
P.J. Hilton
U.Stammbach

A Course in Homological Algebra

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P. J. Hilton U.Stammbach

## A Course in

 Homological Algebra

## Peter John Hilton

Professor of Mathematics, University of Washington and Battelle Seattle Research Center, Seattle
Urs Stammbach
Assistant Professor of Mathematics, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology, Zürich

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## To Margaret and lrene

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## Introduction*

This book arose out of a course of lectures given at the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology (ETH), Zürich, in 1966-67. The course was first set down as a set of lecture notes, and, in 1968, Professor Eckmann persuaded the authors to build a graduate text out of the notes, taking account, where appropriate, of recent developments in the subject.

The level and duration of the original course corresponded essentially to that of a year-long, first-year graduate course at an American university. The background assumed of the student consisted of little more than the algebraic theories of finitely-generated abelian groups and of vector spaces over a field. In particular, he was not supposed to have had any formal instruction in categorical notions beyond simply some understanding of the basic terms employed (category, functor, natural transformation). On the other hand, the student was expected to have some sophistication and some preparation for rather abstract ideas. Further, no knowledge of algebraic topology was assumed, so that such notions as chain-complex, chain-map, chain-homotopy, homology were not already available and had to be introduced as purely algebraic constructs. Although references to relevant ideas in algebraic topology do feature in this text, as they did in the course. they are in the nature of (two-way) motivational enrichment, and the student is not left to depend on any understanding of topology to provide a justification for presenting a given topic.

The level and knowledge assumed of the student explains the order of events in the opening chapters. Thus, Chapter I is devoted to the theory of modules over a unitary ring $\lambda$. In this chapter, we do little more than introduce the category of modules and the basic functors on modules and the notions of projective and injective modules, together with their most easily accessible properties. However, on completion of Chapter I, the student is ready with a set of examples to illumine his understanding of the abstract notions of category theory which are presented in Chapter II.

[^0]In this chapter we are largely influenced in our choice of material by the demands of the rest of the book. However, we take the view that this is an opportunity for the student to grasp basic categorical notions which permeate so much of mathematics today, including. of course. algebraic topology. so that we do not allow ourselves to be rigidly restricted by our immediate objectives. A reader totally unfamiliar with category theory may find it easiest to restrict his first reading of Chapter II to Sections 1 to6; large parts of the book are understandable with the material presented in these sections. Another reader, who had already met many examples of categorical formulations and concepts might, in fact, prefer to look at Chapter II before reading Chapter I. Of course the reader thoroughly familiar with category theory could, in principal, omit Chapter II, except perhaps to familiarize himself with the notations employed.

In Chapter III we begin the proper study of homological algebra by looking in particular at the group $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$, where $A$ and $B$ are $\Lambda$-modules. It is shown how this group can be calculated by means of a projective presentation of $A$, or an injective presentation of $B$; and how it may also be identified with the group of equivalence classes of extensions of the quotient module $A$ by the submodule $B$. These facets of the Ext functor are prototypes for the more general theorems to be presented later in the book. Exact sequences are obtained connecting Ext and Hom, again preparing the way for the more general results of Chapter IV. In the final sections of Chapter III, attention is turned from the Ext functor to the Tor functor, $\operatorname{Tor}^{4}(A, B)$, which is related to the tensor product of a right $\Lambda$-module $A$ and a left $\Lambda$-module $B$ rather in the same way as Ext is related to Hom.

With the special cases of Chapter III mastered, the reader should be ready at the outset of Chapter IV for the general idea of a derived functor of an additive functor which we regard as the main motif of homological algebra. Thus, one may say that the material prior to Chapter IV constitutes a build-up, in terms of mathematical knowledge and the study of special cases, for the central ideas of homological algebra which are presented in Chapter IV. We introduce, quite explicitly, left and right derived functors of both covariant and contravariant additive functors, and we draw attention to the special cases of right-exact and left-exact functors. We obtain the basic exact sequences and prove the balance of $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B), \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{A}(A, B)$ as bifunctors. It would be reasonable to regard the first four chapters as constituting the first part of the book, as they did, in fact, of the course.

Chapter V is concerned with a very special situation of great importance in algebraic topology where we are concerned with tensor products of free abelian chain-complexes. There it is known that there is a formula expressing the homology groups of the tensor product of the
free abelian chain-complexes $\boldsymbol{C}$ and $\boldsymbol{D}$ in terms of the homology groups of $\boldsymbol{C}$ and $\boldsymbol{D}$. We generalize this Künneth formula and we also give a corresponding formula in which the tensor product is replaced by Hom. This corresponding formula is not of such immediate application to topology (where the Künneth formula for the tensor product yields a significant result in the homology of topological products), but it is valuable in homological algebra and leads to certain important identities relating Hom, Ext, tensor and Tor.

Chapters VI and VII may, in a sense, be regarded as individual monographs. In Chapter VI we discuss the homology theory of abstract groups. This is the most classical topic in homological algebra and really provided the original impetus for the entire development of the subject. It has seemed to us important to go in some detail into this theory in order to provide strong motivation for the abstract ideas introduced. Thus, we have been concerned in particular to show how homological ideas may yield proofs of results in group theory which do not require any homology theory for their formulation - and indeed, which were enunciated and proved in some cases before or without the use of homological ideas. Such an example is Maschke's theorem which we state and prove in Section 16.

The relation of the homology theory of groups to algebraic topology is explained in the introductory remarks in Chapter VI itself. It would perhaps be appropriate here to give some indication of the scope and application of the homology theory of groups in group theory. Eilenberg and MacLane [15] showed that the second cohomology group, $H^{2}(G, A)$, of the group $G$ with coefficients in the $G$-module $A$, may be used to formalize the extension theory of groups due to Schreier, Baer, and Fitting. They also gave an interpretation of $H^{3}(G, A)$ in terms of group extensions with non-abelian kernel, in which $A$ plays the role of the center of the kernel. For a contemporary account of these theories. see Gruenberg [20]. In subsequent developments, the theory has been applied extensively to finite groups and to class field theory by Hochschild, Tate, Artin, etc.; see Weiss [49]. A separate branch of cohomology, the so-called Galois cohomology, has grown out of this connection and has been extensively studied by many algebraists (see Serre [41]).

The natural ring structure in the cohomology of groups, which is clearly in evidence in the relation of the cohomology of a group to that of a space, has also been studied, though not so extensively. However, we should mention here the deep result of $L$. Evens [17] that the cohomology ring of a finite group is finitely generated.

It would also be appropriate to mention the connection which has been established between the homology theory of groups and algebraic $K$-theory, a very active area of mathematical research today, which seems to offer hope of providing us with an effective set of invariants of unitary rings. Given a unitary ring $\Lambda$ we may form the general linear group, $G L_{n}(\Lambda)$, of invertible $(n \times n)$ matrices over 1 , and then the group $G L(\Lambda)$ is defined to be the union of the groups $G L_{n}(\Lambda)$ under the natural inclusions. If $E(\Lambda)$ is the commutator subgroup of $G L(\Lambda)$, then a definition given by Milnor for $K_{2}(.1)$, in terms of the Steinberg group, amounts to
saying that $K_{2}(1)=H_{2}(E(1))$. Moreover, the group $E(\Lambda)$ is perfect, that is to say, $H_{1}(E(\Lambda))=0$, so that the study of the $K$-groups of $A$ leads to the study of the second homology group of perfect groups. The second homology group of the group $G$ actually has an extremely long history, being effectively the Schur multiplicator of $G$, as introduced by Schur [40] in 1904.

Finally, to indicate the extent of activity in this area of algebra, without in any way trying to be comprehensive. we should refer to the proof by Stallings [45] and Swan [48], that a group $G$ is free if and only if $H^{n}(G, A)=0$ for all $G$-modules $A$ and all $n \geqq 2$. That the cohomology vanishes in dimensions $\geqq 2$ when $G$ is free is quite trivial (and is, of course, proved in this book); the opposite implication, however, is deep and difficult to establish. The result has particularly interesting consequences for torsion-free groups.

In Chapter VII we discuss the cohomology theory of Lie algebras. Here the spirit and treatment are very much the same as in Chapter VI, but we do not treat Lie algebras so extensively, principally because so much of the development is formally analogous to that for the cohomology of groups. As explained in the introductory remarks to the chapter, the cohomology theory of Lie algebras, like the homology theory of groups, arose originally from considerations of algebraic topology, namely, the cohomology of the underlying spaces of Lie groups. However. the theory of Lie algebra cohomology has developed independently of its topological origins.

This development has been largely due to the work of Koszul [31]. The cohomological proofs of two main theorems of Lie algebra theory which we give in Sections 5 and 6 of Chapter VII are basically due to Chevalley-Eilenberg [8]. Hochschild [24] showed that, as for groups, the three-dimensional cohomology group $H^{3}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$ of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ with coefficients in the $\mathfrak{g}$-module $A$ classifies obstructions to extensions with non-abelian kernel.

Cartan and Eilenberg [7] realized that group cohomology and Lie algebra cohomology (as well as the cohomology of associative algebras over a field) may all be obtained by a general procedure, namely, as derived functors in a suitable module-category. It is, of course, this procedure which is adopted in this book, so that we have presented the theory of derived functors in Chapter IV as the core of homological algebra, and Chapters VI and VII are then treated as important special cases.

Chapters VIII and IX constitute the third part of the book. Chapter VIII consists of an extensive treatment of the theory of spectral sequences. Here, as in Chapter II, we have gone beyond the strict requirements of the applications which we make in the text Since the theory of spectral sequences is so ubiquitous in homological algebra and its applications, it appeared to us to be sensible to give the reader a thorough grounding in the topic. However, we indicate in the introductory remarks to Chapter VIII, and in the course of the text itself, those parts of the
chapter which may be omitted by the reader who simply wishes to be able to understand those applications which are explicitly presented. Our own treatment gives prominence to the idea of an exact couple and emphasizes the notion of the spectral sequence functor on the category of exact couples. This is by no means the unique way of presenting spectral sequences and the reader should, in particular, consult the book of Cartan-Eilenberg [7] to see an alternative approach. However, we do believe that the approach adopted is a reasonable one and a natural one. In fact, we have presented an elaboration of the notion of an exact couple, namely, that of a Rees system, since within the Rees system is contained all the information necessary to deduce the crucial convergence properties of the spectral sequence. Our treatment owes much to the study by Eckmann-Hilton [10] of exact couples in an abelian category. We take from them the point of view that the grading on the objects should only be introduced at such time as it is crucial for the study of convergence: that is to say. the purely algebraic constructions are carried out without any reference to grading. This, we believe, simplifies the presentation and facilitates the understanding.

We should point out that we depart in Chapter VIII from the standard conventions with regard to spectral sequences in one important and one less important respect. We index the original exact couple by the symbol 0 so that the first derived couple is indexed by the symbol 1 and. in general, the $n$-th derived couple by the symbol $n$. This has the effect that what is called by most authorities the $E_{2}$-term appears with us as the $E_{1}$-term. We do not believe that this difference of convention, once it has been drawn to the attention of the reader, should cause any difficulties. On the other hand, we claim that the convention we adopt has many advantages. Principal among them, perhaps, is the fact that in the exact couple

the $n$-th differential in the associated spectral sequence $d_{n}$ is, by our convention, induced by $\beta \alpha^{-n} \gamma$. With the more habitual convention $d_{n}$ would be induced by $\beta \alpha^{-n+1} \gamma$. It is our experience that where a difference of unity enters gratuitously into a formula like this, there is a great danger that the sign is misremembered or that the difference is simply forgotten. A minor departure from the more usual convention is that the second index, or $q$ index, in the spectral sequence term, $E_{r}^{p, q}$, signifies the total degree and not the complementary degree. As a result, we have the situation that if $C$ is a filtered chain-complex, then $H_{\varphi}(C)$ is filtered by subgroups whose associated graded group is $\left\{E_{\alpha}^{p, q}\right\}$. Our convention is the one usually adopted for the generalized Atiyah-Hirzebruch spectral sequence, but it is not the one introduced by Serre in his seminal paper on the homology of fibre spaces, which has influenced the adoption of the alternative convention to which we referred above. However, since the translation from one convention to another is, in this
case, absolutely trivial (with our convention, the term $E_{r}^{p . q}$ has complementary degree $q-p$ ), we do not think it necessary to lay further stress on this distinction.

Chapter IX is somewhat different from the other chapters in that it represents a further development of many of the ideas of the rest of the text, in particular, those of Chapters IV and VIII. This chapter did not appear in its present form in the course, which concluded with applications of spectral sequences available through the material already familiar to the students. In the text we have permitted ourselves further theoretical developments and generalizations. In particular, we present the theory of satellites, some relative homological algebra, and the theory of the homology of small categories. Since this chapter does constitute further development of the subject, one might regard its contents as more arbitrary than those of the other chapters and, in the same way, the chapter itself is far more open-ended than its predecessors. In particular, ideas are presented in the expectation that the student will be encouraged to make a further study of them beyond the scope of this book.

Each chapter is furnished with some introductory remarks describing the content of the chapter and providing some motivation and background. These introductory remarks are particularly extensive in the case of Chapters VI and VII in view of their special nature. The chapters are divided into sections and each section closes with a set of exercises. These exercises are of many different kinds; some are purely computational, some are of a theoretical nature, and some ask the student to fill in gaps in the text where we have been content to omit proofs. Sometimes we suggest exercises which take the reader beyond the scope of the text. In some cases, exercises appearing at the end of a given section may reappear as text material in a later section or later chapter; in fact, the results stated in an exercise may even be quoted subsequently with appropriate reference, but this procedure is adopted only if their demonstration is incontestably elementary.

Although this text is primarily intended to accompany a course at the graduate level, we have also had in mind the obligation to write a book which can be used as a work of reference. Thus, we have endeavored, by giving very precise references, by making self-contained statements, and in other ways, to ensure that the reader interested in a particular aspect of the theory covered by the text may dip into the book at any point and find the material intelligible - always assuming, of course, that he is prepared to follow up the references given. This applies in particular to Chapters VI and VII, but the same principles have been adopted in designing the presentation in all the chapters.

The enumeration of items in the text follows the following conventions. The chapters are enumerated with Roman numerals and the sections with Arabic numerals. Within a given chapter, we have two series
of enumerations, one for theorems, lemmas, propositions, and corollaries, the other for displayed formulas. The system of enumeration in each of these series consists of a pair of numbers, the first referring to the section and the second to the particular item. Thus, in Section 5 of Chapter VI, we have Theorem 5.1 in which a formula is displayed which is labeled (5.2). On the subsequent page there appears Corollary 5.2 which is a corollary to Theorem 5.1. When we wish to refer to a theorem, etc., or a displayed formula, we simply use the same system of enumeration, provided the item to be cited occurs in the same chapter. If it occurs in a different chapter, we will then precede the pair of numbers specifying the item with the Roman numeral specifying the chapter. The exercises are enumerated according to the same principle. Thus, Exercise 1.2 of Chapter VIII refers to the second exercise at the end of the first section of Chapter VIII. A reference to Exercise 1.2, occurring in Chapter VIII, means Exercise 1.2 of that chapter. If we wish to refer to that exercise in the course of a different chapter, we would refer to Exercise VIII.1.2.

This text arose from a course and is designed, itself, to constitute a graduate course, at the first-year level at an American university. Thus, there is no attempt at complete coverage of all areas of homological algebra. This should explain the omission of such important topics as Hopf algebras, derived categories, triple cohomology, Galois cohomology, and others, from the content of the text. Since, in planning a course, it is necessary to be selective in choosing applications of the basic ideas of homological algebra, we simply claim that we have made one possible selection in the second and third parts of the text. We hope that the reader interested in applications of homological algebra not given in the text will be able to consult the appropriate authorities.

We have not provided a bibliography beyond a list of references to works cited in the text. The comprehensive listing by Steenrod of articles and books in homological algebra* should, we believe, serve as a more than adequate bibliography. Of course it is to be expected that the instructor in a course in homological algebra will, himself, draw the students' attention to further developments of the subject and will thus himself choose what further reading he wishes to advise. As a single exception to our intention not to provide an explicit bibliography, we should mention the work by Saunders MacLane. Homology, published by Springer, which we would like to view as a companion volume to the present text.

Some remarks are in order about notational conventions. First, we use the left-handed convention, whereby the composite of the morphism $\varphi$

[^1]followed by the morphism $\psi$ is written as $\psi \varphi$ or, where the morphism symbols may themselves be complicated, $\psi \varphi$. We allow ourselves to simplify notation once the strict notation has been introduced and established. Thus, for example, $f(x)$ may appear later simply as $f x$ and $F(A)$ may appear later as $F A$. We also adapt notation to local needs in the sense that we may very well modify a notation already introduced in order to make it more appropriate to a particular context. Thus, for instance, although our general rule is that the dimension symbol in cohomology appears as a superscript (while in homology it appears as a subscript), we may sometimes find it convenient to write the dimension index as a subscript in cohomology; for example, in discussing certain right-derived functors. We use the symbol $]$ to indicate the end of a proof even if the proof is incomplete; as a special case we may very well place the symbol at the end of the statement of a theorem (or proposition, lemma, corollary) to indicate that no proof is being offered or that the remarks preceding the statement constitute a sufficient demonstration. In diagrams, the firm arrows represent the data of the diagram, and dotted arrows represent new morphisms whose existence is attested by arguments given in the text. We generally use MacLane's notation $\rightarrow, \rightarrow$ to represent monomorphisms and epimorphisms respectively. We distinguish between the symbols $\cong$ and $\underset{\rightarrow}{\sim}$. In the first case we would write $X \cong Y$ simply to indicate that $X$ and $Y$ are isomorphic objects in the given category, whereas the symbol $\varphi: X \xrightarrow{\leadsto} Y$ indicates that the morphism $\varphi$ is itself an isomorphism.

It is a pleasure to make many acknowledgments. First, we would like to express our appreciation to our good friend Beno Eckmann for inviting one of us (P.H.) to Zürich in 1966-67 as Visiting Professor at the ETH, and further inviting him to deliver the course of lectures which constitutes the origin of this text. Our indebtedness to Beno Eckmann goes much further than this and we would be happy to regard him as having provided us with both the intellectual stimulus and the encouragement necessary to bring this book into being. In particular, we would also like to mention that it was through his advocacy that SpringerVerlag was led to commission this text from us. We would also like to thank Professor Paul Halmos for accepting this book into the series Graduate Texts in Mathematics. Our grateful thanks go to Frau Marina von Wildemann for her many invaluable services throughout the evolution of the manuscript from original lecture notes to final typescript. Our thanks are also due to Frau Eva Minzloff. Frau Hildegard Mourad. Mrs. Lorraine Pritchett. and Mrs. Marlys Williams for typing the manuscript and helping in so many ways in the preparation of the final text. Their combination of cheerful good will and quiet efficiency has left us forever in their debt. We are also grateful to Mr. Rudolf Beyl for his careful reading of the text and exercises of Chapters VI and VII.

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Peter Hilton Urs Stammbach

Cornell University, Ithaca, New York
Battelle Seattle Research Center. Seattle. Washington
Eidgenössische Technische Hochschule, Zürich, Switzerland
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## I. Modules

The algebraic categories with which we shall be principally concerned in this book are categories of modules over a fixed (unitary) ring $\Lambda$ and module-homomorphisms. Thus we devote this chapter to a preliminary discussion of $\Lambda$-modules.

The notion of $\Lambda$-module may be regarded as providing a common generalization of the notions of vector space and abelian group. Thus if $\Lambda$ is a field $K$ then a $K$-module is simply a vector space over $K$ and a $K$-module homomorphism is a linear transformation; while if $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$ then a $\mathbb{Z}$-module is simply an abelian group and a $\mathbb{Z}$-module homomorphism is a homomorphism of abelian groups. However, the facets of module theory which are of interest in homological algebra tend to be trivial in vector space theory; whereas the case $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$ will often yield interesting specializations of our results, or motivations for our constructions.

Thus, for example, in the theory of vector spaces, there is no interest in the following question: given vector spaces $A, B$ over the field $K$, find all vector spaces $E$ over $K$ having $B$ as subspace with $A$ as associated quotient space. For any such $E$ is isomorphic to $A \oplus B$. However, the question is interesting if $A, B, E$ are now abelian groups; and it turns out to be a very basic question in homological algebra (see Chapter III).

Again it is trivial that, given a diagram of linear transformations of $K$-vector spaces

where $\varepsilon$ is surjective, there is a linear transformation $\beta: P \rightarrow B$ with $\varepsilon \beta=\gamma$. However, it is a very special feature of an abelian group $P$ that, for all diagrams of the form ( 0.1 ) of abelian groups and homomorphisms, with $\varepsilon$ surjective, such a homomorphism $\beta$ exists. Indeed, for abelian groups, this characterizes the free abelian groups (thus one might say that all vector spaces are free). Actually, in this case, the example $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$ is somewhat misleading. For if we define a $\Lambda$-module $P$ to be projective if, given any diagram (0.1) with $\varepsilon$ surjective, we may find $\beta$ with $\varepsilon \beta=\gamma$,
then it is always the case that free $\Lambda$-modules are projective but, for some rings $\Lambda$, there are projective $\Lambda$-modules which are not free. The relation between those two concepts is elucidated in Sections 4 and 5, where we see that the concepts coincide if $\Lambda$ is a principal ideal domain (p.i.d.) this explains the phenomenon in the case of abelian groups.

In fact, the matters of concern in homological algebra tend very much to become simplified - but not trivial - if $\Lambda$ is a p.i.d., so that this special case recurs frequently in the text. It is thus an important special case, but nevertheless atypical in certain respects. In fact, there is a precise numerical index (the so-called global dimension of $\Lambda$ ) whereby the case $\Lambda$ a field appears as case 0 and $\Lambda$ a p.i.d. as case 1 .

The categorical notion of duality (see Chapter II) may be applied to the study of $\Lambda$-modules and leads to the concept of an injective module, dual to that of a projective module. In this case, the theory for $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$, or, indeed, for $\Lambda$ any p.i.d., is surely not as familiar as that of free modules; nevertheless, it is again the case that the theory is, for modules over a p.i.d., much simpler than for general rings $\Lambda$ - and it is again trivial for vector spaces!

We should repeat (from the main Introduction) our rationale for placing this preparatory chapter on modules before the chapter introducing the basic categorical concepts which will be used throughout the rest of the book. Our justification is that we wish, in Chapter II, to have some mathematics available from which we may make meaningful abstractions. This chapter provides that mathematics; had we reversed the order of these chapters, the reader would have been faced with a battery of "abstract" ideas lacking in motivation. Although it is, of course, true that motivation, or at least exemplification, could in many cases be provided by concepts drawn from other parts of mathematics familiar to the reader, we prefer that the motivation come from concrete instances of the abstract ideas germane to homological algebra.

## 1. Modules

We start with some introductory remarks on the notion of a ring. In this book a ring $\Lambda$ will always have a unity element $1_{\Lambda} \neq 0$. A homomorphism of rings $\omega: \Lambda \rightarrow \Gamma$ will always carry the unity element of the first ring $\Lambda$ into the unity element of the second ring $\Gamma$. Recall that the endomorphisms of an abelian group $A$ form a ring $\operatorname{End}(A, A)$.

Definition. A left module over the ring $\Lambda$ or a left $\Lambda$-module is an abelian group $A$ together with a ring homomorphism $\omega: \Lambda \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(A, A)$.

We write $\lambda a$ for $(\omega(\lambda))(a), a \in A, \lambda \in \Lambda$. We may then talk of $\Lambda$ operating (on the left) on $A$, in the sense that we associate with the pair $(\lambda, a)$ the
element $\lambda a$. Clearly the following rules are satisfied for all $a_{1}, a_{1}, a_{2} \in A$, $\lambda, \lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2} \in \Lambda$ :

M1: $\left(\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}\right) a=\lambda_{1} a+\lambda_{2} a$
M2: $\left(\lambda_{1} \lambda_{2}\right) a=\lambda_{1}\left(\lambda_{2} a\right)$
M3: $1_{\Lambda} a=a$
M4: $\lambda\left(a_{1}+a_{2}\right)=\lambda a_{1}+\lambda a_{2}$.
On the other hand, if an operation of $\Lambda$ on the abelian group $A$ satisfies M1, $\ldots$, M4, then it obviously defines a ring homomorphism

$$
\omega: \Lambda \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(A, A), \quad \text { by the rule } \quad(\omega(\lambda))(a)=\lambda a .
$$

Denote by $\Lambda^{\mathrm{opp}}$ the opposite ring of $\Lambda$. The elements $\lambda^{\mathrm{opp}} \in \Lambda^{\mathrm{opp}}$ are in one-to-one correspondance with the elements $\lambda \in \Lambda$. As abelian groups $\Lambda$ and $\Lambda^{\mathrm{opp}}$ are isomorphic under this correspondence. The product in $\Lambda^{\mathrm{opp}}$ is given by $\lambda_{1}^{\mathrm{opp}} \lambda_{2}^{\mathrm{opp}}=\left(\lambda_{2} \lambda_{1}\right)^{\mathrm{opp}}$. We naturally identify the underlying sets of $\Lambda$ and $\Lambda^{\text {opp }}$.

A right module over $\Lambda$ or right $\Lambda$-module is simply a left $\Lambda^{\text {opp }}$-module, that is, an abelian group $A$ together with a ring map $\omega^{\prime}: \Lambda^{\mathrm{opp}} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(A, A)$. We leave it to the reader to state the axioms M1 ${ }^{\prime}$, M2 $^{\prime}$, M3 $^{\prime}, ~ M 44^{\prime}$ for a right module over $\Lambda$. Clearly, if $\Lambda$ is commutative, the notions of a left and a right module over $\Lambda$ coincide. For convenience, we shall use the term "module" always tc mean "left module".

Let us give a few examples:
(a) The left-multiplication in $\Lambda$ defines an operation of $\Lambda$ on the underlying abelian group of $\Lambda$, satisfying M1,, M 4. Thus $\Lambda$ is a left module over $\Lambda$. Similarly, using right multiplication, $\Lambda$ is a right module over $\Lambda$. Analogously, any left-ideal of $\Lambda$ becomes a left module over $\Lambda$, any right-ideal of $\Lambda$ becomes a right module over $\Lambda$.
(b) Let $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$. the ring of integers. Every abelian group $A$ possesses the structure of a $\mathbb{Z}$-module; for $a \in A, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ define $n a=0$, if $n=0$, $n a=a+\cdots+a$ ( $n$ times), if $n>0$, and $n a=-(-n a)$, if $n<0$.
(c) Let $\Lambda=K$, a field. A $K$-module is a vector space over $K$.
(d) Let $V$ be a vector space over the field $K$, and $T$ a linear transformation from $V$ into $V$. Let $\Lambda=K[T]$, the polynomial ring in $T$ over $K$. Then $V$ becomes a $K[T]$-module, with the obvious operation of $K[T]$ on $V$.
(e) Let $G$ be a group and let $K$ be a field. Consider the $K$-vectorspace of all linear combinations $\sum_{x \in G} k_{x} x, k_{x} \in K$. One checks quite easily that the definition

$$
\left(\sum_{x \in G} k_{x} x\right)\left(\sum_{y \in G} k_{y}^{\prime} y\right)=\sum_{x, y \in G}\left(k_{x} k_{y}^{\prime}\right) x y
$$

where $x y$ denotes the product in $G$, makes this vector space into a $K$ algebra $K G$, called the group algebra of $G$ over $K$. Let $V$ be a vector space
over $K$. A K-representation of $G$ in $V$ is a group homomorphism $\sigma: G \rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}_{K}(V, V)$. The map $\sigma$ gives rise to a ring homomorphism $\sigma^{\prime}: K G \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{K}(V, V)$ by setting

$$
\sigma^{\prime}\left(\sum_{x \in G} k_{x} x\right)=\sum_{x \in G} k_{x} \sigma(x)
$$

Since every $K$-linear endomorphism of $V$ is also a homomorphism of the underlying abelian group, we obtain from $\sigma^{\prime}$ a ring homomorphism $\varrho: K G \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{Z}}(V, V)$, making $V$ into a $K G$-module. Conversely, let $V$ be a $K G$-module. Clearly $V$ has a $K$-vector-space structure, and the structure $\operatorname{map} \varrho: K G \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{Z}}(V, V)$ factors through $\operatorname{End}_{K}(V, V)$. Its restriction to the elements of $G$ defines a $K$-representation of $G$. We see that the $K$-representations of $G$ are in one-to-one correspondance with the $K G$ modules. (We leave to the reader to check the assertions in this example.)

Definition. Let $A, B$ two $\Lambda$-modules. A homomorphism (or map) $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ of $\Lambda$-modules is a homomorphism of abelian groups such that $\varphi(\lambda a)=\lambda(\varphi a)$ for all $a \in A, \lambda \in \Lambda$.

Clearly the identity map of $A$ is a homomorphism of $\Lambda$-modules; we denote it by $1_{A}: A \rightarrow A$.

If $\varphi$ is surjective, we use the symbol $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$. If $\varphi$ is injective, we use the symbol $\varphi: A \longmapsto B$. We call $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ isomorphic or an isomorphism, and write $\varphi: A \xrightarrow{\sim} B$, if there exists a homomorphism $\psi: B \rightarrow A$ such that $\psi \varphi=1_{A}$ and $\varphi \psi=1_{B}$. Plainly, if it exists, $\psi$ is uniquely determined; it is denoted by $\varphi^{-1}$ and called the inverse of $\varphi$. If $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ is isomorphic, it is clearly injective and surjective. Conversely, if the module homomorphism $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ is both injective and surjective, it is isomorphic. We shall call $A$ and $B$ isomorphic, $A \cong B$, if there exists an isomorphism $\varphi: A \xrightarrow{\sim} B$.

If $A^{\prime}$ is a subgroup of $A$ with $\lambda a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$ for all $\lambda \in \Lambda$ and all $a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$, then $A^{\prime}$ together with the induced operation of $\Lambda$ is called a submodule of $A$. Let $A^{\prime}$ be a submodule of $A$. Then the quotient group $A_{j}^{\prime} A^{\prime}$ may be given the structure of a $\Lambda$-module by defining $\lambda\left(a+A^{\prime}\right)=\left(\lambda a+A^{\prime}\right)$ for all $\lambda \in \Lambda, a \in A$. Clearly, we have an injective homomorphism $\mu: A^{\prime} \longmapsto A$ and a surjective homomorphism $\pi: A \rightarrow A / A^{\prime}$.

For an arbitrary homomorphism $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$, we shall use the notation $\operatorname{ker} \varphi=\{a \in A \mid \varphi a=0\}$ for the kernel of $\varphi$ and

$$
\operatorname{im} \varphi=\varphi A=\{b \in B \mid b=\varphi a \quad \text { for some } a \in A\}
$$

for the image of $\varphi$. Obviously $\operatorname{ker} \varphi$ is a submodule of $A$ and $\operatorname{im} \varphi$ is a submodule of $B$. One easily checks that the canonical isomorphism of abelian groups $A / \operatorname{ker} \varphi \cong \operatorname{im} \varphi$ is actually an isomorphism of $\Lambda$-modules. We also introduce the notation $\operatorname{coker} \varphi=B / \operatorname{im} \varphi$ for the cokernel of $\varphi$. Just as $\operatorname{ker} \varphi$ measures how far $\varphi$ differs from being injective, so coker $\varphi$ measures how far $\varphi$ differs from being surjective. If $\mu: A^{\prime} \hookrightarrow A$ is injective,
we can identify $A^{\prime}$ with the submodule $\mu A^{\prime}$ of $A$. Similarly, if $\varepsilon: A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ is surjective, we can identify $A^{\prime \prime}$ with $A / \operatorname{ker} \varepsilon$.

Definition. Let $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ and $\psi: B \rightarrow C$ be homomorphisms of $\Lambda$ modules. The sequence $A \xrightarrow{\varphi} B \xrightarrow{\psi} C$ is called exact $($ at $B)$ if $\operatorname{ker} \psi=\operatorname{im} \varphi$. If a sequence $A_{0} \rightarrow A_{1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow A_{n} \rightarrow A_{n+1}$ is exact at $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}$, then the sequence is simply called exact.

As examples we mention
(a) $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\varphi} B$ is exact (at $A$ ) if and only if $\varphi$ is injective.
(b) $A \xrightarrow{\varphi} B \rightarrow 0$ is exact (at $B$ ) if and only if $\varphi$ is surjective.
(c) The sequence $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\mu} A \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is exact (at $A^{\prime}, A, A^{\prime \prime}$ ) if and only if $\mu$ induces an isomorphism $A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\sim} \mu A^{\prime}$ and $\varepsilon$ induces an isomorphism $A / \operatorname{ker} \varepsilon=A / \mu A^{\prime} \leadsto \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$. Essentially $A^{\prime}$ is then a submodule of $A$ and $A^{\prime \prime}$ the corresponding quotient module. Such an exact sequence is called short exact, and often written $A^{\prime} \hookrightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$.

The proofs of these assertions are left to the reader. Let $A, B, C, D$ be $\Lambda$-modules and let $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ be $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms. We say that the diagram

is commutative if $\beta \alpha=\delta \gamma: A \rightarrow D$. This notion generalizes in an obvious way to more complicated diagrams. Among the many propositions and lemmas about diagrams we shall need the following:

Lemma 1.1. Let $A^{\prime} \hookrightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ and $B^{\prime} \rightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ be two short exact sequences. Suppose that in the commutative diagram

any two of the three homomorphisms $\alpha^{\prime}, \alpha, \alpha^{\prime \prime}$ are isomorphisms. Then the third is an isomorphism, too.

Proof. We only prove one of the possible three cases, leaving the other two as exercises. Suppose $\alpha^{\prime}, \alpha^{\prime \prime}$ are isomorphisms; we have to show that $\alpha$ is an isomorphism.

First we show that $\operatorname{ker} \alpha=0$. Let $a \in \operatorname{ker} \alpha$, then $0=\varepsilon^{\prime} \alpha a=\alpha^{\prime \prime} \varepsilon a$. Since $\alpha^{\prime \prime}$ is an isomorphism, it follows that $\varepsilon a=0$. Hence there exists $a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$ with $\mu a^{\prime}=a$ by the exactness of the upper sequence. Then $0=\alpha \mu a^{\prime}=\mu^{\prime} \alpha^{\prime} a^{\prime}$. Since $\mu^{\prime} \alpha^{\prime}$ is injective, it follows that $a^{\prime}=0$. Hence $a=\mu a^{\prime}=0$.

Secondly, we show that $\alpha$ is surjective. Let $b \in B$; we have to show that $b=\alpha a$ for some $a \in A$. Since $\alpha^{\prime \prime}$ is an isomorphism, there exists $a^{\prime \prime} \in A^{\prime \prime}$ with $\alpha^{\prime \prime} a^{\prime \prime}=\varepsilon^{\prime} b$. Since $\varepsilon$ is surjective, there exists $\bar{a} \in A$ such that $\varepsilon \bar{a}=a^{\prime \prime}$. We obtain $\varepsilon^{\prime}(b-\alpha \bar{a})=\varepsilon^{\prime} b-\varepsilon^{\prime} \alpha \bar{a}=\varepsilon^{\prime} b-\alpha^{\prime \prime} \varepsilon \bar{a}=0$. Hence by the exactness of the lower sequence there exists $b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}$ with $\mu^{\prime} b^{\prime}=b-\alpha \bar{a}$. Since $\alpha^{\prime}$ is isomorphic there exists $a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$ such that $\alpha^{\prime} a^{\prime}=b^{\prime}$. Now

$$
\alpha\left(\mu a^{\prime}+\bar{a}\right)=\alpha \mu a^{\prime}+\alpha \bar{a}=\mu^{\prime} \alpha^{\prime} a^{\prime}+\alpha \bar{a}=\mu^{\prime} b^{\prime}+\alpha \bar{a}=b
$$

So setting $a=\mu a^{\prime}+\bar{a}$, we have $\alpha a=b$. $\quad \square$
Notice that Lemma 1.1 does not imply that, given exact sequences $A^{\prime} \longmapsto A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}, B^{\prime} \hookrightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$, with $A^{\prime} \cong B^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime} \cong B^{\prime \prime}$, then $A \cong B$. It is crucial to the proof of Lemma 1.1 that there is a map $A \rightarrow B$ compatible with the isomorphisms $A^{\prime} \cong B^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime} \cong B^{\prime \prime}$, in the sense that (1.2) commutes.

## Exercises:

1.1. Complete the proof of Lemma 1.1. Show moreover that, in (1.2), $\alpha$ is surjective (injective) if $\alpha^{\prime}, \alpha^{\prime \prime}$ are surjective (injective).
1.2. (Five Lemma) Show that, given a commutative diagram

with exact rows, in which $\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}, \varphi_{4}, \varphi_{5}$ are isomorphisms, then $\varphi_{3}$ is also an isomorphism. Can we weaken the hypotheses in a reasonable way?
1.3. Give examples of short exact sequences of abelian groups

$$
0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0, \quad 0 \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0
$$

such that
(i) $A^{\prime} \cong B^{\prime}, \quad A \cong B, \quad A^{\prime \prime} \cong B^{\prime \prime}$;
(ii) $A^{\prime} \cong B^{\prime}, \quad A \cong B, \quad A^{\prime \prime} \cong B^{\prime \prime}$;
(iii) $A^{\prime} \neq B^{\prime}, \quad A \cong B, \quad A^{\prime \prime} \cong B^{\prime \prime}$.
1.4. Show that the abelian group $A$ admits the structure of a $\mathbb{Z}_{\boldsymbol{m}}$-module if and only if $m A=0$.
1.5. Define the group algebra $K G$ for $K$ an arbitrary commutative ring. What are the $K G$-modules?
1.6. Let $V$ be a non-trivial (left) $K G$-module. Show how to give $V$ the structure of a non-trivial right $K G$-module. (Use the group inverse.)
1.7. Let $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\mu} A \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence of abelian groups. We say that the sequence is pure if, whenever $\mu\left(a^{\prime}\right)=m a, a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}, a \in A, m$ a positive integer, there exists $b^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$ with $a^{\prime}=m b^{\prime}$. Show that the following statements are equivalent:
(i) the sequence is pure;
(ii) the induced sequence (reduction modm) $0 \rightarrow A_{m}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\mu_{m}} A_{m} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{m}} A_{m}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is exact for all $m ;\left(A_{m}=A / m A\right.$, etc. $)$
(iii) given $a^{\prime \prime} \in A^{\prime \prime}$ with $m a^{\prime \prime}=0$, there exists $a \in A$ with $\varepsilon(a)=u^{\prime \prime}$. $m a=0$ (for all $m$ ).

## 2. The Group of Homomorphisms

Let $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B)$ denote the set of all $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms from $A$ to $B$. Clearly, this set has the structure of an abelian group; if $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ and $\psi: A \rightarrow B$ are $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms, then $\varphi+\psi: A \rightarrow B$ is defined as $(\varphi+\psi) a=\varphi a+\psi, a$ for all $a \in A$. The reader should check that $\varphi+\psi$ is a $\Lambda$-module homomorphism. Note, however, that $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B)$ is not, in general, a $\Lambda$-module in any obvious way (see Exercise 2.3).

Let $\beta: B_{1} \rightarrow B_{2}$ be a homomorphism of $\Lambda$-modules. We can assign to a homomorphism $\varphi: A \rightarrow B_{1}$, the homomorphism $\beta \varphi: A \rightarrow B_{2}$, thus defining a map $\beta_{*}=\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, \beta): \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B_{1}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B_{2}\right)$. It is left to the reader to verify that $\beta_{*}$ is actually a homomorphism of abelian groups. Evidently the following two rules hold:
(i) If $\beta: B_{1} \rightarrow B_{\mathbf{2}}$ and $\beta^{\prime}: B_{\mathbf{2}} \rightarrow B_{\mathbf{3}}$, then

$$
\left(\beta^{\prime} \beta\right)_{*}=\beta_{*}^{\prime} \beta_{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B_{1}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B_{3}\right) .
$$

(ii) If $\beta: B_{1} \rightarrow B_{1}$ is the identity, then $\beta_{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A . B_{1}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A . B_{1}\right)$ is the identity, also.

In short, the symbol $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A,-)$ assigns to every $\Lambda$-module $B$ an abelian group $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B)$, and to every homomorphism of $\Lambda$-modules $\beta: B_{1} \rightarrow B_{2}$ a homomorphism of abelian groups

$$
\beta_{*}=\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, \beta): \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B_{1}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B_{2}\right)
$$

such that the above two rules hold. In Chapter II, we shall see that this means that $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A,-)$ is a (covariant) functor from the category of $\Lambda$-modules to the category of abelian groups.

On the other hand, if $\alpha: A_{2} \rightarrow A_{1}$ is a $\Lambda$-module homomorphism, then we assign to every homomorphism $\varphi: A_{1} \rightarrow B$ the homomorphism $\varphi \alpha: A_{2} \rightarrow B$, thus defining a map

$$
\alpha^{*}=\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(\alpha . B): \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A_{1}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A_{2}, B\right) .
$$

Again we leave it to the reader to verify that $\alpha^{*}$ is actually a homomorphism of abelian groups. Evidently, we have:
(i) ${ }^{\prime}$ If $\alpha: A_{2} \rightarrow A_{1}$ and $\alpha^{\prime}: A_{3} \rightarrow A_{2}$, then ( $\left.\alpha \alpha^{\prime}\right)^{*}=\alpha^{\prime *} \alpha^{*}$ (inverse order!).
(ii)' If $x: A_{1} \rightarrow A_{1}$ is the identity, then $\alpha^{*}$ is the identity.
$\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(-, B)$ is an instance of a contravariant functor (from $\Lambda$-modules to abelian groups).

Theorem 2.1. Let $B^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\mu} B \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} B^{\prime \prime}$ be an exact sequence of $\Lambda$-modules. For every 1 -module $A$ the induced sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A . B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\mu_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A . B) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right)
$$

is exact.
Proof. First we show that $\mu_{*}$ is injective.
Assume that $\mu \varphi$ in the diagram

is the zero map. Since $\mu: B^{\prime} \rightarrow B$ is injective this implies that $\varphi: A \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ is the zero map, so $\mu_{*}$ is injective.

Next we show that $\operatorname{ker} \varepsilon_{*} \supset \operatorname{im} \mu_{*}$. Consider the above diagram. A map in im $\mu_{*}$ is of the form $\mu \varphi$. Plainly $\varepsilon \mu \varphi$ is the zero map, since $\varepsilon \mu$ already is. Finally we show that $\operatorname{im} \mu_{*} \supset \operatorname{ker} \varepsilon_{*}$. Consider the diagram


We have to show that if $\varepsilon \psi$ is the zero map, then $\psi$ is of the form $\mu \varphi$ for some $\varphi: A \rightarrow B^{\prime}$. But, if $\varepsilon \psi=0$ the image of $\psi$ is contained in $\operatorname{ker} \varepsilon=\operatorname{im} \mu$. Since $\mu$ is injective, $\psi$ gives rise to a (unique) map $\varphi: A \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ such that $\mu \varphi=\psi$.

We remark that even in case $\varepsilon$ is surjective the induced map $\varepsilon_{*}$ is not surjective in general (see Exercise 2.1).

Theorem 2.2. Let $A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\mu} A \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A^{\prime \prime}$ be an exact sequence of $\Lambda$-modules. For every 1 -module $B$ the induced sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \xrightarrow{*} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B) \xrightarrow{\mu^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)
$$

is exact.
The proof is left to the reader. []
Notice that even in case $\mu$ is injective $\mu^{*}$ is not surjective in general (see Exercise 2.2).

We finally remark that Theorem 2.1 provides a universal characterization of $\operatorname{ker} \varepsilon$ (in the sense of Sections II. 5 and II.6): To every homomorphism $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ with $\varepsilon_{*}(\varphi)=\varepsilon \varphi: A \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ the zero map there exists a unique homomorphism $\varphi^{\prime}: A \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ with $\mu_{*}\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)=\mu \varphi^{\prime}=\varphi$. Similarly Theorem 2.2 provides a universal characterization of $\operatorname{coker} \mu$.

## Exercises:

2.1. Show that in the setting of Theorem $2.1 \varepsilon_{*}=\operatorname{Hom}(A, \varepsilon)$ is not, in general, surjective even if $\varepsilon$ is. (Take $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}, A=\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, the integers $\bmod n$, and the short exact sequence $\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\mu} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ where $\mu$ is multiplication by $n$.)
2.2. Prove Theorem 2.2. Show that $\mu^{*}=\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(\mu, B)$ is not, in general, surjective even if $\mu$ is injective. (Take $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}, \mathrm{B}=\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, the integers $\bmod n$, and the short exact sequence $\mathbb{Z} \stackrel{\mu}{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n}$, where $\mu$ is multiplication by $n$.)
2.3. Suppose $\Lambda$ commutative, and $A$ and $B$ two $\Lambda$-modules. Define for a $\Lambda$-module homomorphism $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$. $(\lambda \varphi)(a)=\varphi(\lambda a), a \in A$. Show that this definition makes $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B)$ into a $\Lambda$-module. Also show that this definition does not work in case $\Lambda$ is not commutative
2.4. Let $A$ be a $\Lambda$-module and $B$ be an abelian group. Show how to give $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(A, B)$ the structure of a right $\Lambda$-module.
2.5. Interpret and prove the assertions $0_{*}=0,0^{*}=0$.
2.6. Compute $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}_{n}\right), \operatorname{Hom}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{m}, \mathbb{Z}_{n}\right), \operatorname{Hom}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{m}, \mathbb{Z}\right), \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Z}), \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Q})$. [Here "Hom" means "Hom ${ }_{\mathbb{Z}}$ " and $\mathbb{Q}$ is the group of rationals.]
2.7. Show (see Exercise 1.7) that the sequence $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is pure if and only if $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{m},-\right)$ preserves exactness, for all $m>0$.
2.8. If $A$ is a left $\Lambda$-module and a right $\Gamma$-module such that the $\Lambda$-action commutes with the $\Gamma$-action, then $A$ is called a left $\Lambda$-right $\Gamma$-bimodule. Show that if $A$ is a left $\Lambda$-right $\Sigma$-bimodule and $B$ is a left $\Lambda$-right $\Gamma$-bimodule then $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B)$ is naturally a left $\Sigma$-right $\Gamma$-bimodule.

## 3. Sums and Products

Let $A$ and $B$ be $\Lambda$-modules. We construct the direct sum $A \oplus B$ of $A$ and $B$ as the set of pairs $(a, b)$ with $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ together with componentwise addition $(a, b)+\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)=\left(a+a^{\prime}, b+b^{\prime}\right)$ and componentwise $\Lambda$-operation $\lambda(a, b)=(\lambda a, \lambda b)$. Clearly, we have $\Lambda$-module monomorphisms $l_{A}: A \rightarrow A \oplus B$ defined by $l_{A}(a)=(a, 0)$ and $l_{B}: B \rightarrow A \oplus B$ defined by $l_{B}(b)=(0, b)$.

Proposition 3.1. Let $M$ be a $\Lambda$-module, $\psi_{A}: A \rightarrow M$ and $\psi_{B}: B \rightarrow M$ $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms. Then there exists a unique map

$$
\psi=\left\langle\psi_{A}, \psi_{B}\right\rangle: A \oplus B \rightarrow M
$$

such that $\psi l_{A}=\psi_{A}$ and $\psi l_{B}=\psi_{B}$.
We can express Proposition 3.1 in the following way: For any $\Lambda$ module $M$ and any maps $\psi_{A}, \psi_{B}$ the diagram

can be completed by a unique homomorphism $\psi: A \oplus B \rightarrow M$ such that the two triangles are commutative.

In situations like this where the existence of a map is claimed which makes a diagram commutative, we shall use a dotted arrow to denote this map. Thus the above assertion will be summarized by the diagram

and the remark that $\psi$ is uniquely determined.
Proof. Define $\psi(a, b)=\psi_{A}(a)+\psi_{B}(b)$. This obviously is the only homomorphism $\psi: A \oplus B \rightarrow M$ satisfying $\psi l_{A}=\psi_{A}$ and $\psi l_{B}=\psi_{B}$. $]$

We can easily expand this construction to more than two modules: Let $\left\{A_{j}\right\}, j \in J$ be a family of $\Lambda$-modules indexed by $J$. We define the direct $\operatorname{sum} \bigoplus_{j \in J} A_{j}$ of the modules $A_{j}$ as follows: An element of $\bigoplus_{j \in J} A_{j}$ is a family $\left(a_{j}\right)_{j_{\epsilon} \in J}$ with $a_{j} \in A_{j}$ and $a_{j} \neq 0$ for only a finite number of subscripts. The addition is defined by $\left(a_{j}\right)_{j \in J}+\left(b_{j}\right)_{j \in J}=\left(a_{j}+b_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$ and the $\Lambda$-operation by $\lambda\left(a_{j}\right)_{j \in J}=\left(\lambda a_{j}\right)_{j_{\epsilon J}}$. For each $k \in J$ we can define injections $\imath_{k}: A_{k} \rightarrow \bigoplus_{j \in J} A_{j}$ by $l_{k}\left(a_{k}\right)=\left(b_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$ with $b_{j}=0$ for $j \neq k$ and $b_{k}=a_{k}, a_{k} \in A_{k}$.

Proposition 3.2. Let $M$ be a $\Lambda$-module and let $\left\{\psi_{j}: A_{j} \rightarrow M\right\}, j \in J$. be a family of $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms. Then there exists a unique homomorphism $\psi=\left\langle\psi_{j}\right\rangle: \bigoplus_{j \in J} A_{j} \rightarrow M$, such that $\psi \imath_{j}=\psi_{j}$ for all $j \in J$.

Proof. We define $\psi\left(\left(a_{j}\right)_{j \in J}\right)=\sum_{j \in J} \psi_{j}\left(a_{j}\right)$. This is possible because $a_{j}=0$ except for a finite number of indices. The map $\psi$ so defined is obviously the only homomorphism $\psi: \bigoplus_{j \in J} A_{j} \rightarrow M$ such that $\psi l_{j}=\psi_{j}$ for all $j \in J$. $\quad \square$

We remark the important fact that the property stated in Proposition 3.2 characterizes the direct sum together with the injections up to a unique isomorphism. To see this, let the $\Lambda$-module $S$ together with injections $\imath_{j}^{\prime}: A_{j} \rightarrow S$ also have the property $\mathscr{P}$ claimed for $\left(\bigoplus_{j \in J} A_{j} ; l_{j}\right)$ in Proposition 3.2. Write (temporarily) $T$ for $\bigoplus_{j \in J} A_{j}$. First choose $M=T$ and $\psi_{j}=\imath_{j}, j \in J$. Since $\left(S ; \imath_{j}^{\prime}\right)$ has property $\mathscr{P}$, there exists a unique homomorphism $\psi: S \rightarrow T$ such that the diagram

is commutative for every $j \in J$. Choosing $M=S$ and $\psi_{j}^{\prime}=\imath_{j}^{\prime}$ and invoking property $\mathscr{P}$ for $\left(T: \boldsymbol{l}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right)$ we obtain a map $\psi^{\prime}: T \rightarrow S$ such that the diagram

is commutative for every $j \in J$. In order to show that $\psi \psi^{\prime}$ is the identity, we remark that the diagram

is commutative for both $\psi \psi^{\prime}$ and the identity. By the uniqueness part of property $\mathscr{P}$ we conclude that $\psi \psi^{\prime}=1_{T}$. Similarly we prove that $\psi^{\prime} \psi=1_{S}$. Thus both $\psi$ and $\psi^{\prime}$ are isomorphisms.

A property like the one stated in Proposition 3.2 for the direct sum of modules is called universal. We shall treat these universal properties in detail in Chapter II. Here we are content to remark that the construction of the direct sum yields an existence proof for a module having property $\mathscr{P}$.

Next we define the direct product $\prod_{j \in J} A_{j}$ of a family of modules $\left\{A_{j}\right\}, j \in J$. An element of $\prod_{j \in J} A_{\boldsymbol{j}}$ is a family $\left(a_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$ of elements $a_{\boldsymbol{j}} \in A_{\boldsymbol{j}}$. No restrictions are placed on the elements $a_{j}$; in particular, the elements $a_{j}$ may be nonzero for an infinite number of subscripts. The addition is defined by $\left(a_{j}\right)_{j \in J}+\left(b_{j}\right)_{j \in J}=\left(a_{j}+b_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$ and the $\Lambda$-operation by $\lambda\left(a_{j}\right)_{j \in J}=\left(\lambda a_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$. For each $k \in J$ we can define projections $\pi_{k}: \prod_{j \in J} A_{j} \rightarrow A_{k}$ by $\pi_{k}\left(a_{j}\right)_{j \in J}=a_{k}$.

For a finite family of modules $A_{j}, j=1, \ldots, n$, it is readily seen that the modules $\prod_{j=1}^{n} A_{j}$ and $\bigoplus_{j=1}^{n} A_{j}$ are identical; however in considering the direct sum we put emphasis on the injections $\boldsymbol{l}_{\boldsymbol{j}}$ and in considering the direct product we put emphasis on the projections $\pi_{j}$.

Proposition 3.3. Let $M$ be a $\Lambda$-module and let $\left\{\varphi_{j}: M \rightarrow A_{j}\right\}, j \in J$. be a family of $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms. Then there exists a unique homomorphism $\varphi=\left\{\varphi_{j}\right\}: M \rightarrow \prod_{j \in J} A_{j}$ such that for every $j \in J$ the diagram

is commutative, i.e. $\pi_{j} \varphi=\varphi_{j} . \quad \square$

The proof is left to the reader; also the reader will see that the universal property of the direct product $\prod_{j \in J} A_{j}$ and the projections $\pi_{j}$ characterizes it up to a unique isomorphism. Finally we prove

Proposition 3.4. Let B be a $\Lambda$-module and $\left\{A_{j}\right\}, j \in J$ be a family of $\Lambda$ modules. Then there is an isomorphism

$$
\eta: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(\bigoplus_{j \in J} A_{j}, B\right) \underset{\rightarrow}{\sim} \prod_{j \in J} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A_{j}, B\right) .
$$

Proof. The proof reveals that this theorem is merely a restatement of the universal property of the direct sum. For $\psi: \bigoplus_{j \in J} A_{j} \rightarrow B$, define $\eta(\psi)=\left(\psi \iota_{j}: A_{j} \rightarrow B\right)_{j \in J}$. Conversely a family $\left\{\psi_{j}: A_{j} \rightarrow B\right\}, j \in J$, gives rise to a unique map $\psi: \bigoplus_{j \in J} A_{j} \rightarrow B$. The projections $\pi_{j}: \prod_{j \in J} \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A_{j}, B\right)$ $\rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A_{j}, B\right)$ are given by $\pi_{j} \eta=\operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(l_{j}, B\right) . \quad \square$

Analogously one proves:
Proposition 3.5. Let $A$ be a $\Lambda$-module and $\left\{B_{j}\right\}, j \in J$ be a family of $\Lambda$-modules. Then there is an isomorphism

$$
\zeta: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, \prod_{j \in J} B_{j}\right) \underset{\rightarrow}{\sim} \prod_{j \in J} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B_{j}\right) .
$$

The proof is left to the reader.

## Exercises:

3.1. Show that there is a canonical map $\sigma: \oplus_{j} A_{j} \rightarrow \prod_{j} A_{j}$.
3.2. Show how a map from $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{m} A_{i}$ to $\bigoplus_{j=1}^{n} B_{j}$ may be represented by a matrix

$$
\Phi=\left(\varphi_{i j}\right),
$$

where $\varphi_{i j}: A_{i} \rightarrow B_{j}$. Show that, if we write the composite of $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ and $\psi: B \rightarrow C$ as $\varphi \psi$ (not $\psi \varphi$ ), then the composite of

$$
\Phi=\left(\varphi_{i j}\right): \bigoplus_{i=1}^{m} A_{i} \rightarrow \bigoplus_{j=1}^{n} B_{j}
$$

and

$$
\Psi=\left(\psi_{j k}\right): \bigoplus_{j=1}^{n} B_{j} \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k=1}^{q} C_{k}
$$

is the matrix product $\Phi \Psi$.
3.3. Show that if, in (1.2), $\alpha^{\prime}$ is an isomorphism, then the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\{\varepsilon, \alpha\}} A^{\prime \prime} \oplus B \xrightarrow{\left\langle\alpha^{\prime \prime} .-\varepsilon^{\prime}\right\rangle} B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact. State and prove the converse.
3.4. Carry out a similar exercise to the one above, assuming $\alpha^{\prime \prime}$ is an isomorphism.
3.5. Use the universal property of the direct sum to show that

$$
\left(A_{1} \oplus A_{2}\right) \oplus A_{3} \cong A_{1} \oplus\left(A_{2} \oplus A_{3}\right)
$$

3.6. Show that $\mathbb{Z}_{m} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n}=\mathbb{Z}_{m n}$ if and only if $m$ and $n$ are mutually prime.
3.7. Show that the following statements about the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime}} A \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime \prime}} A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0
$$

of $\Lambda$-modules are equivalent:
(i) there exists $\mu: A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A$ with $\alpha^{\prime \prime} \mu=1$ on $A^{\prime \prime}$;
(ii) there exists $\varepsilon: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ with $\varepsilon \alpha^{\prime}=1$ on $A^{\prime}$;
(iii) $0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(B, A^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\alpha_{i}^{\prime}} \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(B, A) \xrightarrow{\alpha_{*}^{\prime}} \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(B, A^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow 0$ is exact for all $B$;
(iv) $0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, C\right) \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime * *}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, C) \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime *}} \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A^{\prime}, C\right) \rightarrow 0$ is exáct for all $C$;
(v) there exists $\mu: A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A$ such that $\left\langle\alpha^{\prime}, \mu\right\rangle: A^{\prime} \oplus A^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{\sim} A$.
3.8. Show that if $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime}} A \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime \prime}} A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is pure and if $A^{\prime \prime}$ is a direct sum of cyclic groups then statement (i) above holds (see Exercise 2.7).

## 4. Free and Projective Modules

Let $A$ be a $\Lambda$-module and let $S$ be a subset of $A$. We consider the set $A_{0}$ of all elements $a \in A$ of the form $a=\sum_{s \in S} \lambda_{s} s$ where $\lambda_{s} \in \Lambda$ and $\lambda_{s} \neq 0$ for only a finite number of elements $s \in S$. It is trivially seen that $A_{0}$ is a submodule of $A$; hence it is the smallest submodule of $A$ containing $S$.

If for the set $S$ the submodule $A_{0}$ is the whole of $A$, we shall say that $S$ is a set of generators of $A$. If $A$ admits a finite set of generators it is said to be finitely generated. A set $S$ of generators of $A$ is called a basis of $A$ if every element $a \in A$ may be expressed uniquely' in the form $a=\sum_{s \in S} \lambda_{s} s$ with $\lambda_{s} \in \Lambda$ and $\lambda_{s} \neq 0$ for only a finite number of elements $s \in S$. It is readily seen that a set $S$ of generators is a basis if and only if it is linearly independent, that is, if $\sum_{s \in S} \lambda_{s} s=0$ implies $\lambda_{s}=0$ for all $s \in S$. The reader should note that not every module possesses a basis.

Definition. If $S$ is a basis of the $\Lambda$-module $P$, then $P$ is called free on the set $S$. We shall call $P$ free if it is free on some subset.

Proposition 4.1. Suppose the $\Lambda$-module $P$ is free on the set $S$. Then $P \cong \bigoplus_{s \in S} \Lambda_{s}$ where $\Lambda_{s}=\Lambda$ as a left module for $s \in S$. Conversely, $\bigoplus_{s \in S} \Lambda_{s}$ is free on the set $\left\{1_{\Lambda_{s}}, s \in S\right\}$.

Proof. We define $\varphi: P \rightarrow \bigoplus_{s \in S} \Lambda_{s}$ as follows: Every element $a \in P$ is is expressed uniquely in the form $a=\sum_{s \in S} \lambda_{s} s ;$ set $\varphi(a)=\left(\lambda_{s}\right)_{s \in S}$. Conversely,
for $s \in S$ define $\psi_{s}: \Lambda_{s} \rightarrow P$ by $\psi_{s}\left(\lambda_{s}\right)=\lambda_{s} s$. By the universal property of the direct sum the family $\left\{\psi_{s}\right\}, s \in S$, gives rise to a map $\psi=\left\langle\psi_{s}\right\rangle: \bigoplus_{s \in S} \Lambda_{s} \rightarrow P$. It is readily seen that $\varphi$ and $\psi$ are inverse to each other. The remaining assertion immediately follows from the construction of the direct sum. $\quad \square$

The next proposition yields a universal characterization of the free module on the set $S$.

Proposition 4.2. Let $P$ be free on the set $S$. To every $\Lambda$-module $M$ and to every function $f$ from $S$ into the set underlying $M$, there is a unique $\Lambda$-module homomorphism $\varphi: P \rightarrow M$ extending $f$.

Proof. Let $f(s)=m_{s}$. Set $\varphi(a)=\varphi\left(\sum_{s \in S} \lambda_{s} s\right)=\sum_{s \in S} \lambda_{s} m_{s}$. This obviously is the only homomorphism having the required property. $]$

Proposition 4.3. Every 1 -module $A$ is a quotient of a free module $P$.
Proof. Let $S$ be a set of generators of $A$. Let $P=\bigoplus_{s \in S} \Lambda_{s}$ with $\Lambda_{s}=\Lambda$ and define $\varphi: P \rightarrow A$ to be the extension of the function $f$ given by $f\left(1_{\Lambda_{s}}\right)=s$. Trivially $\varphi$ is surjective.

Proposition 4.4. Let $P$ be a free $\Lambda$-module. To every surjective homomorphism $\varepsilon: B \rightarrow C$ of $\Lambda$-modules and to every homomorphism $\gamma: P \rightarrow C$ there exists a homomorphism $\beta: P \rightarrow B$ such that $\varepsilon \beta=\gamma$.

Proof. Let $P$ be free on $S$. Since $\varepsilon$ is surjective we can find elements $b_{s} \in B, s \in S$ with $\varepsilon\left(b_{s}\right)=\gamma(s), s \in S$. Define $\beta$ as the extension of the function $f: S \rightarrow B$ given by $f(s)=b_{s}, s \in S$. By the uniqueness part of Proposition 4.2 we conclude that $\varepsilon \beta=\gamma$.

To emphasize the importance of the property proved in Proposition 4.4 we make the following remark: Let $A \stackrel{\mu}{\xrightarrow{\longrightarrow}} B \xrightarrow{\natural} C$ be a short exact sequence of $\Lambda$-modules. If $P$ is a free $\Lambda$-module Proposition 4.4 asserts that every homomorphism $\gamma: P \rightarrow C$ is induced by a homomorphism $\beta: P \rightarrow B$. Hence using Theorem 2.1 we can conclude that the induced sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(P, A) \xrightarrow{\mu_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(P, B) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(P, C) \rightarrow 0 \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

is exact, i.e. that $\varepsilon_{\boldsymbol{*}}$ is surjective. Conversely, it is readily seen that exactness of (4.1) for all short exact sequences $A \mapsto B \rightarrow C$ implies for the module $P$ the property asserted in Proposition 4.4 for $P$ a free module. Therefore there is considerable interest in the class of modules having this property. These are by definition the projective modules:

Definition. A $\Lambda$-module $P$ is projective if to every surjective homomorphism $\varepsilon: B \rightarrow C$ of $\Lambda$-modules and to every homomorphism $\gamma: P \rightarrow C$ there exists a homomorphism $\beta: P \rightarrow B$ with $\varepsilon \beta=\gamma$. Equivalently, to any homomorphisms $\varepsilon, \gamma$ with $\varepsilon$ surjective in the diagram below there exists
$\beta$ such that the triangle

is commutative.
As mentioned above, every free module is projective. We shall give some more examples of projective modules at the end of this section.

Proposition 4.5. A direct sum $\bigoplus_{i \in I} P_{i}$ is projective if and only if each $P_{i}$ is.
Proof. We prove the proposition only for $A=P \oplus Q$. The proof in the general case is analogous. First assume $P$ and $Q$ projective. Let $\varepsilon: B \rightarrow C$ be surjective and $\gamma: P \oplus Q \rightarrow C$ a homomorphism. Define $\gamma_{P} \equiv \gamma l_{P}: P \rightarrow C$ and $\gamma_{Q}=\gamma_{l_{Q}}: Q \rightarrow C$. Since $P, Q$ are projective there exist $\beta_{P}, \beta_{Q}$ such that $\varepsilon \beta_{P}=\gamma_{P}, \varepsilon \beta_{Q}=\gamma_{Q}$. By the universal property of the direct sum there exists $\beta: P \oplus Q \rightarrow B$ such that $\beta l_{P}=\beta_{P}$ and $\beta l_{Q}=\beta_{Q}$. It follows that $(\varepsilon \beta) l_{P}=\varepsilon \beta_{P}=\gamma_{P}=\gamma l_{P}$ and $(\varepsilon \beta) l_{Q}=\varepsilon \beta_{Q}=\gamma_{Q}=\gamma l_{Q}$. By the uniqueness part of the universal property we conclude that $\varepsilon \beta=\gamma$. Of course, this could be proved using the explicit construction of $P \oplus Q$, but we prefer to emphasize the universal property of the direct sum.

Next assume that $P \oplus Q$ is projective. Let $\varepsilon: B \rightarrow C$ be a surjection and $\gamma_{P}: P \rightarrow C$ a homomorphism. Choose $\gamma_{Q}: Q \rightarrow C$ to be the zero map. We obtain $\gamma: P \oplus Q \rightarrow C$ such that $\gamma l_{P}=\gamma_{P}$ and $\gamma l_{Q}=\gamma_{Q}=0$. Since $P \oplus Q$ is projective there exists $\beta: P \oplus Q \rightarrow B$ such that $\varepsilon \beta=\gamma$. Finally we obtain $\varepsilon\left(\beta l_{P}\right)=\gamma \iota_{P}=\gamma_{P}$. Hence $\beta \iota_{P}: P \rightarrow B$ is the desired homomorphism. Thus $P$ is projective; similarly $Q$ is projective.

In Theorem 4.7 below we shall give a number of different characterizations of projective modules. As a preparation we define:

Definition. A short exact sequence $A \stackrel{\mu}{\rightarrow} B \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} C$ of $\Lambda$-modules splits if there exists a left inverse to $\varepsilon$, i.e. a homomorphism $\sigma: C \rightarrow B$ such that $\sigma \varepsilon=1_{c}$. The map $\sigma$ is then called a splitting.

We remark that the sequence $A \stackrel{i}{\xrightarrow{i}} A \oplus C \xrightarrow{\pi C_{C}} C$ is exact, and splits by the homomorphism $i_{C}$. The following lemma shows that all split short exact sequences of modules are of this form (see Exercise 3.7).

Lemma 4.6. Suppose that $\sigma: C \rightarrow B$ is a splitting for the short exact sequence $A \stackrel{ }{\hookrightarrow} B \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} C$. Then $B$ is isomorphic to the direct sum $A \oplus C$. Under this isomorphism, $\mu$ corresponds to $\boldsymbol{l}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$ and $\sigma$ to $\boldsymbol{l}_{\boldsymbol{C}}$.

In this case we shall say that $C$ (like $A$ ) is a direct summand in $B$.
Proof. By the universal property of the direct sum we define a map $\psi$ as follows


Then the diagram

is commutative; the left hand square trivially is; the right hand square is by $\varepsilon \psi(a, c)=\varepsilon(\mu a+\sigma c)=0+\varepsilon \sigma e=c$, and $\pi_{C}(a, c)=c, a \in A, c \in C$. By Lemma $1.1 \psi$ is an isomorphism.

Theorem 4.7. For a 1 -module $P$ the following statements are equivalent:
(1) $P$ is projective;
(2) for every short exact sequence $A \stackrel{\mu}{\rightarrow} B \xrightarrow{〔} C$ of $\Lambda$-modules the induced sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(P, A) \xrightarrow{\mu_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(P, B) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(P, C) \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact;
(3) if $\varepsilon: B \rightarrow P$ is surjective, then there exists a homomorphism $\beta: P \rightarrow B$ such that $\varepsilon \beta=1_{P}$;
(4) $P$ is a direct summand in every module of which it is a quotient;
(5) $P$ is a direct summand in a free module.

Proof. (1) $\Rightarrow$ (2). By Theorem 2.1 we only have to show exactness at $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(P, C)$, i.e. that $\varepsilon_{*}$ is surjective. But since $\varepsilon: B \rightarrow C$ is surjective this is asserted by the fact that $P$ is projective.
(2) $\Rightarrow(3)$. Choose as exact sequence $\operatorname{ker} \varepsilon \hookrightarrow B \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} P$. The induced sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(P, \operatorname{ker} \varepsilon) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(P, B) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(P, P) \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact. Therefore there exists $\beta: P \rightarrow B$ such that $\varepsilon \beta=1_{P}$.
(3) $\Rightarrow$ (4). Let $P \cong B ; A$, then we have an exact sequence $A \hookrightarrow B \xrightarrow{\natural} P$. By (3) there exists $\beta: P \rightarrow B$ such that $\varepsilon \beta=1_{P}$. By Lemma 4.6 we conclude that $P$ is a direct summand in $B$.
(4) $\Rightarrow(5)$. By Proposition $4.3 P$ is a quotient of a free module $P^{\prime}$. By (4) $P$ is a direct summand in $P^{\prime}$.
$(5) \Rightarrow(1)$. By (5) $P^{\prime} \cong P \oplus Q$, where $P^{\prime}$ is a free module. Since free modules are projective, it follows from Proposition 4.5 that $P$ is projective.

Next we list some examples:
(a) If $\Lambda=K$, a field, then every $K$-module is free, hence projective.
(b) By Exercise 2.2 and (2) of Theorem 4.7, $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is not projective as a module over the integers. Hence a finitely generated abelian group is projective if and only if it is free.
(c) Let $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}_{6}$, the ring of integers modulo 6. Since $\mathbb{Z}_{6}=\mathbb{Z}_{3} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ as a $\mathbb{Z}_{6}$-module, Proposition 4.5 shows that $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ as well as $\mathbb{Z}_{3}$ are projective $\mathbb{Z}_{6}$-modules. However, they are plainly not free $\mathbb{Z}_{6}$-modules.

## Exercises:

4.1. Let $V$ be a vector space of countable dimension over the field $K$. Let $\Lambda=\operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(V, V^{\prime}\right)$. Show that, as $K$-vector spaces $V$, is isomorphic to $V \oplus V$. We therefore obtain

$$
\Lambda=\operatorname{Hom}_{K}(V, V) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(V \oplus V, V^{\prime}\right) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{K}(V, V) \oplus \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(V^{\prime}, V\right)=\Lambda \oplus \Lambda
$$

Conclude that, in general, the free module on a set of $n$ elements may be isomorphic to the free module on a set of $m$ elements, with $n \neq m$.
4.2. Given two projective $\Lambda$-modules $P, Q$, show that there exists a free $\Lambda$-module $R$ such that $P \oplus R \cong Q \oplus R$ is free. (Hint: Let $P \oplus P^{\prime}$ and $Q \oplus Q^{\prime}$ be free. Define $\left.R=P^{\prime} \oplus\left(Q \oplus Q^{\prime}\right) \oplus\left(P \oplus P^{\prime}\right) \oplus \cdots \cong Q^{\prime} \oplus\left(P \oplus P^{\prime}\right) \oplus\left(Q \oplus Q^{\prime}\right) \oplus \cdots.\right)$
4.3. Show that $\mathbb{Q}$ is not a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module.
4.4. Need a direct product of projective modules be projective?
4.5. Show that if $0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow P \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0,0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow Q \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ are exact with $P, Q$ projective, then $P \oplus M \cong Q \oplus N$. (Hint: Use Exercise 3.4.)
4.6. We say that $A$ has a finite presentation if there is a short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow P \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ with $P$ finitely-generated projective and $N$ finitelygenerated. Show that
(i) if $A$ has a finite presentation. then. for every exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow R \rightarrow S \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0
$$

with $S$ finitely-generated, $R$ is also finitely-generated;
(ii) if $A$ has a finite presentation, it has a finite presentation with $P$ free;
(iii) if $A$ has a finite presentation every presentation $0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow P \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ with $P$ projective, $N$ finitely-generated is finite, and every presentation $0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow P \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ with $P$ finitely-generated projective is finite:
(iv) if $A$ has a presentation $0 \rightarrow N_{1} \rightarrow P_{1} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ with $P_{1}$ finitely-generated projective, and a presentation $0 \rightarrow N_{2} \rightarrow P_{2} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ with $P_{2}$ projective, $N_{2}$ finitely-generated, then $A$ has a finite presentation (indeed, both the given presentations are finite).
4.7. Let $\Lambda=K\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, \ldots\right)$ be the polynomial ring in countably many indeterminates $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, \ldots$ over the field $K$. Show that the ideal $I$ generated by $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, \ldots$ is not finitely generated. Hence we may have a presentation $0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow P \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ with $P$ finitely generated projective and $N$ not finitelygenerated.

## 5. Projective Modules over a Principal Ideal Domain

Here we shall prove a rather difficult theorem about principal ideal domains. We remark that a very simple proof is available if one is content to consider only finitely generated $\Lambda$-modules; then the theorem forms a part of the fundamental classical theorem on the structure of finitely generated modules over principal ideal domains.

Recall that a principal ideal domain $\Lambda$ is a commutative ring without divisors of zero in which every ideal is principal, i.e. generated by
one element. It follows that as a module every ideal in $\Lambda$ is isomorphic to $\Lambda$ itself.

Theorem 5.1. Over a principal ideal domain $\Lambda$ every submodule of a free $\Lambda$-module is free.

Since projective modules are direct summands in free modules, this implies

Corollary 5.2. Over a principal ideal domain, every projective module is free.

Corollary 5.3. Over a principal ideal domain, every submodule of a projective module is projective.

Proof of Theorem 5.1. Let $P=\bigoplus_{j \in J} \Lambda_{j}$, where $\Lambda_{j}=\Lambda$, be a free module and let $R$ be a submodule of $P$. We shall show that $R$ has a basis. Assume $J$ well-ordered and define for every $j \in J$ modules

$$
\bar{P}_{(j)}=\bigoplus_{i<j} \Lambda_{i}, \quad P_{(j)}=\bigoplus_{i \leqq j} \Lambda_{i}
$$

Then every element $a \in P_{(j)} \cap R$ may be written uniquely in the form ( $\left.b, \lambda\right)$ where $b \in \bar{P}_{(j)}$ and $\lambda \in \Lambda_{j}$. We define a homomorphism $f_{j}: P_{(j)} \cap R \rightarrow \Lambda$ by $f_{j}(a)=\lambda$. Since the kernel of $f_{j}$ is $\bar{P}_{(j)} \cap R$ we obtain an exact sequence

$$
\bar{P}_{(j)} \cap R \hookrightarrow P_{(j)} \cap R \rightarrow \operatorname{im} f_{j}
$$

Clearly $\operatorname{im} f_{j}$ is an ideal in $\Lambda$. Since $\Lambda$ is a principal ideal domain, this ideal is generated by one element, say $\lambda_{j}$. For $\lambda_{j} \neq 0$ we choose $c_{j} \in P_{(j)} \cap R$, such that $f_{j}\left(c_{j}\right)=\lambda_{j}$. Let $J^{\prime} \subseteq J$ consist of those $j$ such that $\lambda_{j} \neq 0$. We claim that the family $\left\{c_{j}\right\}, j \in J^{\prime}$, is a basis of $R$.

First we show that $\left\{c_{j}\right\}, j \in J^{\prime}$, is linearly independent. Let $\sum_{k=1}^{n} \mu_{k} c_{j_{k}}=0$ and let $j_{1}<j_{2}<\cdots<j_{n}$. Then applying the homomorphism $f_{j_{n}}$, we get $\mu_{n} f_{j_{n}}\left(c_{j_{n}}\right)=\mu_{n} \lambda_{j_{n}}=0$. Since $\lambda_{j_{n}} \neq 0$ this implies $\mu_{n}=0$. The assertion then follows by induction on $n$.

Finally, we show that $\left\{c_{j}\right\}, j \in J^{\prime}$, generates $R$. Assume the contrary. Then there is a least $i \in J$ such that there exists $a \in P_{(i)} \cap R$ which cannot be written as a linear combination of $\left\{c_{j}\right\}, j \in J^{\prime}$. If $i \notin J^{\prime}$, then $a \in \bar{P}_{(i)} \cap R$; but then there exists $k<i$ such that $a \in P_{(k)} \cap R$, contradicting the minimality of $i$. Thus $i \in J^{\prime}$.

Consider $f_{i}(a)=\mu \lambda_{i}$ and form $b=a-\mu c_{i}$. Clearly

$$
f_{i}(b)=f_{i}(a)-f_{i}\left(\mu c_{i}\right)=0 .
$$

Hence $b \in \bar{P}_{(i)} \cap R$, and $b$ cannot be written as a linear combination of $\left\{c_{j}\right\}, j \in J^{\prime}$. But there exists $k<i$ with $b \in P_{(k)} \cap R$, thus contradicting the minimality of $i$. Hence $\left\{c_{j}\right\}, j \in J^{\prime}$, is a basis of $E$. $\quad$

## Exercises:

5.1. Prove the following proposition, due to Kaplansky: Let $\Lambda$ be a ring in which every left ideal is projective. Then every submodule of a free $\Lambda$-module is isomorphic to a direct sum of modules each of which is isomorphic to a left ideal in $\Lambda$. Hence every submodule of a projective module is projective. (Hint: Proceed as in the proof of Theorem 5.1.)
5.2. Prove that a submodule of a finitely-generated module over a principal ideal domain is finitely-generated. State the fundamental theorem for finitelygenerated modules over principal ideal domains.
5.3. Let $A, B, C$ be finitely generated modules over the principal ideal domain $\Lambda$. Show that if $A \oplus C \cong B \oplus C$, then $A \cong B$. Give counterexamples if one drops (a) the condition that the modules be finitely generated, (b) the condition that $A$ is a principal ideal domain.
5.4. Show that submodules of projective modules need not be projective. ( $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}_{p^{2}}$, where $p$ is a prime. $\mathbb{Z}_{p} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{p^{2}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ is short exact but does not split!)
5.5. Develop a theory of linear transformations $T: V \rightarrow V$ of finite-dimensional vectorspaces over a field $K$ by utilizing the fundamental theorem in the integral domain $K[T]$.

## 6. Dualization, Injective Modules

We introduce here the process of dualization only as a heuristic procedure. However, we shall see in Chapter II that it is a special case of a more general and canonical procedure. Suppose given a statement involving only modules and homomorphisms of modules; for example, the characterization of the direct sum of modules by its universal property given in Proposition 3.2:
"The system consisting of the direct sum $S$ of modules $\left\{A_{j}\right\}, j \in J$, together with the homomorphisms $\boldsymbol{l}_{\boldsymbol{j}}: A_{j} \rightarrow S$, is characterized by the following property. To any module $M$ and homomorphisms $\left\{\psi_{j}: A_{j} \rightarrow M\right\}, j \in J$, there is a unique homomorphism $\psi: S \rightarrow M$ such that for every $j \in J$ the diagram

is commutative."
The dual of such a statement is obtained by "reversing the arrows"; more precisely, whenever in the original statement a homomorphism occurs we replace it by a homomorphism in the opposite direction. In our example the dual statement reads therefore as follows:
"Given a module $T$ and homomorphisms $\left\{\pi_{j}: T \rightarrow A_{j}\right\}, j \in J$. To any module $M$ and homomorphisms $\left\{\varphi_{j}: M \rightarrow A_{j}\right\}, j \in J$, there exists a
unique homomorphism $\varphi: M \rightarrow T$ such that for every $j \in J$ the diagram

is commutative."
It is readily seen that this is the universal property characterizing the direct product of modules $\left\{A_{j}\right\}, j \in J$, the $\pi_{j}$ being the canonical projections (Proposition 3.3). We therefore say that the notion of the direct product is dual to the notion of the direct sum.

Clearly to dualize a given statement we have to express it entirely in terms of modules and homomorphisms (not elements etc.). This can be done for a great many - though not all - of the basic notions introduced in Sections $1, \ldots, 5$. In the remainder of this section we shall deal with a very important special case in greater detail: We define the class of injective modules by a property dual to the defining property of projective modules. Since in our original definition of projective modules the term „surjective" occurs, we first have to find a characterization of surjective homomorphisms in terms of modules and homomorphisms only. This is achieved by the following definition and Proposition 6.1.

Definition. A module homomorphism $\varepsilon: B \rightarrow C$ is epimorphic or an epimorphism if $\alpha_{1} \varepsilon=\alpha_{2} \varepsilon$ implies $\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{2}$ for any two homomorphisms $\alpha_{i}: C \rightarrow M, i=1,2$.

Proposition 6.1. $\varepsilon: B \rightarrow C$ is epimorphic if and only if it is surjective.
Proof. Let $B \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} C \xrightarrow[\alpha_{2}]{x_{1}} M$. If $\varepsilon$ is surjective then clearly $\alpha_{1} \varepsilon b=\alpha_{2} \varepsilon b$ for all $b \in B$, implies $\alpha_{1} c=\alpha_{2} c$ for all $c \in C$. Conversely, suppose $\varepsilon$ epimorphic and consider $B \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} C \underset{\underset{0}{\pi}}{\rightarrow} C / \varepsilon B$, where $\pi$ is the canonical projection and 0 is the zero map. Since $0 \varepsilon=0=\pi \varepsilon$, we obtain $0=\pi$ and therefore $C / \varepsilon B=0$ or $C=\varepsilon B$. $\quad$

Dualizing the above definition in the obvious way we have
Definition. The module homomorphism $\mu: A \rightarrow B$ is monomorphic or a monomorphism if $\mu \alpha_{1}=\mu \alpha_{2}$ implies $\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{2}$ for any two homomorphisms $\alpha_{i}: M \rightarrow A . i=1.2$.

Of course one expects that "monomorphic" means the same thing as "injective". For modules this is indeed the case; thus we have

Proposition 6.2. $\mu: A \rightarrow B$ is monomorphic if and only if it is injective.
Proof. If $\mu$ is injective, then $\mu \alpha_{1} x=\mu \alpha_{2} x$ for all $x \in M$ implies $\alpha_{1} x=\alpha_{2} x$ for all $x \in M$. Conversely, suppose $\mu$ monomorphic and $a_{1}, a_{2} \in A$ such that $\mu a_{1}=\mu a_{2}$. Choose $M=\Lambda$ and $x_{i}: \Lambda \rightarrow A$ such that $\alpha_{i}(1)=a_{i}, i=1,2$. Then clearly $\mu \alpha_{1}=\mu \alpha_{2} ;$ hence $\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{2}$ and $a_{1}=a_{2} . \quad \square$

It should be remarked here that from the categorical point of view (Chapter II) definitions should whenever possible be worded in terms of maps only. The basic notions therefore are "epimorphism" and "monomorphism", both of which are defined entirely in terms of maps. It is a fortunate coincidence that, for modules, "monomorphic" and "injective" on the one hand and "epimorphic" and "surjective" on the other hand mean the same thing. We shall see in Chapter II that in other categories monomorphisms do not have to be injective and epimorphisms do not have to be surjective. Notice that, to test whether a homomorphism is injective (surjective) one simply has to look at the homomorphism itself, whereas to test whether a homomorphism is monomorphic (epimorphic) one has, in principle, to consult all $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms.

We are now prepared to dualize the notion of a projective module.
Definition. A $\Lambda$-module $I$ is called injective if for every homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow I$ and every monomorphism $\mu: A \hookrightarrow B$ there exists a homomorphism $\beta: B \rightarrow I$ such that $\beta \mu=\alpha$, i.e. such that the diagram

is commutative. Since $\mu$ may be regarded as an embedding, it is natural simply to say that $I$ is injective if homomorphisms into $I$ may be extended (from a given domain $A$ to a larger domain $B$ ).

Clearly, one will expect that propositions about projective modules will dualize to propositions about injective modules. The reader must be warned, however, that even if the statement of a proposition is dualizable, the proof may not be. Thus it may happen that the dual of a true proposition turns out to be false. One must therefore give a proof of the dual proposition. One of the main objectives of Section 8 will, in fact, be to formulate and prove the dual of Theorem 4.7 (see Theorem 8.4). However, we shall need some preparation; first we state the dual of Proposition 4.5.

Proposition 6.3. A direct product of modules $\prod_{j \in J} I_{j}$ is injective if and
$y$ if each $I_{j}$ is injective. $\square$ only if each $I_{j}$ is injective. $\square$

The reader may check that in this particular instance the proof of Proposition 4.5 is dualizable. We therefore leave the details to the reader.

## Exercises:

6.1. (a) Show that the zero module 0 is characterized by the property: To any module $M$ there exists precisely one homomorphism $\varphi: 0 \rightarrow M$.
(b) Show that the dual property also characterizes the zero module.
6.2. Give a universal characterization of kernel and cokernel, and show that kernel and cokernel are dual notions.
6.3. Dualize the assertions of Lemma 1.1, the Five Lemma (Exercise 1.2) and those of Exercises 3.4 and 3.5.
6.4. Let $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$. Characterize $\operatorname{im} \varphi, \varphi^{-1} B_{0}$ for $B_{0} \cong B$, without using elements. What are their duals? Hence (or otherwise) characterize exactness.
6.5. What is the dual of the canonical homomorphism $\sigma: \bigoplus_{i \in J} A_{i} \rightarrow \prod_{i \in J} A_{i}$ ? What is the dual of the assertion that $\sigma$ is an injection? Is the dual true?

## 7. Injective Modules over a Principal Ideal Domain

Recall that by Corollary 5.2 every projective module over a principal ideal domain is free. It is reasonable to expect that the injective modules over a principal ideal domain also have a simple structure. We first define:

Definition. Let $\Lambda$ be an integral domain. A $\Lambda$-module $D$ is divisible if for every $d \in D$ and every $0 \neq \lambda \in \Lambda$ there exists $c \in D$ such that $\lambda c=d$. Note that we do not require the uniqueness of $c$.

We list a few examples:
(a) As $\mathbb{Z}$-module the additive group of the rationals $\mathbb{Q}$ is divisible. In this example $c$ is uniquely determined.
(b) As $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$ is divisible. Here $c$ is not uniquely determined.
(c) The additive group of the reals $\mathbb{R}$, as well as $\mathbb{R} / \mathbb{Z}$, are divisible.
(d) A non-trivial finitely generated abelian group $A$ is never divisible. Indeed, $A$ is a direct sum of cyclic groups, which clearly are not divisible.

Theorem 7.1. Let $A$ be a principal ideal domain. A $\Lambda$-module is injective if and only if it is divisible.

Proof. First suppose $D$ is injective. Let $d \in D$ and $0 \neq \lambda \in A$. We have to show that there exists $c \in D$ such that $\lambda c=d$. Define $\alpha: \Lambda \rightarrow D$ by $\alpha(1)=d$ and $\mu: \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda$ by $\mu(1)=\lambda$. Since $\Lambda$ is an integral domain, $\mu(\xi)=\xi \lambda=0$ if and only if $\xi=0$. Hence $\mu$ is monomorphic. Since $D$ is injective. there exists $\beta: \Lambda \rightarrow D$ such that $\beta \mu=\alpha$. We obtain

$$
d=\alpha(1)=\beta \mu(1)=\beta(\lambda)=\lambda \beta(1)
$$

Hence by setting $c=\beta(1)$ we obtain $d=\lambda c$. (Notice that so far no use is made of the fact that $\Lambda$ is a principal ideal domain.)

Now suppose $D$ is divisible. Consider the following diagram


We have to show the existence of $\beta: B \rightarrow D$ such that $\beta \mu=\alpha$. To simplify the notation we consider $\mu$ as an embedding of a submodule $A$ into $B$. We look at pairs ( $A_{j}, \alpha_{j}$ ) with $A \subseteq A_{j} \subseteq B, \alpha_{j}: A_{j} \rightarrow D$ such that $\left.\alpha_{j}\right|_{A}=\alpha$. Let $\Phi$ be the set of all such pairs. Clearly $\Phi$ is nonempty, since $(A, \alpha)$ is in $\Phi$. The relation $\left(A_{j}, \alpha_{j}\right) \leqq\left(A_{k}, \alpha_{k}\right)$ if $A_{j} \subseteq A_{k}$ and $\left.\alpha_{k}\right|_{A_{j}}=\alpha_{j}$ defines an ordering in $\Phi$. With this ordering $\Phi$ is inductive. Indeed, every chain $\left(A_{j}, \alpha_{j}\right), j \in J$ has an upper bound, namely $\left(\bigcup A_{j}, \bigcup \alpha_{j}\right)$ where $\bigcup A_{j}$ is simply the union, and $\bigcup \alpha_{j}$ is defined as follows: If $a \in \bigcup A_{j}$, then $a \in A_{k}$ for some $k \in J$. We define $\bigcup \alpha_{j}(a)=\alpha_{k}(a)$. Plainly $\bigcup \alpha_{j}$ is welldefined and is a homomorphism, and

$$
\left(A_{j}, \alpha_{j}\right) \leqq\left(\bigcup A_{j}, \bigcup \alpha_{j}\right)
$$

By Zorn's Lemma there exists a maximal element $(\bar{A}, \bar{\alpha})$ in $\Phi$. We shall show that $\bar{A}=B$, thus proving the theorem. Suppose $\bar{A} \neq B$; then there exists $b \in B$ with $b \notin \bar{A}$. The set of $\lambda \in \Lambda$ such that $\lambda b \in \bar{A}$ is readily seen to be an ideal of $\Lambda$. Since $\Lambda$ is a principal ideal domain, this ideal is generated by one element, say $\lambda_{0}$. If $\lambda_{0} \neq 0$. then we use the fact that $D$ is divisible to find $c \in D$ such that $\bar{\alpha}\left(\lambda_{0} b\right)=\lambda_{0} c$. If $\lambda_{0}=0$, we choose an arbitrary $c$. The homomorphism $\bar{\alpha}$ may now be extended to the module $\tilde{A}$ generated by $\bar{A}$ and $b$, by setting $\tilde{\alpha}(\bar{a}+\lambda b)=\bar{\alpha}(\bar{a})+\lambda c$. We have to check that this definition is consistent. If $\lambda b \in \bar{A}$, we have $\tilde{\alpha}(\lambda b)=\lambda c$. But $\lambda=\xi \lambda_{0}$ for some $\xi \in \Lambda$ and therefore $\lambda b=\xi \lambda_{0} b$. Hence

$$
\bar{\alpha}(\lambda b)=\bar{\alpha}\left(\xi \lambda_{0} b\right)=\xi \bar{\alpha}\left(\lambda_{0} b\right)=\xi \lambda_{0} c=\lambda c .
$$

Since $(\bar{A}, \bar{\alpha})<(\tilde{A}, \tilde{\alpha})$, this contradicts the maximality of $(\bar{A}, \bar{\alpha})$, so that $\bar{A}=B$ as desired. []

Proposition 7.2. Every quotient of a divisible module is divisible.
Proof. Let $\varepsilon: D \rightarrow E$ be an epimorphism and let $D$ be divisible. For $e \in E$ and $0 \neq \lambda \in \Lambda$ there exists $d \in D$ with $\varepsilon(d)=e$ and $d^{\prime} \in D$ with $\lambda d^{\prime}=d$. Setting $e^{\prime}=\varepsilon\left(d^{\prime}\right)$ we have $\lambda e^{\prime}=\lambda \varepsilon\left(d^{\prime}\right)=\varepsilon\left(\lambda d^{\prime}\right)=\varepsilon(d)=e$. []

As a corollary we obtain the dual of Corollary 5.3.
Corollary 7.3. Let $\Lambda$ be a principal ideal domain. Everv quotient of an injective 1 -module is injective.

Next we restrict ourselves temporarily to abelian groups and prove in that special case

Proposition 7.4. Every abelian group may be embedded in a divisible (hence injective) abelian group.

The reader may compare this Proposition to Proposition 4.3, which says that every $\Lambda$-module is a quotient of a free, hence projective, $\Lambda$ module.

Proof. We shall define a monomorphism of the abelian group $A$ into a direct product of copies of $\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$. By Proposition 6.3 this will
suffice. Let $0 \neq a \in A$ and let (a) denote the subgroup of $A$ generated by $a$. Define $\alpha:(a) \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$ as follows: If the order of $a \in A$ is infinite choose $0 \neq \alpha(a)$ arbitrary. If the order of $a \in A$ is finite, say $n$, choose $0 \neq \alpha(a)$ to have order dividing $n$. Since $\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$ is injective, there exists a map $\beta_{a}: A \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$ such that the diagram

is commutative. By the universal property of the product, the $\beta_{a}$ define a unique homomorphism $\beta: A \rightarrow \prod_{\substack{a \in A \\ a \neq 0}}\left(\mathbb{Q}_{i} \mathbb{Z}\right)_{a}$. Clearly $\beta$ is a monomorphism since $\beta_{a}(a) \neq 0$ if $a \neq 0$.

For abelian groups, the additive group of the integers $\mathbb{Z}$ is projective and has the property that to any abelian group $G \neq 0$ there exists a nonzero homomorphism $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow G$. The group $\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$ has the dual properties; it is injective and to any abelian group $G \neq 0$ there is a nonzero homomorphism $\psi^{\prime}: G \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$. Since a direct sum of copies of $\mathbb{Z}$ is called free, we shall term a direct product of copies of $\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$ cofree. Note that the two properties of $\mathbb{Z}$ mentioned above do not characterize $\mathbb{Z}$ entirely. Therefore "cofree" is not the exact dual of "free", it is dual only in certain respects. In Section 8 the generalization of this concept to arbitrary rings is carried through.

## Exercises:

7.1. Prove the following proposition: The $\Lambda$-module $I$ is injective if and only if for every left ideal $J \subset \Lambda$ and for every $\Lambda$-module homomorphism $\alpha: J \rightarrow I$ the diagram

may be completed by a homomorphism $\beta: \Lambda \rightarrow I$ such that the resulting triangle is commutative. (Hint: Proceed as in the proof of Theorem 7.1.)
7.2. Let $0 \rightarrow R \rightarrow F \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence of abelian groups, with $F$ free. By embedding $F$ in a direct sum of copies of $\mathbb{Q}$. show how to embed $A$ in a divisible group.
7.3. Show that every abelian group admits a unique maximal divisible subgroup.
7.4. Show that if $A$ is a finite abelian group, then $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}) \cong A$. Deduce that if there is a short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ of abelian groups with $A$ finite, then there is a short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow 0$.
7.5. Show that a torsion-free divisible group $D$ is a $\mathbb{Q}$-vector space. Show that $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{Z}}(A, D)$ is then also divisible. Is this true for any divisible group $D$ ?
7.6. Show that $\mathbb{Q}$ is a direct summand in a direct product of copies of $\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$.

## 8. Cofree Modules

Let $A$ be a right $\Lambda$-module and let $G$ be an abelian group. Regarding $A$ as an abelian group we can form the abelian $\operatorname{group}_{\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}}(A, G)$ of homomorphisms from $A$ into $G$. Using the right $\Lambda$-module structure of $A$ we define in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, G)$ a left $\Lambda$-module structure as follows:

$$
(\lambda \varphi)(a)=\varphi(a \lambda), \quad a \in A, \lambda \in \Lambda, \varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, G) .
$$

We leave it to the reader to verify the axioms. Similarly if $A$ is a left $\Lambda$-module, $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, G)$ acquires the structure of a right $\Lambda$-module.

Proposition 8.1. Let $A$ be a left $\Lambda$-module and let $G$ be an abelian group. Regard $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\Lambda, G)$ as a left $\Lambda$-module via the right $\Lambda$-module structure of $\Lambda$. Then there is an isomorphism of abelian groups

$$
\eta=\eta_{A}: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\Lambda, G)\right) \sim \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, G) .
$$

Moreover, for every 1 -module homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow B$ the diagram

is commutative. (In this situation we shall say that $\eta$ is natural.)
Proof. Let $\varphi: A \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\Lambda, G)$ be a $\Lambda$-module homomorphism. We define a homomorphism of abelian groups $\varphi^{\prime}: A \rightarrow G$ by

$$
\varphi^{\prime}(a)=(\varphi(a))(1), \quad a \in A
$$

Conversely, a homomorphism of abelian groups $\psi: A \rightarrow G$ gives rise to $\psi^{\prime}: A \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\Lambda, G)$ by $\left(\psi^{\prime}(a)\right)(\lambda)=\psi(\lambda a), a \in A, \lambda \in \Lambda$. Clearly $\psi^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism of abelian groups. We have to show that $\psi^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism of $\Lambda$-modules. Indeed. let $\zeta \in \Lambda$, then $\left(\psi^{\prime}(\zeta a)\right)(\lambda)=\psi(\lambda \zeta a)$; on the other hand $\left(\zeta\left(\psi^{\prime}(a)\right)\right)(\lambda)=\left(\psi^{\prime}(a)\right)(\lambda \zeta)=\psi(\lambda \zeta a)$. Clearly, $\varphi \mapsto \varphi^{\prime}$ and $\psi \mapsto \psi^{\prime}$ are homomorphisms of abelian groups. Finally, we claim $\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=\varphi$ and $\left(\psi^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}=\psi$. Indeed, $\left(\psi^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}(a)=\left(\psi^{\prime}(a)\right)(1)=\psi(a)$, and

$$
\left(\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}(a)\right)(\lambda)=\varphi^{\prime}(\lambda a)=(\varphi(\lambda a))(1)
$$

but

$$
(\varphi(\lambda a))(1)=(\lambda(\varphi(a)))(1)=(\varphi(a))(1 \lambda)=(\varphi(a))(\lambda)
$$

since $\varphi$ is a $\Lambda$-module homomorphism. Thus we define $\eta$ by setting $\eta(\varphi)=\varphi^{\prime}$, and $\eta$ is an isomórphism. The naturality of $\eta$, i.e. the commutativity of the diagram (8.1) is evident. Notice that $\alpha^{*}$ on the right of the diagram (8.1) is a homomorphism of left $\Lambda$-modules. $]$

We now look at $\Lambda^{*}=\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\Lambda, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})$, which is made into a left $\Lambda$-module using the right $\Lambda$-module structure of $\Lambda$. We claim that $\Lambda^{*}$ has the property that to any nonzero $\Lambda$-module $A$ there is a nonzero homomorphism $\varphi: A \rightarrow \Lambda^{*}$. Indeed, any nonzero homomorphism of abelian groups $\psi: A \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$ will correspond by Proposition 8.1 to a nonzero $\varphi: A \rightarrow \Lambda^{*}$. Also, it will follow from Theorem 8.2 below that $\Lambda^{*}$ is injective (set $G=\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$ ). We therefore define

Definition. A $\Lambda$-module is cofree if it is the direct product of modules $\Lambda^{*}=\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\Lambda, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})$. Note that this is consistent with the description of $\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$ as a cofree group, since $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 8.2. Let $G$ be a divisible abelian group. Then $\bar{\Lambda}=\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\Lambda, G)$ is an injective 1 -module.

Proof. Let $\mu: A \rightarrow B$ be a monomorphism of $\Lambda$-modules, and let $\alpha: A \rightarrow \bar{\Lambda}$ a homomorphism of $\Lambda$-modules. We have to show that there exists $\beta: B \rightarrow \bar{\Lambda}$ such that $\beta \mu=\alpha$. To prove this, we remark that $\alpha: A \rightarrow \bar{\Lambda}$ corresponds by Proposition 8.1 to a homomorphism of abelian groups $\alpha^{\prime}: A \rightarrow G$. Since $G$ is injective, there exists $\beta^{\prime}: B \rightarrow G$ such that $\beta^{\prime} \mu=\alpha^{\prime}$. Under the inverse of $\eta$ in Proposition 8.1 we obtain a homomorphism of $\Lambda$-modules $\beta: B \rightarrow \bar{\Lambda}$. Finally by the naturality of $\eta$, the diagram

is commutative. $\quad \square$
We are now prepared to prove the dual of Proposition 4.3.
Proposition 8.3. Every 1-module $A$ is a submodule of a cofree, hence injective, 1-module.

Proof. Let $0 \neq a \in A$ and let (a) denote the submodule of $A$ generated by $a$. By the remarks preceeding Theorem 8.2 there exists a nonzero $\Lambda$-homomorphism $\alpha:(a) \rightarrow \Lambda^{*}$. Since $\Lambda^{*}$ is injective there exists $\beta_{a}: A \rightarrow \Lambda^{*}$ such that the diagram

is commutative. By the universal property of the direct product the $\beta_{a}$ define a homomorphism $\beta: A \rightarrow \prod_{\substack{a \in A \\ a \neq 0}}\left(\Lambda_{a}^{*}\right)$, where $\Lambda_{a}^{*}=\Lambda^{*}$. Clearly $\beta$ is monomorphic. $\quad]$

We conclude this section by dualizing Theorem 4.7.
Theorem 8.4. For a $\Lambda$-module I the following statements are equivalent:
(1) I is injective;
(2) for every exact sequence $A \xrightarrow{\mu} B \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} C$ of $\Lambda$-modules the induced sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, I) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(B, I) \xrightarrow{\mu^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(A, I) \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact;
(3) if $\mu: I \hookrightarrow B$ is a monomorphism, then there exists $\beta: B \rightarrow I$ such that $\beta \mu=1_{B}$;
(4) I is a direct summand in every module which contains I as submodule;
(5) $I$ is a direct summand in a cofree module.

The proof is dual to the proof of Theorem 4.7. For the step $(3) \Rightarrow(4)$ one needs the dual of Lemma 4.6. The details are left to the reader. $\quad$

Note that, to preserve duality, one should really speak of "direct factor" in (4) and (5), rather than "direct summand". However, the two notions coincide!

## Exercises:

8.1. Complete the proof of Theorem 8.4.
8.2. Let $A$ be a $\Lambda$-module and let $G$ be a divisible abelian group containing $A$. Show that we may embed $A$ in an injective module by the scheme

$$
A=\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(\Lambda, A) \leqq \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\Lambda, A) \leqq \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\Lambda, G) .
$$

(You should check that we obtain an embedding of $\Lambda$-modules.)
8.3. For any $\Lambda$-module $A$, let $A^{*}$ be the right $\Lambda$-module $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})$. Show that $A$ is naturally embedded in $A^{* *}$. Use this embedding and a free presentation of $A^{*}$ to embed $A$ in a cofree module.
8.4. Suppose given $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow I_{1} \rightarrow J_{1} \rightarrow 0,0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow I_{2} \rightarrow J_{2} \rightarrow 0$, with $I_{1}, I_{2}$ injective. Show that $I_{1} \oplus J_{2} \cong I_{2} \oplus J_{1}$. To what statement is this dual?
8.5. State a property of divisible modules which you suspect may not hold for arbitrary injective modules.

## 9. Essential Extensions

In this section we shall show that to a given $\Lambda$-module $A$ there exists an injective module $E$ containing $A$ such that every injective module containing $A$ also contains an isomorphic copy of $E$. This property will define $E$ up to isomorphism. $E$ is called the injective envelope of $A$. We remark (see Exercise 9.5) that the dual of the injective envelope ("projective cover") does not exist in general.

Definition. A monomorphism $\mu: A \hookrightarrow B$ is called essential if for any submodule $H$ of $B, H \neq 0$ implies $H \cap \mu A \neq 0$. If $A$ is regarded as a submodule of $B$ then $B$ is called an essential extension of $A$ (see [12]).

Examples. (a) As abelian group $\mathbb{Q}$ is an essential extension of $\mathbb{Z}$.
(b) The module $B=A \oplus C$ can never be an essential extension of $A$, unless $C=0$. For $C \cap A=0$.

Note that if $B$ is an essential extension of $A$, and $C$ is an essential extension of $B$, then $C$ is an essential extension of $A$.

Proposition 9.1. $B$ is an essential extension of $A$ if and only if, for every $0 \neq b \in B$, there exists $\lambda \in \Lambda$ such that $\lambda b \in A$ and $\lambda b \neq 0$.

Proof. Let $B$ be an essential extension of $A$, and let $H$ be the submodule generated by $b \in B$. Since $H \neq 0$ it follows that $H \cap A \neq 0$, i.e. there exists $\lambda \in \Lambda$ such that $0 \neq \lambda b \in A$. Conversely, let $H$ be a non-trivial submodule of $B$. For $0 \neq h \in H$ there exists $\lambda \in \Lambda$ such that $0 \neq \lambda h \in A$. Therefore $H \cap A \neq 0$, and $B$ is an essential extension of $A$. $\square$

Let $A$ be a submodule of a $\Lambda$-module $M$. Consider the set $\Phi$ of essential extensions of $A$, contained in $M$. Since $A$ is an essential extension of itself, $\Phi$ is not empty. Under inclusion, $\Phi$ is inductive. Indeed, if $\left\{E_{j}\right\}, j \in J$, is a chain of essential extensions of $A$ contained in $M$, then it follows easily from Proposition 9.1 that their union $\bigcup_{j \in J} E_{j}$ is again an essential extension of $A$ contained in $M$. By Zorn's Lemma there exists a maximal essential extension $E$ of $A$ which is contained in $M$.

Theorem 9.2. Let $A$ be a submodule of the injective module I. Let $E$ be a maximal essential extension of $A$ contained in $I$. Then $E$ is injective.

Proof. First we show that $E$ does not admit any non-trivial essential monomorphism.

Let $\mu: E \rightarrow X$ be an essential monomorphism. Since $I$ is injective, there exists a homomorphism $\xi: X \rightarrow I$ completing the diagram


We show that $\xi$ is monomorphic. Let $H$ be the kernel of $\xi$. We then have $H \subseteq X$ and $H \cap \mu E=0$. Hence $\operatorname{ker} \xi=H=0$, for $\mu$ is essential. It follows that $\xi X$ is an essential extension of $A$ contained in $I$. Since $E$ is maximal, it follows that $X=E$.

Now consider the set $\Psi$ of submodules $H \subseteq I$ such that $H \cap E=0$. Since $0 \in \Psi, \Psi$ is non empty, it is ordered by inclusion and inductive. Hence by Zorn's Lemma there exists a maximal submodule $\bar{H}$ of $I$ such that $\bar{H} \cap E=0$. The canonical projection $\pi: I \rightarrow I / \bar{H}$ induces a monomorphism $\sigma=\left.\pi\right|_{E}: E_{\hookrightarrow} I_{/} \bar{H}$. We shall show that $\sigma$ is essential. Let $H_{i} \bar{H}$ be a non-trivial submodule of $I_{i}^{\prime} \bar{H}$, i.e. let $\bar{H} \subset H \cong I$ where the
first inclusion is strict. By the maximality of $\bar{H}$ the intersection $H \cap E$ is non-trivial, hence $H / \bar{H} \cap \sigma E$ is non-trivial. It follows that $\sigma$ is essential. By the first part of the proof $E$ admits no proper essential monomorphism, whence it follows that $\sigma: E \stackrel{\sim}{\rightarrow} I / \bar{H}$ is an isomorphism. The sequence $\bar{H} \hookrightarrow I \xrightarrow{\sigma^{-1 \pi}} E$ now splits by the embedding of $E$ in $I$. Therefore $E$ is a direct summand in $I$ and is injective by Proposition 6.3.

Corollary 9.3. Let $E_{1}, E_{2}$ be two maximal essential extensions of $A$ contained in injective modules $I_{1}, I_{2}$. Then $E_{1} \cong E_{2}$ and every injective module I containing $A$ also contains a submodule isomorphic to $E_{1}$. $\quad$ ]

Definition. $E_{1}$ is called the injective envelope of $A$.
Proof. Consider the diagram


Since $E_{2}$ is injective there exists $\xi: E_{1} \rightarrow E_{2}$ completing the diagram. As in the proof of Theorem 9.2 one shows that $\xi$ is monomorphic. But then $E_{2}$, as an essential extension of $A$, is also an essential extension of $E_{1}$, which shows, again as in the proof of Theorem 9.2 , that $\xi: E_{1} \stackrel{\sim}{\rightarrow} E_{2}$. The proof of the second part is now trivial. $\quad]$

## Exercises:

9.1. Compute the injective envelope of $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}_{p}, p$ prime, $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$.
9.2. Show that if $B_{i}$ is an essential extension of $A_{i}, i=1,2$, then $B_{1} \oplus B_{2}$ is an essential extension of $A_{1} \oplus A_{2}$. Extend this to direct sums over any index set $J$.
9.3. Given any abelian group $A$, let $T(A)$ be its torsion subgroup and $F(A)=A / T(A)$. Show that $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ induces $T(\varphi): T(A) \rightarrow T(B), F(\varphi): F(A) \rightarrow F(B)$, and that $\varphi$ is a monomorphism if and only if $T(\varphi)$ and $F(\varphi)$ are monomorphisms. Show that the monomorphism $\varphi$ is essential, if and only if $T(\varphi)$ and $F(\varphi)$ are essential. Now suppose given

where $A \cong C$ is to be regarded as fixed, and $B$ is an essential extension of $A$. Show that if $T(B)$ and $F(B)$ are maximal, so is $B$. Show that if $B$ is maximal, so is $T(B)$, but that $F(B)$ may fail to be maximal.

Show that if $C$ is divisible, so are $T(C)$ and $F(C)$. What does this tell us about the injective envelope of $T(A), A$ and $F(A)$ ?
9.4. Give a procedure for calculating the maximal essential extension of $A$ in $B$, where $B$ is a finitely generated abelian group.
9.5. Show that the dual of an injective envelope does not always exist. That is, given a $\Lambda$-module $A$, we cannot in general find $P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A, P$ projective, such that. given $Q \xrightarrow{\eta} A, Q$ projective, we may factor $\eta$ as $Q \xrightarrow{\varepsilon^{\prime}} P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A$. (Hint: Take $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$, $A=\mathbb{Z}_{5}$.) Where does the dual argument fail?

## II. Categories and Functors

In Chapter I we discussed various algebraic structures (rings, abelian groups, modules) and their appropriate transformations (homomorphisms). We also saw how certain constructions (for example, the formation of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B)$ for given $\Lambda$-modules $\left.A, B\right)$ produced new structures out of given structures. Over and above this we introduced certain "universal" constructions (direct sum, direct product) and suggested that they constituted special cases of a general, and important, procedure. Our objective in this chapter is to establish the appropriate mathematical language for the general description of mathematical systems and of mappings of systems, insofar as that language is applicable to homological algebra.

The language of categories and functors was first introduced by Eilenberg and MacLane [13] to provide a precise description of the processes involved in algebraic topology. Since then an independent mathematical theory has grown up around the basic concepts of the language and today the development, elaboration and application of this theory constitute an extremely active area of mathematical research. It is not our intention to give a treatment of this developing theory; the reader who wishes to pursue the topic of categorical algebra is referred to the texts $[6,18,35,37-39]$ for further reading. Indeed, the reader familiar with the elements of categorical algebra may use this chapter simply as a source of relevant facts, terminology and notation.

## 1. Categories

To define a category $\mathbb{C}$ we must give three pieces of data:
(1) a class of objects $A, B, C, \ldots$,
(2) to each pair of objects $A, B$ of $\mathbb{C}$. a set $\mathbb{C}(A, B)$ of morphisms from $A$ to $B$,
(3) to each triple of objects $A, B, C$ of $\mathbb{C}$, a law of composition

$$
\mathfrak{C}(A, B) \times \mathfrak{C}(B, C) \rightarrow \mathfrak{C}(A, C)
$$

Before giving the axioms which a category must satisfy we introduce some auxiliary notation: this should also serve to relate our terminology
and notation with ideas which are already very familiar. If $f \in \mathbb{C}(A, B)$ we may think of the morphism $f$ as a generalized "function" from $A$ to $B$ and write

$$
f: A \rightarrow B \quad \text { or } \quad A \xrightarrow{f} B ;
$$

we call $f$ a morphism from the domain $A$ to the codomain (or range) $\boldsymbol{B}$. The set $\mathbb{C}(A, B) \times \mathbb{C}(B, C)$ consists, of course, of pairs $(f, g)$ where $f: A \rightarrow B$, $g: B \rightarrow C$ and we will write the composition of $f$ and $g$ as $g$ or, simply, $g f$. The rationale for this notation (see the Introduction) lies in the fact that if $A, B, C$ are sets and $f, g$ are functions then the composite function from $A$ to $C$ is the function $h$ given by

$$
h(a)=g(f(a)), \quad a \in A .
$$

Thus if the function symbol is written to the left of the argument symbol one is naturally led to write $h=f g$. (Of course it will turn out that sets, functions and function-composition do constitute a category.)

We are now ready to state the axioms. The first is really more of a convention, the latter two being much more substantial.

A 1: The sets $\mathbb{C}\left(A_{1}, B_{1}\right), \mathbb{C}\left(A_{2}, B_{2}\right)$ are disjoint unless $A_{1}=A_{2}, B_{1}=B_{2}$.
A 2: Given $f: A \rightarrow B, g: B \rightarrow C, h: C \rightarrow D$, then

$$
h(g f)=(h g) f \quad(\text { Associative law of composition }) .
$$

A 3: To each object $A$ there is a morphism $1_{A}: A \rightarrow A$ such that, for any $f: A \rightarrow B, g: C \rightarrow A$,

$$
f 1_{A}=f, \quad 1_{A} g=g \quad \text { (Existence of } \text { identities). }
$$

It is easy to see that the morphism $1_{A}$ is uniquely determined by Axiom A 3. We call $1_{A}$ the identity morphism of $A$, and we will often suppress the suffix $A$, writing simply

$$
f 1=f, \quad 1 g=g .
$$

As remarked, and readily verified, the category $\mathfrak{G}$ of sets, functions and function-composition satisfies the axioms. We often refer to the category of sets $\mathbb{\Im}$; indeed, more generally, in describing a category we omit reference to the law of composition when the morphisms are functions and composition is ordinary function-composition (or when, for some other reason, the law of composition is evident), and we even omit reference to the nature of the morphisms if the context. or custom, makes their nature obvious.

A word is necessary about the significance of Axiom A1. Let us consider this axiom in $\mathfrak{G}$. It is standard practice today to distinguish two functions if their domains are distinct, even if they take the same values whenever they are both defined. Thus the sine function $\sin : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
is distinguished from its extension $\sin : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ to the complex field. However, the two functions

$$
\sin : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad \sin : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow[-1,1]
$$

would normally be regarded as the same function, although we have assigned to them different codomains. However we will see that it is useful - indeed, essential - in homological algebra to distinguish morphisms unless their (explicitly specified) domains and codomains coincide.

It is also crucial in topology. Suppose $f_{1}: X \rightarrow Y_{1}, f_{2}: X \rightarrow Y_{2}$ are two continuous functions which in fact take the same values, i.e., $f_{1}(x)=f_{2}(x)$, $x \in X$. Then it may well happen that one of those functions is contractible whereas the other is not. Take, as an example, $X=S^{1}$, the unit circle in $\mathbb{R}^{2}, f_{1}$ the embedding of $X$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ and $f_{2}$ the embedding of $X$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$-( 0 ). Then $f_{1}$ is contractible, while $f_{2}$ is not, so that certainly $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ should be distinguished.

Notice also that the composition $g f$ is only defined if the codomain of $f$ coincides with the domain of $g$.

We say that a morphism $f: A \rightarrow B$ in $\mathbb{C}$ is isomorphic (or invertible) if there exists a morphism $g: B \rightarrow A$ in $\mathbb{C}$ such that

$$
g f=1_{A}, \quad f g=1_{B} .
$$

It is plain that $g$ is then itself invertible and is uniquely determined by $f$; we write $g=f^{-1}$, so that

$$
\left(f^{-1}\right)^{-1}=f
$$

It is also plain that the composite of two invertible morphisms is again invertible and thus the relation

$$
A \equiv B \quad \text { if there exists an invertible } f: A \rightarrow B
$$

( $A$ is isomorphic to $B$ ) is an equivalence relation on the objects of the category $\mathfrak{C}$. This relation has special names in different categories (oneone correspondence of sets, isomorphism of groups, homeomorphism of spaces), but it is important to observe that it is a categorical concept.

We now list several examples of categories.
(a) The category $\mathfrak{G}$ of sets and functions;
(b) the category $\mathfrak{I}$ of topological spaces and continuous functions;
(c) the category $\mathbf{5}$ of groups and homomorphisms;
(d) the category $\mathfrak{U l b}$ of abelian groups and homomorphisms;
(e) the category $\mathfrak{B}_{F}$ of vectorspaces over the field $F$ and linear transformations;
(f) the category $\mathfrak{G}_{\boldsymbol{c}}$ of topological groups and continuous homomorphisms;
(g) the category $\mathfrak{R}$ of rings and ring-homomorphisms;
(h) the category $\Re_{1}$ of rings-with-unity-element and ring-homomorphisms preserving unity-element;
(i) the category $\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}^{\boldsymbol{l}}$ of left $\Lambda$-modules, where $\Lambda$ is an object of $\mathfrak{R}_{1}$, and module-homomorphisms;
(j) the category $\mathfrak{M r}_{\Lambda}^{r}$ of right $\Lambda$-modules.

Plainly the list could be continued indefinitely. Plainly also each category carries its appropriate notion of invertible morphisms and isomorphic objects. In all the examples given the morphisms are structurepreserving functions; however, it is important to emphasize that the morphisms of a category need not be functions, even when the objects of the category are sets perhaps with additional structure. To give one example, consider the category $\boldsymbol{I}_{\boldsymbol{h}}$ of spaces and homotopy classes of continuous functions. Since the homotopy class of a composite function depends only on the homotopy classes of its factors it is evident that $\mathfrak{I}_{h}$ is a category - but the morphisms are not themselves functions. Other examples will be found in Exercises 1.1, 1.2.

Returning to our list of examples, we remark that in examples $c, d$, $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{j}$ the category $\mathbb{C}$ in question possesses an object 0 with the property that, for any object $X$ in $\mathbb{C}$, the sets $\mathbb{C}(X, 0)$ and $\mathbb{C}(0, X)$ both consist of precisely one element.

Thus in $\mathfrak{G}$ and $\mathfrak{H b}$ we may take for 0 any one-element group. It is easy to prove that. if $\mathbb{C}$ possesses such an object 0 , called a zero object, then any two such objects are isomorphic and $\mathfrak{C}(X, Y)$ then possesses a distinguished morphism,

$$
X \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow Y
$$

called the zero morphism and written $0_{X Y}$. For any $f: W \rightarrow X, g: Y \rightarrow Z$ in (C) we have

$$
0_{X Y} f=0_{W Y}, \quad g 0_{X Y}=0_{X Z}
$$

As with the identity morphism, so with the zero morphism $0_{X Y}$, we will usually suppress the indices and simply write 0 . If $\mathbb{C}$ possesses zero objects it is called a category with zero objects.

If we turn to example (a) of the category $\mathfrak{G}$ then we notice that, given any set $X, \mathcal{S}(\emptyset, X)$ consists of just one element (where $\emptyset$ is the empty set) and $\mathcal{S}(X,(p))$ consists of just one element (where $(p)$ is a one-element set). Thus in $\Xi$ there is an initial object $\emptyset$ and a terminal (or coinitial) object ( $p$ ), but no zero object. The reader should have no difficulty in providing precise definitions of initial and terminal objects in a category $\mathbb{C}$, and will readily prove that all initial objects in a category $\mathbb{C}$ are isomorphic and so, too, are all terminal objects.

The final notion we introduce in this section is that of a subcategory $\boldsymbol{C}_{0}$ of a given category $\mathbb{C}$. The reader will readily provide the explicit definition; of particular importance among the subcategories of $\mathfrak{C}$ are the full
subcategories, that is, those subcategories $\mathfrak{C}_{0}$ of $\mathfrak{C}$ such that

$$
\mathfrak{C}_{0}(A, B)=\mathfrak{C}(A, B)
$$

for any objects $A, B$ of $\mathfrak{C}_{0}$. For example, $\mathfrak{M l b}$ is a full subcategory of $\mathfrak{G}$, but $\Re_{1}$ is a subcategory of $\mathfrak{R}$ which is not full.

## Exercises:

1.1. Show how to represent an ordered set as a category. (Hint: Regard the elements $a, b, \ldots$ of the set as objects in the category, and the instances $a \leqq b$ of the ordering relation as morphisms $a \rightarrow b$.) Express in categorical language the fact that the ordered set is directed [16]. Show that a subset of an ordered set, with its natural ordering, is a full subcategory.
1.2. Show how to represent a group as a category with a single object, all morphisms being invertible. Show that a subcategory is then precisely a subgroup. When is the subcategory full?
1.3. Show that the category of groups has a generator. (A generator $U$ of a category $\mathfrak{C}$ is an object such that if $f, g: X \rightarrow Y$ in $\mathbb{C}, f \neq g$, then there exists $u: U \rightarrow X$ with $f u \neq g u$.)
1.4. Show that, in the category of groups. there is a one-one correspondence between elements of $G$ and morphisms $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow G$.
1.5. Carry out exercises analogous to Exercises $1.3,1.4$ for the category of sets, the category of spaces, the category of pointed spaces (i.e. each space has a base-point and morphisms are to preserve base-points, see [21]).
1.6. Set out in detail the natural definition of the Cartesian product $\mathfrak{C}_{1} \times \mathbb{C}_{2}$ of two categories $\mathfrak{C}_{1}, \mathfrak{C}_{2}$.
1.7. Show that if a category has a zero object, then every initial object, and every terminal object, is isomorphic to that zero object. Deduce that the category of sets has no zero object.

## 2. Functors

Within a category $\mathfrak{C}$ we have the morphism sets $\mathfrak{C}(X, Y)$ which serve to establish connections between different objects of the category. Now the language of categories has been developed to delineate the various areas of mathematical theory; thus it is natural that we should wish to be able to describe connections between different categories. We now formulate the notion of a transformation from one category to another. Such a transformation is called a functor; thus, precisely, a functor $F: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ is a rule which associates with every object $X$ of $\mathfrak{C}$ an object $F X$ of $\mathfrak{D}$ and with every morphism $f$ in $\mathfrak{C}(X, Y)$ a morphism $F f$ in $\mathfrak{D}(F X, F Y)$, subject to the rules

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(f g)=(F f)(F g), \quad F\left(1_{A}\right)=1_{F A} . \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The reader should be reminded, in studying (2.1), of rules governing homomorphisms of familiar algebraic systems. He should also observe that we have evidently the notion of an identity functor and of the composition of functors. Composition is associative and we may thus pass to invertible functors and isomorphic categories.

We now list several examples of functors. The reader will need to establish the necessary facts and complete the descriptions of the functors.
(a) The embedding of a subcategory $\mathfrak{C}_{0}$ in a category $\mathfrak{C}$ is a functor.
(b) Let $G$ be any group and let $G^{\prime} G^{\prime}$ be its abelianized group, i.e. the quotient of $G$ by its commutator subgroup $G^{\prime}$. Then $\boldsymbol{G} \mapsto G / G^{\prime}$ induces the abelianizing functor Abel: $\mathfrak{G} \rightarrow(\mathbb{5}$. Of course this functor may also be regarded as a functor $\mathfrak{G} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$. This example enables us to exhibit. once more, the importance of being precise about specifying the codomain of a morphism. Consider the groups $G=C_{3}$. the cyclic group of order 3 generated by $t$, say, and $H=S_{3}$, the symmetric group on three symbols. Let $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ be given by $\varphi(t)=(123)$, the cyclic permutation. Let $H_{0}$ be the subgroup of $H$ generated by (123) and let $\varphi_{0}: G \rightarrow H_{0}$ be given by $\varphi_{0}(t)=(123)$. It may well appear pedantic to distinguish $\varphi_{0}$ from $\varphi$ but we justify the distinction when we apply the abelianizing functor Abel: $\left(\mathfrak{G} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{G}\right.$. For plainly $\operatorname{Abel}(G)=G, \operatorname{Abel}\left(H_{0}\right)=H_{0}, \operatorname{Abel}\left(\varphi_{0}\right)=\varphi_{0}$, which is an isomorphism. On the other hand, $H_{0}$ is the commutator subgroup of $H$, so that $\operatorname{Abel}(H)=H / H_{0}$ and so $\operatorname{Abel}(\varphi)=0$, the constant homomorphism (or zero morphism) $G \rightarrow H_{i}^{\prime} H_{0}\left(\cong C_{2}\right)$. Thus Abel $(\varphi)$ and $\operatorname{Abel}\left(\varphi_{0}\right)$ are utterly different!
(c) Let $S$ be a set and let $F(S)$ be the free abelian group on $S$ as basis. This construction yields the free functor $F: \subseteq \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$. Similarly there are free functors $\mathfrak{S} \rightarrow \mathfrak{G}, \mathfrak{S} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}_{F}, \mathfrak{S} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{A}^{l}, \mathfrak{S} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{A}^{r}$, etc.
(d) Underlying every topological space there is a set. Thus we get an underlying functor $U: \mathfrak{I} \rightarrow \Xi$. Similarly there are underlying functors from all the examples (a) to (j) of categories (in Section 1) to $\mathfrak{G}$. There are also underlying functors $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{l} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{b}, \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{r} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{b}, \mathfrak{R} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{b}$, etc., in which some structure is "forgotten" or "thrown away".
(e) The fundamental group may be regarded as a functor $\pi: \mathfrak{T}^{\mathbf{0}} \rightarrow(\mathfrak{G}$, where $\mathfrak{T}^{0}$ is the category of spaces-with-base-point (see [21]). It may also be regarded as a functor $\bar{\pi}: \mathfrak{T}_{h}^{0} \rightarrow(\mathfrak{G}$, where the subscript $h$ indicates that the morphisms are to be regarded as (based) homotopy classes of (based) continuous functions. Indeed there is an evident classifying functor $Q: \mathfrak{I}^{0} \rightarrow \mathfrak{I}_{h}^{0}$ and then $\pi$ factors as $\pi=\bar{\pi} Q$.
(f) Similarly the (singular) homology groups are functors $\mathfrak{I} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$ (or $\mathfrak{T}_{h} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{Q} \mathfrak{b}$ ).
(g) We saw in Chapter I how the set $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{l}(A, B)=\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B)$ may be given the structure of an abelian group. If we hold $A$ fixed and define
$\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{l}(A,-): \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}^{\boldsymbol{l}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$ by

$$
\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{l}(A,-)(B)=\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{l}(A, B),
$$

then $\mathfrak{M}_{A}^{l}(A,-)$ is a functor. More generally, for any category $\mathfrak{C}$ and object $A$ of $\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{C}(A,-)$ is a functor from $\mathfrak{C}$ to $\mathfrak{C}$. We say that this functor is represented by $A$. It is an important question whether a given functor (usually to $\mathbb{\Xi}$ ) may be represented in this sense by an object of the category.

In viewing the last example the reader will have noted an asymmetry. We have recognized $\mathfrak{M}_{A}^{l}(A,-)$ as a functor $\mathfrak{M}_{A}^{l} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{b}$, but if we look at the corresponding construct $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{l}(-, B): \mathfrak{M}_{A}^{l} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U} \mathfrak{b}$, we see that this is not a functor. For, writing $F$ for $\mathfrak{M}_{A}^{l}(-, B)$, then $F$ sends $f: A_{1} \rightarrow A_{2}$ to $F f: F A_{2} \rightarrow F A_{1}$. This "reversal of arrows" turns up frequently in applications of categorical ideas and we now formalize the description.

Given any category $\mathbb{C}$. we may form a new category $\mathbb{C}^{\text {opp }}$, the category opposite to $\mathbb{C}$. The objects of $\mathbb{C}^{\text {opp }}$ are precisely those of $\mathbb{C}$, but

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{C}^{\mathrm{opp}}(X, Y)=\mathfrak{C}(Y, X) . \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then the composition in $\mathbb{C}^{\text {opp }}$ is simply that which follows naturally from (2.2) and the law of composition in $\mathbb{C}$. It is trivial to verify that $\mathbb{C}^{\text {opp }}$ is a category with the same identity morphisms as $\mathbb{C}$, and that if $\mathbb{C}$ has zero objects, then the same objects are zero objects of $\mathbb{C}^{\text {opp }}$. Moreover,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\mathbb{C}^{\mathbf{o p p}}\right)^{\mathbf{o p p}}=\mathbb{C} . \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Of course the construction of $\mathfrak{C}^{\text {opp }}$ is merely a formal device. However it does enable us to express precisely the contravariant nature of $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{l}(-, B)$ or, more generally, $\mathfrak{C}(-, B)$, and to formulate the concept of categorical duality (see Section 3).

Thus, given two categories $\mathfrak{C}$ and $\mathfrak{T}$ a contravariant functor from $\mathfrak{C}$ to $\mathfrak{D}$ is a functor from $\mathfrak{C}^{\text {opp }}$ to $\mathfrak{D}$. The reader should note that the effective difference between a functor as originally defined (often referred to as a covariant functor) and a contravariant functor is that, for a contravariant functor $F$ from $\mathbb{C}$ to $\mathfrak{D}, F$ maps $\mathbb{C}(X, Y)$ to $\mathfrak{D}(F Y, F X)$ and (compare (2.1)) $\boldsymbol{F}(f g)=F(g) F(f)$. We give the following examples of contravariant functors.
(a) $\mathfrak{C}(-, B)$, for $B$ an object in $\mathbb{C}$, is a contravariant functor from $\mathfrak{C}$ to $\mathfrak{G}$. Similarly, $\mathfrak{M}_{A}^{l}(-, B), \mathfrak{M}_{A}^{r}(-, B)$ are contravariant functors from $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{l} . \mathfrak{M}_{A}^{r}$ respectively to $\mathfrak{l l}$. We say that these functors are represented by $B$.
(b) The (singular) cohomology groups are contravariant functors $\mathfrak{T} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A b}$ (or $\mathfrak{T}_{\boldsymbol{h}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Q l b}$ ).
(c) Let $A$ be an object of $\mathfrak{M}_{A}^{r}$ and let $G$ be an abelian group. We saw in Section I. 8 how to give $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{Z}}(A, G)$ the structure of a left $\Lambda$-module.
$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(-, G)$ thus appears as a contravariant functor from $\mathfrak{M}_{A}^{r}$ to $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{l}$. Further examples will appear as exercises.

Finally we make the following definitions. Recall from Section 1 the notion of a full subcategory. Consistent with that definition, we now define a functor $F: \mathfrak{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ as full if $F$ maps $\mathfrak{C}(A, B)$ onto $\mathfrak{D}(F A, F B)$ for all objects $A, B$ in $\mathfrak{C}$, and as faithful if $F$ maps $\mathfrak{C}(A, B)$ injectively to $\mathfrak{D}(F A, F B)$. Finally $F$ is a full embedding if $F$ is full and faithful and one-to-one on objects. Notice that then $F(\mathbb{C})$ is a full subcategory of $\mathfrak{T}$ (in general, $F(\mathbb{C})$ is not a category at all).

## Exercises:

2.1. Regarding ordered sets as categories, identify functors from ordered sets to ordered sets, and to an arbitrary category $\mathfrak{C}$. Also interpret the opposite category. (See Exercise 1.1.)
2.2. Regarding groups as categories, identify functors from groups to groups. Show that the opposite of a group is isomorphic to the group.
2.3. Show that the center is not a functor $\mathfrak{G} \rightarrow\left(\mathbb{G}\right.$ in any obvious way. Let $\mathfrak{G}_{\text {cpi }}$ be the subcategory of $\mathfrak{G}$ in which the morphisms are the surjections. Show that the center is a functor $\mathfrak{G}_{\text {epi }} \rightarrow \mathfrak{G}$. Is it a functor $\mathfrak{G}_{\text {epi }} \rightarrow \mathfrak{G}_{\text {epi }}$ ?
2.4. Give examples of underlying functors.
2.5. Show that the composite of two functors is again a functor. (Discuss both covariant and contravariant functors.)
2.6. Let $\Phi$ associate with each commutative unitary ring $R$ the set of its prime ideals. Show that $\Phi$ is a contravariant functor from the category of commutative unitary rings to the category of sets. Assign to the set of prime ideals of $R$ the topology in which a base of neighborhoods is given by the sets of prime ideals containing a given ideal $J$, as $J$ runs through the ideals of $R$. Show that $\Phi$ is then a contravariant functor to $\mathfrak{I}$.
2.7. Let $F: \mathbb{C}_{1} \times \mathbb{C}_{2} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ be a functor from the Cartesian product $\mathbb{C}_{1} \times \mathbb{C}_{2}$ to the category $\mathfrak{D}$ (see Exercise 1.6). $\boldsymbol{F}$ is then also called a bifunctor from $\left(\mathbb{C}_{1}, \mathfrak{C}_{2}\right)$ to $\mathfrak{D}$. Show that, for each $\boldsymbol{C}_{1} \in \mathbb{C}_{1}, F$ determines a functor $F_{\mathcal{C}_{1}}: \mathbb{C}_{2} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ and, similarly, for each $C_{2} \in \mathbb{C}_{2}$, a functor $F_{C_{2}}: \mathbb{C}_{1} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$, such that, if $\varphi_{1}: C_{1} \rightarrow C_{1}^{\prime}$, $\varphi_{2}: C_{2} \rightarrow C_{2}^{\prime}$, then the diagram

commutes. What is the diagonal of this diagram? Show conversely that if we have functors $\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathfrak{C}_{1}}: \mathbb{C}_{\mathbf{2}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}, \boldsymbol{F}_{\boldsymbol{C}_{2}}: \mathfrak{C}_{\boldsymbol{C}_{1}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$, indexed by the objects of $\mathfrak{C}_{1}, \mathfrak{C}_{2}$ respectively, such that $F_{C_{1}}\left(C_{2}\right)=F_{C_{2}}\left(C_{1}\right)$ and (*) commutes, then these families of functors determine a bifunctor $G: \mathbb{C}_{1} \times \mathbb{C}_{2} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ such that $G_{C_{1}}=F_{\mathcal{C}_{1}}, G_{C_{2}}=F_{C_{2}}$.
2.8. Show that $\mathbb{C}(-,-): \mathbb{C}^{\text {opp }} \times \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}$ is a bifunctor.

## 3. Duality

Our object in this section is to explain informally the duality principle in category theory. We first give an example taken from Section I. 6. We saw there that the injective homomorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$ are precisely the monomorphisms, i.e. those morphisms $\mu$ such that for all $\alpha, \beta$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu \alpha=\mu \beta \Rightarrow \alpha=\beta . \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(The reader familiar with ring theory will notice the formal similarity with right-regularity.) Similarly the surjective homomorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$ are precisely the epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{A}$, i.e. those morphisms $\varepsilon$ such that for all $\alpha, \beta$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha \varepsilon=\beta \varepsilon \Rightarrow \alpha=\beta . \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

(The reader will notice that the corresponding concept in ring theory is left-regularity.) Now given any category, we define a monomorphism $\mu$ by (3.1) and an epimorphism $\varepsilon$ by (3.2). It is then plain that, if $\varphi$ is a morphism in $\mathbb{C}$, then $\varphi$ is a monomorphism in $\mathbb{C}$ if and only if it is an epimorphism as a morphism of $\mathfrak{C}^{\text {opp }}$. It then follows from (2.3) that a statement about epimorphisms and monomorphisms which is true in any category must remain true if the prefixes "epi-" and "mono-" are interchanged and "arrows are reversed". Let us take a trivial example. An easy argument establishes the fact that if $\varphi \psi$ is monomorphic then $\psi$ is monomorphic. We may thus apply the "duality principle" to infer immediately that if $\psi \varphi$ is epimorphic then $\psi$ is epimorphic. Indeed, the two italicized statements are logically equivalent - either stated for $\mathfrak{C}$ implies the other for $\mathfrak{C}^{\text {opp }}$. It is superfluous to write down a proof of the second, once the first has been proved.

It is very likely that the reader will come better to appreciate the duality principle after meeting several examples of its applications. Nevertheless we will give a general statement of the principle; this statement will not be sufficiently formal to satisfy the canons of mathematical logic but will, we hope, be intelligible and helpful.

Let us consider a concept $\mathscr{C}$ (like monomorphism) which is meaningful in any category. Since the objects and morphisms of $\mathbb{C}^{\text {npp }}$ are those of $\mathbb{C}$, it makes sense to apply the concept $\mathscr{C}$ to $\mathbb{C}^{\mathrm{opp}}$ and then to interpret the resulting statement in $\mathfrak{C}$. This procedure leads to a new concept $\mathscr{C}^{\text {opp }}$ which is related to $\mathscr{C}$ by the rule (writing $\mathscr{C}(\mathscr{C})$ for the concept $\mathscr{C}$ applied to the category $\mathbb{C}$ )

$$
\mathscr{C}^{\mathrm{opp}}(\mathbb{C})=\mathscr{C}\left(\mathfrak{C}^{\text {opp }}\right) \quad \text { for any category } \mathfrak{C}
$$

Thus if $\mathscr{C}$ is the concept of monomorphism, $\mathscr{C}^{\mathrm{opp}}$ is the concept of epimorphism (compare (3.1), (3.2)). We may also say that $\mathscr{C}^{\circ \mathrm{opp}}$ is obtained from $\mathscr{C}$ by "reversing arrows". This "arrow-reversing" procedure may
thus be applied to definitions, axioms, statements, theorems ..., and hence also to proofs. Thus if one shows that a certain theorem $\mathscr{T}$ holds in any category $\mathfrak{C}$ satisfying certain additional axioms $A, B, \ldots$, then theorem $\mathscr{T}^{\text {opp }}$ holds in any category $\mathbb{C}$ satisfying axioms $A^{\text {opp }}, B^{\text {opp }}, \ldots$. In particular if $\mathscr{T}$ holds in any category so does $\mathscr{T}^{\text {opp }}$.

This automatic process of dualizing is clearly extremely useful and convenient and will be much used in the sequel. However, the reader should be clear about the limitations in the scope of the duality principle. Suppose given a statement. $\mathscr{S}_{0}$ about a particular category $\mathfrak{C}_{0}$. involving concepts $\mathscr{C}_{01}, \ldots, \mathscr{C}_{0 k}$ expressed in terms of the objects and morphisms of $\mathfrak{C}_{0}$. For example, $\mathfrak{C}_{0}$ may be the category of groups and $\mathscr{S}_{0}$ may be the statement "A finite group of odd order is solvable". Now it may be possible to formulate a statement $\mathscr{S}$ about a general category $\mathbb{C}$, and concepts $\mathscr{C}_{1}, \ldots, \mathscr{C}_{\boldsymbol{k}}$, so that $\mathscr{S}\left(\mathbb{C}_{0}\right), \mathscr{C}_{1}\left(\mathbb{C}_{0}\right), \ldots, \mathscr{C}_{k}\left(\mathbb{C}_{0}\right)$ are equivalent to $\mathscr{S}_{0}, \mathscr{C}_{01}, \ldots, \mathscr{C}_{0 k}$ respectively. We may then dualize $\mathscr{S}, \mathscr{C}_{1}, \ldots, \mathscr{C}_{k}$, and interpret the resulting statement in the category $\mathfrak{C}_{0}$. Informally we may describe $\mathscr{S}^{\text {opp }}\left(\mathfrak{C}_{0}\right)$ as the dual of $\mathscr{S}_{0}$ but two warnings are in order:
(i) The passage from $\mathscr{S}_{0}$ to $\mathscr{\mathscr { S }}$ is not single-valued; that is, there may well be several statements about a general category which specialize to the given statement $\mathscr{C}_{0}$ about the category $\mathfrak{C}_{0}$. Likewise of course, the concepts $\mathscr{C}_{1}, \mathscr{C}_{2}, \ldots, \mathscr{C}_{k}$ may generalize in many different ways.
(ii) Even if $\mathscr{S}_{0}$ is provable in $\mathfrak{C}_{0}, \mathscr{S}^{\text {opp }}\left(\mathfrak{C}_{0}\right)$ may well be false in $\mathfrak{C}_{0}$.

However, if $\mathscr{S}$ is provable, then this constitutes a proof of $\mathscr{S}_{0}$ and of $\mathscr{S}^{\text {opp }}\left(\mathbb{C}_{0}\right)$. (This does not prevent $\mathscr{S}^{\mathrm{opp}}\left(\mathbb{C}_{0}\right)$ from being vacuous, of course; we cannot guarantee that the dual in this informal sense is always interesting!)

As an example, consider the statement $\mathscr{S}_{0}$ "Every $\Lambda$-module is the quotient of a projective module". This is a statement about the category $\mathfrak{C}_{0}=\mathfrak{M}_{A}^{l}$. Now there is a perfectly good concept of a projective object in any category $\mathfrak{C}$, based on the notion of an epimorphism. Thus (see Section 10) a projective object is an object $P$ with the property that. given $\varphi$ and $\varepsilon$,

with $\varepsilon$ epimorphic, there exists $\theta$ such that $\varepsilon \theta=\varphi$. We may formulate the statement $\mathscr{P}$, for any category $\mathbb{C}$. whieh states that, given any object $X$ in $\mathbb{C}$ there is an epimorphism $\varepsilon: P \rightarrow X$ with $P$ projective. Then $\mathscr{C}\left(\mathfrak{C}_{0}\right)$ is our original statement $\mathscr{S}_{0}$. We may now formulate $\mathscr{S}^{\mathrm{opp}}$ which asserts that, given any object $X$ in $\mathbb{C}$ there is a monomorphism $\mu: X \rightarrow I$ with $I$ injective (here "injective" is the evident concept dual to "projective"; the reader may easily formulate it explicitly). Then $\mathscr{S}^{\mathrm{opp}}\left(\mathfrak{C}_{0}\right)$ is the statement "Every $\Lambda$-module may be embedded in an injective module". Now it
happens (as we proved in Chapter I) that both $\mathscr{S}\left(\mathfrak{C}_{0}\right)$ and $\mathscr{S}^{\mathrm{opp}}\left(\mathfrak{C}_{0}\right)$ are true, but we cannot infer one from the other. For the right to do so would depend on our having a proof of $\mathscr{S}$ - and, in general, $\mathscr{S}$ is false.

We have said that, if $\mathscr{S}$ is provable then, of course, $\mathscr{S}\left(\mathbb{C}_{0}\right)$ and $\mathscr{S}^{\text {opp }}\left(\mathfrak{C}_{0}\right)$ are deducible. Clearly, though, this is usually too stringent a criterion; in other words, this principle does not permit us to deduce any but the most superficial of propositions about $\mathfrak{C}_{0}$, since it requires some statement to be true in any category. However, as suggested earlier, there is a refinement of the principle that does lead to practical results. Suppose we confine attention to categories satisfying certain conditions $Q$. Suppose moreover that these conditions are self-dual in the sense that, if any category $\mathbb{C}$ satisfies $Q$, so does $\mathbb{C}^{\text {opp }}$, and suppose further that $\mathfrak{C}_{0}$ satisfies conditions $Q$. Suppose $\mathscr{S}$ is a statement meaningful for any category satisfying $Q$ and suppose that $\mathscr{S}$ may be proved. Then we may infer both $\mathscr{S}\left(\mathfrak{C}_{0}\right)$ and $\mathscr{S}^{\mathrm{opp}}\left(\mathbb{C}_{0}\right)$. This principle indicates the utility of proving $\mathscr{S}$ for the entire class of categories satisfying $Q$ instead of merely for $\mathbb{C}_{0}$. We will meet this situation in Section 9 when we come to discuss abelian categories.

## Exercises:

3.1. Show that "epimorphic" means "surjective" and that "monomorphic" means "injective"
(i) in $\mathfrak{G}$, (ii) in $\mathfrak{T}$, (iii) in $\mathfrak{b}$.
3.2. Show that the inclusion $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$ is an epimorphism in the category of integral domains. Generalize to other epimorphic non-surjections in this category.
3.3. Consider the underlying functor $U: \mathfrak{I} \rightarrow \mathfrak{S}$. Show that $j: X_{0} \rightarrow X$ in $\mathfrak{T}$ is a homeomorphism of $X_{0}$ into $X$ if and only if it is a monomorphism and, for any $f: Y \rightarrow X$ in $\mathfrak{T}$, a factorization $U(j) g_{0}=U(f)$ in $\mathcal{S}$ implies $j f_{0}=f$ in $\mathfrak{T}$ with $g_{0}=U\left(f_{0}\right)$. Dualize this categorical property of $j$ and obtain a topological characterization of the dual categorical property.
3.4. Define the kernel of a morphism $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ in a category with zero morphisms $\mathbb{C}$ as a morphism $\mu: K \rightarrow A$ such that (i) $\varphi \mu=0$, (ii) if $\varphi \psi=0$, then $\psi=\mu \psi^{\prime}$ and $\psi^{\prime}$ is unique. Identify the kernel, so defined, in $\mathfrak{\mathscr { b }}$ and $\mathfrak{G}$. Dualize to obtain a definition of cokernel in $\mathfrak{C}$. Identify the cokernel in $\mathfrak{A b}$ and $\mathfrak{G}$. Let $\mathfrak{S}^{0}$ be the category of sets with base points. Identify kernels and cokernels in $\mathbb{S}^{\mathbf{0}}$.
3.5. Generalize the definitions of kernel (and cokernel) above to equalizers (and coequalizers) of two morphisms $\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}: A \rightarrow B$. A morphism $\mu: E \rightarrow A$ is the equalizer of $\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}$ if (i) $\varphi_{1} \mu=\varphi_{2} \mu$, (ii) if $\varphi_{1} \psi=\varphi_{2} \psi$ then $\psi=\mu \psi^{\prime}$ and $\psi^{\prime}$ is unique. Exhibit the kernel as an equalizer. Dualize.

## 4. Natural Transformations

We come now to the idea which deserves to be considered the original source of category theory, since it was in the (successful!) attempt to
make precise the notion of a natural transformation that Eilenberg and MacLane were led to introduce the language of categories and functors (see [13]).

Let $\boldsymbol{F}, \boldsymbol{G}$ be two functors from the category $\mathbb{C}$ to the category $\mathfrak{D}$. Then a natural transformation $t$ from $F$ to $G$ is a rule assigning to each object $X$ in $\mathbb{C}$ a morphism $t_{X}: F X \rightarrow G X$ in $\mathfrak{D}$ such that, for any morphism $f: X \rightarrow Y$ in $\mathbb{C}$, the diagram

commutes. If $t_{X}$ is isomorphic for each $X$ then $t$ is called a natural equivalence and we write $F \simeq G$. It is plain that then $t^{-1}: G \simeq F$, where $t^{-1}$ is given by $\left(t^{-1}\right)_{X}=\left(t_{X}\right)^{-1}$. If $t: F \rightarrow G, u: G \rightarrow H$ are natural transformations then we may form the composition $u t: F \rightarrow H$, given by $(u t)_{X}$ $=\left(u_{X}\right)\left(t_{X}\right)$; and the composition of natural transformations is plainly associative. Let $F: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}, G: \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be functors such that $G F \simeq I: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, $F G \simeq I: \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$, where $I$ stands for the identity functor in any category. We then say that $\mathfrak{C}$ and $\mathfrak{D}$ are equivalent categories. Of course, isomorphic categories are equivalent, but equivalent categories need not be isomorphic (see Exercise 4.1). We now give some examples of natural transformations; we draw particular attention to the first example which refers to the first explicitly observed example of a natural transformation.
(a) Let $V$ be a vector space over the field $F$, let $V^{*}$ be the dual vector space and $V^{* *}$ the double dual. There is a linear map $i_{V}: V \rightarrow V^{* *}$ given by $v \mapsto \tilde{v}$ where $\tilde{v}(\varphi)=\varphi(v), v \in V, \varphi \in V^{*}, \tilde{v} \in V^{* *}$. The reader will verify that $l$ is a natural transformation from the identity functor $I: \mathfrak{B}_{F} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}_{F}$ to the double dual functor ${ }^{* *}: \mathfrak{B}_{F} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}_{F}$. Now let $\mathfrak{B}_{F}^{f}$ be the full subcategory of $\mathfrak{B}_{F}$ consisting of finite-dimensional vector spaces. It is then, of course, a basic theorem of linear algebra that $l$, restricted to $\mathfrak{B}_{F}^{f}$, is a natural equivalence. (More accurately, the classical theorem says that $l_{V}$ is an isomorphism for each $V$ in $\mathfrak{B}_{F}$.) The proof proceeds by observing that $V \cong V^{*}$ if $V$ is finite-dimensional. However, this last isomorphism is not natural - to define it one needs to choose a basis for $V$ and then to associate with this basis the dual basis of $V^{*}$. That is, the isomorphism between $V$ and $V^{*}$ depends on the choice of basis and lacks the canonical nature of the isomorphism $l_{V}$ between $V$ and $V^{* *}$.
(b) Let $G$ be a group and let $G / G^{\prime}$ be its commutator factor group. There is an evident surjection $\kappa_{G}: G \rightarrow G / G^{\prime}$ and $\kappa$ is a natural transformation from the identity functor $\mathfrak{G} \rightarrow \mathfrak{G}$ to the abelianizing functor Abel: $\boldsymbol{( G )} \rightarrow \mathbf{( 5}$.
(c) Let $A$ be an abelian group and let $A_{F}$ be the free abelian group on the set $A$ as basis. There is an evident surjection $\tau_{A}: A_{F} \rightarrow A$, which maps the basis elements of $A_{F}$ identically, and $\tau$ is a natural transformation from FU to $I$, where $U: \mathfrak{A b} \rightarrow \subseteq$ is the underlying functor and $F: \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$ is the free functor.
(d) The Hurewicz homomorphism from homotopy groups to homology groups (see e.g. [21]) may be interpreted as a natural transformation of functors $\mathfrak{T}^{\mathbf{0}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$ (or $\mathfrak{I}_{h}^{\mathbf{0}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$ ).

We continue with the following important remark. Given two categories $\mathbb{C}, \mathfrak{D}$, the reader is certainly tempted to regard the functors $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$ as the objects of a new category with the natural transformations as morphisms. The one difficulty about this point of view is that it is not clear from a foundational viewpoint that the natural transformations of functors $\mathfrak{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ form a set. This objection may be circumvented by adopting a set-theoretical foundation different from ours (see [32]) or simply by insisting that the collection of objects of $\mathfrak{C}$ form a set; such a category $\mathfrak{C}$ is called a small category. Thus if $\mathfrak{C}$ is small we may speak of the category of functors (or functor category) from $\mathbb{C}$ to $\mathfrak{D}$ which we denote by $\mathfrak{D}^{\mathfrak{C}}$ or $[\mathbb{C}, \mathfrak{D}]$. In keeping with this last notation we will denote the collection of natural transformations from the functor $F$ to the functor $G$ by $[F, G]$.

We illustrate the notion of the category of functors with the following example. Let $\mathbb{C}$ be the category with two objects and identity morphisms only. A functor $F: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ is then simply a pair of objects in $\mathfrak{D}$, and a natural transformation $t: F \rightarrow G$ is a pair of morphisms in $\mathfrak{D}$. Thus it is seen that $\mathfrak{D}^{\mathfrak{C}}=[\mathbb{C}, \mathfrak{D}]$ is the Cartesian product of the category $\mathfrak{D}$ with itself, that is the category $\mathfrak{D} \times \mathfrak{D}$ in the notation of Exercise 1.6.

We close this section with an important proposition. We have seen that, if $A, B$ are objects of a category $\mathbb{C}$, then $\mathbb{C}(A,-)$ is a (covariant) functor $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{G}$ and $\mathbb{C}(-, B)$ is a contravariant functor $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \Xi$. If $\theta: B_{1} \rightarrow B_{2}$ let us write $\theta_{*}$ for $\mathbb{C}(A, \theta): \mathbb{C}\left(A, B_{1}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\left(A, B_{2}\right)$, so that

$$
\theta_{*}(\varphi)=\theta \varphi, \quad \varphi: A \rightarrow B_{1},
$$

and if $\psi: A_{2} \rightarrow A_{1}$ let us write $\psi^{*}$ for $\mathbb{C}(\psi, B): \mathbb{C}\left(A_{1}, B\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\left(A_{2}, B\right)$ so that

$$
\psi^{*}(\varphi)=\varphi \psi, \quad \varphi: A_{1} \rightarrow B .
$$

These notational simplifications should help the reader to understand the proof of the following proposition.

Proposition 4.1. Let $\tau$ be a natural transformation from the functor $\mathfrak{C}(A,-)$ to the functor $F$ from $\mathbb{C}$ to $\mathfrak{G}$. Then $\tau \mapsto \tau_{A}\left(1_{A}\right)$ sets up a one-one correspondence between the set $[\mathbb{C}(A,-), F]$ of natural transformations from $\mathfrak{C}(A,-)$ to $F$ and the set $F(A)$.

Proof. We show first that $\tau$ is entirely determined by the element $\tau_{A}\left(1_{A}\right) \in F(A)$. Let $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ and consider the commutative diagram


Then $\tau_{B}(\varphi)=\left(\tau_{B}\right)\left(\varphi_{*}\right)\left(1_{A}\right)=(F \varphi)\left(\tau_{A}\right)\left(1_{A}\right)$, proving the assertion. The proposition is therefore established if we show that, for any $\kappa \in F A$, the rule

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau_{B}(\varphi)=(F \varphi)(\kappa), \quad \varphi \in \mathbb{C}(A, B) \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

does define a natural transformation from $\mathcal{C}(A,-)$ to $F$. Let $\theta: B_{1} \rightarrow B_{2}$ and consider the diagram


We must show that this diagram commutes if $\tau_{B_{1}}, \tau_{B_{2}}$ are defined as in (4.1). Now $\left(\tau_{B_{2}}\right) \theta_{*}(\varphi)=\left(\tau_{B_{2}}\right)(\theta \varphi)=F(\theta \varphi)(\kappa)=F(\theta) F(\varphi)(\kappa)=F(\theta) \tau_{B_{1}}(\varphi)$ for $\varphi: A \rightarrow B_{1}$. Thus the proposition is completely proved. $]$

By choosing $F=\mathbb{C}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)$ we obtain
Corollary 4.2. The set of morphisms $\mathbb{C}\left(A^{\prime}, A\right)$ and the set of natural transformations $\left[\mathbb{C}(A,-), \mathbb{C}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)\right]$ are in one-to-one correspondence, the correspondence being given by $\psi \mapsto \psi^{*}, \psi: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$.

Proof. If $\tau$ is such a natural transformation, let $\psi=\tau_{A}\left(1_{A}\right)$, so that $\psi: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$. Then, by (4.1) $\tau$ is given by

$$
\tau_{B}(\varphi)=\varphi_{*}(\psi)=\varphi \psi=\psi^{*}(\varphi)
$$

Thus $\tau_{B}=\psi^{*}$. Of course $\psi$ is uniquely determined by $\tau$ and every $\psi$ does induce a natural transformation $\mathbb{C}(A,-) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)$. Thus the rule $\tau \mapsto \tau_{A}\left(1_{A}\right)$ sets up a one-one correspondence, which we write $\tau \mapsto \psi$, between the set of natural transformations $\mathbb{C}(A,-) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}\left(A^{\prime}-\right)$ and the set $\mathbb{C}\left(A^{\prime}, A\right)$.

With respect to the correspondence $\tau \mapsto \psi$ we easily prove
Proposition 4.3. Let $\tau: \mathbb{C}(A,-) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\left(A^{\prime},-\right), \tau^{\prime}: \mathbb{C}\left(A^{\prime},-\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\left(A^{\prime \prime},-\right)$. Then if $\tau \mapsto \psi, \tau^{\prime} \mapsto \psi^{\prime}$, where $\psi: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A, \psi^{\prime}: A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$, we have

$$
\tau^{\prime} \tau \mapsto \psi \psi^{\prime}
$$

In particular $\tau$ is a natural equivalence if and only if $\psi$ is an isomorphism.
Proof. $\left(\tau^{\prime} \tau\right)_{B}=\left(\tau_{B}^{\prime}\right)\left(\tau_{B}\right)=\psi^{\prime *} \psi^{*}=\left(\psi \psi^{\prime}\right)^{*} . \quad \square$

Proposition 4.1 is often called the Yoneda lemma : it has many applications in algebraic topology and, as we shall see, in homological algebra.

If $\mathbb{C}$ is a small category we may formulate the assertion of Corollary 4.2 in an elegant way in the functor category $\mathfrak{S}^{\mathfrak{C}}$. Then $A \mapsto \mathbb{C}(A,-)$ is seen to be an embedding (called the Yoneda embedding) of $\mathfrak{C}^{\text {opp }}$ in $\mathbb{S}^{\mathbb{C}}$; and Corollary 4.2 asserts further that it is a full embedding.

## Exercises:

4.1. A full subcategory $\mathfrak{C}_{0}$ of $\mathfrak{C}$ is said to be a skeleton of $\mathfrak{C}$ if, given any object $A$ of $\mathfrak{C}$, there exists exactly one object $A_{0}$ of $\mathfrak{C}_{0}$ with $A_{0} \cong A$. Show that every skeleton of $\mathbb{C}$ is equivalent to $\mathbb{C}$, and give an example to show that a skeleton of $\mathbb{C}$ need not be isomorphic to $\mathfrak{C}$. Are all skeletons of $\mathbb{C}$ isomorphic?
4.2. Represent the embedding of the commutator subgroup of $G$ in $G$ as a natural transformation.
4.3. Let $F, G: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}, E: \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, H: \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be functors, and let $t: F \rightarrow G$ be a natural transformation. Show how to define natural transformations $t E: F E \rightarrow G E$, and $H t: H F \rightarrow H G$. and show that $H(t E)=(H t) E$. Show that $t E$ and $H t$ are natural equivalences if $t$ is a natural equivalence.
4.4. Let $\mathbb{C}$ be a category with zero object and kernels. Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ in $\mathbb{C}$ with kernel $k: K \rightarrow A$. Then $f_{*}: \mathbb{C}(-, A) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}(-, B)$ is a natural transformation of contravariant functors from $\mathbb{C}$ to $\mathfrak{S}_{0}$, the category of pointed sets. Show that $X \mapsto \operatorname{ker}\left(f_{*}\right)_{X}$ is a contravariant functor from $\mathbb{C}$ to $\mathfrak{G}_{0}$ which is represented by $K$, and explain the sense in which $k_{*}$ is the kernel of $f_{*}$.
4.5. Carry out an exercise similar to Exercise 4.4 replacing kernels in $\mathbb{C}$ by cokernels in $\mathbb{C}$.
4.6. Let $\mathfrak{A}$ be a small category and let $Y: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow\left[\mathfrak{H}^{\text {opp }}\right.$, $\left.\subseteq\right]$ be the Yoneda embedding $Y(A)=\mathfrak{A}(-, A)$. Let $J: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ be a functor. Define $R: \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow\left[\mathfrak{A}^{\text {opp }}, \mathfrak{G}\right]$ on objects by $R(B)=\mathfrak{B}(J-, B)$. Show how to extend this definition to yield a functor $R$, and give reasonable conditions under which $Y=R J$.
4.7. Let $I$ be any set; regard $I$ as a category with identity morphisms only. Describe $\mathbb{C}^{I}$. What is $\mathbb{\mathbb { C }}^{I}$ if $I$ is a set with 2 elements?

## 5. Products and Coproducts; Universal Constructions

The reader was introduced in Section I. 3 to the universal property of the direct product of modules. We can now state this property for a general category $\mathfrak{C}$.

Definition. Let $\left\{X_{i}\right\}, i \in I$, be a family of objects of the category $\mathbb{C}$ indexed by the set $I$. Then a product $\left(X ; p_{i}\right)$ of the objects $X_{i}$ is an object $X$, together with morphisms $p_{i}: X \rightarrow X_{i}$, called projections, with the universal property: given any object $Y$ and morphisms $f_{i}: Y \rightarrow X_{i}$, there exists a unique morphism $f=\left\{f_{i}\right\}: Y \rightarrow X$ with $p_{i} f=f_{i}$.

As we have said, in the category $\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}$ of (left) $\Lambda$-modules, we may take for $X$ the direct product of the modules $X_{i}$ (Section I. 3). In the
category $\mathfrak{S}$ we have the ordinary Cartesian product, in the category $\mathfrak{T}$ we have the topological product (see [21]).

We cannot guarantee, of course, that the product always exists in $\mathbb{C}$. However, we can guarantee that it is essentially unique - again the reader should recall the argument in Section I. 3.

Theorem 5.1. Let $\left(X ; p_{i}\right),\left(X^{\prime} ; p_{i}^{\prime}\right)$ both be products of the family $\left\{X_{i}\right\}, i \in I$. in $\mathbb{C}$. Then there exists a unique isomorphism $\xi: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ such that $p_{i}^{\prime} \xi=p_{i}$, $i \in I$.

Proof. By the universal property for $X$ there exists a (unique) morphism $\eta: X^{\prime} \rightarrow X$ such that $p_{i} \eta=p_{i}^{\prime}$. Similarly there exists a (unique) morphism $\xi: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ such that $p_{i}^{\prime} \xi=p_{i}$. Then

$$
p_{i} \eta \xi=p_{i}=p_{i} 1 \quad \text { for all } \quad i \in I .
$$

But by the uniqueness property of ( $X ; p_{i}$ ), this implies that $\eta \xi=1$. Similarly $\xi \eta=1 . \quad \square$

Of course, the uniqueness of ( $X ; p_{i}$ ) expressed by Theorem 5.1 is as much as we can possibly expect. For if $\left(X ; p_{i}\right)$ is a product and $\eta: X^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\leftrightarrows} X$, then ( $X^{\prime}: p_{i} \eta$ ) is plainly also a product. Thus we allow ourselves to talk of the product of the $X_{i}$. We may write $X=\prod X_{i}, f=\left\{f_{i}\right\}$. By abuse we may even refer to $X$ itself as the product of the $X_{i}$. If the indexing set is $I=(1,2, \ldots, n)$ we may write $X=X_{1} \times X_{2} \times \cdots \times X_{n}$ and $f=\left\{f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{n}\right\}$.

As we have said, such a product may not exist in a given category. Moreover, it is important to notice that the universal property of the product makes reference to the entire category. Thus it may well happen that not only the question of existence of a product of the objects $X_{i}$ but even the nature of that product may depend on the category in question. However, before giving examples, let us state a few elementary propositions.

Proposition 5.2. Let $\mathbb{C}$ be a category in which $\mathfrak{C}(X, Y)$ is non-empty for all $X, Y$ (e.g., a category with zero object). Then if $\prod_{i} X_{i}$ exists it admits each $X_{i}$ as a retract. Thus, in particular, each $p_{i}$ is an epimorphism.

Proof. In the definition of $\prod_{i} X_{i}$, take $Y=X_{j}$, for a fixed $j \in I$, and $f_{j}=1: X_{j} \rightarrow X_{j}$. For $i \neq j$ let $f_{i}$ be arbitrary. Then $p_{j} f=1: X_{j} \rightarrow X_{j}$ so that $\prod_{i} X_{i}$ retracts through $p_{j}$ onto $X_{j}$. $\quad \square$

Proposition 5.3. Given two families $\left\{X_{i}\right\},\left\{Y_{i}\right\}$ of objects of $\mathfrak{C}$, indexed by the same indexing set $I$, then if the products $\prod_{i} X_{i}, \prod_{i} Y_{i}$ exist, and if $f_{i}: X_{i} \rightarrow Y_{i}, i \in I$, there is a uniquely determined morphism

$$
\prod_{i} f_{i}: \prod_{i} X_{i} \rightarrow \prod_{t} Y_{i}
$$

such that

$$
p_{i}\left(\prod_{i} f_{i}\right)=f_{i} p_{i}
$$

Moreover. if $\mathbb{C}$ admits products for all families indexed by $I$, then $\prod_{i}$ is a functor

$$
\prod_{i}: \mathbb{C}^{\boldsymbol{I}} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}
$$

Proof. The first assertion is merely an application of the universal property of $\prod_{i} Y_{i}$. The proof of the second is left to the reader. (It should be clear what we understand by the category $\mathbb{C}^{\boldsymbol{I}}$; see Exercise 4.7.) $\square$

If $I=(1,2, \ldots, n)$ we naturally write $f_{1} \times f_{2} \times \cdots \times f_{n}$ for $\prod_{i} \mathrm{f}_{i}$.
Proposition 5.4. Let $f_{i}: Z \rightarrow X_{i}, h: W \rightarrow Z, g_{i}: X_{i} \rightarrow Y_{i} . i \in I$. Then, if the products in question exist,

$$
\text { (i) }\left\{f_{i}\right\} g=\left\{f_{i} g\right\}, \quad \text { (ii) } \quad\left(\prod_{i} g_{i}\right)\left\{f_{i}\right\}=\left\{g_{i} f_{i}\right\}
$$

Proof. We leave the proof to the reader, with the hint that it is sufficient to prove that each side projects properly onto the $i$-component under the projection $p_{i} . \square$

Proposition 5.5. Let © be a category in which any two objects admit a product. Thus given objects $X, Y, Z$ in $\mathbb{C}$ we have projections

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
p_{1}: X \times Y \rightarrow X, & q_{1}:(X \times Y) \times Z \rightarrow X \times Y \\
p_{2}: X \times Y \rightarrow Y, & q_{2}:(X \times Y) \times Z \rightarrow Z
\end{array}
$$

Then $\left((X \times Y) \times Z ; p_{1} q_{1}, p_{2} q_{1}, q_{2}\right)$ is the product of $X, Y, Z$.
Proof. Given $f_{1}: W \rightarrow X, f_{2}: W \rightarrow Y, f_{3}: W \rightarrow Z$, we form $g: W \rightarrow X \times Y$ such that $p_{1} g=f_{1}, p_{2} g=f_{2}$. We then form $h: W \rightarrow(X \times Y) \times Z$ such that $q_{1} h=g, q_{2} h=f_{3}$. Then $p_{1} q_{1} h=f_{1}, p_{2} q_{1} h=f_{2}$. It remains to prove the uniqueness of $h$, so we suppose that $p_{1} q_{1} h=p_{1} q_{1} h^{\prime}, p_{2} q_{1} h=p_{2} q_{1} h^{\prime}$, $q_{2} h=q_{2} h^{\prime}$. One application of uniqueness (to $X \times Y$ ) yields $q_{1} h=q_{1} h^{\prime}$; and a second application yields $h=h^{\prime} . \quad \square$

Proposition 5.6. If any two objects in © admit a product, so does any finite collection of objects.

Proof. We argue by induction. using an obvious generalization of the proof of Proposition 5.5. $\square$

Proposition 5.5 may be said also to exhibit the associativity of the product. Thus, there are canonical equivalences

$$
(X \times Y) \times Z \cong X \times Y \times Z \cong X \times(Y \times Z)
$$

In an even stronger sense the product is commutative; for the very definition of $X \times Y$ is symmetric in $X$ and $Y$.

The reader has already met many examples of products (in $\mathcal{G}, \mathfrak{I}, \mathfrak{I}_{h}$, $\mathfrak{F}, \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$, for example). There are, of course, many other examples familiar in mathematics. We now give a few examples to show what care must be taken in studying products in arbitrary categories.

Examples. (a) In the category $\mathcal{G}(2)$ of two-element sets, no two objects admit a product. For let $B=\left(b_{1}, b_{2}\right), C=\left(c_{1}, c_{2}\right)$ be two such sets and let us conjecture that $\left(D ; p_{1}, p_{2}\right)$ is their product, $D=\left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right)$. This means that, given $A=\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right), f: A \rightarrow B, g: A \rightarrow C$, there exists (a unique) $h: A \rightarrow D$ with $p_{1} h=f, p_{2} h=g$. Now $p_{1}$ must be surjective since we may choose $f$ surjective; similarly $p_{2}$ must be surjective. Without real loss of generality we may suppose $p_{1}\left(d_{i}\right)=b_{i}, p_{2}\left(d_{i}\right)=c_{i}, i=1,2$. Now if $f(A)=\left(b_{1}\right)$, $g(A)=\left(c_{2}\right)$, we have a contradiction since $h$ must miss $d_{1}$ and $d_{2}$. Notice that the assertion of this example is not established merely by remarking that the cartesian product of $B$ and $C$ is a 4-element set and hence not in $\Xi(2)$.
(b) Consider the family of cyclic groups $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{k}}$, of order $p^{k} . k=1.2 \ldots$, where $p$ is a fixed prime. Then
(i) in the category of cyclic groups no two groups of this family have a product;
(ii) in the category of finite abelian groups the family does not have a product;
(iii) in the category of torsion abelian groups, the family has a product which is not the direct product;
(iv) in the category of abelian groups, and in the category of groups, the direct product is the product.

We now prove these assertions.
(i) If $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{m} ; q_{1}, q_{2}\right)$ is the product of $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{k}}, \mathbb{Z}_{p^{1}}$ then, as in the previous example, one immediately shows that $q_{1}, q_{2}$ are surjective. Suppose $k \geqq l$, then $m=p^{k} \eta$ and we may choose generators $\alpha . \beta_{1}, \beta_{2}$ of $\mathbb{Z}_{m}, \mathbb{Z}_{p^{k}}, \mathbb{Z}_{p^{1}}$ so that $q_{i}(\alpha)=\beta_{i}, i=1,2$. Given $f_{1}=1: \mathbb{Z}_{p^{k}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{p^{k}} . f_{2}=0: \mathbb{Z}_{p^{k}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{p^{i}}$ suppose $f\left(\beta_{1}\right)=s \alpha$. where $f=\left\{f_{1}, f_{2}\right\}$. Then $s \equiv 1 \bmod p^{k} . s \equiv 0 \bmod p^{l}$. which is absurd.
(ii) If $\left(A ; q_{k}, k=1,2, \ldots\right)$ were the product of the entire family, then, again, each $q_{k}$ would be surjective. Thus the order of $A$ would be divisible by $p^{k}$ for every $k$, which is absurd. (This argument shows, of course, that the family has no product even in the category of finite groups.)
(iii) Let $T$ be the torsion subgroup of the direct product $P$ of the groups $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{k}}$. By virtue of the role of $P$ in $\left(\mathbb{F}\right.$ it is plain that $\left(T ; q_{k}\right)$ is the product in the category of torsion abelian groups, where $q_{k}$ is just the restriction to $T$ of the projection $P \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{p^{k}}$.
(iv) Well-known.

We now turn briefly to coproducts. The duality principle enables us to make the following succinct definition:

Definition. Let $\left\{X_{i}\right\}, i \in I$, be a family of objects of the category $\mathbb{C}$ indexed by the set $I$. Then ( $X ; q_{i}$ ) is a coproduct of the objects $X_{i}$ in © if and only if it is a product of the objects $X_{i}$ in $\mathbb{C}^{\text {opp }}$.

This definition means, then, that in $\mathbb{C}, q_{i}: X_{i} \rightarrow X$ and given morphisms $f_{i}: X_{i} \rightarrow Y$ there exists a unique $f: X \rightarrow Y$ with $f_{i}=f_{i}$. The morphisms $q_{i}: X_{i} \rightarrow X$ are called injections. We write $X=\coprod_{i} X_{i}, f=\left\langle f_{i}\right\rangle$, and if $I=(1,2, \ldots, n)$, then $X=X_{1} \Perp X_{2} \Perp \cdots \Perp X_{n}, f=\left\langle f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{n}\right\rangle$. We need not state the duals of Proposition 5.2 through 5.6, leaving their enunciation as an exercise for the reader. We mention, however, a few examples.

Examples. (a) In $\mathfrak{G}$ the coproduct is the disjoint union with the evident injections $q_{i}$.
(b) In $\mathfrak{I}$ the coproduct is the disjoint union with the natural topology.
(c) In $\mathfrak{I}^{0}$ the coproduct is the disjoint union with base points identified.
(d) In $\mathbb{G}$ the coproduct is the free product with the evident injections $q_{i}$, see [36].
(e) In $\mathfrak{M}_{A}$ the coproduct is the direct sum. In this case we shall write $\oplus$ instead of $\Perp$. We leave it to the reader to verify these assertions.

## Exercises:

5.1. Let $\mathbb{C}, \mathfrak{D}$ be categories admitting (finite) products. A functor $F: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ is said to be product-preserving if for any objects $A_{1}, A_{2}$ of $\mathbb{C},\left(F\left(A_{1} \times A_{2}\right) ; F p_{1}, F p_{2}\right)$ is the product of $F A_{1}$ and $F A_{2}$ in $\mathfrak{D}$. Show that in the list of functors given in Section 2, b), d). e). g) are product-preseving, while c). f ) are coproductpreserving.
5.2. Show that a terminal (initial) object may be regarded as a (co-) product over an empty indexing set.
5.3. Show that $A$ is the product of $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ in $\mathbb{C}$ if and only if $\mathbb{C}(X, A)$ is the product of $\mathfrak{C}\left(X, A_{1}\right)$ and $\mathfrak{C}\left(X, A_{2}\right)$ in $\mathfrak{S}$ for all $X$ in $\mathbb{C}$. (To make this statement precise, one should, of course, mention the morphisms $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$.) Give a similar characterization of the coproduct.
5.4. Let $\mathbb{C}$ be a category with zero object and finite products. A group in $\mathbb{C}$ is a pair $(A, m)$, where $A$ is an object of $\mathbb{C}$ and $m: A \times A \rightarrow A$ in $\mathbb{C}$, subject to the axioms:

G 1: (Associativity) $m(m \times 1)=m(1 \times m)$;
G2: (Two-sided unity) $m\{1,0\}=1=m\{0,1\}$;
G3: (Two-sided inverse) There exists $\sigma: A \rightarrow A$ such that

$$
m\{1, \sigma\}=0=m\{\sigma, 1\}
$$

In other words the following diagrams are commutative


Show that a group in $\mathfrak{S}$ is just a group in the usual sense. Show that $(A, m)$ is a group in $\mathbb{C}$ if and only if $\mathbb{C}(X, A)$ is a group (in $\mathfrak{S})$ for all $X$ in $\mathbb{C}$ under the obvious induced operation $m_{*}$. Show that, if $B$ is an object of $\mathbb{C}$ such that $\mathfrak{C}(X, B)$ is a group for all $X$ in $\mathbb{C}$ and if $f: X \rightarrow Y$ in $\mathbb{C}$ induces a homomorphism $f^{*}: \mathbb{C}(Y, B) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}(X, B)$, then $B$ admits a unique group structure $m$ in $\mathbb{C}$ such that $m_{*}$ is the given group structure in $\mathbb{C}(X, B)$.
5.5. Show that if $(A, m)$ satisfies $\mathbf{G} 1$ and the one-sided axioms

G2R: $m\{1,0\}=1$;
G3R: There exists $\sigma: A \rightarrow A$ such that $m\{1, \sigma\}=1$;
then $(A, m)$ is a group in $\mathbb{C}$. Show also that $\sigma$ is unique. (Hint: Use the argument of Exercise 5.4.)
5.6. Formulate the condition that the group $(A, m)$ is commutative. Show that a product-preserving functor sends (commutative) groups to (commutative) groups.
5.7. Define the concept of a cogroup. the dual of a group. Show that in $\mathfrak{A b}\left(\mathfrak{M}_{A}^{l}\right)$ every object is a cogroup.
5.8. Let $\mathbb{C}$ be a category with products and coproducts. Let $f_{i j}: X_{i} \rightarrow Y_{j}$ in $\mathbb{C}, i \in I$, $j \in J$. Show that $\left\langle\left\{f_{i j}\right\}_{j \in J}\right\rangle_{i \in I}=\left\{\left\langle f_{i j}\right\rangle_{i \in I}\right\}_{j \in J}: \coprod_{i \in I} X_{i} \rightarrow \prod_{j \in J} Y_{j}$. Hence, if $\mathbb{C}$ has a zero object, establish a natural transformation from $\prod_{i \in I}^{j \in J}$ to $\prod_{i \in I}$.

## 6. Universal Constructions (Continued); Pull-backs and Push-outs

We are not yet ready to say precisely what is to be understood by a universal construction. Such a formulation will only become possible when we are armed with the language of adjoint functors (Section 7). However, we now propose to introduce a very important example of a universal construction and the reader should surely acquire an understanding of the essential nature of such constructions from this example (together with the examples of the kernel, and its dual, the cokernel; see final remark in Section I. 1).

It must already have been apparent that a basic concept in homological algebra, and, more generally, in category theory, is that of a com-
mutative diagram, and that the most fundamental of all commutative diagrams is the commutative square


There thus arises the natural question. Given $\varphi . \psi$ in (6.1). is there a universal procedure for providing morphisms $\alpha, \beta$ to yield a commutative square? Of course, the dual question arises just as naturally, and may be regarded as being treated implicitly in what follows by the application of the duality principle. Explicitly we will only consider the question as posed and we immediately provide a precise definition.

Definition. Given $\varphi: A \rightarrow X, \psi: B \rightarrow X$ in $\mathbb{C}$, a pull-back of $(\varphi, \psi)$ is a pair of morphisms $\alpha: Y \rightarrow A, \beta: Y \rightarrow B$ such that $\varphi \alpha=\psi \beta$, and (6.1) has the following universal property: given $\gamma: Z \rightarrow A, \delta: Z \rightarrow B$ with $\varphi \gamma=\psi \delta$, there exists a unique $\zeta: Z \rightarrow Y$ with $\gamma=\alpha \zeta, \delta=\beta \zeta$.


Just as for the product, it follows readily that, if a pull-back exists, then it is essentially unique. Precisely, if ( $\alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}$ ) is also a pull-back of $(\varphi, \psi)$, $\alpha^{\prime}: Y^{\prime} \rightarrow A, \beta^{\prime}: Y^{\prime} \rightarrow B$, then there exists a unique equivalence $\omega: Y \rightarrow Y^{\prime}$ such that $\alpha^{\prime} \omega=\alpha, \beta^{\prime} \omega=\beta$. Thus we may permit ourselves to speak of the pull-back of $\varphi$ and $\psi$.

We write $(Y ; \alpha, \beta)$ for the pull-back of $\varphi$ and $\psi$. Where convenient we may abbreviate this to $(\alpha, \beta)$ or to $Y$. We may also say that the square in (6.2) is a pull-back square.

Notice that the uniqueness of ${ }_{\zeta}$ in (6.2) may be expressed by saying that $\{\alpha, \beta\}: Y \rightarrow A \times B$ is a monomorphism, provided that $A \times B$ exists in $\mathbb{C}$. In fact, there is a very close connection between pull-backs and products of two objects. On the one hand, if $\mathbb{C}$ has a terminal object $T$ and if $\varphi: A \rightarrow T, \psi: B \rightarrow T$ are the unique morphisms then the pull-back of $\varphi$ and $\psi$ consists of the projections $p_{1}: A \times B \rightarrow A, p_{2}: A \times B \rightarrow B$. On the other hand we may actually regard the pull-back as a product in a suitable category. Thus we fix the object $X$ and introduce the category $\mathfrak{C}_{l}^{\prime} X$ of $\mathbb{C}$-objects over $X$. An object of $\mathbb{C} / X$ is a morphism $\kappa: K \rightarrow X$ in $\mathbb{C}$ and a morphism $\sigma: \kappa \rightarrow \lambda$ in $\mathbb{C} / X$ is a morphism $\sigma: K \rightarrow L$ in $\mathbb{C}$ making
the diagram

commutative, $\lambda \sigma=\kappa$. Now let $\Delta=\varphi \alpha=\psi \beta$ be the diagonal of the square (6.2). Then the reader may easily prove

Proposition 6.1. $(\Delta ; \alpha, \beta)$ is the product of $\varphi$ and $\psi$ in $\mathbb{C} ; X$. $]$
This means that $\alpha, \beta$ play the roles of $p_{1}, p_{2}$ in the definition of a product, when interpreted as morphisms $\alpha: \Delta \rightarrow \varphi, \beta: \Delta \rightarrow \psi$ in $\mathbb{C} / X$.

From this proposition we may readily deduce, from the propositions of Section 5, propositions about the pull-back and its evident generalization to a family, instead of a pair, of morphisms in $\mathbb{C}$ with codomains $X$. We will prove one theorem about pull-backs in categories with zero objects which applies to the categories of interest in homological algebra. We recall first (Exercise 3.4) how we define the kernel of a morphism $\sigma: K \rightarrow L$ in a category with zero objects by means of a universal property. We say that $\mu: J \rightarrow K$ is a kernel of $\sigma$ if (i) $\sigma \mu=0$ and (ii) if $\alpha \tau=0$ then $\tau$ factorizes as $\tau=\mu \tau_{0}$, with $\tau_{0}$ unique. As usual. the kernel is essentially unique; we (sometimes) call $J$ the kernel object. Notice that $\mu$ is monic, by virtue of the uniqueness of $\tau_{0}$.

Theorem 6.2. Let (6.1) be a pull-back diagram in a category $\mathbb{C}$ with zero object. Then
(i) if $(J, \mu)$ is the kernel of $\beta,(J, \alpha \mu)$ is the kernel of $\varphi$;
(ii) if $(J, v)$ is the kernel of $\varphi, v$ may be factored as $v=\alpha \mu$ where $(J, \mu)$ is the kernel of $\beta$.

Note that (ii) is superfluous if we know that every morphism in $\mathbb{C}$ has a kernel. We show here, in particular, that $\beta$ has a kernel if and only if $\varphi$ has a kernel, and the kernel objects coincide.

Proof. (i)


Set $v=\alpha \mu$. We first show that $v$ is monomorphic; for $\mu$ and $\{\alpha, \beta\}$ are monomorphic, so $\{\alpha, \beta\} \mu=\{v, 0\}: J \rightarrow A \times B$ is monomorphic and hence, plainly, $v$ is monomorphic. Next we observe that $\varphi v=\varphi \alpha \mu=\psi \beta \mu=0$.

Finally we take $\tau: Z \rightarrow A$ and show that if $\varphi \tau=0$ then $\tau=\nu \tau_{0}$ for some $\tau_{0}$. Since $\psi 0=0$, the pull-back property shows that there exists $\sigma: Z \rightarrow Y$ such that $\alpha \sigma=\tau, \beta \sigma=0$. Since $(J, \mu)$ is the kernel of $\beta, \sigma=\mu \tau_{0}$, so that $\tau=\alpha \mu \tau_{0}=v \tau_{0}$.
(ii) Since $\varphi v=0$ we argue as in (i) that there exists $\mu: J \rightarrow Y$ with $\alpha \mu=v, \beta \mu=0$. Since $v$ is a monomorphism, so is $\mu$ and we show that $(J, \mu)$ is the kernel of $\beta$. Let $\beta \tau=0, \tau: Z \rightarrow Y$. Then $\varphi \alpha \tau=\psi \beta \tau=0$, so $\alpha \tau=v \tau_{0}=\alpha \mu \tau_{0}$. But $\beta \tau=\beta \mu \tau_{0}=0$, so that, $\{\alpha, \beta\}$ being a monomorphism, $\tau=\mu \tau_{0}$.

In Chapter VIII we will refer back to this theorem as a very special case of a general result on commuting limits. We remark that the introduction of $A \times B$ in the proof was for convenience only. The argument is easily reformulated without invoking $A \times B$.

As examples of pull-backs, let us consider the categories $\mathfrak{S}, \mathfrak{T}, \mathfrak{( b}$. In $\subseteq$, let $\varphi, \psi$ be embeddings of $A, B$ as subsets of $X$; then $Y=A \cap B$ and $\alpha, \beta$ are also embeddings. In $\mathfrak{I}$ we could cite an example similar to that given for $\mathfrak{S}$; however there is also an interesting example when $\varphi$, say, is a fibre-map. Then $\beta$ is also a fibre-map and is often called the fibre-map induced by $\psi$ from $\varphi$. (Indeed, in general, the pull-back is sometimes called the fibre-product.) In ( 5 we again have an example similar to that given for $\mathfrak{G}$; however there is a nice general description of $Y$ as the subgroup of $A \times B$ consisting of those elements ( $a, b$ ) such that $\varphi(a)=\psi(b)$.

The dual notion to that of a pull-back is that of a push-out. Thus, in (6.1), $(\varphi, \psi)$ is the push-out of $(\alpha, \beta)$ in $\mathfrak{C}$ if and only if it is the pull-back of $(\alpha, \beta)$ in $\mathscr{C}^{\text {opp }}$. The reader should have no difficulty in formulating an explicit universal property characterizing the push-out and dualizing the statements of this section. If $\alpha, \beta$ are embeddings (in $\subseteq$ or $\mathfrak{I}$ ) of $Y=A \cap B$ in $A$ and $B$, then $X=A \cup B$. In $\mathfrak{G}$ we are led to the notion of free product with analgamations [36].

We adopt for the push-out notational and terminological conventions analogous to those introduced for the pull-back.

## Exercises:

6.1. Prove Proposition 6.1.
6.2. Given the commutative diagram in $\mathbb{C}$

show that if both squares are pull-backs, so is the composite square. Show also that if the composite square is a pull-back and $x_{2}$ is monomorphic, then the left-hand square is a pull-back. Dualize these statements.
6.3. Recall the notion of equalizer of two morphisms $\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}: A \rightarrow B$ in $\mathbb{C}$ (see Exercise 3.5). Show that if $\mathbb{C}$ admits finite products then $\mathbb{C}$ admits pull-backs if and only if $\mathbb{C}$ admits equalizers.
6.4. Show that the pull-back of

in the category © with zero object 0 is essentially just the kernel of $\varphi$. Generalize this to

where $\psi$ is to be regarded as an embedding.
6.5. Identify the push-out in $\mathcal{S}, \mathfrak{G}$ and $\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$.
6.6. Show that the free module functor $\Theta \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$ preserves push-outs. Argue similarly for the free group functor.
6.7. Show that, in the category $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$, the pull-back square

is also a push-out if and only if $\left\langle\varphi_{2}, \beta\right\rangle: A_{2} \oplus B_{1} \rightarrow B_{2}$ is surjective.
6.8. Formulate a "dual" of the statement above - and prove it. Why is the word "dual" in inverted commas?

## 7. Adjoint Functors

One of the most basic notions of category theory, that of adjoint functors, was introduced by D. M. Kan [30]. We will illustrate it first by an example with which the reader is familiar from Chapter I. Let $\boldsymbol{F}: \mathfrak{S} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}$ be the free functor, which associates with every set the free $\Lambda$-module on that set as basis; and let $G: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{G}$ be the underlying functor which associates with every module its underlying set. We now define a transformation, natural in both $S$ and $A$,

$$
\eta=\eta_{S A}: \mathfrak{M}_{A}(F S, A) \rightarrow \Xi(S, G A)
$$

associating with a $\Lambda$-module homomorphism $\varphi: F S \rightarrow A$ the restriction of $\varphi$ to the basis $S$ of $F S$. The reader immediately sees that the universal property of free modules (Proposition I.4.2) is expressed by saying that
$\eta$ is an equivalence. Abstracting from this situation we make the following definition:

Definition. Let $F: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}, G: \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be functors such that there is a natural equivalence

$$
\eta=\eta_{X Y}: \mathfrak{D}(F X, Y) \sim \sim(\mathfrak{C}(X, G Y)
$$

of functors $\mathbb{C}^{\mathbf{o p p}} \times \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \mathfrak{G}$. We then say that $F$ is left adjoint to $G, G$ is right adjoint to $F$, and write $\eta: F \dashv G$. We call $\eta$ the adjugant equivalence or, simply, adjugant.

In the example above we have seen that the free functor $F: \Im \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$ is left adjoint to the underlying functor $G: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}$. The reader will readily verify that the concept of a free group (free object in the category of groups) and the concept of a polynomial algebra over the field $K$ (free object in the category of commutative $K$-algebras) may also be formulated in terms of a free functor left adjoint to an underlying functor. From this, one is naturally led to a generalization of the concept of a free module (free group, polynomial algebra) to the notion of an object in a category which is free with respect to an "underlying" functor.

The theory of adjoint functors will find very frequent application in the sequel; various facts of homological algebra which were originally proved in an ad hoc fashion may be systematically explained by the use of adjoint functors. We now give some further examples of adjoint functors.
(a) In Proposition I.8.1 we have considered the functor $G: \mathfrak{A b} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}$ defined by

$$
G C=\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{z}}(\Lambda, C), \quad C \text { in } \mathscr{A} \mathbf{b},
$$

where the (left) $\Lambda$-module structure in $G C$ is given by the right $\Lambda$-module structure of $\Lambda$. We denote by $F: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$ the underlying functor, which forgets the $\Lambda$-module structure. Proposition I.8.1 then asserts that there is a natural equivalence

$$
\eta: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, G C) \leadsto \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{z}}(F A, C)
$$

for $A$ in $\mathfrak{M}_{A}$ and $C$ in $\mathfrak{Q b}$. Thus $F$ is left adjoint to $G$ and $\eta^{-1}: F \dashv G$ is the adjugant.
(b) Given a topological Hausdorff space $X$, we may give $X$ a new topology by declaring $F \subseteq X$ to be closed if $F \cap K$ is closed in the original topology for every compact subset $K$ of $X$. Write $X_{K}$ for the set $X$ furnished with this topology. Plainly $X_{K}$ is a Hausdorff space and the obvious map $X_{K} \rightarrow X$ is continuous. Also, given $f: X \rightarrow Y$, a continuous map of Hausdorff spaces, then $f: X_{K} \rightarrow Y_{K}$ is also continuous. For if $F$ is closed in $Y_{K}$ and if $L$ is compact in $X$, then

$$
f^{-1} F \cap L=f^{-1}(F \cap f L) \cap L
$$

is closed in $X$, so that $f^{-1} F$ is closed in $X_{K}$. We call a Hausdorff space a Kelley space if its closed sets are precisely those sets $F$ such that $F \cap K$ is closed for every compact $K$. If $X$ is a Kelley space then $X=X_{K}$; and $X_{K}$ is a Kelley space for every Hausdorff space $X$. Summing up, we have the category $\mathfrak{G}$ of Hausdorff spaces, the category $\mathfrak{\Omega}$ of Kelley spaces, the functor $K: \mathfrak{G} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\Omega}$, given by $K(X)=X_{K}$. and the embedding functor $E: \mathfrak{S} \rightarrow \mathfrak{S}$. The facts adduced show that $E \dashv K$.

We will give later a theorem (Theorem 7.7) which provides additional motivation for studying adjoint functors. However, we now state some important propositions about adjoint functors.

Proposition 7.1. Let $F: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}, F^{\prime}: \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \mathfrak{E}, G: \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, G^{\prime}: \mathfrak{E} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ be functors and let $\eta: F \dashv G, \eta^{\prime}: F^{\prime} \dashv G^{\prime}$ be adjugants. Then $\eta^{\prime \prime}: F^{\prime} F \dashv G G^{\prime}$, where $\eta^{\prime \prime}=\eta: \eta^{\prime}$.

We leave the proof as an exercise. $\quad$
Next we draw attention to the relation which makes explicit the naturality of $\eta$. We again refer to the situation $\eta: F \dashv G$. Then this relation is

$$
\begin{gathered}
\eta(\beta \cdot \varphi \quad F \alpha)=G \beta \quad \eta(\varphi) \cdot \alpha, \\
\text { for all } \alpha: X^{\prime} \rightarrow X, \quad \varphi: F X \rightarrow Y . \quad \beta: Y \rightarrow Y^{\prime} .
\end{gathered}
$$

In particular, take $Y=F X, \varphi=1_{F X}$, and set $\varepsilon_{X}=\eta\left(1_{F X}\right): X \rightarrow G F X$. Then (7.1) shows that $\varepsilon$ is a natural transformation, $\varepsilon: 1 \rightarrow G F$. We call $\varepsilon$ the front adjunction or unit. Similarly take $X=G Y$, and set

$$
\delta_{Y}=\eta^{-1}\left(1_{G Y}\right): F G Y \rightarrow Y .
$$

Again (7.1) shows that $\delta$ is a natural transformation, $\delta: F G \rightarrow 1$, which we call the rear adjunction or counit. Further, (7.1) implies that

$$
F \xrightarrow{F_{\varepsilon}} F G F \xrightarrow{\delta F} F, \quad G \xrightarrow{\varepsilon G} G F G \xrightarrow{G \delta} G
$$

are identity transformations,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta F: F \varepsilon=1, \quad G \delta \cdot \varepsilon G=1 . \tag{7.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $\eta\left(\delta_{F X} F \varepsilon_{X}\right)=\eta\left(\delta_{F X}\right) \cdot \varepsilon_{X}=\varepsilon_{X}=\eta\left(1_{F X}\right)$; and the second relation in (7.2) is proved similarly. Notice also that (7.1) implies that $\eta$ is determined by $\varepsilon$, and that $\xi=\eta^{-1}$ is determined by $\delta$, by the rules

$$
\begin{align*}
& \eta(\varphi)=G \varphi \cdot \varepsilon_{X}, \quad \text { for } \quad \varphi: F X \rightarrow Y,  \tag{7.3}\\
& \xi(\psi)=\eta^{-1}(\psi)=\delta_{Y} \cdot F \psi, \quad \text { for } \quad \psi: X \rightarrow G Y .
\end{align*}
$$

We now prove the converse of these results.
Proposition 7.2. Let $\boldsymbol{F}: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}, G: \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be functorsand let $\varepsilon: 1 \rightarrow G F$, $\delta: F G \rightarrow 1$ be natural transformations such that $\delta F: F \varepsilon=1, G \delta \cdot \varepsilon G=1$. Then $\eta: \mathfrak{D}(F X, Y) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}(X, G Y)$, defined by $\eta(\varphi)=G \varphi \in \varepsilon_{X}$, for $\varphi: F X \rightarrow Y$,
is a natural equivalence, so that $\eta: F \dashv G$. Moreover, $\varepsilon, \delta$ are the unit and counit of the adjugant $\eta$.

Proof. First, $\eta$ is natural. For

$$
\begin{aligned}
\eta(\beta: \varphi: F \alpha) & =G(\beta: \varphi \cdot F \alpha) \varepsilon_{X} \\
& =G \beta \cdot G \varphi \cdot G F \alpha \cdot \varepsilon_{X} \\
& =G \beta \cdot G \varphi \quad \varepsilon_{X} \cdot \alpha, \quad \text { since } \varepsilon \text { is natural } \\
& =G \beta \cdot \eta(\varphi) \cdot \alpha .
\end{aligned}
$$

Define $\xi$ by $\xi(\psi)=\delta_{\boldsymbol{Y}} \mathrm{F} \psi$, for $\psi: X \rightarrow G Y$. Again, $\xi$ is natural and we will have established that $\eta: F \dashv G$ if we show that $\xi$ is inverse to $\eta$. Now if $\varphi: F X \rightarrow Y$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\xi \eta(\varphi) & =\delta_{\boldsymbol{Y}} \cdot F \eta(\varphi) \\
& =\delta_{\boldsymbol{Y}} \cdot \boldsymbol{F} \boldsymbol{G} \varphi \cdot F \varepsilon_{X} \\
& =\varphi: \delta_{\boldsymbol{F} X}: F \varepsilon_{X}, \quad \text { since } \delta \text { is natural } \\
& =\varphi, \quad \text { by }(7.2) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\xi \eta=1$ and similarly $\eta \xi=1$. Finally we see that if $\varepsilon^{\prime}, \delta^{\prime}$ are the unit and counit of $\eta$, then

$$
\varepsilon_{X}^{\prime}=\eta\left(1_{F X}\right)=1_{G F X} \quad \varepsilon_{X}=\varepsilon_{X},
$$

and

$$
\delta_{Y}^{\prime}=\xi\left(1_{G Y}\right)=\delta_{Y} \cdot 1_{F G Y}=\delta_{Y} .
$$

Proposition 7.3. Suppose $F \dashv G$. Then $F$ determines $G$ up to natural equivalence and $G$ determines $F$ up to natural equivalence.

Proof. It is plainly sufficient to establish the first assertion. Suppose then that $\eta: F \dashv G, \eta^{\prime}: F \dashv G^{\prime}$. Consider the natural equivalence of functors

$$
\mathfrak{C}(-, G Y) \xrightarrow{\eta^{-1}} \mathfrak{D}(F-, Y) \xrightarrow{\stackrel{\eta^{\prime}}{\longrightarrow}} \mathfrak{C}\left(-, G^{\prime} Y\right) .
$$

By the dual of Corollary 4.2 and Proposition 4.3 such an equivalence is induced by an isomorphism $\theta_{Y}: G Y \rightarrow G^{\prime} Y$. Since $\eta^{\prime} \eta^{-1}$ is natural in $Y$, it readily follows that $\theta$ is a natural equivalence.

We remark that if $\varepsilon, \delta, \varepsilon^{\prime}, \delta^{\prime}$ are unit and counit for $\eta, \eta^{\prime}$, then

$$
\theta_{Y}=\eta^{\prime} \eta^{-1}\left(1_{G Y}\right)=\eta^{\prime}\left(\delta_{Y}\right)=G^{\prime}\left(\delta_{Y}\right) \cdot \varepsilon_{G Y}^{\prime}
$$

or, briefly,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta=G^{\prime} \delta \cdot \varepsilon^{\prime} G \tag{7.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

It then immediately follows that the inverse $\bar{\theta}$ of $\theta$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{\theta}=G \delta^{\prime} \circ \varepsilon G^{\prime} . \tag{7.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proposition 7.4. Under the same hypotheses as in Proposition 7.3, with $\theta, \bar{\theta}$ defined as in (7.4), (7.5), we have
(i) $\theta F \neg \varepsilon=\varepsilon^{\prime} ; \delta \sim F \bar{\theta}=\delta^{\prime}$;
(ii) $\theta_{Y}{ }^{\circ} \eta(\varphi)=\eta^{\prime}(\varphi)$, for any $\varphi: F X \rightarrow Y$.

Conversely, let $\eta: F \dashv G$ and let $\theta: G \rightarrow G^{\prime}$ be a natural equivalence. Then $\eta^{\prime}: F \dashv G^{\prime}$, where $\eta^{\prime}(\varphi)=\theta_{\boldsymbol{Y}}{ }^{\bullet} \eta(\varphi)$. Moreover, if $\varepsilon$ and $\delta$ are the unit and counit for $\eta$, then $\varepsilon^{\prime}$ and $\delta^{\prime}$, the unit and counit for $\eta^{\prime}$, are given by (i) above.

Proof. (i) $\theta F \cdot \varepsilon=G^{\prime} \delta F=\varepsilon^{\prime} G F \cdot \varepsilon$
$=G^{\prime} \delta F G^{\prime} F \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime}, \quad$ by the naturality of $\varepsilon^{\prime}$,
$=\varepsilon^{\prime}$.
$\delta: F \bar{\theta}=\delta \| F G \delta^{\prime}-F \varepsilon G^{\prime}$
$=\delta^{\prime} \circ \delta F G^{\prime} \circ F \varepsilon G^{\prime}, \quad$ by the naturality of $\delta$,

$$
=\delta^{\prime} \text {. }
$$

(ii) $\theta_{Y} \cdot \eta(\varphi)=\theta_{Y}, G \varphi \cdot \varepsilon_{X}$
$=G^{\prime} \varphi \cdot \theta_{F X} \varepsilon_{X}, \quad$ by the naturality of $\theta$
$=G^{\prime} \varphi=\varepsilon_{X}^{\prime}, \quad$ by (i).
$=\eta^{\prime}(\varphi)$.
The proof of the converse is left as an exercise to the reader. $]$
Proposition 7.5. If $F: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ is full and faithful and if $F \dashv G$, then the unit $\varepsilon: 1 \rightarrow G F$ is a natural equivalence.

Proof. Let $\delta: F G \rightarrow 1$ be the counit. Then $\delta F: F G F \rightarrow F$. Since $F$ is full and faithful we may define a transformation $\varrho: G F \rightarrow 1$ by

$$
F \varrho_{X}=\delta_{F X}
$$

and it is plain that $\varrho$ is natural. We show that $\varrho$ is inverse to $\varepsilon$. First, $\boldsymbol{F} \varrho \boldsymbol{F} \varepsilon=\delta F \cdot \boldsymbol{F} \varepsilon=1$, so that $\varrho \varepsilon \varepsilon=1$, since $F$ is faithful. Second, if $\eta$ is the adjugant, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\eta^{-1}\left(\varepsilon_{X}: \varrho_{X}\right) & =F \varrho_{X}, \quad \text { by }(7.2) \text { and (7.3) }, \\
& =\delta_{F X} \\
& =\eta^{-1}\left(1_{G F X}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\varepsilon$ : $\varrho=1$ and the proposition is proved. $]$
Proposition 7.6. If $F: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ is a full embedding and if $F \dashv G$, then there exists $G^{\prime}$ with $F \dashv G^{\prime}$ where the unit $\varepsilon^{\prime}: 1 \rightarrow G^{\prime} F$ is the identity.

Proof. We construct the functor $G^{\prime}$ as follows

$$
\begin{aligned}
G^{\prime}(Y) & =G(Y) \quad \text { if } \quad Y \notin \operatorname{Im} F, \\
G^{\prime} F(X) & =X .
\end{aligned}
$$

For $\beta: Y_{1} \rightarrow Y_{2}$

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
G^{\prime}(\beta) & =G(\beta) & \text { if } & \\
Y_{1}, Y_{2} \notin \operatorname{Im} F, \\
& =F^{-1}(\beta) & \text { if } & \\
& Y_{1}, Y_{2} \in \operatorname{Im} F . \\
& =G(\beta) \varepsilon & \text { if } & \\
& Y_{1} \in \operatorname{Im} F, \quad Y_{2} \notin \operatorname{Im} F, \\
& =\varrho G(\beta) & \text { if } & \\
Y_{1} \notin \operatorname{Im} F, \quad Y_{2} \in \operatorname{Im} F,
\end{array}
$$

where $\varrho$ is inverse to $\varepsilon$ as in Proposition 7.5. A straightforward computation shows that $G^{\prime}$ is a functor.

We now define transformations $\theta: G \rightarrow G^{\prime}, \bar{\theta}: G^{\prime} \rightarrow G$ by

$$
\begin{array}{rlrlr}
\theta_{Y} & =1_{G Y} & & \text { if } & \\
& \dot{Y} \notin \operatorname{Im} F, \\
& =\varrho_{X} & & \text { if } & \\
\bar{\theta}_{\boldsymbol{Y}} & =1_{G Y}=F & & \text { if } & \\
& =\varepsilon_{X} \notin \operatorname{Im} F, \\
& & \text { if } & & Y=F X .
\end{array}
$$

Again it is easy to show that $\theta, \bar{\theta}$ are natural and they are obviously mutual inverses. Thus, by Proposition 7.4, $F \dashv G^{\prime}$ and the counit for this adjunction is given by

$$
\varepsilon_{X}^{\prime}=\theta_{F X} \quad \varepsilon_{X}=\varrho_{X} \quad \varepsilon_{X}=1_{X}, \quad \text { so that } \quad \varepsilon^{\prime}=1
$$

The reader should notice that where $F \dashv G$ with $G F=1$ and $\varepsilon=1$. then the adjointness is simply given by a counit $\delta: F G \rightarrow 1$, satisfying

$$
\delta F=1, \quad G \delta=1 .
$$

We close this section by relating adjoint functors to the universal constructions given in previous sections. The theorem below will be generalized in the next section.

Theorem 7.7. If $G: \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ has a left adjoint then $G$ preserves products, pull-backs and kernels.

Proof. We must show that if $\left\{X ; p_{i}\right\}$ is the product of objects $\boldsymbol{Y}_{i}$ in $\mathfrak{D}$, then $\left\{G Y ; G\left(p_{i}\right)\right\}$ is the product of the objects $G\left(Y_{i}\right)$ in $\mathbb{C}$. Suppose given $f_{i}: X \rightarrow G Y_{i}$. Let $\eta: F \dashv G$ with inverse $\xi$. Then $\xi\left(f_{i}\right): F X \rightarrow Y_{i}$ so that there exists a unique $g: F X \rightarrow Y$ with $p_{i} g=\xi\left(f_{i}\right)$. Then

$$
G\left(p_{i}\right) \cdot \eta(g)=\eta\left(p_{i} g\right)=f_{i} .
$$

Moreover $\eta(g)$ is the unique morphism $f$ such that $G\left(p_{i}\right) \cdot f=f_{i}$; for every $f^{\prime}: X \rightarrow G Y$ is of the form $f^{\prime}=\eta\left(g^{\prime}\right)$ and $g$ is uniquely determined by $p_{i} g=\xi\left(f_{i}\right)$.

Next we look at pull-backs. Given a pull-back

in $\mathfrak{D}$, we assert that

is a pull-back in $\mathbb{C}$. So suppose given $\gamma: Z \rightarrow G A, \delta: Z \rightarrow G B$ in $\mathfrak{D}$ with $G \varphi \quad \gamma=G \psi \cdot \delta$. Applying $\xi$, we have $\varphi-\xi(\gamma)=\psi \xi(\delta)$. Thus there exists a unique $\varrho: F Z \rightarrow Y$ such that $\alpha \cdot \varrho=\xi(\gamma), \beta: \varrho=\xi(\delta)$. Applying $\eta, G(\alpha) \because \eta(\varrho)=\gamma, G(\beta) \eta(\varrho)=\delta$, and, as for products, $\eta(\varrho)$ is the unique morphism satisfying these equations

We leave the proof that $G$ preserves kernels to the reader.

## Exercises:

7.1. Prove Proposition 7.1.
7.2. Establish that $G^{\prime}$ in Proposition 7.6 is a functor.
7.3. Show that if $G: \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ has a left adjoint, then $G$ preserves equalizers. Deduce that $G$ then preserves kernels.
7.4. Let ${ }_{m} \mathfrak{\mathscr { V } b}$ be the full subcategory of $\mathfrak{Q b}$ consisting of those abelian groups $A$ such that $m A=0$. Show that ${ }_{m} \mathfrak{2 r b}$ admits kernels, cokernels, arbitrary products and arbitrary coproducts. Let $E:{ }_{m} \mathfrak{U b} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A b}$ be the embedding and let $F: \mathfrak{A b} \rightarrow_{m} \mathfrak{U} \mathfrak{l}$ be given by $F(A)=A / m A$. Show that $F \dashv E$.
7.5. Show that it is possible to choose, for each $\Lambda$-module $M$, a surjection $P(M) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{M}} M$, where $P(M)$ is a free $\Lambda$-module, in such a way that $P$ is a functor from $\mathfrak{M}_{A}$ to the category $\mathscr{\xi}_{A}$ of free $\Lambda$-modules and $\varepsilon_{M}$ is a natural transformation. If $E: \mathscr{F}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$ is the embedding functor, is there an adjugant $\eta: E \dashv P$ such that $\varepsilon$ is the counit?
7.6. Let $\mathbb{C}$ be a category with products and let $D: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the functor $D(A)=A \times A$. Discuss the question of the existence of a left adjoint to $D$, and identify it, where it exists, in the cases $\mathfrak{C}=\mathfrak{G}, \mathfrak{C}=\mathfrak{I}, \mathfrak{C}=\mathfrak{I}^{\mathbf{0}}, \mathfrak{C}=\mathfrak{G}, \mathfrak{C}=\mathfrak{M}_{A}$. What can we say in general?

## 8. Adjoint Functors and Universal Constructions

Theorem 7.7 established a connection between adjoint functors and universal constructions. We now establish a far closer connection which will enable us finally to give a definition of the notion of universal construction! At the same time it will allow us to place Theorem 7.7 in a far more general context.

As our first example of a universal construction we considered the case of a product. We recall that we mentioned in Proposition 5.3 that the construction of a product over the indexing set $I$ could be regarded as a functor $\mathbb{C}^{I} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. Now there is a constant functor (or diagonal functor) $P: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{1}$, given by $P(B)=\left\{B_{i}\right\}, i \in I$, where $B_{i}=B$ for all $i \in I$. Suppose $P \dashv G$ and let $\delta: P G \rightarrow 1$ be the counit of the adjunction. Then if $\left\{X_{i}\right\}$ is an object of $\mathbb{C}^{I}, \delta$ determines a family of morphisms $p_{i}: G\left(\left\{X_{i}\right\}\right) \rightarrow X_{i}$.

Proposition 8.1. The product of the objects $X_{i}$ is $\left(X ; p_{i}\right)$ where $X=G\left(\left\{X_{i}\right\}\right)$.

Proof. Given $f_{i}: Y \rightarrow X_{i}$, we have a morphism $f=\left\{f_{i}\right\}: P(Y) \rightarrow\left\{X_{i}\right\}$. Then $\eta(f)$ is a morphism $Y \rightarrow X$ such that, by (7.3),

$$
\delta \cdot P(\eta(f))=f
$$

But this simply means that $p_{i} \eta(f)=f_{i}$ for all $i$. Moreover the equations $\delta: P(g)=f$ determines $g$, since then, again by (7.3), $g=\eta(f)$. $\quad \square$

Thus we see that the product is given by a right adjoint to the constant functor $P: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{I}$, and the projections are given by the counit of the adjunction. Plainly the coproduct is given by a left adjoint to the constant functor $P$, the injections arising from the unit of the adjunction. We leave it to the reader to work out the details.

Generalizing the above facts, we define a universal construction (corresponding to a functor $F$ ) as a left adjoint (to $F$ ) together with the counit of the adjunction, or as a right adjoint (to $F$ ) together with the unit of the adjunction. Quite clearly we should really speak of universal and couniversal constructions. However, we will adopt the usual convention of using the term "universal construction" in both senses.

We now give a couple of examples, to show just how universal constructions, already familiar to the reader, turn up as left or right adjoints. We first turn to the example of a pull-back.

Let $\mathcal{L}$ be the category represented by the schema

that is, $\mathfrak{E}$ consists of three objects and two morphisms in addition to the identity morphisms. We may write a functor $\mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ as a pair $(\varphi, \psi)$ in $\mathbb{C}$ and represent it as


There is a constant functor $F$ from $\mathbb{C}$ to the functor category $\mathbb{C}^{\mathfrak{Q}}$ which associates with $Z$ the diagram


Notice that a morphism $(\gamma, \delta): F(Z) \rightarrow(\varphi, \psi)$ in $\boldsymbol{C}^{\mathfrak{E}}$ is really nothing but a pair of morphisms $\gamma: Z \rightarrow A, \delta: Z \rightarrow B$ in $\mathbb{C}$ such that the square

commutes. Now let $F \dashv G$ and let $\pi: F G \rightarrow 1$ be the counit of the adjunction.

Proposition 8.2. $\pi: F G(\varphi, \psi) \rightarrow(\varphi, \psi)$ is the pull-back of $(\varphi, \psi)$.
Proof. Let $G(\varphi, \psi)=Y$. Then $\pi: F(Y) \rightarrow(\varphi, \psi)$ is a pair of morphisms $\alpha: Y \rightarrow A, \beta: Y \rightarrow B$ such that $\varphi \alpha=\psi \beta$. Moreover, if $(\gamma, \delta): F(Z) \rightarrow(\varphi, \psi)$, then $\eta=\eta(\gamma, \delta): Z \rightarrow Y$ satisfies, by (7.3)

$$
\pi \cdot F(\eta)=(\gamma, \delta)
$$

that is, $\alpha: \eta=\gamma . \beta: \eta=\delta$. Moreover the equation $\pi \cdot \boldsymbol{F}(\zeta)=(\gamma, \delta)$ determines $\zeta$ as $\eta(\gamma, \delta)$. $\square$

We remark that in this case (unlike that of Proposition 8.1) $F$ is a full embedding. Thus we may suppose that the unit $\varepsilon$ for the adjunction $F \dashv G$ is the identity. This means that the pull-back of $F(Z)$ consists of $\left(1_{Z}, 1_{Z}\right)$. To see that $F$ is a full embedding, it is best to invoke a general theorem which will be used later. We call a category $\mathfrak{P}$ connected if, given any two objects $A, B$ in $\mathfrak{P}$ there exists a (finite) sequence of objects $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}$ in $\mathfrak{B}$ such that $A_{1}=A, A_{n}=B$ and, for any $i, 1 \leqq i \leqq n-1$, $\mathfrak{P}\left(A_{i}, A_{i+1}\right) \cup \mathfrak{P}\left(A_{i+1}, A_{i}\right) \neq \emptyset$. This means that we can connect $A$ to $B$ by a chain of arrows, thus:

$$
A \rightarrow \leftarrow \cdot \rightarrow \cdots \leftarrow \cdot \rightarrow B
$$

Theorem 8.3. Let $\mathfrak{B}$ be a small connected category and let $\boldsymbol{F}: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{\mathfrak{B}}$ be the constant functor. Then $F$ is a full embedding.

Proof. The point at issue is that $F$ is full. Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ in $\mathcal{C}$ and let $P, Q$ be objects of $\mathfrak{P}$. We have a chain in $\mathfrak{P}$

$$
P \rightarrow . \leftarrow \cdot \rightarrow \cdots \leftarrow \cdot \rightarrow Q
$$

and hence must show that, given a commutative diagram

in $\boldsymbol{C}$, then $f^{\prime}=f$; but this is obvious. $\square$

Notice that an indexing set $I$, regarded as a category, is not connected (on the contrary, it is discrete) unless it is a singleton. On the other hand, directed sets are connected, so that our remarks are related to the classical theory of inverse limits (and by duality, direct limits). The reader is referred to Chapter VIII, Section 5, for details.

It is clear that the push-out is a universal construction which turns up as a left adjoint to the constant functor $F: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{\mathfrak{E}^{\text {gopp }}}$. Plainly also the formation of a free $\Lambda$-module on a given set is a universal construction corresponding to the underlying functor $U: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{G}$, which turns up as left adjoint to $U$.

We now discuss in greater detail another example of a universal construction which turns up as a left adjoint and which is of considerable independent interest: the Grothendieck group. Let $S$ be an abelian semigroup. Then $S \times S$ is also, in an obvious way, an abelian semigroup. Introduce into $S \times S$ the homomorphic relation $(a . b) \sim(c . d)$ if and only if there exists $u \in S$ with $a+d+u=b+c+u$.

This is plainly an equivalence relation; moreover, $(S \times S)_{i} \sim=\operatorname{Gr}(S)$ is clearly an abelian group since

$$
[a, b]+[b, a]=[a+b, a+b]=[0,0]=0 .
$$

where square brackets denote equivalence classes. Further there is a homomorphism $\imath: S \rightarrow \operatorname{Gr}(S)$, given by $\imath(a)=[a, 0]$, and $\imath$ is injective if and only if $S$ is a cancellation semigroup.

It is then easy to show that $l$ has the following universal property. Let $A$ be an abelian group and let $\sigma: S \rightarrow A$ be a homomorphism. Then there exists a unique homomorphism $\bar{\sigma}: \operatorname{Gr}(S) \rightarrow A$ such that $\bar{\sigma} l=\sigma$,


Finally, one readily shows that this universal property determines $\operatorname{Gr}(\boldsymbol{S})$ up to canonical isomorphism; we call $\operatorname{Gr}(\boldsymbol{S})$ the Grothendieck group of $S$.

We now show how to express the construction of the Grothendieck group in terms of adjoint functors. Let $\mathfrak{Q b}$ be the category of abelian groups, let $\mathfrak{M b s}$ be the category of abelian semigroups and let $E: \mathfrak{A b} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A l b s}$ be the embedding (which is. of course, full). Suppose that $F \dashv E$ and let $\imath: 1 \rightarrow E F$ be the unit of the adjunction. Then the reader may readily show that $F(S)$ is the Grothendieck group of $S$, that $i_{s}$ coincides with $t$ in (8.1). and that $\bar{\sigma}=\eta^{-1}(\sigma)-$ note that $\sigma$ in (8.1) is strictly a morphism $S \rightarrow E(A)$ in $\mathfrak{M}$ (bs.

The precise formulation of the notion of a universal construction serves to provide a general explanation of the facts asserted in Theorem
7.7. Given a functor $F: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ and a small category $\mathfrak{P}$ there is an obvious induced functor $F^{\mathfrak{\beta}}: \mathfrak{C}^{\mathfrak{B}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}^{\mathfrak{B}}$. The reader will readily prove the following lemmas.

Lemma 8.4. If $F \dashv G$, then $F^{\mathfrak{B}} \dashv G^{\mathfrak{B}}$. $\quad \square$
Lemma 8.5. If $P: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{\mathfrak{P}}$ is the constant functor (for any $(\mathbb{C}$ ), then the diagram

commutes. $]$
We infer from Propositions 7.1, 7.3 and Lemmas 8.4, 8.5 the following basic theorem.

Theorem 8.6. Let $F: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ and $F \dashv G$. Further let $P \dashv R$ (for $P: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{C}^{\mathfrak{P}}$ and $\left.P: \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}^{\mathfrak{B}}\right)$. Then there is a natural equivalence $G R \rightarrow R G^{\mathfrak{B}}$ uniquely determined by the given adjugants. $\quad \square$

This theorem may be described by saying that $R$ commutes with right adjoints. In Chapter 8 we will use the terminology "limit" for such functors $R$ right adjoint to constant functors. Its proof may be summed up in the vivid but slightly inaccurate phrase: if two functors commute so do their (left, right) adjoints. The percipient reader may note that Theorem 8.6 does not quite give the full force of Theorem 7.7. For Theorem 7.7 asserts for example that if a particular family $\left\{Y_{i}\right\}$ of objects of $\mathfrak{D}$ possess a product, so does the family $\left\{G Y_{i}\right\}$ of objects of $\mathbb{C}$; Theorem 8.10, on the other hand, addresses itself to the case where the appropriate universal constructions are known to exist over the whole of both categories. The reader is strongly advised to write out the proof of Theorem 8.6 in detail.

## Exercises:

8.1. Write out in detail the proofs of Lemma 8.4, Lemma 8.5 and Theorem 8.6.
8.2. Express the kernel and the equalizer as a universal construction in the precise sense of this section.
8.3. Give examples of Theorem 8.6 in the categories $\mathfrak{G}$. $\mathfrak{G}$ and $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$.
8.4. Let $S$ be an abelian semigroup. Let $F(S)$ be the free abelian group freely generated by the elements of $S$ and let $R(S)$ be the subgroup of $F(S)$ generated by the elements

$$
a+b-(a+b), a, b \in S
$$

here we write + for the addition in $F(S)$ and + for the addition in $S$. Establish a natural equivalence

$$
G r(S) \cong F(S) / R(S) .
$$

8.5. Show that if $S$ is a (commutative) semiring (i.e., $S$ satisfies all the ring axioms except for the existence of additive inverses), then $\operatorname{Gr}(\boldsymbol{S})$ acquires, in a natural way, the structure of a (commutative) ring.
8.6. Show how the construction of the Grothendieck group of a semigroup $S$, given in Exercise 8.4 above, generalizes to yield the Grothendieck group of any small category with finite coproducts.
8.7. The Birkhoff-Witt Theorem asserts that every Lie algebra $g$ over the field $K$ may be embedded in an associative $K$-algebra $U \mathfrak{g}$ in such a way that the Lie bracket $[x, y]$ coincides with $x y-y x$ in $U \mathfrak{g}, x, y \in \mathfrak{g}$, and such that to every associative $K$-algebra $A$ and every $K$-linear map $f: g \rightarrow A$ with

$$
f[x, y]=f(x) f(y)-f(y) f(x), \quad x, y \in \mathfrak{g}
$$

there exists a unique $K$-algebra homomorphism $f^{*}: U \mathbf{g} \rightarrow A$ extending $f$. Express this theorem in the language of this section.
8.8. Consider in the category $\mathbb{C}$ (for example, $\mathcal{G}, \mathfrak{A b}, \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$, (5) the situation

$$
\cdots \mapsto C_{-2} \xrightarrow{\gamma-2} C_{-1} \xrightarrow{\gamma-1} C_{0} \xrightarrow{\gamma_{0}} C_{1} \xrightarrow{\gamma_{1}} C_{2} \mapsto \cdots, C_{i} \text { in } \mathbb{C} .
$$

Set $\lim _{\leftarrow} C_{i}=\bigcap_{i} C_{i}$ and $\lim _{\rightarrow} C_{i}=\bigcup_{i} C_{i}$, regarding the $\gamma_{i}$ as embeddings. What are the universal properties satisfied by $\lim _{\dot{c}} C_{i}$ and $\lim C_{i}$ ? Describe $\lim$ as a right adjoint, and lim as a left adjoint, to a constant functor. Use this description to suggest appropriate meanings for $\lim _{\leftarrow} C_{i}$ and $\lim C_{i}$ if $\mathbb{C}=\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$ and each $\gamma_{i}$ is epimorphic.

## 9. Abelian Categories

Certain of the categories we introduced in Section 1 possess significant additional structure. Thus in the categories $\mathfrak{H b}, \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{l}, \mathfrak{M}_{A}^{r}$ the morphism sets all have abelian group structure and we have the notion of exact sequences. We proceed in this section to extract certain essential features of such categories and define the important notion of an abelian category: much of what we do in later chapters really consists of a study of the formal properties of abelian categories. It is a very important fact about such categories that the axioms which characterize them are self-dual, so that any theorem proved about abelian categories yields two dual theorems when applied to a particular abelian category such as $\mathfrak{M}_{A}^{l}$.

In fact, in a very precise sense, module categories are not so special in the totality of abelian categories. A result, called the full embedding theorem [37, p. 151] asserts that every small abelian category may be fully embedded in a category of modules over an appropriate ring, in such a way that exactness relations are preserved. This means, in effect, that, in any argument involving only a finite diagram, and such notions as kernel, cokernel, image, it is legitimate to suppose that we are operating in a category of modules. Usually, the point of such an assumption is to
permit us to suppose that our objects are sets of elements, and to prove statements by "diagram-chases" with elements. The full embedding theorem does not permit us, however, to "argue with elements" if an infinite diagram (e.g., a countable product) is involved.

We begin by defining a notion more general than that of an abelian category.

Definition. An additive category $\mathfrak{A}$ is a category with zero object in which any two objects have a product and in which the morphism sets $\mathfrak{A}(A, B)$ are abelian groups such that the composition

$$
\mathfrak{A}(A, B) \times \mathfrak{U}(B, C) \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}(A, C)
$$

is bilinear.
Apart from the examples quoted there are, of course, very many examples of additive categories. We mention two which will be of particular importance to us.

Examples. (a) A graded $\Lambda$-module $A$ (graded by the integers) is a family of $\Lambda$-modules $A=\left\{A_{n}\right\}, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $A, B$ are graded $\Lambda$-modules, a morphism $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ of degree $k$ is a family of $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms $\left\{\varphi_{n}: A_{n} \rightarrow B_{n+k}\right\}, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. The category so defined is denoted by $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{\mathbb{Z}}$. We obtain an additive category if we restrict ourselves to morphisms of degree 0 . (The reader should note a slight abuse of notation: If $\mathbb{Z}$ is regarded as the discrete category consisting of the integers, then $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is the proper notation for the category with morphisms of degree 0 .)
(b) We may replace the grading set $\mathbb{Z}$ in Example (a) by some other set. In particular we will be much concerned in Chapter VIII with modules graded by $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$; such modules are said to be bigraded. If $A$ and $B$ are bigraded modules, a morphism $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ of bidegree ( $k, l$ ) is a family of module homomorphisms $\left\{\varphi_{n, m}: A_{n, m} \rightarrow B_{n+k . m+l}\right\}$. The category so defined is denoted by $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}}$. If we restrict the morphisms to be of bidegree $(0,0)$ we obtain an additive category.

Notice that, although $\mathfrak{M}_{A}^{\mathbf{Z}}, \mathfrak{M}_{A}^{\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}}$ are not additive, they do admit kernels and cokernels. We will adopt the convention that kernels and cokernels always have degree 0 (bidegree ( 0,0 ). If we define the image of a morphism as the kernel of the cokernel, then, of course, these categories also admit images (and coimages!).

Abelian categories are additive categories with extra structure. Before proceeding to describe that extra structure, we prove some results about additive categories. We write $A_{1} \oplus A_{2}$ for the product of $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ in the additive category $\mathfrak{A}$. Before stating the first proposition we point out that the zero morphism of $\mathfrak{A}(A . B)$. in the sense of Section 1, is the zero element of the abelian group $\mathfrak{H}(A . B)$, so there is no confusion of terminology.

Our first concern is to make good our claim that the axioms are, in fact, self-dual. Apparently there is a failure of self-duality in that
we have demanded (finite) products but not coproducts. We show that actually we can also guarantee the existence of coproducts. We prove the even stronger statement:

Proposition 9.1. Let $i_{1}=\{1,0\}: A_{1} \rightarrow A_{1} \oplus A_{2}, i_{2}=\{0,1\}: A_{2} \rightarrow A_{1} \oplus A_{2}$. Then $\left(A_{1} \oplus A_{2} ; i_{1}, i_{2}\right)$ is the coproduct of $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ in the additive category $\mathfrak{A}$.

We first need a basic lemma.
Lemma 9.2. $i_{1} p_{1}+i_{2} p_{2}=1: A_{1} \oplus A_{2} \rightarrow A_{1} \oplus A_{2}$.
Proof. Now $p_{1}\left(i_{1} p_{1}+i_{2} p_{2}\right)=p_{1} i_{1} p_{1}+p_{2} i_{2} p_{2}=p_{1}$, since $p_{1} i_{1}=1$, $p_{1} i_{2}=0$. Similarly $p_{2}\left(i_{1} p_{1}+i_{2} p_{2}\right)=p_{2}$. Thus, by the uniqueness property of the product, $i_{1} p_{1}+i_{2} p_{2}=1$.

Proof of Proposition 9.1. Given $\varphi_{i}: A_{i} \rightarrow B . i=1.2$. define

$$
\left\langle\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}\right\rangle=\varphi_{1} p_{1}+\varphi_{2} p_{2}: A_{1} \oplus A_{2} \rightarrow B .
$$

Then $\left\langle\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}\right\rangle i_{1}=\left(\varphi_{1} p_{1}+\varphi_{2} p_{2}\right) i_{1}=\varphi_{1} p_{1} i_{1}+\varphi_{2} p_{2} i_{1}=\varphi_{1}$, and similarly $\left\langle\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}\right\rangle i_{2}=\varphi_{2}$. We establish the uniqueness of $\left\langle\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}\right\rangle$ by invoking Lemma 9.2. For if $\theta i_{1}=\varphi_{1}, \theta i_{2}=\varphi_{2}$, then

$$
\theta=\theta\left(i_{1} p_{1}+i_{2} p_{2}\right)=\theta i_{1} p_{1}+\theta i_{2} p_{2}=\varphi_{1} p_{1}+\varphi_{2} p_{2}=\left\langle\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}\right\rangle .
$$

We use the term sum instead of coproduct in the case of an additive category. Of course, sums only coincide with products in an additive category if a finite number of objects is involved. We know from the example of $\mathfrak{A b b}$ that they do not coincide for infinite collections of objects.

Proposition 9.3. Given

$$
A \xrightarrow{\{\varphi, \psi\}} \boldsymbol{B} \oplus C \xrightarrow{\langle\gamma, \delta\rangle} \boldsymbol{D},
$$

we have

$$
\langle\gamma, \delta\rangle\{\varphi, \psi\}=\gamma \varphi+\delta \psi
$$

Proof.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\langle\gamma, \delta\rangle\{\varphi, \psi\} & =\left(\gamma p_{1}+\delta p_{2}\right)\{\varphi, \psi\}=\gamma p_{1}\{\varphi, \psi\}+\delta p_{2}\{\varphi, \psi\} \\
& =\gamma \varphi+\delta \psi .
\end{aligned}
$$

This proposition has the following interesting corollary.
Corollary 9.4. The addition in the set $\mathfrak{A}(A, B)$ is determined by the category $\mathfrak{A}$.

Proof. If $\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}: A \rightarrow B$ then $\varphi_{1}+\varphi_{2}=\left\langle\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}\right\rangle\{1,1\} . \quad \square$
We may express this corollary as follows. Given a category with zero object and finite products, the defining property of an additive category asserts that the "morphism sets" functor $\mathfrak{H}^{\mathrm{opp}} \times \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}$ may be lifted
to $\mathfrak{\mu b}$,

where $U$ is the "underlying set" functor. Then Corollary 9.4 asserts that the lifting is unique. We next discuss functors between additive categories. We prove

Proposition 9.5. Let $\boldsymbol{F}: \mathfrak{Q} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ be a functor from the additive category $\mathfrak{A}$ to the additive category $\mathfrak{B}$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $F$ preserves sums (of two objects);
(ii) $F$ preserves products (of two objects):
(iii) for each $A$. $A^{\prime}$ in $\mathfrak{A}$. $F: \mathfrak{Q}\left(A, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}\left(F A, F A^{\prime}\right)$ is a homomorphism.

Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii). This is not quite trivial since we are required to show that $F\langle 1,0\rangle=\langle 1,0\rangle$ and $F\langle 0,1\rangle=\langle 0,1\rangle$. Thus we must show that $F(0)=0$ and for this it is plainly sufficient to show that $F$ maps zero objects to zero objects. Let 0 be a zero object of $\mathfrak{Q}$. Then plainly, for any $A$ in $\mathfrak{A}, A$ is the sum of $A$ and 0 with $1_{A}$ and 0 as canonical injections. Thus if $B=F(0)$, then $F A$ is the sum of $F A$ and $B$, with injections $1_{F A}$ and $\beta=F(0)$. Consider $0: F A \rightarrow B$ and $1: B \rightarrow B$. There is then a (unique) morphism $\theta: F A \rightarrow B$ such that $\theta 1=0, \theta \beta=1$. Thus $1=0: B \rightarrow B$ so that $B$ is a zero object.

That (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) now follows by duality.
(i) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) If $\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ then $\varphi_{1}+\varphi_{2}=\left\langle\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}\right\rangle\{1,1\}$, so that
$F\left(\varphi_{1}+\varphi_{2}\right)=\left\langle F \varphi_{1}, F \varphi_{2}\right\rangle\{1,1\}$. since $F$ preserves sums and products.

$$
=F \varphi_{1}+F \varphi_{2} .
$$

(iii) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) To show that $F$ preserves products we must show that

$$
\left\{F p_{1}, F p_{2}\right\}: F\left(A_{1} \oplus A_{2}\right) \rightarrow F A_{1} \oplus F A_{2}
$$

is an isomorphism. We show that

$$
F\left(i_{1}\right) p_{1}+F\left(i_{2}\right) p_{2}: F A_{1} \oplus F A_{2} \rightarrow F\left(A_{1} \oplus A_{2}\right)
$$

is inverse to $\left\{F p_{1}, F p_{2}\right\}$. For

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{F p_{1}, F p_{2}\right\}\left(F\left(i_{1}\right) p_{1}+F\left(i_{2}\right) p_{2}\right) & =\left\{F p_{1}, F p_{2}\right\} F\left(i_{1}\right) p_{1}+\left\{F p_{1}, F p_{2}\right\} F\left(i_{2}\right) p_{2} \\
& =\left\{F\left(p_{1} i_{1}\right) F\left(p_{2} i_{1}\right)\right\} p_{1}+\left\{F\left(p_{1} i_{2}\right), F\left(p_{2} i_{2}\right)\right\} p_{2} \\
& =\{1,0\} p_{1}+\{0,1\} p_{2}, \text { since } F(0)=0, \\
& =i_{1} p_{1}+i_{2} p_{2} \\
& =1 ;
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(F\left(i_{1}\right) p_{1}+F\left(i_{2}\right) p_{2}\right)\left\{F p_{1}, F p_{2}\right\} & =F\left(i_{1}\right) p_{1}\left\{F p_{1}, F p_{2}\right\}+F\left(i_{2}\right) p_{2}\left\{F p_{1}, F p_{2}\right\} \\
& =F i_{1} F p_{1}+F i_{2} F p_{2} \\
& =F\left(i_{1} p_{1}+i_{2} p_{2}\right), \quad \text { since } F \text { satisfies (iii) } \\
& =1
\end{aligned}
$$

We call a functor satisfying any of the three conditions of Proposition 9.5 an udditive functor. Such functors will play a crucial role in the sequel. However in order to be able to do effective homological algebra we need to introduce a richer structure into our additive categories; we want to have kernels, cokernels and images. Recall that kernels, if they exist, are always monomorphisms and (by duality) cokernels are always epimorphisms. In an additive category a monomorphism is characterized as having zero kernel, an epimorphism as having zero cokernel.

Definition. An abelian category is an additive category in which
(i) every morphism has a kernel and a cokernel;
(ii) every monomorphism is the kernel of its cokernel; every epimorphism is the cokernel of its kernel;
(iii) every morphism is expressible as the composite of an epimorphism and a monomorphism.

The reader will verify that all the examples given of additive categories are, in fact, examples of abelian categories. The category of finite abelian groups is abelian; the category of free abelian groups is additive but not abelian. We will be content in this section to prove a few fundamental properties of abelian categories and to define exact sequences. Notice however that the concept of an abelian category is certainly self-dual.

Proposition 9.6. Given $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ in the abelian category $\mathfrak{A}$, we may develop from $\varphi$ the sequence

$$
\left(S_{\varphi}\right) \quad K \xrightarrow{\mu} A \xrightarrow{\eta} I \xrightarrow{\nu} B \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} C .
$$

where $\varphi=v \eta, \mu$ is the kernel of $\varphi, \varepsilon$ is the cokernel of $\varphi, \eta$ is the cokernel of $\mu$, and $v$ is the kernel of $\varepsilon$. Moreover, the decomposition of $\varphi$ as a composite of an epimorphism and a monomorphism is essentially unique.

We first prove a lemma.
Lemma 9.7. Suppose $v \eta$ and $\eta$ have the same kernel and $\eta$ is an epimorphism. Then $v$ is a monomorphism.

Proof. Use property (iii) of an abelian category to write $v=\varrho \sigma$, with $\sigma$ epimorphic, $\varrho$ monomorphic. Then $v \eta=\varrho \sigma \eta$ and if $\mu$ is the kernel of $\sigma \eta$, then $\mu$ is the kernel of $\varrho \sigma \eta=v \eta$ and hence also of $\eta$. Thus $\mu$ is the kernel of $\sigma \eta$ and of $\eta$ so that, by property (ii), $\sigma \eta$ and $\eta$ are both cokernels
of $\mu$. This means that there exists an isomorphism in $\mathfrak{A}$, say $\omega$, such that $\sigma \eta=\omega \eta$, so that $\sigma=\omega$. Thus $\sigma$ is an isomorphism so that $v$ is a monomorphism. []

Proof of Proposition 9.6. Let $\mu$ be the kernel of $\varphi$ and let $\eta$ be the cokernel of $\mu$. Since $\varphi \mu=0, \varphi=v \eta$. Since $\mu$ is the kernel of $\eta$, Lemma 9.7 assures us that $v$ is a monomorphism. If $\varepsilon$ is the cokernel of $\varphi$, then $\varepsilon$ is the cokernel of $v$ (since $\eta$ is an epimorphism), so $v$ is the kernel of $\varepsilon$ and the existence of $S_{\varphi}$ is proved.

Finally if $\varphi=v \eta=v_{1} \eta_{1}$, with $\eta, \eta_{1}$ epimorphic, $v, v_{1}$ monomorphic, then $\operatorname{ker} \varphi=\operatorname{ker} \eta=\operatorname{ker} \eta_{1}$ so that $\eta_{1}=\omega \eta$ for some isomorphism $\omega$ and then $v=v_{1} \omega$. $\quad$

We leave to the reader the proof of the following important corollary.
Corollary 9.8. If the morphism $\alpha$ in the abelian category $\mathfrak{A}$ is a monomorphism and an epimorphism, then it is an isomorphism. $\quad]$

We have shown that the sequence $S_{\varphi}$ is, essentially, uniquely determined by the morphism $\varphi$. It is, of course, easy to show that the association is functorial in the sense that, given the commutative diagram

there is a commutative diagram


For since we construct $\mu, \mu^{\prime}$ as kernels and then $\eta, \eta^{\prime} ; \varepsilon, \varepsilon^{\prime}$ as cokernels, we automatically obtain morphisms $\kappa, \imath, \lambda$ such that $\mu^{\prime} \kappa=\alpha \mu, \eta^{\prime} \alpha=\imath \eta$, $\varepsilon^{\prime} \beta=\lambda \varepsilon$, and the only point at issue is to show that $v^{\prime} \iota=\beta v$. But

$$
v^{\prime} ı \eta=v^{\prime} \eta^{\prime} \alpha=\varphi^{\prime} \alpha=\beta \varphi=\beta v \eta,
$$

and so, since $\eta$ is epimorphic, $v^{\prime} \imath=\beta v$.
Definition. A short exact sequence in the abelian category $\mathfrak{A}$ is simply a sequence

$$
. \xrightarrow{\mu} \cdot \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} .
$$

in which $\mu$ is the kernel of $\varepsilon$, and $\varepsilon$ is the cokernel of $\mu$.

A long exact sequence in the abelian category $\mathfrak{A}$ is a sequence

$$
\cdots \xrightarrow{\varphi_{n}} \cdot \xrightarrow{\varphi_{n+1}} \cdots,
$$

$\varphi_{n}=\mu_{n} \varepsilon_{n}, \mu_{n}$ monomorphic. $\varepsilon_{n}$ epimorphic. where. for each $n . \mu_{n}$ is the kernel of $\varepsilon_{n+1}$ (and $\varepsilon_{n+1}$ is the cokernel of $\mu_{n}$ ).

## Exercises:

9.1. Consider the commutative diagram

in the abelian category $\mathfrak{A}$. Show, that if $A \xrightarrow{\beta \varphi} B^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\psi} C^{\prime}$ is exact and $\beta$ is a monomorphism, then $A \xrightarrow{\varphi} B \xrightarrow{\psi^{\prime} \beta} C^{\prime}$ is exact. What is the dual of this?
9.2. Show that the square

in the abelian category $\mathcal{Q}$ is commutative if and only if the

$$
A \xrightarrow{\{\alpha, \varphi\}} A^{\prime} \oplus B \xrightarrow{\left\langle-\varphi^{\prime}, \beta\right\rangle} B^{\prime}
$$

is differential, i.e., $\left\langle-\varphi^{\prime}, \beta\right\rangle\{\alpha, \varphi\}=0$. Show further that
(i) the square is a pull-back if and only if $\{\alpha, \varphi\}$ is the kernel of $\left\langle-\varphi^{\prime}, \beta\right\rangle$,
(ii) the square is a push-out if and only if $\left\langle-\varphi^{\prime}, \beta\right\rangle$ is the cokernel of $\{\alpha, \varphi\}$.
9.3. Call the square in Exercise 9.2 above exact if the corresponding sequence is exact. Show that if the two squares in the diagram

are exact, so is the composite square.
9.4. In the abelian category $\mathfrak{H}$ the square

is a pull-back and the square

is a push-out. Show (i) that there exists $\omega: B_{1}^{\prime} \hookrightarrow B^{\prime}$ such that $\omega \beta_{1}=\beta, \omega \varphi_{1}^{\prime}=\varphi^{\prime}$, and (ii) that the second square above is also a pull-back.
9.5. Let $\mathfrak{A}$ be an abelian category with arbitrary products and coproducts. Define the canonical sum-to-product morphism $\omega: \bigoplus_{i} A_{i} \rightarrow \prod_{i} A_{i}$, and prove that it is not true in general that $\omega$ is a monomorphism.
9.6. Let $\mathfrak{A}$ be an abelian category and $\mathfrak{C}$ a small category. Show that the functor category $\mathfrak{A}^{\mathbb{C}}$ is also abelian. (Hint: Define kernels and cokernels componentwise).
9.7. Give examples of additive categories in which (i) not every morphism has a kernel. (ii) not every morphism has a cokernel.
9.8. Prove Corollary 9.8. Give a counterexample in a non-abelian category.

## 10. Projective, Injective, and Free Objects

Although our interest in projective and injective objects is confined, in this book, to abelian categories, we will define them in an arbitrary category since the elementary results we adduce in this section will have nothing to do with abelian, or even additive, categories. Our principal purpose in including this short section is to clarify the categorical connection between freeness and projectivity. However, Proposition 10.2 will be applied in Section IV.12, and again later in the book.

The reader will recall the notion of projective and injective modules in Chapter I. Abstracting these notions to an arbitrary category, we are led to the following definitions.

Definition. An object $P$ of a category $\mathbb{C}$ is said to be projective if given the diagram

in $\mathbb{C}$ with $\varepsilon$ epimorphic, there exists $\psi$ with $\varepsilon \psi=\varphi$. An object $J$ of $\mathbb{C}$ is said to be injective if it is projective in $\mathfrak{C}^{\text {opp }}$.

Much attention was given in Chapter I to the relation of projective modules to free modules. We now introduce the notion of a free object in an arbitrary category.

Definition. Let the category $\mathbb{C}$ be equipped with an underlying functor to sets, that is, a functor $U: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{S}$ which is injective on morphisms, and let $F r \dashv U$. Then, for any set $S, F r(S)$ is called the free object on $S$ (relative to $U$ ).

After the introduction to adjoint functors of Sections 7 and 8. the reader should have no difficulty in seeing that $\operatorname{Fr}(S)$ has precisely the universal property we would demand of the free object on $S$. We will be concerned with two questions: (a) are free objects projective, (b) is
every object the image of a free (or projective) object? We first note the following property of the category of sets.

Proposition 10.1. In $\mathfrak{G}$ every object is both projective and injective.
We now prove
Proposition 10.2. Let $F: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ and $F \dashv G$. If $G$ maps epimorphisms to epimorphisms, then $F$ maps projectives to projectives.

Proof. Let $P$ be a projective object of $\mathbb{C}$ and consider the diagram. in $\mathfrak{D}$,


Applying the adjugant, this gives rise to a diagram

in $\mathfrak{C}$, where, by hypothesis, $G \varepsilon$ remains epimorphic. There thus exists $\psi^{\prime}: P \rightarrow G A$ in $\mathbb{C}$ with $G \varepsilon \psi^{\prime}=\eta(\varphi)$, so that $\varepsilon \quad \psi=\varphi$, where $\eta(\psi)=\psi^{\prime}$. $\quad$ ]

Corollary 10.3. If the underlying functor $U: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}$ sends epimorphisms to surjections then every free object in $\mathbb{C}$ is projective.

This is the case, for example, for $\mathfrak{A b}, \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$. $\mathfrak{G}$; the hypothesis is false, however, for the category of integral domains, where, as the reader may show, the inclusion $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$ is an epimorphism (see Exercise 3.2).

We now proceed to the second question and show
Proposition 10.4. Let $F r \dashv U$, where $U: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}$ is the underlying functor. Then the counit $\delta: \operatorname{Fr} U(A) \rightarrow A$ is an epimorphism.

Proof. Suppose $\alpha, x^{\prime}: A \rightarrow B$ and $\alpha \cdot \delta=\alpha^{\prime} \cdot \delta$. Applying the adjugant we find $U(\alpha)=U\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)$. But $U$ is injective on morphisms so $\alpha=\alpha^{\prime}$. $\quad$

Thus every object admits a free presentation by means of the free object on its underlying set and this free presentation is a projective presentation if $U$ sends epimorphisms to surjections.

Proposition 10.5. (i) Every retract of a projective object is projective.
(ii) If $U$ sends epimorphisms to surjections, then every projective object is a retract of a free (projective) object.

Proof. (i) Given $P \underset{\underset{\sigma}{\rightleftarrows}}{\stackrel{\varrho}{\longrightarrow}} Q, \varrho \sigma=1, P$ projective, and

choose $\psi^{\prime}: P \rightarrow A$ so that $\varepsilon \psi^{\prime}=\varphi \varrho$ and set $\psi=\psi^{\prime} \sigma$. Then

$$
\varepsilon \psi=\varepsilon \psi^{\prime} \sigma=\varphi \varrho \sigma=\varphi .
$$

(ii) Since $\delta$ is an epimorphism it follows that if $A$ is projective there exists $\sigma: A \rightarrow \operatorname{Fr} U(A)$ with $\delta \sigma=1$. Note that, even without the hypothesis on $U$, a projective $P$ is a retract of $\operatorname{Fr} U(P)$; the force of the hypothesis is that then $\operatorname{Fr} U(P)$ is itself projective. $\quad]$

Proposition 10.6. (i) A coproduct of free objects is free.
(ii) A coproduct of projective objects is projective.

Proof. (i) Since $F r$ has a right adjoint, it maps coproducts to coproducts. (Coproducts in $\mathfrak{G}$ are disjoint unions.)
(ii) Let $P=\coprod_{i} P_{i}, P_{i}$ projective, and consider the diagram


Then $\varphi=\left\langle\varphi_{i}\right\rangle, \varphi_{i}: P_{i} \rightarrow B$ and, for each $i$, we have $\psi_{i}: P_{i} \rightarrow A$ with $\varepsilon \psi_{i}=\varphi_{i}$. Then if $\psi=\left\langle\psi_{i}\right\rangle$, we have $\varepsilon \psi=\varphi$. Notice that, if the morphism sets of $\mathbb{C}$ are non-empty then if $P$ is projective so is each $P_{i}$ by Proposition 10.5 (i).

We shall have nothing to say here about injective objects beyond those remarks which simply follow by dualization.

## Exercises:

10.1. Use Proposition $I$. 8.1 to prove that if $\Lambda$ is free as an abelian group, then every free $\Lambda$-module is a free abelian group. (Of course, there are other proofs!).
10.2. Verify in detail that $F r(S)$ has the universal property we would demand of the free object on $S$ in the case $\mathbb{C}=\boldsymbol{6}$.
10.3. Deduce by a categorical argument that if $\mathbb{C}=\boldsymbol{G}$. then $\operatorname{Fr}(S \cup T)$ is the free product of $F r(S)$ and $F r(T)$ if $S \cap T=\emptyset$.
10.4. Dualize Proposition 10.5.
10.5. Show that $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$ is an epimorphism (i) in the category of integral domains, (ii) in the category of commutative rings. Are there free objects in these categories which are not projective?
10.6. Let $\Lambda$ be a ring not necessarily having a unity element. A (left) $\Lambda$-module is defined in the obvious way, simply suppressing the axiom $1 a=a$. Show that $\Lambda$, as a (left) $\Lambda$-module, need not be free!

## III. Extensions of Modules

In studying modules, as in studying any algebraic structures, the standard procedure is to look at submodules and associated quotient modules. The extension problem then appears quite naturally: given modules $A, B$ (over a fixed ring $\Lambda$ ) what modules $E$ may be constructed with submodule $B$ and associated quotient module $A$ ? The set of equivalence classes of such modules $E$, written $E(A, B)$, may then be given an abelian group structure in a way first described by Baer [3]. It turns out that this group $E(A, B)$ is naturally isomorphic to a group $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$ obtained from $A$ and $B$ by the characteristic, indeed prototypical, methods of homological algebra. To be precise, $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$ is the value of the first right derived functor of $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(-, B)$ on the module $A$, in the sense of Chapter IV.

In this chapter we study the homological and functorial properties of $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$. We show, in particular, that $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(-,-)$ is balanced in the sense that $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$ is also the value of the first right derived functor of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A,-)$ on the module $B$. Also, when $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$, so that $A, B$ are abelian groups, we indicate how to compute the Ext groups; and prove a theorem of Stein-Serre showing how, for abelian groups of countable rank, the vanishing of $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})$ characterizes the free abelian groups $A$.

In view of the adjointness relation between the tensor product and Hom (see Theorem 7.2), it is natural to expect a similar theory for the tensor product and its first derived functors. This is given in the last two sections of the chapter.

## 1. Extensions

Let $A, B$ be two $\Lambda$-modules. We want to consider all possible $\Lambda$-modules $E$ such that $B$ is a submodule of $E$ and $E / B \cong A$. We then have a short exact sequence

$$
B \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{\kappa}} E \xrightarrow{\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\longrightarrow}} A
$$

of $\Lambda$-modules; such a sequence is called an extension of $A$ by $B$. We shall say that the extension $B \hookrightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow A$ is equivalent to the extension $B \hookrightarrow E_{2} \rightarrow A$ if there is a homomorphism $\xi: E_{1} \rightarrow E_{2}$ such that the
diagram

is commutative. This relation plainly is transitive and reflexive. Since $\xi$ is necessarily an isomorphism by Lemma I.1.1, it is symmetric, also.

The reader will notice that it would be possible to define an equivalence relation other than the one defined above: for example two extensions $E_{1}, E_{2}$ may be called equivalent if the modules $E_{1}, E_{2}$ are isomorphic, or they may be called equivalent if there exists a homomorphism $\xi: E_{1} \rightarrow E_{2}$ inducing automorphisms in both $A$ and $B$. In our definition of equivalence we insist that the homomorphism $\xi: E_{1} \rightarrow E_{2}$ induces the identity in both $A$ and $B$. We refer the reader to Exercise 1.1 which shows that the different definitions of equivalence are indeed different notions. The reason we choose our definition will become clear with Theorem 1.4 and Corollary 2.5.

We denote the set of equivalence classes of extensions of $A$ by $B$ by $E(A, B)$. Obviously $E(A, B)$ contains at least one element: The $\Lambda$-module $A \oplus B$, together with the maps $\iota_{B}, \pi_{A}$, yields an extension

$$
\begin{equation*}
B \stackrel{\text { 昷 }}{\longrightarrow} A \oplus B^{\pi_{A}} A . \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The map $l_{A}: A \rightarrow A \oplus B$ satisfies the equation $\pi_{A} l_{A}=1_{A}$ and the map $\pi_{B}: A \oplus B \rightarrow B$ the equation $\pi_{B} l_{B}=1_{B}$. Because of the existence of such maps we call any extension equivalent to (1.1) a split extension of $A$ by $B$.

Our aim is now to make $E(-,-)$ into a functor; we therefore have to define induced maps. The main part of the work is achieved by the following lemmas.

Lemma 1.1. The square

is a pull-back diagram if and only if the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow Y \xrightarrow{\{\alpha, \beta\}} A \oplus B \xrightarrow{\langle\varphi,-\psi\rangle} X
$$

is exact.
Proof. We have to show that the universal property of the pull-back of $(\varphi, \psi)$ is the same as the universal property of the kernel of $\langle\varphi,-\psi\rangle$. But it is plain that two maps $\gamma: Z \rightarrow A$ and $\delta: Z \rightarrow B$ make the square

commutative if and only if they induce a map $\{\gamma, \delta\}: Z \rightarrow A \oplus B$ such that $\langle\varphi,-\psi\rangle \circ\{\gamma, \delta\}=0$. The universal property of the kernel asserts the existence of a unique map $\zeta: Z \rightarrow Y$ with $\{\alpha, \beta\} \cdot \zeta=\{\gamma, \delta\}$. The universal property of the pull-back asserts the existence of a unique map $\zeta: Z \rightarrow Y$ with $\alpha: \zeta=\gamma$ and $\beta=\zeta=\delta$. $\quad \square$

Lemma 1.2. If the square (1.2) is a pull-back diagram, then
(i) $\beta$ induces $\operatorname{ker} \alpha \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{ker} \psi$;
(ii) if $\psi$ is an epimorphism, then so is $\alpha$.

Proof. Part (i) has been proved in complete generality in Theorem II.6.4. For part (ii) we consider the sequence $0 \rightarrow Y \xrightarrow{\{\alpha, \beta)} A \oplus B \xrightarrow{\langle\varphi,-\psi\rangle} X$, which is exact by Lemma 1.1. Suppose $a \in A$. Since $\psi$ is epimorphic there exists $b \in B$ with $\varphi a=\psi b$, whence it follows that $(a, b) \in \operatorname{ker}\langle\varphi,-\psi\rangle$ $=\operatorname{im}\{\alpha, \beta\}$ by exactness. Thus there exists $y \in Y$ with $a=\alpha y$ (and $b=\beta y$ ). Hence $\alpha$ is epimorphic. $\square$

We now prove a partial converse of Lemma 1.2 (i).

## Lemma 1.3. Let


be a commutative diagram with exact rows. Then the right-hand square is a pull-back diagram.

## Proof. Let


be a pull-back diagram. By Lemma $1.2 \varepsilon$ is epimorphic and $\varphi$ induces an isomorphism $\operatorname{ker} \varepsilon \cong B$. Hence we obtain an extension

$$
B \xrightarrow{\mu} P \stackrel{\varepsilon}{\leftrightarrows} A^{\prime} .
$$

By the universal property of $P$ there exists a map $\zeta: E^{\prime} \rightarrow P$, such that $\varphi \zeta=\xi, \varepsilon \zeta=v^{\prime}$. Since $\zeta$ induces the identity in both $A^{\prime}$ and $B, \zeta$ is an isomorphism by Lemma 1.1.1. [

We leave it to the reader to prove the duals of Lemmas 1.1, 1.2, 1.3. In the sequel we shall feel free to refer to these lemmas when we require either their statements or the dual statements.

Let $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ be a homomorphism and let $B \xrightarrow{\kappa} E \xrightarrow{\nu} A$ be a representative of an element in $E(A, B)$. Consider the diagram

where ( $E^{\alpha} ; v^{\prime}, \xi$ ) is the pull-back of $(\alpha, v)$. By Lemma 1.2 we obtain an extension $B \hookrightarrow E^{\alpha} \xrightarrow{\nu^{\prime}} A^{\prime}$. Thus we can define our induced map

$$
\alpha^{*}: E(A, B) \rightarrow E\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)
$$

by assigning to the class of $B \hookrightarrow E \rightarrow A$ the class of $B \hookrightarrow E^{\alpha} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. Plainly this definition is independent of the chosen representative $B \hookrightarrow E \rightarrow A$.

We claim that this definition of $E(\alpha, B)=\alpha^{*}$ makes $E(-, B)$ into a contravariant functor. Indeed it is plain that for $\alpha=1_{A}: A \rightarrow A$ the induced map is the identity in $E(A, B)$. Let $\alpha^{\prime}: A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ and $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$. In order to show that $E\left(\alpha \alpha^{\prime}, B\right)=E\left(\alpha^{\prime}, B\right) \cdot E(\alpha, B)$, we have to prove that in the diagram

where each square is a pull-back, the composite square is the pull-back of ( $v, \alpha^{\circ} \alpha^{\prime}$ ). But this follows readily from the universal property of the pull-back.

Now let $\beta: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ be a homomorphism, and let $B \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{\kappa}} E \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{\nu}} A$ again be a representative of an element in $E(A . B)$. We consider the diagram

where $\left(E_{\beta}: \kappa^{\prime}, \xi\right)$ is the push-out of $(\beta, \kappa)$. The dual of Lemma 1.2 shows that we obtain an extension $B^{\prime} \mapsto E_{\beta} \rightarrow A$. We then can define

$$
\beta_{*}: E(A, B) \rightarrow E\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)
$$

by assigning to the class of $B \longrightarrow E \rightarrow A$ the class of $B^{\prime} \hookrightarrow E_{\beta} \rightarrow A$. As above one easily proves that this definition of $E(B, \beta)=\beta_{*}$ makes $E(A,-)$ into a covariant functor. Indeed, we even assert:

Theorem 1.4. $E(-,-)$ is a bifunctor from the category of $\Lambda$-modules to the category of sets. It is contravariant in the first and covariant in the second variable.

Proof. It remains to check that $\beta_{*} \alpha^{*}=\alpha_{*} \beta^{*}: E(A, B) \rightarrow E\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)$. We can construct the following (3-dimensional) commutative diagram, using pull-backs and push-outs.


We have to show the existence of $\left(E^{\alpha}\right)_{\beta} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha}$ such that the diagram remains commutative. We first construct $E^{\alpha} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha}$ satisfying the necessary commutativity relations. Since $E^{\alpha} \rightarrow E \rightarrow E_{\beta} \rightarrow A$ coincides with $E^{\alpha} \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$, we do indeed find $E^{\alpha} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha}$ such that $E^{\alpha} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha} \rightarrow E_{\beta}$ coincides with $E^{\alpha} \rightarrow E \rightarrow E_{\beta}$ and $E^{\alpha} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ coincides with $E^{\alpha} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. It remains to check that $B \rightarrow E^{\alpha} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha}$ coincides with $B \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha}$. By the uniqueness of the map into the pull-back it suffices to check that $B \rightarrow E^{\alpha} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha} \rightarrow E_{\beta}$ coincides with $B \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha} \rightarrow E_{\beta}$ and $B \rightarrow E^{\alpha}$ $\rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ coincides with $B \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$, and these facts follow from the known commutativity relations. Since $B \rightarrow E^{\alpha} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha}$ coincides with $B \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha}$ we find $\left(E^{\alpha}\right)_{\beta} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha}$ such that $B^{\prime} \rightarrow\left(E^{\alpha}\right)_{\beta} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha}$ coincides with $B^{\prime} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha}$ and $E^{\alpha} \rightarrow\left(E^{\alpha}\right)_{\beta} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha}$ coincides with $E^{\alpha} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha}$. It only remains to show that $\left(E^{\alpha}\right)_{\beta} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ coincides with $\left(E^{\alpha}\right)_{\beta} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. Again, uniqueness considerations allow us merely to prove that $B^{\prime} \rightarrow\left(E^{\alpha}\right)_{\beta}$ $\rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ coincides with $B^{\prime} \rightarrow\left(E^{\alpha}\right)_{\beta} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$, and $E^{\alpha} \rightarrow\left(E^{\alpha}\right)_{\beta} \rightarrow\left(E_{\beta}\right)^{\alpha} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ coincides with $E^{\alpha} \rightarrow\left(E^{\alpha}\right)_{\beta} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. Since these facts, too, follow from the known commutativity relations, the theorem is proved.

## Exercises:

1.1. Show that the following two extensions are non-equivalent

$$
\mathbb{Z} \longmapsto \mu
$$

where $\mu=\mu^{\prime}$ is multiplication by $3, \varepsilon(1)=1(\bmod 3)$ and $\varepsilon^{\prime}(1)=2(\bmod 3)$.
1.2. Compute $E\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p}, \mathbb{Z}\right), p$ prime.
1.3. Prove the duals of Lemmas 1.1, 1.2, 1.3.
1.4. Show that the class of the split extension in $E(A, B)$ is preserved under the induced maps.
1.5. Prove: If $P$ is projective, $E(P, B)$ contains only one element.
1.6. Prove: If $I$ is injective, $E(A, I)$ contains only one element.
1.7. Show that $E\left(A, B_{1} \oplus B_{2}\right) \cong E\left(A . B_{1}\right) \times E\left(A . B_{2}\right)$. Is there a corresponding formula with respect to the first variable?
1.8. Prove Theorem 1.4 using explicit constructions of pull-back and push-out.

## 2. The Functor Ext

In the previous section we have defined a bifunctor $E(-,-)$ from the category of $\Lambda$-modules to the categories of sets. In this section we shall define another bifunctor $\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}(-,-)$ to the category of abelian groups, and eventually compare the two.

A short exact sequence $R \xrightarrow{\mu} P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A$ of $\Lambda$-modules with $P$ projective is called a projective presentation of $A$. By Theorem I.2.2 such a presentation induces for a $\Lambda$-module $B$ an exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B) \stackrel{\varepsilon^{*}}{\longrightarrow} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(P, B) \xrightarrow{\mu^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(R, B) . \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

To the modules $A$ and $B$, and to the chosen projective presentation of $A$ we therefore can associate the abelian group

$$
\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{\varepsilon}(A, B)=\operatorname{coker}\left(\mu^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(P, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(R, B)\right)
$$

The superscript $\varepsilon$ is to remind the reader that the group is defined via a particular projective presentation of $A$. An element in $\operatorname{Ext}_{\boldsymbol{A}}^{\varepsilon}(A, B)$ may be represented by a homomorphism $\varphi: R \rightarrow B$. The element represented by $\varphi: R \rightarrow B$ will be denoted by $[\varphi] \in \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A, B)$. Then $\left[\varphi_{1}\right]=\left[\varphi_{2}\right]$ if and only if $\varphi_{1}-\varphi_{2}$ extends to $P$.

Clearly a homomorphism $\beta: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ will map the sequence (2.1) into the corresponding sequence for $B^{\prime}$. We thus get an induced map $\beta_{*}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{\varepsilon}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)$, which is easily seen to make $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A,-)$ into a functor.

Next we will show that for two different projective presentations of $A$ we obtain the "same" functor. Let $R^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\mu} P^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon^{\prime}} A^{\prime}$ and $R \xrightarrow{\mu} P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A$ be projective presentations of $A^{\prime}, A$ respectively. Let $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ be a homomorphism. Since $P^{\prime}$ is projective, there is a homomorphism $\pi: P^{\prime} \rightarrow P$, inducing $\sigma: R^{\prime} \rightarrow R$ such that the following diagram is commutative:


We sometimes say that $\pi$ lifts $\alpha$.

Clearly $\pi$. together with $\sigma$, will induce a map

$$
\pi^{*}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon^{\prime}}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)
$$

which plainly is natural in $B$. Thus every $\pi$ gives rise to a natural transformation from $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A,-)$ into $\mathrm{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon^{\prime}}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)$. In the following lemma we prove that this natural transformation depends only on $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ and not on the chosen $\pi: P^{\prime} \rightarrow P$ lifting $x$.

Lemma 2.1. $\pi^{*}$ does not depend on the chosen $\pi: P^{\prime} \rightarrow P$ but only on $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$.

Proof. Let $\pi_{i}: P^{\prime} \rightarrow P, i=1,2$, be two homomorphisms lifting $\alpha$ and inducing $\sigma_{i}: R^{\prime} \rightarrow R$, so that the following diagram is commutative for $i=1$, 2


Consider $\pi_{1}-\pi_{2}$; since $\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}$ induce the same map $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A, \pi_{1}-\pi_{2}$ factors through a map $\tau: P^{\prime} \rightarrow R$, such that $\pi_{1}-\pi_{2}=\mu \tau$. It follows that $\sigma_{1}-\sigma_{2}=\tau \mu^{\prime}$. Thus, if $\varphi: R \rightarrow B$ is a representative of the element $[\varphi] \in \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A, B)$, we have $\pi_{1}^{*}[\varphi]=\left[\varphi \sigma_{1}\right]=\left[\varphi \sigma_{2}+\varphi \tau \mu^{\prime}\right]=\left[\varphi \sigma_{2}\right]$ $=\pi_{2}^{*}[\varphi]$.

To stress the independence from the choice of $\pi$ we shall call the natural transformation $\left(\alpha ; P^{\prime}, P\right): \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{\varepsilon}(A,-) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{1}^{\varepsilon^{\prime}}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)$, instead of $\pi^{*}$. Let $\alpha^{\prime}: A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ and $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ be two homomorphisms and $R^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow P^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$, $R^{\prime} \rightarrow P^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime}, R \hookrightarrow P \rightarrow A$ projective presentations of $A^{\prime \prime}, A^{\prime}, A$ respectively. Let $\pi^{\prime}: P^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow P^{\prime}$ lift $\alpha^{\prime}$ and $\pi: P^{\prime} \rightarrow P$ lift $\alpha$. Then $\pi \vee \pi^{\prime}: P^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow P$ lifts $\alpha \circ \alpha^{\prime}$; whence it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\alpha^{\prime} ; P^{\prime \prime}, P^{\prime}\right):\left(\alpha ; P^{\prime}, P\right)=\left(\alpha \subset x^{\prime} ; P^{\prime \prime}, P\right) . \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Also, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1_{A} ; P, P\right)=1 . \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

This yields a proof of
Corollary 2.2. Let $R \hookrightarrow P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A$ and $R^{\prime} \hookrightarrow P^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon^{\prime}} A$ be two projective presentations of $A$. Then

$$
\left(1_{A} ; P^{\prime}, P\right): \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A,-) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon^{\prime}}(A,-)
$$

is a natural equivalence.
Proof. Let $\pi: P \rightarrow P^{\prime}$ and $\pi^{\prime}: P^{\prime} \rightarrow P$ both lift $1_{A}: A \rightarrow A$. By formulas (2.2) and (2.3) we obtain $\left(1_{A} ; P, P^{\prime}\right) \cdot\left(1_{A} ; P^{\prime}, P\right)=\left(1_{A} ; P, P\right)=1: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A,-)$ $\rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A,-)$. Analogously, $\left(1_{A} ; P^{\prime}, P\right) \circ\left(1_{A} ; P, P^{\prime}\right)=1$, whence the assertion. $]$

By this natural equivalence we are allowed to drop the superscript $\varepsilon$ and to write, simply, $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$.

Of course, we want to make $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(-, B)$ into a functor. It is obvious by now that given $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ we can define an induced map $\alpha^{*}$ as follows: Choose projective presentations $R^{\prime} \hookrightarrow P^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon^{\prime}} A^{\prime}$ and $R \hookrightarrow P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} \rightarrow A$ of $A^{\prime}, A$ respectively, and let $\alpha^{*}=\left(\alpha ; P^{\prime}, P\right): \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{\varepsilon^{\varepsilon}}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)$. Formulas (2.2), (2.3) establish the facts that this definition is compatible with the natural equivalences of Corollary 2.2 and that $\operatorname{Ext}_{\boldsymbol{A}}(-, B)$ becomes a (contravariant) functor. We leave it to the reader to prove the bifunctoriality part in the following theorem.

Theorem 2.3. $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(-,-)$ is a bifunctor from the category of $\Lambda$ modules to the category of abelian groups. It is contravariant in the first, and covariant in the second variable. $\quad \square$

Instead of regarding $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$ as an abelian group, we clearly can regard it just as a set. We thus obtain a set-valued bifunctor which for convenience - we shall still call $\operatorname{Ext}_{\boldsymbol{A}}(-,-)$.

Theorem 2.4. There is a natural equivalence of set-valued bifunctors


Proof. We first define an isomorphism of sets

$$
\eta: E(A, B) \sim \sim \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A, B),
$$

natural in $B$, where $R \xrightarrow{\mu} P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A$ is a fixed projective presentation of $A$. We will then show that $\eta$ is natural in $A$.

Given an element in $E(A, B)$, represented by the extension $B \stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\longrightarrow} E \xrightarrow{\nu} A$, we form the diagram


The homomorphism $\psi: R \rightarrow B$ defines an element $[\psi] \in \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A, B)$ $=\operatorname{coker}\left(\mu^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(P, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(R, B)\right)$. We claim that this element does not depend on the particular $\varphi: P \rightarrow E$ chosen. Thus let $\varphi_{i}: P \rightarrow E$, $i=1,2$, be two maps inducing $\psi_{i}: R \rightarrow B, i=1,2$. Then $\varphi_{1}-\varphi_{2}$ factors through $\tau: P \rightarrow B$, i.e., $\varphi_{1}-\varphi_{2}=\kappa \tau$. It follows that $\psi_{1}-\psi_{2}=\tau \mu$, whence $\left[\psi_{1}\right]=\left[\psi_{2}+\tau \mu\right]=\left[\psi_{2}\right]$.

Since two representatives of the same element in $E(A, B)$ obviously induce the same element in $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A, B)$, we have defined a map $\eta: E(A, B)$ $\rightarrow \mathrm{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{\varepsilon}(A, B)$. We leave it to the reader to prove the naturality of $\eta$ with respect to $B$.

Conversely, given an element in $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A, B)$, we represent this element by a homomorphism $\psi: R \rightarrow B$. Taking the push-out of $(\psi, \mu)$ we obtain
the diagram


By the dual of Lemma 1.2 the bottom row $B \stackrel{\kappa}{\longrightarrow} E \xrightarrow{\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\longrightarrow}} A$ is an extension. We claim that the equivalence class of this extension is independent of the particular representative $\psi: R \rightarrow B$ chosen. Indeed another representative $\psi^{\prime}: R \rightarrow B$ has the form $\psi^{\prime}=\psi+\tau \mu$ where $\tau: P \rightarrow B$. The reader may check that the diagram

with $\varphi^{\prime}=\varphi+\kappa \tau$ is commutative. By the dual of Lemma 1.3 the left hand square is a push-out diagram, whence it follows that the extension we arrive at does not depend on the representative. We thus have defined a map

$$
\xi: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A, B) \rightarrow E(A, B)
$$

which is easily seen to be natural in $B$.
Using Lemma 1.3 it is easily proved that $\eta, \xi$ are inverse to each other. We thus have an equivalence

$$
\eta: E(A, B) \underset{\rightarrow}{\sim} \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A, B)
$$

which is natural in $B$.
Note that $\eta$ might conceivably depend upon the projective presentation of $A$. However we show that this cannot be the case by the following (3-dimensional) diagram, which shows also the naturality of $\eta$ in $A$.

$E^{\alpha}$ is the pull-back of $E \rightarrow A$ and $A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$. We have to show the existence of homomorphisms $\varphi: P^{\prime} \rightarrow E^{\alpha}, \psi: R^{\prime} \rightarrow B$ such that all faces are commutative. Since the maps $P^{\prime} \rightarrow E \rightarrow A$ and $P^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ agree they define a homomorphism $\varphi: P^{\prime} \rightarrow E^{\alpha}$, into the pull-back. Then $\varphi$ induces
$\psi: R^{\prime} \rightarrow B$, and trivially all faces are commutative. (To see that $R^{\prime} \rightarrow R \rightarrow B$ coincides with $\psi$, compose each with $B \hookrightarrow E$.) We therefore arrive at a commutative diagram


For $A^{\prime}=A, \alpha=1_{A}$ this shows that $\eta$ is independent of the chosen projective presentation. In general it shows that $\eta$ and $\xi$ are natural in $A$. []

Corollary 2.5. The set $E(A, B)$ of equivalence classes of extensions has a natural abelian group structure.

Proof. This is obvious, since $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$ carries a natural abelian group structure and since $\eta: E(-,-) \widetilde{\rightarrow} \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(-,-)$ is a natural equivalence.

We leave as exercises (see Exercises 2.5 to 2.7) the direct description of the group structure in $E(A, B)$. However we shall exhibit here the neutral element of this group. Consider the diagram


The extension $B \hookrightarrow E \rightarrow A$ represents the neutral element in $E(A, B)$ if and only if $\psi: R \rightarrow B$ is the restriction of a homomorphism $\tau: P \rightarrow B$, i.e., if $\psi=\tau \mu$. The map $(\varphi-\kappa \tau) \mu: R \rightarrow E$ therefore is the zero map. so that $\varphi-\kappa \tau$ factors through $A$, defining a map $\sigma: A \rightarrow E$ with $\varphi-\kappa \tau=\sigma \varepsilon$. Since $v(\varphi-\kappa \tau)=\varepsilon, \sigma$ is a right inverse to $v$. Thus the extension $B \mapsto E \rightarrow A$ splits. Conversely if $B \xrightarrow{\kappa} E \xrightarrow{\longrightarrow} A$ splits, the left inverse of $\kappa$ is a map $E \rightarrow B$ which if composed with $\varphi: P \rightarrow E$ yields $\tau$.

We finally note
Proposition 2.6. If $P$ is projective and $I$ injective, then $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(P, B)=0$ $=\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, I)$ for all $\Lambda$-modules $A, B$.

Proof. By Theorem $2.4 \mathrm{Ext}_{A}(P, B)$ is in one-to-one correspondence with the set $E(P, B)$, consisting of classes of extensions of the form $B \longrightarrow E \rightarrow P$. By Lemma I.4.5 short exact sequences of this form split. Hence $E(P, B)$ contains only one element, the zero element. For the other assertion one proceeds dually. [

Of course, we could prove this proposition directly, without involving Theorem 2.4.

## Exercises:

2.1. Prove that $\operatorname{Ext}_{\boldsymbol{A}}(-,-)$ is a bifunctor.
2.2. Suppose $A$ is a right $\Gamma$-left $\Lambda$-bimodule. Show that $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$ has a left- $\Gamma$ module structure which is natural in $B$.
2.3. Suppose $B$ is a right $\Gamma$-left $\Lambda$-bimodule. Show that $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$ has a right $\Gamma$-module structure, which is natural in $A$.
2.4. Suppose $\Lambda$ commutative. Show that $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$ has a natural (in $A$ and $B$ ) $\Lambda$-module structure.
2.5. Show that one can define an addition in $E(A, B)$ as follows: Let $B \longrightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow A$, $B \longrightarrow E_{2} \rightarrow A$ be representatives of two elements $\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}$ in $E(A, B)$. Let $\Delta_{B}: B \rightarrow B \oplus B$ be the map defined by $\Delta_{B}(b)=(b, b), b \in B$, and let $\nabla_{A}: A \oplus A \rightarrow A$ be the map defined by $\nabla_{A}\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=a_{1}+a_{2}, a_{1}, a_{2} \in A$. Define the sum $\xi_{1}+\xi_{2}$ by

$$
\xi_{1}+\xi_{2}=E\left(\Delta_{B}, \nabla_{A}\right)\left(B \oplus B \hookrightarrow E_{1} \oplus E_{2} \rightarrow A \oplus A\right)
$$

2.6. Show that if $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$, then

$$
\left(\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}\right)^{*}=\alpha_{1}^{*}+\alpha_{2}^{*}: E(A, B) \rightarrow E\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)
$$

using the addition given in Exercise 2.5. Deduce that $E(A, B)$ admits additive inverses (without using Theorem 2.4).
2.7. Show that the addition defined in Exercise 2.5 is commutative and associative (without using Theorem 2.4). [Thus $E(A, B)$ is an abelian group.]
2.8. Let $\mathbb{Z}_{4} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{16} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{4}$ be the evident exact sequence. Construct its inverse in $E\left(\mathbb{Z}_{4}, \mathbb{Z}_{4}\right)$.
2.9. Show the group table of $E\left(\mathbb{Z}_{8}, \mathbb{Z}_{12}\right)$.

## 3. Ext Using Injectives

Given two $\Lambda$-modules $A, B$, we defined in Section 2 a $\operatorname{group}_{\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}(A, B)}$ by using a projective presentation $R \xrightarrow{\mu} P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A$ of $A$ :

$$
\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}(A, B)=\operatorname{coker}\left(\mu^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(P, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(R, B)\right)
$$

Here we consider the dual procedure: Choose an injective presentation of $B$, i.e. an exact sequence $B \stackrel{\nu}{\longrightarrow} I \xrightarrow{\eta} S$ with $I$ injective, and define the group $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{\Lambda}^{v}(A, B)$ as the cokernel of the map $\eta_{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, I) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, S)$. Dualizing the proofs of Lemma 2.1, Corollary 2.2, and Theorem 2.3 one could show that $\overline{\mathrm{Ext}}_{A}^{v}(A, B)$ does not depend upon the chosen injective presentation, and that $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{\boldsymbol{A}}(-,-)$ can be made into a bifunctor, covariant in the second, contravariant in the first variable. Also, by dualizing the proof of Theorem 2.4 one proves that there is a natural equivalence of set-valued bifunctors between $E(-,-)$ and $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{\boldsymbol{M}}(-,-)$.

Here we want to give a different proof of the facts mentioned above which has the advantage of yielding yet another description of $E(-,-)$. In contrast to $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(-,-)$ and $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{\boldsymbol{A}}(-,-)$, the new description will
be symmetric in $A$ and $B$. Also, this proof establishes immediately that $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$ and $\overline{E x t}_{A}(A, B)$ are isomorphic as abelian groups. First let us state the following lemma, due to J. Lambek (see [32]).

Lemma 3.1. Let

be a commutative diagram with exact rows. Then $\varphi$ induces an isomorphism

$$
\Phi: \operatorname{ker} \theta \alpha_{2} /\left(\operatorname{ker} \alpha_{2}+\operatorname{ker} \varphi\right) \sim\left(\operatorname{im} \varphi \cap \operatorname{im} \beta_{1}\right) / \operatorname{im} \varphi \alpha_{1} .
$$

Proof. First we show that $\varphi$ induces a homomorphism of this kind. Let $x \in \operatorname{ker} \theta \alpha_{2} ;$ plainly $\varphi x \in \operatorname{im} \varphi$. Since $0=\theta \alpha_{2} x=\beta_{2} \varphi x, \varphi x \in \operatorname{im} \beta_{1}$. If $x \in \operatorname{ker} \alpha_{2}$, then $x \in \operatorname{im} \alpha_{1}$, and $\varphi x \in \operatorname{im} \varphi \alpha_{1}$. If $x \in \operatorname{ker} \varphi, \varphi x=0$. Thus $\Phi$ is well-defined. Clearly $\Phi$ is a homomorphism. To show it is epimorphic, let $y \in \operatorname{im} \varphi \cap \operatorname{im} \beta_{1}$. There exists $x \in A$ with $\varphi x=y$. Since

$$
\theta \alpha_{2} x=\beta_{2} \varphi x=\beta_{2} y=0,
$$

$x \in \operatorname{ker} \theta \alpha_{2}$. Finally we show that $\Phi$ is monomorphic. Suppose $x \in \operatorname{ker} \theta \alpha_{2}$, such that $\varphi x \in \operatorname{im} \varphi \alpha_{1}$, i.e. $\varphi x=\varphi \alpha_{1} z$ for some $z \in A^{\prime}$. Then $x=\alpha_{1} z+t$, where $t \in \operatorname{ker} \varphi$. It follows that $x \in \operatorname{ker} \alpha_{2}+\operatorname{ker} \varphi$. $\left.\quad\right]$

To facilitate the notation we introduce some terminology.
Definition. Let $\Sigma$ be a commutative square of $\Lambda$-modules


We then write

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Im} \Sigma & =\operatorname{im} \varphi \cap \operatorname{im} \beta / \operatorname{im} \varphi \alpha, \\
\operatorname{Ker} \Sigma & =\operatorname{ker} \varphi \alpha / \operatorname{ker} \alpha+\operatorname{ker} \varphi .
\end{aligned}
$$

With this notation Lemma 3.1 may be stated in the following form:
If the diagram (3.1) has exact rows, then $\varphi$ induces an isomorphism $\Phi: \operatorname{Ker} \Sigma_{2} \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Im} \Sigma_{1}$.

Proposition 3.2. For any projective presentation $R \xrightarrow{\mu} P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A$ of $A$ and any injective presentation $B \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\longrightarrow} I \xrightarrow{\eta} S$ of $B$, there is an isomorphism

$$
\sigma: \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{\varepsilon}(A, B) \stackrel{\sim}{\rightarrow} \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{\nu}(A, B) .
$$

Proof. Consider the following commutative diagram with exact rows and columns



The reader easily checks that $\operatorname{Ker} \Sigma_{1}=\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{\nu}(A, B)$ and $\operatorname{Ker} \Sigma_{5}=\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A, B)$. Applying Lemma 3.1 repeatedly we obtain
$\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{\nu}(A, B)=\operatorname{Ker} \Sigma_{1} \cong \operatorname{Im} \Sigma_{2} \cong \operatorname{Ker} \Sigma_{3} \cong \operatorname{Im} \Sigma_{4} \cong \operatorname{Ker} \Sigma_{5}=\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A, B) . \square$
Thus for any injective presentation of $B, \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}^{v}(A, B)$ is isomorphic to $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{\varepsilon}(A, B)$. We thus are allowed to drop the superscript $v$ and to write
 an injective presentation. It is easily seen that if $\tau: I \rightarrow I^{\prime}$ is a map inducing $\beta$ the diagram (3.2) is mapped into the corresponding diagram for $B^{\prime} \stackrel{\nu^{\prime}}{ } I^{\prime} \rightarrow S^{\prime}$. Therefore we obtain an induced homomorphism

$$
\beta_{*}: \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}(A, B) \rightarrow \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)
$$

which agrees via the isomorphism defined above with the induced homomorphism $\beta_{*}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)$.

Analogously one defines an induced homomorphism in the first variable. With these definitions of induced maps $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{\boldsymbol{A}}(-,-)$ becomes a bifunctor, and $\sigma$ becomes a natural equivalence. We thus have

Corollary 3.3. $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{1}(-,-)$ is a bifunctor, contravariant in the first, covariant in the second variable. It is naturally equivalent to $\operatorname{Ext}_{4}(-,-)$ and therefore to $E(-,-) . \square$

We sometimes express the natural equivalence between $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(-,-)$ and $\overline{\mathrm{Ext}}_{\mathrm{A}}(-,-)$ by saying that Ext is balanced.

Finally the above proof also yields a symmetric description of Ext from (3.2), namely:

Corollary 3.4. $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B) \cong \operatorname{Ker} \Sigma_{3}$.
In view of the above results we shall use only one notation, namely $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(-,-)$ for the equivalent functors $E(-,-), \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(-,-), \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}(-,-)$.

## Exercises:

3.1. Show that, if $\Lambda$ is a principal ideal domain (p.i.d.), then an epimorphism $\beta: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ induces an epimorphism $\beta_{*}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}\left(A, B^{\circ}\right)$. State and prove the dual.
3.2. Prove that $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \neq 0$ if $A$ has elements of finite order.
3.3. Compute $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{m}, \mathbb{Z}\right)$, using an injective presentation of $\mathbb{Z}$.
3.4. Show that $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}\left(A, \operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}(B, C)\right) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}\left(B, \operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, C)\right)$ when $A, B, C$ are finitelygenerated abelian groups.
3.5. Let the natural equivalences $\eta: E(-,-) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(-,-)$ be defined by Theorem 2.4, $\sigma: \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{\boldsymbol{A}}(-,-) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\boldsymbol{A}}(-,-)$ by Proposition 3.2. and

$$
\bar{\eta}: E(-,-) \rightarrow \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}(-,-)
$$

by dualizing the proof of Theorem 2.4. Show that $\sigma \quad \eta=\bar{\eta}$.

## 4. Computation of some Ext-Groups

We start with the following
Lemma 4.1. (i) $\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}\left(\bigoplus_{i} A_{i}, B\right) \cong \prod_{i} \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}\left(A_{i}, B\right)$,
(ii) $\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}\left(A, \prod_{j} B_{j}\right) \cong \prod_{j} \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B_{j}\right)$.

Proof. We only prove assertion (i), leaving the other to the reader. For each $i$ in the index set we choose a projective presentation $R_{i} \hookrightarrow P_{i} \rightarrow A_{i}$ of $A_{i}$. Then $\bigoplus_{i} R_{i} \hookrightarrow \bigoplus_{i} P_{i} \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i} A_{i}$ is a projective presentation of $\bigoplus_{i} A_{i}$. Using Proposition I.3.4 we obtain the following commutative diagram with exact rows

whence the result. $\quad \square$
The reader may prefer to prove assertion (i) by using an injective presentation of $B$. Indeed in doing so it becomes clear that the two assertions of Lemma 4.1 are dual to each other.

In the remainder of this section we shall compute $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbf{Z}}(A, B)$ for $A, B$ finitely-generated abelian groups. In view of Lemma 4.1 it is enough to consider the case where $A, B$ are cyclic.

To facilitate the notation we shall write $\operatorname{Ext}(A, B)\left(f o r \operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbf{z}}(A, B)\right)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ (for $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{Z}}(A, B)$ ), whenever the groundring is the ring of integers.

Since $\mathbb{Z}$ is projective, one has

$$
\operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z})=0=\operatorname{Ext}\left(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right)
$$

by Proposition 2.6. To compute $\operatorname{Ext}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{r}, \mathbb{Z}\right)$ and $\operatorname{Ext}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{r}, \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right)$ we use the projective presentation

$$
\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\mu} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} \mathbb{Z}_{r}
$$

where $\mu$ is multiplication by $r$. We obtain the exact sequence


Since $\mu^{*}$ is again multiplication by $r$ we obtain

$$
\operatorname{Ext}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{r}, \mathbb{Z}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{r}
$$

Also the exact sequence

yields, since $\mu^{*}$ is multiplication by $r$,

$$
\operatorname{Ext}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{r}, \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{(r, q)}
$$

where $(r, q)$ denotes the greatest common divisor of $r$ and $q$.

## Exercises:

4.1. Show that there are $p$ non-equivalent extensions $\mathbb{Z}_{p} \rightarrow E \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ for $p$ a prime, but only two non-isomorphic groups $E$, namely $\mathbb{Z}_{p} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ and $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{2}}$. How does this come about?
4.2. Classify the extension classes [ $E$ ], given by

$$
\mathbf{Z}_{m} \mapsto E \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n}
$$

under automorphisms of $\mathbb{Z}_{m}$ and $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$.
4.3. Show that if $A$ is a finitely-generated abelian group such that $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$, $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$, then $A=0$.
4.4. Show that $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \cong A$ if $A$ is a finite abelian group.
4.5. Show that there is a natural equivalence of functors $\operatorname{Hom}(-, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}) \cong \operatorname{Ext}(-, \mathbb{Z})$ if both functors are restricted to the category of torsion abelian groups.
4.6. Show that extensions of finite abelian groups of relatively prime order split.

## 5. Two Exact Sequences

Here we shall deduce two exact sequences connecting Hom and Ext. We start with the following very useful lemma.

Lemma 5.1. Let the following commutative diagram have exact rows.


Then there is a "connecting homomorphism" $\omega: \operatorname{ker} \gamma \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \alpha$ such that the following sequence is exact:

$$
\operatorname{ker} \alpha \xrightarrow{\mu_{*}} \operatorname{ker} \beta \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{*}} \operatorname{ker} \gamma \xrightarrow{\omega} \operatorname{coker} \alpha \xrightarrow{\mu_{k}} \operatorname{coker} \beta \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{k}} \operatorname{coker} \gamma \text {. (5.1) }
$$

If $\mu$ is monomorphic, so is $\mu_{*}$ : if $\varepsilon^{\prime}$ is epimorphic, so is $\varepsilon_{*}^{\prime}$.
Proof. It is very easy to see - and we leave the verification to the reader - that the final sentence holds and that we have exact sequences

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{ker} \alpha \xrightarrow{\mu_{*}} \operatorname{ker} \beta \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{*}} \operatorname{ker} \gamma, \\
\operatorname{coker} \alpha \xrightarrow{\mu_{*}} \operatorname{coker} \beta \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{*}} \operatorname{coker} \gamma .
\end{gathered}
$$

It therefore remains to show that there exists a homomorphism $\omega: \operatorname{ker} \gamma \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \alpha "$ connecting" these two sequences. In fact, $\omega$ is defined as follows.

Let $c \in \operatorname{ker} \gamma$, choose $b \in B$ with $\varepsilon b=c$. Since $\varepsilon^{\prime} \beta b=\gamma \varepsilon b=\gamma c=0$ there exists $a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$ with $\beta b=\mu^{\prime} a^{\prime}$. Define $\omega(c)=\left[a^{\prime}\right]$, the coset of $a^{\prime}$ in coker $\alpha$.

We show that $\omega$ is well defined, that is, that $\omega(c)$ is independent of the choice of $b$. Indeed, let $\bar{b} \in B$ with $\varepsilon \bar{b}=c$, then $\bar{b}=b+\mu a$ and

$$
\beta(b+\mu a)=\beta b+\mu^{\prime} \alpha a .
$$

Hence $\bar{a}^{\prime}=a^{\prime}+\alpha a$, thus $\left[\bar{a}^{\prime}\right]=\left[a^{\prime}\right]$. Clearly $\omega$ is a homomorphism.
Next we show exactness at $\operatorname{ker} \gamma$. If $c \in \operatorname{ker} \gamma$ is of the form $\varepsilon b$ for $b \in \operatorname{ker} \beta$, then $0=\beta b=\mu^{\prime} a^{\prime}$, hence $a^{\prime}=0$ and $\omega(c)=0$. Conversely, let $c \in \operatorname{ker} \gamma$ with $\omega(c)=0$. Then $c=\varepsilon b, \beta b=\mu^{\prime} a^{\prime}$ and there exists $a \in A$ with $\alpha a=a^{\prime}$. Consider $\bar{b}=b-\mu a$. Clearly $\varepsilon \bar{b}=c$, but

$$
\beta \bar{b}=\beta b-\beta \mu a=\beta b-\mu^{\prime} a^{\prime}=0,
$$

hence $c \in \operatorname{ker} \gamma$ is of the form $\varepsilon \bar{b}$ with $\bar{b} \in \operatorname{ker} \beta$.
Finally we prove exactness at coker $\alpha^{\prime}$. Let $\omega(c)=\left[a^{\prime}\right] \in \operatorname{coker} \alpha$. Thus $c=\varepsilon b, \quad \beta b=\mu^{\prime} a^{\prime}, \quad$ and $\mu_{*}^{\prime}\left[a^{\prime}\right]=\left[\mu^{\prime} a^{\prime}\right]=[\beta b]=0$. Conversely, let $\left[a^{\prime}\right] \in \operatorname{coker} \alpha$ with $\mu_{*}^{\prime}\left[a^{\prime}\right]=0$. Then $\mu^{\prime} a^{\prime}=\beta b$ for some $b \in B$ and $c=\varepsilon b \in \operatorname{ker} \gamma$. Thus $\left[a^{\prime}\right]=\omega(c) . \quad \square$

For an elegant proof of Lemma 5.1 using Lemma 3.1, see Exercise 5.1.
We remark that the sequence (5.1) is natural in the obvious sense: If we are given a commutative diagram with exact rows

we obtain a mapping from the sequence stemming from the front diagram to the sequence stemming from the back diagram.

We use Lemma 5.1 to prove
Theorem 5.2. Let $A$ be a $\Lambda$-module and let $B^{\prime},{ }_{\hookrightarrow} B_{\xrightarrow{*}} B^{\prime \prime}$ be an exact sequence of $\Lambda$-modules. There exists a "connecting homomorphism" $\omega: \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}\left(A . B^{\prime}\right)$ such that the following sequence is exact and natural

$$
\begin{align*}
0 & \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\varphi_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B) \xrightarrow{\varphi_{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \\
& \stackrel{\omega}{\operatorname{Ext}_{A}}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\varphi_{*}} \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}(A, B) \xrightarrow{\varphi_{*}} \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) . \tag{5.3}
\end{align*}
$$

This sequence is called the Hom-Ext-sequence (in the second variable).
Proof. Choose any projective presentation $R \xrightarrow{\mu} P \stackrel{\varepsilon}{\natural} A$ of $A$ and consider the following diagram with exact rows and columns


The second and third rows are exact by Theorem 1.2.1. In the second row $\psi_{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(P, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(P, B^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is epimorphic since $P$ is projective (Theorem I.4.7). Applying Lemma 5.1 to the two middle rows of the diagram we obtain the homomorphism $\omega$ and the exactness of the resulting sequence.

Let $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ be a homomorphism and let $R^{\prime} \hookrightarrow P^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ be a projective presentation of $A^{\prime}$. Choose $\pi: P^{\prime} \rightarrow P$ and $\sigma: R^{\prime} \rightarrow R$ such that the diagram

is commutative. Then $\alpha, \pi . \sigma$ induce a mapping from diagram (5.4) associated with $R \hookrightarrow P \rightarrow A$ to the corresponding diagram associated with $R^{\prime} \mapsto P^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. The two middle rows of these diagrams form a diagram of the kind (5.2). Hence the Hom-Ext sequence corresponding to $A$ is mapped into the Hom-Ext sequence corresponding to $A^{\prime}$. In particular -- choosing $\alpha=1_{A}: A \rightarrow A$ - this shows that $\omega$ is independent of the chosen projective presentation.

Analogously one proves that homomorphisms $\beta^{\prime}, \beta, \beta^{\prime \prime}$ which make the diagram

commutative induce a mapping from the Hom-Ext sequence associated with the short exact sequence $B^{\prime} \mapsto B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ to the Hom-Ext sequence associated with the short exact sequence $C^{\prime} \mapsto C \rightarrow C^{\prime \prime}$. In particular the following square is commutative.


This completes the proof of Theorem 5.2. $\quad \square$
We make the following remark with respect to the connecting homomorphism $\omega: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)$ as constructed in the proof of Theorem 5.2. Given $\alpha: A \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ we define maps $\pi, \sigma$ such that the diagram

is commutative. The construction of $\omega$ in diagram (5.4) shows that $\omega(\alpha)=[\sigma] \in \operatorname{Ext}_{A}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)$. Now let $E$ be the pull-back of $(\psi, \alpha)$. We then
have a map $\pi^{\prime}: P \rightarrow E$ such that the diagram

is commutative. By the definition of the equivalence

$$
\xi: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \underset{\rightarrow}{\sim} E\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)
$$

in Theorem 2.4 the element $\xi[\sigma]$ is represented by the extension $B^{\prime} \rightarrow E \rightarrow A$.

We now introduce a Hom-Ext-sequence in the first variable.
Theorem 5.3. Let $B$ be a $\Lambda$-module and let $A^{\prime} \stackrel{\varphi}{\hookrightarrow} A \xrightarrow{\Psi} A^{\prime \prime}$ be a short exact sequence. Then there exists a connecting homomorphism

$$
\omega: \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right)
$$

such that the following sequence is exact and natural

$$
\begin{align*}
& 0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B) \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \\
& \xrightarrow{\omega} \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}(A, B) \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) . \tag{5.5}
\end{align*}
$$

The reader notes that, if Ext is identified with $\overline{\text { Ext }}$, Theorem 5.3 becomes the dual of Theorem 5.2 and that it may be proved by proceeding dually to Theorem 5.2 (see Exercises 5.4, 5.5). We prefer, however, to give a further proof using only projectives and thus avoiding the use of injectives. For our proof we need the following lemma, which will be invoked again in Chapter IV.

Lemma 5.4. To a short exact sequence $A^{\prime} \stackrel{\varphi}{\rightarrow} A \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{w}} A^{\prime \prime}$ and to projective presentations $\varepsilon^{\prime}: P^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ and $\varepsilon^{\prime \prime}: P^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ there exists a projective presentation $\varepsilon: P \rightarrow A$ and homomorphisms $\imath: P^{\prime} \rightarrow P$ and $\pi: P \rightarrow P^{\prime \prime}$ such that the following diagram is commutative with exact rows


Proof. Let $P=P^{\prime} \oplus P^{\prime \prime}$, let $ı: P^{\prime} \rightarrow P^{\prime} \oplus P^{\prime \prime}$ be the canonical injection, $\pi: P^{\prime} \oplus P^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow P^{\prime \prime}$ the canonical projection. We define $\varepsilon$ by giving the components. The first component is $\varphi \varepsilon^{\prime}: P^{\prime} \rightarrow A$; for the second we use the fact that $P^{\prime \prime}$ is projective to construct a map $\chi: P^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A$ which makes
the triangle

commutative, and take $\chi$ as the second component of $\varepsilon$. It is plain that with this definition the above diagram commutes. By Lemma I.1.1 $\varepsilon$ is epimorphic.

Proof of Theorem 5.3. Using Lemma 5.4 projective presentations may be chosen such that the following diagram is commutative with short exact middle row


By Lemma 5.1 applied to the second and third row the top row is short exact, also. Applying $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(-, B)$ we obtain the following diagram


By Theorem 1.2.2 the second and third rows are exact. In the second row $\iota^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(P, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(P^{\prime}, B\right)$ is epimorphic since $P=P^{\prime} \oplus P^{\prime \prime}$, so $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(P^{\prime} \oplus P^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(P^{\prime}, B\right) \oplus \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(P^{\prime \prime}, B\right)$. Lemma 5.1 now yields the Hom-Ext sequence claimed. As in the proof of Theorem 5.2 one shows that $\omega$ is independent of the chosen projective presentations. Also, one proves that the Hom-Ext sequence in the first variable is natural with respect to homomorphisms $\beta: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ and with respect to maps $\gamma^{\prime}, \gamma, \gamma^{\prime \prime}$ making the diagram

commutative. $\square$

If we try to describe the connecting homomorphism

$$
\omega: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right)
$$

in terms of extensions, it is natural to consider the push-out $E$ of $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow B$ and $\varphi: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ and to construct the diagram


We then consider the presentation $R^{\prime \prime} \hookrightarrow P^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ and note that the map $\chi: P^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A$ constructed in the proof of Lemma 5.4 induces $\sigma$ such that the diagram

is commutative. Now the definition of $\omega(\alpha)$ in diagram (5.6) is via the map $\varrho: R^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow B$ which is obtained as $\varrho=\alpha \tau$ in


But by the definition of $\varepsilon: P^{\prime} \oplus P^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A$ in Lemma 5.4, the sum of the two maps

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R \longrightarrow R^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{\sigma} A^{\prime} \longleftrightarrow A \\
& R \longrightarrow R^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow[\tau]{\longrightarrow} A^{\prime} \longmapsto \varphi
\end{aligned}
$$

is zero. Hence $\sigma=-\tau$, so that the element $-\omega(\alpha)=[-\tau]$ is represented by the extension $B \hookrightarrow E \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$.

Corollary 5.5. The $\Lambda$-module $A$ is projective if and only if $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)=0$ for all 1-modules B.

Proof. Suppose $A$ is projective. Then $1: A \xrightarrow{\sim} A$ is a projective presentation, whence $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)=0$ for all $\Lambda$-modules $B$. Conversely, suppose $\operatorname{Ext}_{\boldsymbol{A}}(A, B)=0$ for all $\Lambda$-modules $B$. Then for any short exact sequence $B^{\prime} \hookrightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact. By Theorem 1.4.7 $A$ is projective. $\quad]$

The reader may now easily prove the dual assertion.
Corollary 5.6. The $\Lambda$-module $B$ is injective if and only if $\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}(A, B)=0$ for all $\Lambda$-modules $A$. $]$

In the special case where $\Lambda$ is a principal ideal domain we obtain
Corollary 5.7. Let $\Lambda$ be a principal ideal domain. Then the homomorphisms $\psi_{*}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right)$ in sequence (5.3) and

$$
\varphi^{*}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)
$$

in sequence (5.5) are epimorphic.
Proof. Over a principal ideal domain $\Lambda$ submodules of projective modules are projective. Hence in diagram (5.4) $R$ is projective; thus

$$
\psi_{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(R, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(R, B^{\prime \prime}\right)
$$

is epimorphic, and hence $\psi_{*}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is epimorphic. In diagram (5.6), $R^{\prime \prime}$ is projective. Hence the short exact sequence $R^{\prime} \longrightarrow R \rightarrow R^{\prime \prime}$ splits and it follows that $\varphi^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(R, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(R^{\prime}, B\right)$ is epimorphic. Hence $\varphi^{*}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)$ is epimorphic. $]$

We remark, that if $\Lambda$ is not a principal ideal domain the assertions of Corollary 5.7 are false in general (Exercise 5.3).

## Exercises:

5.1. Consider the following diagram

with all sequences exact. Show that with the terminology of Lemma 3.1 we have $\operatorname{Im} \Sigma_{1} \cong \operatorname{coker} \varepsilon_{*}, \operatorname{Ker} \Sigma_{4} \cong \operatorname{ker} \mu_{*}^{\prime}$. Show $\operatorname{Im} \Sigma_{1} \cong \operatorname{Ker} \Sigma_{4}$ by a repeated application of Lemma 3.1. With that result prove Lemma 5.1.
5.2. Given $A \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} B^{\boldsymbol{\beta}} C$ (not necessarily exact) deduce from Lemma 5.1 (or prove otherwise) that there is a natural exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \alpha \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \beta \alpha \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \beta \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \alpha \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \beta \alpha \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \beta \rightarrow 0 .
$$

5.3. Show that if $R$ is not projective there exists a module $B$ with $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(R, B) \neq 0$. Suppose that in the projective presentation $R \xrightarrow{\varphi} P \xrightarrow{\Psi} A$ of $A$ the module $R$ is not projective. Deduce that $\varphi^{*}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(P, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(R, B)$ is not epimorphic. Compare with Corollary 5.7.
5.4. Prove Theorem 5.3 by using the definition of Ext by injectives and interpret the connecting homomorphism in terms of extensions. Does one get the same connecting homomorphism as in our proof of Theorem 5.3?
5.5. Prove Theorem 5.2 using the definition of Ext by injectives. (Use the dual of Lemma 5.4.) Does one get the same connecting homomorphism as in our proof of Theorem 5.2?
5.6. Establish equivalences of $\mathrm{Ext}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$ and $\overline{\mathrm{Ext}}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$ using (i) Theorem 5.2, (ii) Theorem 5.3. Does one get the same equivalences?
5.7. Evaluate the groups and homomorphisms in the appropriate sequences (of Theorems 5.2, 5.3) when
(i) $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is $0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{4} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{16} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{4} \rightarrow 0, B$ is $\mathbb{Z}_{4}$;
(ii) $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is $0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{4} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{8} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{4} \rightarrow 0, B$ is $\mathbb{Z}_{4}$;
(iii) $A$ is $\mathbb{Z}_{4}, 0 \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is $0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{4} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{16} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{4} \rightarrow 0$;
(iv) $A$ is $\mathbb{Z}_{4}, 0 \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is $0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{4} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{8} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{4} \rightarrow 0$;
(v) $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is $0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{4} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{16} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{4} \rightarrow 0, B$ is $\mathbb{Z}$.
5.8. For any abelian group $A$, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
m A & =\{b \in A \mid b=m a, a \in A\} \\
{ }_{m} A & =\{a \in A \mid m a=0\} \\
A_{m} & =A / m A
\end{aligned}
$$

Show that there are exact sequences

$$
\begin{gathered}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(m A, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}\left({ }_{m} A, \mathbb{Z}\right) \rightarrow 0 \\
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(m A, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}\left(A_{m}, \mathbb{Z}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(m A . \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow 0
\end{gathered}
$$

and that $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(m A, \mathbb{Z})$.
Prove the following assertions:
(i) ${ }_{m} A=0$ if and only if $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})_{m}=0$;
(ii) if $A_{m}=0$ then ${ }_{m} \operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$ :
(iii) if ${ }_{m} \operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0=\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z})$, then $A_{m}=0$.

Give a counterexample to show that the converse of (ii) is not true.
(Hint: an abelian group $B$ such that $m B=0$ is a direct sum of cyclic groups.)

## 6. A Theorem of Stein-Serre for Abelian Groups

By Corollary $5.5 A$ is projective if and only if $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)=0$ for all $\Lambda$-modules $B$. The question naturally arises as to whether it is necessary to use all $\Lambda$-modules $B$ in $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$ to test whether $A$ is projective; might it not happen that there exists a small family of $\Lambda$-modules $B_{i}$ such that if $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}\left(A, B_{i}\right)=0$ for every $B_{i}$ in the family, then $A$ is projective? Of course, as is easily shown, $A$ is projective if $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, R)=0$ where $R \mapsto P \rightarrow A$ is a projective presentation of $A$, but our intention is that the family $B_{i}$ may be chosen independently of $A$.

For $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$ and $A$ finitely-generated there is a very simple criterion for $\boldsymbol{A}$ to be projective (i.e. free): If $\boldsymbol{A}$ is a finitely generated abelian group,
then $A$ is free if and only if $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$. This result immediately follows by using the fundamental theorem for finitely-generated abelian groups and the relations $\operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z})=0, \operatorname{Ext}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{r}, \mathbb{Z}\right)=\mathbb{Z}_{r}$ of Section 4 . Of course, if $A$ is free, $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$ but it is still an open question whether, for all abelian groups $A, \operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$ implies $A$ free. However we shall prove the following theorem of Stein-Serre:

Theorem 6.1. If $A$ is an abelian group of countable rank, then $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$ implies $A$ free.

Let us first remind the reader that the rank of an abelian group $A$, rank $A$, is the maximal number of linearly independent elements in $A$. For the proof of Theorem 6.1 we shall need the following lemma.

Lemma 6.2. Let $A$ be an abelian group of countable rank. If every subgroup of $A$ of finite rank is free, then $A$ is free.

Proof. By hypothesis there is a maximal countable linearly independent set $T=\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}, \ldots\right)$ of elements of $A$. Let $A_{n}$ be the subgroup of $A$ consisting of all elements $a \in A$ linearly dependent on $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$, i.e. such that $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}, a\right)$ is linearly dependent. Since $A$ is torsionfree, $A_{0}=0$. Plainly $A_{n-1} \subseteq A_{n}$, and, since $T$ is maximal, $A=\bigcup_{n} A_{n}$. Since $A_{n}$ has finite rank $n$, it is free of rank $n$; in particular it is finitely-generated; hence $A_{n} / A_{n-1}$ is finitely-generated, too. We claim that $A_{n} / A_{n-1}$ is torsionfree. Indeed if for $a \in A$ the set $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n-1}, k a\right)$ is linearly dependent, $k \neq 0$, then $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n-1}, a\right)$ is linearly dependent, also. As a finitely-generated torsionfree group, $A_{n} / A_{n-1}$ is free. Evidently its rank is one. Hence $A_{n} / A_{n-1}$ is infinite cyclic. Let $b_{n}+A_{n-1}, b_{n} \in A_{n}$, be a generator of $A_{n} / A_{n-1}$. We claim that $S=\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots . b_{n}, \ldots\right)$ is a basis for $A$. Indeed, $S$ is linearly independent, for if $\sum_{i=1}^{n} k_{i} b_{i}=0, k_{n} \neq 0$, then $k_{n} b_{n}+A_{n-1}=A_{n-1}$ which is impossible since $A_{n} / A_{n-1}$ is infinite cyclic on $b_{n}+A_{n-1}$ as generator. Also. $S$ generates $A$; since $A=\bigcup_{n} A_{n}$ it is plainly sufficient to show that $\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)$ generate $A_{n}$, and this follows by an easy induction on $n$.

Proof of Theorem 6.1. We first make a couple of reductions. By Lemma 6.2 it suffices to show that every subgroup $A^{\prime}$ of finite rank is free. Since $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$ implies $\operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime}, \mathbb{Z}\right)=0$ by Corollary 5.6 , we have to show that for groups $A$ of finite rank, $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$ implies $A$ free. If $A^{\prime \prime}$ is a finitely-generated subgroup of $A$ with $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$ it follows that $\operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, \mathbb{Z}\right)=0$ and hence, by the remark at the beginning of the section, $A^{\prime \prime}$ is free. Since $A$ is torsionfree if and only if every finitely generated subgroup of $A$ is free, it will be sufficient to show that for any $\operatorname{group} A$ of finite rank which is not free but torsionfree, $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \neq 0$.

Consider the sequence $\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}{ }^{\eta_{\longrightarrow}} \mathbb{Q}: \mathbb{Z}$ and the associated sequence

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q}) \xrightarrow{\eta_{\star}} \operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})
$$

We have to prove that $\eta_{*}$ is not epimorphic; we do that by showing that $\operatorname{card}(\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q} \mid \mathbb{Z}))>\operatorname{card}(\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q}))$.

Let $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ be a maximal linearly independent set of elements of $A$. Let $A_{0}$ be the subgroup of $A$ generated by $\left(a_{1} \ldots, a_{n}\right)$. By hypothesis $A_{0}$ is free. Since $A$ is not free. $A_{0} \neq A$.

Since every homomorphism from $A$ into $\mathbb{Q}$ is determined by its restriction to $A_{0}$, and since every homomorphism from $A_{0}$ to $\mathbb{Q}$ extends to $A$, we obtain

$$
\operatorname{card}(\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q}))=\operatorname{card}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(A_{0}, \mathbb{Q}\right)\right)=\aleph_{0}^{n}=\aleph_{0} .
$$

Take $b_{1} \in A-A_{0}$ and let $k_{1} \geqq 2$ be the smallest integer for which $k_{1} b_{1} \in A_{0}$. Let $A_{1}$ be the subgroup generated by $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{1}$. By hypothesis $A_{1}$ is free. But $A_{1} \neq A$, since $A$ is not free. Take $b_{2} \in A-A_{1}$. Let $k_{2} \geqq 2$ be the smallest integer with $k_{2} b_{2} \in A_{1}$. Let $A_{2}$ be generated by $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{1}, b_{2}\right)$. $A_{2}$ is free, but $A_{2} \neq A$ since $A$ is not free. Continuing this way we obtain a sequence of elements of $A, b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{m}, \ldots$, and a sequence of integers $k_{1}, k_{2}, \ldots, k_{m}, \ldots$, each of them $\geqq 2$, such that $k_{m}$ is the smallest positive integer with $k_{m} b_{m} \in A_{m-1}$ where $A_{m-1}$ is the subgroup of $A$ generated by $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{m-1}\right) ; b_{m} \notin A_{m-1}$. Let $A_{\infty}=\bigcup_{n} A_{n}$. Since every homomorphism from $A_{\infty}$ into $\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$ may be extended to a homomorphism from $A$ to $\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$ one has

$$
\operatorname{card}(\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q} ; \mathbb{Z})) \geqq \operatorname{card}\left(A_{\infty}, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}\right)
$$

But $\operatorname{card}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(A_{\infty}, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}\right)\right)=\aleph_{0} \cdot k_{1} \cdot k_{2} \cdots=2^{\aleph_{0}}$. For one has $\aleph_{0}$ homomorphisms $\varphi_{0}: A_{0} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}, k_{1}$ ways of extending $\varphi_{0}$ to $\varphi_{1}: A_{1} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}, k_{2}$ ways of extending $\varphi_{1}$ to $\varphi_{2}: A_{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$, etc. We have shown that

$$
\operatorname{card}(\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q}))<\operatorname{card} \operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})
$$

Hence $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \neq 0 . \quad \square$
From the proof of Theorem 6.1 one sees that $\operatorname{card}(\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z}))=2^{\aleph_{0}}$ if $A$ is of finite rank and not free but torsionfree. For our argument shows that $\operatorname{card}(\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})) \geqq 2^{\aleph_{0}}$; but if $A$ is torsionfree of finite (or even countable) rank it is countable, hence the cardinality of the set of all functions from $A$ to $\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$ is $2^{\aleph_{0}}$; so that

$$
\operatorname{card}(\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q} ; \mathbb{Z}))=2^{\aleph_{0}}
$$

It follows that $\operatorname{card}(\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z}))=2^{\aleph_{0}}$.

## Exercises:

6.1. Show that if $A$ is torsionfree, $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})$ is divisible, and that if $A$ is divisible, $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})$ is torsionfree. Show conversely that if $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})$ is divisible, $A$ is torsionfree and that if $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})$ is torsionfree and $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$ then $A$ is divisible. (See Exercise 5.8.)
6.2. Show that $\operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Z})$ is divisible and torsionfree, and hence a $\mathbb{Q}$-vector space. (Compare Exercise 2.4.) Deduce that $\operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{R}, \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{R}$. Compute $\operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Z})$.
6.3. Show that $\operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z})$ fits into exact sequences

$$
\begin{gathered}
0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \rightarrow 0, \\
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0
\end{gathered}
$$

6.4. Show that the simultaneous equations $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0, \operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$ imply $A=0$.
6.5. Show that the simultaneous equations $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=\mathbb{Q}, \operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$ have no solution. Generalize this by replacing $\mathbb{Q}$ by a suitable $\mathbb{Q}$-vector space. What can you say of the solutions of $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=\mathbb{R} . \operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$ ?

## 7. The Tensor Product

In the remaining two sections of Chapter III we shall introduce two functors: the tensor product and the Tor-functor.

Let $\Lambda$ again be a ring, $A$ a right and $B$ a left $\Lambda$-module.
Definition. The tensor product of $A$ and $B$ over $\Lambda$ is the abelian group, $A \otimes_{A} B$, obtained as the quotient of the free abelian group on the set of all symbols $a \otimes b, a \in A, b \in B$, by the subgroup generated by

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left(a_{1}+a_{2}\right) \otimes b-\left(a_{1} \otimes b+a_{2} \otimes b\right), a_{1}, a_{2} \in A, b \in B ; \\
a \otimes\left(b_{1}+b_{2}\right)-\left(a \otimes b_{1}+a \otimes b_{2}\right), a \in A, b_{1}, b_{2} \in B ; \\
a \lambda \otimes b-a \otimes \lambda b, a \in A, b \in B, \lambda \in \Lambda .
\end{gathered}
$$

In case $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$ we shall allow ourselves to write $A \otimes B$ for $A \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} B$. For simplicity we shall denote the element of $A \otimes_{\Lambda} B$ obtained as canonical image of $a \otimes b$ in the free abelian group by the same symbol $a \otimes b$.

The ring $\Lambda$ may be regarded as left or right $\Lambda$-module over $\Lambda$. It is easy to see that we have natural isomorphisms (of abelian groups)

$$
\Lambda \otimes_{\Lambda} B \sim \sim \sim B, A \otimes_{\Lambda} \Lambda \sim \sim A
$$

given by $\lambda \otimes b \mapsto \lambda b$ and $a \otimes \lambda \mapsto a \lambda$.
For any $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ we define an induced map $\alpha_{*}: A \otimes_{\Lambda} B \rightarrow A^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} B$ by $\alpha_{*}(a \otimes b)=(\alpha a) \otimes b, a \in A, b \in B$. Also, for $\beta: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ we define
$\beta_{*}: A \otimes_{A} B \rightarrow A \otimes_{A} B^{\prime}$ by $\beta_{*}(a \otimes b)=a \otimes(\beta b), a \in A, b \in B$. With these definitions we obtain

Proposition 7.1. For any left $\Lambda$-module $B,-\otimes_{\Lambda} B: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{r} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A b b}$ is a covariant functor. For any right $\Lambda$-module $A, A \otimes_{\Lambda}-: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{l} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A l b}$ is a covariant functor. Moreover, $-\otimes_{\Lambda}$ - is a bifunctor.

The proof is left to the reader. $]$
If $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ and $\beta: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ are homomorphisms we use the notation

$$
\alpha \otimes \beta=\alpha_{*} \beta_{*}=\beta_{*} \alpha_{*}: A \otimes_{\Lambda} B \rightarrow A^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} B^{\prime} .
$$

The importance of the tensorproduct will become clear from the following assertion.

Theorem 7.2. For any right $\Lambda$-module $A$, the functor $A \otimes_{\Lambda}-: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{l} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A b}$ is left adjoint to the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{z}}(A,-): \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{b} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{A}^{l}$.

Proof. The left-module structure of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{z}}(A,-)$ is induced by the right-module structure of $A$ (see Section I.8). We have to show that there is a natural transformation $\eta$ such that for any abelian group $G$ and any left $\Lambda$-module $B$

$$
\eta: \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{z}}\left(A \otimes_{\Lambda} B, G\right) \stackrel{\sim}{\rightarrow} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(B, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{z}}(A, G)\right) .
$$

Given $\varphi: A \otimes_{A} B \rightarrow G$ we define $\eta(\varphi)$ by the formula

$$
((\eta(\varphi))(b))(a)=\varphi(a \otimes b) .
$$

Given $\psi: B \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{Z}}(A, G)$ we define $\tilde{\eta}(\psi)$ by $(\tilde{\eta}(\psi))(a \otimes b)=(\psi(b))(a)$. We claim that $\eta, \tilde{\eta}$ are natural homomorphisms which are inverse to each other. We leave it to the reader to check the necessary details. $]$

Analogously we may prove that $-\otimes_{\Lambda} B: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{r} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$ is left adjoint to $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{z}}(B .-): \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{b} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{r}$, where the right module structure of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{Z}}(B, G)$ is given by the left module structure of $B$. We remark that the tensor-product-functor $A \otimes_{\Lambda}$ - is determined up to natural equivalence by the adjointness property of Theorem 7.2 (see Proposition II.7.3); a similar remark applies to the functor $-\otimes_{\Lambda} B$.

As an immediate consequence of Theorem 7.2 we have
Proposition 7.3. (i) Let $\left\{B_{j}\right\}, j \in J$, be a family of left $\Lambda$-modules and let $A$ be a right $\Lambda$-module. Then there is a natural isomorphism

$$
A \otimes_{\Lambda}\left(\bigoplus_{j \in J} B_{j}\right) \underset{\rightarrow}{\rightarrow} \bigoplus_{j \in J}\left(A \otimes_{\Lambda} B_{j}\right)
$$

(ii) If $B^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\beta^{\prime}} B \xrightarrow{\beta^{\prime \prime}} B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of left $\Lambda$-modules, then for any right $\Lambda$-module $A$, the sequence

$$
A \otimes_{A} B^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\beta *} A \otimes_{A} B \xrightarrow{\beta^{\prime \prime}} A \otimes_{A} B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact.

Proof. By the dual of Theorem II.7.7 a functor possessing a right adjoint preserves coproducts and cokernels. $\quad 1$

Of course there is a proposition analogous to Proposition 7.2 about the functor $-\otimes_{\Lambda} B$ for fixed $B$. The reader should note that, even if $\beta^{\prime}$ in Proposition 7.3 (ii) is monomorphic, $\beta_{*}^{\prime}$ will not be monomorphic in general: Let $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}, A=\mathbb{Z}_{2}$, and consider the exact sequence $\mathbb{Z} \stackrel{\mu}{ }, \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ where $\mu$ is multiplication by 2 . Then

$$
\mu_{*}(n \otimes m)=n \otimes 2 m=2 n \otimes m=0 \otimes m=0,
$$

$n \in \mathbb{Z}_{2}, m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Hence $\mu_{*}: \mathbb{Z}_{2} \otimes \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{2} \otimes \mathbb{Z}$ is the zero map, while $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \otimes \mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.

Definition. A left $\Lambda$-module $B$ is called flat if for every short exact sequence $A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\mu} A \stackrel{\&}{\leftrightarrows} A^{\prime \prime}$ the induced sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} B \xrightarrow{\mu_{*}} A \otimes_{\Lambda} B \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} B \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact. This is to say that for every monomorphism $\mu: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ the induced homomorphism $\mu_{*}: A^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} B \rightarrow A \otimes_{\Lambda} B$ is a monomorphism. also.

Proposition 7.4. Every projective module is flat.
Proof. A projective module $P$ is a direct summand in a free module. Hence, since $A \otimes_{\Lambda}-$ preserves sums, it suffices to show that free modules are flat. By the same argument it suffices to show that $\Lambda$ as a left module is flat. But this is trivial since $A \otimes_{\Lambda} \Lambda \cong A$.

For abelian groups it turns out that "flat" is "torsionfree" (see Exercise 8.7). Since the additive group of the rationals $\mathbb{Q}$ is torsionfree but not free, one sees that flat modules are not, in general, projective.

## Exercises:

7.1. Show that if $A$ is a left $\Gamma$-right $\Lambda$-bimodule and $B$ a left $\Lambda$-right $\Sigma$-bimodule then $A \otimes_{A} B$ may be given a left $\Gamma$-right $\Sigma$-bimodule structure.
7.2. Show that, if $\Lambda$ is commutative, we can speak of the tensorproduct $A \otimes_{\Lambda} B$ of two left (!) $\Lambda$-modules, and that $A \otimes_{A} B$ has an obvious $\Lambda$-module structure. Also show that then $A \otimes_{\Lambda} B \cong B \otimes_{\Lambda} A$ and $\left(A \otimes_{\Lambda} B\right) \otimes_{\Lambda} C \cong A \otimes_{\Lambda}\left(B \otimes_{\Lambda} C\right)$ by canonical isomorphisms.
7.3. Prove the following generalization of Theorem 7.2. Let $A$ be a left $\Gamma$-right $\Lambda$-bimodule, $B$ a left $\Lambda$-module and $C$ a left $\Gamma$-module. Then $A \otimes_{\Lambda} B$ can be given a left $\Gamma$-module structure, and $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Gamma}(A, C)$ a left $\Lambda$-module structure. Prove the adjointness relation

$$
\eta: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Gamma}\left(A \otimes_{\Lambda} B, C\right) \sim \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(B, \operatorname{Hom}_{\Gamma}(A, C)\right) .
$$

7.4. Show that, if $A, B$ are $\Lambda$-modules and if $\sum_{i} a_{i} \otimes b_{i}=0$ in $A \otimes_{A} B$, then there are finitely generated submodules $A_{0} \subseteq A, B_{0} \subseteq B$ such that $a_{i} \in A_{0}, b_{i} \in B_{0}$ and $\sum_{i} a_{i} \otimes b_{i}=0$ in $A_{0} \otimes B_{0}$.
7.5. Show that if $A, B$ are modules over a principal ideal domain and if $a \in A$, $b \in B$ are not torsion elements then $a \otimes b \neq 0$ in $A \otimes_{A} B$ and is not a torsion element.
7.6. Show that if $A$ is a finitely generated module over a principal ideal domain and if $A \otimes_{A} A=0$, then $A=0$. Give an example of an abelian group $G \neq 0$ such that $\boldsymbol{G} \otimes \boldsymbol{G}=\mathbf{0}$.
7.7. Let $A \times B$ be the cartesian product of the sets underlying the right $\Lambda$-module $A$ and the left $\Lambda$-module $B$. For $G$ an abelian group call a function $f: A \times B \rightarrow G$ bilinear if

$$
\begin{aligned}
f\left(a_{1}+a_{2}, b\right) & =f\left(a_{1}, b\right)+f\left(a_{2}, b\right), a_{1}, a_{2} \in A, b \in B ; \\
f\left(a, b_{1}+b_{2}\right) & =f\left(a, b_{1}\right)+f\left(a, b_{2}\right), a \in A, b_{1}, b_{2} \in B ; \\
f(a \lambda, b) & =f(a, \lambda b), a \in A, b \in B, \lambda \in \Lambda .
\end{aligned}
$$

Show that the tensor product has the following universal property. To every abelian group $G$ and to every bilinear map $f: A \times B \rightarrow G$ there exists a unique homomorphism of abelian groups

$$
g: A \otimes_{A} B \rightarrow G \quad \text { such that } \quad f(a, b)=g(a \otimes b) .
$$

7.8. Show that an associative algebra (with unity) over the commutative ring $\Lambda$ may be defined as follows. An algebra $A$ is a $\Lambda$-module together with $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms $\mu: A \otimes_{\Lambda} A \rightarrow A$ and $\eta: \Lambda \rightarrow A$ such that the following diagrams are commutative

(The first diagram shows that $\eta\left(1_{\Lambda}\right)$ is a left and a right unity for $A$, while the second diagram yields associativity of the product.) Show that if $A$ and $B$ are algebras over $\Lambda$ then $A \otimes_{\Lambda} B$ may naturally be made into an algebra over $\Lambda$.
7.9. An algebra $A$ over $\Lambda$ is called augmented if a homomorphism $\varepsilon: A \rightarrow \Lambda$ of algebras is given. Show that the group algebra $K G$ is augmented with $\varepsilon: K G \rightarrow K$ defined by $\varepsilon(x)=1, x \in G$. Give other examples of augmented algebras.

## 8. The Functor Tor

Let $A$ be a right $\Lambda$-module and let $B$ be a left $\Lambda$-module. Given a projective presentation $R \xrightarrow{\mu} P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A$ of $A$ we define

$$
\operatorname{Tor}_{\varepsilon}^{\Lambda}(A, B)=\operatorname{ker}\left(\mu_{*}: R \otimes_{\Lambda} B \rightarrow P \otimes_{\Lambda} B\right) .
$$

The sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{\varepsilon}^{\Lambda}(A, B) \rightarrow R \otimes_{\Lambda} B \rightarrow P \otimes_{\Lambda} B \rightarrow A \otimes_{\Lambda} B \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact. Obviously we can make $\operatorname{Tor}_{\varepsilon}^{\Lambda}(A,-)$ into a covariant functor by defining, for a map $\beta: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$, the associated map

$$
\beta_{*}: \operatorname{Tor}_{\varepsilon}^{\Lambda}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{\varepsilon}^{\Lambda}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)
$$

to be the homomorphism induced by $\beta_{*}: R \otimes_{\Lambda} B \rightarrow R \otimes_{\Lambda} B^{\prime}$.
To any projective presentation $S \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\longrightarrow} Q \xrightarrow{\bullet} B$ of $B$ we define

$$
\overline{\operatorname{Tor}}_{\eta}^{\Lambda}(A, B)=\operatorname{ker}\left(v_{*}: A \otimes_{\Lambda} S \rightarrow A \otimes_{\Lambda} Q\right) .
$$

With this definition the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \overline{\operatorname{Tor}}_{\eta}^{\Lambda}(A, B) \rightarrow A \otimes_{\Lambda} S \rightarrow A \otimes_{\Lambda} Q \rightarrow A \otimes_{\Lambda} B \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact. Clearly, given a homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$, we can associate a homomorphism $\alpha_{*}: \overline{\operatorname{Tor}}_{\eta}^{A}(A, B) \rightarrow \overline{\operatorname{Tor}}_{\eta}^{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)$, which is induced by $\alpha_{*}: A \otimes_{A} S \rightarrow A^{\prime} \otimes_{A} S$. With this definition $\overline{\operatorname{Tor}}_{\eta}^{1}(-, B)$ is a covariant functor.

Proposition 8.1. If $A$ (or $B$ ) is projective, then

$$
\operatorname{Tor}_{\varepsilon}^{\Lambda}(A, B)=0=\overline{\operatorname{Tor}}_{\eta}^{\Lambda}(A, B) .
$$

Proof. Since $A$ is projective, the short exact sequence $R \xrightarrow{\mu} P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A$ splits, i.e. there is $\kappa: P \rightarrow R$ with $\kappa \mu=1_{R}$. Hence

$$
\kappa \mu \otimes 1=(\kappa \otimes 1)(\mu \otimes 1)=1_{R \otimes_{\Lambda} B},
$$

and consequently $\mu \otimes 1$ is monomorphic. Thus $\operatorname{Tor}_{\varepsilon}^{\Lambda}(A, B)=0$.
If $A$ is projective. $A$ is flat by Proposition 7.4. Hence

$$
0 \rightarrow A \otimes_{\Lambda} S \rightarrow A \otimes_{\Lambda} Q \rightarrow A \otimes_{\Lambda} B \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact. Thus $\overline{\operatorname{Tor}}_{\eta}^{1}(A, B)=0$. The remaining assertions merely interchange left and right. $\square$

Next we will use Lemma 5.1 to show that $\overline{\operatorname{Tor}}_{\eta}^{\Lambda}$ and $\operatorname{Tor}_{\varepsilon}^{\Lambda}$ denote the same functor. Again let $R \stackrel{\mu}{\xrightarrow{u}} P \stackrel{\iota}{\hookrightarrow} A$ and $S \xrightarrow{\stackrel{\nu}{\longrightarrow}} Q \xrightarrow{\eta} B$ be projective presentations. We then construct the commutative diagram


By a repeated application of Lemma 3.1 we obtain

$$
\overline{\operatorname{Tor}}_{\eta}^{A}(A, B)=\operatorname{Im} \Sigma_{1} \cong \operatorname{Ker} \Sigma_{2} \cong \operatorname{Im} \Sigma_{3} \cong \operatorname{Ker} \Sigma_{4} \cong \operatorname{Im} \Sigma_{5}=\operatorname{Tor}_{\varepsilon}^{\Lambda}(A, B) .
$$

Now let $R^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\mu^{\prime}} P^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon^{\prime}} A^{\prime}$ be a projective presentation of $A^{\prime}$ and $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ a homomorphism. We can then find $\varphi: P \rightarrow P^{\prime}$ and $\psi: R \rightarrow R^{\prime}$ such that the following diagram commutes:


These homomorphisms induce a map from the diagram (8.1) into the diagram corresponding to the presentation $R^{\prime} \hookrightarrow P^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. Consequently we obtain a homomorphism

$$
\operatorname{Tor}_{\varepsilon}^{\Lambda}(A, B) \xrightarrow{\sim} \overline{\operatorname{Tor}}_{\eta}^{\Lambda}(A, B) \xrightarrow{\alpha_{n}} \overline{\operatorname{Tor}_{\eta}^{A}}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Tor}_{\varepsilon^{\prime}}^{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)
$$

which is visibly independent of the choice of $\varphi$ in (8.2). Choosing $\alpha=1_{A}$ we obtain an isomorphism $\operatorname{Tor}_{\varepsilon}^{1}(A, B) \widetilde{\rightarrow} \operatorname{Tor}_{\eta}^{1}(A, B) \sim \mathcal{T o r}_{\varepsilon}^{\Lambda}(A, B)$.

Collecting the information obtained, we have shown that there is a natural equivalence between the functors $\operatorname{Tor}_{\varepsilon}^{4}(A,-)$ and $\operatorname{Tor}_{\varepsilon}^{4}(A,-)$, that we therefore can drop the subscript $\varepsilon$. writing $\operatorname{Tor}^{1}(A,-)$ from now on; further that $\operatorname{Tor}^{1}(-, B)$ can be made into a functor, which is equivalent to $\overline{\operatorname{Tor}}_{\eta}^{1}(-, B)$ for any $\eta$. We thus can use the notation $\operatorname{Tor}^{1}(A, B)$ for $\overline{\operatorname{Tor}}_{\eta}^{1}(A . B)$, also. We finally leave it to the reader to show that $\operatorname{Tor}^{1}(-,-)$ is a bifunctor. The fact that $\operatorname{Tor}^{1}(-,-)$ coincides with $\overline{\operatorname{Tor}}^{4}(-,-)$ is sometimes expressed by saying that Tor is balanced.

Similarly to Theorems 5.2 and 5.3, one obtains
Theorem 8.2. Let $A$ be a right $\Lambda$-module and $B^{\prime} \stackrel{\aleph}{\hookrightarrow} B \xrightarrow{\longrightarrow} B^{\prime \prime}$ an exact sequence of left $\Lambda$-modules, then there exists a connecting homomorphism $\omega: \operatorname{Tor}^{1}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow A \otimes_{A} B^{\prime}$ such that the following sequence is exact:

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{Tor}^{\Lambda}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\kappa_{*}} & \operatorname{Tor}^{\Lambda}(A, B) \xrightarrow{v_{*}} \operatorname{Tor}^{\Lambda}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \omega \\
& \xrightarrow{\kappa \star} A \otimes_{\Lambda} B^{\prime}  \tag{8.3}\\
& \otimes_{\Lambda} B \xrightarrow{v_{*}} A \otimes_{\Lambda} B^{\prime \prime} \longrightarrow \\
&
\end{align*}
$$

Theorem 8.3. Let $B$ be a left $\Lambda$-module and let $A^{\prime} \stackrel{\kappa}{\hookrightarrow} A \xrightarrow{\longrightarrow} A^{\prime \prime}$ be an exact sequence of right $\Lambda$-modules. Then there exists a connecting homomorphism $\omega: \operatorname{Tor}^{4}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow A^{\prime} \otimes_{A} B$ such that the following sequence is exact:

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{Tor}^{4}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) & \xrightarrow{\kappa_{*}^{*}} \operatorname{Tor}^{\Lambda}(A, B) \xrightarrow{v_{*}} \operatorname{Tor}^{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \xrightarrow{\omega} A^{\prime} \otimes_{A} B  \tag{8.4}\\
& \xrightarrow{\kappa_{*}} A \otimes_{\Lambda} B \xrightarrow{v_{*}} A^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{A} B \xrightarrow{ } 0 .
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. We only prove Theorem 8.2; the proof of Theorem 8.3 may be obtained by replacing Tor by $\overline{T o r}$. Consider the projective presentation
$R \xrightarrow{\mu} P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A$ and construct the diagram:


By applying Lemma 5.1 we obtain the asserted sequence. $]$
We remark that like the Hom-Ext sequences the sequences (8.3) and (8.4) are natural. Notice that by contrast with the two sequences involving Ext we obtain only one kind of sequence involving Tor, since $A, B$ play symmetric roles in the definition of Tor.

Corollary 8.4. Let $\Lambda$ be a principal ideal domain. Then the homomorphisms $\kappa_{*}: \operatorname{Tor}^{\Lambda}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}^{\Lambda}(A, B)$ in sequence (8.3) and

$$
\kappa_{*}: \operatorname{Tor}^{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}^{\Lambda}(A, B) \text { in sequence (8.4) are monomorphic. }
$$

Proof. By Corollary I.5.3 $R$ is a projective right $\Lambda$-module, hence the map $\kappa_{*}: R \otimes_{\Lambda} B^{\prime} \rightarrow R \otimes_{\Lambda} B$ in diagram (8.5) is monomorphic, whence the first assertion. Analogously one obtains the second assertion.

## Exercises:

8.1. Show that. if $A(\operatorname{or} B)$ is flat, then $\operatorname{Tor}^{\Lambda}(A, B)=0$.
8.2. Evaluate the exact sequences (8.3), (8.4) for the examples given in Exercise 5.7 (i), ..., (v).
8.3. Show that if $A$ is a torsion group then $A \cong \operatorname{Tor}(A, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})$; and that, in general, $\operatorname{Tor}(A, \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z})$ embeds naturally as a subgroup of $A$. Identify this subgroup.
8.4. Show that if $A$ and $B$ are abelian groups and if $T(A), T(B)$ are their torsion subgroups, then

$$
\operatorname{Tor}(A, B) \cong \operatorname{Tor}(T(A), T(B))
$$

Show that $m \operatorname{Tor}(A, B)=0$ if $m T(A)=0$.
8.5. Show that Tor is additive in each variable.
8.6. Show that Tor respects direct limits over directed sets.
8.7. Show that the abelian group $A$ is flat if and only if it is torsion-free.
8.8. Show that $A^{\prime}$ is pure in $A$ if and only if $A^{\prime} \otimes G \rightarrow A \otimes G$ is a monomorphism for all $G$ (see Exercise I. 1.7).
8.9. Show that $\operatorname{Tor}^{\Lambda}(A, B)$ can be computed using a flat presentation of $A$; that is, if $R \xrightarrow{\mu} P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A$ with $P$ flat, then

$$
\operatorname{Tor}^{\Lambda}(A, B) \cong \operatorname{ker}\left(\mu_{*}: R \otimes_{A} B \rightarrow P \otimes_{\Lambda} B\right)
$$

## IV. Derived Functors

In this chapter we go to the heart of homological algebra. Everything up to this point can be regarded as providing essential background for the theory of derived functors, and introducing the special cases of $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B), \operatorname{Tor}^{4}(A, B)$. Subsequent chapters take up more sophisticated properties of derived functors and special features of the theory in various contexts* (cohomology of groups, cohomology of Lie algebras).

The basic definitions and properties of derived functors are given in this chapter. Given an additive functor $F: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ from the abelian category $\mathfrak{A}$ to the abelian category $\mathfrak{B}$, we may form its left derived functors $L_{n} F: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}, n \geqq 0$, provided $\mathfrak{A}$ has enough projectives, that is, provided every object of $\mathfrak{A}$ admits a projective presentation. Thus the theory is certainly applicable to the category $\mathfrak{M}_{A}$. We may regard $L_{n} F(A)$ as a "function" depending on the "variables" $F$ and $A$, where $A$ is an object of $\mathfrak{A}$; there are then two basic exact sequences, one arising from a variation of $A$ and the other from a variation of $F$. We may. in particular. apply the theory to the tensor product; thus we may study $L_{n} F_{B}(A)$ where $F_{B}: \mathfrak{M}_{A}^{r} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A b}$ is given by $F_{B}(A)=A \otimes_{A} B$, for fixed $B$ in $\mathfrak{M}_{A}^{i}$, and $L_{n} G_{A}(B)$ where $G_{A}: \mathfrak{M}_{A}^{l} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$ is given by $G_{A}(B)=A \otimes_{A} B$, for fixed $A$ in $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{r}$. The two exact sequences then come into play to establish the natural isomorphism, for these two functors,

$$
L_{n} F_{B}(A) \cong L_{n} G_{A}(B),
$$

resulting in the balanced definition of $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{A}(A, B)$.
Similarly. we may form right derived functors of $F: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ if $A$ has enough injectives. We apply the resulting theory to Hom; thus we study $R_{n} F^{B}(A)$ where $F^{B}: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A b}$ is the contravariant functor given by $F^{B}(A)=\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(A, B)$ for fixed $B$ in $\mathfrak{M}_{A}$, and $R_{n} G^{A}(B)$ where $G^{A}: \mathfrak{M}_{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$ is the (covariant) functor given by $G^{A}(B)=\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(A, B)$ for fixed $A$ in $\mathfrak{M}_{A}$. Again we may prove with the help of the two basic exact sequences that

$$
R_{n} F^{B}(A) \cong R_{n} G^{A}(B)
$$

thus obtaining the balanced definition of $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B)$.

[^2]We also take up the question of how to define derived functors without using projective or injective resolutions. First we show that $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B)$ may be described in terms of $n$-extensions of $A$ by $B$, generalizing the isomorphism $E(A, B) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$ of Chapter III. Then we show that, for any right exact functor $F: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$, the left derived functors of $F$ may be characterized in terms of natural transformations into Ext; more precisely, one may give the collection $\left[F, \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A,-)\right]$ of natural transformations from $F$ to $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A,-)$ an abelian group structure and it is then isomorphic to $L_{n} F(A)$. The question of characterizing derived functors reappears in Chapter IX in a more general context.

The chapter closes with a discussion of the change-of-rings functor which is especially crucial in the cohomology theory of groups and Lie algebras.

## 1. Complexes

Let $\lambda$ be a fixed ring with 1 . We remind the reader of the category $\mathfrak{M}_{1}^{\mathrm{Z}}$ of graded (left) modules (Example (a) in Section II.9). An object $\boldsymbol{M}$ in $\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{Z}}^{\mathbf{Z}}$ is a family $\left\{M_{n}\right\}, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. of $\Lambda$-modules, a morphism $\boldsymbol{\varphi}: \boldsymbol{M} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{M}^{\prime}$ of degree $\boldsymbol{p}$ is a family $\left\{\varphi_{n}: M_{n} \rightarrow M_{n+p}^{\prime}\right\}, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, of module homomorphisms.

Definition. A chain complex $\boldsymbol{C}=\left\{C_{n}, \partial_{n}\right\}$ over $\Lambda$ is an object in $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{\mathbf{Z}}$ together with an endomorphism $\boldsymbol{\partial}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}$ of degree -1 with $\partial \boldsymbol{\partial}=0$. In other words we are given a family $\left\{C_{n}\right\}, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, of $\Lambda$-modules and a family of $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms $\left\{\partial_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1}\right\}, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that $\partial_{n} \partial_{n+1}=0$ :

$$
C: \cdots \rightarrow C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} C_{n} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n}} C_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots .
$$

The morphism $\partial$ (as well as its components $\partial_{n}$ ) is called the differential (or boundary operator).

A morphism of complexes or a chain map $\varphi: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$ is a morphism of degree 0 in $\mathfrak{M}_{A}^{\boldsymbol{Z}}$ such that $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \boldsymbol{\partial}=\tilde{\boldsymbol{\partial}} \boldsymbol{\varphi}$ where $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\partial}}$ denotes the differential in $\boldsymbol{D}$. Thus a chain map $\varphi$ is a family $\left\{\varphi_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow D_{n}\right\}, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, of homomorphisms such that, for every $n$, the diagram

is commutative. For simplicity we shall suppress the subscripts of the module homomorphisms $\partial_{n}$ and $\varphi_{n}$ when the meaning of the symbols is clear: so. for example, to express the commutativity of (1.1) we shall simply write $\varphi \partial=\tilde{\partial} \varphi$. We will usually not distinguish notationally between the differentials of various chain complexes, writing them all as $\partial$.

The reader will easily show that the collection of chain complexes over $\Lambda$ and chain maps forms an abelian category. Also. if $F: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$. is an additive covariant functor and if $C=\left\{C_{n}, \partial_{n}\right\}$ is a chain complex over $\Lambda$, then $F C=\left\{F C_{n} . F \partial_{n}\right\}$ is a chain complex over $\Lambda^{\prime}$. Thus $F$ induces a functor on the category of chain complexes.

We shall now introduce the most important notion of homology. Let $\boldsymbol{C}=\left\{C_{n}, \partial_{n}\right\}$ be a chain complex. The condition $\partial \boldsymbol{\partial}=0$ implies that $\operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1} \cong \operatorname{ker} \partial_{n}, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Hence we can associate with $\boldsymbol{C}$ the graded module

$$
H(\boldsymbol{C})=\left\{H_{n}(\boldsymbol{C})\right\}, \quad \text { where } H_{n}(\boldsymbol{C})=\operatorname{ker} \partial_{n} ; \operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1}, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

Then $H(C)\left(H_{n}(\boldsymbol{C})\right)$ is called the ( $n$-th) homology module of $\boldsymbol{C}$. (Of course if $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$ we shall speak of the ( $n$-th) homology group of $\boldsymbol{C}$.) By diagram (1.1) a chain map $\boldsymbol{\varphi}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$ induces a well defined morphism. of degree zero, $H(\varphi)=\varphi_{*}: H(C) \rightarrow H(D)$ of graded modules. It is clear that. with this definition, $H(-)$ becomes a functor, called the homology functor, from the category of chain complexes over $\Lambda$ to the category of graded $\Lambda$-modules. Also, each $H_{n}(-)$ is a functor into $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$.

Often, in particular in applications to topology, elements of $C_{n}$ are called $n$-chains; elements of $\operatorname{ker} \partial_{n}$ are called $n$-cycles and $\operatorname{ker} \partial_{n}$ is written $Z_{n}=Z_{n}(C)$; elements of $\operatorname{im}_{n+1}$ are called $n$-boundaries and im $\partial_{n+1}$ is written $B_{n}=B_{n}(C)$. Two $n$-cycles which determine the same element in $H_{n}(C)$ are called homologous. The element of $H_{n}(C)$ determined by the $n$-cycle $c$ is called the homology class of $c$, and is denoted by [c].

It will be clear to the reader that given a chain complex $\boldsymbol{C}$ a new chain complex $C^{\prime}$ may be constructed by replacing some or all of the differentials $\partial_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ by their negatives $-\partial_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1}$. It is plain that $\boldsymbol{C}$ and $\boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}$ are isomorphic in the category of chain complexes and that $Z(C)=Z\left(C^{\prime}\right), B(C)=B\left(C^{\prime}\right), H(C)=H\left(C^{\prime}\right)$. Thus, in the homology theory of chain-complexes, we are free, if we wish, to change the signs of some of the differentials.

We finally make some remarks about the dual notion.
Definition. A cochain complex $\boldsymbol{C}=\left\{C^{n}, \delta^{n}\right\}$ is an object in $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{\boldsymbol{Z}}$ together with an endomorphism $\boldsymbol{\delta}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}$ of degree +1 with $\boldsymbol{\delta} \boldsymbol{\delta}=0$. Again $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ is called the differential (or cohoundary operator). Morphisms of cochain complexes or cochain maps are defined analogously to chain maps. Given a cochain complex $C=\left\{C^{n}, \delta^{n}\right\}$ we define its cohomology module $H(C)=\left\{H^{n}(C)\right\}$ by

$$
H^{n}(C)=\operatorname{ker} \delta^{n} / \operatorname{im} \delta^{n-1}, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z} .
$$

With the obvious definition of induced maps, $H(-)$ then becomes a functor, the cohomology functor. In case of a cochain complex we will speak of cochains, coboundaries, cocycles, cohomologous cocycles, cohomology classes.

Of course the difference between the concepts "chain complex" and "cochain complex" is quite formal, so it will be unnecessary to deal with their theories separately. Indeed, given a chain complex $C=\left\{C_{n}, \partial_{n}\right\}$ we obtain a cochain complex $D=\left\{D^{n}, \delta^{n}\right\}$ by setting $D^{n}=C_{-n}, \delta^{n}=\partial_{-n}$. Conversely given a cochain complex we obtain a chain complex by this procedure.

Examples. (a) Let $A, B$ be $\Lambda$-modules and let $R \xrightarrow{\mu} P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A$ be a projective presentation of $A$. We define a cochain complex $C$ of abelian groups as follows:

and $C^{n}=0$ for $n \neq 0,1$. We immediately deduce

$$
\begin{aligned}
H^{0}(C) & =\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B), \\
H^{1}(C) & =\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}(A, B), \\
H^{n}(C) & =0 . n \neq 0.1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Consequently we obtain the groups $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(A, B), \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$ as cohomology groups of an appropriate cochain complex $C$. $\ln$ Section 7 and 8 this procedure will lead us to an important generalisation of $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$.
(b) Let $B \xrightarrow{\kappa} I \xrightarrow{\imath} S$ be an injective presentation of $B$ and form the cochain complex $C^{\prime}$, where $C^{\prime n}=0, n \neq 0,1$, and


One obtains

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H^{0}\left(C^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B), \\
& H^{1}\left(C^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}(A, B), \\
& H^{n}\left(C^{\prime}\right)=0, n \neq 0,1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

(c) Let $A$ be a left $\Lambda$-module and $B$ a right $\Lambda$-module. Take a projective presentation $R \xrightarrow{\mu} P \xrightarrow{\ell} A$ of $A$ and form the chain complex $D$,


We easily see that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{0}(D)=A \otimes_{\Lambda} B, \\
& H_{1}(D)=\operatorname{Tor}^{4}(A, B) . \\
& H_{n}(D)=0 . n \neq 0.1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

In Section 11 this procedure will be generalized.
(d) We obtain yet another example by starting with a projective presentation of $B$ and proceeding in a manner analogous to example (c). The homology of the complex $D^{\prime}$ so obtained is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{0}\left(D^{\prime}\right)=A \otimes_{\Lambda} B, \\
& H_{1}\left(D^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{Tor}^{\Lambda}(A, B), \\
& H_{n}\left(D^{\prime}\right)=0 . n \neq 0.1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

The reader should note that in all four of the above examples the homology does not depend on the particular projective or injective presentation that was chosen. This phenomenon will be clarified and generalized in Sections 4, 5.

We conclude with the following warning concerning the notations. Although we have so far adopted the convention that the dimension index $n$ appears as a subscript for chain complexes and as a superscript for cochain complexes. we may at times find it convenient to write the $n$ as a subscript even in cochain complexes. This will prove particularly convenient in developing the theory of injective resolutions in Section 4.

## Exercises:

1.1. Show that if $\boldsymbol{C}$ is a complex of abelian groups in which each $C_{n}$ is free, then $Z_{n}$ and $B_{n}$ are also free, and that $Z_{n}$ is a direct summand in $C_{n}$.
1.2. Given a chain $\operatorname{map} \boldsymbol{\varphi}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$, construct a chain complex as follows:

$$
\begin{gathered}
E_{n}=C_{n-1} \oplus D_{n}, \\
\partial(a, b)=(-\partial a, \varphi a+\partial b), \quad a \in C_{n-1}, b \in D_{n} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Show that $\boldsymbol{E}=\left\{\boldsymbol{E}_{n}, \partial_{n}\right\}$ is indeed a chain complex and that the inclusion $\boldsymbol{D} \subseteq \boldsymbol{E}$ is a chain map.
Write $\boldsymbol{E}=\boldsymbol{E}(\varphi)$, the mapping cone of $\varphi$. Show how a commutative diagram of chain maps

induces a chain map $\boldsymbol{E}(\varphi) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{E}\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)$ and obtain in this way a suitable functor and a natural transformation.
1.3. Verify that the category of chain complexes is an abelian category.
1.4. Show that $Z_{n}, B_{n}$ depend functorially on the complex.
1.5. Let $C$ be a free abelian chain complex with $C_{n}=0, n<0, n>N$. Let $\varrho_{n}$ be the rank of $C_{n}$ and let $p_{n}$ be the rank of $H_{n}(C)$. Show that

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{N}(-1)^{n} \varrho_{n}=\sum_{n=0}^{N}(-1)^{n} p_{n}
$$

1.6. Given a chain complex $C$ of right $\Lambda$-modules, a left $\Lambda$-module $A$ and a right $\Lambda$-module $B$, suggest definitions for the chain complex $C \otimes_{A} A$, and the cochain complex $\mathrm{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C . B)$.

## 2. The Long Exact (Co)Homology Sequence

We have already remarked that the category of (co)chain complexes is abelian. Consequently we can speak of short exact sequences of (co)chain complexes. It is clear that the sequence $\boldsymbol{A} \stackrel{\varphi}{\boldsymbol{\varphi}} \boldsymbol{B} \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{\varphi}} \boldsymbol{C}$ of complexes is short exact if and only if $0 \rightarrow A_{n} \xrightarrow{\varphi_{n}} B_{n} \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{w}_{n}} C_{n} \rightarrow 0$ is exact for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 2.1. Given a short exact sequence $\boldsymbol{A} \stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\hookrightarrow} \boldsymbol{B} \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{\varphi}} \boldsymbol{C}$ of chain complexes (cochain complexes) there exists a morphism of degree -1 (degree +1 ) of graded modules $\omega: H(C) \rightarrow H(A)$ such that the triangle

is exact. (We call $\omega$ the connecting homomorphism.)
Explicitly the theorem claims that, in the case of chain complexes, the sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \xrightarrow{\omega_{n+1}} H_{n}(A) \xrightarrow{\varphi_{*}} H_{n}(B) \xrightarrow{\varphi_{*}} H_{n}(C) \xrightarrow{\omega_{n}} H_{n-1}(A) \rightarrow \cdots \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and, in the case of cochain complexes, the sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \xrightarrow{\omega^{n-1}} H^{n}(A) \xrightarrow{\varphi_{*}} H^{n}(B) \xrightarrow{\varphi_{*}} H^{n}(C) \xrightarrow{\omega^{n}} H^{n+1}(A) \rightarrow \cdots \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

is exact.
We first prove the following lemma.
Lemma 2.2. $\partial_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ induces $\tilde{\partial}_{n}: \operatorname{coker} \partial_{n+1} \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \tilde{\partial}_{n-1}$ with $\operatorname{ker} \tilde{\partial}_{n}=H_{n}(\boldsymbol{C})$ and coker $\tilde{\tilde{d}}_{n}=H_{n-1}(\boldsymbol{C})$.

Proof. Since im $\partial_{n+1} \cong \operatorname{ker} \partial_{n}$ and $\operatorname{im} \partial_{n} \subseteq \operatorname{ker} \partial_{n-1}$ the differential $\partial_{n}$ induces a map $\tilde{\partial}_{n}$ as follows:

$$
\operatorname{coker}_{\partial_{n+1}}=C_{n} / i \operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1} \rightarrow C_{n} / \operatorname{ker} \partial_{n} \cong \operatorname{im} \partial_{n} \cong \operatorname{ker} \partial_{n-1} .
$$

One easily computes $\operatorname{ker} \tilde{\tilde{c}_{n}}=\operatorname{ker} \partial_{n} / \operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1}=H_{n}(C)$ and

$$
\text { coker } \tilde{\partial}_{n}=\operatorname{ker} \partial_{n-1} / \operatorname{im} \partial_{n}=H_{n-1}(C)
$$

Proof of Theorem 2.1. We give the proof for chain complexes only, the proof for cochain complexes being analogous. We first look at the diagram


By Lemma III. 5.1 the sequence at the top and the sequence at the bottom are exact. Thus by Lemma 2.2 we obtain the diagram


Applying Lemma III. 5.1 again we deduce the existence of

$$
\omega_{n}: H_{n}(\boldsymbol{C}) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(\boldsymbol{A})
$$

such that the sequence (2.1) is exact. $\quad]$
If we recall the explicit definition of $\omega_{n}$, then it is seen to be equivalent to the following procedure. Let $c \in C_{n}$ be a representative cycle of the homology class $[c] \in H_{n}(C)$. Choose $b \in B_{n}$ with $\psi(b)=c$. Since (suppressing the subscripts) $\psi \partial b=\partial \psi b=\partial c=0$ there exists $a \in A_{n-1}$ with $\varphi a=\partial b$. Then $\varphi \partial a=\partial \varphi a=\partial \partial b=0$. Hence $a$ is a cycle in $Z_{n-1}(A)$ and therefore determines an element $[a] \in H_{n-1}(A)$. The map $\omega_{n}$ is defined by $\omega_{n}[c]=[a]$.

We remark that the naturality of the ker-coker sequence of Lemma III. 5.1 immediately implies the naturality of sequences (2.1) and (2.2). If we are given a commutative diagram of chain complexes

with exact rows, the homology sequence (2.1) will be mapped into the homology sequence arising from $\boldsymbol{A}^{\prime} \longrightarrow \boldsymbol{B}^{\prime} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}$, in such a way that the diagram is commutative.

Examples. (a) Let $R \xrightarrow{\mu} F \stackrel{\varepsilon}{\natural} A$ be a free presentation of the abelian
 We form the cochain complexes


Since $F$ and $R$ are free abelian both columns of the diagram are short exact, i.e. $\boldsymbol{C}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\beta^{*}} \boldsymbol{C} \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\prime \prime}} \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime \prime}$ is a short exact sequence of cochain complexes. By Theorem 2.1 we obtain an exact sequence in cohomology

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\beta_{i}} \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \xrightarrow{\beta^{\prime \prime}} \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega} \\
& \xrightarrow{\omega} \operatorname{Ext}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\beta_{i}} \operatorname{Ext}(A, B) \xrightarrow{\beta^{\prime}} \operatorname{Ext}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \longrightarrow 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

The reader may compare the above sequence with the sequence in Theorem III. 5.2.
(b) For a short exact sequence $A^{\prime} \hookrightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ of abelian groups and an abelian group $B$, we choose an injective presentation of $B$. Proceeding analogously as in example (a) we obtain the sequence of Theorem III. 5.3.

Both sequences will be generalised in Sections 7, 8.

## Exercises:

2.1. Use Theorem 2.1 to associate with a chain $\operatorname{map} \varphi: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$ an exact sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow H_{n}(C) \rightarrow H_{n}(D) \rightarrow H_{n}(E(\varphi)) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(C) \rightarrow \cdots .
$$

[Hint: Use the exact sequence $D_{n} \rightarrow E_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1}$.] Deduce that $H(E(\varphi))=0$ if and only if $\varphi_{*}: H(C) \leadsto H(D)$. Show that the association proved above is functorial.
2.2. Using a free presentation of the abelian group $A$ and Theorem 2.1, deduce the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(A, G^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(A, G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(A, G^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow A \otimes G^{\prime} \rightarrow A \otimes G \rightarrow A \otimes G^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0
$$

associated with the short exact sequence $G^{\prime} \mapsto G \rightarrow G^{\prime \prime}$ (see Theorem III. 8.2.).
2.3. Let

be a map of short exact sequences of chain complexes. Show that if any two of $\varphi^{\prime}, \varphi, \varphi^{\prime \prime}$ induce isomorphisms in homology, so does the third.
2.4. Given a short exact sequence of chain complexes $\boldsymbol{A} \xrightarrow{\varphi} \boldsymbol{B} \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{\varphi}} \boldsymbol{C}$ in an arbitrary abelian category, prove the existence of a long exact homology sequence of the form (2.1).

## 3. Homotopy

Let $\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D}$ be two chain complexes and $\boldsymbol{\varphi}, \boldsymbol{\psi}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$ two chain maps. It is an important and frequently arising question when $\varphi$ and $\boldsymbol{\psi}$ induce the same homomorphism between $H(C)$ and $H(D)$. To study this problem we shall introduce the notion of homotopy; that is, we shall describe a relation between $\varphi$ and $\boldsymbol{\psi}$ which will be sufficient for

$$
\varphi_{*}=\psi_{*}: H(C) \rightarrow H(D)
$$

On the other hand, the relation is not necessary for $\varphi_{*}=\boldsymbol{\psi}_{*}$, so that the notion of homotopy does not fully answer the above question; it is however most useful because of its good behavior with respect to chain maps and functors (see Lemmas 3.3, 3.4). In most cases where one is able to show that $\varphi_{*}=\boldsymbol{\psi}_{*}$, this is proved as a consequence of the existence of a homotopy, in particular in all the cases we are concerned with in this book. We deal here with the case of chain complexes and leave to the reader the easy task of translating the results for cochain complexes.

Definition. A homotopy $\Sigma: \varphi \rightarrow \psi$ between two chain maps $\varphi, \psi: C \rightarrow D$ is a morphism of degree +1 of graded modules $\Sigma: C \rightarrow D$ such that $\boldsymbol{\psi}-\boldsymbol{\varphi}=\boldsymbol{\partial} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}+\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$, i.e., such that, for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\psi_{n}-\varphi_{n}=\partial_{n+1} \Sigma_{n}+\Sigma_{n-1} \partial_{n} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We say that $\varphi, \psi$ are homotopic, and write $\varphi \simeq \psi$ if there exists a homotopy $\Sigma: \varphi \rightarrow \psi$.

The essential fact about homotopies is given in the following
Proposition 3.1. If the two chain maps $\varphi, \psi: C \rightarrow D$ are homotopic. then $H(\varphi)=H(\psi): H(C) \rightarrow H(D)$.

Proof. Let $z \in \operatorname{ker} \partial_{n}$ be a cycle in $C_{n}$. If $\Sigma: \varphi \rightarrow \psi$, then

$$
(\psi-\varphi) z=\partial \Sigma z+\Sigma \partial z=\partial \Sigma z
$$

since $\partial z=0$. Hence $\psi(z)-\varphi(z)$ is a boundary in $D_{n}$, i.e. $\psi(z)$ and $\varphi(z)$ are homologous. [

The reader is again warned that the converse of Proposition 3.1 is not true; at the end of this section we shall give an example of two chain maps which induce the same homomorphism in homology but are not
homotopic. In the special case where $\boldsymbol{\varphi}=\mathbf{0}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}$ and $\boldsymbol{\psi}=\mathbf{1}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}$ a homotopy $\Sigma: 0 \rightarrow \mathbf{1}$ is called a contracting homotopy for $\boldsymbol{C}$. We are then given homomorphisms $\Sigma_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n+1}$ with $\partial_{n+1} \Sigma_{n}+\Sigma_{n-1} \partial_{n}=1, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. By Proposition 3.1 an immediate consequence of the existence of such a contracting homotopy is $H(\boldsymbol{C})=0$, hence the complex $\boldsymbol{C}$ is exact. Indeed, very often where it is to be proved that a complex $C$ is exact, this is achieved by constructing a contracting homotopy. We proceed with a number of results on the homotopy relation.

Lemma 3.2. The homotopy relation " $\simeq$ " is an equivalence relation.
Proof. Plainly " $\simeq$ " is reflexive and symmetric. To check transitivity, let $\psi-\varphi=\partial \Sigma+\Sigma \partial$ and $\chi-\psi=\partial T+T \partial$ (suppressing the subscripts). An easy calculation shows $\chi-\varphi=\partial(\Sigma+T)+(\Sigma+T) \partial$. $]$

Lemma 3.3. Let $\varphi \simeq \psi: C \rightarrow D$ and $\varphi^{\prime} \simeq \psi^{\prime}: D \rightarrow E$, then

$$
\varphi^{\prime} \varphi \simeq \boldsymbol{\psi}^{\prime} \psi: C \rightarrow E .
$$

Proof. Let $\psi-\varphi=\partial \Sigma+\Sigma \partial$; then

$$
\varphi^{\prime} \psi-\varphi^{\prime} \varphi=\varphi^{\prime} \partial \Sigma+\varphi^{\prime} \Sigma \partial=\partial\left(\varphi^{\prime} \Sigma\right)+\left(\varphi^{\prime} \Sigma\right) \partial .
$$

Also, from $\psi^{\prime}-\varphi^{\prime}=\partial T+T \boldsymbol{\lambda}$ we conclude

$$
\psi^{\prime} \psi-\varphi^{\prime} \psi=\partial T \psi+T \partial \psi=\partial(T \psi)+(T \psi) \partial .
$$

The result then follows by transitivity. $\square$
Indeed we may say that if $\Sigma: \varphi \rightarrow \psi$ is a homotopy, then

$$
\varphi^{\prime} \Sigma: \varphi^{\prime} \varphi \rightarrow \varphi^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\psi}
$$

is a homotopy: and if $\boldsymbol{T}: \boldsymbol{\varphi}^{\prime} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\psi}^{\prime}$ is a homotopy then $\boldsymbol{T} \boldsymbol{\psi}: \boldsymbol{\varphi}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\psi} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\psi}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\psi}$ is a homotopy.

Lemma 3.4. Let $\boldsymbol{F}: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{A^{\prime}}$ be an additive functor. If $\boldsymbol{C}$ and $\boldsymbol{D}$ are chain complexes of 1 -modules and $\varphi \simeq \psi: C \rightarrow D$, then $F \varphi \simeq F \psi: F C \rightarrow F D$.

Proof. Let $\Sigma: \varphi \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\psi}$. then

$$
F \psi-F \varphi=F(\psi-\varphi)=F(\partial \Sigma+\Sigma \lambda)=F \partial F \Sigma+F \Sigma F \hat{\sigma} .
$$

Hence $\boldsymbol{F} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}: \boldsymbol{F} \boldsymbol{\varphi} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{F} \boldsymbol{\psi}$.
Lemmas 3.3 and 3.4 show that the equivalence relation " $\simeq$ " behaves nicely with respect to composition of chain maps and with respect to additive functors. Lemma 3.4 together with Proposition 3.1 now immediately yields.

Corollary 3.5. If $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \simeq \boldsymbol{\psi}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$ and if $\boldsymbol{F}$ is an additive functor, then $H(F \varphi)=H(F \psi): H(F C) \rightarrow H(F D) . \quad \square$

We remark that Lemma 3.3 enables one to associate with the category of chain complexes and chain maps the category of chain complexes and homotopy classes of chain maps. The passage is achieved simply by
identifying two chain maps if and only if they are homotopic. The category so obtained is called the homotopy category. By Lemma 3.4 an additive functor $F$ will induce a functor between the homotopy categories and by Proposition 3.1 the homology functor will factor through the homotopy category.

We say that two complexes C. D are of the sume homotopy type (or homotopic) if they are isomorphic in the homotopy category, that is, if there exist chain maps $\varphi: C \rightarrow D$ and $\psi: D \rightarrow C$ such that $\psi \varphi \simeq \mathbf{1}_{C}$ and $\varphi \psi \simeq \mathbf{1}_{\mathrm{D}}$. The chain map $\varphi($ or $\psi)$ is then called a homotopy equivalence.

We conclude this section with the promised example: Take $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
C_{1}=\mathbb{Z}=\left(s_{1}\right) ; \quad C_{0}=\mathbb{Z}=\left(s_{0}\right) ; \quad C_{n}=0 . n \neq 0.1: \quad \partial s_{1}=2 s_{0}: \\
D_{1}=\mathbb{Z}=\left(t_{1}\right): \quad D_{n}=0, n \neq 1 ; \quad \varphi s_{1}=t_{1} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Clearly $\boldsymbol{\varphi}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$ and the zero chain map $\mathbf{0}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$ both induce the zero map in homology. To show that $\varphi$ and 0 are not homotopic. we apply Corollary 3.5 to the functor $-\otimes \mathbb{Z}_{2}$; we obviously obtain

$$
H_{1}\left(\varphi \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \neq H_{1}\left(0 \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) ;
$$

in fact,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{1}\left(\varphi \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=1: \mathbb{Z}_{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{2}, \\
& H_{1}\left(0 \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=0: \mathbb{Z}_{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Exercises:

3.1. Show that if $\varphi \simeq \boldsymbol{\varphi}: C \rightarrow D$. then $E(\varphi) \cong E(\varphi)$ (see Exercise 1.2).
3.2. Show that, further, if $\varphi \simeq \boldsymbol{\psi}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$, then the homology sequences for $\varphi$ and $\boldsymbol{\psi}$ of Exercise 2.1 are isomorphic.
3.3. Does $E(\varphi)$ depend functorially on the homotopy class of $\varphi$ ?
3.4. In the example given show directly that no homotopy $\Sigma: 0 \rightarrow \varphi$ exists. Also, show that $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\varphi, \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \neq \operatorname{Hom}\left(\mathbf{0}, \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$.
3.5. Suggest an appropriate definition for a homotopy between homotopies.

## 4. Resolutions

In this section we introduce a special kind of (co)chain complex which is a basic tool in developing the theory of derived functors. We shall restrict our attention for the moment to positive chain complexes, that is, chain complexes of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
C: \cdots \rightarrow C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow C_{1} \rightarrow C_{0} \rightarrow 0 \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $C_{n}=0$ for $n<0$.
Definition. The chain complex (4.1) is called projective if $C_{n}$ is projective for all $n \geqq 0$; it is called acyclic if $H_{n}(\boldsymbol{C})=0$ for $n \geqq 1$.

Note that $C$ is acyclic if and only if the sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow C_{1} \rightarrow C_{0} \rightarrow H_{0}(C) \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact. A projective and acyclic complex

$$
\boldsymbol{P}: \cdots \rightarrow P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{0}
$$

together with an isomorphism $H_{0}(P) \xrightarrow{\sim} A$ is called a projective resolution of $A$. In the sequel we shall identify $H_{0}(P)$ with $A$ via the given isomorphism.

Theorem 4.1. Let $C: \cdots \rightarrow C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow C_{0}$ be projective and let $D: \cdots \rightarrow D_{n} \rightarrow D_{n-1} \cdots \rightarrow D_{0}$ be acyclic. Then there exists, to every homomorphism $\varphi: H_{0}(C) \rightarrow H_{0}(D)$, a chain map $\varphi: C \rightarrow D$ inducing $\varphi$. Moreover two chain maps inducing $\varphi$ are homotopic.

Proof. The chain map $\boldsymbol{\varphi}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$ is defined recursively. Since $\boldsymbol{D}$ is acyclic, $D_{0} \rightarrow H_{0}(D) \longrightarrow 0$ is exact. By the projectivity of $C_{0}$ there exists $\varphi_{0}: C_{0} \rightarrow D_{0}$ such that the diagram

is commutative. Suppose $n \geqq 1$ and $\varphi_{0}, \varphi_{1}, \ldots, \varphi_{n-1}$ are defined. We consider the diagram

(If $n=1$, set $C_{-1}=H_{0}(C), D_{-1}=H_{0}(D)$, and the right-hand square above is just (4.2).) We have $\partial \varphi_{n-1} \partial=\varphi_{n-2} \partial \partial=0$. Hence

$$
\operatorname{im} \varphi_{n-1} \partial \cong \operatorname{ker}\left(\partial: D_{n-1} \rightarrow D_{n-2}\right)
$$

Since $D$ is acyclic, $\operatorname{ker} \partial_{n-1}=\operatorname{im}\left(\lambda: D_{n} \rightarrow D_{n-1}\right)$. The projectivity of $C_{n}$ allows us to find $\varphi_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow D_{n}$ such that $\varphi_{n-1} \partial=\partial \varphi_{n}$. This completes the inductive step.

Now let $\varphi=\left\{\varphi_{n}\right\}, \psi=\left\{\psi_{n}\right\}$ be two chain maps inducing the given $\varphi: H_{0}(C) \rightarrow H_{0}(D)$. Recursively we shall define a homotopy $\Sigma: \boldsymbol{\psi} \rightarrow \varphi$. First consider the diagram


Since $\varphi_{0}$ and $\psi_{0}$ both induce $\varphi, \varphi_{0}-\psi_{0}$ maps $C_{0}$ into

$$
\operatorname{ker}\left(D_{0} \rightarrow H_{0}(D)\right)=\operatorname{im}\left(D_{1} \rightarrow D_{0}\right) .
$$

Since $\boldsymbol{C}$ is projective, there exists $\Sigma_{0}: C_{0} \rightarrow D_{1}$ such that $\varphi_{0}-\psi_{0}=\lambda \Sigma_{0}$.
Now suppose $n \geqq 1$ and suppose that $\Sigma_{0} \ldots . . \Sigma_{n-1}$ are defined in such a way that $\varphi_{r}-\psi_{r}=\lambda \Sigma_{r}+\Sigma_{r-1} \partial, r \leqq n-1\left(\Sigma_{-1} \lambda\right.$ being understood as zero). Consider the diagram


We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial\left(\varphi_{n}-\psi_{n}-\Sigma_{n-1} \partial\right) & =\varphi_{n-1} \partial-\psi_{n-1} \partial-\partial \Sigma_{n-1} \partial \\
& =\left(\varphi_{n-1}-\psi_{n-1}-\partial \Sigma_{n-1}\right) \partial=\Sigma_{n-2} \partial \partial=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $\varphi_{n}-\psi_{n}-\Sigma_{n-1} \partial$ maps $C_{n}$ into

$$
\operatorname{ker}\left(\lambda: D_{n} \rightarrow D_{n-1}\right)=\operatorname{im}\left(\partial: D_{n+1} \rightarrow D_{n}\right) .
$$

Since $C_{n}$ is projective, there exists $\Sigma_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow D_{n+1}$ such that

$$
\varphi_{n}-\psi_{n}-\Sigma_{n-1} \partial=\partial \Sigma_{n} .
$$

Lemma 4.2. To every $\Lambda$-module $A$ there exists a projective resolution.
Proof. Choose a projective presentation $R_{1} \hookrightarrow P_{0} \rightarrow A$ of $A$; then a projective presentation $R_{2} \hookrightarrow P_{1} \rightarrow R_{1}$ of $R_{1}$, etc. Plainly the complex

$$
\boldsymbol{P}: \cdots \rightarrow P_{n} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n}} P_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{0}
$$

where $\partial_{n}: P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n-1}$ is defined by $P_{n} \rightarrow R_{n} \hookrightarrow P_{n-1}$ is a projective resolution of $A$. For it is clearly projective and acyclic, and $H_{0}(P)=A$. $\left.\quad\right]$

Notice that every projective resolution arises in the manner described. Thus we see that the existence of projective resolutions is equivalent to the existence of projective presentations. In general we shall say that an abelian category $\mathfrak{A}$ has enough projectives if to every object $A$ in $\mathfrak{A}$ there is at least one projective presentation of $A$. By the argument above every object in $\mathfrak{A}$ then has a projective resolution.

We also remark that in the category of abelian groups, we can take $P_{1}=R_{1}, P_{n}=0, n \geqq 2$, because an abelian group is projective if and only if it is free and a subgroup of a free group is free. We shall see later that for modules it may happen that no finite projective resolution exists, that is, there may be no projective resolution $P$ of $A$ such that $P_{n}=0$ for $n$ sufficiently large.

Proposition 4.3. Two resolutions of $A$ are canonically of the same homotopy type.

Proof. Let $\boldsymbol{C}$ and $\boldsymbol{D}$ be two projective resolutions of $A$. By Theorem 4.1 there exist chain maps $\varphi: C \rightarrow D$ and $\boldsymbol{\varphi}: \boldsymbol{D} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}$ inducing the identity in $H_{0}(C)=A=H_{0}(D)$. The composition $\psi \varphi: C \rightarrow C$ as well as the identity $1: C \rightarrow C$ induce the identity in $A$. By Theorem 4.1 we have $\psi \varphi \simeq 1$. Analogously $\varphi \boldsymbol{\varphi} \simeq 1$. Hence $C$ and $D$ are of the same homotopy type. Since the homotopy class of the homotopy equivalence $\varphi: C \rightarrow D$ is uniquely determined, the resolutions $C$ and $D$ are canonically of the same homotopy type. $\square$

We conclude this section with a remark on the dual situation. We look at positive cochain complexes, that is, cochain complexes of the form

$$
C: 0 \rightarrow C_{0} \rightarrow C_{1} \rightarrow C_{2} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n+1} \rightarrow \cdots,
$$

with $\boldsymbol{C}_{n}=0$ for $n<0$.
We call $C$ injective if each $C_{n}$ is injective, and acyclic if $\mathrm{H}^{n}(C)=0$ for $n \neq 0$. We then can prove the dual of Theorem 4.1.

Theorem 4.4. Let $C: C_{0} \rightarrow C_{1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n+1} \rightarrow \cdots$ be acyclic and $D: D_{0} \rightarrow D_{1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow D_{n} \rightarrow D_{n+1} \rightarrow \cdots$ be injective. Then there exists, to every homomorphism $\varphi: H^{0}(C) \rightarrow H^{0}(D)$, a cochain map $\varphi: C \rightarrow D$ inducing $\varphi$. Moreover two cochain maps inducing $\varphi$ are homotopic.

A complex $I: I_{0} \rightarrow I_{1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow I_{n} \rightarrow I_{n+1} \rightarrow \cdots$ which is injective and acyclic with $H^{0}(I)=A$ is called an injective resolution of $A$.

Plainly an abelian category $\mathfrak{H}$, for example $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$, in which every object has an injective presentation will have injective resolutions, and conversely. Such a category will be said to have enough injectives. For later use we finally record the following consequence of Theorem 4.4.

Proposition 4.5. Two injective resolutions of $A$ are canonically of the same homotopy type. $\quad \square$

## Exercises:

4.1. Use Theorem 4.1 to show that if $P$ is projective with $P_{n}=0, n<0$, then $H(P)=0$ if and only if $\mathbf{1} \simeq \mathbf{0}: P \rightarrow P$.
4.2. Let $\boldsymbol{\varphi}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$ be a chain map of the projective complex $\boldsymbol{C}$ into the projective complex $D$ with $C_{n}=D_{n}=0, n<0$. Use the chain complex $E(\varphi)$ and Exercise 4.1 to show that $\varphi$ is a homotopy equivalence if and only if $\varphi_{*}: H(C) \sim H(D)$.
4.3. Dualize Exercises 4.1, 4.2 above.
4.4. Let $\boldsymbol{\varphi}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$ be a chain map, where $\boldsymbol{C}$ is a free chain complex with $C_{n}=0, n<0$.

Let $\{\gamma\}$ be a fixed homogeneous basis for $C$ and write $\delta<\gamma$ (' $\delta$ is a face of $\gamma^{\prime}$ ) if $\delta$ appears in $\partial(\gamma)$ with non-zero coefficient. A function $A$ from the basis $\{\gamma\}$ to the set of sub-complexes of $D$ is called an acyclic carrier for $\varphi$ if
(i) $\varphi(\gamma)$ is a chain of $A(\gamma)$,
(ii) $H(A(\gamma))=0$, all $\gamma$,
(iii) $\delta<\gamma \Rightarrow A(\delta) \cong A(\gamma)$.

Show that if $\varphi$ admits an acyclic carrier then $\varphi \simeq 0$. [This is a crucial result in the homology theory of polyhedra.] Show that this result generalizes Theorem 4.1 as the latter applies to free chain complexes $\boldsymbol{C}$.
4.5. Let $A^{\prime}$ be a submodule of $A$ and let

be an injective resolution of $A^{\prime}$. Show how to construct an injective resolution

of $A$ such that
(i) $I_{q}^{\prime} \cong I_{q}$.
(ii) $K_{q}^{\prime} \cong K_{q}$, all $q$,
(iii) $K_{q}^{\prime} \longrightarrow K_{q}$ is a pullback.


Show that $I_{0} / I_{0}^{\prime} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow I_{q} / I_{q}^{\prime} \rightarrow I_{q+1} / I_{q+1}^{\prime} \rightarrow \cdots$ is then an injective resolution of $A / A^{\prime}$.

## 5. Derived Functors

We are now prepared to tackle the main theme of homological algebra, that of derived functors. This theory may be regarded - and, indeed historically arose - as a massive generalization of the theory of Tor and Ext, described in Chapter III.

We shall develop the theory in some generality and take as base functor an arbitrary additive and covariant functor $\boldsymbol{T}: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U} \mathbf{b}$. We shall carry out the definition of left derived functors in detail, while we restrict ourselves to some remarks on the definition of right derived functors. We leave even more details to the reader in translating the theory to that of an additive contravariant functor. The theory we present remains valid if the codomain of $T$ is taken to be any abelian category; however in our principal applications the codomain is $\mathfrak{\mathscr { } b}$.

Let $T: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$ be an additive covariant functor. Our aim is to define a sequence of functors $L_{n} T: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U} b, n=0,1,2, \ldots$ the so-called left derived functors of $T$. This definition is effected in several steps.

Given a $A$-module $A$ and a projective resolution $P$ of $A$ we first define abelian groups $L_{n}^{\boldsymbol{p}} T(A), n=0,1, \ldots$, as follows. Consider the complex of
abelian groups $\boldsymbol{T P}: \cdots \rightarrow \boldsymbol{T} \boldsymbol{P}_{n} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{T} P_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \boldsymbol{T} \boldsymbol{P}_{0} \rightarrow 0$ and define

$$
L_{n}^{P} T(A)=H_{n}(T P), \quad n=0,1, \ldots
$$

We shall show below that, if $T$ is a given additive functor, $L_{n}^{P} T(A)$ does not depend on the resolution $\boldsymbol{P}$, but only on $A$, and that for a given $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ it is possible to define an induced map $\alpha_{*}: L_{n}^{p} T A \rightarrow L_{n}^{p^{*}} T A^{\prime}$ making $L_{n}^{p} T(-)$ into a functor.

Let $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ be a homomorphism and let $\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}$ be projective resolutions of $A, A^{\prime}$ respectively. By Theorem 4.1 there exists a chain map $\alpha: \boldsymbol{P} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}$ inducing $\alpha$, which is determined up to homotopy. By Corollary 3.5 we obtain a map

$$
\alpha\left(\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}\right): L_{n}^{P} T A \rightarrow L_{n}^{P^{P}} T A^{\prime}, \quad n=0,1, \ldots
$$

which is independent of the choice of $\alpha$.
Next consider $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}, \alpha^{\prime}: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ and projective resolutions $\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime \prime}$ of $A, A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}$ respectively. The composition $\alpha^{\prime} \alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ induces, by the above, a map $\alpha^{\prime} \alpha\left(\boldsymbol{P}, P^{\prime \prime}\right): L_{n}^{P} T A \rightarrow L_{n}^{P^{\prime \prime}} T A^{\prime \prime}$ which may be constructed via a chain map $\boldsymbol{P} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime \prime}$ inducing $\alpha^{\prime} \alpha$. We choose for this chain map the composition of a chain map $\alpha: \boldsymbol{P} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}$ inducing $\alpha$ and a chain map $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\prime}: \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime \prime}$ inducing $\alpha^{\prime}$. We thus obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\alpha^{\prime} \alpha\right)\left(\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime \prime}\right)=\alpha^{\prime}\left(\boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime \prime}\right)=\alpha\left(\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}\right) \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Also it is plain that $1_{A}: A \rightarrow A$ yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{1}_{A}(\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{P})=\text { identity of } L_{n}^{\boldsymbol{P}} T A . \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We are now prepared to prove
Proposition 5.1. Let $\boldsymbol{P} . \boldsymbol{Q}$ be two projective resolutions of $A$. Then there is a canonical isomorphism

$$
\eta=\eta_{\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{Q}}: L_{n}^{\boldsymbol{P}} T A \underset{\rightarrow}{\sim} L_{n}^{\mathbf{Q}} T A, \quad n=0,1, \ldots .
$$

Proof. Let $\boldsymbol{\eta}: \boldsymbol{P} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{Q}$ be a chain map inducing $1_{\boldsymbol{A}}$. Its homotopy class is uniquely determined; moreover it is clear from Proposition 4.3 that $\eta$ is a homotopy equivalence. Hence we obtain a canonical isomorphism

$$
\eta=1_{A}(\boldsymbol{P}, Q): L_{n}^{P} T A \xrightarrow[\rightarrow]{\sim} L_{n}^{\mathbf{Q}} T A, \quad n=0,1, \ldots
$$

which may be computed via any chain map $\boldsymbol{\eta}: \boldsymbol{P} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{Q}$ inducing $1_{A}$. $\quad \square$
By (5.1) and (5.2) $\eta_{\boldsymbol{Q}, \boldsymbol{R}} \eta_{\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{Q}}=\eta_{\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{R}}$ for three resolutions $\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{Q}, \boldsymbol{R}$ of $A$, and $\eta_{P, P}=1$. Thus we are allowed to identify the groups $L_{n}^{P} T A$ and $L_{n}^{Q} T A$ via the isomorphism $\eta$. Accordingly we shall drop the superscript $\boldsymbol{P}$ and write from now on $L_{n} T A$ for $L_{n}^{P} T A$.

Finally we have to define, for a given $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$, an induced homomorphism

$$
\alpha_{*}: L_{n} T A \rightarrow L_{n} T A^{\prime}, \quad n=0,1, \ldots
$$

Of course, we define

$$
\alpha_{*}=\alpha\left(\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}\right): L_{n}^{P} T A \rightarrow L_{n}^{p^{\prime}} T A^{\prime} .
$$

Indeed, if we do so, then (5.1) and (5.2) will ensure that $L_{n} T$ is a functor. The only thing left to check is the fact that the definition of $\alpha_{*}$ is compatible with the identification made under $\eta$. This is achieved by the following computation. Let $\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{Q}$ be projective resolutions of $A$ and $\boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{Q}^{\prime}$ projective resolutions of $A^{\prime}$. Then by (5.1)

$$
\begin{aligned}
\eta^{\prime}-\alpha\left(\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}\right) & =1_{A} \cdot\left(\boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{Q}^{\prime}\right)=\alpha\left(\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}\right)=\alpha\left(\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{Q}^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\alpha\left(\boldsymbol{Q}, \boldsymbol{Q}^{\prime}\right)=1_{A}(\boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{Q})=\alpha\left(\boldsymbol{Q}, \boldsymbol{Q}^{\prime}\right) \eta
\end{aligned}
$$

This completes the definition of the left derived functors. We may summarize the procedures as follows.

Definition. Let $T: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A b b}$ be an additive covariant functor, then $L_{n} T: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A b}, n=0,1, \ldots$, is called the $n$-th left derived functor of $T$. The value of $L_{n} T$ on a $A$-module $A$ is computed as follows. Take a projective resolution $\boldsymbol{P}$ of $A$, consider the complex $\boldsymbol{T P}$ and take homology; then $L_{n} T A=H_{n}(T P)$.

We first note the trivial but sometimes advantageous fact that in order to define the left derived functors $L_{n} T$ it is sufficient that $T$ be given on projectives. In the rest of this section we shall discuss a number of basic results on left derived functors. More general properties will be discussed in Section 6.

Definition. The covariant functor $T: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A b b}$ is called right exact if. for every exact sequence $A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$. the sequence

$$
T A^{\prime} \rightarrow T A \rightarrow T A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact. The reader may readily verify that a right exact functor is additive (see Exercise 5.8). An example of a right exact functor is $B \otimes_{\Lambda}$ - by Proposition III. 7.3.

Proposition 5.2. Let $T: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{b}$ be right exact, then $L_{0} T$ and $T$ are naturally equivalent.

Proof. Let $P$ be a projective resolution of $A$. Then $P_{1} \rightarrow P_{0} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ is exact. Hence $T P_{1} \rightarrow T P_{0} \rightarrow T A \rightarrow 0$ is exact. It follows that $H_{0}(T P) \cong T A$. Plainly the isomorphism is natural.

Proposition 5.3. For $P$ a projective $\Lambda$-module $L_{n} T P=0$ for $n=1,2, \ldots$ and $L_{0} T P=T P$.

Proof. Clearly $P: \cdots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow P_{0} \rightarrow 0$ with $P_{0}=P$ is a projective resolution of $P$. $\quad$

Proposition 5.4. The functors $L_{n} T: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A b}, n=0,1, \ldots$ are additive.
Proof. Let $\boldsymbol{P}$ be a projective resolution of $A$ and $\boldsymbol{Q}$ a projective resolution of $B$, then

$$
P \oplus Q: \cdots \rightarrow P_{n} \oplus Q_{n} \rightarrow P_{n-1} \oplus Q_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{0} \oplus Q_{0} \rightarrow 0
$$

is a projective resolution of $A \oplus B$. Since $T$ is additive we obtain

$$
L_{n} T(A \oplus B)=L_{n} T A \oplus L_{n} T B
$$

The reader may convince himself that $L_{n} T\left(l_{A}\right)$ and $L_{n} T\left(l_{B}\right)$ are the canonical injections. $\quad \square$

Proposition 5.5. Let $K_{q} \stackrel{\mu}{\rightarrow} P_{q-1} \rightarrow P_{q-2} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{0} \rightarrow A$ be an exact sequence with $P_{0}, P_{1}, \ldots, P_{q-1}$ projective. Then if $T$ is right exact, and $q \geqq 1$, the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow L_{q} T A \rightarrow T K_{q} \xrightarrow{\mu_{*}} T P_{q-1}
$$

is exact.
Proof. Let $\cdots \rightarrow P_{q+1} \rightarrow P_{q} \rightarrow K_{q} \rightarrow 0$ be an exact sequence with $P_{q}, P_{q+1}, \ldots$, projective. Then the complex

$$
P: \cdots \rightarrow P_{q+1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{q+1}} P_{q} \xrightarrow[K_{q}]{\partial_{q}} P_{q-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{0} \rightarrow 0
$$

is a projective resolution of $A$. Since $T$ is right exact the top row in the following commutative diagram is exact


The ker-coker sequence of Lemma [II. 5.1 yields the exact sequence

$$
T P_{q+1} \xrightarrow{T\left(\partial_{q+1}\right)} \operatorname{ker} T\left(\partial_{q}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \mu_{*} \rightarrow 0
$$

But since $L_{q} T A=H_{q}(T P)=\operatorname{ker} T\left(\partial_{q}\right)_{i} \operatorname{im} T\left(\partial_{q+1}\right)$ we obtain $\operatorname{ker} \mu_{*} \cong L_{q} T A$, whence the result.

Analogously one proves the following proposition, which does not, however, appear so frequently as Proposition 5.5 in applications.

Proposition 5.6. Let $P_{q} \xrightarrow{\partial_{q}} P_{q-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{0} \rightarrow A$ be an exact sequence with $P_{0}, \ldots, P_{q-1}$ projective. Let $K_{q}=\operatorname{im} \partial_{q}$. Then if $T$ is left exact, and $q \geqq 1$, the sequence

$$
T\left(P_{q}\right) \rightarrow T\left(K_{q}\right) \rightarrow L_{q-1} T A \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact. $\quad \square$
(The definition of left exactness, if not already supplied by the reader. is given prior to Proposition 5.7.)

We conclude this section with some remarks on the definition of right derived functors. Let $\boldsymbol{T}: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U} b$ again be an additive covariant functor. We define right derived functors $R^{n} T: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{n}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}, n=0.1 \ldots$ as follows: For any $\Lambda$-module $A$ we obtain the abelian group $R^{n} T A$ by taking an injective resolution $I$ of $A$, forming the cochain complex $T I$ and taking cohomology: $R^{n} T A=H^{n}(T I), n=0,1, \ldots$ As in the case of left derived functors we prove that $R^{n} T . A$ is independent of the chosen resolution. Thus, given $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ and injective resolutions $I, I^{\prime}$ of $A, A^{\prime}$ respectively, we can find a cochain map $\alpha: I \rightarrow I^{\prime}$ inducing $\alpha$. The cochain map $\boldsymbol{T} \boldsymbol{\alpha}: \mathbf{T I} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{T I} \mathbf{I}^{\prime}$ then induces a homomorphism between cohomology groups, thus

$$
\alpha_{*}: R^{n} T A \rightarrow R^{n} T A^{\prime} . \quad n=0.1 \ldots \ldots
$$

As in the case of left derived functors it is proved that $\alpha_{*}$ is independent of the chosen injective resolutions I.I $I^{\prime}$ and also of the chosen cochain map $\alpha$. Finally it is easy to see that with this definition of induced homomorphisms. $R^{n} T$ becomes a functor. We define

Definition. The functor $T: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$ is called left exact if, for every exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ of $\Lambda$-modules, the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow T A^{\prime} \rightarrow T A \rightarrow T A^{\prime \prime}
$$

is exact. Again, a left exact functor is additive (see Exercise 5.8). An example of a left-exact functor is $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(B,-)$ (see Theorem I. 2.1).

Proposition 5.7. For I an injective $\Lambda$-module $R^{n} T I=0$ for $n=1,2, \ldots$. If $T$ is left-exact, then $R^{0} T$ is naturally equivalent to $T$. $]$

Again of course the functors $R^{n} T$ are additive, and we also have results dual to Propositions 5.5, 5.6. We leave the actual formulation as well as the proofs to the reader.

In case of an additive but contravariant functor $S: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{O} \mathfrak{U}$ the procedure is as follows. The right derived functors $R^{n} S$ are obtained as the right derived functors of the covariant functor $S: \mathfrak{N}_{A}^{\text {opp }} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{b}$. So in order to compute $R^{n} S A$ for a module $A$ we choose a projective resolution P of $A$ (i.e. an injective resolution in $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{\text {opp }}$ ), form the cochain complex $\boldsymbol{S P}$ and take cohomology

$$
R^{n} S A=H^{n}(S P), \quad n=0,1, \ldots
$$

Analogously we obtain the left derived functors of contravariant functors via injective resolutions.

The contravariant functor $S$ is called left exact if $S$, taken as covariant functor $\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}^{\text {opp }} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U} \mathfrak{b}$, is left exact, i.e. if for every exact sequence

$$
A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0
$$

the sequence $0 \rightarrow S A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow S A \rightarrow S A^{\prime}$ is exact. An instance of a left exact contravariant functor is $\mathrm{Hom}_{A}(-, B)$ (see Theorem I. 2.2). Analogously one defines right-exactness. In these cases too results similar to Propositions 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5, 5.6 may be proved. We leave the details to the reader, but would like to make explicit the result corresponding to Proposition 5.5.

Proposition 5.8. Let $K_{q} \xrightarrow{\mu} P_{q-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{0} \rightarrow A$ be an exact sequence with $P_{0}, P_{1}, \ldots, P_{q-1}$ projective. Then if $S$ is left exact contravariant and $q \geqq 1$, the sequence

$$
S P_{q-1} \xrightarrow{\mu} S K_{q} \rightarrow R^{q} S A \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact.

## Exercises:

[In Exercises 5.1, 5.2, 5.5 $T: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U} \mathbf{b}$ is an additive functor and, in Exercise 5.5,

is a projective resolution of $A$.]
5.1. Show that $L_{0} T$ is right exact.
5.2. Show that $L_{m} L_{n} T=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}L_{m} T, & n=0 \\ 0, & n>0 .\end{array}\right.$
5.3. Prove Proposition 5.6.
5.4. Dualize Propositions 5.5 and 5.6 to right derived functors.
5.5. Show that $0 \rightarrow L_{q} T A \rightarrow L_{0} T K_{q} \xrightarrow{\mu_{*}} T P_{q-1}$ is exact, $q \geqq 1$, giving the appropriate interpretation of $\mu_{*}$. Show also that

$$
L_{q} T A \cong L_{q-1} T K_{1} \cong L_{q-2} T K_{2} \cong \cdots \cong L_{1} T K_{q-1}, \quad q \geqq 1
$$

5.6. Give the contravariant forms of the statements of Proposition 5.6 and Exercises 5.4, 5.5.
5.7. Let $\operatorname{Phom}_{A}(A, B)$ consist of those homomorphisms $A \rightarrow B$ which factor through projectives. Show that $\operatorname{Phom}_{\Lambda}(A, B)$ is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B)$. Let $\Pi P(A, B)$ be the quotient group. Show that if $0 \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is exact, then

$$
\Pi P\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \Pi P(A, B) \rightarrow \Pi P\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right)
$$

is exact. Show that $\Pi P(A .-)$ is additive. and that it is left exact if $\Lambda$ is a principal ideal domain. Dualize.
5.8. Prove that right (or left) exact functors are additive.

## 6. The Two Long Exact Sequences of Derived Functors

In this section we will establish the two basic long exact sequences associated with the concept of derived functors. In the first (Theorem 6.1), we vary the object in $\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$ and keep the functor fixed; in the second (Theorem 6.3) we vary the functor and keep the object fixed.

Theorem 6.1. Let $T: \mathfrak{M}_{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A b b}$ be an additive functor and let $A^{\prime} \stackrel{\alpha^{\prime}}{\rightarrow} A \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime \prime}} A^{\prime \prime}$ be a short exact sequence. Then there exist connecting homomorphisms

$$
\omega_{n}: L_{n} T A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow L_{n-1} T A^{\prime}, \quad n=1,2 \ldots
$$

such that the following sequence is exact:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \cdots \rightarrow L_{n} T A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{*}^{\prime}} L_{n} T A \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime}} L_{n} T A^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{\omega_{n}} L_{n-1} T A^{\prime} \rightarrow \cdots  \tag{6.1}\\
& \cdots \rightarrow L_{1} T A^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{\omega_{1}} L_{0} T A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{*}^{\prime}} L_{0} T A \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime \prime}} L_{0} T A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0 .
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. By Lemma III. 5.4 we can construct a diagram with exact rows

with $P_{0}^{\prime}, P_{0}, P_{0}^{\prime \prime}$ projective. Clearly, $P_{0}=P_{0}^{\prime} \oplus P_{0}^{\prime \prime}$. By Lemma III. 5.1 the sequence of kernels

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{ker} \varepsilon^{\prime} \hookrightarrow \operatorname{ker} \varepsilon \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \varepsilon^{\prime \prime} \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

is short exact. Repeating this procedure with the sequence (6.2) in place of $A^{\prime} \mapsto A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ and then proceeding inductively, we construct an exact sequence of complexes

$$
\boldsymbol{P}^{\prime} \stackrel{\alpha^{\prime}}{\rightarrow} \boldsymbol{P}^{\alpha^{\prime \prime}} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime \prime} .
$$

where $\boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime \prime}$ are projective resolutions of $A^{\prime}, A, A^{\prime \prime}$ respectively. Since $T$ is additive and since $P_{n}=P_{n}^{\prime} \oplus P_{n}^{\prime \prime}$ for every $n \geqq 0$, the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow T P^{\prime} \rightarrow T P \rightarrow T P^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0
$$

is short exact. also. Hence Theorem 2.1 yields the definition of

$$
\omega_{n}: H_{n}\left(T P^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n-1}\left(T P^{\prime}\right)
$$

and the exactness of the sequence. We leave it to the reader to prove that the definition of $\omega_{\boldsymbol{n}}$ is independent of the chosen resolutions $\boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{P}, \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime \prime}$ and chain maps $\alpha^{\prime}, \alpha^{\prime \prime}$, and hence only depends on the given short exact sequence. $\square$

Let $\tau: T \rightarrow T^{\prime}$ be a natural transformation between additive covariant functors $T, \boldsymbol{T}^{\prime}: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{A} \mathbf{b}$. For a projective resolution $\boldsymbol{P}$ of $A$ we then obtain a chain map $\tau_{\boldsymbol{P}}: T \boldsymbol{P} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{T}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{P}$ defined by $\left(\tau_{\boldsymbol{P}}\right)_{n}=\tau_{P_{n}}: T P_{n} \rightarrow T^{\prime} P_{n}$, $n=0,1,2, \ldots$. Clearly $\tau_{P}$ induces a natural transformation of the leftderived functors, $\tau_{A}: L_{n} T A \rightarrow L_{n} T^{\prime} A, n=0,1, \ldots$.

We may then express the naturality of (6.1), both with respect to $T$ and with respect to the short exact sequence $A^{\prime} \hookrightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$, in the following portmanteau proposition.

Proposition 6.2. Let $\tau: T \rightarrow T^{\prime}$ be a natural transformation between additive covariant functors $T, T^{\prime}: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U} \mathfrak{b}$ and let the diagram

be commutative with short exact rows. Then the following diagrams are commutative:


The proof is left to the reader. $]$
We now turn to the second long exact sequence.
Definition. A sequence $T^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\tau^{\prime}} T^{\tau^{\prime \prime}} T^{\prime \prime}$ of additive functors

$$
T^{\prime}, T, T^{\prime \prime}: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A b}
$$

and natural transformations $\tau^{\prime}, \tau^{\prime \prime}$ is called exact on projectives if. for every projective $\Lambda$-module $P$. the sequence
is exact.
Theorem 6.3. Let the sequence $T^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\tau^{\prime}} T \xrightarrow{\tau^{\prime \prime}} T^{\prime \prime}$ of additive functors $T^{\prime}, T . T^{\prime \prime}: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{b}$ be exact on projectives. Then, for every $\Lambda$-module $A$, there are connecting homomorphisms

$$
\omega_{n}: L_{n} T^{\prime \prime} A \rightarrow L_{n-1} T^{\prime} A
$$

such that the sequence

$$
\begin{align*}
& \cdots \rightarrow L_{n} T^{\prime} A \xrightarrow{\tau^{\prime}} L_{n} T A \xrightarrow{\tau^{\prime \prime}} L_{n} T^{\prime \prime} A \xrightarrow{\omega_{n}} L_{n-1} T^{\prime} A \rightarrow \cdots \\
& \cdots \rightarrow L_{1} T^{\prime \prime} A \xrightarrow{\omega_{1}} L_{0} T^{\prime} A \xrightarrow{\tau^{\prime}} L_{0} T A \xrightarrow{\tau^{\prime \prime}} L_{0} T^{\prime \prime} A \longrightarrow 0 \tag{6.3}
\end{align*}
$$

is exact.
Proof. Choose a projective resolution $\boldsymbol{P}$ of $A$ and consider the sequence of complexes

$$
0 \rightarrow T^{\prime} P \xrightarrow{\tau^{\prime}} T P \xrightarrow{\tau^{\prime \prime}} T^{\prime \prime} P \rightarrow 0
$$

which is short exact since $T^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\tau^{\prime}} T^{\tau^{\prime \prime}} T^{\prime \prime}$ is exact on projectives. The long exact homology sequence (Theorem 2.1) then yields the connecting homomorphisms $\omega_{n}$ and the exactness of sequence (6.3). $]$

Of course the sequence (6.3) is natural, with respect to both $A$ and the sequence $T^{\prime} \rightarrow T \rightarrow T^{\prime \prime}$. In fact, we have

Proposition 6.4. Let $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ be a homomorphism of 1 -modules and let

be a commutative diagram of additive functors and natural transformations such that the rows are exact on projectives. Then the following diagrams are commutative:


The proof is left to the reader. $\square$

## Exercises:

6.1. Prove Proposition 6.2.
6.2. Prove Proposition 6.4.
6.3. Give an example of a sequence of functors $T^{\prime} \rightarrow T \rightarrow T^{\prime \prime}$ which is exact on projectives, but not exact.
6.4. Use the exact sequences of this section to provide a solution of Exercise 5.5.
6.5. Give a direct proof of the exactness of $L_{0} T A^{\prime} \rightarrow L_{0} T A \rightarrow L_{0} T A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ where $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is exact and $T=\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(B .-)$.
6.6. Consider the category $\mathbb{C}$ of short exact sequences in $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$ and consider the category $\mathfrak{D}$ of morphisms in $\mathfrak{U} \mathbf{b}$. Show that $\omega_{n}$ may be regarded as a functor $\omega_{n}: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$.

## 7. The Functors Ext ${ }_{1}^{n}$ Using Projectives

The (contravariant) functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(-, B)$ is additive. We therefore can define, in particular, right derived functors of $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(-, B)$. These will be the Ext ${ }_{\Lambda}^{n}$ functors.

Definition. $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(-, B)=R^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(-, B)\right), n=0,1, \ldots$.
We recall that this means that the abelian $\operatorname{group}^{\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}}(A, B)$ is computed by choosing a projective resolution $P$ of $A$ and taking cohomology in the cochain complex $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(\boldsymbol{P}, B)$. Since $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(-, B)$ is left exact it follows from Proposition 5.2 that $\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{0}(A, B)=\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B)$. The calculation of $\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}(A, B)$ will justify our notation; we have

Proposition 7.1. $\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}(A, B) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}(A, B)$.
Proof. We consider the projective presentation $R_{1} \xrightarrow{\mu} P_{0} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{\longrightarrow}} A$ of $A$ and apply Proposition 5.8. We obtain the exact sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(P_{0}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(R_{1}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}(A, B)^{\circ} \rightarrow 0
$$

whence it follows that $\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}(A, B) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$ by the definition of the latter (Section III. 2). $\quad$ ]

From the fact that $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(-, B)$ is defined as a right derived functor the following is immediate by Theorem 6.1. Given a short exact sequence $A^{\prime} \mapsto A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ we obtain a long exact sequence
$\cdots \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \xrightarrow{\omega_{m}} \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n+1}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \cdots$.
This sequence is called the long exact Ext-sequence in the first variable. By Proposition 6.2 this sequence is natural, i.e., if we are given a commutative diagram

then the diagram

is commutative, also.
Proposition 7.2. If $P$ is projective and if $I$ is injective, then

$$
\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{n}(P, B)=0=\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{n}(A, I) \quad \text { for } \quad n=1,2, \ldots
$$

Proof. The first assertion is immediate by Proposition 5.3. To prove the second assertion, we merely remark that $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(-, I)$ is an exact functor, so that its $n^{\text {th }}$ derived functor is zero for $n \geqq I$. $]$

Now let $\beta: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ be a homomorphism of $\Lambda$-modules. Plainly $\beta$ induces a natural transformation

$$
\beta: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(-, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(-, B^{\prime}\right) .
$$

By Proposition 6.2 we have that, for any short exact sequence

$$
A^{\prime} \hookrightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime},
$$

the diagram

is commutative. From (7.3) we easily deduce the following proposition.
Proposition 7.3. Ext $_{A}^{n}(-,-), n=0,1, \ldots$ is a bifunctor. $]$
Proposition 7.4. Let $B^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\beta^{\prime}} B \xrightarrow{\beta^{\prime \prime}} B^{\prime \prime}$ be a short exact sequence. then the sequence $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(-, B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\beta_{\dot{*}}} \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(-, B) \xrightarrow{\beta \beta^{\prime}} \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(-, B^{\prime \prime}\right)$ of left exact (contravariant) functors is exact on projectives.

This is trivial. $\square$
By Theorem 6.3 we now obtain
Proposition 7.5. For any 1-module $A$ the short exact sequence

$$
B^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\beta^{\prime}} B^{\beta^{\prime \prime}} B^{\prime \prime}
$$

gives rise to a long exact sequence
$\cdots \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\beta_{i}} \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B) \xrightarrow{\beta_{\mu}^{\prime}} \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega_{n}} \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n+1}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots . \square(7.4)$

Sequence (7.4) is called the long exact Ext-sequence in the second variable. By Proposition 6.4 sequence (7.4) is natural. Indeed, invoking the full force of Proposition 6.4, we infer

Proposition 7.6. Let $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ he a homomorphism and let

be a commutative diagram with short exact rows. Then the following diagrams are commutative:

$\cdots \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega_{n}} \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n+1}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots$

$\cdots \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A, \bar{B}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, \bar{B}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A, \bar{B}^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega_{n}} \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n+1}\left(A, \bar{B}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots$
Diagrams (7.2), (7.3), (7.5), (7.6) show that the long exact Ext-sequences are natural in every respect possible.

## Exercises:

7.1. Let

be a projective resolution of $A$ and let

be an injective resolution of $B$. Establish isomorphisms

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n-1}\left(R_{1}, B\right) \cong \cdots \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(R_{n-1} \cdot B\right) \\
& \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n-1}\left(A, K_{1}\right) \cong \cdots \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(A, K_{n-1}\right), \quad n \geqq 1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

7.2. Suppose given the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow K_{q} \xrightarrow{\mu} P_{q-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{0} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0
$$

with $P_{0}, \ldots, P_{q-1}$ projective. Prove that the sequence

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(P_{q-1}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(K_{q}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{q}(A, B) \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact.
7.3. Let $M^{*}=\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(M, .1)$ for any $\Lambda$-module $M$. Let $P_{1} \rightarrow P_{0} \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$ be an exact sequence of $\Lambda$-modules with $P_{0}, P_{1}$ finitely generated projective. Let

$$
D=\operatorname{coker}\left(P_{0}^{*} \rightarrow P_{1}^{*}\right) .
$$

Show that the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}(D, \Lambda) \rightarrow M \rightarrow M^{* *} \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{2}(D, \Lambda) \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact. (Hint: Consider the diagram

where $K=\operatorname{ker}\left(P_{1}^{*} \rightarrow D\right)=\operatorname{coker}\left(M^{*} \rightarrow P_{0}^{*}\right)$; and show that $P_{0} \rightarrow P_{0}^{* *}$ is an isomorphism.)
7.4. Show that $\omega: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)$ factors through $\Pi P\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right)$ (Exercise 5.7) and deduce that

$$
\Pi P\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \Pi P(A, B) \rightarrow \Pi P\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}(A, B) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

is exact. What does this tell us about left derived functors of $\Pi P(A,-)$ ?
7.5. Establish the existence of an exact sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \Pi P_{n}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \Pi P_{n}(A, B) \rightarrow \Pi P_{n}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \Pi P_{n-1}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

where $\Pi P_{n}(A, B)=\Pi P\left(A, S_{n}\right)$, and

is a projective resolution of $B$.
7.6. Show that $\Pi P_{n}(A, B)=L_{n-1} \operatorname{Hom}(A,-)(B), n \geqq 2$. Does this hold for $n=1$ ?
7.7. A $\Lambda$-module $A$ is said to have projective dimension $\leqq m$. and we write

$$
\text { proj. } \operatorname{dim} . A \leqq m,
$$

if $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{q}(A, B)=0$ for all $q>m$ and all $\Lambda$-modules $B$. Show that the following statements are equivalent:
(i) proj. dim. $A \leqq m$;
(ii) $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{m+1}(A, B)=0$ for all $\Lambda$-modules $B$;
(iii) There exists a projective resolution of $A$ of length $m$, i.e., a resolution

$$
\cdots \rightarrow P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{1} \rightarrow P_{0}
$$

with

$$
P_{m+1}=P_{m+2}=\cdots=0
$$

(iv) In every projective resolution

$$
\cdots \rightarrow P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{1} \rightarrow P_{0}
$$

of $A$ the image of $P_{m} \rightarrow P_{m-1}$ is projective, where $P_{-1}=A$.
(Of course, we write proj. $\operatorname{dim} . A=m$ if proj.dim. $A \leqq m$ but proj.dim. $A \not \leq m-1$.)

## 8. The Functors $\overline{\mathbf{E x t}}_{1}^{\boldsymbol{n}}$ Using Injectives

The covariant functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A,-)$ is additive. We therefore can define, in particular, right derived functors of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A,-)$. These will be the $\overline{\text { Ext }_{A}^{n}}$ functors.

Definition. $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{\Lambda}^{n}(A,-)=R^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A,-)\right), n=0,1, \ldots$.
We recall that this means that the abelian group $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}(A, B)$ is computed by choosing an injective resolution $I$ of $B$ and taking cohomology in the cochain complex $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, I)$. Since $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A,-)$ is left exact

$$
\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{0}(A, B)=\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(A, B)
$$

(Proposition 5.7). In order to compute $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{\Lambda}^{1}(A, B)$ we choose an injective presentation $B \longmapsto I \xrightarrow{\eta^{\prime}} S$ of $B$ and apply the dual of Proposition 5.5. We obtain the exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, I) \xrightarrow{\eta_{\star}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, S) \rightarrow \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{\Lambda}^{1}(A, B) \rightarrow 0 . \tag{8.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

By definitions made in III. 3 it follows that

$$
\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{1}(A, B) \cong \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{\Lambda}(A, B)
$$

This justifies our notation.
The fact that $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}(A,-)$ is defined as a right derived functor immediately yields a number of results.
(1) For any injective $\Lambda$-module $I$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}(A, I)=0 \quad \text { for } \quad n=1,2, \ldots \tag{8.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

(compare Proposition 7.2).
(2) A short exact sequence $B^{\prime} \hookrightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ gives rise to a long exact Ext-sequence:
$\cdots \rightarrow \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}(A, B) \rightarrow \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\bar{\omega}} \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n+1}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots$
(compare sequence (7.4)).
(3) Sequence (8.3) is natural with respect to the short exact sequence (compare diagram (7.6)).
(4) For any projective $\Lambda$-module $P, \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{\Lambda}^{n}(P, B)=0$ for $n=1,2, \ldots$ (compare Proposition 7.2).
(5) A homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ induces a natural transformation $\alpha^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime},-\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A,-)$, and sequence (8.3) is natural with respect to the first variable (compare diagram (7.5)). It follows that $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}(-,-)$ is a bifunctor (compare Proposition 7.3).
(6) A short exact sequence $A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime}} A \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime \prime}} A^{\prime \prime}$ induces a sequence of additive functors $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime \prime},-\right) \xrightarrow{\alpha_{7}^{\prime}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A,-) \xrightarrow{\alpha_{*}^{\prime}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)$ which is exact on injectives and therefore gives rise to a long exact sequence
$\cdots \rightarrow \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}(A, B) \rightarrow \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \xrightarrow{\Phi}{\overline{\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n+1}}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \cdots, ~}_{\cdots}$
(compare sequence (7.1)).
(7) Sequence (8.4) is natural both with respect to the short exact sequence (compare diagram (7.2)) and with respect to the second variable (compare diagram (7.3)).

The conclusion of the reader from all these results must be that the functors $\overline{E x t}^{n}$ and Ext ${ }^{n}$ are rather similar. Indeed we shall prove

Proposition 8.1. The bifunctors $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(-,-)$ and $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}(-,-), n=0,1, \ldots$ are naturally equivalent.

Proof. We will define natural equivalences

$$
\Phi^{n}: \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{n}(-,-) \widetilde{\rightarrow \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}(-,-)}
$$

inductively.
The construction of $\Phi^{n}$ is trivial for $n=0: \Phi^{0}$ is the identity. Now let $B \stackrel{\nu}{\longrightarrow} I \xrightarrow{\eta} S$ be an injective presentation. By Proposition 7.2 and (8.2) we have

$$
\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{n}(A, I)=0=\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}(A, I) \text { for } n=1,2, \ldots
$$

We then consider the long exact Ext-sequence (7.4) and the long exact $\overline{\text { Ext-sequence (8.3). We define }} \Phi_{A, B}^{1}$ by requiring commutativity in the diagram

and, assuming $\Phi^{n}$ defined, we define $\Phi_{A, B}^{n+1}$ by requiring commutativity in the diagram

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, S) \xrightarrow{\omega_{n}} \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n+1}(A, B) \\
& \stackrel{\Phi_{A, S}^{n}}{\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, S) \xrightarrow{\stackrel{\omega_{n}}{\sim}} \stackrel{\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\Phi_{A, B}^{n+1}}}{\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n+1}}(A, B)}
\end{aligned}
$$

We obviously have to check that

1) the definition of $\Phi_{A, B}^{n+1}$ does not depend on the chosen presentation of $B$,
2) $\Phi_{A, B}^{n+1}$ is natural in $B$,
3) $\Phi_{A, B}^{n+1}$ is natural in $A$.

We shall deal in detail with points 1) and 2), but leave point 3 ) to the reader.

So suppose given the following diagram

with $I, I^{\prime}$ injective, and let us consider the cube


We claim that this diagram is commutative. The top square is commutative by naturality of the long Ext-sequence, the bottom square by analogous reasons for Ext. Front and back squares are commutative by definition, the left hand square by the inductive hypothesis that $\Phi_{A, S}^{n}$ is a natural transformation. It then follows that the right hand square also is commutative, since $\omega: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, S) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n+1}(A, B)$ is surjective.

To prove point 1 ) we now only have to set $\beta=1_{B}: B \rightarrow B$; point 2 ) is proved by the fact that the right hand square of the diagram is commutative. [

We also prove
Proposition 8.2. For any $A$ and any short exact sequence $B^{\prime} \rightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ the following square is commutative


Proof. Choose an injective presentation $B^{\prime} \hookrightarrow I \rightarrow S$ of $B^{\prime}$ and construct $\varphi, \psi$ such that the diagram

is commutative. We then embed (8.7) as front square in the following cube


The right hand square trivially is commutative, the left hand square is commutative since $\Phi$ is a natural transformation. Top and bottom squares are commutative by naturality of the Ext-, resp. $\overline{\text { Ext-sequence. }}$ The back square is commutative by the definition of $\Phi$. It follows that the front square is commutative, also. [

By Proposition 8.2 the natural transformation $\Phi$ is compatible with the connecting homomorphism in the long exact Ext-sequence in the second variable. We remark that $\Phi$ as exhibited above is also compatible with the connecting homomorphism in the long exact sequence in the first variable (see Exercise 9.8). In view of the equivalence expressed in Proposition 8.1 and 8.2 we shall use only the notation Ext. even if we refer to the definition by injectives. We then may express the assertion of Theorem 8.1 by saying that the bifunctor $\mathrm{Ext}_{A}^{n}$ is balanced; it may be computed via a projective resolution of the first, or an injective resolution of the second variable, and is balanced in that the value of $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B)$ is obtained as the value of the $n^{\text {th }}$ right derived functor of $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(-, B)$ at $A$ or the value of the $n^{\text {th }}$ right derived functor of $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(A,-)$ at $B$.

We finally point out the important fact that the steps in Section 7 necessary to define Ext ${ }^{n}$ and elicit its properties are possible in any abelian category with enough projective objects, and do not require any other particular property of the category $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$. Similarly, of course, the steps in Section 8 necessary to define $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}^{n}$ and elicit its properties are
possible in any abelian category with enough injective objects. Moreover, in a category with enough projectives and injectives, Ext ${ }^{n} \cong \overline{E x t}^{n}$. However it may well happen that an abelian category has enough projectives but not enough injectives (for example the category of finitely generated abelian groups (see Exercise 8.1)); then clearly only the procedure using projectives will yield Ext-functors according to our definition. In the dual situation of course, that is, in a category with enough injective but not enough projective objects (for example in the category of torsion abelian groups (see Exercise 8.2)) only the procedure using injectives will yield Ext-functors. Actually, it may be shown that even in abelian categories with neither enough projectives nor enough injectives, functors having all the essential properties of Ext-functors may be defined (see Exercises 9.4 to 9.7).

## Exercises:

8.1. Show that the category of finitely generated abelian groups has enough projectives but no non-zero injectives.
8.2. Show that the category of torsion abelian groups has enough injectives but no non-zero projectives.
8.3. Suppose given the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow I_{0} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow I_{q-1} \xrightarrow{\ell} S_{q} \rightarrow 0
$$

with $I_{0}, \ldots, I_{q-1}$ injective. Show that the sequence

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A, I_{q-1}\right) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{t}} \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(A, S_{q}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{q}(A, B) \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact.
8.4. Dualize the definition of $\Pi P(A, B)$, to define $\Pi I(A, B)$.
8.5. Dualize Exercises 7.4, 7.5. 7.6.
8.6. Let us say that $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ is a fibre-map if every homomorphism $I \rightarrow B, I$ injective, factors through $\varphi$. Let $\imath: K \rightarrow A$ be the kernel of the fibre-map $\varphi$. Show that there is an exact sequence, for any $X$,

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \Pi I_{n}(X, K) \xrightarrow{\bullet} \Pi I_{n}(X, A) \xrightarrow{\varphi_{*}} \Pi I_{n}(X, B) \rightarrow \Pi I_{n-1}(X, K) \rightarrow \cdots .
$$

Dualize.
8.7. A $\Lambda$-module $B$ is said to have injective dimension $\leqq m$, and we write inj.dim. $B \leqq m$, if $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{q}(A, B)=0$ for all $q>m$ and for all $\Lambda$-modules $A$. Analogously to Exercise 7.7 give different characterisations for inj.dim. $B \leqq m$. (Of course, we write inj.dim. $B=m$ if inj.dim. $B \leqq m$ but inj.dim. $B$ 建 $m-1$.)
8.8. A ring $\Lambda$ is said to have global dimension $\leqq m$. and we write gl.dim. $\Lambda \leqq m$. if $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{q}(A, B)=0$ for all $q>m$ and for all $\Lambda$-modules $A, B$.
The smallest $m$ with gl.dim $\Lambda \leqq m$ is called the global dimension of $\Lambda$. What is the global dimension of a field, of a semi-simple ring, of a p.i.d.? Characterize the global dimension of $\Lambda$ in terms of the projective and injective dimension of $\Lambda$-modules.

## 9. Ext ${ }^{n}$ and $n$-Extensions

We recall that $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)=\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}(A, B)$ can be interpreted as the group of equivalence classes of extensions $B \longrightarrow E \rightarrow A$. A generalization of this interpretation to $\mathrm{Ext}^{n}$ has been given by Yoneda. An exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
E: 0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow E_{n} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0 \tag{9.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

of $\Lambda$-modules is called an $n$-extension of $A$ by $B$. Then an extension is a 1 -extension. In the set of $n$-extensions of $A$ by $B$ we shall introduce an equivalence relation that generalizes the equivalence relation given in Section III. 1 for 1 -extensions. We shall say that the $n$-extensions $E, E^{\prime}$ satisfy the relation $E m E^{\prime}$ if there is a commutative diagram


It is easy to see that the relation $\leadsto \rightarrow$ is not symmetric for $n \geqq 2$, although it obviously is for $n=1$. However every relation generates an equivalence relation, which we now describe explicitly for the given relation m. Accordingly, we define $E$ and $E^{\prime}$ to be equivalent, $E \sim E^{\prime}$, if and only if there exists a chain $E_{0}=E, E_{1}, \ldots, E_{k}=E^{\prime}$ with

$$
E_{0} \leadsto \rightarrow E_{1} \leadsto \sim E_{2} \leadsto \leadsto \cdots \sim \sim E_{k} .
$$

By [E] we denote the equivalence class of the $n$-extension $E$, and by Yext ${ }_{A}^{n}(A, B), n \geqq 1$. we denote the set of all equivalence classes of $n$ extensions of $A$ by $B$. In order to make $\operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}(-,-)$ into a bifunctor we shall define induced maps as follows.

First let $B$ be fixed and let $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ be a homomorphism. Let $E: 0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow E_{n} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow E_{1} \xrightarrow{\eta} A \rightarrow 0$ be a representative of an element in $\operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}(A, B)$. Define $E_{1}^{\alpha}$ as the pull-back of $(\alpha, \eta)$,


By Lemma III.1.2 $\eta^{\prime}$ is epimorphic and has the same kernel as $\eta$. We therefore obtain an exact sequence

$$
E^{\alpha}: 0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow E_{n} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow E_{2} \rightarrow E_{1}^{\alpha} \xrightarrow{\eta^{\prime}} A^{\prime} \rightarrow 0
$$

which determines an element in $\operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)$. It is to be proved that two different representatives of an element in $\operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}(A, B)$ define the same
element in $\operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)$. This is achieved by proving that the relation $E \leadsto \leadsto \tilde{E}$ implies the relation $E^{\alpha} \leadsto \rightarrow \tilde{E}^{\alpha}$. We concentrate on the right hand end of the sequences. Setting $K=\operatorname{ker} \eta, \tilde{K}=\operatorname{ker} \tilde{\eta}$ we obtain the following diagram

where $E_{1}^{\alpha}$ is the pull-back of $(\alpha, \eta)$ and $\tilde{E}_{1}^{\alpha}$ is the pull-back of $(\alpha, \tilde{\eta})$. We have to show the existence of a map $\xi: E_{1}^{\alpha} \rightarrow \tilde{E}_{1}^{\alpha}$ making the diagram commutative. The maps $E_{1}^{\alpha} \xrightarrow{\eta^{\prime}} A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ and $E_{1}^{\alpha} \rightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow \tilde{E}_{1} \stackrel{\tilde{n}}{\rightarrow} A$ agree. Since $\tilde{E}_{1}^{\alpha}$ is a pull-back there is a (unique) map $\xi: E_{1}^{\alpha} \rightarrow \tilde{E}_{1}^{\alpha}$ making the right hand cube commutative. The reader will show easily that the left hand cube also is commutative (see the proof of Theorem III.1.4), so that $\xi$ establishes the relation $E^{\alpha} \leadsto \stackrel{\tilde{E}^{\alpha}}{ }$.

Thus $\alpha^{*}[E]=\left[E^{\alpha}\right]$ defines a map $\alpha^{*}: \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)$. It is plain that $1^{*}=1$. Also, using the fact that the composite of two pull-back squares is a pull-back square, we have $\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)^{*}=\alpha^{\prime *} \alpha^{*}$. These facts combine to show that $\operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}(-, B)$ is a contravariant functor.

Given $\beta: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ we define an induced map

$$
\beta_{*}: \operatorname{Yext}_{\Lambda}^{n}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Yext}_{\Lambda}^{n}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)
$$

by the dual process. Thus let $E: 0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow E_{n} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ be a representative of an element in $\operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}(A, B)$. Let

be a push-out square. We obtain a sequence

$$
E_{\beta}: 0 \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow\left(E_{n}\right)_{\beta} \rightarrow E_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0
$$

which determines an element in $\operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)$. As above one proves that $\beta_{*}[E]=\left[E_{\beta}\right]$ yields a map $\beta_{*}: \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)$ which makes $\operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}(A,-)$ into a covariant functor.

It is immediate that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{1}(A, B)=E(A, B) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}(A, B) \tag{9.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

naturally in both $A$ and $B$ (see Theorem III. 2.4). Since $E(-,-)$ is a bifunctor (Theorem III. 1.4) $\operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{1}(-,-)$ is a bifunctor, also. Indeed, this is the only non-trivial case of the proposition that $\operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}(-,-)$ is a bifunctor for $n \geqq 1$. Generalizing (9.3) we have

Theorem 9.1. There is a natural equivalence of set-valued bifunctors $\theta_{n}: \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}(-,-) \stackrel{\sim}{\rightarrow} \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(-,-), n=1,2, \ldots$.

Note that since $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B)$ carries a natural abelian group structure the equivalence $\theta_{n}$, once established, introduces a natural abelian group structure into $\mathrm{Yext}_{A}^{n}(A . B)$.

Proof. We proceed by a method analogous to the one used in the proof of Theorem III.2.4. We first choose a projective resolution

$$
P: \cdots \rightarrow P_{n} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n}} P_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{0}
$$

of $A$. Proposition 5.8 applied to the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(-, B)$ yields the exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(P_{n-1}, B\right) \xrightarrow{i^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(R_{n}, B\right) \xrightarrow{山} \mathrm{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{n}(A, B) \rightarrow 0 \tag{9.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $t: R_{n} \hookrightarrow P_{n-1}$ is the embedding of $R_{n}=\operatorname{im} \partial_{n}$ in $P_{n-1}$. We define $\theta: \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B)$ as follows.

Given the $n$-extension $E: 0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow E_{n} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ we consider the acyclic complex $D: 0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow E_{n} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow E_{2} \rightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow 0$ with $D_{0}=E_{1}, \ldots, D_{n-1}=E_{n}, D_{n}=B, D_{k}=0$ for $k \geqq n+1$. Plainly $H_{0}(D)=A$. By Theorem 4.1 there exists a chain map $\varphi=\left\{\varphi_{0}, \ldots, \varphi_{n}\right\}$ such that the following diagram is commutative


Clearly $\varphi_{n}: P_{n} \rightarrow B$ factors as $\varphi_{n}=\varphi \eta$ where $\varphi: R_{n} \rightarrow B$. We define $\theta(E)=[\varphi]$. We have to show that this definition is independent of the chain map $\varphi$. By Theorem 4.1 it follows that if $\psi=\left\{\psi_{0}, \ldots, \psi_{n}\right\}$ is another chain map there exists a chain homotopy $\Sigma: \varphi \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\psi}$. In particular we have $\psi_{n}-\varphi_{n}=\Sigma_{n-1} \partial_{n}$, so that $\psi-\varphi=\Sigma_{n-1} l$. It follows by (9.4) that $[\psi]=\left[\varphi+\Sigma_{n-1} l\right]=[\varphi]$. Finally it is obvious that if $E_{m \rightarrow} E^{\prime}$ then
$\theta(E)=[\varphi]=\theta\left(E^{\prime}\right)$. This completes the definition of the map

$$
\theta: \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B)
$$

Next we define a map $\tilde{\theta}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{n}(A, B)$. Let $\varphi: R_{n} \rightarrow B$ represent the element $[\varphi] \in \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B)$. We associate with $\varphi$ the equivalence class of the $n$-extension $C_{\varphi}$ in the diagram

where $E$ is the push-out of $(l, \varphi)$. If $\varphi$ is replaced by $\varphi^{\prime}=\varphi+\Sigma_{l}$ then it is easy to see that, if $\chi$ is replaced by $\chi^{\prime}=\chi+\kappa \Sigma$, the diagram is again commutative. It then follows that $E$ is also the push-out of $\left(t, \varphi^{\prime}\right)$. Thus if we set $\tilde{\theta}[\varphi]=\left[C_{\varphi}\right]$, we indeed have defined a map

$$
\tilde{\theta}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Yext}^{n}(A, B)
$$

Plainly $\theta \tilde{\theta}=1$ and the diagram

where $\varphi_{n-1}^{\prime}$ is defined by the push-out property of $E$ shows that $\tilde{\theta} \theta=1$.
It remains to prove that $\theta$ is a natural transformation. First let $\beta: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ be given; then the diagram

shows that $\theta \beta_{*}[E]=\theta\left[E_{\beta}\right]=[\beta \varphi]=\beta_{*}[\varphi]=\beta_{*} \theta[E]$. Finally let $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ be given. We then have to look at the following diagram

where $E_{1}^{\alpha}$ is the pull-back of ( $\eta, \alpha$ ). Since the maps $P_{0}^{\prime} \rightarrow P_{0} \rightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow A$ and $P_{0}^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ coincide we obtain a (unique) map $P_{0}^{\prime} \rightarrow E_{1}^{\alpha}$ which makes the diagram commutative. (There is, as usual, the extra argument establishing that $P_{1}^{\prime} \rightarrow P_{0}^{\prime} \rightarrow E_{1}^{\alpha}$ coincides with $P_{1}^{\prime} \rightarrow E_{2} \rightarrow E_{1}^{\alpha}$.) Thus we obtain

$$
\theta \alpha^{*}[E]=\theta\left[E^{\alpha}\right]=[\varphi \chi]=\alpha^{*}[\varphi]=\alpha^{*} \theta[E] .
$$

This completes the proof that $\theta$ is a natural transformation.
We now give a description of the connecting homomorphisms of the Ext-sequences in terms of $n$-extensions. We first consider the long exact Ext-sequences in the second variable (7.4). Let $B^{\prime} \rightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ be a short exact sequence and let $P: \cdots \rightarrow P_{n} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n}} P_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{1} \rightarrow P_{0}$ be a projective resolution of $A$. Set $R_{n}=\operatorname{im} \partial_{n}, n \geqq 1, R_{0}=A$. An element in $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is represented by a homomorphism $\varphi: R_{n} \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ (see (9.4)). By construction the connecting homomorphism

$$
\omega: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n+1}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)
$$

associates with $\varphi: R_{n} \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ the homomorphism $\psi: R_{n+1} \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ in the commutative diagram

(see the remark after the proof of Theorem 2.1). It follows that the diagram

is commutative, where $E$ is the push-out of $(t, \varphi)$. Hence if

$$
E: 0 \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow E_{n} \rightarrow E_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0
$$

represents the element $[\varphi] \in \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right)$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
E^{\prime}: 0 \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow B \rightarrow E_{n} \rightarrow E_{n-1} \cdots \rightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0 \tag{9.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

represents the element $\omega[\varphi] \in \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n+1}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)$. We continue with an analysis of the connecting homomorphism in the first variable, that is, in sequence (7.1). Let $A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ be a short exact sequence and let $\boldsymbol{P}^{\prime} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{P} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime \prime}$ be the short exact sequence of resolutions of $A^{\prime}, A, A^{\prime \prime}$ respectively, as constructed in the proof of Theorem 6.1. We recall that the resolution $\boldsymbol{P}$ is constructed by induction using diagrams of the following form

where $R_{n}^{\prime}=\operatorname{im} \partial_{n}^{\prime}, R_{n}=\operatorname{im} \partial_{n}, R_{n}^{\prime \prime}=\operatorname{im} \partial_{n}^{\prime \prime}, n \geqq 1, R_{0}^{\prime}=A^{\prime}, R_{0}=A, R_{0}^{\prime \prime}=A^{\prime \prime}$ and $\varepsilon_{n}$ is constructed via $\chi_{n}$. Now let $\varphi: R_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow B$ represent an element of $\mathrm{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)$. Then, by construction of the connecting homomorphism $\omega: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n+1}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right)$, the element $\omega[\varphi]$ is represented by the map $\varphi \sigma$ in the diagram


On the other hand it is clear that $\chi_{n}: P_{n}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow R_{n}$ induces $\tau=\tau_{n+1}: R_{n+1}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow R_{n}^{\prime}$. From the construction of $\varepsilon_{n}$ one sees that the sum of the two maps

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R_{n+1} \longrightarrow R_{n+1}^{\prime \prime} \stackrel{\sigma}{\longrightarrow} R_{n}^{\prime} \longrightarrow R_{n} \\
& R_{n+1} \longrightarrow R_{n+1}^{\prime \prime} \stackrel{\tau}{\longrightarrow} R_{n}^{\prime} \longrightarrow R_{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

is zero, so that $\sigma=-\tau$.

Also, the following diagram is commutative


Set $\theta_{n}=\pi_{n-1} \quad l_{n-1} \quad \chi_{n}$. We may compose the diagrams of the form (9.6) to yield the top two rows in the following commutative diagram


It follows that if

$$
E^{\prime}: 0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow E_{n} \rightarrow E_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow 0
$$

represents the element $[\varphi] \in \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A^{\prime} . B\right)$ then $(-1)^{n+1} \omega[\varphi] \in \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n+1}\left(A^{\prime \prime} . B\right)$ is represented by

$$
\begin{equation*}
E^{\prime \prime}: 0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow E_{n} \rightarrow E_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0 \tag{9.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is clear that using injectives instead of projectives one can construct a natural equivalence $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}(-,-) \cong \operatorname{Yext}_{\Lambda}^{n}(-,-)$, An analysis of the connecting homomorphisms in the long exact sequences of Ext shows that the connecting homomorphism in the first variable is simply given by the composition (9.7) whereas the connecting homomorphism in the second variable is given by the composition (9.5) together with the $\operatorname{sign}(-1)^{n+1}$.

Finally we would like to draw the reader's attention to Exercises 9.4 to 9.7 where a direct description of the addition in $\mathrm{Yext}_{A}^{n}(A, B)$ is given. As a consequence it is then possible to construct functors $\operatorname{Yext}^{n}(-,-)$
possessing the properties of $\operatorname{Ext}^{n}(-,-)$ (i.e. the usual long exact sequences) even in abelian categories with neither enough projectives nor enough injectives.

## Exercises:

9.1. Give the detailed proof that $\mathrm{Yext}^{n}(-,-)$ is a bifunctor, $n \geqq 2$.
9.2. Given the diagram


Show that $E$ and $E_{\beta}$ are in the same class. Dualize.
9.3. Define the Yoneda product

$$
\sigma: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A . B) \otimes \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{m}(B, C) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{n+m}(A, C)
$$

by "splicing" an $n$-sequence starting with $B$ with an $m$-sequence ending with $B$.
Show bilinearity, associativity, and existence of a unity.
9.4. Define addition in $\operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{m}(A, B)$, independently of the equivalence $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{m} \cong$ Yext $_{A}^{m}$. Describe a representative of $0 \in \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{m}(A, B), m \geqq 2$ and show that $\xi+0=\xi$, $\xi \in \mathrm{Yext}_{A}^{m}(A, B)$.
9.5. Show that if $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$, then

$$
\left(\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}\right)^{*}=\alpha_{1}^{*}+\alpha_{2}^{*}: \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{m}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{m}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right),
$$

using your definition of addition in Exercise 9.4 above, but without invoking the equivalence $\mathrm{Yext}_{A}^{m} \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{m}$. Using this property show that $\mathrm{Yext}_{A}^{m}(A, B)$ admits additive inverses.
9.6. Prove that the addition given in Exercise 9.4 above is compatible with the equivalence $\mathrm{Ext}_{A}^{m} \cong \mathrm{Yext}_{A}^{m}$ of Theorem 9.1.
9.7. Given $B: B^{\prime} \hookrightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$, define a homomorphism

$$
\omega: \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{m}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{m+1}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)
$$

by setting $\omega[E]=\left[E^{\prime}\right]$ where

$$
E: 0 \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow B \rightarrow E_{m} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow E_{1} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0,
$$

(i.e. $[E]=\sigma([E],[B])$ in terms of the Yoneda product).

Prove directly that the sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{m}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Yext}_{A}^{m}(A, B) \rightarrow \mathrm{Yext}_{A}^{m}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \stackrel{\omega}{\longrightarrow} \mathrm{Yext}_{A}^{m+1}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

is exact. Does this sequence coincide with (7.4)? Also, define a connecting homomorphism for Yext in the first variable and deduce an exact sequence corresponding to (7.1).
9.8. Construct an equivalence $\bar{\theta}_{n}$ : $\mathrm{Yext}_{A}^{n} \tilde{\mathcal{E x t}}_{A}^{n}$ by proceeding dually to the proof of Theorem 9.1. Identify the connecting homomorphisms in the exact sequences (8.3) and (8.4) in terms of $n$-extensions. Express the equivalence
$\Phi^{n}: \mathrm{Ext}^{n} \xrightarrow{\leftrightharpoons} \overline{\mathrm{Ext}}^{n}$ as constructed in the proof of Proposition 8.1 in terms of $\theta^{n}$ (Theorem 9.1) and $\bar{\theta}^{n}$. Show that $\Phi^{n}$ is compatible with the connecting homomorphism in the first variable.
9.9. Let $A^{\prime} \hookrightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ and $B^{\prime} \hookrightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ be two short exact sequences. Show that

is anticommutative.
9.10. Show that the diagram of abelian group homomorphisms

may always be embedded in a square, which is both a pull-back and a push-out. Does this property remain valid if we replace abelian groups by $\Lambda$-modules?

## 10. Another Characterization of Derived Functors

We have defined the functor $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{4}(A,-)$ as the $q$-th right derived functor of $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(A,-)$. We now show how the left derived functors of any right exact functor may be obtained by means of the Ext-functors (Corollary 10.2).

We use, as before, the symbol [ $S . S^{\prime}$ ] to denote the set (or class) of natural transformations of the functor $S$ into the functor $S^{\prime}$. Clearly for natural transformations of functors into an additive category one has a well defined notion of addition.

Let $R_{q} \stackrel{\mu}{\longrightarrow} P_{q-1} \longrightarrow P_{q-2} \longrightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{0} \rightarrow A$ be an exact sequence with $P_{0}, P_{1}, \ldots, P_{q-1}$ projective. To the additive functor $T: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$ we define abelian groups $\tilde{L}_{q} T A$ as follows

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \tilde{L}_{q} T A=\operatorname{ker}\left(\mu_{*}: T R_{q} \rightarrow T P_{q-1}\right), \quad q=1,2, \ldots \\
& \tilde{L}_{0} T A=T A
\end{aligned}
$$

For $T$ a right exact functor we know by Proposition 5.5 that the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow L_{q} T A \rightarrow T R_{q} \xrightarrow{\mu_{\star}} T P_{q-1}
$$

is exact. Hence in this case we conclude

$$
\begin{equation*}
\check{L}_{q} T A=L_{q} T A, \quad q=0.1, \ldots \tag{10.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular this shows that $\tilde{L}_{q} T A$ does not depend upon the choice of the modules $P_{0}, P_{1}, \ldots, P_{q-1}$ in case $T$ is right exact. It is an immediate
corollary of the following result that this assertion holds true for arbitrary $T$.

Theorem 10.1. Let $T: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$ be an additive covariant functor and let $A$ be a 1 -module. Then there are natural isomorphisms

$$
\Gamma:\left[\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{q}(A,-), T\right] \stackrel{\sim}{\rightarrow} \tilde{L}_{q} T A, \quad q=0,1, \ldots .
$$

In case $T: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$ is right exact the assertion (10.1) immediately yields the following characterization of left derived functors.

Corollary 10.2. Let $T: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A b}$ be a right exact functor and let $A$ be a 1 -module. Then there are natural isomorphisms

$$
\left.\Gamma:\left[\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{q}(A,-), T\right] \xrightarrow{\sim} L_{q} T A, \quad q=0.1, \ldots . \quad\right]
$$

Proof of Theorem 10.1. Since $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(-, B)$ is left exact we may apply Proposition 5.8 to obtain the following commutative diagram with exact rows


Consider the element $\eta \in \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{q}\left(A, R_{q}\right)$ defined by $1: R_{q} \rightarrow R_{q}$. Since $\mu: R_{q} \rightarrow P_{q-1}$ extends to $1: P_{q-1} \rightarrow P_{q-1}$ we have $\mu_{*}(\eta)=0$. Now let $\Phi: \operatorname{Ext}^{q}(A,-) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{T}$ be a natural transformation. We look at the diagram


Since $\mu_{*}(\eta)=0$, the element $\xi=\Phi_{R_{q}}(\eta)$ is in the kernel of

$$
\mu_{*}: T\left(R_{q}\right) \rightarrow T\left(P_{q-1}\right),
$$

hence an element of $\tilde{L}_{q} T A$. Thus, given the natural transformation $\Phi$, we have assigned to $\Phi$ an element $\xi=\Gamma(\Phi) \in \tilde{L}_{q} T A$. Clearly this map $\Gamma:\left[\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{q}(A,-), T\right] \rightarrow \tilde{L}_{q} T A$ is a homomorphism.

Conversely, suppose the element $\xi \in \tilde{L}_{q} T A$ is given. We have to define a natural transformation $\Phi=\Phi^{\xi}$, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{R_{q}}(\eta)=\xi \in T\left(R_{q}\right) . \tag{10.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We first show that this rule determines $\Phi$. if $\Phi$ is to be a natural transformation. For let $M$ be an arbitrary $\Lambda$-module and let $\varrho \in \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{q}(A, M)$. Since

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(P_{q-1}, M\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(R_{q}, M\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{q}(A, M) \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact, $\varrho \in \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{q}(A, M)$ can be represented by a homomorphism

$$
\sigma: R_{q} \rightarrow M .
$$

We consider the square


Then commutativity forces $\Phi_{M}(\varrho)=\Phi_{M} \sigma_{*}(\eta)=\sigma_{*} \Phi_{R_{q}}(\eta)=\sigma_{*}(\xi)$. We next show that we obtain the same value for $\Phi_{M}(\varrho)$, if we choose another representative $\sigma^{\prime}$ of $\varrho$. Consider $\sigma-\sigma^{\prime}: R_{q} \rightarrow M$; it must factor through $P_{q-1}$. Hence $\left(\sigma-\sigma^{\prime}\right)_{*}: T R_{q} \xrightarrow{\mu_{*}} T P_{q-1} \rightarrow T M$; but since $\xi \in \tilde{L}_{q} T A=\operatorname{ker} \mu_{*}$, we have $\left(\sigma-\sigma^{\prime}\right)_{*}(\xi)=0$, so that $\sigma_{*}(\xi)=\sigma_{*}^{\prime}(\xi)$. Finally we show that the $\Phi$ we have defined is indeed a natural transformation. Let $\varphi: M \rightarrow N$ be a homomorphism then the diagram

must be shown to be commutative. Since $\varphi \sigma: R_{q} \rightarrow N$ represents

$$
\varphi_{*}(\varrho) \in \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{q}(A, N)
$$

we have $\Phi_{N}\left(\varphi_{*}(\varrho)\right)=(\varphi \sigma)_{*}(\xi)=\varphi_{*} \sigma_{*}(\xi)=\varphi_{*} \Phi_{M}(\varrho) . \quad \square$
We remark that the assertion of Theorem 10.1 for $q=0$ is nothing but the Yoneda Lemma (Proposition II. 4.1) applied to additive functors.

We may apply Theorem 10.1 to find a description of the natural transformations $\Phi: \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}(A,-) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)$. It is clear that any homomorphism $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ will induce such a natural transformation. Proposition 10.3 says that all natural transformations are of this kind.

Proposition 10.3. Every natural transformation

$$
\Phi: \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}(A,-) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)
$$

is induced by a homomorphism $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$.
Proof. Since $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)$ is additive we may apply Theorem 10.1. We have that $\left[\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}(A,-)\right.$. $\left.\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)\right] \stackrel{\sim}{\sim} \tilde{L}_{1}\left(\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)\right)(A)$. Let $R \xrightarrow{\mu} P \xrightarrow{〔} A$ be a projective presentation; then

$$
\tilde{L}_{1}\left(\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)\right)(A)=\operatorname{ker}\left(\mu_{*}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(A^{\prime}, R\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}\left(A^{\prime}, P\right)\right) .
$$

On the other hand the long exact Ext-sequence (7.4) yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime}, P\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime}, A\right) \xrightarrow{\omega} \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}\left(A^{\prime}, R\right) \xrightarrow{\mu_{\mu}} \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}\left(A^{\prime}, P\right) \rightarrow \cdots \tag{10.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

whence it follows that any natural transformation $\Phi$ may be described by a homomorphism $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$. It is to be shown that the natural transformation $\Phi$ described by $\alpha$ is indeed the one induced by $\alpha$. Let $R^{\prime} \rightarrow P^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ be a projective presentation of $A^{\prime}$ and consider the following diagram

where $\theta^{*}$ is explained below.
We have to show that the natural transformation $\alpha^{*}$ induced by $\alpha$ has the property that $\alpha^{*}(\eta)=\xi=\omega(\alpha)$. By the remark after (10.2) this is sufficient. In order to describe $\alpha^{*}$ we choose $\chi, \theta$ such that the following diagram commutes


By construction of the connecting homomorphism $\omega$ we then have $\omega(\alpha)=[\theta]=\left[\theta^{*}\left(1_{R}\right)\right]=\alpha^{*}(\eta)=\xi$.

It follows from the exact sequence (10.3) that the homomorphism $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ is determined up to a homomorphism factoring through $P$.

Theorem 10.4. For $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ the induced natural transformation $\alpha^{*}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}(A,-) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)$ is a natural equivalence if and only if $\alpha$ is of the form $\alpha=\pi \sigma \iota$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha: A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{i_{A}^{\prime}} A^{\prime} \oplus Q \xrightarrow{\stackrel{\sigma}{\rightarrow}} A \oplus P \xrightarrow{\pi_{A}} A \tag{10.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P, Q$ are projective.
In case (10.4) holds we say that $\alpha$ is an isomorphism modulo projectives.
Proof. If $\alpha$ is of the given form, then $\alpha^{*}$ is clearly a natural equivalence. To prove the converse first note that if $\alpha^{*}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}(A,-) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)$ is an equivalence, then $\alpha^{*}: \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{q}(A,-) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{q}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)$ is an equivalence for all $q \geqq 1$. Now suppose that $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ is epimorphic. Let $\operatorname{ker} \alpha=A^{\prime \prime}$ and consider the short exact sequence $A^{\prime \prime} \mapsto A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$. For any $B$ we have
a long exact sequence

$$
\begin{align*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) & \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{1}^{1}(A, B) \stackrel{\alpha^{*}}{\rightarrow} \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \\
& \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{4}^{1}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{2}(A . B) \stackrel{\alpha^{*}}{\rightarrow} \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{2}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \cdots . \quad(10.5 \tag{10.5}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right)=0$ for all $B$, so that $A^{\prime \prime}$ is projective (Corollary III. 5.5).
Now choose $B=A^{\prime \prime}$ in sequence (10.5) and observe that

$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, A^{\prime \prime}\right)
$$

is surjective. The identity of $A^{\prime \prime}$ therefore is induced by a map $A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$. Hence the exact sequence $A^{\prime \prime} \mapsto A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ splits, i.e. $A^{\prime}=A \oplus A^{\prime \prime}$. We have $\alpha: A^{\prime} \stackrel{\sigma}{\rightarrow} A \oplus P \xrightarrow{\pi_{A}} A$ with $P=A^{\prime \prime}$ projective.

For the general case take a projective presentation $\varepsilon: Q \rightarrow A$ and consider the epimorphism

$$
\bar{\alpha}=\langle\alpha . \varepsilon\rangle: A^{\prime} \oplus Q \rightarrow A .
$$

Then $\bar{\alpha} \iota=\alpha$, where $\imath=l_{A^{\prime}}: A^{\prime} \hookrightarrow A^{\prime} \oplus Q$; moreover $\iota^{*}$ is obviously a natural equivalence, so that $\bar{\alpha}^{*}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}(A,-) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(A^{\prime} \oplus Q,-\right)$ is a natural equivalence. By the previous argument $\bar{\alpha}$ is of the form

$$
\bar{\alpha}: A^{\prime} \oplus Q \stackrel{\tilde{\rightarrow}}{\rightarrow} A \oplus P \xrightarrow{\pi_{A}} A .
$$

so that $\alpha=\pi \sigma \iota$ as required. $\square$

## Exercises:

10.1. Dualize the theorems of this section.
10.2. Prove that $\beta: B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ induces isomorphisms $\beta_{*}: \Pi P(-. B) \underset{\rightarrow}{\rightarrow} \boldsymbol{P}\left(-. B^{\prime \prime}\right)$, $\beta_{* 1}: \Pi P_{1}(-, B) \rightarrow \Pi P_{1}\left(-, B^{\prime \prime}\right)$ if and only if $\beta$ is an isomorphism modulo projectives. Strengthen this result by weakening the condition on $\beta_{* 1}$. Dualize.
10.3. Show that $\left[\operatorname{Ext}^{q}(A,-) . L_{0} T\right] \cong L_{q} T(A)$, for any additive functor $T$.
10.4. Show that $\left[\operatorname{Ext}_{1}^{q}(A,-), \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{1}\left(A^{\prime},-\right)\right]=\Pi P_{q-1}\left(A^{\prime}, A\right), q \geqq 1$. Dualize.

## 11. The Functor Tor ${ }_{n}^{1}$.

Here we generalise the bifunctor $\operatorname{Tor}^{4}(-,-)$ defined in Section III. 8. Let $A$ be a right $\Lambda$-module and $B$ a left $\Lambda$-module.

By Proposition III. 7.3 the functor $A \otimes_{\Lambda}-$ is additive, indeed right exact. We therefore can define

Definition. $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{A}(A,-)=L_{n}\left(A \otimes_{A}-\right), n=0,1, \ldots$.
We briefly recall how the abelian group $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{1}(A, B)$ is calculated. Choose any projective resolution $\boldsymbol{P}$ of $B$, form the chain complex $A \otimes_{A} \boldsymbol{P}$
and then take homology,

$$
\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{\Lambda}(A, B)=H_{n}\left(A \otimes_{A} P\right)
$$

It follows from Proposition 5.2 that

$$
\operatorname{Tor}_{0}^{A}(A, B)=A \otimes_{\Lambda} B .
$$

Similarly to Proposition 7.1, we prove that

$$
\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{1}(A, B) \cong \operatorname{Tor}^{\Lambda}(A, B),
$$

as defined in Chapter III. 8.
Given a short exact sequence $B^{\prime} \hookrightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ we obtain the long exact Tor-sequence in the second variable

$$
\begin{align*}
& \cdots \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{\Lambda}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{1}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{1}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega_{n}} \operatorname{Tor}_{n-1}^{\Lambda}(A, B) \rightarrow \cdots  \tag{11.1}\\
& \cdots \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{1}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega_{1}} A \otimes_{A} B^{\prime} \rightarrow A \otimes_{A} B \rightarrow A \otimes_{A} B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0
\end{align*}
$$

by Theorem 6.1. Sequence (11.1) is natural with respect to the short exact sequence. By Proposition 5.3 it follows that, for $P$ projective, $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{1}(A, P)=0$ for $n=1,2, \ldots$.

A homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ clearly induces a map

$$
\alpha_{*}: \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{A}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{1}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right),
$$

which makes $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{1}(-, B), n=0,1, \ldots$, into a functor. Indeed we have as the reader may show - that $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{\Lambda}(-,-), n=0,1, \ldots$, is a bifunctor (compare Proposition 7.3). Applying Proposition 6.2 to the natural transformation $\alpha_{*}: A \otimes_{\Lambda} \rightarrow \rightarrow A^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda}-$ we deduce that sequence (11.1) is natural with respect to the first variable.

Given the short exact sequence $A^{\prime} \hookrightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ the sequence of functors $A^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} \rightarrow A \otimes_{\Lambda} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{\Lambda}-$ is exact on projectives. It follows then by Theorem 6.3 that there exists a long exact Tor-sequence in the first variable,

$$
\begin{align*}
\cdots \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{1}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) & \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{1}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{1}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \xrightarrow{\omega_{n}} \operatorname{Tor}_{n-1}^{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \cdots \\
\cdots & \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{\Lambda}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \xrightarrow{\omega_{1}} A^{\prime} \otimes_{A} B \rightarrow A \otimes_{A} B \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{A} B \rightarrow 0 . \tag{11.2}
\end{align*}
$$

This sequence is natural both with respect to the short exact sequence and with respect to $B$.

In Section 8 we have shown that $\mathrm{Ext}_{\boldsymbol{A}}^{n}$ may also be obtained as a derived functor in the second variable. Similarly we have

Proposition 11.1. $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{1}(A, B)=L_{n}\left(-\otimes_{A} B\right)(A), n=0.1 \ldots$.
We may express the assertion of Proposition 11.1 by saying that the bifunctor $\operatorname{Tor}(-,-)$ is balanced; it may be computed via a projective resolution of the first or a projective resolution of the second variable.

We leave the proof, which is analogous to that of Proposition 8.1, to the reader. As a consequence, we have that $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{\Lambda}(P, B)=0$ for $P$ projective and $n=1,2, \ldots$, though this, of course, follows from the first definition of Tor and the fact that $P \otimes_{A}$ - is exact.

We finally give another characterization of Tor ${ }_{n}^{1}$ using Corollary 10.2.
Theorem 11.2. There are natural isomorphisms

$$
\Gamma:\left[\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{n}(B,-), A \otimes_{\Lambda}-\right] \stackrel{\sim}{\rightarrow} \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{\Lambda}(A, B) \text { for } n=0,1, \ldots
$$

Proof. We only have to observe that $A \otimes_{\Lambda}$ - is right exact and that $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{1}(A, B)=L_{n}\left(A \otimes_{A}-\right)(B)$. The assertion then follows from Corollary 10.2 . $]$

## Exercises:

11.1. Write out a complete proof that $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{4}(A, B)$ is a bifunctor.
11.2. Prove Proposition 11.1.
11.3. Show that $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{1}(A, B)=\operatorname{ker}\left(R_{n} \otimes_{A} B \rightarrow P_{n-1} \otimes_{A} B\right)$, where

is a projective resolution of $A$.
11.4. Show that, if $P$ is flat, then $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{1}(P, A)=0=\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{1}(A, P)$ for all $A$ and $n \geqq 1$.
11.5. Let $Q: \cdots \rightarrow Q_{n} \rightarrow Q_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow Q_{0}$ be a flat resolution of $A$ (i.e. the sequence is exact in dimensions $n \geqq 1, H_{0}(Q)=A$, and each $Q_{n}$ is flat). Show that $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{4}(A, B)=H_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{Q} \otimes_{A} B\right)$.
11.6. Let $A$ be a fixed $\Lambda$-module. Show that if $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A .-)=0$. then $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{\Lambda}(A .-)=0$. $n>0$. Show that the converse is false.

## 12. Change of Rings

In this final section of Chapter IV we study the effect of a change of rings on the functor $\operatorname{Ext}_{1}^{n}$. However, we will make further applications of a change of rings in Chapters VI and VII, and hence we record in this section certain results for future use.

Let $\Lambda, \Lambda^{\prime}$ be two rings and let $U: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda^{\prime}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$ be a functor. Then we may restate Proposition II. 10.2 (and its dual) in this context as follows.

Theorem 12.1. (i) If $U$ has a left adjoint $F: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{A^{\prime}}$ and if $U$ preserves surjections (i.e., if $U$ is exact), then $F$ sends projectives to projectives.
(ii) If $U$ has a right adjoint $\bar{F}: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{A}$ and if $U$ preserves injections (i.e., if $U$ is exact), then $\bar{F}$ sends injectives to injectives. $\square$

Now let $U$ satisfy the hypotheses of Theorem 12.1 (i), let $A$ be a $\Lambda$-module and let $B^{\prime}$ be a $\Lambda^{\prime}$-module. Choose a projective resolution

$$
P: \cdots \rightarrow P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{0}
$$

of $A$, and consider

$$
F P: \cdots \rightarrow F P_{n} \rightarrow F P_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow F P_{0} .
$$

By Theorem 12.1, FP is a projective complex (of $\Lambda^{\prime}$-modules), but it is not in general acyclic. However, since $F$ is right exact,

$$
H_{0}(F P)=F A .
$$

Let $\boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}$ be a projective resolution of $F A$. By Theorem 4.1 there exists a chain map $\boldsymbol{\varphi}: \boldsymbol{F P} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}$, determined up to homotopy, inducing the identity on $F A$. Combining this with the adjugant $\eta: F \vdash U$, we obtain a cochain map

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{A^{\prime}}\left(\boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\varphi} \operatorname{Hom}_{A^{\prime}}\left(F P, B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\eta} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(P, U B^{\prime}\right)
$$

which gives rise to homomorphisms

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi^{n}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n} \cdot\left(F A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A, U B^{\prime}\right), \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots \tag{12.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

which are easily seen to be natural in $A$ and $B^{\prime}$. Thus $\Phi$ is a natural transformation, uniquely determined by the adjugant $\eta$.

We remark that if $\boldsymbol{F}$ preserves injections (i.e., if $\boldsymbol{F}$ is exact), then $\boldsymbol{F P}$ is a projective resolution of $F A$ and $\Phi$ is then a natural equivalence.

Now let $\delta: F U \rightarrow 1$ be the co-unit of the adjugant $\eta$ (see Proposition II. 7.2). By (12.1) we obtain homomorphisms $\theta^{n}=\Phi^{n} \delta^{* n}$,

$$
\begin{gather*}
\theta^{n}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A^{\prime}}^{n}\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta^{+n}} \operatorname{Ext}_{A^{\prime}}^{n}\left(F U A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\Phi^{n}} \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(U A^{\prime}, U B^{\prime}\right),  \tag{12.2}\\
n=0,1,2, \ldots,
\end{gather*}
$$

for any $\Lambda^{\prime}$-module $A^{\prime}$, and $\theta^{n}$ is plainly natural in $A^{\prime}$ and $B^{\prime}$. If $F$ is exact, then $\theta^{n}$ is equivalent to $\delta^{* n}$. The reader is referred to Exercise 12.5 for a different description of $\theta^{n}$.

The theory described may be applied to the following specific pair of adjoint functors. Let $\gamma: \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^{\prime}$ be a ring-homomorphism. Then any $\Lambda^{\prime}$-module $M^{\prime}$ may be given the structure of a $\Lambda$-module via $\gamma$ by defining

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda m^{\prime}=(\gamma \lambda) m^{\prime}, \quad \lambda \in \Lambda, \quad m^{\prime} \in M^{\prime} . \tag{12.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We denote this $\Lambda$-module by $U^{\gamma} M^{\prime}$ so that $U^{\gamma}: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$ is a functor called the change-of-rings functor induced by $\gamma: \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^{\prime}$. Then $U^{\gamma}$ obviously preserves surjections and it is easily verified that $U^{\nu}$ has a left adjoint $F: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}^{\prime}}$, given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
F M=\Lambda^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} M, \quad M \text { in } \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda} ; \tag{12.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

here $\Lambda^{\prime}$ is regarded as a right $\Lambda$-module via $\gamma$, and $F M$ acquires the structure of a $\Lambda^{\prime}$-module through the $\Lambda^{\prime}$-module structure on $\Lambda^{\prime}$. Thus, for $U^{\gamma}$, we have natural transformations

$$
\begin{align*}
& \Phi: \operatorname{Ext}_{A^{\prime}}^{n}\left(\Lambda^{\prime} \otimes_{A} A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(A, U^{\gamma} B^{\prime}\right), \\
& \theta: \operatorname{Ext}_{A^{\prime}}\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{n}\left(U^{\gamma} A^{\prime}, U^{\gamma} B^{\prime}\right) . \tag{12.5}
\end{align*}
$$

We record for future reference
Proposition 12.2. If $\Lambda^{\prime}$ is flat as a right 1 -module via $\gamma$, then

$$
\Phi: \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda^{n}}^{n}\left(\Lambda^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} A, B^{\prime}\right) \sim \tilde{\rightarrow}^{\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{n}}\left(A, U^{\gamma} B^{\prime}\right)
$$

is a natural equivalence.
Proof. This is clear since the functor $F$ given by (12.4) is then exact.
We may apply Theorem 12.1 (ii) in essentially the same way. We leave the details to the reader and simply assert that, with $U$ and $\bar{F}$ satisfying the hypothesis of Theorem 12.1 (ii). we get natural transformations

$$
\begin{align*}
& \bar{\Phi}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A^{\prime}}^{n}\left(A^{\prime}, \bar{F} B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(U A^{\prime}, B\right), \\
& \bar{\theta}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A^{\prime}}^{n}\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(U A^{\prime}, U B^{\prime}\right) \tag{12.6}
\end{align*}
$$

Moreover, $\bar{\Phi}$ is a natural equivalence if $\bar{F}$ preserves surjections (i.e., if $\bar{F}$ is exact).

The case of special interest to us involves the same functor

$$
U^{\gamma}: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}^{\prime}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}
$$

as above. For $U^{\gamma}$ obviously preserves injections and, as the reader will readily verify, $U^{\gamma}$ admits the right adjoint $\bar{F}: \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{A^{\prime}}$, given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{F} M=\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(\Lambda^{\prime}, M\right), \quad M \text { in } \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda} ; \tag{12.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

here $\Lambda^{\prime}$ is regarded as a left $\Lambda$-module via $\gamma$, and $\bar{F} M$ acquires the structure of a $\Lambda^{\prime}$-module through the right $\Lambda^{\prime}$-module structure on $\Lambda^{\prime}$. Thus, we have natural transformations

$$
\begin{align*}
& \bar{\Phi}: \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda^{\prime}}^{n}\left(A^{\prime} . \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(\Lambda^{\prime}, B\right)\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{n}\left(U^{\gamma} A^{\prime}, B\right), \\
& \bar{\theta}: \operatorname{Ext}_{A^{\prime}}^{n}\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}\left(U^{\gamma} A^{\prime}, U^{\gamma} B^{\prime}\right) . \tag{12.8}
\end{align*}
$$

Again we record for future reference
Proposition 12.3. If $\Lambda^{\prime}$ is projective as a left $\Lambda$-module via $\gamma$, then $\bar{\Phi}: \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda^{\prime}}^{n},\left(A^{\prime}, \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(\Lambda^{\prime}, B\right)\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{n}\left(U^{\gamma} A^{\prime}, B\right)$ is a natural equivalence. $]$

We also remark that the natural transformations $\theta, \bar{\theta}$ of (12.2), (12.6) are, in fact. defined whenever $U$ is exact and do not depend on the existence of adjoints to $U$ (though the descriptions we have given, in terms of adjoints, facilitate their study). Indeed they have a very obvious
definition in terms of the Yoneda description of Ext ${ }^{n}$. Thus, in particular, we have (see Exercises 12.5, 12.6)

Proposition 12.4. The natural transformation $\theta$ of (12.5) coincides with the natural transformation $\bar{\theta}$ of (12.8). $\square$

Finally, we record for application in Chapters VI and VII the following further consequences of Proposition II. 10.2.

Theorem 12.5. Let $U^{\nu}: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda^{\prime}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$ be the change-of-rings functor induced by $\gamma: \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^{\prime}$. Then (i) if $\Lambda^{\prime}$ is a projective (left) $\Lambda$-module via $\gamma$, $U^{\gamma}$ sends projectives to projectives; (ii) if $\Lambda^{\prime}$ is a flat right $\Lambda$-module via $\gamma$, $U^{\gamma}$ sends injectives to injectives.

Proof. (i) The hypothesis implies that $\bar{F}$ preserves epimorphisms, so $U^{\gamma}$ sends projectives to projectives. (ii) The hypothesis implies that $F$ preserves monomorphisms, so $U^{\gamma}$ sends injectives to injectives.

## Exercises:

12.1. Apply the theory of this section to a discussion of Tor in place of Ext.
12.2. Let $K$ be a field and let $K$ [ ] be the group algebra over $K$ functor. Let $\varphi: \pi \mapsto \pi^{\prime}$ be a monomorphism of groups and let $\gamma=K[\varphi]: K[\pi] \rightarrow K\left[\pi^{\prime}\right]$. Show that $K\left[\pi^{\prime}\right]$ is free as a left or right $K[\pi]$-module via $\gamma$.
12.3. Show that $\delta: F U^{y} A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ is surjective, where $F, U^{y}$ are given by (12.4), (12.3). Hence embed $\theta$ of $(12.5)$ in an exact sequence when $\Lambda^{\prime}$ is flat as a right $\Lambda$-module via $\gamma$.
12.4. Give details of the definitions of $\bar{\Phi}, \bar{\theta}$ in (12.6). Carry out the exercise corresponding to Exercise 12.3 .
12.5. Identify $\theta$ in (12.2) with the homomorphism described as follows ( $U$ being exact). Let $\boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}$ be a projective resolution of $A^{\prime}$ and let $\boldsymbol{P}$ be a projective resolution of $U A^{\prime}$. Then we have a chain map $\psi: P \rightarrow U P^{\prime}$ inducing the identity on $U A^{\prime}$ and we form

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{A^{\prime}}\left(\boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(U \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}, U B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\underline{L}} \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(\boldsymbol{P}, U B^{\prime}\right) .
$$

Pass to cohomology.
12.6. Carry out a similar exercise for $\bar{\theta}$ in (12.6). Deduce that $\theta=\bar{\theta}$.
12.7. Show that $\theta$ (12.2) and $\bar{\theta}(12.6)$ are compatible with the connecting homomorphisms.

## V. The Künneth Formula

The Künneth formula has its historic origin in algebraic topology. Given two topological spaces $X$ and $Y$, we may ask how the (singular) homology groups of their topological product $X \times Y$ is related to the homology groups of $X$ and $Y$. This question may be answered by separating the problem into two parts. If $\boldsymbol{C}(X), \boldsymbol{C}(Y), \boldsymbol{C}(X \times Y)$ stand for the singular chain complexes of $X, Y, X \times Y$ respectively, then a theorem due to Eilenberg-Zilber establishes that the chain complex $C(X \times Y)$ is canonically homotopy-equivalent to the tensor product of the chain complexes $C(X)$ and $C(Y)$,

$$
C(X \times Y) \simeq C(X) \otimes C(Y) ;
$$

(for the precise definition of the tensor product of two chain complexes, see Section 1, Example (a)). Thus the problem is reduced to the purely algebraic problem of relating the homology groups of the tensor product of $C(X)$ and $C(Y)$ to the homology groups of $C(X)$ and $C(Y)$. This relation is furnished by the Künneth formula, whose validity we establish under much more general circumstances than would be required by the topological situation. For, in that case, we are concerned with free chain complexes of $\mathbb{Z}$-modules; the argument we give permits arbitrary chain complexes $\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D}$ of $\Lambda$-modules, where $\Lambda$ is any p.i.d., provided only that one of $\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D}$ is flat. This generality allows us then to subsume under the same theory not only the Künneth formula in its original context but also another important result drawn from algebraic topology, the universal coefficient theorem in homology.

When the Künneth formula is viewed in a purely algebraic context, it is natural to ask whether there is a similar ("dual") formula relating to Hom instead of the tensor product. It turns out that this is the case, and we give such a development in Section 3. Here the topological motivation is not so immediate, but we do get, by specialization, the universal coefficient theorem in cohomology.

Applications are given in Section 4. Others will be found in Chapter VI.

## 1. Double Complexes

Definition. A double complex of chains $\boldsymbol{B}$ over $\Lambda$ is an object in $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}^{\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}}$, together with two endomorphisms $\boldsymbol{\partial}^{\prime}: B \rightarrow B, \boldsymbol{\partial}^{\prime \prime}: B \rightarrow B$ of degree (-1,0) and $(0,-1)$ respectively, called the differentials, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\partial}^{\prime} \partial^{\prime}=0, \quad \partial^{\prime \prime} \partial^{\prime \prime}=0, \quad \partial^{\prime \prime} \partial^{\prime}+\partial^{\prime} \partial^{\prime \prime}=0 \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In other words, we are given a bigraded family of $\Lambda$-modules $\left\{B_{p, q}\right\}$, $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and two families of $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms

$$
\left\{\partial_{p, q}^{\prime}: B_{p, q} \rightarrow B_{p-1, q}\right\}, \quad\left\{\partial_{p, q}^{\prime \prime}: B_{p, q} \rightarrow B_{p, q-1}\right\},
$$

such that (1.1) holds. As in Chapter IV we shall suppress the subscripts of the differentials when the meaning of the symbols is clear.

We leave to the reader the obvious definition of a morphism of double complexes. We now describe two ways to construct a chain complex out of $B$.

First we define a graded module Tot $\boldsymbol{B}$ by

$$
(\operatorname{Tot} B)_{n}=\bigoplus_{p+q=n} B_{p, q} .
$$

Notice that $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\prime}(\operatorname{Tot} B)_{n} \subseteq(\operatorname{Tot} B)_{n-1}, \partial^{\prime \prime}(\operatorname{Tot} B)_{n} \subseteq(\operatorname{Tot} B)_{n-1}$, and that

$$
\left(\partial^{\prime}+\partial^{\prime \prime}\right) \cdot\left(\partial^{\prime}+\partial^{\prime \prime}\right)=\partial^{\prime} \partial^{\prime}+\partial^{\prime \prime} \partial^{\prime}+\partial^{\prime} \partial^{\prime \prime}+\partial^{\prime \prime} \partial^{\prime \prime}=0 .
$$

Thus Tot $B$ becomes a chain complex if we set

$$
\partial=\partial^{\prime}+\partial^{\prime \prime}:(\operatorname{Tot} B)_{n} \rightarrow(\operatorname{Tot} B)_{n-1},
$$

for all $n$. We call Tot $\boldsymbol{B}$ the (first) total chain complex of $\boldsymbol{B}$. Second, we define a graded module $\operatorname{Tot}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{B}$ by

$$
\left(\operatorname{Tot}^{\prime} B\right)_{n}=\prod_{p+q=n} B_{p, q} .
$$

Then if $b=\left\{b_{p, q}\right\} \in\left(\operatorname{Tot}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{B}\right)_{n}$, we define $\partial b$ by

$$
(\partial b)_{p, q}=\partial^{\prime} b_{p+1, q}+\partial^{\prime \prime} b_{p, q+1} .
$$

Again, the relations (1.1) guarantee that $\partial$ is a differential, so we obtain Tot' $^{\prime} \boldsymbol{B}$, the (second) total chain complex of $\boldsymbol{B}$. Note that $\operatorname{Tot} \boldsymbol{B} \subseteq$ Tot' $^{\prime} \boldsymbol{B}$, the inclusion being an equality if for example $B_{p, q}=0$ for $p$ or $q$ negative (positive).

Of course, given a double complex $\boldsymbol{B}$, we may form the partial chain complexes ( $\boldsymbol{B}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\prime}$ ) and $\left(\boldsymbol{B}, \boldsymbol{\partial}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ (of graded $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$-modules). If $H\left(\boldsymbol{B}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\prime}\right)$ is the homology module of ( $\boldsymbol{B}, \boldsymbol{\partial}^{\prime}$ ), then $\boldsymbol{\partial}^{\prime \prime}$ plainly induces a differential $\boldsymbol{\partial}_{*}^{\prime \prime}$ in $H\left(B, \boldsymbol{\partial}^{\prime}\right)$ by the rule

$$
\partial_{*}^{\prime \prime}[z]=\left[\partial^{\prime \prime} z\right]
$$

where $z$ is a cycle of $\left(B, \partial^{\prime}\right)$; for by (1.1) $\partial^{\prime \prime} z$ is a $\partial^{\prime}$-cycle and if $z=\partial^{\prime} b$ then $\partial^{\prime \prime} z=\partial^{\prime \prime} \lambda^{\prime} b=-\partial^{\prime} \partial^{\prime \prime} b$ is a $\partial^{\prime}$-boundary. Writing $\partial^{\prime \prime}$ for $\partial_{*}^{\prime \prime}$ by abuse of notation we may thus form

$$
\begin{equation*}
H\left(H\left(B, \partial^{\prime}\right), \partial^{\prime \prime}\right) \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and, similarly, we may form

$$
\begin{equation*}
H\left(H\left(\boldsymbol{B}, \boldsymbol{c}^{\prime \prime}\right), \partial^{\prime}\right) \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

A principal object of the study of double complexes is to establish a connection between (1.2), (1.3) and the homology of $\operatorname{Tot} \boldsymbol{B}$ or $\mathrm{Tot}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{B}$. In general, this connection is given by a spectral sequence (see Section VIII.9), but there are cases, some of which will be discussed in detail in this chapter, in which the connection is much simpler to describe.

Examples. (a) Given two chain complexes $\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D}$ of right and left $\Lambda$-modules, respectively, we define $B$, a double complex of abelian groups, by

$$
\begin{gathered}
B_{p . q}=C_{p} \otimes_{\Lambda} D_{q}, \\
\partial^{\prime}(c \otimes d)=\partial c \otimes d, \quad \partial^{\prime \prime}(c \otimes d)=(-1)^{p} c \otimes \partial d, \quad c \in C_{p}, \quad d \in D_{q} .
\end{gathered}
$$

(1.1) is then easily verified; we remark that the sign $(-1)^{p}$ is inserted into the definition of $\hat{a}^{\prime \prime}$ to guarantee that $\partial^{\prime \prime} \partial^{\prime}+\partial^{\prime} \partial^{\prime \prime}=0$. Other devices would also imply this relation, but the device employed is standard. We call Tot $\boldsymbol{B}$ the tensor product of $\boldsymbol{C}$ and D , and write

$$
\begin{aligned}
\boldsymbol{B} & =\boldsymbol{C} \otimes_{\Lambda} \boldsymbol{D}, \\
\operatorname{Tot} \boldsymbol{B} & =\boldsymbol{C} \otimes_{\Lambda} \boldsymbol{D} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We record explicitly the differential in Tot $\boldsymbol{B}=\boldsymbol{C} \otimes_{\Lambda} \boldsymbol{D}$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial^{\otimes}(c \otimes d)=\partial c \otimes d+(-1)^{p} c \otimes \partial d, \quad c \in C_{p}, \quad d \in D_{q} . \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

It will be convenient in the sequel to write $\eta: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}$ for the involution given by $\eta(c)=(-1)^{p} c, c \in C_{p}$, so that (1.4) asserts that $\partial^{\otimes}=\lambda \otimes 1+\eta \otimes \partial$. Moreover

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta \partial=-\partial \eta, \quad \eta^{2}=1 . \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

(b) For our second example we consider two chain complexes of $\Lambda$-modules $\boldsymbol{D}, \boldsymbol{E}$ and define a double complex $\boldsymbol{B}$. of abelian groups, by

$$
\begin{aligned}
B_{p, q} & =\operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(D_{-p}, E_{q}\right), \\
\left(\partial^{\prime} f\right)(d) & =(-1)^{p+q+1} f(\partial d), \quad d \in D_{-p+1}, f: D_{-p} \rightarrow E_{q}, \\
\left(\partial^{\prime \prime} f\right)(d) & =\partial(f d), \quad d \in D_{-p}, f: D_{-p} \rightarrow E_{q} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Obviously $\partial^{\prime} \partial^{\prime}=0, \partial^{\prime \prime} \boldsymbol{\partial}^{\prime \prime}=0$; also

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\partial^{\prime \prime} \partial^{\prime} f\right)(d)=\partial\left(\partial^{\prime} f\right)(d)=(-1)^{p+q+1} \partial(f(\partial d)), \\
& \left(\partial^{\prime} \partial^{\prime \prime} f\right)(d)=(-1)^{p+q}\left(\partial^{\prime \prime} f\right)(\partial d)=(-1)^{p+q} \partial(f(\partial d)),
\end{aligned}
$$

$d \in D_{-p+1}, f: D_{-p} \rightarrow E_{q}$, so that $\partial^{\prime \prime} \partial^{\prime}+\partial^{\prime} \partial^{\prime \prime}=0$.
The presence of the term $D_{-p}$ in the definition of $B_{p, q}$ is dictated by the requirement that $\lambda^{\prime}$ have degree ( -1.0 ). Other conventions may also, of course, be used. In particular if $\boldsymbol{D}$ is a chain complex and $\boldsymbol{E}$ a cochain complex, then by taking $B_{p, q}^{*}=\operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(D_{p}, E_{q}\right)$, we obviously obtain a double complex of cochains. This convention is often the appropriate one; however, for our purposes in this chapter it is better to adopt the stated convention, whereby $\boldsymbol{B}$ is always a double complex of chains, but the translation to $\boldsymbol{B}^{*}$ is automatic.

We call Tot' $\boldsymbol{B}$ the chain complex of homomorphisms from $\boldsymbol{D}$ to $\boldsymbol{E}$, and write

$$
\begin{aligned}
B & =\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(D, E), \\
\operatorname{Tot}^{\prime} B & =\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(D, E) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We record explicitly the differential in $\operatorname{Tot}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{B}=\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(\boldsymbol{D}, \boldsymbol{E})$, namely.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\partial^{H} f\right)_{p, q}=(-1)^{p+q} f_{p+1, q} \partial+\partial f_{p, q+1}, \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $f=\left\{f_{p, q}\right\}, f_{p, q}: D_{-p} \rightarrow E_{q}$.
Our reason for preferring the second total complex in this example is made clear in the following basic adjointness relation. Note first however that if $\boldsymbol{E}$ is a chain complex of abelian groups, then we may give $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{Z}}\left(D_{-p}, E_{q}\right)$ the structure of a left (right) $\Lambda$-module if $D$ is a chain complex of right (left) $\Lambda$-modules; and then $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{Z}}(\boldsymbol{D}, \boldsymbol{E})$ is a chaincomplex of left (right) $\Lambda$-modules, since $\partial^{\prime}$ and $i^{\prime \prime}$ are plainly $\Lambda$-module homomorphisms. We write Hom for $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{z}}$ and state the adjointness theorem as follows.

Theorem 1.1. Let $\boldsymbol{C}$ be a chain complex of right $\Lambda$-modules, $\boldsymbol{D}$ a chain complex of left $\Lambda$-modules and $\mathbf{E}$ a chain complex of abelian groups. Then there is a natural isomorphism of chain complexes of abelian groups

$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(C \otimes_{\Lambda} D . E\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, \operatorname{Hom}(D, E))
$$

Proof. We have already observed the basic adjointness relation (Theorem III. 7.2)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{-p} \otimes_{\Lambda} D_{-q}, E_{r}\right) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(C_{-p}, \operatorname{Hom}\left(D_{-q}, E_{r}\right)\right) \tag{1.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

This induces a natural isomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Hom}\left(C \otimes_{\Lambda} D, E\right) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, \operatorname{Hom}(D, E)) \tag{1.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

as graded abelian groups, and it remains to check the compatibility with the differentials. Note that we achieve this last isomorphism precisely
because we have chosen the second total complex as the definition of the Hom complex.

Now let $f_{(p, q), r}$ correspond to $f_{p,(q, r)}$ under the isomorphism (1.7), and let $f=\left\{f_{(p . q), r}\right\}, f^{\prime}=\left\{f_{p .(q . r)}\right\}$, so that $f$ corresponds to $f^{\prime}$ under (1.8). Then, if $c \in C_{-p}, d \in D_{-q}$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left(\partial^{H} f\right)_{(p, q) \cdot r}(c \otimes d) \\
=(-1)^{p+q+r}\left(f_{(p+1, q), r}(\partial c \otimes d)+(-1)^{p} f_{(p, q+1), r}(c \otimes \partial d)\right)+\partial f_{(p, q), r+1}(c \otimes d):
\end{gathered}
$$

on the other hand

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left(\partial^{H} f^{\prime}\right)_{p,(q, r)}(c)(d) \\
=(-1)^{p+q+r}\left(f_{p+1,(q, r)} \partial c\right)(d)+\left(\partial^{H} f^{\prime}(c)\right)_{p, r}(d) \\
=(-1)^{p+q+r}\left(f_{p+1,(q, r)} \partial c\right)(d)+(-1)^{q+r} f_{p,(q+1, r)}(c)(\partial d)+\partial\left(f_{p,(q, r+1)}(c)\right)(d)
\end{gathered}
$$

This calculation shows that $\partial^{H} f$ corresponds to $\partial^{H} f^{\prime}$ under (1.8) and completes the proof of the theorem. []

This theorem will be used in Section 4 to obtain connections between the functors Hom, Ext, $\otimes$, and Tor in the category of abelian groups.

We close this section with some remarks on the homotopy relation in the chain complexes $C \otimes_{\Lambda} D, \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, D)$. First we remark that a chain map $\varphi: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$ plainly induces chain maps

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \varphi_{\sharp}: C \otimes_{\Lambda} D \rightarrow C^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} D, \\
& \varphi^{\sharp}: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(C^{\prime}, D\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, D)
\end{aligned}
$$

while a chain map $\boldsymbol{\psi}: \boldsymbol{D} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}^{\prime}$ induces chain maps

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \boldsymbol{\psi}_{\sharp}: C \otimes_{A} D \rightarrow C \otimes_{A} D^{\prime}, \\
& \boldsymbol{\psi}_{b}: \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(C, D^{\prime}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Moreover, we have the commutation laws

$$
\boldsymbol{\psi}_{\sharp} \varphi_{\sharp}=\varphi_{\sharp} \psi_{\sharp}, \boldsymbol{\psi}_{b} \varphi^{\sharp}=\varphi^{\sharp} \boldsymbol{\psi}_{b},
$$

so that the tensor product complex and the homomorphism complex are both bifunctors. Now suppose that $\Gamma$ is a chain homotopy from $\varphi$ to $\varphi^{\prime}$. where $\varphi . \varphi^{\prime}: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$. Thus $\varphi^{\prime}-\varphi=\nabla \Gamma+\Gamma \partial$. It then follows easily that $\Gamma_{\sharp}$. defined in the obvious way, is a chain homotopy from $\varphi_{\sharp}$ to $\varphi_{\sharp}^{\prime}$. For plainly

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi_{\sharp}^{\prime}-\varphi_{\sharp}=\varphi^{\prime} \otimes 1-\varphi \otimes 1 & =\left(\varphi^{\prime}-\varphi\right) \otimes 1 \\
& =(\partial \Gamma+\Gamma \partial) \otimes 1 \\
& =(\partial \otimes 1)(\Gamma \otimes 1)+(\Gamma \otimes 1)(\partial \otimes 1) \\
& =(\partial \otimes 1+\eta \otimes \partial)(\Gamma \otimes 1)+(\Gamma \otimes 1)(\partial \otimes 1+\eta \otimes \mathrm{C}), \\
& \text { since } \eta \Gamma+\Gamma \eta=0, \\
& =\partial^{\otimes} \Gamma_{\sharp}+\Gamma_{\sharp} \partial^{\otimes} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly one shows that $\Gamma$ induces a chain homotopy, which we call $\Gamma^{\sharp}$, between $\varphi^{\prime *}$ and $\varphi^{*}$ and that if $\boldsymbol{\Delta}$ is a chain homotopy from $\psi$ to $\boldsymbol{\psi}^{\prime}$, where $\psi, \psi^{\prime}: D \rightarrow D^{\prime}$, then $\Delta$ induces a chain homotopy $\Delta_{\#}$ from $\psi_{\#}$ to $\psi_{\#}^{\prime}$ and $\Delta_{b}$ from $\psi_{b}$ to $\psi_{b}^{\prime}$. The reader will. in fact. easily prove the following generalization.

Proposition 1.2. Chain maps $\varphi: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{\psi}: \boldsymbol{D} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}^{\prime}$ induce chain maps

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi \otimes \psi & : C \otimes_{\Lambda} D \rightarrow C^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} D^{\prime} \\
\operatorname{Hom}(\varphi, \psi) & : \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(C^{\prime}, D\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(C, D^{\prime}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Moreover if $\varphi \simeq \varphi^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{\psi} \simeq \boldsymbol{\psi}^{\prime}$, then $\varphi \otimes \boldsymbol{\psi} \simeq \varphi^{\prime} \otimes \psi^{\prime}$,

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(\boldsymbol{\varphi}, \boldsymbol{\psi}) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}\left(\boldsymbol{\varphi}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{\varphi}^{\prime}\right)
$$

Corollary 1.3. If $C \simeq C^{\prime}, D \simeq D^{\prime}$, then $C \otimes_{A} D \simeq C^{\prime} \otimes_{A} D^{\prime}$,

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D}) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(\boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{D}^{\prime}\right)
$$

We note finally that we obtain special cases $C \otimes_{\Lambda} D, \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, D)$ by allowing one of the chain complexes $\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D}$ to degenerate to a single $\Lambda$-module, regarded as a chain complex concentrated in dimension 0 . We shall feel free to speak of these special cases, and to refer to them by the notation indicated, in the sequel, without further discussion. Here, however, one remark is in order with regard to $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(C, B)$. It is natural to regard $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(C, B)$ as a cochain complex, in which

$$
C^{n}=\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(C_{n}, B\right)
$$

and $\delta^{n}: C^{n} \rightarrow C^{n+1}$ is induced by $\partial_{n+1}$. Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
C^{n}=\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, B)\right)_{-n} . \tag{1.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Study of (1.6) shows that $\delta^{n}$ differs from $\partial_{-n}^{\boldsymbol{H}}$ only in sign. Thus there is no real harm in identifying $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, B)$, as a special case of $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(C, D)$, with the cochain complex $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(C, B)$, by means of (1.9). We exploit this observation later in Sections 3 and 4.

## Exercises:

1.1. Show that if $\Lambda$ is a commutative ring, then $C \otimes_{\Lambda} D, \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(C, D)$ acquire naturally the structure of chain complexes over $\Lambda$ and that there are then natural isomorphisms of chain-complexes over $\Lambda$

$$
\begin{aligned}
C \otimes_{\Lambda} D & \cong D \otimes_{\Lambda} C, \\
C^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda}\left(C \otimes_{\Lambda} C^{\prime \prime}\right) & \cong\left(C^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} C\right) \otimes_{\Lambda} C^{\prime \prime}, \\
\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(C^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} C, C^{\prime \prime}\right) & \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(C^{\prime}, \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(C, C^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

1.2. Prove Proposition 1.2 in detail.
1.3. Propose other "rules of sign" for the differentials in $C \otimes_{\Lambda} D, \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, D)$ which preserve the adjointness relation of Theorem 1.1.
1.4. We define a differential right $\Lambda$-module with involution to be a right $\Lambda$-module $A$ equipped with an endomorphism $d: A \rightarrow A$ such that $d^{2}=0$ and an involution $\eta: A \rightarrow A$ such that $d \eta=-\eta d$. Given such an object $A$, show how to introduce a differential into $A \otimes_{\Lambda} B$ where $B$ is a differential left $\Lambda$-module, and into $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(A, B)$ where $B$ is a differential right $\Lambda$-module. Suggest a definition of a chain map of differential $\Lambda$-modules with involution, and of a chain homotopy between such chain maps.
1.5. Let $\Lambda$ be a commutative ring and let $A$ be a chain complex over $\Lambda$. Show that there are natural isomorphisms of chain complexes

$$
\Lambda \otimes_{\Lambda} A \xrightarrow{\sim} A, \quad A \otimes_{\Lambda} \Lambda \xrightarrow{\sim} A
$$

(considering $\Lambda$ as a chain complex concentrated in dimension zero). Define a differential graded algebra $\boldsymbol{A}$ as a chain complex $\boldsymbol{A}$ together with a chain map $\boldsymbol{\eta}: \Lambda \rightarrow \boldsymbol{A}$ (unity) and a chain map $\mu: A \otimes_{\Lambda} A \rightarrow A$ (product) such that the diagrams of Exercise III. 7.8 are commutative. (If the differential in $\boldsymbol{A}$ is trivial we simply speak of a graded algebra over $\Lambda$.) If $\boldsymbol{A}, \boldsymbol{B}$ are differential graded algebras over $\Lambda$, show how to give $A \otimes_{\Lambda} B$ the structure of a differential graded algebra.
1.6. Show that if $\left\{A_{i}\right\},-\infty<i<+\infty$, is a graded algebra over the commutative ring $\Lambda$ then $A=\bigoplus_{i} A_{i}$ is an algebra over $\Lambda$. (We then call $A$ internally graded.)

## 2. The Künneth Theorem

The Künneth theorem expresses, under certain restrictive hypotheses, the homology of the tensor product $C \otimes_{\Lambda} D$ in terms of the homology of $\boldsymbol{C}$ and $\boldsymbol{D}$. Our main restriction will be to insist that $\Lambda$ be a principal ideal domain (p.i.d.). Of course, the most important case is that of $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$, but we do not gain any simplicity by committing ourselves to the domain $\mathbb{Z}$.

However even the restriction to the case when $\Lambda$ is a p.i.d. is not enough, as the following example shows.

Example. Let $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$. Let $\boldsymbol{C}=\mathbb{Z}_{2}$, concentrated in dimension 0 , and let $D=C$. Let $C_{0}^{\prime}=\mathbb{Z}=(t), C_{1}^{\prime}=\mathbb{Z}=(s), C_{p}^{\prime}=0, p \neq 0,1$, and let $\partial s=2 t$. Then plainly

$$
\begin{gathered}
H_{p}(C)=H_{p}\left(C^{\prime}\right), \\
H_{1}\left(C^{\prime} \otimes D\right)=\mathbb{Z}_{2}, \quad H_{1}(\boldsymbol{C} \otimes D)=0 .
\end{gathered}
$$

Thus the homology of $\boldsymbol{C} \otimes \boldsymbol{D}$ is not determined by that of $\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D}$.
To eliminate this counterexample we make a further hypothesis, namely that one of $\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D}$ is flat (a chain complex is flat if its constituent modules are flat). We may then prove

Theorem 2.1. Let $\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D}$ be chain complexes over the p.i.d. $\Lambda$, and suppose that one of $\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D}$ is flat. Then there is a natural short exact sequence

$$
\underset{p+q=n}{\oplus} H_{p}(C) \otimes_{\Lambda} H_{q}(D) \leftrightarrows H_{n}\left(C \otimes_{\Lambda} D\right) \rightarrow \underset{p+q=n-1}{ } \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{\Lambda}\left(H_{p}(C), H_{q}(D)\right),(2.1)
$$

where $\zeta$ is induced by the inclusion mapping

$$
Z_{p}(C) \otimes_{\Lambda} Z_{q}(D) \rightarrow Z_{p+q}\left(C \otimes_{\Lambda} D\right)
$$

of representative cycles.
Moreover the sequence splits, but not naturally.
Proof. We recall the boundary operator $\partial^{\otimes}$ in $C \otimes_{\Lambda} D$, given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial^{\otimes}(c \otimes d)=\partial c \otimes d+(-1)^{p} c \otimes \lambda d, \quad c \in C_{p}, \quad d \in D_{q} . \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now it is plain that (over any commutative ring $\Lambda$ ). there is a natural isomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
C \otimes_{\Lambda} D \cong D \otimes_{\Lambda} C \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

given by $c \otimes d \mapsto(-1)^{p q} d \otimes c, c \in C_{p}, d \in D_{q}$, so that it is sufficient to prove the theorem when $\boldsymbol{C}$ is flat.

We next introduce the notation

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
Z_{p}=Z_{p}(C), & B_{p}=B_{p}(C)  \tag{2.4}\\
\bar{Z}_{p}=Z_{p}(D), & \bar{B}_{p}=B_{p}(D) .
\end{array}
$$

We consider $\boldsymbol{Z}=\left\{Z_{p}\right\}, \boldsymbol{B}=\left\{B_{p}\right\}$ as complexes with trivial differentials. We also introduce the notation $B_{p}^{\prime}=B_{p-1}(C)$ and the complex $\boldsymbol{B}^{\prime}=\left\{B_{p}^{\prime}\right\}$, where the grading is chosen precisely so that the differential in $\boldsymbol{C}$ may be regarded as a chain map $\boldsymbol{\partial}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{B}^{\prime}$. We then consider the exact sequence of chain complexes

$$
0 \rightarrow Z \xrightarrow{\rightarrow} C \xrightarrow{\partial} B^{\prime} \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Since $\Lambda$ is a p.i.d. and since $\boldsymbol{C}$ is flat, it follows that $\boldsymbol{Z}, \boldsymbol{B}$, and $\boldsymbol{B}^{\prime}$ are flat also. Thus we obtain an exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow Z \otimes_{\Lambda} D \xrightarrow{i \otimes 1} C \otimes_{\Lambda} D \xrightarrow{\partial \otimes 1} B^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} D \rightarrow 0 \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

of chain complexes. We apply Theorem IV. 2.1 to (2.5) to obtain the exact triangle


Note that $(\partial \otimes 1)_{*}$ has degree 0 and that $\omega$ has degree -1 . If we replace $H\left(B^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} D\right)$ by $H\left(B \otimes_{\Lambda} D\right)$ then $(\partial \otimes 1)_{*}$ has degree -1 and $\omega$ has degree 0 .

We now analyse $H\left(B^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} D\right)$. We first remark that since the differential in $\boldsymbol{B}^{\prime}$ is trivial, the differential in $\boldsymbol{B}^{\prime} \otimes \boldsymbol{D}$ is $\mathbf{1} \otimes \boldsymbol{\partial}$ up to a sign. Hence we may compute $H\left(\boldsymbol{B}^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} \boldsymbol{D}\right)$ using the differential $1 \otimes \boldsymbol{\partial}$. So
consider the complex

$$
\cdots \rightarrow\left(B^{\prime} \otimes_{A} D\right)_{n+1} \xrightarrow{(1 \otimes \partial)_{n+1}}\left(B^{\prime} \otimes_{A} D\right)_{n} \xrightarrow{(1 \otimes \partial)_{n}}\left(B^{\prime} \otimes_{A} D\right)_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots .
$$

Since $\boldsymbol{B}^{\prime}$ is flat, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{ker}(\mathbf{1} \otimes \boldsymbol{\partial})_{n}=\left(\boldsymbol{B}^{\prime} \otimes_{A} \overline{\mathbf{Z}}\right)_{n}=\left(\boldsymbol{B} \otimes_{\Lambda} \overline{\mathbf{Z}}\right)_{n-1}, \\
& i m(\mathbf{1} \otimes \partial)_{n+1}=\left(\boldsymbol{B}^{\prime} \otimes_{A} \overline{\boldsymbol{B}}\right)_{n}=\left(\boldsymbol{B} \otimes_{A} \overline{\boldsymbol{B}}\right)_{n-1},
\end{aligned}
$$

so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{B}^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} \boldsymbol{D}\right)=\left(\boldsymbol{B} \otimes_{\Lambda} H(\boldsymbol{D})\right)_{n-1} . \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, since $\boldsymbol{Z}$ is flat,

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{n}\left(Z \otimes_{\Lambda} D\right)=\left(Z \otimes_{\Lambda} H(D)\right)_{n} \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus (2.6) becomes


Moreover, it is plain that $(\boldsymbol{\imath} \otimes 1)_{*}$ induces $\zeta$ in the statement of the theorem. We next analyse $\omega$. We revert to (2.5) and pick a representative $\partial c \otimes z$ of a generator $\partial c \otimes[z]$ of $H\left(B \otimes_{\Lambda} D\right)=B \otimes_{\Lambda} H(D)$. Then

$$
\partial c \otimes z=(\partial \otimes 1)(c \otimes z)
$$

and $\partial^{\otimes}(c \otimes z)=\partial c \otimes z$. Thus $\omega(\partial c \otimes[z])$ is the homology class in $H\left(Z \otimes_{A} D\right)=Z \otimes_{A} H(D)$, of $\partial c \otimes z$. This means that $\omega$ in (2.9) is simply induced by the inclusion $\boldsymbol{B} \subseteq \boldsymbol{Z}$. Finally, since $\boldsymbol{Z}$ is flat. we obtain the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{\Lambda}(H(C), H(D)) \rightarrow B \otimes_{\Lambda} H(D) \xrightarrow{\omega} Z \otimes_{\Lambda} H(D) \rightarrow H(C) \otimes_{\Lambda} H(D) \rightarrow 0
$$

where $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{1}(-,-)$ has the obvious meaning on graded modules. Hence (2.9) yields the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow H(C) \otimes_{\Lambda} H(D) \xrightarrow{\zeta} H\left(C \otimes_{\Lambda} D\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{\Lambda}(H(C) . H(D)) \rightarrow 0 .
$$

This sequence is, however, precisely the sequence (2.1).
It is plain, without going into details, that every step in the argument is natural, so that the Künneth sequence is itself natural.

We prepare for the proof that the Künneth sequence splits by demonstrating some basic lemmas related to free chain complexes over p.i.d.'s.

Lemma 2.2. Let $\boldsymbol{H}$ be a graded module over the p.i.d. $\Lambda$. Then there exists a free chain complex $\boldsymbol{C}$ over $\Lambda$ such that $H(C) \cong \boldsymbol{H}$.

Proof. Let $0 \rightarrow R_{p} \rightarrow F_{p} \rightarrow H_{p} \rightarrow 0$ be a free presentation of $H_{p}$. Set

$$
\begin{gathered}
C_{p}=F_{p} \oplus R_{p-1}, \\
\partial(x, y)=(y, 0), \quad x \in F_{p}, \quad y \in R_{p-1} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Then $\partial \partial=0, Z_{p}(C)=F_{p}, B_{p}(C)=R_{p}$, so that $H_{p}(C) \cong H_{p}$. $\quad \square$
Lemma 2.3. Let $\boldsymbol{C}, \mathrm{D}$ be chain complexes over the p.i.d. $\Lambda$ and let $C$ be free. Let $\psi: H(C) \rightarrow H(D)$ be a homomorphism. Then there exists a chain $\operatorname{map} \varphi: C \rightarrow D$ such that $\varphi_{*}=\boldsymbol{\psi}$.

Proof. Consider $0 \rightarrow B_{p} \rightarrow Z_{p} \rightarrow H_{p} \rightarrow 0, C_{p} \xrightarrow{\partial_{p}} B_{p-1}$, where everything relates to the chain complex $C$. Since $B_{p-1}$ is free, it follows that $C_{p}=Z_{p} \oplus Y_{p}$, where $\partial_{p} \mid Y_{p}: Y_{p} \xrightarrow{\sim} B_{p-1}$. Using barred letters to refer to $D$, we have the diagrams

here we use the fact that $Z_{p}$ is free (projective) to lift $\psi_{p}$ to $\varphi_{p}^{1}: Z_{p} \rightarrow \bar{Z}_{p}$, inducing $\theta_{p}: B_{p} \rightarrow \bar{B}_{p}$, and then we use the fact that $Y_{p}$ is free (projective) to lift $\theta_{p-1}$ to $\varphi_{p}^{2}: Y_{p} \rightarrow D_{p}$. The reader will now easily verify that $\varphi=\left\{\varphi_{p}\right\}$, where

$$
\varphi_{p}=\left\langle\varphi_{p}^{1}, \varphi_{p}^{2}\right\rangle: C_{p}=Z_{p} \oplus Y_{p} \rightarrow D_{p}
$$

is a chain map inducing $\boldsymbol{\psi}$ in homology. $\square$
We will need a refinement of Lemma 2.3 in the next section. For our present purposes we record the following immediate consequence of Lemmas 2.2 and 2.3.

Proposition 2.4. Let $C$ be a chain complex over the p.i.d. $\Lambda$. Then there exists a free chain complex $F$ over $\Lambda$ and a chain map $\varphi: F \rightarrow C$ such that $\varphi_{*}: H(F) \xrightarrow{\sim} H(C) . \square$

We are now ready to prove that the Künneth sequence (2.1) splits. We first make the simplifying assumption that $C$ and $D$ are free. Then we have projections $\boldsymbol{\kappa}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{Z}, \overline{\boldsymbol{\kappa}}: \boldsymbol{D} \rightarrow \overline{\boldsymbol{Z}}$ and plainly

$$
\kappa \otimes \bar{\kappa}: C \otimes_{\Lambda} D \rightarrow Z \otimes_{\Lambda} \bar{Z}
$$

maps a boundary of $\boldsymbol{C} \otimes_{A} \boldsymbol{D}$ to $\boldsymbol{B} \otimes_{A} \overline{\boldsymbol{Z}}+\boldsymbol{Z} \otimes_{A} \overline{\boldsymbol{B}}$. It follows that $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \otimes \overline{\boldsymbol{\kappa}}$ induces $\theta: H\left(C \otimes_{A} D\right) \rightarrow H(C) \otimes_{A} H(D)$ such that $\boldsymbol{\theta} \zeta=1$ on $H(C) \otimes_{A} H(D)$. Thus the sequence (2.1) splits if $\boldsymbol{C}$ and $\boldsymbol{D}$ are free.

We now return to the general case when $\boldsymbol{C}$ or $\boldsymbol{D}$ is flat. so that we have a Künneth sequence (2.1) natural in $\boldsymbol{C}$ and $\boldsymbol{D}$. By Proposition 2.4 we may find free chain complexes $\boldsymbol{F}, \boldsymbol{G}$ and chain maps $\varphi: F \rightarrow C$, $\boldsymbol{\psi}: \boldsymbol{G} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$ such that $\varphi_{*}: H(F) \xrightarrow{\sim} H(C), \psi_{*}: H(G) \xrightarrow{\sim} H(D)$. In view of the naturality of (2.1) we have a commutative diagram

However, since $\varphi_{*}, \boldsymbol{\psi}_{*}$ are isomorphisms. so are $\varphi_{*} \otimes \boldsymbol{\psi}_{*}, \operatorname{Tor}\left(\varphi_{*}, \boldsymbol{\psi}_{*}\right)$. Thus $(\varphi \otimes \psi)_{*}$ is an isomorphism and (2.12) exhibits an isomorphism between two exact sequences. Since the top sequence splits, so does the bottom one.

The only assertion of Theorem 2.1 remaining to be proved is that the splitting of (2.1) is not natural. Were it natural, we would have, for any $\varphi: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{\psi}: D \rightarrow D^{\prime}$, that $(\varphi \otimes \psi)_{*}=0$ if $\varphi_{*} \otimes \psi_{*}=0$ and $\operatorname{Tor}\left(\varphi_{*}, \psi_{*}\right)=0$. We will give a counter-example to this implication. Take $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$, $C_{1}=\mathbb{Z}=\left(s_{1}\right), \quad C_{0}=\mathbb{Z}=\left(s_{0}\right), \quad C_{n}=0, \quad n \neq 0,1, \quad \partial s_{1}=2 s_{0} ; \quad C_{1}^{\prime}=\mathbb{Z}=\left(s_{1}^{\prime}\right)$, $C_{n}^{\prime}=0, n \neq 1 ; \varphi_{1}\left(s_{1}\right)=s_{1}^{\prime} ; D_{0}=\mathbb{Z}_{2}=\left(t_{0}\right), D_{n}=0, n \neq 0 ; \boldsymbol{D}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{D} ; \boldsymbol{\psi}=\mathbf{1}$. Plainly $\varphi_{*}=0$, so that, were the splitting to be natural, we would have $(\varphi \otimes \psi)_{*}=0$. But $H_{1}(\boldsymbol{C} \otimes \boldsymbol{D})=\mathbb{Z}_{2}=\left(s_{1} \otimes t_{0}\right), H_{1}\left(C^{\prime} \otimes D^{\prime}\right)=\mathbb{Z}_{2}=\left(s_{1}^{\prime} \otimes t_{0}\right)$, so that $(\varphi \otimes \psi)_{*}: H_{1}(C \otimes D) \xrightarrow{\sim} H_{1}\left(C^{\prime} \otimes D\right)$. This completes the proof of Theorem 2.1. $]$

A particularly important special case of the Künneth sequence occurs when $\boldsymbol{D}$ is just a $\Lambda$-module $A$ regarded as a chain complex concentrated in dimension 0 . We then obtain a slightly stronger result.

Theorem 2.5. (Universal coefficient theorem in homology.) Let $\Lambda$ be a p.i.d., let $C$ be a flat chain complex over $\Lambda$ and let $A$ be a $\Lambda$-module. Then there is a natural short exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow H_{n}(C) \otimes_{A} A \xrightarrow{\zeta} H_{n}\left(C \otimes_{A} A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{1}\left(H_{n-1}(C), A\right) \rightarrow 0 . \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, (2.13) splits; the splitting is unnatural in $C$ but natural in $A$.
Proof. The only part of the assertion requiring proof is the final phrase. That the splitting is unnatural in $\boldsymbol{C}$ is attested by the example given to prove the unnaturality of the splitting of (2.1). Thus it remains to prove the naturality of the splitting of (2.13) in the variable $A$. If $\boldsymbol{C}$ is free, the splitting is given by $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \otimes 1: C \otimes_{A} A \rightarrow Z(C) \otimes_{A} A$. Thus, once $\boldsymbol{\kappa}$ is chosen, we get a left inverse $\theta$, to $\zeta$, which is plainly natural in $A$. If $C$
is an arbitrary flat chain complex over $\Lambda$, then, as demonstrated in the proof of Theorem 2.1, there is a free chain complex $F$ and a chain map $\boldsymbol{\varphi}: \boldsymbol{F} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}$ which induces an isomorphism of the universal coefficient sequence for $\boldsymbol{F}$ with the universal coefficient sequence for $\boldsymbol{C}$ which is natural in $A$. Since the splitting of the sequence for $F$ is natural in $A$, so is the splitting of the sequence for $\boldsymbol{C}$.

## Exercises:

2.1. Let $C$ be a resolution of $\mathbb{Z}_{k}$; thus $C_{0}=F, C_{1}=R, \partial_{1}$ is the inclusion, where $0 \rightarrow R \rightarrow F \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{k} \rightarrow 0$ is a presentation of $\mathbb{Z}_{k}$. Similarly let $D$ be a resolution of $\mathbb{Z}_{l}$. Compute $H(\boldsymbol{C} \otimes \boldsymbol{D}), H\left(\boldsymbol{C} \otimes \boldsymbol{D} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{m}\right)$.
2.2. State and prove a Künneth formula for the tensor product of three chain complexes over a p.i.d.
2.3. What does the Künneth formula become for tensor products over a field?
2.4. Show that if $\boldsymbol{A}$ is a differential graded algebra over the commutative ring $\Lambda$, then $H(A)$ is a graded algebra over $\Lambda$ (see Exercise 1.5).
2.5. How may we weaken the hypothesis on $\Lambda$ and still retain the validity of the Künneth formula?

## 3. The Dual Künneth Theorem

In this section we obtain a sequence which enables us to analyse the homology of $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D})$, in the sense in which the Künneth sequence provides an analysis of the homology of $C \otimes_{\Lambda} \boldsymbol{D}$. Again we suppose throughout that $\Lambda$ is a p.i.d.

Theorem 3.1. Let C, D be chain complexes over the p.i.d. $\Lambda$, with $\boldsymbol{C}$ free. Then there is a natural short exact sequence

$$
\begin{align*}
& \prod_{q-p=n+1} \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{1}\left(H_{p}(C), H_{q}(D)\right) \longmapsto H_{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, D)\right)  \tag{3.1}\\
& \xrightarrow[q-p=n]{\zeta} \prod_{q-p} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(H_{p}(C), H_{q}(D)\right)
\end{align*}
$$

where $\zeta$ associates with $f \in Z_{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(C, D)\right)$ the induced homomorphism $f_{*}: H(C) \rightarrow H(D)$. Moreover, the sequence splits non-naturally.

Proof. The reader should be able to provide the details of the proof of the exactness and naturality of (3.1) by retracing, with suitable modifications, the argument establishing (2.1). It is pertinent to comment that, if we define a chain map of degree $n$ from $\boldsymbol{C}$ to $\boldsymbol{D}$ to be a collection $f$ of morphisms $f_{p}: C_{p} \rightarrow D_{p+n}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f \partial=(-1)^{n} \partial f \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

then plainly (see (1.5)) such an $f$ is just a cycle of dimension $n$ of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D})$ and $f$ induces $f_{*} \in \prod_{q-p=n} \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{p}(\boldsymbol{C}), H_{q}(\boldsymbol{D})\right.$ ).

This clarifies the definition of $\zeta$; for it is plain from (1.6) that a boundary of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, D)$ maps a cycle of $C$ to a boundary of $D$. Further, we replace (2.5) by

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(B, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(Z, D) \rightarrow 0 \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here exactness is guaranteed by the fact that $\boldsymbol{B}$ is free; since we are concerned with the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(\boldsymbol{C},-)$ rather than $\boldsymbol{C} \otimes_{A}$ - (similarly for $\boldsymbol{Z}, \boldsymbol{B}$ ) we must demand that $\boldsymbol{C}$ be free rather than merely flat.

We now enter into detail with regard to the splitting of (3.1). Again we imitate the argument for the splitting of (2.1) by first assuming $D$ is also free. Reverting to the argument of Lemma 2.3 we see how to adapt it to the case of a homomorphism $\psi: H(C) \rightarrow H(D)$ of degree $n$. The only essential modification is that we must take

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi_{p}=\left\langle\varphi_{p}^{1},(-1)^{n} \varphi_{p}^{2}\right\rangle: C_{p}=Z_{p} \oplus Y_{p} \rightarrow D_{p+n} \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

in order to achieve $\varphi \hat{\lambda}=(-1)^{n} \partial \varphi$ (3.2). However, an additional point arises if $\boldsymbol{D}$ is also free; namely, we choose a fixed splitting

$$
D_{p+n}=\bar{Z}_{p+n} \oplus \bar{Y}_{p+n}
$$

for each $\underline{p}$, with $\bar{\delta} \mid \bar{Y}_{p+n}: \bar{Y}_{p+n} \xlongequal{\sim} \bar{B}_{p+n-1}$. Then the lifting of $\theta_{p-1}$ to $\varphi_{p}^{2}: Y_{p} \rightarrow \bar{Y}_{p+n}$ in (2.11) becomes canonical and the only choice exercised in the construction of $\varphi$ from $\psi$ is in the lifting of $\psi_{p}$ to $\varphi_{p}^{1}: Z_{p} \rightarrow \bar{Z}_{p+n}$. We now prove

Lemma 3.2. If $\boldsymbol{D}$ is free, the construction of $\boldsymbol{\varphi}$ from $\boldsymbol{\psi}$ in Lemma 2.3 induces a homomorphism

$$
\theta: \prod_{q-p=n} \operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(H_{p}(C), H_{q}(D)\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, D)\right)
$$

Proof. It is plain that the only assertion to be established is that the homology class of $\varphi$ in $H_{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, D)\right)$ is independent of the choice of $\boldsymbol{\varphi}^{1}$. Consider therefore a family of morphisms

$$
\alpha_{-p, q}: Z_{p} \rightarrow \bar{B}_{p+n}, \quad q=p+n .
$$

(The indexing is consistent with our rule in Example (b) of Section 1, whereby $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(C_{-p}, D_{q}\right)$ is indexed as $(p, q)$.) We may lift $\alpha_{-p . q}$ to

$$
\gamma_{-p, q+1}: Z_{p} \rightarrow \bar{Y}_{p+n+1}
$$

so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{\partial} \gamma=\alpha . \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now extend $\gamma_{-p, q+1}$ to $\gamma_{-p, q+1}: C_{p} \rightarrow D_{p+n+1}$ by defining $\gamma_{-p, q+1} \mid Y_{p}=0$.

According to the rule (3.4), and incorporating the canonical lifting of $\theta_{p-1}$ in (2.11), we see that $\alpha$ gives rise to the family of morphisms
$\beta_{-p, q}=\left\langle\alpha_{-p, q},(-1)^{n} \bar{\partial}^{-1} \circ \alpha_{-p+1, q-1} \circ \partial\right\rangle: C_{p}=Z_{p} \oplus Y_{p} \rightarrow D_{p+n}$.
Thus our assertion is proved if we can show that $\beta$ is a boundary. In fact we show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial^{H}(\gamma)=\beta . \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

For we find, by (1.6),

$$
\left(\partial^{H} \gamma\right)_{-p, q}=(-1)^{n} \gamma_{-p+1, q} \partial+\bar{\partial} \gamma_{-p, q+1} .
$$

Thus, on $Z_{p}$,

$$
\left(\hat{a}^{H} \gamma\right)_{-p, q}=\bar{\partial} \gamma_{-p . q+1}=\alpha_{-p, q}, \quad \text { by (3.5); }
$$

and, on $Y_{p}$,

$$
\left(\partial^{H} \gamma\right)_{-p, q}=(-1)^{n} \gamma_{-p+1, q} \partial=(-1)^{n} \bar{\partial}^{-1} \alpha_{-p+1, q-1} \partial,
$$

again by (3.5).
This proves (3.7) and hence the lemma. $\quad \square$
We now return to the proof of Theorem 3.1. It is plain that $\zeta \theta$ is the identity on $\prod \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{p}(\boldsymbol{C}), H_{q}(\boldsymbol{D})\right.$ ), so that we have indeed proved that (3.1) splits if $D$ is free. We now complete the proof exactly as for the sequence (2.1): that is, we use Proposition 2.4 to find a free chain complex $\boldsymbol{G}$ and a chain map $\varphi: \boldsymbol{G} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{D}$ inducing an isomorphism in homology; and then prove that the Künneth sequence for $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{G})$ is isomorphic to that for $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D})$. The reader is now invited to construct an example to show that the splitting is not natural. As in the case of (2.1) such an example is easily constructed with $\boldsymbol{D}$ concentrated in dimension 0 . This completes the proof of the theorem. $]$

We may apply Theorem 3.1 to the case when $D$ is a $\Lambda$-module $B$, regarded as a chain complex concentrated in dimension 0 . Let us then write $H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(C, B)\right)$ for $H_{-n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(C, B)\right)$. We obtain

Theorem 3.3. (Universal coefficient theorem in cohomology.) Let $\Lambda$ be a p.i.d., let $C$ be a free chain complex over $\Lambda$, and let $B$ be a $\Lambda$-module. Then there is a natural short exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}\left(H_{n-1}(C), B\right) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, B)\right) \stackrel{\zeta}{\rightarrow} \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{n}(C), B\right) \rightarrow 0 \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, (3.8) splits; the splitting is unnatural in $C$ but natural in $B$.
Proof. Only a few remarks are required. First, the notation

$$
H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(C, B)\right)
$$

is unambiguous, since the cohomology modules of the cochain complex $\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(C, B), \operatorname{Hom}(\partial, 1)\right)$ are given precisely by

$$
H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(C, B)\right)=H_{-n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(C, B)\right),
$$

where $B$ is the chain-complex consisting just of $B$ in dimension 0 . Second, the example (which the reader should have constructed!) to show that the splitting of (3.1) is not natural shows that the splitting of (3.8) is not natural in $C$. That the splitting is natural in $B$ is evident from the fact that, when $\boldsymbol{D}=\boldsymbol{B}$, we construct a canonical right inverse to $\zeta$ based on a splitting of $\boldsymbol{C}$ as $\boldsymbol{Z} \oplus \boldsymbol{Y}$. $\quad$

## Exercises:

3.1. Compute $H(H o m(C, D))$ where $\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D}$ are as in Exercise 2.1.
3.2. Prove that if $\boldsymbol{C}$ is a free chain complex of abelian groups, then

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{G}) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(\boldsymbol{C}, \mathbb{Z}) \otimes \boldsymbol{G}
$$

provided $C$ is finitely generated in each dimension or $G$ is finitely generated. Deduce that $\operatorname{Hom}(\boldsymbol{C}, G) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}(\boldsymbol{C}, \mathbb{Z}) \otimes G$ if $H(\boldsymbol{C})$ is finitely generated in each dimension. How may we generalize this to chain complexes over a ring $\Lambda$ ?
3.3. Use the result of the exercise above to obtain an alternative universal coefficient theorem for $\operatorname{Hom}(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{G})$ under suitable hypotheses. May we obtain in a similar way an alternative to the dual Künneth formula?
3.4. Reformulate the Künneth formula, regarding $\operatorname{Hom}(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{D})$ as a cochain complex.
3.5. Obtain a Künneth formula for $\operatorname{Tot} \boldsymbol{B}$, where $\boldsymbol{B}=\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(\boldsymbol{D}, E)$ (we worked with Tot $^{\prime} \boldsymbol{B}$ !). Prove the splitting property.

## 4. Applications of the Künneth Formulas

Since we are concerned to give here some fairly concrete applications, we will be content to state our results for the case $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$; we will propose in exercises the evident generalization to the case when $\Lambda$ is an arbitrary p.i.d. The following proposition is evident.

Proposition 4.1. Let $C^{\prime}, C, C^{\prime \prime}$ be chain complexes of abelian groups. Then there is a natural isomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(C^{\prime} \otimes C\right) \otimes C^{\prime \prime} \cong C^{\prime} \otimes\left(C \otimes C^{\prime \prime}\right) \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We are going to exploit (4.1) together with the companion formula (which is just Theorem 1.1 in the case $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$ )

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Hom}\left(C^{\prime} \otimes \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime \prime}\right) \cong \operatorname{Hom}\left(\boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}, \operatorname{Hom}\left(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

First, we consider (4.1). We take $C^{\prime}, C, C^{\prime \prime}$ to be resolutions of abelian groups $A^{\prime}, A, A^{\prime \prime}$. Thus, for example $C_{1}=R, C_{0}=F, C_{p}=0, p \neq 0,1$, and $\partial_{1}$ is the inclusion $R \cong F$, where

$$
0 \rightarrow R \rightarrow F \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0
$$

is a free presentation of $A$. If we compute homology by means of the Künneth formula on either side of (4.1), we find

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{0}\left(\left(C^{\prime} \otimes C\right) \otimes C^{\prime \prime}\right)=\left(A^{\prime} \otimes A\right) \otimes A^{\prime \prime}, \\
& H_{1}\left(\left(C^{\prime} \otimes C\right) \otimes C^{\prime \prime}\right) \cong \operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, A\right) \otimes A^{\prime \prime} \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime} \otimes A, A^{\prime \prime}\right), \\
& H_{2}\left(\left(C^{\prime} \otimes C\right) \otimes C^{\prime \prime}\right)=\operatorname{Tor}\left(\operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, A\right), A^{\prime \prime}\right) ; \\
& H_{0}\left(C^{\prime} \otimes\left(C \otimes C^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)=A^{\prime} \otimes\left(A \otimes A^{\prime \prime}\right), \\
& H_{1}\left(C^{\prime} \otimes\left(C \otimes C^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) \cong A^{\prime} \otimes \operatorname{Tor}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right) \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, A \otimes A^{\prime \prime}\right), \\
& H_{2}\left(C^{\prime} \otimes\left(C \otimes C^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, \operatorname{Tor}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where Tor means Tor ${ }_{1}^{\mathbf{T}}$. We readily infer
Theorem 4.2. Let $A^{\prime}, A, A^{\prime \prime}$ be abelian groups. There is then an unnatural isomorphism
$\operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, A\right) \otimes A^{\prime \prime} \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime} \otimes A, A^{\prime \prime}\right) \cong A^{\prime} \otimes \operatorname{Tor}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right) \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, A \otimes A^{\prime \prime}\right)$,
and a natural isomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Tor}\left(\operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, A\right), A^{\prime \prime}\right) \cong \operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, \operatorname{Tor}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. We simply show why (4.4) is natural. A homomorphism $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ induces a unique homotopy class of chain maps $\varphi: C(A) \rightarrow C(B)$, where $C(A), C(B)$ are resolutions of $A, B$. Thus from $\varphi^{\prime}: A^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime}$, $\varphi: A \rightarrow B, \varphi^{\prime \prime}: A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$, we obtain $\varphi^{\prime}: C\left(A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow C\left(B^{\prime}\right), \varphi: C(A) \rightarrow C(B)$, $\varphi^{\prime \prime}: C\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}\left(B^{\prime \prime}\right)$. Then Proposition 1.2 guarantees unique homotopy classes

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\varphi^{\prime} \otimes \varphi\right) \otimes \varphi^{\prime \prime}:\left(C\left(A^{\prime}\right) \otimes C(A)\right) \otimes C\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(C\left(B^{\prime}\right) \otimes C(B)\right) \otimes C\left(B^{\prime \prime}\right), \\
& \varphi^{\prime} \otimes\left(\varphi \otimes \varphi^{\prime \prime}\right): C\left(A^{\prime}\right) \otimes\left(C(A) \otimes C\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow C\left(B^{\prime}\right) \otimes\left(C(B) \otimes C\left(B^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

compatible with (4.1). Since the calculation of $H_{2}\left(\left(C^{\prime} \otimes C\right) \otimes C^{\prime \prime}\right)$, $H_{2}\left(C^{\prime} \otimes\left(C \otimes C^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)$ does not involve the splitting of the Künneth sequence (2.1), this proves naturality. $\quad]$

We now turn to (4.2) and use the same chain complexes $\boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime \prime}$ as in the proof of Theorem 4.2. Computing either side of (4.2) by means of the dual Künneth formula, we find

```
        \(H_{0}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(\boldsymbol{C}^{\prime} \otimes \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime} \otimes A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\),
        \(H_{-1}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(C^{\prime} \otimes C, C^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Hom}\left(\operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, A\right), A^{\prime \prime}\right) \oplus \operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime} \otimes A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\),
    \(H_{-2}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(C^{\prime} \otimes C, C^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Ext}\left(\operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, A\right), A^{\prime \prime}\right) ;\)
    \(H_{0}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(C^{\prime} . \operatorname{Hom}\left(C, C^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime} . \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)\right.\).
\(H_{-1}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(C^{\prime}, \operatorname{Hom}\left(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime}, \operatorname{Ext}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) \oplus \operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime}, \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)\right.\),
\(H_{-2}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(\boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}, \operatorname{Hom}\left(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime}, \operatorname{Ext}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)\right.\),
```

where Tor means Tor ${ }_{1}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ and Ext means Ext $\frac{1}{\mathbf{2}}$. We readily infer, leaving all details to the reader,

Theorem 4.3. Let $A^{\prime}, A, A^{\prime \prime}$ be abelian groups. There is then an unnatural isomorphism

$$
\begin{align*}
& \operatorname{Hom}\left(\operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, A\right), A^{\prime \prime}\right) \oplus \operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime} \otimes A . A^{\prime \prime}\right) \\
& \quad \cong \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime}, \operatorname{Ext}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) \oplus \operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime}, \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right), \tag{4.5}
\end{align*}
$$

and a natural isomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Ext}\left(\operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, A\right), A^{\prime \prime}\right) \cong \operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime}, \operatorname{Ext}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

We may draw some immediate inferences from Theorem 4.3.
Corollary 4.4. If $A$ is torsion-free, then $\operatorname{Ext}(A, B)$ is divisible, for all $B$.
Proof. It follows from (4.6) that, if $A$ is torsion-free, then

$$
\operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime}, \operatorname{Ext}(A . B)\right)=0
$$

for all $A^{\prime}, B$. This means that $\operatorname{Ext}(A, B)$ is injective, that is, divisible, for all B. $\quad$

Corollary 4.5. If $A^{\prime}$ is torsion-free, then $\operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime} . \operatorname{Ext}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)=0$ for all $A, A^{\prime \prime}$. $]$

Corollary 4.6. (i) There is a natural isomorphism

$$
\operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime}, \operatorname{Ext}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) \cong \operatorname{Ext}\left(A, \operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)
$$

(ii) There is an unnatural isomorphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime}, \operatorname{Ext}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) \oplus \operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime}, \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) \\
& \quad \cong \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, \operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) \oplus \operatorname{Ext}\left(A, \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Less immediate consequences are the following; the reader should recall that $\operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Z})=\mathbb{R}$ (see Chapter III, Exercise 6.2).

Corollary 4.7. If $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0, \operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$, then $A=0$.
Proof. By (4.5) we infer $\operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime} \otimes A, \mathbb{Z}\right)=0$ for all $A^{\prime}$. Now, since $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0, A$ is torsion-free. Thus if $A \neq 0$, take $A^{\prime}=\mathbb{Q}$. Then $\mathbb{Q} \otimes A$ is a non-zero vector space over $\mathbb{Q}$, so that $\operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Q} \otimes A, \mathbb{Z}) \neq 0$. $\quad \square$

Corollary 4.8. There is no abelian group $A$ such that $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=\mathbb{Q}$, $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$.
$\operatorname{Proof.}$ Since $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z})=\mathbb{Q}, A$ is a non-zero torsion-free group. Again by (4.5) we infer

$$
\operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Q} \otimes A, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Q})
$$

But $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Q}) \cong \mathbb{Q}$ and $\mathbb{Q} \otimes A$ is a non-zero vectorspace over $\mathbb{Q}$. Since $\operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Z})=\mathbb{R}$, we have a contradiction. $\quad \square$

Remark. Theorems 4.2 and 4.3 really express certain associativity relations between the bifunctors $\otimes$, Tor, Hom and Ext. Their true nature is masked by the traditional notation, adopted here, whereby $\otimes$ is written between the two arguments, while Tor, Hom and Ext are written to the left of their arguments. If we were to write

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
A * B & \text { for } & \operatorname{Tor}(A, B) \\
A \nmid B & \text { for } & \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \\
A \dagger B & \text { for } & \operatorname{Ext}(A, B)
\end{array}
$$

then (4.3)-(4.6) would assume the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(A^{\prime} * A\right) \otimes A^{\prime \prime} \oplus\left(A^{\prime} \otimes A\right) * A^{\prime \prime} & \cong A^{\prime} *\left(A \otimes A^{\prime \prime}\right) \oplus A^{\prime} \otimes\left(A * A^{\prime \prime}\right) \\
\left(A^{\prime} * A\right) * A^{\prime \prime} & \cong A^{\prime} *\left(A * A^{\prime \prime}\right), \\
\left(A^{\prime} * A\right) \pitchfork A^{\prime \prime} \oplus\left(A^{\prime} \otimes A\right) \dagger A^{\prime \prime} & \cong A^{\prime} \dagger\left(A \pitchfork A^{\prime \prime}\right) \oplus A^{\prime} \pitchfork\left(A \dagger A^{\prime \prime}\right) \\
\left(A^{\prime} * A\right) \dagger A^{\prime \prime} & \cong A^{\prime} \dagger\left(A \dagger A^{\prime \prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

These forms are surely more perspicuous.

## Exercises:

4.1. Extend the results of this section to modules over arbitrary p.i.d.'s.
4.2. Show that all isomorphisms obtained by considering tensor products of four chain complexes may be deduced from (4.3), (4.4) and the associativity of $\otimes$ by using functorial properties of $\otimes$ and Tor.
4.3. Prove (by a suitable counterexample) that (4.3) is not natural.
4.4. Similarly, prove that (4.5) is not natural.
4.5. Generalize Corollary 4.8 in the following sense: Find a family $\mathcal{F}$ of abelian groups such that $\mathbb{Q} \in \mathscr{F}$ and such that the relations $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \in \mathscr{F}, \operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z})=0$ have no solution.

## VI. Cohomology of Groups

In this chapter we shall apply the theory of derived functors to the important special case where the ground ring $\Lambda$ is the group ring $\mathbb{Z} G$ of an abstract group $G$ over the integers. This will lead us to a definition of cohomology groups $H^{n}(G, A)$ and homology groups $H_{n}(G, B), n \geqq 0$, where $A$ is a left and $B$ a right $G$-module (we speak of " $G$-modules" instead of " $\mathbb{Z} G$-modules"). In developing the theory we shall attempt to deduce as much as possible from general properties of derived functors. Thus, for example, we shall give a proof of the fact that $H^{2}(G, A)$ classifies extensions which is not based on a particular (i.e. standard) resolution.

The scope of the book (and of this chapter) clearly allows us to present the most fundamental results only. The interested reader is referred to the books [ $20,33,49 ; 41]$, for further material relating to the cohomology of groups.

In this introduction we first give a survey of the content of this chapter and will then discuss the historical origins of the theory in algebraic topology.

In Sections 1,2 we introduce the group ring and define the (co)homology groups. Then we exhibit the nature of these groups in dimensions 0 and 1 in Sections 3.4. Section 5 consists of a discussion of the fundamental interplay between the augmentation ideal. derivations, and the semidirect product. Section 6 is devoted to a short exact sequence associated with an extension of groups. We then apply this in Section 7 to compute the (co)homology of cyclic groups and in Section 8 to deduce the so called 5 -term exact sequence which connects the (co)homology in dimensions 1 and 2 . The 5 -term sequence is then used in Section 9 to exhibit relations between the homology of a group and its lower central series; and it is the main tool for the proof, in the next section, of the fact that $H^{2}(G, A)$ classifies extensions with abelian kernel.

We present in Section 11 the theory of relative injective and projective modules as far as it is necessary to give a proof of the reduction theorems (Section 12) and a description of various standard resolutions (Section 13). In Sections 14 and 15 we discuss the behavior of (co)homology with respect to free and direct products of groups. Also, we state the universal
coefficient theorems. We conclude the chapter with the definition of various important maps in (co)homology and finally apply the cohomology theory of groups to give a proof of Maschke's Theorem in the representation theory of groups.

Homological algebra has profited greatly from interaction with algebraic topology. Indeed. at a very superficial level, it is obvious that the homology theory of chain-complexes is just an algebraic abstraction (via, e.g., the singular chain-complex functor) of the homology theory of topological spaces. However, at a deeper level, the mathematical discipline known as homological algebra may be held to have originated with the homology theory of groups. This theory itself arose out of an observation of the topologist Witold Hurewicz in 1935 about aspherical spaces. An aspherical space is a topological space $X$ such that all the higher homotopy groups of $X, \pi_{i}(X), i \geqq 2$, are trivial. Hurewicz pointed out that the homology groups of a path-connected aspherical space $X$ are entirely determined by its fundamental group. It was natural, therefore, to inquire precisely how this determination was effected, and a solution was given independently by Hopf and Freudenthal in the years 1945 to 1946. Hopf based himself on his own study of the influence of the fundamental group on the second homology group of a space. Indeed, Hopf had shown earlier that if one considers the quotient group of the second homology group by the subgroup consisting of spherical cycles, then this group can be explicitly determined in terms of a given presentation of the fundamental group. The resulting formula has come to be known as Hopfs formula for $H_{2}(\pi)$, where $\pi$ is the fundamental group (see Section 10). Hopf generalized this result and defined higher homology groups of the group $\pi$ in terms of a certain standard resolution associated with the group $\pi$. These groups are then the homology groups of a pathconnected aspherical space $X$ with $\pi_{1}(X)=\pi$.

At about the same time (actually, in the case of Eilenberg and MacLane, a little earlier) certain cohomology groups of the group $\pi$ were being introduced and investigated by Eilenberg and MacLane and independently by Eckmann.

Actually, we know now that in a certain sense the second homology group $\mathrm{H}_{2}$ had been invented earlier, for back in 1904 Schur had introduced the notion of the multiplicator of a group. This group was studied by Schur in connection with the question of projective representations of a group. It turns out that Schur's multiplicator is canonically isomorphic to the second integral homology group, so that one could say that Schur's introduction of the multiplicator was, in a sense, the precursor of the theory.

The techniques employed by Hopf, Freudenthal, and Eckmann were all, in their initial phases, very strongly influenced by the topological application. If $X$ is an aspherical space, then its universal covering space
$\tilde{X}$ is contractible. Moreover, it is a space upon which the fundamental group acts freely. Thus the chain complex of $\tilde{X}$ is, in modern terminology, a free $\pi_{1}(X)$-resolution of the integers. If we take a group $B$ upon which $\pi_{1}(X)$ operates, that is to say, a $\pi_{1}(X)$-module $B$, then we may form the tensor product of the chain complex $C(\tilde{X})$ with $B$ over the group ring of $\pi_{1}(X)$, and this chain complex will yield the homology groups of $X$ with coefficients in the $\pi_{1}(X)$-module $B$, or, in other words, the homology groups of $X$ with local coefficients $B$. In particular, if $\pi_{1}(X)$ operates trivially on $B$ we will get the usual homology groups of $X$ with coefficients in $B$. If, instead of taking the tensor product we take the cochaincomplex $\operatorname{Hom}_{\pi}(C(\tilde{X}), A)$, where $\pi=\pi_{1}(X)$ and $A$ is a $\pi$-module, then we obtain the cohomology groups in the sense of Eckmann and EilenbergMacLane.

We now know, following Cartan, Eilenberg and MacLane, precisely how to interpret this entire program in a purely algebraic manner and it is this purely algebraic treatment that we give in this chapter.

## 1. The Group Ring

Let $G$ be a group written multiplicatively. The integral group ring $\mathbb{Z} G$ of $G$ is defined as follows. Its underlying abelian group is the free abelian group on the set of elements of $G$ as basis; the product of two basis elements is given by the product in $G$. Thus the elements of the group ring $\mathbb{Z} G$ are sums $\sum_{x \in G} m(x) x$, where $m$ is a function from $G$ to $\mathbb{Z}$ which takes the value zero except on a finite number of elements of $G$. The multiplication is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\sum_{x \in G} m(x) x\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{y \in G} m^{\prime}(y) y\right)=\sum_{x, y \in G}\left(m(x) \cdot m^{\prime}(y)\right) x y . \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The group ring is characterised by the following universal property. Let $i: G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} G$ be the obvious embedding.

Proposition 1.1. Let $R$ be a ring. To any function $f: G \rightarrow R$ with $f(x y)=f(x) \cdot f(y)$ and $f(1)=1_{R}$ there exists a unique ring homomorphism $f^{\prime}: \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow R$ such that $f^{\prime} i=f$.

Proof. We define $f^{\prime}\left(\sum_{x \in G} m(x) x\right)=\sum_{x \in G} m(x) f(x)$ which obviously is the only ring homomorphism for which $f^{\prime} i=f$. $]$

A (left) G-module is an abelian group $A$ together with a group homomorphism $\sigma: G \rightarrow$ Aut $A$. In other words the group elements act as automorphisms on $A$. We shall denote the image of $a \in A$ under the automorphism $\sigma(x), x \in G$, by $x \circ a$ or simply by $x a$ if this notation cannot cause any confusion.

Since Aut $A \cong \operatorname{End} A$, the universal property of the group ring yields a ring homomorphism $\sigma^{\prime}: \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow$ End $A$, making $A$ into a (left) module over $\mathbb{Z} G$. Conversely, if $A$ is a (left) module over $\mathbb{Z} G$ then $A$ is a (left) $G$-module, since any ring homomorphism takes invertible elements into invertible elements, and since the group elements in $\mathbb{Z} G$ are invertible. Thus we need not retain any distinction between the concepts of $G$-module and $\mathbb{Z} G$-module.

We leave it to the reader to word the definition of a right $G$-module. A (left) $G$-module is called trivial if the structure map $\sigma: G \rightarrow$ Aut $A$ is trivial, i.e. if every group element of $G$ acts as the identity in $A$. Every abelian group may be regarded as a trivial left or right $G$-module for any group $G$.

The trivial map from $G$ into the integers $\mathbb{Z}$, sending every $x \in G$ into $1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, gives rise to a unique ring homomorphism $\varepsilon: \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. This map is called the augmentation of $\mathbb{Z} G$. If $\sum_{x \in G} m(x) x$ is an arbitrary element in $\mathbb{Z} G$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon\left(\sum_{x \in G} m(x) x\right)=\sum_{x \in G} m(x) . \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The kernel of $\varepsilon$, denoted by $I G$, is called the augmentation ideal of $G$. It will play a key role in this chapter. First we note

Lemma 1.2. (i) As an abelian group IG is free on the set

$$
W=\{x-1 \mid 1 \neq x \in G\} .
$$

(ii) Let $S$ be a generating set for $G$. Then, as $G$-module, IG is generated by $S-1=\{s-1 \mid s \in S\}$.

Proof. (i) Clearly, the set $W$ is linearly independent. We have to show that it generates IG. Let $\sum_{x \in G} m(x) x \in I G$, then $\sum_{x \in G} m(x)=0$. Hence $\sum_{x \in G} m(x) x=\sum_{x \in G} m(x)(x-1)$, and (i) is proved.
(ii) It is sufficient to show that if $x \in G$, then $x-1$ belongs to the module generated by $S-1$. Since $x y-1=x(y-1)+(x-1)$, and

$$
x^{-1}-1=-x^{-1}(x-1),
$$

this follows easily from the representation of $x$ as $x=s_{1}^{ \pm 1} s_{2}^{ \pm 1} \ldots s_{k}^{ \pm 1}$, $s_{i} \in S . \quad \square$

Lemma 1.3. Let $U$ be a subgroup of $G$. Then $\mathbb{Z} G$ is free as left (or right) $U$-module.

Proof. Choose $\left\{x_{i}\right\}, x_{i} \in G$, a system of representatives of the left cosets of $U$ in $G$. The underlying set of $G$ may be regarded as the disjoint union of the sets $x_{i} U$. Clearly, the part of $\mathbb{Z} G$ linearly spanned by $x_{i} U$ for fixed $i$ is a right $U$-module isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z} U$. Hence the right module $\mathbb{Z} G$ is a direct sum of submodules isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z} U$. $\quad$

With Lemma 1.3 we deduce immediately from Theorem IV. 12.5
Corollary 1.4. Every projective (injective) G-module is a projective (injective) $U$-module for any subgroup $U$ of $G . \square$

## Exercises:

1.1. Let $\Lambda$ be a ring with unit and let $U(\Lambda)$ be the set of units of $\Lambda$. Show that $U$ is a functor $\mathfrak{R}_{1} \rightarrow \mathfrak{G}$ from rings with unity to groups, and that $U$ is right adjoint to the group ring functor $\mathbb{Z}()$. Deduce that if $G$ is the free product of the groups $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, then $\mathbb{Z} G$ is the coproduct of $\mathbb{Z} G_{1}$ and $\mathbb{Z} G_{2}$ in the category of rings with unity.
1.2. Interpret the augmentation $\varepsilon: \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}($ i) as a $G$-module homomorphism, (ii) as a morphism in the image of the functor $\mathbb{Z}()$.
1.3. Set up an isomorphism between the category of left $G$-modules and the category of right $G$-modules.
1.4. Propose a definition of $\Lambda G$ where $\Lambda$ is a ring with unity and $G$ is a group. This is the group ring of $G$ over $\Lambda$. Develop the concepts related to $G$-modules as in this section, replacing "abelian groups" by " $\Lambda$-modules". What is a $\Lambda G$-module when $\Lambda$ is the field $K$ ?
1.5. Prove Corollary 1.4 without appealing to the theory of adjoint functors.
1.6. Show that the functor $-\otimes_{\mathbb{Z} G} \mathbb{Z}$ is left adjoint to the functor which assigns to an abelian group the structure of a trivial $G$-module. Deduce that if $P$ is a projective $G$-module, then $P_{G}=P \otimes_{\mathbb{Z} G} \mathbb{Z}$ is a free abelian group.

## 2. Definition of (Co)Homology

For convenience we shall use $A, A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}, \ldots$ only to denote left $G$-modules, and $B, B^{\prime}, B^{\prime \prime}, \ldots$ only to denote right $G$-modules. Moreover we shall write $B \otimes_{G} A, \operatorname{Hom}_{G}\left(A, A^{\prime}\right), \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{G}(B, A), \operatorname{Ext}_{G}^{n}\left(A, A^{\prime}\right)$ for

$$
B \otimes_{\mathbb{Z} G} A, \quad \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z} G}\left(A, A^{\prime}\right), \quad \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{\mathbb{Z G}}(B, A), \quad \operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z} G}^{n}\left(A, A^{\prime}\right),
$$

respectively.
We define the $n$-th cohomology group of $G$ with coefficients in the left $G$-module $A$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{n}(G, A)=\operatorname{Ext}_{G}^{n}(\mathbb{Z}, A), \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mathbb{Z}$ is to be regarded as trivial $G$-module. The $n$-th homology group of $G$ with coefficients in the right $G$-module $B$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{n}(G, B)=\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{G}(B, \mathbb{Z}), \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where again $\mathbb{Z}$ is to be regarded as trivial $G$-module.
Clearly both $H^{n}(G,-)$ and $H_{n}(G,-)$ are covariant functors. The following is obviously an economical method of computing these groups: Take a $G$-projective resolution $\boldsymbol{P}$ of the trivial (left) $G$-module $\mathbb{Z}$, form the
complexes $\operatorname{Hom}_{\boldsymbol{G}}(\boldsymbol{P}, A)$ and $B \otimes_{G} \boldsymbol{P}$, and compute their homology. In Section 13 we shall give a standard procedure of constructing such a resolution $\boldsymbol{P}$ from the group $G$. Unfortunately even for groups of a very simple structure the actual computation of the (co)homology groups by resolutions is very hard. We therefore put the emphasis here rather on general results about the (co)homology than on actual computations. Indeed, we shall give a complete description of the (co)homology only for cyclic groups (Section 7) and for free groups (Section 5).

Some properties of $H^{n}(G, A), H_{n}(G, B)$ immediately follow from their definition. We list the following:
(2.3) To a short exact sequence $A^{\prime} \hookrightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ of $G$-modules there is a long exact cohomology sequence

$$
\begin{gathered}
0 \rightarrow H^{0}\left(G, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H^{0}(G, A) \rightarrow H^{0}\left(G, A^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H^{1}\left(G, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots \\
\cdots \rightarrow H^{n}\left(G, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H^{n}(G, A) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(G, A^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H^{n+1}\left(G, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots .
\end{gathered}
$$

To a short exact sequence $B^{\prime} \hookrightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ there is a long exact homology sequence

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \cdots \rightarrow H_{n}\left(G . B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}(G, B) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(G, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n-1}\left(G, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots \\
& \cdots \rightarrow H_{1}\left(G, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(G, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{0}(G, B) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(G, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

(2.4) If $A$ is injective, then $H^{n}(G, A)=0$ for all $n \geqq 1$. If $B$ is flat (in particular if $B$ is projective), then $H_{n}(G . B)=0$ for all $n \geqq 1$.
(2.5) If $A \hookrightarrow I \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ is an injective presentation of $A$, then

$$
H^{n+1}(G, A) \cong H^{n}\left(G, A^{\prime}\right)
$$

for $n \geqq 1$. If $B^{\prime} \hookrightarrow P \rightarrow B$ is a projective (or flat) presentation of $B$. then $H_{n+1}(G . B) \cong H_{n}\left(G, B^{\prime}\right)$ for $n \geqq 1$.
(2.6) Let $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow P_{k} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{0} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$ be an exact sequence of (left) $G$-modules, with $P_{0}, \ldots, P_{k}$ projective. Then the following sequences are exact and specify the (co)homology groups of $G$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{Hom}_{G}\left(P_{k}, A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{G}(K, A) \rightarrow H^{k+1}(G, A) \rightarrow 0, \\
0 \rightarrow H_{k+1}(G, B) \rightarrow B \otimes_{G} K \rightarrow B \otimes_{G} P_{k} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Under the same hypotheses as in (2.6) we have, for $n \geqq k+2$,

$$
\begin{align*}
& H^{n}(G, A) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{G}^{n-k-1}(K, A), \\
& H_{n}(G, B) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{n-k-1}^{G}(B, K) . \tag{2.7}
\end{align*}
$$

In particular, using $0 \rightarrow I G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$, we get, for $n \geqq 2$,

$$
\begin{align*}
& H^{n}(G, A) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{G}^{n-1}(I G, A), \\
& H_{n}(G, B) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{n-1}^{G}(B, I G) . \tag{2.8}
\end{align*}
$$

The proofs of these simple facts (2.3), $\ldots$, (2.8) are left to the reader. Next we make some remarks on the functoriality of the (co)homology groups.

Let $f: G \rightarrow G^{\prime}$ be a group homomorphism; clearly $f$ induces a ring homomorphism $\mathbb{Z} f: \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} G^{\prime}$, which we shall also write as $f$. By (IV. 12.3), $f$ gives rise to a functor $U^{\mathcal{S}}: \mathfrak{M}_{\mathbf{Z G}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\mathbf{Z G}}$. If $A^{\prime}$ is a $G^{\prime}$-module then $x \in G$ acts on $a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}=U^{\mathcal{S}} A^{\prime}$ by $x \subset a^{\prime}=f(x) \odot a^{\prime}$. By (IV. 12.4) the functor $U^{\mathcal{S}}$ has a left adjoint $F: \mathfrak{M}_{\mathbf{Z G}} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{M}_{\mathbf{Z G}^{\prime}}$ defined by $F A=\mathbb{Z} G^{\prime} \otimes_{\mathbf{G}} A$. By (IV. 12.5) this situation gives rise to a natural homomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta: H^{n}\left(G^{\prime}, A\right) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(G, U^{\delta} A\right) \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we proceed similarly for right modules and if we use the statement for the functor Tor analogous to (IV. 12.5), we obtain a natural homomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{\theta}: H_{n}\left(G, U^{S} B\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(G^{\prime}, B\right) . \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

For convenience we shall omit the functor $U^{f}$ in the statements (2.9), (2.10), whenever it is clear from the context that the $G^{\prime}$-modules $A, B$ are to be regarded as $G$-modules via $f$.

The above suggests that we regard $H^{n}(-,-)$ as a functor on the category G $^{*}$ whose objects are pairs $(G, A)$ with $G$ a group and $A$ a $G$-module. A morphism $(f, \alpha):(G, A) \rightarrow\left(G^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)$ in this category consists of a group homomorphism $f: G \rightarrow G^{\prime}$ and a homomorphism $\alpha: A^{\prime} \rightarrow U^{f} A$ (backwards!) of $G^{\prime}$-modules. It is obvious from (2.9) that $(f, \alpha)$ induces a homomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
(f, \alpha)^{*}=\theta \circ \alpha^{*}=\alpha^{*}=\theta: H^{n}\left(G^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H^{n}(G, A) \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

which makes $H^{n}(-,-)$ into a contravariant functor on the category $\boldsymbol{F}^{*}$. We leave it to the reader to define a category $\mathfrak{G}_{\boldsymbol{*}}$ on which $\boldsymbol{H}_{n}(-,-)$ is a (covariant) functor.

We finally note the important fact that for trivial $G$-modules $A, B$ we may regard $H^{n}(-, A)$ and $H_{n}(-, B)$ as functors on the category of groups.

## Exercises:

2.1. Compute $H^{n}(G, A) . H_{n}(G . B)$ where $G$ is the trivial group.
2.2. Show that $H^{n}(G,-), H_{n}(G,-)$ are additive functors.
2.3. Prove the statements (2.3), $\ldots$, (2.8).
2.4. Check explicitly that (2.11) indeed makes $H^{n}(-,-)$ into a functor. Similarly for $H_{n}(-,-)$.
2.5. Let $f: G \rightarrow G^{\prime}$ be a group homomorphism. Show that for a $G^{\prime}$-module $A$ the change-of-rings map $(f, 1)^{*}: H^{n}\left(G^{\prime}, A\right) \rightarrow H^{n}(G, A), n \geqq 0$, may be obtained by the following procedure. Let $\boldsymbol{P}$ be a $G$-projective resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$ and $\boldsymbol{Q}$ a $G^{\prime}$-projective resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$. By the comparison theorem (Theorem IV. 4.1) there exists a ( $G$-module) chain map $\boldsymbol{\varphi}: \boldsymbol{P} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{Q}$ lifting $1: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. Then $(f, 1)^{*}$ is induced by $\varphi$. Proceed similarly to obtain the change-of-rings map in homology.
3. $H^{0}, H_{0}$

Let $A$ be a $G$-module. By definition we have $H^{0}(G, A)=\operatorname{Hom}_{G}(\mathbb{Z}, A)$. Now a homomorphism $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow A$ is entirely given by the image of $1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\varphi(1)=a \in A$. The fact that $\varphi$ is a $G$-module homomorphism implies that $x \cdot a=\varphi(x \circ 1)=\varphi(1)=a$ for all $x \in G$. Indeed one sees that $\varphi$ is a $G$-module homomorphism if and only if $\varphi(1)=a$ remains fixed under the action of $G$. Thus, if we write

$$
\begin{equation*}
A^{G}=\{a \in A \mid x \approx a=a \text { for all } x \in G\} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for the subgroup of invariant elements in $A$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{0}(G, A)=\operatorname{Hom}_{G}(\mathbb{Z}, A)=A^{G} \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $B$ be a right $G$-module. By definition $H_{0}(G, B)=B \otimes_{G} \mathbb{Z}$. Thus $H_{0}(G . B)$ is the quotient of the abelian group $B \cong B \otimes \mathbb{Z}$ by the subgroup generated by the elements of the form $b x-b=b(x-1), b \in B, x \in G$. Since the elements $x-1 \in \mathbb{Z} G$ precisely generate the augmentation ideal $I G$ (Lemma 1.2), this subgroup may be expressed as $B \circ I G$. Thus if we write

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{G}=B / B \backsim I G=B /\{b(x-1) \mid b \in B, x \in G\} \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{0}(G, B)=B \otimes_{G} \mathbb{Z}=B_{G} \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We may summarize our results in
Proposition 3.1. Let $A, B$ be $G$-modules. Then

$$
H^{0}(G, A)=A^{G}, \quad H_{0}(G, B)=B_{G} .
$$

If $A, B$ are trivial $G$-modules, then

$$
H^{0}(G, A)=A, \quad H_{0}(G, B)=B .
$$

Proof. It is immediate that, in case the $G$-action is trivial, $A^{G}=A$ and $B_{G}=B . \quad \square$

## Exercises:

3.1. Express the isomorphism $\operatorname{Hom}_{G}(\mathbb{Z}, A) \cong A^{G}$ as an equivalence of functors.
3.2. Show that $A^{G}={ }_{I_{G}} A=\{a \mid \lambda a=0, \lambda \in I G\}$.
3.3. Let $\boldsymbol{F}^{\boldsymbol{\prime}}: \mathfrak{A b} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{G}$ assign to each abelian group $A$ the trivial left $G$-module with underlying abelian group $A$. Show that $F^{\prime}$ is left adjoint to the functor ${ }^{-\boldsymbol{G}}$. Similarly show that $F^{r}$ (obvious definition) is right adjoint to the functor ${ }_{-6}$.
3.4. Prove, without appeal to homology theory, that if $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \stackrel{\iota}{\rightarrow} A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence of $G$-modules, then

$$
0 \longrightarrow A^{\prime G} \longrightarrow A^{G} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{n}} A^{\prime \prime G}
$$

is exact. Give an example where $\varepsilon_{*}$ is not surjective. Carry out a similar exercise for the short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ of right $G$-modules, and the functor $-_{G}$.
3.5. Express the functorial dependence of $A^{G}, B_{G}$ on $\boldsymbol{G}$.

## 4. $H^{1}, H_{1}$ with Trivial Coefficient Modules

It turns out to be natural to begin with a study of $H_{1}$. By definition we have $H_{1}(G, B)=\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{G}(B, \mathbb{Z})$. If we take the obvious $\mathbb{Z} G$-free presentation of $\mathbb{Z}$. i.e..

$$
\begin{equation*}
I G \stackrel{\iota}{\leftrightarrows} \mathbb{Z} G \stackrel{\varepsilon}{\leftrightarrows} \mathbb{Z}, \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

we get the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow H_{1}(G . B) \rightarrow B \otimes_{G} I G \xrightarrow{l x} B \otimes_{G} \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow H_{0}(G . B) \rightarrow 0 .
$$

We therefore obtain, for an arbitrary $G$-module $B$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{1}(G, B)=\operatorname{ker}\left(l_{*}: B \otimes_{G} I G \rightarrow B\right) \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $i_{*}(b \otimes(x-1))=b x-b, b \in B, x \in G$. In order to compute the first homology group for $B$ a trivial $G$-module we remark that then $i_{*}$ is the zero homomorphism and hence $H_{1}(G, B) \cong B \otimes_{G} I G$. To compute $B \otimes_{G} I G$ when $B$ is trivial, we have to consider the subgroup of $B \otimes I G$ generated by $b \otimes y(x-1)-b y \otimes(x-1)$. But $b y \otimes(x-1)=b \otimes(x-1)$; hence the subgroup is generated by $b \otimes(y-1)(x-1)$ and so. if $B$ is a trivial $G$-module, $B \otimes_{G} I G \cong B \otimes I G /(I G)^{2}$.

Finally, let $G_{a b}=G / G^{\prime}$ denote the quotient of $G$ by its commutator subgroup $G^{\prime}=[G, G]$. i.e.. the subgroup of $G$ generated by all elements of the form $x^{-1} y^{-1} x y, x, y \in G$. By Lemma 4.1 below we obtain, for a trivial $G$-module $B$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{1}(G, B) \cong B \otimes I G /(I G)^{2} \cong B \otimes G / G^{\prime} \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular we note the result (well known to topologists!)

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{1}(G, \mathbb{Z}) \cong G / G^{\prime}=G_{a b} \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 4.1. $\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{G} I G=I G /(I G)^{2} \cong G_{a b}$.
Proof. The first equality is already proved, so we have only to show that $I G /(I G)^{2} \cong G_{a b}$. By Lemma 1.2 the abelian group $I G$ is free on $W=\{x-1 \mid 1 \neq x \in G\}$. The function $\psi: W \rightarrow G / G^{\prime}$ defined by

$$
\psi(x-1)=x G^{\prime}
$$

extends uniquely to $\psi^{\prime}: I G \rightarrow G / G^{\prime}$. Since

$$
(x-1)(y-1)=(x y-1)-(x-1)-(y-1),
$$

$\psi^{\prime}$ factors through $\psi^{\prime \prime}: I G /(I G)^{2} \rightarrow G / G^{\prime}$.

On the other hand, the definition $\varphi(x)=(x-1)+(I G)^{2}$ yields (by the same calculation as above) a group homomorphism $\varphi^{\prime}: G \rightarrow I G /(I G)^{2}$ inducing $\varphi^{\prime \prime}: G / G^{\prime} \rightarrow I G /(I G)^{2}$. It is trivial that $\varphi^{\prime \prime}$ and $\psi^{\prime \prime}$ are inverse to each other. $\quad]$

We now turn to cohomology. Again by definition we have

$$
H^{1}(G, A)=\operatorname{Ext}_{G}^{1}(\mathbb{Z}, A),
$$

and (4.1) yields the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow H^{0}(G, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{G}(\mathbb{Z} G, A) \xrightarrow{\stackrel{*}{\rightarrow}} \operatorname{Hom}_{G}(I G, A) \rightarrow H^{1}(G, A) \rightarrow 0 .
$$

We obtain for an arbitrary $G$-module $A$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{1}(G, A)=\operatorname{coker}\left(\imath^{*}: A \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{G}(I G, A)\right) \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\imath^{*}(a)(x-1)=x a-a, a \in A, x \in G$. For $A$ a trivial $G$-module we remark that $l^{*}$ is the zero homomorphism; hence

$$
H^{1}(G, A) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{G}(I G, A)
$$

Moreover, $\varphi: I G \rightarrow A$ is a homomorphism of $G$-modules if and only if $\varphi(x(y-1))=x \varphi(y-1)=\varphi(y-1), x, v \in G$; hence if and only if

$$
\varphi((x-1)(y-1))=0 .
$$

Using Lemma 4.1 we therefore obtain, for $A$ a trivial $G$-module.

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{1}(G, A) \cong \operatorname{Hom}\left(I G /(I G)^{2}, A\right) \cong \operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{a b}, A\right) \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The relation of (4.6) to (4.3) which asserts that. for a trivial $G$-module $A$.

$$
H^{1}(G, A) \cong \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{1}(G, \mathbb{Z}), A\right)
$$

is a special case of the universal coefficient theorem (see Theorem V. 3.3), to be discussed in detail later (Section 15).

## Exercises:

4.1. Use the adjointness of Exercise 3.3 to prove $\operatorname{Hom}_{G}(I G, A) \cong \operatorname{Hom}\left(I G /(I G)^{2}, A\right)$ for $A$ a trivial $G$-module.
4.2. Let $H, G$ be two groups, let $A$ be a right $H$-module, let $B$ be a left $H$-right $G$-bimodule, and let $C$ be a left $G$-module. Prove

$$
\left(A \otimes_{H} B\right) \otimes_{G} C \cong A \otimes_{H}\left(B \otimes_{G} C\right) .
$$

Use this to show that, for a trivial right $G$-module $M$

$$
M \otimes_{G} I G \cong(M \otimes \mathbb{Z}) \otimes_{G} I G \cong M \otimes\left(\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{G} I G\right) \cong M \otimes I G /(I G)^{2} .
$$

4.3. Show that the isomorphisms

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{1}(G, B) \cong B \otimes G_{a b} \\
& H^{1}(G, A) \cong \operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{a b}, A\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $A, B$ are trivial modules. are natural in $A, B$ and $G$.
4.4. Let $0 \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence of abelian groups. Show that the connecting homomorphism $\omega: H_{1}\left(G, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(G, B^{\prime}\right)$ is trivial. Does the conclusion follow if $0 \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence of $G$-modules?
4.5. Carry out an exercise similar to Exercise 4.4 above in cohomology.

## 5. The Augmentation Ideal. Derivations, and the Semi-Direct Product

In the previous section we evaluated $H^{1}(G, A)$ for a trivial $G$-module $A$. Here we give an interpretation of $H^{1}(G, A)$ in the non-trivial case. (The analogous interpretation of $H_{1}(G, A)$ is possible, but does not seem to have any interesting applications.)

Definition. A function $d: G \rightarrow A$ from the group $G$ into the $G$-module $A$ with the property

$$
\begin{equation*}
d(x \cdot y)=d x+x \odot(d y), \quad x, y \in G \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

is called a derivation (or crossed homomorphism) from $G$ into $A$.
Notice that, if $d$ is a derivation, $d(1)=0$. The set of all derivations $d: G \rightarrow A$ may be given an obvious abelian group structure; this abelian group will be denoted by $\operatorname{Der}(G, A)$. Note that for a $G$-module homomorphism $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ and a derivation $d: G \rightarrow A$ the composition

$$
\alpha: d: G \rightarrow A^{\prime}
$$

again is a derivation. With this $\operatorname{Der}(G,-): \mathfrak{M}_{G} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U} \mathfrak{b}$ becomes a functor. For $A$ a trivial $G$-module a derivation $d: G \rightarrow A$ is simply a group homomorphism.

Next we relate the derivations to the augmentation ideal.
Theorem 5.1. The homomorphism $\eta: \operatorname{Der}(G, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{G}(I G, A)$ defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\eta(d))(y-1)=d(y), \quad y \in G \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a natural isomorphism.
The theorem claims that the augmentation ideal IG represents the functor $\operatorname{Der}(G,-)$.

Proof. Given a derivation $d: G \rightarrow A$, we claim that the group homomorphism $\eta(d)=\varphi_{d}: I G \rightarrow A$ defined by $\varphi_{d}(y-1)=d y, y \in G$, is a $G$ -
module homomorphism. Indeed

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi_{d}(x(y-1)) & =\varphi_{d}((x y-1)-(x-1))=d(x y)-d x \\
& =d x+x(d y)-d x=x \circ \varphi_{d}(y-1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Conversely, given a $G$-module homomorphism $\varphi: I G \rightarrow A$, we define a $\operatorname{map} d_{\varphi}: G \rightarrow A$ by $d_{\varphi}(y)=\varphi(y-1)$. We claim that $d_{\varphi}$ is a derivation. Indeed

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{\varphi}(x y) & =\varphi(x y-1)=\varphi(x(y-1)+(x-1)) \\
& =x \varphi(y-1)+\varphi(x-1)=x d_{\varphi}(y)+d_{\varphi}(x) .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is quite obvious that $\eta$ is a homomorphism of abelian groups and that $\varphi \mapsto d_{\varphi}$ is inverse to $\eta$.

The above theorem now allows us to give a description of the first cohomology group in terms of derivations. By (4.5) $H^{1}(G, A)$ is the quotient of $\operatorname{Hom}_{G}(I G, A)$ by the subgroup of homomorphisms $\varphi: I G \rightarrow A$ of the form $\varphi(x-1)=x a-a$ for some $a \in A$. The derivation $d_{\varphi}: G \rightarrow A$ associated with this map $\varphi$ has the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{\varphi}(x)=(x-1) a \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some $a \in A$.
Derivations of this kind are called inner derivations (or principal crossed homomorphisms). The subgroup of $\operatorname{Der}(G, A)$ of inner derivations is denoted by $\operatorname{Ider}(G, A)$. We then can state

Corollary 5.2. $H^{1}(G, A) \cong \operatorname{Der}(G, A) / \operatorname{Ider}(G, A)$. $\left.\quad\right]$
Definition. Given a group $G$ and a $G$-module $A$, we define their semi-direct-product $A \times G$ in the following way. The underlying set of $A \times G$ is the set of ordered pairs $(a, x), a \in A, x \in G$. The product is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
(a, x) \cdot\left(a^{\prime}, x^{\prime}\right)=\left(a+x a^{\prime}, x x^{\prime}\right) \tag{5.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

This product is easily shown to be associative, to have a neutral element $(0,1)$, and an inverse $(a, x)^{-1}=\left(-x^{-1} a, x^{-1}\right)$. There is an obvious monomorphism of groups $i: A \rightarrow A \times G$, given by $i(a)=(a, 1), a \in A$. Also, there is an obvious epimorphism of groups $p: A \times G \rightarrow G$, defined by $p(a, x)=x$, $a \in A, x \in G$. It is easy to see that $i A$ is normal in $A \times G$ with quotient $G$, the canonical projection being $p$; thus the sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
A \stackrel{i}{\stackrel{i}{A}} A \times G \xrightarrow{p} G \tag{5.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

is exact. We say that $A \times G$ is an extension of $G$ by $A$ (see Section 10 for the precise definition of the term extension). It follows that $A \times G$ acts by conjugation in $i A$; we denote this action by $\circ$. We have

$$
\begin{gather*}
\left(a^{\prime}, x\right) \cup(a, 1)=\left(a^{\prime}, x\right) \cdot(a .1) \cdot\left(-x^{-1} a^{\prime}, x^{-1}\right)=(x a, 1),  \tag{5.6}\\
a, a^{\prime} \in A, \quad x \in G .
\end{gather*}
$$

In other words, the element $\left(a^{\prime}, x\right) \in A \times G$ acts in $i A$ in the same way as the element $x \in G$ acts by the given $G$-module structure in $A$. Thus we may regard $A$ itself as an $(A \times G)$-module by $\left(a^{\prime}, x\right) \cdot a=x a$.

We finally note that in (5.5) there is a group homomorphism $s: G \rightarrow A \times G$. given by $s x=(0, x), x \in G$, which is a one-sided inverse to $p, p s=1_{G}$. It is because of the existence of the map $s$ that we shall refer - by analogy with the abelian case - to the extension (5.5) as the split extension; $s$ is called a splitting.

In contrast with the abelian case however the splitting $s$ does not force $A \times G$ to be the direct (but only the semi-direct) product of $A$ and $G$. The projection $q: A \times G \rightarrow A$, given by $q(a, x)=a$, is not a group homomorphism; however it is a derivation:
$q\left((a, x) \cdot\left(a^{\prime}, x^{\prime}\right)\right)=q\left(a+x a^{\prime}, x x^{\prime}\right)=a+x a^{\prime}=q(a, x)+(a, x) \subset q\left(a^{\prime}, x\right)$.
We now easily deduce the following universal property of the semi-direct product:

Proposition 5.3. Suppose given a group $G$ and a $G$-module $A$. To every group homomorphism $f: X \rightarrow G$ and to every $f$-derivation $d: X \rightarrow A$ (i.e. $d$ is a derivation if $A$ is regarded as an $X$-module via $f$ ), there exists a unique group homomorphism $h: X \rightarrow A \times G$ such that the following diagram is commutative:


Conversely, every group homomorphism $h: X \rightarrow A \times G$ determines a homomorphism $f=p h: X \rightarrow G$ and an $f$-derivation $q h=d: X \rightarrow A$.

The proof is obvious; $h$ is defined by $h x=(d x, f x), x \in X$, and it is straightforward to check that $h$ is a homomorphism.

By taking $X=G$ and $f=1_{G}$ we obtain:
Corollary 5.4. The set of derivations from $G$ into $A$ is in one-to-one correspondence with the set of group homomorphisms $f: G \rightarrow A \times G$ for which $p f=1_{G} . \quad \square$

As an application we shall prove the following result on the augmentation ideal of a free group.

Theorem 5.5. The augmentation ideal IF of a group $F$ which is free on the set $S$ is the free $\mathbb{Z} F$-module on the set $S-1=\{s-1 \mid s \in S\}$.

Proof. We show that any function $f$ from the set $\{s-1 \mid s \in S\}$ into an $F$-module $M$ may be uniquely extended to an $F$-module homomorphism $f^{\prime}: I F \rightarrow M$. First note that uniqueness is clear, since $\{s-1 \mid s \in S\}$ generates IF as $F$-module by Lemma 1.2 (ii). Using the fact
that $F$ is free on $S$ we define a group homomorphism $\bar{f}: F \rightarrow M \times F$ by $\bar{f}(s)=(f(s-1), s)$. By Corollary $5.4 \bar{f}$ defines a derivation $d: F \rightarrow M$ with $d(s)=f(s-1)$. By Theorem $5.1 d$ corresponds to an $F$-module homomorphism $f^{\prime}: I F \rightarrow M$ with $f^{\prime}(s-1)=f(s-1)$.

Corollary 5.6. For a free group $F$, we have

$$
H^{n}(F, A)=0=H_{n}(F, B)
$$

for all $F$-modules $A, B$ and all $n \geqq 2$.
Proof. $I F \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z} F \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is an $F$-free resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$. $\quad \square$

## Exercises:

5.1. Let $d: G \rightarrow A$ be a derivation. Interpret and prove the following relation

$$
d\left(x^{n}\right)=\left(\frac{x^{n}-1}{x-1}\right) d x, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad x \in G
$$

5.2. Let $A \stackrel{i}{\longrightarrow} E \xrightarrow{p} G$ be an exact sequence of groups with $A$ abelian. Let $s: G \rightarrow E$ be a one-sided inverse of $p, p s=1_{G}$. Show that $E \cong A \times G$.
5.3. Let the (multiplicative) cyclic group of order $2, C_{2}$, operate on $\mathbb{Z}$ by

$$
x \cdot n=-n,
$$

where $x$ generates $C_{2}$. Use Corollary 5.2 to compute $H^{1}\left(C_{2}, \mathbb{Z}\right)$, for this action of $C_{2}$ on $\mathbb{Z}$.
5.4. Carry out a similar exercise to Exercise 5.3 , replacing $C_{2}$ by $C_{2 k}$.
5.5. Let $C_{m}$ operate on $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ ( $m$ copies) by

$$
x a_{i}=a_{i+1} . \quad i=1 \ldots m . \quad\left(a_{m+1}=a_{1}\right)
$$

where $x$ generates $C_{m}$ and $a_{i}$ generates the $i^{\text {th }}$ copy of $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$. Compute

$$
H^{1}\left(C_{m}, \mathbb{Z}_{2} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)
$$

for this action of $C_{m}$ on $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
5.6. For a fixed group $Q$ consider the category $(\mathfrak{\xi} / Q$ of $(\mathfrak{G}$-objects over $Q$. Consider the functors $F:\left(\mathbb{G} / Q \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{Q}\right.$ and $U: \mathfrak{M}_{Q} \rightarrow\left(\mathfrak{G} / Q\right.$ defined by $F(G \rightarrow Q)=I G \otimes_{G} \mathbb{Z} Q$ and $U(A)=(A \times Q \xrightarrow{\mapsto} Q)$, where $G \rightarrow Q$ is a group homomorphism, $A$ is a $\mathbb{Z} Q$ module and $A \times Q$ is the semi-direct product. Show that $F \dashv G$. Deduce Proposition 5.3 and Corollary 5.4.

## 6. A Short Exact Sequence

In this section we shall assign to any extension of groups $N \hookrightarrow G \rightarrow Q$ a short exact sequence of $Q$-modules. We shall later apply this exact sequence to compute the (co)homology of cyclic groups (Section 8), and to deduce a 5 -term exact sequence (Section 9 ) which will be basic for our treatment of extension theory. We start with the following two lemmas.

Lemma 6.1. If $N \stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\hookrightarrow} G \xrightarrow{p} Q$ is an exact sequence of groups, then $\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{N} \mathbb{Z} G \cong \mathbb{Z} Q$ as right $G$-modules.

Proof. As abelian group $\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{N} \mathbb{Z} G$ is free on the set of right cosets $G / N \cong Q$. It is easy to see that the right action of $G$ induced by the product in $\mathbb{Z} G$ is the right $G$-action in $\mathbb{Z Q}$ via $p$. $\quad$

Lemma 6.2. If $N \hookrightarrow G \rightarrow Q$ is an exact sequence of groups and if $A$ is a left $G$-module, then $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{N}(\mathbb{Z}, A) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{G}(\mathbb{Z} Q, A)$.

Proof. The argument that follows applies, in generalized form, to a change of rings (see Proposition IV. 12.2). Let $X$ be a $G$-projective resolution of $A$, hence by Corollary 1.4 also an $N$-projective resolution of $A$. By Lemma 6.1, $\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{N} X \cong \mathbb{Z} \otimes_{N} \mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{G} X \cong \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{G} X$; which proves Lemma 6.2. $]$

Consider now the sequence of $G$-modules $I G \stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\hookrightarrow} \mathbb{Z} G \stackrel{\ell}{\hookrightarrow} \mathbb{Z}$. Tensoring with $\mathbb{Z} Q$ over $G$ we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{G}(\mathbb{Z} Q, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{\mathbf{G}} I G \xrightarrow{\lfloor\stackrel{\iota}{t}} \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{\mathbf{G}} \mathbb{Z} G \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{t}} \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{\mathbf{G}} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0 . \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that each term in (6.1) has a natural $Q$-module structure, and that (6.1) is a sequence of $Q$-modules. It is easy to see that the map

$$
\mathbb{Z} Q \cong \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{\mathbf{G}} \mathbb{Z} G \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{\mathbf{t}}} \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{\mathbf{G}} \mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}
$$

is the augmentation of $\mathbb{Z} Q$. By Lemma 6.2 ,

$$
\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{G}(\mathbb{Z} Q, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{N}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z})=H_{1}(N, \mathbb{Z}) \cong N / N^{\prime}
$$

Hence we get the following important result.
Theorem 6.3. Let $N \hookrightarrow G \rightarrow Q$ be an exact sequence of groups. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow N_{a b} \xrightarrow{\kappa} \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{G} I G \xrightarrow{\nu} I Q \rightarrow 0 \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

is an exact sequence of $Q$-modules.
For our applications of (6.2) we shall need an explicit description of the $Q$-module structure in $N_{a b}=N / N^{\prime}$, as well as of the map

$$
\kappa: N_{a b} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{G} I G .
$$

For that we compute $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{N}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z})$ by the $N$-free presentation $I N \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z} N \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ of $\mathbb{Z}$ and by the $G$-free (hence $N$-free) presentation $I G \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. We obtain the following commutative diagram


The vertical maps in the top half are induced by the embedding $N \hookrightarrow G$. in the bottom half they are given as in Lemma 6.2. If we now trace the map $\kappa: N_{a b} \stackrel{\sim}{\rightarrow} \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{N}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{Z} \otimes_{N} I N \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \otimes_{N} I G \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{G} I G$, we see that $\kappa$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa^{\circ}\left(n N^{\prime}\right)=1_{Q} \otimes(n-1) \in \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{G} I G, \quad n \in N . \tag{6.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

As a consequence we shall prove that the $Q$-module structure in $N_{a b}$ is (as expected) induced by conjugation in the group $G$, that is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
y \cdot n N^{\prime}=\left(x n x^{-1}\right) N^{\prime}, \tag{6.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $n \in N$ and $x \in G$ is a representative of $y \in Q$, i.e., $y=p x$ (see Lemma 6.1). To prove this we proceed as follows, using the fact that $\kappa$ is a $Q$-module monomorphism. Then

$$
\kappa\left(y: n N^{\prime}\right)=y \otimes(n-1)=1 \otimes x(n-1) \in \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{G} I G
$$

Since $x n x^{-1} \in N$, it follows that $1 \otimes\left(x n x^{-1}-1\right)(x-1)=0$ in $\mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{G} I G$, so we get $1 \otimes x(n-1)=1 \otimes\left(x n x^{-1}-1\right)$ which obviously is the $\kappa$-image of $x n x^{-1} N^{\prime} \in N / N^{\prime}$, proving (6.5).

Corollary 6.4. Let $R \hookrightarrow F \rightarrow Q$ be an exact sequence of groups with $F$ a free group, i.e. a free presentation of $Q$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow R_{a b}{ }^{\kappa} \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{F} I F \xrightarrow{\longrightarrow} I Q \rightarrow 0 \tag{6.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a Q-free presentation of IQ.
Proof. By Theorem $5.5 I F$ is $F$-free, therefore $\mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{F} I F$ is $Q$-free. $\quad \square$
Corollary 6.5. Let $R \hookrightarrow F \rightarrow Q$ be a free presentation of $Q$. Then for any $Q$-modules $A, B$ and all $n \geqq 3$

$$
\begin{align*}
& H_{n}(Q, B) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{n-1}^{Q}(B, I Q) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{n-2}^{Q}\left(B, R_{a b}\right), \\
& H^{n}(Q, A) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{Q}^{n-1}(I Q, A) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{Q}^{n-2}\left(R_{a b}, A\right) \tag{6.7}
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. The exact sequences $I Q \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z} Q \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ and (6.6) together with (2.7) give the result. [

## Exercises:

6.1. Establish the naturality of the isomorphisms in Corollary 6.5 .
6.2. Generalize Corollary 6.5 to establish natural homomorphisms

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{n}(Q, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{n-2}^{Q}\left(B, N / N^{\prime}\right), \\
& \operatorname{Ext}_{Q}^{n_{2}^{-2}}\left(N_{/}^{\prime} N^{\prime}, A\right) \rightarrow H^{n}(Q, A)
\end{aligned}
$$

associated with $N \hookrightarrow G \rightarrow Q, n \geqq 3$.
6.3. Let $R \hookrightarrow F \rightarrow Q$ be the free presentation of $Q$, free abelian on 2 generators, by $F$, free on two generators. Describe $R_{a b}$ as a $Q$-module.

## 7. The (Co)Homology of Finite Cyclic Groups

We denote by $C_{k}$ the (multiplicatively written) cyclic group of order $k$ with generator $\tau$, by $C$ the (multiplicatively written) infinite cyclic group with generator $t$. Given $C_{k}$, we consider the exact sequence of groups $C \xrightarrow{\mu} C \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} C_{k}$ where $\mu(t)=t^{k}, \varepsilon(t)=\tau$. By Corollary 6.4 we have a $C_{k}$-free presentation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\underset{\mathbb{Z}}{\stackrel{\kappa}{\bullet}} \mathbb{Z} C_{k} \otimes_{C} I C \xrightarrow{\longrightarrow} I C_{k}, \tag{7.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the domain $\mathbb{Z}$ of $\kappa$ is $C_{a b}$, the infinite cyclic group generated by $t$, written additively and regarded as a trivial $C_{k}$-module. For $n \geqq 3$ and for a $C_{k}$-module $A$, Corollary 6.5 yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{n}\left(C_{k}, A\right) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{C_{k}}^{n-2}(\mathbb{Z}, A)=H^{n-2}\left(C_{k}, A\right) \tag{7.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence we obtain for $n=1,2, \ldots$

$$
\begin{align*}
H^{2 n-1}\left(C_{k}, A\right) & \cong H^{1}\left(C_{k}, A\right), \\
H^{2 n}\left(C_{k}, A\right) & \cong H^{2}\left(C_{k}, A\right) . \tag{7.3}
\end{align*}
$$

Since $H^{n}\left(C_{k}, A\right)=A^{C_{k}}$ by (3.2), the cohomology of $C_{k}$ is known, once it is computed in dimensions 1 and 2. The higher dimensional cohomology groups then are determined by (7.3) which says that the cohomology of $C_{k}$ is periodic with period 2.

By Theorem 5.5 the augmentation ideal $I C$ is $C$-free on $t-1$; hence $\mathbb{Z} C_{k} \otimes_{C} I C \cong \mathbb{Z} C_{k}$. The sequence (7.1) therefore becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{Z} \stackrel{\alpha}{\stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow}} \mathbb{Z} C_{k} \xrightarrow{\beta} I C_{k} \tag{7.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now by (6.4) $\kappa$ sends the generator $t$ of $\mathbb{Z}$ into $1 \otimes_{C}\left(t^{k}-1\right) \in \mathbb{Z} C_{k} \otimes_{C} I C$. Since $1 \otimes_{C}\left(t^{k}-1\right)=\left(\tau^{k-1}+\tau^{k-2}+\cdots+\tau+1\right) \otimes_{C}(t-1)$, the map $\alpha$ is described by $\alpha(t)=\tau^{k-1}+\tau^{k-2}+\cdots+\tau+1 \in \mathbb{Z} C_{k}$. The map $\beta$ clearly is multiplication in $\mathbb{Z} C_{k}$ by $\tau-1$, whence it follows from (7.4) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
I C_{k}=\mathbb{Z} C_{k} /\left(\tau^{k-1}+\tau^{k-2}+\cdots+\tau+1\right) . \tag{7.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using the remark (2.6) we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
H^{2}\left(C_{k}, A\right) & =\operatorname{coker}\left(\alpha^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{C_{k}}\left(\mathbb{Z} C_{k}, A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{c_{k}}(\mathbb{Z}, A)\right) \\
& =\{a \in A \mid \tau a=a\} /\left(\tau^{k-1}+\tau^{k-2}+\cdots+\tau+1\right) A \\
H^{1}\left(C_{k}, A\right) & =\operatorname{coker}\left(\imath^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{C_{k}}\left(\mathbb{Z} C_{k}, A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{c_{k}}\left(I C_{k}, A\right)\right) \\
& =\left\{\alpha \in A \mid\left(\tau^{k-1}+\tau^{k-2}+\cdots+\tau+1\right) a=0\right\} /(\tau-1) A,
\end{aligned}
$$

the latter using (7.5). Proceeding analogously for homology, one obtains the homology of $C_{k}$ (see Proposition 7.1).

If we define $C_{k}$-homomorphisms $\varphi, \psi: A \rightarrow A$ by

$$
\varphi a=(\tau-1) a, \quad \psi a=\left(\tau^{k-1}+\tau^{k-2}+\cdots+\tau+1\right) a, \quad a \in A, \text { (7.6) }
$$

and similar maps $\varphi, \psi$ for the right $C_{k}$-module $B$, we can state our results as follows:

Proposition 7.1. Let $C_{k}$ be a cyclic group of order $k$ with generator $\tau$, and let $A, B$ be $C_{k}$-modules. Then, for $n \geqq 1$,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
H^{2 n-1}\left(C_{k}, A\right)=\operatorname{ker} \psi / \operatorname{im} \varphi, & H^{2 n}\left(C_{k}, A\right)=\operatorname{ker} \varphi / \operatorname{im} \psi ; \\
H_{2 n-1}\left(C_{k}, B\right)=\operatorname{ker} \varphi / \operatorname{im} \psi, & H_{2 n}\left(C_{k}, B\right)=\operatorname{ker} \varphi / \operatorname{im} \varphi . \tag{7.7}
\end{array}
$$

while $H^{0}\left(C_{k}, A\right)=\operatorname{ker} \varphi, H_{0}\left(C_{k}, A\right)=\operatorname{coker} \varphi$. For $A, B$ trivial $C_{k}$-modules we have

$$
\begin{align*}
& H^{2 n-1}\left(C_{k}, A\right)=\operatorname{ker} k, \quad H^{2 n}\left(C_{k}, A\right)=\operatorname{coker} k: \\
& H_{2 n-1}\left(C_{k}, B\right)=\operatorname{coker} k . \quad H_{2 n}\left(C_{k}, B\right)=\operatorname{ker} k \tag{7.8}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\psi=k: A \rightarrow A($ resp. $k: B \rightarrow B)$ is multiplication by $k$.
It follows readily from these results that a (non-trivial) finite cyclic group $C_{k}$ has $H^{n}\left(C_{k}, \mathbb{Z}\right) \neq 0$ for infinitely many $n$. Hence there cannot exist a finite $C_{\boldsymbol{k}}$-projective resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$.

## Exercises:

7.1. Prove the following statement: To a group $G$ containing an element $x \neq 1$ of finite order there cannot exist a finite $G$-projective resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$.
7.2. Describe explicitly a periodic free resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$ as $C_{k}$-module.
7.3. Compute $H^{n}\left(C_{k}, \mathbb{Z}\right), H_{n}\left(C_{k}, \mathbb{Z}\right)$ explicitly.
7.4. Use Exercise 2.5 and the periodic resolution of Exercise 7.2 to compute explicitly the change-of-rings map in integral homology for $f: C_{m} \rightarrow C_{n}$ where $f(t)=s^{s}, t$ is the generator of $C_{m}, s$ is the generator of $C_{n}$ and $n \mid r m$.
7.5. Let $C_{m}$ be generated by $t$, and $C_{m^{2}}$ by $s$. Define an action of $C_{m}$ on $C_{m^{2}}$ by $t ; s=s^{m+1}$. Using Exercise 7.4, compute the resulting $C_{m}$-module structure on $H_{j}\left(C_{m^{2}}\right), j \geqq 0$, the integral homology of $C_{m^{2}}$.
7.6. Under the same hypotheses as in Exercise 7.5 compute $H_{i}\left(C_{m}, H_{j}\left(C_{m^{2}}\right)\right.$ ). where $m$ is an odd prime.
7.7. Let $G$ be a group with one defining relator, i.e. there exists a free group $F$ and an element $r \in F$ such that $G \cong F / R$ where $R$ is the smallest normal subgroup of $F$ containing $r$. It has been shown that the relator $r$ may be written in a unique way as $r=w^{q}$, where $w$ cannot be written as a proper power of any other element in $F$. Note that $q$ may be 1 . Denote by $C$ the cyclic subgroup generated by the image of $w$ in G. R.C. Lyndon has proved the deep result that $R_{a b} \cong \mathbb{Z} \otimes_{C} \mathbb{Z} G$. Using this and Corrollary 6.5 show that, for $G$-modules $A, B$. we have $H^{n}(G . A) \cong H^{n}(C . A)$ and $H_{n}(G . B) \cong H_{n}(C . B)$ for $n \geqq 3$. Deduce that if $r$ cannot be written as a proper power (i.e., if $q=1$ ) then $G$ is torsion-free.

## 8. The 5-Term Exact Sequences

Theorem 8.1. Let $N \hookrightarrow G \rightarrow Q$ be an exact sequence of groups. For $Q$-modules $A, B$ the following sequences are exact (and natural)
$H_{2}(G, B) \rightarrow H_{2}(Q, B) \rightarrow B \otimes_{Q} N_{a b} \rightarrow B \otimes_{G} I G \rightarrow B \otimes_{Q} I Q \rightarrow 0 ;$
$0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Der}(Q, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Der}(G, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{Q}\left(N_{a b}, A\right) \rightarrow H^{2}(Q, A) \rightarrow H^{2}(G, A)$.
Proof. We only prove the first of the two sequences, the cohomology sequence being proved similarly, using in addition the natural isomorphisms $\operatorname{Der}(G, A) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{G}(I G, A), \operatorname{Der}(Q, A) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{Q}(I Q, A)$.

By Theorem $6.3 N_{a b}{ }^{\boldsymbol{\kappa}} \xrightarrow{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{G} I G \rightarrow I Q$ is exact. Tensoring with $B$ over $\mathbb{Z} Q$ yields the exact sequence
$\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{Q}\left(B, \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{G} I G\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{Q}(B, I Q) \rightarrow B \otimes_{Q} N_{a b} \rightarrow B \otimes_{G} I G \rightarrow B \otimes_{Q} I Q \rightarrow 0$
since, plainly, $B \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{G} I G \cong B \otimes_{G} I G$. Moreover, by (2.8)

$$
H_{2}(Q, B) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{Q}(B, I Q)
$$

It therefore suffices to find a (natural) map

$$
\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{G}(B, I G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{Q}\left(B, \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{G} I G\right)
$$

and to show that it is epimorphic. To do so, we choose a $Q$-projective presentation $M \hookrightarrow P \rightarrow B$ of $B$. Applying the functors $-\otimes_{G} I G$ and $-\otimes_{Q}\left(\mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{G} I G\right)$ we obtain the commutative diagram, with exact rows,

which proves immediately that the map in question is epimorphic. Naturality of the sequence is left as an exercise. $\quad \square$

We remark that the sequences (8.1) can be altered to

$$
\begin{align*}
& H_{2}(G, B) \rightarrow H_{2}(Q, B) \rightarrow B \otimes_{Q} N_{a b} \rightarrow H_{1}(G, B) \rightarrow H_{1}(Q, B) \rightarrow 0, \\
& 0 \rightarrow H^{1}(Q, A) \rightarrow H^{1}(G, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{Q}\left(N_{a b}, A\right) \rightarrow H^{2}(Q, A) \rightarrow H^{2}(G, A) . \tag{8.2}
\end{align*}
$$

Again we concentrate on the homology sequence. Using (4.2) we obtain the following commutative diagram, with exact rows and columns,


It is obvious now that $p_{*}: H_{1}(G, B) \rightarrow H_{1}(Q, B)$ is epimorphic. Furthermore we have $0=i_{*} p_{*} \kappa_{*}=i_{*} \kappa_{*}: B \otimes_{Q} N_{a b} \rightarrow B$, whence it follows that $\kappa_{*}$ factors through $H_{1}(G, B)$. Exactness of (8.2) is then trivial.

We remark that the sequences (8.2) coincide with the sequences (8.1) in case $A, B$ are trivial $Q$-modules.

Finally, with a view to application in the next section, we write down explicitly the sequence in the case of integral homology. For short we write $H_{n}(G)$ for $H_{n}(G, \mathbb{Z})$, and analogously for $Q$. By (4.4) we have $H_{1}(G) \cong G_{a b}, H_{1}(Q) \cong Q_{a b}$. Also, $\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{Q} N_{a b}$ is isomorphic to the quotient of $N_{a b}$ by the subgroup generated by the elements $(y-1)=\left(n N^{\prime}\right)$ where $y \in Q, n \in N$, and - denotes the $Q$-action. By (6.5) we see that $\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{Q} N_{a b}$ is therefore isomorphic to the quotient of $N$ by the normal subgroup generated by $x n x^{-1} n^{-1}$ with $x \in G, n \in N$. This subgroup is normally denoted by $[G, N]$, so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{Q} N_{a b} \cong N /[G, N] \tag{8.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

With these preparations we get the following
Corollary 8.2. Let $N \hookrightarrow G \rightarrow Q$ be an exact sequence of groups. Then the following sequence is exact

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{2}(G) \rightarrow H_{2}(Q) \rightarrow N /[G, N] \rightarrow G_{a b} \rightarrow Q_{a b} \rightarrow 0 \tag{8.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Exercises:

8.1. Prove without homological algebra the exactness of

$$
N /[G, N] \rightarrow G_{a b} \rightarrow Q_{a b} \rightarrow 0 .
$$

8.2. Use Theorem 8.1 to compute $H_{2}\left(C_{k}, B\right)$ and $H^{2}\left(C_{k}, A\right)$.
8.3. Prove the exactness of the cohomology sequence in Theorem 8.1 in detail.
8.4. Prove that the 5 -term sequences of this section are natural.
8.5. Prove that the maps $H_{2}(G, B) \rightarrow H_{2}(Q, B)$ and $H_{1}(G, B) \rightarrow H_{1}(Q, B)$ of (8.2) are the maps given by (2.10). Similarly in cohomology.
8.6. Prove that if $H$ is a normal subgroup of $K$ of prime index, then

$$
H_{i}[K, H] \rightarrow H[K, K] /[K, K]
$$

is monomorphic.

## 9. $H_{2}$, Hopf's Formula, and the Lower Central Series

Let $R \hookrightarrow F \rightarrow G$ be an exact sequence of groups with $F$ free, i.e., a presentation of the group $G$. For $B$ a $G$-module, Theorem 8.1 provides us with the exact sequence

$$
H_{2}(F, B) \rightarrow H_{2}(G, B) \rightarrow B \otimes_{G} R_{a b} \rightarrow B \otimes_{F} I F \rightarrow B \otimes_{G} I G \rightarrow 0
$$

By Corollary 5.6 we have $H_{2}(F, B)=0$, whence

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{2}(G . B) \cong \operatorname{ker}\left(B \otimes_{G} R_{a b} \rightarrow B \otimes_{F} I F\right) \tag{9.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In case $B=\mathbb{Z}$ Corollary 8.2 leaves us with

$$
H_{2}(G) \cong \operatorname{ker}(R /[F, R] \rightarrow F /[F, F])
$$

and we obtain Hopf's formula for the second integral homology group

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{2}(G) \cong R \cap[F, F] /[F, R] \tag{9.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

As an immediate consequence we deduce that the group given by the formula on the right hand side of (9.2) is independent of the choice of presentation of $G$.

Next we state a result which relates the homology theory of a group to its lower central series.

Definition. Given a group $G$, we define a series of subgroups $G_{n}$, $n \geqq 0$, by

$$
\begin{equation*}
G_{0}=G, \quad G_{n+1}=\left[G, G_{n}\right] \tag{9.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

This series is called the lower central series of $G$. A group $G$ with $G_{n}=\{1\}$ is called nilpotent of class $\leqq n$.

It is easily proved by induction on $n$ that the groups $G_{n}$ are normal in $G$. Also, the quotients $G_{n} / G_{n+1}$ are plainly abelian. A homomorphism $f: G \rightarrow H$ maps $G_{n}$ into $H_{n}$ for every $n \geqq 0$.

Theorem 9.1. Let $f: G \rightarrow H$ be a group homomorphism such that the induced homomorphism $f_{*}: G_{a b} \rightarrow H_{a b}$ is an isomorphism, and that

$$
f_{*}: H_{2}(G) \rightarrow H_{2}(H)
$$

is an epimorphism. Then $f$ induces isomorphisms

$$
f_{n}: G / G_{n} \xrightarrow{\sim} H_{i}^{\prime} H_{n}, \quad n \geqq 0 .
$$

Proof. We proceed by induction. For $n=0,1$ the assertion is trivial or part of the hypotheses. For $n \geqq 2$ consider the exact sequences

$$
G_{n-1} \hookrightarrow G \rightarrow G / G_{n-1}, \quad H_{n-1} \hookrightarrow H \rightarrow H / H_{n-1}
$$

and the associated 5 -term sequences in homology (Corollary 8.2):


Note that $\left[G, G_{n-1}\right]=G_{n},\left[H, H_{n-1}\right]=H_{n}$ by definition. By naturality the map $f$ induces homomorphisms $\alpha_{i}, i=1, \ldots, 5$, such that (9.4) is commutative. By hypothesis $\alpha_{1}$ is epimorphic and $\alpha_{4}$ is isomorphic. By induction $\alpha_{2}$ and $\alpha_{5}$ are isomorphic. Hence by the generalized five Lemma (Exercise 1. 1.2) $\alpha_{3}$ is isomorphic. Next consider the diagram


The map $f: G \rightarrow H$ induces $\alpha_{3}, f_{n}, f_{n-1}$. By the above $\alpha_{3}$ is isomorphic, by induction $f_{n-1}$ is isomorphic, hence $f_{n}$ is isomorphic.

Corollary 9.2. Let $f: G \rightarrow H$ satisffy the hypotheses of Theorem 9.1. Suppose further that $G, H$ are nilpotent. Then $f$ is an isomorphism. $f: G \stackrel{\sim}{\rightarrow} H$.

Proof. The assertion follows from Theorem 9.1 and the remark that there exists $n \geqq 0$ such that $G_{n}=\{1\}$ and $H_{n}=\{1\}$. $\square$

## Exercises:

9.1. Suppose $f: G \rightarrow H$ satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 9.1. Prove that $f$ induces a monomorphism $f: G\left|\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} G_{n} \hookrightarrow H\right| \bigcap_{n=0}^{\alpha} H_{n}$.
9.2. Let $R \longmapsto F \rightarrow G$ be a free presentation of the group $G$. Let $\left\{x_{i}\right\}$ be a set of generators of $F$ and $\left\{r_{j}\right\}$ a set of elements of $F$ generating $R$ as a normal subgroup. Then the data $P=\left(\left\{x_{i}\right\} ;\left\{r_{j}\right\}\right)$ is called a group presentation of $G, x_{i}$ are called generators, $r_{j}$ are called relators. The group presentation $P$ is called finite if both sets $\left\{x_{i}\right\},\left\{r_{j}\right\}$ are finite. A group $G$ is called finitely presentable if there exists a finite group presentation for $G$. The deficiency of a finite group presentation, $\operatorname{def} P$, is the integer given by $\operatorname{def} P=$ (number of generators number of relators). The deficiency of a finitely presentable group, $\operatorname{def} G$, is
defined as the maximum defiency of finite group presentations for $G$. Prove that $\operatorname{def} G \leqq \operatorname{rank} \mathrm{G}_{a b}-s \mathrm{H}_{2}(G)$, where $s M$ denotes the minimum number of generators of the abelian group $M$.
9.3. Let $G$ have a presentation with $n+r$ generators and $r$ relators. Suppose $s\left(G_{a b}\right) \leqq n$. Prove that $H_{2}(G)=0$ and conclude by Exercise 9.1 that $G$ contains a free group $F$ on $n$ generators such that the embedding $i: F \cong G$ induces isomorphisms $i_{k}: F i F_{k} \xrightarrow{\sim} G / G_{k}, k \geqq 0$. Conclude also that if $G$ can be generated by $n$ elements, then $G$ is isomorphic to the free group $F$ on $n$ generators (Magnus). (Hint: Use the fact that $\bigcap_{k=0}^{\infty} F_{k}=\{1\}$ for a free group $F$.)
9.4. Prove that the right hand side of $(9.2)$ depends only on $G$ without using Hopf's formula.
9.5. Deduce (8.4) from Hopf's formula.

## 10. $H^{2}$ and Extensions

Let $A \xrightarrow{i} E \xrightarrow{p} G$ be an exact sequence of groups, with $A$ abelian. It will be convenient to write the group operation in $A$ as addition, in $G$ and $E$ as multiplication, so that $i$ transfers sums into products. Let the function (section) $s: G \rightarrow E$ assign to every $x \in G$ a representative $s x$ of $x$, i.e., $p s=1_{G}$. Given such a section $s$, we can define a $G$-module structure in $i A$, and hence in $A$, by the following formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
x \cdot(i a)=(s x)(i a)(s x)^{-1}, \quad x \in G, \quad a \in A \tag{10.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the multiplication on the right hand side is in $E$. It must be shown that $(x y)=(i a)=x=(y: i a)$ but this follows immediately from the remark that $s(x y)=(s x)(s y)\left(i a^{\prime}\right)$ for some $a^{\prime} \in A$ and the fact that $A$ is abelian. Similarly we see that $1 "(i a)=i a$. Also, again since $A$ is abelian, different sections $s, s^{\prime}: G \rightarrow E$ yield the same $G$-module structure in $A$, because $s^{\prime} x=(s x)\left(i a^{\prime}\right)$ for some $a^{\prime} \in A$.

We define an extension of the group $G$ by the $G$-module $A$ as an exact sequence of groups

$$
\begin{equation*}
A \stackrel{i}{\longrightarrow} E \xrightarrow{p} G \tag{10.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that the $G$-module structure on $A$ defined by (10.1) is the given $G$-module structure.

We proceed in this section to classify extensions of the form (10.2), and we will of course be guided by the classification theory for abelian extensions presented in Chapter III.

We shall call the extension $A \hookrightarrow E \rightarrow G$ equivalent to $A \hookrightarrow E^{\prime} \rightarrow G$, if there exists a group homomorphism $f: E \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ such that

is commutative. Note that then $f$ must be an isomorphism. We denote the set of equivalence classes of extensions of $G$ by $A$ by $M(G, A)$, and the element of $M(G, A)$ containing the extension $A \hookrightarrow E \rightarrow G$ by [E]. The reader notes that in case $G$ is commutative, and operates trivially on $A$, we have $E(G, A) \subseteq M(G, A)$, where $E(G, A)$ was defined in III. 1 .

The set $M(G, A)$ always contains at least one element, namely, the equivalence class of the split extension $A \hookrightarrow A \times G \rightarrow G$, where $A \times G$ is the semi-direct product (see (5.5)).

We now will define a map $\Delta: M(G, A) \rightarrow H^{2}(G, A)$. Given an extension (10.2) then Theorem 8.1 yields the exact sequence
$0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Der}(G, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Der}(E, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{G}(A, A) \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{\theta}} H^{2}(G, A) \rightarrow H^{2}(E, A)$.
We then associate with the extension $A \hookrightarrow E \rightarrow G$ the element

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta[E]=\theta\left(1_{A}\right) \in H^{2}(G, A) . \tag{10.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The naturality of (10.3) immediately shows that $\theta\left(1_{A}\right) \in H^{2}(G, A)$ does not depend on the extension but only on its equivalence class in $M(G, A)$. Hence $\Delta$ is well-defined,

$$
\Delta: M(G, A) \rightarrow H^{2}(G, A) .
$$

We shall prove below that $\Delta$ is both one-to-one and surjective. The analogous result in the abelian case $E(A, B) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{A}(A, B)$ has been proved using prominently a projective presentation of $A$, the quotient group in the extension (see Theorem III. 2.4). If we try to imitate this procedure here, we are naturally led to consider a free presentation $R \hookrightarrow F \rightarrow G$ of $G$. We then can find a map $f: F \rightarrow E$ such that the following diagram commutes

where $\bar{f}$ is induced by $f$. Clearly $\bar{f}$ induces a homomorphism of $G$-modules $\varphi: R_{a b} \rightarrow A$. Diagram (10.5) now yields the commutative diagram


It follows that $\Delta[E]=\theta\left(1_{A}\right)=\sigma \varphi^{*}\left(1_{A}\right)=\sigma(\varphi)$. We are now prepared to prove

Proposition 10.1. The map $\Delta: M(G, A) \rightarrow H^{2}(G, A)$ is surjective.

Proof. Since $\sigma$ in (10.6) is surjective, it suffices to show that every $G$-module homomorphism $\varphi: R_{a b} \rightarrow A$ arises from a diagram of the form (10.5). In other words we have to fill in the diagram

where $\bar{f}$ induces $\varphi$. We construct $E$ as follows. Regard $A$ as an $F$-module via $q$ and form the semi-direct product $V=A \times F$. The set

$$
U=\left\{\left(\bar{f} r, h r^{-1}\right) \mid r \in R\right\}
$$

is easily seen to be a normal subgroup in $V$. Define $E=V / U$. The map $i: A \rightarrow E$ is induced by the embedding $A \rightarrow A \times F$ and $p: E \rightarrow G$ is induced by $A \times F \rightarrow F$ followed by $q: F \rightarrow G$. Finally $f: F \rightarrow E$ is induced by $F \rightarrow A \times F$. The sequence $A \rightarrow E \rightarrow G$ is easily seen to be an extension of $G$ by $A$, and (10.7) is plainly commutative.

Proposition 10.2. If two extension have the same image under $\Delta$, they are equivalent, in other words, the map $\Delta: M(G, A) \rightarrow H^{2}(G, A)$ is injective.

Proof. Let the two extensions be denoted by $A \stackrel{i}{\boldsymbol{i}} E \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{p}} G$ and $A \xrightarrow{i \rightarrow} E^{\prime} \xrightarrow{p^{\prime}} G$. Choose a presentation $R \xrightarrow{h} F \xrightarrow{\underline{q}} G$ and (see (10.5)) lifting maps $f: F \rightarrow E, f^{\prime}: F \rightarrow E^{\prime}$, lifting the identity on $G$, in such a way that $f$ and $f^{\prime}$ are both surjective. (For example choose $F$ to be the free group on the set $E \times E^{\prime}$.) Let $f, f^{\prime}$ induce $\varphi, \varphi^{\prime}: R_{a b} \rightarrow A$. Note that $\varphi, \varphi^{\prime}$ are surjective if and only if $f, f^{\prime}$ are surjective.

Since $\Delta[E]=\Delta\left[E^{\prime}\right]$, it follows that $\sigma(\varphi)=\sigma\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)$ in (10.6). Thus, by the exactness of the lower row in (10.6), there exists a derivation $d: F \rightarrow A$ such that $\varphi=\varphi^{\prime}+\tau(d)$. Consider now $f^{\prime \prime}: F \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ defined by

$$
f^{\prime \prime} x=\left(i^{\prime} d x\right)\left(f^{\prime} x\right), \quad x \in F
$$

We claim that (i) $f^{\prime \prime}$ is a group homomorphism, and (ii) $f^{\prime \prime}$ is surjective. We remark that once the first assertion has been proved. the second is immediate, since plainly $f^{\prime \prime}$ induces $\varphi^{\prime \prime}=\tau(d)+\varphi^{\prime}=\varphi: R_{a b} \rightarrow A$. which is surjective by hypothesis.

For the proof of (i) let $x, y \in F$. Consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{\prime \prime}(x y) & =i^{\prime} d(x y) \cdot f^{\prime}(x y)=i^{\prime}(d x+x d y) \cdot\left(f^{\prime} x\right) \cdot\left(f^{\prime} y\right) \\
& =\left(i^{\prime} d x\right) \cdot\left(x i^{\prime} d y\right) \cdot\left(f^{\prime} x\right) \cdot\left(f^{\prime} y\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where • denotes the multiplication in $E^{\prime}$ and the action of $F$ on $A$ which is given via $q: F \rightarrow G$. Since this action is defined by conjugation in $E^{*}$ we obtain

$$
x \cup\left(i^{\prime} d y\right)=\left(f^{\prime} x\right) \cdot\left(i^{\prime} d y\right) \cdot\left(f^{\prime} x\right)^{-1}
$$

whence it follows that $f^{\prime \prime}(x y)=\left(f^{\prime \prime} x\right) \cdot\left(f^{\prime \prime} y\right)$. Hence $f^{\prime \prime}$ is indeed a homomorphism.

We now have the following commutative diagram

where $\bar{f} \bar{f}^{\prime \prime}$ induces $\varphi^{\prime \prime}: R_{a b} \rightarrow A$. Since $\varphi=\varphi^{\prime \prime}$, it follows that $\bar{f}=\bar{f} \bar{f}^{\prime \prime}: R \rightarrow A$; hence $f$ and $f^{\prime \prime}$ have the same kernel, namely, the kernel of $\bar{f}$. It then follows that there is an isomorphism $E \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ inducing the identity in $A$ and G. $]$

Propositions 10.1 and 10.2 yield the following theorem.
Theorem 10.3. There is a one-to-one correspondence between $H^{2}(G, A)$ and the set $M(G, A)$ of equivalence classes of extensions of $G$ by $A$. The set $M(G, A)$ has therefore a natural abelian group structure and

$$
M(G,-): \mathfrak{M}_{G} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{b}
$$

is a (covariant) functor.
Note that. if $A$ is a trivial $G$-module, then $M(G, A)$ is the set of equivalence classes of central extensions of $G$ by $A$, i.e., extensions $A \hookrightarrow E \rightarrow G$ with $A$ a central subgroup of $E$.

We conclude this section with the observation that the neutral element in the abelian group $M(G, A)$ is represented by the split extension $A \hookrightarrow A \times G \rightarrow G$. By Proposition 10.2 it is enough to show that $\Delta$ maps the class of the split extension into the neutral element of $H^{2}(G, A)$, i.e., one has to show that $\theta\left(1_{A}\right)=0$ in 10.3. By exactness this comes to showing that there is a derivation $d: E \rightarrow A$ which, when restricted to $A$, is the identity. But, for $E=A \times G$, such a derivation is given by $d(a, x)=a$, $a \in A, x \in G$.

## Exercises:

10.1. Show that an extension $A \stackrel{i}{i} E \xrightarrow{\mu} G$ may be described by a "factor set", as follows. Let $s: G \rightarrow E$ be a section, so that $p s=\mathbf{1}_{G}$. Every element in $E$ is of the form $i(a) \cdot s(x)$ with $a, x$ uniquely determined. The multiplication in $E$
determines a function $f: G \times G \rightarrow A$ by

$$
s(x) \cdot s\left(x^{\prime}\right)=i f\left(x, x^{\prime}\right) \cdot s\left(x x^{\prime}\right), \quad x, x^{\prime} \in G
$$

Show that associativity of multiplication in $E$ implies
(i) $\quad x f(y, z)-f(x y, z)+f(x, y z)-f(x, y)=0, \quad x, y, z \in G$.

A function $f$ satisfying (i) is called a factor set.
Show that if $s, s^{\prime}: G \rightarrow E$ are two sections and $f, f^{\prime}$ the corresponding factor sets, then there is a function $g: G \rightarrow A$ with
(ii) $f^{\prime}(x, y)=f(x, y)+g(x y)-g(x)-x g(y), \quad x, y \in G$.
[In fact, every factor set can be realized by means of a suitable extension equipped with a suitable section. For an indirect argument, see Exercise 13.7.]
10.2. Show directly that $M(G,-)$ is a functor.
10.3. Proceeding analogously to Exercise 2.5, 2.6, 2.7 of Chapter III describe an addition in $M(G, A)$. Show that with this addition $\Delta$ becomes a group isomorphism.
10.4. Using the universal property of free groups, show that $M(F, A)$, with $F$ free, consists of one element only, the class containing the semi-direct product.
10.5. Given the group extension $E: A \hookrightarrow G \rightarrow Q$ with abelian kernel, show that we may associate with $E$ the 2 -extension of $Q$-modules

$$
0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{G} I G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} Q \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0
$$

(called the characteristic class of $E$ ). Interpret this in terms of $H^{2}(Q, A)$ and $\operatorname{Ext}_{\boldsymbol{Q}}^{2}(\mathbb{Z}, A)$.

## 11. Relative Projectives and Relative Injectives

It is clear (see (2.4)) that $H^{n}(G, A)=0$ for $n \geqq 1$, whenever $A$ is injective, and that $H_{n}(G, B)=0$ for $n \geqq 1$, whenever $B$ is projective (or flat). We shall see in this section that the class of modules for which the (co)homology groups become trivial in higher dimensions is much wider.

Definition. The right $G$-module $B$ is called induced, if there is an abelian group $X$, such that $B \cong X \otimes \mathbb{Z} G$ as $G$-modules.

It is easy to see that any $G$-module $B$ is a quotient of an induced $G$-module. For let us denote by $B_{0}$ the underlying abelian group of $B$; then $\varphi: B_{0} \otimes \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow B$ defined by $\varphi(b \otimes x)=b x, b \in B, x \in G$ is an epimorphism of $G$-modules. We remark that the $\operatorname{map} \varphi$ is even functorially dependent on $B$, for $B \leadsto B_{0}$ is easily seen to be a functor.

Proposition 11.1. If $B$ is an induced $G$-module, then $H_{n}(G, B)=0$ for $n \geqq 1$.

Proof. Let $\boldsymbol{P}$ be a $G$-projective resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$. The homology of $G$ with coefficients in $B$ is the homology of the complex $B \otimes_{G} P$. Since $B \cong X \otimes \mathbb{Z} G$ for a certain abelian group $X$, we have $B \otimes_{G} P=X \otimes P$.

Since the underlying abelian group of a $G$-projective module is free, the homology of $X \otimes P$ is $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{\mathbb{Z}}(X, \mathbb{Z})$ which is trivial for $n \geqq 1$. $\left.\quad\right]$

Definition. A direct summand of an induced module is called relative projective.

Since the module $B$ is a quotient of $B_{0} \otimes \mathbb{Z} G$, every module has a relative projective presentation.

The reader may turn to Exercise 11.2 to learn of a different characterisation of relative projective modules. This other characterisation also explains the terminology. We next state the following elementary propositions.

Proposition 11.2. $A$ direct sum $B=\bigoplus_{i \in I} B_{i}$ is relative projective if and only if each $B_{i}, i \in I$, is relative projective.

The proof is immediate from the definition. $\quad]$
Since $H_{n}(G,-)$ is an additive functor, we have
Proposition 11.3. If $B$ is a relative projective $G$-module, then

$$
H_{n}(G, B)=0
$$

for $n \geqq 1$. $\quad \square$
We now turn to the "dual" situation:
Definition. A left $G$-module $A$ is called coinduced, if there is an abelian group $X$ such that $A \cong \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z} G, X)$ as $G$-modules. Note that the left module structure of $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z} G, X)$ is induced by the right module structure of $\mathbb{Z} G$. Any $G$-module $A$ may be embedded functorially in a coinduced module. For let $A_{0}$ denote the underlying abelian group of $A$; then the map $\psi: A \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(\mathbb{Z} G, A_{0}\right)$, defined by $\psi(a)(x)=x a, x \in G, a \in A$ is a monomorphism of $G$-modules. The functoriality follows easily from the fact that $A \leadsto A_{0}$ is a functor.

Proposition 11.4. If $A$ is a coinduced $G$-module then $H^{n}(G, A)=0$ for $n \geqq 1$.

The proof is left to the reader. $\quad]$
Definition. A direct summand of a coinduced module is called relative injective.

Again it is clear that every module has a relative injective presentation.
Proposition 11.5. A direct product $A=\prod_{i \in I} A_{i}$ is relative injective if and only if each $A_{i}, i \in I$ is relative injective.

Since $H^{n}(G,-)$ is an additive functor, we have:
Proposition 11.6. If $A$ is a relative injective $G$-module, then $H^{n}(G, A)=0$ for $n \geqq 1$. $]$

For the next two sections the following remarks will be crucial.
Let $A_{1}, A_{2}$ be left $G$-modules. We define in $A_{1} \otimes A_{2}$ (the tensor product over $\mathbb{Z}$ ) a $G$-module structure by

$$
\begin{equation*}
x\left(a_{1} \otimes a_{2}\right)=x a_{1} \otimes x a_{2}, \quad x \in G, \quad a_{1} \in A_{1} . \quad a_{2} \in A_{2} . \tag{11.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The module axioms are easily verified. We shall say that $G$ acts by diagonal action.

It should be noted that the definition (11.1) is not possible if we replace $\mathbb{Z} G$ by an arbitrary ring $\Lambda$. It depends upon the fact that the map $\Delta: \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \otimes \mathbb{Z} G$ given by $\Delta(x)=x \otimes x, x \in G$. is a ring homomorphism. Generally, one can define an analogous module action for an augmented $K$-algebra $\Lambda . K$ a commutative ring, if one is given a homomorphism of augmented $K$-algebras $1: \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda \otimes_{K} \Lambda$, called the diagonal. Given $\Lambda$ modules $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$, there is an obvious action of $\Lambda \otimes_{K} \Lambda$ on $A_{1} \otimes_{K} A_{2}$ and $\Lambda$ then acts on $A_{1} \otimes_{K} A_{2}$ by diagonal action, that is,

$$
\lambda\left(a_{1} \otimes a_{2}\right)=(\Delta \lambda)\left(a_{1} \otimes a_{2}\right) .
$$

Such an algebra $\Lambda$, together with the diagonal $\Delta$, is usually called a Hopf algebra.

Henceforth we will adhere to the following two conventions.
(11.2) If $A$ is a $G$-module, we will regard its underlying abelian group $A_{0}$ as a trivial $G$-module.
(11.3) Whenever we form the tensor product over $\mathbb{Z}$ of two $G$ modules it is understood to be endowed with a $G$-module structure by diagonal action.

With these conventions, our enunciations become much simplified.
Lemma 11.7. Let $A$ be a G-module. Then the $G$-modules $A^{\prime}=\mathbb{Z} G \otimes A$ and $A^{\prime \prime}=\mathbb{Z} G \otimes A_{0}$ are isomorphic.

Proof. We define a homomorphism $\varphi: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ by

$$
\varphi(x \otimes a)=x \otimes\left(x^{-1} a\right), \quad x \in G, \quad a \in A
$$

Plainly, $\varphi$ respects the $G$-module structures and has a two-sided inverse $\psi: A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$, defined by $\psi(x \otimes a)=x \otimes x a$. $\left.\quad\right]$

Corollary 11.8. $A^{\prime}=\mathbb{Z} G \otimes A$ is relative projective. $\quad \square$
We note for future reference that if $A_{0}$ is a free abelian group, $\mathbb{Z} G \otimes A_{0}$ and, hence, $\mathbb{Z} G \otimes A$ are even free $G$-modules.

We now turn to the "dual" situation.
Let $A_{1}, A_{2}$ be left $G$-modules. We define a $G$-module structure in $\operatorname{Hom}\left(A_{1}, A_{2}\right)$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
(y \alpha)(a)=y\left(\alpha\left(y^{-1} a\right)\right), \quad y \in G, \quad a \in A_{1}, \quad x: A_{1} \rightarrow A_{2} \tag{11.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Again the module axioms are easily checked. We shall say that $G$ acts by diagonal action on $\operatorname{Hom}\left(A_{1}, A_{2}\right)$. Also, we shall adopt the following convention which is analogous to (11.3).
(11.5) $\operatorname{Hom}\left(A_{1}, A_{2}\right)$ is understood to be endowed with a $G$-module structure by diagonal action.

Lemma 11.9. Let $A$ be a left $G$-module. Then the $G$-modules

$$
A^{\prime}=\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z} G, A)
$$

and $A^{\prime \prime}=\operatorname{Hom}\left(\mathbb{Z} G, A_{0}\right)$ are isomorphic.
Proof. We define $\varphi: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ by $(\varphi(\alpha))(x)=x^{-1}(\alpha(x)), x \in G, \alpha: \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow A$. We verify that $\varphi$ is a homomorphism of $G$-modules:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (\varphi(y \cdot \alpha))(x)=x^{-1}((y \cdot \alpha)(x))=x^{-1}\left(y\left(\alpha\left(y^{-1} x\right)\right)\right), \\
& (y \cdot(\varphi \alpha))(x)=(\varphi \alpha)\left(y^{-1} x\right)=\left(x^{-1} y\right)\left(\alpha\left(y^{-1} x\right)\right), \quad x, y \in G .
\end{aligned}
$$

The map $\psi: A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ defined by $(\psi \alpha)(x)=x(\alpha(x))$ is easily checked to be a two-sided inverse of $\varphi$.

Corollary 11.10. $A^{\prime}=\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z} G, A)$ is relative injective. $\quad \square$

## Exercises:

11.1. Show that the functor $-\otimes \mathbb{Z} G$ is left-adjoint to the functor $B \leadsto B_{0}$.
11.2. Prove that a $G$-module $P$ is relative projective if and only if it has the following property: If $A \hookrightarrow B \rightarrow P$ is any short exact sequence of $G$-modules which splits as a sequence of abelian groups, then it also splits as a sequence of $G$-modules. (See also Exercise IX.1.7.)
11.3. Characterise relative injective $G$-modules by a property dual to the property stated in Exercise 11.2.
11.4. Show (by induction) that $H^{n}(G, A)$, may be computed by using a relative injective resolution of $A$ and $H_{n}(G, B)$ by using a relative projective resolution of $B$.
11.5. Show that $\Delta: \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \otimes \mathbb{Z} G$ defined by $\Delta(x)=x \otimes x, x \in G$ is a homomorphism of augmented algebras over $\mathbb{Z}$; hence $\mathbb{Z} G$ is a Hopf algebra.
11.6. Show that the tensor algebra $T V$ over the $K$-vectorspace $V$ is a Hopf algebra, $\Delta$ being defined by $\Delta(v)=v \otimes 1+1 \otimes v, v \in V$.
11.7. Show that with the conventions (11.3) and (11.5) $\operatorname{Hom}(-,-)$ and $-\otimes-$ are bifunctors to the category of $G$-modules.
11.8. Let $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}$ be $G$-modules. Let $A_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes A_{n}$ be given a $G$-module structure by diagonal action, i.e., $x\left(a_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes a_{n}\right)=x a_{1} \otimes x a_{2} \otimes \cdots \otimes x a_{n}, x \in G, a_{i} \in A_{i}$, $i=1, \ldots, n$. Show that $\mathbb{Z} G \otimes A_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes A_{n} \cong \mathbb{Z} G \otimes A_{10} \otimes \cdots \otimes A_{n 0}$.

## 12. Reduction Theorems

Theorem 12.1. For $n \geqq 2$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{n}(G . B) \cong H_{n-1}(G, B \otimes I G) \\
& H^{n}(G . A) \cong H^{n-1}(G . \operatorname{Hom}(I G, A)),
\end{aligned}
$$

where $B \otimes I G$ and $\operatorname{Hom}(I G, A)$ are $G$-modules by diagonal action.

Proof. We only prove the cohomology part of this theorem. Consider the short exact sequence of $G$-module homomorphisms (see Exercise 11.7)

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, A) \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z} G, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(I G, A)
$$

By Corollary $11.10, \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z} G, A)$ is relative injective, so that the above sequence is a relative injective presentation of $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, A) \cong A$. By the long exact cohomology sequence and Proposition 11.6, we obtain the result. [

Theorem 12.2. Let $G \cong F / R$ with $F$ free. For $n \geqq 3$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{n}(G, B) \cong H_{n-2}\left(G, B \otimes R_{a b}\right), \\
& H^{n}(G . A) \cong H^{n-2}\left(G . \operatorname{Hom}\left(R_{a b}, A\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

where $B \otimes R_{a b}$ and $\operatorname{Hom}\left(R_{a b}, A\right)$ are $G$-modules by diagonal action.
Proof. Again we only prove the cohomology part. By Corollary 6.4 we have the following short exact sequence of $G$-module homomorphisms

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(I G, A) \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(\mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{F} I F, A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(R_{a b}, A\right) .
$$

Now $\mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{F} I F$ is $G$-free, hence $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{F} I F, A\right)$ is relative injective by Proposition 11.5 and Corollary 11.10. The long exact cohomology sequence together with Theorem 12.1 yields the desired result. [

## Exercises:

12.1. Show that Theorem 12.2 generalizes the periodicity theorem for cyclic groups.
12.2. Prove the homology statements of Theorems 12.1, 12.2.

## 13. Resolutions

Both for theoretical and for computational aspects of the homology theory of groups, it is often convenient to have an explicit description of a resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$ over the given group. In this section we shall present four such resolutions. The first three will turn out to be, in fact, equivalent descriptions of one and the same resolution, called the (normalized) standard resolution or bar resolution. This resolution is entirely described in terms of the group $G$ itself, and indeed, depends functorially on $G$; it is the resolution used, almost exclusively, in the pioneering work in the homology theory of groups described in the introduction to this chapter. The fourth resolution, on the other hand, depends on a chosen free presentation of the group $G$. Throughout this section $G$ will be a fixed group.
(a) The Homogeneous Bar Resolution. We first describe the nonnormalized bar resolution. Let $\bar{B}_{n}, n \geqq 0$, be the free abelian group on the
set of all $(n+1)$-tuples $\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$ of elements of $G$. Define a left $G$-module structure in $\bar{B}_{n}$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
y\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)=\left(y y_{0}, y y_{1}, \ldots, y y_{n}\right), \quad y \in G . \tag{13.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is clear that $\bar{B}_{n}$ is a free $G$-module, a basis being given by the $(n+1)$ tuples $\left(1, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$. We define the differential in the sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{B}: \cdots \rightarrow \bar{B}_{n} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n}} \bar{B}_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \bar{B}_{1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{1}} \bar{B}_{0} \tag{13.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

by the simplicial boundary formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial_{n}\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i}\left(y_{0}, \ldots, \hat{y}_{i}, \ldots, y_{n}\right), \tag{13.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the symbol $\hat{y}_{i}$ indicates that $y_{i}$ is to be omitted; and the augmentation $\varepsilon: \bar{B}_{0} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon(y)=1 . \tag{13.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Plainly $\partial_{n}, \varepsilon$ are $G$-module homomorphisms. Moreover, an elementary calculation, very familiar to topologists, shows that

$$
\partial_{n-1} \partial_{n}=0, \quad n \geqq 2 ; \quad \varepsilon \lambda_{1}=0 .
$$

We claim that $\overline{\boldsymbol{B}}$ is a free $\boldsymbol{G}$-resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$; this, too, is a translation into algebraic terms of a fact familiar to topologists, but we will give the proof. We regard

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \bar{B}_{n} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n}} \bar{B}_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \bar{B}_{1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{1}} \bar{B}_{0} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0
$$

as a chain-complex of abelian groups and, as such, it may readily be seen to admit a contracting homotopy $\overline{\boldsymbol{U}}$, given by

$$
\bar{\Delta}_{-1}(1)=1 . \quad \bar{\Delta}_{n}\left(y_{0}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)=\left(1, y_{0}, \ldots, y_{n}\right) .
$$

We leave the reader to verify that $\bar{\Delta}$ is indeed a contracting homotopy, that is, that
$\varepsilon \bar{\Delta}_{-1}=1, \quad \partial_{1} \bar{\Delta}_{0}+\bar{\Delta}_{-1} \varepsilon=1, \quad \partial_{n+1} \bar{\Delta}_{n}+\bar{\Delta}_{n-1} \partial_{n}=1, \quad n \geqq 1$.
The complex $\overline{\boldsymbol{B}}$ is called the (non-normalized) standard (or bar) resolution in homogeneous form. Now let $D_{n} \subseteq \bar{B}_{n}$ be the subgroup generated by the $(n+1)$-tuples $\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$ such that $y_{i}=y_{i+1}$ for at least one value of $i, i=0,1, \ldots, n-1$; such an $(n+1)$-tuple will be called degenerate, and plainly $D_{n}$ is a submodule of $\bar{B}_{n}$, generated by the degenerate $(n+1)$-tuples with $y_{0}=1$. We claim that $\partial D_{n} \subseteq D_{n-1}$. For, if $\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$ is degenerate, let $y_{j}=y_{j+1}$. Then $\partial_{n}\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$ is a linear combination of degenerate $n$-tuples, together with the term

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (-1)^{j}\left(y_{0}, \ldots, y_{j-1}, y, y_{j+2}, \ldots, y_{n}\right) \\
& \quad+(-1)^{j+1}\left(y_{0}, \ldots, y_{j-1}, y, y_{j+2}, \ldots, y_{n}\right), \quad y=y_{j}=y_{j+1},
\end{aligned}
$$

which is clearly zero. Thus the submodules $D_{n}$ yield a subcomplex $D$, called the degenerate subcomplex of $\bar{B}$. (Of course, we could choose other definitions of degeneracy; for example, we could merely require that any two of $y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}$ be the same.) We remark that $D_{0}=0$. We also notice that the contracting homotopy $\bar{\Delta}$ has the property that $\bar{\Delta}_{n} D_{n} \subseteq D_{n+1}$, $n \geqq 0$. Thus we see that, passing to the quotient complex $\boldsymbol{B}=\overline{\boldsymbol{B}} / \boldsymbol{D}$, each $G$-module $B_{n}$ is free (on the $(n+1)$-tuples $\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$ for which $y_{i}=y_{i+1}$ for no value of $i, i=0,1, \ldots, n-1)$, and $B$ is a $G$-free resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$, the contracting homotopy $\boldsymbol{\Delta}$ being induced by $\overline{\boldsymbol{\Delta}}$. The complex $\boldsymbol{B}$ is called the (normalized) standard (or bar) resolution in homogeneous form. It is customary in homological algebra to use the normalized form with precisely this definition of degeneracy.
(b) The Inhomogeneous Bar Resolution. Let $\overline{B_{n}^{\prime}}, n \geqq 0$, be the free left $G$-module on the set of all $n$-tuples $\left[x_{1}\left|x_{2}\right| \ldots \mid x_{n}\right]$ of elements of $G$. We define the differential in the sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{B}^{\prime}: \cdots \rightarrow \bar{B}_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n}} \bar{B}_{n-1}^{\prime} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \bar{B}_{1}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\partial_{1}} \bar{B}_{0}^{\prime} \tag{13.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

by the formula

$$
\begin{align*}
& \hat{o}_{n}\left[x_{1}\left|x_{2}\right| \ldots \mid x_{n}\right]=x_{1}\left[x_{2}|\ldots| x_{n}\right] \\
& \quad+\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}(-1)^{i}\left[x_{1}\left|x_{2}\right| \ldots\left|x_{i} x_{i+1}\right| \ldots \mid x_{n}\right]  \tag{13.7}\\
& \quad+(-1)^{n}\left[x_{1}\left|x_{2}\right| \ldots \mid x_{n-1}\right] ;
\end{align*}
$$

and the augmentation $\varepsilon: \bar{B}_{0}^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon[]=1 \tag{13.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The reader is advised to give a direct proof that $\overline{\boldsymbol{B}}^{\prime}$ is a $\boldsymbol{G}$-free resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$, using the hint that the contracting homotopy is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{\Delta}_{-1}(1)=[], \quad \bar{\Delta}_{n}\left(x\left[x_{1}|\ldots| x_{n}\right]\right)=\left[x\left|x_{1}\right| \ldots \mid x_{n}\right], \quad n \geqq 0, \tag{13.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

(recall that $\bar{\Delta}_{n}$ is a homomorphism of abelian groups). However, we avoid this direct proof by establishing an isomorphism between $\overline{\boldsymbol{B}}^{\prime}$ and $\overline{\boldsymbol{B}}$, compatible with the augmentations. Thus we define $\varphi_{n}: \bar{B}_{n} \rightarrow \bar{B}_{n}^{\prime}$ by

$$
\varphi_{n}\left(1, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)=\left[y_{1}\left|y_{1}^{-1} y_{2}\right| \ldots \mid y_{n-1}^{-1} y_{n}\right]
$$

and $\psi_{n}: \bar{B}_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow \bar{B}_{n}$ by

$$
\psi_{n}\left[x_{1}|\ldots| x_{n}\right]=\left(1, x_{1}, x_{1} x_{2}, \ldots, x_{1} x_{2} \ldots x_{n}\right) .
$$

It is easy to see that $\varphi_{n}, \psi_{n}$ are mutual inverses, and that they are compatible with the differentials and the augmentations. Moreover, if $D_{n}^{\prime}=\varphi_{n} D_{n}$, then $D_{n}^{\prime}$ is the submodule of $\bar{B}_{n}^{\prime}$ generated by the $n$-tuples $\left[x_{1}\left|x_{2}\right| \ldots \mid x_{n}\right]$ with at least one $x_{i}$ equal to 1 . The modules $D_{n}^{\prime}$ constitute
the degenerate subcomplex $\boldsymbol{D}^{\prime}$ of $\boldsymbol{B}^{\prime}$ and the quotient complex $\boldsymbol{B}^{\prime}=\overline{\boldsymbol{B}}^{\prime} / \boldsymbol{D}^{\prime}$ is a $G$-free resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$, isomorphic to $B$, and called the (normalized) standard (or bar) resolution in inhomogeneous form.
(c) Alternative Description of the Bar Resolution. Here and in (d) below we shall construct a resolution step by step. First we recall that

$$
I G \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \stackrel{\varepsilon}{\leftrightarrows} \mathbb{Z}
$$

is a $G$-free presentation of $\mathbb{Z}$. Tensor with the free abelian group $I G$ to obtain the exact sequence of $G$-modules

$$
I G \otimes I G \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \otimes I G \rightarrow I G .
$$

By Corollary 11.8 and the remark following it, this is a $G$-free presentation of $I G$. In general write $I G^{n}$ for the $n$-fold tensor product of $I G$, and give $I G^{n}$ a $G$-module-structure by diagonal action (see Exercise 11.8). Clearly

$$
\begin{equation*}
I G^{n+1} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \otimes I G^{n} \rightarrow I G^{n} \tag{13.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a $G$-free presentation of $I G^{n}$. Putting the short exact sequences (13.10) together, we obtain a $G$-free resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
C: \cdots \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \otimes I G^{n} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n}} \mathbb{Z} G \otimes I G^{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \tag{13.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

In each $\mathbb{Z} G \otimes I G^{n}$ the $G$-action is given by the diagonal action

$$
\begin{gathered}
x\left(y \otimes\left(z_{1}-1\right) \otimes \cdots \otimes\left(z_{n}-1\right)\right)=x y \otimes x\left(z_{1}-1\right) \otimes \cdots \otimes x\left(z_{n}-1\right), \\
x, y, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n} \in G .
\end{gathered}
$$

The differential $\partial_{n}: \mathbb{Z} G \otimes I G^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \otimes I G^{n-1}$ is defined by

$$
\begin{align*}
\partial_{n}(x & \left.\otimes\left(z_{1}-1\right) \otimes \cdots \otimes\left(z_{n}-1\right)\right) \\
& =\left(z_{1}-1\right) \otimes \cdots \otimes\left(z_{n}-1\right) . \quad x, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n} \in G . \tag{13.12}
\end{align*}
$$

One can prove that the resolution $\boldsymbol{C}$ is isomorphic to the resolution $\boldsymbol{B}$. The isomorphism $\theta_{n}: B_{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \otimes I G^{n}$ is defined by

$$
\begin{align*}
& \theta_{n}\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right) \\
& \quad=y_{0} \otimes\left(y_{1}-y_{0}\right) \otimes \cdots \otimes\left(y_{n}-y_{n-1}\right), \quad y_{0}, \ldots, y_{n} \in G \tag{13.13}
\end{align*}
$$

Details are left to the reader (see Exercises 13.1 through 13.5). It is also plain that a homomorphism $f: G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ induces a chain map

$$
B f: B(G) \rightarrow B(\bar{G}) \quad\left(B^{\prime} f: B^{\prime}(G) \rightarrow B^{\prime}(\bar{G}), C f: C(G) \rightarrow C(\bar{G})\right),
$$

which is even a chain map of $\boldsymbol{G}$-complexes if $\boldsymbol{B}(\bar{G})$ is given the structure of a $G$-complex via $f$. Thus the bar construction is evidently functorial, and the isomorphisms $\varphi_{n}, \psi_{n}, \theta_{n}$ of (b) and (c) yield natural equivalences of functors.
(d) The Gruenberg Resolution. Here we shall present a resolution, which, unlike the bar resolution, depends on a chosen free presentation of the group $G$. Let $G$ be presented as $G \cong F / R$ with $F$ free. We recall that

$$
\begin{equation*}
I G \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \tag{13.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a $G$-free presentation of $\mathbb{Z}$. By Corollary 6.4 the short exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{a b} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{F} I F \rightarrow I G \tag{13.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a $G$-free presentation of $I G$. Tensoring (13.14), (13.15) with the $n$-fold tensor product $R_{a b}^{n}$ of the free abelian group $R_{a b}$ endowed with the $G$-module structure by diagonal action ( $R_{a b}^{0}=\mathbb{Z}$ ), we obtain $G$-free presentations

$$
\begin{gather*}
I G \otimes R_{a b}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \otimes R_{a b}^{n} \rightarrow R_{a b}^{n}, \quad n \geqq 1,  \tag{13.16}\\
R_{a b}^{n+1} \longrightarrow\left(\mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{F} I F\right) \otimes R_{a b}^{n} \rightarrow I G \otimes R_{a b}^{n}, \quad n \geqq 0 . \tag{13.17}
\end{gather*}
$$

Thus we obtain a $G$-free resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$,

$$
D: \cdots \rightarrow D_{2 n+1} \rightarrow D_{2 n} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow D_{0}
$$

where

$$
D_{2 n}=\mathbb{Z} G \otimes R_{a b}^{n}, \quad D_{2 n+1}=\left(\mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{F} I F\right) \otimes R_{a b}^{n}
$$

The differentials are given by combining (13.15), (13.16); thus

$$
\partial_{2 n+1}: D_{2 n+1} \rightarrow D_{2 n}
$$

is induced by $\mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{F} I F \rightarrow I G \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z} G$ and $\partial_{2 n}: D_{2 n} \rightarrow D_{2 n-1}$ by

$$
\mathbb{Z} G \otimes R_{a b} \rightarrow R_{a b} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{F} I F .
$$

We conclude with the remark that, if we take $F$ to be the free group on the set $S=\{x \in G \mid x \neq 1\}$, then we obtain the resolution $C$, described under (c), hence a resolution isomorphic to the standard resolution $\boldsymbol{B}$. The only thing to prove is that the two short exact sequences

$$
R_{a b} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{F} I F \hookrightarrow I G, \quad I G \otimes I G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \otimes I G \hookrightarrow I G
$$

are isomorphic. Indeed, the map $\alpha: \mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{F} I F \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \otimes I G$ defined by $\alpha(x \otimes(y-1))=x \otimes x(y-1), x, y \in G, y \neq 1$, is an isomorphism and induces the identity in $I G$. Hence it also induces an isomorphism

$$
\beta: R_{a b} \xrightarrow{\sim} I G \otimes I G .
$$

We summarize this last result in
Proposition 13.1. Let $G \cong F / R$ with $F$ free on all non-unity elements in $G$. Then $R_{a b} \cong I G \otimes I G$ as $G$-modules. $\square$

## Exercises:

13.1. Show that the functions $\Delta_{n}^{\prime}$ given by

$$
\Delta_{n}^{\prime}\left(y_{0} \otimes\left(y_{1}-1\right) \otimes \cdots \otimes\left(y_{n}-1\right)\right)=1 \otimes\left(y_{0}-1\right) \otimes \cdots \otimes\left(y_{n}-1\right)
$$

yield a contracting homotopy in the augmented complex $C \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} \mathbb{Z}$ of (c).
13.2. Show that $\theta_{n}: B_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}$ as defined in (13.13) is a $G$-module homomorphism. Show that $\Delta_{n}^{\prime} \theta_{n}=\theta_{n+1} \Delta_{n}$.
13.3. Define $\zeta_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow B_{n}$ inductively by $\zeta_{0}=\theta_{0}^{-1}$,
$\zeta_{n}\left(x \otimes\left(y_{1}-1\right) \otimes\left(y_{2}-1\right) \otimes \cdots \otimes\left(y_{n}-1\right)\right.$
$=x \Delta_{n-1} \zeta_{n-1}\left(x^{-1} y_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes\left(x^{-1} y_{n}-x^{-1}\right)-x^{-1} \otimes \cdots \otimes\left(x^{-1} y_{n}-x^{-1}\right)\right)$.
Show that $\zeta_{n}$ is a $G$-module homomorphism.
13.4. Show (inductively) that $\zeta_{n}$ is a two-sided inverse of $\theta_{n}$.
13.5. Show that $\theta_{n}$ respects the differential, either directly or inductively by using the fact that it is enough to prove $\partial \theta_{n} \Delta_{n-1}=\theta_{n-1} \partial \Delta_{n-1}$, since $\Delta_{n-1} B_{n-1} \subset B_{n}$ generates $B_{n}$ as $G$-module.
13.6. Let $B$ denote the homogeneous bar resolution of the group $G$. Consider cochains with coefficients in a ring $R$, regarded as a trivial $G$-module. To a $p$-cochain $f: B_{p} \rightarrow R$ and a $q$-cochain $g: B_{q} \rightarrow R$ associate a $(p+q)$-cochain $f \cup g: B_{p+q} \rightarrow R$ by defining

$$
(f \cup g)\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{p+q}\right)=f\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{p}\right) \cdot g\left(x_{p}, \ldots, x_{p+q}\right)
$$

Show that this definition makes $\operatorname{Hom}_{G}(\boldsymbol{B}, \boldsymbol{R})$ into a differential graded algebra (see Exercise V.1.5), and hence, by Exercise V. 2.4, that $H^{*}(G, R)$ becomes a graded ring. This ring is called the cohomology ring of $G$ with coefficients in $R$, and the product induced by $\cup$ is called the cup-product. Show that the ring structure in $H^{*}(G, R)$ is natural in both variables. (Harder:) Show that if $R$ is commutative, $H^{*}(G, R)$ is commutative in the graded sense.
13.7. Compare formulas (i), (ii) of Exercise 10.1 with the formulas for 2-cocycles and 1-coboundaries in the inhomogeneous description of the bar construction. Conclude that $M(G, A) \cong H^{2}(G, A)$ (compare Theorem 10.3).
13.8. Show that if $G$ is finite, and if $A, B$ are finitely-generated $G$-modules, then $H^{n}(G, A), H_{n}(G, B)$ are finitely-generated.

## 14. The (Co)Homology of a Coproduct

Let $G_{1}, G_{2}$ be two groups. Denote as usual their coproduct (free product) by $G=G_{1} * G_{2}$. Let $A . B$ be $G$-modules. By (2.9), (2.10) the coproduct injections $\boldsymbol{l}_{i}: G_{i} \rightarrow G_{1} * G_{2}$ yield maps

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
H^{n}(G, A) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(G_{1}, A\right) \oplus H^{n}\left(G_{2}, A\right), & n \geqq 0 \\
H_{n}\left(G_{1}, B\right) \oplus H_{n}\left(G_{2}, B\right) \rightarrow H_{n}(G, B), & n \geqq 0
\end{array}
$$

In this section we shall prove that these maps are isomorphisms for $n \geqq 2$. So, loosely speaking, $H^{n}(-, A), H_{n}(-, B)$ are coproduct-preserving. We start with the following lemma.

Lemma 14.1. Let $G=G_{1} * G_{2}$. Then there is a natural isomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
I G \cong\left(\mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{G_{1}} I G_{1}\right) \oplus\left(\mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{G_{2}} I G_{2}\right) . \tag{14.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. First we claim that for all $G$-modules $A$ there is a natural isomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Der}(G . A) \cong \operatorname{Der}\left(G_{1}, A\right) \oplus \operatorname{Der}\left(G_{2}, A\right) \tag{14.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Clearly, by restriction, a derivation $d: G \rightarrow A$ gives rise to derivations $d_{i}: G_{i} \rightarrow A, i=1,2$. On the other hand a derivation, $d_{i}: G_{i} \rightarrow A$ corresponds by Corollary 5.4 to a group homomorphism $f_{i}: G_{i} \rightarrow A \times G_{i} \cong A \times G$ such that the composition with projection onto $G$ is the injection $t_{i}: G_{i} \rightarrow G$. By the universal property of the coproduct the homomorphisms $G_{i} \rightarrow A \times G$ give rise to a group-homomorphism $f: G \rightarrow A \times G$. Composition of $f$ with projection onto $G$ clearly yields the identity. So $f$ gives rise to a derivation $d: G \rightarrow A$, whose restriction to $G_{i}$ is $d_{i}: G_{i} \rightarrow A$. This proves (14.2). Finally we have $\operatorname{Der}(G, A) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{G}(I G, A)$ and

$$
\operatorname{Der}\left(G_{i}, A\right) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{G_{i}}\left(I G_{i}, A\right) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{G}\left(\mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{G_{1}} I G_{i}, A\right)
$$

(see (IV. 12.4)). Together with (14.2) this proves Lemma 14.1. []
Theorem 14.2. Let $G=G_{1} * G_{2}, A$ a left $G$-module, $B$ a right $G$-module. Then for $n \geqq 2$

$$
\begin{gathered}
H^{n}(G, A) \cong H^{n}\left(G_{1}, A\right) \oplus H^{n}\left(G_{2}, A\right) \\
H_{n}\left(G_{1}, B\right) \oplus H_{n}\left(G_{2}, B\right) \cong H_{n}(G, B)
\end{gathered}
$$

Proof. We only prove the cohomology part of the assertion. For $n \geqq 2$ we have, by (6.7),

$$
\begin{aligned}
H^{n}(G, A) & \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{G}^{n-1}(I G, A) \\
& \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{G}^{n-1}\left(\mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{G_{1}} I G_{1}, A\right) \oplus \operatorname{Ext}_{G}^{n-1}\left(\mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{G_{2}} I G_{2}, A\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

by Lemma 14.1. But $\operatorname{Ext}_{G}^{n-1}\left(\mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{G_{i}} I G_{i}, A\right) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{G_{i}}^{n-1}\left(I G_{i}, A\right)$ by Proposition IV. 12.2. [

The conclusion of Theorem 14.2 is clearly false for $n=0$; for $n=1$ and trivial coefficient modules the conclusion is true, the cohomology part being a restatement of (14.2), and the homology part following easily from (14.1). However, in general, it is false for $n=1$, as we now show by a counterexample. Let $G$ be the free group on two elements $x_{1}, x_{2}$, and let $A$ be an infinite cyclic group on which $x_{1}, x_{2}$ act non-trivially; $x_{1} a=-a=x_{2} a, a \in A$. Now consider the exact sequence

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{G}(\mathbb{Z}, A) \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{G}(\mathbb{Z} G, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{G}(I G, A) \rightarrow H^{1}(G, A) .
$$

Since $\operatorname{Hom}_{G}(\mathbb{Z}, A)=A^{G}=0$ and since $I G$ is $G$-free on two elements it follows that rank $H^{1}(G, A)=1$. On the other hand $G=G_{1} * G_{2}$ where $G_{i}$ is infinite cyclic on $x_{i}, i=1,2$. Thus $\operatorname{rank}\left(H^{1}\left(G_{1}, A\right) \oplus H^{1}\left(G_{2}, A\right)\right)$ is even.

## Exercises:

14.1. Compute $H^{1}(G, A)$. $H^{1}\left(G_{i}, A\right), i=1,2$ for $G, G_{i}, A$ as in the counterexample at the end of Section 14.
14.2. Let

be a pushout diagram in the category of groups with $l_{i}: U \hookrightarrow G_{i}$ monomorphic for $i=1,2$. The group $G$ is usually called the free product of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ with amalgamated subgroup $U$ (see [36]). Prove that for every $G$-module $A$ the sequence (Mayer-Vietoris-sequence)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Der}(G, A) \xrightarrow{\kappa^{*}} \operatorname{Der}\left(G_{1}, A\right) \oplus \operatorname{Der}\left(G_{2}, A\right) \xrightarrow{\stackrel{t}{*}^{*}} \operatorname{Der}(U, A) \longrightarrow H^{2}(G, A) \rightarrow \cdots \\
& \cdots \rightarrow H^{n}(G, A) \xrightarrow{\kappa^{*}} H^{n}\left(G_{1}, 4\right) \oplus H^{n}\left(G_{2}, A\right) \xrightarrow{\stackrel{t}{*}^{*}} H^{n}(U, A) \rightarrow H^{n+1}(G, A) \rightarrow \cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

is exact, where $\kappa^{*}=\left\{\kappa_{1}^{*}, \kappa_{2}^{*}\right\}$ and $\iota^{*}=\left\langle\iota_{1}^{*},-l_{2}^{*}\right\rangle$. (Hint: Use the fact that $\kappa_{1}, \kappa_{2}$ are monomorphic to prove first that the square

is a pushout diagram in the category of $G$-modules.)
14.3. Show that the Mayer-Vietoris sequence may be started in dimension 0 , i.e. that

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 \rightarrow H^{0}(G, A) & \stackrel{\varkappa^{*}}{\longrightarrow} H^{0}\left(G_{1}, A\right) \oplus H^{0}\left(G_{2}, A\right) \xrightarrow{\bullet} H^{0}(U, A) \longrightarrow H^{1}(G . A) \xrightarrow{\kappa^{*}} \\
& \longrightarrow H^{1}\left(G_{1}, A\right) \oplus H^{1}\left(G_{2}, A\right) \stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\longrightarrow} H^{1}(U, A) \longrightarrow H^{2}(G . A) \rightarrow \cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

is exact.
14.4. Using Exercise 14.3 show that the conclusion of Theorem 14.2 fails to be true in dimensions 0,1 . What happens if $A$ is a trivial $G$-module?
14.5. Compute the cohomology with integer coefficients of the group $G$ given by the presentation $\left(x, y ; x^{2} y^{-3}\right)$.

## 15. The L'niversal Coefficient Theorem and the (Co)Homology of a Product

In the previous section the (co)homology of a coproduct of groups was computed. It may be asked, whether the (co)homology of a (direct) product of groups can be computed similarly from the (co)homology of
its factors. We will not discuss this question in general, but restrict ourselves to the case where the coefficient modules are trivial. We will see that then the answer may be given using the Künneth theorem (Theorem V. 2.1).

As a first step we deduce the universal coefficient theorems which allows us to compute the (co)homology with trivial coefficient modules from the integral homology. As before we shall write $H_{n}(G)$ instead of $H_{n}(G, \mathbb{Z})$.

Theorem 15.1. Let $G$ be a group and let $C$ be an abelian group considered as a trivial $G$-module. Then the following sequences are exact and natural, for every $n \geqq 0$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{n}(G) \otimes C \hookrightarrow H_{n}(G, C) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}(G), C\right), \\
& \operatorname{Ext}\left(H_{n-1}(G) . C\right) \longrightarrow H^{n}(G . C) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{n}(G), C\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Moreover both sequences split by an unnatural splitting.
Proof. Let $\boldsymbol{P}$ be a $G$-free (or $G$-projective) resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$. Tensoring over $G$ with $\mathbb{Z}$ yields $\boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{G}}=\boldsymbol{P} \otimes_{G} \mathbb{Z}$, which is a complex of free abelian groups. Also, plainly, $\boldsymbol{P} \otimes_{G} C \cong \boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{G}} \otimes C$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{\boldsymbol{G}}(\boldsymbol{P}, C) \cong \operatorname{Hom}\left(\boldsymbol{P}_{G}, C\right)$. Theorem V. 2.5 establishes the homology part, Theorem V. 3.3 the cohomology part of the assertion.

By Theorem 15.1 the question about the (co)homology with trivial coefficients of a product is reduced to a discussion of the integral homology.

Now let $G_{1}, G_{2}$ be two groups, and $G=G_{1} \times G_{2}$ their (direct) product. Let $P^{(i)}, i=1,2$, be a $G_{i}$-free (or $G_{i}$-projective) resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$. Since the complexes $\boldsymbol{P}^{(i)}$ are complexes of free abelian groups, we may apply the Künneth theorem (Theorem V.2.1) to compute the homology of the complex $\boldsymbol{P}^{(1)} \otimes \boldsymbol{P}^{(2)}$. We obtain

$$
H_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{P}^{(1)} \otimes P^{(2)}\right)=\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}=\mathbb{Z} ; \quad H_{n}\left(P^{(1)} \otimes P^{(2)}\right)=0, \quad n \geqq 1 .
$$

Furthermore we can regard $\boldsymbol{P}^{(1)} \otimes \boldsymbol{P}^{(2)}$ as a complex of $G$-modules. the $G$-module structure being given by

$$
\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\left(a^{(1)} \otimes a^{(2)}\right)=x_{1} a^{(1)} \otimes x_{2} a^{(2)}, \quad x_{i} \in G_{i}, \quad a^{(i)} \in \boldsymbol{P}^{(i)}, \quad i=1,2 .
$$

The reader may verify that this action is compatible with the differential in $\boldsymbol{P}^{(1)} \otimes \boldsymbol{P}^{(2)}$. Also, $P_{k}^{(1)} \otimes P_{l}^{(2)}$ is a projective $G$-module. To see this, one only has to prove that $\mathbb{Z} G_{1} \otimes \mathbb{Z} G_{2} \cong \mathbb{Z} G$, which we leave to the reader. Thus $\boldsymbol{P}^{(1)} \otimes \boldsymbol{P}^{(2)}$ is a $G$-projective resolution of $\mathbb{Z}$. Finally

$$
H_{n}(G)=H_{n}\left(\left(\boldsymbol{P}^{(1)} \otimes \boldsymbol{P}^{(2)}\right) \otimes_{G} \mathbb{Z}\right)=H_{n}\left(\left(\boldsymbol{P}^{(1)} \otimes \boldsymbol{P}^{(2)}\right)_{G}\right)=H_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{P}_{G_{1}}^{(1)} \otimes \boldsymbol{P}_{G_{2}}^{(2)}\right) .
$$

Since the complexes $\boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{G}}^{(i)}, i=1,2$, are complexes of free abelian groups we may apply the Künneth theorem again. This proves the following Künneth theorem in the homology of groups.

Theorem 15.2. Let $G_{i}, i=1,2$ be two groups, and let $G=G_{1} \times G_{2}$ be their direct product. Then the following sequence is exact:

$$
\bigoplus_{p+q=n} H_{p}\left(G_{1}\right) \otimes H_{q}\left(G_{2}\right) \rightsquigarrow H_{n}(G) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{p+q=n-1} \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{p}\left(G_{1}\right), H_{q}\left(G_{2}\right)\right)
$$

Moreover the sequence splits by an unnatural splitting. $\quad \square$
We finally note that the two theorems of this section allow us to compute the (co)homology groups of any finitely generated abelian group with trivial coefficient module (see Exercises 15.1, 15.3).

## Exercises:

15.1. Compute the integral (co)homology of $C_{n} \times C_{m}$.
15.2. Show that the integral (co)homology groups of a finitely generated commutative group $G$ are finitely generated. (An interesting example of Stallings [43] shows that this is not true if $G$ is an arbitrary finitely presentable group.)
15.3. Find a formula for the integral homology of a finitely generated commutative group.
15.4. What information do we obtain about the homology of a group $G$ by computing its (co)homology with rational coefficients?
15.5. Show that the splitting in the universal coefficient theorem in homology (Theorem, 15.1) is unnatural in $G$, but may be made natural in $C$.
15.6. $A$ group $G$ is said to be of cohomological dimension $\leqq m, \operatorname{cd} G \leqq m$, if $H^{q}(G, A)=0$ for every $q>m$ and every $G$-module $A$. It is said to be of cohomological dimension $m$, if $\mathrm{cd} G \leqq m$ but $\mathrm{cd} G \not \leq m-1$. Show that $\mathrm{cd} G \leqq m$, $m \geqq 1$, if and only if, for every $G$-projective resolution,

$$
\cdots \rightarrow P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{1} \rightarrow P_{0}
$$

of $\mathbb{Z}$, the image of $P_{\boldsymbol{m}} \rightarrow P_{m-1}$ is projective. Show that
(i) for $G$ a free group we have $\mathrm{cd} G=1$;
(ii) if $\operatorname{cd} G_{1}=m_{1}, \operatorname{cd} G_{2}=m_{2}$, then $\operatorname{cd}\left(G_{1} * G_{2}\right)=\max \left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)$, and

$$
\operatorname{cd}\left(G_{1} \times G_{2}\right) \leqq m_{1}+m_{2} .
$$

(iii) Compute $\operatorname{cd} G$ for $G$ finitely-generated free abelian.

## 16. Groups and Subgroups

In this section we shall introduce certain maps which are very significant in a detailed study of (co)homology, especially of finite groups. We restrict ourselves entirely to cohomology and leave to the reader the translation of the results to the "dual" situation.

In (2.11) it was shown that $H^{n}(-,-)$ may be regarded as a contravariant functor on the category $\mathfrak{G}^{*}$ of pairs $(G, A)$, with $G$ a group and $A$ a $G$-module. A morphism $(f, \alpha):(G, A) \rightarrow\left(G_{1}, A_{1}\right)$ in $\mathfrak{G}^{*}$ consists of a group homomorphism $f: G \rightarrow G_{1}$ and a map $\alpha: A_{1} \rightarrow A$ which is a homomorphism of $G$-modules if $A_{1}$ is regarded as a $G$-module via $f$. Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha\left(f(x) a_{1}\right)=x \alpha\left(a_{1}\right), \quad a_{1} \in A_{1}, \quad x \in G . \tag{16.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The maps in cohomology to be defined in the sequel will be obtained by choosing specified maps $f, \alpha$.
(a) The Restriction Map. Consider a group $G$ and a $G$-module $A$. Let $U$ be a subgroup of $G$. Regard $A$ as a $U$-module via the embedding $ı: U \hookrightarrow G$. Clearly $\left(t, 1_{A}\right):(U, A) \rightarrow(G, A)$ is a morphism in $\mathfrak{G}^{*}$. We define the restriction (from $G$ to $U$ ) by

$$
\operatorname{Res}=\left(\imath, 1_{A}\right)^{*}: H^{n}(G, A) \rightarrow H^{n}(U, A) . \quad n \geqq 0 .
$$

The following considerations allow us to make a more detailed study of the restriction map. Let $\varepsilon: \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ be the augmentation; tensor it with $\mathbb{Z}$ over $\mathbb{Z} U$. We obtain the short exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{U} \mathbb{Z} \underline{\varepsilon}_{\rightarrow}^{\varepsilon^{\prime}} \mathbb{Z} \tag{16.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $K$ is the kernel of $\varepsilon^{\prime}$. Next we apply the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{G}(-, A)$ to (16.2). By Proposition IV. 12.2 we obtain

$$
\operatorname{Ext}_{G}^{n}\left(\mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{U} \mathbb{Z}, A\right) \cong \operatorname{Ext}_{U}^{n}(\mathbb{Z}, A)=H^{n}(U, A) .
$$

Hence we have proved
Proposition 16.1. Let $U$ be a subgroup of $G$, and let $A$ be a G-module. Denote by $K$ the kernel of $\varepsilon^{\prime}: \mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{U} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ in (16.2). Then the following sequence is exact:

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{G}^{n+1}(K, A) \rightarrow H^{n}(G, A) \xrightarrow{\text { Res }} \mathrm{H}^{n}(U, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{G}^{n}(K, A) \rightarrow \cdots . \square
$$

Note that, in case $U$ is normal in $G$ with quotient group $Q$, the module $\mathbb{Z} G \otimes_{U} \mathbb{Z}$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z} Q$ by Lemma 6.1. Hence $K \cong I Q$, the augmentation ideal of $Q$.
(b) The Inflation Map. Let $N \longrightarrow G \xrightarrow{p} Q$ be an exact sequence of groups, and let $A$ be a $G$-module. Consider $A^{N}$, the subgroup of $A$ consisting of those elements which remain invariant under the action of $N$. Then $A^{N}$ admits an obvious $Q$-module structure. Denote the embedding of $A^{N}$ in $A$ by $\alpha: A^{N} \rightarrow A$. Then $(p, \alpha):(G, A) \rightarrow\left(Q, A^{N}\right)$ is easily seen to be a morphism in $\mathfrak{G}^{*}$. We define the inflation map (from $Q$ to $G$ ) by

$$
\operatorname{Inf}=(p, \alpha)^{*}: H^{n}\left(Q, A^{N}\right) \rightarrow H^{n}(G, A), \quad n \geqq 0 .
$$

In Proposition 16.1 the restriction map has been embedded in a long exact sequence. We remark that an analogous embedding for the inflation map exists: but since it is of no apparent use in the study of the inflation map we refrain from stating it here.
(c) Conjugation. Let $x \in G$ be a fixed but arbitrary element, and let $A$ be a $G$-module. Define $f: G \rightarrow G$ and $x: A \rightarrow A$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(y)=x^{-1} y x, \quad y \in G ; \quad \alpha(a)=x a, \quad a \in A \tag{16.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easily seen that $(f, \alpha):(G, A) \rightarrow(G, A)$ satisfies the condition (16.1), and therefore is a morphism in $\mathscr{G}^{*}$. Moreover $(f, \alpha)$ is invertible in $\mathfrak{G}^{*}$, hence the induced map

$$
(f, \alpha)^{*}: H^{n}(G, A) \rightarrow H^{n}(G, A), \quad n \geqq 0
$$

is an isomorphism. However. we prove more, namely
Proposition 16.2. Let $(f, \alpha):(G, A) \rightarrow(G, A)$ be defined as in (16.3). Then $(f, \alpha)^{*}: H^{n}(G, A) \rightarrow H^{n}(G, A), n \geqq 0$, is the identity.

Proof. We proceed by induction on $n$. For $n=0, H^{0}(G, A)=A^{G}$, and the assertion is trivial. If $n \geqq 1$ we choose an injective presentation $A \hookrightarrow I \rightarrow A^{\prime}$, and consider the long exact cohomology sequence

$$
\left.\left.\cdots\right|_{\left(f, \alpha^{\prime}\right)^{*}} ^{H^{n-1}\left(G, A^{\prime}\right) \longrightarrow H^{n}(G, A) \rightarrow 0}\right|_{(f, \alpha)^{*}} ^{H^{n-1}\left(G, A^{\prime}\right) \longrightarrow H^{n}(G, A) \rightarrow 0}
$$

where of course $\alpha^{\prime} a=x a^{\prime}, a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$. By induction $\left(f, \alpha^{\prime}\right)^{*}$ is the identity, hence so is $(f, \alpha)^{*}$.
(d) The Corestriction Map. Let $A$ be a $G$-module, and let $U$ be a subgroup of finite index $m$ in $G$. Suppose $G=\bigcup_{i=1}^{m} U x_{i}$ is a coset decomposition of $G$. We then define a $\operatorname{map} \theta: \operatorname{Hom}_{U}(\mathbb{Z} G, A) \rightarrow A$, by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta(\varphi)=\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{i}^{-1} \varphi x_{i}, \quad \varphi: \mathbb{Z} G \longrightarrow A \tag{16.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We claim that $\theta$ is independent of the chosen coset decomposition. Indeed, if $G=\bigcup_{i=1}^{m} U y_{i}$ is another coset decomposition, then we may assume that the enumeration is such that there exist $u_{i} \in U$ with $x_{i}=u_{i} y_{i}$, $i=1, \ldots, m$. But then clearly

$$
\Sigma x_{i}^{-1} \varphi x_{i}=\Sigma x_{i}^{-1} \varphi\left(u_{i} y_{i}\right)=\Sigma x_{i}^{-1} u_{i} \varphi y_{i}=\Sigma y_{i}^{-1} \varphi y_{i}
$$

Furthermore we claim that $\theta$ is a $G$-module homomorphism. To show this let $y \in G$, and define a permutation $\pi$ of $(1, \ldots, m)$ and elements
$v_{i} \in U$ by the equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{i} y=v_{i} x_{\pi i}, \quad i=1, \ldots, m \tag{16.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We then have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\theta(y \varphi)=\Sigma x_{i}^{-1} \varphi\left(x_{i} y\right) & =\Sigma x_{i}^{-1} \varphi\left(v_{i} x_{\pi i}\right)=\Sigma x_{i}^{-1} v_{i} \varphi\left(x_{\pi i}\right) \\
& =\Sigma y x_{\pi i}^{-1} \varphi\left(x_{\pi i}\right)=y \theta(\varphi)
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally we claim that $\theta$ is epimorphic. Let $a \in A$, and define $\varphi$ by $\varphi\left(x_{i}\right)=0$ if $i \neq 1, \varphi\left(x_{1}\right)=x_{1} a$; then $\theta(\varphi)=a$. We summarize our results in the following proposition.

Proposition 16.3. Let $U$ be a subgroup of finite index $m$ in $G$, and let

$$
G=\bigcup_{i=1}^{m} U x_{i}
$$

be a coset decomposition. Then the map $\theta: \operatorname{Hom}_{U}(\mathbb{Z} G, A) \rightarrow A$, defined by

$$
\theta(\varphi)=\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{i}^{-1} \varphi x_{i}
$$

is an epimorphism of G-modules. $\quad \square$
Now since, by Proposition IV.12.3, $H^{n}\left(G, \operatorname{Hom}_{U}(\mathbb{Z} G, A)\right) \cong H^{n}(U, A)$, $n \geqq 0$, we may define the corestriction map (from $U$ to $G$ )

$$
\text { Cor : } H^{n}(U, A) \rightarrow H^{n}(G, A)
$$

by

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{n}(U, A) \cong H^{n}\left(G, \operatorname{Hom}_{U}(\mathbb{Z} G, A)\right) \xrightarrow{\theta_{*}} H^{n}(G, A), \quad n \geqq 0 \tag{16.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using the fact that $\theta$ is epimorphic, the reader may easily embed the corestriction map in a long exact sequence (compare Proposition 16.1).

Theorem 16.4. Let $U$ be a subgroup of finite index $m$ in the group $G$, and let $A$ be a $G$-module. Then Cor : Res: $H^{n}(G, A) \rightarrow H^{n}(G, A), n \geqq 0$, is just multiplication by m.

Proof. We proceed by induction on $n$. For $n=0$ the restriction Res : $H^{0}(G, A) \rightarrow H^{0}(U, A)$ simply embeds $A^{G}$ in $A^{U}$. The corestriction Cor : $A^{\boldsymbol{U}} \xrightarrow{\sim}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{\boldsymbol{U}}(\mathbb{Z} G, A)\right)^{\boldsymbol{G}} \rightarrow A^{\boldsymbol{G}}$ sends a $G$-invariant (!) element $a \in A$ first into the $U$-module homomorphism $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} G \rightarrow A$ given by

$$
\varphi\left(x_{i}\right)=x_{i} \stackrel{a}{ }=a
$$

and then into

$$
\theta(\varphi)=\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{i}^{-1} \varphi x_{i}=m a
$$

For $n \geqq 1$ let $A \longmapsto I \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ be a $G$-injective presentation of $A$. Note that $I$ is $U$-injective, also. Then the diagram

is commutative, and the assertion follows by induction. [
Corollary 16.5. Let $G$ be a finite group of order $m$. Then $m H^{n}(G, A)=0$ for all $n \geqq 1$.

Proof. Use Theorem 16.4 with $U=\{1\}$ and observe that $H^{n}(\{1\}, A)=0$ for $n \geqq 1$.

We close this section by applying Corollary 16.5 to yield a proof of a celebrated theorem in the theory of group representations. We have seen that $K$-representations of $G$ are in one-to-one correspondence with $K G$-modules (Example (c) in Section I. 1). The $K$-representations of $G$ are said to be completely reducible if every $K G$-module is semi-simple, i.e.. if every short exact sequence of $K G$-modules splits.

Theorem 16.6 (Maschke). Let $G$ be a group of order $m$, and let $K$ be a field, whose characteristic does not divide m. Then the K-representations of $G$ are completely reducible.

Proof. We have to show that every short exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
V^{\prime} \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} V \xrightarrow{\beta} V^{\prime \prime} \tag{16.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

of $K G$-modules splits. This is equivalent to the assertion that the induced sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{G}\left(V^{\prime \prime}, V^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\beta^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{G}\left(V, V^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\star}} \operatorname{Hom}_{G}\left(V^{\prime}, V^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow 0 \tag{16.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

is exact. In order to prove this, we first look at the short exact sequence of $K$-vector spaces of $K$-linear maps

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(V^{\prime \prime}, V^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\beta^{\star}} \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(V, V^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\star}} \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(V^{\prime}, V^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow 0 . \tag{16.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

We remark that these vector spaces may be given a $K G$-module structure by diagonal action (compare (11.4)) as follows. If, for instance, $\sigma: V \rightarrow V^{\prime}$ is a $K$-linear map, we define

$$
\begin{equation*}
(x \sigma) v=x \sigma\left(x^{-1} v\right), \quad x \in G, \quad v \in V \tag{16.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easily checked that, with this $G$-module structure, (16.9) becomes an exact sequence of $G$-modules. In terms of the module structure (16.10), the $K$-linear map $\sigma: V \rightarrow V^{\prime}$ is a $G$-module homomorphism if and only if $\sigma$ is an invariant element in the $G$-module $\operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(V, V^{\prime}\right)$. It therefore
remains to prove that
$0 \rightarrow H^{0}\left(G . \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(V^{\prime \prime} . V^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow H^{0}\left(G . \operatorname{Hom}_{K}(V . V)\right) \rightarrow H^{0}\left(G . \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(V^{\prime} . V^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow 0$
is exact. This clearly is the case if $H^{1}\left(G, \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(V^{\prime \prime}, V^{\prime}\right)\right)=0$, which is proved in Lemma 16.7. In fact we shall prove more, namely

Lemma 16.7. Under the hypotheses of Theorem 16.6 we have

$$
H^{n}(G, W)=0
$$

for $n \geqq 1$ and any $K G$-module $W$.
Pröof. Consider the map $m: W \rightarrow W$, multiplication by $m$. This clearly is a $G$-module homomorphism. Since the characteristic of $K$ does not divide $m$, the map $m: W \rightarrow W$ is in fact an isomorphism, having $1 / m: W \rightarrow W$ as its inverse. Hence the induced map $m_{*}: H^{n}(G, W) \rightarrow H^{n}(G, W)$ is an isomorphism, also. On the other hand it follows from the additivity of $H^{n}(G,-)$ that $m_{*}$ is precisely multiplication by $m$. But by Corollary 16.5 we have $m H^{n}(G, W)=0$ for all $n \geqq 1$, whence $H^{n}(G, W)=0$ for $n \geqq 1$. []

## Exercises:

16.1. Define Res, Inf. Cor for homology and prove results analogous to Propositions 16.1, 16.3, Theorem 16.4, and Corollary 16.5 .
16.2. Prove that the (co)homology groups of a finite group with coefficients in a finitely generated module are finite.
16.3. Let $A$ be a $G$-module and. let $A, G$ be of coprime order. Show that every extension $A \hookrightarrow E \rightarrow G$ splits.
16.4. Let $U$ be of finite index in $G$. Compute explicitely Cor: $H_{1}(G, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{1}(U, \mathbb{Z})$. Show that this is the classical transfer [28].
16.5. Let $G$ be a group with cd $G=m$ (see Exercise 15.6). Let $U$ be of finite index in $G$. Show that $\mathrm{cd} U=m$. (Hint: The functor $H^{m}(G,-)$ is right exact. Let $A$ be a $G$-module with $H^{m}(G, A) \neq 0$. Then $\operatorname{Cor}: H^{m}(U, A) \rightarrow H^{m}(G, A)$ is surjective.)
16.6. Prove the following theorem due to Schur. If $Z$ denotes the center of $G$ and if $G / Z$ is finite, then $G^{\prime}=[G, G]$ is finite, also. (Hint: First show that $G^{\prime} / G^{\prime} \cap Z$ is finite. Then use sequence (8.4) in homology for $N=Z$.)

## VII. Cohomology of Lie Algebras

In this Chapter we shall give a further application of the theory of derived functors. Starting with a Lie algebra $g$ over the field $K$, we pass to the universal enveloping algebra $U \mathfrak{g}$ and define cohomology groups $H^{n}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$ for every (left) $\mathfrak{g}$-module $A$, by regarding $A$ as a $U \mathfrak{g}$-module. In Sections 1 through 4 we will proceed in a way parallel to that adopted in Chapter Vl in presenting the cohomology theory of groups. We therefore allow ourselves in those sections to leave most of the proofs to the reader. Since our primary concern is with the homological aspects of Lie algebra theory, we will not give proofs of two deep results of Lie algebra theory although they are fundamental for the development of the cohomology theory of Lie algebras; namely, we shall not give a proof for the Birkhoff-Witt Theorem (Theorem 1.2) nor of Theorem 5.2 which says that the bilinear form of certain representations of semisimple Lie algebras is non-degenerate. Proofs of both results are easily accessible in the literature.

As in the case of groups, we shall attempt to deduce as much as possible from general properties of derived functors. For example (compare Chapter VI) we shall prove the fact that $H^{2}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$ classifies extensions without reference to a particular resolution.

Again, a brief historical remark is in order. As for groups, the origin of the cohomology theory of Lie algebras lies in algebraic topology. Chevalley-Eilenberg [8] have shown that the real cohomology of the underlying topological space of a compact connected Lie group is isomorphic to the real cohomology of its Lie algebra, computed from the complex $\operatorname{Hom}_{g}(\boldsymbol{C}, \mathbb{R})$, where $\boldsymbol{C}$ is the resolution of Section 4. Subsequently the cohomology theory of Lie algebras has, however, developed as a purely algebraic discipline, as outlined in the main Introduction.

## 1. Lie Algebras and their Universal Enveloping Algebra

Let $K$ be a field. A Lie algebra g over $K$ is a vectorspace over $K$ together with a bilinear map [,]: $\mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$, called the Lie bracket, satisfying the
following two identities

$$
\begin{gather*}
{[x, x]=0, \quad x \in \mathfrak{g}}  \tag{1.1}\\
{[[x, y], z]+[[y . z] . x]+[[z . x], y]=0, \quad x, y, z \in \mathfrak{g}} \tag{1.2}
\end{gather*}
$$

(1.2) is called the Jacobi identity. Note that (1.1) and the bilinearity of the bracket imply $[x, y]=-[y, x], x, y \in \mathfrak{g}$.

A Lie algebra homomorphism $f: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ is a $K$-linear map with $f[x, y]=[f x, f y], x, y \in \mathfrak{g}$. A Lie subalgebra $\mathfrak{h}$ of $g$ is a subspace of $g$ closed under $[$,$] . A Lie subalgebra \mathfrak{h}$ is called a Lie ideal of $\mathfrak{g}$, if $[x, y] \in \mathfrak{h}$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{g}$ and $y \in \mathfrak{h}$. If $\mathfrak{h}$ is a Lie ideal of $\mathfrak{g}$ then the quotient space $\mathfrak{g} / \mathfrak{h}$ has a natural Lie algebra structure induced by the Lie bracket in g .

A Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ is called abelian if $[x, y]=0$ for all $x, y \in \mathfrak{g}$. To any Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ we can associate its "largest abelian quotient" $\mathfrak{g}_{a b}$; clearly the kernel of the projection map from g to $\mathrm{g}_{a b}$ must contain the Lie subalgebra $[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]$ generated by all $[x, y]$ with $x, y \in \mathfrak{g}$. It is easy to see that $[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]$ is an ideal, so that $\mathfrak{g}_{a b}=\mathfrak{g} /[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]$. Any $K$-vector space may be regarded as an abelian Lie algebra. Given any $K$-algebra $\Lambda$ we can associate (functorially) a Lie algebra $L \Lambda$ with the same underlying vector space as $\Lambda$, the Lie bracket being defined by

$$
[x, y]=x y-y x, \quad x, y \in \Lambda .
$$

We leave it to the reader to verify the Lie algebra axioms for $L \Lambda$.
Next we ask whether there exists a construction for a Lie algebra analogous to the construction of the group ring for a group. We remind the reader that the group ring functor is determined by the fact that it is a left adjoint to the unit functor, from rings to groups, which assigns to every ring $\Lambda$ its group of units (see Exercise VI.1.1). Now, our functor $L$ from algebras to Lie algebras will correspond to the unit functor, so that we have to discuss the existence of a left adjoint to $L$. Such a left adjoint indeed exists; the image of the Lie algebra $g$ under that functor is called the universal enveloping algebra of $g$ and is denoted by $U \mathfrak{g}$. (We follow here the usual notational convention of denoting the universal enveloping algebra by $U \mathfrak{g}$. despite the fact that $U$ is left adjoint to $L$.)

We now proceed to give the explicit construction of $U \mathfrak{g}$, state its adjoint property in Proposition 1.1, and discuss additional properties in the remainder of the section. For the construction of $U \mathrm{~g}$ we need the notion of the tensor algebra $T M$ over the $K$-vector space $M$. Denote, for $n \geqq 1$, the $n$-fold tensor product of $M$ by $T_{n} M$,

$$
T_{n} M=M \otimes_{K} M \otimes_{K} \cdots \otimes_{K} M, \quad n \text {-fold }
$$

Set $T_{0} M=K$. Then the tensor algebra $T M$ is $\bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} T_{n} M$, with the multiplication induced by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(m_{1} \otimes m_{2} \otimes \cdots \otimes m_{p^{\prime}}\right) \cdot\left(m_{1}^{\prime} \otimes m_{2}^{\prime} \otimes \cdots \otimes m_{q}^{\prime}\right) \\
& =m_{1} \otimes m_{2} \otimes \cdots \otimes m_{p} \otimes m_{1}^{\prime} \otimes m_{2}^{\prime} \otimes \cdots \otimes m_{q}^{\prime},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $m_{i}, m_{j}^{\prime} \in M$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq p, 1 \leqq j \leqq q$. Note that $T M$ is the free $K$ algebra over $M$; more precisely: To any $K$-algebra $\Lambda$ and any $K$-linear map $f: M \rightarrow \Lambda$ there exists a unique algebra homomorphism $f_{0}: T M \rightarrow \Lambda$ extending $f$. In other words the functor $T$ is left adjoint to the underlying functor to $K$-vector spaces which forgets the algebra structure. This assertion is easily proved by observing that $f_{0}\left(m_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes m_{p}\right)$ may, and in fact must. be defined by

$$
f\left(m_{1}\right) \cdot f\left(m_{2}\right) \cdot \ldots \cdot f\left(m_{p}\right) .
$$

Definition. Given a $K$-Lie-algebra $\mathfrak{g}$; we define the universal enveloping algebra $U g$ of $g$ to be the quotient of the tensor algebra $T g$ by the ideal $I$ generated by the elements of the form

$$
x \otimes y-y \otimes x-[x, y], \quad x, y \in \mathfrak{g} ;
$$

thus

$$
U \mathfrak{g}=T \mathfrak{g} /(x \otimes y-y \otimes x-[x, y])
$$

Clearly we have a canonical mapping of $K$-vector spaces $i: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow U \mathfrak{g}$ defined by $\mathfrak{g} \cong T \mathfrak{g} \xrightarrow{\hookrightarrow} U \mathfrak{g}$, which plainly is a Lie-algebra homomorphism $i: g \rightarrow L U \mathfrak{g}$. It is now easy to see that any Lie algebra homomorphism $f: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow L \Lambda$ induces a unique $K$-algebra homomorphism $f_{1}: U \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \Lambda$, since plainly the homomorphism $f_{0}: T \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \Lambda$ vanishes on the ideal $I$. Thus $U$ is seen to be left adjoint to $L$. We further remark that the Lie algebra map $i: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow L U \mathfrak{g}$ is nothing else but the unit of the adjoint pair $U \dashv L$.

Proposition 1.1. The universal enveloping algebra functor $U$ is a left adjoint to the functor $L$. $\quad$

Next we state without proof the famous Birkhoff-Witt Theorem which is a structure theorem for $U \mathfrak{g}$.

Let $\left\{e_{i}\right\}, i \in J$. be a $K$-basis of $g$ indexed by a simply-ordered set $J$. Let $I=\left(i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{k}\right)$ denote an increasing sequence of elements in $J$, i.e., $i_{l} \in J$ for $1 \leqq l \leqq k$, and $i_{1} \leqq i_{2} \leqq \cdots \leqq i_{k}$ under the given order relation in $J$. Then we define $e_{I}=e_{i_{1}} e_{i_{2}} \ldots e_{i_{k}} \in U \cdot \operatorname{g}$ to be the projection of $e_{i_{1}} \otimes \cdots \otimes e_{i_{k}} \in T \mathrm{~g}$.

Theorem 1.2 (Birkhoff-Witt). Let $\left\{e_{i}\right\}, i \in J$, be a $K$-basis of g . Then the elements $e_{I}$ corresponding to all finite increasing sequences I (including the empty one) form a $K$-basis of $U \mathbf{g}$.

For a proof of this theorem we refer the reader to N. Jacobson [29. p. 159]: J.-P. Serre [42, LA. 3]. As an immediate corollary we note

Corollary 1.3. The unit $i: g \rightarrow L U \mathfrak{g}$ is an embedding. $\square$
Consequently we see that every Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ over $K$ is isomorphic to a Lie subalgebra of a Lie algebra of the form $L \Lambda$ for some $K$-algebra $\Lambda$.

Before we state further corollaries of Theorem 1.2 we introduce the notion of a (left) $\mathfrak{g}$-module.

Definition. A left g -module $A$ is a $K$-vector space $A$ together with a homomorphism of Lie algebras $\varrho: g \rightarrow L\left(\operatorname{End}_{K} A\right)$.

We may therefore think of the elements of $\mathfrak{g}$ as acting on $A$ and write $x \cdot a$ for $\varrho(x)(a), x \in \mathfrak{g}, a \in A$, so that $x \cdot a \in A$. Then $A$ is a (left) $\mathfrak{g}$-module if $x \subset a$ is $K$-linear in $x$ and $a$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
[x, y]: a=x-(y, a)-y \quad(x a), \quad x, y \in \mathfrak{g}, a \in A . \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

By the universal property of $U \mathfrak{g}$ the map $\varrho$ induces a unique algebra homomorphism $\varrho_{1}: U \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{K} A$, thus making $A$ into a left $U \mathfrak{g}$-module. Conversely, if $A$ is a left $U g$-module, so that we have a structure map $\sigma: U \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{K} A$, it is also a $\mathfrak{g}$-module by $\varrho=\sigma i$. Thus the notions of a g -module and a $U \mathrm{~g}$-module effectively coincide. We leave to the reader the obvious definition of a right $\mathbf{g}$-module. As in the case of $\Lambda$-modules we shall use the term $\mathfrak{g}$-module to mean left g -module.

An important phenomenon in the theory of Lie algebras is that the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ itself may be regarded as a left (or right) $\mathfrak{g}$-module. The structure map is written ad: $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow L\left(\operatorname{End}_{\mathrm{K}} \mathrm{g}\right)$ and is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\operatorname{ad} x)(z)=[x, z], x, z \in \mathfrak{g} \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easy to verify that ad does give $g$ the structure of a $g$-module. For [ $x, z$ ] is certainly $K$-bilinear and (1.3) in this case is essentially just the Jacobi identity (1.2).

A $\mathfrak{g}$-module $A$ is called trivial, if the structure map $\varrho: \mathrm{g} \rightarrow L\left(\operatorname{End}_{K} A\right)$ is trivial, i.e. if $x=a=0$ for all $x \in \mathfrak{g}$. It follows that a trivial $g$-module is just a $K$-vector space. Conversely, any $K$-vector space may be regarded as a trivial g -module for any Lie algebra g .

The structure map of $K$, regarded as a trivial g-module, sends every $x \in \mathfrak{g}$ into zero. The associated (unique) algebra homomorphism $\varepsilon: U \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow K$ is called the augmentation of $U \mathfrak{g}$. The kernel $I \mathfrak{g}$ of $\varepsilon$ is called the augmentation ideal of g . The reader will notice that Ig is just the ideal of $U \mathrm{~g}$ generated by $i(\mathrm{~g})$.

Corollary 1.4. Let $\mathfrak{h}$ be a Lie subalgebra of $\mathfrak{g}$. Then $U \mathfrak{g}$ is free as an b-module.

Proof. Choose $\left\{e_{i}^{\prime}\right\}, i \in J^{\prime}$, a basis in $\mathfrak{h}$ and expand it by $\left\{e_{j}\right\}, j \in J$, to a basis in $\mathfrak{g}$. Let both $\boldsymbol{J}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{J}$ be simply ordered. Make $\boldsymbol{J}^{\prime} \cup \boldsymbol{J}$ simply
ordered by setting

$$
i \leqq j \begin{cases}\text { if } i, j \in J^{\prime} & \text { and } i \leqq j \text { in } J^{\prime} . \\ \text { if } i \in J^{\prime} & \text { and } j \in J . \\ \text { if } i, j \in J & \text { and } i \leqq j \text { in } J .\end{cases}
$$

It follows from Theorem 1.2 that the elements $e_{I}$ for all finite increasing sequences in $J$ form a basis of $U \mathfrak{g}$ as $\mathfrak{h}$-module. $]$

The reader may compare Corollary 1.4 with the corresponding result for groups (Lemma VI.1.3). We note explicitly the following consequence of Corollary 1.4 and Theorem IV.12.5.

Corollary 1.5. Every g-projective (injective) module is $\mathfrak{h}$-projective (injective). $\square$

If $\mathfrak{n}$ is a Lie ideal of $\mathfrak{g}$ with quotient $\mathfrak{h}$, we say that the sequence $\mathfrak{n} \longmapsto \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ is exact.

Corollary 1.6. If $\mathfrak{n} \longrightarrow \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ is an exact sequence of Lie algebras, then $K \otimes_{U \boldsymbol{n}} U \mathfrak{g} \cong U \mathfrak{h}$ as right $\mathfrak{g}$-modules.

The proof is left to the reader. $\square$

## Exercises:

1.1. Show that the following are examples of Lie algebras over $K$, under a suitable bracket operation.
(a) the skew-symmetric $n \times n$ matrices over $K$.
(b) the $n \times n$ matrices over $K$ with trace 0 .
1.2. Show that the following are examples of Lie algebras over $\mathbb{C}$, under a suitable bracket operation.
(a) the skew-hermitian $n \times n$ matrices over $\mathbb{C}$,
(b) the skew-hermitian $n \times n$ matrices with trace 0 .
1.3. Show that the set of all elements $x \in \mathfrak{g}$ with $[x, y]=0$ for all $y \in \mathfrak{g}$ is an ideal. (This ideal is called the center of $\mathfrak{g}$. Clearly the center is an abelian ideal.)
1.4. Show that, for $f: g \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ surjective, the induced map $U f: U \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow U \mathfrak{h}$ is surjective, also.
1.5. Prove that $I \mathfrak{g}$ is generated by $i g$ as an ideal of $U \mathfrak{g}$.
1.6. Prove Corollaries $1.5,1.6$.
1.7. Let $A$ be a (non-trivial) left $\mathfrak{g}$-module. Define in $A$ a (non-trivial) right $\mathfrak{g}$-module structure. (Hint: Define $a x=-x a$ )
1.8. Let $\mathfrak{g}_{1}, \mathfrak{g}_{2}$ be two Lie algebras over $K$. Show that $\mathfrak{g}=\mathfrak{g}_{1} \oplus \mathfrak{g}_{2}$ has a natural Lie algebra structure, which makes $g$ the product of $g_{1}$ and $g_{2}$ in the category of Lie algebras over $K$.
1.9. Prove that the product in $T M$ makes $\left\{T_{n} M\right\}, n=0,1, \ldots$ into a graded $K$ algebra (see Exercise V.1.5).

## 2. Definition of Cohomology; $\boldsymbol{H}^{\mathbf{0}}, \boldsymbol{H}^{\mathbf{1}}$

For notational convenience we shall write $\operatorname{Hom}_{g}(-,-) \operatorname{Ext}_{g}^{n}(-,-)$, etc., for $\operatorname{Hom}_{U \mathbf{g}}(-,-), \operatorname{Ext}_{U \mathbf{G}}^{n}(-,-)$, etc.

Definition. Given a Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ over $K$ and a $\mathfrak{g}$-module $A$, we define the $n^{\text {th }}$ cohomology group of $\mathfrak{g}$ with coefficients in $A$ by

$$
H^{n}(\mathfrak{g}, A)=\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathfrak{g}}^{n}(K, A), \quad n=0,1, \ldots
$$

where $K$ is, of course. regarded as a trivial g -module.
We note that each $H^{n}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$ is actually a $K$-vector space. Nevertheless we shall continue to use the term cohomology group. Plainly, the cohomology theory of Lie algebras has properties closely analogous to those listed in Section VI. 2 for the cohomology theory of groups. We therefore shall abstain from.listing them again here (see Exercise 2.2).

We shall compute $H^{0}, H^{1}$. For any $\mathfrak{g}$-module $A, H^{0}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$ is by definition $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{g}}(K, A)$. By arguments similar to those used for groups in Section VI. 3 we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{0}(\mathfrak{g}, A)=\{a \in A \mid x a=0, \text { for all } \quad x \in \mathfrak{g}\} ; \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

we call this the subspace of invariant elements in $A$ and denote it by $A^{\mathrm{g}}$.
In order to exhibit the nature of $H^{1}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$ we introduce the notion of Lie algebra derivations.

Definition. A derivation from a Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ into a $\mathbf{g}$-module $A$ is a $K$-linear map $d: g \rightarrow A$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
d([x, y])=x \cdot d(y)-y \cdot d(x), \quad x, y \in \mathfrak{g} . \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Notice that this property of $d$ is compatible with (1.1) and the Jacobi identity (1.2). It is plain that the set of all derivations $d: g \rightarrow A$ has a $K$-vector space structure; we shall denote this vector space by $\operatorname{Der}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$. Note that if $A$ is a trivial $\mathfrak{g}$-module, a derivation is simply a Lie algebra homomorphism where $A$ is regarded as an abelian Lie algebra.

For $a \in A$ fixed we obtain a derivation $d_{a}: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow A$ by setting $d_{a}(x)=x \cdot a$. Derivations of this kind are called inner. The inner derivations in $\operatorname{Der}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$ clearly form a $K$-subspace, which we denote by $\operatorname{Ider}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$.

The reader should compare the following two results with Theorem VI.5.1 and Corollary VI.5.2.

Theorem 2.1. The functor $\operatorname{Der}(\mathfrak{g},-)$ is represented by the $\mathfrak{g}$-module $I \mathrm{~g}$, that is, for any g-module A there is a natural isomorphism between the $K$-vector spaces $\operatorname{Der}(\mathrm{g}, A)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{g}}(I \mathrm{~g}, A)$.

Proof. Given a derivation $d: g \rightarrow A$, we define a $K$-linear map $f_{d}^{\prime}: T \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow A$ by sending $K=T^{0} \mathfrak{g} \subseteq T \mathfrak{g}$ into zero and $x_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{n}$ into $x_{1} \cdot\left(x_{2} ; \cdots\left(x_{n-1} d x_{n}\right) \ldots\right)$. Since $d$ is a derivation $f_{d}^{\prime}$ vanishes on all elements of the form $t \otimes(x \otimes y-y \otimes x-[x, y]), x, y \in \mathfrak{g}, t \in \boldsymbol{T} \mathfrak{g}$. Since $A$
is a $g$-module, $f_{d}^{\prime}$ vanishes on all elements of the form

$$
t_{1} \otimes(x \otimes y-y \otimes x-[x, y]) \otimes t_{2}
$$

$x, y \in \mathfrak{g}, t_{1}, t_{2} \in T \mathfrak{g}$. Thus $f_{d}^{\prime}$ defines a map $f_{d}: \operatorname{Ig} \rightarrow A$, which is easily seen to be a g -module homomorphism.

On the other hand, if $f: I g \rightarrow A$ is given, we extend $f$ to $U \mathfrak{g}$ by setting $f(K)=0$ and then we define a derivation $d_{f}: g \rightarrow A$ by $d_{f}=f i$, where $i: g \rightarrow U \mathfrak{g}$ is the canonical embedding. It is easy to check that $f_{\left(d_{f}\right)}=f$ and $d_{\left(f_{d}\right)}=d$, and also that the map $f \mapsto d_{f}$ is $K$-linear. $\square$

If we take the obvious free presentation of $K$

$$
I \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow U \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow K
$$

then, given a $\mathfrak{g}$-module $A$, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{1}(\mathfrak{g}, A)=\operatorname{coker}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{g}}(U \mathrm{~g} . A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{g}}(I \mathrm{~g}, A)\right) . \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence $H^{1}(\mathrm{~g}, A)$ is isomorphic to the vector space of derivations from $\mathfrak{g}$ into $A$ modulo those that arise from $\mathfrak{g}$-module homomorphisms $f: U^{\prime} \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow A$. If $f\left(1_{U_{\mathbf{g}}}\right)=a$, then clearly $d_{f}(x)=x a$, so that these are precisely the inner derivations. We obtain

Proposition 2.2. $H^{1}(\mathfrak{g}, A) \cong \operatorname{Der}(\mathfrak{g}, A) / \operatorname{Ider}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$. If $A$ is a trivial g -module, $H^{1}(\mathrm{~g}, A) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(\mathrm{~g}_{a b}, A\right)$.

Proof. Only the second assertion remains to be proved. Since $A$ is trivial, there are no non-trivial inner derivations, and a derivation $d: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow A$ is simply a Lie algebra homomorphism, $A$ being regarded as an abelian Lie algebra. []

Next we show that, as in the case of groups, derivations are related to split extensions, i.e., semi-direct products.

Definition. Given a Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ and a $\mathfrak{g}$-module $A$ we define the semi-direct product $A \times \mathfrak{g}$ to be the following Lie algebra. The underlying vector space of $A \times \mathfrak{g}$ is $A \oplus \mathfrak{g}$. For $a, b \in A$ and $x, y \in \mathfrak{g}$ we define $[(a, x),(b, y)]=(x-b-y a,[x, y])$. We leave it to the reader to show that $A \times \mathrm{g}$ is a Lie algebra, and that, if $A$ is given the structure of an abelian Lie algebra, then the canonical embeddings $i_{A}: A \rightarrow A \times \mathfrak{g}$, $i_{\mathrm{g}}: \mathrm{g} \rightarrow A \times \mathrm{g}$ as well as the canonical projection $p_{\mathrm{g}}: A \times \mathrm{g} \rightarrow \mathrm{g}$ are Lie algebra homomorphisms. The semi-direct product therefore gives rise to an extension of Lie algebras. with abelian kernel.

$$
\begin{equation*}
A \xrightarrow{i_{A}} A \times \mathfrak{g} \xrightarrow{p_{\mathrm{g}}} \mathrm{~g} \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

which splits by $i_{\mathrm{g}}: \mathrm{g} \rightarrow A \times \mathrm{g}$. The study of extensions with abelian kernel will be undertaken systematically in Section 3. Here we use the split extensions (2.4) to prove the analogue of Corollary VI.5.4.

Proposition 2.3. The vector space $\operatorname{Der}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$ is naturally isomorphic to the vector space of Lie algebra homomorphisms $f: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow A \times \mathfrak{g}$ for which $p_{\mathrm{g}} f=1_{\mathrm{g}}$.

Proof. First we note that $A$ may be regarded as an $A \times \mathfrak{g}$-module via $p_{\mathfrak{g}}: A \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$, and that then the canonical projection $d^{\prime}=p_{A}: A \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow A$ becomes a derivation. A Lie algebra homomorphism $f: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow A \times \mathfrak{g}$, inducing the identity on $\mathfrak{g}$, now clearly gives rise to a derivation $d_{f}=d^{4} f: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow A$. On the other hand, given a derivation $d: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow A$, we define a Lie algebra homomorphism $f_{d}: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow A \times \mathfrak{g}$ by $f_{d}(x)=(d x, x), x \in \mathfrak{g}$. The two maps $f \mapsto d_{f}, d \mapsto f_{d}$ are easily seen to be inverse to each other, to be $K$-linear, and to be natural in $A$. $\quad$

We conclude this section by establishing the analogue of Corollary VI.5.6, which asserts that the cohomology of a free group is trivial in dimensions $\geqq 2$. First we introduce the notion of a free Lie algebra.

Definition. Given a $K$-vectorspace $V$, the free $K$-Lie algebra $\mathfrak{f}=\mathfrak{f}(V)$ on $V$ is a Lie algebra over $K$ containing $V$ as a subspace, such that the following universal property holds: To any $K$-linear map $f: V \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ of $V$ into a Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ over $K$ there exists a unique Lie algebra map $\tilde{f}: \mathfrak{f} V \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ extending $f$. In other words, $\mathfrak{f}$ is left adjoint to the underlying functor from Lie algebras to vector spaces which forgets the Lie algebra structure. The existence of $f(V)$ is proved in Proposition 2.4. Note that its uniqueness follows, of course, from purely categorical arguments.

Proposition 2.4. Let TV denote the tensor algebra over the $K$-vector space $V$. The free Lie algebra $f(V)$ over $K$ is the Lie subalgebra of LTV generated by $V$.

Proof. Suppose given $f: V \rightarrow \mathrm{~g}$. By the universal property of the tensor algebra the map if: $V \rightarrow \mathfrak{g} \longrightarrow U \mathfrak{g}$ extends to an algebra homomorphism $T V \rightarrow U \mathrm{~g}$. Clearly the Lie subalgebra of $L T V$ generated by $V$ is mapped into $\mathfrak{g \subseteq L U g}$. The uniqueness of the extension is trivial.

Theorem 2.5. The augmentation ideal If of a free Lie algebra $\mathfrak{f}$ is a free $\mathfrak{f}$-module.

Proof. Let $\mathfrak{f}=\mathfrak{f}(V)$ and let $\{e\}$ be a $K$-basis of $V$, and let $f:\{e\} \rightarrow M$ be a function into the g -module $M$. We shall show that $f$ may be extended uniquely to a $\mathfrak{g}$-module homomorphism $f^{\prime}: I \mathfrak{f} \rightarrow M$. First note that uniqueness is clear since $f$ extends uniquely to a $K$-linear map $\tilde{f}: V \rightarrow M$ and $V \cong I \mathfrak{f}$ generates $I \mathfrak{f}$. Using the fact that $\mathfrak{f}$ is free on $V$, we define a Lie algebra homomorphism $\bar{f}^{\prime}: \mathfrak{f} \rightarrow M \times \mathfrak{f}$ by extending $\bar{f}(v)=(\tilde{f}(v), v)$, $v \in V$. By Proposition $2.3 \bar{f}^{\prime}$ determines a derivation $d: \mathfrak{f} \rightarrow M$ with $d(v)=\tilde{f}(v), v \in V$. By Theorem $2.1 d$ corresponds to an $\mathfrak{f}$-module homomorphism $f^{\prime}: I \mathfrak{f} \rightarrow M$ with $f^{\prime \prime}(v)=\tilde{f}(v), v \in V$. Thus $\{e\}$ is an $\mathfrak{f}$-basis for $I \mathfrak{F}$. $\quad$

Corollary 2.6. For a free Lle algehra $\mathfrak{f}$, we have $H^{n}(\mathfrak{f}, A)=0$ for all $\mathfrak{f}$-modules $A$ and all $n \geqq 2$. $\quad \square$

## Exercises:

2.1. For a Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ over $K$ and a right $\mathfrak{g}$-module $B$, define homology groups of $\mathfrak{g}$ by

$$
H_{n}(\mathrm{~g}, B)=\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{\mathrm{g}}(B, K), \quad n \geqq 0 .
$$

Show that $H_{0}(\mathfrak{g}, B)=B / B \mathfrak{g}$, where $B \mathfrak{g}$ stands for the submodule of $B$ generated by $b x ; b \in B, x \in \mathfrak{g}$. Show that $H_{1}(\mathfrak{g}, B)=\operatorname{ker}\left(B \otimes_{\mathfrak{g}} I \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow B \otimes_{\mathfrak{g}} U \mathfrak{g}\right)$.
Finally show that for $B$ a trivial $\mathfrak{g}$-module, $H_{1}(\mathfrak{g}, B) \cong B \otimes_{K} \mathfrak{g}_{a b}$.
2.2. List the properties of $H^{n}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$ and $H_{n}(\mathfrak{g}, B)$ analogous to the properties stated in Section VI. 2 for the (co)homology of groups.
2.3. Regard $\mathfrak{g}$ as a $\mathfrak{q}$-module. Show that $\operatorname{Der}(\mathfrak{g}, \underline{q})$ has the structure of a Lie algebra.

## 3. $H^{2}$ and Extensions

In order to interpret the second cohomology group. $H^{2}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$. we shall also proceed in the same way as for groups. The relation of this section to Sections 6, 8. 10 of Chapter VI will allow us to leave most of the proofs to the reader.

Let $\mathfrak{n} \longrightarrow \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ be an exact sequence of Lie algebras over $K$. Consider the short exact sequence of $\mathfrak{g}$-modules $I \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow U \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow K$. Tensoring with $U \mathfrak{h}$ yields

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{\mathfrak{g}}\left(U^{\prime} \mathfrak{h}, K\right) \rightarrow U \mathfrak{h} \otimes_{\mathfrak{g}} I \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow U \mathfrak{h} \otimes_{\mathfrak{g}} U \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow U \mathfrak{h} \otimes_{\mathfrak{g}} K \rightarrow 0
$$

with each term having a natural $\mathfrak{b}$-module structure. Using Corollaries 1.5 , 1.6 and the results of Section IV. 12 we obtain

$$
\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{\mathfrak{g}}\left(\operatorname{Ug} \otimes_{\mathrm{n}} K, K\right)=\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{\mathrm{g}}(U \mathfrak{h}, K) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{n}(K, K)
$$

Since $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{n}(K, K) \cong \mathfrak{n}_{a b}$ by Exercise 2.1 we obtain
Theorem 3.1. If $\mathfrak{n} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ is an exact sequence of Lie algebras, then $0 \rightarrow \mathfrak{n}_{a b} \rightarrow U \mathfrak{h} \otimes_{\mathfrak{g}} I \mathrm{~g} \rightarrow I \mathfrak{h} \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of $\mathfrak{h}$-modules.

From this result we deduce, exactly as in the case of groups,
Theorem 3.2. If $\mathfrak{n} \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ is an exact sequence of Lie algebras and if $A$ is an $\mathfrak{h}$-module, then the following sequence is exact
$0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Der}(\mathfrak{h}, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Der}(\mathfrak{a}, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{q}}\left(\mathfrak{n}_{a b}, A\right) \rightarrow H^{2}(\mathfrak{h}, A) \rightarrow H^{2}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$.
The proof is analogous to the proof of Theorem VI.8.1 and is left to the reader.

Let $A \stackrel{i}{\boldsymbol{i}} \mathfrak{g} \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{L}_{\longrightarrow}} \mathfrak{h}$ be an extension of Lie algebras over $K$, with abelian kernel $A$. If $s: \mathfrak{h} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ is a section, that is, a $K$-linear map such that $p s=1_{\mathfrak{g}}$, we can define in $i A$, and hence in $A$, an $\mathfrak{h}$-module structure by $x-i a=[s x, i a], a \in A, x \in \mathfrak{h}$, where [, ] denotes the bracket in g . It is easily verified that, since $A$ is abelian, the $\mathfrak{h}$-action thus defined on $A$ does not depend upon the choice of section $s$. This $\mathfrak{b}$-module structure on $A$ is called the $\mathfrak{h}$-module structure induced by the extension.

An extension of $\mathfrak{b}$ by an $\mathfrak{b}$-module $A$ is an extension of Lie algebras $A \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$, with abelian kernel, such that the given $\mathfrak{h}$-module structure in $A$ agrees with the one induced by the extension. Notice that the split extension (2.4) is an extension of $\mathfrak{g}$ by the $\mathfrak{g}$-module $A$.

We shall call two extensions $A \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ and $A \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{g}^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ equivalent, if there is a Lie algebra homomorphism $f: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}^{\prime}$ such that the diagram

is commutative. Note that, if it exists, $f$ is automatically an isomorphism. We denote the set of equivalence classes of extensions of $\mathfrak{h}$ by $A$ by $M(\mathfrak{h}, A)$. By the above. $M(\mathfrak{h}, A)$ contains at least one element, the equivalence class containing the semi-direct product $A \xrightarrow{i_{A}} A \times \mathfrak{h} \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{p}_{\mathfrak{h}}} \mathfrak{h}$. With these definitions one proves, formally just as for groups (Section VI.10), the following characterization of $H^{2}(\mathfrak{h}, A)$.

Theorem 3.3. There is a one-to-one correspondence between $H^{2}(\mathfrak{h}, A)$ and the set $M(\mathfrak{h}, A)$ of equivalence classes of extensions of $\mathfrak{h}$ by $A$. The set $M(\mathfrak{h}, A)$ therefore has a natural $K$-vector space structure and $M(\mathfrak{h},-1$ is a (covariant) functor from $\mathfrak{h}$-modules to $K$-vector spaces.

The proof is left to the reader; also we leave it to the reader to show that the zero element in $H^{2}(\mathfrak{h}, A)$ corresponds to the equivalence class of the semi-direct product.

## Exercises:

3.1. Let $\mathfrak{n} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ be an exact sequence of Lie algebras and let $B$ be a right $\mathfrak{b}$ module. Show that the following sequence is exact

$$
H_{2}(\mathfrak{g}, B) \rightarrow H_{2}(\mathfrak{h}, B) \rightarrow B \otimes_{\mathfrak{g}} \mathrm{n}_{a b} \rightarrow H_{1}(\mathrm{~g}, B) \rightarrow H_{1}(\mathrm{~h}, B) \rightarrow 0 .
$$

3.2. Assume $\mathfrak{g}=\mathrm{f} / \mathrm{r}$ where f is a free Lie algebra. Show that $H_{2}(\mathfrak{g} . K)=[\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{f}] \cap \mathrm{r} /[\mathfrak{f}, \mathrm{r}]$, where $[\mathfrak{f}, \mathbf{r}]$ denotes the Lie ideal of $\mathfrak{f}$ generated by all $[f, r]$ with $f \in \mathfrak{f}, r \in \mathbf{r}$.
3.3. Prove the following result: Let $f: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ be a homomorphism of Lie algebras, such that $f_{*}: \mathfrak{g}_{a b} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}_{a b}$ is an isomorphism and $f_{*}: H_{2}(\mathfrak{g}, K) \rightarrow H_{2}(\mathfrak{b}, K)$ is
surjective. Then $f$ induces isomorphisms

$$
f_{n}: \mathfrak{g} / \mathfrak{g}_{n} \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathfrak{h} / \mathfrak{h}_{n}, \quad n=0,1, \ldots ;
$$

where $\mathfrak{g}_{\boldsymbol{n}}$ and $\mathfrak{h}_{\boldsymbol{n}}$ denote the $\boldsymbol{n}$-th terms of the lower central series $\left(\mathfrak{g}_{0}=\mathfrak{g}\right.$, $\left.\mathfrak{g}_{n}=\left[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}_{n-1}\right]\right)$.

## 4. A Resolution of the Ground Field $K$

By definition of the cohomology of Lie algebras, $H^{n}(\mathfrak{g}, A)$ may be computed via any $g$-projective resolution of the trivial $g$-module $K$. For actual computations it is desirable to have some standard procedure for constructing such a resolution. We remark that copying Section VI. 13 yields such standard resolutions. However, for Lie algebras a much simpler, i.e., smaller resolution is available. In order to give a comprehensive description of it we proceed as follows.

For any $K$-vector space $V$, and $n \geqq 1$, we define $E_{n} V$ to be the quotient of the $n$-fold tensor product of $V$, that is, $T_{n} V$. by the subspace generated by

$$
x_{1} \otimes x_{2} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{n}-(\operatorname{sig} \sigma) x_{\sigma 1} \otimes x_{\sigma 2} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{\sigma n},
$$

for $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in V$, and all permutations $\sigma$ of the set $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. The symbol $\operatorname{sig} \sigma$ denotes the parity of the permutation $\sigma$. We shall use $\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle$ to denote the element of $E_{n} V^{\prime}$ corresponding to $x_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{n}$. Clearly we have

$$
\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i}, \ldots, x_{j}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle=-\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{j}, \ldots, x_{i}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle
$$

Note that $E_{1}, V \cong V$, and set $E_{0} V=K$. Then $E_{n} V$ is called the $n^{\text {th }}$ exterior power of $V$ and the (internally graded) $K$-algebra $E V=\bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} E_{n} V$, with multiplication induced by that in $T V$, is called the exterior algebra on the vector space $V$.

Now let $\mathfrak{g}$ be a Lie algebra over $K$. and let $V$ be the underlying vector space of $\mathfrak{g}$. Denote by $C_{n}$ the $\mathfrak{g}$-module $U \mathfrak{g} \otimes_{K} E_{n} V, n=0.1, \ldots$. For short we shall write $u\left\langle x_{1} \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle$ for $u \otimes\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle, u \in U \mathfrak{g}$. We shall prove that differentials $d_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ may be defined such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \rightarrow C_{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} C_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow C_{1} \rightarrow C_{0} \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a $\mathfrak{g}$-projective resolution of $K$. Of course $C_{0}=U \mathfrak{g}$, and $\varepsilon: C_{0} \rightarrow K$ is just the augmentation. Notice that plainly $C_{n}, n=0,1, \ldots$, is $g$-free, since $E_{n} V^{\prime}$ is $K$-free.

We first show that (4.1) is a complex. This will be achieved in the 5 steps (a). (b)..... (e). below. It then remains to prove that the augmented complex $\cdots \rightarrow C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow C_{0} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} K \rightarrow 0$ is exact. This will be a consequence of Lemma 4.1 below.
(a) We define, for every $y \in \mathfrak{g}$, a $\mathfrak{g}$-module homomorphism $\theta(y): C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}, n=0.1 \ldots$. by

$$
\begin{gathered}
\theta(y)\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle=-y\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
+\sum_{i=1}^{n}(-1)^{i+1}\left\langle\left[y, x_{i}\right], x_{1}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{i}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle,
\end{gathered}
$$

where the symbol $\hat{x}_{i}$ indicates that $x_{i}$ is to be omitted. Note that $(-1)^{i+1}\left\langle\left[y, x_{i}\right], x_{1}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{i}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle=\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots,\left[y, x_{i}\right], \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle$. We use this remark to prove that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta([x, y])=\theta(x) \theta(y)-\theta(y) \theta(x) . \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof of (4.2)
We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \theta(x) \theta(y)\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle=y x\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& \quad-\sum_{i=1}^{n} x\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots,\left[y, x_{i}\right], \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle-\sum_{i=1}^{n} y\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots,\left[x, x_{i}\right], \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& \quad+\sum_{\substack{i, j=1 \\
i \neq j}}^{n}\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots,\left[x, x_{i}\right], \ldots,\left[y, x_{j}\right], \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& \quad+\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots,\left[x,\left[y, x_{i}\right]\right], \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the Jacobi identity we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (\theta(x) \theta(y)-\theta(y) \theta(x))\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots . x_{n}\right\rangle=[y . x]\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots . x_{n}\right\rangle \\
+ & \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots\left[[x, y], x_{i}\right] \ldots . x_{n}\right\rangle=\theta([x . y])\left\langle x_{1} \ldots . x_{n}\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) We define $\mathfrak{g}$-module homomorphisms $\sigma(y): C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n+1}, n=0,1, \ldots$, by

$$
\sigma(y)\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle=\left\langle y, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle
$$

We claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta(x) \sigma(y)-\sigma(y) \theta(x)=\sigma([x, y]) \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof of (4.3)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (\theta(x) \sigma(y)-\sigma(y) \theta(x))\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle=-x\left\langle y, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& + \\
& \quad\left\langle[x, y], x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle+\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\langle y, x_{1}, \ldots,\left[x, x_{i}\right], \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& + \\
& \quad x\left\langle y, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle-\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\langle y, x_{1}, \ldots,\left[x, x_{i}\right], \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& \quad=\sigma([x, y])\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

(c) Next we define $g$-module homomorphisms $d_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1}$, $n=0,1,2, \ldots$, such that. for all $y \in \mathfrak{g}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma(y) d_{n \cdot 1}+d_{n} \sigma(y)=-\theta(y), \quad n=1,2, \ldots \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We set $d_{0}=0$. We then proceed inductively. Assume $d_{n-1}: C_{n-1} \rightarrow C_{n-2}$ is defined. Since $\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle=\sigma\left(x_{1}\right)\left\langle x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle$, we are forced by (4.4) to define $d_{n}$ by

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{n}\left\langle x_{1} \ldots . x_{n}\right\rangle & =d_{n} \sigma\left(x_{1}\right)\left\langle x_{2}, \ldots . x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& =\left(-\theta\left(x_{1}\right)-\sigma\left(x_{1}\right) d_{n-1}\right)\left\langle x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

We remark that $d_{n}$ is given explicitly by

$$
\begin{align*}
& d_{n}\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle=\sum_{i=1}^{n}(-1)^{i+1} x_{i}\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{i}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle  \tag{4.5}\\
& \quad+\sum_{1 \leqq i<j \leqq n}(-1)^{i+j}\left\langle\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right], x_{1}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{i}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{j}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle
\end{align*}
$$

since this $d_{n}$ obviously satisfies our requirements.
(d) We claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta(y) d_{n}-d_{n} \theta(y)=0 \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $n=0,1,2, \ldots$.
Proof of (4.6)
We proceed by induction on $n$. For $n=0$, (4.6) is trivial. For $n \geqq 1$, $\left(\theta(y) d_{n}-d_{n} \theta(y)\right)\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle=\left(\theta(y) d_{n} \sigma\left(x_{1}\right)-d_{n} \theta(y) \sigma\left(x_{1}\right)\right)\left\langle x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle$.

Thus it is sufficient to show that

$$
\theta(y) d_{n} \sigma(x)-d_{n} \theta(y) \sigma(x)=0
$$

But
$\theta(y) d_{n} \sigma(x)-d_{n} \theta(y) \sigma(x)$
$=-\theta(y) \theta(x)-\theta(y) \sigma(x) d_{n-1}-d_{n} \sigma(x) \theta(y)-d_{n} \sigma[y, x], \quad$ by (4.4) and (4.3),
$=-\theta(y) \theta(x)-\theta(y) \sigma(x) d_{n-1}+\theta(x) \theta(y)+\sigma(x) d_{n-1} \theta(y)+\theta[y, x]$

$$
+\sigma[y, x] d_{n-1} . \quad \text { by (4.4). }
$$

$=-\theta(y) \sigma(x) d_{n-1}+\sigma(x) \theta(y) d_{n-1}+\sigma[y, x] d_{n-1}, \quad$ by (4.2) and the inductive hypothesis,
$=0$ by (4.3). $\square$
(e) Finally, we prove that $d_{n-1} d_{n}=0$, whence it will follow that (4.1) is a complex. Clearly $d_{0} d_{1}=0$. To prove $d_{n-1} d_{n}=0$ we proceed by induction. We have, for $n \geqq 2$.

$$
d_{n-1} d_{n}\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle=d_{n-1} d_{n} \sigma\left(x_{1}\right)\left\langle x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle ;
$$

but by (4.4) we obtain

$$
\begin{gathered}
\quad d_{n-1} d_{n} \sigma\left(x_{1}\right)=-d_{n-1}\left(\theta\left(x_{1}\right)+\sigma\left(x_{1}\right) d_{n-1}\right) \\
=-d_{n-1} \theta\left(x_{1}\right)+\theta\left(x_{1}\right) d_{n-1}+\sigma\left(x_{1}\right) d_{n-2} d_{n-1}=0
\end{gathered}
$$

by (4.6) and the induction hypothesis.
It remains to prove that the complex

$$
\begin{equation*}
C: \cdots \rightarrow C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow C_{0} \stackrel{\varepsilon}{\rightarrow} K \rightarrow 0 . \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\varepsilon: C_{0} \rightarrow K$ is the augmentation $\varepsilon: U \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow K$, is exact. This is achieved by regarding (4.7) as a complex of $K$-vector spaces and proving that its homology is trivial. Our tactics here are entirely different from those adopted in proving that (4.7) is a complex. (We use (4.5) which has not been used previously!)

Let $\left\{e_{i}\right\}, i \in J$, be a $K$-basis of $\mathfrak{g}$, and assume the index set $J$ simply ordered. By Theorem 1.2 (Birkhoff-Witt) the elements

$$
\begin{equation*}
e_{k_{1}} \ldots e_{k_{m}}\left\langle e_{l_{1}}, \ldots, e_{l_{n}}\right\rangle \tag{4.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
k_{1} \leqq k_{2} \leqq \cdots \leqq k_{m} \quad \text { and } \quad l_{1}<l_{2}<\cdots<l_{n}
$$

form a $K$-basis of $\boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{n}}$. We define a family of subcomplexes $\boldsymbol{F}_{\boldsymbol{p}} \boldsymbol{C}$ of $\boldsymbol{C}$, $p=0,1, \ldots$ as follows: $\left(F_{p} C\right)_{-1}=K$, and $\left(F_{p} C\right)_{n}, n \geqq 0$. is the subspace of $C_{n}$ generated by the basis elements (4.8) with $m+n \leqq p$. Plainly, the differential $d_{n}, n \geqq 0$. maps $\left(F_{p} C\right)_{n}$ into $\left(F_{p} C\right)_{n-1}$, so that $F_{p} C$ is indeed a subcomplex of $C$. Plainly also, $F_{p+1} C \supseteqq F_{p} C$ and $\bigcup F_{p} C=C$. For every $p \geqq 1$ we define a complex $W^{p}$ by $W_{n}^{p}=\left(F_{p} C\right)_{n} /\left(F_{p-1} C\right)_{n}$ for $n \geqq 0$ and $W_{\underline{\underline{p}}}{ }^{1}=K$. It is immediate from (4.5) that the differential $d^{p}$ in $W^{p}$ is given by

$$
\begin{gather*}
d_{n}^{p}\left(e_{k_{1}} e_{k_{2}} \ldots e_{k_{m}}\left\langle e_{l_{1}}, \ldots, e_{l_{n}}\right\rangle\right) \\
\equiv \sum_{i=1}^{n}(-1)^{i+1} e_{k_{1}} \ldots e_{k_{m}} e_{l_{1}}\left\langle e_{l_{1}}, \ldots . \hat{e}_{l_{i}}, \ldots, e_{l_{n}}\right\rangle \bmod \left(F_{p-1} C\right)_{n-1} \tag{4.9}
\end{gather*}
$$

Note that the summands on the right hand side are not necessarily of the form (4.8), since we cannot guarantee $k_{m} \leqq l_{i}$. However, it follows easily from Theorem 1.2 (Birkhoff-Witt) that the class in $\boldsymbol{W}^{p} \bmod F_{p-1} C$ represented by an element of the form (4.8) remains the same when the order in which $e_{k_{1}}, \ldots, e_{k_{m}}$ are written is changed. We remark that. in the terminology of Section VIII.2. $\left\{\boldsymbol{W}^{p}\right\}$ is the graded object associated with the object $C$ filtered by $\boldsymbol{F}_{p} C$.

Lemma 4.1. The complex $W^{p}$ is exact.
We postpone the proof of Lemma 4.1 in order to show how it implies the desired result on $\boldsymbol{C}$.

It follows from Lemma 4.1 that $H_{n}\left(\boldsymbol{W}^{p}\right)=0$ for all $p \geqq 1$ and all $n$. We then consider the short exact sequence of complexes

$$
F_{p-1} C \hookrightarrow F_{p} C \rightarrow W^{p}
$$

The associated long exact homology sequence then shows that $H_{n}\left(F_{p-1} C\right) \cong H_{n}\left(F_{p} C\right)$ for all $n$, and all $p \geqq 1$. Since $F_{0} C$ is the complex $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow K \rightarrow 0$, we have $H_{n}\left(F_{0} C\right)=0$, for all $n$. Hence, by induction, $H_{n}\left(F_{p} C\right)=0$ for all $n$ and all $p \geqq 0$. Since $C=\bigcup_{p \geqq 0} F_{p} C$ it follows easily that $H_{n}(C)=0$.

Proof of Lemma 4.1. In order to show that $W^{p}$ is exact, we define a $K$-linear contracting homotopy $\Sigma$ as follows. $\Sigma_{-1}: K \rightarrow W_{0}^{p}$ is given by $\left.\Sigma_{-1}\left(1_{K}\right)=1 〈\right\rangle$, and, for $n \geqq 0$, we define $\Sigma_{n}: W_{n}^{p} \rightarrow W_{n+1}^{p}$ by $\Sigma_{n}\left(e_{k_{1}} \ldots e_{k_{m}}\left\langle e_{l_{1}}, \ldots . e_{l_{n}}\right\rangle\right)\left\{\begin{array}{l}=0, \text { if } k_{m} \leqq l_{n} \text { in } J, \text { in particular if } m=0 ; \\ =(-1)^{n} e_{k_{1}} \ldots e_{k_{m-1}}\left\langle e_{l_{1}}, \ldots, e_{l_{n}}, e_{k_{m}}\right\rangle, \text { if } k_{m}>l_{n} .\end{array}\right.$
One readily verifies that $\varepsilon \Sigma_{-1}=1, d_{1}^{p} \Sigma_{0}+\Sigma_{-1} \varepsilon=1$ and

$$
d_{n+1}^{p} \Sigma_{n}+\Sigma_{n-1} d_{n}^{p}=1
$$

We now summarize our results in a single statement.
Theorem 4.2. Let $C_{n}=U \mathfrak{g} \otimes_{K} E_{n} V$ where $V$ is the vectorspace underlying $\mathfrak{g}$, and let $d_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ be the $\mathfrak{g}$-module maps defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& d_{n}\left(\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n}(-1)^{i+1} x_{i}\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{i}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& +\sum_{1 \leqq i<j \leqq n}(-1)^{i+j}\left\langle\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right], x_{1}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{i}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{j}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

Then the sequence

$$
C: \cdots \rightarrow C_{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} C_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow C_{0}
$$

is $a \mathrm{~g}$-free resolution of the trivial g -module $\mathrm{K} . \square$
We finally note the following important corollary.
Corollary 4.3. Let $\mathfrak{g}$ be a Lie algebra of dimension $n$ over $K$. Then for any g -module $A . H^{k}(\mathrm{~g}, A)=0$ for $k \geqq n+1$.

Proof. For $k \geqq n+1$ we have $E_{k} V=0$.

## Exercises:

4.1. Show that the product in the tensor algebra $T V$ induces a product in $E V=\bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} E_{n} V$. which makes $E V$ into a $K$-algebra.
4.2. Suppose that the characteristic of $K$ is different from 2 . Show that $E V \cong T V /\left(v^{2}\right)$, where $\left(v^{2}\right)$ denotes the ideal in $T V$ generated by all squares in $T V$.
4.3. Let $A \longmapsto \mathfrak{g}{ }^{\boldsymbol{p}_{\boldsymbol{p}}} \mathfrak{h}$ be an extension of Lie algebras over $K$. Let $s: \mathfrak{h} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ be a section, that is, a $K$-linear map with $p s=1_{\mathfrak{h}}$, so that, as $K$-vector-spaces, $\mathfrak{g} \cong A \oplus \mathfrak{h}$. Show that the Lie algebra structure of $\mathfrak{g}$ may be described by a $K$-bilinear function $h: \mathfrak{h} \times \mathfrak{h} \rightarrow A$ defined by $[s x, s y]=s[x, y]+h(x, y), x, y \in \mathfrak{h}$. Show that $h$ is a 2-cocycle in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{b}}(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{A})$ where $\boldsymbol{C}$ is the resolution of Theorem 4.2 for the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{h}$. Also, show that two different sections $s_{1}, s_{2}$, yield two cohomologous cocycles $h_{1}, h_{2}$.
4.4. Using Exercise 4.3 , show directly that $H^{2}(\mathbf{h}, A) \cong M(\mathbf{h}, A)$.

## 5. Semi-simple Lie Algebras

In the next two sections of Chapter VII we shall give cohomological proofs of two main theorems in the theory of Lie algebras over a field of characteristic 0 .

The first is that the finite-dimensional representations of a semisimple Lie algebra are completely reducible. The main step in that proof will be to show that the first cohomology group of a semi-simple Lie algebra with arbitrary finite-dimensional coefficient module is trivial. This is known as the first Whitehead Lemma (Proposition 6.1). Secondly we shall prove that every finite dimensional Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ is the split extension of a semi-simple Lie algebra by the radical of $\mathfrak{g}$. The main step in the proof of this result will be to show that the second cohomology group of a semi-simple Lie algebra with arbitrary finite-dimensional coefficient module is trivial. This is known as the second Whitehead Lemma (Proposition 6.3). Since this section is preparatory for Section 6, we will postpone exercises till the end of that section.

In the whole of this section g will denote a finite-dimensional Lie algebra over a field $K$ of characteristic 0 . Also, $A$ will denote a finitedimensional g-module.

Definition. To any Lie algebra $g$ and any $g$-module $A$ we define an associated bilinear form $\beta$ from $\mathfrak{g}$ to $K$ as follows. Let $\varrho: g \rightarrow L\left(\operatorname{End}_{K} A\right)$ be the structure map of $A$. If $x, y \in \mathfrak{g}$ then $\varrho x, \varrho y$ are $K$-linear endomorphisms of $A$. We define $\beta(x, y)$ to be the trace of the endomorphism (œx) (œy).

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta(x, y)=\operatorname{Tr}((\varrho x)(\varrho y)), x, y \in \mathfrak{g} . \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The proof that $\beta$ is bilinear is straightforward and will be left to the reader. Trivially $\beta(x, y)=\beta(y, x), \beta$ is symmetric.

If $A=\mathfrak{g}$, i.e.. if $\mathfrak{g}$ is regarded as $\mathfrak{g}$-module, then the associated bilinear form is called the Killing form of $\mathfrak{g}$; thus. the Killing form is $\operatorname{Tr}((\operatorname{ad} x)(\operatorname{ad} y))$.

Lemma 5.1.

$$
\beta([x, y], z)=\beta(x,[y, z]), x, y, z \in \mathfrak{g}
$$

Proof. Since the trace function is additive and $\operatorname{Tr}(\varphi \psi)=\operatorname{Tr}(\psi \varphi)$,, for $\varphi, \psi \in \operatorname{End}_{K} A$, we have
$\beta([x, y], z)=\operatorname{Tr}((\varrho x \varrho y-\varrho y \varrho x) \varrho z)=\operatorname{Tr}(\varrho x(\varrho y \varrho z-\varrho z \varrho y))=\beta(x,[y, z]) . \square$
Definition. A Lie algebra $g$ is called semi-simple if $\{0\}$ is the only abelian ideal of $\mathfrak{g}$.

We now cite a key theorem from the theory of semi-simple Lie algebras.
Theorem 5.2. Let $\mathfrak{g}$ be semi-simple (over a field of characteristic 0 ), and let $A$ be a $\mathfrak{g}$-module. If the structure map $\varrho$ is injective, then the bilinear form $\beta$ corresponding to $A$ is non-degenerate.

The fact that $\varrho$ is injective is usually expressed by the phrase that $\varrho$ is a faithful representation of $\mathfrak{g}$ in $A$.

We do not attempt to give a proof of this rather deep result, which is closely related to Cartan's criterion for solvability of Lie algebras. Elementary proofs are easily accessible in the literature (G. Hochschild [25, p. 117-122]: J.-P. Serre [42. LA. 5.14-LA. 5.20]).

Corollary 5.3. The Killing form of a semi-simple Lie algebra is nondegenerate.

Proof. The structure map ad : $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow L\left(\operatorname{End}_{K} \mathfrak{g}\right)$ of the $\mathfrak{g}$-module $\mathfrak{g}$ has the center of $\mathfrak{g}$ as kernel (see Exercise 1.2). Since the center is an abelian ideal, it is trivial. Hence ad is injective. $\quad \square$

Corollary 5.4. Let $\mathfrak{a}$ be an ideal in the semi-simple Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$. Then there exists an ideal $\mathfrak{b}$ of g such that $\mathrm{g}=\mathrm{a} \oplus \mathrm{b}$, as Lie algebras.

Proof. Define $\mathfrak{b}$ to be the orthogonal complement of $\mathfrak{a}$ with respect to the Killing form $\beta$. Clearly it is sufficient to show (i) that $\mathfrak{b}$ is an ideal and (ii) that $\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}=\{0\}$. To prove (i) let $x \in \mathfrak{g}, b \in \mathfrak{b}, a \in \mathfrak{a}$. We have $\beta(a,[x, b])=\beta([a, x], b)=\beta\left(a^{\prime}, b\right)=0$, where $[a, x]=a^{\prime} \in \mathfrak{a}$. Hence with $b \in \mathfrak{b},[x, b] \in \mathfrak{b}$ and $\mathfrak{b}$ is an ideal. To prove (ii) let $x, y \in \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}, z \in \mathfrak{g}$; then $\beta([x, y], z)=\beta(x,[y, z])=0$, since $[y, z] \in \mathbf{b}$ and $x \in \mathfrak{a}$. Since $\beta$ is nondegenerate it follows that $[x, y]=0$. Thus $\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}$ is an abelian ideal of $\mathfrak{g}$, hence trivial.

Corollary 5.5. If $\mathfrak{g}$ is semi-simple, then every ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ in $\mathfrak{g}$ is semi-simple also.

Proof. Since $\mathfrak{g}=\mathfrak{a} \oplus \mathfrak{b}$ by Corollary 5.4, every ideal $\mathfrak{a}^{\prime}$ in $\mathfrak{a}$ is also an ideal in $\mathfrak{g}$. In particular if $\mathfrak{a}^{\prime}$ is an abelian ideal, it follows that $\mathfrak{a}^{\prime}=0$. $\quad \square$

We now return to the cohomology theory of Lie algebras. Recall that the ground field $K$ is assumed to have characteristic 0.

Proposition 5.6. Let A be a (finite-dimensional) simple module over the semi-simple Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ with non-trivial $\mathfrak{g}$-action. Then $H^{q}(\mathfrak{g}, A)=0$ for all $q \geqq 0$.

Proof. Let the structure map $\varrho: g \rightarrow L\left(\operatorname{End}_{K} A\right)$ have kernel $\left.\mathfrak{h}\right)^{\prime}$. By Corollary 5.4, $\mathfrak{h}$ ' has a complement $\mathfrak{h}$ in $\mathfrak{g}$, which is non-zero because $A$ is non-trivial. Since $\mathfrak{b}$ is semi-simple by Corollary 5.5, and since $\varrho$ restricted to $b$ is injective, the associated bilinear form $\beta$ is non-degenerate by Theorem 5.2. Note that $\beta$ is the restriction to $\mathfrak{h}$ of the bilinear form on $\mathfrak{g}$ associated with $\varrho$. By linear algebra we can choose $K$-bases $\left\{e_{i}\right\}$, $i=1, \ldots, m$, and $\left\{e_{j}^{\prime}\right\}, j=1, \ldots, m$, of $\mathfrak{h}$ such that $\beta\left(e_{i}, e_{j}^{\prime}\right)=\delta_{i j}$. We now prove the following assertions:
(a) If $x \in \mathrm{~g}$ and if $\left[e_{i}, x\right]=\sum_{k=1}^{m} c_{i k} e_{k}$ and $\left[x, e_{j}^{\prime}\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{m} d_{j l} e_{l}^{\prime}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{i j}=d_{j i} \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. $\beta\left(\left[e_{i}, x\right], e_{j}^{\prime}\right)=\beta\left(\Sigma c_{i k} e_{k}, e_{j}^{\prime}\right)=c_{i j}$; but

$$
\beta\left(\left[e_{i}, x\right], e_{j}^{\prime}\right)=\beta\left(e_{i},\left[x, e_{j}^{\prime}\right]\right)=\beta\left(e_{i}, \Sigma d_{j l} e_{j}^{\prime}\right)=d_{j i}
$$

(b) The element $\sum_{i=1}^{m} e_{i} e_{i}^{\prime} \in U \mathfrak{g}$ is in the center of $U \mathfrak{g}$; hence for any $g$-module $B$ the map $t=t_{B}: B \rightarrow B$ defined by $t(b)=\sum_{i=1}^{m} e_{i}\left(e_{i}^{\prime}: b\right)$ is a g -module homomorphism.

Proof. Let $x \in \mathfrak{g}$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
x\left(\sum_{i} e_{i} e_{i}^{\prime}\right) & =\sum_{i}\left(\left[x, e_{i}\right] e_{i}^{\prime}+e_{i} x e_{i}^{\prime}\right)=-\sum_{i, k} c_{i k} e_{k} e_{i}^{\prime}+\sum_{i} e_{i} x e_{i}^{\prime} \\
& =-\sum_{i, k} d_{k i} e_{k} e_{i}^{\prime}+\sum_{k} e_{k} x e_{k}^{\prime}=-\sum_{k} e_{k}\left[x . e_{k}^{\prime}\right]+\sum_{k} e_{k} x e_{k}^{\prime} \\
& =\left(\sum_{k} e_{k} e_{k}^{\prime}\right) x .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is clear that, if $\varphi: B_{1} \rightarrow B_{2}$ is a homomorphism of $g$-modules. then $t \varphi=\varphi t$.
(c) Consider the resolution $\mathrm{C}: \cdots \rightarrow C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow C_{0}$ of Theorem 4.2. The homomorphisms $t_{C_{n}}$ define a chain map $\tau$ of $C$ into itself. We claim that $\tau$ is homotopic to the zero map.

Proof. We have to find maps $\Sigma_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n+1}, n=0,1, \ldots$, such that $d_{1} \Sigma_{0}=\tau_{0}$ and $d_{n+1} \Sigma_{n}+\Sigma_{n-1} d_{n}=\tau_{n}, n \geqq 1$. Define $\Sigma_{n}$ to be the $g$-module homomorphism given by

$$
\Sigma_{n}\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle=\sum_{k=1}^{m} e_{k}\left\langle e_{k}^{\prime}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle .
$$

The assertion is then proved by the following computation ( $k$ varies from 1 to $m ; i, j$ vary from 1 to $n$ ):

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(d_{n+1} \Sigma_{n}\right. & \left.+\sum_{n-1} d_{n}\right)\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle=\sum_{k} e_{k} e_{k^{\prime}}\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& +\sum_{i, k}(-1)^{i} e_{k} x_{i}\left\langle e_{k}^{\prime}, x_{1}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{i}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& +\sum_{i, k}(-1)^{i} e_{k}\left\langle\left[e_{k}^{\prime}, x_{i}\right], x_{1}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{i}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& +\sum_{k, i<j}(-1)^{i+j} e_{k}\left\langle\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right], e_{k}^{\prime}, x_{1}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{i}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{j}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& +\sum_{i, k}(-1)^{i+1} x_{i} e_{k}\left\langle e_{k}^{\prime}, x_{1}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{i}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& +\sum_{k, i<j}(-1)^{i+j} e_{k}\left\langle e_{k},\left[x_{i}, x_{j}\right], x_{1}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{i}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{j}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& =\tau_{n}\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle+\sum_{i, k}(-1)^{i}\left[e_{k}, x_{i}\right]\left\langle e_{k}^{\prime}, x_{1}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{i}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle \\
& +\sum_{i, k}(-1)^{i} e_{k}\left\langle\left[e_{k}^{\prime}, x_{i}\right], x_{1}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{i}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using (5.2) the two latter sums cancel each other, and thus assertion (c) is proved. $]$

Consider now the map $t=t_{A}: A \rightarrow A$ and the induced map

$$
t_{*}: H^{q}(\mathbf{g}, A) \rightarrow H^{q}(\mathrm{~g}, A) .
$$

By the nature of $t_{A}$ (see the final remark in (b)), it is clear that $t_{*}$ may be computed as the map induced by $t: C \rightarrow C$. Hence, by assertion (c), $t_{*}$ is the zero map. On the other hand $t: A \rightarrow A$ must either be an automorphism or the zero map, since $A$ is simple. But it cannot be the zero map, because the trace of the linear transformation $t$ equals $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta\left(e_{i}, e_{i}^{\prime}\right)=m \neq 0$. Hence, it follows that $H^{q}(\mathrm{~g}, A)=0$ for all $q \geqq 0 . \quad \square$

We do not offer exercises on this section, but we do recommend the reader to study a proof of Theorem 5.2!

## 6. The two Whitehead Lemmas

Again let $\mathfrak{g}$ be a finite dimensional Lie algebra and let $A$ be a finite dimensional $\mathfrak{g}$-module. We prove the first Whitehead Lemma:

Proposition 6.1. Let $\mathfrak{g}$ be semi-simple, then $H^{1}(\mathfrak{g}, A)=0$.
Proof. Suppose there is a $\mathfrak{g}$-module $A$ with $H^{1}(\mathfrak{g}, A) \neq 0$. Then there is such a $\mathfrak{g}$-module $A$ with minimal $K$-dimension. If $A$ is not simple, then there is a proper submodule $0 \neq A^{\prime} \subset A$. Consider $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A / A^{\prime} \rightarrow 0$
and the associated long exact cohomology sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow H^{1}\left(\mathfrak{g}, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H^{1}(\mathfrak{g}, A) \rightarrow H^{1}\left(\mathfrak{g}, A / A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

Since $\operatorname{dim}_{K} A^{\prime}<\operatorname{dim}_{K} A$ and $\operatorname{dim}_{K} A_{i}^{\prime} A^{\prime}<\operatorname{dim}_{K} A$ it follows that

$$
H^{1}\left(\mathfrak{g}, A^{\prime}\right)=H^{1}\left(\mathfrak{g}, A / A^{\prime}\right)=0
$$

Hence $H^{1}(\mathfrak{g}, A)=0$, which is a contradiction. It follows that $A$ has to be simple. But then $A$ has to be a trivial g -module by Proposition 5.6. (Indeed it has to be $K$; but we make no use of this fact.) We then have $H^{1}(\mathfrak{g}, A) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(\mathrm{~g}_{a b}, A\right)$ by Proposition 2.2. Now consider

$$
[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}] \mapsto \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}_{a b}
$$

By Corollary 5.4 the ideal $[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]$ has a complement which plainly must be isomorphic to $\mathfrak{g}_{a b}$, in particular it must be abelian. Since $g$ is semisimple, $\mathfrak{g}_{a b}=0$. Hence $H^{1}(\mathfrak{g}, A) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(\mathfrak{g}_{a b}, A\right)=0$, which is a contradiction. It follows that $H^{1}(\mathfrak{g}, A)=0$ for all $\mathfrak{g}$-modules $A$.

Theorem 6.2 (Weyl). Every ( finite-dimensional) module A over a semisimple Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ is a direct sum of simple $\mathfrak{g}$-modules.

Proof. Using induction on the $K$-dimension of $A$, we have only to show that every non-trivial submodule $0 \neq A^{\prime} \subset A$ is a direct summand in $A$. To that end we consider the short exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the induced sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(A, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(A^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow 0 \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is exact since $K$ is a field. We remark that each of the vector spaces in (6.2) is finite-dimensional and can be made into a $\mathfrak{g}$-module by the following procedure. Let $B, C$ be g -modules; then $\operatorname{Hom}_{K}(B, C)$ is a $\mathfrak{g}$-module by $\left(x f^{\prime}\right)(b)=x f(b)-f(x b), x \in \mathfrak{g}, b \in B$. With this understanding, (6.2) becomes an exact sequence of $\mathfrak{g}$-modules. Note that the invariant elements in $\operatorname{Hom}_{K}(B, C)$ are precisely the $g$-module homomorphisms from $B$ to $C$. Now consider the long exact cohomology sequence arising from (6.2)

$$
\begin{align*}
0 & \rightarrow H^{0}\left(\mathfrak{g}, \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, A^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow H^{0}\left(\mathfrak{g} . \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(A . A^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
& \rightarrow H^{0}\left(\mathfrak{g}, \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(A^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow H^{1}\left(\mathfrak{g}, \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, A^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow \cdots \tag{6.3}
\end{align*}
$$

By Proposition 6.1, $H^{1}\left(\mathfrak{g}, \operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, A^{\prime}\right)\right)$ is trivial. Passing to the interpretation of $H^{0}$ as the group of invariant elements, we obtain an epimorphism

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{g}}\left(A, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{g}}\left(A^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right) .
$$

It follows that there is a $\mathbf{g}$-module homomorphism $A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ inducing the identity in $A^{\prime}$; hence (6.1) splits. $\left.\quad\right]$

The reader should compare this argument with the proof of Maschke's Theorem (Theorem VI.16.6).

We proceed with the second Whitehead Lemma.
Proposition 6.3. Let $\mathfrak{g}$ be a semi-simple Lie algebra and let A be a ( finite-dimensional) $\mathfrak{g}$-module. Then $H^{2}(\mathfrak{g}, A)=0$.

Proof. We begin as in the proof of Proposition 6.1. Suppose there is a $\mathfrak{g}$-module $A$ with $H^{2}(\mathfrak{g}, A) \neq 0$. Then there is such a $\mathfrak{g}$-module $A$ with minimal $K$-dimension. If $A$ is not simple, then there is a proper submodule $0 \neq A^{\prime} \subset A$. Consider $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A / A^{\prime} \rightarrow 0$ and the associated long exact cohomology sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow H^{2}\left(\mathrm{~g}, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H^{2}(\mathrm{~g}, A) \rightarrow H^{2}\left(\mathfrak{g}, A_{i}^{\prime} A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

Since $A^{\prime}$ is a proper submodule, the minimality property of $A$ leads to the contradiction $H^{2}(\mathfrak{g}, A)=0$. Hence $A$ has to be simple. But then $A$ has to be a trivial $\mathfrak{g}$-module by Proposition 5.6. Since $K$ is the only simple trivial $\mathfrak{g}$-module, we have to show that $H^{2}(\mathfrak{g}, K)=0$. This will yield the desired contradiction.

By the interpretation of $H^{2}$ given in Theorem 3.3, we have to show that every central extension

$$
\begin{equation*}
K \xrightarrow{i} \mathfrak{i} \mathfrak{b} \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{p}_{\rightarrow}} \mathfrak{g} \tag{6.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ splits.
Let $s: \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ be a $K$-linear section of (6.4), so that $p s=1_{\mathfrak{g}}$. Using the section $s$, we define, in the $K$-vector space underlying $\mathfrak{b}$, a $\mathfrak{g}$-module structure by

$$
x \cdot y=[s x, y], x \in \mathfrak{g}, y \in \mathfrak{h}
$$

where the bracket is in $\mathfrak{h}$. The module axioms are easily verified once one notes that $s\left(\left[x, x^{\prime}\right]\right)=\left[s x, s x^{\prime}\right]+k$, where $k \in K$. Clearly $K$ is a submodule of the $\mathfrak{g}$-module $\mathfrak{h}$ so defined.

Now regard $\mathfrak{h}$ as a $\mathfrak{g}$-module. By Theorem $6.2 K$ is a direct summand in $\mathfrak{h}$, say $\mathfrak{h}=K \oplus \mathfrak{h}^{\prime}$. It is easily seen that this $\mathfrak{b}^{\prime}$ is in fact a Lie subalgebra of $\mathfrak{b}$; it is then isomorphic to $\mathfrak{g}$. Hence $\mathfrak{h} \cong K \oplus \mathfrak{g}$ as Lie algebras and the extension (6.4) splits. $\quad]$

We shall shortly use Proposition 6.3 to prove Theorem 6.7 below (the Levi-Malcev Theorem). However, in order to be able to state that theorem, we shall need some additional definitions. First we shall introduce the notion of derived series, derived length, solvability, etc. for Lie algebras. It will be quite obvious to the reader that these notions as well as certain basic results are merely translations from group theory.

Definition. Given a Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$. we define its derived series $\mathfrak{g}_{0}, \mathfrak{g}_{1}, \ldots$ inductively by

$$
\mathfrak{g}_{0}=\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}_{n+1}=\left[\mathfrak{g}_{n}, \mathfrak{g}_{n}\right], \quad n=0,1, \ldots,
$$

where $[S, T]$, for any subsets $S$ and $T$ of $\mathfrak{g}$, denotes the Lie subalgebra generated by all $[s, t]$ for $s \in S, t \in T$.

We leave it to the reader to prove that $\mathfrak{g}_{n}$ is automatically an ideal in $\mathfrak{g}$.
Definition. A Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ is called solvable, if there is an integer $n \geqq 0$ with $\mathfrak{g}_{n}=\{0\}$. The first integer $n$ for which $\mathfrak{g}_{n}=\{0\}$ is called the derived length of $\mathfrak{g}$. The (easy) proofs of the following two lemmas are left to the reader.

Lemma 6.4. In the exact sequence $\mathfrak{h} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g} / \mathfrak{h}$ of Lie algebras, $\mathfrak{g}$ is solvable if and only if $\mathfrak{h}$ and $\mathfrak{g} / \mathfrak{h}$ are solvable.

Lemma 6.5. If the ideals $\mathfrak{a}$ and $\mathfrak{b}$ of $\mathfrak{g}$ are solvable then the ideal $\mathfrak{a}+\mathfrak{b}$ generated by $\mathfrak{a}$ and $\mathfrak{b}$ is solvable. $\square$

An immediate consequence of Lemma 6.5 is the important fact that every finite-dimensional Lie algebra $g$ has a unique maximal solvable ideal $r$. Indeed take $r$ to be the ideal generated by all solvable ideals of $\mathfrak{g}$.

Definition. The unique maximal solvable ideal $\mathfrak{r}$ of $g$ is called the radical of $\mathfrak{g}$.

Proposition 6.6. $\mathrm{g} / \mathrm{r}$ is semi-simple.
Proof. Let $\mathfrak{a} / \mathfrak{r}$ be an abelian ideal of $\mathfrak{g} / \mathfrak{r}$; then the sequence $\mathfrak{r} \rightarrow \mathfrak{a} \rightarrow \mathbf{a} / \mathbf{r}$ has both ends solvable, hence $a$ is solvable by Lemma 6.4. By the maximality of $r$, it follows that $\mathfrak{a}=r$, whence $\mathfrak{g} / \mathrm{r}$ is semi-simple.

Theorem 6.7 (Levi-Malcev). Every (finite-dimensional) Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ is the split extension of a semi-simple Lie algebra by the radical $\mathfrak{r}$ of $\mathfrak{g}$.

Proof. We proceed by induction on the derived length of $\mathfrak{r}$. If $\mathbf{r}$ is abelian, then it is a $\mathfrak{g} / \mathrm{r}$-module and $H^{2}(\mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{r}, \mathfrak{r})=0$ by Proposition 6.3. Since $H^{2}$ classifies extensions with abelian kernel the extension $\mathfrak{r} \longrightarrow \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g} / \mathfrak{r}$ splits. If $\mathfrak{r}$ is non-abelian with derived length $n \geqq 2$, we look at the following diagram


The bottom sequence splits by the first part of the proof, say by $s: \mathfrak{g} / \mathfrak{r} \rightarrow \mathrm{g} /[\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{r}]$. Let $\mathfrak{h} /[\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{r}]$ be the image of $\mathrm{g} / \mathrm{r}$ under $s$; clearly $s: \mathfrak{g} / \mathfrak{r} \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{h}} /[\mathrm{r}, \mathfrak{r}]$ and $[\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{r}]$ must be the radical of $\mathfrak{h}$. Now consider the extension $[\mathfrak{r}, \mathfrak{r}] \mapsto \mathfrak{h} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h} /[\mathrm{r}, \mathfrak{r}]$. Since $[\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{r}]$ has derived length $n-1$. it follows, by the inductive hypothesis, that the extension must split, say by $q: \mathfrak{h} /[\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}] \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$. Finally it is easy to see that the top sequence of (6.5) splits by $t=q s, t: \mathfrak{g} / \mathfrak{r} \sim \mathfrak{h} /[\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{r}] \rightarrow \mathfrak{h} \subset \mathfrak{g} . \quad \square$

## Exercises:

6.1. Let $\mathbf{g}$ be a Lie algebra. finite-dimensional over a field of characteristic 0 . Use the exact sequence of Exercise 3.1 and the Whitehead Lemmas to prove that $\mathfrak{r} \cap[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]=[\mathfrak{g}, \mathrm{r}]$, where r is the radical of $\mathfrak{g}$. $[\mathfrak{g}, \mathrm{r}]$ is called the nilpotent radical).
6.2. Let $\beta: \mathfrak{g} \times \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow K$ be the Killing form of the semi-simple Lie algebra $g$ over the field $K$ of characteristic 0 . Show that

$$
f(x, y, z)=\beta([x, y], z), \quad x, y, z \in \mathfrak{g}
$$

defines a 3-cocycle in $\operatorname{Hom}_{g}(C, K)$, where $C$ denotes the resolution of Theorem 4.2. In fact (see [8, p. 113]), $f$ is not a coboundary. Deduce that $H^{3}(\mathrm{~g}, K) \neq 0$.
6.3. Using Exercise 6.2 show that, for $g$ semi-simple, $H^{2}(\mathrm{~g}, I \mathrm{~g}) \neq 0$. ( $I \mathrm{~g}$ is not finite dimensional!)
6.4. Prove Lemmas $6.4,6.5$.
6.5. Establish the step in the proof of Theorem 6.7 which asserts that $[r, r]$ is the radical of $\mathfrak{b}$.

## 7. Appendix: Hilbert's Chain-of-Syzygies Theorem

In this appendix we prove a famous theorem due to Hilbert. We choose to insert this theorem at this point because we have made the Koszul resolution available in this chapter. Of course. Hilbert's original formulation did not refer explicitly to the concepts of homological algebra! However, it is easy to translate his formulation, in terms of presentations of polynomial ideals. into that adopted below.

Definition. Let $\Lambda$ be a ring. We say that the global dimension of $\Lambda$ is less than or equal to $m(\mathrm{gl} . \operatorname{dim} . \Lambda \leqq m)$ if for all $\Lambda$-modules $A$ and all projective resolutions $P$ of $A, K_{m}(A)=\operatorname{ker}\left(P_{m-1} \rightarrow P_{m-2}\right)$ is projective. Thus gl.dim. $\Lambda \leqq m$ if and only if $\operatorname{Ext}_{\Lambda}^{n}(A, B)=0$ for all $A, B$ and $n>m$. Of course we say that gl. $\operatorname{dim} . ~ \Lambda=m$ if gl.dim. $\Lambda \leqq m$ but gl.dim. $\Lambda \not \leq m-1$. (See Exercise IV.8.8.)

Let $K$ be a field and let $P=K\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right]$ be the ring of polynomials over $K$ in the indeterminates $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$. We denote by $P_{j}$ the subspace of homogeneous polynomials of degree $j$, and consider $P=\bigoplus_{j=0}^{\infty} P_{j}$ as internally graded (see Exercise V.1.6). Consequently, we consider (internally) graded $P$-modules; an (internally) graded $P$-module $A$ is a $P$-module $A$ which is a direct sum $A=\bigoplus_{j=0}^{\infty} A_{j}$ of abelian groups $A_{j}$, such that $x_{i} A_{j} \subseteq A_{j+1}, i=1,2, \ldots, m$. The elements of $A_{j}$ are called homogeneous of degree $j$. It is clear how to extend the definition of global dimension
from rings to internally graded rings: the definition employs. of course, the concept of (internally) graded modules. Then Hilbert's theorem reads:

Theorem 7.1. The global dimension of $P=K\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right]$ is $m$. Moreover, every projective graded $P$-module is free.

The proof of this theorem will be executed in several steps; not all these steps require that $K$ be a field, so we will specify the assumptions at each stage. Now $K$ can be considered as a graded $P$-module through the augmentation $\varepsilon: P \rightarrow K$. which associates with each polynomial its constant term. Thus $K$ is concentrated in degree 0 .

Note that $P$ may be regarded as the universal enveloping algebra of the abelian Lie algebra $\mathfrak{a}$, where $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$ form a $K$-basis of $a$. The Lie algebra resolution for $\mathfrak{a}$ of Theorem 4.2 is known as the Koszul resolution, or Koszul complex. By Theorem 4.2 we have

Proposition 7.2 (Koszul). Let $D_{n}=P \otimes_{K} E_{n}$ a. and let $d_{n}: D_{n} \rightarrow D_{n-1}$ be defined by

$$
d_{n}\left(p \otimes\left\langle x_{j_{1}}, \ldots x_{j_{n}}\right\rangle\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n}(-1)^{i+1} p x_{j_{i}} \otimes\left\langle x_{j_{1}}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{j_{i}}, \ldots, x_{j_{n}}\right\rangle
$$

where $j_{1}<j_{2}<\cdots<j_{n}$. Then $D: 0 \rightarrow D_{m} \rightarrow D_{m-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow D_{0}$ is a $P$-free resolution of $K$ regarded as graded $P$-module. $]$

We note in passing that Proposition 7.2 admits a fairly easy direct proof (see Exercise 7.1).

Proposition 7.3. Let $M$ be a graded $P$-module. If $K$ is a commutative ring and if $M \otimes_{P} K=0$ then $M=0$.

Proof. Let $I$ be the augmentation ideal in $P$, that is.

$$
I \xrightarrow{\mu} P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} K
$$

is exact. Then the homogeneous non-zero elements of $I$ all have positive degree. Now the sequence

$$
M \otimes_{P} I \xrightarrow{\mu_{*}} M \otimes_{P} P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_{*}} M \otimes_{P} K \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact so that the hypothesis implies that

$$
\mu_{*}: M \otimes_{P} I \rightarrow M \otimes_{P} P
$$

is surjective. Moreover, $M \otimes_{P} P \cong M$ and, when the codomain of $\mu_{*}$ is interpreted as $M, \mu_{*}$ takes the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu_{*}(m \otimes f)=m f, m \in M . f \in I . \tag{7.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now suppose $M \neq 0$, and let $m \neq 0$ be an element of $M$ of minimal degree. Then (7.4) leads to an immediate contradiction with the statement
that $\mu_{*}$ is surjective. For if

$$
m=\mu_{*} \sum_{i=1}^{s}\left(m_{i} \otimes f_{i}\right),
$$

where we may assume $m_{i}, f_{i}$ homogeneous and non-zero, then $m=\sum_{i=1}^{s} m_{i} f_{i}, \operatorname{deg} f_{i} \geqq 1$, so $\operatorname{deg} m_{i}<\operatorname{deg} m$. contrary to the minimality of the degree of $m$.

This proposition leads to the key theorem.
Theorem 7.4. Let $B$ be a graded P-module. If $K$ is a field and if $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{P}(B, K)=0$ then $B$ is free.

Proof. It is plain that every element of $B \otimes_{P} K$ can be expressed as $b \otimes 1, b \in B$, where 1 is the unity element of $K$. Thus we may select a basis $\left\{b_{i} \otimes 1\right\}, i \in I$, for $B \otimes_{P} K$ as vector space over $K$. Let $F$ be the free graded $P$-module generated by $\left\{b_{i}\right\}, i \in I$, and let $\varphi: F \rightarrow B$ be the homomorphism of graded $P$-modules given by $\varphi\left(b_{i}\right)=b_{i}, i \in I$. Notice that $\varphi$ induces the identity $\varphi_{*}$,

$$
\varphi_{*}=1: F \otimes_{P} K \rightarrow B \otimes_{P} K .
$$

We show that $\varphi$ is an isomorphism. First $\varphi$ is surjective. For, given the exact sequence $F \stackrel{\mathscr{S}}{ } B \rightarrow C$, we obtain the exact sequence

$$
F \otimes_{P} K \xrightarrow{\mathbf{1}} B \otimes_{P} K \rightarrow C \otimes_{P} K
$$

so that $C \otimes_{P} K=0$ and hence, by Proposition 7.3, $C=0$. Next $\varphi$ is injective. For, given the exact sequence $R \hookrightarrow F \stackrel{\Phi}{\rightarrow} B$, we obtain the exact sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{P}(B, K) \rightarrow R \otimes_{P} K \rightarrow F \otimes_{P} K \xrightarrow{1} B \otimes_{P} K .
$$

Since $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{P}(B, K)=0$ it follows that $R \otimes_{P} K=0$ and, by a second application of Proposition 7.3, $R=0$.

Proof of Theorem 7.1. Let $B$ be any projective graded $P$-module. Then $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{P}(B, K)=0$ and $B$ is free by Theorem 7.4, thus proving the second assertion of Theorem 7.1. By Proposition 7.2 it follows that $\operatorname{Tor}_{m+1}^{P}(A, K)=0$ for every graded $P$-module $A$. But

$$
\operatorname{Tor}_{m+1}^{P}(A, K)=\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{P}\left(K_{m}(A), K\right)
$$

Hence Theorem 7.4 implies that $K_{m}(A)$ is free, so that gl.dim. $P \leqq m$. To complete the proof of the theorem it remains to exhibit modules $A, B$ such that $\operatorname{Tor}_{m}^{P}(A, B) \neq 0$. In fact, we show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Tor}_{m}^{P}(K, K) \cong K \tag{7.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

For, reverting to the Koszul resolution, we observe that $E_{m} a=K$, so that $D_{m} \otimes_{P} K \cong K$; and that $d_{m} \otimes 1: D_{m} \otimes_{P} K \rightarrow D_{m-1} \otimes_{P} K$ is the zero homomorphism since $d_{m}\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right\rangle=\Sigma \pm x_{i}\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, \hat{x}_{i}, \ldots, x_{m}\right\rangle$ and $x_{i} K=0$. Thus (7.2) is established and the Hilbert chain-of-syzygies theorem is completely proved. $]$

## Exercises:

7.1. Give a direct proof of Proposition 7.2 by constructing a homotopy similar to the one used in the proof of Lemma 4.1.
7.2. Let $J$ be a graded ideal in the polynomial algebra $P=K\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$, i.e. an internally graded submodule of the $P$-module $P$. Prove that proj.dim. $J \leqq n-1$. (Hint: Consider a projective resolution of $J$ and extend it by $J \hookrightarrow P \rightarrow P ; J$. Then use Exercise IV.7.7.)
7.3. Show that a flat graded $P$-module is free.

## VIII. Exact Couples and Spectral Sequences

In this chapter we develop the theory of spectral sequences: applications will be found in Section 9 and in Chapter IX. Our procedure will be to base the theory on the study of exact couples, but we do not claim, of course, that this is the unique way to present the theory; indeed, an alternative approach is to be found e.g. in [7]. Spectral sequences themselves frequently arise from filtered differential objects in an abelian category - for example, filtered chain complexes. In such cases it is naturally quite possible to pass directly from the filtered differential object to the spectral sequence without the intervention of the exact couple. However, we believe that the explicit study of the exact couple illuminates the nature of the spectral sequence and of its limit.

Also, we do not wish to confine ourselves to those spectral sequences which arise from filtrations although our actual applications will be concerned with such a situation. For many of the spectral sequences of great importance in algebraic topology refer to geometric situations which naturally give rise to exact couples, but not to filtered chain complexes. Thus we may fairly claim that the appreach to spectral sequences via exact couples is not only illuminating but also of rather universal significance.

We do not introduce grading into the exact couple until we come to discuss convergence questions. In this way we simplify the description of the algebraic machinery, and exploit the grading (or, as will be the case, bigrading) precisely where it plays a key role in the theory. We distinguish carefully between two aspects of the convergence question for a given spectral sequence $E=\left\{\left(E_{n}, d_{n}\right)\right\}$. First, we may ask whether the spectral sequence converges finitely; that is, whether $E_{\infty}$, the limit term, is reached after a finite number of steps through the spectral sequence. Second, we may ask whether $E_{\alpha}$ is what we want it to be; thus, in the case of a filtered chain complex $C$, we would want $E_{\alpha}$ to be related to $H(C)$ in a perfectly definite way. Now the first question may be decided by consulting the exact couple; the second question involves entities not represented in the exact couple. Thus it is necessary to enrich the algebraic system, and replace exact couples by Rees systems (Section 6), in order to be able to discuss both aspects of the convergence
question. We emphasize that those topological situations referred to above - as well, of course, as the study of filtered differential objects which lead naturally to the study of exact couples lead just as naturally to the study of Rees systems.

We admit that our discussion of convergence questions is more general than would be required by the applications we make of spectral sequences. However, this appears to us to be justified, first, by the expectation that the reader will wish to apply spectral sequences beyond the explicit scope of this book - and even, perhaps, develop the theory itself further - and, second, by the important concepts of (categorical) limits and colimits thereby thrown into prominence, together with their relation to general properties of adjoint functors (see II.7). However the reader only interested in the applications made in this book may omit Sections 6, 7, 8 .

Although we use the language of abelian categories in stating our results, we encourage the reader, if he would thereby feel more comfortable, to think of categories of (graded, bigraded) modules. Indeed, many of our arguments are formulated in a manner appropriate to this concrete setting. Those readers who prefer entirely "categorical" proofs are referred to [10] for those they cannot supply themselves. The embedding theorem for abelian categories [37, p. 151] would actually permit us to think of the objects of our category as sets, thus possessing elements, insofar as arguments not involving limiting processes are concerned; however, many of the arguments are clearer when expressed in purely categorical language, expecially those involving categorical duality.

We draw the reader's attention to a divergence of notation between this text and many others in respect of the indexing of terms in the spectral sequence associated with a filtered chain complex. Details of this notation are given at the end of Section 2, where we also offer a justification of the conventions we have adopted.

## 1. Exact Couples and Spectral Sequences

Let $\mathfrak{A}$ be an abelian category. A differential object in $\mathfrak{A}$ is a pair $(A, d)$ consisting of an object $A$ of $\mathfrak{A}$ and an endomorphism $d: A \rightarrow A$ such that $d^{2}=0$. We may construct a category $(\mathfrak{A}, d)$ of differential objects of $\mathfrak{A}$ in the obvious way; moreover, we may construct the homology object associated with $(A, d)$, namely, $H(A, d)=\operatorname{ker} d / \operatorname{im} d$, so that $H$ is an additive functor $H:(\mathfrak{U}, d) \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}$. We may abbreviate $(A, d)$ to $A$ and simply write $H(A)$ for the homology object. We will also talk of the cycles and boundaries of $A$, writing $Z(A), B(A)$ for the appropriate objects of $\mathfrak{A}$. Thus $H(A)=Z(A) / B(A)$.

Definition. A spectral sequence in $\mathfrak{A}$ is a sequence of differential objects of $\mathfrak{U}$,

$$
E=\left\{\left(E_{n}, d_{n}\right)\right\}, \quad . \quad n=0,1,2, \ldots,
$$

such that $H\left(E_{n}, d_{n}\right)=E_{n+1}, n=0,1, \ldots$ A morphism $\varphi: E \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ of spectral sequences is a sequence of morphisms $\varphi_{n}: E_{n} \rightarrow E_{n}^{\prime}$ of $(\mathcal{A}, d)$ such that $H\left(\varphi_{n}\right)=\varphi_{n+1}, n=0,1, \ldots$. We write $\mathfrak{E}$, or $\mathfrak{E}(\mathfrak{Q})$, for the category of spectral sequences in $\mathfrak{A}$.

Instead of showing directly how spectral sequences arise in homological algebra, we will introduce the category of exact couples in $\mathfrak{A}$ and a functor from this category to $\mathfrak{E}$; we will then show how exact couples arise.

Definition. An exact couple $E C=\{D, E, \alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ in $\mathfrak{A}$ is an exact triangle of morphisms in $A$,


A morphism $\Phi$ from $E C$ to $E C^{\prime}=\left\{D^{\prime}, E^{\prime}, \alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime}\right\}$ is a pair of morphisms $\kappa: D \rightarrow D^{\prime}, \lambda: E \rightarrow E^{\prime}$, such that

$$
\alpha^{\prime} \kappa=\kappa \alpha, \beta^{\prime} \kappa=\lambda \beta, \gamma^{\prime} \lambda=\kappa \gamma .
$$

We write $\mathfrak{C C}(\mathfrak{A})$, or briefly $\mathfrak{C} \mathbb{C}$, for the category of exact couples in $\mathfrak{A}$. We now define the spectral sequence functor SS: $\mathfrak{E C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{E}$. In this section we will give a very direct description of this functor; in Section 4 we will adopt a more categorical viewpoint and exhibit quite explicitly the way in which the spectral sequence is contained in the entire ladder of an exact couple.

We proceed, then, to define the spectral sequence functor. Thus, given the exact couple (1.1), we define $d: E \rightarrow E$ by $d=\beta \gamma$. Since $\gamma \beta=0$, it is plain that $d^{2}=0$, so that $(E, d)$ is a differential object of $\mathfrak{Q}$. We will show how to construct a spectral sequence $\left(E_{n}, d_{n}\right)$ such that $\left(E_{0}, d_{0}\right)=(E, d)$. Set $D_{1}=\alpha D, E_{1}=H(E, d)$ and define morphisms $\alpha_{1}, \beta_{1}, \gamma_{1}$ as follows:

$$
\left.\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha_{1}: D_{1} \rightarrow D_{1} & \text { is induced by } \alpha,  \tag{1.2}\\
\beta_{1}: D_{1} \rightarrow E_{1} & \text { is induced by } \beta \alpha^{-1}, \\
\gamma_{1}: E_{1} \rightarrow D_{1} & \text { is induced by } \gamma .
\end{array}\right\}
$$

These descriptions are adapted to a concrete abelian category (e.g., a category of graded modules). The reader who wishes to express the argument in a manner appropriate to any abelian category may either turn to Section 4 or may assiduously translate the arguments presented below.

Thus the meaning of $\alpha_{1}$ presents no problem. As to $\beta_{1}$, we mean that we set

$$
\beta_{1}(\alpha x)=[\beta x],
$$

where [ $z$ ] refers to the homology class of the cycle $z$; and, as to $\gamma_{1}$, we mean that

$$
\gamma_{1}[z]=\gamma(z) .
$$

To justify the description of $\beta_{1}$ we must first show that $\beta x$ is a cycle; but $(\beta \gamma) \beta=0$. We must then show that $[\beta x]$ depends only on $\alpha x$ or, equivalently, that $\beta x$ is a boundary if $\alpha x=0$. But if $\alpha x=0$, then $x=\gamma y, y \in E$, so that $\beta x=\beta \gamma y=d y$ and is a boundary. To justify the description of $\gamma_{1}$ we must first show that $\gamma(z)$ belongs to $D_{1}$. But $D_{1}=\operatorname{ker} \beta$ and $\beta \gamma(z)=0$ since $z$ is a cycle. We must then show that $\gamma(z)$ depends only on $[z]$ or, equivalently, that $\gamma(z)=0$ if $z$ is a boundary. But if $z=\beta \gamma(y)$. then $\gamma(z)=\gamma \beta \gamma(y)=0$. Thus the definitions (1.2) make sense and. plainly, $\boldsymbol{\beta}_{1}$ and $\gamma_{1}$ and. of course, $\alpha_{1}$ are homomorphisms.

Theorem 1.1. The couple
is exact.


Proof. Exactness at top left $D_{1}: \alpha_{1} \gamma_{1}[z]=\alpha \gamma(z)=0$. Conversely, if $x \in D_{1}=\alpha D$ and $\alpha x=0$, then $x \in \operatorname{ker} \beta$ and $x=\gamma y, y \in E$. Thus $d y=\beta \gamma y=0, y$ is a cycle of $E$, and $x=\gamma_{1}[y]$.

Exactness at top right $D_{1}: \beta_{1} \alpha_{1}(x)=\beta_{1}(\alpha x)=[\beta x] ;$ but $x \in D_{1}=\operatorname{ker} \beta$, so $\beta x=0$, so $\beta_{1} \alpha_{1}=0$. Conversely, if $\beta_{1}(\alpha x)=0$ then $\beta x=\beta \gamma y, y \in E$, so $x=\gamma y^{\prime}+x_{0}$, where $x_{0} \in \operatorname{ker} \beta=D_{1}$. Thus $\alpha x=\alpha x_{0}=\alpha_{1}\left(x_{0}\right)$.

Exactness at $E_{1}: \quad \gamma_{1} \beta_{1}(\alpha x)=\gamma_{1}[\beta x]=\gamma \beta(x)=0$. Conversely, if $\gamma_{1}[z]=0$, then $z=\beta x$, so $[z]=\beta_{1}(\alpha x)$.

We call (1.3) the derived couple of (1.1). We draw attention to the relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{1}=\gamma^{-1}(\alpha D) / \beta\left(\alpha^{-1}(0)\right) \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

which follows immediately from the fact that $E_{1}=H(E)=Z(E) / B(E)$.
By iterating the process of passing to the derived couple, we obtain a sequence of exact couples $\boldsymbol{E C}\left(=E C_{0}\right), E C_{1}, \ldots, E C_{n}, \ldots$, where

$$
E C_{n}=\left\{D_{n}, E_{n} ; \alpha_{n}, \beta_{n}, \gamma_{n}\right\},
$$

and thus a spectral sequence $\left(E_{n}, d_{n}\right), n=0,1, \ldots$, where $d_{n}=\beta_{n} \gamma_{n}$. This defines the spectral sequence functor

$$
S S: \mathfrak{E} \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{E} ;
$$

we leave to the reader the verification that $S S$ is indeed a functor. An easy induction establishes the following theorem.

Theorem 1.2. $E_{n}=\gamma^{-1}\left(\alpha^{n} D\right) / \beta\left(\alpha^{-n}(0)\right)$, and $d_{n}: E_{n} \rightarrow E_{n}$ is induced by $\beta \alpha^{-n} \gamma$.

Indeed we have, for each $n$, the exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha^{n} D \xrightarrow{\alpha_{n}} \alpha^{n} D \xrightarrow{\beta_{n}} E_{n} \xrightarrow{\gamma_{n}} \alpha^{n} D \xrightarrow{\alpha_{n}} \alpha^{n} D, \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\alpha_{n}$ is induced by $\alpha_{1} \beta_{n}$ is induced by $\beta \alpha^{-n}$, and $\gamma_{n}$ is induced by $\gamma$. Thus we have a short exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \alpha_{n} \xrightarrow{\bar{\beta}_{n}} E_{n} \xrightarrow{\bar{\gamma}_{n}} \operatorname{ker} \alpha_{n} \rightarrow 0 \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\bar{\beta}_{n}, \bar{\gamma}_{n}$ are induced by $\beta_{n}, \gamma_{n}$, and

$$
\begin{gather*}
\operatorname{coker} \alpha_{n}=\alpha^{n} D / \alpha^{n+1} D \cong D / \alpha D \cup \alpha^{-n}(0)  \tag{1.7}\\
\operatorname{ker} \alpha_{n}=\alpha^{n} D \cap \alpha^{-1}(0) \tag{1.8}
\end{gather*}
$$

We close this introductory section by giving a description of the limit term of a spectral sequence. We will explain later in just what sense $E_{\infty}$ is a limit (Section 5). We will also explain how, under reasonable conditions frequently encountered in practice, the limit is often achieved by a finite convergence process, so that $E_{\infty}$ is actually to be found within the spectral sequence itself (Section 3). However it does seem advisable to present the construction of $E_{\infty}$ at this stage in order to be able to explain the basic rationale for spectral sequences; in applications it is usually the case that we have considerable (even, perhaps, complete) knowledge of the early terms of a spectral sequence and $E_{\alpha}$ is closely related to an object which we wish to study; sometimes, conversely, we use our knowledge of $E_{\alpha}$ to shed light on the early terms of the spectral sequence. An important special case of the relation of $E_{0}$ to $E_{\infty}$ is given in the next section. The relation between $E_{\alpha_{1}}$ and the spectral sequence itself will be discussed further in Sections 3 and 6.

Our description of $E_{\infty}$ will again be predicated on the assumption that $\mathfrak{A}$ is a category of modules. Since, in general, $\boldsymbol{E}_{\infty}$ involves a limiting process over an infinite set, this is really a loss of generality, which will be made good in Section 5. However, the description of $E_{\infty}$ in the concrete case is much easier to understand, and shows us clearly how $E_{\infty}$ is a sort of glorified homology object for the entire spectral sequence.

Let us write $E_{n, n+1}$ for the subobject of $E_{n}$ consisting of those elements of $E_{n}$ which are cycles for $d_{n}$, thus

$$
E_{n, n+1}=Z\left(E_{n}\right)
$$

(The notations of this paragraph will be justified in Section 4.) There is then an epimorphism $\sigma=\sigma_{n, n+1}: E_{n, n+1} \rightarrow E_{n+1}$, and we may consider the subobject $E_{n, n+2}$ of $E_{n, n+1}$ consisting of those elements $x$ of $E_{n, n+1}$
such that $\sigma(x)$ is a cycle for $d_{n+1}$,

$$
E_{n, n+2}=\left\{x \in E_{n, n+1} \mid \sigma(x) \in E_{n+1, n+2}=Z\left(E_{n+1}\right)\right\} .
$$

If $x \in E_{n, n+2}$, then $\sigma^{2}(x) \in E_{n+2}$ and we define $E_{n, n+3}$ by

$$
E_{n, n+3}=\left\{x \in E_{n, n+2} \mid \sigma^{2}(x) \in E_{n+2, n+3}=Z\left(E_{n+2}\right)\right\} .
$$

By an abuse of language, we say that $x \in E_{n, n+1}$ if it is a cycle for $d_{n}$; $x \in E_{n, n+2}$ if it is a cycle for $d_{n}, d_{n+1} ; x \in E_{n, n+3}$ if it is a cycle for $d_{n}, d_{n+1}, d_{n+2} ; \ldots$. We may thus construct the subobject $E_{n, \alpha}$ of $E_{n}$ consisting of those $x$ in $E_{n}$ which are cycles for every $d_{r}, r \geqq n$. Plainly $\sigma=\sigma_{n, n+1}$ maps $E_{n, \alpha}$ onto $E_{n+1, \infty}$ so we get the sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow E_{n, \infty} \stackrel{\sigma}{\rightarrow} E_{n+1 . \alpha} \xrightarrow{\sigma} E_{n+2 . \infty} \rightarrow \cdots
$$

and we define

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{\infty}=\underset{n}{\lim }\left(E_{n, \infty}, \sigma\right) . \tag{1.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Explicitly, an element of $E_{\infty}$ is represented by an element $x$ of some $E_{n, \infty}$ : and $x$ represents 0 if and only if it is a boundary for some $d_{r}(r \geqq n)$. Thus we may say that $x \in E_{n}, x \neq 0$, survives to infinity if it is a cycle for every $d_{r}, r \geqq n$, and a boundary for $n o d_{r}, r \geqq n$; and $E_{\infty}$ consists, as a set, precisely of 0 and equivalence classes of elements which survive to infinity.

It is again plain that $E_{\infty}$ depends functorially on the spectral sequence $E$, yielding a functor

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim : \mathfrak{E} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}, \tag{1.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

at least in the case when $\mathfrak{A}$ is a category of modules. For an arbitrary abelian category $\mathfrak{A l}$ we need, of course, to rephrase our description of the functor lim and to put some conditions on the category $\mathfrak{A}$ guaranteeing the existence of this functor. Such considerations will not, however, be our immediate concern, since we will first be interested in the case of finite convergence. This is also the case of primary concern for us in view of the applications we wish to make.

## Exercises:

1.1. Prove Theorem 1.2.
1.2. Establish (1.5).
1.3. Show that $E_{n}$ is determined, up to module extension, by $\alpha: D \rightarrow D$.
1.4. Show that $S S: \mathbb{E C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{E}$ is an additive functor of additive categories. Are the categories $\mathfrak{E C}$ © $\mathbb{E}$ abelian?
1.5. Let $\boldsymbol{C}$ be a free abelian chain complex and let $\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\mu} \xrightarrow[\mathbb{Z}]{\rightarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{\boldsymbol{m}}$ be the obvious exact sequence. Obtain an exact couple

and interpret the differentials of the resulting spectral sequence.
1.6. Carry out a similar exercise with $\operatorname{Hom}\left(C, \mathbb{Z}_{m}\right)$ replacing $\boldsymbol{C} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{m}$.

## 2. Filtered Differential Objects

In this section we describe one of the commonest sources of exact couples. We consider an object $C$ of the category $(\mathfrak{U}, d)$ and suppose it is filtered by subobjects (of $(\mathfrak{A}, d))$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \cong C^{(p-1)} \subseteq C^{(p)} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq C, \quad-\propto<p<\infty \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus each $C^{(p)}$ is closed under the differential $d$ on $C$, that is, $d C^{(p)} \subseteq C^{(p)}$.
Denote the category of filtered differential objects in $\mathfrak{H}$ by $(\mathfrak{H}, d, f)$. Clearly morphisms in ( $\mathfrak{A}, d, f$ ) respect filtration and commute with differentials.

If we consider the short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow C^{(p-1)} \rightarrow C^{(p)} \rightarrow C^{(p)} / C^{(p-1)} \rightarrow 0
$$

we obtain a homology exact triangle


Now let $D$ be the graded object such that $D^{p}=H\left(C^{(p)}\right)$ and let $E$ be the graded object such that $E^{p}=H\left(C^{(p)} / C^{(p-1)}\right)$. Then we may subsume(2.2), for all $p$, in the exact couple

in the graded category $\mathfrak{H}^{\mathbb{Z}}$, where $\operatorname{deg} \alpha=1, \operatorname{deg} \beta=0, \operatorname{deg} \gamma=-1$. This process describes a functor

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{H}:(\mathfrak{A}, d, f) \rightarrow \mathfrak{E} \mathbb{C}\left(\mathfrak{A}^{\mathbb{Z}}\right) \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

from the category of filtered differential objects of $\mathfrak{A}$ to the category of exact couples of $\mathfrak{A}^{\mathbf{Z}}$. Notice that if we simply extract from the exact couple the $E$-term we have a functor $E:(\mathfrak{A}, d, f) \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}^{\mathbf{Z}}$. This functor may be factorized in the following important way.

Given any abelian category $\mathfrak{B}$, we may form the category $(\mathfrak{B}, f)$ of filtered objects of $\mathfrak{B}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \cong B^{(p-1)} \cong B^{(p)} \cong \cdots \cong B, \quad-\infty<p<\infty . \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

A morphism $\varphi: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ of filtered objects then sends $B^{(p)}$ to $B^{\prime(p)}$ for all $p$. From (2.5) we construct the graded object whose $p^{\text {th }}$ component is $B^{(p)} / B^{(p-1)}$. Then we plainly have a functor

$$
G r:(\mathfrak{B}, f) \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}^{\mathbf{z}} .
$$

which is said to attach to a filtered object of $\mathfrak{B}$ the associated graded object in $\mathfrak{B}^{\mathbf{z}}$. Now if $\mathfrak{B}=(\mathfrak{A}, d)$, and if $X \in(\mathfrak{A}, d, f), \boldsymbol{G r}(X) \in(\mathfrak{A}, d)^{\mathbf{z}}=(\mathfrak{A} \mathbf{z}, d)$ and so we may apply the homology functor $H$ to $\operatorname{Gr}(X)$ to get an object of $\mathfrak{Q}^{\mathbf{Z}}$. Plainly

$$
E=H: G r:(\mathfrak{A}, d, f) \rightarrow \mathfrak{A} \mathbf{z} .
$$

On the other hand, starting from (2.1) we may pass to homology and obtain a filtration of $M=H(C)$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \cong M^{(p-1)} \subseteq M^{(p)} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq M, \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
M^{(p)}=H(C)^{(p)}=\operatorname{im} H\left(C^{(p)}\right) \cong H(C) . \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

By abuse of notation let us also write $H$ for the functor associating (2.6) with (2.1). Thus, now,

$$
H:(\mathfrak{A}, d, f) \rightarrow(\mathfrak{A}, f)
$$

so that we get a functor

$$
G r \backsim H:(\mathfrak{A}, d, f) \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}^{\mathbf{z}} .
$$

The functors $H$ and $G r$ do not "commute"; indeed, in the cases we will be considering, passage through the spectral sequence will provide us with a measure of the failure of commutativity. Thus, as pointed out, $H \circ G r$ yields $E=E_{0}$ from a filtered object in ( $\mathcal{H}, d$ ); and, by imposing certain reasonable conditions on the filtration, $G r \sim H$ will yield $E_{\infty}$ as we shall see; moreover these reasonable conditions will also ensure that $E_{\infty}$ is reached after a finite number of steps through the spectral sequence. so that no sophisticated limiting process will be involved.

The assumption then is that we are interested in determining $H(C)$ and that we can, to a significant extent, determine $H\left(C^{(p)} / C^{(p-1)}\right)$. The spectral sequence is then designed to yield us information about the graded object associated with $H(C)$ filtered by its subobjects im $H\left(C^{(p)}\right)$. The
question then arises as to how much information we can recover about $H(C)$ from the associated graded object. In this informal discussion let us again revert to the language of concrete categories. Then two conditions which we would obviously wish the filtration of $M=H(C)(2.6)$ to fulfilin order that the quotients $M^{(p)} / M^{(p-1)}$ adequately represent $M$ are

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { (i) } \bigcap_{p} M^{(p)}=0, \quad \text { (ii) } \bigcup_{p} M^{(p)}=M \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

For if (i) fails there will be non-zero elements of $M$ in every $M^{(p)}$ and thus lost in $\operatorname{Gr}(M)$; and if (ii) fails there will be non-zero elements of $M$ in no $M^{(p)}$ and thus unrepresented in $\operatorname{Gr}(M)$. If both these conditions hold, then, for every $x \in M, x \neq 0$, there exists precisely one integer $p$ such that $x \notin M^{(r)}, r<p, x \in M^{(r)}, r \geqq p$. Thus every $x \in M, x \neq 0$, is represented by a unique homogeneous non-zero element in $\operatorname{Gr}(M)$ and, of course, conversely, every such homogeneous non-zero element represents a non-zero element of $M$. Thus all that is lost in the passage from $M$ to $\operatorname{Gr}(M)$ is information about the module-extensions involved; we do not know just how $M^{(p-1)}$ is embedded in $M^{(p)}$ from our knowledge of $\operatorname{Gr}(M)$.

Evidently then we will be concerned also to impose conditions under which (2.8) (i) and (ii) hold. We thus add these requirements to our earlier criterion, for a "good" spectral sequence, that $\operatorname{Gr} H(C)=E_{\infty}$. Such requirements are often fulfilled in the case when $\mathfrak{A}$ is itself a graded category so that (2.1) is a filtered chain complex of $\mathfrak{A}$; we then suppose, of course, that the differential $d$ lowers degree by 1 . Then the associated exact couple

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& D=\left\{D^{p, q}\right\}, D^{p, q}=H_{q}\left(C^{(p)}\right), \\
& \left.E=\left\{E^{p, q}\right\}, E^{p, q}=H_{q}\left(C^{p}\right) / C^{(p-1)}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

is an exact couple in $\mathfrak{M}^{\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}}$, and the bidegrees of $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{deg} \alpha=(1,0), \operatorname{deg} \beta=(0,0), \operatorname{deg} \gamma=(-1,-1) . \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

It then follows from the remark following Theorem 1.2 that, in the $n^{\text {th }}$ derived couple and the associated spectral sequence, we have the bidegrees

$$
\begin{align*}
& \operatorname{deg} \alpha_{n}=(1,0), \operatorname{deg} \beta_{n}=(-n, 0),  \tag{2.11}\\
& \operatorname{deg} \gamma_{n}=(-1,-1), \operatorname{deg} d_{n}=(-n-1,-1) .
\end{align*}
$$

In the next section we will use (2.11) to obtain conditions under which $E_{\infty} \cong G r \cup H(C)$, and (2.8) holds for $M=H(C)$. Of course, a similar story
is available in cohomology; the reader will readily amend (2.10), (2.11) to refer to the case of a filtered cochain complex.

Remark on Notational Conventions. We have indexed spectral sequences to begin with $E_{0}$; and have accordingly identified the $E$-term of the exact couple (2.9) with $E_{0}$. Conventions adopted in several other texts effectively enumerate the terms of the spectral sequence starting with $E_{1}$. Thus, if we write $E_{n}$ for this rival convention, it is related to our convention by

$$
E_{n}=E_{n+1} .
$$

This difference of convention should be particularly borne in mind when the reader meets, elsewhere, a reference to the $E_{2}$-term. For it often happens that this term (i.e., our $E_{1}$-term) has a special significance in the context of a given spectral sequence; see, for example, Theorem 9.3. A justification for our convention consists in the vital statement in Theorem 1.2 that $d_{n}$ is induced by $\beta \alpha^{-n} \gamma$; it is surely convenient that the index $n$ is precisely the power of $\alpha^{-1}$.

A further matter of notational convention arises in indexing the terms of (2.9). Some texts put emphasis on what is called the complementary degree, so that what we have called $D^{p, q}, E^{p, q}$ would appear as $D^{p, q-p}, E^{p, q-p}$. Where this convention is to be found, in addition to that already referred to, the relation to our convention is given by

$$
E_{n}^{p, q}=E_{n+1}^{p, q-p} ;
$$

of course. translation from one convention to another is quite automatic. We defend our convention here with the claim that we set in evidence the degree, $q$, of the object being filtered in the case of a spectral sequence arising from a filtered chain complex; it is then obvious that any differential lowers the $q$-degree by 1 . Some authors call the $q$-degree the total degree.

## Exercises:

2.1. Show that the category $(\mathfrak{A}, d)$ is abelian.
2.2. Assign degrees corresponding to (2.11) for a filtered cochain complex. What should we understand by a cofiltration? Assign degrees to the exact couple associated with a cofiltered cochain complex.
2.3. Assign degrees in the exact couples of Exercises 1.5. 1.6.
2.4. Interpret $E_{\alpha}$ for the exact couples of Exercises $1.5,1.6$ when $m$ is a prime and $C$ is of finite type, i.e., each $C_{n}$ is finitely-generated.
2.5. Show that, in the spectral sequence associated with (2.1),

$$
E_{r}^{p}=\operatorname{im} H\left(C^{(p-r)} / C^{(p-r-1)} \subseteq \subseteq H\left(C^{(p)} / C^{(p-1)}\right) .\right.
$$

2.6. Let $\varphi, \psi: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$ be morphisms of the category ( $(\mathfrak{A}, d, f)$ and suppose $\varphi \simeq \psi$ : under a chain-homotopy $\Sigma$ such that $\Sigma\left(C^{(p)}\right) \cong C^{\prime(p+k)}$, for fixed $k$ and all $p$. Show that $\varphi_{k} \simeq \psi_{k}: E_{k} \rightarrow E_{k}^{\prime}$.

## 3. Finite Convergence Conditions for Filtered Chain Complexes

In this section we will give conditions on the filtered chain complex (2.1) which simultaneously ensure that $G r, H(C) \cong E_{\infty}$, that (2.8) (i) and (ii) hold, and that $E_{\infty}$ is reached after only a finite number of steps through the spectral sequence (in a "local" sense to be explained in Theorem 3.1). At the same time, of course, the conditions must be such as to be fulfilled in most applications. A deeper study of convergence questions will be made in Section 7.

Insofar as mere finite convergence of the spectral sequence is concerned we can proceed from the bigraded exact couple (2.9). However, if we also wish to infer that the $E_{\infty}$ term is indeed the graded object associated with $H(C)$, suitably filtered, and that conditions (2.8) (i) and (ii) for the filtration of $M=H(C)$ hold, then we will obviously have to proceed from the filtration (2.1) of $C$. First then we consider finite convergence of the spectral sequence.

Definition. We say that $x: D \rightarrow D$ in (2.9) is positively stationary if, given $q$, there exists $p_{0}$ such that $x: D^{p, q} \xrightarrow{\sim} D^{p+1 . q}$ for $p \geqq p_{0}$. Similarly we define negative stationarity. If $\alpha$ is both positively and negatively stationary, it is stationary.

Theorem 3.1. If $\alpha$ is stationary, the spectral sequence associated with the exact couple (2.9) converges finitely; that is, given $(p, q)$, there exists $r$ such that $E_{r}^{p, q}=E_{r+1}^{p, q}=\cdots=E_{\infty}^{p, q}$.

Proof. Consider the exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
D^{p-1, q} \xrightarrow{\alpha} D^{p, q} \xrightarrow{\beta} E^{p, q} \xrightarrow{\gamma} D^{p-1, q-1} \xrightarrow{\alpha} D^{p, q-1} . \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Fix $q$. Since $\alpha$ is positively stationary, it follows that each $\alpha$ in (3.1) is an isomorphism for $p$ sufficiently large. Thus $E^{p, q}=0$ for $p$ sufficiently large. Similarly $E^{p, q}=0$ for $p$ sufficiently small*. Now fix $p, q$ and consider

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{r}^{p+r+1, q+1} \xrightarrow{d_{r}} E_{r}^{p, q} \xrightarrow{d_{r}} E_{r}^{p-r-1, q-1} . \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

By what we have proved it follows that, for $r$ sufficiently large,

$$
E^{p+r+1 . q+1}=0, \quad E^{p-r-1, q-1}=0
$$

so that $E_{n}^{p+r+1, q+1}=0, E_{n}^{p-r-1, q-1}=0$ for all $n \geqq 0$. Thus, for $r$ sufficiently large, $E_{r}^{p, q}=E_{r+1}^{p, q}$. With our interpretation of $E_{\alpha}$ it follows also, of course, that $E_{r}^{p, q}=E_{r+1}^{p, q}=\cdots=E_{\infty}^{p, q}$, since the whole of $E_{r}^{p, q}$ is a cycle for every $d_{s}, s \geqq r$, and only 0 is a boundary for some $d_{s}, s \geqq r$. $]$

We next consider conditions on (2.1) which will guarantee that $E_{\infty}^{p, q}=\operatorname{im} H_{q}\left(C^{(p)}\right) / \operatorname{im} H_{q}\left(C^{(p-1)}\right)$, while also guaranteeing that $\alpha$ is stationary so that the spectral sequence converges finitely. We proceed by obtaining from (2.1) a second exact couple.

[^3]Let $\bar{D}$ be the bigraded object given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{D}^{p, q}=H_{q}\left(C / C^{(p-1)}\right) . \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

(Our reason for adopting this convention is explained in Section 6; but we remark that it leads to a symmetry between (2.10) and (3.5) below.)

Then the exact sequence of chain-complexes

$$
0 \rightarrow C^{(p)} / C^{(p-1)} \rightarrow C / C^{(p-1)} \rightarrow C / C^{(p)} \rightarrow 0
$$

gives rise to an exact couple of bigraded objects

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{deg} \bar{\alpha}=(1,0), \operatorname{deg} \bar{\beta}=(-1,-1), \operatorname{deg} \bar{\gamma}=(0,0) . \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now make a definition which will be applied to $D, E$ and $\bar{D}$.
Definition. The bigraded object $A$ is said to be positively graded if, given $q$ there exists $p_{0}$ such that $A^{p, q}=0$ if $p<p_{0}$. Similarly we define a negative grade.

We have the trivial proposition
Proposition 3.2. If $D$ (or $\bar{D}$ ) is positively (negatively) graded, then $\alpha(\operatorname{or} \bar{\alpha})$ is negatively (positively) stationary. $\square$

Theorem 3.3. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $\alpha$ is positively stationary.
(ii) $E$ is negatively graded.
(iii) $\bar{\alpha}$ is positively stationary.

Of course, we can interchange "positive" and "negative" in this theorem.

Proof. In the course of proving Theorem 3.1 we showed that $(\mathbf{i}) \Rightarrow$ (ii). Conversely, consider the exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
E^{p, q+1} \xrightarrow{\hookrightarrow} D^{p-1, q \xrightarrow{\alpha}} D^{p, q \beta} E^{p, q} . \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $E$ is negatively graded, then, given $q, E^{p . q+1}=0, E^{p, q}=0$, for $p$ sufficiently large. Thus $\alpha$ is an isomorphism for $p$ sufficiently large, so that (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (i).

The implications (ii) $\Leftrightarrow$ (iii) are derived similarly from the exact couple (3.4). $\quad \square$

We now complete our preparations for proving the main theorem of this section. We will say that the filtration

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \cong C^{(p-1)} \cong C^{(p)} \cong \cdots \cong C,-\infty<p<\infty \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

of the chain complex $C$ is finite, if, for each $q$, there exist $p_{0}, p_{1}$ with

$$
\begin{array}{rlll}
\text { (i) } & C_{q}^{(p)}=0 & \text { for } & p \leqq p_{0}  \tag{3.8}\\
\text { (ii) } & C_{q}^{(p)}=C_{q} & \text { for } & p \geqq p_{1} .
\end{array}
$$

We will say that (3.7) is homologically finite, if. for each $q$, there exist $p_{0}, p_{1}$ with

$$
\begin{array}{llll} 
& \text { (i) } & H_{q}\left(C^{(p)}\right)=0 & \text { for } \\
\text { (ii) } & H_{q}\left(C^{(p)}\right)=H_{q}(C) & \text { for } & p \geqq p_{0} \tag{3.9}
\end{array}
$$

Proposition 3.4. If the filtration of the chain complex $C$ is finite, it is homologically finite.

Proof. Plainly (3.8) (i) implies (3.9) (i). Also (3.8) (ii) implies that, given $q$,

$$
C_{q}^{(p)}=C_{q}, C_{q+1}^{(p)}=C_{q+1}, \quad \text { for } p \text { large }
$$

Thus $H_{q}\left(C^{(p)}\right)=H_{q}(C)$ for $p$ large. $\quad \square$
Theorem 3.5. If the filtration of the chain complex $C$ is homologically finite, then
(i) the associated spectral sequence converges finitely;
(ii) the induced filtration of $H(C)$ is finite;
(iii) $E_{\infty} \cong G r-H(C)$; precisely,

$$
E_{\alpha}^{p, q} \cong\left(G r \therefore H_{q}(C)\right)_{p}=\operatorname{im} H_{q}\left(C^{(p)}\right) / \operatorname{im} H_{q}\left(C^{(p-1)}\right) .
$$

Remark. In the case where the conclusions of Theorem 3.5 hold we say that the spectral sequence converges finitely to the graded object associated with $H(C)$, suitably filtered. We will abbreviate this by saying that the spectral sequence converges finitely to $H(C)$, or simply by the symbol

$$
E_{1}^{p, q} \Rightarrow H_{q}(C)
$$

Proof. (i) Plainly (3.9) (i) asserts that $D$ is positively graded; and (3.9) (ii) is equivalent to the statement that $\bar{D}$ is negatively graded, as is seen immediately by applying homology to the sequence

$$
C^{(p)} \rightarrow C \rightarrow C / C^{(p)}
$$

By Proposition 3.2, $\alpha$ is negatively stationary and $\bar{\alpha}$ is positively stationary. By Theorem 3.3, $\alpha$ is positively stationary, hence $\alpha$ is stationary and we apply Theorem 3.1 to obtain (i).
(ii) This is trivial, but we note that (3.9) is a stronger statement than conclusion (ii).
(iii) Consider the following extract from the $n^{\text {th }}$ derived couple of the exact couple (2.9) - see (2.11) for the bidegrees of the maps -

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{n}^{p+n-1, q} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{n}} D_{n}^{p+n, q} \xrightarrow{\beta_{n}} E_{n}^{p, q} \xrightarrow{\gamma_{n}} D_{n}^{p-1, q-1} . \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

We fix $p, q$ and suppose $n$ large so that $E_{n}^{p, q}=E_{\alpha ;}^{p, q}$ by (i). Now $D_{n}^{p+n, q}=\alpha^{n} D^{p, q}=\operatorname{im~}_{q}\left(C^{(p)}\right) \subseteq H_{q}\left(C^{(p+n)}\right)$. It follows from (3.9) (ii) that, for $n$ large, $D_{n}^{p+n, q}=H_{q}(C)^{(p)}=\operatorname{im} H_{q}\left(C^{(p)}\right) \subseteq H_{q}(C)$. Similarly, for $n$ large, $D_{n}^{p+n-1 . q}=H_{q}(C)^{(p-1)}=\operatorname{im} H_{q}\left(C^{(p-1)}\right) \subseteq H_{q}(C)$; and $\alpha_{n}$ is then just the inclusion $H_{q}(C)^{(p-1)} \cong H_{q}(C)^{(p)}$. Also

$$
D_{n}^{p-1, q-1}=\alpha^{n} D^{p-n-1, q-1}=\operatorname{im} H_{q-1}\left(C^{(p-n-1)}\right) \subseteq H_{q-1}\left(C^{(p-1)}\right)
$$

and, for $n$ large, this is zero by (3.9) (i). Thus for $n$ large, $\beta_{n}$ induces

$$
\left(G r: H_{q}(C)\right)_{p} \cong E_{\infty}^{p, q},
$$

completing the proof of (iii) and of the theorem.
Again the reader is invited to formulate Theorem 3.5 for a filtered cochain complex. Notice that we may formally obtain a "translation" by the sign-reversing trick of replacing $(p, q)$ by $(-p,-q)$. We will feel free in the sequel to quote Theorem 3.5 in its dual form, that is, for cochain complexes.

## Exercises:

3.1. Show that the validity of Theorems 3.1, 3.3 depends only on $\operatorname{deg} \alpha$ and $\operatorname{deg} \beta \gamma$ ( $=\operatorname{deg} d$ ), and not on the individual degrees of $\beta$ and $\gamma$.
3.2. Adapt Theorems 3.1, 3.3, 3.5 to the case of cochain complexes.
3.3. Show that the spectral sequences of the exact couples (2.1), (3.4) coincide.
3.4. (Comparison Theorem). Let $\varphi: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}$ be a morphism of homologically finite filtered chain-complexes. Show that if $\varphi_{*}: E_{r} \boldsymbol{\sim} E_{r}^{\prime}$ for any $r$ then

$$
\varphi_{*}: H(C) \sim H\left(C^{\prime}\right) .
$$

3.5. Let $\boldsymbol{C}$ be a filtered chain complex of abelian groups, in which

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
C^{(p)}=0, & p<0 \\
C_{q}^{(p)}=C_{q}, & p \geqq q .
\end{array}
$$

Show that if $C$ satisfies the following conditions (i), (ii), (iii), then $E_{1}^{p, q}$ is finitely generated for all $p, q$.
(i) $H_{q}(C)$ is finitely generated for all $q$.
(ii) $E_{1}^{0,0}$ is finitely generated.
(iii) For all $p$, if $E^{p, p}$ is finitely generated. then $E_{1}^{p, q}$ is finitely generated for all $q$. Also show that if $C$ satisfies the conditions ( $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$ ), (ii'), (iii'), then $E_{i}^{p, q}$ is finitely generated for all $p . q$.
(ii) $H_{q}(C)$ is finitely generated for all $q$.
(ii') $E_{1}^{0,0}$ is finitely generated.
(iii') For all $r$, if $E_{1}^{0, r}$ is finitely generated, then $E_{1}^{p, p+r}$ is finitely generated for all $p$.

## 4. The Ladder of an Exact Couple

In this section we give a more categorical approach to the process of deriving an exact couple and hence, by iteration, obtaining the associated spectral sequence. Although this alternative viewpoint does, we believe, illuminate the arguments given in Section 1 and explains more precisely the nature of the $E_{\infty}$ term, we present it here primarily in order to facilitate the discussion of spectral sequences and their convergence in the absence of the type of strong finiteness condition imposed in Section 3.

The basic idea of this section is the following. Suppose given a diagram in $\mathfrak{U}$,

in which $\gamma \beta$ factors through $\varrho$ and through $\sigma$. We may then take the pull-back of ( $\gamma . \varrho$ ) which, since $\varrho$ is monic, simply amounts to taking $\gamma^{-1}\left(C_{1}\right)$. If the pull-back is

then. since $\gamma \beta$ factors through $\varrho$, there exists a unique morphism $\beta_{0,1}: A \rightarrow B_{0,1}$ such that $\varrho_{0,1} \beta_{0,1}=\beta$. Thus we have the diagram

and, plainly, $\gamma_{0,1} \beta_{0,1}$ factors through $\sigma$. For if $\kappa$ is the kernel of $\sigma$, then $\gamma \beta$ factors through $\sigma \Leftrightarrow \gamma \beta \kappa=0 \Leftrightarrow \gamma_{0,1} \beta_{0,1} \kappa=0 \Leftrightarrow \gamma_{0,1} \beta_{0,1}$ factors through $\sigma$. We say that the sequence $\left(\beta_{0,1}, \gamma_{0,1}\right)$ is obtained from the sequence $(\beta, \gamma)$ by the $Q^{e}$-process, and we write

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q^{e}(\beta, \gamma)=\left(\beta_{0,1}, \gamma_{0,1}\right) . \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now we may apply the dual process to (4.2); that is, we take the push-out of ( $\beta_{0,1}, \sigma$ ) which, since $\sigma$ is epic, amounts to constructing coker $\beta_{0.1} \kappa$
where, as before, $\kappa$ is the kernel of $\sigma$. If the push-out is

then, since $\gamma_{0,1} \beta_{0,1}$ factors through $\sigma$, there exists a unique morphism $\gamma_{1}: B_{1} \rightarrow C_{1}$ such that $\gamma_{1} \sigma_{0,1}=\gamma_{0.1}$. Thus we have the diagram


We say that $\left(\beta_{1}, \gamma_{1}\right)$ is obtained from ( $\beta_{0,1}, \gamma_{0,1}$ ) by the $Q_{\sigma}$-process, and we write

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{\sigma}\left(\beta_{0,1}, \gamma_{0,1}\right)=\left(\beta_{1}, \gamma_{1}\right) \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\beta_{1}, \gamma_{1}\right)=Q_{\sigma} Q^{e}(\beta, \gamma) \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand we may plainly reverse the order in which we apply the two processes. We then obtain the diagram

$$
\begin{align*}
& A_{1} \xrightarrow{\bar{\beta}_{1}} \bar{B}_{1} \xrightarrow{\bar{y}_{1}} C_{1} \\
& \| \int_{1,0} \mathrm{~PB} \mid e \quad(\mathrm{~PB}=\text { pull-back }) \\
& A_{1} \xrightarrow{\beta_{1,0}} B_{1,0} \xrightarrow{\gamma_{1,0}} C \tag{4.7}
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\beta_{1,0}, \gamma_{1,0}\right)=Q_{\sigma}(\beta, \gamma),\left(\bar{\beta}_{1}, \bar{\gamma}_{1}\right)=Q^{e}\left(\beta_{1,0}, \gamma_{1,0}\right)=Q^{e} Q_{\sigma}(\beta, \gamma) . \tag{4.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 4.1. $Q^{e} Q_{\sigma}=Q_{\sigma} Q^{e}$.
Proof. It is clear, in fact, that $B_{1}$ is obtained from $B$ by first cutting down to the subobject $\gamma^{-1}\left(C_{1}\right)$ and then factoring out $\beta \sigma^{-1}(0)$, whereas $\bar{B}_{1}$ is obtained by the opposite process, that is, first factoring out $\beta \sigma^{-1}(0)$ and then cutting down to the subobject corresponding to $\gamma^{-1}\left(C_{1}\right)$. Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{1}=\bar{B}_{1}=\gamma^{-1}\left(C_{1}\right) / \beta \sigma^{-1}(0) . \tag{4.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, $\bar{\beta}_{1}$ and $\beta_{1}$ are induced on $A_{1}=A / \sigma^{-1}(0)$ by $\beta$, and $\bar{\gamma}_{1}, \gamma_{1}$ are induced by $\gamma$. $\square$

The reader requiring a more category-theoretical argument will find it in [10], to which he should refer for a detailed careful approach to the arguments of this and subsequent sections. (Actually the categorical argument appears in the proof of Theorem III. 1.4 in the case when $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$ is short exact.)

We may now eliminate the bars over $\beta_{1}, \gamma_{1}, B_{1}$ in (4.7). This enables us to enunciate the next proposition.

Proposition 4.2. The square

$$
\begin{aligned}
& B_{0,1} \xrightarrow{\sigma_{0,1}} B_{1} \\
& \left\{\begin{array}{l}
e_{0,1} \\
B \xrightarrow[\sigma_{1,0}]{ } \\
\boldsymbol{e}_{1,0}
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

is bicartesian (i.e., a pull-back and push-out).
Proof. The square may be written

with the obvious morphisms, and this is plainly bicartesian. []
Proposition 4.3. Consider the diagram

where $\gamma \beta$ factors through $\varrho \varrho_{1}$. Then, if $\left(\beta^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime}\right)=Q^{e}(\beta, \gamma), \gamma^{\prime} \beta^{\prime}$ factors through $\varrho_{1}$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q^{\varrho_{Q_{1}}}=Q^{\varphi_{1}} Q^{\varrho} . \tag{4.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Let $\gamma \beta=\varrho \varrho_{i} \delta$. Then $\varrho \gamma^{\prime} \beta^{\prime}=\varrho \varrho_{1} \delta$ so that $\gamma^{\prime} \beta^{\prime}=\varrho_{1} \delta$. Then (4.10) follows either by observing that the juxtaposition of two pull-back squares is again a pull-back, or that restricting to $\gamma^{-1}\left(C_{2}\right)$ is equivalent to first restricting to $\gamma^{-1}\left(C_{1}\right)$ and then restricting to $\gamma^{-1}\left(C_{2}\right)!\square$

Proposition 4.3 has a dual which we enunciate simply as follows: if $\gamma \beta$ factors through $\sigma_{1}, \sigma, A \xrightarrow{\sigma} A_{1} \xrightarrow{\sigma_{1}} A_{2}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{\sigma_{1} \sigma}=Q_{\sigma_{1}} Q_{\sigma} \tag{4.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since we will be principally concerned with the case when $\gamma \beta=0$, the factorization hypothesis present in the construction of $Q^{e}, Q_{\sigma}$ will not usually detain us. In the light of Theorem 4.1 we may write

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{\sigma}^{e}=Q^{e} Q_{\sigma}=Q_{\sigma} Q^{e} \tag{4.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

and then (4.10), (4.11) imply

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{\sigma_{1}}^{e_{1}} Q_{\sigma}^{e}=Q_{\sigma_{1} \sigma}^{\varrho e_{1}} . \tag{4.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Getting closer to the situation of our exact couple, we prove
Theorem 4.4. If the bottom row of (4.4) is exact, so are all rows of (4.4) and (4.7).

Proof. That the middle row of (4.4) is exact is plain, since

$$
\gamma^{-1}(0) \subseteq \gamma^{-1}\left(C_{1}\right) .
$$

The rest of the statement of the theorem follows by duality. $\quad]$
We now apply the processes $Q^{e}, Q_{\sigma}$ to the study of exact couples. Given $\alpha: D \rightarrow D$ we split $\alpha$ as an epimorphism $\sigma$ followed by a monomorphism $\varrho$.

$$
D \xrightarrow{\sigma} D_{1} \stackrel{\varrho}{\hookrightarrow} D, \quad \alpha=\varrho \sigma .
$$

Inductively, we set $\varrho_{0}=\varrho, \sigma_{0}=\sigma$, and, having defined

$$
D_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\sigma_{n-1}} D_{n} \xrightarrow{\varrho_{n-1}} D_{n-1}, \quad \alpha_{n-1}=\varrho_{n-1} \sigma_{n-1},
$$

we define $\alpha_{n}=\sigma_{n-1} \varrho_{n-1}: D_{n} \rightarrow D_{n}$ and split $\alpha_{n}$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{n} \xrightarrow{\sigma_{n}} D_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\varrho_{n}} D_{n}, \quad \alpha_{n}=\varrho_{n} \sigma_{n} . \tag{4.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Of course, $D_{n}=\alpha^{n} D \cong D / \alpha^{-n}(0)$ and $\alpha_{n}$ is obtained by restricting $x$. We further set

$$
v_{n}=\varrho \varrho_{1} \ldots \varrho_{n-1}: D_{n} \hookrightarrow D, \quad \eta_{n}=\sigma_{n-1} \ldots \sigma_{1} \sigma: D \rightarrow D_{n} .
$$

Then $\alpha^{n}: D \rightarrow D$ splits as

$$
\begin{equation*}
D \xrightarrow{\eta_{n}} D_{n} \xrightarrow{v_{n}} D, \quad \alpha^{n}=v_{n} \eta_{n} . \tag{4.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark. The description above is not quite adequate to the (bi)graded case. We will explain the requisite modifications at the end of this section.

Consider now the exact couple (1.1) which we write as

$$
\begin{equation*}
D \xrightarrow{\varkappa} D \xrightarrow{\beta} E \xrightarrow{\hookrightarrow} D \xrightarrow{\varkappa} D . \tag{4.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Carrying out the $Q_{\eta_{m}}^{v_{n}}$-process we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{m} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{m}} D_{m} \xrightarrow{\beta_{m, n}} E_{m, n} \xrightarrow{\gamma_{m, n}} D_{n} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{n}} D_{n}, \quad\left(\beta_{m, n}, \gamma_{m, n}\right)=Q_{\eta_{m}^{n}}^{\nu_{n}}(\beta, \gamma) . \tag{4.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 4.5. The sequence (4.17) is exact
Proof. We have already shown exactness at $E_{m, n}$ (Theorem 4.4). To show that $E_{m, n} \xrightarrow{\gamma_{m, n}} D_{n} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{n}} D_{n}$ is exact, first take $m=0$ and consider

Then $E_{0, n}=\gamma^{-1}\left(D_{n}\right)$ so that $\gamma_{0, n} E_{0, n}=\gamma E \cap D_{n}=\alpha^{-1}(0) \cap D_{n}=\alpha_{n}^{-1}(0)$, since $\alpha_{n}$ is the restriction of $\alpha$.

The general case now follows. For the diagram

shows that $\gamma_{m, n} E_{m, n}=\gamma_{0, n} E_{0, n}$; and the remaining exactness assertion of the theorem follows by duality. $\quad]$

Note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{m, n}=\gamma^{-1}\left(D_{n}\right) / \beta \eta_{m}^{-1}(0)=\gamma^{-1}\left(\alpha^{n} D\right) / \beta \alpha^{-m}(0) . \tag{4.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, $E_{n, n}=E_{n}$ and (4.17) in the case $m=n$ is just the $n^{\text {th }}$ derived couple. Moreover, we may apply the $Q^{e_{-}-}$and $Q_{\sigma_{m}}$-processes to (4.17). Then Proposition 4.2 implies

Theorem 4.6. The square

is bicartesian. $\quad \square$
The notation of this theorem enables us to describe $E_{\infty}$ as a double limit in a very precise way. For we will find that, in the notation of Section 1,

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{m, \infty}=\lim _{\leftrightarrows}\left(E_{m, n} ; \varrho_{m, n}\right) \tag{4.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

(see Exercise II.8.8), and thus $E_{\infty}=\underset{m}{\lim } E_{m, \infty}$, or

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{\infty}=\underset{m}{\lim } \underset{\underset{n}{4}}{\lim _{m}}\left(E_{m, n} ; \varrho_{m, n}, \sigma_{m, n}\right) . \tag{4.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

We will explain (4.19) and (4.20) more fully in the next section, where we will also see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{\infty}=\lim _{\underset{n}{ }}^{\lim _{m}}\left(E_{m, n} ; \varrho_{m, n}, \sigma_{m, n}\right) . \tag{4.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

However, we will here break temporarily with our severely categorical formulations to give descriptions of $E_{m, \infty}, E_{\infty}$ appropriate to a concrete category. We then observe that $E_{m, \infty}=\bigcap_{n} E_{m, n}$ and that $E_{m, \infty}, E_{\infty}$ have descriptions analogous to $E_{m, n}$ in (4.18) namely,

$$
\begin{align*}
E_{m, \infty} & =\gamma^{-1}\left(\alpha^{\infty} D\right) / \beta \alpha^{-m}(0)  \tag{4.22}\\
E_{\infty} & =\gamma^{-1}\left(\alpha^{\infty} D\right) / \beta \alpha^{-\infty}(0) \tag{4.23}
\end{align*}
$$

where we define

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha^{\infty} D=\bigcap_{n} \alpha^{n} D, \quad \alpha^{-\infty}(0)=\bigcup_{m} \alpha^{-m}(0) . \tag{4.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

These descriptions follow from the characterization of $E_{m, \infty}, E_{\infty}$ in Section 1. Also we point out that if we define

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{\infty, n}=\underset{m}{\lim }\left(E_{m, n} ; \sigma_{m, n}\right)=E_{m, n} / \bigcup_{k} \sigma^{-k}(0), \tag{4.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\sigma^{k}=\sigma_{m+k-1, n} \ldots \sigma_{m+1, n} \sigma_{m, n},
$$

then $E_{\infty}=\underset{\sim}{\lim _{n}} E_{\infty, n}$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{\infty, n}=\gamma^{-1}\left(\alpha^{n} D\right) / \beta \alpha^{-\infty}(0) \tag{4.26}
\end{equation*}
$$

Of course, (4.22), (4.23), (4.26) may be formulated categorically; we need to note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha^{\infty} D=\underset{\longleftrightarrow}{\lim }\left(D_{n}, \varrho_{n}\right), \quad D / \alpha^{-\infty}(0)=\underset{\longrightarrow}{\lim }\left(D_{n}, \sigma_{n}\right), \tag{4.27}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the meaning of the limit $(\underset{ }{\mathrm{lim}}$ or lim$)$ in a general category will be explained in the next section.

The $n^{\text {th }}$ rung of the ladder of an exact couple is, as we have said. just the $n^{\text {th }}$ derived couple. We have seen that there is actually an $(m, n)^{\text {th }} r u n g$, connected to the original couple by the $Q_{\eta_{m}}^{\nu_{n}}$-process; thus


We will see in the next section how to extend this to include $m=\infty$, or $n=\infty$, or both. Meanwhile we describe, as promised, the modifications necessary to cover the case of a (bi)graded couple.

Our point of view is that the vertical morphisms of a ladder should always be degree-preserving, so that the morphisms in any vertical family all carry the same degree. To achieve this we must complicate our procedure in obtaining the ladder, precisely in the factorization of $\alpha$ as $\varrho \sigma$. For we will want $\varrho$ and $\sigma$ to be degree-preserving and thus we factorize $x$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=\varrho \omega \sigma, D \xrightarrow{\sigma} D^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\omega} D^{\prime \prime} \stackrel{\varphi}{\leftrightarrows} D . \tag{4.29}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\omega$ is an isomorphism carrying the (bi) degree of $\alpha$. More generally,

$$
\alpha^{n}=v_{n} \omega_{n} \eta_{n} .
$$

where $\omega_{n}: D_{n}^{\prime} \sim D_{n}^{\prime \prime}$ carries the degree of $\alpha^{n}$.
Thus (4.28) is replaced by

and, of course,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha_{n}^{\prime \prime} \omega_{n}=\omega_{n} \alpha_{n}^{\prime} . \tag{4.31}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we wish to obtain an exact couple from the $n^{\text {th }}$ rung, we have to decide (arbitrarily, from the category-theoretical point of view) which of $D_{n}^{\prime}, D_{n}^{\prime \prime}$ is to be regarded as $D_{n}$. It is standard practice, in view of classical procedures, to choose $D_{n}=D_{n}^{\prime \prime}$. Then we set

$$
\alpha_{n}=\alpha_{n}^{\prime \prime}, \beta_{n}=\beta_{n}^{\prime} \omega_{n}^{-1}, \gamma_{n}=\gamma_{n}^{\prime \prime}
$$

and thus obtain the rules

$$
\begin{gather*}
\operatorname{deg} \alpha_{n}=\operatorname{deg} \alpha, \operatorname{deg} \beta_{n}=\operatorname{deg} \beta-n \cdot \operatorname{deg} \alpha, \operatorname{deg} \gamma_{n}=\operatorname{deg} \gamma,  \tag{4.32}\\
\operatorname{deg} d_{n}=\operatorname{deg} \beta_{n} \gamma_{n}=\operatorname{deg} \beta+\operatorname{deg} \gamma-n \cdot \operatorname{deg} \alpha, \tag{4.33}
\end{gather*}
$$

agreeing with (2.11). Of course, the degree of $d_{n}$ is independent of whether we regard $D_{n}^{\prime}$ or $D_{n}^{\prime \prime}$ as $D_{n}$.

## Exercises:

4.1. Prove directly, without appeal to duality, (i) (4.11), (ii) Theorem 4.4, (iii) the exactness of (4.17).
4.2. Give detailed proofs of (4.18), (4.22), (4.23).
4.3. Describe $E_{\infty, n}$ in a way analogous to the description of $E_{m, \infty}$ in Section 1.
4.4. Show that $E_{m, n}$ is determined by $\alpha: D \rightarrow D$ up to a module extension.
4.5. Use Theorem 4.6 to show that $E_{m . n}(m \leqq \propto, n \leqq \infty)$ is entirely determined by the spectral sequence.
4.6. Consider (4.1). Describe the $Q^{e}$-process when $\gamma$ factors through $\varrho$. Dualize.

## 5. Limits

In this section we formulate the theory of limits and colimits in so far as it is necessary to establish the crucial Theorem 5.3 below. Our general discussion is, of course, based on the material of Section II.8.

Let $\mathbb{C}$ be an arbitrary category and I a small index category which we may assume here to be connected. We have the diagonal, or constant, functor $\boldsymbol{P}: \boldsymbol{C} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}^{I}$ and we suppose that $P$ has a right adjoint $R: \boldsymbol{C}^{\boldsymbol{I}} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}$. Then, according to Proposition II.7.6 and Theorem II.8.3, we may suppose $R P=1$, and the counit $\delta: P R \rightarrow 1$ satisfies $\delta P=1, R \delta=1$. Then, for any functor $F: I \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, the limit of $F, \underset{\longleftrightarrow}{\lim F}$, is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{\longleftrightarrow} F=R(F), \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $\delta$ yields the morphisms $\delta_{i}: R(F) \rightarrow F_{i}$ completing the description of the limit.

We point out that the universal property of $\mathfrak{l i m} F$ is as follows. Let morphisms $\varphi_{i}: X \rightarrow F(i), i \in I$, be given such that, for all $\alpha: i \rightarrow j$ in $I$, the diagram

is commutative. Then there exists a unique morphism $\varphi: X \rightarrow \underset{\longleftrightarrow}{\lim F}$ such that $\delta_{i} \varphi=\varphi_{i}: X \rightarrow F(i), i \in I$. Indeed $\varphi$ is given as $R(\tilde{\varphi})$ where $\tilde{\varphi}: P X \rightarrow F$ is the morphism of $\boldsymbol{C}^{I}$ corresponding to the set of morphisms $\varphi_{i}$.

Similarly. a left adjoint $L$ to $P$ yields the colimit;

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xrightarrow{\lim F} F=L(F), F: I \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the unit $\varepsilon: 1 \rightarrow P L$ yields the morphisms $\varepsilon_{i}: F_{i} \rightarrow L(F)$ completing the description of the colimit.

According to Theorem II.8.6 any right adjoint functor preserves limits. Thus, in particular, limits commute. We proceed to make this assertion precise and explicit.

Consider a functor $F: I \times J \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}$, where $I, J$ are two (connected) index categories. We may regard $F$ as a functor $I \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{\boldsymbol{J}}$ or as a functor
$J \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{\boldsymbol{I}}$; in other words, there are canonical identifications

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{C}^{I \times J} \cong\left(\mathbb{C}^{J}\right)^{I} \cong\left(\mathbb{C}^{I}\right)^{J} \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and we will henceforth make these identifications. Let $P: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{I \times J}$, $P_{1}: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{I}, P_{2}: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{J}$ be the diagonal functors and suppose that

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{i} \dashv R_{i}, \quad i=1,2 . \tag{5.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

There is a commutative diagram

with diagonal $P$.
Theorem 5.1. There is a natural equivalence $R_{2} R_{1}^{J} \cong R_{1} R_{2}^{I}$. Setting either equal to $R$, we have $P \dashv R, R P=1$ and the counit $\delta: P R \rightarrow 1$ is given by $\delta=\delta_{1}^{J}: P_{1}^{J} \delta_{2} R_{1}^{J}$ if $R=R_{2} R_{1}^{J}$, or $\delta=\delta_{2}^{I} " P_{2}^{I} \delta_{1} R_{2}^{I}$ if $R=R_{1} R_{2}^{I}$.

Proof. The first assertion is a special case of Theorem II.8.6. The rest follows readily from Proposition II.7.1 and we leave the details to the reader. []

This theorem asserts then that limits commute; similarly, of course, colimits commute. However, it is not true in general that limits commute with colimits (see Exercise 5.4). Nevertheless, since the pull-back is a limit and the push-out is a colimit, Theorem 4.1 constitutes an example where this phenomenon does in fact occur.

We now consider the following situation. We suppose given the diagram
in $\mathbb{C}$ and let $A_{\infty}=\varliminf_{\mathcal{L}}\left(A_{n}, \alpha_{n}\right), B_{\infty}=\varliminf_{n}\left(B_{n}, \beta_{n}\right)$. Then there is a limit diagram (where $\bar{\alpha} . \bar{\beta}$ are given by the counit (see (5.1)))


Theorem 5.2. If each square in (5.6) is a pull-back, then (5.7) is a pullback.

This theorem can be regarded as a special case of Theorem 5.1. However, we prefer to give a direct proof.

Proof. We have to show that (5.7) is a pull-back diagram. Suppose then given $\psi: X \rightarrow A_{0}$ and $\chi: X \rightarrow B_{\infty}$, with $\varphi_{0} \psi=\bar{\beta} \chi$. We then obtain morphisms $\psi_{0}=\psi^{\prime}: X \rightarrow A_{0}$ and $\chi_{1}=\delta_{1} \chi$, where $\delta_{1}: B_{\infty} \rightarrow B_{1}$ is given by the counit (see (5.1)). Clearly $\varphi_{0} \psi_{0}=\beta_{0} \chi_{1}$; hence, since each square in (5.6) is a pull-back, there exists a unique $\psi_{1}: X \rightarrow A_{1}$ satisfying the usual commutativity relations. Proceeding by induction we obtain a family of morphisms $\left\{\psi_{i}: X \rightarrow A_{i}\right\}$ with $\alpha_{i} \psi_{i}=\psi_{i-1}$ for $i \geqq 1$. Hence there exists a unique morphism $\psi_{\infty}: X \rightarrow A_{\infty}$ with $\delta_{i} \psi_{\infty}=\psi_{i}$, where $\delta_{i}: A_{\infty} \rightarrow A_{i}$ are given by the counit, and $\bar{\alpha} \psi_{\infty}=\psi$. Similarly $\left\{\varphi_{i} \psi_{i}: X \rightarrow B_{i}\right\}$ give rise to the map $\chi: X \rightarrow B_{\infty}$, so that, by the universal property we then have $\varphi_{\infty} \psi_{\infty}=\chi$. Hence it follows that $\psi_{\infty}$ satisfies the required conditions. We leave it to the reader to prove the uniqueness of $\psi_{\infty}$ satisfying these conditions. $\quad]$

Notice that this result applies to an arbitrary category, provided only that the limits exist.

We use this theorem, and its dual, to prove the basic result on exact couples in an abelian category and the limit of the associated spectral sequence.

We recall from Section 4 the notations (see (4.14), (4.15))

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\sigma_{n}: D_{n} \rightarrow D_{n+1}, & \varrho_{n}: D_{n+1} \mapsto D_{n},  \tag{5.8}\\
\eta_{n}: D \rightarrow D_{n}, & v_{n}: D_{n} \mapsto D .
\end{array}
$$

Then we set

$$
\begin{equation*}
I=\underset{\longleftrightarrow}{\lim }\left(D_{n}, \varrho_{n}\right), \quad U=\underset{\longrightarrow}{\lim }\left(D_{n}, \sigma_{n}\right) \tag{5.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

and let

$$
\begin{equation*}
v: I \hookrightarrow D, \quad \eta: D \rightarrow U \tag{5.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

be the canonical morphisms. We apply the $Q_{\eta}^{v}$-process to the exact couple (1.1).

Theorem 5.3. In the notation of Theorem 4.6 we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{\infty}=\underset{m}{\lim } \lim _{\leftrightarrows}\left(E_{m, n} ; \varrho_{m, n} . \sigma_{m, n}\right)=\underset{\underset{n}{l}}{\lim _{m}} \underset{\underset{m}{\lim }}{ }\left(E_{m, n} ; \varrho_{n, n} . \sigma_{m, n}\right) . \tag{5.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

The $Q_{\eta}^{v}$-process yields

where $\alpha^{\prime}, \alpha^{\prime \prime}$ are induced by $\alpha$ and the top row is exact.
Notice that in the concrete setting of Section 4 we have (see 4.27)

$$
\begin{equation*}
I=\bigcap_{n} \alpha^{n} D=\alpha^{\infty} D, \quad U=D / \bigcup_{m} \alpha^{-m}(0)=D / \alpha^{-\infty}(0) . \tag{5.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus Theorem 5.3 effectively establishes all the facts given in Section 4, relating to $E_{\infty}$, since we may, of course pass to the limit starting from any derived couple of the given exact couple.

Proof. Let us execute $Q_{\eta}^{v}$ as $Q_{\eta} Q^{\nu}$. We thus obtain


However, by Theorem 5.2, $E_{0, \infty}=\lim _{\leftrightarrows} E_{0 . n}=\bigcap_{n} E_{0, n}$, and so is, in fact, the subobject of $E$ designated as $E_{0, \infty}$ in Section 1. Of course, the identical argument would establish that if we pulled back from the $m^{\text {th }}$ derived couple we would obtain $E_{m, \infty}$, as defined in (4.19), and that $E_{m, \infty}$ coincides with the description given in Section 1 . We now apply $Q_{\eta}$. The dual of Theorem 5.2 now establishes that we obtain the top row with

$$
E_{\infty, \infty}=\underset{m}{\lim } E_{m, \infty}=\underset{m}{\lim } \underset{\sim}{\lim } E_{m, n},
$$

provided only that we establish that

$$
\begin{align*}
& \boldsymbol{N}_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\beta_{n+1, \infty}} E_{n+1, \infty}  \tag{5.15}\\
& \prod_{\sigma_{n}}^{\sigma_{n}} \xrightarrow[\beta_{n, \infty}]{\sigma_{n, \infty}} E_{n, \infty}
\end{align*}
$$

is a push-out, for all $n$. It is plainly sufficient to show this for $n=0$, so we look at


Now the middle row of (5.14) is exact - the argument is exactly as for Theorem 4.5. Thus both the rows of (5.16) are exact and from this it readily follows that (5.15) (with $n=0$ ) is a push-out. (From this it also follows that $\sigma_{n . \infty}$ is an epimorphism, but this can be proved in many ways.) Since $E_{\infty}$ was defined in Section 1 as $\underset{m}{\lim } E_{m, \infty}$, we have established that $E_{\infty, \infty}=E_{\infty}$. Now since we could have executed $Q_{\eta}^{v}$ as $Q^{v} Q_{\eta}$ it follows immediately that

$$
E_{\infty, \infty}=\lim _{\underset{n}{ }}^{\lim _{m}} E_{m, n}
$$

so that (5.11) is established.

The exactness of the top row of (5.14) follows exactly as in the proof of Theorem 4.5 and the determinations (4.22), (4.23), (4.26) of $E_{m, \infty}, E_{\infty}$, $E_{\infty, n}$ respectively now follow from the appropriate exact sequences. $\left.\quad\right]$

Remark. The reader should note that Theorem 5.3 as stated is valid in any abelian category in which the appropriate limits exist. There are no arguments essentially involving elements and diagram-chasing.

Of course, (4.22), (4.23) and (4.26) require modification in an arbitrary abelian category; the best description is then the statement of the appropriate exact sequence; thus

$$
\begin{align*}
& D_{m} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{m}} D_{m} \xrightarrow{\beta_{m, \infty}} E_{m, \infty} \xrightarrow{\gamma_{m, \infty}} I \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime \prime}} I,  \tag{5.17}\\
& U \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime}} U \xrightarrow{\beta_{\infty}} E_{\infty} \xrightarrow{\gamma_{\infty}} I \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime \prime}} I,  \tag{5.18}\\
& U \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime}} U \xrightarrow{\beta_{\infty, n}} E_{\alpha, n} \xrightarrow{\gamma_{\infty, n}} D_{n} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{n}} D_{n} . \tag{5.19}
\end{align*}
$$

Of course the limit term could also be characterized by means of the $Q_{\eta}^{\eta}$-process, but this would conceal the fact that it depends only on the spectral sequence and not on the exact couple.

The reader should also notice that the exact couple (1.1) ceases to be an exact couple "in the limit" but remains an exact sequence (5.18). We wish to stress that the exact couple disappears because we are carrying out both limiting and colimiting processes. It is thus a remarkable fact embedded in (5.11) that these two processes commute in our special case.

There would have to be some trivial modifications of detail in the case of a graded category as explained at the end of Section 4. It is unnecessary to enter into details.

## Exercises:

5.1. Complete the details of the proof of Theorem 5.1.
5.2. Show that Theorem 5.2 is a special case of Theorem 5.1.
5.3. Show that the usual definition of the direct limit of a direct system of groups is a special case of the given definition of colimit.
5.4. Let $D(i, j)$ be a doubly-indexed family of non-zero abelian groups, $0 \leqq i<\infty$, $0 \leqq j<\infty$. Let $I^{\text {opp }}=J$, where $J$ is the ordered set of non-negative integers, and let $F: I \times J \rightarrow \mathscr{U}$ be given by

$$
F\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)=\bigoplus_{i \leq i_{0}, j \leq j_{0}} D(i, j) .
$$

Complete the functor on $I \times J$ by the projections $F\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right) \rightarrow F\left(i_{1}, j_{0}\right)$, if $i_{1} \leqq i_{0}$, and the injections $F\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right) \rightarrow F\left(i_{0}, j_{1}\right)$, if $j_{0} \leqq j_{1}$. Show that

$$
\underset{J}{\lim } \underset{I}{\lim } F \neq \underset{I}{\lim } \underset{J}{\lim F} .
$$

5.5. Deduce that (5.15) is a push-out (for $n=0$ ) from the exactness of the rows of (5.16).

## 6. Rees Systems and Filtered Complexes

In Section 2 we studied filtered differential objects, and pointed out that, under certain conditions, the $E_{\infty}$ term of the associated spectral sequence was obtained by applying the functor $G r{ }^{\circ} H$ to the given filtered differential object. Explicit conditions in the case of a filtered chain complex were given in Section 3. Our main objective in this section is to examine the problem in complete generality, so as to be able to obtain necessary and sufficient conditions for

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{\infty} \cong G r\llcorner H(C) . C \in(\mathfrak{A}, d, f) . \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

These conditions will then imply the relevant results of Section 3. Thus this section, and the next, can be omitted by the reader content with the situations covered by the finite convergence criteria of Section 3. Such a reader may also ignore Section 8, where we discuss, in greater generality than in Sections 2 and 3, the passage from $\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{C})$ to $\mathrm{Gr} \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{C})$.

We will generalize the framework of our theory in order to simplify the development. Given an abelian category $\mathfrak{A}$, consider triples ( $G, A, \theta$ ) consisting of a differential object $G$ of $(\mathfrak{A}, d)$. a differential subobject $A$ of $G$ and an automorphism $\theta: G \stackrel{\sim}{\rightarrow} G$ such that $\theta A \cong A$. We thus obtain a category $\mathfrak{I}(\mathfrak{N}, d)$. If (see (2.1))

$$
\cdots \cong C^{(p-1)} \subseteq C^{(p)} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq C, \quad-\infty<p<\infty
$$

is an object of $(\mathfrak{A}, d, f)$. we obtain a functor

$$
\begin{equation*}
F:(\mathfrak{Q}, d, f) \rightarrow \mathfrak{T}\left(\mathfrak{A}^{\mathbf{Z}}, d\right) \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

by setting

$$
\begin{aligned}
& G(C)=\bigoplus_{p \in \mathbf{Z}} C \\
& A(C)=\bigoplus_{p \in \mathbb{Z}} C^{(p)}
\end{aligned}
$$

(with the evident differential of $p$-degree 0 ), and defining $\theta: G(C) \rightarrow G(C)$ to be the morphism of degree +1 which is the identity on each component. Thus we will later use the functor $F$ of (6.2) to apply our results on triples ( $G, A, \theta$ ) to filtered differential objects, by considering the triple $F(C)$, $C \in(\mathfrak{A}, d, f)$.

Given $(G, A, \theta) \in \mathfrak{I}(\mathfrak{A}, d)$, set $B=\theta A$. There are then exact sequences of differential objects (using the habitual notation of modules)

$$
\begin{align*}
& S_{1}: B \stackrel{i}{\rightarrow} A \stackrel{j}{\rightarrow} A / B \\
& S_{2}: A / B \xrightarrow{i} G / B \xrightarrow{\dot{j}} G / A  \tag{6.3}\\
& S_{3}: A \xrightarrow{i_{A}} G \xrightarrow{j_{A}} G / A \\
& S_{4}: B \stackrel{{ }_{B}}{\longrightarrow} G \xrightarrow{j_{B}} G / B
\end{align*}
$$

If we write $\theta$ for the isomorphisms $G \cong G, A \cong B, G / A \cong G / B$, then these four sequences are connected by morphisms as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{1} \xrightarrow{\left(1, i_{A}, \bar{i}\right)} S_{4} \stackrel{(i, 1, \bar{j})}{\rightleftharpoons} S_{3} \xrightarrow{\left(j, j_{B}, 1\right)} S_{2} \tag{6.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where we use the symbol $\theta$ to represent any isomorphism induced by the isomorphism $\theta:(G, A) \sim \sim(G, B)$. Passing to homology, using the same symbols as in (6.3) for the induced homology morphisms and $\omega_{i}$ for the connecting homomorphism associated with the sequence $S_{i} . i=1.2,3,4$, we obtain the diagram

where the morphisms (6.4) imply the commutativity relations

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
i_{A} i=i_{B}, & \bar{j} j_{B}=j_{A}, & \bar{i} j=j_{B} i_{A}, \\
\omega_{4} \bar{i}=\omega_{1}, & j \omega_{3}=\omega_{2}, & i \omega_{4}=\omega_{3} \bar{j},  \tag{6.6}\\
\theta i_{A}=i_{B} \theta, & \theta j_{A}=j_{B} \theta, & \theta \omega_{3}=\omega_{4} \theta .
\end{array}
$$

We use the isomorphism $\theta: S_{3} \stackrel{\sim}{\rightarrow} S_{4}$ to bring triangle (4) into coincidence with triangle (3) in (6.5). That is, we write

$$
\begin{gather*}
D=H(A), \quad E=H(A / B), \quad \bar{D}=H(G / A), \quad \Gamma=H(G),  \tag{6.7}\\
\alpha=i \theta, \quad \beta=j, \quad \gamma=\theta^{-1} \omega_{1} ; \\
\bar{\alpha}=\bar{j} \theta, \quad \bar{\beta}=\omega_{2}, \quad \bar{\gamma}=\theta^{-1} \bar{i} ;  \tag{6.8}\\
\xi=\omega_{3}, \quad \varphi=i_{A}, \quad \bar{\varphi}=j_{A},
\end{gather*}
$$

and obtain the diagram

in which (1) and (2) are exact couples, (3) is an exact triangle, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha \xi=\xi \bar{\alpha}, \quad \beta \xi=\bar{\beta}, \quad \gamma=\xi \bar{\gamma} . \tag{6.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, there is an automorphism $\theta: \Gamma \widetilde{\rightarrow} \Gamma$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta \varphi=\varphi \alpha, \quad \bar{\varphi} \theta=\bar{\alpha} \bar{\varphi}, \quad \bar{\varphi} \theta^{-1} \varphi=\bar{\gamma} \beta . \tag{6.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

We call (6.9), where the morphisms satisfy (6.10), a Rees system in $\mathfrak{A}$. If there is given an automorphism $\theta$ satisfying (6.11) we say that the Rees system is special. We thus get (with the evident definition of the morphisms) two categories $\mathfrak{R}(\mathfrak{H}, \boldsymbol{d}), \mathfrak{S}(\mathfrak{U}, \boldsymbol{d})$ and an underlying functor $U: \subseteq \rightarrow \Re$. In fact, in this book, all the Rees systems we meet will be special. However, we prefer to retain the notion of a Rees system, since not all our arguments require the existence of $\theta$. We thus have described a functor $R: \mathfrak{I}(\mathfrak{A}, d) \rightarrow \mathfrak{S}(\mathfrak{A}, d)$. Notice that every exact couple, EC, may be regarded as a Rees system by setting

$$
\begin{aligned}
(1) & =\boldsymbol{E C}, \\
\text { (2) } & =\boldsymbol{E C}, \\
\Gamma & =0, \\
\xi & =1,
\end{aligned}
$$

and this Rees system is trivially special. Thus we have a full embedding $E: \mathfrak{C} \mathfrak{C}(\mathfrak{A}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{S}(\mathfrak{A}, d)$. Notice also that, for the triple $F(C)$, where $C$ is a filtered differential object, the exact couple (2.9) coincides with (1) in (6.9). Thus, by extracting the exact couple (1) from the Rees system (6.9) we get a functor $\bar{E}: \mathbb{S}(\mathfrak{A}, d) \rightarrow \mathfrak{E} \mathbb{C}(\mathfrak{A})$; and we have

$$
\bar{E} E=1,
$$

and the following elementary proposition.
Proposition 6.1. The diagram

commutes. $]$
Theorem 6.2. In the Rees system (6.9) the spectral sequences of the couples (1) and (2) coincide.

Proof. The relations (6.10) assert that we have a morphism of $\mathfrak{C C}$,

$$
(\xi, 1): \text { (2) } \rightarrow \text { (1) } .
$$

Applying the spectral sequence functor. we get

$$
S S(\xi, 1): S S(2) \rightarrow S S \text { (1) } .
$$

But $\operatorname{SS}(\xi, 1)$ is then a morphism of spectral sequences which is the identity at the $\boldsymbol{E}_{0}$-level. It is, therefore, the identity.

Thus we have a unique spectral sequence associated with any Rees system,

$$
\begin{equation*}
S S_{(1)}=S S_{(2)} \text {. } \tag{6.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

In view of (6.13) it is natural to ask whether we may generalize the process. described in Section 1, for deriving an exact couple to obtain the derived system of a Rees system. We now present this generalization.

We base ourselves on the Rees system (6.9). We may plainly pass to the derived couples of the couples (1) and (2) - since. by (6.13). their spectral sequences coincide - and then ( $\xi, 1$ ) induces a morphism $\left(\xi_{1}, 1\right)$ of the derived couples, where $\xi_{1}: D_{1} \rightarrow D_{1}$. Now consider the diagram


Plainly $\bar{\varrho}$ is a factor of $\bar{\varphi}$; for $\bar{\varrho}$ is the kernel of $\bar{\beta}$ and $\bar{\beta} \bar{\varphi}=\beta \xi \bar{\varphi}=0$. Similarly $\sigma$ is a factor of $\varphi$, so that if we apply the $\theta_{\sigma}^{\bar{\sigma}}$-process to $(\varphi, \bar{\varphi})$ we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{1} \xrightarrow{\varphi_{1}} \Gamma \xrightarrow{\bar{\varphi}_{1}} \bar{D}_{1}, \varphi_{1} \sigma=\varphi, \bar{\varrho} \bar{\varphi}_{1}=\bar{\varphi} . \tag{6.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, the proof of Theorem 4.5 applies here to show that. since (3) is exact, namely,

$$
\bar{D} \xrightarrow{\xi} D \xrightarrow{\varphi} \Gamma \xrightarrow{\bar{\Phi}} \bar{D} \xrightarrow{\xi} D,
$$

so is the derived triangle

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{D}_{1} \xrightarrow{\xi_{1}} D_{1} \xrightarrow{\varphi_{1}} \Gamma \xrightarrow{\bar{\varphi}_{1}} \bar{D}_{1} \xrightarrow{\xi_{1}} D_{1} . \tag{6.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus we have proved
Theorem 6.3. The Rees system (6.9) induces a derived Rees system


Proposition 6.4. Given a Rees system (6.9) and its derived system (6.16), we have $\bar{\gamma} \beta=\bar{\varrho} \bar{\gamma}_{1} \beta_{1} \sigma$.

Proof. This follows immediately from the definitions of $\beta_{1}, \bar{\gamma}_{1}$ given in Section 1. A proof valid in any abelian category is given in [10; Prop. 7.16]. [

Proposition 6.5. If (6.9) is special then (6.16) is special with the same $\theta: \Gamma \cong \Gamma$.

Proof. Suppose given $\theta$ satisfying (6.11). Then

$$
\theta \varphi_{1} \sigma=\theta \varphi=\varphi \alpha=\varphi_{1} \sigma \alpha=\varphi_{1} \alpha_{1} \sigma
$$

so that $\theta \varphi_{1}=\varphi_{1} \alpha_{1}$. Similarly $\bar{\varphi}_{1} \theta=\bar{\alpha}_{1} \bar{\varphi}$. Finally

$$
\bar{\varrho} \bar{\varphi}_{1} \theta^{-1} \varphi_{1} \sigma=\bar{\varphi} \theta^{-1} \varphi=\bar{\gamma} \beta=\bar{\varrho} \bar{\gamma}_{1} \beta_{1} \sigma
$$

so that $\bar{\varphi}_{1} \theta^{-1} \varphi_{1}=\bar{\gamma}_{1} \beta_{1} . \quad \square$
Our principal interest lies, of course, in the Rees system associated with $F(C)$, where $C$ is a filtered chain complex, and we use this application to motivate our next discussion. We are going to want to know when $E_{\infty} \cong G r: H(C)$, so we look for $G r<H(C)$ within the Rees system associated with $F(C)$. We may immediately prove

Proposition 6.6. For the triple $F(C)$, we have

$$
G r \quad H(C)=i_{A} H(A) / i_{B} H(B)=\operatorname{ker} j_{A} / \operatorname{ker} j_{B} .
$$

Proof. Plainly, if $G=G(C), A=A(C)$. then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& i_{A} H(A)=\bigoplus_{p} \operatorname{im} H\left(C^{(p)}\right), \\
& i_{B} H(B)=\bigoplus_{p} \operatorname{im} H\left(C^{(p-1)}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $i_{A} H(A) / i_{B} H(B)=\bigoplus_{p} \operatorname{im} H\left(C^{(p)}\right) / \operatorname{im} H\left(C^{(p-1)}\right)=G r=H(C)$. The second equality follows from exactness. $]$

It has been established that the couples (1) and (2) lead to identical spectral sequences such that $E=E_{0}=H\left(A_{i}^{\prime} B\right)$, so that we should look for conditions under which

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{\infty} \cong i_{A} H(A) / i_{B} H(B) \tag{6.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, in the notation of the Rees system (6.9), obtained from (6.5), we have the relations

$$
\begin{align*}
i_{A} H(A) / i_{B} H(B) & =\varphi D / \theta \varphi D  \tag{6.18}\\
\operatorname{ker} j_{A} / \operatorname{ker} j_{B} & =\operatorname{ker} \bar{\varphi} / \operatorname{ker} \bar{\varphi} \theta^{-1}
\end{align*}
$$

We set, for any Rees system (6.9),

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma^{+}=\varphi D / \varphi \alpha D, \Gamma^{-}=\operatorname{ker} \bar{\alpha} \bar{\varphi} / \operatorname{ker} \bar{\varphi} \tag{6.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, in the Rees system associated with $F(C)$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma^{+}=G r \circ H(C) \tag{6.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

and, moreover,
Proposition 6.7. In a special Rees system (6.9) $\theta$ induces an isomorphism

$$
\theta: \Gamma^{-} \xlongequal{\rightarrow} \Gamma^{+} .
$$

Remark. There is an isomorphism $\Gamma^{-} \cong \Gamma^{+}$in any Rees system, even if it is not special (see Theorem 7.25 of [10]).

Thus we are concerned, in studying the filtered chain complex $C$, to decide whether

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{\infty} \cong \Gamma^{+} . \tag{6.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

We draw particular attention to the fact that the convergence criterion (6.21) is stated entirely within the Rees system, and we will give necessary and sufficient conditions for (6.21) to hold in the next section. The exact couple (1) (or (2)) of (6.9) plainly cannot contain the information to decide whether $E_{\infty} \cong G r \cdot H(C)$, since $C$ does not appear in (1), only the filtering subcomplexes $C^{(p)}$. Thus it is preferable to replace the category $\mathfrak{C C C}$ by the category $\mathfrak{G}$ in setting up the chain of functors leading from filtered chain complexes to spectral sequences. Specifically (see Proposition 6.1) we have the commutative diagram

and the top row of (6.19) has the advantage over the bottom row that, in the Rees system $R F(C)$, we retain the information necessary for deciding whether $E_{\infty} \cong G r \cdot H(C)$. whereas in $\bar{H}(C)$ we can only decide internal questions relating to the convergence of the spectral sequence (e.g.. whether it converges finitely). We wish to emphasize this point because many spectral sequences (for example, that which relates ordinary homology to a general homology theory in algebraic topology) do not arise from a filtered chain complex, but do lead naturally to a (special) Rees system.

We close this section by rendering explicit all the objects appearing in the Rees system (6.9) obtained from a filtered chain complex $C$ and listing the bidegrees of the morphisms. Of course, the exact couple (1) in (6.9) is just (2.9) and the exact couple (2) in (6.9) is just (3.4).

Notice, first, that the term $\Gamma=H(C)$ is only graded, although we may, conventionally, bigrade it, as explained below. Then, referring to (6.9),

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
D=\left\{D^{p, q}\right\}, D^{p, q}=H_{q}\left(C^{(p)}\right) ;  \tag{6.23}\\
\bar{D}=\left\{\bar{D}^{p, q}\right\}, \bar{D}^{p, q}=H_{q}\left(C^{\prime} / C^{(p-1)}\right) ; \\
E=\left\{E^{p, q}\right\}, E^{p, q}=H_{q}\left(C^{(p)} / C^{(p-1)}\right) ; \\
\Gamma=\left\{\Gamma^{p, q}\right\}, \Gamma^{p, q}=H_{q}(C) ;
\end{array}\right\}
$$

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
\operatorname{deg} \alpha=(1,0), \operatorname{deg} \beta=(0,0), \operatorname{deg} \gamma=(-1,-1) ; \\
\operatorname{deg} \bar{\alpha}=(1,0), \operatorname{deg} \bar{\beta}=(-1,-1), \operatorname{deg} \bar{\gamma}=(0,0) ;  \tag{6.24}\\
\operatorname{deg} \xi=(-1,-1), \operatorname{deg} \varphi=(0,0), \operatorname{deg} \bar{\varphi}=(1,0) ; \\
\theta: \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma \text { is the identity morphism of degree }(1,0) .
\end{array}\right\}
$$

Here the $p$-degrees of $\varphi, \bar{\varphi}$ are, of course, purely conventional; what is important is that the $p$-degree of $\bar{\varphi} \varphi$ is 1 .

Passing to the $n^{\text {th }}$ derived Rees system of the Rees system (6.9) obtained from a filtered chain complex $C$, we obtain the bidegrees

$$
\begin{align*}
& \operatorname{deg} \alpha_{n}=(1,0), \operatorname{deg} \beta_{n}=(-n, 0), \operatorname{deg} \gamma_{n}=(-1,-1) ; \\
& \operatorname{deg} \bar{\alpha}_{n}=(1,0), \operatorname{deg} \bar{\beta}_{n}=(-n-1,-1), \operatorname{deg} \bar{\gamma}_{n}=(0,0) ; \\
& \operatorname{deg} \xi_{n}=(-1,-1), \operatorname{deg} \varphi_{n}=(0,0), \operatorname{deg} \bar{\varphi}_{n}=(1,0) ;  \tag{6.25}\\
& \operatorname{deg} d_{n}=(-n-1,-1)
\end{align*}
$$

We remark that the asymmetry between the degrees in the derived couples of (1) and (2) arises from our conventional insistence on regarding $D_{n}$ and $\bar{D}_{n}$ as subobjects of $D$ and $\bar{D}$, respectively. We would preserve symmetry by regarding $D_{n}$ as a subobject and $\bar{D}_{n}$ as a quotient object.

We revert finally to the convention (3.3),

$$
\bar{D}^{p, q}=H_{q}\left(C / C^{(p-1)}\right)
$$

This convention was, as explained above, essential if we were to have symmetry between the degrees in the couples (1) and (2) of the Rees system $R F(C)$ - and so a chance of symmetry on the degrees of the derived couples. It is also consistent with the view that $\operatorname{Gr} \subset H(C)$ is really a "self-dual" construction; one either considers the family of morphisms $H\left(C^{(p)}\right) \xrightarrow{\varphi^{p}} H(C)$, passes to the induced epimorphisms of cokernels coker $\varphi^{p-1} \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \varphi^{p}$, and takes kernels - or one considers the family of morphisms $H(C) \xrightarrow{\bar{\varphi}^{p-1}} H\left(C / C^{(p-1)}\right)$, passes to the induced monomorphisms of kernels $\operatorname{ker} \bar{\varphi}^{p-1} \longmapsto \operatorname{ker} \bar{\varphi}^{p}$, and takes cokernels.

## Exercises:

6.1. Identify the morphisms of (6.9), including $\theta$, for the Rees system of the triple $F(C)$, and establish the commutativity relations (6.10), (6.11).
6.2. Interpret the relations $\bar{\varphi} \theta^{-1} \varphi=\bar{\gamma} \beta, \bar{\varphi}_{1} \theta^{-1} \varphi_{1}=\bar{\gamma}_{1} \beta_{1}$ for the Rees system of the triple $F(C)$.
6.3. Establish the remark following Proposition 6.7.
6.4. Do the couples (1) and (2) of (6.9) together contain all information necessary to determine if $E_{\infty} \cong G r \cdot H(C)$ ?
6.5. Obtain a special Rees system for a filtered cochain complex, paying special attention to the degrees of the morphisms involved.
6.6. Formulate the ladder of a Rees system!

## 7. The Limit of a Rees System

In this section we introduce the limit of a Rees system; our particular interest is in obtaining necessary and sufficient conditions for the isomorphism (6.21) $E_{\infty} \cong \Gamma^{+}$and to show how these conditions include those of Section 3.

We use the limiting processes introduced in Section 5, and obtain from (6.9), first, the diagram


The morphisms $\beta_{\infty}, \gamma_{\infty}, \bar{\beta}_{\infty}, \bar{\gamma}_{\infty}$ were defined in Section 5. The morphisms $\xi_{I}, \xi_{U}$ are obtained by applying limit and colimit functors to the morphism $\xi: \bar{D} \rightarrow D$. The morphism $\varphi_{U}$ is obtained by means of the morphisms $\varphi_{n}: D_{n} \rightarrow \Gamma$ of the successive derived Rees systems using the universal property of the colimit; and similarly for $\bar{\varphi}_{\bar{I}}$. We have the exact sequences

$$
\begin{align*}
& U \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime}} U \xrightarrow{\beta_{\infty}} E_{\infty} \xrightarrow{\gamma_{\infty}} I \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime \prime}} I,  \tag{7.2}\\
& \bar{U} \xrightarrow{\tilde{\alpha}^{\prime}} \bar{U} \xrightarrow{\bar{\beta}_{\infty}} E_{\infty} \xrightarrow{\bar{p}_{\infty}} \bar{I} \xrightarrow{\overline{\mathrm{~B}}^{\prime \prime}} \bar{I} .
\end{align*}
$$

Moreover, the commutativities

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta_{\infty} \xi_{U}=\bar{\beta}_{\alpha}, \quad \gamma_{\alpha}=\xi_{I} \bar{\gamma}_{\infty}, \quad \xi_{U} \bar{\alpha}^{\prime}=\alpha^{\prime} \xi_{U}, \quad \xi_{I} \bar{\alpha}^{\prime \prime}=\alpha^{\prime \prime} \xi_{I} \tag{7.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

follow from the corresponding commutativities of the successive derived Rees systems. We claim

Theorem 7.1. The sequences

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \bar{U} \xrightarrow{\xi_{U}} U \xrightarrow{\varphi_{U}} \Gamma, \\
& \Gamma \xrightarrow{\bar{\varphi} \bar{I}} \bar{I} \xrightarrow{\xi_{L}} I
\end{aligned}
$$

are exact.
Proof. Since $\xi_{U}, \varphi_{U}$ are induced by $\xi, \varphi$ by passing to quotient objects, the exactness of $\bar{U} \xrightarrow{\xi_{U}} U \xrightarrow{\varphi_{U}} \Gamma$ follows immediately from that of $\bar{D} \xrightarrow{\xi} D \xrightarrow{\varphi} \Gamma$. Similarly for the second sequence.

Recall (6.19) that $\Gamma^{+}$was defined as $\varphi D / \varphi \alpha D$ and $\Gamma^{-}$as $\operatorname{ker} \bar{\alpha} \bar{\varphi} / \operatorname{ker} \bar{\varphi}$. We immediately infer

Proposition 7.2.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Gamma^{+}=\varphi_{U} U / \varphi_{U} \alpha^{\prime} U \\
& \Gamma^{-}=\operatorname{ker} \bar{\alpha}^{\prime \prime} \bar{\varphi}_{I} / \operatorname{ker} \bar{\varphi}_{I} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. Obviously $\varphi_{U} U=\varphi D, \varphi_{U} \alpha^{\prime} U=\varphi \alpha D$. As to the second expression, we may appeal to duality (the two expressions actually are dual, although their expressions disguise the fact!), or invoke the diagram


We also observe that, in a special Rees system with $\theta: \Gamma \stackrel{\sim}{\rightarrow} \Gamma$, the third of the identities (6.11) "goes to the limit", yielding

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{\varphi}_{\bar{I}} \theta^{-1} \varphi_{U}=\bar{\gamma}_{\infty} \beta_{\infty} . \tag{7.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now put the facts together to yield the main theorem of this section.
Theorem 7.3. The Rees system (6.9) gives rise to the limit diagram

with exact rows and columns.
Proof. The exact sequence (5.18) yields the exact sequences involving $\beta_{*}, \gamma_{*} ; \bar{\beta}_{*}, \bar{\gamma}_{*}$. The diagram

immediately yields, by passing to cokernels. the exact sequence

$$
\operatorname{coker} \bar{\alpha}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\xi^{\prime}} \operatorname{coker} \alpha^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\varphi^{+}} \Gamma^{+} .
$$

However, $\xi^{\prime}$ is monomorphic, in view of the diagram

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\bar{U} \xrightarrow{\xi_{U}} U \\
\downarrow_{\bar{\alpha}} & \|^{*} . \\
\bar{U} \xrightarrow{\xi_{U}} & U \\
\downarrow_{\bar{\beta}_{\alpha}} & \downarrow^{\beta_{\infty}} \\
E_{\infty}= & E_{\infty}
\end{array}
$$

with exact columns. By duality we obtain the exact sequence

$$
\Gamma^{-}, \overline{\bar{\varphi}}^{-} \operatorname{ker} \bar{\alpha}^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{\xi^{\prime \prime}} \operatorname{ker} \alpha^{\prime \prime} .
$$

Finally, we set $\bar{\varphi}^{+}=\bar{\varphi}^{-} \theta^{-1}$ (Proposition 6.7) and establish the commutativity of the upper right hand square by appeal to (7.4). $\quad \square$

It is now obvious from Theorem 7.3 that $\Gamma^{+} \cong E_{\infty}$ via a natural isomorphism if and only if coker $\bar{\alpha}^{\prime}=0$ and $\operatorname{ker} \alpha^{\prime \prime}=0$. To make this statement quite precise, we need here the notion of a homomorphic relation between two objects $X$ and $Y$ of an abelian category $\mathfrak{A}$; this is simply a subobject of $X \oplus Y$. We also speak of a homomorphic relation from $X$ to $Y$. Now it follows from Theorem 7.3 that we have an exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{coker} \alpha^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\left(\beta_{*}, \varphi^{+}\right)} E_{\infty} \oplus \Gamma^{+} \xrightarrow{\left\langle\bar{\gamma}_{\star},-\bar{\varphi}^{+}\right\rangle} \operatorname{ker} \bar{\alpha}^{\prime \prime} \tag{7.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

so we obtain a homomorphic relation $\Theta$ from $E_{\infty}$ to $\Gamma^{+}$which is $\operatorname{im}\left\{\beta_{*}, \varphi^{+}\right\}$. Evidently $\Theta$ is natural.

Now a homomorphic relation can only be an isomorphism if it is a morphism (for the general theory of homomorphic relations see [22]). Thus we are led to the following important corollary, rendering precise the conclusion refered to above.

Corollary 7.4. The homomorphic relation $\Theta$ from $E_{\infty}$ to $\Gamma^{+}$is an isomorphism if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{coker} \bar{\alpha}^{\prime}=0, \quad \operatorname{ker} \alpha^{\prime \prime}=0 . \tag{7.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus the conditions (7.7) are the necessary and sufficient conditions for the validity of (6.21); and hence of (6.17), $E_{\infty} \cong i_{A} H(A) / i_{B} H(B)$, for a Rees system arising from a triple ( $G, A, \theta$ ). We may apply this to the case of a differential filtered object

$$
\cdots \cong C^{(p-1)} \subseteq C^{(p)} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq C, \quad-\infty<p<\infty,
$$

by means of the functor $F(6.2)$. Then $\Gamma^{+}=i_{A} H(A) / i_{B} H(B)=G r \circ H(C)$. With a view to interpreting conditions (7.7) in this case, we define the subobject $I_{p}$ of $H\left(C^{(p)}\right)$ as

$$
I_{p}=\bigcap_{k} \alpha^{k} H\left(C^{(p-k)}\right)
$$

where $\alpha: H\left(C^{(p-1)}\right) \rightarrow H\left(C^{(p)}\right)$ is induced by the inclusion; and we define the quotient object $\bar{U}_{p}$ of $H\left(C / C^{(p)}\right)$ as

$$
\bar{U}_{p}=H\left(C / C^{(p)}\right) / \bigcup_{k} \bar{\alpha}^{-k}(0),
$$

where $\bar{x}: H\left(C / C^{(p)}\right) \rightarrow H\left(C / C^{(p+1)}\right)$ is induced by the inclusion of $C^{(p)}$ in $C^{(p+1)}$. We conclude

Theorem 7.5. In the spectral sequence arising from a filtered differential object C, the homomorphic relation $\Theta$ from $E_{\infty}$ to $\operatorname{Gr} \cdot \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{C})$ is an
isomorphism if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
I_{p} \cap \alpha^{-1}(0)=0, \quad \bar{\alpha}^{\prime} \bar{U}_{p}=\bar{U}_{p+1}, \quad \text { for all } p \tag{7.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\bar{\alpha}^{\prime}$ is induced by $\bar{\alpha}$. $\square$
Let us finally observe how condition (3.9), that $C$ be homologically finite, automatically - indeed, trivially - guarantees (7.8). For, in this case, we are dealing with a filtered graded differential object $C$ and (3.9) (i) implies that $I_{p . q}=0$ for all $p, q$ so that $I_{p}=0$ for all $p$, while (3.9) (ii) implies that $\bar{U}_{p . q}=0$ for all $p, q$ so that $\bar{U}_{p}=0$ for all $p$.

More generally, we may paraphrase (7.8), in the case of a filtered (graded) differential group $C$ almost precisely as follows. We say that an element of $H_{q}\left(C^{(p)}\right)$ has filtration $-\infty$ if it belongs to $I_{p, q}$ that is, if it is in the image of $H_{q}\left(C^{(r)}\right.$ ) for all $r \leqq p$; and we say that an element of $H_{q}\left(C^{(p)}\right)$ is stable if it is non-zero in every $H_{q}\left(C^{(r)}\right), r \geqq p$. We apply similar terminology to $H_{q}\left(C / C^{(p)}\right)$. Then (7.8) may be translated as saying: "elements of $H_{q}\left(C^{(p)}\right)$ of filtration $-\infty$ are stable; stable elements of $H_{q}\left(C / C^{(p)}\right)$ have filtration $-\infty$ ".

## Exercises:

7.1. Specify the morphisms $\varphi_{U}, \varphi_{\bar{I}}$ of (7.1).
7.2. Prove (7.4).
7.3. Apply Theorem 7.5 to filtered cochain complexes.
7.4. Show that, in a category of modules, $\alpha^{\prime}: U \rightarrow U$ is monomorphic. Give an example to show that $\alpha^{\prime \prime}: I \rightarrow I$ need not be epimorphic.
7.5. Identify the sequence coker $\alpha^{\prime} \rightarrow E_{\infty} \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \alpha^{\prime \prime}$ in the case of the spectral sequences associated with the couples of Exercises 1.5, 1.6. (These are called the Bockstein spectral sequences.) Consider both the case where $C$ is of finite type and the general case.

## 8. Completions of Filtrations

Suppose given two filtered differential objects $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ and a morphism $\varphi: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$. Thus we have


Then $\varphi$ induces a morphism of the associated spectral sequences, say,

$$
\varphi_{*}: \boldsymbol{E} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{E}^{\prime}
$$

Now it is easy to prove that the terms $E_{m . n}$ of Section 4 (see 4.17) depend naturally on the spectral sequence $E$ (see Corollary 3.16 of [10]), and,
in particular, the term $E_{m, n}, m, n \geqq k$, depends naturally on the part of the spectral sequence $\boldsymbol{E}$ beginning with $E_{k}$. We thus have immediately, in view of (5.11),

Proposition 8.1. If $\varphi_{*}: E_{k} \widetilde{\rightarrow} E_{k}^{\prime}$, then $\left.\varphi_{*}: E_{n} \xlongequal{\rightarrow} E_{n}^{\prime}, k \leqq n \leqq \infty . \quad\right]$
Theorem 7.5 now gives us conditions under which we may infer from $\varphi_{*}: E_{\infty} \widetilde{\rightarrow} E_{\alpha}^{\prime}$ that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi_{*}: G r \cdot H(C) \stackrel{\sim}{\rightarrow} G r: H\left(C^{\prime}\right) \tag{8.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Of course we really want to draw the inference that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi_{*}: H(C) \sim \sim H\left(C^{\prime}\right) \tag{8.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and this section is mainly motivated by this problem: to give a reasonable set of conditions under which (8.2) implies (8.3). Certainly, the condition of homological finiteness for a filtered graded differential object immediately yields the proof of (8.3), given (8.2); for if $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ satisfy this condition then the filtrations of $H_{q}(C), H_{q}\left(C^{\prime}\right)$ are finite and a finite induction yields the desired conclusion. Thus this section may be omitted by those content to confine themselves to applications involving homologically finite filtered chain complexes.

Our aim. then. is to give conditions more general than those of homological finiteness which will still yield the conclusion (8.3) from (8.2). We introduce the notation

$$
\begin{equation*}
X^{p-1} \xrightarrow{\xi_{p}} X^{p} \xrightarrow{\nu p} X \xrightarrow{\eta_{p}} X_{p} \xrightarrow{\xi_{p}} X_{p+1}, \tag{8.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \cong X^{p-1} \cong X^{p} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq X . \quad-\infty<p<\infty \tag{8.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a filtered object in the abelian category $\mathfrak{A}$. $\xi^{p} . v^{p}$ are the inclusions. $\eta_{p}$ is the cokernel of $\nu^{p}$, so that $X_{p}=X / X^{p}$, and $\xi_{p} \eta_{p}=\eta_{p+1}$. Thus $X$ plays the role of $H(C)$ in the discussion. We may refer to

$$
X \xrightarrow{\eta_{p}} X_{p} \xrightarrow{\xi_{p}} X_{p+1}
$$

as the cofiltration associated with the filtration (8.5).
Definition. We say the filtration (8.5) is left complete if

$$
\left(X ; v^{p}\right)=\xrightarrow{\lim }\left(X^{p}, \xi^{p}\right) ;
$$

we say the filtration is right complete if

$$
\left(X ; \eta_{p}\right)=\underset{\leftrightarrows}{\lim }\left(X_{p}, \xi_{p}\right),
$$

we say the filtration (8.5) is complete if it is left complete and right complete.

Remarks. (i) A finite filtration is obviously complete. (ii) If $\mathfrak{H}$ is a category of modules then (8.5) is left complete if and only if $X=\bigcup_{p} X^{p}$. However the description of right completeness is even in this case more complicated. For we require two properties: (i) $\bigcap_{p} X^{p}=0$ (dual to the property singled out as characterizing left completeness) and (ii) given a compatible set of elements $x_{p} \in X_{p}$ (i.e., $\xi_{p}\left(x_{p}\right)=x_{p+1}$ ), we require the existence of $x \in X$ with $\eta_{p}(x)=x_{p}$. We will see below just why this extra condition arises and we will give an example to show that it is essential.

Our aim is to show that, if the filtration of $H(C)$ is complete, then (8.3) follows from (8.2). To this end we consider the following situation. We suppose that, for all $p, v^{p}: X^{\boldsymbol{p}} \longleftrightarrow X$ factorizes as $X^{\boldsymbol{p}} \stackrel{v^{\prime} p}{\longrightarrow} Y \xrightarrow{\mu} X$, where $\mu$ is independent of $p$. Set $Y_{p}=Y / X^{p}$ and let $\eta_{p}^{\prime}: Y \rightarrow Y_{p}$ be the projection. Then $\xi_{p}: X_{p} \rightarrow X_{p+1}$ induces $\xi_{p}^{\prime}: Y_{p} \rightarrow Y_{p+1}$, and we have the commutative diagram


Proposition 8.2. If $\left(X ; \eta_{p}\right)=\underset{\longleftrightarrow}{\lim }\left(X_{p}, \xi_{p}\right)$, then $\left(Y ; \eta_{p}^{\prime}\right)=\lim _{\longleftrightarrow}\left(Y_{p}, \xi_{p}^{\prime}\right)$.
Proof. The right hand square of (8.6) is a pull-back since $\operatorname{ker} \xi_{p}^{\prime}=\operatorname{ker} \xi_{p}$. It thus follows from Theorem 5.2 that

is a pull-back, where $\left(Y_{-\infty}: \eta_{p}^{\prime \prime}\right)=\lim _{\longleftrightarrow}\left(Y_{p}, \xi_{p}^{\prime}\right)$. But plainly

is also a pull-back, so that $\left(Y ; \eta_{p}^{\prime}\right)=\left(Y_{-\infty} ; \eta_{p}^{\prime \prime}\right)$. $\square$
Now let us write $X_{q}^{p}$ for $X^{p} / X^{q}, q \leqq p$. There is then a commutative square

$$
\begin{gather*}
X_{q}^{p} \\
\stackrel{Q_{q}^{p}}{\longrightarrow} X_{q}^{p+1}  \tag{8.7}\\
{ }^{\sigma_{q}^{p}} \\
X_{q+1}^{p} \stackrel{Q_{q+1}^{p}}{ }{ }^{\sigma_{q}^{p+1}} X_{q+1}^{p+1}
\end{gather*}
$$

which is easily seen to be bicartesian. From Proposition 8.2 (and its dual) we infer

Proposition 8.3. (i) If the filtration (8.5) is right complete, then

$$
{\underset{q}{4}}_{\lim _{q}}\left(X_{q}^{p}, \sigma_{q}^{p}\right)=X^{p}
$$

(ii) If the filtration (8.5) is left complete, then

$$
\underset{p}{\lim }\left(X_{q}^{p}, \varrho_{q}^{p}\right)=X_{q} .
$$

We may now prove our main theorem.
Theorem 8.4. Let $\psi: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ be a morphism of filtered objects in the abelian category $\mathfrak{A l}$. Thus


Suppose that $\psi$ induces $\psi_{*}: \operatorname{Gr}(X) \stackrel{\sim}{\rightarrow} \operatorname{Gr}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$. If the filtrations of $X$ and $X^{\prime}$ are left complete then $\psi_{p}$ is an isomorphism. If the filtrations of $X$ and $X^{\prime}$ are right complete then $\psi^{p}$ is an isomorphism. If the filtrations of $X$ and $X^{\prime}$ are complete then $\psi$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. We are given that $\psi$ induces an isomorphism

$$
\psi_{*}: X^{p} / X^{p-1} \xrightarrow[\rightarrow]{\sim} X^{p} / X^{p-1} .
$$

It then follows by induction on $p-q$ that $\psi$ induces an isomorphism $\psi_{*}: X_{q}^{p} \sim \sim X_{q}^{\prime p}$. For we have the commutative diagram


Thus $\psi$ induces an isomorphism of the square (8.7) with the corresponding square for $X^{\prime}$.

Now if the filtrations of $X$ and $X^{\prime}$ are left complete it follows from Proposition 8.3 (ii) that $\psi_{q}: X_{q} \rightarrow X_{q}^{\prime}$ is an isomorphism for all $q$. Similarly, if the filtrations of $X$ and $X^{\prime}$ are right complete. $\psi^{p}: X^{p} \rightarrow X^{p}$ is an isomorphism for all $p$. The final assertion of the theorem then follows immediately from (8.8). $\square$

We now take up the following question: suppose given a filtered object $X$ in the abelian category $\mathfrak{A}$. Is it possible to associate with $X$, in a functorial manner, a filtered object $Y$ such that (i) the filtration of $Y$ is complete, and (ii) $\operatorname{Gr} Y=G r X$ ? We will show how this may be done. The process will be described as completing the filtration of $X$.

We return to (8.4) and construct $\lim _{\longrightarrow}\left(X^{p}, \xi^{p}\right)$. Thus we obtain

where $\left(X^{\infty} ; v^{\infty, p}\right)=\lim \left(X^{p}, \xi^{p}\right)$. Note that $\lambda$ may be neither monomorphic nor epimorphic; but, if $\mathfrak{A}$ is a category of modules, $\lambda$ is monomorphic. We now construct $\lim _{\longleftarrow}\left(X_{p}^{\infty}, \xi_{p}^{\infty}\right)$. With an obvious notation we obtain


We call the bottom row of $(8.10)$ the completion of the top row.
Theorem 8.5. The completion is a complete filtration of $Y=\left(X^{\infty}\right)_{-\infty}$ and $G r Y=G r X$.

Proof. By construction the filtration of $Y$ is right complete. That it is left complete follows from the dual of Proposition 8.2.

Now. given (8.4), we obtain $G r X$ either by
or by

$$
(G r X)_{p}=\operatorname{coker} \xi^{p}
$$

$$
(G r X)_{p}=\operatorname{ker} \xi_{p-1}
$$

Since $\xi^{p}$ is unchanged in passing from the first row of (8.10) to the second, and $\xi_{p}^{\alpha}$ is unchanged in passing from the second row to the third, it follows that $G r Y=G r X . \quad \square$

Plainly the completion process as described is functorial. Moreover, it is self-dual in the following sense. Starting from (8.4) we may first construct $\underset{( }{\lim }\left(X_{p}, \xi_{p}\right)$ and then construct the appropriate $\underset{\longrightarrow}{\lim }$. We claim that if we do this we obtain (compare (8.10))

with the same bottom row as in (8.10).

In particular,

$$
\begin{align*}
&\left(X^{\infty}\right)_{-\alpha}=\left(X_{-\infty}\right)^{\infty} \\
&\left.\lim _{\underset{q}{ }}^{\underset{p}{\lim }\left(X_{q}^{p} ; \varrho_{q}^{p}, \sigma_{q}^{p}\right)}=\underset{\underset{p}{\lim }}{\underset{\sim}{\leftrightarrows}} \lim _{\underset{q}{ }}^{\lim _{q}^{p}} ; \varrho_{q}^{p}, \sigma_{q}^{p}\right) \tag{8.12}
\end{align*}
$$

The proof of these facts is similar to that of Proposition 8.2. The reader is advised to obtain proofs for himself as an exercise (see also [11]). It is also easy to prove, along the same lines, that the diagram

is bicartesian.
Of course, the filtration (8.5) is left-complete if $\lambda$ is an isomorphism (so then is $\bar{\lambda}$ ) and right-complete if $\kappa$ is an isomorphism (so then is $\bar{\kappa}$ ). Our remark (ii) following the definition of completeness drew attention to the fact, that, in a category of modules, $\lambda$ is monomorphic, so it is only necessary to check that $\lambda$ is epimorphic. On the other hand, $\kappa$ may fail to be epimorphic even for modules. As an example, let $X=\bigoplus_{n \geqq 0} \mathbb{Z}$, a countable direct sum of infinite cyclic groups, and let $X^{p}$ be given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
X^{p} & =X, \quad p \geqq 0 \\
& =\bigoplus_{n \geqq-p} \mathbb{Z} . \quad p<0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

This yields a filtration of $X$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \subseteq X^{p-1} \subseteq X^{p} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq X \tag{8.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is certainly left complete! Passing to the associated cofiltration we obtain

$$
X \xrightarrow{\eta_{p}} X_{p} \xrightarrow{\xi_{p}} X_{p+1},
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
X_{p} & =0, \quad p \geqq 0 \\
& =\bigoplus_{0 \leqq n \leqq-p-1} \mathbb{Z}, \quad p<0
\end{aligned}
$$

and $\eta_{p} \xi_{p}$ are the obvious projections. However, in this case,

$$
X_{-\infty}=\prod_{n \geqq 0} \mathbb{Z}
$$

and $\kappa: X \rightarrow X_{-\infty}$ is the canonical injection $\bigoplus_{n \geqq 0} \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \prod_{n \geqq 0} \mathbb{Z}$. Thus in this case $\bigcap X^{p}=0$ (corresponding to the fact that $\kappa$ is monomorphic), but the filtration (8.14) fails to be right complete.

## Exercises:

8.1. Prove (8.12).
8.2. Prove that (8.13) is bicartesian.
8.3. Prove that, in (8.13), $0 \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \lambda \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \kappa \lambda \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \kappa \rightarrow 0$ is a split short exact sequence. Prove the similar result for cokernels.
8.4. Give examples where, in (8.13), (i) $\lambda$ is not epimorphic, (ii) $\kappa$ is not monomorphic.
8.5. Check the facts stated for the filtration (8.14) and complete the filtration.
8.6. Give two examples from this chapter in which a limit commutes with a colimit.

## 9. The Grothendieck Spectral Sequence

Let $\left(B, \partial^{\prime}, \partial^{\prime \prime}\right)$ be a double complex as defined in Chapter V, Section 1. Thus we have an anticommutative diagram

for each $r, s$. It will be convenient in this section to replace (9.1) by a commutative diagram; this we achieve by setting

$$
\begin{align*}
& d^{\prime}=\partial^{\prime} \\
& d^{\prime \prime}=(-1)^{r} \partial^{\prime \prime} \quad \text { on } \quad B_{r, s} \tag{9.2}
\end{align*}
$$

Of course, we retain the same total differential $\partial=\partial^{\prime}+\partial^{\prime \prime}$ in Tot $B$. We will regard the diagram

as basic and refer to $d^{\prime}, d^{\prime \prime}$ as the horizontal, vertical differentials in $B$, respectively. We may also refer to $\partial^{\prime}, \partial^{\prime \prime}$ as horizontal, vertical differentials.

The complex Tot $\boldsymbol{B}$ may now be filtered in the following two natural ways:

$$
\begin{align*}
{ }_{1} F^{p}(\operatorname{Tot} B)_{n} & =\bigoplus_{\substack{r s=n \\
r \leqq p}} B_{r, s},  \tag{9.4}\\
{ }_{2} F^{p}(\operatorname{Tot} B)_{n} & =\bigoplus_{\substack{r s=n \\
s \leqq p}} B_{r, s} .
\end{align*}
$$

We shall refer to the filtration (9.4) as the first filtration of Tot $\boldsymbol{B}$, and to the filtration (9.5) as the second filtration of Tot B. From these filtrations we obtain two spectral sequences.

Using the same notation as in (V. 1.2) and (V. 1.3) we have
Proposition 9.1. For the (first) spectral sequence associated with the filtration (9.4) we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
{ }_{1} E_{0}^{p, q}=H_{q-p}\left(B_{p, *}, \partial^{\prime \prime}\right), \quad E_{1}^{p, q}=H_{p}\left(H_{q-p}\left(B, \partial^{\prime \prime}\right), \partial^{\prime}\right) \tag{9.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

For the (second) spectral sequence associated with the filtration (9.5) we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
{ }_{2} E^{p, q}=H_{q-p}\left(B_{*, p}, \partial^{\prime}\right), \quad{ }_{2} E^{P^{p, q}}=H_{p}\left(H_{q-p}\left(B, \partial^{\prime}\right), \partial^{\prime \prime}\right) \tag{9.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. We prove (9.7) only, and so permit ourselves to write $F^{p}$ for ${ }_{2} F^{p}$.
Clearly, $F^{p}(\operatorname{Tot} B)_{q} / F^{p-1}(\operatorname{Tot} B)_{q}=B_{q-p, p}$. Moreover the differential $\partial=\partial^{\prime}+\partial^{\prime \prime}$ on Tot $B$ induces on this quotient the horizontal differential $\partial^{\prime}$. This establishes the first assertion of (9.7).

Now $d_{0}$ in the spectral sequence is the composite

$$
H_{q}\left(F^{p} / F^{p-1}\right) \xrightarrow{\downarrow} H_{q-1}\left(F^{p-1}\right) \xrightarrow{\beta} H_{q-1}\left(F^{p-1} / F^{p-2}\right) .
$$

We choose a representative of $x \in H_{q}\left(F^{p} / F^{p-1}\right)$ to be an element $b \in B_{q-p, p}$ such that $\partial^{\prime} b=0$. Then $\gamma x$ is the homology class of $\partial^{\prime \prime} b$, and $\beta \gamma x$ is therefore just $\partial_{*}^{\prime \prime} x$, where $\partial_{*}^{\prime \prime}$ is induced on $H\left(B, \partial^{\prime}\right)$ by $\partial^{\prime \prime}$. $]$

Remark. We may, of course, write $d^{\prime}, d^{\prime \prime}$ for $\partial^{\prime}, \partial^{\prime \prime}$ in the statement of the proposition.

Definition. We say that the double complex $\boldsymbol{B}$ is positive if there exists $n_{0}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{r, s}=0 \text { if } r<n_{0} \text { or } s<n_{0} . \tag{9.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proposition 9.2. If $\boldsymbol{B}$ is positive, then both the first and the second spectral sequences (9.6), (9.7) converge finitely to the graded object associated with $\left\{H_{n}(\operatorname{Tot} B)\right\}$, suitably (finitely) filtered.

Proof. By Theorem 3.5 we only have to verify that the filtrations (9.4), (9.5) are finite. But plainly, given (9.8),

$$
\begin{aligned}
& { }_{1} F^{p}(\operatorname{Tot} B)_{n}=0 \text { if } p \leqq n_{0}-1, \\
& { }_{1} F^{p}(\operatorname{Tot} B)_{n}=(\operatorname{Tot} B)_{n} \text { if } p \geqq n-n_{0} ;
\end{aligned}
$$

and similarly for the second filtration.
We are now ready to state and prove the existence and convergence theorem for the Grothendieck spectral sequence.

Suppose given three abelian categories $\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{C}$ and additive functors $F: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}, \boldsymbol{G}: \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. Assume that $\mathfrak{A}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ have enough injectives; this means, of course, that objects in $\mathfrak{A}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ have injective resolutions. We
thus can construct the right derived functors of $F, G$, and $G \circ F$. Theorem 9.3 will relate these derived functors by a spectral sequence, assuming an additional hypothesis. We shall say that an object $B$ in $\mathfrak{B}$ is (right) G-acyclic, if

$$
R^{q} G(B)= \begin{cases}G(B), & q=0  \tag{9.9}\\ 0, & q \geqq 1\end{cases}
$$

Theorem 9.3 (Grothendieck spectral sequence). Given $F: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$, $G: \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{C}$, assume that if $I$ is an injective object of $\mathfrak{U}$, then $F(I)$ is $G$-acyclic. Then there is a spectral sequence $\left\{E_{n}(A)\right\}$ corresponding to each object A of $\mathfrak{A}$, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{1}^{p, q}=\left(R^{p} G\right)\left(R^{q-p} F\right)(A) \Rightarrow R^{q}(G F)(A), \tag{9.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

which converges finitely to the graded object associated with $\left\{R^{q}(G F)(A)\right\}$, suitably filtered.

Before starting the proof, we emphasize that there are other forms of the Grothendieck spectral sequence, involving left derived functors instead of right derived functors, or contravariant functors instead of covariant functors. These variations the reader will easily supply for himself, and will accept as proved once we have proved Theorem 9.3.

Proof. Take an injective resolution of $A$ in $\mathfrak{A}$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
I: I_{0} \rightarrow I_{1} \rightarrow I_{2} \rightarrow \cdots . \tag{9.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Apply $\boldsymbol{F}$ to obtain the cochain complex in $\mathfrak{B}$,

$$
F I_{0} \rightarrow F I_{1} \rightarrow F I_{2} \rightarrow \cdots
$$

Suppose we have constructed a commutative diagram in $\mathfrak{B}$

such that each row is a cochain complex and the $r^{\text {th }}$ column is an (augmented) injective resolution of $F I_{r}, r=0,1,2, \ldots$

Apply $G$ to obtain the double (cochain) complex $\boldsymbol{B}$,


First we study the spectral sequence based on the first filtration (9.4) of $\operatorname{Tot} B$. Thus ${ }_{1} E^{p, q}$ is computed by applying the vertical differential so that, since $F(I)$ is $G$-acyclic,

$$
\begin{aligned}
{ }_{1} E^{p, q} & =G F I_{q}, \quad p=q, \\
& =0, \quad p \neq q .
\end{aligned}
$$

Computing ${ }_{1} E_{1}$, we find

$$
\begin{align*}
{ }_{1} E_{1}^{p, q} & =R^{q}(G F)(A), \quad p=q,  \tag{9.14}\\
& =0, \quad p \neq q .
\end{align*}
$$

Now, by the dual of $(2.11), \operatorname{deg} d_{r}=(r+1,1)$ for the $r^{\text {th }}$ differential $d_{r}$ of the spectral sequence. Thus (9.14) implies that

$$
d_{r}=0, \quad r \geqq 1,
$$

so that, for all $r \geqq 1$,

$$
\begin{align*}
{ }_{1} E_{r}^{p, q} & =R^{q}(G F)(A), \quad p=q,  \tag{9.15}\\
& =0, \quad p \neq q,
\end{align*}
$$

and consequently

$$
\begin{align*}
{ }_{1} E_{\infty}^{p, q} & =R^{q}(G F)(A), \quad p=q,  \tag{9.16}\\
& =0, \quad p \neq q .
\end{align*}
$$

Then Proposition 9.2 ensures that $H^{q}(\operatorname{Tot} \boldsymbol{B})$ is (finitely) filtered by subobjects whose successive quotients are ${ }_{1} E_{\infty}^{p, q}$. Since, for fixed $q$, only one ${ }_{1} E_{\infty}^{p, q}$ can be non-zero, we conclude

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{q}(\operatorname{Tot} B)=R^{q}(G F)(A) . \tag{9.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

This exhausts the utility of the first spectral sequence. We now turn to the second spectral sequence; we will permit ourselves to write $E$ instead of ${ }_{2} E$ in discussing this spectral sequence. We will find that it is necessary to construct (9.12) in a very specific way in order to obtain a valuable
result from the second spectral sequence. In fact, we construct an injective resolution of $F I$ in the category of cochain complexes in $\mathfrak{B}$, relative to monomorphisms which induce cohomology monomorphisms (see IX.1).

We write $F_{r}$ for $F I_{r}$ and display the cocycles and coboundaries of the cochain-complex

$$
F_{0} \rightarrow F_{1} \rightarrow F_{2} \rightarrow \cdots
$$

as

$$
\begin{equation*}
Z_{0} \hookrightarrow F_{0} \rightarrow B_{1} \hookrightarrow Z_{1} \hookrightarrow F_{1} \rightarrow B_{2} \hookrightarrow Z_{2} \hookrightarrow F_{2} \rightarrow \cdots \tag{9.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

We prove
Lemma 9.4. We may resolve (9.18) as

where each column is an (augmented) injective resolution of the object appearing at its head, and

$$
K_{r, s} \hookrightarrow J_{r, s} \rightarrow L_{r+1, s}
$$

is exact.
Proof. We already know (Lemma III. 5.4; see also the proof of Theorem IV.6.1) how to resolve $Z_{0} \rightarrow F_{0} \rightarrow B_{1}$. Given the resolution of $B_{1}$, we choose an arbitrary resolution of $Z_{1} / B_{1}$ and resolve $B_{1} \mapsto Z_{1} \rightarrow Z_{1} / B_{1}$. We thus obtain a resolution of $Z_{1}$. We then use an arbitrary resolution of $B_{2}$ to yield a resolution of $Z_{1} \hookrightarrow F_{1} \rightarrow B_{2}$, and so we step steadily to the right along (9.18). $\quad]$

When diagram (9.12) is constructed according to the prescription of Lemma 9.4, we will speak of (9.12) as a resolution of FI.

We note that by construction of $(9.19)$ the sequence
$Z_{r^{\prime}}^{\prime} B_{r} \mapsto K_{r, 0} / L_{r, 0} \rightarrow K_{r, 1} / L_{r, 1} \rightarrow K_{r, 2} / L_{r, 2} \rightarrow \cdots, \quad r=0,1,2, \ldots$
is an injective resolution of $Z_{r} / B_{r}$.
Now since all the objects in the resolution of (9.18) are injective, all monomorphisms split. Thus when we apply the additive functor $G$ to the resolution we maintain all exactness relations.

In particular we note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
G\left(K_{r, s} / L_{r, s}\right)=G K_{r, s} / G L_{r, s}, \tag{9.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

since $L_{r, s} \longrightarrow K_{r, s}$ splits. Finally we recall that

$$
\begin{equation*}
Z_{r} / B_{r}=R^{r} F(A) . \tag{9.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

We complete the proof of Theorem 9.3 by supposing (9.12) constructed, as in Lemma 9.4, to be a resolution of FI. We now study the spectral sequence $E={ }_{2} E$, based on the filtration (9.5). Thus $E^{p, q}$ is computed by applying the horizontal differential to (9.13), so that, by (9.21),

$$
\begin{aligned}
E^{p, q} & =H^{q-p}\left(G J_{*, p}, d^{\prime}\right) \\
& =G K_{q-p, p} / G L_{q-p, p} \\
& =G\left(K_{q-p, p} / L_{q-p . p}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

$E_{1}^{p, q}$ is now computed by applying the vertical differential. In view of (9.20) and (9.22), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
E_{1}^{p, q} & =R^{p} G\left(Z_{q-p} / B_{q-p}\right) \\
& =\left(R^{p} G\right)\left(R^{q-p} F\right)(A) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since (9.13) is positive, Proposition 9.2 guarantees good convergence and the theorem follows from (9.17) and Proposition 9.2.

Remark. We will show below that it is essential to construct the diagram (9.12) as in Lemma 9.4 to obtain the desired result. (See Remark (i) following the proof of Theorem 9.5.)

We will apply Theorem 9.3 to obtain a spectral sequence, due to Lyndon and Hochschild-Serre, in the cohomology of groups. We will defer other applications of Theorem 9.3 to the exercises.

Thus we now consider a short exact sequence of groups

$$
\begin{equation*}
N \stackrel{i}{\rightarrow} K \xrightarrow{\xrightarrow[\longrightarrow]{\longrightarrow}} Q \tag{9.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

in other words, $N$ is a normal subgroup of $K$ with quotient group $Q$. Let $\mathfrak{A}$ be the category of (left) $K$-modules; let $\mathfrak{B}$ be the category of (left) $Q$-modules, and let $\mathbb{C}$ be the category of abelian groups. Further, consider the functors

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{A} \xrightarrow[\boldsymbol{F}]{\boldsymbol{B}} \boldsymbol{G} \mathfrak{C} \tag{9.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $F(A)=\operatorname{Hom}_{N}(\mathbb{Z}, A)=A^{N}$, the subgroup of $A$ consisting of elements fixed under $N$; and $G(B)=\operatorname{Hom}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z}, B)=B^{Q}$. It is then plain that $A^{N}$ acquires the structure of a $Q$-module by means of the action

$$
(p x) \subset a=x a, \quad x \in K, \quad a \in A,
$$

in such a way that $F$ is indeed an additive functor from $\mathfrak{A}$ to $\mathfrak{B} ; G$ is evidently an additive functor from $\mathfrak{B}$ to $\mathfrak{C}$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
G F(A)=\operatorname{Hom}_{K}(\mathbb{Z}, A)=A^{K} . \tag{9.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

We are now ready to prove
Theorem 9.5 (Lyndon-Hochschild-Serre). Given the short exact sequence of groups

$$
N \stackrel{i}{\rightarrow} K \xrightarrow{\longrightarrow} Q
$$

and a $K$-module $A$, there is a natural action of $Q$ on the cohomology groups $H^{m}(N, A)$. Moreover, there is a spectral sequence $\left\{E_{n}(A)\right\}$ such that

$$
E_{1}^{p, q}=H^{p}\left(Q, H^{q-p}(N, A)\right) \Rightarrow H^{q}(K, A),
$$

which converges finitely to the graded group associated with $\left\{H^{q}(K, A)\right\}$, suitably filtered.

Proof. We must first verify the hypotheses of Theorem 9.3 for the functors $F$ and $G$ of (9.24). We have already remarked that $F$ and $G$ are additive, so it remains to show that, if $I$ is an injective $K$-module, then $I^{N}$ is $G$-acyclic; in fact, we show that $I^{N}$ is an injective $Q$-module. For the functor $F$ is right adjoint to $\bar{F}: \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$, where $\bar{F}(B)$ is the abelian group $B$ with the $K$-module structure given by $x b=(p x)$. Since $\bar{F}$ plainly preserves monomorphisms, $\boldsymbol{F}$ preserves injectives (Theorem IV. 12.1).

Thus we may apply Theorem 9.3, and it is merely a question of identifying the (right) derived functors involved. Since $\mathbb{Z K}$ is a free $\mathbb{Z} N$-module, it follows that a $K$-injective resolution of $A$ is also an $N$-injective resolution. Moreover, given any such $K$-injective resolution of $A$,

$$
I_{0} \rightarrow I_{1} \rightarrow I_{2} \rightarrow \cdots
$$

the complex

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{N}(\mathbb{Z}, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{N}\left(\mathbb{Z}, I_{0}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{N}\left(\mathbb{Z}, I_{1}\right) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

acquires the structure of a $Q$-complex. Thus the cohomology groups $H^{m}(N, A)$ also acquire the structure of $Q$-modules and

$$
\begin{equation*}
R^{m} F(A)=H^{m}(N, A) \tag{9.26}
\end{equation*}
$$

as $Q$-modules. Since, plainly,

$$
\begin{aligned}
R^{m} G(B) & =H^{m}(Q, B), \\
R^{m}(G F)(A) & =H^{m}(K, A),
\end{aligned}
$$

the theorem follows by quoting Theorem 9.3. $\quad$,
Remarks. (i) As we have indicated, Theorem 9.5 makes it plain that the diagram (9.12) must be constructed as in Lemma 9.4 in order to achieve the required result. For, since, in this case, the functor $F: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ maps injectives to injectives, the identity map of the cochain complex $F I_{0} \rightarrow F I_{1} \rightarrow F I_{2} \rightarrow \cdots$ could be regarded as an example of (9.12). But,
for this diagram, we plainly have

$$
E^{p, q}=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
R^{q}(G F)(A), & p=0, \\
0, & \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
$$

so that we achieve nothing. Thus, although it may not be absolutely essential to choose (9.12) to be a resolution of FI, in the sense of Lemma 9.4 , we must certainly avoid arbitrary choice. Moreover, we see that we do not gain in simplicity of demonstration of Theorem 9.3 by replacing the hypothesis that $F(I)$ is $G$-acyclic by the more restrictive hypothesis that $F(I)$ is injective.
(ii) The form of the Grothendieck spectral sequence, involving left derived functors instead of right derived functors, to which we have already drawn the reader's attention, readily implies a spectral sequence analogous to that of Theorem 9.5, but stated in terms of homology instead of cohomology. Given (9.23), we choose our categories $\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{C}$ as in the proof of Theorem 9.5 but now $F: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ is given by

$$
F(A)=\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{N} A
$$

and $G: \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is given by

$$
G(B)=\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} B
$$

so that

$$
G F(A)=\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{K} A
$$

One reasons that $F$ preserves projectives, since $F$ is left adjoint to $\bar{F}: \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$, which is the same $\bar{F}$ as in the proof of Theorem 9.5 , and which preserves epimorphisms. The rest of the argument may certainly be left to the reader. We give below some exercises which exploit the homology form of the Lyndon-Hochschild-Serre spectral sequence.

The question also arises of the functoriality of the Grothendieck spectral sequence with respect to the object $A$. The conclusion - as in so many applications of spectral sequence theory - is that the spectral sequence $\left\{E_{n}(A)\right\}$ of Theorem 9.3 is functorial from $n=1$ onwards; indeed, the determination of $E_{0}$ in the proof of the theorem shows that this is as much as could be hoped for. The proof of this fact, involving the notion of homotopy of morphisms of double complexes, is deferred to the exercises (see Exercise 9.7).

## Exercises:

9.1. Confirm that, in Lemma 9.4, we have constructed an injective resolution of FI relative to monomorphisms which induce cohomology monomorphisms.
9.2. In the spectral sequence of Proposition 9.1 show that there is an exact sequence

$$
H_{2}(\operatorname{Tot} B) \rightarrow E_{1}^{2,2 d_{1}} E_{1}^{0,1} \rightarrow H_{1}(\operatorname{Tot} B) \rightarrow E_{1}^{1,1} \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Identify the terms in the special case of the Grothendieck spectral sequence and in the Lyndon-Hochschild-Serre spectral sequence. Compare with the sequences (Vl. 8.2).
9.3. Apply the Grothendieck spectral sequence to the following situation. Let $\mathfrak{n} \longmapsto \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ be a short exact sequence of Lie algebras over $K$, and let $A$ be a $g$-module. Consider the functors $F: \mathfrak{M}_{\mathrm{g}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\mathfrak{b}}, F(A)=\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{n}}(K, A)$, and $G: \mathfrak{M}_{\mathfrak{h}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}, G(B)=\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathfrak{b}}(K, B)$. Deduce a spectral sequence (HochschildSerre) with $E_{1}^{p, q}=H^{p}\left(\mathfrak{h}, H^{q-p}(\mathfrak{n}, A)\right)$, converging to the graded vector space $\left\{H^{q}(\mathfrak{g}, A)\right\}$, suitably filtered. Identify the sequence of Exercise 9.2 in this case.
9.4. Carry out the program outlined in Remark (ii) at the end of the section.
9.5. Let $N \hookrightarrow K \rightarrow Q$ be exact with $N$ central in $K$, and let $A$ be a trivial $K$-module. Show that $H_{m}(N, A), H^{m}(N, A)$ are trivial $Q$-modules.
9.6. Let $G$ be a finite $p$-group. Show that if $|G|=p^{n}$, then $\left|H_{2}(G, \mathbb{Z})\right| \leqq p^{n(n-1) / 2}$ and that this inequality is best possible. $\{|G|$ is the order of the group $G\}$.
9.7. Let $\varphi, \psi: B \rightarrow \tilde{B}$ be morphisms of double complexes. We say that $\varphi, \psi$ are homotopic, and write $\varphi \simeq \psi$, if there exist families of morphisms

$$
\Sigma_{r, s}^{\prime}: B_{r, s} \rightarrow \tilde{B}_{r+1, s}, \quad \Sigma_{r, s}^{\prime \prime}: B_{r, s} \rightarrow \tilde{B}_{r, s+1},
$$

such that $d^{\prime \prime} \Sigma^{\prime}=\Sigma^{\prime} d^{\prime \prime}, d^{\prime} \Sigma^{\prime \prime}=\Sigma^{\prime \prime} d^{\prime}$, and

$$
\psi-\varphi=d^{\prime} \Sigma^{\prime}+\Sigma^{\prime} d^{\prime}+d^{\prime \prime} \Sigma^{\prime \prime}+\Sigma^{\prime \prime} d
$$

Show that $\varphi \simeq \psi$ is an equivalence relation. and that, if $\varphi \simeq \psi$, then

$$
\operatorname{Tot} \varphi \simeq \operatorname{Tot} \psi, \quad E_{1}(\operatorname{Tot} \varphi)=E_{1}(\operatorname{Tot} \psi)
$$

where $E_{1}$ refers to either spectral sequence of Proposition 9.1. Deduce that the Grothendieck spectral sequence is functorial in $A$, from $E_{1}$ onwards, including the identification of $E_{\alpha}^{*, q}$ with the associated graded object of $R^{q}(G F)(A)$, suitably filtered.
9.8. Use the spectral sequences associated with a double complex to show the balance of $\mathrm{Ext}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$. (Hint: Let $\boldsymbol{l}$ be an injective resolution of $B$ and let $P$ be a projective resolution of $A$. Form the double (cochain) complex $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(P, I)$ and consider its associated spectral sequences (Proposition 9.1).) Find a similar proof for the balance of Tor ${ }^{\wedge}$.
9.9. Let the group $G$ be given by the presentation ( $x, y ; x^{m}=y^{m}=x^{-1} y^{-1} x y$ ), where $m$ is an odd prime. Show that $x$ generates a normal subgroup of order $m^{2}$, with quotient of order $m$. Thus we get a group extension

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{m^{2}} \hookrightarrow G \rightarrow C_{m} \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

with natural generators $x$ of $C_{m^{2}}$ and $\bar{y}$ of $C_{m}$, where $\bar{y}$ is the image of $y$. Show that the action of $C_{m}$ on $C_{m^{2}}$ is given by $\bar{y}^{\circ} x=x^{m+1}$. Use Exercise VI. 7.6 to compute the $E_{1}$ term of the Lyndon-Hochschild-Serre spectral sequence in homology for the extension (*). Conclude that $H_{n}(G)=0$ for $0<n<2 m-1$, $n$ even, and that, for $0<n<2 m-1, n$ odd, there is an exact sequence $\mathbb{Z}_{m} \hookrightarrow H_{n}(G) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m}$. Show that for $n=2 m-1$ this latter result is not true.

## IX. Satellites and Homology

## Introduction

In Chapters VI and VII we gave "concrete" applications of the theory of derived functors established in Chapter IV, namely to the category of groups and the category of Lie algebras over a field $K$. In this chapter our first purpose is to broaden the setting in which a theory of derived functors may be developed. This more general theory is called relative homological algebra, the relativization consisting of replacing the class of all epimorphisms (monomorphisms) by a suitable subclass in defining the notion of projective (injective) object. An important example of such a relativization, which we discuss explicitly, consists in taking, as our projective class of epimorphisms in the category $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$ of $\Lambda$-modules. those epimorphisms which split as abelian group homomorphisms.

The theory of (left) satellites of a given additive functor $H: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ between abelian categories, with respect to a projective class $\mathscr{E}$ of epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{A}$, is developed in Section 3, and it is shown that if $H$ is right $\mathscr{E}$-exact, then these satellites coincide with the left derived functors of $H$, again taken relative to the class $\mathscr{E}$, as defined in Section 2. Examples are given in Section 4.

In the second half of the chapter we embark on a further, and more ambitious, generalization of the theory. We associate with functors $T: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}, J: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$, where $\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{B}$ are small categories and $\mathfrak{A}$ is abelian, objects $H_{n}(J, T)$ of the functor category [ $\left.\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{H}\right]$ which deserve to be called the (absolute) homology of $J$ with coefficients in $T$. This is achieved by taking satellites of the Kan extension $\tilde{J}$ evaluated at $T$, so that some category-theoretical preparation is needed in order to develop these ideas. Relative $J$-homology may also be defined by prescribing projective classes of epimorphisms in the functor category [ $\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{A}]$ ]. Examples are given in the final section to show how this notion of $J$-homology generalizes the examples of homology theories already discussed in this book; moreover, the Grothendieck spectral sequence, described in Chapter VIII, is applied to this very general situation to yield, by further specialization, the Lyndon-Hochschild-Serre spectral sequence.

The chapter closes with indications of further applications of the idea of $J$-homology. We mention, for example, the homology theory of commutative $K$-algebras, which we regard as an example of this type of homology theory. However, we do not enter into the set-theoretical questions which arise if, as in this case, the categories $\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{B}$ can no longer be assumed to be small. The exercises at the end of the final section are, in the main, concerned with further applications of the theory and should be regarded as suggesting directions for further reading beyond the scope of this book.

## 1. Projective Classes of Epimorphisms

Let $\mathfrak{A}$ be an abelian category and let $\mathscr{E}$ be a class of epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{A}$.
Definition. The object $P$ in $\mathfrak{A}$ is called projective rel $\varepsilon$, where $\varepsilon: B \rightarrow C$ is an epimorphism in $\mathfrak{U}$, if $\varepsilon: \mathfrak{A}(P, B) \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}(P, C)$ is surjective. $P$ is called $\mathscr{E}$-projective if it is projective $\operatorname{rel} \varepsilon$ for every $\varepsilon$ in $\mathscr{E}$.

It is clear that $P_{1} \oplus P_{2}$ is projective rel $\varepsilon$ if, and only if, both $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ are projective rel $\varepsilon$.

Definition. The closure, $C(\mathscr{E})$, of $\mathscr{E}$, consists of those epimorphisms $\varepsilon$ in $\mathfrak{A}$ such that every $\mathscr{E}$-projective object of $\mathfrak{H}$ is also projective rel $\varepsilon$. Plainly $\mathscr{E} \subseteq C(\mathscr{E})$ and $C(C(\mathscr{E}))=C(\mathscr{E})$. The class $\mathscr{E}$ is closed if $\mathscr{E}=C(\mathscr{E})$.

We will henceforth be mainly concerned with closed classes of epimorphisms (though we will often have to prove that our classes are closed). We note the following elementary results.

Proposition 1.1. A closed class of epimorphisms is closed under composition and direct sums. $\quad]$

Proposition 1.2. A closed class of epimorphisms contains every projection $\pi: A \oplus B \rightarrow A$.

Proof. Every object is projective rel $\pi$. $\quad$,
Of course, Proposition 1.2 includes the fact that a closed class contains all isomorphisms and the maps $B \rightarrow 0$.

The following are important examples of classes of epimorphisms in the category $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$ of (left) $\Lambda$-modules.
(a) $\mathscr{E}_{0}$, the class of all split epimorphisms. This is obviously a closed class; for every object is $\mathscr{E}_{0}$-projective, and if $\varepsilon: B \rightarrow C$ is not split. then $C$ is plainly not projective rel $\varepsilon$.
(b) $\mathscr{E}_{1}$, the class of all epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$. This is, even more obviously, a closed class; and the $\mathscr{E}_{1}$-projectives are precisely the projectives.
(c) $\mathscr{E}_{2}$, the class of all epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{1}$ which split as epimorphisms of abelian groups. This is, much less obviously, a closed class. We leave
the proof to the reader, with the hint that, for any abelian group $G$, the $\Lambda$-module $\Lambda \otimes G$ is $\mathscr{E}_{2}$-projective (see also example (b) in Section 4).
(d) $\mathscr{E}_{3}$, the class of all pure epimorphisms of abelian groups. Recall that an epimorphism $\varepsilon: B \rightarrow C$ is pure if, and only if, given any $n$. then to every $c \in C$ with $n c=0$ there exists $b \in B$ with $\varepsilon b=c$ and $n b=0$ (see Exercise I.1.7). We leave it to the reader to show that $P$ is $\mathscr{E}_{3}$-projective if, and only if. $P$ is a direct sum of cyclic groups. and that the class $\mathscr{E}_{3}$ is closed. (For the "only if" part in that statement, one needs the deep result that a subgroup of a direct sum of cyclic groups is again a direct sum of cyclic groups [19].)

Definition. Let $\mathscr{E}$ be a closed class of epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{A}$. A morphism $\varphi$ in $\mathcal{U}$ is $\mathscr{E}$-admissible if, in the canonical splitting $\varphi=\mu \varepsilon, \mu$ monic. $\varepsilon$ epic, we have $\varepsilon \in \mathscr{E}$. An exact sequence in $\mathfrak{A}$ is $\mathscr{E}$-exact if all its morphisms are $\mathscr{E}$-admissible. A complex in $\mathfrak{A}$,

$$
K: \cdots \rightarrow K_{n} \rightarrow K_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow K_{0}
$$

is called $\mathscr{E}$-projective if each $K_{n}$ is $\mathscr{E}$-projective; $\boldsymbol{K}$ is called $\mathscr{E}$-acyclic if the augmented complex

$$
\cdots \rightarrow K_{n} \rightarrow K_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow K_{0} \rightarrow H_{0}(K) \rightarrow 0
$$

is $\mathscr{E}$-exact. $K$ is an $\mathscr{E}$-projective resolution of $A$ if it is $\mathscr{E}$-projective, $\mathscr{E}$-acyclic, and $H_{0}(K) \cong A$.

The following comparison theorem is an obvious generalization of Theorem IV.4.1; we omit the proof for this reason.

Theorem 1.3. Let $K: \cdots \rightarrow K_{n} \rightarrow K_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow K_{0}$, and

$$
L: \cdots \rightarrow L_{n} \rightarrow L_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow L_{0}
$$

be two complexes in $\mathfrak{Q}$. If $K$ is $\mathscr{E}$-projective and $L$ is $\mathscr{E}$-acyclic, then every morphism $\varphi: H_{0}(\boldsymbol{K}) \rightarrow H_{0}(\boldsymbol{L})$ lifts to a morphism of complexes $\boldsymbol{\varphi}: \boldsymbol{K} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{L}$ whose homotopy: class is uniquely determined. $\quad]$

Definition. A closed class $\mathscr{E}$ of epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{A}$ is said to be projective if, to each object $A$ of $\mathfrak{A}$ there is an epimorphism $\varepsilon: P \rightarrow A$ in $\mathscr{E}$ with $P \mathscr{E}$-projective. If $K \stackrel{\mu}{\mu} P$ is the kernel of $\varepsilon$, we call $K \xrightarrow{\mu} P \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} A$ an $\mathscr{E}$-projective presentation of $A$.

Obviously; if $\mathscr{E}$ is a projective class, every object admits an $\mathscr{E}$-projective resolution.

All the notions of this section may plainly be dualized to a consideration of classes $\mathscr{M}$ of monomorphisms in $\mathfrak{A}$ leading finally to the notion of injective classes of monomorphisms. We leave the explicit formulations to the reader.

Finally we remark that a class $\mathscr{E}$ of epimorphisms gives rise in a natural way to a class $\mathscr{M}$ of monomorphisms, namely the class consisting of all kernels of epimorphisms in $\mathscr{E}$.

## Exercises:

1.1. Prove that the class $\mathscr{E}_{2}$ in $\mathfrak{M}_{A}$ is closed.
1.2. Prove Theorem 1.3.
1.3. Suppose that $\mathscr{E}$ is a projective class of epimorphisms. By analogy with Theorem I. 4.7, give different characterizations for $P$ to be $\mathscr{E}$-projective.
1.4. Prove the facts claimed in example (d). Dualize.
1.5. Let $\gamma: \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^{\prime}$ be a ring homomorphism. Let $U^{\gamma}: \mathfrak{M}_{A^{\prime}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$ be the forgetful functor (see Section IV. 12). Define a class $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$ of epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{A^{\prime}}$ as follows: The epimorphism $\varepsilon^{\prime}: B^{\prime} \rightarrow C^{\prime}$ is in $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$ if, and only if, the homomorphism $U^{\gamma} \boldsymbol{E}^{\prime}: U^{\gamma} \boldsymbol{B}^{\prime} \rightarrow U^{\gamma} C^{\prime}$ in $\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$ splits. Is the class $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$ projective?
1.6. Interpret the $\mathscr{E}$-projectives, for $\mathscr{E}$ a projective class, as ordinary projectives in a suitable category.
1.7. Identify relative projective $G$-modules (see Section VI. 11) as $\mathscr{E}$-projectives for a suitable class $\mathscr{E}$ of epimorphisms. Do a similar exercise for relative injective $G$-modules.

## 2. $\boldsymbol{E}$-Derived Functors

We now imitate the development in Chapter IV. Let $\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B}$ be abelian categories, let $T: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ be an additive functor and let $\mathscr{E}$ be a projective class in $\mathfrak{A}$. Given an object $A$ in $\mathfrak{A}$, let $\boldsymbol{K}_{A}$ be an $\mathscr{E}$-projective resolution of $A$. Then Theorem 1.3 enables us to infer that the object $H_{n}\left(T K_{A}\right)$ depends only on $A$ and yields an additive functor $\mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ which we call the $n^{\text {th }}$ left $\mathscr{E}$-derived functor of $T$, and write $L_{n}^{\mathscr{E}} T$, or merely $L_{n} T$ if the context ensures there is no ambiguity.

The development now proceeds just as in the "absolute" case $\left(\mathscr{E}=\mathscr{E}_{1}\right)$; we will only be explicit when the relativization introduces a complication into the argument. This occurs in obtaining the first of the two basic exact sequences.

Theorem 2.1. Let $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ be a short $\mathscr{E}$-exact sequence in $\mathfrak{A}$. Then, for any additive functor $T: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ there exist connecting homomorphisms $\omega_{n}: L_{n}^{\delta} T\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow L_{n-1}^{\delta} T\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ such that the sequence

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \cdots \rightarrow L_{n} T\left(A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow L_{n} T(A) \rightarrow L_{n} T\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega_{n}} L_{n-1} T\left(A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots \\
& \cdots \rightarrow L_{0} T\left(A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow L_{0} T(A) \rightarrow L_{0} T\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow 0
\end{aligned}
$$

is exact.
Proof. As in the absolute case, the proof hinges on the following key lemma.

Lemma 2.2. The short $\mathscr{E}$-exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{x^{\prime}} A \xrightarrow{\alpha^{\prime \prime}} A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ may be embedded in a diagram

with all rows and columns $\mathscr{E}$-exact and $P^{\prime}, P, P^{\prime \prime} \mathscr{E}$-projective.
Proof of Lemma. The construction of (2.1) is exactly as in the absolute case. Thus we take $\mathscr{E}$-projective presentations of $A^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime \prime}$; set $P=P^{\prime} \oplus P^{\prime \prime}, \lambda^{\prime}$ being the injection and $\lambda^{\prime \prime}$ the projection; define $\varepsilon$ as $\left\langle\alpha^{\prime} \varepsilon^{\prime}, \theta\right\rangle$, where $\theta: P^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A$ lifts $\varepsilon^{\prime \prime}$, so that $\alpha^{\prime \prime} \theta=\varepsilon^{\prime \prime}$; and $\mu$ is the kernel of $\varepsilon$. The extra points requiring verification are (i) $\varepsilon \in \mathscr{E}$, (ii) $\kappa^{\prime \prime} \in \mathscr{E}$; it is, of course, trivial (see Proposition 1.2) that $\lambda^{\prime \prime} \in \mathscr{E}$.

In proving (i) and (ii) we must. of course, use the fact that $\mathscr{E}$ is closed. Thus we suppose $Q \mathscr{E}$-projective and seek to lift an arbitrary morphism $\varphi: Q \rightarrow A$ into $P$,


Equivalently, we seek $\psi^{\prime}: Q \rightarrow P^{\prime}, \psi^{\prime \prime}: Q \rightarrow P^{\prime \prime}$, such that $\alpha^{\prime} \varepsilon^{\prime} \psi^{\prime}+\theta \psi^{\prime \prime}=\varphi$. Now since $\varepsilon^{\prime \prime}$ is in $\mathscr{E}$, we may lift $\alpha^{\prime \prime} \varphi: Q \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ into $P^{\prime \prime}$, that is, we find $\psi^{\prime \prime}: Q \rightarrow P^{\prime \prime}$ with $\varepsilon^{\prime \prime} \psi^{\prime \prime}=\alpha^{\prime \prime} \varphi$. Let $\imath$ embed $P^{\prime \prime}$ in $P$. Then $\lambda^{\prime \prime} \imath=1, \varepsilon \imath=\theta$, so $\alpha^{\prime \prime} \varphi=\varepsilon^{\prime \prime} \psi^{\prime \prime}=\varepsilon^{\prime \prime} \lambda^{\prime \prime} \imath \psi^{\prime \prime}=\alpha^{\prime \prime} \varepsilon \imath \psi^{\prime \prime}=\alpha^{\prime \prime} \theta \psi^{\prime \prime}$. Thus $\varphi=\alpha^{\prime} \varrho+\theta \psi^{\prime \prime}$, $\varrho: Q \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. Since $\varepsilon^{\prime}$ is in $\mathscr{E}$, we may lift $\varrho$ into $P^{\prime}$, that is, we find $\psi^{\prime}: A \rightarrow P^{\prime}$ with $\varepsilon^{\prime} \psi^{\prime}=\varrho$. Then $\varphi=\alpha^{\prime} \varepsilon^{\prime} \psi^{\prime}+\theta \psi^{\prime \prime}$ and (i) is proved.

To prove (ii), we again suppose $Q \mathscr{E}$-projective and consider the lifting problem


We first lift $\mu^{\prime \prime} \varphi$ into $P$, that is, we find $\sigma: Q \rightarrow P$ with $\lambda^{\prime \prime} \sigma=\mu^{\prime \prime} \varphi$. Then $\alpha^{\prime \prime} \varepsilon \sigma=\varepsilon^{\prime \prime} \lambda^{\prime \prime} \sigma=\varepsilon^{\prime \prime} \mu^{\prime \prime} \varphi=0$, so that $\varepsilon \sigma=\alpha^{\prime} \tau, \tau: Q \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. Since $\varepsilon^{\prime}$ is in $\mathscr{E}$, we lift $\tau$ to $\tau^{\prime}: Q \rightarrow P^{\prime}$ with $\varepsilon^{\prime} \tau^{\prime}=\tau$. Set $\bar{\sigma}=\sigma-\lambda^{\prime} \tau^{\prime}$. Then $\lambda^{\prime \prime} \bar{\sigma}=\mu^{\prime \prime} \varphi$ and $\varepsilon \bar{\sigma}=\varepsilon \sigma-\varepsilon \lambda^{\prime} \tau^{\prime}=\varepsilon \sigma-\alpha^{\prime} \varepsilon^{\prime} \tau^{\prime}=\alpha^{\prime} \tau-\alpha^{\prime} \tau=0$. Thus $\bar{\sigma}=\mu \psi$ with $\psi: Q \rightarrow K$. Finally, $\mu^{\prime \prime} \kappa^{\prime \prime} \psi=\lambda^{\prime \prime} \mu \psi=\lambda^{\prime \prime} \bar{\sigma}=\mu^{\prime \prime} \varphi$, so $\kappa^{\prime \prime} \psi=\varphi$ and (ii) is proved. $\left.\quad\right]$

The reader should now have no difficulty in deriving Theorem 2.1 from Lemma 2.2. We state the other basic exactness theorem without proof.

Theorem 2.3. Let $0 \rightarrow T^{\prime} \rightarrow T \rightarrow T^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ be a sequence of additive functors $\mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ which is $\mathscr{E}$-exact on $\mathscr{E}$-projectives. Then, for any object $A$ in $\mathscr{U}$, there exist connecting homomorphisms $\omega_{n}: L_{n}^{\delta} T^{\prime \prime}(A) \rightarrow L_{n-1}^{\delta} T^{\prime}(A)$ such that the sequence

$$
\begin{gathered}
\cdots \rightarrow L_{n} T^{\prime}(A) \rightarrow L_{n} T(A) \rightarrow L_{n} T^{\prime \prime}(A) \xrightarrow{\omega_{n}} L_{n-1} T^{\prime}(A) \rightarrow \cdots \\
\cdots \rightarrow L_{0} T^{\prime}(A) \rightarrow L_{0} T(A) \rightarrow L_{0} T^{\prime \prime}(A) \rightarrow 0
\end{gathered}
$$

is exact. $]$
Definition. A functor $T: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ is called right $\mathscr{E}$-exact if, for every $\mathscr{E}$-exact sequence

$$
A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0
$$

the sequence $T A^{\prime} \rightarrow T A \rightarrow T A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is exact.
Proposition 2.4. $A$ right $\mathscr{E}$-exact functor is additive.
Proof. Since zero objects of $\mathfrak{A}$ are precisely those $A$ such that $A \xrightarrow{\mathbf{1}} A \xrightarrow{\mathbf{1}} A \rightarrow 0$ is exact (and hence $\mathscr{E}$-exact), it follows that if $T$ is right $\mathscr{E}$-exact then $T(0)=0$. The proof is now easily completed as in the absolute case by considering the $\mathscr{E}$-exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow A \oplus B \rightarrow B \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Proposition 2.5. T is right $\mathscr{E}$-exact if, for every short $\mathscr{E}$-exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$, the sequence $\boldsymbol{T} A^{\prime} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{T} A \rightarrow \boldsymbol{T} A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is exact.

Proposition 2.6. For any additive functor $T, L_{0} T$ is right $\mathscr{E}$-exact.
Proof. Apply Proposition 2.5 and Theorem 2.1. $]$
Theorem 2.7. For any additive functor $T: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ there is a natural transformation $\tau: L_{0} T \rightarrow T$ which is an equivalence if, and only if, $T$ is right É-exact.

Proof. Let $\cdots \rightarrow P_{1} \rightarrow P_{0}$ be an $\mathscr{E}$-projective resolution of $A$. Then

$$
T P_{1} \rightarrow T P_{0} \rightarrow L_{0} T(A) \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact, by definition; and

$$
T P_{1} \rightarrow T P_{0} \rightarrow T A
$$

is differential. This yields $\tau_{A}: L_{0} T(A) \rightarrow T A$. The standard argument now yields the independence of $\tau_{A}$ of the choice of resolution and the fact that $\tau$ is natural. If $T$ is right $\mathscr{E}$-exact, then $T P_{1} \rightarrow T P_{0} \rightarrow T A \rightarrow 0$ is
exact, so that $\tau$ is an equivalence. The converse follows immediately from Proposition 2.6, so the theorem is proved.

We will content ourselves here with just one example, but will give many more examples in Section 4. Consider the projective class $\mathscr{E}_{3}$ of pure epimorphisms in the category of abelian groups (see example (d) in Section 2). It may then be shown that the left $\mathscr{E}_{3}$-derived functors $L_{n}(A \otimes-)$ are trivial for $n \geqq 1$. Taking $T=\operatorname{Hom}(-, B)$ as base functor, we can construct the right $\mathscr{E}_{3}$-derived functors $R_{n} T$. It turns out that $R_{n}^{\delta_{3}} T$ is trivial for $n \geqq 2$. Define $\operatorname{Pext}(-, B)=R_{1}^{\delta_{3}} T(-)$. Then, if $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is a pure exact sequence, we have exact sequences $0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pext}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pext}(A, B)$ $\rightarrow \operatorname{Pext}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow 0 ; \quad 0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(B, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(B, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(B, A^{\prime \prime}\right)$ $\rightarrow \operatorname{Pext}\left(B, A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pext}(B, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Pext}\left(B, A^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow 0$.

We remark again that everything we have done here is readily dualizable to right $\mathscr{M}$-derived functors, based on an injective class $\mathscr{M}$ of monomorphisms. The reader should certainly formulate the theorems dual to Theorems 2.1, 2.3.

## Exercises:

2.1. Prove Theorems 2.1, 2.3.
2.2. Evaluate $L_{n}^{\mathscr{E}} T P$ where $T$ is additive and $P$ is $\mathscr{E}$-projective.
2.3. What is $L_{m}^{\mathcal{E}} L_{n}^{\mathcal{E}} T$ ?
2.4. Show that $L_{m}^{\mathcal{E}} T$ is additive.
2.5. Prove the analog of Proposition IV. 5.5.
2.6. Compute for the class $\mathscr{E}_{0}$ in $\mathfrak{M}_{A}$ the functors $R^{n} \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(-, B)$.
2.7. Prove the assertions made in discussing the example relating to $\mathscr{E}_{3}$ at the end of the section.
2.8. Prove, along the lines of Theorem III. 2.4, that $\operatorname{Pext}(A, B)$ classifies pure extensions.

## 3. $\mathscr{E}$-Satellites

Let $\mathscr{E}$ again be a projective class of epimorphisms in the abelian category $\mathfrak{A}$ and let $\mathfrak{B}$ be an abelian category.

Definition. An $\mathscr{E}$-connected sequence of functors $\boldsymbol{T}=\left\{T_{j}\right\}$ from $\mathfrak{A}$ to $\mathfrak{B}$ consists of
(i) additive functors $T_{j}: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}, j=\cdots,-1,0,1, \ldots$
(ii) connecting morphisms $\omega_{j}: T_{j}\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow T_{j-1}\left(A^{\prime}\right), j=\cdots,-1,0.1, \ldots$. corresponding to each short $\mathscr{E}$-exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$, which are natural in the obvious sense (i.e., the $\omega_{j}$ are natural transformations of functors from the category of short $\mathscr{E}$-exact sequences in $\mathfrak{A}$ to the category of morphisms in $\mathfrak{B}$ ).

Proposition 3.1. If $\boldsymbol{T}$ is an $\mathscr{E}$-connected sequence of functors, the sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow T_{j}\left(A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow T_{j}(A) \rightarrow T_{j}\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega_{j}} T_{j-1}\left(A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow T_{j-1}(A) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

is differential for each short $\mathscr{E}$-exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ in $\mathfrak{A}$.
Proof. The sequence is certainly differential at $T_{j}(A)$. That it is differential at $T_{j}\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right)$ follows by naturality from the diagram

that it is differential at $T_{j-1}\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ follows by naturality from the diagram


An example of an $\mathscr{E}$-connected sequence of functors is afforded by the left $\mathscr{E}$-derived functors of an additive functor $S$ (we set $L_{j} S=0, j<0$ ).

It is clear what we should understand by a morphism of $\mathscr{E}$-connected sequences of functors $\boldsymbol{\varphi}: \mathbf{T} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{T}^{\prime}:$ it consists of natural transformations $\varphi_{j}: T_{j} \rightarrow T_{j}^{\prime} . j=\cdots,-1,0,1 \ldots$ such that. for every $\mathscr{E}$-exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$. the square

commutes for all $j$. We are now ready for our main definition of this section.

Definition. Let $H: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ be an additive functor. An $\mathscr{E}$-connected sequence of functors $S=\left\{S_{j}\right\}$, with $S_{0}=H$, is called the left $\mathscr{E}$-satellite of $H$ if it satisfies the following universal property:

To every $\mathscr{E}$-connected sequence of functors $T$ and every natural transformation $\varphi: T_{0} \rightarrow S_{0}$ there exists a unique morphism $\varphi: T \rightarrow S$ with $\varphi_{0}=\varphi$.

We immediately remark that, since the left $\mathscr{E}$-satellite is defined by a universal property, it is unique up to canonical isomorphism. We may thus write $S_{j}=S_{j}^{\delta} H$ if the satellite exists (we may suppress $\mathscr{E}$ if the context permits). We also remark that it follows from the definition of a left satellite that $S_{j}=0$ for $j<0$. For, given a left $\mathscr{E}$-satellite $S$, we define
a connected sequence of functors $S^{\prime}=\left\{S_{j}^{\prime}\right\}$ by

$$
S_{j}^{\prime}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
S_{j}, & j \geqq 0 \\
0, & j<0
\end{array} \quad \omega_{j}^{\prime}= \begin{cases}\omega_{j}, & j>0 \\
0, & j \leqq 0 .\end{cases}\right.
$$

It is then plain that $S^{\prime}$ also satisfies the universal property of a left satellite. Hence, by uniqueness $S=S^{\prime}$ and $S_{j}=0, j<0$. We next take up the question of existence of left satellites.

Theorem 3.2. If $H: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ is a right $\mathscr{E}$-exact functor, where $\mathscr{E}$ is a projective class of epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{A}$, then the $\mathscr{E}$-connected sequence of functors $\left\{L_{j}^{\delta} H\right\}$ is the left $\mathscr{E}$-satellite of $H, L_{j}^{\ell} H=S_{j}^{\delta} H\left(L_{j}^{\delta} H=0, j<0\right)$.

Proof. Since $H$ is right $\mathscr{E}$-exact, $H=L_{0} H$. Thus we suppose given an $\mathscr{E}$-connected sequence of functors $\boldsymbol{T}$ and a natural transformation $\varphi: T_{0} \rightarrow L_{0} H$ and have to show that there exist unique natural transformations $\varphi_{j}: T_{j} \rightarrow L_{j} H$ with $\varphi_{0}=\varphi$, such that the diagram

commutes for all short $\mathscr{E}$-exact sequences $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$.
We first remark that for $j<0, \varphi_{j}$ is the trivial map. For $j=0$ we have $\varphi_{0}=\varphi$, and, for $j>0$, we define $\varphi_{j}$ inductively. Thus we suppose $\varphi_{k}$ defined for $k \leqq j, j \geqq 0$, to commute with $\omega_{k}$ as in (3.1), and we proceed to define $\varphi_{j+1}$. Let $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow P \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ be an $\mathscr{E}$-projective presentation of $A$. Then we have a commutative diagram

with the bottom row exact. This yields a unique candidate for $\varphi_{j+1}: T_{j+1} A \rightarrow L_{j+1} H A$. We prove that $\varphi_{j+1}$ is a natural transformation, independent of the choice of presentation, in the following lemma.

Lemma 3.3. Let

be a morphism of $\mathscr{E}$-projective presentations. Let $\varphi_{j+1}: T_{j+1} A \rightarrow L_{j+1} H A$ be defined by means of the top row, $\varphi_{j+1}^{\prime}: T_{j+1} A^{\prime} \rightarrow L_{j+1} H A^{\prime}$ by means
of the bottom row. Then the diagram

$$
\begin{gather*}
T_{j+1} A \xrightarrow{T_{j+1} \alpha} T_{j+1} A^{\prime} \\
\quad \downarrow_{j+1}  \tag{3.2}\\
L_{j+1} H A \xrightarrow{L_{j+1} H \alpha} L_{j+1} H A^{\prime}
\end{gather*}
$$

commutes.
Proof of Lemma. Embed (3.2) in the cube


All remaining faces of the cube commute and $\omega_{j+1}: L_{j+1} H A^{\prime} \rightarrow L_{j} H K^{\prime}$ is monomorphic. Thus the face (3.2) also commutes.

It remains to establish that the definition of $\varphi_{j+1}$ yields commutativity in the square

$$
\begin{gather*}
T_{j+1} A^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{\omega_{j+1}} T_{j} A^{\prime} \\
\left.\right|_{L_{j+1}} ^{\varphi_{j+1}} H A^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{\omega_{j+1}} \stackrel{\varphi}{\varphi}^{\varphi_{j}} H A^{\prime} \tag{3.3}
\end{gather*}
$$

corresponding to the short $\mathscr{E}$-exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$. Let

be a morphism from an $\mathscr{E}$-projective presentation of $A^{\prime \prime}$ to the given $\mathscr{E}$-exact sequence, and consider the squares


The first commutes by definition of $\varphi_{j+1}$, the second by the naturality of $\varphi_{j}$. Moreover, the naturality of $\omega_{j+1}$ in the definition of an $\mathscr{E}$-connected sequence of functors, applied to (3.4), ensures that the composite of the two squares (3.5) is just (3.3). This completes the proof of the theorem. $\quad$

Corollary 3.4. If $H: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ is an additive functor, then

$$
S_{j}^{\delta}\left(L_{0} H\right)=L_{j}^{\delta} H, \quad j \geqq 0 .
$$

Proof. It is sufficient to observe that $L_{0} H$ is right $\mathscr{E}$-exact and $L_{j} L_{0} H=L_{j} H$, since $L_{0} H P=H P$ for any $\mathscr{E}$-projective $P$. $]$

We remark that we have not established the existence of $\mathscr{E}$-satellites of arbitrary additive functors, nor have we established the existence of $\mathscr{E}$-satellites of right $\mathscr{E}$-exact functors if $\mathscr{E}$ is merely supposed to be a closed class of epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{A}$ (the definitions of this section make perfectly good sense without supposing $\mathscr{E}$ to be a projective class). This second question is reminiscent of the discussion in Chapter IV of characterizations of derived functors without the use of projectives. A discussion of the question may be found in Buchsbaum [5]; see Exercise 3.3.

Again, we may dualize. Here we should be somewhat explicit as the notational convention relating to $\mathscr{M}$-connected sequences of functors has the connecting morphisms $\omega_{j}$ from the domain $T_{j} A^{\prime \prime}$ to the codomain $T_{j+1} A^{\prime}$ (instead of $T_{j-1} A^{\prime}$ ). The dual of Theorem 3.2 then reads

Theorem 3.5. If $H: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ is a left $\mathscr{M}$-exact functor, where $\mathscr{M}$ is an injective class of monomorphisms in $\mathfrak{A}$, then the $\mathscr{M}$-connected sequence of functors $\left\{R_{j}^{\mathcal{M}} H\right\}$ is the right $\mathscr{M}$-satellite of $H,\left(R_{j}^{\mu} H=0, j<0\right)$. That is,

$$
R_{j}^{\mu} H=S_{j}^{\mu} H
$$

We will also have need of a contravariant form. Obviously a projective class $\mathscr{E}$ in $\mathfrak{A}$ gives rise to an injective class $\mathscr{E}^{*}$ in $\mathfrak{A}^{\mathrm{opp}}$. If $H: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ is contravariant. then we regard $H$ as a functor $\mathfrak{A}^{\mathrm{opp}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ and if $H$ is left $\mathscr{E}^{*}$-exact, we infer that $\left\{R_{j}^{\mathscr{\delta}} H\right\}$ is the right $\mathscr{E}^{*}$-satellite of $H$. Note that $R_{j} H$ is defined by means of an $\mathscr{E}^{*}$-injective resolution in $\mathscr{A}^{\mathrm{opp}}$, that is. by means of an $\mathscr{E}$-projective resolution in $\mathfrak{A}$.

## Exercises:

3.1. Using the projective class $\mathscr{E}=\mathscr{E}_{1}$ in $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$. show that $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(-. B)$ is the right $\mathscr{E}$-satellite of $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(-, B)$. Using the injective class $\mathscr{M}=\mathscr{M}_{1}$ of all monomorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$, show that $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}(A,-)$ is the right, $\boldsymbol{M}$-satellite of $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(A,-)$. Using the fact that $\overline{\mathrm{Ext}}_{A}^{n}(A,-)$ gives rise to a connected sequence also in the first variable, show that the universal property of $\operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(-, B)$ yields a natural transformation

$$
\eta: \overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{A}^{n}(A, B)
$$

Using the fact that $\overline{\operatorname{Ext}}_{A}^{n}(P, B)=0$ for all $\mathscr{E}$-projectives $P$, show that $\eta$ is a natural equivalence.
3.2. Do a similar exercise to 3.1 for the bifunctor $-\otimes_{\Lambda}-$ instead of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}(-,-)$.
3.3. (Definition of satellites following Buchsbaum [5].) Let $\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B}$ be abelian categories, and let $H: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ be a (covariant) additive functor. Suppose that $\mathfrak{B}$ has limits. For $A$ in $\mathfrak{A}$ consider the totality of all short exact sequences

$$
E: 0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow E \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Define a partial ordering as follows: $E^{\prime}<E$ if there exists $\varphi: E \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ and $\psi: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ such that the diagram

is commutative. Consider then $H_{E}=\operatorname{ker}(H B \rightarrow H E)$. Show that for $E^{\prime}<E$ the map $H \psi: H B \rightarrow H B^{\prime}$ induces a map $\theta_{E^{\prime}}: H_{E} \rightarrow H_{E^{\prime}}$, which is independent of the choice of $\varphi$ and $\psi$ in (*). Define $S_{1} A=\varliminf_{E}\left(H_{E}, \theta_{E}^{E}\right)$. (Note that there is a set-theoretical difficulty, for the totality of sequences $E$ need not be a set. Although this difficulty is not trivial, we do not want the reader to concern himself with it at this stage.) Show that $S_{1}$ is made into a covariant functor by the following procedure. For $\alpha: A \rightarrow \bar{A}$ and for $\bar{E}: 0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow \bar{E} \rightarrow \bar{A} \rightarrow 0$, show that there exists $E: 0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow E \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ such that there is a commutative diagram


Using (**) define maps $H_{E} \rightarrow H_{\bar{E}}$, and, passing to the limit, define a morphism $\alpha_{*}: S_{1} A \rightarrow S_{1} \bar{A}$. Show that with this definition $S_{1}$ becomes a functor. Starting with $H$, we thus have defined a functor $S_{1}=S_{1}(H)$. Show that $S_{1}$ is additive. Setting $S_{0}=H$, define $S_{n}(H)=S_{1}\left(S_{n-1}\right), n=1,2, \ldots$.

Given a short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0,
$$

show that the definition of $S_{1} A^{\prime \prime}$ yields a morphism $\omega=\omega_{1}: S_{1} A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow H A^{\prime}$. By induction define morphisms $\omega_{n}: S_{n} A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow S_{n-1} A^{\prime}, n=1,2, \ldots$. Show that $S=\left(S_{j}, \omega_{j}\right)$ is an $\mathscr{E}$-connected sequence of functors, where $\mathscr{E}=\mathscr{E}_{1}$ is the class of all epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{U}$. Finally show that $S$ has the universal property required of the left $\mathscr{E}$-satellite of $H$.

Dualize.
Consider the case of a contravariant functor.
Replace $\mathscr{E}=\mathscr{E}_{1}$ by other classes of epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{A}$.
3.4. Show that for $H$ not right exact, the left satellite of $H$ is not given by the left derived functor of $H$.
3.5. Give a form of the Grothendieck spectral sequence (Theorem VIII. 9.3) valid for $\mathscr{E}$-derived functors.

## 4. The Adjoint Theorem and Examples

For the definition of satellites and derived functors of functors $\mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ we had to specify a class of epimorphisms $\mathscr{E}$ in $\mathfrak{A}$. For the construction of derived functors it was essential that the class $\mathscr{E}$ be projective. We now discuss how the theory of adjoint functors may be used to transfer projective classes of epimorphisms from one category to another.

Let $\mathscr{E}$ be a projective class in the abelian category $\mathfrak{A}$ and let $F: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}^{\prime}$, $U: \mathfrak{A}^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$, where $\mathfrak{X}^{\prime}$ is also abelian, be a pair of adjoint functors. We will suppose $U$ faithful, so that if $U \varepsilon$ is an epimorphism in $\mathfrak{H}$ then $\varepsilon$ is an epimorphism in $\mathfrak{A}^{\prime}$. In particular $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}=U^{-1} \mathscr{E}$ will be a class of epimorphisms. We now prove the theorem which gives effect to the objective described in the first paragraph; we will then give various examples.

Theorem 4.1. Under the hypotheses above, $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}=U^{-1} \mathscr{E}$ is a projective class of epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{A}^{\prime}$. The objects $\boldsymbol{F P}$ where $P$ is $\mathscr{E}$-projective in $\mathfrak{A}$ are $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$-projective and are sufficient for $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$-presenting objects of $\mathfrak{Q}^{\prime}$, so that the $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$-projectives are precisely the direct summands of objects FP.

Proof. First observe that $F$ sends $\mathscr{E}$-projectives to $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$-projectives. For if $P$ is $\mathscr{E}$-projective and $\varepsilon^{\prime}: A_{1}^{\prime} \rightarrow A_{2}^{\prime}$ is in $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$, then $U \varepsilon^{\prime} \in \mathscr{E}$, so that $\left(U \varepsilon^{\prime}\right)_{*}: \mathfrak{U}\left(P, U A_{1}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}\left(P, U A_{2}^{\prime}\right)$. But this means that

$$
\varepsilon_{*}^{\prime}: \mathfrak{A}^{\prime}\left(F P, A_{1}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}^{\prime}\left(F P, A_{2}^{\prime}\right)
$$

so that $F P$ is $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$-projective.
Next we prove that $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$ is closed. Thus we suppose given $\alpha^{\prime}: A_{1}^{\prime} \rightarrow A_{2}^{\prime}$ such that, for any $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$-projective $P^{\prime}$, the map $\alpha_{*}^{\prime}: \mathfrak{X}^{\prime}\left(P^{\prime}, A_{1}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}^{\prime}\left(P^{\prime}, A_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ is surjective. Take, in particular, $P^{\prime}=F P$, where $P$ is $\mathscr{E}$-projective. Then it follows that $\left(U \alpha^{\prime}\right)_{*}: \mathfrak{U}\left(P, U A_{1}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}\left(P, U A_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ for all $\mathscr{E}$-projectives $P$. Since $\mathscr{E}$ is a projective class it follows first that $U \alpha^{\prime}$ is epimorphic and then that $U \alpha^{\prime} \in \mathscr{E}$. Thus $\alpha^{\prime} \in \mathscr{E}^{\prime}$, so $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$ is closed.

Finally we prove that every $A^{\prime}$ may be $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$-presented. First we $\mathscr{E}$-present $U A^{\prime}$ by $P \stackrel{\varepsilon}{\&} U A^{\prime}, \varepsilon \in \mathscr{E}$. Let $\varepsilon^{\prime}: F P \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ be adjoint to $\varepsilon$; it remains to show that $\varepsilon^{\prime} \in \mathscr{E}^{\prime}$. We have the diagram

$$
P \xrightarrow{\delta} U F P \xrightarrow{U \varepsilon^{\prime}} U A^{\prime}, \quad U \varepsilon^{\prime} \circ \delta=\varepsilon
$$

where $\delta$ is the co-unit of the adjunction. Thus $U \varepsilon^{\prime}$, and hence $\varepsilon^{\prime}$, is epimorphic. Also if $\varphi: Q \rightarrow U A^{\prime}$ is a morphism of the $\mathscr{E}$-projective $Q$ to $U A^{\prime}$, then $\varphi$ may be lifted back to $P$ and hence, a fortiori, to $U F P$. Thus, since $\mathscr{E}$ is closed, $U \varepsilon^{\prime} \in \mathscr{E}$ so that $\varepsilon^{\prime} \in \mathscr{E}^{\prime}$. Finally we see that if $A^{\prime}$ is $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}-$ projective it is a direct summand of $F P$, i.e., there is $t: A^{\prime} \rightarrow F P$ with $\varepsilon^{\prime} \imath=1$.

We may also appeal to the dual of Theorem 4.1. We now discuss examples. Our examples are related to the change of rings functor
$U=U^{\gamma}: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda^{\prime}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$ associated with a ring homomorphism $\gamma: \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^{\prime}$ (see Section IV. 12). Thus, henceforth in this section, $\mathfrak{A}=\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}, \mathfrak{A}^{\prime}=\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}^{\prime}}$. Recall that, if $A^{\prime}$ is a (left) $\Lambda^{\prime}$-module, then $U A^{\prime}$ has the same underlying abelian group as $A^{\prime}$, the $\Lambda$-module structure being given by

$$
\lambda a^{\prime}=\gamma(\lambda) a^{\prime} .
$$

As a special case, $\Lambda=\mathbb{Z}$ and $\gamma$ is given by $\gamma(1)=1_{\Lambda^{\prime}}(\gamma$ is called the unit). Then $U A^{\prime}$ simply forgets the $\Lambda^{\prime}$-module structure of $A^{\prime}$ and retains the abelian group structure; we refer to this as the forgetful case.

In general, as we know, $U$ has a left adjoint $F^{l}: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda^{\prime}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{A^{\prime}}$, given by $F^{l}(A)=\Lambda^{\prime} \otimes_{A} A$, and a right adjoint $F^{r}: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}_{A^{\prime}}$, given by $F^{r}(A)=\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(\Lambda^{\prime}, A\right), A \in \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$. Thus $U$ preserves monomorphisms and epimorphisms (obvious anyway); it is plain that $U$ is faithful.
(a) Let $\mathscr{E}=\mathscr{E}_{1}$ be the class of all epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{A}$. Then $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ is the class of all epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{A^{\prime}}$ since $U$ preserves epimorphisms. We observe that, by the argument of Theorem 4.1, we can present every $\Lambda^{\prime}$-module by means of a module of the form $\Lambda^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} P$, where $P$ is a projective $\Lambda$-module. If we take the functor $C \otimes_{\Lambda^{\prime}}-: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda^{\prime}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$, the left $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime}$-satellite may be seen by Theorem 3.2 to be the connected sequence of functors $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{\Lambda^{\prime}}(C,-)$.
(b) We get a more genuinely relative theory by taking $\mathscr{E}=\mathscr{E}_{0}$, the class of all split epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$. Then $\mathscr{E}_{0}^{\prime}$ consists of those epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda^{\prime}}$ which split as epimorphisms of $\Lambda$-modules. Thus, in the forgetful case, $\mathscr{E}_{0}^{\prime}$ is the class $\mathscr{E}_{2}$ of Section 1. Of course, every $\Lambda$-module is $\mathscr{E}_{0}$-projective, so we may use the $\Lambda$-modules $\Lambda^{\prime} \otimes_{\Lambda} B$ for $\mathscr{E}_{0}^{\prime}$-projective presentations in $\mathfrak{M}_{A^{\prime}}$. If we again take the functor $C \otimes_{\Lambda^{\prime}}-: \mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda^{\prime}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A} \mathbf{b}$, the left $\mathscr{E}_{0}^{\prime}$-satellite is computed by means of left $\mathscr{E}_{0}^{\prime}$-derived functors and it is customary to denote these derived functors by $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{\gamma}(C,-)$ or. if $\gamma: \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^{\prime}$ is an embedding, also by $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{\left(\Lambda^{\prime}: \Lambda^{\prime}\right)}(C .-)$. We obtain results for this relative Tor (exact sequences, balance between left and right), just as for the absolute Tor.
(c) Let $\mathscr{M}=\mathscr{M}_{1}$ be the class of all monomorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$. This class is injective, and, since $U$ preserves monomorphisms the class $\mathscr{M}_{1}^{\prime}=U^{-1} . \mathscr{M}_{1}$ consists of all monomorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda^{\prime}}$. Thus, by the dual of Theorem $4.1 \mathscr{M}_{1}^{\prime}$ is injective. Note that, in the forgetful case, this implies that the $\Lambda^{\prime}-$ modules $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Lambda^{\prime}, D\right)$, where $D$ is a divisible abelian group, are injective, and also provide enough injectives in $\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}^{\prime}}$ (compare Theorem I. 8.2). Now consider the left $\mathscr{M}_{1}^{\prime}$-exact functor

$$
S=\operatorname{Hom}_{A^{\prime}}(C,-): \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}^{\prime}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U} \mathrm{b} .
$$

Then we may apply Theorem 3.5 to infer that the right $\mathscr{M}_{1}^{\prime}$-satellite of $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^{\prime}}(C,-)$ consists of the connected sequence of right-derived functors $\mathrm{Ext}_{A^{\prime}}(C,-)$.
(d) Now let $\mathscr{M}=\mathscr{M}_{0}$, the class of all split monomorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{1}$. This is an injective class, and $\mathscr{M}_{0}^{\prime}=U^{-1} \mathscr{M}_{0}$ is the class of those monomorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}^{\prime}}$ which split as monomorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$. Again, this is an injective class and we have enough $\mathscr{M}_{0}^{\prime}$-injectives consisting of the $\Lambda^{\prime}$-modules $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda}\left(\Lambda^{\prime}, A\right)$, where $A$ is an arbitrary .1 -module. We refer again to the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^{\prime}}(C,-): \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}^{\prime}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U b}$, which is, of course, left $\mathscr{M}_{0}^{\prime}$-exact. Theorem 3.5 ensures that the right $\mathscr{M}_{0^{\prime}}$-satellite of $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^{\prime}}(C,-)$ consists of the connected sequences of right $\mathscr{M}_{0}^{\prime}$-derived functors of $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Lambda^{\prime}}(C,-)$, which we write $\operatorname{Ext}_{\gamma}^{\eta}(C,-)$ or, if $\gamma: \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^{\prime}$ is an embedding, also by $\operatorname{Ext}_{\left(\Lambda^{\prime}, A\right)}^{n}(C,-)$. Again, the reader should check that these relative Ext groups have the usual properties; see also Example (e) below.
(e) Here we exploit the contravariant form of Theorem 3.2. We revert to the projective classes $\mathscr{E}_{i}, i=0,1$, of (a), (b) and now regard the projective class $\mathscr{E}_{i}^{\prime}$ in $\mathfrak{M}_{A^{\prime}}$ as an injective class $\mathscr{E}_{i}^{\prime *}$ in $\mathfrak{M}_{A^{\text {opp }}}$. The contravariant functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^{\prime}}(-, C): \mathfrak{M}_{A^{\prime}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{b}$ is left exact. We may thus describe the right $\mathscr{E}_{i}^{* *}$-satellite of $\operatorname{Hom}_{A^{\prime}}(-, C)$ in terms of the right $\mathscr{E}_{i}^{\prime *}$-derived functors of $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(-, C)$. If $i=1$, we obtain the usual Ext functors, $\operatorname{Ext}_{A^{\prime}}^{n}(-, C)$; if $i=0$, we obtain the relative Ext functors denoted by $\operatorname{Ext}_{\gamma}^{n}(-, C)$ or, if $\gamma$ is an embedding, by $\operatorname{Ext}_{\left(A^{\prime}, A\right)}^{n}(-, C)$.

## Exercises:

4.1. In analogy with Exercise 3.1, prove a balance theorem for $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{\left(4 . A^{\prime}\right)}(-,-)$ and $\operatorname{Ext}_{\left(1,1^{\prime}\right)}^{n}(-,-)$.
4.2. Attach a reasonable meaning to the symbols $\operatorname{Ext}_{\delta_{0}}(-, B), \operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{\delta_{0}}(-, B)$.
4.3. Let $\mathscr{E}^{\mathscr{E}} \subseteq \mathscr{E}$ be two projective classes. If $\left(L_{n}^{\mathscr{E}} T\right) P^{\prime}=0$ for $n \geqq 1$ and all $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$-projectives $P^{\prime}\left(P^{\prime}\right.$ is then called $\mathscr{E}$-acyclic for $\left.T\right)$, prove that $L_{n}^{\delta} T=L_{n}^{\delta^{\prime}} T$ for all $n \geqq 1$. (Hint: Proceed by induction, using $\mathscr{E}^{\prime}$-projective presentations)
4.4. Use Exercise 4.3 to show that $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mu_{1}}^{n}(\mathbb{Z},-)=\operatorname{Ext}_{\mu_{2}}^{n}(\mathbb{Z},-)$ where $\mathscr{M}_{1}$ denotes the injective class of all monomorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{G}=\mathfrak{M}_{\mathbb{Z} G}$, and $\mathscr{M}_{2}$ denotes the injective class of all monomorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{G}$ which split as homomorphisms of abelian groups. Obtain a corresponding result with Ext replaced by Tor.
4.5. Generalize the argument of Exercise 4.4 by replacing the ring $\mathbb{Z} G$ by a suitable ring $\Lambda$. (One cannot generalize to arbitrary rings $\Lambda$ !)

## 5. Kan Extensions and Homology

In this section we describe a very general procedure for obtaining homology theories; we will first give the abstract development and then illustrate with examples.

Let $\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{B}$ be two small categories and let $J: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ be a functor. Let $\mathfrak{A}$ be a category admitting colimits (for example $\mathfrak{A b} . \mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$ ). Now given a functor $S: \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}, S \circ J: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ is a functor so that $J$ induces a
functor between functor categories.

$$
\begin{equation*}
J^{*}:[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{X}] \rightarrow[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{Q r}] \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

by the rule $J^{*}(S)=S: J$. We prove
Theorem 5.1. If $\mathfrak{A}$ admits colimits, then $J^{*}:[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{A}] \rightarrow[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{A}]$ has a left adjoint.

Proof. For any object $V$ in $\mathfrak{B}$, form the category $\mathfrak{I}_{V}$ of $J$-objects over $V$ as follows. An object of $\mathfrak{I}_{V}$ is a pair $(U, \psi)$ consisting of an object $U$ of $\mathfrak{U}$ and a morphism $\psi: J U \rightarrow V$. A morphism $\varphi:(U, \psi) \rightarrow\left(U^{\prime}, \psi^{\prime}\right)$ is a morphism $\varphi: U \rightarrow U^{\prime}$ in $\mathfrak{U}$ such that the diagram

commutes. With the evident law of composition, $\mathfrak{J}_{r}$ is a category. Given a functor $T: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}$, we define a functor $T_{V}: \mathfrak{I}_{V} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ by the rule

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{V}(U, \psi)=T(U), \quad T_{V}(\varphi)=T(\varphi) . \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{J} T(V)=\underset{\longrightarrow}{\lim } T_{V} . \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

This makes sense since $\mathfrak{A}$ admits colimits. Notice that $\tilde{J} T(V)$ is a certain object $A_{V}$ of $\mathfrak{A}$, furnished with morphisms $\varrho_{V}(U, \psi): T_{V}(U, \psi) \rightarrow A_{V}$, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varrho_{V}\left(U^{\prime}, \psi^{\prime}\right) \quad T_{V}(\varphi)=\varrho_{V}(U, \psi) \tag{5.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $\varphi:(U, \psi) \rightarrow\left(U^{\prime}, \psi^{\prime}\right)$ in $\mathfrak{I}_{V}$; and satisfying the usual universal property.
Now let $\theta: V_{1} \rightarrow V$ in $\mathfrak{B}$. It is then easy to see that $\theta$ induces a morphism $\hat{\theta}: A_{V_{1}} \rightarrow A_{V}$, determined by the equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{\theta} \cdot \varrho_{V_{1}}\left(U_{1}, \psi_{1}\right)=\varrho_{V}\left(U_{1}, \theta \psi_{1}\right) \tag{5.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $\psi_{1}: J U_{1} \rightarrow V_{1}$. Moreover. the rule

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{J} T(V)=A_{V}, \quad \tilde{J} T(\theta)=\tilde{\theta} \tag{5.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

plainly yields a functor $\tilde{J} T: \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$.
We next show that $\tilde{J}$ is a functor, $\tilde{J}:[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}] \rightarrow[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{N}]$. Let $S, T: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ be two functors and let $\lambda: T \rightarrow S$ be a natural transformation of functors. Then we define a natural transformation $\lambda_{V}: T_{V} \rightarrow S_{V}$ of functors $\mathfrak{I}_{V} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ by setting $\lambda_{V}(U, \psi)=\lambda\left(L^{\prime}\right): T_{V}(U, \psi) \rightarrow S_{V}(U, \psi)$. Let $\underline{l i m} S_{V}$ consist of the object $B_{V}$ together with morphisms $\sigma_{V}(U, \psi): S_{V}(\overrightarrow{U, \psi}) \rightarrow B_{V}$. We then
determine a natural transformation $\tilde{\lambda}: \tilde{J} T \rightarrow \tilde{J} S$ of functors $\mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}$ by the rule

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{\lambda}(V) \cdot \varrho_{V}(U, \psi)=\sigma_{V}\left(U, \psi^{\prime}\right) \cdot \lambda_{V}\left(U, \psi^{\prime}\right) . \tag{5.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Plainly, $\tilde{\lambda}$ is a natural transformation; plainly, too, if we set $\tilde{J}(\lambda)=\tilde{\lambda}$. then $\tilde{J}$ is a functor $[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}] \rightarrow[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{U}]$. It remains to show that $\tilde{J}$ is left adjoint to $J^{*}$. We now suppose given functors $T: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathscr{U}, S: \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}$ and a natural transformation $\tau: \tilde{J} T \rightarrow S$. We define a natural transformation $\tau^{\prime}=\eta(\tau): T \rightarrow S J$ by

$$
\begin{gather*}
\tau^{\prime}(U)=\tau(J U) \subset \varrho_{J U}(U, 1), U^{I} \text { in } \mathfrak{U},  \tag{5.8}\\
T U \xrightarrow{e_{J U}(U, 1)} \tilde{J} T J U \xrightarrow{\tau(J U)} S J U .
\end{gather*}
$$

Also given a natural transformation $\sigma: T \rightarrow S J$, we define a natural transformation $\bar{\sigma}=\bar{\eta}(\sigma): \tilde{J} T \rightarrow S$ by

$$
\begin{gather*}
\bar{\sigma}(V): \varrho_{V}(U, \psi)=S \psi \sigma(U) .  \tag{5.9}\\
V \text { in } \mathfrak{B}, \quad U \text { in } \mathfrak{U}, \quad \psi: J U \rightarrow V \text { in } \mathfrak{B} .
\end{gather*}
$$

It is easy to verify that $\tau^{\prime}, \eta, \bar{\sigma}, \bar{\eta}$ are natural; we conclude by showing that $\eta$ and $\bar{\eta}$ are mutual inverses. First, if $\tau: \tilde{J} T \rightarrow S$, then

$$
\overline{\tau^{\prime}}(V) \cdot \varrho_{V}(U, \psi)=S \psi \cdot \tau^{\prime}(U)=S \psi \cdot \tau(J U) \cdot \varrho_{J U}(U, 1)
$$

Now consider the diagram


The triangle commutes by the definition of $\tilde{J} T \psi(5.5)$, and the square commutes by the naturality of $\tau$. Thus

$$
\overline{\tau^{\prime}}(V) \cdot \varrho_{V}(U, \psi)=S \psi \cdot \tau(J U) \subset \varrho_{J U}(U, 1)=\tau(V) \cdot \varrho_{V}(U, \psi),
$$

so that $\overline{\tau^{\prime}}=\tau$, or $\bar{\eta} \eta=1$.
Next, $\bar{\sigma}^{\prime}(U)=\bar{\sigma}(J U) \subset \varrho_{J U}(U, 1)=\sigma(U)$, by (5.9), so that $\bar{\sigma}^{\prime}=\sigma$, or $\eta \bar{\eta}=1$. This completes the proof of the theorem.

Note that if, for some $V \in \mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{B}(J U, V)$ is empty for every $U \in \mathfrak{U}$, then $J T(V)$ is just the initial object in $\mathfrak{A}$, so that this case need not be regarded as exceptional.

Definition. The functor $\tilde{J}:[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{A}] \rightarrow[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{Q}]$ is called the (left) Kan extension.

The term "extension" is justified by the following proposition.
Proposition 5.2. If $J: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ is a full embedding, then, for any $T: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}, \tilde{J} T$ does extend $T$ in the sense that $(\tilde{J} T) J=T$.

Proof. Let $U \in \mathfrak{U}$ and consider the category $\mathfrak{I}_{J U}$. There is a subcategory of $\mathfrak{I}_{J U}$ consisting of just the object $(U, 1)$ and its identity morphism. Now, given any object $\left(U_{1}, \psi_{1}\right)$ of $\mathfrak{J}_{J U}$, there is a unique morphism $\varphi:\left(U_{1}, \psi_{1}\right) \rightarrow(U, 1)$ with $J \varphi=\psi_{1}$, since $J$ is a full embedding. It is then obvious that $\lim T_{J U}$ is just $T U$, with $\varrho_{J U}\left(U_{1}, \psi_{1}\right)=T(\varphi)$. This proves the proposition.

Remark. We have, in this proof, a very special case of a cofinal functor, namely the embedding of the object $(U, 1)$ in $\mathfrak{J}_{J U}$; it is a general fact that colimits are invariant under cofinal functors in the sense that $\underline{\lim } T=\underset{\longrightarrow}{\lim } T K$, where $K: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ is a cofinal functor of small categories $\overrightarrow{\text { and }} T: \overrightarrow{\mathfrak{D}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}$. For the definition of a cofinal functor, generalizing the notion of a cofinal subset of a directed set, see Exercise 5.4.

We now construct the Kan extension in a very special situation. Let $\mathfrak{u}=\mathbf{1}$ be the category with one object 1 and one morphism. Then clearly [1, $\mathfrak{A}]$ may be identified with $\mathfrak{A}$. Let $V \in \mathfrak{B}$, and let $J=K_{V}: 1 \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ be the functor $K_{V}(1)=V$; then the functor $K_{V}^{*}:[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{X}] \rightarrow[1, \mathfrak{M}]=\mathfrak{A}$ is just evaluation at $V$. i.e.. for $T: \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Q}$ we have $K_{V}^{*} T=T V$.

Proposition 5.3. The Kan extension $\hat{K}_{V}: \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{X}]$ is given hy

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\tilde{K}_{V} A\right) V^{\prime}=\coprod_{v \in \mathfrak{B}\left(V, V^{\prime}\right)} A_{v}, \quad A_{v}=A, \tag{5.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

with the obvious values on morphisms.
Proof. Of course it is possible to prove the implied adjointness relation directly. However. we shall apply the general construction of Theorem 5.1. So let $J=K_{V}$, then $\mathfrak{I}_{V}$ is the category with objects

$$
(1, v)=v: J(1)=V \rightarrow V^{\prime}
$$

and identity morphisms only. For the functor $T: 1 \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}$ with $T(1)=A$ the functor $T_{V^{\bullet}}: \mathfrak{I}_{V^{\prime}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{Y}$ is given by $T_{V^{\prime}}(\mathbf{1}, v)=T(\mathbf{1})=A$ (see (5.2)). Hence, by (5.3), the Kan extension of $T$ evaluated at $V^{\prime}$ is just the coproduct $\underset{v \in \mathcal{B}\left(V, V^{\prime}\right)}{ } A_{v}$, where $A_{v}=A$.

Next we discuss the Kan extension in a slightly more general situation than that covered by Proposition 5.3. Let $\mathfrak{u}=\mathfrak{B}_{d}$ be the discrete subcategory of $\mathfrak{B}$, and let $I: \mathfrak{B}_{d} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ be the embedding. Note that [ $\left.\mathfrak{B}_{d}, \mathfrak{X}\right]$ may be interpreted as the product category $\prod_{V \in \mathfrak{B}}\left[1_{V}, \mathfrak{A}\right]=\prod_{V \in \mathfrak{B}} \mathfrak{A}_{V}$. where $\mathfrak{A}_{V}$ is just a copy of $\mathfrak{A}$. We denote objects in $\left[\mathfrak{Y}_{d}, \mathfrak{Y}\right]$ therefore by $\left\{A_{V}\right\}$. Note also that $I^{*}:[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{M}] \rightarrow\left[\mathfrak{B}_{d}, \mathfrak{M}\right]$ is the functor given by

$$
\left(I^{*} T\right)_{V}=\left(I^{*} T\right) V=T-I(V)=T V
$$

where $T: \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$; in other words,

$$
I^{*} T=\{T V\}
$$

Corollary 5.4. The Kan extension $\tilde{I}:\left[\mathfrak{B}_{d}, \mathfrak{Y}\right] \rightarrow[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{Y}]$ is given by

$$
\left(\tilde{I}\left\{A_{V}\right\}\right) V^{\prime}=\coprod_{V \in \mathfrak{B}}\left(\tilde{K}_{V} A_{V}\right) V^{\prime}=\coprod_{V \in \mathfrak{B}} \coprod_{v \in \mathfrak{B}\left(V, V^{\prime}\right)}\left(A_{V}\right)_{V},
$$

where $\left(A_{V} \cdot\right)_{v}=A_{V}$, with the obvious values on morphisms.
This follows easily from the following lemma.
Lemma 5.5. Let $F_{i}: \mathfrak{C}_{i} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ be a left adjoint of $G_{i}: \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{C}_{i}$, and suppose that $\mathfrak{D}$ has coproducts. Define $G: \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \prod_{i} \mathcal{C}_{i}$ b; $G D=\left\{G_{i} D\right\}$. Then $F: \prod_{i} \mathbb{C}_{i} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$. defined by $F\left\{C_{i}\right\}=\coprod_{i} F_{i} C_{i}$, is a left adjoint to $G$.

Proof. $\mathfrak{D}\left(F\left\{C_{i}\right\}, D\right)=\mathfrak{D}\left(\coprod_{i} F_{i} C_{i}, D\right)=\prod_{i} \mathfrak{D}\left(F_{i} C_{i}, D\right) \cong \prod_{i} \mathcal{C}_{i}\left(C_{i}, G_{i} D\right)$ $=\left(\prod_{i} \boldsymbol{C}_{i}\right)\left(\left\{C_{i}\right\},\left\{G_{i} D\right\}\right)=\left(\prod_{i} \boldsymbol{C}_{i}\right)\left(\left\{C_{i}\right\}, G D\right)$.

Plainly, Corollary 5.4 follows inmediately from Lemma 5.5 and Proposition 5.3. $\quad]$

Going back to the general case, let $J: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ be a functor and let $\mathfrak{A}$ be an abelian category with colimits. Then (see Exercise II. 9.6) [ $\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{A}]$ and $[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{H}]$ are abelian categories and. moreover. the Kan extension $\hat{J}:[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{A}] \rightarrow[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{A}]$ exists. Since $\tilde{J}$ is defined as a left adjoint (to $J^{*}$ ) it preserves epimorphisms, cokernels and coproducts; in particular, $\tilde{J}$ is right exact. Denoting by $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime}$ the class of all epimorphisms in $[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{H}]$, we make the following definition.

Definition. Let $T: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ be a functor. We define the (absolute) homology $H_{*}(J, T)$ of $J$ with coefficients in $T$ as the left $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime}$-satellite of the Kan extension $\tilde{J}$ evaluated at $T$

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{n}(J, T)=\left(S_{n} \tilde{J}\right) T, \quad n=0,1, \ldots . \tag{5.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

We may also, for convenience, refer to this type of homology as $J$-homology. By definition $H_{n}(J, T)$ is a functor from $\mathfrak{B}$ into $\mathfrak{A}$, and $H_{0}(J, T)=\tilde{J} T$. Next we take up the question of the existence of $J$-homology. We shall apply Theorem 4.1 to show that, if $\mathfrak{A l}$ has enough projectives, then so does $[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{Q}]$; that is to say, the class $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime}$ of all epimorphisms in $[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{H}]$ is projective. By Theorem 3.2 the satellite of $\tilde{J}$ may then be computed via $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime}$-projective resolutions in $[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{H}]$. To this end consider $I: \mathfrak{U}_{d} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}$ and the Kan extension $\tilde{I}:\left[\mathfrak{U}_{d}, \mathfrak{H}\right] \rightarrow[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{H}]$. By Theorem 5.1 $\tilde{I}$ exists, and its form is given by Corollary 5.4. Since [ $\left.\mathfrak{U}_{d}, \mathfrak{A}\right]$ may be identified with the category $\prod_{U \in \mathfrak{U}} \mathfrak{A}_{U}$, where $\mathfrak{A}_{U}$ is a copy of $\mathfrak{A}$, it is clear that $I^{*}:[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{A}] \rightarrow\left[\mathfrak{U}_{d}, \mathfrak{A}\right]$ is faithful. By Theorem 4.1 the adjoint pair $\tilde{I} \dashv I^{*}$ may then be used to transfer projective classes from [ $\left.\mathfrak{U}_{d}, \mathfrak{W}\right]$ to [ $\left.\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{N}\right]$. Clearly, if $\mathscr{E}_{1}$ denotes the class of all epimorphisms in $\left[\mathfrak{U} \mathfrak{U}_{d}, \mathfrak{A}\right],\left(I^{*}\right)^{-1}\left(\mathscr{E}_{1}\right)$ is the class $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime}$ of all epimorphisms in $[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{Q}]$. Now
since $\mathfrak{M}$ has enough projectives, the category $\left[\mathfrak{u}_{d}, \mathfrak{M}\right]$ has enough projectives, and $\mathscr{E}_{1}$ is a projective class. By Theorem 4.1 it follows that the class $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime}$ is projective. We therefore have

Theorem 5.6. If $\mathfrak{A}$ has enough projectives then the J-homology

$$
H_{*}(J,-):[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{A}] \rightarrow[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{H}]
$$

exists. It may he computed as the left $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime}$-derived functor of the Kan extension,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.H_{n}(J, T)=\left(L_{n}^{\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime}} \tilde{J}\right) T, \quad n=0,1, \ldots \quad\right] \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We remark the Theorem 4.1 and Corollary 5.4 yield the form of the projectives. A functor $S: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ is, by the last part of Theorem 4.1, $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime}$-projective if and only if it is a direct summand of a functor $\tilde{I}\left\{P_{U}\right\}$ for $\left\{P_{U}\right\}$ a projective in $\left[\mathfrak{U}_{d}, \mathcal{U}\right]$. But this, of course, simply means that each $P_{U}$ is projective in $\mathfrak{U}$. Thus, by Corollary 5.4, the functor $S$ is $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime}$-projective if and only if it is a direct summand of a functor $\bar{S}: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ of the form

$$
\bar{S}\left(U^{\prime}\right)=\coprod_{U \in \mathfrak{U}} \coprod_{v \in u(U, U)}\left(P_{U}\right)_{v},
$$

where $\left(P_{U}\right)_{v}=P_{U}$ is a projective object in $\mathfrak{A}$.
Corollary 5.7. Let $0 \rightarrow T^{\prime} \rightarrow T \rightarrow T^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ be a sequence of functors in $[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{M}]$ which is $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime}$-exact. Then there is a long exact sequence of functors in $[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{A}]$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \rightarrow H_{n}\left(J, T^{*}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}(J, T) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(J, T^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n-1}\left(J, T^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots \tag{5.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

We remark that the above definitions and development may be dualized by replacing $\mathfrak{A}$ by $\mathfrak{H}^{\text {opp }}$ to yield cohomology. The reader should conscientiously carry out at least part of this dualization process, since it differs from that employed in Chapter IV in describing derived functors of covariant and contravariant functors in that, here, it is the codomain category $\mathfrak{A}$ of our functor $T$ which is replaced by its opposite $\mathfrak{Q}^{\text {opp }}$.

Our approach has used the existence of enough projectives in the category $\mathfrak{A}$. However, instead of defining the homology using the class $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime}$ in $[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{A}]$ it is possible to define a (relative) homology as the left satellite with respect to the class $\mathscr{E}_{0}^{\prime}$ of all epimorphisms in $[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{M}]$ which are objectwise split, meaning that the evaluation at any $U$ in $\mathfrak{U}$ is a split epimorphism in $\mathfrak{N}$. It is then plain that $\mathscr{E}_{0}^{\prime \prime}$ is just $\left(I^{*}\right)^{-1}\left(\mathscr{E}_{0}\right)$ where $\mathscr{E}_{0}$ denotes the class of all epimorphisms in [ $\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{A l}]$ which are objectwise split. We can then define a relative homology,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{H}_{n}(J, T)=\left(S_{n}^{\delta_{0}} \tilde{J}\right) T, \quad n=0,1, \ldots \tag{5.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

as the left satellite of the Kan extension with respect to the class $\mathscr{E}_{0}^{\prime}$. Since the class $\mathscr{E}_{0}$ is clearly projective in [ $\left.\mathfrak{u}_{d}, \mathfrak{M}\right]$, we may compute the relative homology as the left $\mathscr{E}_{0}^{\prime}$-derived functor of the Kan extension.

This definition clearly works even if $\mathfrak{A}$ lacks enough projectives. Moreover it follows from Proposition 5.8 below that if $\mathfrak{A}$ has enough projectives and exact coproducts then the relative and the absolute homology coincide. An abelian category is said to have exact coproducts if coproducts of short exact sequences are short exact - equivalently, if coproducts of monomorphisms are monomorphisms.

Proposition 5.8. Let $\mathfrak{A}$ have enough projectives and exact coproducts. If $R \in[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{Q}]$ is an $\mathscr{E}_{0}^{\prime}$-projective functor, then $\left(L_{n}^{E_{1}^{\prime}} \tilde{J}\right) R=0$ for $n \geqq 1$.

Proof: Clearly every functor $\mathfrak{U}_{d} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}$ is $\mathscr{E}_{0}$-projective. Thus, since ( $L_{n}^{\mathscr{E}_{1}} \tilde{J}$ ) is additive and $\mathfrak{A}$ has exact coproducts, it is enough, by Theorem 4.1 and Corollary 5.4, to prove the assertion for $R=\tilde{K}_{U} A_{U}: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ where $A=A_{U}$ is an arbitrary object in $\mathfrak{A}$. Now choose a projective resolution

$$
P: \cdots \rightarrow P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_{0}
$$

of $A$ in $\mathfrak{A}$. Then, since coproducts are exact in $\mathfrak{A}$,

$$
\tilde{K}_{U} P: \cdots \rightarrow \tilde{K}_{U} P_{n} \rightarrow \tilde{K}_{U} P_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \tilde{K}_{U} P_{0}
$$

is an $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime}$-projective resolution of $R$. Since trivially

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{J}\left(\tilde{K}_{U} P_{n}\right)=\tilde{K}_{J U} P_{n} \tag{5.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

the complex $\tilde{J}\left(\tilde{K}_{U} P\right)$ is again acyclic, whence the assertion follows $\quad \square$
We have the immediate collorary (see Exercise 4.3).
Theorem 5.9. Let $\mathfrak{A}$ be an abelian category with enough projectives and exact coproducts. Let $\mathfrak{U}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ be small categories and let $J: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$, $\boldsymbol{T}: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ be functors. Then

$$
H_{n}(J, T) \cong \hat{H}_{n}(J, T) .
$$

## Exercises:

5.1. Justify the statement that if $\mathfrak{B}(J U, V)$ is empty for some $V$ and all $U$, then $\tilde{J} T(V)$ is just the initial object in $\mathfrak{Q}$.
5.2. Formulate the concept of the right Kan extension.
5.3. Give an example where $J: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ is an embedding but $\tilde{J} T$ does not extend $T$.
5.4. A category $\mathbb{C}$ is said to be cofiltering if it is small and connected and if it enjoys the following two properties:
(i) given $A, B$ in $\mathbb{C}$, there exists $C$ in $\mathbb{C}$ and morphisms $\alpha: A \rightarrow C, \beta: B \rightarrow C$ in $\mathbb{C}$;
(ii) given $X \underset{\psi}{\stackrel{\varphi}{\rightrightarrows}} Y$ in $\mathbb{C}$, there exists $\theta: Y \rightarrow Z$ in $\mathbb{C}$ with $\theta \varphi=\theta \psi$.

A functor $K: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ from the cofiltering category $\mathbb{C}$ to the cofiltering category $D$ is said to be cofinal if it enjoys the following two properties:
(i) given $B$ in $\mathfrak{D}$, there exists $A$ in $\mathbb{C}$ and $\psi: B \rightarrow K A$ in $\mathfrak{D}$;
(ii) given $B \underset{\psi}{\stackrel{\varphi}{\boldsymbol{~}}} K A$ in $\mathfrak{D}$, there exists $\theta: A \rightarrow A_{1}$ in $\mathbb{C}$ with $(K \theta) \varphi=(K \theta) \psi$.

Prove that, if $\boldsymbol{T}: \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ is a functor from the cofiltering category $\mathfrak{D}$ to the category $\mathfrak{A}$ with colimits and if $K: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ is a cofinal functor from the cofiltering category $\mathbb{C}$ to $\mathfrak{D}$, then $\xrightarrow{\lim } T=\underset{\longrightarrow}{\lim } T K$. (You should make the nature of this equality quite precise.)
5.5. Prove Proposition 5.3 directly.
5.6. Prove that, under the hypotheses of Proposition 5.8 , the connected sequences of functors $\left\{L_{n}^{\delta_{1}} \tilde{J}\right\}$ and $\left\{L_{n}^{\delta_{0}^{\prime}} \tilde{J}\right\}$ are equivalent.
[Further exercises on the material of this section are incorporated into the exercises at the end of Section 6.]

## 6. Applications: Homology of Small Categories, Spectral Sequences

We now specialize the situation described in the previous section. Let $\mathfrak{B}=1$, the category with one object and only one morphism, and let $J: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ be the obvious functor. Thus, for $T: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}$, we define $H_{n}(\mathfrak{U}, T)$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{n}(\mathfrak{U}, T)=H_{n}(J, T), \quad n \geqq 0, \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and call it the homology of the small category $\mathfrak{u}$ with coefficients in $T$.
We will immediately give an example. Let $\mathfrak{U}=G$ where $G$ is a group regarded as a category with one object, let $\mathfrak{B}=\mathfrak{U}_{d}=1$, and let $J$ be the obvious functor. Take $\mathfrak{A}=\mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{b}$ the category of abelian groups. The functor $T: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ may then be identified with the $G$-module $A=T(1)$, so that $[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}]=\mathfrak{M}_{G}$. The category $[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{X}]=\mathfrak{A}$ is just the category of abelian groups. The functor $J^{*}:[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{X}] \rightarrow[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{X}]$ associates with an abelian group $A$ the trivial $G$-module $A$. The Kan extension $\tilde{J}$ is left adjoint to $J^{*}$, hence it is the functor $-_{G}:[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{X}] \rightarrow[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{A}]$ associating with a $G$-module $M$ the abelian group $M_{G}$. Since the class $\mathscr{E}_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ in $[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}]$ is just the class of all epimorphisms in $\mathfrak{M}_{G}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{n}(J, T)=H_{n}(G, A), \quad \dot{n} \geqq 0, \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A=T(1)$, so that group homology is exhibited as a special case of the homology of small categories. Moreover the long exact sequence (5.13) is transformed under the identification (6.2) into the exact coefficient sequence in the homology of groups.

We next consider the situation

$$
\mathfrak{U} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{J}} \mathfrak{B} \xrightarrow{\boldsymbol{I}} \mathfrak{B}
$$

where $J, I$ are two functors between small categories. The Grothendieck spectral sequence may then be applied to yield (see Theorem VIII. 9.3).

Theorem 6.1. Let $J: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}, I: \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}$ be two functors between small categories, and let $\mathfrak{A}$ be an abelian category with colimits and enough
projectives. Then there is a spectral sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{1}^{p, q}=H_{p}\left(1, H_{q-p}(J,-)\right) \Rightarrow H_{q}(I J,-) . \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. We only have to show that projectives in $[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{X}]$ are transformed by $\tilde{J}$ into $\tilde{I}$-acyclic objects in $[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{Q}]$. Since $\tilde{J}$ is additive it is enough to check this claim on functors $R=\tilde{K}_{U} P_{U}: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$. But then $\tilde{J}\left(\tilde{K}_{U} P_{U}\right)=\tilde{K}_{J U} P_{U}$ (by 5.14 ) which is not only $\tilde{I}$-acyclic in [ $\left.\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{A}\right]$, but even projective.

We give the following application of Theorem 6.1. Let $\mathfrak{U}=G$, where $G$ is a group regarded as a category with just one object, let $\mathfrak{B}=Q$ be a quotient group of $G$, and let $\mathfrak{P}=\mathbf{1} . I, J$ are the obvious functors. Let $\mathfrak{A}$ be the category of abelian groups. Theorem 6.1 then yields the spectral sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{1}^{p, q}=H_{p}\left(Q, H_{q-p}(J,-)\right) \Rightarrow H_{q}(G,-) . \tag{6.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

In order to discuss $H_{*}(J,-)$ in this special case, we note that $[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{A}]$ may be identified with the category $\mathfrak{M}_{Q}$ of $Q$-modules. If $M$ is in $\mathfrak{M}_{Q}, J^{*} M$ is $M$ regarded as a $G$-module. It then follows that for $M^{\prime}$ in $\mathfrak{M}_{\boldsymbol{G}}$, $\tilde{J} M^{\prime}=\mathbb{Z} Q \otimes_{\mathbf{G}} M^{\prime}$, since $\tilde{J}$ is left adjoint to $J^{*}$. We thus obtain

$$
H_{r}(J,-)=\operatorname{Tor}_{r}^{G}(\mathbb{Z} Q,-) \cong H_{r}(N,-), \quad r \geqq 0,
$$

as functors to $\mathfrak{M}_{Q}$, where $N$ is the normal subgroup of $G$ with $G / N=Q$. The spectral sequence (6.4) is thus just the Lyndon-Hochschild-Serre spectral sequence for the homology of groups.

We would like to remark that the procedures described in this section are really much more general than our limited tools allow us to show. Since we did not want to get involved in set-theoretical questions, we have had to suppose that both $\mathfrak{U}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ are small categories. However, one can show that under certain hypotheses the theory still makes sense when $\mathfrak{U}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$ are not small. We mention some examples of this kind.
(a) Let $\mathfrak{U}$ be the full subcategory of $\mathfrak{M}_{\Lambda}$ consisting of free $\Lambda$-modules. Let $\mathfrak{B}=\mathfrak{M}_{A}$, and let $J$ be the obvious functor. Thus $J^{*}:[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{A}] \rightarrow[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{A}]$ is just the restriction. It may be shown that for every additive functor $T: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$

$$
H_{n}(J, T)=L_{n} T . \quad n \geqq 0 .
$$

where $L_{n} T$ denotes the usual $n^{\text {th }}$ left derived functor of $T: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$.
(b) Let $\mathfrak{l}$ be the full subcategory of $\mathfrak{G}$, the category of groups, consisting of all free groups. Let $\mathfrak{B}=\mathfrak{G}$, and let $\mathfrak{A}$ be the category of abelian groups. Again, $J: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ is the obvious functor. Let $R_{A}: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ be the functor which assigns, to the free group $F$, the abelian group

$$
I F \otimes_{F} A=F_{a b} \otimes A
$$

for $A$ a fixed abelian group. It may then be show that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{n}\left(J, R_{A}\right) G=H_{n+1}(G, A), \quad n \geqq 1, \\
& H_{0}\left(J, R_{A}\right) G=G_{a b} \otimes A .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus we obtain, essentially, the homology of $G$ with trivial coefficients. However, more generally, we may obtain the homology of $G$ with coefficients in an arbitrary $G$-module $A$, by taking for $\mathfrak{U}$ the category of free groups over $G$, for $\mathfrak{B}$ the category of all groups over $G$, and for $J: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ the functor induced by the imbedding. Then we may define a functor $\boldsymbol{T}_{A}: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ by

$$
T_{A}(F \stackrel{f}{\rightarrow} G)=I F \otimes_{F} A
$$

where $A$ is regarded as an $F$-module via $f$. One obtains

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{n}\left(J, T_{A}\right) 1_{G}=H_{n+1}(G, A), \quad n \geqq 1, \\
& H_{0}\left(J, T_{A}\right) 1_{G}=I G \otimes_{G} A .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proceeding analogously, it is now possible to define homology theories in any category $\mathfrak{B}$ once a subcategory $\mathfrak{U}$ (called the category of models) and a base functor are specified. This is of significant value in categories where it is not possible (as it is for groups and Lie algebras over a field) to define an appropriate homology theory as an ordinary derived functor. As an example, we mention finally the case of commutative $K$-algebras, where $K$ is a field.
(c) Let $\mathfrak{V}^{\prime}$ be the category of commutative $K$-algebras. Consider the category $\mathfrak{B}=\mathfrak{B}^{\prime} / V$ of commutative $K$-algebras over the $K$-algebra $V$. Let $\mathfrak{U}$ be the full subcategory of free commutative (i.e., polynomial) $K$-algebras over $V$, and let $J: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ be the obvious embedding. Then

$$
H_{n}(J, \operatorname{Diff}(-, A))
$$

defines a good homology theory for commutative $K$-algebras. Here $A$ is a $V$-module and the abelian group $\operatorname{Diff}(U \xrightarrow{f} V, A)$ is defined as follows. Let $M$ be the kernel of the map $m: U \otimes_{K} U \rightarrow U$ induced by the multiplication in $U$. Then $\operatorname{Diff}(U \xrightarrow{f} V, A)=M / M^{2} \otimes_{U} A$ where $A$ is regarded as a $U$-module via $f$.

## Exercises:

6.1. State a "Lyndon-Hochschild-Serre" spectral sequence for the homology of small categories.
6.2. Let $\mathfrak{A}$ be an abelian category and let $\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{B}$ be small additive categories. Denote by $[\mathfrak{u}, \mathfrak{Q}]_{+}$the full subcategory of $[\mathfrak{u}, \mathfrak{N}]$ consisting of all additive functors. Given an additive functor $J: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$. define the additive Kan extension $\tilde{\boldsymbol{j}}^{+}$as a left adjoint to

$$
J^{*}:[\mathfrak{B}, \mathfrak{M}]_{+} \rightarrow[\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{2}]_{+} .
$$

Along the lines of the proof of Theorem 5.1, prove the existence of $\tilde{J}^{+}$in case $\mathfrak{A}$ has colimits. Prove an analog of Proposition 5.2.
6.3. In the setting of Exercise 6.2 define an additive $J$-homology by

$$
H_{n}^{+}(J,-)=\left(S_{n}^{\ell_{1}^{\prime}} \tilde{J}^{+}\right): \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}, \quad n \geqq 0 .
$$

Show the existence of this homology if $\mathfrak{A}$ has enough projectives.
6.4. Let $\mathfrak{U}=\Lambda$ be an augmented algebra over the commutative ring $K$ regarded as an additive category with a single object. Set $\mathfrak{B}=K$, and let $J: \Lambda \rightarrow K$ be the augmentation. What is $H_{n}^{+}(J, T)$ for $T: \Lambda \rightarrow \mathfrak{U} b$ an additive functor, i.e., a $\Lambda$-module? $\left(H_{n}^{+}(J, T)\right.$ is then called the $n^{\text {th }}$ homology group of $\Lambda$ with coefficients in the $\Lambda$-module $T$.) What is $H_{n}^{+}(J, T)$ when (a) $\mathfrak{U}=\mathbb{Z} G$, the groupring of $G, K=\mathbb{Z}$; (b) $K$ is a field and $\mathfrak{U}=U \mathfrak{g}$, the universal envelope of the $K$-Lie algebra $g$ ? Dualize.
6.5. State a spectral sequence theorem for the homology of augmented algebras. Identify the spectral sequence in the special cases referred to in Exercise 6.4.

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[^0]:    * Sections of this Introduction in small type are intended to give amplified motivation and background for the more experienced algebraist. They may be ignored, at least on first reading, by the beginning graduate student.

[^1]:    * Reviews of Papers in Algebraic and Differential Topology, Topological Groups and Homological Algebra, Part II (American Mathematical Society).

[^2]:    * Chapter VIII is somewhat special in this respect. in that it introduces a new tool in homological algebra, the theory of spectral sequences.

[^3]:    * "Small" means, of course, "large and negative" !

