

# M4P63 Algebra IV

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**Syllabus**

## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Modules</b>	<b>3</b>
1.1	Modules over rings . . . . .	3
1.2	Exact sequences . . . . .	4
1.3	Projective modules . . . . .	6
1.4	Injective modules . . . . .	8

# 1 Modules

## 1.1 Modules over rings

Lecture 1  
Friday  
10/01/20

Let  $R$  be an **associative ring with unity**, that is an abelian group written additively with a multiplication which is associative but not necessarily commutative, with an identity 1 and distributive laws  $a(b+c) = ab+ac$  and  $(a+b)c = ac+bc$ . Then

$$R^* = \{r \in R \mid \exists s \in R, rs = 1 = sr\}$$

is the unit group of  $R$ . If  $R^* = R \setminus \{0\}$  then  $R$  is a **division ring**, or a **skew field**. In the case that  $R$  is commutative,  $R$  is a **field**.

**Example.**

- Fields  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$ , and  $\mathbb{F}_q$ , the field with  $q = p^a$  elements with  $p$  a prime and  $a \geq 1$ .
- Skew fields  $\mathbb{H} = \{a + bi + cj + dk \mid a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}\}$  where  $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = ijk = -1$ .
- Other rings are polynomial rings  $k[x]$  for  $k$  a field, more generally  $k[x_1, \dots, x_p]$ , and  $\text{Mat}_n k$ , the  $n \times n$  matrices with entries from  $k$ , a field.

**Definition 1.1.** Let  $R$  be a ring. A **left  $R$ -module** is an abelian group  $M$ , written additively, together with a function  $*$  :  $R \times M \rightarrow M$  satisfying

$$r*(m_1 + m_2) = r*m_1 + r*m_2, \quad (r_1 + r_2)*m = r_1*m + r_2*m, \quad (r_1 r_2)*m = r_1*(r_2*m), \quad 1*m = m.$$

We write  $rm$  for  $r*m$ .

**Example.**

- $R$  is itself a left  $R$ -module, with  $*$  as ring multiplication. More generally, let  $I$  be a left ideal of  $R$ , so  $I$  is an additive subgroup, and  $rI \subseteq I$  for all  $r \in R$ . Then  $I$  is an  $R$ -module with  $*$  as ring multiplication.
- Let  $k$  be a field. Then any vector space over  $k$  is a  $k$ -module, and vice versa.
- Any abelian group is a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module, with  $*$  defined by  $na = a + \dots + a$  for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $a \in A$ , and  $(-n)a = -(na)$ .
- Let  $k$  be a field. Let  $k^n$  be column vectors. Then  $k^n$  is a left  $\text{Mat}_n k$ -module, with  $*$  as the usual matrix-vector multiplication.
- Let  $M \in \text{Mat}_n k$ . Then we can define a left  $k[x]$ -module structure on  $k^n$  by letting  $x$  act as  $M$  on  $k^n$ . So  $(x^2 + 3x - 2)*v = M^2v + 3Mv - 2v$ .
- Let  $G$  be a group. Any representation of  $G$  over the field  $k$  is a left module for  $k[G]$ , the **group algebra**, a vector space over  $k$  with elements of  $G$  as a basis, with multiplication derived from that of  $G$ .

**Definition 1.2.** A **right  $R$ -module** is defined similarly, with the  $R$ -multiplication on the right, so  $M$  an abelian group under  $+$ , and a map  $M \times R \rightarrow M$  satisfying

$$(m_1 + m_2)*r = m_1*r + m_2*r, \quad m*(r_1 + r_2) = m*r_1 + m*r_2, \quad m*(r_1 r_2) = (m*r_1)*r_2, \quad m*1 = m.$$

Left and right modules are not quite the same. If we amend this definition by putting the ring multiplication on the left, the third axiom becomes  $(r_1 r_2)m = r_2(r_1 m)$ . But in a left module, we have  $(r_1 r_2)m = r_1(r_2 m)$ .

**Definition 1.3.** Let  $R$  be a ring. The **opposite ring**  $R^{\text{op}}$  is  $R$  with a redefined multiplication  $r*s_{R^{\text{op}}} = s*r$ .

It is easy to see that a left  $R$ -module is the same as a right  $R^{\text{op}}$ -module and vice versa. If  $R$  is commutative then  $R = R^{\text{op}}$ .

**Exercise.** Show that  $\text{Mat}_n k \cong \text{Mat}_n k^{\text{op}}$ .

Except where otherwise stated,  $R$ -modules are assumed to be left  $R$ -modules.

**Definition 1.4.** Let  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  be  $R$ -modules. A map  $f : M_1 \rightarrow M_2$  is an  $R$ -module homomorphism if

- $f$  is a group homomorphism, with respect to the  $+$  operation, and
- $f(rm) = rf(m)$ , for  $r \in R$  and  $m \in M$ .

If  $f$  is bijective, then it is an  $R$ -module isomorphism.

**Definition 1.5.** An additive subgroup  $L \leq M$  is a **submodule** if  $rL \leq L$  for  $r \in R$ . In this case we automatically get an  $R$ -module structure on the quotient  $M/L$  with multiplication given by  $r(m + L) = rm + L$ .

**Theorem 1.6** (First isomorphism theorem). *Let  $f : M_1 \rightarrow M_2$  be an  $R$ -module homomorphism. Then  $\text{Im } f \leq M_2$ ,  $\text{Ker } f \leq M_1$ , and  $\text{Im } f \cong M/\text{Ker } f$ .*

The other isomorphism theorems have  $R$ -module versions too.

Let  $S$  be a set. We have a collection of  $R$ -modules  $(M_s)_S$  indexed by  $S$ .

**Definition 1.7.** The **direct product** is

$$\prod_{s \in S} M_s = \{(m_s)_S \mid m_s \in M_s\},$$

with coordinate-wise addition and  $R$ -multiplication, so

$$(m_s)_S + (n_s)_S = (m_s + n_s)_S, \quad r(m_s)_S = (rm_s)_S.$$

If  $M_s = M$  for all  $s \in S$ , then we write  $M^S$  for  $\prod_{s \in S} M_s$ . The **direct sum** is

$$\bigoplus_{s \in S} M_s = \{(m_s)_S \mid \text{all but finitely many coordinates } m_s \text{ are zero}\} \leq \prod_{s \in S} M_s.$$

If  $S$  is finite then the direct product and the direct sum are equal.

**Example.** Let  $M = \mathbb{Z}_2$ , as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module, and let  $S = \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $\bigoplus_{s \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Z}_2$  is a countable  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module but  $\prod_{s \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Z}_2 = \mathbb{Z}_2^{\mathbb{N}}$  is uncountable.

When  $|S| = 2$ , generally we write  $M_1 \oplus M_2$  for the direct sum or product. There are natural injective maps

$$\begin{aligned} \iota_A : A &\longrightarrow A \oplus B & \iota_B : B &\longrightarrow A \oplus B \\ a &\longmapsto (a, 0) & b &\longmapsto (0, b) \end{aligned},$$

and surjective maps

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_A : A \oplus B &\longrightarrow A & \pi_B : A \oplus B &\longrightarrow B \\ (a, b) &\longmapsto a & (a, b) &\longmapsto b \end{aligned}.$$

## 1.2 Exact sequences

**Definition 1.8.** Suppose we have a sequence of  $R$ -modules

$$\dots \xrightarrow{f_{n-1}} M_n \xrightarrow{f_n} M_{n+1} \xrightarrow{f_{n+1}} \dots,$$

with maps  $f_n : M_n \rightarrow M_{n+1}$ . Say the sequence is **exact at  $M_n$**  if

$$\text{Im } f_{n-1} = \text{Ker } f_n.$$

The sequence is **exact** if it is exact everywhere. A **short exact sequence** is an exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \rightarrow 0.$$

Note that  $\alpha$  is injective and  $\beta$  is surjective. The first isomorphism theorem implies that  $B/\text{Im } \alpha \cong C$ , where  $\text{Im } \alpha \cong A$ . An easy case is

$$B \cong A \oplus C,$$

with  $\text{Im } \alpha = A \oplus 0$  and  $\text{Im } \beta = C$ , so  $\alpha = \iota_A$  and  $\beta = \pi_B$ . We say that the short exact sequence **splits** in this case.

Lecture 2  
Monday  
13/01/20

**Example.** A non-split short exact sequence of  $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules, or abelian groups, is

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0.$$

**Proposition 1.9.** A short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \rightarrow 0$$

is split if and only if there exists an  $R$ -module homomorphism  $\sigma : C \rightarrow B$  such that  $\beta \circ \sigma = \text{id}_C$ .

Such a  $\sigma$  is called a **section** of  $\beta$ .

*Proof.*

$\Rightarrow$  Suppose that the short exact sequence is split. So assume  $B = A \oplus C$ , with  $\alpha = \iota_A$  and  $\beta = \pi_C$ . Now  $\iota_C$  is a section for  $\beta$ .

$\Leftarrow$  For the converse, suppose that  $\sigma$  is a section for  $\beta$ . We want  $f : A \oplus C \xrightarrow{\sim} B$  such that  $f \circ \iota_A = \alpha$  and  $\beta \circ f = \pi_C$ , so

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & & A \oplus C & & & \\ & \nearrow \iota_A & & \downarrow f & \nwarrow \pi_C & & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A & & C & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ & \searrow \alpha & & \downarrow \beta & \nearrow & & \\ & & & B & & & \end{array}$$

Define

$$\begin{aligned} f : A \times C &\longrightarrow B \\ (a, c) &\longmapsto \alpha(a) + \sigma(c) \end{aligned}$$

Need to check the following.

- $f$  is an  $R$ -module homomorphism. <sup>1</sup>
- $f$  is injective. Suppose  $f(a, c) = 0$ . Then  $\alpha(a) + \sigma(c) = 0$ . Now  $\alpha(a) \in \text{Im } \alpha = \text{Ker } \beta$ , so  $\beta(\alpha(a) + \sigma(c)) = \beta(\sigma(c)) = c$ . Since  $\alpha(a) + \sigma(c) = 0$ , we have  $c = 0$ . Hence  $\alpha(a) = 0$ , and so  $a = 0$  since  $\alpha$  is injective. We have shown that  $f$  is injective.
- $f$  is surjective. Let  $b \in B$ . Let  $c = \beta(b)$ . We have  $(\beta \circ \sigma)(c) = c = \beta(b)$ , so  $b - \sigma(c) \in \text{Ker } \beta = \text{Im } \alpha$ . So there exists  $a \in A$  with  $\alpha(a) = b - \sigma(c)$ . Then  $b = \alpha(a) + \sigma(c) = f(a, c)$ .
- $f \circ \iota_A = \alpha$  and  $\beta \circ f = \pi_C$ . Immediate from the construction of  $f$ .

□

**Proposition 1.10.** The short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \rightarrow 0$$

is split if and only if there exists  $\rho : B \rightarrow A$  such that  $\rho \circ \alpha = \text{id}_A$ .

Such a  $\rho$  is a **retraction** of  $\alpha$ .

*Proof.*

$\Rightarrow$  Once again, if the short exact sequence is split then the existence of  $\rho$  is clear.

$\Leftarrow$  Suppose that  $\rho$  is a retraction for  $\alpha$ . We define  $f : B \xrightarrow{\sim} A \oplus C$  such that  $f \circ \alpha = \iota_A$  and  $\pi_C \circ f = \beta$ . Do this by

$$\begin{aligned} g : B &\longrightarrow A \oplus C \\ b &\longmapsto (\rho(b), \beta(b)) \end{aligned}$$

Details are omitted.

□

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<sup>1</sup>Exercise

### 1.3 Projective modules

**Definition 1.11.** An  $R$ -module  $M$  is **projective** if any surjective map  $\beta : B \rightarrow M$  has a section. In other words, any short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$$

splits.

**Example.** The  $R$ -module  $R$  is projective. Let

$$0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \xrightarrow{\beta} R \rightarrow 0$$

be a short exact sequence. Since  $\beta$  is surjective, there exists  $b \in B$  such that  $\beta(b) = 1$ . Now for all  $r \in R$ ,  $\beta(rb) = r$ . Now define

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \sigma & : & R \longrightarrow B \\ & & r \longmapsto rb \end{array}.$$

Then  $\sigma$  is a section for  $\beta$ .

**Proposition 1.12.** An  $R$ -module  $M$  is projective if and only if whenever  $\beta : B \rightarrow C$  is surjective, and  $f : M \rightarrow C$ , there exists  $g : M \rightarrow B$  such that  $f = \beta \circ g$ , so

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & & & M & & \\ & & & & \downarrow f & & \\ & & g & \swarrow & & & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A & \longrightarrow & B & \xrightarrow{\beta} & C \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}.$$

Such a  $g$  is called a **lift** of  $f$ .

*Proof.*

$\Leftarrow$  Suppose that whenever  $\beta : B \rightarrow C$  is surjective and  $f : M \rightarrow C$  then there exists  $g : M \rightarrow B$  with  $f = \beta \circ g$ . Suppose  $\beta : B \rightarrow M$  is a surjective map. Define  $f : M \rightarrow M$  to be  $\text{id}_M$ . Then there exists  $g : M \rightarrow B$  such that  $f = \beta \circ g$ , so  $\text{id}_M = \beta \circ g$ . So  $g$  is a section for  $\beta$ , and so  $M$  is projective.

$\Rightarrow$  For the converse, suppose  $\beta : B \rightarrow C$  is surjective, and  $f : M \rightarrow C$ . We construct a module  $X$  to complete a commuting square

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{\epsilon} & M \\ \delta \downarrow & & \downarrow f \\ B & \xrightarrow{\beta} & C \end{array}.$$

Let  $X$  be the submodule of  $B \oplus M$  defined by

$$X = \{(b, m) \mid \beta(b) = f(m)\}.$$

The maps  $\delta$  and  $\epsilon$  are just  $\pi_B$  and  $\pi_M$  respectively, in their restrictions to  $X$ . It is clear that  $X \leq B \oplus M$ , and that the square above commutes. Now suppose that  $M$  is projective. Since  $\beta$  is surjective, we see that for all  $m \in M$  there exists  $b \in B$  with  $\beta(b) = f(m)$ . It follows that  $\epsilon : X \rightarrow M$  is surjective. So  $\epsilon$  has a section  $\sigma : M \rightarrow X$ . Define  $g = \delta \circ \sigma : M \rightarrow B$ , so

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{\epsilon} & M \\ \delta \downarrow & \swarrow \sigma & \downarrow f \\ B & \xrightarrow{\beta} & C \end{array}.$$

Since  $\beta \circ \delta = f \circ \epsilon$ , for all  $m \in M$  we have

$$(\beta \circ g)(m) = (\beta \circ \delta \circ \sigma)(m) = (f \circ \epsilon \circ \sigma)(m) = (f \circ \text{id}_M)(m) = f(m).$$

So  $\beta \circ g = f$  as required.

□

Such an  $X$  is the **pullback** of  $\beta$  and  $f$ , and there is a short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow X \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0.$$

**Definition 1.13.** An  $R$ -module  $M$  is **free** if  $M$  is a direct sum of copies of  $R$ , so

$$M = \bigoplus_{s \in S} R.$$

A **basis** for a module  $M$  is a set  $T$  of elements such that every element  $m \in M$  has a unique expression as

$$m = \sum_{i=1}^m r_i t_i, \quad r_i \in R, \quad t_i \in T.$$

If  $M = \bigoplus_{s \in S} R$ , then  $M$  has a basis consisting of elements with exactly one coordinate one, and the rest zero. On the other hand, if  $M$  has a basis  $T$  then it is straightforward to show that  $M \cong \bigoplus_{t \in T} R$ .

**Proposition 1.14.** Let  $F$  be a free  $R$ -module with basis  $T$ . Let  $M$  be some  $R$ -module, and let  $\psi : T \rightarrow M$  be a set map. Then  $\psi$  extends uniquely to a  $R$ -module homomorphism  $\psi : F \rightarrow M$ .

*Proof.* Each element of  $F$  has a unique expression as  $\sum_i r_i t_i$  for  $r_i \in R$  and  $t_i \in T$ . Now define

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \psi & : & F \longrightarrow M \\ & & \sum_i r_i t_i \longmapsto \sum_i r_i \psi(t_i) \end{array}.$$

It is easy to check that this respects  $+$  and  $R$ -multiplication. □

**Proposition 1.15.** A module  $M$  is projective if and only if there exists  $N$  such that  $M \oplus N$  is free, so projective modules are direct summands of free modules.

*Proof.*

$\implies$  Suppose  $M$  is projective. Let  $F$  be the free module with basis  $\{b_m \mid m \in M\}$ . Now the map  $b_m \mapsto m$  extends to an  $R$ -module homomorphism  $F \rightarrow M$ , which is clearly surjective. Then if  $K = \text{Ker } \psi$ , we have a short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow F \xrightarrow{\psi} M \rightarrow 0.$$

Since  $M$  is projective, there is a section  $\sigma$  for  $\psi$ , and so the short exact sequence splits, and  $F \cong K \oplus M$ .

$\Leftarrow$  Suppose that  $M \oplus N = F$ , a free module with basis  $T$ . Suppose  $\beta : B \rightarrow C$  is surjective, and that  $f : M \rightarrow C$ . Note that  $f \circ \pi_M : F \rightarrow C$ . For each  $t \in T$ , let  $b_t \in B$  be such that  $\beta(b_t) = (f \circ \pi_M)(t)$ . The set map

$$\begin{array}{ccc} T & \longrightarrow & B \\ t & \longmapsto & b_t \end{array}$$

extends to a homomorphism  $\hat{g} : F \rightarrow B$ . Now define  $g : M \rightarrow B$  by  $g = \hat{g} \circ \iota_M$ . We need to show  $f = \beta \circ g$ . Take  $m \in M$ . Then  $\iota_M(m) = (m, 0) \in F$  can be written as  $\sum_i r_i t_i$ , where  $t_i \in T$  and  $r_i \in R$ . Applying  $\pi_M$ ,  $m = \sum_i r_i m_{t_i}$ . Then

$$g(m) = (\hat{g} \circ \iota_M)(m) = \hat{g}\left(\sum_i r_i t_i\right) = \sum_i r_i b_{t_i}.$$

So

$$(\beta \circ g)(m) = \beta\left(\sum_i r_i b_{t_i}\right) = \sum_i r_i \beta(b_{t_i}) = \sum_i r_i f(m_{t_i}) = f\left(\sum_i r_i m_{t_i}\right) = f(m).$$

Hence  $\beta \circ g = f$ . So  $M$  is projective. □

## 1.4 Injective modules

**Definition 1.16.** Let  $M$  be an  $R$ -module. Then  $M$  is **injective** if whenever  $\alpha : M \rightarrow B$  is an injective map, it has a retraction  $\rho : B \rightarrow M$ , so  $\rho \circ \alpha = \text{id}_M$ . Equivalently, every short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$$

splits.

**Example.** Let  $k$  be a field. Then  $k$ -modules are vector spaces. Every  $k$ -module is injective. Suppose  $M$  and  $N$  are  $k$ -vector spaces and  $\alpha : M \rightarrow N$  is a injective map. Then  $\text{Im } \alpha$  is a submodule, or subspace, of  $N$ . Take a basis for  $\text{Im } \alpha$ , and extend to a basis for  $N$ . The basis vectors not in  $\text{Im } \alpha$  form a basis for a complementary subspace  $U$ , so  $N = \text{Im } \alpha \oplus U$ . Now  $\pi_{\text{Im } \alpha}$  is surjective, and  $\alpha : M \rightarrow \text{Im } \alpha$  is an isomorphism. This gives a retraction  $N \rightarrow M$ .

If  $R$  is a general ring, the module  $R$  need not be injective.

**Example.** Let  $R = \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $R$ -modules are abelian groups. There exists an injective  $\alpha : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ . But  $\mathbb{Z}$  is not a quotient of  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,<sup>2</sup> so no retraction exists for  $\alpha$ .

**Proposition 1.17.** An  $R$ -module  $M$  is injective if and only if whenever  $\alpha : A \rightarrow B$  is injective, and  $f : A \rightarrow M$ , there exists  $g : B \rightarrow M$  such that  $f = g \circ \alpha$ .

*Proof.*

$\Leftarrow$  Suppose that whenever  $\alpha : A \rightarrow B$  is injective, and  $f : A \rightarrow M$ , there exists  $g : B \rightarrow M$  such that  $f = g \circ \alpha$ . Suppose that  $\alpha : M \rightarrow B$  is injective. We have a map  $M \rightarrow M$ , namely  $\text{id}_M$ . There exists  $g : B \rightarrow M$  such that  $\text{id}_M = g \circ \alpha$ . So  $g$  is a retraction for  $\alpha$ , and so  $M$  is injective.

$\Rightarrow$  For the converse, suppose  $\alpha : A \rightarrow B$  is injective, and  $M$  is an injective module, with  $f : A \rightarrow M$ . We define a module  $Y$  completing a square

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & B \\ f \downarrow & & \downarrow \delta \\ M & \xrightarrow{\epsilon} & Y \end{array}$$

with  $\epsilon \circ f = \delta \circ \alpha$ . Let  $Y$  be a quotient of  $B \oplus M$ , by the kernel

$$K = \{(\alpha(a), -f(a)) \mid a \in A\}.$$

Let  $\gamma : B \oplus M \rightarrow (B \oplus M)/K$  be the canonical quotient map. Then we define  $\delta = \gamma \circ \iota_B$  and  $\epsilon = \gamma \circ \iota_M$ . By construction, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (\epsilon \circ f)(a) &= (\gamma \circ \iota_M \circ f)(a) = \gamma(0, f(a)) = (0, f(a)) + K \\ &= (\alpha(a), 0) + K = \gamma(\alpha(a), 0) = (\gamma \circ \iota_B \circ \alpha)(a) = (\delta \circ \alpha)(a). \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $\epsilon \circ f = \delta \circ \alpha$ . Claim that  $\epsilon$  is injective. Suppose  $\epsilon(m) = 0$ . Then  $\iota_M(m) \in K$ , so  $(0, m) = (\alpha(a), -f(a))$  for some  $a \in A$ . But  $\alpha(a) = 0$  implies that  $a = 0$ , and so  $m = -f(0) = 0$ . Since  $M$  is injective,  $\epsilon$  has a retraction  $\rho : Y \rightarrow M$ . Define  $g : B \rightarrow M$  by  $g = \rho \circ \delta$ , so

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & B \\ f \downarrow & \swarrow g & \downarrow \delta \\ M & \xleftarrow{\rho} & Y \\ & \searrow \epsilon & \end{array}$$

We know that  $(\epsilon \circ f)(a) = (\delta \circ \alpha)(a)$  for all  $a \in A$ . So

$$f(a) = (\text{id}_M \circ f)(a) = (\rho \circ \epsilon \circ f)(a) = (\rho \circ \delta \circ \alpha)(a) = (g \circ \alpha)(a),$$

so  $f = g \circ \alpha$  as required. □

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<sup>2</sup>Exercise



We know that projectives are direct summands of free modules. We might hope for a dual version of this for injective modules. But there is no straightforward way of doing this.