# A GENERALIZATION OF INJECTIVE MODULES

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ABSTRACT. The underlying abelian group of the field of rational numbers  $\mathbb{Q}$  has an interesting property: it is divisible, which means that for every  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$  and every positive integer n there is a  $y \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that ny = x. On the other hand, if we only care about dividing by the powers of a certain prime, then also the underlying abelian group of the ring  $\mathbb{Z}[p^{-1}]$  has a similar property: it is p-divisible, that is for every  $x \in \mathbb{Z}[p^{-1}]$  there is  $y \in \mathbb{Z}[p^{-1}]$  such that py = x. If one tries to generalize these concepts to modules over a general (associative, unitary) ring R, things may not work so well, among other things due to the possible presence of zero-divisors in the base ring. There is however a natural (or categorical) concept that works well over any ring, which is injectivity. Indeed an abelian group is divisible if and only if it is injective as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module. What is in this setting a suitable generalization for p-divisibility? Is there a more general property that includes divisibility and p-divisibility as special cases, and that also works well for R-modules? In this talk I will propose a definition that provides a positive answer to the two questions above. If time permits I will also show an analogue of Morita duality using this more general definition.

## 1. DIVISIBLE ABELIAN GROUPS AND INJECTIVE MODULES

Consider the abelian group  $\mathbb{Q}$ . If  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ , then there is  $y \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that ny = x; namely, we can take  $y = \frac{x}{n}$ . This holds also, for example, for the abelian group  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$ . In general, an abelian group satisfying this property is called *divisible*.

**Definition 1.1.** An abelian group A is called *divisible* if for every  $x \in A$  and every  $n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  there is  $y \in A$  such that ny = x.

For modules over a general ring R this definition might not scale so well. For example, taking  $R = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ , the R-module  $M = \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}$  (with action of R given by multiplication component-wise) does not satisfy the property above for every  $x \in M$ : if x = (1,1) and r = (0,1) then there is clearly no  $y \in M$  such that ry = x.

There is however a property that plays the same role in many circumstances.

**Definition 1.2.** An R module Q is called *injective* if for every injective R-module homomorphism  $i: M \hookrightarrow N$  and every R-module homomorphism  $f: M \to Q$  there is an R-module homomorphism g such that  $g \circ i = f$ .

$$\begin{array}{c} M \xrightarrow{f} Q \\ i \int & & & \\ N & & & \\ \end{array}$$

For  $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules being injective is equivalent to being divisible.

**Proposition 1.3.** A  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module is injective if and only if it is divisible as an abelian group.

*Proof.* Let A be an abelian group and assume that it is injective as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module. Let  $x \in A$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ . Consider the inclusion  $i : n\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  and the map  $f : n\mathbb{Z} \to A$  which sends n to x. Then since A is injective f extends to a map  $g : \mathbb{Z} \to A$  which sends n to x, so letting y = g(1) we have ny = x, as required.

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Assume now that A is divisible and let  $J: M \hookrightarrow N$  be and injective homomorphism of abelian groups and  $f: M \to A$  any homomorphism. In order to extend f to a map  $g: N \to A$  we will use Zorn's Lemma. Let S be the set of pairs  $(N', \varphi)$  with N' a sugroup of N containing M and  $\varphi$  a homomorphism  $N' \to A$  that extends f. The set S admits a partial order

$$(N',\varphi) \leqslant (N'',\psi) \iff N' \subseteq N'' \text{ and } \psi|_{N'} = \varphi$$

Every chain in S has an upper bound. Namely, if  $C \subseteq S$  is a chain, i.e. a totally ordered subset of S, then we can take  $\mathcal{N}'$  to be the union of all N' for  $(N', \varphi) \in C$  and we let

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \Phi:\mathcal{N}' & \to & A \\ x & \mapsto & \varphi(x), \text{ if there is any } (N',\varphi) \in C \text{ with } x \in N' \end{array}$$

which is well-defined because C is totally ordered (which means that if x belongs to N' and to N'' for  $(N', \varphi) \in C$  and  $(N'', \psi) \in C$ , then either  $(N', \varphi) \leq (N''\psi)$  or  $(N'', \psi) \leq (N', \psi)$ , and in any case  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  are compatible on x).

By Zorn's lemma there is then a maximal element  $(N', \varphi) \in S$ , and we want to show that N' = N, so that f extends to the whole N. Assume that  $N' \neq N$  and let  $x \in N \setminus N'$ ; if we manage to extend  $\varphi$  to  $\varphi_+ : N' + \langle x \rangle \to A$  this will yield a contradiction with the maximality of  $(N', \varphi)$ , and thus we would be able to conclude that indeed N' = N.

If  $\langle x \rangle \cap N' = 0$ , we may simply define  $\varphi_+(x) = 0$ . Otherwise  $\langle x \rangle \cap N'$  contains some  $nx \neq 0$  for some positive integer n which we may assume minimal with respect to this property. Since A is divisible there is  $y \in A$  such that  $ny = \varphi(nx)$ , and one easily checks that defining  $\varphi_+$  as  $\varphi_+(x) = y$  is compatible with  $\varphi$ . As explained above, this concludes the proof.

For a prime number p, the abelian groups  $\mathbb{Z}[p^{-1}]$  and  $\mathbb{Z}[p^{-1}]/\mathbb{Z}$  have a property similar to the divisibility of  $\mathbb{Q}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$ , but only if we restrict to dividing by (powers of) p.

**Definition 1.4.** Let p be a prime number. An abelian group A is called p-divisible if for every  $x \in A$  there is  $y \in A$  such that py = x.

Is there any property of R-modules that generalizes p-divisibility, in a way similar to how injectivity generalizes divisibility?

#### 2. Division in modules

Fix for this and the following sections a unitary ring R.

**Definition 2.1.** If  $M \subseteq N$  are left *R*-modules and *I* is an ideal of *R*, we call the *R*-submodule of *N* 

$$(M:_N I) := \{x \in N \mid Ix \subseteq M\}$$

the *I*-division module of M (in N).

Notice that  $(M:_N 0) = N$  and  $(M:_N R) = M$ . If  $I' \supseteq I$  we have  $(M:_N I') \subseteq (M:_N I)$ . In general we might want to work with (possibly infinite) unions of division modules. For example if  $R = \mathbb{Z}$  we are interested in working with

$$\bigcup_{k \ge 0} \left( M :_N (p^k) \right)$$

or with

$$\bigcup_{n \ge 1} \left( M :_N (n) \right)$$

So it makes sense to give the following definition.

**Definition 2.2.** An *ideal filter* of R is a non-empty set J of two-sided ideals of R such that:

- (1) If  $I, I' \in J$  then  $I \cap I' \in J$  and
- (2) If  $I \in J$  and  $I' \triangleleft R$  contains I, then  $I' \in J$ .

If J is an ideal filter of R and  $M \subseteq N$  are R-modules, we let

$$(M:_N J) := \bigcup_{I \in J} (M:_N I)$$

which we call the J-division module of M in N, and

$$M[J] := (0:_M J)$$

which we call the J-torsion submodule of M.

Notice that if the zero ideal belongs to an ideal filter J, then every ideal of R belongs to J, that is J is the maximal ideal filter. We will denote this ideal filter by 0, and we will denote the minimal ideal filter  $\{R\}$  by 1. We have  $(M:_N 0) = N$  and  $(M:_N R) = M$ , and if  $J' \subseteq J$  we have  $(M:_N J') \subseteq (M:_N J)$ .

Given a set of ideals S of R, we may consider the ideal filter J generated by S, that is the minimal (with respect to inclusion) ideal filter of R that contains S. If  $S = \{I\}$  we have  $(M:_N J) = (M:_N I)$ .

**Example 2.3.** For any unitary ring R, there are two interesting examples: the ideal filter generated by the powers of a given prime number p

$$p^{\infty} := \{ I \triangleleft R \mid I \supseteq p^n R \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{N} \}$$

and the one generated by all non-zero integers

$$\widehat{n} := \{ I \triangleleft R \mid I \supseteq nR \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{N}_{>0} \} .$$

Notice that some power of p is equal to 0 in R (respectively n = 0 for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}_{n>0}$ ) then  $p^{\infty}$  (resp.  $\hat{n}$ ) is simply the set of all two-sided ideals of R.

Thus ideal filters allow us to consider the possibly infinite unions of division modules mentioned above. We would also like to have a way to distinguish those ideal filters that describe a complete iteration of the division process, as  $p^{\infty}$  and  $\hat{n}$  do and (n) or  $(p^k)$  do not. We propose two definition that might capture this concept, and we show that, under certain condition, one is stronger than the other.

**Definition 2.4.** We call an ideal filter *J* of *R*:

• Complete if for every left R-module N and every submodule  $M \subseteq N$  we have

$$((M:_N J):_N J) = (M:_N J)$$
.

• Product-closed if for any  $I, I' \in J$  we have  $II' \in J$ .

**Proposition 2.5.** Let J be a product-closed ideal filter of R. If every ideal in J is finitely generated, then J is complete.

Proof. Let J be a product-closed ideal filter of R and let  $M \subseteq N$  be left R-modules. The inclusion  $(M:_N J) \subseteq ((M:_N J):_N J)$  is always true, so in order to show that equality holds we need to prove the other inclusion. Let  $x \in N$  be such that there is  $I \in J$  with  $Ix \subseteq (M:_N J)$ . Let  $\{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}$  be a set of generators for I. Then for every  $i = 1, \ldots, n$  there is an ideal  $I_i \in J$  such that  $I_i y_i x \subseteq M$ . By definition of ideal filter we have  $I' := \bigcap_{i=1}^n I_i \in J$  and since J is product-closed we have  $I'I \in J$ . But we also have  $I'Ix \subseteq M$ , which shows that J is complete.  $\Box$ 

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The ideal filters introduced in Example 2.3 are both product-closed. If, for example, R is Noetherian, then they are also complete.

## 3. J-INJECTIVE MODULES

Fix for this section a unitary ring R and a complete ideal filter J of R.

**Definition 3.1.** An injective *R*-module homomorphism  $i : M \hookrightarrow N$  such that  $(i(M) :_N J) = N$  is called a *J*-extension.

We can finally give our definition of J-injective module. In words, one can say that an injective module is one that admits extensions of maps into it along any injective map. A J-injective module is one that admits extensions of maps into it along J-extensions.

**Definition 3.2.** A left *R*-module *Q* is called *J*-injective if for every *J*-extension  $i : M \hookrightarrow N$ and every *R*-module homomorphism  $f : M \to Q$  there exists a homomorphism  $g : N \to Q$ such that  $g \circ i = f$ .



Notice that in case J = 0 the definition of J-injective module coincides with that of injective module, because any injective homomorphism is a 0-extension. Moreover, if J' is an ideal filter of R such that  $J' \subseteq J$ , then a J-injective module is also J'-injective, because every J'-extension is also a J-extension.

The following Proposition is an analogue of the well-known Baer's criterion in the classical case of injective modules, and the proof is almost identical to the classical case.

**Proposition 3.3.** A left R-module Q is J-injective if and only if for every  $I \in J$  and every R-module homomorphism  $f: I \to Q$  there is an R-module homomorphism  $g: R \to Q$  that extends f.

*Proof.* The "only if" part is trivial, because any two-sided ideal of R is also a left R-module. For the other implication, let  $i: M \hookrightarrow N$  be a J-extensions and let  $f: M \to Q$  be any R-module homomorphism. By Zorn's Lemma there is a submodule N' of N and an extension  $g': N' \to Q$  of f to N' that is maximal in the sense that it cannot be extended to any larger submodule of N. If N' = N we are done, so assume that  $N' \neq N$  and let  $x \in N \setminus N'$ .

Let I be the two-sided ideal of R generated by  $\{r \in R \mid rx \in N'\}$ . Since  $i(M) \subseteq N'$  and  $(i(M):_N J) = N$  there is  $I' \in J$  such that  $I'x \subseteq N'$ , which implies  $I' \subseteq I$ , so also  $I \in J$ . By assumption the map  $I \to Q$  that sends  $y \in I$  to g'(yx) extends to a map  $h: R \to Q$ . Since ker $(R \to Rx)$  is contained in ker(h), the map h gives rise to a map  $h': Rx \to Q$  by sending  $rx \in Rx$  to h(r). By definition the restrictions of g' and h' to  $N' \cap Rx$  coincide, so we can define a map  $g'': N' + Rx \to Q$  that extends both. This contradicts the maximality of g', so we conclude that N' = N.

**Remark 3.4.** One can adapt the proof or Proposition 1.3 to show that an abelian group is *p*-divisible if and only if it is  $p^{\infty}$ -injective (see Example 2.3) as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.

Let J = 0 be the maximal ideal filter of R and assume that  $J' = J \setminus 0$  is an ideal filter; this amounts to say that no two non-zero ideals of R have trivial intersection. Using Proposition 3.3 one can easily show that an R-module Q is J-injective if and only if it is J'-injective. Indeed, one implication holds, as remarked above, because  $J \subseteq J'$ , and for

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the other it is enough to notice that the only map  $0 \rightarrow Q$  can always be extended to the zero map on R.

One advantage of using J' instead of J is that the J'-torsion submodule may be different from M[0] = M.

**Example 3.5.** Let M be an abelian group, let p be a prime and let  $J = p^{\infty}$  be the ideal filter of  $\mathbb{Z}$  introduced in Example 2.3. Then the localization  $M[p^{-1}]$  is a J-injective  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module. Indeed if  $i: N \hookrightarrow P$  is a J-extension and  $f: N \to M[p^{-1}]$  is any homomorphism then for every  $x \in P$  there is  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $p^k x \in N$ , and one can define  $g(x) := \frac{f(p^k x)}{p^k}$ . It is easy to check that g is then a well-defined group homomorphism such that  $g \circ i = f$ .

# 4. Injective hulls and J-hulls

**Definition 4.1.** A map of *R*-modules  $i : M \hookrightarrow N$  is called an *essential extension* if for every nonzero submodule *P* of *N* we have  $P \cap i(M) \neq 0$ .

It is a well-known fact of commutative algebra that every R-module M admits an injective hull  $\iota: M \hookrightarrow \Gamma$ , which is an essential extension such that  $\Gamma$  is injective. Such an extension, which is unique up to a not-necessarily-unique isomorphism that is the identity on M, may be as well characterized by either of the following two properties:

- (1) It is the largest essential extension of M, that is to say if  $i: M \hookrightarrow N$  is an essential extension then there is an (injective) R-module homomorphism  $j: N \hookrightarrow \Gamma$  such that  $\iota \circ i = j$  (the injectivity of j follows from the injectivity of  $\iota$  and the fact that  $i: M \hookrightarrow N$  is an essential extension).
- (2) It is the smallest injective extension of M, that is to say if  $i : M \hookrightarrow N$  is an injective R-module homomorphism and N is injective, then there is an *injective* R-module homomorphism  $j : \Gamma \hookrightarrow N$  such that  $j \circ \iota = i$  (the existence of a map  $\Gamma \to N$  that commutes with i follows from the injectivity of N, but the fact that this map is injective does not).

As an example, the standard map  $\mathbb{Z}^n \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}^n$  is an injective hull of the  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module  $\mathbb{Z}^n$ . There is an analogue construction for *J*-injectivity.

**Definition 4.2.** Let J be a complete ideal filter of R and let M be a left R-module. A J-extension  $\iota : M \hookrightarrow \Omega$  is called a J-hull of M if it is an essential extension and  $\Omega$  is J-injective.

The following theorem is not a replacement for the classical one, since it relies on it.

**Theorem 4.3.** Every left R-module M admits a J-hull, which is unique up to a notnecessarily-unique isomorphism that is the identity on M.

Sketch of proof. Let  $\iota : M \hookrightarrow \Gamma$  be an injective hull of M and let  $\Omega := (\iota(M) :_{\Gamma} J)$ . One can show that  $\iota$  maps M into  $\Omega$  and  $\iota : M \hookrightarrow \Omega$  is indeed a J-hull of M, and that for any other J-hull  $\iota' : M \hookrightarrow \Omega'$  there is an isomorphism  $j : \Omega \xrightarrow{\sim} \Omega'$  such that  $j \circ \iota = \iota'$ .  $\Box$ 

**Example 4.4.** Let M be an abelian group, let p be a prime and let  $J = p^{\infty}$  be the ideal filter of  $\mathbb{Z}$  introduced in Example 2.3. Write M as

$$M = \mathbb{Z}^r \oplus \bigoplus_{i=1}^k \mathbb{Z}/p^{e_i}\mathbb{Z} \oplus M[n]$$

where n is a positive integer coprime to p and the  $e_i$ 's are suitable exponents. Let

$$\Gamma = (\mathbb{Z}[p^{-1}])^r \oplus (\mathbb{Z}[p^{-1}]/\mathbb{Z})^k \oplus M[n]$$

and

$$\begin{split} \iota &: & M & \to & \Gamma \\ & (z, (s_i \bmod p^{e_i})_i, t) & \mapsto & \left(\frac{z}{1}, \left(\frac{s}{p^{e_i}} \bmod \mathbb{Z}\right)_i, t\right) \end{split}$$

Then  $\iota: M \to \Gamma$  is a *J*-hull. To see this it is enough to show that  $f: \mathbb{Z}^r \to (\mathbb{Z}[p^{-1}])^r$  and  $g_i: \mathbb{Z}/p^{e_i}\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}[p^{-1}]/\mathbb{Z}$  for every  $i = 1, \ldots, k$  are *J*-hulls, and that M[n] is *J*-injective, being trivially an essential extension of itself. The assertions about f and M[n] follow from Example 3.5, noticing that multiplication by p is an automorphism of M[n] and that  $\mathbb{Z}^r \to (\mathbb{Z}[p^{-1}])^r$  is an essential *J*-extension.

So we are left to show that for every positive integer e the map  $g: \mathbb{Z}/p^e\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}[p^{-1}]/\mathbb{Z}$  defined by  $(s \mod p^e) \mapsto (\frac{s}{p^e} \mod \mathbb{Z})$  is a *J*-hull. It is a *J*-extension, because the Prüfer group  $\mathbb{Z}[p^{-1}]/\mathbb{Z}$  itself is *J*-torsion, and it is also essential because every subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}[p^{-1}]/\mathbb{Z}$  is of the form  $\frac{1}{p^d}\mathbb{Z}$ , so it intersects the image of g in  $\frac{1}{p^{\min(e,d)}}\mathbb{Z}$ .

Finally,  $\mathbb{Z}[p^{-1}]/\mathbb{Z}$  is divisible as an abelian group, so in particular it is *J*-injective, since in this case it is equivalent to being *p*-divisible.

We can draw an interesting parallel between the *J*-hull of an *R*-module *M* and the algebraic closure  $\overline{k}$  of a field *k*. Indeed  $\overline{k}$  is at the same time the smallest *algebraically* closed extension and the largest *algebraic* extension of *k*. Similarly to *J*-hulls, an algebraic closure is unique up to a not-necessarily-unique isomorphism that fixes the base field.

#### 5. Morita duality

Consider the following well-know fact about vector spaces and linear maps.

**Proposition 5.1.** Let V be a finite dimensional vector space over a field k and let  $f_1, \ldots, f_n : V \to k$  be linear functions. If  $g : V \to k$  is a linear function such that  $\ker(g) \supseteq \bigcap_{i=1}^n \ker(f_i)$ , then g is a linear combination of the  $f_i$ .

Proof. Consider the map

$$F := (f_1, \dots, f_n) : V \to k^n$$
$$x \mapsto (f_1(x), \dots, f_n(x))$$

and notice that  $K := \ker(F) = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} \ker(f_i)$ . Then both g and F factor through  $V/\ker(F)$ as  $\overline{g} : V/\ker(F) \to k$  and  $\overline{F} : V/\ker(F) \to k^n$  respectively, and  $\overline{F}$  is injective. By extending a basis of  $\operatorname{Im}(F) \subseteq k^n$  to a basis of  $k^n$  one can find a linear map

$$\lambda : k^n \to k$$
$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto e_1 x_1 + \dots + e_n x_n$$

such that  $\lambda \circ \overline{F} = \overline{g}$ , which implies  $\lambda \circ F = g$ . Then for every  $v \in V$  we have

$$g(v) = \lambda(F(v)) = \lambda(f_1(v), \dots, f_n(v)) = e_1 f_1(v) + \dots + e_n f_n(v)$$

which shows that g is a linear combination of the  $f_i$ .

We can give a much more general version of this result. Fix a ring R, a complete ideal filter J of R and R-modules M and T, with T being J-injective and J-torsion (i.e. T[J] = T). Let  $E = \text{End}_R(T)$ , and notice that  $\text{Hom}_R(M, T)$  is an E-module.

For every submodule M' of M we will identify  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M/M', T)$  with the E-submodule  $\{f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, T) \mid \ker(f) \supseteq M\}$  of  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, T)$ , and we will denote  $\bigcap_{f \in V} \ker(f)$  by  $\ker(V)$  for any subset  $V \subseteq \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, T)$ .

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**Proposition 5.2.** If V is a finitely generated E-submodule of  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,T)$  we have  $V = \operatorname{Hom}_R(M/\ker(V),T)$ .

*Proof.* Notice that the inclusion  $V \subseteq \operatorname{Hom}_R(M/\ker(V), T)$  is obvious. For the other inclusion we want to show that every homomorphism  $g: M \to T$  with  $\ker(g) \supseteq \ker(V)$  belongs to V. Let then g be such a map and let  $\overline{g}: M/\ker(V) \to T$  be its factorization through the quotient  $M/\ker(V)$ . Let  $\{f_1, \ldots, f_n\}$  be a set of generators for V as an E-module and let

$$\varepsilon: M \to T^n$$
  
 $x \mapsto (f_1(x), \dots, f_n(x))$ 

We have  $\ker(\varepsilon) = \ker(V)$ , so that  $\varepsilon$  factors as an injective map  $\overline{\varepsilon} : M/\ker(V) \to T^n$ . Since T is J-torsion, so is  $T^n$ , hence  $\overline{\varepsilon}$  is a J-extension. Since T is J-injective there is an R-linear map  $\lambda : T^n \to T$  such that  $\lambda \circ \overline{\varepsilon} = \overline{g}$ , or equivalently  $\lambda \circ \varepsilon = g$ .



Since  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(T^n, T) \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^n \operatorname{End}_R(T)$ , there are elements  $e_1, \ldots, e_n \in \operatorname{End}_R(T)$  such that  $\lambda(t_1, \ldots, t_n) = e_1(t_1) + \cdots + e_n(t_n)$  for every  $(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \in T^n$ . Then for  $x \in M$  we get

$$\lambda(\varepsilon(x)) = \lambda(f_1(x), \dots, f_n(x))$$
$$= e_1(f_1(x)) + \dots + e_n(f_n(x))$$

which means that  $g = e_1 \circ f_1 + \dots + e_n \circ f_n \in V$  because V is an *E*-module.

From a different point of view, we have two maps

 $k: \{E\text{-submodules of } \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M,T)\} \to \{R\text{-submodules of } M\}$  $V \mapsto \operatorname{ker}(V)$ 

and

$$\begin{array}{ccc} h: \{R\text{-submodules of } M\} & \longrightarrow & \{E\text{-submodules of } \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,T)\} \\ M' & \longmapsto & \operatorname{Hom}_R(M/M',T) \end{array}$$

and the previous proposition shows that the restriction k' of k to the subset of *finitely* generated E-submodules satisfies  $h \circ k' = id$ . It is natural to ask whether the two maps are inverse of each other, possibly after restricting h to a suitable subset.

**Definition 5.3.** We say that T is a *cogenerator* for an R-module N if

$$\bigcap_{f \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(N,T)} \ker(f) = 0$$

Using this definition, we may formulate the following duality statement.

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**Theorem 5.4.** Let R be a unitary ring and let J be a complete ideal filter on R. Let T be a J-injective and J-torsion left R-module and let M be a left R-module. Assume that T is a cogenerator for every quotient of M and that  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,T)$  is Noetherian as an  $\operatorname{End}_R(T)$ -module. The maps

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \{R\text{-submodules of } M\} & \to & \{\operatorname{End}_R(T)\text{-sumbodules of } \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,T)\} \\ & & M' & \mapsto & \operatorname{Hom}_R(M/M',T) \\ & & \ker(V) & \longleftrightarrow & V \end{array}$$

define an inclusion-reversing bijection between the the set of R-submodules of M and that of  $\operatorname{End}_R(T)$ -submodules of  $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,T)$ .

*Proof.* The maps are clearly inclusion-reversing and the fact that they are inverse of each other follows from Proposition 5.2 combined with the Noetherianity of M and from the assumption that T is a cogenerator for every quotient of M.

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