

ON STRONGLY GORENSTEIN HEREDITARY RINGS

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ABSTRACT. In this note, we mainly discuss strongly Gorenstein hereditary rings. We prove that for any ring, the class of SG -projective modules and the class of G -projective modules coincide if and only if the class of SG -projective modules is closed under extension. From this we get that a ring is an SG -hereditary ring if and only if every ideal is G -projective and the class of SG -projective modules is closed under extension. We also give some examples of domains whose ideals are SG -projective.

1. Introduction

Throughout this note, all rings are commutative with identity element and all modules are unitary.

Recall that an R -module M is called *Gorenstein projective* (G -projective for short) in [4] if there exists an exact sequence $\cdots \rightarrow P_1 \rightarrow P_0 \rightarrow P^0 \rightarrow P^1 \rightarrow \cdots$ of projective R -modules with $M = \ker(P^0 \rightarrow P^1)$ such that $\text{Hom}_R(-, Q)$ leaves the sequence exact whenever Q is a projective module. The authors in [3] introduced *strongly Gorenstein projective* (SG -projective for short) modules. An R -module M is called SG -projective if there exists an exact sequence of projective modules $\cdots \rightarrow P \rightarrow P \rightarrow P \rightarrow P \rightarrow \cdots$ such that all these projective modules are the same and all these arrows in this sequence are the same homomorphism with M to be an image of some arrow and $\text{Hom}_R(-, Q)$ leaves the sequence exact whenever Q is a projective module. The authors in [9] introduced strongly Gorenstein hereditary rings. A ring R is called *strongly Gorenstein hereditary* (for short, SG -hereditary) if every submodule of any projective module is SG -projective. An SG -hereditary domain is called an *SG -Dedekind domain*. Naturally, Dedekind domains are SG -Dedekind domains. Examples of SG -hereditary rings are given in [9]. It is easy to see from the definition that every ideal of an SG -hereditary ring is SG -projective. It is natural to ask whether the converse also holds, that is to say, if every ideal of a ring is SG -projective, can we say that the ring is SG -hereditary? Unfortunately, we can not give a positive answer. But we prove that a ring is SG -hereditary if

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and only if every ideal is G -projective and the class of SG -projective modules is closed under extension. Let R be a G -Dedekind domain with quotient field K and T be its integral closure in K and the ideal $(R :_K T)$ be a nonzero prime ideal of R . If M is a G -projective R -module which has no projective direct summand of rank 1, then M is also a T -module. If M is a finitely generated G -projective R -module, then M is isomorphic to a direct sum of some ideals of R . If every projective ideal of R is principal, then any projective R -module is free. From this, we give some examples of G -Dedekind domains whose ideals are SG -projective. That is, if p is a prime number and $R = \mathbb{Z} + p\mathbb{Z}i$, then every ideal of R is SG -projective. We also get that if $R = \mathbb{Z} + 2\mathbb{Z}i$, then every projective R -module is free.

For unexplained concepts and notations, one can refer to [8, 12].

2. A characterization of SG -hereditary rings

In this section, we mainly prove the following:

Theorem 2.1. *Let R be a ring. Then R is an SG -hereditary ring if and only if every ideal of R is G -projective and the class of SG -projective modules is closed under extension.*

In order to prove this theorem, we need some lemmas. We begin with the following:

Lemma 2.2. *Let M be a module and P be a projective module. If $M \oplus P$ is SG -projective, then M is SG -projective.*

Proof. This follows easily from [15, Theorem 2.1]. □

A similar result of the following can be seen in [16, Theorem 3.14], but the proof there is not suitable for SG -projective modules. So, we state this here.

Lemma 2.3. *Let R be a ring and let $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence of R -modules such that C is SG -projective.*

- (1) *If A is projective, then B is SG -projective;*
- (2) *If B is projective, then A is SG -projective.*

Proof. (1) Since A is projective, the sequence splits. So $B \cong A \oplus C$ is SG -projective.

(2) This result follows directly from [10, Proposition 2.13]. We give its proof for completeness.

Since C is SG -projective, we have a short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow C \rightarrow P \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0,$$

where P is projective. So we have the following commutative diagram with exact rows.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & C & \longrightarrow & P & \longrightarrow & C & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \parallel & & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A & \longrightarrow & B & \longrightarrow & C & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array}$$

Now we consider the mapping cone sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow C \longrightarrow P \oplus A \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow 0.$$

Since B is projective, this sequence splits. So $C \oplus B \cong A \oplus P$. Because C and B are SG -projective, $A \oplus P$ is also SG -projective. Therefore, A is SG -projective by Lemma 2.2. \square

Let \mathfrak{X} be a class of R -modules. We call \mathfrak{X} *projectively resolving* [5] if \mathfrak{X} contains projective modules, and for every short exact sequence $0 \longrightarrow X' \longrightarrow X \longrightarrow X'' \longrightarrow 0$ with $X'' \in \mathfrak{X}$ the conditions $X' \in \mathfrak{X}$ and $X \in \mathfrak{X}$ are equivalent. Denote by SGP the class of SG -projective modules.

Lemma 2.4. *Let R be a ring. If SGP is closed under extension, then SGP is projectively resolving.*

Proof. Let $0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow C \longrightarrow 0$ be an exact sequence such that C is SG -projective. We must prove that A is SG -projective if and only if B is SG -projective. If A is SG -projective, then B is SG -projective because SGP is closed under extension. If B is SG -projective, then we have a short exact sequence $0 \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow 0$, where P is projective. So we have the following commutative diagram with exact rows and columns:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} & & & & 0 & & 0 & & \\ & & & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A & \longrightarrow & B & \longrightarrow & C & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ & & \parallel & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A & \longrightarrow & P & \longrightarrow & T & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ & & & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ & & & & B & \equiv & B & & \\ & & & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ & & & & 0 & & 0 & & \end{array}$$

Since B and C are SG -projective, it can be seen from the right vertical sequence that T is also SG -projective. Now applying Lemma 2.3 to the middle horizontal sequence, we get that A is SG -projective. \square

The following lemma shows some relations between G -projective modules and SG -projective modules.

Lemma 2.5. *The following statements are equivalent for a ring R :*

- (1) *Every G -projective module is SG -projective.*
- (2) *SGP is closed under extension.*

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2) This is obvious since the class of G -projective modules is closed under extension.

(2) \Rightarrow (1) By Lemma 2.4, SGP is projectively resolving. Also notice that the SGP is closed under countable direct sums, and so direct summands by [5, Proposition 1.4]. Since any G -projective module is a direct summand of some SG -projective module by [3, Theorem 2.7], every G -projective module is SG -projective. \square

Now we are in the position to prove the main theorem.

Proof of Theorem 2.1. If R is SG -hereditary, then any G -projective module, as a submodule of some projective module, must be SG -projective. So SGP is closed under extension by Lemma 2.5. Also every ideal, as a submodule of R , must be G -projective. For sufficiency part, if every ideal of R is G -projective, then R is a G -hereditary ring by [6, Theorem 1.2]. If SGP is closed under extension, by Lemma 2.5, every G -projective module is SG -projective. Therefore, by [9, Proposition 2.8], R is SG -hereditary. \square

3. A special kind of G -Dedekind domains

It is well known that a domain is a Dedekind domain if and only if submodules of any free module are projective. It is proved in [6, Theorem 1.2] that a domain R is a G -Dedekind domain if and only if every ideal of R is G -projective. Since projective modules are SG -projective, Dedekind domains are SG -Dedekind domains. Trivially SG -Dedekind domains are G -Dedekind domains. Unfortunately, we have not found an SG -Dedekind domain which is not a Dedekind domain, but we find some G -Dedekind domains whose ideals are SG -projective. The induction trick of Theorem 3.3 can be found in [2, 6].

Let R be a G -Dedekind domain with quotient field K and T be its integral closure in K . We study such a G -Dedekind domain R that the ideal $(R :_K T)$ is a nonzero prime ideal of R .

In [11, Theorem], E. Matlis proved that every ideal of a domain R can be generated by two elements if and only if R is a Noetherian ring and every finitely generated torsion-free R_M -module is a direct sum of R_M -modules of rank 1. The following lemma is inspired by his work.

Lemma 3.1. *Let M be an R -module. Then M has a projective direct summand of rank 1 if and only if there exists an $f \in M^*$ such that $\text{Im} f$ is projective.*

Proof. Since every projective module of rank 1 is isomorphic to an ideal, if $M = N \oplus P$ where P is a projective submodule of rank 1, then the canonical composition $f : M \rightarrow P \rightarrow R$ is an element of M^* such that $\text{Im}f$ is projective. Conversely, if there is an $f \in M^*$ such that $\text{Im}f$ is projective, then we have an exact sequence $M \rightarrow \text{Im}f \rightarrow 0$. Because $\text{Im}f$ is projective, this sequence splits. So, M has a projective direct summand of rank 1. \square

Lemma 3.2. *Let R be a G -Dedekind domain with quotient field K , T be its integral closure in K , and the ideal $(R :_K T)$ be a nonzero prime ideal of R . If M is a G -projective R -module which has no projective direct summand of rank 1, then $\text{Im}f \subset (R :_K T)$ for any $f \in M^*$.*

Proof. If $\text{Im}f \not\subset (R :_K T)$ for some $f \in M^*$, then $\text{Im}f + (R :_K T) = R$ because $(R :_K T)$ is a nonzero prime ideal of R and $\dim(R) \leq 1$ ([14, Corollary 11.7.8]). Therefore $\text{Im}f$ is projective by [7, Lemma 1.8]. This, by Lemma 3.1, means that M has a projective direct summand of rank 1, which contradicts the hypothesis. \square

Theorem 3.3. *Let R be a G -Dedekind domain with quotient field K , T be its integral closure in K , and the ideal $(R :_K T)$ be a nonzero prime ideal of R . If M is a G -projective R -module which has no projective direct summand of rank 1, then M is also a T -module.*

Proof. Let $m \in M$. Since M is a G -projective R -module, we can assume that M is a submodule of some free module F , say $F = \bigoplus_{i \in \Gamma} Rx_i$. So, as an element of F , m has only finitely many coordinates which are not zero. Well-order the set Γ and let nonzero coordinates of m be the beginning ones, say $m \in \bigoplus_{i=1}^n Rx_i$. So every element of Γ is corresponding to an ordinal which is not a limit ordinal. We add those related limit ordinals in Γ to obtain a new set and still denote it by Γ . Then, for some $k \in \Gamma$, if k is corresponding to a limit ordinal, we define $H_k = \bigoplus_{i < k} Rx_i$; if k is corresponding to an ordinal which is not a limit ordinal, we define $H_k = \bigoplus_{i \leq k} Rx_i$. Denote $M \cap H_k$ by J_k . Note that $m \in J_n$ and if k is corresponding to a limit ordinal, $J_k = \bigcup_{i < k} J_i$. Now, we prove that for any $f \in J_n^*$ ($\text{Hom}(J_n, R)$), $\text{Im}f$ is not projective. Suppose there is some $f \in J_n^*$ such that $\text{Im}f$ is projective. We consider the following commutative diagram with an exact row

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & J_n & \longrightarrow & J_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & I_{n+1} \longrightarrow 0, \\ & & \downarrow f & \searrow f_{n+1} & & & \\ & & \text{Im}f & & & & \end{array}$$

where α is the projective map to the $(n+1)$ -th coordinate. The existence of f_{n+1} can be verified because I_{n+1} , as an ideal of R , is G -projective and $\text{Im}f$ is projective. Since $f : J_n \rightarrow \text{Im}f$ is surjective, $f_{n+1} : J_{n+1} \rightarrow \text{Im}f$ is also surjective. Next, we prove that there exists a surjective homomorphism

$h : M \rightarrow \text{Im} f$. To this end, we show that f can be extended to a homomorphism f_i from J_i to $\text{Im} f$ for every $i \in \Gamma$ such that $f_{i+1}|_{J_i} = f_i$. If there are exceptions, then the set S of those exceptional ordinals admits a minimal element k . If k is a limit ordinal, then $J_k = \bigcup_{i < k} J_i$ and for every $a \in J_k$, there is some $j < k$ such that $a \in J_j$. Therefore we can define $f_k(a) = f_j(a)$. If k is an ordinal which is not a limit ordinal, then $k-1$ exists and we have the following commutative diagram with an exact row

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & J_{k-1} & \longrightarrow & J_k & \xrightarrow{\beta} & I_k \longrightarrow 0, \\ & & \downarrow f_{k-1} & & \swarrow f_k & & \\ & & \text{Im} f & & & & \end{array}$$

where β is the projective map to the k -th coordinate. The existence of f_k follows because I_k , as an ideal of R , is G -projective and $\text{Im} f$ is projective. Both cases contradict the fact that $k \in S$. Now, for every $b \in M = \bigcup_{i \in \Gamma} J_i$, $b \in J_t$ for some $t \in \Gamma$ and we can define $h(b) = f_t(b)$. The existence of h means, by Lemma 3.1, that M has a projective direct summand of rank 1, which contradicts the hypothesis. Therefore, J_n is also a G -projective module which has no projective direct summand of rank 1. For any $q \in T$, we define $qm \in J_n^{**}$ such that $qm(g) = qg(m)$ for every $g \in J_n^*$. Since $g(m) \in (R :_K T)$ by Lemma 3.2 and $q \in T$, this is well defined. Because J_n is a finitely generated G -projective module, J_n is reflexive, i.e., $J_n \cong J_n^{**}$. So $qm \in J_n \subset M$. Thus we have proved that $Tm \subset M$. The arbitrariness of $m \in M$ tells us that M is also a T -module. \square

A domain R is called a *Warfield domain* if for any R -submodule A of the quotient field of R , every A -torsion-free $S := \text{End}_R(A)$ -module X of finite rank is A -reflexive, that is, the natural homomorphism $X \rightarrow \text{Hom}_S(\text{Hom}_S(X, A), A)$ is an isomorphism. In [13], it is proved that a Noetherian domain R is a Warfield domain if and only if each ideal of R is 2-generated. It is proved in [7, Theorem 2.20] that every ideal of a Noetherian Warfield domain is 2- SG -projective. Therefore Noetherian Warfield domains are G -Dedekind domains.

Example 3.4. Let p be a prime number and $R = \mathbb{Z} + p\mathbb{Z}i$. Then every ideal of R is SG -projective.

Proof. Clearly R is a subring of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$. Since $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is a free \mathbb{Z} -module of rank 2, every ideal of R is a submodule of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$. Because \mathbb{Z} is a principal ideal domain, every submodule of a free \mathbb{Z} -module of rank n is also free and its rank is at most n . This means that every ideal of R can be generated by two elements as a \mathbb{Z} -module, and hence as an ideal. Therefore, R is also a Noetherian Warfield domain, and hence a G -Dedekind domain.

Let $J = (p, pi)$. First we prove that $J^{-1} = \mathbb{Z}[i]$ and J is strongly Gorenstein projective. It is easy to see that the quotient field of R is $\mathbb{Q}[i]$. That $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is included in J^{-1} is obvious since J is a common ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ and R . For the

reverse inclusion, let $\frac{b}{a} + \frac{d}{c}i$ be an element in J^{-1} where a, b, c, d are integers and $\gcd(a, b) = 1, \gcd(c, d) = 1$. So, $(\frac{pb}{a} + \frac{pd}{c}i) \in R$ and $(\frac{pb}{a}i - \frac{pd}{c}) \in R$. This means that $a \mid b$ and $c \mid d$. Thus, $\frac{b}{a} + \frac{d}{c}i \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$. Therefore, $J^{-1} = \mathbb{Z}[i]$. To see that J is SG -projective, just notice that $J^{-1} = \mathbb{Z}[i] = R + Ri \cong pR + piR = J$ and an application of [7, Corollary 2.14] will give the result.

Secondly, let I be an ideal of R . If I is projective, it is surely SG -projective. Notice that R is a G -Dedekind domain with quotient field $\mathbb{Q}[i]$ and $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is its integral closure in $\mathbb{Q}[i]$ and the ideal $J = (R :_K \mathbb{Q}[i])$ is a nonzero prime ideal of R . If I is not projective, by Theorem 3.3, I is also an ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$. But $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is a principal ideal domain. So $I = a\mathbb{Z}[i]$ for some $a \in I$. Any element of I can be written as the form $a(c + di)$ where $c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$. But $d = qp + m$ for some $m, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ where $0 \leq m < p$. Therefore $a(c + di) = a(c + qpi + mi) = a(c + qpi) + mai$. Notice that $ai \in I$. So $I = (a, ai) \cong (p, pi) = J$. Therefore I is SG -projective from the first part. \square

Considering the localization, we also have the following:

Example 3.5. Let p be a prime number, $S = \mathbb{Z} + p\mathbb{Z}i$, $P = (p, pi)$ be the maximal ideal of S , and $R = S_P$. Then every ideal of R is SG -projective.

Corollary 3.6. Let R be a G -Dedekind domain with quotient field K , T be its integral closure in K , and the ideal $(R :_K T)$ be a nonzero prime ideal of R . If M is a G -projective R -module which has no projective direct summand, then M is isomorphic to a direct sum of some ideals of R .

Proof. By Theorem 3.3, M is also a T -module. Since T is a Dedekind domain, M is isomorphic to a direct sum of some ideals of T . Notice that any ideal I of T , as an R -module, is isomorphic to some ideal aI ($a \in (R :_K T)$) of R . Therefore M is also isomorphic to a direct sum of some ideals of R . \square

Lemma 3.7. Let R be a G -Dedekind domain with quotient field K , T be its integral closure in K , and the ideal $(R :_K T)$ be a nonzero prime ideal of R . If M is a finitely generated G -projective R -module, then M is isomorphic to a direct sum of some ideals of R .

Proof. Since R is Noetherian, M is a Noetherian R -module. So we have the decomposition: $M = M' \oplus P$, where M' has no projective direct summand of rank 1 and P is a direct sum of some projective modules of rank 1. Since any projective module of rank 1 is isomorphic to an ideal of R , P is already isomorphic to a direct sum of some ideals of R . But, by Corollary 3.6, M' is also isomorphic to a direct sum of some ideals of R . \square

H. Bass proved in [1, Corollary 4.5] that if R is connected and Noetherian, then every non-finitely generated projective R -module is free. In particular, any non-finitely generated projective module over any Noetherian domain is free. Inspired by his work, we have the following:

Proposition 3.8. *Let R be a G -Dedekind domain with quotient field K , T be its integral closure in K , and the ideal $(R :_K T)$ be a nonzero prime ideal of R . If every projective ideal of R is principal, then any projective R -module is free.*

Proof. First we notice that, by [1, Corollary 4.5], any non-finitely generated projective R -module is free. So we only need to prove that any finitely generated projective R -module M is free. By Lemma 3.7, M is isomorphic to a direct sum of some ideals of R . As direct summands of the projective R -module, these ideals are also projective, and hence free by hypothesis. Therefore M is also free. \square

Example 3.9. The domain $R = \mathbb{Z} + 2\mathbb{Z}i$ is a domain which has only two types of ideals: principal ideals and those ideals which are isomorphic to $I = (2, 2i)$. So any projective ideals of R is principal. Therefore any projective R -module is free.

Proof. As in Example 3.4, every ideal of R can be generated by two elements. Let J be any ideal of R . We can assume that $J \cong R\alpha + R\beta$ where $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ and $\gcd(\alpha, \beta) = 1$. Since $\gcd(\alpha, \beta) = 1$, there exist $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ such that $u\alpha + v\beta = 1$. So $2iu\alpha + 2iv\beta = 2i$, which means that $2i \in R\alpha + R\beta$. Likewise, we also have $2 \in R\alpha + R\beta$. We assume that $\alpha = a + bi, \beta = c + di$ where $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Case 1: Both b and d are in $2\mathbb{Z}$. Since $\gcd(\alpha, \beta) = 1$, a and c can not be inside $2\mathbb{Z}$ at the same time. Without loss of generality, we assume that $\gcd(a, 2) = 1$. Notice that $2, 2i \in R\alpha + R\beta$, and so we have $R\alpha + R\beta = R(a + bi) + R(c + di) = Ra + Rc + 2Ri + 2R = R$. This means that $R\alpha + R\beta$ is principal.

Case 2: One of the imaginary parts of α and β is not inside $2\mathbb{Z}$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $b = 2k + 1$ and $d = 2l$ where k, l are integers. So $R\alpha + R\beta = R(a + i) + Rc + 2iR + 2R$. If $c \in 2\mathbb{Z}$, then a must also be inside $2\mathbb{Z}$ because $\gcd(\alpha, \beta) = 1$. So $R\alpha + R\beta = R(a + i) + Rc + 2iR + 2R = Ri$, which is principal. If c is not inside $2\mathbb{Z}$, then $R\alpha + R\beta = R(a + i) + Rc + 2iR + 2R = Ri + R \cong (2, 2i)$.

Case 3: Neither b nor d is inside $2\mathbb{Z}$. Under this condition, the imaginary part of $\alpha - \beta$ will be inside $2\mathbb{Z}$. Since $R\alpha + R\beta = R\alpha + R(\alpha - \beta)$, this case will go back to Case 2. \square

Let R and T be domains as in Theorem 3.3 which put forward a sufficient condition for a G -projective R -module to be a T -module. The following theorem shows that this condition is also necessary.

Theorem 3.10. *Let R be a G -Dedekind domain with quotient field K , T be its integral closure in K , and the ideal $(R :_K T)$ be a nonzero prime ideal of R . If M is a G -projective R -module, then M is a T -module if and only if M has no projective direct summand.*

Proof. The sufficiency of this theorem is just Theorem 3.3. Now we assume that M is a T -module. Then any direct summand of M must also be a T -module. This will lead to the result that its projective direct summands will be also T -modules. But it is easy to see that R , and hence any free R -module can not be a T -module. So any nonzero projective R -module N can not be a T -module (otherwise the free $R_{\mathfrak{m}}$ -module $N_{\mathfrak{m}}$ will be a $T_{\mathfrak{m}}$ -module for the maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m} = (R :_K T)$ of R). This contradiction shows that M has no projective direct summand. \square

Let R and T be domains as before. The following theorem gives a sufficient and necessary condition for a finitely generated G -projective R -module to be projective.

Theorem 3.11. *Let R be a G -Dedekind domain with quotient field K , T be its integral closure in K , and the ideal $(R :_K T)$ be a nonzero prime ideal of R . If M is a finite generated G -projective R -module, then M is projective if and only if any direct summand of M is not a T -module.*

Proof. Let N be any direct summand of M . If N is a T -module, then by Theorem 3.10, N is not projective, and hence M is not projective either. Conversely, assume that any nonzero direct summand of M is not a T -module. Then M is not a T -module and by Theorem 3.10, M has a projective direct summand P_1 , say $M = P_1 \oplus M_1$. But any nonzero direct summand of M_1 is not a T -module either. So M_1 has a projective direct summand P_2 , say $M_1 = P_2 \oplus M_2$. Inductively, we get that $M = P_1 \oplus P_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus P_k \oplus M_k$, where M_k is not a T -modules. Since M is Noetherian, some M_k must be zero. Therefore $M = P_1 \oplus P_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus P_k$ is projective. \square

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