# MATH 593 - Introduction to Homological Algebra

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#### 1 Exactness

**Definition 1.1** (Complex). A Complex of R-modules is a family of R-modules  $(M_i)$  and R-linear maps  $d_i: M_i \to M_{i+1}$  s.t. for all  $i, d_{i+1} \circ d_i = 0$ .

**Remark 1.1.** The followings are some specifications on the notations:

• The complex is often denoted by a chain

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{d_{i-2}} M^{i-1} \xrightarrow{d_{i-1}} M^i \xrightarrow{d_i} M^{i+1} \xrightarrow{d_{i+1}} \cdots$$

or a chain with indices on the bottom with  $M^i = M_{-i}$ .

• The complex extends to infinity in both ends. If the notation terminated on one side, all modules not written out are the trivial (the zero module).

**Remark 1.2.** The definition of a complex is the same as stating that im  $d_i \subseteq \ker d_{i+1}$  for all i.

**Definition 1.2.** For a sequence  $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$  where f and g are R-linear maps, it is **exact at** B if the equality is reached in the remark above, i.e. im  $f = \ker g$ .

A sequence is exact if it is exact at  $A_i$  for all i. A complex is exact if it is exact everywhere.

**Example 1.1.** The sequence  $0 \longrightarrow A \stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow} B$  is exact implies that  $\ker f = \{0\}$ , i.e. f is injective. Similarly,  $A \stackrel{g}{\longrightarrow} B \longrightarrow 0$  implies that g is surjective.

Definition 1.3. A Short Exact Sequence (SES) is an exact sequence

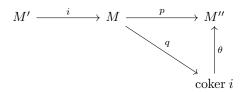
$$0 \longrightarrow M' \stackrel{i}{\longrightarrow} M \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} M'' \longrightarrow 0$$

**Proposition 1.1.** Given a sequence  $(*): 0 \longrightarrow M' \stackrel{i}{\longrightarrow} M \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} M'' \longrightarrow 0$ , the followings are equivalent:

- i) (\*) is a short exact sequence.
- ii) i is injective, and for  $q: M \to \operatorname{coker} i$ , there exists a unique isomorphism  $\mu$  s.t.  $\mu \circ q = p$ .
- iii) p is surjective, and for  $j: M \to \ker p$ , there exists a unique isomorphism  $\eta$  s.t.  $i = \eta \circ j$ .

*Proof.* It suffices to prove the equivalence between i) and ii), as the case with iii) is similar:

• i)  $\Rightarrow$  ii). Apply the universal property of cokernel. Since (\*) is exact,  $p \circ i = 0$ , there exists a map  $\theta$  s.t. the following diagram commutes. The fact that p is surjective, and the diagram should commute gives  $\theta$  should be surjective. To prove that  $\theta$  is



injective, it suffices to verify that  $\theta(b)=0 \implies b=0$  for  $b\in \operatorname{coker} i$ . Since q by definition is surjective, there exists  $a\in M$  s.t. q(a)=b. This gives  $a\in \ker p=\operatorname{im} i$ , which implies that q(a)=0 as the cokernel is defined by  $M/\operatorname{im} i$ .

•  $ii) \Rightarrow i$ ). Given that  $\mu$  is an isomorphism and i is injective, it suffices to verify that p is surjective, and im  $i = \ker p$ .  $\mu$  being surjective implies that p is surjective; and  $\mu$  being an isomorphism implies that  $\ker p = \ker q = \operatorname{im} i$ .

**Proposition 1.2.** Given a short exact sequence  $0 \longrightarrow M' \stackrel{i}{\longrightarrow} M \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} M'' \longrightarrow 0$ , the following statements are equivalent:

- i) There exists  $q: M \to M'$  s.t.  $j \circ i = \operatorname{Id}_{M'}$
- ii) There exists  $j: M \to M''$  s.t.  $q \circ p = \operatorname{Id}_{M''}$
- iii) There exists a submodule  $N \subseteq M$  s.t. M can be expressed by the internal direct sum  $M = i(M') \oplus N$ ; and p induces an isomorphism  $N \simeq M''$ .

Such a short exact sequence is a split exact sequence.

*Proof.* It suffices to give the equivalence between i) and iii), as for ii) it is similar.

- $i \Rightarrow iii$ ). Let  $N = \ker q$ . Check that this gives an internal direct sum:
  - $N \cap i(M') = 0$ . Let  $x \in i(M') \cap N$ .  $x \in N$  implies q(x) = 0, while  $q \circ i = \mathrm{Id}_{M'}$  implies that x = 0.
  - -N+i(M')=M. Notice  $v-i\circ q(v)\in\ker q$ , and by inspection  $i\circ q(v)\in\operatorname{im} i$ .

By the first isomorphism theorem, im  $i = \ker p$  implies  $M/\text{im } i \simeq N \simeq M''$ .

•  $iii) \Rightarrow i$ ). Define  $i: i(M') \oplus N \rightarrow i(M') \simeq M'$  since i is injective.

Remark 1.3. Generally short exact sequences do not split. A counterexample is

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \stackrel{i}{\longrightarrow} 2\mathbb{Z} \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0$$

where  $i(\mathbb{Z}) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$ , but the map cannot be extended properly to the whole  $\mathbb{Z}$ . If R is a field, then all short exact sequences split as one can complete a basis in a vector space; and subspaces spanned by a subset of a basis is always a direct summand of the whole space.

The following present a common technique known as "diagram chasing":

**Proposition 1.3** (The 5-Lemma). Consider the following diagram, with blocks commute and rows exact:

- 1. If  $f_2$ ,  $f_4$  are injective,  $f_1$  is surjective, then  $f_3$  is injective.
- 2. If  $f_2$ ,  $f_4$  are surjective,  $f_5$  is injective, then  $f_3$  is surjective.

3. (Combining i) and ii)) If  $f_1, f_2, f_4, f_5$  are all isomorphisms, then  $f_3$  is an isomorphism.

*Proof.* The argument is symmetric, so it suffices to prove the first one.  $f_3$  is injective if and only if  $f_3(b) = 0 \implies b = 0$ . Following the steps:

- Consider the third square.  $v_3 \circ f_3(b) = v_3(0) = 0$ , giving  $f_4 \circ u_3(b) = 0$ .  $f_4$  being injective implies that  $u_3(b) = 0$ .
- Consider the second square. The top row being exact implies that  $b \in \text{im } u_2$ , i.e. there exists some  $c \in A_2$  s.t.  $u_2(c) = b$ . Commutativity gives that  $v_2 \circ f_2(c) = 0$ , i.e.  $c' := f_2(c) \in \ker v_1$ .
- Consider the first square. The bottom row being exact implies that there exists some  $d' \in B_1$  s.t.  $v_1(d') = c'$ . Since  $f_1$  is surjective, there exists  $d \in A_1$  s.t.  $f_1(d) = d'$ . For the diagram to commute, it is required that  $u_1(d) = c$ . But this indicates that  $c \in \text{im } u_1$ , i.e.  $c \in \text{ker } u_2$ , which gives  $b = u_2(c) = 0$ .

**Definition 1.4.** Let R and S be rings, and  $F: {}_{R}\underline{\operatorname{Mod}} \to {}_{S}\underline{\operatorname{Mod}}$  is an additive functor. Then F is **exact** if for all short exact sequences of R-modules  $0 \longrightarrow M' \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow M'' \longrightarrow 0$ , the corresponding sequence after applying F is also exact.

**Proposition 1.4.** F is exact if and only if for all exact sequence  $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ ,  $F(A) \xrightarrow{f} F(B) \xrightarrow{g} F(C)$  is also exact.

*Proof.* Proceed by showing implication in two directions:

- $\Leftarrow$ : This holds by definition, where f is injective and g is surjective.
- ⇒: Consider the following short exact sequences:

$$(1): \qquad 0 \longrightarrow \ker f \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} \operatorname{im} f \longrightarrow 0$$

(2): 
$$0 \longrightarrow \ker q \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} B \xrightarrow{\beta_1} \operatorname{im} q \longrightarrow 0$$

(3): 
$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{im} q \xrightarrow{\beta_2} C \longrightarrow \operatorname{coker} q \longrightarrow 0$$

where im  $f = \ker g$  as the sequence given is exact. These by construction are all short exact sequences, where applying F gives also short exact sequences. Combining gives the sequence which is still exact after applying F:

$$A \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} \operatorname{im} f \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} B \xrightarrow{\beta_1} \operatorname{im} q \xrightarrow{\beta_2} C$$

where  $\alpha_1, \beta_1$  are surjective; and  $\alpha_2, \beta_2$  are injective. What we want to show is im  $F(f) = \ker F(g)$ . Since  $\alpha_1$  is surjective, im  $F(f) = \operatorname{im} F(\alpha_2)$ ; and since  $\beta_2$  is injective,  $\ker F(g) = \ker F(\beta_1)$ . From the result of (2) after applying F, we have  $\operatorname{im} F(\alpha_2) = \ker F(\beta_1)$ .

Remark 1.4. "One-sided" exact sequences can be understood functorially:

- Given exact sequence  $0 \longrightarrow M' \stackrel{i}{\longrightarrow} M \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} M''$  is the same as saying that i is injective; and M' is the kernel of p.
- Similarly, given exact sequence  $M' \xrightarrow{i} M \xrightarrow{p} M'' \longrightarrow 0$  is the same as saying that p is surjective; and M'' is the cokernel of i.

**Definition 1.5.** Just as the remark, one could consider exact functors only on one side.  $F: R \underline{\text{Mod}} \to S \underline{\text{Mod}}$  is **left exact** if for all exact sequence  $0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow C$ , the sequence  $0 \longrightarrow F(A) \longrightarrow F(B) \longrightarrow F(C)$  is also exact; and the definition is symmetric for right exact functors. Notice that since F is an additive functor, F(0) = 0 (as zero morphisms are mapped to zero morphisms).

**Proposition 1.5.** Let M be a left R-module. Then functor  $F = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, -) : {}_R\underline{\operatorname{Mod}} \to {}_S\underline{\operatorname{Mod}}$  is left exact; and the coverse is also true, i.e. if  $0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, A) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, B) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, C)$  is exact, then  $0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow C$  is exact.

*Proof.* What we want to show is that if the sequence  $0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow C$  is exact, then the corresponding sequence  $0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M,A) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M,B) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M,C)$  is exact: The natural way to define the functor F is via specifying  $\operatorname{Hom}(M,A) \supset \operatorname{Hom}(M,A) \supset \operatorname{Hom}(M,B) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M,B)$ 

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$$

$$\downarrow v \uparrow \qquad \qquad M$$

 $u \mapsto f \circ u$ ,  $\operatorname{Hom}(M,B) \ni v \mapsto g \circ v$ . Exactness follows from the universal property of kernel, where for all  $v \in \operatorname{Hom}(M,B)$  s.t.  $\operatorname{Hom}(M,C) \ni g \circ v = 0$ , it factors uniquely through f.

For the converse, take M=A, which gives  $F(g)\circ F(f)=0$ , i.e.  $F(f)=\ker F(g)$ . But F(f)=f by construction, which gives the exactness.

**Remark 1.5.** The dual argument is also true, via applying the universal property of cokernel. That is, the functor  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(-,M)$  is right exact.

**Proposition 1.6.** If M is an S-R bimodule, then  $M \otimes_R -$  is right exact.

*Proof.* From the right exact version of 1.5, it suffices to prove that for left R-module N the sequence

$$\operatorname{Hom}(M \otimes A, N) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M \otimes B, N) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M \otimes C, N) \longrightarrow 0$$

is exact. First make a parenthesis on the generalization of the adjoint property of extension and restriction of scalars:

**Parenthesis 1.1** (Prop 4.4 [c6]). Let M be an S-R bimodule, C a left R-module, and N a left S-module, then there is a functorial isomorphism

$$\operatorname{Hom}_S(M \otimes_R C, N) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_R(C, \operatorname{Hom}_S(M, N))$$

*Proof.* By the universal property of tensor product, it suffices to give every R-balanced map  $f: M \times C \to N$  a map in  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(C,\operatorname{Hom}_S(M,N))$ . Denote the isomorphism to be F. Let  $F(\tilde{f}[u \otimes v \mapsto f(u,v)]) = v \mapsto (u \mapsto f(u,v))$ . The inverse exists by inspection.

Then apply the parenthesis and Proposition 1.5 gives that it suffices to verify that  $\operatorname{Hom}(M,A) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M,B) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M,C)$  $\longrightarrow 0$  is exact, which holds as M is in particular a right R-module.

**Remark 1.6.** Recall that the above isomorphism holds for all adjoint pairs (F, G). Therefore, the proof applies as long as F is left exact (for G being right exact) or the converse holds.

In general, the above two functors and the contravariant is only left (right) exact instead of exact. Consider the short exact sequence:

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 2\mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0$$

• Applying  $-\otimes \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  gives

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \stackrel{i}{\longrightarrow} 2\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0$$

where  $2\mathbb{Z}\otimes\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}=0$  and  $\mathbb{Z}\otimes\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}\simeq\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}\otimes\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}\simeq\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ , as the map being R-linear restricts that f(0,1)=f(1,0)=f(0,0). This implies that i is not injective.

• Applying  $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(-,\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})$  gives

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \stackrel{i}{\longrightarrow} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow 0$$

where  $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \ni h = 0$  as it is required that  $h(1) + h(1) = \overline{1} + \overline{1} = 0$  which indicates that p is not surjective. Similar situations appear in the contravariant case.

It is then of specific interest in which modules are the above functors exact.

#### 2 Flat/Projective/Injective Modules

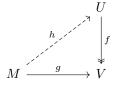
**Definition 2.1.** Let R be a ring, and M a left R-module. Then:

- M is a **flat module** if  $-\otimes_R M$  is an exact functor.
- M is a projective module if  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,-)$  is an exact functor.
- M is an injective module if  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(-,M)$  is an exact functor.

**Remark 2.1.** By comparing with the results obtained in the propositions aforementioned, it is clear what is further required by the definitions:

- By Proposition 1.4, a module is flat if and only if for all injective maps  $M_1 \to M_2$ , the corresponding map  $M_1 \otimes M \to M_2 \otimes M$  is injective.
- By Proposition 1.5, a module is projective if and only if for all surjective maps  $M_1 \to M_2$ , the corresponding map  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M_1) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, M_2)$  is surjective. Similar results hold for injective modules.

**Remark 2.2.** The fact that Hom functors in the remark above is surjective is the same as the following definition (for projective modules): M is a projective R-module if and only if for all  $g:M\to V$ , there exists some R-module U together with morphisms  $f:U\to V$  and  $h:M\to U$  with f surjective, such that  $g=f\circ h$ ; that is, making the following diagram commute:

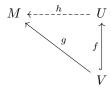


In plain words, there exists an embedding into some module (for example, free modules) that could "project" surjectively to V.

This embedding (injection) definitely needs not be unique, as for example one could always embed the projective module to a free module with higher rank.

This definition is indeed equivalent with the previous one, as for a surjective morphism  $f: U \to V$ , for any  $g: M \to V$  there exists some  $h: M \to U$  s.t. the diagram commute. This indicates that the morphism  $\operatorname{Hom}(M, U) \to \operatorname{Hom}(M, V)$  is a surjection.

The dual result holds also for injective modules: for all R-module M being injective, it is equivalent to state that for any morphism  $g:M\to V$ , there exists some R-module U with an injection  $f:V\to U$  and some morphism  $h:U\to M$  s.t.  $g=h\circ f$ , i.e. the following diagram commutes:



**Proposition 2.1.** Let M be a left R-module. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- i) M is a projective R-module.
- ii) M is a direct summand of a free R-module. That is, there exists a free R-module F and a R-module N s.t.  $F \simeq M \oplus N$ .
- iii) Let P be an R-module, and F be a free R-module. Then every short exact sequence  $0 \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow F \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0$  is split exact.

Proof.

- $i) \implies iii$ ). Apply the definition given in Remark 2.2. M being an R-module implies that it admits a system of generators, namely there exists some  $(g_i)_{i \in I}$  s.t.  $M = (g_i)_{i \in I}$ . Then there exist  $F = R^{(I)}$  where there exists a surjection  $f : F \to M$ ,  $f(e_i) = g_i$ . Let  $g : M \to M$  be the identity map. Then there exists some  $h : M \to F$  s.t.  $f \circ h = g = \mathrm{Id}_M$ . By Proposition 1.2 this indicates that the sequence of interest splits.
- $iii) \implies ii$ ). Consider the projection  $p: F \to M$  where  $M = (g_i)_{i \in I}$  and  $F = R^{(I)}$ . Therefore, the sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \ker p \stackrel{i}{\longrightarrow} F \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0$$

is short exact, which gives  $F \simeq i(\ker p) \oplus M = \ker p \oplus M$ .

•  $ii) \implies i$ ). It suffices to verify that for all  $g: M \to V$ , there exists an embedding  $h: M \to U$  and surjection  $f: U \to V$  s.t.  $f \circ h = g$ . This is specified via taking U = F; and by the universal property of direct sum there exists s unique map  $f: F \to V$  s.t.  $f \circ h = g$ .

Alternatively, consider F as a projective module. This is true as F can be trivially embedded to itself. It then suffices to prove that for F projective, and  $F \simeq M \oplus N$ , M is projective. By Remark 2.1, it suffices to prove that  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,U) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,V)$  is surjective for all  $U \to V$  surjective. F is projective indicates that  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(F,U) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(F,V)$  is surjective. By the fact that  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(F,U) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,U) \oplus \operatorname{Hom}_R(N,U)$ ,  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,U) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,V)$  is surjective.

**Corollary 2.1.** The category of RMod has enough projective modules. In particular, for  $M = (g_i)_{i \in I}$  one can take  $F = R^{(I)}$ .

Similarly, we would like to prove that there are "enough" injective objects in RMod:

**Theorem 2.1.** The category of  $R \underline{\text{Mod}}$  has enough injective objects. That is, for all R-module M, there exists an injective embedding  $M \hookrightarrow Q$  where Q is an injective module.

**Proposition 2.2** (Baer). Let M be an R-module. Then M is injective if and only if  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(R,M) \to \operatorname{Hom}_R(I,M)$  is surjective for all left ideals  $I \subseteq R$ . That is, for all R-linear maps  $f: I \to M$ , there exists some  $u \in M$  s.t. f(x) = xu for all  $x \in I$  (and this gives an extension into R).

*Proof.* The implication from M being injective to the condition is by definition of injective modules. For the other direction, consider the following construction:

Let  $i:M_1\hookrightarrow M_2$  be an injection, where  $M_1,M_2$  are R-modules; and let  $f:M_1\to M$  be an R-linear map. It suffices to show that there exists some  $g:M_2\to M$  s.t.  $g\circ i=f$ . Consider the family of modules  $N_i$  and corresponding maps  $h_i$  s.t.  $M_1\subseteq N_i\subseteq M_2$  for all i; and  $h_i|_{M_1}=f$ . Define the partial order  $(N,h)\le (N',h')$  if and only if  $N\subseteq N'$ , and  $h'|_N=h$ . Notice that such family is non-empty, as in particular  $M_1$  is in the family. Further it is bounded above by  $M_2$ , which allows us to apply Zorn's Lemma to retrieve a maximal element  $(\bar{N},\bar{h})$ . Handle the cases respectively:

- $\bar{N}=M_2$ . Then letting  $g=\bar{h}$  finishes the proof.
- $\bar{N} \neq M_2$ . Proceed to show that this map can be further extended, which is a contradiction.

By the inequality there exists some  $x \in M_2 - \bar{N}$ . Consider  $I = \{a \in R \mid ax \in N\}$ . Denote f' to be the preimage of  $\bar{h}$  in  $\operatorname{Hom}(R,M)$ . By hypothesis there exists  $u \in M$  s.t. f'(x) = xu for all  $x \in I$ . Notice that  $\bar{h} \circ \bar{i} = f$  where  $\bar{i} : M_1 \to \bar{N}$  is the injection. Define the map  $\tilde{h} : \bar{N} + Rx \to M, \tilde{h}(a + vx) = \bar{h}(a) + vu$  for  $a \in \bar{N}$  and  $v \in N$ . This is well-defined, as for all v s.t.  $vx \in \bar{N}, \bar{h}(vx) = h(vx) = f'(v) = vu$  by hypothesis. This indicates that  $\bar{N}$  is not maximal as the map can be extended to  $\bar{N} + Rx$ , which is a contradiction.

**Definition 2.2.** Let M be a R-module. Then it is **divisble** if and only if for all  $u \in M$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ , there exists  $v \in M$  s.t. nv = u where multiplication by  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$  is adding n copies of the elements to itself.

**Corollary 2.2.** If  $R = \mathbb{Z}$ , then M being an R-module is injective if and only if it is divisible.

*Proof.* If M is divisible, then for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ ,  $u \in M$  there exists  $v \in M$  s.t. u = nv. That is, for all  $f : I \to M$  with  $n \in I$ , there exists  $v \in M$  s.t. f(n) = u = nv. This gives the criterion in Proposition 2.2. The converse holds as the converse holds in the proposition.

Proof of Theorem 2.1. First prove the theorem with restriction  $R=\mathbb{Z}$ . From the the previous remark it is clear that  $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules are injective if and only if it is divisible; and Q as a  $\mathbb{Z}$  module is divisible. Consider the canonical projection  $\pi:\mathbb{Z}^{(I)}\to M$  where bases are mapped to generators. Then  $M\simeq\mathbb{Z}^{(I)}/\ker\pi$ , which embeds into  $\mathbb{Q}^{(I)}/\ker\pi$ . Since  $\ker\pi$  is a submodule of  $\mathbb{Z}^{(I)},\mathbb{Q}^{(I)}/\ker\pi$  is divisible and thus injective; which satisfies the condition of interest.

Now consider the general case by reducing the case of  $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules. As  $\mathbb{Z}$  modules, there exists an injection  $h:M\hookrightarrow Q$ , where Q is an injective module. Q being injective indicates that the functor  $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(-,Q)$  is exact (on R-modules). But notice that by applying the adjoint property this gives

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(-,Q) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R \otimes_R -, Q) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_R(-, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R,Q))$$

which indicates that the functor  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(-,\operatorname{Hom}_\mathbb{Z}(R,Q))$  is exact, i.e.  $\operatorname{Hom}_\mathbb{Z}(R,Q)$  is an injective module. It then suffices to give an injective map from M to  $\operatorname{Hom}_\mathbb{Z}(R,Q)$ , which is give by  $u\mapsto (x\mapsto (h(xu)))$ . It is well-defined and bilinear by inspection.  $\square$ 

The followings turn to the discussion of flat modules:

**Remark 2.3.** Since the functor  $-\otimes M$  for a given R-module M is right exact, M is flat if and only if for all injective maps  $M_1 \to M_2, M_1 \otimes M \to M_2 \otimes M$  is also injective.

**Proposition 2.3.** Given a family of left R-modules  $(M_i)_{i \in I}$ ,  $\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$  is flat if and only if  $M_i$  is flat for all i.

*Proof.* Since direct sum commutes with tensor product, given any injective R-linear map  $N_1 \hookrightarrow N_2$ , we have the following commutative diagram: Notice f' is an injection if and only if  $f'_i$  is an injection for all i; and f is an injection if and only if f' is an

injection, as the diagram should commute.

Corollary 2.3. Projective modules are flat.

*Proof.* By Proposition 2.1, an R-module M is projective if and only if there exists R-modules F and N where F is free s.t.  $F \simeq M \oplus N$ . By the previous proposition, it suffices to prove that F is flat. Since  $F \simeq \bigoplus_i R^{(I)}$ , it suffices to prove that R is flat. This is indeed the case as  $- \otimes_R R = \operatorname{Id}_R$ , which is trivially exact.

**Definition 2.3.** Let R be a commutative ring, and  $\varphi: R \to S$  specifies an R-algebra. Then S is a **flat R-algebra** if it is flat as an R-module.

**Remark 2.4.** This implies that the extension of scalar functor is exact, as by the fact that tensor product should be R-balanced, multiplication is indeed scalar multiplication on the R-module itself, which preserves injection.

**Example 2.1.** Consider the following flat structures:

- $R \to R[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$  is a flat R-algebra, as  $R[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$  has a free R-module structure, where the basis is all monomials.
- Let  $S \subseteq R$  be a multiplicative system. Then  $R \to S^{-1}R$  is a flat R-algebra. It suffices to verify that  $S^{-1}R \otimes -$  is exact. Notice  $S^{-1}R \otimes M \simeq S^{-1}M$ , this is the sa,e as stating that  $S^{-1}(-)$  is exact.

Since  $N \subseteq M \implies S^{-1}N \subseteq S^{-1}M$ ,  $S^{-1}(-)$  preserves injections; and since  $S^{-1}(M/N) \simeq S^{-1}M/S^{-1}N$ ,  $S^{-1}(-)$  preserves surjection. Thus verifies the exactness and flatness.

**Proposition 2.4.** Let  $(R, \mathfrak{m})$  be a local Noetherian ring, and M a finitely generated R-module. Then M is projective if and only if M is free.

*Proof.* It suffices to verify that M is free if it is projective. By Nakayama's Lemma,  $(u_1, \cdots, u_m)$  forms a minimal system of generators of M if and only if  $(\bar{u}_1, \cdots, \bar{u}_m)$  forms a basis in  $M/\mathfrak{m}$ , This is indeed the case, as denoting  $N=(u_1, \cdots, u_m)$ , this gives  $N+\mathfrak{m}M=M$ , which indicates N=M. Choose  $F=R^m$  with  $\varphi:F\to M$  s.t.  $\varphi(e_i)=u_i$  for all i. Since M is projective, consider the short exact sequence that splits:

$$0 \longrightarrow K \longrightarrow F \stackrel{\varphi}{\longrightarrow} M \longrightarrow 0$$

To prove that M is free, it suffices to show that K = 0. Note that if  $(a_1, \dots, a_m) \in K$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^m a_i u_i = 0 \implies a_i \in \mathfrak{m}$  for all i. That is,  $K \subseteq \mathfrak{m}R^m$ . Now apply the functor  $-\otimes R/\mathfrak{m}$ . This is an additive functor, which preserves morphisms as it acts as a group homomorphism. This gives the sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow K/\mathfrak{m}K \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} F/\mathfrak{m}F \longrightarrow M/\mathfrak{m}M \longrightarrow 0$$

which is also split. Since  $K \subseteq \mathfrak{m}R^m$ ,  $K \subseteq \mathfrak{m}F$ , which indicates that  $\alpha = 0$ . Since  $\alpha$  is injective as the sequence splits,  $K/\mathfrak{m}K = 0 \implies K = 0$ . This gives,  $F \simeq M \oplus K$  which implies  $F \simeq M$ .