MORPHIC MODULES

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Abstract

A module M is called morphic if $M/M\alpha \cong ker(\alpha)$ for all endomorphisms α in end(M), and a ring R is called a left morphic ring if R is a morphic module. We consider the open question when the matrix ring $M_n(R)$ is left morphic by relating it to when R^n is morphic as a left R-module. More generally, we investigate when M being morphic implies that end(M) is left morphic, and conversely. Finally, we relate the morphic condition to internal cancellation in the module.

A module M is called morphic if $M/M\alpha \cong ker(\alpha)$ for every endomorphism α of M. We show that a module M is morphic if and only if $M/N \cong K \subseteq M$ implies that $M/K \cong N$, and use this to show that every uniserial module of finite length over a commutative (in fact left duo) ring is morphic. It is an open problem when the matrix ring $M_n(R)$ is left morphic, and we show that this holds if and only if R^n is morphic as a left module. Hence the rings R for which this happens for every $n \geq 1$ are a Morita invariant class containing the left FP-injective rings. An example is given of a commutative, FP-injective ring with simple, essential socle, in which $J(R)^3 = 0$, but which is not morphic.

Direct summands of a morphic module are again morphic, and the study of when a direct sum is morphic leads to a characterization of the morphic, finitely generated abelian groups, and to a characterization of when semisimple modules are morphic. If $E = end(_RM)$, we say that M is self-projective if $M\gamma \subseteq M\alpha$, γ , $\alpha \in E$, implies that $\gamma \in E\alpha$. We then show that: (1) M is morphic and self-projective if and only if E is left morphic and E generates E (2) E is unit regular if and only if E is morphic and E (3) E is a direct summand of E for all E (3) E has internal cancellation if and only if every regular endomorphism in E is morphic.

Throughout this paper every ring R is associative with unity and all modules are unitary. We often abbreviate J(R) = J. A submodule $N \subseteq M$ is said to be an essential submodule (written $N \subseteq S^{ess} M$) if $N \cap K \neq 0$ for every nonzero submodule K of M. We write $K \subseteq M$ to mean that K is a direct summand of the module M, and the "length" of a module means the composition length. We denote left and right annihilators of a subset $X \subseteq R$ by $\mathbb{1}(X)$ and $\mathbb{1}(X)$ respectively, and we write $\mathbb{1}(X)$ for the ring of integers and $\mathbb{1}(X)$ nodules are left modules unless otherwise stated, and module homomorphisms are written on the right of their arguments.

1. Examples

An endomorphism α of a module M will be called **morphic** if $M/M\alpha \cong ker(\alpha)$, that is if the dual of the Noether isomorphism theorem holds for α . The module M is called a **morphic module** if every endomorphism is morphic. If R is a ring, an element a in R is called **left morphic** if right multiplication $a: RR \to RR$ is a morphic endomorphism, that is if $R/Ra \cong 1(a)$. The ring itself is called a **left morphic ring** if every element is left morphic, that is if RR is a morphic module. These rings were studied in [10].

Lemma 1. The following conditions are equivalent for an endomorphism α of a module M:

- (1) α is morphic, that is $M/M\alpha \cong ker(\alpha)$.
- (2) There exists $\beta \in end(M)$ such that $M\beta = ker(\alpha)$ and $ker(\beta) = M\alpha$.
- (3) There exists $\beta \in end(M)$ such that $M\beta \cong ker(\alpha)$ and $ker(\beta) = M\alpha$.

Proof. Given (1), let $\sigma: M/M\alpha \to ker(\alpha)$ be an isomorphism and define $\beta: M \to M$ by $m\beta = (m+M\alpha)\sigma$. Then $M\beta = (M/M\alpha)\sigma = ker(\alpha)$, and $ker(\beta) = \{m \mid (m+M\alpha)\sigma = 0\} = M\alpha$. Hence (1) \Rightarrow (2), and (2) \Rightarrow (3) is clear. But if (3) holds then $M/M\alpha = M/ker(\beta) \cong M\beta \cong ker(\alpha)$, proving (1).

A ring R is called directly finite if ab = 1 in R implies ba = 1.

Corollary 2. A morphic endomorphism is monic if and only if it is epic. Hence every left morphic ring is directly finite.

Every idempotent $\alpha: M \to M$ is morphic (take $\beta = 1 - \alpha$ in Lemma 1) as is every automorphism α (take $\beta = 0$). Hence every simple module is morphic by Schur's lemma. An endomorphism $\alpha: M \to M$ is called *unit regular* if $\alpha \sigma \alpha = \alpha$ for some automorphism σ of M, equivalently if $\alpha = \pi \sigma$ where $\pi^2 = \pi$ and σ is an automorphism.

Example 3. Let $\alpha \in end(M)$ be a morphic element. If $\sigma : M \to M$ is an automorphism, then $\sigma \alpha$ and $\alpha \sigma$ are both morphic. In particular, every unit regular endomorphism is morphic.

Proof. By Lemma 1, choose $\beta \in end(M)$ such that $M\beta = ker(\alpha)$ and $ker(\beta) = M\alpha$. Then $M\sigma\alpha = M\alpha = ker(\beta) = ker(\beta\sigma^{-1})$, and $ker(\sigma\alpha) = (ker(\alpha))\sigma^{-1} = M(\beta\sigma^{-1})$, so $\sigma\alpha$ is morphic. Similarly, $M\alpha\sigma = (ker(\beta))\sigma = ker(\sigma^{-1}\beta)$ and $ker(\alpha\sigma) = ker(\alpha) = M\beta = M(\sigma^{-1}\beta)$, so σa is morphic.

Example 4. In Lemma 1 we cannot replace (3) by "There exists $\beta \in end(M)$ such that $M\beta = ker(\alpha)$ and $ker(\beta) \cong M\alpha$ ". Moreover, the composite of morphic endomorphisms need not be morphic.

Proof. Consider the \mathbb{Z} -module $M = \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_4$. Define $\sigma : \mathbb{Z}_2 \to \mathbb{Z}_4$ by $(n+2\mathbb{Z})\sigma = (2n+4\mathbb{Z})$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, and then define α and β in end(M) by $(x,y)\alpha = (0,x\sigma)$ and $(x,y)\beta = (0,y)$. Then $M\beta = ker(\alpha)$ and $ker\beta \cong M\alpha$, but $M/M\alpha \ncong ker(\alpha)$ so α is not morphic.

Next define $\theta: \mathbb{Z}_4 \to \mathbb{Z}_2$ by $(n+4\mathbb{Z})\theta = n+2\mathbb{Z}$. Then define $\pi: M \to M$ and $\gamma: M \to M$ by $(x,y)\pi = (x,0)$ and $(x,y)\gamma = (y\theta,x\sigma)$ where $\sigma: \mathbb{Z}_2 \to \mathbb{Z}_4$ is the above map. Then π is morphic (it is an idempotent) and γ is morphic as $M/M\gamma \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \cong ker(\gamma)$, but $\pi\gamma = \alpha$ is not morphic.

We now give a characterization of a morphic module in terms of the lattice of submodules.

Theorem 5. The following are equivalent for a module M:

- (1) M is morphic.
- (2) If $M/K \cong N$ where K and N are submodules of M, then $M/N \cong K$.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2). If $\sigma: M/K \to N$ is an isomorphism, define $\alpha: M \to M$ by $m\alpha = (m+K)\sigma$. Then $N=M\alpha$ and $K=ker(\alpha)$. By (1) there exists $\beta: M \to M$ such that $M\beta=ker(\alpha)=K$ and $ker(\beta)=M\alpha=N$. Hence $M/N=M/ker(\beta)\cong M\beta=K$, proving (2).

 $(2)\Rightarrow(1)$. Given $\alpha: {}_RM \to {}_RM$, write $K = ker(\alpha)$ and $N = M\alpha$. Hence (2) provides an isomorphism $\tau: M/N \to K$. If we define $\beta: M \to M$ by $m\beta = (m+N)\tau$, then $M\beta = K = ker(\alpha)$ and $ker(\beta) = N = M\alpha$. This proves (1).

Corollary 6. Let M be morphic and $K \subseteq M$. If $M \cong K$ then K = M; if $M \cong M/K$ then K = 0.

Proof. If $M \cong K$ then $M/0 \cong K$ so $M/K \cong 0$ by Theorem 5, that is K = M. If $M \cong M/K$ then $K \cong M/M$ by Theorem 5, so K = 0.

Corollary 6 shows that the infinite cyclic group \mathbb{Z} is not morphic as a \mathbb{Z} -module. However, \mathbb{Z}_n is morphic by Theorem 5 because finite cyclic groups are isomorphic if and only if they have the same order. We will characterize the morphic, finitely generated abelian groups in Theorem 26.

A module is called *uniserial* if its submodule lattice is a chain. Hence the Prüfer group $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\infty}}$ is uniserial, injective and artinian but it is not morphic by Corollary 6. Thus the injective hull of the (simple) morphic module \mathbb{Z}_p is not morphic.

Corollary 7. The following conditions are equivalent for a uniserial module with submodule lattice $0 = K_0 \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset \cdots \subset K_{n-2} \subset K_{n-1} \subset K_n = M$.

- (1) M is morphic.
- (2) For each $t = 0, 1, \dots, n$, if $M/K_t \cong K_{n-t}$ then $M/K_{n-t} \cong K_t$.

Proof. We have $(1)\Rightarrow(2)$ by Theorem 5. Conversely, given (2) let $M/K \cong N$, $K \subseteq M$ and $N \subseteq M$. If $K = K_t$ then $N \cong M/K_t$ so N has length n - t. Hence $N = K_{n-t}$ so, by (2), $M/N \cong K_{n-(n-t)} = K_t = K$.

A ring is called *left duo* if every left ideal is two-sided.

Proposition 8. Let $_RM$ be a uniserial module of finite length.

- (1) If every submodule of M is an image of M then M is morphic.
- (2) In particular, M is morphic if M = Rm where 1(m) is an ideal of R.
- (3) Hence every uniserial left module of finite length over a left duo ring is morphic.

Proof. (1). Let $M/K \cong N$ where $K \subseteq M$ and $N \subseteq M$, and let $\alpha : M \to K$ be epic. If M and K have lengths n and t respectively, then N and $ker(\alpha)$ both have length n-t, so $N = ker(\alpha)$ because M is uniserial. Thus $M/N = M/ker(\alpha) \cong K$, so (1) follows by Theorem 5.

(2). If $K \subseteq M$ is a submodule then K is principal (it is uniserial), say K = Rk. Then the map $\alpha : M \to K$ given by $(rm)\alpha = rk$ is well defined [if rm = 0 then, writing k = sm, we have rk = r(sm) = 0 because $rs \in 1(m)$ by hypothesis]. Hence (2) follows from (1).

(3). This follows from (2). \Box

A ring R is called *left special* if it is left morphic, local and J is nilpotent; equivalently [10, Theorem 9] if R is a uniserial module of finite length.

Corollary 9. If RR is left special then every principal left module is morphic.

Proof. Every principal module over a left uniserial ring of finite length is again uniserial of finite length, and R is left duo (indeed the only left ideals are $R \supset J \supset J^2 \supset \cdots \supset J^{n-1} \supset J^n = 0$ —see [10, Theorem 9]). Hence Proposition 8 applies

The converse of (2) in Proposition 8 is false: Take M = R/L and m = 1 + L, where L is a maximal left ideal of R that is not an ideal. The next example shows that the converse of (1) in Proposition 8 is also false.

Example 10. If D is a division ring and $R = \begin{bmatrix} D & D \\ 0 & D \end{bmatrix}$, let $M = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & D \\ 0 & D \end{bmatrix}$. Then RM is uniserial of length 2 that but not every submodule is an image.

Proof. The only proper submodule of M is $K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & D \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, so M is uniserial, and hence morphic by Example 13. But K is not an image of M since; if so $M/K \cong K$, contrary to the fact that $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ annihilates M/K but not K.

We now look at pairs of dual conditions that imply that a module of finite length is morphic.

Lemma 11. A module $_RM$ of finite length is morphic if either (1) or (2) holds:

- (1) (a) Every submodule of M is isomorphic to an image of M; and
 - (b) If length(K) = length(K') where $K, K' \subseteq M$, then $M/K \cong M/K'$.
- (2) (c) Every image of M is isomorphic to a submodule of M; and
 - (d) If length(M/K) = length(M/K') where $K, K' \subseteq M$, then $K \cong K'$.

Proof. Let $M/K \cong N$ where $K, N \subseteq M$; we show $M/N \cong K$. Write n = length(M) and t = length(K). To prove (1), write $K \cong M/N'$ by (a) where $N' \subseteq M$. Then length(N') = n - t = length(N) so $M/N \cong M/N' \cong K$ using (b). For (2), write $M/N \cong K'$ by (c) where $K' \subseteq M$. Then length(M/K') = n - t = length(M/K) so $K \cong K' \cong M/N$ using (d). \square

Note that both (b) and (d) in Lemma 11 hold in a uniserial module of finite length. The module $\mathbb{Z}M = \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3$ is morphic (as we shall see in Example 13 below) and has finite length, but (b) and (d) both fail for M.

Example 12. There exists a non-morphic module M of length 8 in which both (a) and (c) hold (and so both (b) and (d) fail).

Proof. Let $M = \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_4$. By the fundamental theorem of finite abelian groups, the only images of M are M, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$, \mathbb{Z}_2 , \mathbb{Z}_4 and 0, each is isomorphic to a submodule, and these are the only submodules. However M is not morphic. In fact, if $K = \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus 2\mathbb{Z}_4$ and $N = \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus 0$ then $M/K \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \cong N$ but $M/N \cong \mathbb{Z}_4 \ncong K$.

It follows by Lemma 11 that every homogeneous semisimple module M of finite length is morphic. In fact we will show (see Theorem 35) that every semisimple module of finite length is morphic.

Example 13. Every module M of length 2 is morphic.

Proof. Let K and N be submodules of M with $M/K \cong N$; by Theorem 5 we must show that $M/N \cong K$. Since M has length 2 this holds if K = 0, M or if N = 0, M. So we may assume that K and N are simple (and hence maximal in M). Since M has length 2 it is either uniserial or semisimple. In the first case M has submodule lattice $0 \subset P \subset M$, so K = P = N and we have $M/N = M/K \cong N = K$, as required.

On the other hand, suppose that M is semisimple, say $M = X \oplus Y$ where X and Y are simple. If $X \cong Y$ then M is homogeneous and so is morphic by Lemma 11. So assume that $X \ncong Y$. Since $K \ne M$, either $X \nsubseteq K$ or $Y \nsubseteq K$, so $M = K \oplus X$ or $M = K \oplus Y$ because K is maximal in M. We assume that $M = K \oplus X$ (the other case is analogous). Similarly, $M = N \oplus X$ or $M = N \oplus Y$. If $M = N \oplus X$ then $Y \cong M/X \cong N \cong M/K \cong X$, contrary to our assumption. So $M = N \oplus Y$ and we obtain $M/N \cong Y \cong M/X \cong K$, as required. \square

Example 14. There exists a non-morphic module M with submodule lattice $0 \subset Q \subset P \subset M$.

Proof. Let
$$R = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ 0 & a & d \\ 0 & 0 & a \end{bmatrix} \mid a,b,c \in F \right\}$$
 where F is a field. If $M = \begin{bmatrix} F \\ F \end{bmatrix}$, $P = \begin{bmatrix} F \\ F \end{bmatrix}$, and $Q = \begin{bmatrix} F \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, then $M/P \cong Q$ via $\begin{bmatrix} c \\ d \\ a \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} a \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ but $M/Q \ncong P$ because $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ annihilates M/Q but not P . It is routine to verify that $0,P,Q$ and M are the only submodules of M .

Note that \mathbb{Z}_8 and the module M in Example 14 are uniserial modules with isomorphic submodule lattices, but \mathbb{Z}_8 is morphic while M is not.

It would be interesting to see an example of a non-morphic module of finite length in which every submodule is isomorphic to an image and every image is isomorphic to a submodule. However, if the module *is* morphic (possibly not of finite length), these two conditions are equivalent, and we obtain a satisfying symmetry.

Theorem 15. The following are equivalent for a morphic module $_RM$:

- (1) Every submodule of M is isomorphic to an image of M.
- (2) Every image of M is isomorphic to a submodule of M.

In this case, the following hold:

- (a) If N and N' are submodules of M then $M/N \cong M/N'$ if and only if $N \cong N'$.
- (b) M is finitely generated if and only if M is noetherian.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2). Given $K \subseteq M$, let $K \cong M/N$ where $N \subseteq M$ by (1). Then $M/K \cong N$ because M is morphic, and (2) follows.

- $(2)\Rightarrow(1)$. Given $K\subseteq M$, let $M/K\cong N\subseteq M$ by (2). Then $M/N\cong K$ because M is morphic, so (1) is proved.
- (a). If $M/N \cong M/N'$, let $M/N \cong K \subseteq M$ by (2). Then $N \cong M/K \cong N'$ because M is morphic. Conversely, suppose $N \cong N'$ and, by (2), let $M/N \cong K \subseteq M$ and $M/N' \cong K' \subseteq M$. Since M is morphic we have $M/K \cong N \cong N' \cong M/K'$, so $K \cong K'$ as above. Hence $M/N \cong M/N'$, as required.
- (b). If M is finitely generated and $K \subseteq M$, then $K \cong M/N$ for some $N \subseteq M$ by (1). Hence K is finitely generated, and so M is noetherian.

A left morphic ring R satisfies conditions (1) and (2) in Theorem 15 if and only if every left ideal is principal, and these rings are called left P-morphic in [11]. Accordingly, we call a module **P**-morphic if it is morphic and satisfies the equivalent conditions (1) and (2) in Theorem 15.

Every simple module is P-morphic; a semisimple module is P-morphic if and only if it is morphic because conditions (1) and (2) in Theorem 15 are automatic. The \mathbb{Z} -module \mathbb{Z}_n is P-morphic because it is morphic by Example and, if $K \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_n$ is a subgroup, |K| = m, then \mathbb{Z}_n has a subgroup N with |N| = n/m so $K \cong \mathbb{Z}_n/N$. On the other hand, the module M in Example 10 is a uniserial, morphic module of length 2 that is not P-morphic.

2. Matrix Rings

It is an open problem to determine when $M_n(R)$ is left morphic. With an eye on this question, we examine the relationship between R-modules and modules over the matrix ring $M_n(R)$. The free module R^n plays a basic role. We assume that n=2 for convenience.

Write $S = M_2(R)$. If $K \subseteq S$ is a left ideal then K has the form $K = \begin{pmatrix} X \\ X \end{pmatrix}$ where $_RX\subseteq _RR^2$ is given by $X=\{\bar{x}\in R^2\mid \left[\begin{array}{c} \bar{x}\\0\end{array}\right]\in K\}$. In fact, $X\mapsto \left[\begin{array}{c} X\\X\end{array}\right]$ is a lattice isomorphism from the left R-submodules of R^2 to the left ideals of S. Given $_RM$, $\begin{bmatrix} M \\ M \end{bmatrix}$ is a left S-module via matrix multiplication. If $\alpha: {}_RM \to {}_RN$ the map $\left[egin{array}{c} \alpha \\ \alpha \end{array} \right]: \left[egin{array}{c} M \\ M \end{array} \right] \to \left[egin{array}{c} N \\ N \end{array} \right]$ is S-linear where $\begin{bmatrix} m_1 \\ m_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} m_1 \alpha \\ m_2 \alpha \end{bmatrix}$. Moreover, every S-linear map $\lambda : \begin{bmatrix} M \\ M \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} N \\ N \end{bmatrix}$ has this form. Indeed, if $m \in M$ then $\begin{bmatrix} m \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \lambda = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \lambda \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} m\alpha \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ for some element $m\alpha \in N$, and this defines an R-morphism $\alpha : {}_RM \rightarrow {}_RN$. Now observe that $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ m \end{bmatrix} \lambda = \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} m\alpha \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m\alpha \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ for all $m \in M$, and it follows that $\lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix}$. Clearly $\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix}$ is one-to-one or onto if and only if the same is true of α .

Lemma 16. Let $K = \begin{bmatrix} X \\ X \end{bmatrix}$ and $N = \begin{bmatrix} Y \\ Y \end{bmatrix}$ denote left ideals of $S = M_2(R)$. Then: (1) $S/K \cong \begin{bmatrix} R^2/X \\ R^2/X \end{bmatrix}$. (2) $S/K \cong N$ as S-modules if and only if $R^2/X \cong Y$ as R-modules.

Proof. The map $\theta: S \to \left[\begin{array}{c} R^2/X \\ R^2/X \end{array} \right]$ given by $\left[\begin{array}{c} \bar{p} \\ \bar{q} \end{array} \right] \mapsto \left[\begin{array}{c} \bar{p}+X \\ \bar{q}+X \end{array} \right]$ is an S-morphism with kernel $\left[\begin{array}{c} X \\ X \end{array} \right]$. This proves (1). Hence $S/K \cong N$ if and only if $\left[\begin{array}{c} R^2/X \\ R^2/X \end{array} \right] \cong \left[\begin{array}{c} Y \\ Y \end{array} \right]$; if and only if $R^2/X \cong Y$. This proves (2).

Lemma 17. Let R be a ring and write $S = M_n(R)$.

- (1) Every left ideal of S is isomorphic to an image of S if and only if every submodule of $_{R}R^{n}$ is isomorphic to an image of $_{R}R^{n}$.
- (2) Every image of S is isomorphic to a left ideal of S if and only if every image of $_RR^n$ is isomorphic to a submodule of $_RR^n$.

Proof. We prove the result for n=2; the general case is analogous. Assume that left ideals of S are images of S. If $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and we write $K = \begin{bmatrix} X \\ X \end{bmatrix}$ then $K \cong S/N$ for some $N = \begin{bmatrix} Y \\ Y \end{bmatrix} \subseteq S$, so $X \cong \mathbb{R}^n/Y$. This proves half of (1); the converse is similar as is the proof of (2).

Theorem 18. Let R be a ring.

- (1) $_{R}R^{n}$ is morphic if and only if $M_{n}(R)$ is left morphic.
- (2) ${}_{R}R^{n}$ is P-morphic if and only if $M_{n}(R)$ is left P-morphic.

Proof. We prove it for n = 2; the general case is analogous.

- (1). If ${}_RR^2$ is morphic, let $K = \left[\begin{array}{c} X \\ X \end{array} \right]$ and $N = \left[\begin{array}{c} Y \\ Y \end{array} \right]$ be left ideals of $S = M_2(R)$ such that $K \cong S/N$. Then $X \cong R^2/Y$ by Lemma 16, so $Y \cong R^2/X$ by hypothesis, whence $N \cong S/K$. Hence S is left morphic, and the converse is similar.
- (2). If ${}_RR^2$ is P-morphic then $S=M_2(R)$ is left morphic by (1). If ${}_RR^2$ is P-morphic, let $K=\left[egin{array}{c} X \\ X \end{array} \right]$ be a left ideal of S, where $X\subseteq R^2$. Then $X\cong R^2/Y$ for some $Y\subseteq R^2$ by hypothesis. If we write $N=\left[egin{array}{c} Y \\ Y \end{array} \right]$ then $S/N\cong K$, proving that S is left P-morphic. The converse is similar.

The property of being left morphic (or being left P-morphic) does not pass to matrix rings. In fact, Example 7 of [11] exhibits a left and right artinian, left P-morphic ring R such that $M_2(R)$ is not left morphic. Accordingly, the following classes of rings are of interest. A ring R is called **strongly left morphic** (respectively **strongly left P-morphic**) if every matrix ring $M_n(R)$ is left morphic (respectively left P-morphic).

Direct products of strongly left morphic rings, and finite direct products of strongly left P-morphic rings, are again of the same type by [10, Example 2] and [11, Example 3], respectively, using the canonical isomorphism $M_n(\Pi_i R_i) \cong \Pi_i M_n(R_i)$.

Every unit regular ring is strongly left morphic (unit regularity is a Morita invariant by [8, Corollary 3]). However:

Question. If a ring R is strongly left morphic and J(R) = 0, is R unit regular?

Call a ring R left special if R is local, left morphic and J=J(R) is nilpotent (see [10, Theorem 9]). Then the left and right special rings are all strongly P-morphic by [11, Theorem 15]. Note that Example 7 of [11] is actually a left special ring R for which $M_2(R)$ is not left morphic.

Theorem 19. The following are equivalent for a ring R:

- (1) R is strongly left morphic (respectively strongly left P-morphic).
- (2) $_RR^n$ is morphic (respectively P-morphic) for each $n \geq 1$.
- (3) Every finitely generated projective left R-module is morphic (respectively P-morphic).

Proof. $(1)\Leftrightarrow(2)$ by Theorem 18 and $(2)\Leftrightarrow(3)$ because direct summands of morphic or P-morphic modules are again of the same type (Theorem 23 below).

Theorem 20. Let R denote a ring.

- (1) If R is strongly left morphic the same is true of eRe for any idempotent $e \in R$.
- (2) Being strongly left morphic is a Morita invariant.

Proof. Write $S = M_n(R)$.

- (1). If R is strongly left morphic and $e^2 = e \in R$, write $\overline{e} = eI \in S$ where I is the identity matrix. Then $M_n(eRe) = \overline{e}S\overline{e}$ is left morphic by [10, Theorem 15] because S is left morphic. Hence eRe is is strongly left morphic.
- (2). If R is strongly left morphic then $M_m(S) \cong M_{mn}(R)$ is left morphic for all $m \geq 1$ by hypothesis. Hence S is strongly left morphic, and we are done by (1).

We do not know if part (1) of Theorem 20 holds for strongly left P-morphic rings because we do not know the answer to:

Question. If R is left P-morphic and ReR = R where $e^2 = e$, is eRe left P-morphic?

Note that Re is a P-morphic module by Theorem 23.

A ring R is said to be stably finite if $M_n(R)$ is directly finite for every $n \ge 1$. Hence every strongly left morphic ring is stably finite by Corollary 2 because $M_n(R)$ is morphic.

Theorem 21. A ring R is strongly left morphic and semiperfect if and only if R is a finite product of matrix rings over local, strongly left morphic rings.

Proof. This follows from [10, Theorem 29] and the fact that $M_n(R)$ is strongly left morphic if R is local and strongly left morphic.

Question. If $M_2(R)$ is left morphic, is R strongly left morphic?

A ring R is called right FP-injective if every R-morphism from a finitely generated submodule of a free right R-module F to R extends to F. Every strongly left morphic ring R is right FP-injective by [14, Theorem 1] because every left morphic ring is right P-injective by [10, Theorem 24]. (Here a ring R is called right P-injective [12] if every R-morphism $aR \to R$, $a \in R$, extends to R, equivalently if aR is a right annihilator for each $a \in R$.)

Example 22. There exists a commutative, local, FP-injective ring R with $J^3 = 0$ and J^2 simple and essential in R, but which is not morphic.

Proof. Let $R = F[x_1, x_2, \cdots]$ where F is a field and the x_i are commuting indeterminants satisfying the relations

$$x_i^3 = 0$$
 for all i , $x_i x_j = 0$ for all $i \neq j$, and $x_i^2 = x_j^2$ for all i and j .

Write $m = x_1^2 = x_2^2 = \cdots$, so that $m^2 = 0 = x_i m$ for all i. Then R is commutative and $J = span_F\{m, x_1, x_2, \cdots\}$, so R is local, $R/J \cong F$, $J^3 = 0$ and $J^2 = Rm = Fm$ is simple and essential in R (see also [2, Example 6]). Moreover, R is P-injective; in fact lr(A) = A for every ideal A. This follows from the

Claim. If we denote $X = span_F\{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$, the maps $A \mapsto A \cap X$ and $U \mapsto Fm \oplus U$ are mutually inverse lattice isomorphisms between the lattice of all ideals $A \neq 0$, R of R and the lattice of all F-subspaces U of X.

Proof. Observe first that $Fm \oplus U$ is an ideal for each U because $(Fm \oplus U)R \subseteq FmR + UR \subseteq Fm + (UF + mF) \subseteq Fm + U$. The composites of the given maps are $U \mapsto Fm \oplus U \mapsto (Fm \oplus U) \cap X = U$ because $U \subseteq X$, and $A \mapsto A \cap X \mapsto Fm \oplus (A \cap X) = A$ by the modular law because $Fm \subseteq A \subseteq J = Fm \oplus X$. Hence the two maps are mutually inverse; they clearly preserve inclusions. This proves the Claim. Note that $J = Fm \oplus X$.

The Claim also shows that R is not morphic since otherwise R is special and has only finitely many ideals. R is FP-injective by [13, Example 5.45].

3. Direct Sums

The classes of morphic and P-morphic modules are not closed under taking direct sums. In fact The \mathbb{Z} -modules \mathbb{Z}_2 and \mathbb{Z}_4 are both P-morphic but $\mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_4$ is not even morphic by Example 4. However we do have

Theorem 23. Every direct summand of a morphic or P-morphic module is again of the same type.

Proof. Let $M = P \oplus Q$ be morphic, and suppose that $P/K \cong N$ where $K \subseteq P$ and $N \subseteq P$. Then $M/K \cong (P/K) \oplus Q \cong N \oplus Q$, so (as M is morphic) $K \cong M/(N \oplus Q) \cong P/N$. Hence P is morphic by Theorem 5.

Now assume that $M=P\oplus Q$ is P-morphic. Let $N\subseteq P$ be a submodule; we must show that N is an image of P. As M is P-morphic, $M/(N\oplus 0)$ is isomorphic to a submodule of M by Theorem 15, say $M/(N\oplus 0)\cong H\subseteq M$. Since M is morphic, this gives $M/H\cong N\oplus 0\cong N$, so it suffices to show that M/H is an image of P. Observe that $H\cong M/(N\oplus 0)\cong (P/N)\oplus Q$, so write $H=H_1\oplus Q_1$ where $Q_1\cong Q$. Now $(M/Q_1)/(H/Q_1)\cong M/H\cong N$ so N is an image of M/Q_1 . Hence it suffices to show that $M/Q_1\cong P$. But M is P-morphic so the fact that $Q\cong Q_1$ gives $M/Q\cong M/Q_1$ by Theorem 15, so $P\cong M/Q_1$, as required. \square

Lemma 24. Let $M = K \oplus N$ be a morphic module. If $\lambda : K \to N$ is R-linear then $K \oplus (N/K\lambda) \cong ker(\lambda) \oplus N$.

In particular:

- (1) If λ is monic then $N \cong K \oplus (N/K\lambda)$.
- (2) If λ is epic then $K \cong ker(\lambda) \oplus N$.

Hence if K is isomorphic to either a submodule or an image of N then K is isomorphic to a direct summand of N.

Proof. Given λ define $\overline{\lambda}: M \to M$ by $(k+n)\overline{\lambda} = k\lambda$ for all $k+n \in M$. Then $M\overline{\lambda} = K\lambda$ and $ker(\overline{\lambda}) = ker(\lambda) \oplus N$. Since M is morphic we have $M/M\overline{\lambda} \cong ker(\overline{\lambda})$, that is $K \oplus (N/K\lambda) \cong ker(\lambda) \oplus N$. Now (1) and (2) are immediate. As to the last sentence: If K is isomorphic to a submodule of N then K is isomorphic to a direct summand of N by (1); If K is isomorphic to an image of N then K is isomorphic to a direct summand of N by (2) with K and N interchanged.

We can refine Lemma 24 as follows: If $M = K \oplus N$ is morphic and $X \subseteq K$, then

$$K/X \cong N$$
 if and only if $K \cong X \oplus N$.

In fact, $K/X \cong M/(X \oplus N)$, so $K/X \cong N \Leftrightarrow M/(X \oplus N) \cong N \Leftrightarrow M/N \cong X \oplus N \Leftrightarrow K \cong X \oplus N$.

We conclude with a consequence of Theorems 23 and 19 characterizing the morphic, finitely generated abelian groups. The following will be needed.

Lemma 25. If $_RM$ and $_RN$ are morphic modules for which $hom_R(M,N)=0=hom_R(N,M)$, then $M\oplus N$ is morphic.

Proof. If $\lambda \in end(M \oplus N)$ then $\lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \beta \end{bmatrix}$ in matrix form where $\alpha \in end(M)$ and $\beta \in end(N)$. If $\alpha' \in end(M)$ and $\beta' \in end(N)$ satisfy $M\alpha = ker(\alpha')$, $ker(\alpha) = M\alpha'$, $M\beta = ker(\beta')$, $ker(\beta) = M\beta'$ then $im(\lambda) = ker(\lambda')$ and $ker(\lambda) = im(\lambda')$ where $\lambda' = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha' & 0 \\ 0 & \beta' \end{bmatrix}$. \square

Applying the fundamental theorem of finitely generated abelian groups, we obtain

Theorem 26. A finitely generated abelian group is morphic if and only if it is finite and each p-primary component has the form $(\mathbb{Z}_{p^k})^n$ for some $n \geq 0$ and $k \geq 0$.

Proof. If $\mathbb{Z}M$ is finitely generated and morphic, then M is a direct sum of cyclic groups, and contains no infinite summand by Theorem 23 because \mathbb{Z} is not morphic. Hence M is finite and so is the direct sum of its primary components. If M_p is the p-primary component of M then $M_p \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_2}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_n}}$ where $m_1 \geq m_2 \geq \cdots \geq m_s$. But if $m_i > m_{i+1}$ then $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_i}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_{i+1}}}$ is not morphic by Lemma 24 because $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_{i+1}}}$ is indecomposable and $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_i}}$ embeds in it. This contradicts Theorem 23, and so shows that $M \cong (\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_1}})^n$.

Conversely, by Lemma 25 it suffices to show that $(\mathbb{Z}_{p^k})^n$ is morphic for each $n \geq 0$ and $k \geq 0$. The ring $S = \mathbb{Z}_{p^k}$ is (left and right) special so $M_n(S)$ is left morphic by [10, Theorem 17]. Hence S^n is morphic as a left S-module by Theorem 19, and hence as a left \mathbb{Z} -module.

We remark in passing that, for integers $n \ge 1$ and $m \ge 1$, $\mathbb{Z}_m \oplus \mathbb{Z}_n$ is morphic if and only if m = da and n = db where gcd(d, a) = 1, gcd(d, b) = 1, and gcd(a, b) = 1

4. Endomorphism Rings

The original motivation for studying morphic modules stems from Erlich's theorem characterizing when an endomorphism α is unit regular. This is included in the next lemma (along with Azumaya's characterization of when α is regular) and reveals the connection with morphic endomorphisms. We sketch brief proofs for completeness.

Lemma 27. Let α be an endomorphism of $_RM$.

- (1) **Azumaya** [1]. α is regular if and only if both $M\alpha$ and $ker(\alpha)$ are direct summands of M.
- (2) **Ehrlich** [5]. α is unit regular if and only if it is both regular and morphic.

Proof. (1) If $M = M\alpha \oplus K = ker(\alpha) \oplus N$ then $M\alpha = N\alpha$ so $M = N\alpha \oplus K$. Then $\alpha\beta\alpha = \alpha$ where $\beta: M \to M$ is (well-) defined by $(n\alpha + k)\beta = n, n \in N, k \in K$. The converse is routine.

(2) If α is unit regular it is morphic by Example 3. Conversely, if $M = M\alpha \oplus K = N \oplus ker(\alpha)$ then $K \cong M/M\alpha \cong ker(\alpha)$ because α is morphic, say via $\gamma : K \to ker(\alpha)$. We have $M = N\alpha \oplus K$ as in (1), and we define $\sigma : M \to M$ by $(n\alpha + k)\sigma = n + k\gamma$, $n \in N$, $k \in K$. Then σ is well defined, $M\sigma = N + K\gamma = N + ker(\alpha) = M$, and $ker(\sigma) = 0$ because γ is monic, so σ is a unit in end(M). Finally, $\alpha\sigma\alpha = \alpha$ because they agree on $ker(\alpha)$ and N.

Example 28. If end(M) is unit regular then M is morphic.

Zelmanowitz [15] calls a module $_RM$ regular if for any $m \in M$ there exists $\lambda \in M^* = hom_R(M,R)$ such that $(m\lambda)m = m$. In this case, if we write $e = m\lambda$, then $e^2 = e$, $\lambda : Rm \to Re$ is an isomorphism (so Rm is projective), and $M = Rm \oplus W$ where $w = \{w \in M \mid (w\lambda)m = 0\}$. Zelmanowitz proves [15, Theorem 1.6] that every finitely generated submodule of a regular module M is a projective direct summand of M. Our interest lies in a larger class of modules wherein every principal submodule Rm, $m \in M$, is a direct summand of M (equivalently [15, Corollary 1.3] if every finitely generated submodule is a summand).

Proposition 29. Let M be a finitely generated module in which every principal submodule is a direct summand. Then M is morphic if and only if end(M) is unit regular. In particular, every finite dimensional, regular module M is morphic.

Proof. If M is morphic and $\alpha \in end(M)$, then $M\alpha$ is a summand by [15, Corollary 1.3]. Since M is morphic, we have $ker(\alpha) \cong M/M\alpha$ so $ker(\alpha)$ is finitely generated, and so is a summand. Hence α is regular in end(M), and so is unit regular by Lemma 27. The converse also follows from Lemma 27. If M is finite dimensional then M is finitely generated (the proof of [15, Theorem 1.8] goes through), so the last statement follows by Example 28 because end(M) is semisimple artinian by [15, Theorem 4.8].

Corollary 30. Let M be a finitely generated module over a commutative ring. Then M is regular and morphic if and only if M is projective and end(M) is unit regular.

Proof. If M is regular and finitely generated then M is projective by [15, Corollary 1.7] and end(M) is unit regular by Proposition 29. Conversely, if M is projective and end(M) is unit regular then M is regular (by [15, Theorem 3.8]) and morphic (by Proposition 29).

A module $_RM$ will be called **image-projective** if, whenever $M\gamma \subseteq M\alpha$ where $\alpha, \gamma \in E = end(M)$, then $\gamma \in E\alpha$, that is if the map δ exists in the

diagram when α and γ are given. If we insist on this whenever $M\alpha$ is replaced by an arbitrary module (equivalently any quotient of M) the module M is called quasi-projective.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & M \\
 & \swarrow & \downarrow \gamma \\
 & M & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & M\alpha & \to 0
\end{array}$$

Hence every quasi-projective module $_RM$ is image-projective. In a different direction, [12, Theorem 1.5] shows that $_RM$ is

image-projective if E = end(M) is right P-injective, and that the converse holds if M cogenerates $M/M\beta$ for every $\beta \in E$.

A module M is said to generate a submodule $K \subseteq M$ if $K = \Sigma\{M\lambda \mid \lambda \in E, M\lambda \subseteq K\}$, and we say that M generates its kernels if M generates $ker(\beta)$ for each $\beta \in E$.

Lemma 31. Let $_RM$ be a module and write $E = end(_RM)$.

- (1) If E is left morphic then M is image-projective.
- (2) If M is morphic and image-projective, then E is left morphic.
- (3) If M is morphic then it generates its kernels.
- (4) If E is left morphic and M generates its kernels, then M is morphic.
- **Proof.** (1). Assume that E is left morphic. If $M\gamma \subseteq M\alpha$ then $\mathbf{r}_E(\alpha) \subseteq \mathbf{r}_E(\gamma)$, so $E\gamma \subseteq E\alpha$ because E is right P-injective by hypothesis using [10, Theorem 24].
- (2). If M is morphic and image-projective, and given $\alpha \in E$, choose (by hypothesis) $\beta \in E$ such that $M\alpha = ker(\beta)$ and $M\beta = ker(\alpha)$. Then $E\alpha \subseteq 1_E(\beta)$ because $\alpha\beta = 0$. Conversely, if $\gamma \in 1_E(\beta)$ then $M\gamma \subseteq ker(\beta) = M\alpha$, so $\gamma \in E\alpha$ because M is image-projective. Thus $E\alpha = 1_E(\beta)$, and $E\beta = 1_E(\alpha)$ follows in the same way. Hence E is left morphic by [10, Lemma 1].
- (3). Let $\beta \in E$. Since M is morphic, choose $\lambda \in E$ such that $M\lambda = ker(\beta)$. This proves that M generates its kernels.
- (4). If E is left morphic and M generates its kernels, and given $\alpha \in E$, choose $\beta \in E$ such that $E\alpha = \mathbf{1}_E(\beta)$ and $E\beta = \mathbf{1}_E(\alpha)$. Then $M\alpha \subseteq ker(\beta)$ because $\alpha\beta = 0$. By hypothesis we have $ker(\beta) = \Sigma\{M\lambda \mid \lambda \in E \text{ and } M\lambda \subseteq ker(\beta)\}$. But $M\lambda \subseteq ker(\beta)$ implies $\lambda \in \mathbf{1}_E(\beta) = E\alpha$, say $\lambda = \gamma\alpha$, $\gamma \in E$. Hence $M\lambda = M\gamma\alpha \subseteq M\alpha$, whence $ker(\beta) \subseteq M\alpha$. This shows that $M\alpha = ker(\beta)$, and $M\beta = ker(\alpha)$ is proved in the same way.

Combining these we get a characterization of the image-projective, morphic modules.

Theorem 32. The following are equivalent for a module M:

- (1) M is morphic and image-projective.
- (2) end(M) is left morphic and M generates its kernels.

Proof. $(1)\Rightarrow(2)$ by (2) and (3) of Lemma 31, and $(2)\Rightarrow(1)$ by (4) and (1) of Lemma 31. \square

Let R be a ring. Since R^n is image-projective and generates its submodules, taking $M = R^n$ in Theorem 32 provides another proof of the fact (in Theorem 18) that $M_n(R)$ is left morphic if and only if R^n is morphic as a left R-module.

If every principal submodule of a module $_RM$ is a direct summand, it is routine to check that M generates all its submodules. Hence Theorem 32 gives

Corollary 33. Assume that $Rm \subseteq^{\oplus} M$ for all $m \in {}_RM$ (for example if M is regular). Then M is morphic and image-projective if and only if end(M) is left morphic.

Corollary 34. Let $_RM$ be a module and assume that E = end(M) is regular. Then M is morphic and image-projective if and only if E is unit regular.

Proof. If M is morphic and image-projective then E is morphic by Theorem 32. Since E is regular, it is unit regular by Lemma 27. Conversely, if E is unit regular then M is morphic by Example 3. But E is left morphic by Lemma 27, so M is image-projective by Lemma 31.

We can say more for a semisimple module.

Theorem 35. The following are equivalent for a semisimple module M:

- (1) M is morphic.
- (2) end(M) is unit regular.
- (3) Each homogeneous component of M is artinian.

In this case end(M) is a direct product of matrix rings over division rings.

Proof. Write E = end(M) and $E_i = end(H_i)$ where $\{H_i \mid i \in I\}$ are the homogeneous components of M. Then $E \cong \Pi_i E_i$.

- $(1)\Rightarrow(2)$. Assume that M is morphic. Since M is image-projective (every semisimple module is quasi-projective), E is left morphic by Lemma 31. Now (2) follows by Lemma 27 because E is regular (M is semisimple).
- $(2)\Rightarrow(3)$. Note that $end(H_i)$ is left morphic for each i by (2) and Lemma 27. If $H_i=K\oplus K\oplus\cdots$ where K is simple, then $(k_1,k_2,\cdots)\mapsto(0,k_1,k_2,\cdots)$ is monic in $end(H_i)$ and not epic, contrary to Corollary 2. This proves (3).
- $(3)\Rightarrow(1)$. Given (3) the last statement follows because $E\cong\Pi_iE_i$. In particular E is unit regular, and hence left morphic. But M generates its kernels because end(M) is regular, so M is morphic by Lemma 31.

Proposition 36. A ring R is semisimple artinian if and only if every finitely generated (respectively every 2-generated) left module is morphic.

Proof. If R is semisimple artinian then every module is semisimple, so Theorem 35 applies. Conversely, let $X \subseteq R$ be a left ideal and let $\lambda : R \to R/X$ be the coset map. Since $M = R \oplus (R/X)$ is morphic by hypothesis, Lemma 24 shows that $R \cong X \oplus (R/X)$. In particular, R/X is projective so X is a direct summand of R. It follows that R is semisimple artinian.

Note that Corollary 9 shows that if R is left uniserial of finite length then every principal left R-module is morphic, but the converse is false (consider \mathbb{Z}_n).

Question. Which rings have every principal left module morphic?

Call a module M kernel-direct if $ker(\alpha) \subseteq^{\oplus} M$ for every $\alpha \in end(M)$, and call M image-direct if $im(\alpha) \subseteq^{\oplus} M$ for each $\alpha \in end(M)$. Modules with regular endomorphism ring (and hence all semisimple modules) enjoy both properties. Note that, by Lemma 1, a morphic module is kernel direct if and only if it is image direct. We can give a partial converse for Example 28.

Theorem 37. The following are equivalent for a module M:

- (1) end(M) is unit regular.
- (2) M is morphic and kernel-direct.
- (3) M is morphic and image-direct.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2). Given (1), M is morphic by Example 28 and kernel direct by Lemma 27. (2) \Rightarrow (3). Given $\alpha \in end(M)$, then $M\alpha = ker(\beta)$ for some $\beta \in end(M)$ by Lemma 1.

 $(3)\Rightarrow(1)$. Given $\alpha\in end(M)$, $M\alpha$ is a summand of M by (3), as is $ker(\alpha)$ (since $ker(\alpha)=M\beta$ for some $\beta\in end(M)$). Hence end(M) is regular by (1) of Lemma 27, so it is unit regular by (2) of the same lemma.

If R is a ring then ${}_RR$ is image direct if and only if R is regular, so Theorem 37 shows again that the unit regular rings are just the regular, left morphic rings. On the other hand, ${}_RR$ is kernel-direct if and only if $\mathfrak{1}(a) \subseteq^{\oplus} {}_RR$ for all $a \in R$, that is if and only if every principal left ideal Ra is projective. These are called left PP rings, and Theorem 37 gives

Corollary 38. A ring R is unit regular if and only if it is a left morphic, left PP ring.

Corollary 39. The following are equivalent for a finite dimensional module M:

- (1) M is morphic and kernel-direct.
- (2) M is morphic and image-direct.
- (3) end(M) is semisimple artinian.

Proof. We have seen $(1)\Leftrightarrow(2)$, and these conditions imply that E=end(M) is semilocal by Corollary 2 and the Camps-Dicks theorem [4]. Now (3) follows because E is unit regular by Theorem 37. Conversely, given (3), M is morphic by Example 28, and hence kernel-direct by Lemma 27.

Lemma 40. Every kernel-direct module is image-projective.

Proof. Let $M\beta \subseteq M\alpha$ where α and β are in end(M). Write $M = ker(\alpha) \oplus N$. Hence $M\alpha = N\alpha$ so $\sigma: M\alpha \to N$ is well defined by $(n\alpha)\sigma = n, n \in N$. Then $M \xrightarrow{\beta} M\beta \subseteq M\alpha = N\alpha \xrightarrow{\sigma} N \subseteq M$ so $\lambda = \beta\sigma$ is in end(M) and $\lambda\alpha = \beta$. This shows that M is image-projective. \square

Since kernel-direct modules generate their kernels, Theorem 32 gives

Corollary 41. If M is kernel-direct then M is morphic if and only if end(M) is left morphic.

We conclude this section with a look at when $end(_RM)$ is right morphic. We call a module $_RM$ image-injective if R-linear maps $M\beta \to M$ extend to M for each $\beta \in end(_RM)$, and we say that M cogenerates its cokernels if it cogenerates $M/M\beta$ for each $\beta \in end(_RM)$. Note that $_RR$ is image-injective if and only if R is left P-injective, and $_RR$ cogenerates its cokernels if and only if R is right P-injective. With this, we can obtain "dual" versions of Lemma 31 and Theorem 32.

Lemma 42. Let $_RM$ be a module and write $E = end(_RM)$.

- (1) If E is right morphic then M is image-injective.
- (2) If M is morphic and image-injective, then E is right morphic.
- (3) If M is morphic then it cogenerates its cokernels.
- (4) If E is right morphic and M cogenerates its cokernels, then M is morphic.
- **Proof.** (1). Let $\gamma: M\beta \to M$, $\beta \in E$. Then $\lambda = \beta \gamma \in E$ and $1_E(\beta) \subseteq 1_E(\lambda)$, so $\lambda \in \beta E$ because E is left P-injective, say $\lambda = \beta \alpha$. Hence $(m\beta)\alpha = m\lambda = (m\beta)\gamma$, so α extends γ .
- (2). Let $\alpha \in E$. Since M is morphic, choose $\beta \in E$ such that $M\beta = \ker(\alpha)$ and $M\alpha = \ker(\beta)$. Then $\beta E \subseteq \mathbf{r}_E(\alpha)$, and we claim that this is equality. If $\lambda \in \mathbf{r}_E(\alpha)$ then $M\alpha \subseteq \ker(\lambda)$, that is $\ker(\beta) \subseteq \ker(\lambda)$. Hence $\gamma : M\beta \to M$ is well defined by $(m\beta)\gamma = m\lambda$. By hypothesis, let $\delta \in E$ extend γ . Then $\lambda = \beta \delta \in \beta E$, and we have shown that $\beta E = \mathbf{r}_E(\alpha)$. The proof that $\alpha E = \mathbf{r}_E(\beta)$ is similar.
- (3). Given $\beta \in E$, let $\alpha \in E$ satisfy $M\beta = ker(\alpha)$. Then $\gamma : M/M\beta \to M$ is well defined by $(m + M\beta)\gamma = m\alpha$. Moreover, if $m_1 + M\beta \neq 0$ then $m_1 \notin M\beta = ker(\alpha)$, so $(m_1 + M\beta)\gamma = m_1\alpha \neq 0$. This proves (3).
- (4). Let $\alpha \in E$. Since E is right morphic, there exists $\beta \in E$ such that $\beta E = \mathbf{r}_E(\alpha)$ and $\alpha E = \mathbf{r}_E(\beta)$. Then $M\beta \subseteq \ker(\alpha)$ and we claim this is equality. If $k \in \ker(\alpha)$ but $k \notin M\beta$ then, by hypothesis, choose $\gamma : M/M\beta \to M$ such that $(k + M\beta)\gamma \neq 0$. If $\delta \in E$ is defined by $m\delta = (m + M\beta)\gamma$ then $\beta\delta = 0$ so $\delta \in \mathbf{r}_E(\beta) = \alpha E$, say $\delta = \alpha\lambda$ where $\lambda \in E$. But then $0 \neq k\delta = k\alpha\lambda = 0\lambda = 0$; and it follows that $M\beta = \ker(\alpha)$. Similarly, $M\alpha = \ker(\beta)$.

Theorem 43. The following are equivalent for a module $_RM$.

- (1) M is morphic and image-injective.
- (2) end(M) is right morphic and M cogenerates its cokernels.

If R is left and right P-injective and we take $M={}_RR$ then this shows (again) that R is left morphic if and only if R is right morphic. Note finally that the "dual" of Lemma 40 (every kernel-direct module is image-projective) is true: Every image-direct module is clearly image-injective.

5. Internal Cancellation

A module $_RM$ is said to have **internal cancellation** (**IC**) if it satisfies the following condition:

If
$$M = N \oplus K = N_1 \oplus K_1$$
 and $N \cong N_1$, then $K \cong K_1$.

Each indecomposable module M has IC, and we have

Proposition 44. Every direct summand of an IC module has IC.

Proof. If $M = N \oplus K$ has IC, let $N = N_1 \oplus N_2 = N' \oplus N''$ where $N_1 \cong N'$. Then $M = (N_1 \oplus K) \oplus N_2 = (N' \oplus K) \oplus N''$ where $N_1 \oplus K \cong N' \oplus K$. Hence $N_2 \cong N''$ by hypothesis, as required.

We say that a ring R has **left internal cancellation** (**left IC**) if R has IC. This holds if and only if $Re \cong Rf$, $e^2 = e$, $f^2 = f$, implies that $R(1 - e) \cong R(1 - f)$. In this case, we have $f = u^{-1}eu$ for some unit $u \in R$.

If $\pi^2 = \pi$ and $\tau^2 = \tau$ in $E = end(_RM)$, it is routine to verify that $M\pi \cong M\tau$ as R-modules if and only if $E\pi \cong E\tau$ as left E-ideals. It follows that $_RM$ has IC if and only if $E = end(_RM)$ has left IC. Hence Proposition 44 gives

Corollary 45. If R has left IC then eRe has left IC for every idempotent $e \in R$.

Goodearl [7, Theorem 4.1] shows that for a module M with end(M) regular, internal cancellation is equivalent to end(M) being unit regular. In fact

Theorem 46. A module $_RM$ has IC if and only if every regular element in $end(_RM)$ is morphic.

Proof. If M has IC let α be regular in end(M), so that $M = M\alpha \oplus K = ker(\alpha) \oplus N$. Then $M\alpha \cong M/ker(\alpha) \cong N$ so $K \cong ker(\alpha)$. Hence $M/M\alpha \cong K \cong ker(\alpha)$, proving (2). Conversely, if $M = N \oplus K = N_1 \oplus K_1$ and $\gamma : N \to N_1$ is an isomorphism, define $\alpha : M \to M$ by $(n+k)\alpha = n\gamma$, $n \in N$, $k \in K$. Then $M\alpha = N\gamma = N_1$ and $ker(\alpha) = K$ are both summands of R. Thus α is regular in end(RM) (using Lemma 27) and so our hypothesis gives $M/M\alpha \cong ker(\alpha)$. Hence $K_1 \cong M/N_1 = M/M\alpha \cong ker(\alpha) = K$, as required. \square

Corollary 47. Every morphic module has IC.

The converse to of Corollary 47 is false: Every local ring has left (and right) IC, but need not be left morphic. In fact $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$ is a counterexample that is a local integral domain, and Example 22 shows that the counterexample can actually be chosen to be commutative and P-injective. For an artinian example, the \mathbb{Z} -module $\mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_4$ can be verified to have IC but is not morphic by Example 4.

Corollary 48. Given $_RM$, end(M) is unit regular if and only if M has IC and end(M) is regular.

Proof. If end(M) is unit regular then M has IC by Theorem 46. Conversely, if M has IC and end(M) is regular then end(M) is morphic by Theorem 46, and so is unit regular by Lemma 27.

The next result extends Theorem 35.

Corollary 49. A semisimple module is morphic if and only if it has IC.

Proof. If M has IC, let N and K be submodules with $M/K \cong N$. Since M is semisimple let $M = K \oplus K' = N \oplus N'$. Then $N \cong M/K \cong K'$ so, because M has IC, $K \cong N' \cong M/N$. Hence M is morphic. The converse is by Corollary 48.

A ring R is said to have stable range 1 if aR+bR=R implies that a+bt is a unit in R for some t. Evans [6] showed that if end(M) has stable range 1 then M is cancellable in the sense that $M \oplus A \cong M \oplus B$ implies $A \cong B$. Camillo and Yu [3, Theorem 3] show that an exchange ring R has stable range 1 if and only if every regular element of R is unit regular (extending the same result of Kaplansky in the regular case).

Theorem 50. A morphic module is cancellable if it is either injective or has the finite exchange property.

Proof. Let M be a morphic module. If M is injective then end(M) is right morphic by Theorem 43, and so is directly finite by Corollary 2. This means that M is directly finite ([7, Lemma 5.1]) and so is cancellable by Mohamed and Müller [9, Proposition 1.29]. Now suppose that M has the finite exchange property. Since M has IC by Corollary 47, it is cancellable by Mohamed and Müller [9, Proposition 1.23].

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