N$ such that $\varphi s=f$. Since $N$ is $M$-principally injective, there exists an $R$-homomorphism $t: M \rightarrow N$ such that $t \imath=\varphi$ where $\imath: s(M) \rightarrow M$ is the inclusion map. Hence $f=t s$ and therefore $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N) s$.

Conversely, let $\varphi: s(M) \rightarrow N$ be an $R$-homomorphism. Then $\varphi s \in$ $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ and $\varphi s(\operatorname{Ker}(s))=0$. By assumption, we have $\varphi s=u s$ for some $u \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$. This shows that $N$ is $M$-principally injective.

Example 2.3. Let $R=\left(\begin{array}{cc}F & F \\ 0 & F\end{array}\right)$ where $F$ is a field, $M_{R}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}F & F \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)$ and $N_{R}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 0 \\ 0 & F\end{array}\right)$. Then
(1) $N$ is not $M$-injective.
(2) $N$ is $M$-principally injective.

Proof. (1) Define $\varphi:\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & F \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right) \rightarrow\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 0 \\ 0 & F\end{array}\right)$ with $\varphi\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)$. It is clear that $\varphi$ is an $R$-isomorphism. For any homomorphism $\alpha:\left(\begin{array}{cc}F & F \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right) \rightarrow\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 0 \\ 0 & F\end{array}\right)$ with $\alpha\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)\right)=$ $\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 0 \\ 0 & x\end{array}\right)$ for some $x \in F$, then $\alpha\left(\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)\right)=\alpha\left[\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)\right]=\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 0 \\ 0 & x\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)$ for every $\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right) \in\left(\begin{array}{cc}F & F \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)$, so that $\alpha=0$. Therefore $N$ is not $M$-injective.
(2) It follows from (1) that $\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & F \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)$ is not $M$-cyclic submodule of $M$. Hence only 0 and $M$ are $M$-cyclic submodules of $M$, thus $N$ is $M$-principally injective.

Clearly, every $X$-cyclic submodule of $X$ is an $M$-cyclic submodule of $M$ for every $M$-cyclic submodule $X$ of $M$. Thus we have the following
Proposition 2.4. $N$ is $M$-principally injective if and only if $N$ is $X$-principally injective for every $M$-cyclic submodule $X$ of $M$. In particular, if $X$ is a direct summand of $M$ and $N$ is $M$-principally injective, then $N$ is both $X$-principally injective and $M / X$-principally injective.

Proposition 2.5. Let $M$ and $N$ be $R$-modules. Then $M$ is $N$-principally projective and every $N$-cyclic submodule of $N$ is $M$-principally injective if and only if $N$ is $M$-principally injective and every $M$-cyclic submodule of $M$ is $N$-principally projective.

Proof. $(\Rightarrow)$ Let $f$ be an endomorphism of $N, X$ an $M$-cyclic submodule of $M$ and let $g: X \rightarrow f(N)$ be an $R$-homomorphism. Then $g$ is extended to an $R$ homomorphism $h: M \rightarrow f(N)$ so $h$ is lifted to an $R$-homomorphism $t: M \rightarrow N$. Thus $t \imath$ is lifted $g$ where $\imath: X \rightarrow M$ is the inclusion map.
$(\Leftarrow)$ Let $\varphi: s(M) \rightarrow t(N)$ be an $R$-homomorphism where $s, t$ are endomorphisms of $M$ and $N$, respectively. Then $\varphi$ lifts to an $R$-homomorphism $\widehat{\varphi}: s(M) \rightarrow$ $N$ and so $\widehat{\varphi}$ is extended to an $R$-homomorphism $\alpha: M \rightarrow N$, it is clear that $t \alpha$ is an extension of $\varphi$.

A ring $R$ is called a left (resp. right) $\boldsymbol{P} \boldsymbol{P}$-ring if each of its principal left (resp. right) ideal is projective. This is equivalent to the fact that, for each $a \in R$ there is an idempotent $e$ such that $\ell_{R}(a)=R e\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.r_{R}(a)=e R\right)$.

Theorem 2.6. The following are equivalent for a projective module $M$ :
(1) Every $M$-cyclic submodule of $M$ is projective;
(2) Every factor module of an M-principally injective module is M-principally injective;
(3) Every factor module of an injective $R$-module is $M$-principally injective.

Proof. (1) $\Rightarrow(2)$ Let $N$ be an $M$-principally injective module, $X$ a submodule of $N$ and let $\varphi: s(M) \rightarrow N / X$ be an $R$-homomorphism. By (1), there exists an $R$-homomorphism $\widehat{\varphi}: s(M) \rightarrow N$ such that $\varphi=\eta \widehat{\varphi}$ where $\eta: N \rightarrow N / X$ is the natural epimorphism. Since $N$ is $M$-principally injective, there exists an $R$-homomorphism $t: M \rightarrow N$ which is an extension of $\widehat{\varphi}$ to $M$. Then $\eta \mathrm{t}$ is an extension of $\varphi$ to $M$.
(2) $\Rightarrow$ (3) Clear.
$(3) \Rightarrow(1)$ Let $t(M)$ be an $M$-cyclic submodule of $M, h: A \rightarrow B$ an epimorphism and let $\alpha: t(M) \rightarrow B$ be $R$-homomorphism. Embed $A$ in an injective module $E$. Then $B \simeq A / \operatorname{Ker}(h)$ is a submodule of $E / \operatorname{Ker}(h)$; we may view $\alpha: t(M) \rightarrow$ $E / \operatorname{Ker}(h)$, which by hypothesis we can extend to $\widehat{\alpha}: M \rightarrow E / \operatorname{Ker}(h)$. Since $M$ is projective, $\widehat{\alpha}$ can be lifted to $g: M \rightarrow E$. It is clear that $g(t(M)) \subset A$. Therefore we have lifted $\alpha$.

Corollary 2.7.[12, Exercises 39.17(4)] The following are equivalent for a ring $R$ :
(1) $R$ is a right PP-ring;
(2) Every factor module of a principally injective module is principally injective;
(3) Every factor module of an injective $R$-module is principally injective.

Definition 2.8. A right $R$-module $M$ is called semi-injective if it is $M$-principally injective.

In general, we have:

$$
\text { injective } \Longrightarrow \text { quasi-injective } \Longrightarrow \text { semi-injective } \Longrightarrow \text { direct-injective. }
$$

Recall that an $R$-module $M$ is said to be direct-injective if for any direct summand $D$ of $M$, every monomorphism $f: D \rightarrow M$ splits. Direct-projective modules are defined dually. A submodule $N$ of $M$ is called a fully invariant submodule of $M$ if $s(N) \subset N$ for every $s \in S$.

## 3. The Endomorphism Ring and its Jacobson Radical

Write

$$
\triangle=\left\{s \in S: \operatorname{ker}(s) \subset^{e} M\right\}, \quad \text { and } \hat{\diamond}=\{s \in S: \operatorname{Ker}(1+t s)=0 \text { for all } t \in S\}
$$

It is known that $\triangle$ is an ideal of $S[\mathbf{5}$, Lemma 3.2]. Since $\operatorname{Ker}(s) \cap \operatorname{Ker}(1+t s)=0$, $\triangle \subset \hat{\diamond}$. It is well-known that, for a quasi-continuous module $M, M$ is continuous if and only if $S / \triangle$ is regular and $J(S)=\triangle[\mathbf{5}$, Proposition 3.15]. We now investigate when $J(S)=\triangle$.

Following [12], an $R$-module $M$ is called $\boldsymbol{\pi}$-injective if, for all submodules $U$ and $V$ of $M$ with $U \cap V=0$, there exists $f \in S$ with $U \subset \operatorname{Ker}(f)$ and $V \subset \operatorname{Ker}(1-f)$. A module $M$ is called a self-generator if it generates all its submodules.
Proposition 3.1. Let $M$ be semi-injective.
(1) $J(S)=\hat{\diamond}$.
(2) If $S$ is local, then $J(S)=\{s \in S: \operatorname{Ker}(s) \neq 0\}$.
(3) If $S / \triangle$ is regular, then $J(S)=\triangle$.
(4) If $S / J(S)$ is regular, then $S / \triangle$ is regular if and only if $J(S)=\triangle$.
(5) If $\operatorname{Im} s \subset^{e} M$ where $s \in S$, then any monomorphism $t: s(M) \rightarrow M$ can be extended to a monomorphism in $S$.
(6) If $M$ is uniform, then $S$ is a local ring and $J(S)=\triangle$.
(7) For $s \in S$, if $M$ is uniform and $s$ is left invertible, then $s$ is invertible.
(8) $M$ is uniform if and only if $S$ is local and $M$ is $\pi$-injective.
(9) If $M$ is uniform, then $Z\left(S_{S}\right) \subset J(S)$.

Proof. (1) For any $s \in J(S)$ and $t \in S, g(1+t s)=1_{M}$ for some $g \in S$. Thus $\operatorname{Ker}(1+t s)=0$, and hence $J(S) \subset \hat{\diamond}$. On the other hand, if $\operatorname{Ker}(1+s)=0$, then $\ell_{S}(\operatorname{Ker}(1+t s))=S$. By Lemma 2.2, we have $S=S(1+t s)$ which implies $1_{M}=g(1+t s)$ for some $g \in S$. It follows that $s \in J(S)$.
(2) Since $S$ is local, $S s \neq S$ for any $s \in J(S)$. If $\operatorname{Ker}(s)=0$, then $\alpha: s(M) \rightarrow M$ given by $\alpha(s(m))=m$ for any $m \in M$ is an $R$-homomorphism. Since $M$ is semiinjective, let $\beta \in S$ be an extension of $\alpha$ to $M$. It follows that $\beta s=1_{M}$ so $S s=S$, which is a contradiction. This shows that $J(S) \subset\{s \in S: \operatorname{Ker}(s) \neq 0\}$. The other inclusion is clear.
(3) Clearly, $\triangle \subset J(S)$. If $s \in J(S)$, then $(1-s \alpha) s=s-s \alpha s \in \triangle$ for some $\alpha \in S$. Since $(1-s \alpha)$ has a left inverse, $s \in \triangle$. This show that $J(S) \subset \triangle$.
(4) This follows from (3).
(5) Since $M$ is semi-injective, there exists $g \in S$ such that $g s=t s$. Thus $\operatorname{Im}(s) \cap \operatorname{Ker}(g)=0$. Since $\operatorname{Im}(s) \subset^{e} M, \operatorname{Ker}(g)=0$.
(6) Since $M$ is direct-injective, $S$ is local provided that $M$ is uniform [12, 41.22]. It follows that $J(S)=\triangle$ by (2).
(7) Since $s$ has a left inverse, $\operatorname{Ker}(s)=0$. Follows from (6) and (2), we have $s \notin J(S)$ hence $s$ is invertible.
(8) The necessity is trivial. For the sufficiency, let $U$ and $V$ be submodules of $M$ such that $U \cap V=0$. As $M$ is $\pi$-injective, we can choose $f \in S$ so that $U \subset \operatorname{Ker}(f)$ and $V \subset \operatorname{Ker}(1-f)$. Note that either $f$ or $1-f$ belong to $J(S)$. If $f \in J(S)$, then $g(1-f)=1$ for some $g \in S$. Thus $\operatorname{Ker}(1-f)=0$, and it follows that $V=0$. Otherwise, $U=0$.
(9) Let $s \in Z\left(S_{S}\right)$. Then $\operatorname{Ker}(s) \neq 0$. For any $t \in S$ we have $\operatorname{Ker}(s) \cap \operatorname{Ker}(1+t s)=$ 0 , then $\operatorname{Ker}(1+t s)=0$. Hence $s \in J(S)$ by (1).

Proposition 3.2. Suppose $M$ is a semi-injective and $\pi$-injective module. If $S$ is semiperfect, then $M=\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} U_{i}$, where $U_{i}$ is uniform and semi-injective for each $i$.

Proof. Since $S$ is semiperfect and $M$ is semi-injective, $M=U_{1} \oplus \ldots \oplus U_{n}$, where each $\operatorname{End}_{R}\left(U_{i}\right)$ is local. Note that $U_{i}$ is semi-injective. Each $U_{i}$ is $\pi$-injective [12,41.20], thus by Proposition 3.1(8) we see that $U_{i}$ is uniform.

The following proposition is modified from [1,Lemma 18.21]
Proposition 3.3. If $\operatorname{Soc}(M) \subset{ }^{e} M$, then
(1) $\triangle=\ell_{S}(\operatorname{Soc}(M))$, and
(2) $S / \triangle$ is embedded in $\operatorname{End}_{R}(\operatorname{Soc}(M))$ as a subring.

Proof. (1) Let $s \in \triangle$. Then $\operatorname{soc}(M) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(s)$, it follows that $s(\operatorname{Soc}(M))=0$. If, on the other hand, $s(\operatorname{Soc}(M))=0$, then $\operatorname{Ker}(s) \subset^{e} M$ and $s \in \triangle$.
(2) For each $s \in S$, let $\theta(s)$ be a map from $\operatorname{Soc}(M)$ into itself defined by $(\theta(s))(x)=s(x)$. Since $\operatorname{Soc}(M)$ is fully invariant in $M$, it follows that $\theta(s) \in$ $\operatorname{End}_{R}(\operatorname{Soc}(M))$ and $\theta: S \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{R}(\operatorname{Soc}(M))$ is a ring homomorphism. Clearly, $\operatorname{Ker}(\theta)=\triangle$ and the proof is complete.

Corollary 3.4. If $M$ is semi-injective and a self-generator and if $\operatorname{Soc}(M) \subset^{e} M$, then
(1) $J(S)=\ell_{S}(\operatorname{Soc}(M))$, and
(2) $S / J(S) \simeq \operatorname{End}_{R}(\operatorname{Soc}(M))$.

Proof. (1) As $M$ is semi-injective and a self-generator, we have $J(S)=\triangle$ by [9, Theorem 2.13].
(2) Since $M$ is semi-injective, every $R$-homomorphism in $\operatorname{End}_{R}(\operatorname{Soc}(M))$ can be extended to an $R$-homomorphism in $S$. By (1) and Proposition 3.3(2), it follows that $S / J(S)$ is isomorphic to $\operatorname{End}_{R}(\operatorname{Soc}(M))$ as rings.

Proposition 3.5. Let $M$ be a semi-injective module.
(1) If $\operatorname{Im}(s)$ is a simple right $R$-module, $s \in S$, then $S s$ is a simple left $S$-module.
(2) If $s_{1}(M) \oplus \cdots \oplus s_{n}(M)$ is direct, $s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n} \in S$, then $S\left(s_{1}+\cdots+s_{n}\right)=$ $S s_{1}+\cdots+S s_{n}$.

Proof. (1) Let $A$ be a nonzero submodule of $S s$ and $0 \neq \alpha s \in A$. Then $S \alpha s \subset A$. Since $\operatorname{Im}(s)$ is simple, $\operatorname{Ker}(\alpha) \cap \operatorname{Im}(s)=0$. Define $g: \alpha s(M) \rightarrow M$ by $g(\alpha s(m))=$ $s(m)$ for every $m \in M$. It it obvious that $g$ is an $R$-homomorphism. Since $M$ is semi-injective, there exists a homomorphism $h \in S$ such that $h(\alpha s)=g(\alpha s)$. Therefore $h(\alpha s)=s$ so $s \in S \alpha s$. It follows that $S \alpha s=S s$ and hence $A=S s$.
(2) Let $\alpha_{1} s_{1}+\cdots+\alpha_{n} s_{n} \in S s_{1}+\cdots+S s_{n}$. For each $i$, define $\varphi_{i}:\left(s_{1}+\right.$ $\left.\cdots+s_{n}\right)(M) \rightarrow M$ by $\varphi_{i}\left(\left(s_{1}+\cdots+s_{n}\right)(m)\right)=s_{i}(m)$ for every $m \in M$. Since $s_{1}(M) \oplus \cdots \oplus s_{n}(M)$ is direct, $\varphi_{i}$ is well-defined, so it is clear that $\varphi_{i}$ is an $R$-homomorphism. Then there exists an $R$-homomorphism $\widehat{\varphi}_{i} \in S$ which is an extension of $\varphi_{i}$. Then $s_{i}=\varphi_{i}\left(s_{1}+\cdots+s_{n}\right)=\widehat{\varphi_{i}}\left(s_{1}+\cdots+s_{n}\right) \in S\left(s_{1}+\cdots+s_{n}\right)$ for every $i=1, \ldots, n$. Consequently, $\alpha_{1} s_{1}+\cdots+\alpha_{n} s_{n} \in S\left(s_{1}+\cdots+s_{n}\right)$. Hence $S s_{1}+\cdots S s_{n} \subset S\left(s_{1}+\cdots+s_{n}\right)$. The other inclusion always holds.

We call a module $M$ a duo module if every submodule of $M$ is fully invariant. $M$ is said [11] to have the summand intersection property (SIP) if the intersection of two direct summands is again a direct summand. The module $M$ is said [4] to have the summand sum property (SSP) if the sum of any two summands of $M$ is again a summand.

We prove a similar result here for a semi-injective module $M$, with the (SIP) and (SSP). Note that every direct summand of $M$ is of the form $s(M)$ for some $s \in S$.

Proposition 3.6. Every duo and semi-injective module has the (SIP) and (SSP).
Proof. Write $M=s(M) \oplus K$ and $M=t(M) \oplus L$. Since $M$ is duo, $s(M)=$ $s(t(M) \oplus L)=s t(M)+s(L) \subset(s(M) \cap t(M))+(s(M) \cap L)=(s(M) \cap t(M)) \oplus$ $(s(M) \cap L) \subset s(M)$. Then $s(M) \cap t(M) \subset{ }^{\oplus} M$. Now we write $M=s(M) \cap$ $t(M) \oplus N$. Then $t(M)=t(M) \cap(s(M) \cap t(M) \oplus N)=s(M) \cap t(M) \oplus t(M) \cap N$ by the Modular law. So $s(M)+t(M)=s(M)+(s(M) \cap t(M) \oplus t(M) \cap N)=$ $s(M)+t(M) \cap N=s(M) \oplus t(M) \cap N$. Since $s(M)$ and $t(M) \cap N$ are direct summands, $s(M)+t(M)$ is a direct summand of $M$ by $\left(C_{3}\right)$.

Following [6] a ring $R$ is called semiregular if $R / J(R)$ is regular and idempotents can be lifted modulo $J(R)$. Equivalently, $R$ is semiregular if and only if for each element $a \in R$, there exists $e^{2}=e \in R a$ such that $a(1-e) \in J(R)$.

Theorem 3.7. For a semi-injective module $M$, if $S$ is semiregular, then (*) holds, where ( $*$ ) is the conditon
(*): For every $s \in S \backslash J(S)$, there exists a nonzero idempotent $\alpha \in S$ s such that $\operatorname{Ker}(s) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(\alpha)$ and $\operatorname{Ker}(s(1-\alpha)) \neq 0$.
If, in addition, $S$ is local, then the converse is true.

Proof. Let $s \in S \backslash J(S)$. Then there exists $\alpha^{2}=\alpha \in S s$ such that $s(1-\alpha) \in$ $J(S)$. Then $\alpha \neq 0$ and $\operatorname{Ker}(s) \subset \operatorname{Ker}(\alpha)$. If $\operatorname{Ker}(s(1-\alpha))=0$, then $g s(1-\alpha)=1_{M}$ for some $g \in S$ by the semi-injectivity of $M$. It follows that $\alpha=0$, a contradiction.

The converse follows from Proposition 3.1(2).

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