

DERIVED FUNCTORS AND HOMOLOGICAL DIMENSION

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ABSTRACT. This paper overviews the basic notions of abelian categories, exact functors, and chain complexes. It will use these concepts to define derived functors, prove their existence, and demonstrate their relationship to homological dimension.

I affirm my awareness of the standards of the Harvard College Honor Code.

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1. ABELIAN CATEGORIES AND HOMOLOGY

The concept of an abelian category will be necessary for discussing ideas on homological algebra. Loosely speaking, an abelian category is a type of category that behaves like modules (R-MOD) or abelian groups (AB). We must first define a few types of morphisms that such a category must have.

Definition 1.1. A morphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$ in a category \mathcal{C} is a zero morphism if:

- for any $A \in \mathcal{C}$ and any $g, h : A \rightarrow X$, $fg = fh$
- for any $B \in \mathcal{C}$ and any $g, h : Y \rightarrow B$, $gf = hf$

We denote a zero morphism as 0_{XY} (or sometimes just 0 if the context is sufficient).

Definition 1.2. A morphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a monomorphism if it is left cancellative. That is, for all $g, h : Z \rightarrow X$, we have $fg = fh \Rightarrow g = h$. An epimorphism is a morphism if it is right cancellative.

The zero morphism is a generalization of the zero map on rings, or the identity homomorphism on groups. Monomorphisms and epimorphisms are generalizations of injective and surjective homomorphisms (though these definitions don't always coincide). It can be shown that a morphism is an isomorphism iff it is epic and monic.

Definition 1.3. The kernel of a morphism $f \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$ is the equalizer of f with 0_{AB} . The cokernel of f is the coequalizer of f with 0_{AB} .

Definition 1.4. The image of a morphism is the kernel of its cokernel, and the coimage is the cokernel of its kernel.

As the names suggest, the kernel and cokernel are meant to generalize the concepts well-known in groups. It is easy to show that the kernel of a monomorphism is 0_{AB} and the cokernel of an epimorphism is 0_{AB} ; likewise kernels are monic and cokernels are epic.

Definition 1.5. A category \mathcal{C} is called *abelian* if it satisfies the following properties:

- (1) It has an object that is both initial and terminal (also called the zero object, denoted 0).
- (2) It has all pairwise products and coproducts.
- (3) It has all kernels and cokernels.
- (4) All monomorphisms (resp. epimorphisms) can be written as the kernel (resp. cokernel) of a morphism.

As mentioned, an abelian category is meant to capture the essential notions of abelian groups and modules over commutative rings. Other examples of abelian categories include topological sheaves and vector spaces over a field. There are a few helpful properties about abelian categories. For example, the image is canonically isomorphic to the coimage¹ and consequently every morphism $f : A \rightarrow B$ factors naturally as:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \ker(f) & \xrightarrow{k} & A & \xrightarrow{f} & B & \xrightarrow{c} & \text{coker}(f) \\ & & \searrow u & & \nearrow v & & \\ & & & & \text{im}(f) & & \end{array}$$

Where u is an epimorphism and v is a monomorphism. Further, any sequence of maps $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ with $gf = 0_{AC}$ admits a natural map $\text{im}(f) \rightarrow \ker(g)$. To see this, let u and v be

¹In GRP, this is the First Isomorphism Theorem

as above and let $(k, \ker(g))$ be the kernel of g . Then we have:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & B & \xrightarrow{g} & C \\ \downarrow u & & \uparrow k & & \\ \text{im}(f) & & \ker(g) & & \end{array}$$

But since $gvu = gf = 0_{AC}$ and u is an epimorphism, we have $gv = 0_{AC}$. But by definition of the kernel of g , this means there exists a unique map $\sigma : \text{im}(f) \rightarrow \ker(g)$ such that $v = k\sigma$.

Definition 1.6. A sequence $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ with $gf = 0_{AC}$ is called exact if the map σ above is an isomorphism.

The dual definition of exactness can be phrased in terms of the image of g and the cokernel of f :

Proposition 1.7. A sequence $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ is exact if and only if $\text{im}(g) \cong \text{coker}(f)$.

Proof. We examine the following decomposition of f and g :

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & 0 & & 0 \\ & & \uparrow & \searrow & \nearrow \\ & & \text{coker}(f) & \overset{\tau}{\dashrightarrow} & \text{im}(g) \\ & & \uparrow c & \nearrow q & \searrow \\ A & \xrightarrow{f} & B & \xrightarrow{g} & C \\ \searrow u & & \uparrow k & & \\ & & \text{im}(f) & \overset{\sigma}{\dashrightarrow} & \ker(g) \\ \nearrow & & \uparrow & & \searrow \\ 0 & & 0 & & 0 \end{array}$$

Where c and k are the kernel and cokernel maps and q comes from the decomposition of $g : B \rightarrow C$. Since $gf = 0$, we obtain the map τ above in a similar manner as we obtained σ . Notice that if $\text{im}(f) \cong \ker(g)$, then both $\text{coker}(f)$ and $\text{im}(g)$ are the cokernel of $k = v$, so they are isomorphic. Similarly, if $\text{coker}(f) \cong \text{im}(g)$, then both $\text{im}(f)$ and $\ker(g)$ are the kernel of $c = q$, and so they are isomorphic. \square

Proposition 1.8. Where τ and σ are as above, we have $\ker(\tau) \cong \text{coker}(\sigma)$.

Proof. This follows from considering the image and coimage of $ck : \ker(g) \rightarrow \text{coker}(f)$ in the prior diagram. On the one hand, we have $\text{im}(ck) = \ker(\tau)$ because τ is its cokernel; on the other hand, we also have $\text{coim}(ck) = \text{coker}(\sigma)$ because σ is its kernel. As we are in an abelian category, the image and coimage are isomorphic and we thus have $\ker(\tau) \cong \text{coker}(\sigma)$. \square

This notion of exactness generalizes to sequences of objects of arbitrary length:

Definition 1.9. A sequence $A_\bullet = \cdots A_{i+1} \xrightarrow{\delta_{i+1}} A_i \xrightarrow{\delta_i} A_{i-1} \xrightarrow{\delta_{i-1}} \cdots$ is called a chain complex if $\delta_i \delta_{i+1} = 0$ for all i . Such a complex is called exact if each adjacent pair of maps δ_i, δ_{i+1} is exact.

The failure of a complex to be exact can be characterized by the cokernel of σ_i , the natural map induced between $\text{im}(\delta_i)$ and $\ker(\delta_{i+1})$. Indeed, if a complex is exact and σ_i is an isomorphism, then the cokernel is 0. This is known as the homology of a complex:

Definition 1.10. The n th homology class $H_n(A_\bullet)$ of a chain complex A_\bullet is $\text{coker}(\sigma_i)$. We saw that this is equivalent to $\ker(\tau_i)$, where τ_i is the natural map from the proof of Proposition 1.7. A chain complex is exact iff $H_n(A_\bullet) = 0$ for all n .

Example 1.11. Let G_\bullet be an exact sequence of groups. The map $\sigma : \text{im}(\delta_i) \rightarrow \ker(\delta_{i-1})$ can be regarded as inclusion, and so the cokernel is a quotient of the image in the target: $\ker(\delta_{i-1})/\text{im}(\delta_i)$.

A particular type of exact sequence that we will consider is a short exact sequence

$0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$. Here, exactness implies that f is a monomorphism and g is an epimorphism. As an example of such a sequence, let's return to the situation above:

Proposition 1.12. Let $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ be a sequence such that $gf = 0$, and let $\sigma : \text{im}(f) \rightarrow \ker(g)$ be defined as before. Then $0 \rightarrow \text{im}(f) \xrightarrow{\sigma} \ker(g) \xrightarrow{c} \text{coker}(\sigma) \rightarrow 0$ is exact, where $(c, \text{coker}(\sigma))$ is the cokernel of σ .

Proof. Recall that in the above diagram that $v = k\sigma$ is a monomorphism; this means σ is a monomorphism, and therefore $\text{im}(\sigma) \cong \text{im}(f)$. But $\ker(c) = \ker(\text{coker}(\sigma)) = \text{im}(\sigma) = \text{im}(f)$. Since c is epic (as any cokernel is), this sequence is exact at every spot. \square

Now we state an important result in homological algebra concerning exact sequences, which will be useful in a later section.

Lemma 1.13 (Snake). Suppose $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ and $0 \rightarrow D \rightarrow E \rightarrow F$ are exact and we have maps $\alpha : A \rightarrow D, \beta : B \rightarrow E, \gamma : C \rightarrow F$ commuting through. Then there is an exact sequence traced out below between the kernels and the cokernels:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 \ker\alpha & \longrightarrow & \ker\beta & \longrightarrow & \ker\gamma & \longrightarrow & \\
 \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\
 A & \longrightarrow & B & \longrightarrow & C & \longrightarrow & 0 \\
 \downarrow \alpha & & \downarrow \beta & & \downarrow \gamma & & \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & D & \longrightarrow & E & \longrightarrow & F \\
 \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\
 \text{coker}\alpha & \longrightarrow & \text{coker}\beta & \longrightarrow & \text{coker}\gamma & \longrightarrow &
 \end{array}$$

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BIPRODUCTS

Another property of abelian categories is that $\mathcal{C}(A, B)$ has an abelian group structure for all A and B . That is, if $f_1, f_2 \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$, then there is an additive law “+” so that $f_1 + f_2 \in \mathcal{C}(A, B)$, with additive identity 0_{AB} . This additional structure allows us to construct maps that don't necessarily exist otherwise.

Since any abelian category has both finite products and coproducts, which are unique, we immediately have that finite products and coproducts are canonically isomorphic via $A \star B$. This is often called a biproduct, and is denoted $A \oplus B$.

2. EXACT FUNCTORS

Now we return to exact sequences with the hopes of understanding their behavior under functors. The only functors we really want to consider are ones that behave (at least somewhat) nicely with abelian categories. From definition 1.5, we might say a well behaved functor preserves biproducts and kernels/cokernels. That is, if $F : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}'$ is a functor between abelian categories, we would like it to have three properties:

- 1) F preserves finite biproducts: $F(\bigoplus A_i) = \bigoplus F(A_i)$ (also called additive)
- 2) F preserves kernels: $F(\ker(f)) = \ker(F(f))$.
- 3) F preserves cokernels: $F(\operatorname{coker}(f)) = \operatorname{coker}(F(f))$.

Remark 2.1. It can be shown that all functors preserving kernels (or cokernels) automatically preserve biproducts.

We will show that a functor with these three properties preserves exact sequences. Before we do this, we will give examples of functors satisfying each of the above properties.

Example 2.2. Fix a ring R and a prime ideal \mathfrak{p} . Then consider the functor $(-)_\mathfrak{p} : R\text{-MOD} \rightarrow R\text{-MOD}$ given by localizing a module A at \mathfrak{p} . Since $A_\mathfrak{p} \cong A \otimes_R R_\mathfrak{p}$, if we have a map $f : A \rightarrow B$, we have a corresponding map $f \otimes \operatorname{id}_{R_\mathfrak{p}} : A_\mathfrak{p} \rightarrow B_\mathfrak{p}$. Thus we can define $f_\mathfrak{p}$ as $f \otimes \operatorname{id}_{R_\mathfrak{p}}$ and one can easily check that indeed makes this a functor. Further, $(-)_\mathfrak{p}$ preserves biproducts (direct sums) because of the associativity of tensors and direct sums:

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^n A_i \right)_\mathfrak{p} &\cong \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^n A_i \right) \otimes_R R_\mathfrak{p} \\ &\cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^n A_i \otimes_R R_\mathfrak{p} \\ &= \bigoplus_{i=1}^n A_{i\mathfrak{p}} \end{aligned}$$

Example 2.3. Fix a ring R and an R -module A . Then consider the functor $\operatorname{Hom}(A, -) : R\text{-MOD} \rightarrow \text{AB}$ sending $B \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$. If $f : B \rightarrow C$ is a homomorphism, then $f \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}(A, f)$ under this functor, where:

$$\operatorname{Hom}(A, f) : \phi \mapsto f\phi$$

Notice that the kernel of $\operatorname{Hom}(A, f)$ is the set of maps $\phi : A \rightarrow B$ that map into $\ker(f) \subset B$. This can be written as the group $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \ker(f))$. Thus we have the equality:

$$\operatorname{Hom}(A, \ker(f)) = \ker(\operatorname{Hom}(A, f))$$

This exactly means that $\operatorname{Hom}(A, -)$ preserves kernels.

Example 2.4. Fix a ring R and an R -module B . Then we consider the functor $(-) \otimes_R B : R\text{-MOD} \rightarrow R\text{-MOD}$ defined by $A \mapsto A \otimes_R B$ and $f \mapsto f \otimes_R 1_B$. To verify that this preserves cokernels, let $f : A \rightarrow C$ be a module homomorphism. We must exhibit an isomorphism:

$$C/\operatorname{im}(f) \otimes_R B \cong (C \otimes_R B)/\operatorname{im}(f \otimes_R 1_B)$$

We define a map $\phi : C/\text{im}(f) \otimes_R B \rightarrow (C \otimes_R B)/\text{im}(f \otimes_R 1_B)$ on the generating set of the domain (i.e. define on elements of the form $\overline{m \otimes b}$ and extend naturally via the bilinear mapping). Choosing a representative $m \in C$ so that $m \bmod \text{im}(f)$ is \overline{m} , we let $\phi(\overline{m \otimes b}) = m \otimes b \bmod \text{im}(f \otimes_R 1_B)$. If $\phi(\overline{m \otimes b}) = 0$, then $\overline{m} = f(m) - m_0$ for $m_0 \in \text{im}(f)$. This means $\overline{m \otimes b} = 0 \otimes b = 0$, so ϕ is injective. Now consider generating elements of $(C \otimes_R B)/\text{im}(f \otimes_R 1_B)$, which take the form $\overline{(m \otimes b)}$. Notice that we have:

$$\overline{m \otimes b} = m \otimes b + m_0 \otimes b'$$

for any $m_0 \in \text{im}(f)$ and $b' \in \text{im}(1_B) = B$, and where $m \otimes b$ is a lifting of $\overline{m \otimes b}$. Letting $b' = b$ we have:

$$\overline{m \otimes b} = m \otimes b + m_0 \otimes b = (m + m_0) \otimes b$$

Therefore the element $m \otimes b \in C/\text{im}(f) \otimes_R B$ maps to $\overline{m \otimes b}$ under ϕ , so we have a surjection and thus an isomorphism. Therefore $(-)\otimes_R B$ is a functor that preserves cokernels.

We now proceed to relating these three properties of functors on abelian categories to the preservation of exact sequences.

Theorem 2.5. *Let $F : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}'$ be an additive functor between two abelian categories. Then the following are equivalent:*

- (1) F preserves exact sequences.
- (2) F preserves short exact sequences.
- (3) F preserves kernels and cokernels.

Before we prove this, a quick lemma:

Lemma 2.6. $F(0) = 0$ for an additive functor $F : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}'$ between abelian categories.

Proof. Notice that $A \in \mathcal{C}$ is the zero object if and only if $\mathcal{C}(A, A) \cong 0$ as a group². This is equivalent to saying the identity morphism is the zero morphism on A . Since F is a functor we have $F(\text{id}_0) = \text{id}_{F(0)}$, and since it is also a group homomorphism we also have $F(0_{00}) = 0_{F(0)F(0)}$. Since $\text{id}_0 = 0_{00}$, we have $\text{id}_{F(0)} = 0_{F(0)F(0)}$, and so $F(0)$ is the zero object. □

Proof (of Theorem 2.5).

(1) \rightarrow (3): Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ be a morphism. Then we have an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow \ker(f) \xrightarrow{k} A \xrightarrow{f} B$. Since F preserves exact sequences and since $F(0) = 0$, we have another exact sequence:

$$0 \longrightarrow F(\ker(f)) \xrightarrow{F(k)} F(A) \xrightarrow{F(f)} F(B)$$

Exactness means $\ker(F(f)) = \text{im}(F(k))$. But since $F(k)$ is a monomorphism, its image is isomorphic to $F(\ker(f))$. Thus $\ker(F(f)) = F(\ker(f))$ and F preserves kernels. Similarly, we can obtain another exact sequence:

$$F(A) \xrightarrow{F(f)} F(B) \xrightarrow{F(c)} F(\text{coker}(f)) \longrightarrow 0$$

By Proposition 1.7, we have $\text{coker}(F(f)) = \text{im}(F(c))$. As $F(c)$ is an epimorphism, its image is isomorphic to $F(\text{coker}(f))$. Thus $\text{coker}(F(f)) = F(\text{coker}(f))$ and so F preserves cokernels.

(3) \rightarrow (2): Let $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ be exact. Then by similar reasoning as above we have $A \cong \ker(g)$ and $C \cong \text{coker}(f)$. Applying F gives:

$$0 \longrightarrow F(\ker(g)) \xrightarrow{F(f)} F(B) \xrightarrow{F(g)} F(\text{coker}(f)) \longrightarrow 0$$

²Recall all hom-sets in an abelian category have a group structure

3. INJECTIVE AND PROJECTIVE OBJECTS

We now generalize to the functors $\text{Hom}(A, -)$ and $\text{Hom}(-, B)$ in any abelian category. This section will characterize what types of objects A and B need to be to make these functors exact. As any hom set in an abelian category is an abelian group, these are functors to AB . If the former maps from a category \mathcal{C} , then the latter can be thought of as mapping from \mathcal{C}^{op} . Below we define how they act on morphisms, so let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a morphism, and let $\bar{f} : Y \rightarrow X$ be the corresponding morphism in \mathcal{C}^{op} .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hom}(A, f) : \text{Hom}(A, X) &\rightarrow \text{Hom}(A, Y) \\ &\phi \mapsto f\phi \\ \text{Hom}(f, B) : \text{Hom}(X, B) &\rightarrow \text{Hom}(Y, B) \\ &\bar{\phi} \mapsto \bar{\phi}\bar{f} \end{aligned}$$

It is not too hard to convince oneself that these are both left exact functors, as we saw in the category of R modules. In the case of $\text{Hom}(A, -)$, we may apply it to a short exact sequence and obtain:

$$0 \longrightarrow \text{Hom}(A, X) \xrightarrow{\text{Hom}(A, f)} \text{Hom}(A, Y) \xrightarrow{\text{Hom}(A, g)} \text{Hom}(A, Z) \longrightarrow 0$$

This is not necessarily exact for arbitrary A ; however we may easily characterize when it is. Since $\text{Hom}(A, f)$ is monic, we need only check exactness in the middle and that $\text{Hom}(A, g)$ is epic. Certainly we have $\text{im}(\text{Hom}(A, f)) \subset \ker(\text{Hom}(A, g))$ by the chain condition $gf = 0$, so let $\phi \in \ker(\text{Hom}(A, g))$. By assumption, $g\phi = 0_{AZ}$, so by the universal property of the kernel we have a map $\tilde{\phi} : A \rightarrow \ker g$. Since $\ker g \cong \text{im} f \cong X$, we have $\tilde{\phi} : A \rightarrow X$ such that $f\tilde{\phi} = \phi$. Therefore we have exactness at the middle for any A . The only place that this fails to be exact is in the surjectivity of $\text{Hom}(A, g)$. Suppose that A has the property that for any $\psi \in \text{Hom}(A, Z)$, there exists $\phi \in \text{Hom}(A, X)$ so that $g\phi = \psi$. Endowing A with this property for any epimorphism g gives the definition for a projective object:

Definition 3.1. An object P of an abelian category is projective if, for any two objects M, N with maps $f : P \rightarrow N$ and $g : M \rightarrow N$ epic, there is a map h such that the following commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & P & \\ \exists h \swarrow & \downarrow f & \\ M & \xrightarrow{g} N & \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

Dually, there is the notion of an injective object E for which $\text{Hom}(-, E)$ is exact:

Definition 3.2. An object E of an abelian category is injective if, for any two objects N, M with maps $f : N \rightarrow E$ and $g : N \rightarrow M$ monic, there is a map h such that the following commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & E & \\ \exists h \nearrow & \uparrow f & \\ M & \xleftarrow{g} N & \longleftarrow 0 \end{array}$$

Projective and injective objects are meant to mimic the property of having a “basis” that can be used to extend or prepend maps (as in the case of, say, a free module). Trivially, it is clear the zero object in any abelian category is both projective and injective.

Examples 3.3.

- In $\mathbf{R}\text{-MOD}$, all free modules are projective. This follows from taking a basis and extending by linearity to obtain the desired map h .
- A finite abelian group G is not projective. A proof of this can be found in section 3.1

Proposition 3.4. *Let X be an object in an abelian category. Then:*

- (1) X is projective if and only if $\text{Hom}(X, -)$ is exact.
- (2) Every short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow M \xrightarrow{f} N \xrightarrow{g} X \rightarrow 0$ splits if X is projective.
- (3) X is injective if and only if $\text{Hom}(-, X)$ is exact.
- (4) Every short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow X \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} N \rightarrow 0$ splits if X is injective.

Proof.

(1): This is by definition of projectivity and the discussion above.

(2): We may apply projectivity of X to the identity map 1_X ; that is, since g is an epimorphism, we have some $h : X \rightarrow N$ so that $gh = 1_X$. This means the sequence splits.

(3), (4): Reversing all arrows gives an equivalent proofs as above in \mathcal{C}^{op} . \square

Having an exact sequence split is helpful because, by the Splitting Lemma, we can write the center object as a biproduct of the outer two and thus applying any (additive) functor preserves exactness.

3.1. Projective and Injective Modules. The above proposition become stronger in the category $\mathbf{R}\text{-MOD}$ because any module can be written as a quotient of a free module:

Lemma 3.5. *Any R -module M is the quotient of a free module.*

Proof. Let F be the module generated by all elements of M . Then there is a module surjection $f : F \rightarrow M$ induced by specifying $f(e_i) = m_i$ for each basis element. Then $F/\ker(f) \cong M$ by the First Isomorphism Theorem. \square

Proposition 3.6. *Let X be a module. Then if every short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow M \xrightarrow{f} N \xrightarrow{g} X \rightarrow 0$ splits, then X is projective. Similarly, if every short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow X \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} N \rightarrow 0$ splits, then X is injective.*

Proof. We will prove the first statement, and the second follows from the same argument in $\mathbf{R}\text{-MOD}^{op}$. By Lemma 3.5, X is a quotient of a free module and therefore we have an exact sequence:

$$0 \longrightarrow L \longrightarrow F \longrightarrow X \longrightarrow 0$$

where F is free. By assumption, this splits, so $F \cong X \oplus L$. In particular, we have a projection $\pi : F \rightarrow X$. Now let $g : M \rightarrow N$ be any surjection and $f : X \rightarrow N$ be any map. Then we have the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} F & \xrightarrow{\pi} & X \\ \downarrow h & & \downarrow f \\ M & \xrightarrow{g} & N \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

We infer the existence of h from the fact that F is free and therefore projective: we have a map $\pi f : F \rightarrow N$ and a surjection $g : M \rightarrow N$, so there is a lifting $h : F \rightarrow M$ commuting through. Now, since X is a submodule of F , we can restrict h to X and obtain $h_X : X \rightarrow M$. This shows that X is projective. \square

Theorem 3.7. *A module X over a PID is projective if and only if it is free.*

Proof. One direction has been shown: every free module is projective. Conversely, if X is projective, then it is a summand of a free module (by above) and is therefore a submodule of a free module. Since every submodule of a free module in a PID is also free, we have that X is free. \square

Corollary 3.8. *A finite abelian group G is not projective as a \mathbb{Z} module.*

Proof. G cannot be a free module because all elements have finite order, and thus cannot be part of a basis. As \mathbb{Z} is a PID, this also means G is not projective by Theorem 3.7 \square

4. THE CHAIN COMPLEX CATEGORY

We now revisit the idea of chain complexes to give them their own categorical structure. In this section we will define the category of chain and cochain complexes for an abelian category. It will conclude with the Zig-Zag Lemma, which will be important for future sections.

Definition 4.1. Let \mathcal{C} be an abelian category. Then define the category of chain complexes $\text{Ch}(\mathcal{C})$ by:

- Objects: chain complexes A_\bullet (of any degree) with objects in \mathcal{C} .
- A morphism $f_\bullet : A_\bullet \rightarrow B_\bullet$ is a collection $f_i : A_i \rightarrow B_i$ so that the following commutes for all i :

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A_i & \xrightarrow{\alpha_i} & A_{i-1} \\ \downarrow f_i & & \downarrow f_{i-1} \\ B_i & \xrightarrow{\beta_i} & B_{i-1} \end{array}$$

The cochain category is the category of chain complexes on \mathcal{C}^{op} .

There are two natural functors on this category. One is the natural inclusion: $I : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \text{Ch}(\mathcal{C})$ given by $A \mapsto \dots \rightarrow 0_1 \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0_{-1} \rightarrow \dots$ and $f \mapsto (\dots, 0_1, f, 0_{-1}, \dots)$. The other is the homology functor $H_n : \text{Ch}(\mathcal{C}) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ taking a complex to the n th homology class. It is not immediately obvious that this is a functor, since we have not yet specified how to define H_n on morphisms. Below is a diagram that shows, if $f_\bullet : A_\bullet \rightarrow B_\bullet$, then there is a natural choice for $H_n(f_\bullet)$.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & A_i & \xrightarrow{\alpha_i} & A_{i-1} & \xrightarrow{\alpha_{i-1}} & A_{i-2} & \longrightarrow & \dots \\ & & \searrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ & & \text{im}(\alpha_i) & \xrightarrow{\sigma_i} & \ker(\alpha_{i-1}) & \longrightarrow & H_i(A_\bullet) & & \\ & & \downarrow \text{blue} & & \downarrow \text{blue} & & \downarrow \text{red} & & \\ & & \text{im}(\beta_i) & \xrightarrow{\tau_i} & \ker(\beta_{i-1}) & \longrightarrow & H_i(B_\bullet) & & \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & B_i & \xrightarrow{\beta_i} & B_{i-1} & \xrightarrow{\beta_{i-1}} & B_{i-2} & \longrightarrow & \dots \end{array}$$

The blue arrows are inherited maps from the universal property of the kernel, and the red arrow is induced by the blue arrows because the middle two rows are exact. We can now define $H_i(f_\bullet) : H_i(A_\bullet) \rightarrow H_i(B_\bullet)$ to be the red arrow.

Definition 4.2. A map f_\bullet of chain complexes is a quasi-isomorphism if $H_i(f_\bullet)$ is an isomorphism for all i .

The quasi-isomorphisms of chain complexes identify complexes that are in some sense similar (i.e. have the same homology). These are not isomorphisms for many reasons; one of which is that being quasi-isomorphic is not symmetric.

Theorem 4.3. *For an abelian category \mathcal{C} , the chain complex category is also abelian.*

In particular, we have notions of biproducts, kernels, cokernels and exact sequences in $\text{Ch}(\mathcal{C})$. These will not play a very large role in the discussion to come, so we won't prove this theorem here. One object that we will use is the short exact sequence of chain complexes:

Definition 4.4. A squence $0 \rightarrow A_\bullet \xrightarrow{f_\bullet} B_\bullet \xrightarrow{g_\bullet} C_\bullet \rightarrow 0$ is short exact in $\text{Ch}(\mathcal{C})$ if it is exact at each component. That is, the columns in the diagram below are short exact sequences.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & A_{i+1} & \longrightarrow & A_i & \longrightarrow & A_{i-1} & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
 & & \downarrow f_{i+1} & & \downarrow f_i & & \downarrow f_{i-1} & & \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & B_{i+1} & \longrightarrow & B_i & \longrightarrow & B_{i-1} & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
 & & \downarrow g_{i+1} & & \downarrow g_i & & \downarrow g_{i-1} & & \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_{i+1} & \longrightarrow & C_i & \longrightarrow & C_{i-1} & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\
 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & &
 \end{array}$$

When we say such a sequence splits, we mean that there exists a map $h_\bullet : C_\bullet \rightarrow B_\bullet$ such that $g_i h_i = 1_{C_i}$ for each i .

Proposition 4.5. *If P_\bullet is a complex for which each P_i is projective, then every short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A_\bullet \rightarrow B_\bullet \rightarrow P_\bullet \rightarrow 0$ splits. Similarly, if E_\bullet is a complex for which each E_i is injective, then every short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow E_\bullet \rightarrow A_\bullet \rightarrow B_\bullet \rightarrow 0$ splits.*

Proof. This is a consequence of Proposition 3.4 applied to each column. □

Theorem 4.6 (Ziz Zag Lemma). *If $0 \rightarrow A_\bullet \xrightarrow{f_\bullet} B_\bullet \xrightarrow{g_\bullet} C_\bullet \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence of chain complexes, then there is a natural exact sequence connecting the homology classes:*

$$\cdots \longrightarrow H_i(A_\bullet) \xrightarrow{H_i(f_\bullet)} H_i(B_\bullet) \xrightarrow{H_i(g_\bullet)} H_i(C_\bullet) \xrightarrow{\delta_i} H_{i-1}(A_\bullet) \xrightarrow{H_{i-1}(f_\bullet)} H_{i-1}(B_\bullet) \longrightarrow \cdots$$

Lemma 4.7. *For a chain complex A_\bullet with maps d_i , there is a natural exact sequence:*

$$0 \longrightarrow H_i(A_\bullet) \longrightarrow \text{coker}d_{i+1} \xrightarrow{\zeta} \text{ker}d_{i-1} \longrightarrow H_{i-1}(A_\bullet) \longrightarrow 0$$

Proof. See [3]. □

Proof (Of Theorem 4.6). This will be a double application of the Snake Lemma, and is a proof due to [3]. We first have for every i a pair of exact sequences:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & A_i & \xrightarrow{f_i} & B_i & \xrightarrow{g_i} & C_i & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ & & \downarrow d_i^A & & \downarrow d_i^B & & \downarrow d_i^C & & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A_{i-1} & \xrightarrow{f_{i-1}} & B_{i-2} & \xrightarrow{g_{i-1}} & C_{i-1} & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array}$$

By the Snake Lemma, we have two exact sequences: $\text{coker}d_{i+1}^A \rightarrow \text{coker}d_{i+1}^B \rightarrow \text{coker}d_{i+1}^C \rightarrow 0$ and $0 \rightarrow \ker d_{i-1}^A \rightarrow \ker d_{i-1}^B \rightarrow \ker d_{i-1}^C$. Using Lemma 4.7, we can string these together and obtain:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} H_i(A_\bullet) & \longrightarrow & H_i(B_\bullet) & \longrightarrow & H_i(C_\bullet) & & & & \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & & & \\ \text{coker}d_{i+1}^A & \longrightarrow & \text{coker}d_{i+1}^B & \longrightarrow & \text{coker}d_{i+1}^C & \longrightarrow & 0 & & \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & & & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & \ker d_{i-1}^A & \longrightarrow & \ker d_{i-1}^B & \longrightarrow & \ker d_{i-1}^C & & \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ H_{i-1}(A_\bullet) & \longrightarrow & H_{i-1}(B_\bullet) & \longrightarrow & H_{i-1}(C_\bullet) & & & & \end{array}$$

Using the Snake Lemma once again gives the desired sequence. \square

Remark 4.8. There are parts to still be verified in this proof, like checking naturality and checking that the maps $H_i(A_\bullet) \rightarrow H_i(B_\bullet)$ are $H_i(f_\bullet)$. We leave this to [3].

5. HOMOLOGICAL DIMENSION

The subject of this section will be connecting our discussion on injective/projective objects with chain complexes. We will define homological dimension and provide a few first order results.

Definition 5.1. We say an abelian category \mathcal{C} has “enough projectives” if for every $A \in \mathcal{C}$ there exists an epimorphism $p : P \rightarrow A$ where P is projective. Similarly, we say \mathcal{C} has “enough injectives” if for every $A \in \mathcal{C}$ there exists a monomorphism $e : A \rightarrow E$ for E is injective.

Definition 5.2. A projective resolution of an object $A \in \mathcal{C}$ is a quasi-isomorphism $P_\bullet \rightarrow I(A)$, where $P_\bullet \in \text{Ch}(\mathcal{C})$ is a chain complex of non-negative degree and where each P_i is projective. An injective resolution of A is a quasi-isomorphism $I(A) \rightarrow E_\bullet$, where E_\bullet is a cochain complex of non-negative degree and where each E_i is injective.

Remark 5.3. The quasi-isomorphism $I(A) \cong_q P_\bullet$ is equivalent to providing an exact sequence $\cdots \rightarrow P_1 \rightarrow P_0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$.

Definition 5.4. A resolution P_\bullet is said to have length n if $P_i = 0$ for all $i > n$. If no such n exists, we say P_\bullet has infinite length.

Theorem 5.5. Any abelian category that has enough projectives (resp. injectives) admits a projective (resp. injective) resolution on every object.

Proof. We will show this in the case of projective resolutions, and the proof for injective resolutions will be dual. Proceed by induction:

- (Base case) By the property of having enough projectives, we have $P_0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ exact.
- Now assume $P_n \xrightarrow{p_{n-1}} P_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots \xrightarrow{p_0} P_0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} A \rightarrow 0$ is exact for $n > 0$. Then consider the short exact sequence induced by taking the kernel of p_{n-1} :

$$0 \longrightarrow \ker(p_{n-1}) \xrightarrow{k} P_n \xrightarrow{p_{n-1}} P_{n-1} \longrightarrow 0$$

Since we have enough projectives, we can find an epimorphism $\ell : P_{n+1} \rightarrow \ker(p_{n-1})$, where P_{n+1} is projective. Now we have a map $p_n := k\ell : P_{n+1} \rightarrow P_n$. Further, $\text{im}(p_n) = \text{im}(\ell) = \ker(p_{n-1})$ because k is a monomorphism and ℓ is an epimorphism. Thus we have extended the exact sequence:

$$P_{n+1} \xrightarrow{p_n} P_n \xrightarrow{p_{n-1}} \cdots \xrightarrow{p_0} P_0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} A \longrightarrow 0$$

And so A admits a projective resolution. □

Example 5.6. The category of R -modules has enough projectives and injectives. It is easy to see that it has enough projectives from Lemma 3.5: write A as a direct summand of a free module P , which is projective, and we can take the natural surjection $P \rightarrow A$. The case of injective modules is not as straight-forward, but is nevertheless true and can be found in [2].

By taking an injective or projective resolution of an object, we obtain some information about that object and how projective or injective it is. We will see that this can extend to measuring how exact a functor is.

Definition 5.7. Let \mathcal{C} be an abelian category with enough projectives and injectives. The projective dimension $\dim_p(A)$ of an object A is the length of the smallest projective resolution $P_\bullet \rightarrow I(A)$. The injective dimension $\dim_i(A)$ of A is the length of the smallest injective resolution $I(A) \rightarrow E_\bullet$.

Lemma 5.8. $\dim_p(A) = 0$ if and only if A is projective, and $\dim_i(A) = 0$ if and only if A is injective.

Proof. If A is projective, then it admits a trivial resolution $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$, which has length 0. Conversely, if A has a length 0 resolution, then we have an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow P_0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$, which means $P_0 \cong A$, so A is projective. The same holds for injectivity. □

Lemma 5.9. In the category of R modules, where R is a PID, we have $\dim_p(M) \leq 1$ for all modules M .

Proof. We can always find a presentation of M of the form $0 \rightarrow L \rightarrow P_0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$, where P_0 is free. Since $L \subset P_0$, and we are working in a PID, we have that L is free and therefore projective. Thus our presentation of M is also a projective resolution of length at most 1. □

Theorem 5.10 (Comparison Theorem). Let P_\bullet be a projective resolution of A , and let $C_\bullet : \cdots \rightarrow C_1 \rightarrow C_0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow 0$ be an exact complex. Then for any $f : A \rightarrow B$, there is an extension of f to a map of complexes $f_\bullet : P_\bullet \rightarrow C_\bullet$ with $f_{-1} = f$.

Proof. We must construct f_i so that the following commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & P_1 & \xrightarrow{p_0} & P_0 & \xrightarrow{\epsilon} & A \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow f_1 & & \downarrow f_0 & & \downarrow f \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_1 & \xrightarrow{c_0} & C_0 & \xrightarrow{\lambda} & B \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

We proceed by induction.

- (Base case): To construct f_0 , we appeal to the projectivity of P_0 . Since λ is epic, we have $f_0 : P_0 \rightarrow C_0$ induced by $f \epsilon : P_0 \rightarrow B$.
- Now assume we have constructed $f_i : P_i \rightarrow C_i$. Then we also have the following factorization:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} P_{i+1} & \xrightarrow{p_i} & P_i & & \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow f_i & & \\ C_{i+1} & \twoheadrightarrow \text{im}(c_i) & \hookrightarrow C_i & \xrightarrow{c_{i-1}} & C_{i-1} \end{array}$$

Notice that $c_{i-1}f_i p_i = f_{i-1}p_{i-1}p_i = 0$. Since $\text{im}(c_i) = \ker(c_{i-1})$, we obtain the red map from the universal property of the kernel. Now since $C_{i+1} \rightarrow \text{im}(c_i)$ is an epimorphism, we can use the projectivity of P_{i+1} to obtain a map $f_{i+1} : P_{i+1} \rightarrow C_{i+1}$. This completes the construction of f_\bullet . □

Corollary 5.11. *If $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence in an abelian category, then for every pair of projective resolutions P_\bullet^A of A and P_\bullet^C of C , there is a projective resolution P_\bullet^B such that $0 \rightarrow P_\bullet^A \rightarrow P_\bullet^B \rightarrow P_\bullet^C \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence of chain complexes.*

Proof. The trick is to let $P_i^B = P_i^A \oplus P_i^C$. In order to obtain the connecting maps on $P_i^B \rightarrow P_{i-1}^B$, we use the Comparison Theorem. We relegate the details to [1]. □

6. DERIVED FUNCTORS

Now we revisit the question of short exact sequences and how they are preserved under additive functors. The purpose of this section is to use all that we've developed to define exact functors and prove their existence in certain abelian categories.

Let \mathcal{C} be an abelian category with enough projectives, and let $F : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}'$ be a right exact functor. Consider any short exact sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$$

We can projective resolutions of A and C , call these P_\bullet^A and P_\bullet^C . By Corollary 5.11, we have a projective resolution P_\bullet^B so that

$$0 \rightarrow P_\bullet^A \rightarrow P_\bullet^B \rightarrow P_\bullet^C \rightarrow 0$$

is a short exact sequence of complexes. Moreover, this exact sequence is split. Since F is additive, it preserves all split exact sequences. Thus we have another short exact sequence of complexes by applying F :

$$0 \rightarrow F(P_\bullet^A) \rightarrow F(P_\bullet^B) \rightarrow F(P_\bullet^C) \rightarrow 0$$

Now we apply the Zig-Zag Lemma (Theorem 4.6) and obtain a long exact sequence of homologies:

$$\cdots \rightarrow H_1(F(P_\bullet^A)) \rightarrow H_1(F(P_\bullet^B)) \rightarrow H_1(F(P_\bullet^C)) \rightarrow H_0(F(P_\bullet^A)) \rightarrow H_0(F(P_\bullet^B)) \rightarrow H_0(F(P_\bullet^C)) \rightarrow 0$$

Now we use the fact that F is right exact to compute the H_0 terms above. Right exactness tells us that the right-most ends of the projective resolutions are still exact after applying F :

$$F(P_2^A) \xrightarrow{F(p_1^A)} F(P_1^A) \xrightarrow{F(p_0^A)} F(P_0^A) \rightarrow 0$$

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