# Matrix Algebras over Strongly Non-Singular Rings 

by

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#### Abstract

We consider some existing results regarding rings for which the classes of torsion-free and non-singular right modules coincide. Here, a right $R$-module $M$ is non-singular if $x I$ is nonzero for every nonzero $x \in M$ and every essential right ideal $I$ of $R$, and a right $R$-module $M$ is torsion-free if $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, R / R r)=0$ for every $r \in R$. In particular, we consider a ring $R$ for which the classes of torsion-free and non-singular right $S$-modules coincide for every ring $S$ Morita-equivalent to $R$. We make use of these results, as well as the existence of a Morita-equivalence between a ring $R$ and the $n \times n$ matrix ring $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$, to characterize rings whose $n \times n$ matrix ring is a Baer-ring. A ring is Baer if every right (or left) annihilator is generated by an idempotent. Semi-hereditary, strongly non-singular, and Utumi rings will play an important role, and we explore these concepts and relevant results as well.


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## Chapter 1

## Introduction

In this thesis, we consider the relationship between a ring $R$ and $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$, the $n \times n$ matrix ring over $R$. In particular, we investigate necessary and sufficient conditions placed on $R$ so that $M a t_{n}(R)$ is a Baer-ring. A ring is a Baer-ring if every right (or left) annihilator ideal is generated by an idempotent. In determining these conditions, we make use of the existence of a Morita-equivalence between $R$ and $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ (Proposition 6.2), as well as the fact that $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is isomorphic to the endomorphism ring of any free right $R$-module with basis $\left\{x_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ (Lemma 2.6). Here, two rings are Morita-equivalent if their module categories are equivalent, and the endomorphism $\operatorname{ring} \operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$ of a right $R$-module $M$ is the set of all $R$-homomorphisms $f: M \rightarrow M$, which is a ring under pointwise addition and composition of functions.

The concepts of torsion-freeness and non-singularity of modules will also come into play. In particular, we consider rings for which the classes of torsion-free and non-singular right $S$-modules coincide for every ring $S$ Morita-equivalent to $R$. Albrecht, Dauns, and Fuchs investigate such rings in [1]. A module $M$ over a ring $R$ is torsion-free in the classical sense if $x r \neq 0$ for every nonzero $x \in M$ and every regular $r \in R$, where $r \in R$ is regular if it is not a left or right zero-divisor. For commutative rings, this is a useful way to define such modules, especially for integral domains since regular elements are precisely the nonzero elements. In the case $R$ is non-commutative, then the set $M_{t}=\left\{x \in M \mid a n n_{r}(x)\right.$ contains some regular element of R\}, which is usually referred to as the torsion-submodule in the commutative setting, is not necessarily a submodule of $M$. There are other ways in which torsion-freeness can be defined in the non-commutative setting. In [7], Hattori calls a right $R$-module $M$ torsion-free if $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, R / R r)=0$ for every $r \in R$. This is based on homological properties
of modules and coincides with the classical definition in the case $R$ is commutative. In [6], Goodearl defines the singular submodule and non-singularity of modules in the general non-commutative setting, which is closely related to the concept of torsion submodules and torsion-freeness. We look at relevant background information on torsion-freeness and nonsingularity in Chapters 4 and 5.

Albrecht, Dauns, and Fuchs found that $S$ is right strongly non-singular and the classes of torsion-free and non-singular $S$-modules coincide for every ring $S$ Morita equivalent to a ring $R$ if and only if $R$ is right strongly non-singular, right semi-hereditary, and does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents [1, Theorem 5.1]. A ring is right strongly non-singular if its maximal right ring of quotients is a perfect left localization. These rings will be explored in Section 5.2, and semi-hereditary rings will be defined and explored in Chapter 2. We make use of this theorem and take it a step further to show that $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a right and left Utumi Baer-ring if and only if the classes of torsion-free and non-singular $S$-modules coincide for every ring $S$ Morita equivalent to a ring $R$. Note that we remove the condition that every Morita-equivalent ring $S$ need be strongly non-singular. Instead, we assume that our ring $R$ is right Utumi, and from this we also get that $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is both right and left Utumi. We define Utumi rings in Section 5.3.

Unless noted otherwise, commutativity of a ring is not assumed, but all rings are assumed to have a multiplicative identity.

## Chapter 2

Semi-hereditary Rings and p.p.-rings

We begin by looking at projective modules. A right R-module P is projective if given right R-modules A and B , an epimorphism $\pi: A \rightarrow B$, and a homomorphism $\varphi: P \rightarrow \mathrm{~B}$, then there exists a homomorphism $\psi: \mathrm{P} \rightarrow \mathrm{A}$ such that $\pi \psi=\varphi$. In particular, every free right $R$-module is projective [9, Theorem 3.1]. We make use of the following well-known characterization of projective modules:

Theorem 2.1. [9] Let $R$ be a ring. The following are equivalent for a right $R$-module $P$ :
(a) $P$ is projective
(b) $P$ is isomorphic to a direct summand of a free right $R$-module. In other words, there is a free right $R$-module $F=Q \bigoplus N$, where $N$ is a right $R$-module and $Q \cong P$.
(c) For any right $R$-module $M$ and epimorphism $\varphi: M \rightarrow P, M=\operatorname{ker}(\varphi) \bigoplus N$.

Let $\operatorname{Mod}_{R}$ be the category of all right R -modules for a ring R. A complex in $\operatorname{Mod}_{R}$ is a sequence of right R-modules and R-homomorphisms in $\operatorname{Mod}_{R}$,

$$
\ldots \rightarrow A_{k+1} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{k+1}} A_{k} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{k}} A_{k-1} \rightarrow \ldots
$$

such that $\alpha_{k+1} \alpha_{k}=0$ for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Observe $\alpha_{k+1} \alpha_{k}=0$ implies that $\operatorname{im}\left(\alpha_{k+1}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{ker}\left(\alpha_{k}\right)$. The sequence is called exact if $\operatorname{im}\left(\alpha_{k+1}\right)=\operatorname{ker}\left(\alpha_{k}\right)$ for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. An exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \rightarrow 0$ of right $R$-modules is referred to as a short exact sequence. Such an exact sequence is said to split if there exists an $R$-homomorphism $\gamma: C \rightarrow B$ such that $\beta \gamma=1_{C}$, where $1_{C}$ is the identity map on $C$.

Lemma 2.2. [9] Let $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \rightarrow 0$ be a sequence of right $R$-modules. If this sequence is split exact, then $B \cong A \bigoplus C$.

Proof. If the exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \rightarrow 0$ of right $R$-modules splits, then there exists an $R$-homomorphism $\gamma: C \rightarrow B$ such that $\beta \gamma \cong 1_{C}$. Observe that since $\alpha$ is a monomorphism, $\operatorname{im}(\alpha) \cong A$. Moreover, if $x \in \operatorname{ker}(\gamma)$, then $\gamma(x)=0$. However, $\beta(0)=$ $\beta \gamma(x)=x$ since $\beta \gamma=1_{C}$. Thus, $x=0$ and $\gamma$ is also a monomorphism. Hence, $i m(\beta) \cong C$. Therefore, to show that $B \cong A \bigoplus C$, it suffices to show that $B \cong i m(\alpha) \bigoplus i m(\gamma)$.

Let $b \in B$. Then $\beta(b) \in C$ and $\gamma \beta(b) \in i m(\gamma)$. Furthermore, $b-\gamma \beta(b) \in \operatorname{ker}(\beta)=i m(\alpha)$ since $\beta(b-\gamma \beta(b))=\beta(b)-\beta \gamma \beta(b)=\beta(b)-\beta(b)=0$. Hence, $b=[b-\gamma \beta(b)]+\gamma \beta(b) \in$ $i m(\alpha)+i m(\gamma)$. Suppose, $x \in i m(\alpha) \cap i m(\gamma)$. Then, there exists some $a \in A$ such that $\alpha(a)=x$, and there exists some $c \in C$ such that $\gamma(c)=x$. Now, $\alpha(a) \in \operatorname{im}(\alpha)=\operatorname{ker}(\beta)$, which implies $\beta(x)=\beta \alpha(a)=0$. However, it is also the case that $\beta(x)=\beta \gamma(c)=c$. Hence, $c=0$ and it follows that $x=\gamma(c)=\gamma(0)=0$. Thus, $\operatorname{im}(\alpha) \cap \operatorname{im}(\gamma)=0$. Therefore, $B \cong i m(\alpha) \bigoplus i m(\gamma) \cong A \bigoplus C$.

Proposition 2.3. [9] The following are equivalent for a right $R$-module $P$ :
(a) $P$ is projective.
(b) The sequence $0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, A) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, \varphi)} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, B) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, \psi)} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, C) \rightarrow 0$ is exact whenever $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\varphi} B \xrightarrow{\psi} C \rightarrow 0$ is a an exact sequence of right $R$-modules.

Proof. $(a) \Rightarrow(b)$ : Suppose $P$ is projective. Observe that the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P,_{-}\right)$is left exact [9, Theorem 2.38]. Thus, if $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\varphi} B \xrightarrow{\psi} C \rightarrow 0$ is exact, then

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, A) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, \varphi)} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, B) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, \psi)} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, C)
$$

is exact. Therefore, it remains to be shown that $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, \psi)$ is an epimorphism. Let $\alpha \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, C)$. Since $P$ is projective, there exists a homomorphism $\beta: P \rightarrow B$ such that $\alpha=\psi \beta$. Hence, $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, \psi)(\beta)=\psi \beta=\alpha$. Therefore, $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, \psi)$ is an epimorphism.
$(b) \Rightarrow(a)$ : Let $P$ be a right $R$-module and assume exactness of $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\varphi} B \xrightarrow{\psi} C \rightarrow 0$ implies exactness of $0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, A) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, \varphi)} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, B) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, \psi)} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, C) \rightarrow 0$.

This implies $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, \psi)$ is an epimorphism. Thus, if $\alpha \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, \psi)$, then there exists some $\beta \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, B)$ such that $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, \psi)(\beta)=\psi \beta=\alpha$. That is, given an epimorphism $\psi: B \rightarrow C$ and a homomorphism $\alpha: P \rightarrow C$, there exists a homomorphism $\beta: P \rightarrow B$ such that $\alpha=\psi \beta$. Therefore, $P$ is projective.

A ring $R$ is a right p.p.-ring if every principal right ideal is projective as a right $R$ module. A ring $R$ is right semi-hereditary if every finitely generated right ideal is projective as a right R -module. For a right $R$-module $M$ and any subset $S \subseteq M$, define the right annihilator of $S$ in $R$ as $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(S)=\{r \in \mathrm{R} \mid x r=0$ for every $x \in S\}$. The right annihilator of $S$ is a right ideal of $R$. Similarly, the left annihilator of $S$ in $R$ can be defined for a left $R$-module $M$ as $\operatorname{ann}_{l}(S)=\{r \in \mathrm{R} \mid r x=0$ for every $x \in S\}$. The left annihilator of $S$ is a left ideal of $R$. The following proposition shows that right p.p.-rings can be defined in terms of annihilators of elements and idempotents, where an idempotent is an element $e \in R$ such that $e^{2}=e$.

Proposition 2.4. $A$ ring $R$ is a right p.p.-ring if and only if for every $x \in R$ there exists some idempotent $e \in R$ such that $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(x)=e R$.

Proof. For $x \in R$, consider the function $f_{x}: R \rightarrow x R$ given by $r \mapsto x r$. This is a welldefined epimorphism. Then $R$ is a right p.p.-ring if and only if the principal right ideal $x R$ is projective for for every $x \in R$ if and only if $\operatorname{ker}\left(f_{x}\right)$ is a direct summand of $R$ for every $x \in R$. Observe that for each $x \in R$, $\operatorname{ker}\left(f_{x}\right)=a n n_{r}(x)$. Hence, $R$ is a right p.p.-ring if and only if $a n n_{r}(x)$ is a direct summand of $R$. Note that every direct summand of $R$ is generated by an idempotent since $R \cong e R \bigoplus(1-e) R$ for any idempotent $e \in R$. Thus, as a direct summand, $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(x)=e R$ for some idempotent $e \in R$. Therefore, $R$ is a right p.p.-ring if and only if for every $x \in R$ there is some idempotent $e \in R$ such that $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(x)=e R$.

Let $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ denote the set of all $n \times n$ matrices with entries in $R$. Under standard matrix addition and multiplication, $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a ring. A useful characterization of semihereditary rings is that such rings are precisely those for which $M a t_{n}(R)$ is a right p.p.-ring for every $0<n<\omega$. To show this, the following two lemmas will be needed:

Lemma 2.5. [9] $A$ ring $R$ is right semi-hereditary if and only if every finitely generated submodule $U$ of a projective right $R$-module $P$ is projective.

Proof. Suppose $R$ is right semi-hereditary and let $U$ be a submodule of a projective right $R$-module $P$. By Theorem 2.1, $P \bigoplus N$ is free for some right R-module $N$. Hence, $P$ is a submodule of a free module, and it follows that any submodule of $P$ is also a submodule of a free module. Thus, without loss of generality, it can be assumed that $P$ is a free right R-module. Moreover, since $U$ is finitely generated, it can be assumed that $P$ is finitely generated with basis $X=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ for some $0<n<\omega$.

Inductively, it will be shown that $U$ is a finite direct sum of finitely generated right ideals. If $n=1$, then $P=x_{1} R \cong R$. Since submodules of the right $R$-module $R$ are right ideals, $U$ is a finitely generated right ideal. Suppose $n>1$ and assume $U$ is a finite direct sum of finitely generated right ideals for $k<n$. Let $V=U \cap\left(x_{1} R+x_{2} R+\ldots+x_{n-1} R\right)$. Then, $V$ is a finitely generated submodule of a free right $R$-module with basis $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right\}$. By assumption, $V$ is a finite direct sum of finitely generated right ideals. Note that if $u \in U$, then $u=v+x_{n} r$ with $v \in V$ and $r \in R$. This expression for $u$ is unique since $X$ is a linearly independent spanning set. Thus, the map $\varphi: U \rightarrow R$ defined by $\varphi(u)=\varphi\left(v+x_{n} r\right)=r$ is a well-defined homomorphism.

Now, $\operatorname{im}(\varphi)$ is a finitely generated right ideal of $R$ since it is the epimorphic image of the finitely generated right $R$-module $U$. Hence, $\operatorname{im}(\varphi)$ is projective since $R$ is right semi-hereditary. Consider the short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow K \xrightarrow{\iota} U \xrightarrow{\varphi} i m(\varphi) \rightarrow 0$, where $K=\operatorname{ker} \varphi$ and $\iota$ is the inclusion map. This sequence splits since $\operatorname{im}(\varphi)$ is projective, and thus $U \cong K \bigoplus i m(\varphi)$ by Lemma 2.2. Hence, $U$ is a finite direct sum of finitely generated right ideals since both $K$ and $\operatorname{im}(\varphi)$ are finitely generated right ideals. Since $R$ is right
semi-hereditary, each of these right ideals is projective. Therefore, $U$ is projective as the direct sum of projective right ideals.

Conversely, suppose that if $P$ is a projective right $R$-module, then every finitely generated submodule $U$ of $P$ is projective. Let $I$ be a finitely generated right ideal of $R$. Note that $R$ is a free right $R$-module and thus projective. Hence, $I$ is a finitely generated submodule of $R$, and by assumption $I$ is projective. Therefore, $R$ is right semi-hereditary.

Lemma 2.6. Let $R$ be a ring, and $F$ a finitely generated free right $R$-module with basis $\left\{x_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ for $0<n<\omega$. Then, $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R) \cong \operatorname{End}_{R}(F)$.

Proof. Let $S=\operatorname{End}_{R}(F)$ and take $f \in S$. Then, $f\left(x_{k}\right) \in F$ for each $k=1,2, \ldots, n$. Hence, $f\left(x_{k}\right)$ is of the form $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} a_{i k}$, where $a_{i k} \in R$ for every $i$ and every $k$. Let $A=\left\{a_{i k}\right\}$ be the $n \times n$ matrix whose $i$ - $k$ th entry is $a_{i k}$, and let $\varphi: S \rightarrow \operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ be defined by $f \mapsto A$. If $f, g \in S$ are such that $f=g$, then $f\left(x_{k}\right)=g\left(x_{k}\right)$ for every $k=1,2, \ldots, n$. Hence, $\varphi$ is well-defined. Furthermore, if $f\left(x_{k}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} a_{i k}$ and $g\left(x_{k}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} b_{i k}$ for $k=1,2, \ldots, n$, then $(f+g)\left(x_{k}\right)=f\left(x_{k}\right)+g\left(x_{k}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}\left(a_{i k}+b_{i k}\right)$. Thus, if $A=\left\{a_{i k}\right\}$ and $B=\left\{b_{i k}\right\}$ are the $n \times n$ matrices with entries determined by $f$ and $g$ respectively, then $A+B=\left\{a_{i k}+b_{i k}\right\}$ is the $n \times n$ matrix with entries determined by $f+g$. Hence, $\varphi(f+g)=A+B=\varphi f+\varphi g$.

To see that $\varphi$ is a ring homomorphism, it remains to be seen that $\varphi(f g)=\varphi(f) \varphi(g)=$ $A B$. In other words, it needs to be shown that the entries of the matrix $A B$ are determined by $f g\left(x_{j}\right)$ for $j=1,2, \ldots, n$. Observe that if $A=\left\{a_{i k}\right\}$ and $B=\left\{b_{i k}\right\}$ are $n \times n$ matrices, then under standard matrix multiplication $A B$ is the $n \times n$ matrix whose $i$ - $j$ th entry is $\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{i k} b_{k j}$. This is indeed the matrix determined by the endomorphism $f g$ since the following holds:
$f g\left(x_{j}\right)=f\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} x_{k} b_{k j}\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{n} f\left(x_{k}\right) b_{k j}=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} a_{i k} b_{k j}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{i k} b_{k j}$.
Finally, note that if $A=\left\{a_{i k}\right\} \in \operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$, then $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} a_{i k} \in F$ and $\hat{f}: x_{j} \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} a_{i k}$ is an $R$-homomorphism from $\left\{x_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ into $F$. This can be extended to an endomorphism $f \in F$. It readily follows that $\psi: \operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R) \rightarrow S$ defined by $\left\{a_{i k}\right\} \mapsto f$ is a well-defined
ring homomorphism. Moreover, $\varphi \psi\left(\left\{a_{i k}\right\}\right)=\varphi(f)=\left\{a_{i k}\right\}$ and $\psi \varphi(f)=\psi\left(\left\{a_{i k}\right\}\right)=f$. Thus, $\varphi$ and $\psi$ are inverses, and therefore $\varphi$ is an isomorphism between $S=\operatorname{End}_{R}(F)$ and $M a t_{n}(R)$.

Theorem 2.7. [3] $A$ ring $R$ is right semi-hereditary if and only if $M a t_{n}(R)$ is a right p.p.ring for every $0<n<\omega$.

Proof. Suppose $R$ is right semi-hereditary. For $0<n<\omega$, let $F$ be a finitely generated free right $R$-module with basis $\left\{x_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$. By Lemma 2.6, $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R) \cong \operatorname{End}_{R}(F)$. Therefore, it suffices to show that $S=\operatorname{End}_{R}(F)$ is a right p.p.-ring. Take $s \in S$. Since $F$ is finitelygenerated, $s F$ is a finitely generated submodule of $F$. Free modules are projective, and thus sF is projective by Lemma 2.5. Since $s F$ is an epimorphic image of $F$, Theorem 2.1 shows that $F \cong \operatorname{ker} s \bigoplus N$ for some right $R$-module $N$. Thus, ker $s=e F$ for some nonzero idempotent $e \in S$. Suppose $r \in \operatorname{ann}(s)=\{t \in S \mid \operatorname{st}(f)=0$ for every $f \in F\}$. Then, $s r=0$ and $r \in \operatorname{ker} s=e F \subseteq e S$. On the other hand, suppose $e t \in e S$. Since sef $=0$ for every $f \in F$, $\operatorname{set}(f)=0$ for every $f \in F$. Hence, et $\in a n n_{r}(s)$. Therefore, $a n n_{r}(s)=e S$ and $S=\operatorname{End}_{R}(F) \cong \operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a right p.p.-ring.

Suppose $M a t_{n}(R)$ is a right p.p.-ring for every $0<n<\omega$. Let $I$ be a finitely generated right ideal of $R$ with generating set $\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{k}\right\}$, and take $F$ to be a free right $R$-module with basis $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k}\right\}$. Note that there exists a submodule $K$ of $F$ which is isomorphic to $I$. Hence, $K$ is also generated by $k$ elements, say $b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{k}$. Let $S=\operatorname{Mat}_{k}(R) \cong \operatorname{End}_{R}(F)$. For any $f \in F$, there exists $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{k} \in R$ such that $f=x_{1} r_{1}+x_{2} r_{2}+\ldots+x_{k} r_{k}$. Let $s \in S$ be the well-defined homomorphism defined by $s(f)=s\left(x_{1} r_{1}+x_{2} r_{2}+\ldots+x_{n} r_{n}\right)=$ $b_{1} r_{1}+b_{2} r_{2}+\ldots+b_{n} r_{k}$. Note that $i m(s)=K$ and thus $s: F \rightarrow K$ is an epimorphism.

It will now be shown that $\operatorname{ker}(s)=a n n_{r}(s) F$. Here, as before, $a n n_{r}(s)$ refers to the annihilator in $S$. If $y=\sum_{i=1}^{n} t_{i} f_{i} \in \operatorname{ann} n_{r}(s) F$, then $s t_{i} f_{i}=0$ for every $i=1,2, \ldots, n$. Hence, $y \in \operatorname{ker}(s)$. On the other hand, let $f \in \operatorname{ker}(s)$. Now, $f R$ is a submodule of $F$, and so we can find some $t \in S$ such that $t: F \rightarrow f R$ is an epimorphism and $t f=f$. Then, for any $x \in F, s[t(x)]=s(f r)$ for some $r \in R$. However, $s(f r)=(s f) r=0$. Thus, $t \in a n n_{r}(s)$ and
$f=t f \in a n n_{r}(s) F$. Therefore, $\operatorname{ker}(s)=a n n_{r}(s) F$. Moreover, since $\operatorname{Mat}_{k}(R) \cong \operatorname{End}_{R}(F)$ is a right p.p.-ring by assumption, $a n n_{r}(s)=e S$ for some idempotent $e \in S$. Observe that $S F=F$ since $\sum_{i=1}^{n} s_{i} f_{i} \in F$ for $s_{i} \in S$ and $f_{i} \in F$, and $f=1_{F}(f) \in S F$ for any $f \in F$. Hence, $\operatorname{ker}(s)=a n n_{r}(s) F=e S F=e F$. Thus, $\operatorname{ker}(s)$ is a direct summand of $F$. It then follows from Theorem 2.1 that $I \cong K$ is projective since $s: F \rightarrow K$ is a an epimorphism. Therefore, $R$ is a right semi-hereditary ring.

Two idempotents $e$ and $f$ are called orthogonal if $e f=0$ and $f e=0$. If $R$ contains only finite sets of orthogonal idempotents, then being a p.p.-ring is right-left-symmetric. Moreover, if $R$ is a right (or left) p.p.-ring not containing an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents, then it satisfies both the ascending and descending chain conditions on annihilators (Theorem 2.11). A ring $R$ satisfies the ascending chain condition on annihilators if given any ascending chain $I_{0} \subseteq I_{1} \subseteq \ldots \subseteq I_{n} \subseteq \ldots$ of annihilators, there exists some $k<\omega$ such that $I_{n}=I_{k}$ for every $n \geq k$. Similarly, $R$ satisfies the descending chain condition on annihilators if every descending chain of annihilators terminates for some $k<\omega$. Before proving Theorem 2.11, we look at some basic results regarding annihilators and the chain conditions.

Lemma 2.8. Let $S$ and $T$ be subsets of a ring $R$ such that $S \subseteq T$. Then, $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(T) \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_{r}(S)$ and $\operatorname{ann}_{l}(T) \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_{l}(S)$.

Proof. For $r \in \operatorname{ann}_{r}(T)$ and $t \in T$, $t r=0$. Let $s \in S \subseteq T$. Then, $s r=0$ and hence $r \in a n n_{r}(S)$. Thus, $a n n_{r}(T) \subseteq a n n_{r}(S)$. A similar computation shows the theorem holds for left annihilators.

Lemma 2.9. Let $U$ be a subset of a ring $R$, and let $A=a n n_{r}(U)=\{r \in R \mid$ ur $=0$ for every $u \in U\}$. Then, $\operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(\operatorname{ann}_{l}(A)\right)=A$.

Proof. Suppose $r \in a n n_{r}\left(a n n_{l}(A)\right)$, and let $u \in U$. Then, $u a=0$ for every $a \in A$. Hence, $u \in \operatorname{ann}_{l}(A)$, and thus $u r=0$. Therefore, $\operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(a n n_{l}(A)\right) \subseteq A$. Conversely, suppose $a \in A$. Then, $b a=0$ for every $b \in a n n_{l}(A)$. Hence, $a \in \operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(a n n_{l}(A)\right)$. Therefore, $A \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(a n n_{l}(A)\right)$.

Lemma 2.10. $R$ satisfies the ascending chain condition on right annihilators if and only if $R$ satisfies the descending chain condition on left annihilators.

Proof. Suppose $R$ satisfies the ascending chain condition on right annihilators. Let $a n n_{l}\left(U_{1}\right)$ $\supseteq \operatorname{ann}_{l}\left(U_{2}\right) \supseteq \ldots$ be a descending chain of left annihilators. Note that if $a n n_{l}\left(U_{i}\right) \supseteq a n n_{l}\left(U_{j}\right)$, then $\operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(a n n_{l}\left(U_{1}\right)\right) \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(a n n_{l}\left(U_{2}\right)\right) \subseteq \ldots$ is an ascending chain of right annihilators by Lemma 2.8. By the ascending chain condition on right annihilators, there is some $k<\omega$ such that $\operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(a n n_{l}\left(U_{n}\right)\right)=a n n_{r}\left(a n n_{l}\left(U_{k}\right)\right)$ for every $n \geq k$. Therefore, $\operatorname{ann}_{l}\left(a n n_{r}\left(a n n_{l}\left(U_{n}\right)\right)\right)=$ $a n n_{l}\left(a n n_{r}\left(a n n_{l}\left(U_{k}\right)\right)\right)$ for every $n \geq k$, and by a symmetric version of Lemma 2.9 it follows that $\operatorname{ann}_{l}\left(U_{n}\right)=\operatorname{ann}_{l}\left(U_{n}\right)$ for every $n \geq k$. A similar argument shows that the descending chain condition on left annihilators implies the ascending chain condition for right annihilators.

Theorem 2.11. [3] Let $R$ be a right p.p.-ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. Then $R$ is also a left p.p.-ring, every right or left annihilator in $R$ is generated by an idempotent, and $R$ satisfies both the ascending and descending chain condition for right annihilators.

Proof. Let $A=a n n_{r}(U)$ for some subset U of R and consider $\mathrm{B}=a n n_{l}(A)$. Suppose B contains nonzero orthogonal idempotents $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$, and let $\mathrm{e}=e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n}$. Note that e is also an idempotent since $e^{2}=\left(e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n}\right)\left(e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n}\right)=e_{1}^{2}+\ldots+e_{n}^{2}+e_{1} e_{2}+\ldots+e_{n-1} e_{n}=$ $e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n}=e$. Suppose $B=R e$. The claim is that $A=(1-e) R$, and hence $A$ is generated by an idempotent. To see this, first note that $a n n_{r}(B)=a n n_{r}\left(a n n_{l}(A)\right)=A$ by Lemma 2.9. Thus, it needs to be shown that $a n n_{r}(B)=(1-e) R$. If $b \in B=R e$, then $b=s e$ for some $s \in R$. For all $r \in R$, we obtain $b(1-e) r=s e(1-e) r=\left(s e-s e^{2}\right) r=(s e-s e) r=0$. Hence, $(1-e) R \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_{r}(B)$. On the other hand, suppose $r \in a n n_{r}(B)$. Then, $r=r-e r+e r=$ $(1-e) r+e r$. Note that $e \in B=a n n_{l}(A)$, and so $e r=0$ since $r \in a n n_{r}(B)=A$. Thus, $r=(1-e) r \in(1-e) R$, and hence $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(B) \subseteq(1-e) R$. Therefore, if $B=R e$, then $A$ is generated by an idempotent.

If $B \neq R e$, then select $b \in B \backslash R e$, and observe $b a=0$ for every $a \in A$ since $b \neq r e$ for any $r \in R$. Therefore, $B \neq B e$, which implies $B(1-e) \neq 0$. Let $0 \neq y \in B(1-e)$, say $y=s(1-e)$ for some $s \in B$. Since R is a right p.p.-ring, $a n n_{r}(y)=(1-f) R$ for some idempotent $f \in R$. Observe that $f$ is nonzero. For otherwise, $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(y)=R$ and $y=0$, which is a contradiction. If $0 \neq a \in A$, then $y a=s(1-e) a=s a-s e a=0-s \cdot 0=0$. Thus, $a \in a n n_{r}(y)=(1-f) R$, and so $A \subseteq(1-f) R$. Hence, $f A \subseteq f(1-f) R=0$ and $f \in a n n_{l}(A)=B$. Observe that $e \in \operatorname{ann}_{r}(y)=(1-f) R$ since $y e=s(1-e) e=0$, and so $e=(1-f) t$ for some $t \in R$. Thus, $(1-f) e=(1-f)(1-f) t=(1-f) t=e$, and so $f e=f(1-f) t=\left(f-f^{2}\right) t=0$. Note also that $f e_{i}=0$ for $i=1, \ldots, n$, since $y e_{i}=s(1-e) e_{i}=s\left(e_{i}-e e_{i}\right)=s\left(e_{i}-e_{i}\right)=0$ and hence $e_{i} \in a n n_{r}(y)$.

Let $e_{n+1}=(1-e) f=f-e f$. Note $e_{n+1}$ is an idempotent since $f e=0$ and thus $(f-e f)(f-e f)=f-f e f-e f+e f e f=f-0-e f+0=f-e f$. Consider $e_{i}$ for some $i=1, \ldots, n$. Then, $e_{n+1} e_{i}=(1-e) f e_{i}=(1-e) \cdot 0=0$, and $e_{i} e_{n+1}=e_{i}(1-e) f=$ $\left(e_{i}-e_{i} e\right) f=\left(e_{i}-e_{i}\right) f=0 \cdot f=0$. Thus, $e_{n+1}$ is orthogonal to $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$. Furthermore, $e_{n+1}$ is nonzero, since otherwise we have $f=e f$. This would imply $f=f^{2}=e f e f=e \cdot 0 \cdot f=0$, which is a contradiction. Note also that $e_{n+1} \in B$ since both $e$ and $f$ are in $B$.

Then, $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}, e_{n+1}$ are nonzero orthogonal idempotents contained in $B$. As before, if $e=e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n+1}$ and $B \neq R e$, then there is a nonzero idempotent $e_{n+2} \in B$ orthogonal to $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n+1}$. Since R does not contain any infinite set of orthogonal idempotents, this process must stop for $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{k}$. Thus, for $e=e_{1}+\ldots+e_{k}, B=R e$ and $A=(1-e) R$. Therefore, each right and left annihilator is generated by an idempotent. From a symmetric version of Proposition 2.4, it follows that R is a left p.p.-ring.

Finally, it needs to be shown that R satisfies the ascending and descending chain conditions for right annihilators. Let $C \subseteq D$ be right annihilators. Then, there are idempotents $e$ and $f$ such that $C=e R$ and $D=f R$. Hence, $e R \subseteq f R$, and it follows that $e=f e$. Thus, $g=f-e f$ is a nonzero idempotent. Furthermore, $g$ and $e$ are orthogonal, since $e g=e(f-e f)=e f-e^{2} f=e f-e f=0$ and $g e=(f-e f) e=f e-e f e=e-e^{2}=0$. Note that
$f R=e R+g R$. For, if $e r+g s \in e R+g R$, then $e r+g s=e r+(f-e f) s=e r+f s+e f s \in f R$, and conversely, if $f r \in f R$, then $f r=(f+e f-e f) r=e f r+(f-e f) r=e f r-g r \in e R+g R$.

Let $I_{1} \subseteq I_{2} \subseteq \ldots$ be a chain of right annihilators. Then, for $I_{1} \subseteq I_{2}$, there are idempotents $e$ and $f$ such that $I_{1}=e R$ and $I_{2}=f R$, and there is an idempotent $g$ orthogonal to $e$ such that $I_{2}=I_{1}+g R$. It then follows that $I_{3}=I_{1}+g R+h R$ for some idempotent $h$ orthogonal to both $e$ and $g$. Since $R$ does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents, this must terminate with some $k<\omega$ so that $I_{n}=I_{k}$ for every $n \geq k$. Therefore, $R$ satisfies the ascending chain condition on right annihilators. The descending chain condition on right annihilators follows from Lemma 2.10.

## Chapter 3

Homological Algebra

Before discussing torsion-freeness and non-singularity of modules, we need some basic results in Homological Algebra regarding tensor products, flat modules, and functors.

### 3.1 Tensor Products

Let $A$ be a right $R$-module, $B$ a left $R$-module, and $G$ any Abelian group. A function $f: A \times B \rightarrow G$ is called $R$-biadditive, or $R$-bilinear, if the following conditions are satisfied:
(i) For each $a, a^{\prime} \in A$ and $b \in B, f\left(a+a^{\prime}, b\right)=f(a, b)+f\left(a^{\prime}, b\right)$,
(ii) For each $a \in A$ and $b, b^{\prime} \in B, f\left(a, b+b^{\prime}\right)=f(a, b)+f\left(a, b^{\prime}\right)$,
(iii) For each $a \in A, b \in B$, and $r \in R, f(a r, b)=f(a, r b)$.

Note that in general $f\left(a+a^{\prime}, b+b^{\prime}\right) \neq f(a, b)+f\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)$. The tensor product of $A$ and $B$, denoted $A \bigotimes_{R} B$, is an Abelian group and an $R$-biadditive function $h: A \times B \rightarrow A \bigotimes_{R} B$ having the universal property that whenever $G$ is an Abelian group and $g: A \times B \rightarrow G$ is $R$-biadditive, there is a unique map $f: A \bigotimes_{R} B \rightarrow G$ such that $g=f h$.

Proposition 3.1. [9] Let $R$ be a ring. Given a right $R$-module $A$ and a left $R$-module $B$, the tensor product $A \bigotimes_{R} B$ exists.

Proof. Let $F$ be a free Abelian group with basis $A \times B$, and let $U$ be a subgroup of $F$ generated by all elements of the form $\left(a+a^{\prime}, b\right)-(a, b)-\left(a^{\prime}, b\right),\left(a, b+b^{\prime}\right)-(a, b)-\left(a, b^{\prime}\right)$, or $(a r, b)-(a, r b)$, where $a, a^{\prime} \in A, b, b^{\prime} \in B$, and $r \in R$. Define $A \bigotimes_{R} B$ to be $F / U$, and denote $(a, b)+U \in F / U$ as $a \otimes b$. In addition, let $h: A \times B \rightarrow A \bigotimes_{R} B$ be defined by
$(a, b) \mapsto a \otimes b$. Observe that $h$ is a well-defined $R$-biadditive map. For if $a, a^{\prime} \in A$ and $b \in B$, then $h\left(a+a^{\prime}, b\right)=\left(a+a^{\prime}, b\right)+U=\left(a+a^{\prime}, b\right)-\left[\left(a+a^{\prime}, b\right)-(a, b)-\left(a^{\prime}, b\right)\right]+U=$ $[(a, b)+U]+\left[\left(a^{\prime}, b\right)+U\right]=h(a, b)+h\left(a^{\prime}, b\right)$. Similarly, $h\left(a, b+b^{\prime}\right)=h(a, b)+h\left(a, b^{\prime}\right)$ for $b, b^{\prime} \in B$, and $h(a r, b)=(a r, b)+U=(a r, b)-[(a r, b)-(a, r b)]+U=(a, r b)+U=h(a, r b)$ for $r \in R$.

Let $G$ be any Abelian group and $g: A \times B \rightarrow G$ any $R$-biadditive map. For $F / U$ to be a tensor product, it needs to be shown that there is a function $\varphi: A \otimes_{R} B=F / U \rightarrow G$ such that $g=\varphi h$. Define $\hat{f}: A \times B \rightarrow G$ by $(a, b) \mapsto g(a, b)$. Each element of $F$ is of the form $\sum_{A \times B}(a, b) n_{(a, b)}$, where $n_{(a, b)}=0$ for all but finitely many $(a, b) \in A \times B$. Let $f$ be defined by $\sum_{A \times B}(a, b) n_{(a, b)} \mapsto \sum_{A \times B} \hat{f}[(a, b)] n_{(a, b)}$. This is clearly well-defined since $\hat{f}$ is well-defined. Moreover, $f[(a, b)]=\hat{f}[(a, b)]$ for $(a, b) \in A \times B$, and thus $f$ extends $\hat{f}$ to a function on $F$. Note that if $k$ is another extension of $\hat{f}$, then $k$ must equal $f$ since they are equal on the generating set $A \times B$. Hence, $f$ is a unique extension. Also observe that $f$ is a homomorphism since, given $x, y \in F, f(x+y)=f\left(\sum_{A \times B}(a, b) n_{(a, b)}+\sum_{A \times B}\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right) m_{(a, b)}\right)$ $=\sum_{A \times B} \hat{f}[(a, b)] n_{(a, b)}+\sum_{A \times B} \hat{f}\left[\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)\right] m_{(a, b)}=f(x)+f(y)$.

It readily follows from $g$ being $R$-biadditive that the homomorphism $f: F \rightarrow G$ which we have just constructed is also $R$-biadditive. To see this, observe that if $a, a^{\prime} \in A$ and $b \in B$, then $f\left[\left(a+a^{\prime}, b\right)\right]-f[(a, b)]-f\left[\left(a^{\prime}, b\right)\right]=g\left[\left(a+a^{\prime}, b\right)\right]-g[(a, b)]-g\left[\left(a^{\prime}, b\right)\right]=0$. The other two conditions are satisfied with similar computation. Thus, we have that $f(U)=0$. Define $\varphi: F / U=A \bigotimes_{R} B \rightarrow G$ by $\varphi(x+U)=f(x)$. If $x+U=x^{\prime}+U$, then $x-x^{\prime} \in U$ and hence $f\left(x-x^{\prime}\right) \in f(U)=0$. Thus, $f(x)=f\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ and $\varphi$ is well-defined. Furthermore, $\varphi h(a, b)=\varphi[a \otimes b]=\varphi[(a, b)+U]=f[(a, b)]=g[(a, b)]$. Therefore $A \otimes_{R} B=F / U$ is a tensor product.

Proposition 3.2. Let $R$ be a ring, $A$ a right $R$-module, and $B$ a left $R$-module. Then, the tensor product $A \bigotimes_{R} B$ is unique up to isomorphism.

Proof. It has already been shown that $A \bigotimes_{R} B$ exists. Suppose $H$ and $H^{\prime}$ are both tensor products, and let $h: A \times B \rightarrow H$ and $h^{\prime}: A \times B \rightarrow H^{\prime}$ be the respective $R$-biadditive
functions having the universal property. Then, there exists a function $f: H \rightarrow H^{\prime}$ such that $h^{\prime}=f h$ and a function $f^{\prime}: H^{\prime} \rightarrow H$ such that $h=f^{\prime} h^{\prime}$. Hence, $h=f^{\prime} f h$ and $h^{\prime}=f f^{\prime} h^{\prime}$. That is, $f^{\prime} f \cong 1_{H}$ and $f f^{\prime} \cong 1_{H^{\prime}}$. Therefore, $f: H \rightarrow H^{\prime}$ is an isomorphism.

Each element of $A \bigotimes_{R} B$ is a finite sum of the form $\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(a_{i} \otimes b_{i}\right)$. The elements $a \otimes b$ that generate $A \bigotimes_{R} B$ are referred to as tensors. Given $a, a^{\prime} \in A, b, b^{\prime} \in B$, and $r \in R$, the following properties hold for tensors:
(i) $\left(a+a^{\prime}\right) \otimes b=a \otimes b+a^{\prime} \otimes b$,
(ii) $a \otimes\left(b+b^{\prime}\right)=a \otimes b+a \otimes b^{\prime}$,
(iii) $a r \otimes b=a \otimes r b$.

These properties can be proved in a method similar to that used in the proof of Proposition 3.1 to show that $h: A \times B \rightarrow A \bigotimes_{R} B$ defined by $(a, b) \mapsto a \otimes b$ is $R$-biadditive.

Proposition 3.3. [9] Let $R$ be a ring, $A, A^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Mod}_{R}$, and $B, B^{\prime} \in{ }_{R} M o d$. If $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ and $g: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ are $R$-homomorphisms, then there is an induced map $f \otimes g: A \otimes_{R} B \rightarrow A^{\prime} \otimes_{R} B^{\prime}$ such that $(f \otimes g)(a \otimes b)=f(a) \otimes g(b)$.

Proof. Let $h: A \times B \rightarrow A \bigotimes_{R} B$ and $h^{\prime}: A^{\prime} \times B^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime} \bigotimes_{R} B^{\prime}$ be the respective $R$-biadditive maps with the universal tensor property. Define $\varphi: A \times B \rightarrow A^{\prime} \times B^{\prime}$ by $\varphi(a, b)=(f(a), g(b))$. It then follows that $h^{\prime} \varphi: A \times B \rightarrow A^{\prime} \otimes_{R} B^{\prime}$ is $R$-biadditive. For if $a, a^{\prime} \in A$ and $b \in B$, then $h^{\prime} \varphi\left(a+a^{\prime}, b\right)=h^{\prime}\left(f\left(a+a^{\prime}\right), g(b)\right)=h^{\prime}\left[f(a)+f\left(a^{\prime}\right), g(b)\right]=h^{\prime}[f(a), g(b)]+h^{\prime}\left[f\left(a^{\prime}\right), g(b)\right]=$ $h^{\prime} \varphi(a, b)+h^{\prime} \varphi\left(a^{\prime}, b\right)$. Similarly, $h^{\prime} \varphi\left(a, b+b^{\prime}\right)=h^{\prime} \varphi(a, b)+h^{\prime} \varphi\left(a, b^{\prime}\right)$ and $h^{\prime} \varphi(a r, b)=h^{\prime} \varphi(a, r b)$ for $b^{\prime} \in B$ and $r \in R$. By the universal property of the $R$-biadditive map $h$, there exists a map $\hat{\varphi}: A \bigotimes_{R} B \rightarrow A^{\prime} \bigotimes_{R} B^{\prime}$ such that $h^{\prime} \varphi=\hat{\varphi} h$. Hence, $\hat{\varphi}(a \otimes b)=\hat{\varphi} h(a, b)=$ $h^{\prime} \varphi(a, b)=h^{\prime}[f(a), g(b)]=f(a) \otimes g(b)$. Therefore, $f \otimes g=\hat{\varphi}$ is an induced map satisfying $(f \otimes g)(a \otimes b)=f(a) \otimes g(b)$.

The following lemmas will be needed in a later section:

Lemma 3.4. [5] Let $R$ be a ring, $A$ a right $R$-module, and $B$ a left $R$-module. If $a \otimes b$ is a tensor in $A \bigotimes_{R} B$, then $a \otimes b=0$ if and only if there exists $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{k} \in A$ and $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{k} \in R$ such that $a=a_{1} r_{1}+a_{2} r_{2}+\ldots+a_{k} r_{k}$ and $r_{j} b=0$ for $j=1,2, \ldots, k$.

Lemma 3.5. For a left $R$-module $M$, there is an $R$-module isomorphism
$\varphi: R \bigotimes_{R} M \rightarrow M$ given by $\varphi(r \otimes m)=r m$. Here, $R$ is viewed as a right $R$-module. Similarly, $N \bigotimes_{R} R \cong N$ for a right $R$-module $N$.

Proof. First, observe that $R \times M \xrightarrow{\psi} M$ given by $\psi((r, m))=r m$ is R-biadditive. Thus, we can define an R-module homomorphism $R \bigotimes_{R} M \xrightarrow{\varphi} M$ that sends each $r \otimes m \in R \bigotimes_{R} M$ to $r m$. In other words, $\varphi(r \otimes m)=\psi(r, m)$. Note that for every $s \in R, \varphi(s(r \otimes m))=$ $\varphi(s r \otimes m)=(s r) m=s(r m)=s \varphi(r \otimes m)$.

Let $\alpha: M \rightarrow R \otimes_{R} M$ be defined by $\alpha(m)=1 \otimes m$. Clearly $\alpha$ is a well-defined Rmodule homomorphism since $\alpha(m+n)=1 \otimes(m+n)=1 \otimes m+1 \otimes n=\alpha(m)+\alpha(n)$, and $\alpha(r m)=1 \otimes r m=1 r \otimes m=1 \otimes m$. It follows that $\alpha \varphi(r \otimes m)=\alpha(r m)=1 \otimes r m=$ $1 r \otimes m=r \otimes m$, and $\varphi \alpha(m)=\varphi(1 \otimes m)=1 m=m$. Thus, $\varphi$ is a bijection and hence an R-module isomorphism.

Lemma 3.6. [9]If $A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{p} C \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of left $R$-modules, then for any right $R$-module $M, M \bigotimes_{R} A \xrightarrow{1 \otimes i} M \bigotimes_{R} B \xrightarrow{1 \otimes p} M \bigotimes_{R} C \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence.

Proof. For $M \bigotimes_{R} A \xrightarrow{1 \otimes i} M \bigotimes_{R} B \xrightarrow{1 \otimes p} M \bigotimes_{R} C \rightarrow 0$ to be exact, it needs to be shown that $i m(1 \otimes i)=\operatorname{ker}(1 \otimes p)$ and $1 \otimes p$ is surjective. Since $\operatorname{im}(i)=\operatorname{ker}(p)$ and hence $p i a=0$ for every $a \in A$, it readily follows that $i m(1 \otimes i) \subseteq \operatorname{ker}(1 \otimes p)$. For if $\sum\left(m_{j} \otimes a_{j}\right) \in M \otimes_{R} A$, then $(1 \otimes p)(1 \otimes i)\left[\sum\left(m_{j} \otimes a_{j}\right)\right]=(1 \otimes p)\left[\sum(1 \otimes i)\left(m_{j} \otimes a_{j}\right)\right]=(1 \otimes p)\left[\sum\left(m_{j} \otimes i a_{j}\right)\right]=$ $\sum(1 \otimes p)\left(m_{j} \otimes i a_{j}\right)=\sum\left(m_{j} \otimes p i a_{j}\right)=\sum\left(m_{j} \otimes 0\right)=0$. To see that $i m(1 \otimes i)=\operatorname{ker}(1 \otimes p)$, first note that since $i m(1 \otimes i)$ is contained in the kernel of $1 \otimes p$, there is a uniqe homomorphism $\varphi: M \bigotimes_{R} B / i m(1 \otimes i) \rightarrow M \bigotimes_{R} C$ such that $\varphi[(m \otimes b)+i m(1 \otimes i)]=(1 \otimes p)(m \otimes b)=m \otimes p b$ [8, Ch. IV, Theorem 1.7].

It can be shown that $\varphi$ is an isomorphism, and from this it will follow that $i m(1 \otimes i)=$ ker $(1 \otimes p)$. Note that since the sequence $A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{p} C \rightarrow 0$ is exact and hence $p$ is surjective, for every $c \in C$ there exists an element $b \in B$ such that $p b=c$. Let the function $f: M \times C \rightarrow M \bigotimes_{R} B / i m(1 \otimes i)$ be defined by $(m, c) \mapsto p \otimes b$. If there is another element $b_{0} \in B$ such that $p b_{0}=c$, then $p\left(b-b_{0}\right)=p b-p b 0=c-c=0$. Hence, $b-b_{0} \in \operatorname{ker}(p)=i m(i)$. Thus, there is an $a \in A$ such that $i a=b-b_{0}$, and it then follows that $m \otimes b-m \otimes b_{0}=m \otimes\left(b-b_{0}\right)=m \otimes i a \in i m(1 \otimes i)$. Hence, $\left(m \otimes b-m \otimes b_{0}\right)+i m(1 \otimes i)=0$, and therefore $f$ is well-defined. Furthermore, it is easily seen that $f$ is an $R$-biadditive function. Thus, if $h:(m, c) \mapsto m \otimes c$ is the biadditive function of the tensor product, then there is a homomorphism $\psi: M \bigotimes_{R} C \rightarrow M \bigotimes_{R} B / i m(1 \otimes i)$ such that $\psi h=f$. In other words, $\psi(m \otimes c)=(m \otimes b)+i m(1 \otimes i)$.

Observe that $\psi \varphi[(m \otimes b)+i m(1 \otimes i)]=\psi(m \otimes p b)=\psi(m \otimes c)=(m \otimes b)+i m(1 \otimes i)$ and $\varphi \psi(m \otimes c)=\varphi[(m \otimes b)+i m(1 \otimes i)]=m \otimes p b=m \otimes c$. Thus, $\varphi$ is an isomorphism with inverse $\psi$. Now, let $\pi: M \bigotimes_{R} B \rightarrow M \bigotimes_{R} B / i m(1 \otimes i)$ be the canonical epimorphism given by $m \otimes b \mapsto m \otimes b+i m(1 \otimes i)$. Then, $\varphi \pi(m \otimes b)=\varphi[(m \otimes b)+i m(1 \otimes i)]=m \otimes p b=(1 \otimes p)(m \otimes b)$. Hence, $\varphi \pi=1 \otimes p$. Therefore, since $\varphi$ is an isomorphism, $\operatorname{ker}(1 \otimes p)=\operatorname{ker}(\varphi \pi)=\operatorname{ker}(\pi)=$ $i m(1+i)$.

Finally, it needs to be shown that $1 \otimes p$ is surjective. Let $\sum\left(m_{j} \otimes c_{j}\right) \in M \otimes_{R} C$. Since $p$ is surjective, for each $j$, there exists an element $b_{j} \in B$ such that $p b_{j}=c_{j}$. Thus, $(1 \otimes p)\left[\sum\left(m_{j} \otimes b_{j}\right)\right]=\sum(1 \otimes p)\left(m_{j} \otimes b_{j}\right)=\sum\left(m_{j} \otimes p b_{j}\right)=\sum\left(m_{j} \otimes c_{j}\right)$. Therefore, $1 \otimes p$ is surjective and the sequence $M \bigotimes_{R} A \xrightarrow{1 \otimes i} M \bigotimes_{R} B \xrightarrow{1 \otimes p} M \bigotimes_{R} C \rightarrow 0$ is exact.

A right R-module M is flat if $0 \rightarrow M \bigotimes_{R} A \xrightarrow{1_{M} \otimes \varphi} M \bigotimes_{R} B \xrightarrow{1_{M} \otimes \psi} M \bigotimes_{R} C \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of Abelian groups whenever $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\varphi} B \xrightarrow{\psi} C \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of left R-modules.

Proposition 3.7. [9] Let $R$ be a ring and let $\left\{M_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be a collection of right $R$-modules for some index set $I$. Then, the direct sum $\bigoplus_{I} M_{i}$ is flat if and only if $M_{i}$ is flat for every $i \in I$. Moreover, $R$ is flat as a right $R$-module, and any projective right $R$-module $P$ is flat.

Proof. First note that if $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\varphi} B \xrightarrow{\psi} C \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of left $R$-modules, then $M \bigotimes_{R} A \xrightarrow{1_{M} \otimes \varphi} M \bigotimes_{R} B \xrightarrow{1_{M} \otimes \psi} M \bigotimes_{R} C \rightarrow 0$ is exact by Lemma 3.6. Thus, $M$ is flat if and only if $1_{M} \otimes \varphi$ is a monomorphism whenever $\varphi$ is a monomorphism.

Suppose $A$ and $B$ are left $R$-modules and let $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ be a monomorphism. For $\bigoplus_{I} M_{i}$ to be flat, it needs to be shown that $1 \otimes \varphi:\left(\bigoplus_{I} M_{i}\right) \otimes_{R} A \rightarrow\left(\bigoplus_{I} M_{i}\right) \otimes_{R} B$ is a monomorphism. By [9, Theorem 2.65], there exist isomorphisms $f:\left(\bigoplus_{I} M_{i}\right) \otimes_{R} A \rightarrow$ $\left(\bigoplus_{I} M_{i} \bigotimes_{R} A\right)$ and $g:\left(\bigoplus_{I} M_{i}\right) \bigotimes_{R} B \rightarrow\left(\bigoplus_{I} M_{i} \otimes_{R} B\right)$ defined by $f:\left(x_{i}\right) \otimes a \mapsto\left(x_{i} \otimes a\right)$ and $g:\left(x_{i}\right) \otimes b \mapsto\left(x_{i} \otimes b\right)$. Furthermore, since $1_{M_{i}} \otimes \varphi$ is a homomorphism for each $i \in I$, there is a homomorphism $\psi: \bigoplus_{I}\left(M_{j} \bigotimes_{R} A\right) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{I}\left(M_{j} \bigotimes_{R} B\right)$ such that $\left(x_{i} \otimes a\right) \mapsto\left(x_{i} \otimes \varphi(a)\right)$. Observe that $\psi$ is a monomorphism if and only if $1_{M_{i}} \otimes \varphi$ is a monomorphism for each $i \in I$. It then follows that $\psi f=g(1 \otimes \varphi)$ since $\psi f\left[\left(x_{i}\right) \otimes a\right]=\psi\left(x_{i} \otimes a\right)=x_{i} \otimes \varphi(a)=g\left[\left(x_{i}\right) \otimes \varphi(a)\right]=$ $g(1 \otimes \varphi)\left[\left(x_{i} \otimes a\right)\right]$. Therefore, $\bigoplus_{I} M_{i}$ is flat if and only if $1 \otimes \varphi$ is a monomorphism if and only if $\psi$ is a monomorphism if and only if $1_{M_{i}} \otimes \varphi$ is a monomorphism for each $i$ if and only if $M_{i}$ is flat for each $i$.

To see that $R$ is flat as a right $R$-module, note that Lemma 3.5 gives isomorphisms $f: A \rightarrow R \bigotimes_{R} A$ and $g: B \rightarrow R \bigotimes_{R} B$ defined by $f(a)=1_{R} \otimes a$ and $g(b)=1_{R} \otimes b$. Observe that $\left(1_{R} \otimes \varphi\right) f(a)=\left(1_{R} \otimes \varphi\right)\left(1_{R} \otimes a\right)=1_{R} \otimes \varphi(a)=g \varphi(a)$. Hence, $\left(1_{R} \otimes \varphi\right)=g \varphi f^{-1}$, which is a monomorphism. Therefore, $R$ is flat as a right $R$-module.

Let $P$ be a projective right $R$-module. Then there is a free right $R$-module $F$ and an $R$-module $N$ such that $F=P \bigoplus N$. As a free module, $F$ is a direct sum of copies of $R$, which is flat. Hence, $F$ is also flat. Therefore, $P$ is flat as a direct summand of $F$.

### 3.2 Bimodules and the Hom and Tensor Functors

Let $A$ be a right $R$-module. Consider the functor $T_{A}:{ }_{R} M o d \rightarrow A b$ defined by $T_{A}(B)=$ $A \bigotimes_{R} B$ with induced map $T_{A}(\varphi)=1_{A} \otimes \varphi: A \bigotimes_{R} B \rightarrow A \bigotimes_{R} B^{\prime}$, where $A b$ is the category of all Abelian groups and $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(B, B^{\prime}\right)$ for left $R$-modules $B$ and $B^{\prime}$. Observe that $T_{A}(\varphi)(a \otimes b)=a \otimes \varphi(b) . T_{A}$ is sometimes denoted $T_{A}\left(\_\right)=A \bigotimes_{R-}$. Similarly, the functor
$T_{B}(A)=A \bigotimes_{R} B$ with induced map $\psi \otimes 1_{B}$ can be defined for a left $R$-module $B$ and $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(A, A^{\prime}\right)$. We also consider the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(A,{ }_{-}\right): \operatorname{Mod}_{R} \rightarrow A b$ with induced $\operatorname{map} f_{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(A, C)$ defined by $f_{*}(h)=f h$, where $f: B \rightarrow C$ is a homomorphism for right $R$-modules $B$ and $C$.

Let $R$ and $S$ be rings and let $M$ be an Abelian group which has both a left $R$-module structure and a right $S$-module structure. Then, $M$ is an $(R, S)$-bimodule if $(r x) s=r(x s)$ for every $r \in R, s \in S$, and $x \in M$. This is sometimes denoted ${ }_{R} M_{S}$. In particular, if $A$ is a right $R$-module and $E=\operatorname{End}_{R}(A)$, then $M$ is an $(E, R)$-bimodule. Note that for $x \in M$ and $\alpha \in E$, scalar multiplication $\alpha x$ is defined as $\alpha(x)$.

Proposition 3.8. Let $R$ and $S$ be rings. Suppose $M$ is an $(R, S)$-bimodule and $N$ is a right $S$-module. Then, $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M_{S}, N_{S}\right)$ is a right $R$-module and $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(N_{S}, M_{S}\right)$ is a left $R$-module.

Proof. First, observe that $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M_{S}, N_{S}\right)$ is an Abelian group. For if $f, g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M_{S}, N_{S}\right)$, then $f(x r)=f(x) r$ and $g(x r)=g(x) r$ for every $r \in R$. Hence, $f+g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M_{S}, N_{S}\right)$ since $(f+g)(x r)=f(x r)+g(x r)=f(x) r+g(x) r=(f+g)(x) r$. Moreover, if $h \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M_{S}, N_{S}\right)$, then $[f+(g+h)](x)=f(x)+(g+h)(x)=f(x)+g(x)+h(x)=(f+g)(x)+h(x)=$ $[(f+g)+h](x)$. Hence, $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M_{S}, N_{S}\right)$ is associative. Furthermore, the map $\alpha: a \mapsto 0$ acts as the zero element. Finally, note that if $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M_{S}, N_{S}\right)$, then $g: M \rightarrow N$ defined by $g(x)=-f(x)$ is such that $(f+g)(x)=f(x)+g(x)=f(x)-f(x)=0$. Hence, every element of $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M_{S}, N_{S}\right)$ has an inverse. Therefore, $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M_{S}, N_{S}\right)$ is an Abelian group.

Now, let $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M_{S}, N_{S}\right), r, r^{\prime} \in R$, and $x \in M$. Define the right $R$-module structure on $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M_{S}, N_{S}\right)$ by $(\varphi r)(x)=\varphi(r x)$. Then, $(\varphi+\psi)(r)(x)=(\varphi r+\psi r)(x)=$ $(\varphi r)(x)+(\psi r)(x)=\varphi(r x)+\psi(r x)=(\varphi+\psi)(r x)$ for $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M_{S}, N_{S}\right)$. Moreover, $\left[\varphi\left(r+r^{\prime}\right)\right](x)=\varphi\left[\left(r+r^{\prime}\right) x\right]=\varphi\left[r x+r^{\prime} x\right]=\varphi(r x)+\varphi\left(r^{\prime} x\right)=(\varphi r)(x)+\left(\varphi r^{\prime}\right)(x)$ for $r^{\prime} \in R$. Finally, observe that $\left[\varphi\left(r r^{\prime}\right)\right](x)=\varphi\left[\left(r r^{\prime}\right)(x)\right]=\varphi\left[r\left(r^{\prime} x\right)\right]=(\varphi r)\left(r^{\prime} x\right)$. Therefore, $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M_{S}, N_{S}\right)$ satisfies the conditions of a right $R$-module. Similarly, $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(N_{S}, M_{S}\right)$ is a left $R$-module with $(r \pi)(x)=r \pi(x)$ for any $\pi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(N_{S}, M_{S}\right)$.

Proposition 3.9. [9] Let $R$ be a subring of $S$. Suppose $M$ is an $(R, S)$-bimodule and $A$ is a right $R$-module. Then, $A \bigotimes_{R} M$ is a right $S$-module. In particular, $S$ is an $(R, S)$-bimodule and hence $A \bigotimes_{R} S$ is a right $S$-module.

Proof. Let $y=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(a_{i} \otimes x_{i}\right) \in A \bigotimes_{R} M$ and let $s \in S$. Define the right $S$-module structure on $A \bigotimes_{R} M$ by $\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(a_{i} \otimes x_{i}\right)\right) s=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(a_{i} \otimes x_{i} s\right)$. To see that this does define a right $S$-module, consider the well-defined map $\mu_{s}: M \rightarrow M$ defined by $\mu_{s}(x)=x s$. By the bimodule structure of $M, r \mu_{s}(x)=r(x s)=(r x) s=\mu_{s}(r x)$ for $r \in R$. Hence, $\mu_{s} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, M)$. Consider the functor $T_{A}\left(\_\right)=A \otimes_{S-}$. By Proposition 3.3, there is a well-defined homomorphism $T_{A}\left(\mu_{s}\right)=1_{A} \otimes \mu_{s}: A \bigotimes_{R} M \rightarrow A \bigotimes_{R} M$ such that $\left(1_{A} \otimes \mu_{s}\right)(a \otimes x)=a \otimes \mu_{s}(x)=$ $a \otimes x s$. If the element $y s$ is defined by $y s=\left(1_{A} \otimes \mu_{s}\right)(y)=\left(1_{A} \otimes \mu_{s}\right)\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(a_{i} \otimes x_{i}\right)\right)=$ $\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(1_{A} \otimes \mu_{s}\right)\left(a_{i} \otimes x_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(a_{i} \otimes x_{i} s\right)$, then the $S$-module structure is well-defined since $\left(1_{A} \otimes \mu_{s}\right)$ is a well-defined homomorphism and $\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(a_{i} \otimes x_{i} s\right) \in A \bigotimes_{R} M$. The remaining right $S$-module conditions follow readily. Moreover, it is easy to see that $S$ satisfies the conditions of an $(R, S)$-bimodule. Therefore, given any right $R$-module $A, A \otimes_{R} S$ is a right $S$-module.

Proposition 3.10. Let $R \leq S$ be rings and let $M$ be an $(R, S)$-bimodule. Then, the following hold:
(a) The functor $T_{M}\left(\_\right)=\_\bigotimes_{R} M: \operatorname{Mod}_{R} \rightarrow A b$ is actually a functor $\operatorname{Mod}_{R} \rightarrow \operatorname{Mod}_{S}$.
(b) The functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M, \_\right): \operatorname{Mod}_{S} \rightarrow A b$ is actually a functor $\operatorname{Mod}_{S} \rightarrow \operatorname{Mod}_{R}$.

Proof. (a): It has already been shown in Proposition 3.9 that $T_{M}(A)=A \otimes_{R} M$ is a right $S$-module for any right $R$-module $A$. It needs to be shown that if $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(A, A^{\prime}\right)$ for $A^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Mod}_{R}$, then $T_{M}(\psi)=\psi \otimes 1_{M} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(A \bigotimes_{R} M, A^{\prime} \bigotimes_{R} M\right)$. In other words, it needs to be shown that $\psi \otimes 1_{M}$ is an $S$-homomorphism. Let $s \in S$. Then, $\left(\psi \otimes 1_{M}\right)(a \otimes x) s=$
$(\psi(a) \otimes x) s=\psi(a) \otimes x s=\left(\psi \otimes 1_{M}\right)(a \otimes x s)=\left(\psi \otimes 1_{M}\right)[(a \otimes x) s]$. Thus, $T_{M}(\psi)$ is a morphism in $\operatorname{Mod}_{S}$, and therefore $T_{M}\left(\__{-}\right)$is a functor with values in $\operatorname{Mod}_{S}$.
(b): Given any right $S$-module $N, \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(M, N)$ is a right $R$-module by Proposition 3.8. It needs to be shown that if $f: N \rightarrow N^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism for $N, N^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Mod}_{S}$, then the induced map $f_{*}=\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, f): \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(M, N) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M, N^{\prime}\right)$ defined by $f_{*}(\varphi)=f \varphi$ is an $R$-homomorphism. Note that if $\varphi, \psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(M, N)$, then $f(\varphi+\psi)=f \varphi+f \psi$. Hence, $f_{*}$ is a homomorphism since $f_{*}(\varphi+\psi)=f(\varphi+\psi)=f \varphi+f \psi=f_{*} \varphi+f_{*} \psi$. Let $r \in R$. Observe that $(\varphi r)(x)=\varphi(r x)$ by Proposition 3.8. Moreover, since $M$ has a left $R$-module structure and $f \varphi$ is an element of the right $R$-module $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M, N^{\prime}\right)$, Proposition 3.8 also shows that $[f \varphi(x)] r=f[\varphi r](x)=f \varphi(r x)$ for $x \in M$. Thus, $\left[f_{*}(\varphi(x))\right] r=[f \varphi(x)] r=f \varphi(r x)=$ $f_{*}[\varphi(r x)]=f_{*}[(\varphi r)(x)]$. Hence, $f_{*}$ is an $R$-homomorphism, and therefore $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M,{ }_{-}\right)$is a functor with values in $\operatorname{Mod}_{R}$.

The following lemmas will be used later to show $\operatorname{Mod}_{R} \cong \operatorname{Mod}_{\text {Mat }_{n}}(R)$. The proofs are omitted and can be found in Rings and Categories of Modules by Frank Anderson and Kent Fuller.

Lemma 3.11. [2, Proposition 20.10] Let $R$ and $S$ be rings, $M$ a right $R$-module, $N a$ right $S$-module, and $P$ an $(S, R)$-bimodule. If $M$ is finitely generated and projective, then $\mu: N \bigotimes_{S} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, P) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, N \bigotimes_{S} P\right)$ defined by $\mu(y \otimes f)(x)=y \otimes f(x)$ is a natural isomorphism. Here, $x \in M, y \in N$, and $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, P)$.

Lemma 3.12. [2, Proposition 20.11] Let $R$ and $S$ be rings, $M$ a right $R$-module, $N a$ left $S$-module, and $P$ an $(S, R)$-bimodule. If $M$ is finitely generated and projective, then $\nu: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, M) \bigotimes_{S} N \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{S}(N, P), M\right)$ defined by $\nu(f \otimes y)(g)=f g(y)$ is a natural isomorphism. Here, $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, M), g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(N, P)$, and $y \in N$.

### 3.3 The Tor Functor

Consider the exact sequence $P=\cdots \rightarrow P_{2} \xrightarrow{d_{2}} P_{1} \xrightarrow{d_{1}} P_{0} \xrightarrow{\epsilon} A \rightarrow 0$ of right $R$ modules, where $P_{j}$ is projective for every $j$. Such an exact sequence is called a projective resolution of the right $R$-module $A$. Note that a projective resolution can be formed for any projective right $R$-module $A$ since every right $R$-module is the epimorphic image of a projective right $R$-module. Define the deleted projective resolution, denoted $P_{A}$, by removing the morphism $\epsilon$ and the right R -module A . Note that the projective resolution is an exact sequence, and hence $\operatorname{im}\left(d_{i+1}\right)=\operatorname{ker}\left(d_{i}\right)$. Therefore, $d_{i} d_{i+1}=0$ for every $i \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$, and thus the projective resolution P and the deleted projective resolution $P_{A}$ are both complexes. However, $P_{A}$ is not necessarily exact since $i m\left(d_{1}\right)=\operatorname{ker}(\epsilon)$, which may not equal the kernel of the morphism $P_{0} \rightarrow 0$. Now, we can form the induced complex $T P_{A}$, which is defined as $\cdots \rightarrow T\left(P_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{T\left(d_{2}\right)} T\left(P_{1}\right) \xrightarrow{T\left(d_{1}\right)} T\left(P_{0}\right) \rightarrow 0$.

For $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the $n^{\text {th }}$ homology is $H_{n}(C)=Z_{n}(C) / B_{n}(C)$, where $C$ is a complex, $Z_{n}(C)=\operatorname{ker}\left(d_{n}\right)$, and $B_{n}(C)=\operatorname{im}\left(d_{n+1}\right)$. Hence, $H_{n}(C)=\operatorname{ker}\left(d_{n}\right) / \operatorname{im}\left(d_{n+1}\right)$. If we consider the deleted projective resolution $P_{A}$ as defined above, then $\cdots \rightarrow P_{2} \otimes_{R} B \xrightarrow{d_{2} \otimes 1_{B}}$ $P_{1} \bigotimes_{R} B \xrightarrow{d_{1} \otimes 1_{B}} P_{0} \otimes B \rightarrow 0$ is the induced complex $T_{B} P_{A}$ of the functor $T_{B}\left(\_\right)=\bigotimes_{-} B$. Define the Tor functor to be $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(A, B)=H_{n}\left(T_{B} P_{A}\right)=\operatorname{ker}\left(d_{n} \otimes 1_{B}\right) / \operatorname{im}\left(d_{n+1} \otimes 1_{B}\right)$. Note that $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(A, B)$ does not depend on the choice of projective resolution [9]. The functor $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}\left(A, \_\right)$is referred to as the left derived functor of $A \bigotimes_{R} B$. The following two wellknown propositions will be useful later:

Proposition 3.13. [9] If $M \in \operatorname{Mod}_{R}$ and $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of left $R$-modules, then the induced sequence $\ldots \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{n+1}^{R}(M, C) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, B) \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, C) \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, C) \rightarrow M \bigotimes_{R} A \rightarrow M \bigotimes_{R} B \rightarrow M \bigotimes_{R} C \rightarrow 0$ is exact.

Proposition 3.14. [9] A right $R$-module $M$ is flat if and only if $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}(M, X)=0$ for every left $R$-module $X$ and every $n \geq 1$.

## Chapter 4

## Torsion-free Rings and Modules

In 1960, Hattori used the homological properties of classical torsion-free modules over integral domains to give a more general definition of torsion-freeness. He defines a right $R$-module $M$ to be torsion-free if $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, R / R r)=0$ for every $r \in R$, and he defines a left $R$-module $N$ to be torsion-free if $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(R / s R, N)=0$ for every $s \in R[7]$. The following equivalent definition of torsion-freeness is also given by Hattori in [7, Proposition 1]:

Proposition 4.1. [7] The following are equivalent for a right $R$-module $M$.
(a) $M$ is torsion-free
(b) For each $x \in M$ and $r \in R$, xr $=0$ implies the existence of $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k} \in M$ and $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots r_{k} \in R$ such that $x=\sum_{j=1}^{k} x_{j} r_{j}$ and $r_{j} r=0$ for every $j=1,2, \ldots, k$.

Proof. Consider the exact sequence $0 \rightarrow R r \xrightarrow{\iota} R \xrightarrow{\pi} R / R r \rightarrow 0$ of left $R$-modules, where $\iota$ is the inclusion map and $\pi$ is the epimorphism $r \mapsto r+R r$. This induces a long exact sequence $X=\ldots \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, R / R r) \xrightarrow{f} M \bigotimes_{R} \operatorname{Rr} \xrightarrow{1_{M} \otimes \iota} M \bigotimes_{R} R \cong M \xrightarrow{1_{M} \otimes \pi} M \bigotimes_{R} R / R r \rightarrow 0[9$, Corollary 6.30]. Observe that condition (b) is equivalent to $1_{M} \otimes \iota$ being a monomorphism. For if $1_{M} \otimes \iota: x \otimes r \mapsto x r$ is a monomorphism, then $x r=0$ implies $x \otimes r=0$. Hence, there exists $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k} \in M$ and $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{k} \in R$ such that $x=x_{1} r_{1}+x_{2} r_{2}+\ldots+x_{k} r_{k}$ and $r_{j} r=0$ for $j=1,2, \ldots, k$ by Lemma 3.4. On the other hand, if $x r=0$ implies $x=x_{1} r_{1}+x_{2} r_{2}+\ldots+x_{k} r_{k}$ and $r_{j} r=0$, then $x \otimes r=x_{1} r_{1}+x_{2} r_{2}+\ldots+x_{k} r_{k} \otimes r=$ $x_{1} \otimes r_{1} r+x_{2} \otimes r_{2} r+\ldots+x_{k} \otimes r_{k} r=0$. Hence, $\operatorname{ker}\left(1_{M} \otimes \iota\right)=0$ and $1_{M} \otimes \iota$ is a monomorphism.

To complete the proof, it needs to be shown that $M$ is torsion-free if and only if $1_{M} \otimes \iota$ is a monomorphism. If $M$ is torsion-free, then $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, R / R r)=0$. Thus, $0 \rightarrow M \bigotimes_{R} R r \xrightarrow{1_{M} \otimes \iota}$
$M \bigotimes_{R} R \cong M \xrightarrow{1_{M} \otimes \pi} M \bigotimes_{R} R / R r \rightarrow 0$ is exact and so $1_{M} \otimes \iota$ is a monomorphism. Conversely, if $1_{M} \otimes \iota$ is a monomorphism, then $\operatorname{im}(f)=\operatorname{ker}\left(1_{M} \otimes \iota\right)=0$ in the induced sequence $X$. However, $f$ is a monomorphism. Hence, $0=\operatorname{im}(f) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, R / R r)$.

A ring $R$ is torsion-free if every finitely generated right (or left) ideal is torsion-free as a right (or left) $R$-module. Hattori shows in [7] that a ring R is torsion-free if and only if every principal left ideal of R is flat. To see this, observe that if $0 \rightarrow J \xrightarrow{i} R \xrightarrow{p} R / J \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of right R-modules with $J$ finitely generated, then $0 \rightarrow J \bigotimes_{R} R r \xrightarrow{i \otimes 1_{R r}}$ $R \bigotimes_{R} R r \xrightarrow{p \otimes 1_{R r}} R / J \bigotimes_{R} R r \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence whenever $R r$ is flat. This is the case if and only if $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(R / J, R r)=0$. Hattori gives a natural isomorphism in [7, Proposition 7] showing that $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(R / J, R r) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(J, R / R r)$. Hence, $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(J, R / R r)=0$ if and only if $R r$ is flat for every $r \in R$. That is, every finitely generated right ideal is torsion-free if and only if every principal left ideal is flat.

In 2004, John Dauns and Lazlo Fuchs provided the following useful characterization of torsion-free rings:

Theorem 4.2. [4]The following are equivalent for a ring $R$ :
(a) $R$ is torsion-free.
(b) For every $s, r \in R$, sr $=0$ if and only if $s \in s \cdot a n n_{l}(r)$. In other words, $s r=0$ if and only if $s=$ su and $u r=0$ for some $u \in R$.

Proof. (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b): Suppose R is a torsion-free ring. For $s \in R, s R$ is torsion-free as a right R-module. By Proposition 4.1, if $a \in s R$ and $r \in R$ with $a r=0$, then there exists $u \in R$ so that $a=s u$ and $u r=0$. Hence, if $s r=0$, we have $s=s u$ and $u r=0$ for some $u \in R$, since $s=s \cdot 1 \in s R$. Conversely, if there is some $u \in R$ such that $s=s u$ and $u r=0$, then $s r=(s u) r=s(u r)=s \cdot 0=0$. Therefore, $s r=0$ if and only if $s=s u$ and $u r=0$ for some $u \in R$.
$(\mathrm{b}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{a}):$ Assume that $s r=0$ for every $s, r \in R$ if and only if $s=s u$ and $u r=0$ for some $u \in R$. Let $R r$ be a finitely generated left ideal of $R$. Assume that the sequence
$0 \rightarrow J \rightarrow R \rightarrow R / J \rightarrow 0$ is exact with $J$ finitely generated. Then, R is a torsion-free ring if $0 \rightarrow J \bigotimes_{R} R r \xrightarrow{\varphi} R \bigotimes_{R} R r \xrightarrow{\psi} R / J \bigotimes_{R} R r \rightarrow 0$ is exact. By Lemma 3.6, it follows that $J \bigotimes_{R} \operatorname{Rr} \xrightarrow{\varphi} R \bigotimes_{R} R r \xrightarrow{\psi} R / J \bigotimes_{R} R r \rightarrow 0$ is exact. In order for the entire sequence to be exact, it needs to be shown that $\varphi$ is a monomorphism.

Note that $R \bigotimes_{R} R r \cong R r$ by Lemma 3.5. Consider $j \otimes s r \in J \bigotimes_{R} R r$. Since $j \otimes s r=$ $j s \otimes r$ and $j s \in J$, tensors in $J \otimes_{R} R r$ can be written as $k \otimes r$ for some $k \in J$. Thus, it needs to be shown that $J \bigotimes_{R} R r \xrightarrow{\varphi} R r$ given by $\varphi(k \otimes r)=k r$ is a monomorphism. Let $k \otimes r \in \operatorname{ker} \varphi$. Then $\varphi(k \otimes r)=k r=0$. By assumption, there exists some $u \in R$ such that $k=k u$ and $u r=0$. Then, $k \otimes r=k u \otimes r=k \otimes u r=k \otimes 0=0$. Thus, $\operatorname{ker} \varphi=0$ and $\varphi$ is a monomoprhism. Therefore, $0 \rightarrow J \bigotimes_{R} R r \xrightarrow{\varphi} R \bigotimes_{R} R r \xrightarrow{\psi} R / J \bigotimes_{R} R r \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence, and hence $R$ is a torsion-free ring.

Proposition 4.3. [7, Proposition 7] $A$ ring $R$ is torsion-free if and only if every submodule of a torsion-free right $R$-module is torsion-free.

Proof. Suppose $R$ is torsion-free and let $N$ be a submodule of a torsion-free right $R$-module $M$. Consider the exact sequence $0 \rightarrow N \xrightarrow{\iota} M \xrightarrow{\pi} M / N \rightarrow 0$, where $\iota$ is the inclusion map and $\pi$ is the canonical epimorphism. As noted above, if $R$ is torsion-free, then the principal left ideal $R r$ is flat for every $r \in R$. Hence, $0 \rightarrow N \bigotimes_{R} R r \rightarrow M \bigotimes_{R} R r \rightarrow M / N \bigotimes_{R} R r \rightarrow 0$ is exact and so $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M / N, R r) \cong 0$. Observe that $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, R / R r) \cong 0$ since $M$ is torsionfree. If we consider the long exact sequence derived from the functor $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}\left(\_, R / R r\right)$, then $0 \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M / N, R r) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{2}^{R}(M / N, R / R r) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(N, R / R r) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, R / R r) \cong 0$ is exact. Therefore, $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(N, R / R r)=0$ and $N$ is torsion-free. On the other hand, if every submodule of a torsion-free right $R$-module is torsion-free, then every finitely generated right ideal of $R$ is torsion-free since $R$ itself is torsion-free as a right $R$-module.

Theorem 4.4. [4] $A$ ring $R$ is a right p.p.-ring if and only if $R$ is torsion-free and, for each $x \in R, a n n_{r}(x)$ is finitely generated.

Proof. Suppose $R$ is a right p.p.-ring. Then, for each $r \in R, a n n_{r}(r)=e R$ for some idempotent $e \in R$. Let $s \in R$ be such that $r s=0$. Then, $s \in a n n_{r}(r)$, and hence $s=e s^{\prime}$ for some $s^{\prime} \in R$. It follows that $e s=e^{2} s^{\prime}=e s^{\prime}=s$. Furthermore, $e=e^{2} \in e R=a n n_{r}(r)$ and hence $r e=0$. Note also that if $s=e s$ and $r e=0$, then $s \in e R=a n n_{r}(r)$ and hence $r s=0$. Thus, $r s=0$ if and only if $s=e s$ and $r e=0$. Therefore, $R$ is a torsion-free ring by a symmetric version of Theorem 4.2. Moreover, since $R$ is a right p.p.-ring, $a n n_{r}(r)$ is generated by an idempotent and thus finitely generated.

Conversely, suppose $R$ is a torsion-free ring and the right annihilator of every element of $R$ is finitely generated. Let $s \in R$ and let $\left\{s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right\}$ be the finite set of generators for $a n n_{r}(s)$. Note that each $s_{i} \in \operatorname{ann} n_{r}(s)$, and so $s s_{i}=0$ for each $i=1, \ldots, n$. Let $S=\bigoplus^{n} R$ be the direct sum of n copies of $R$, and consider $S$ as a left $R$-module. Let $s^{\prime}=\left(s_{1}, \ldots s_{n}\right) \in S$. Note that $S$ is a torsion-free left $R$-module since it is the direct sum of copies of $R$, which is torsion-free as a left $R$-module. Thus, the submodule $R s^{\prime}$ of $S$ is torsion-free by Proposition 4.3. Hence, Proposition 4.1 gives some $u \in R$ such that $s^{\prime}=u s^{\prime}$ and $s u=0$, and thus $u \in a n n_{r}(s)$. Note that $s_{i}=u s_{i}$ for each $i=1, \ldots, n$. This implies that $s_{i} \in u R$ for each $i$, and so $\left\{s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right\} \subseteq u R$. It follows that $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(s)=s_{1} R+\ldots+s_{n} R \subseteq u R$. Suppose $x \in u R$. Then, $x=u t$ for some $t \in R$. Thus, $s x=s u t=0 \cdot t=0$, and so $x \in a n n_{r}(s)$. Therefore, $a n n_{r}(s)=u R$.

Now, since $R$ is a torsion-free ring, $u R$ is torsion-free as a finitely generated right ideal of $R$. By a symmetric version of Theorem 4.2, since $s u=0$, there exists an $e \in u R=a n n_{r}(s)$ such that $u=e u$ and $s e=0$. Let $x \in u R$. Then, $x=u t=e u t \in e R$ for some $t \in R$. Hence, $u R \subseteq e R$. On the other hand, suppose $y \in e R$. Then, for some $v \in R, y=e v$ and $s y=$ sev $=0 \cdot v=0$. Thus, $y \in \operatorname{ann}_{r}(s)$ and $e R \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_{r}(s)=u R$. Hence, $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(s)=u R=e R$ and $e=u r$ for some $r \in R$. It then follows that $e$ is an idempotent since $e^{2}=e u x=u x=e$. Therefore, $a n n_{r}(s)$ is generated by an idempotent and so $R$ is a right p.p.-ring.

Lemma 4.5. If $R$ is a right p.p.-ring and $e \in R$ is a nonzero idempotent, then $e R=a n n_{r}(x)$ for some $x \in R$. In particular, $e R=\operatorname{ann}_{r}(1-e)$.

Proof. If er $\in e R$, then $(1-e) e r=\left(e-e^{2}\right) r=(e-e) r=0$. Hence, er $\in a n n_{r}(1-e)$ and $e R \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_{r}(1-e)$. On the other hand, if $s \in a n n_{r}(1-e)$, then $(1-e) s=0$. Hence, $s-e s=0$, and so $s=e s \in e R$. Therefore, $e R=a n n_{r}(1-e)$.

Proposition 4.6. [1] If $R$ is a right and left p.p.-ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents and $M$ is a torsion-free right $R$-module, then $\operatorname{ann} n_{r}(x)$ is generated by an idempotent for every $x \in M$.

Proof. Let $R$ be a right and left p.p.-ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. Take $M$ to be a torsion-free right $R$-module and let $A=a n n_{r}(x)$ for some nonzero $x \in M$. Suppose $r_{0} \in R$ is such that $x r_{0}=0$. Note that the cyclic submodule $x R$ is torsion-free since $R$ is a right p.p.-ring. Moreover, $a n n_{l}\left(r_{0}\right)=R e_{0}$ for some idempotent $e_{0} \in R$ since $R$ is a left p.p.-ring. By Proposition 4.1, there exists $x s_{1}, x s_{2}, \ldots, x s_{n} \in x R$ and $t_{1} e_{0}, t_{2} e_{0} \ldots, t_{n} e_{0} \in \operatorname{Re} e_{0}=a n n_{l}\left(r_{0}\right)$ such that $x=x s_{1} t_{1} e_{0}+x s_{2} t_{2} e_{0}+\ldots+x s_{n} t_{n} e_{0}$. Hence, $x e_{0}=x s_{1} t_{1} e_{0}^{2}+x s_{2} t_{2} e_{0}^{2}+\ldots+x s_{n} t_{n} e_{0}^{2}=x$. Thus, $0=x-x e_{0}=x\left(1-e_{0}\right)$. Therefore, if $\left(1-e_{0}\right) r \in\left(1-e_{0}\right) R$, then $x\left(1-e_{0}\right) r=0$ and $\left(1-e_{0}\right) R \subseteq A$.

Now, if there exists some $r_{1} \in A \backslash\left(1-e_{0}\right) R$, then $r_{1} \neq\left(1-e_{0}\right) r_{1}$ and hence $e_{0} r_{1} \neq 0$. However, $x e_{0} r_{1}=x r_{1}=0$. Since $R$ is a left p.p.-ring, $a n n_{l}\left(e_{0} r_{1}\right)=R(1-f)$ for some idempotent $1-f$. Note that as before it follows from Proposition 4.1 that $x=x(1-f)$ since $x e_{0} r_{1}=0$. Furthermore, $1-e_{0} \in \operatorname{ann}_{l}\left(e_{0} r_{1}\right)=R(1-f)$ since $\left(1-e_{0}\right) e_{0} r_{1}=e_{0} r_{1}-e_{0} r_{1}=0$. Hence, there is some $r \in R$ such that $\left(1-e_{0}\right) f=r(1-f) f=r(f-f)=0$. Thus, $e_{0} f=f$. Let $e_{1}=(1-f) e_{0}=e_{0}-f e_{0}$. Then, $e_{1}^{2}=\left(e_{0}-f e_{0}\right)\left(e_{0}-f e_{0}\right)=e_{0}-e_{0} f e_{0}-f e_{0}+f e_{0} f e_{0}=$ $e_{0}-f e_{0}-f e_{0}+f e_{0}=e_{0}-f e_{0}=e_{1}$. Thus, $e_{1}$ is an idempotent. Moreover, $e_{1}$ is nonzero, since otherwise $e_{0}=f e_{0}$ and hence $e_{0}=0$.

Now, $e_{1} e_{0}=(1-f) e_{0} e_{0}=(1-f) e_{0}=e_{1}$, and Lemma 4.5 shows that $\left(1-e_{0}\right) R=$ $\operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(e_{0}\right)$ and $\left(1-e_{1}\right) R=\operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(e_{1}\right)$. Thus, if $r \in \operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(e_{0}\right)$, then $e_{1} r=e_{1} e_{0} r=0$. Hence, $r \in \operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(e_{1}\right)=\left(1-e_{1}\right) R$, and so $\left(1-e_{0}\right) R \subseteq\left(1-e_{1}\right) R$. Moreover, $e_{1} e_{0} r_{1}=e_{1} r_{1}=$ $(1-f) e_{0} r_{1}=0$ since $1-f \in \operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(e_{0} r_{1}\right)$. Thus, $e_{0} r_{1} \in \operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(e_{1}\right)=\left(1-e_{1}\right) R$. However, $e_{0} r_{1}$ is nonzero and hence $e_{0} r_{1} \notin \operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(e_{0}\right)=\left(1-e_{0}\right) R$. Thus, $\left(1-e_{0}\right) R \subset\left(1-e_{1}\right) R$ is a
proper inclusion. By supposing there is some $r_{2} \in A \backslash\left(1-e_{1}\right) R$ and repeating these steps, and then supposing there is some $r_{3} \in A \backslash\left(1-e_{2}\right) R$ and so on, we can construct an ascending chain $\left(1-e_{0}\right) R \subset\left(1-e_{1}\right) R \subset\left(1-e_{2}\right) R \subset \ldots$. However, this chain must terminate at some point since $R$ only contains finite sets of orthogonal idempotents. Therefore, there is some idempotent $e \in R$ such that $A=(1-e) R$.

Proposition 4.7. [1] If $R$ is a right and left p.p.-ring not containing an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents, then a cyclic submodule of a torsion-free right $R$-module is projective.

Proof. Let $M$ be a torsion-free right $R$-module, and take $N$ to be a cyclic submodule of $M$. Then, $N$ is of the form $x R$ for some $x \in N \leq M$. By Proposition 4.6, $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(x)=e R$ for some idempotent $e \in R$. If $f: R \rightarrow x R$ is the epimorphism defined by $r \mapsto x r$, then $x R \cong R / \operatorname{ker}(f)=R / a n n_{r}(x)$ by the First Isomorphism Theorem. It then follows that $x R \cong R / a n n_{r}(x) \cong[e R \bigoplus(1-e R)] / a n n_{r}(x) \cong[e R \bigoplus(1-e) R] / e R \cong(1-e) R$. Therefore, $N$ is a principal right ideal of $R$, and thus projective, since $R$ is a right p.p.-ring.

A ring $R$ is a Baer-ring if $a n n_{r}(A)$ is generated by an idempotent for every subset $A$ of $R$. Note that if $R$ is Baer, then $\operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(\operatorname{ann}_{l}(A)\right)=e R$ for some idempotent $e \in R$. Hence, $\operatorname{ann}_{l}(A)=\operatorname{ann}_{l}\left(\operatorname{ann}_{r}\left(a n n_{l}(A)\right)\right)=\operatorname{ann}_{l}(e R)=R(1-e)$ by Lemma 4.5. Thus, $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(A)$ is generated by an idempotent if and only if $\operatorname{ann}_{l}(A)$ is generated by an idempotent. Therefore, the property that $R$ is a Baer ring is right-left-symmetric. The following theorem from Dauns and Fuchs [4] gives conditions for which a ring $R$ is Baer:

Theorem 4.8. [4] If $R$ is a torsion-free ring and right annihilators of elements are finitely generated and satisfy the ascending chain condition, then $R$ is a Baer-ring.

Proof. It follows from Theorem 4.4 that R is a right p.p.-ring since $a n n_{r}(x)$ is finitely generated for every $x \in R$. Thus, for each $x \in R$, there is some idempotent $e \in R$ such that $a n n_{r}(x)=e R$. Suppose R contains an infinite set $E$ of orthogonal idempotents. Consider two idempotents $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$ in $E$, and let $e_{1} r \in e_{1} R$. Note that since $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$ are orthogonal
idempotents, $e_{1} r=\left(e_{1}+0\right) r=\left(e_{1}^{2}+e_{2} e_{1}\right) r=\left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right) e_{1} r \in\left(e_{1}+e 2\right) R$. Therefore, $e_{1} R \subseteq\left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right) R$. Inductively, we can construct an ascending chain of principal ideals generated by idempotents. For if $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}, e_{n+1}$ are orthogonal idempotents in the infinite set and $\left(e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n}\right) r \in\left(e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n}\right) R$, then $\left(e_{1}+e_{2}+\ldots+e_{n}\right) r=\left(e_{1}^{2}+e_{2}^{2} \ldots+e_{n}^{2}+0\right) r=$ $\left[\left(e_{1}^{2}+e_{1} e_{2}+\ldots e_{1} e_{n}\right)+\left(e_{2} e_{1}+e_{2}^{2}+\ldots+e_{2} e_{n}\right)+\ldots+\left(e_{n} e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n}^{2}\right)+\left(e_{n+1} e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n+1} e_{n}\right)\right] r=$ $\left(e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n+1}\right)\left(e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n}\right) r \in\left(e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n+1}\right) R$.

Hence, $e_{1} R \subseteq\left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right) R \subseteq \ldots \subseteq\left(e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n}\right) R \subseteq\left(e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n+1}\right) R \subseteq \ldots$ is an ascending chain of principal ideals generated by idempotents. Furthermore, this will be an infinite chain since there are an infinite number of idempotents in $E$. Note that by Lemma 4.5, for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{+},\left(e_{1}+\ldots+e_{n}\right) R=a n n_{r}(x)$ for some $x \in R$. Thus, an infinite ascending chain of right annihilators has been constructed, contradicting the ascending chain condition on right annihilators. Therefore, $R$ does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. Since $R$ is a right p.p.-ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents, by Theorem 2.11 every right annihilator in R is generated by an idempotent. Therefore, R is a Baer-ring.

## Chapter 5

Non-singularity

### 5.1 Essential Submodules and the Singular Submodule

Let $R$ be a ring and consider a submodule $A$ of a right $R$-module $M$. If $A \cap B$ is nonzero for every nonzero submodule $B$ of $M$, then $A$ is said to be an essential submodule of $M$. This is denoted $A \leq^{e} M$. In other words, $A \leq^{e} M$ if and only if $B=0$ whenever $B \leq M$ is such that $A \cap B=0$. A monomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ is called essential if $\operatorname{im}(A) \leq^{e} B$.

Proposition 5.1. [2, Corollary 5.13] A monomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ is essential if and only if, for every right $R$-module $C$ and every $\beta \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(B, C), \beta$ is a monomorphism whenever $\beta \alpha$ is a monomorphism.

The singular submodule of $M$ is defined as $\mathbf{Z}(M)=\{x \in M \mid x I=0$ for some essential right ideal $I$ of R$\}$. Equivalently, $\mathbf{Z}(M)=\left\{x \in M \mid a n n_{r}(x) \leq^{e} R\right\}$. For if $I \leq^{e} R$ and $x \in M$ is such that $x I=0$, then for any nonzero right ideal $J$ of $R$, there is an element $a \in I \cap J$. Since $a \in I, x a=0$. Hence, $a \in a n n_{r}(x) \cap J$ and so $a n n_{r}(x) \leq^{e} R$. On the other hand, note that $a n n_{r}(x)$ is a right ideal of $R$ such that $x \cdot a n n_{r}(x)=0$. A right $R$-module $M$ is called singular if $\mathbf{Z}(M)=M$ and non-singular if $\mathbf{Z}(M)=0$. If $R$ is viewed a right $R$-module, then the right singular ideal of $R$ is $\mathbf{Z}_{r}(R)=\mathbf{Z}\left(R_{R}\right)$. The ring $R$ is right non-singular if it is non-singular as a right $R$-module.

Proposition 5.2. [6] A right $R$-module $A$ is non-singular if and only if $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(C, A)=0$ for every singular right $R$-module $C$.

Proof. Suppose $A$ is a non-singular right $R$-module and $C$ is a singular right $R$-module. Let $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(C, A)$. If it can be shown that $f(\mathbf{Z}(C)) \leq \mathbf{Z}(A)$, then the proof follows
readily since $f(C)=f(\mathbf{Z}(C))$ and $\mathbf{Z}(A)=0$. Suppose $x \in \mathbf{Z}(C)$. Then, $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(x) \leq^{e} R$. Hence, if $I$ is any nonzero right ideal of $R$, then there exists some $y \in I$ such that $x y=0$. Then, $f(x) y=f(x y)=f(0)=0$ and $y \in \operatorname{ann}_{r}(f(x)) \cap I$. Thus, $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(f(x)) \leq^{e} R$ and so $f(x) \in \mathbf{Z}(A)$. Therefore, $f(\mathbf{Z}(C)) \leq \mathbf{Z}(A)$.

Conversely, suppose $A$ is a right $R$-module and $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(C, A)=0$ for every singular right $R$-module $C$. Then, $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\mathbf{Z}(A), A)=0$ since the singular submodule $\mathbf{Z}(A)$ is singular. Hence, the inclusion map $\iota: \mathbf{Z}(A) \rightarrow A$ given by $\iota(x)=x$ is a zero map. Thus, $\mathbf{Z}(A)=$ $\iota(\mathbf{Z}(A))=0$. Therefore, $A$ is a non-singular right $R$-module.

Proposition 5.3. [6] The following are equivalent for a right $R$-module $C$ :
(a) $C$ is singular.
(b) There exists an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ such that $f$ is essential.

Proof. $(a) \Rightarrow(b)$ : Suppose $C$ is a right $R$-module. Let $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\iota} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ be an exact sequence of right $R$-modules such that $B$ is free and $\iota$ is the inclusion map. Let $\left\{x_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in K}$ be a basis for $B$ for some index $K$. Then, for each $\alpha \in K, g\left(x_{\alpha}\right) \in C=\mathbf{Z}(C)$. Hence, there exists an essential right ideal $I_{\alpha}$ of $R$ such that $g\left(x_{\alpha} I_{\alpha}\right)=g\left(x_{\alpha}\right) I_{\alpha}=0$. Thus, for each $\alpha \in K$ and each $i_{\alpha} \in I_{\alpha}, x_{\alpha} i_{\alpha} \in \operatorname{ker} g=A$. That is, $x_{\alpha} I_{\alpha} \leq A$ for each $\alpha \in K$, and it follows that $\bigoplus_{K} x_{\alpha} I_{\alpha} \leq A$. If $x_{\alpha} J$ is a nonzero right ideal of $x_{\alpha} R$, then $J$ is a nonzero right ideal of $R$, and there is a nonzero element $y \in I_{\alpha} \cap J$. Then it readily follows that $x_{\alpha} y \in x_{\alpha} I_{\alpha} \cap x_{\alpha} J$ is nonzero. Hence, $x_{\alpha} I_{\alpha} \leq^{e} x_{\alpha} R$ for each $\alpha \in K$. Thus, $\bigoplus_{K} x_{\alpha} I_{\alpha} \leq^{e} \bigoplus_{K} x_{\alpha} R=B$. Therefore, $A$ is also essential in $B$ since $\bigoplus_{K} x_{\alpha} I_{\alpha} \leq A$. It then follows from the exactness of the sequence that $\operatorname{im}(A) \cong A \leq^{e} B$.
$(b) \Rightarrow(a)$ : Assume $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of right $R$-modules such that $i m(A) \leq^{e} B$. For each $b \in B$, define $h_{b}: R \rightarrow B$ by $h_{b}(r)=b r$, and let
$I_{b}=\{r \in R \mid b r \in \operatorname{im}(A)\}$. Note that $I_{b}$ is a nonzero right ideal of $R$. Suppose $I_{b}$ is not essential in $R$. Then there is a nonzero right ideal $J$ of $R$ such that $I_{b} \cap J=0$. Moreover, if $s \in \operatorname{ker}\left(h_{b}\right)$, then $h_{b}(s)=b s=0 \in i m(A)$ and it follows that $\operatorname{ker}\left(h_{b}\right) \subseteq I_{b}$. Hence,
$\operatorname{ker}\left(h_{b}\right) \cap J=0$. Thus, $\left.h_{b}\right|_{J}$ is a monomorphism. This implies that $h_{b}(J)$ must be a nonzero right ideal of $B$ since $J$ is a nonzero right ideal of $R$. Thus, $h_{b}(J) \cap i m(A) \neq 0$ by the assumption that $\operatorname{im}(A) \leq^{e} B$. Then for some nonzero $j \in J, b j=h_{b}(j) \in i m(A)$. Hence, $j \in I_{b} \cap J$, which is a contradiction. Therefore, $I_{b}$ is an essential right ideal of $R$. Note that for every $b \in B$, if $b i \in b I_{b}$, then $b i \in i m(A)$. Then by exactness of the sequence, $b I_{b} \subseteq i m(A)=\operatorname{ker} g$. Hence, $g(b) I_{b}=g\left(b I_{b}\right)=0$, which implies $g(b) \in \mathbf{Z}(C)$. Since this is the case for every $b \in B, g(B) \subseteq \mathbf{Z}(C)$. Furthermore, since the sequence is exact, $C=g(B) \subseteq \mathbf{Z}(C)$. Therefore, $C=\mathbf{Z}(C)$.

Proposition 5.4. If $R$ is a right p.p.-ring, then $R$ is a right non-singular ring.

Proof. Let $R$ be a right p.p.-ring and take any $x \in R$. Suppose $a n n_{r}(x) \leq^{e} R$. Since $R$ is a right p.p.-ring, $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(x)=e R$ for some idempotent $e \in R$. Observe that $R=e R \bigoplus(1-e) R$. Hence, $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(x) \cap(1-e) R=0$. However, this implies that $(1-e) R=0$ since $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(x) \leq^{e} R$. Hence, $1-e=0$, and so $a n n_{r}(x)=1 R=R$. Thus, $x r=0$ for every $r \in R$, which implies $x=0$. Therefore, $R$ is right non-singular.

### 5.2 The Maximal Ring of Quotients and Right Strongly Non-singular Rings

The maximal ring of quotients and strongly non-singular rings will play an important role in determining which rings satisfy the condition that the classes of torsion-free and nonsingular modules coincides. We explore these concepts in this section. If $R$ is a subring of a ring $Q$, then $Q$ is a classical right ring of quotients of $R$ if every regular element of $R$ is a unit in $Q$ and every element of $Q$ is of the form $r s^{-1}$, where $r, s \in R$ with $s$ regular [8]. For a ring which is not necessarily commutative, such a $Q$ may not exist. Thus, we consider a more general way to define the right ring of quotients which guarantees its existence for any ring $R$.

Let $A$ be a submodule of a right $R$-module $B$. If $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M / A, B)=0$ for every right $R$-module $M$ satisfying $A \leq M \leq B$, then $B$ is a rational extension of $A$. This is denoted $A \leq^{r} B$.

Lemma 5.5. [6] Let $B$ be a non-singular right $R$-module and take any submodule $A$ of $B$. Then, $A \leq^{r} B$ if and only if $A \leq^{e} B$.

Proof. Suppose $A \leq^{r} B$ and let $M \leq B$ be such that $M \cap A=0$. Now, $M \bigoplus A$ is a right $R$-module satisfying $A \leq M \bigoplus A \leq B$. Hence, $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}([M \bigoplus A] / A, B)=0$. Consider $f:(M \bigoplus A) / A \rightarrow M$ defined by $(m+a)+A \mapsto m$ for $m \in M$ and $a \in A$. If $m, m_{0} \in M$ and $a, a_{0} \in A$ are such that $\left.(m+a)+A=\left(m_{0}\right)+a_{0}\right)+A$, then $\left(m-m_{0}\right)+\left(a-a_{0}\right) \in A$. Hence, $m-m_{0} \in A$. However, $M \cap A=0$ and so $m-m_{0}=0$. Thus, $f$ is well-defined. Moreover, $f$ is an isomorphism. For if $m \in M$, then $f[(m+a)+A]=m$ for any $a \in A$, and $f[(m+a)+A]=0$ implies that $(m+a)+A=m+A=0$. Observe that $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}([M \bigoplus A] / A, B)=0$ since $M \leq B$. Thus, $M=\operatorname{im}(f)=0$ and therefore $A \leq^{e} B$. Note that this implication does not require $B$ to be right non-singular.

On the other hand, suppose $A \leq^{e} B$ and take $M$ to be a right $R$-module such that $A \leq M \leq B$. Then, any nonzero submodule $N$ of $B$ is such that $A \cap N \neq 0$. Hence, any nonzero submodule $K$ of $M$ is such that $A \cap K \neq 0$ since any such submodule is also a submodule of $B$. Thus, $A \leq^{e} M$. Consider the exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\iota} M \xrightarrow{\pi} M / A \rightarrow 0$, where $\iota$ is the inclusion map and $\pi$ is the canonical epimorphism. Observe that $i m(\iota)=$ $A \leq^{e} M$. Hence, $M / A$ is singular by Proposition 5.3. It then follows from Proposition 5.2 that $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M / A, B)=0$ since $B$ is nonsingular. Therefore, $B$ is a rational extension of A.

A right $R$-module $E$ is called injective if, given any two right $R$-modules $A$ and $B$, a monomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$, and a homomorphism $\varphi: A \rightarrow E$, there exists a homomorphism $\psi: B \rightarrow E$ such that $\varphi=\psi \alpha$. If $E$ is injective and $M_{R} \leq^{e} E_{R}$, then $E$ is called an injective
hull of $M$. Every right $R$-module $M$ has an injective hull, which is unique up to isomorphism [6, Theorems 1.10, 1.11].

Let $R$ be a subring of a ring $Q$. If $R_{R} \leq^{r} Q_{R}$, then $Q$ is a right ring of quotients of $R$. Observe that $R$ is a right ring of quotients of itself since $R_{R} \leq^{r} R_{R}$. Similarly, if ${ }_{R} R \leq^{r}{ }_{R} Q$, then $Q$ is a left ring of quotients of $R$. Let $Q$ be a right ring of quotients of $R$ such that given any other right ring of quotients $P$ of $R$, the inclusion map $\mu: R \rightarrow Q$ extends to a monomorphism $\nu: P \rightarrow Q$. Here, $Q$ is called a maximal right ring of quotients of $R$. This is denoted $Q^{r}$ when there is no confusion as to which ring the maximal quotient ring applies, and $Q^{r}(R)$ otherwise. The maximal left ring of quotients $Q^{l}$ is similarly defined. In general, $Q^{r} \neq Q^{l}$.

Theorem 5.6. [6] For any ring $R$, the maximal right ring of quotients $Q^{r}(R)$ exists. In particular, if $E$ is the injective hull of $R_{R}$ and $T=\operatorname{End}_{R}(E)$, then $Q=\cap\{\operatorname{ker} \delta \mid \delta \in T$ and $\delta R=0\}$ is a maximal right ring of quotients.

Proof. If $E$ is the injective hull of $R$, then $\tau x=\tau(x)$ defines a left $T$-module structure on $E$ for $\tau \in T$ and $x \in E$. Let $T_{0}=E n d_{T}(E)$ and define $\omega(x)=x \omega$ for $\omega \in T_{0}$ and $x \in E$. Consider the homomorphisms $\psi: T \rightarrow E$ and $\varphi: T_{0} \rightarrow E$ defined by $\psi \tau=\tau 1$ and $\varphi \omega=1 \omega$. It is easily seen that $\psi$ is an epimorphism and $\varphi$ is a monomorphism. Let $x \in E$ and consider the homomorphism $\sigma: R \rightarrow x R$ defined by $\sigma(r)=x r$. Since $R$ is a subring of $E, \sigma$ can be extended to a homomorphism $\tau: E \rightarrow E$. Thus, $\tau(1)=\sigma(1)=x$ and so $\psi(\tau)=\tau(1)=x$. Therefore, $\psi$ is an epimorphism. Now, suppose $\omega \in \operatorname{ker} \varphi$. Then $1 \omega=\varphi(\omega)=0$. If $x \in E$, then $\tau 1=x$ for some $\tau \in T$ since $\psi$ is an epimorphism. Hence, $\omega(x)=x \omega=(\tau 1) \omega=\tau(1 \omega)=\tau(0)=0$. Therefore, $\omega=0$ and $\varphi$ is a monomorphism.

If $\delta \in T$ is such that $\delta R=0$, then $\delta(1 \omega)=(\delta 1) \omega=0$ for every $\omega \in T_{0}$. Hence, $1 \omega \in Q$. Therefore, $\varphi$ can actually be defined as a map $T_{0} \rightarrow Q$. It readily follows that $\varphi$ maps onto $Q$ and hence $\varphi: T_{0} \rightarrow Q$ is an isomorphism. To see this, let $x \in Q$ and consider $\nu: E \rightarrow E$ defined by $(\tau 1) \nu=\tau x$. This can be defined for every $\tau \in T$ since
$\varphi$ is a well-defined epimorphism onto $E$. Thus, if $1_{E} \in T$ is the identity map on $E$, then $\varphi(\nu)=1 \nu=\left[1_{E}(1)\right] \nu=1_{E}(x)=x$. Therefore, $\varphi$ is onto.

We now define multiplication on $Q$. For $x, y \in Q$, let $x \cdot y=\varphi\left[\left(\varphi^{-1} x\right)\left(\varphi^{-1} y\right)\right]=$ $1\left(\varphi^{-1} x\right)\left(\varphi^{-1} y\right)$. Clearly $x \cdot y \in Q$ and it is easily seen to be associative. Since $\varphi$ is an isomorphism, if $r \in R$, then there exists some $\omega \in T_{0}$ such that $\varphi(\omega)=1 \omega=r$. Thus, if $x \in Q$, then $x \cdot r=1\left(\varphi^{-1} x\right)\left(\varphi^{-1} r\right)=\left(\varphi \varphi^{-1} x\right)(\omega)=x \omega=(x 1) \omega=x(1 \omega)=x r$. It follows from [6, Theorem 2.26] that this multiplication defines a unique ring structure on $Q$ which is consistent with the $R$-module structure..

To see that $Q$ is a right ring of quotients, suppose $R \leq M \leq Q$ for some right $R$-module $M$ and let $\alpha \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M / R, Q)$. Consider the epimorphism $\pi: M \rightarrow M / R$ given by $x \mapsto$ $x+R$, and define $\gamma=\alpha \pi: M \rightarrow Q$. Observe that $\gamma R=0$ since $\gamma(r)=\alpha \pi(r)=\alpha(r+R)=0$ for any $r \in R$. Moreover, $\gamma$ can be extended to a map $\beta \in T$ such that $\beta R=0$. Since $Q$ is the intersection of the kernels of all homomorphisms $\delta \in T$ satisfying $\delta R=0, M \subseteq Q \subseteq \operatorname{ker} \beta$. Thus, $\gamma M=\beta M=0$ and so $\alpha(x+R)=\gamma(x)=0$ for any $x \in M$. Therefore, $R \leq^{r} Q$ and $Q$ is a right ring of Quotients.

To see that $Q^{r}$ is a maximal right ring of quotients, let $P$ be another right ring of quotients. Then $R_{R} \leq^{r} P_{R}$ by definition, and hence $R_{R} \leq^{e} P_{R}$ by Lemma 5.5. If $\iota: R \rightarrow P$ and $\mu: R \rightarrow E$ are the inclusion maps, then by injectivity of $E$, there exists a homomorphism $\nu: P \rightarrow E$ such that $\nu \iota=\mu$. Observe that $R \cap \operatorname{ker} \nu=\operatorname{ker} \mu=0$. This implies $\operatorname{ker} \nu=0$ since $R$ is essential in $P$ and ker $\nu$ is a submodule of $P$. Therefore, the inclusion map $\mu: R \rightarrow E$ can be extended to a monomorphism $\nu: P \rightarrow E$. Moreover, [6, Theorem 2.26] shows that $\nu P$ is contained in $Q$, and hence the inclusion map $R \rightarrow Q$ can be extended to a monomorphism $\nu: P \rightarrow Q$. Finally, note that since $R \leq \nu P \leq Q$ and $R_{R} \leq^{r} Q_{R}$, $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\nu P / R, Q)=0$. Hence, given $x \in P$, the homomorphism $\sigma: \nu P / R \rightarrow Q$ defined by $\sigma(\nu y+R)=\nu(x y)-(\nu x)(\nu y)$ is the zero map. Therefore, $\nu$ is a ring homomorphism and $Q$ is a maximal right ring of quotients of $R$.

Goodearl shows in [6, Corollary 2.31] that $Q^{r}$ is injective as a right $R$-module. Therefore, $Q^{r}(R)$ is an injective hull of $R$ since $R_{R} \leq^{e} Q_{R}^{r}$ by Lemma 5.5. Moreover, since the injective hull is unique up to isomorphism, we can refer to $Q^{r}(R)$ as the injective hull of $R$. The following results about maximal quotient rings will be needed later. The proofs are omitted.

Proposition 5.7. [1, Proposition 2.2] For a right non-singular ring $R, R$ is a left p.p.ring such that $Q^{r}(R)$ is torsion-free as a right $R$-module if and only if all non-singular right $R$-modules are torsion-free.

Theorem 5.8. [10, Ch. XII, Proposition 7.2] If $R$ is a right non-singular ring and $M$ is a finitely generated non-singular right $R$-module, then there exists a monomorphism $\varphi: M \rightarrow \oplus_{n} Q^{r}$ for some $n<\omega$. In other words, $M$ is isomorphic to a submodule of a free $Q^{r}$-module.

For a ring $R$, its maximal right ring of quotients $Q^{r}$ is a perfect left localization of $R$ if $Q^{r}$ is flat as a right $R$-module and the multiplication map $\varphi: Q^{r} \bigotimes_{R} Q^{r} \rightarrow Q^{r}$, defined by $\varphi(a \otimes b)=a b$, is an isomorphism. If $R$ is a right non-singular ring for which $Q^{r}$ is a perfect left localization, then $R$ is called right strongly non-singular. Goodearl provides the following useful characterization of right strongly non-singular rings:

Theorem 5.9. [6, Theorem 5.17] Let $R$ be a right non-singular ring. Then, $R$ is right strongly non-singular if and only if every finitely generated non-singular right $R$-module is isomorphic to a finitely generated submodule of a free right $R$-module.

Corollary 5.10. [6, Theorem 5.18] Let $R$ be a right non-singular ring. Then, $R$ is right semi-hereditary, right strongly non-singular if and only if every finitely generated non-singular right $R$-module is projective.

Proof. For a right non-singular ring $R$, suppose $R$ is right semi-hereditary, right strongly non-singular. Let $M$ be a finitely generated non-singular right $R$-module. By Theorem 5.9, $M$ is isomorphic to a finitely generated submodule of a free right $R$-module $F$. Therefore, since $R$ is right semi-hereditary, $M$ is projective by Lemma 2.5 .

Conversely, assume every finitely generated non-singular right $R$-module is projective. Since $R$ is right non-singular, every finitely generated right ideal of $R$ is non-singular. Hence, every finitely generated right ideal is projective and $R$ is right semi-hereditary. Furthermore, every finitely generated non-singular right $R$-module is a direct summand, and hence a submodule, of a free right $R$-module. Therefore, $R$ is right strongly non-singular by Theorem 5.9.

### 5.3 Coincidence of Classes of Torsion-free and Non-singular Modules

We know turn our attention to rings for which the classes of torsion-free and non-singular right $R$-modules coincide, which is investigated in [1] by Albrecht, Dauns, and Fuchs. A few definitions are needed before stating their theorems in full. A ring is right semi-simple if it can be written as a direct sum of modules which have no proper nonzero submodules, and a ring is right Artinian if it satisfies the descending chain condition on right ideals. Assume semi-simple Artinain to mean right semi-simple, right Artinian. The following results from Stenström consider rings with semi-simple right maximal ring of quotients.

Proposition 5.11. [10, Ch. XI, Proposition 5.4] Let $R$ be a ring whose maximal right ring of quotients is semi-simple. Then, $Q^{r}=Q^{l}$ if and only if $Q^{r}$ is flat as a right $R$-module.

Theorem 5.12. [10, Ch. XII, Corollaries 2.6,2.8] Let $R$ be a ring and suppose $Q^{r}(R)$ is semi-simple. Then:
(a) $Q^{r}$ is a perfect right localization of $R$. In other words, if $R$ is left non-singular, then it is left strongly non-singular.
(b) If $M$ is any non-singular right $R$-module, then $M \bigotimes_{R} Q^{r}$ is the injective hull of $M$.

A ring $R$ is von Neumann regular if, given any $r \in R$, there exists some $s \in R$ such that $r=r s r$. These rings are of interest because $R$ is von Neumann regular if and only if every right $R$-module is flat [9, Theorem 4.9]. The following lemmas will be needed in the next chapter.

Lemma 5.13. [9] If $R$ is a semi-simple Artinian ring, then $R$ is von Neumann regular.

Proof. The Wedderburn-Artin Theorem states that $R$ is semi-simple Artinian if and only if it is isomorphic to a finite direct product of matrix rings over division rings. For any division ring $D, \operatorname{Mat}_{n}(D) \cong \operatorname{End}_{D}\left(\bigoplus^{n} D\right)$ is von Neumann regular [9]. Therefore, $R$ is von Neumann regular since direct products of regular rings are regular.

Lemma 5.14. [10] $A$ ring $R$ is right non-singular if and only if $Q^{r}$ is von Neumann regular.

Proof. Stenström shows in $[10, \mathrm{Ch} . \mathrm{XII}]$ that if $R$ is right non-singular, then $Q^{r} \cong \operatorname{End}_{R}(E)$, where $E \cong Q^{r}$ is the injective hull of $R$. In [10, Ch. V, Proposition 6.1], it is shown that such rings are regular.

Conversely, assume $Q^{r}$ is von Neumann regular. Let $I$ be an essential right ideal of $R$ and take $x \in R$ to be nonzero. Suppose $x I=0$. Since $Q^{r}$ is regular, there exists some $q \in Q$ such that $x q x=x$. Hence, $q x R$ is a nonzero right ideal of $R$, and so $I \cap q x R \neq 0$. Thus, $0 \neq q x r \in I$ for some nonzero $r \in R$. However, $x r=x q x r \in x I=0$. This implies $q x r=0$, which is a contradiction. Therefore, $x I \neq 0$ and $R$ is right non-singular.

Let $R$ be a ring and $M$ a right $R$-module. A submodule $U$ of $M$ is $\boldsymbol{S}$-closed if $M / U$ is non-singular. The following lemma shows that annihilators of elements are $\mathbf{S}$-closed for non-singular rings.

Lemma 5.15. If $R$ is a right non-singular ring, then for any $x \in R$, ann $n_{r}(x)$ is $\boldsymbol{S}$-closed.

Proof. Let $R$ be right non-singular. It needs to be shown that $R / a n n_{r}(x)$ is non-singular for any $x \in R$. That is, for $x \in R, \mathbf{Z}\left(R / a n n_{r}(x)\right)=\left\{r+\operatorname{ann}_{r}(x) \mid\left(r+a n n_{r}(x)\right) I=0\right.$ for some $\left.I \leq^{e} R\right\}=0$. Let $0 \neq r+a n n_{r}(x) \in R / a n n_{r}(x)$ and $I$ be a nonzero essential right ideal of $R$ such that $\left(r+a n n_{r}(x)\right) I=0$. Then, for any $a \in I, r a+a n n_{r}(x)=0$. Hence, $r a \in \operatorname{ann} n_{r}(x)$ and $x r a=0$ for every $a \in I$. In other words, $(x r) I=0$. If $x r \neq 0$, then there is a contradiction since $I \leq^{e} R$ and $\mathbf{Z}(R)=0$. Thus, $x r=0$ and $r \in a n n_{r}(x)$. Therefore, $r+a n n_{r}(x)=0$, and it follows readily that $\mathbf{Z}\left(R / a n n_{r}(x)\right)=0$.

If $R$ is a right non-singular ring and every $\mathbf{S}$-closed right ideal of $R$ is a right annihilator, then $R$ is referred to as a right Utumi ring. Similarly, $R$ is a left Utumi ring if $R$ is left nonsingular and every S-closed left ideal of $R$ is a left annihilator. The following result from Goodearl characterizes non-singular rings which are both right and left Utumi.

Theorem 5.16. [6, Theorem 2.38] If $R$ is a right and left non-singular ring, then $Q^{r}=Q^{l}$ if and only if every $R$ is both right and left Utumi.

For a ring $R$, if every direct sum of nonzero right ideals of $R$ contains only finitely many direct summands, then $R$ is said to have finite right Goldie-dimension. Denote the Goldie-dimension of $R$ as $G$ - $\operatorname{dim} R_{R}$. If a ring $R$ with finite right Goldie-dimension also satisfies the ascending chain condition on right annihilators, then $R$ is a right Goldie-ring. The maximal right quotient ring $Q^{r}$ is a semi-perfect left localization of $R$ if $Q_{R}^{r}$ is torsion-free and the multiplication map $Q^{r} \bigotimes_{R} Q^{r} \rightarrow Q^{r}$ is an isomorphism. The following is a useful characterization of rings with finite right Goldie dimension:

Theorem 5.17. [10, Ch. XII, Theorem 2.5] If $R$ is a right non-singular ring, then $Q^{r}$ is semi-simple if and only if $R$ has finite right Goldie dimension.

We are now ready to state two key results form Albrecht, Fuchs, and Dauns, which consider rings for which the classes of torsion-free and non-singular modules coincide. These will be needed in the next chapter to prove the main theorem of this thesis. The proof of Theorem 5.18 is omitted.

Theorem 5.18. [1, Theorem 3.7] The following are equivalent for a ring $R$ :
(a) $R$ is a right Goldie right p.p.-ring and $Q^{r}$ is a semi-perfect left localization of $R$.
(b) $R$ is a right Utumi p.p.-ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents.
(c) $R$ is a right non-singular ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents, and every finitely generated non-singular right $R$-module is torsion-free.
(d) A right $R$-module $M$ is torsion-free if and only if $M$ is non-singular.

Furthermore, if $R$ satisfies any of the equivalent conditions, then $R$ is a Baer-ring and $Q^{r}$ is semi-simple Artinian.

Theorem 5.19. [1] The following are equivalent for a ring $R$ :
(a) $R$ is a right and left non-singular ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents, and every $\boldsymbol{S}$-closed left or right ideal is generated by an idempotent.
(b) $R$ is a right or left p.p.-ring, and $Q^{r}=Q^{l}$ is semi-simple Artinian.
(c) $R$ is a right strongly non-singular right p.p.-ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents.
(d) $R$ is right strongly non-singular, and a right $R$-module is torsion-free if and only if it is non-singular.
(e) For a right $R$-module $M$, the following are equivalent:
(i) $M$ is torsion-free
(ii) $M$ is non-singular
(iii) If $E(M)$ is the injective hull of $M$, then $E(M)$ is flat.

Proof. $(a) \Rightarrow(b)$ : Assume $R$ is right and left non-singular, contains no infinite set of orthogonal idempotents, and every S-closed right or left ideal is generated by an idempotent. Let $I$ be an $\mathbf{S}$-closed right ideal of $R$. Then, $I=e R$ for some idempotent $e \in R$. As shown in the proof of Lemma 4.5, $e R=\operatorname{ann}_{r}(1-e)$. Thus, $I=e R$ is the right annihilator of $1-e$. Note that a symmetric argument shows that if $J$ is an S-closed left ideal of $R$, then $J=R f$ is a left annihilator of $1-f$ for some idempotent $f \in R$. Hence, $R$ is both a right and left Utumi ring. By Lemma 5.15, since $R$ is a right non-singular ring, ann $n_{r}(x)$ is $\mathbf{S}$-closed for every $x \in R$. This implies that $\operatorname{ann}_{r}(x)$ is generated by an idempotent for
every $x \in R$. Therefore, $R$ is a right p.p-ring. A symmetric argument shows that $R$ is also a left p.p.-ring since condition $(a)$ applies to both right and left ideals. Note that $R$ satisfies condition (b) of Theorem 5.18 since it is a right Utumi p.p.-ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. Hence, $Q^{r}$ is semi-simple Artinian by Theorem 5.18. Furthermore, since every right and left S-closed ideal is an annihilator, $R$ is right and left Utumi. Therefore, $Q^{r}=Q^{l}$ by Theorem 5.16.
$(b) \Rightarrow(c)$ : Suppose $R$ is a right p.p.-ring and $Q^{r}=Q^{l}$ is semi-simple Artinian. Since $R$ is a right p.p.-ring, it is also a right non-singular ring. Hence, $R$ has finite right Goldie dimension by Theorem 5.17. Suppose $R$ contains an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. Consider two orthogonal idempotents $e$ and $f$, and let $x \in e R \cap f R$. Then, $x=e r=f s$ for some $r, s \in r$. This implies that $x=0$ since $e r=e^{2} r=e f s=0$. Thus, $e R \cap f R=0$ for any two orthogonal idempotents $e$ and $f$ in the infinite set, and $e R \bigoplus f R$ is direct. Hence, $R$ contains an infinite direct sum of nonzero right submodules, which contradicts $R$ having finite right Goldie dimension. Therefore, $R$ does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents.

By Theorem 5.12, since $R$ is semi-simple Artinian, $R$ is a left strongly non-singular ring. Hence, the multiplication map $\varphi: Q^{r} \bigotimes_{R} Q^{r} \rightarrow Q^{r}$, defined by $\varphi(q \otimes p)=q p$, is an isomorphism. Note that this also implies that $Q^{r}$ is flat as a left R-module. However, in order for $R$ to be right strongly non-singular, it needs to be shown that $Q^{r}$ is flat as a right R-module. By Proposition 5.11, $Q^{r}$ is indeed flat as a right R-module since $Q^{r}=Q^{l}$ is assumed to be semi-simple Artinian. Therefore, $R$ is a right strongly non-singular ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. Note that Theorem 2.11 shows that $R$ is also a left p.p.-ring. Thus, if we had instead assumed that $R$ is a left p.p.-ring, then a symmetric argument could be used to show that $R$ is also a right p.p.-ring, and the latter part of the proof would remain the same.
$(c) \Rightarrow(d)$ : Assume $R$ is a right strongly non-singular right p.p.-ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. Then, $Q^{r}$ is flat as a right R -module, which
follows from $R$ being right strongly non-singular. Since flat R-modules are torsion-free, this implies that $Q^{r}$ is torsion-free. By Theorem 2.11, since $R$ is a right p.p.-ring and does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents, $R$ is also a left p.p.-ring. Hence, every non-singular right R -module is torsion-free by Proposition 5.7. Thus, $R$ satisfies condition (c) of Theorem 5.18, which implies that a right R -module M is torsion-free if and only if M is non-singular.
$(d) \Rightarrow(e)$ : Suppose $R$ is right strongly non-singular, and a right R -module is torsion-free if and only if it is non-singular. Then, conditions $(i)$ and (ii) of $(e)$ are clearly equivalent, and it suffices to show that a right R-module is non-singular if and only if its injective hull is flat. Suppose $M$ is a non-singular right R-module. Note that $R$ satisfies condition (d) of Theorem 5.18, and hence $Q^{r}$ is semi-simple Artinian. By Theorem 5.12, $M \bigotimes_{R} Q^{r}$ is an injective hull of $M$. Thus, if $E(M)$ denotes the injective hull of $M$, then $E(M) \cong M \bigotimes_{R} Q^{r}$, since an injective hull of a right R -module is unique up to isomorphism. This implies that $E(M)$ is a right $Q^{r}$-module, since $M \bigotimes_{R} Q^{r}$ is a right $Q^{r}$-module by Proposition 3.9. Furthermore, since $Q^{r}$ is semi-simple Artinian, every $Q^{r}$-module is projective. Hence, $E(M)$ is projective and thus isomorphic to a direct summand of a free $Q^{r}$-module $F$. Note that $Q^{r}$ is flat as a right R-module since $R$ is right strongly non-singular. Thus, Proposition 3.7 shows that any free $Q^{r}$-module is flat since such modules can be written as $\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}$ for some index set $I$, where $M_{i}$ is isomorphic to $Q^{r}$ for every $i \in I$. This implies that $E(M)$ is flat by Proposition 3.7 since it is a direct summand of the flat right $R$-module $F=\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}$.

On the other hand, assume that the injective hull $E(M)$ of some right R -module $M$ is flat. Noting again that $R$ satisfies condition ( $d$ ) of Theorem 5.18, it follows that $R$ is a right p.p.-ring. Thus, $R$ is a torsion-free ring by Theorem 4.4. Since flat $R$-modules are torsionfree, $E(M)$ is torsion-free as a right R -module. Hence, $M$ is a submodule of a torsion-free right R-module. Thus, $M$ is a torsion free right R-module by Proposition 4.3. Therefore, $M$ is non-singular since a right $R$-module is torsion-free if and only if it is non-singular by assumption.
$(e) \Rightarrow(a)$ : For a right $R$-module $M$, assume that $M$ is torsion-free if and only if $M$ is non-singular if and only if the injective hull $E(M)$ is flat. By Theorem $5.18, R$ is a right p.p.-ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. It then follows from Proposition 5.4 that $R$ is a right non-singular ring. Hence, $R$ is also a left p.p.-ring by Proposition 5.7, since every non-singular right R-module is torsion-free, and a symmetric argument for Proposition 5.4 shows that $R$ is left non-singular.

The injective hull $E(R)$ is flat as a right R -module since $R$ is assumed to be right nonsingular. Hence, $Q^{r}$ is flat as a right R -module, since $Q^{r}$ is the injective hull of $R$. We've already shown that $R$ satisfies the equivalent conditions of Theorem 5.18 , which implies that $Q^{r}$ is a semi-simple Artinian ring. Thus, it follows from Proposition 5.11 that $Q^{r}=Q^{l}$. Since $R$ is both right and left non-singular, every $\mathbf{S}$-closed right ideal of $R$ is a right annihilator and every $\mathbf{S}$-closed left ideal of $R$ is a left annihilator by Theorem 5.16. Furthermore, note that Theorem 5.18 shows that $R$ is a Baer-ring. Hence, every annihilator is generated by an idempotent. Therefore, every S-closed right ideal and every S-closed left ideal is generated by an idempotent.

## Chapter 6

## Morita Equivalence

Before proving the main theorem, we discuss Morita equivalences. In particular, we show that there is a Morita equivalence between $R$ and $M a t_{n}(R)$ for any $0<n<\omega$. This is then used to show that the classes of torsion-free and non-singular $M a t_{n}(R)$-modules coincide for certain conditions placed on $R$.

Let R and S be rings. The categories $M o d_{R}$ and $\operatorname{Mod}_{S}$ are equivalent (or isomorphic) if there are functors $F: \operatorname{Mod}_{R} \rightarrow \operatorname{Mod}_{S}$ and $G: \operatorname{Mod}_{S} \rightarrow \operatorname{Mod}_{R}$ such that $F G \cong 1_{M_{\text {od }}}$ and $G F \cong 1_{M o d_{R}}$. Note that these are natural isomorphisms. In other words, if $\eta: G F \rightarrow 1_{M o d_{R}}$ denotes the natural isomorphism, then for each $M, N \in \operatorname{Mod}_{R}$, there exist isomorphisms $\eta_{M}: G F(M) \rightarrow M$ and $\eta_{N}: G F(N) \rightarrow N$ such that $\beta \eta_{M}=\eta_{N} G F(\beta)$ whenever $\beta \in$ $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$. Here, $G F(\beta)$ denotes the induced homomorphism. The functors $F$ and $G$ are referred to as an equivalence of $M o d_{R}$ and $\operatorname{Mod}_{S}$. If such an equivalence exists, then R and S are said to be Morita-equivalent. In [10, Ch. IV, Corollary 10.2], Stenström shows that R and S are Morita-equivalent if and only if there are bimodules ${ }_{S} P_{R}$ and ${ }_{R} Q_{S}$ such that $P \bigotimes_{R} Q \cong S$ and $Q \bigotimes_{S} P \cong R$. A property $P$ is referred to as Morita-invariant if for every ring $R$ satisfying $P$, every ring $S$ Morita-equivalent to $R$ also satisfies $P$.

A generator of $\operatorname{Mod}_{R}$ is a right $R$-module $P$ satisfying the condition that every right $R$ module $M$ is a quotient of $\bigoplus_{I} P$. Note that $R$ and any free right $R$-module are generators of $M o d_{R}$. A progenerator of $M o d_{R}$ is a generator which is finitely generated and projective.

Lemma 6.1. [2] Let $R$ be a ring, $P$ a progenerator of $\operatorname{Mod}_{R}$, and $S=\operatorname{End}_{R}(P)$. Then, there is an equivalence $F: \operatorname{Mod}_{R} \rightarrow \operatorname{Mod}_{S}$ given by $F(M)=\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, M)$ with inverse $G: \operatorname{Mod}_{S} \rightarrow \operatorname{Mod}_{R}$ given by $G(N)=N \bigotimes_{S} P$.

Proof. As a projective generator of $\operatorname{Mod}_{R}, P$ is a right $R$-module. $P$ also has a left $S$-module structure with $(f * g)(x)=f(g(x))$ for $f, g \in S$ and $x \in P$, where multiplication in the endomorphism ring is defined as composition of functions. It then readily follows that $P$ is an $(S, R)$-bimodule since $f(x r)=f(x) r$ for any $f \in S$ and $r \in R$. Thus, $F=H o m_{S}\left(P, \__{-}\right)$is a functor $\operatorname{Mod}_{S} \rightarrow \operatorname{Mod}_{R}$ and $G=\bigotimes_{R} P$ is a functor $\operatorname{Mod}_{R} \rightarrow \operatorname{Mod}_{S}$ by Proposition 3.10.

It needs to be shown that $G F \cong 1_{M o d_{R}}$ and $F G \cong 1_{M_{\text {od }}}$ are natural isomorphisms. Since $P$ is a progenerator of $\operatorname{Mod}_{R}$, it is finitely generated and projective as a right $R$ module. Thus, it follows from Lemma 3.12 that if $M$ is any right $R$-module, then $G F(M)=$ $G\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, M)\right)=\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, M) \bigotimes_{S} P \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{S}(P, P), M\right) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\operatorname{End}_{S}(P), M\right)$ $\cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(R, M) \cong M$. Similarly, given any right $S$-module $N, F G(N)=F\left(N \bigotimes_{S} P\right)=$ $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P, N \bigotimes_{S} P\right) \cong N \bigotimes_{S} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(P, P)=N \bigotimes_{S} S \cong N$ by Lemma 3.11. Therefore, $F$ is an equivalence with inverse $G$.

Proposition 6.2. Let $R$ be a ring. For every $0<n<\omega, R$ is Morita-equivalent to $M a t_{n}(R)$.

Proof. Let $P$ be a finitely generated free right $R$-module with basis $\left\{x_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ for $0<n<\omega$. Then, $P$ is a progenerator of $\operatorname{Mod}_{R}$ and $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R) \cong \operatorname{End}_{R}(P)$ by Lemma 2.6. Therefore, the equivalence of Lemma 6.1 is a Morita-equivalence between $R$ and $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$.

Lemma 6.3. [10, Ch. $X$, Proposition 3.2] If $R$ and $S$ are Morita-equivalent, then the maximal ring of quotients, $Q^{r}(R)$ and $Q^{r}(S)$, are also Morita equivalent.

Proposition 6.4. Let $R$ and $S$ be Morita-equivalent rings with equivalence $F: \operatorname{Mod}_{R} \rightarrow \operatorname{Mod}_{S}$ and $G: \operatorname{Mod}_{S} \rightarrow \operatorname{Mod}_{R}$.
(i) If $U$ is an essential submodule of a right $R$-module $M$, then $F(U)$ is an essential submodule of the right $S$-module $F(M)$.
(ii) If $M$ is a non-singular right $R$-module, then $F(M)$ is a non-singular right $S$-module.

In other words, essentiality and non-singularity are Morita-invariant properties.

Proof. (i): Let $U \leq^{e} M$. Then, the inclusion map $\iota: U \rightarrow M$ is an essential monomorphism. Consider the induced homomorphism $F(\iota): F(U) \rightarrow F(M)$. Note that since $\iota$ is a monomorphism, $F(\iota)$ is a monomorphism [2, Proposition 21.2]. Let $W$ be any right $S$-module and take $\beta \in H_{S}(F(M), W)$ to be such that $\beta F(\iota): F(U) \rightarrow W$ is a monomorphism. There is a natural isomorphism $\Phi_{U, W}: \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(F(U), W) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(U, G(W))$ defined by $\gamma \mapsto G(\gamma) \eta_{U}^{-1}$, where $\eta_{U}$ denotes the isomorphism $G F(U) \rightarrow U[2,21.1]$. Hence, $\Phi_{U, W}(\beta F(\iota))$ is a monomorphism. Moreover, $\Phi_{U, W}(\beta F(\iota))=G(h F(\iota)) \eta_{U}^{-1}=G(h) G F(\iota) \eta_{U}^{-1}=G(h) \eta_{M}^{-1} \eta_{M} G F(\iota) \eta_{U}^{-1}=$ $\Phi_{M, W}(\beta) \iota \eta_{U} \eta_{U}^{-1}=\Phi_{M, W}(\beta) \iota$. Thus, $\Phi_{M, W}(\beta) \iota$ is a monomorphism and it follows from Proposition 5.1 that $\Phi_{M, W}(\beta)$ is a monomorphism since $\iota$ is essential. Furthermore, $\Phi_{M, W}(\beta)$ is a monomorphism if and only if $\beta$ is a monomorphism [2, Lemma 21.3]. Hence, $F(\iota)$ is an essential monomoprhism by Proposition 5.1. Therefore, $F(U) \cong \operatorname{im}(F(\iota)) \leq^{e} F(M)$.
(ii): Let $M$ be a non-singular right $R$-module. It needs to be shown that $F(M)$ is a non-singular right $S$-module and in view of Proposition 5.2 it suffices to show that $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}(C, F(M))=0$ for any singular right $S$-module $C$. By Proposition 5.3, there is an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} F \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ of right $S$-modules such that $f(A) \leq^{e} F$ and $F$ is free. Then, $G(f(A)) \leq^{e} G(B)$ by $(i)$. Hence, $0 \rightarrow G(A) \xrightarrow{G(f)} G(B) \rightarrow G(C) \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of right $R$-modules such that $G(f(A)) \leq^{e} G(B)$. Thus, $G(C)$ is a singular right $R$-module by Proposition 5.3. Since $G(C)$ is singular and $M$ is non-singular, $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(G(C), M)=0$ by Proposition 5.2. Therefore, $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}(C, F(M)) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(G(C), M)=0$. Observe that in this proof, it is also shown that singularity is Morita-invariant since we show that $G(C)$ is singular for an arbitrary singular module $C$.

We now prove the main theorem of this thesis.

Theorem 6.5. The following are equivalent for a ring $R$ :
(a) $R$ is a right strongly non-singular, right semi-hereditary, right Utumi ring not containing an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents.
(b) Whenever $S$ is Morita-equivalent to $R$, then the classes of torsion-free right $S$-modules and non-singular right $S$-modules coincide.
(c) For every $0<n<\omega, \operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a right and left Utumi Baer-ring not containing an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents.

Moreover, if $R$ is such a ring, then the corresponding left conditions are also satisfied.

Proof. $(a) \Rightarrow(b)$ : Assume R is a right strongly non-singular, right semi-hereditary, right Utumi ring not containing an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. Let $R$ and $S$ be Morita equivalent, and let $F: \operatorname{Mod}_{R} \rightarrow \operatorname{Mod}_{S}$ and $G: \operatorname{Mod}_{S} \rightarrow \operatorname{Mod}_{R}$ be an equivalence. Also, take $N$ to be a finitely generated non-singular right R -module. Since $R$ is right strongly non-singular, $N$ is isomorphic to finitely generated submodule $V$ of a free right R-module by Theorem 5.9. Furthermore, since $R$ is right semi-hereditary and free R-modules are projective, $V \cong N$ is projective by Lemma 2.5. Thus, since projective modules are torsion-free, it follows that finitely generated non-singular right R -modules are torsion-free. Therefore, R satisfies condition (c) of Theorem 5.18, which implies that the maximal ring of quotients $Q^{r}(R)$ is a semi-simple Artinian ring. Note that $Q^{r}(R)$ and $Q^{r}(S)$ are Morita-equivalent by Lemma 6.3. Hence, $Q^{r}(S)$ is also semi-simple Artinian, since semi-simpleness and Artinian are properties preserved under a Morita-equivalence [2]. Furthermore, $Q^{r}(S)$ is a regular ring by Lemma 5.13 . Therefore, Lemma 5.14 shows that $S$ is right non-singular.

Let $M$ be a finitely generated non-singular right S-module. Then, $G(M)$ is a finitely generated non-singular right R-module since non-singularity and being finitely generated are both Morita-invariant properties [2]. Thus, since $R$ is a right strongly non-singular ring, $G(M)$ is isomorphic to a finitely generated submodule of a free right R-module $P$ by Theorem 5.9. Note that as a free right R-module, $P$ is projective, which is also a Moritainvariant property [2]. Hence, $F(P)$ is a projective right S-module. Furthermore, since $G(M)$ is isomorphic to a finitely generated submodule of $P, F G(M) \cong M$ is isomorphic to a finitely generated submodule $U$ of $F(P)$. Now, $F(P)$ is projective and hence a submodule of a free
right S -module, which implies $U \cong M$ is a submodule of a free right $S$-module. Therefore, $M$ is isomorphic to a finitely generated submodule of a free right S -module, and $S$ is right strongly non-singular by Theorem 5.9.

It has been shown that $S$ is a right non-singular ring with a semi-simple Artinian maximal right ring of quotients. Thus, $S$ has finite right Goldie dimension by Theorem 5.17. Hence, $S$ cannot contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. Moreover, $S$ is a right p.p.-ring since $R$ is right semi-hereditary. For if $P$ is a principal right ideal of $S$, then $G(P)$ is a finitely generated right ideal of the right semi-hereditary ring $R$, which implies that $G(P)$ is projective. Hence, $F G(P) \cong P$ is projective, which again follows from projectivity being Morita-invariant. Then, $S$ is a right strongly non-singular right p.p.-ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. Therefore, a right S-module is torsion-free if and only if it is non-singular by Theorem 5.19.
$(b) \Rightarrow(a)$ : Assume that the classes of torsion-free and non-singular $S$-modules coincide for every ring $S$ Morita-equivalent to $R$. Thus, since $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is Morita-equivalent to $R$ for every $0<n<\omega$, the classes of torsion-free right $M a t_{n}(R)$-modules and non-singular right $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$-modules coincide for every $0<n<\omega$. Hence, $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a right Utumi p.p.-ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents by Theorem 5.18. Thus, $R$ is right semi-hereditary by Theorem 2.7. In particular, since these conditions are satisfied for every $0<n<\omega$, they are satisfied for $n=1$. Hence, $R \cong \operatorname{Mat}_{1}(R)$ is a right semi-hereditary right Utumi ring not containing an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents.

It needs to be shown that $R$ is right strongly non-singular. Let $M$ be a finitely generated non-singular right $R$-module. By Corollary 5.10, $R$ is right strongly non-singular if $M$ is projective. Let $0 \rightarrow U \rightarrow F=\bigoplus^{n} R \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$ be an exact sequence of right $R$ modules. Since $F$ is a finitely generated free right $R$-module, it is a progenerator of $\operatorname{Mod}_{R}$. Hence, $0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F, U) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F, F)=\operatorname{End}_{R}(F) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F, M) \rightarrow 0$ is exact by Proposition 2.3. Moreover, if $S=\operatorname{End}_{R}(F) \cong \operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$, then $F: \operatorname{Mod}_{R} \rightarrow \operatorname{Mod}_{S}$ given by $F(M)=\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F, M)$ and $G: \operatorname{Mod}_{S} \rightarrow \operatorname{Mod}_{R}$ given by $G(N)=N \bigotimes_{S} F$ is an equivalence
by Lemma 6.1. Thus, $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F, M)$ is a non-singular right $S$-module by Proposition 6.4 (ii). Furthermore, since $S$ is Morita-equivalent to $R$, the $S$-module $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F, M)$ is torsionfree by assumption. Note that since the sequence is exact, $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F, M) \cong S / \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F, U)$. Thus, $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F, M)$ is cyclic as an $S$-module since $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F, U)$ is a right ideal of the right $S$-module $S$. Note also that $S$ is a left p.p.-ring by Theorem 2.11 since $S$ is a right p.p.-ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. Thus, the cyclic torsion-free right $S$-module $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F, M)$ is projective by Proposition 4.7. Therefore, $M \cong G F(M)=$ $G\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F, M)\right)$ is a projective right $R$-module and $R$ is right strongly non-singular.
$(a) \Rightarrow(c)$ : Assume $R$ is right strongly non-singular, right semi-hereditary, right Utumi, and does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. It has been shown that any ring $S$ Morita-equivalent to such a ring is right strongly non-singular and the classes of torsion-free and non-singular right $S$-modules coincide. Thus, $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is right strongly nonsingular and a right $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$-module is torsion-free if and only if it is non-singular, which follows from $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ being Morita-equivalent to $R$ for any $0<n<\omega$. By Theorem 5.19, $M a t_{n}(R)$ is a right strongly non-singular right p.p.-ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. It then follows from Theorem 2.11 that $M a t_{n}(R)$ satisfies the ascending chain condition on right annihilators. Furthermore, Theorem 4.4 shows that since $M a t_{n}(R)$ is a right p.p.-ring, $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a torsion-free ring such that right annihilators of elements are finitely generated. Hence, $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a Baer-ring by Theorem 4.8. Moreover, Theorem 5.19 shows that every S-closed one-sided ideal of $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is generated by an idempotent. Thus, every right ideal of $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a right annihilator and every left ideal of $M a t_{n}(R)$ is a left annihilator. Hence, $M a t_{n}(R)$ is a right and left Utumi ring.
$(c) \Rightarrow(a)$ : Suppose $M a t_{n}(R)$ is a right and left Utumi Baer-ring for every $0<n<\omega$ and does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. Then, $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a right p.p.-ring, and so $R$ is right semi-hereditary by Theorem 2.7. Furthermore, since $M a t_{n}(R)$ satisfies these conditions for every $0<n<\omega, R \cong M a t_{1}(R)$ is a right and left Utumi Baer-ring not containing an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents. Thus, every S-closed
one-sided ideal of $R$ is an annihilator and hence generated by an idempotent. Therefore, since $R$ is a right and left p.p.-ring and hence right and left non-singular, $R$ is right strongly non-singular by Theorem 5.19.

Corollary 6.6. The following are equivalent for a ring $R$ which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents:
(a) $R$ is a right and left Utumi, right semi-hereditary ring.
(b) For every $0<n<\omega, \operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a Baer-ring, and $Q^{r}(R)$ is torsion-free as a right $R$-module.

Proof. $(a) \Rightarrow(b)$ : Suppose $R$ is right and left Utumi and right semi-hereditary. Then, $R$ is a right p.p.-ring and hence right non-singular. Moreover, $R$ is a left p.p.-ring by Theorem 2.11, which implies that $R$ is also a left non-singular ring. Since $R$ is both right and left Utumi, $Q^{r}(R)=Q^{l}(R)$ by Theorem 5.16. Furthermore, since $R$ is a right Utumi right p.p.-ring which does not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents, $Q^{r}(R)=Q^{l}(R)$ is semi-simple Artinian and torsion-free by Theorem 5.18. Therefore, $R$ is right strongly non-singular by Theorem 5.19.

Since $R$ is a right strongly non-singular, right semi-hereditary, right Utumi ring not containing an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents, the classes of torsion-free and non-singular right $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$-modules coincide by Theorem 6.5. Moreover, the proof of Theorem 6.5 shows that $M a t_{n}(R)$ is right strongly non-singular. Thus, $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a right strongly non-singular, right p.p.-ring not contain an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents by Theorem 5.19. It then follows from Theorem 2.11 that $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ satisfies the ascending chain condition on right annihilators. Since $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a right p.p.-ring, Theorem 4.4 shows that $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a torsion-free ring such that right annihilators of elements are finitely generated. Hence, $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a Baer-ring by Theorem 4.8.
$(b) \Rightarrow(a)$ : Assume $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is a Baer-ring for every $0<n<\omega$, and $Q^{r}(R)$ is torsionfree as a right $R$-module. Since $M a t_{n}(R)$ is a Baer-ring, it is both a right and left p.p.-ring.

Hence, $R$ is both right and left semi-hereditary by Theorem 2.7. It then readily follows that $R$ is right and left non-singular. Note also that $R \cong \operatorname{Mat}_{1}(R)$ is a Baer-ring since $\operatorname{Mat}_{n}(R)$ is Baer for every $0<n<\omega$. Let $I$ be a proper $\mathbf{S}$-closed right ideal of $R$. Then, $R / I$ is non-singular as a right R-module. Furthermore, $R / I$ is cyclic and thus finitely generated. Hence, $R / I$ is isomorphic to a submodule of a free $Q^{r}$-module by Theorem 5.8. Since $Q^{r}$ is assumed to be torsion-free as a right R-module, it follows from Proposition 4.6 that $I$ is generated by an idempotent $e \in R$. Hence, $I=\operatorname{ann}_{r}(1-e)$ by Lemma 4.5 and $R$ is right Utumi. Observe that the argument works for $\mathbf{S}$-closed left ideals as well, and so $R$ is also left Utumi.

We conclude by considering two examples, the first of which illustrates why the condition of being right semi-hereditary is necessary in the main theorem. Let $R=\mathbb{Z}[x]$. As an integral domain, $R$ is a strongly non-singular p.p.-ring not containing an infinite set of orthogonal idempotents [1, Corollary 3.10]. By Theorem 5.19, the classes of torsion-free and nonsingular right $R$-modules coincide, and by Theorem $5.18 R$ is right Utumi. However, $R$ is not semi-hereditary since the ideal $x \mathbb{Z}[x]+2 \mathbb{Z}[x]$ of $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is not projective. As seen in the proof of Theorem 2.7, this implies $S=\operatorname{Mat}_{2}(R)$ is not a right or left p.p.-ring, and hence not a Baer ring. Therefore, the main theorem does not hold if $R$ is not assumed to be right semi-hereditary. Moreover, this example shows that the classes of torsion-free and non-singular $S$-modules do not necessarily coincide, even if this holds for $R$ and there is a Morita-equivalence between $R$ and $S$.

Finally, we consider an example from [3] which details a ring with finite right Goldiedimension but infinite left Goldie-dimension. In the context of this thesis, this example provides a right Utumi Baer-ring which is not left Utumi. Let $K=F(y)$ for some field $F$ and consider the endomorphism $f$ of $K$ determined by $y \mapsto y^{2}$. The ring we consider is $R=K[x]$ with coefficients written on the right and multiplication defined according to $k x=x f(k)$ for $k \in K$. Observe that $y x=x y^{2}$. It can be shown that $R x \cap R x y=0$, and hence $R x y \bigoplus R x y x \bigoplus R x y x^{2} \bigoplus \ldots \bigoplus R x y x^{k} \bigoplus \ldots$ is an infinite direct sum of left ideals of
$R$. Thus, $R$ has infinite left Goldie-dimension. On the other hand, every right ideal of $R$ is a principal ideal [3], and thus $R$ is right Noetherian. Hence, $R$ is a right Goldie-ring. It then follows from Theorem 5.18 that $R$ is a right Utumi Baer ring and $Q^{r}$ is semi-simple Artinian. However, $R$ having infinite left Goldie-dimension but finite right Goldie-dimension implies that $Q^{r} \neq Q^{l}[1$, Proposition 4.1]. Therefore, Theorem 5.16 shows that $R$ cannot be left Utumi.

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