

# SJÄLVSTÄNDIGA ARBETEN I MATEMATIK MATEMATISKA INSTITUTIONEN, STOCKHOLMS UNIVERSITET 

## Introduction to Homological Algebra, Up To the Definition $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbf{R}}^{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N})$

av
Lisa Reiner

2023 - No K 25

# Introduction to Homological Algebra, Up To the Definition $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbf{R}}^{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N})$ 

Lisa Reiner

Självständigt arbete i matematik 15 högskolepoäng, grundnivå


#### Abstract

The contravariant functor $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, D)$ is additive, and moreover left exact, but is not exact. In this thesis we define a sequence of functors $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)$ which in some sense measure the failure of the hom functor to be exact. The functors $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)$ are called the derived functors of Hom. They are defined as the cohomology groups of the cochain complex $\operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{\bullet}, D\right)$, where $P_{\bullet}$ is a choice of projective resolution of the source variable. The definition is independent of the choice of $P_{\bullet}$, because $P_{\bullet}$ is unique up to chain homotopy, and cohomology groups are homotopy-invariant.

When the functors $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)$ are applied to a short exact sequence of modules they generate a long exact sequence of cohomology groups. The functors $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, A)$ are characterized by this long exact sequence of cohomology groups together with the natural isomorphisms $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{0}(\square, D) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(\square, D)$ and $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(Q, D)=0$ when $Q$ is projective and $n>0$.

The functor $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, D)$ is exact if and only if $D$ is injective. It follows that an $R$-module $D$ is injective if and only if $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(B, D)=0$ for all modules $B$ and $n>0$.

One of the first applications of Ext groups stems from the fact that there is a bijection between equivalence classes of extensions of $A$ by $C$ and the group $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$. We can define the bijection $\psi$ by using the existence of a chain-map $\alpha_{n}$ between the projective resolution $\mathbf{P}_{C}$ of $C$ and the extension $A$ by $C$. Since a chain-map implies a commuting diagram of the complexes involved, $\alpha_{1} d_{2}: P_{2} \rightarrow P_{1} \rightarrow A$ is equal to $0: P_{2} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow A$ and $\alpha_{1}$ can be viewed as an element of the kernel of the induced map $$
d_{2}^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{1}, A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{2}, A\right)
$$

Since $\alpha_{1}$ belongs to the kernel of $d_{2}^{*}, \alpha_{1}$ is a representative of a coset in $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$. The map $\psi$ is defined by mapping the extension class represented by the extension $A$ by $C$ to the coset of $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$ represented by $\alpha_{1}$. The inverse of $\psi$ is defined by choosing a representative of a coset of $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$ and a projective resolution of $C$. Using these two objects an extension $A$ by $C$ is constructed as a second row in a commutative diagram where all second rows are equivalent extensions. The inverse then maps the coset represented by $\alpha_{1}$ to the extension class $A$ by $C$.


## Sammanfattning

Den kontravarianta funktorn $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, D)$ är additiv och vänsterexakt men inte exakt. I den här uppsatsen definierar vi en sekvens funktorer, $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)$, som i viss mån mäter hur mycket $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, D)$ avviker från att vara exakt. Funktorerna $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)$ är definierade som kohomologigrupper av kokedjekomplexet $\operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{\bullet}, D\right)$. Där $P_{\bullet}$ är valet av projektiv upplösning av argumentet. Definitionen är oberoende av val av $P_{\bullet}$ då homotopiska kedje-homomorfismer är oberoende av val av upplösning och kohomologigrupper är homotopi-invarianta.

Funktorerna $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)$ mappar korta exakta sviter av moduler till långa exakta sviter av kohomologigrupper. Funktorerna $\operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{\bullet}, D\right)$ karaktäriseras av dessa långa exakta sviter i kombination med den naturliga isomorfismen $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{0}(\square, D) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(\square, D)$ och $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(Q, D)=0$ för en projektiv modul $Q$ och där $n>0$.

Funktorn $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, D)$ är exakt om och endast om $D$ är injektiv, vilket innebär att en $R$-modul är injektiv om och endast om $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(B, D)=0$ för alla moduler $B$ där $n>0$.

En av de första tillämpningarna av Ext-grupper kommer från det faktum att det finns en bijektion $\psi$ mellan ekvivalensklasser av korta exakta sviter och gruppen $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$. Låt sviten $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ representera sin ekvivalensklass. Vi kan definiera bijektionen $\psi$ genom att använda kedje-homomorfismen $\alpha_{n}$ mellan den projektiva upplösningen $\mathbf{P}_{C}$ av $C$ och den exakta sviten $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$. Eftersom kedje-homomorfismer innebär ett kommutativt diagram av komplex får vi att $\alpha_{1} d_{2}: P_{2} \rightarrow P_{1} \rightarrow A$ är samma som $0: P_{2} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow A$ vilket innebär att $\alpha_{1}$ tillhör kärnan av homomorfismen

$$
d_{2}^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{1}, A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{2}, A\right)
$$

Då $\alpha_{1}$ tillhör kärnan av $d_{2}^{*}$, representerar $\alpha_{1}$ en sidoklass i $\operatorname{Ext}{ }_{R}^{1}(C, A)$ och $\psi$ definieras sedan genom att ekvivalensklassen $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ mappas till den sidoklass som representeras av $\alpha_{1}$. Inversen till $\psi$ definieras genom att först välja en representat av sidoklassen $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$ och därefter en projektiv upplösning av $C$. Sedan väljs en homomorphism $\alpha_{1}$ som representerar den valda sidoklassen av $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$ och utifrån den och den valda resolutionen skapas ett kommutativt diagram av två korta exakta sviter där den andra raden alltid representerar ekvivalensklassen $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$. Inversen mappar sedan sidoklassen representerad av $\alpha_{1}$ till den korta exakta sviten i andra raden av diagrammet.

## Acknowledgement

I would like to thank my supervisor Gregory Arone for his advice and support in completing this text.

## Contents

1 Introduction ..... 1
2 Modules ..... 1
2.1 Some Definitions and Properties ..... 1
2.1.1 R-module Homomorphisms and Hom-sets ..... 3
2.1.2 Submodules ..... 5
2.1.3 Quotient Modules ..... 6
2.2 Direct Products and Direct Sums ..... 8
2.3 Free And Projective Modules ..... 11
3 Exact Sequences ..... 15
3.1 Exact Sequences ..... 15
3.2 Exact Sequences Derived From Hom-sets ..... 25
4 Complexes ..... 28
4.1 Chain and Cochain Complexes ..... 28
4.2 Projective Resolutions of Modules ..... 31
4.3 Simultaneous Resolution ..... 32
5 Cohomology and Homology ..... 37
5.1 Cohomology ..... 37
6 Additive Categories and Additive Functors ..... 43
6.1 Categories ..... 43
6.1.1 Additive Categories ..... 46
6.2 Functors ..... 47
6.3 Products of Categories and Bifunctors ..... 50
6.4 Opposite Categories ..... 52
7 Functors Hom, $\mathrm{H}^{n}$ and Derived Functors Ext ..... 54
7.1 Functors Hom and $\mathbf{H}^{n}$ ..... 55
7.1.1 The Contravariant Hom functor ..... 55
7.1.2 The Cohomology Functor $H^{n}$ ..... 57
7.2 Ext Groups and Right Derived Functors Ext ..... 57
7.2.1 The Long Exact Sequence of Ext Groups ..... 61
7.2.2 Bijection of $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$ and $e(C, A)$ ..... 65

## 1 Introduction

The following sections are a compilation of definitions and theorems leading up to the statements characterizing the functors $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, A)$, the characterization of injective modules by $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, A)$ and finally the definition of the bijection between the set of equivalent extensions of $A$ by $C$ and the group $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$.

We start by defining modules in section 2 , in particular we define direct sums of modules, free modules and projective modules. We also show that Hom-sets under point-wise addition are additive abelian groups. This section might seem a bit too fundamental but the basics are included for two reasons: The first is for reference and the second is for context since basic qualities such as freeness and direct sums of modules or additivity of homomorphisms are central throughout the text.

We move on to exact sequences/extensions in section 3, we show how quotient modules can be written as exact sequences and we define split exact sequences. We define equivalent extensions and we prove the Snake Lemma. We also show how to derive exact sequences of Hom-groups from exact sequences of modules and we define injective modules.

In Section 4 we generalize the concept of exactness and define complexes. We show that complexes share the properties of modules and that there are direct sums and short exact sequences of complexes. We use the Snake Lemma to prove the Horseshoe Lemma which shows how we can derive a short exact sequence of complexes from a short exact sequence of modules. We define projective resolutions of modules and show that there always exist a chain-map of resolutions given homomorphism of modules.

We then define cohomology groups, $H^{n}$-groups, from complexes in section 5, and we use the Snake Lemma once again to show that a short exact sequence of cochain complexes induces a long exact sequence of cohomology groups

In section 6 we define additive categories and additive functors and show that they preserve direct sums, complexes and homotopic chain maps.

Finally in section 7 we define the additive contravariant functor $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, B)$ and the additive functor $H^{n}$ in order to define the derived functor $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, A)$. We use the Long Exact Sequence of Cohomology to derive the long exact sequence of Ext-groups and we state the axioms characterizing $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, A)$. We then use $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, A)$ to characterize injective modules and lastly we define the bijection of equivalent extensions $A$ by $C$ and the group $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$.

## 2 Modules

### 2.1 Some Definitions and Properties

A left module or a right module is an abelian group on which a ring acts from the left or from the right respectively. For commutative rings, the notions of left and right module are equivalent and are referred to simply as an $R$-module. We will not assume that rings are commutative, and adopt the convention that unless said otherwise, "module" means "left module".

Definition 2.1. Let $R$ be a ring with a 1. A left $R$-module or a left module over $R$ is a set $M$ together with
(1) a binary operation + on $M$ under which $M$ is an abelian group, and
(2) an action of $R$ on $M$ (that is, a map $R \times M \rightarrow M$ ) denoted $r m$ for all $r \in R$ and for all $m \in M$ which satisfies
(a) $(r+s) m=r m+s m$, for all $r, s \in R, m \in M$
(b) $r(m+n)=r m+r n$ for all $r \in R, m, n \in M$
(c) $(r s) m=r(s m)$ for all $r, s \in R, m \in M$
(d) $1 m=m$ for all $m \in M$.
[1, pg. 337, Definition, Sec. 10.1]
Right modules are defined analogously. Let $M$ be an $R$-module and let ${ }_{R} 0$ be the zero of the ring $R$ and $0_{M}$ the zero of $M$ as an abelian group then
(i) ${ }_{R} 0 \mathrm{~m}=0_{M}$ and
(ii) $(-1) m=-m$
for all $m \in M$. This is due to the distributivity axiom in $2(a)$, since

$$
\left({ }_{R} 0+{ }_{R} 0\right) m={ }_{R} 0 m
$$

and so ${ }_{R} 0 m=0_{M}$. With the help of $2(d)$ we then get

$$
{ }_{R} 0 m=(1+(-1)) m=m+(-1) m=0_{M}
$$

and $(-1) m=-m$.
Example 2.2. (i) Abelian groups are $\mathbb{Z}$-modules. Let $r,-r \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let $a \in A$ where $A$ is an additive abelian group. If we define an action of $\mathbb{Z}$ on $A$ by

$$
r a \mapsto a+a+\ldots+a
$$

the axioms of Definition 2.1 (2) are immediately satisfied for all positive integers. It follows that $(i)$ in the text above also holds and if we introduce the negative integers so does (ii) and the action of $-r$ on $A$ becomes

$$
-r a=r(-1) a=r(-a) \mapsto(-a)+(-a)+\ldots+(-a)
$$

The axioms of Definition 2.1 (2) are immediately satisfied for all negative integers and $A$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$-module. [3, pg.289, Example B-1.19 (ii), Ch. B-1] [3, pg.132-133, Proposition A-4.20, Ch. A-4]
(ii) Any ring $R$ is an $R$-module where $R$ acts upon itself by multiplication. Depending on whether $R$ acts on itself from the left or the right it is either a left module or a right module and unless the ring is commutative these modules have different structures. [1, pg. 338, Example (1), Sec. 10.1]
(iii) The zero module is the trivial module containing only the zero element, $\{0\}$.

### 2.1.1 R-module Homomorphisms and Hom-sets

Definition 2.3. Let R be a ring and let $M$ and $N$ be R-modules.
(i) A map $f: M \rightarrow N$ is an $\mathbf{R}$-module homomorphism if it respects the R -module structures of $M$ and $N$, i. e.
(a) $f(x+y)=f(x)+f(y)$ for all $x, y \in M$ and
(b) $f(r x)=r f(x)$, for all $r \in R, x \in M$
(ii) If $f: M \rightarrow N$ is an R -module homomorphism, let
(a) ker $f=\{m \in M \mid n=\varphi(m)=0\}$ be the kernel of f , let
(b) im $f=\{n \in N \mid n=f(m)$ for some $m \in M\}$ be the image of f .
(iii) Define $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{R}}(M, N)$ to be the set of all R-module homomorphisms from $M$ into $N$.
[1, pg. 345, Definition (1),(3),(4), Sec. 10.2]
An $R$-module homomorphism which is both onto and one to one is called an $R$-module isomorphism. We will sometimes refer to $R$-module homomorphisms as $R$-maps.

Definition 2.4. Let $A$ and $B$ be $R$-modules for some ring $R$. The zero map, $0: A \rightarrow B$ is defined by $0: a \mapsto 0_{B}$ for all $a \in A$.

The set of all $R$-module homomorphisms, $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$, is an abelian group under pointwise addition.

Proposition 2.5. Let $M, N$ and $L$ be $R$-modules.
(i) Let $\varphi, \psi$ be elements of $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ define $\varphi+\psi$ by

$$
(\varphi+\psi)(m)=\varphi(m)+\psi(m) \text { for all } m \in M
$$

Then $\varphi+\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ and with this operation $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ is an abelian group.
(ii) If $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(L, M)$ and $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ then $\psi \varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(L, N)$.
(iii) Let $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime}, M\right)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N, N^{\prime}\right)$ be Hom-sets equipped with the addition defined in (i). Let $p \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M^{\prime}, M\right)$ and $q \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N, N^{\prime}\right)$ then for any $f, g \in$ $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$,
(a) $(f+g) p=f p+g p$,
(b) $q(f+g)=q f+q g$.
(iv) With addition as above and multiplication defined as a function composition, $H_{R}(M, M)$ is a ring with a 1.

Proof. (i) Let the additive identity be the zero map, and the inverse of $f(m)$ be $-f(m)$. Then all the axioms of an additive group follows from $N$ being an additive abelian group since $f(m) \in N$.
(ii) It suffices to show $\psi \varphi(r x+y)=r \psi \varphi(x)+\psi \varphi(y)$ since $r=1$ implies $\psi \varphi$ is a homomorphism and $y=0$ implies commutativity with $R$. From (i) and the definition of $R$-module homomorphisms we get,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\psi \varphi(r x+y) & =\psi(\varphi(r x+y))=\psi(\varphi(r x)+\varphi(y)) \\
& =\psi(r \varphi(x)+\varphi(y))=r \psi \varphi(x)+\psi \varphi(y) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(iii) This follows immediately from $(i)$ and the definition of an homomorphism:
(a) Let $b \in M^{\prime}$ then

$$
(f+g) p(b)=f(p(b))+g(p(b))
$$

and so $(f+g) p=f p+g p$.
(b) Let $a \in N^{\prime}$ then

$$
q(f+g)(a)=q(f(a)+g(a))=q(f(a))+q(g(a))
$$

and so $q(f+g)=q f+q g$.
(iv) Function composition is closed since the domain and codomain are the same for all $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, M)$ and it is binary according to (ii). The multiplicative identity is the identity homomorphism. Composition is associative in general and distributivity is shown in (iii).
[1, pg. 346, Proposition 2, (2), (3), (4), Sec. 10.2], [2, pg. 39 Lemma 2.3, Ch. 2.1]
We can mention that there is additional structure to $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ besides being an abelian group. Let $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ and $z \in Z(R)$, the center of $R$ and define $z f$ by

$$
(z f)(m)=z f(m)
$$

for all $m \in M$. This action on $f$ by $z$ turns $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ into a $Z(R)$-module: $z f$ commutes with $r \in R$ since $f$ and $z$ commutes with $r$ :

$$
(z f)(r m)=z f(r m)=z r(f(m))=r z(f(m))=r(z f)(m),
$$

and $z f$ is a $R$-homomorphism since $f$ is a $R$-homomorphism:

$$
\begin{aligned}
(z f)\left(r m+m^{\prime}\right) & =z f\left(r m+m^{\prime}\right) \\
& =z\left(f(r m)+f\left(m^{\prime}\right)\right) \\
& =z f(r m)+z f\left(m^{\prime}\right) \\
& =(z f)(r m)+(z f)\left(m^{\prime}\right) \\
& =r(z f)(m)+(z f)\left(m^{\prime}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $(z f) \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N),(z f)(m) \in N$ and the axioms for a module then follows from $N$ being an $R$-module. Commutativity of $Z(R)$ is the key to $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ being a $Z(R)$ module and it follows that if $R$ is commutative $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ is an $R$-module. We will however view the Hom-sets of modules mainly as abelian groups throughout the text. [1, pg. 346-347, Proposition 2 (2), Sec. 10.2], [2, pg.39, Proposition 2.4(ii), Ch. 2.1]

Below are some useful examples regarding Hom-set isomorphisms. Note that the examples applies to finite cyclic groups in general, since all finitely generated cyclic groups are isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}$ or quotients of $\mathbb{Z}$, [3, pg. 163-164, Example A-4.74, Chapter A-4].

## Example 2.6.

(i) The group $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, D)$ is isomorphic to $D$. Since $\mathbb{Z}=\langle 1\rangle$ any $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, D)$ is completely determined by $f(1)$ since for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}, n=1+1+\ldots+1 \mathrm{n}$ times we have

$$
f(n)=f(1+1+\ldots+1)=f(1)+f(1)+\ldots+f(1)=n f(1) .
$$

And so every $f$ is uniquely defined by an element $d \in D$ for which $f(1)=d$ and $f(n)=n d$. Conversely for every $d \in D$ you can define a homomorphism such that $f(1)=d$ and this gives us an isomorphism $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, D) \rightarrow D$ defined by $f_{d} \mapsto d$.
(ii) The group $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}, D)$ is isomorphic to $m D=\{x \in D \mid m x=0\}$. Similar to the example above, any $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}, D)$ is determined by $f(\overline{1})$ since $\overline{1}$ generates $\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}$. But unlike $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}$ has finite order and since $m(\overline{1})=0_{\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}}$,

$$
m f(\overline{1})=f(\bar{m})=0_{D}
$$

and any $x \in D$ for which $f(\overline{1})=x$ needs to satisfy $m x=0_{D}$. It follows that $f(\overline{1}) \in m D$ and $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}, D) \cong m D$.

### 2.1.2 Submodules

A submodule $S$ of $M$ is a subgroup $S$ of $M$ closed under the action of $R$. A way of creating submodules is to take a subset $A$ of a module $M$ and then forming all $R$-linear combinations of the elements of $A$. A submodule $N$ of $M$ may have many different generating sets, $N$ is for instance always generated by itself.

Definition 2.7. Let $M$ be an R-module and let $N_{1}, N_{2}, \ldots, N_{n}$ be submodules of M.
(i) The sum of $N_{1}, \ldots, N_{n}$ is the set of all finite sums of elements from the sets $N_{i}$ : $\left\{a_{1}+a_{2}+\ldots+a_{n} \mid a_{i} \in N_{i}\right.$ for all $\left.i\right\}$. Denote this sum by $N_{1}+\ldots .+N_{n}$
(ii) For any subset $A$ of $M$ let $R A=\left\{r_{1} a_{1}+r_{2} a_{2}+\ldots+r_{m} a_{m} \mid r_{1}, \ldots r_{m} \in R, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m} \in\right.$ $\left.A, m \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}\right\}$(where by convention $R A=0$ if $A=\emptyset$ ). Call $R A$ the submodule of $M$ generated by $A$. If $N$ is a submodule of $M$ (possibly $N=M$ ) and $N=R A$, for some subset $A$ of $M$, we call $A$ a a set of generators or a a generating set for $N$, and we say $N$ is generated by $A$.
(iii) A submodule $N$ of $M$ (possibly $N=M$ ) is finiteley generated if there is some finite subset $A$ of $M$ such that $N=R A$, that is if $N$ is generated by some finite subset.
[1, pg. 351, Definition (1), (2), (3), Sec. 10.3]

## Example 2.8.

(i) Let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be a $R$-homomorphism then the kernel of $f$ is a submodule of $M$ and the image of $f$ is a submodule of $N$. We will show that they are closed under the action of $R$ : Let $a \in \operatorname{ker} f$ then

$$
f(r a)=r f(a)=0
$$

and so $r a \in \operatorname{ker} f$. Let $b \in M$ then

$$
f(r b)=r f(b)
$$

and $r b$ is in the image of $f$.
(ii) A module generated by one element is a cyclic module. For example is the ring $R$ as an $R$-module over itself cyclic where $R=\langle 1\rangle$ since $r 1=r$ for all $r \in R$. The principal ideals of $R$ are then cyclic submodules of $R$ as an $R$-module since $r I=I$ for all $r \in R$.

### 2.1.3 Quotient Modules

Since $R$-modules are additive abelian groups every submodule is also a subgroup and every $R$-module homomorphisms is also a group homomorphism. It follows that there exists an abelian quotient group $M / N$ and also a natural group homomorphism $M \rightarrow M / N$ for any module $M$ with any submodule $N$. By defining an action of the ring $R$ and check that it satisfies the axioms in Definition 2.1 and 2.3 (i)(b) we can extend quotient groups and group homomorphisms to quotient modules and module homomorphisms.

Proposition 2.9. Let $R$ be a ring, let $M$ be an $R$-module and let $N$ be a submodule of $M$. The (additive, abelian) quotient group $M / N$ can be made into an $R$-module by defining an action of elements of $R$ by

$$
r(x+N)=(r x)+N, \text { for all } r \in R, x+N \in M / N
$$

The natural projection map $\pi: M \rightarrow M / N$ defined by $\pi(x)=x+N$ is an $R$ module homomorphism with kernel $N$.

Proof. [1, pg. 348, Proposition 3, Sec. 10.2]
Definition 2.10. Let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be a R-module homomorphism then the cokernel of $f$ is the quotient $N / \operatorname{im} f$.

Proposition 2.11. Let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be an $R$-module then
(i) $f$ is injective if and only if ker $f=0$ and
(ii) $f$ is surjective if and only if coker $f=0$.

Proof. The proof is the same as for abelian groups.
By first referring to the corresponding theorems for abelian groups and then checking that the group homomorphism holds under the action of $R$ we can extend all the isomorphism theorems for groups to include modules and module homomorphisms. The first isomorphism theorem for modules will be of importance in the following sections.

Theorem 2.12. (The First Isomorphism Theorem for Modules) Let $M$ and $N$ be $R$ modules, and let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be an $R$-module homomorphism, then $M / \operatorname{ker} f \cong \operatorname{im} f$.

Proof. The First Isomorphism Theorem for groups say that given a homomorphism of abelian groups $f: M \rightarrow N$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi: M / \operatorname{ker} f & \rightarrow \operatorname{im} f \\
m+\operatorname{ker} f & \mapsto f(m)
\end{aligned}
$$

is an isomorphism of abelian groups. If we can show that $\varphi(r x)=r \varphi(x)$ for $x \in M / \operatorname{ker} f$, then $\varphi$ is an $R$-mod isomorphism. We have that

$$
\varphi(r x)=\varphi r(m+\operatorname{ker} f)=\varphi(r m+\operatorname{ker} f)=f(r m)
$$

and since $f$ is an $R$-homomorphism we get

$$
f(r m)=r f(m)=r \varphi(m+\operatorname{ker} f)=r \varphi(x) .
$$

[1, pg. 349, Theorem 4, Sec. 10.2]
Let $R$ be an R-module over itself and let $I$ be an ideal of $R$ then the quotient $R / I$ is a cyclic R-module generated by $1+I$ since

$$
r(1+I)=r+I
$$

for all $r \in R$. We can use the First Isomorphism Theorem to show that any cyclic $R$ module M is isomorphic to a quotient $R / I$.

## Example 2.13.

Let $M$ be a cyclic $R$-module generated by $x$ and let f be a map

$$
\begin{aligned}
f: R & \rightarrow M \\
r & \mapsto r x .
\end{aligned}
$$

The map $f$ is an $R$-homomorphism since $f\left(r^{\prime} r\right)=r^{\prime} r x=r^{\prime} f(r)$. We have that $f$ is surjective since $M=R x$ and the kernel of $f$ is an ideal $I$ of $R$. By the First Isomorphism Theorem we then have $R / I \cong M$. In particular if $R=\mathbb{Z}$ then $I=n \mathbb{Z}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $M \cong \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$.

### 2.2 Direct Products and Direct Sums

The direct product of a set of $R$-modules, finite or infinite, is their Cartesian product together with coordinatewise addition and the action of multiplication of R. Given a finite set of modules, $M_{1}, M_{2}, \ldots M_{k}$, their (external) direct sum, denoted $M_{1} \oplus M_{2} \oplus \ldots \oplus M_{k}$, is defined as their direct product. In the case of an infinite set of modules, $\left(A_{i}: i \in I\right)$ where $I$ is an index set, their (external) direct sum, $\bigoplus_{i \in I} A_{i}$, is a submodule of their direct product, $\prod_{i \in I} A_{i}$, consisting of the $I$-tuples which have a finite number of nonzero coordinates. In this and in the following sections however direct sums will be of a finite set of modules and therefore we will equate the external direct sum of a set of modules with their direct product.

The direct product of modules is a module.
Definition 2.14. Let $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{k}$ be a finite collection of $R$-modules. The collection of $k$ tuples $m_{1}, m_{2} \ldots, m_{k}$ where $m_{i} \in M_{i}$ with addition and action of $R$ defined componentwise is called the direct product of $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{k}$, denoted $M_{1} \times \ldots . \times M_{k}$. [1, pg. 353, Definition, Sec. 10.3]

Closely related to the external direct sum is the internal direct sum.
Definition 2.15. Let $S_{1}, S_{2}, \ldots S_{k}$ be submodules of $M$. Then $M$ is their internal direct sum,

$$
\begin{equation*}
M=S_{1} \oplus S_{2} \oplus \ldots \oplus S_{k} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

if each $m \in M$ has a unique expression of the form $m=s_{1}+s_{2}+\ldots+s_{k}$, where $s_{i} \in S_{i}$ for all $i \in 1,2, \ldots, k$. Each submodule $S_{i}$ in (1) is called a summand of $M$.

A direct product, $M=M_{1} \times M_{2} \times \ldots \times M_{k}$, can be written as an internal direct sum of submodules, $S_{1} \oplus S_{2} \oplus \ldots \oplus S_{k}, S_{i} \in M$. Let

$$
S_{i}=\left\{\left(0,0, . ., x_{i}, . ., 0\right) \mid x_{i} \in M_{i}\right\}
$$

$S_{i}$ is clearly a submodule of $M$. Let $s_{i}=\left(0,0, . ., x_{i}, . ., 0\right)$ due to the addition on $M$ every sum

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{k} s_{i}=\left(x_{1}, 0, . ., 0\right)+\ldots+\left(0, . ., x_{n}, . ., 0\right)+\ldots+\left(0, . ., 0, x_{k}\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

is an element of $M$ and since the map $\pi: S_{i} \rightarrow M_{i}$ defined by $\left(0,0, . ., x_{i}, . ., 0\right) \mapsto x_{i}$ is a bijection, every element $m \in M$ can be written as a sum (2) and we have that $M=\sum_{i=1}^{k} S_{i}$. The sum (2) is unique for each $m$, to see this let $m=\sum_{i=1}^{k} s_{i}$ and $m=\sum_{i=1}^{k} s_{i}^{\prime}$, then for all $j \in 1,2, . . k$,

$$
s_{j}-s_{j}^{\prime}=\sum_{i \neq j}\left(s_{i}^{\prime}-s_{i}\right) \in S_{j} \cap S_{1}+S_{2}+\ldots+\widehat{S_{j}}+\ldots+S_{k}=\{0\}
$$

and $s_{j}=s_{j}^{\prime}$. Note that the bijection $\pi$ implies there exists an injection $S_{i} \rightarrow M$ and a surjection $M \rightarrow S_{i}$ defined by

$$
\left(x_{1}, . ., x_{i}, . ., x_{k}\right) \mapsto\left(0, \ldots, x_{i}, \ldots, 0\right)
$$

For a module $M$ isomorphic to the direct product of two modules we have the equivalent statements of the proposition below.

Proposition 2.16. Let $M, M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ be left $R$-modules. The following statements are equivalent :
(i) $M_{1} \times M_{2} \cong M$
(ii) There exists injective $R$-maps $\iota_{1}: M_{1} \rightarrow M$ and $\iota_{2}: M_{2} \rightarrow M$ such that $M=i m \iota_{1}+i m \iota_{2}$ and $i m \iota_{1} \cap i m \iota_{2}=0$.
(iii) There exists $R$-maps $\iota_{1}: M_{1} \rightarrow M$ and $\iota_{2}: M_{2} \rightarrow M$ such that, for every $m \in M$, there are unique $x_{1} \in M_{1}$ and $x_{2} \in M_{2}$ with $m=\iota_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)+\iota_{2}\left(x_{2}\right)$.
(iv) There are $R$-maps $\iota_{1}: M_{1} \rightarrow M$ and $\iota_{2}: M_{2} \rightarrow M$ called injections, and $R$-maps $\rho_{1}: M \rightarrow M_{1}, \rho_{2}: M \rightarrow M_{2}$ called projections, such that

$$
\rho_{i} \iota_{i}=1_{M_{i}}, \rho_{i} \iota_{j}=0 \text { where } i \neq j, \iota_{1} \rho_{1}+\iota_{2} \rho_{2}=1_{M}
$$

where $i, j \in 1,2$.
(v) There exists $R$-maps $\rho_{1}: M \rightarrow M_{1}, \rho_{2}: M \rightarrow M_{2}$ such that the map $\psi: M \rightarrow$ $M_{1} \times M_{2}$, is an isomorphism.

Proof. For full proof see [2, pg. 48, Proposition 2.20, Sec. 2.1]
We will refer to internal direct sums only as direct sums from now on.
Definition 2.17. A submodule $S$ of a left $R$-module $M$ is a direct summand of $M$ if there exists a submodule $T$ of $M$ with $M=S \oplus T$. The submodule $T$ is called a complement of $S$.

Let $M, M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ be the modules in in Proposition 2.16. The identity map

$$
\rho_{1} \iota_{1}=1_{M_{1}}: M_{1} \rightarrow M \rightarrow M_{1}
$$

suggest that $\rho_{1}$ when restricted to the image of $\iota_{1}$ is the inverse of $\iota_{1}$. It follows that there exists a map

$$
\begin{aligned}
\iota_{i} \rho_{1}: M & \rightarrow M_{1} \rightarrow \operatorname{im~} \iota_{1} \\
m_{1} & \mapsto m_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

whose kernel is the image of $\iota_{2}$ since $\rho_{1} \iota_{2}=0$ and any other $m \neq 0$ not in the image of $\iota_{2}$ is in the image of $\iota_{1}$. We then have that

$$
M=\operatorname{im} \iota_{1} \oplus \operatorname{im} \iota_{2}=\operatorname{im} \iota_{1} \rho_{1} \oplus \operatorname{ker} \iota_{1} \rho_{1}
$$

The map $\iota_{1} \rho_{1}: M \rightarrow \operatorname{im} \iota_{1}$ is called a retraction and given a direct sum of two modules there exists two retractions where one implies the other. The Proposition below shows that the opposite is also true. If there exists a retraction $r: M \rightarrow S^{\prime}$ where $S^{\prime}$ is a submodule of $M ; M=\operatorname{im} r \oplus \operatorname{ker} r=S^{\prime} \oplus \operatorname{ker} r$.

Proposition 2.18. A submodule $S$ of a left $R$-module $M$ is a direct summand if and only if there exists an $R$-map $r: M \rightarrow S$ called a retraction, with $r(s)=s$ for all $s \in S$. The submodule $S$ is then called a retract.

Proof. We have already shown that given a direct sum there exists a retraction. For the opposite, given a retraction $r$ we will show that $M=S+$ ker $r$ where $S \cap$ ker $r=\{0\}$. Let $m \in M$ then $m=(m-s)+s$ which we can write

$$
m=(m-r(m))+r(m)
$$

Since $r(m) \in S$ and $r(s)=s$ we have that $r(r(m))=r(m)$ and so $r(m)-r(r(m))=0$, that is, $r(m-r(m))=0$ and $m-r(m) \in \operatorname{ker} r$. And we have $M=S+\operatorname{ker} r$. For $s \in S$, $r(s)=0$ if and only if $s=0$ and so $S \cap \operatorname{ker} r=\{0\}$. [3, pg. 325, Corollary B-2.15, Ch. B-2]

Below is a Proposition which shows that the direct sum satisfies the universal property of both a (categorical) product and a (categorical) coproduct which will be defined in section 6.

Proposition 2.19. Let $M_{1}, M_{2}$ be left $R$-modules and let $M \cong M_{1} \times M_{2}$. Given any two left $R$-modules $X_{1}, X_{2}$ together with any two pair of homomorphisms; $f_{1}, g_{1}$ and $f_{2}, g_{2}$, there exists two unique homomorphisms; $\theta_{1}=\iota_{1} f_{1}+\iota_{2} g_{1}$ and $\theta_{2}=f_{2} \rho_{1}+g_{2} \rho_{2}$ which makes the diagrams below commute:



Proof. We use the equivalent statements (iii), (iv) of Proposition 2.16. To show commutativity in diagram (3) we have for $x \in X_{1}$,

$$
\rho_{1} \theta_{1}(x)=\rho_{1} \iota_{1} f_{1}(x)+\rho_{1} \iota_{2} g_{1}(x)=1_{M_{1}} f_{1}(x)=f_{1}(x),
$$

and in the same manner is $\rho_{2} \theta_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)=g_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)$ and diagram (3) commutes. Let $\psi: X_{1} \rightarrow M$, given that diagram (3) commutes we have $\rho_{1} \psi=f_{1}$ which gives us $\iota_{1} \rho_{1} \psi=\iota_{1} f_{1}$ after composing with $\iota_{1}$. In the same way $\iota_{2} \rho_{2} \psi=\iota_{2} g_{1}$. We then have, since all maps are R-maps,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\iota_{1} \rho_{1}+\iota_{2} \rho_{2}\right) \psi & =\iota_{1} f_{1}+\iota_{2} g_{1} \\
1_{M} \psi & =\iota_{1} f_{1}+\iota_{2} g_{1} \\
\psi & =\iota_{1} f_{1}+\iota_{2} g_{1}=\theta_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

and we have shown uniqueness of $\theta_{1}$. In diagram (4) we get for all $s \in M_{1}$,

$$
\theta_{2} \iota_{1}(s)=f_{2} \rho_{1} \iota_{1}(s)+g_{2} \rho_{2} \iota_{1}(s)=f_{2} 1_{M_{1}}(s)=f_{2}(s)
$$

and similarly $\theta_{2} \rho_{2}(t)=g_{2}(t)$ for all $t \in M_{2}$ and the diagram commutes. To show uniqueness, let $\psi: M \rightarrow X_{2}$. Given that diagram (4) commutes we have that $\psi \iota_{1}=f_{2}$ and so $\psi \iota_{1} \rho_{1}=f_{2} \rho_{1}$ and in the same way $\psi \iota_{2} \rho_{2}=g_{2} \rho_{2}$, and we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\psi\left(\iota_{1} \rho_{1}+\iota_{2} \rho_{2}\right) & =f_{2} \rho_{1}+g_{2} \rho_{2} \\
\psi 1_{M} & =f_{2} \rho_{1}+g_{2} \rho_{2} \\
\psi & =f_{2} \rho_{1}+g_{2} \rho_{2}=\theta_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

[2, Proposition 5.1, Proposition 5.8, pg. 214-215, 218-219, Section 5.1] (The proof for Proposition in 5.8 is relating the direct sum $A \oplus B$ to the Cartesian product $A \times B$ with canonical injections $\iota: a \rightarrow(a, 0)$ and projections $\rho:(a, b) \rightarrow a$, the proof defines $\theta$ : $(a, b) \mapsto f(a)+g(b)$ which is analogous to $\theta_{2}: m \mapsto f_{2} \rho_{1}(m)+g_{2} \rho_{2}(m), m \in M$ in the proof above).

In Example 2.13 we saw that cyclic $R$-modules are isomorphic to quotients $R / I$. According to The Existence Theorem if $R$ is a PID any finitely generated $R$-module is isomorphic to a direct sum of cyclic modules.
Example 2.20. Let $G$ be a finitely generated $R$-module then

$$
\begin{equation*}
G \cong R^{r} \oplus R /\left\langle a_{1}\right\rangle \oplus R /\left\langle a_{2}\right\rangle \oplus \ldots \oplus R /\left\langle a_{n}\right\rangle \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left\langle a_{i}\right\rangle$ is the ideal in $R$ generated by $a_{i}$ and where all $a_{i}$ satisfy the divisibility relation $a_{1}\left|a_{2}\right| \cdots \mid a_{n}[1$, pg. 462-463, Theorem 5, ch. 12]. In particular there exists a decomposition for a finitely generated $\mathbb{Z}$-module $H$,

$$
H \cong \mathbb{Z}^{r} \oplus \mathbb{Z} / n_{1} \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} / n_{2} \mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z} / n_{k} \mathbb{Z}
$$

where $r$ and $n_{i}$ are integers, $r>0$ and $n_{i} \geq 2$ and $n_{k}|\cdots| n_{2} \mid n_{1}[1$, p. 158-159, Theoreom 3 , ch. 5].

### 2.3 Free And Projective Modules

Let $F$ be a left $R$-module generated by a finite set $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{m}\right\}$;

$$
F=R A=\left\{r_{1} a_{1}+r_{2} a_{2}+\ldots+r_{m} a_{m} \mid r_{1}, \ldots, r_{m} \in R, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m} \in A\right\} .
$$

If every element $x \in F$ can be uniquely written as a sum with respect to the elements of $R$ as well as $A$ then $A$ is a basis for $F$ and $F$ is a free module with basis $A$, denoted $F(A)$. Since each $x \in F(A)$ can be uniquely written as a sum, $x=r_{1} a_{1}+r_{2} a_{2}+\ldots+r_{m} a_{m}, F(A)$ is equal to the direct sum,

$$
R a_{1} \oplus R a_{2} \oplus \ldots \oplus R a_{m},
$$

and since each $R a_{i} \cong R$ (by the map $\left.r a_{i} \mapsto r\right), F(A) \cong R^{m}$ and we can view $F(A)$ as a direct sum of $m$ copies of $R$. Equivalently we can view $F$ as a direct sum of cyclic modules since $R a_{i}$ is the cyclic module generated by the element $a_{i}$ and we can write $F$ as the direct sum:

$$
\left\langle a_{1}\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle a_{2}\right\rangle \oplus \ldots \oplus\left\langle a_{m}\right\rangle
$$

where $a_{i} \in A$ and each $\left\langle a_{1}\right\rangle \cong R$. Should $R$ be replaced by a field, $k, F(A)$ would be the same as the vector space over $k$ with basis $A$.

Definition 2.21. An $R$-module $F(A)$ is said to be free on the subset $A$ of $F$ if for every element $x$ of $F(A)$ there exist unique elements $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{n}$ of $R$ and unique $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}$ in $A$ such that $x=r_{1} a_{1}+r_{2} a_{2}+\ldots+r_{n} a_{n}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$. In this situation we say $A$ is a basis or a set of free generators for $F(A)$. [1, Definition, pg. 354]

Example 2.22. (i) Direct sums of free modules are free modules. Let $F_{i}$ be an indexed set of free modules with basis $X_{i}$, then a basis for the direct sum $\bigoplus_{i} F_{i}$ is the union of the sets $X_{i}$.
(ii) A ring $R$ is a free module over itself with the identity as a basis since $R 1=R$.
(iii) $\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}$ is not free as a $\mathbb{Z}$-module since for any element $x, m x=0$ and $m \neq 0$ in $\mathbb{Z}$.
(iv) For PIDs a submodule of a free module is always free [3, pg. 331-332, Thm B-2.28, Ch. b-2]. But for a general ring it is not true. For example, $\mathbb{Z} / 6 \mathbb{Z}$ is a free module over itself, but $\mathbb{Z} / 3 \mathbb{Z}$ is a submodule of $\mathbb{Z} / 6 \mathbb{Z}$ that is not free over $\mathbb{Z} / 6 \mathbb{Z}$.

Given a left $R$-module $M$ and a set map from a set $A$ to $M$, there exists an unique $R$-module homomorphism from the free module with basis $A$ to the module $M$. Applied to vector spaces $V$ and $W$ over some field, the theorem underlie the unique linear transformation defined by mapping the set of basis elements in $V$ to any set of vectors in $W$.

Theorem 2.23. (The Universal Property of Free Modules) For any set $A$ there is a free $R$-module $F(A)$ on the set $A$ and $F(A)$ satisfies the following universal property: if $M$ is any $R$-module and $\varphi: A \rightarrow M$ is any map of sets, then there is an unique $R$-module homomorphism $\phi: F(A) \rightarrow M$ such that $\phi(a)=\varphi(a)$, for all $a \in A$, that is, the following diagram commutes.


Proof. See [1, pg. 354, Theorem 6, Sec. 10.3]
Proposition 2.24. Let $M$ and $N$ be $R$-modules and let $\varphi: M \rightarrow N$ be a surjective homomorphism. Let $P$ be a direct summand of a free module, then for every $R$-module homomorphism $f$ from $P$ into $N$ there exists a homomorphism from $P$ into $M$ such that the following diagram commutes.


Proof. Let $F(S)$ be a free module generated from a set $S$ and let $P \oplus K=F(S)$. Let $\rho$ be the projection of $F(S)$ onto $P$ so that the composition $f \rho$ becomes a homomorphism from
$F(S)$ to $N$,


Let $f \rho(s)=n_{s}$, for $s \in S$ and some $n_{s} \in N$. Since $\varphi$ is surjective there exists an element $m_{s} \in M$ such that $\varphi\left(m_{s}\right)=n_{s}$. By the Universal Property of Free Modules there is a unique $R$-module homomorphism $f^{\prime \prime}$ from $F(S)$ to $M$ with $f^{\prime \prime}(s)=m_{s}$;


We get that $\varphi f^{\prime \prime}(s)=\varphi\left(m_{s}\right)=n_{s}=f \rho(s)$ and so $\varphi f^{\prime \prime}=f \rho$ which makes the diagram above commutative. Define a map $f^{\prime}: P \rightarrow M$ by $f^{\prime}(x)=f^{\prime \prime} \iota(x), x \in P$. Since $f^{\prime}$ is the composite of the injection $\iota: P \rightarrow F(S)$ and $f^{\prime \prime}, f^{\prime}$ is an $R$-homomorphism;


We then have that

$$
\varphi f^{\prime}(x)=\varphi f^{\prime \prime} \iota(x)=f \rho \iota(x)=f(x)
$$

and the diagram (7) commutes. [1, pg. 389-390, Proposition 30 (4) and (2), Sec. 10.5]
Free modules and summands of free modules are projective modules.
Definition 2.25. Let $\pi, f, f^{\prime}$ and $g, g^{\prime}$ be $R$-homomorphisms whose domain and range is indicated in the diagrams below.
(i) A map $f^{\prime}$ lifts $f$ to $M$ if for $f: D \rightarrow N$ and $f^{\prime}: D \rightarrow M, \pi f^{\prime}=f$


The map $f^{\prime}$ is called a lifting of the map $f$.
(ii) A map $g^{\prime}$ extends $g$ to $N$ if for $g: M \rightarrow D$ and $g^{\prime}: N \rightarrow D, g^{\prime} \pi=g$


The map $g^{\prime}$ is called an extension of the map $g$.
[2, Definition, pg 99, Sec. 3.1], [1, pg 386, Sec. 10.5]
Definition 2.26. A module $P$ is projective if, for every surjective homomorphism $\varphi$ : $M \rightarrow N$ and every homomorphism $f: P \rightarrow N, f$ has a lift $f^{\prime}: P \rightarrow M$. That is, there exists a map $f^{\prime}$ for each map $f$ such that the diagram below commutes.

[2, Definition, pg 99, Sec. 3.1]
From Theorem 2.23 we have that free modules are projective and from Proposition 2.24 we have that summands of free modules are projective.

## Corollary 2.27 .

(i) Free modules are projective.
(ii) A finitely generated module is projective if and only if it is a direct summand of a finitely generated free module.
(iii) Every direct sum of projective modules are projective.

Proof. (i) This is a special case of Proposition 2.24 where we let $P$ be a free module, since a free module is always a summand of a free module, see Example 2.22(i).
(ii) We have shown in Proposition 2.24 that a direct summand of a free module is projective. To show that a finitely generated projective module is a summand of a finitely generated free module: Let $P$ be a projective module with generating set $P^{\prime}$. Let $F\left(P^{\prime}\right)$ be a free module with basis $P^{\prime}$ and let $\varphi$ be the surjective map $F\left(P^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow P$ mapping $P^{\prime}$ to $P^{\prime}$. Since $P$ is projective there exists a lift $f^{\prime}$ such that the diagram

commutes. We then have that $\varphi f^{\prime}=i d_{P}$ which directly implies that $f^{\prime}$ is injective but also that $f^{\prime} \varphi: F\left(P^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{im} f^{\prime} \varphi$ is a retraction, see the text following Definition 2.17. And so $F\left(P^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{im} f^{\prime} \varphi \oplus \operatorname{ker} f^{\prime} \varphi=\operatorname{im} f^{\prime} \oplus \operatorname{ker} \varphi \cong P \oplus \operatorname{ker} \varphi$.
(iii) We will show this for a sum of two modules, for a proof of an arbitrary sum of modules see [2, pg. 102, Cor. 3.6 (ii), Ch. 3.1]. Let $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ be projective. According to (ii) there exists free modules such that $F_{1}=P_{1} \oplus Q_{1}$ and $F_{2}=P_{2} \oplus Q_{2}$. Let $X_{1}$ be a basis for $F_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ a basis for $F_{2}$. We have that $F_{1} \oplus F_{2}$ is free since a basis is $X_{1}^{\prime} \cup X_{2}^{\prime}$ where $X_{1}^{\prime}=\left\{\left(x_{1}, 0\right) \mid x_{1} \in X_{1}\right\}$ and $X_{2}^{\prime}=\left\{\left(0, x_{2}\right) \mid x_{2} \in X_{2}\right\}$. Then we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
F_{1} \oplus F_{2} & =\left(P_{1} \oplus Q_{1}\right) \oplus\left(P_{2} \oplus Q_{2}\right) \\
& =\left(P_{1} \oplus P_{2}\right) \oplus\left(Q_{1} \oplus Q_{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and so $P_{1} \oplus P_{2}$ is a summand of a free module and as such a projective module.

Another consequence of the Universal Property of Free Modules is that every module is a quotient of a free module.

Corollary 2.28. Every left $R$-module $M$ is a quotient of a free module $F$.
Proof. Let $M$ be a left $R$-module and let $X$ be a generating set of $M$, then, according to Theoreom 2.23, the diagram,

commutes and $\phi(x)=\varphi(x)$. Since $X$ is a subset of $M, \varphi$ is an inclusion and $\phi(x)=$ $\varphi(x)=x$ and so $X$ is in the image of $\phi$ and since $X$ generates $M, \phi$ is surjective. Using the isomorphism theorem we get that $F(X) / \operatorname{ker} \phi \cong M$ and $M$ is a quotient of $F(X)$.

## 3 Exact Sequences

In the first part of this section we will define exact sequences of modules, also called extensions, and we will define what it means for these sequences to be equivalent. We will then state and prove two lemmas: The first is Lemma 3.9 which we will use in the proof of Theorem 7.12, the final Theorem in this text. The second lemma is the Snake Lemma 3.10 which we will use to prove the Horseshoe Lemma 4.13 and The Long Exact Sequence of Cohomology, Theorem 5.6.

In the second part we define induced exact sequences of Hom-sets. This will later be used to define the contravariant Hom-functor in section 7.1.1.

### 3.1 Exact Sequences

A surjective $R$-module homomorphism $\varphi: M \rightarrow N$ gives us the relationship $N \cong M / \operatorname{ker} \varphi$ by The First Isomorphism Theorem. If we let $i$ be the injection of the kernel of $\varphi$ into M and $\bar{\varphi}$ the quotient map we can restate The First Isomorphism Theorem as a sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{ker} \varphi \xrightarrow{i} M \xrightarrow{\bar{\varphi}} M / \operatorname{ker} \varphi \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\operatorname{im} i=\operatorname{ker} \bar{\varphi}$. The sequence (16) is called an exact sequence or more specifically a sequence exact at $M$.

Definition 3.1. Let $X, Y, Z$ and $L, M, N$ be left $R$-modules then:
(i) The pair of homomorphism $X \xrightarrow{\alpha} Y \xrightarrow{\beta} Z$ is exact at $Y$ if im $\alpha=\operatorname{ker} \beta$.
(ii) A sequence $\cdots \longrightarrow X_{n+1} \xrightarrow{f_{n+1}} X_{n} \xrightarrow{f_{n}} X_{n-1} \xrightarrow{f_{n-1}} \cdots$ is an exact sequence if it is exact at every $X_{n}$ between a pair of homomorphisms.
(iii) An exact sequence of the form $0 \longrightarrow L \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow N \longrightarrow 0$ is called a short exact sequence.

A sequence $0 \longrightarrow L \xrightarrow{\psi} M \xrightarrow{\varphi} N \longrightarrow 0$ being short exact implies that $\psi$ is injective and $\varphi$ is surjective.

Proposition 3.2. The sequence $0 \longrightarrow L \xrightarrow{\psi} M$ is exact if and only if $\psi$ is injective and the sequence $M \stackrel{\varphi}{\longrightarrow} N \longrightarrow 0$ is exact if and only if $\varphi$ is surjective.

Proof. The image of the zero homomorphism $0 \rightarrow L$ is $0_{L}$, so for the sequence in $(i)$ to be exact $\operatorname{ker} \psi=0_{L}$ and this happens if and only if $\psi$ is injective. The zero homomorphism $N \rightarrow 0$ maps all of $N$ to 0 so for the sequence in (ii) to be exact $\operatorname{im} \varphi=N$ and this happens if and only if $\varphi$ is surjective.

## Corollary 3.3.

(i) The sequence $0 \longrightarrow L \xrightarrow{\gamma} M \longrightarrow 0$ is exact if and only if $\gamma$ is an isomorphism.
(ii) The sequence $0 \longrightarrow L \stackrel{\psi}{\longrightarrow} M \stackrel{\varphi}{\longrightarrow} N \longrightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence if and only if $\psi$ is injective, im $\psi=\operatorname{ker} \varphi$ and $\varphi$ is surjective.

Proof. (i) The sequence in $0 \longrightarrow L \xrightarrow{\gamma} M \longrightarrow 0$ is exact when it is exact at $L$ and $M$. By Proposition $3.2 \gamma$ is then both injective and surjective and thus an isomorphism. For the opposite, if $\gamma$ is an isomorphism it is both injective and surjective and by Proposition 3.2 the sequence is exact.
(ii) This follows directly from Definition 3.1 and Proposition 3.2.

So a sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \longrightarrow K \xrightarrow{i} M \stackrel{\varphi}{\longrightarrow} N \longrightarrow 0 \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

being short exact is equivalent to the quotient $M / K$ being isomorphic to $N$, in particular it implies that there is an extension $M$ of $K$ such that $M / K \cong N$. To highlight the latter the sequence (17) is also called an extension of $K$ by $N$ and there may exists several extensions $K$ by $N$.

An exact sequence

$$
\cdots \longrightarrow X_{n+1} \xrightarrow{f_{n+1}} X_{n} \xrightarrow{f_{n}} X_{n-1} \xrightarrow{f_{n-1}} \cdots
$$

can be written as a succession of short exact sequences. Each $X_{n}$ is an extension of the cokernel of $f_{n+1}$ by the kernel of $f_{n}$ since for each $X_{n}$ the sequence

$$
0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{ker} f_{n} \xrightarrow{i} X_{n} \xrightarrow{\bar{f}_{n}} X_{n} / \operatorname{im} f_{n+1} \longrightarrow 0
$$

is short exact. Free modules and direct sums can always be extended to short exact sequences.

## Example 3.4.

(i) According to Corollary 2.28 every left R-module $M$ is a quotient of a free module $F$,

$$
M \cong F(X) / \operatorname{ker} \phi
$$

where $X$ is a generating set of $M$ and $\phi: F(X) \rightarrow M$ is a surjective homomorphism. The free module $F(X)$ can then be extended to a short exact sequence, $0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{ker} \phi \xrightarrow{i} F(X) \xrightarrow{\phi} M \longrightarrow 0$. As an example consider the short exact sequence

$$
0 \longrightarrow n \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0
$$

where $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ is generated by 1 and we can view $\mathbb{Z}$ as the free module $F(1)$. This sequence is usually written

$$
0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{n} \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0
$$

since $n \mathbb{Z}$ being a cyclic module of infinite order is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}$.
(ii) The trivial extension of the modules $A$ and $C$ is the sequence

$$
0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} A \oplus C \xrightarrow{\beta} C \longrightarrow 0,
$$

where $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are the canonical injection and projection maps, respectively, for a direct sum. Equivalently, for a module $B$ where $B \cong A \oplus C$, there exists a short exact sequence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\iota_{1}} B \xrightarrow{\rho_{2}} C \longrightarrow 0, \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\iota_{1}$ and $\rho_{2}$ is the injection and projection maps in Proposition 2.16 (iv).
In the last example above the existence of a surjective homomorphism $\rho_{1}: B \rightarrow A$ such that

$$
\rho_{1} \iota_{1}=1_{A}: A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A
$$

implies a retraction

$$
\begin{equation*}
\iota_{1} \rho_{1}: B \rightarrow A \rightarrow \operatorname{im} \iota_{1} \cong A . \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equivalently an injective homomorphism $\iota_{2}$ such that

$$
\rho_{2} \iota_{2}=1_{C}: C \rightarrow B \rightarrow C,
$$

implies a retraction

$$
\begin{equation*}
\iota_{2} \rho_{2}: B \rightarrow C \rightarrow \operatorname{im} \iota_{2} \cong C . \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

According to proposition 2.18 equation (19) shows that

$$
B=\operatorname{im} \iota_{1} \rho_{1} \oplus \operatorname{ker} \iota_{1} \rho_{1}=\operatorname{im} \iota_{1} \oplus \operatorname{ker} \iota_{1} \rho_{1}
$$

and equation (20) shows that

$$
B=\operatorname{im} \iota_{2} \rho_{2} \oplus \operatorname{ker} \iota_{2} \rho_{2}=\operatorname{im} \iota_{2} \oplus \operatorname{ker} \iota_{2} \rho_{2} .
$$

Because the sequence (18) is exact, the image of $\iota_{1}$ being a summand implies the retraction $\iota_{2} \rho_{2}$ since the equivalence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{im} \iota_{1}=\operatorname{ker} \rho_{2}=\operatorname{ker} \iota_{2} \rho_{2}, \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

suggests that $\rho_{2}$ is a retraction (proposition 2.18) meaning there exists an injection $C \rightarrow B$ implying the retraction (20). Equivalently if $\iota_{2} \rho_{2}$ is a retraction and ker $\iota_{2} \rho_{2}$ is a summand, the equation (21) implies that im $\iota_{1}$ is a summand and thus there exists a projection $\rho_{1}$ such that $\iota_{1} \rho_{1}$ is the retraction (19). In conclusion, equations (19) and (20) implies one another and given an exact sequence,

$$
0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow C \longrightarrow 0
$$

if we can find a projection or an injection such that we get the identity map on either $A$ or $C$ then $B$ is isomorphic to their direct sum.

Proposition 3.5. Let $0 \longrightarrow L \xrightarrow{\psi} M \xrightarrow{\varphi} N \longrightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence. If there exists a $R$-map $\pi: N \rightarrow M$ with $\varphi \pi=1_{N}$ or equivalently, a map $\rho: M \rightarrow L$ with $\rho \psi=1_{L}$ then $M \cong L \oplus N$ and the short exact sequence is split.

Proof. The proof is covered in the text above.
Example 3.6. Let $P$ be a projective module, then every short exact sequence

$$
0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow 0
$$

is split. Consider the diagram below, according to Corollary 2.27 (ii) there exists a map $\pi: P \longrightarrow B$ such that $\varphi \pi=i d_{P}$.

and according to Proposition 3.5 the sequence is then split where $B \cong P \oplus \operatorname{ker} \varphi$.

Even though every direct sum implies a split short exact sequence, a short exact sequence $0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} A \oplus C \xrightarrow{\beta} C \longrightarrow 0$ is not necessarily split. The $R$-maps $\alpha$ and $\beta$ can be defined such that the sequence is exact but not meet the requirements of being split, see example [2, pg 54, Ch. 2.1].

A short exact sequence can be viewed as a single mathematical object, homomorphisms between short exact sequences are then defined as follows.

Definition 3.7. Let $0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow C \longrightarrow 0$ and $0 \longrightarrow A^{\prime} \longrightarrow B^{\prime} \longrightarrow C^{\prime} \longrightarrow 0$ be two short exact sequences of $R$-modules. A homomorphism of short exact sequences consists of a triple of homomorphisms, $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ such that the following diagram commutes


The homomorphism of short exact sequences above is an isomorphism of short exact sequences when $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ are all isomorphisms. The modules $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ are then called isomorphic extensions. [1, pg. 381, Sec. 10.5]

If we let $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ be isomorphic extensions, then the isomorphism of $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ as $R$ modules is restricted to an isomorphism on modules $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ and inducing an isomorphism on the quotients $C$ and $C^{\prime}$. If $\alpha=1_{A}$ and $\gamma=1_{C}$ the isomorphism of $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ would be restricted to the identity on $A$ and $C$ and in this case we call $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ equivalent extensions.

Definition 3.8. Two extensions $A$ by $C$ are equivalent if there exists an isomorphism $\beta: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ that makes the following diagram commute


The modules $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ are then called equivalent extensions. [1, pg. 381, Sec. 10.5]
It is not hard to see that being equivalent is an equivalence relation on extensions and we will in Theorem 7.12 define a bijection on the set of equivalence classes of extensions $A$ by $C$. The next Lemma will support Theorem 7.12.

Lemma 3.9. Let $\Xi=0 \rightarrow X_{1} \rightarrow X_{0} \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ be an extension $X_{1}$ by $C$, given a map $h: X_{1} \rightarrow A$, consider the diagram

(i) There exists a commutative diagram with exact rows which completes the given diagram:

(ii) Any two bottom rows of completed diagrams are equivalent extensions.

Proof. (i) Suppose we define $B=A \oplus X_{0}$ and define $i(a)=(a, 0)$ and $\beta(b)=(0, b)$. Then $i$ would be an injection but the first square in diagram (22) would fail to commute since for $x_{1} \in X_{1}$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
i h\left(x_{1}\right) & =\left(h\left(x_{1}\right), 0\right) \\
\beta j\left(x_{1}\right) & =\left(0, j\left(x_{1}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and $i h\left(x_{1}\right) \neq \beta j\left(x_{1}\right)$. If we instead define $B$ as the quotient $\left(A \oplus X_{0}\right) / S$ where $S$ is the subgroup of $A \oplus X_{1}$ consisting of all elements

$$
\left(h\left(x_{1}\right), 0\right)-\left(0, j\left(x_{1}\right)\right)=\left(h\left(x_{1}\right),-j\left(x_{1}\right)\right) \text { for all } x_{1} \in X_{1}
$$

and let

$$
i(a)=(a, 0)+S \text { and } \beta\left(x_{0}\right)=\left(0, x_{0}\right)+S
$$

for $a \in A$ and $x_{0} \in X_{0}$, then $i$ is an injection and the first square commutes. Define $\eta: B^{\prime} \rightarrow C$ as

$$
\left(a, x_{0}\right)+S \mapsto \epsilon\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

and the second square commutes since

$$
\eta \beta\left(x_{0}\right)=\eta\left(\left(0, x_{0}\right)+S\right)=\epsilon(x)=1_{C} \epsilon(x)
$$

We have to show that $\eta$ is well-defined: Let $\left(a^{\prime}, x_{0}^{\prime}\right)$ be another representative for the coset $\left(a_{0}, x_{0}\right)+S$, then

$$
\left(a_{0}^{\prime}, x_{0}^{\prime}\right)=\left(a_{0}, x_{0}\right)+\left(h\left(x_{1}\right),-j\left(x_{1}\right)\right)=\left(a_{0}+h\left(x_{1}\right), x_{0}-j\left(x_{1}\right)\right)
$$

and

$$
\eta\left(\left(a_{0}+h\left(x_{1}\right), x_{0}-j\left(x_{1}\right)\right)\right)=\epsilon\left(x_{0}-j\left(x_{1}\right)\right)=\epsilon\left(x_{0}\right)=\eta\left(a_{0}, x_{0}\right)
$$

Finally we show that the second row is exact, we will first show that im $i \subseteq$ ker $\eta$ : Since the diagram commutes we have that ker $\eta \beta=\operatorname{ker} \epsilon=\operatorname{im} j$ which makes ker $\eta=$ $\beta j$ and since $\beta j=i h, \beta j \subseteq \mathrm{im} i$. For the reverse we have that $\eta i(a)=\epsilon(a, 0)=\epsilon(0)=$ $0_{C}$ and the second row is exact.
(ii) Let the bottom row of

be a second extension completing the diagram. We need to define $\theta$ such that the diagram

commutes. Since $B$ is a direct sum of $A$ and $X_{0}$ we use the maps $i^{\prime}$ and $\beta^{\prime}$ and define $\theta: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ by

$$
\left.\left(a, x_{0}\right)+S \mapsto i^{\prime}(a)+\beta^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)
$$

The map $\theta$ is well-defined since for $\left(a^{\prime}, x_{0}^{\prime}\right)=\left(a, x_{0}\right)+\left(h\left(x_{1}\right),-j\left(x_{1}\right)\right)$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\theta\left(a^{\prime}, x_{0}^{\prime}\right) & =\theta\left(a, x_{0}\right)+\theta\left(h\left(x_{1}\right),-j\left(x_{1}\right)\right) \\
& =\left(i^{\prime}(a)+\beta^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)+\left(i^{\prime} h\left(x_{1}\right)-\beta^{\prime} j\left(x_{1}\right)\right) \\
& =i^{\prime}(a)+\beta^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)=\theta\left(a, x_{0}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The diagram (23) commutes since:

$$
\theta i(a)=\theta((a, 0)+S)=i^{\prime}(a)=i^{\prime} 1_{A}(a)
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\eta^{\prime} \theta\left(\left(a, x_{0}\right)+S\right) & =\eta^{\prime} i^{\prime}(a)+\eta^{\prime} \beta^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right) \\
& =0+\epsilon=\eta \beta\left(x_{0}\right)=\eta\left(0, x_{0}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## [2, pg. 423-424, Lemma 7.28, Chapter 7]

A homomorphims of short exact sequences implies an exact sequence of kernels and cokernels of the homomorphisms involved. The Snake Lemma below will later on be used to prove The Horseshoe Lemma 4.13 and The Long Exact Sequence of Cohomology 5.6.

Lemma 3.10. (Snake Lemma) Given a commutative diagram of modules with exact rows,

there is an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \alpha \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \beta \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \gamma \longrightarrow \operatorname{coker} \alpha \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \beta \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \gamma \rightarrow 0
$$

[4, pg 268, Corollary C-3.43 ch. C-3]
Proof. Proof of snake lemma . The proof will not be written out in its entirety. We will show the exactness of sequences

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \alpha \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \beta \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \gamma
$$

and

$$
A^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \alpha \rightarrow B^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \beta \rightarrow C^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \gamma \rightarrow 0
$$

and then define the connecting homomorphism $\delta: \operatorname{ker} \gamma \rightarrow A^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \alpha$.
(i) Consider the diagram below where the second and third row makes up a commutative diagram,


Let $a \in \operatorname{ker} \alpha$ and $b \in \operatorname{ker} \beta$ then the commutativity of the diagram gives us

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \beta j(a)=i \alpha(a)=i\left(0_{A^{\prime}}\right)=0_{B^{\prime}} \\
& \gamma p(b)=q \beta(b)=q\left(0_{B^{\prime}}\right)=0_{C^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$

and we have that $j(a)$ is in the kernel of $\beta$ and $p(b)$ is in the kernel of $\gamma$ and there exists a sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \alpha \xrightarrow{\bar{j}} \operatorname{ker} \beta \xrightarrow{\bar{p}} \operatorname{ker} \gamma, \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\bar{j}$ and $\bar{p}$ are the homomorphisms $j$ and $p$ restricted to the kernels of $\alpha$ and $\beta$. This sequence is exact. Exactness at ker $\alpha$ : Since $j$ is injective so is $\bar{j}$ and the sequence is exact at ker $\alpha$. Exactness at ker $\beta$ : Since $\operatorname{im} j=\operatorname{ker} p$ we have that $\bar{p} \bar{j}(a)=0_{C}$ and so im $\bar{j} \subseteq$ ker $\bar{p}$. To show that ker $\bar{p} \subseteq \operatorname{im} \bar{j}$, let $\bar{p}(b)=0_{C}$. By the exactness at B there exists some $a \in A$, such that $b=j(a)$ and since $i \alpha(a)=\beta j(a)=0_{B^{\prime}}$ and $i$ is injective, $\alpha(a)=0_{A^{\prime}}$ and so $a \in \operatorname{ker} \alpha$ and then $b=j(a) \in \operatorname{im} \bar{j}$ and so ker $\bar{p} \subseteq \operatorname{im} \bar{j}$.
(ii) Consider the diagram below where the first and second row makes up a commutative diagram,


Define $\bar{i}$ and $\bar{q}$ as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \bar{i}\left(a^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} \alpha\right)=i\left(a^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{im} \beta \\
& \bar{q}\left(b^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} \beta\right)=q\left(b^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{im} \gamma
\end{aligned}
$$

for $a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$ and $b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}$ respectively. The homomorphisms are well-defined. The commutativity of the first two rows in the diagram gives us

$$
i \alpha=\beta j
$$

and so $i$ maps the image of $\alpha$ to the image of $\beta$ which means that $\bar{i}$ is well-defined since

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{1}^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} \alpha & =a_{2}^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} \alpha \in A^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \alpha \\
& \rightarrow \\
a_{1}^{\prime}-a_{2}^{\prime} & \in \operatorname{im} \alpha \\
& \rightarrow \\
i\left(a_{1}^{\prime}-a_{2}^{\prime}\right) & \in \operatorname{im} \beta .
\end{aligned}
$$

And so $i\left(a_{1}^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{im} \beta=i\left(a_{2}^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{im} \beta \in B^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \beta$. Similarly $\bar{q}$ is well-defined since $q \beta=\gamma p$. We will show that the sequence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
A^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \alpha \xrightarrow{\bar{i}} B^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \beta \xrightarrow{\bar{q}} C^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \gamma \rightarrow 0 \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

is exact. Since $q$ is surjective, $\bar{q}$ is surjective and the sequence is exact at $C^{\prime} / \mathrm{im} \gamma$. Exactness at $B^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \beta$ : Since $q i=0$ we have that $\bar{q} \bar{i}=0+\operatorname{im} \beta$ and so im $\bar{i} \subset \operatorname{ker} \bar{q}$. To show that ker $\bar{q} \subset \operatorname{im} \bar{i}$, let $b^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} \beta \in \operatorname{ker} \bar{q}$, then $q\left(b^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{im} \gamma$ and so $\gamma(c)=q\left(b^{\prime}\right)$ for some $c \in C$. Since $p$ is surjective there exists a $b \in B$ such that $p(b)=c$ and so $\gamma p(b)=q\left(b^{\prime}\right)$ and due to the commutativity of the diagram we have

$$
\gamma p(b)=q \beta(b)=q\left(b^{\prime}\right)
$$

and so $b^{\prime} \in \operatorname{im} \beta$ and $b^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} \beta \in \operatorname{im} \bar{i}$.
(iii) We will now show that there exists a homomorphism ker $\gamma \rightarrow$ coker $\alpha$ defined by

$$
\begin{align*}
\delta: \operatorname{ker} \gamma & \rightarrow A^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \alpha  \tag{27}\\
z & \mapsto i^{-1} \beta p^{-1}(z)+\operatorname{im} \alpha
\end{align*}
$$

Let $c \in$ kernel $\gamma$, and let $p(b)=c, b \in B$, since $p$ is surjective such $b$ exists. The commutativity of the diagram gives us

$$
q \beta(b)=\gamma p(b)=\gamma(c)=0_{C}^{\prime}
$$

and so $\beta(b)$ is in the kernel of $q$ and as such in the image of $i$. We have that $i$ is injective so there exists a unique $a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$ such that

$$
i^{-1} \beta p^{-1}(c)=i^{-1} \beta(b)=a^{\prime}
$$

and we have a map $c \mapsto a^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} \alpha$. To show that it is well-defined: Let $c_{1}=c_{2}$, then there exists $b_{1}$ and $b_{2}$ such that

$$
p\left(b_{1}-b_{2}\right)=c_{1}-c_{2}=0_{C}
$$

and $\left(b_{1}-b_{2}\right)$ is in the kernel of $p$ and as such also in the image of $j$ and there exists an unique $a \in A$ such that $j(a)=\left(b_{1}-b_{2}\right)$. From the commutativity of the diagram we then get that

$$
i \alpha(a)=\beta j(a)=\beta\left(b_{1}-b_{2}\right)
$$

and $\beta\left(b_{1}-b_{2}\right)$ is in the image of $i \alpha$ and since $i$ is injective,

$$
i^{-1} \beta\left(b_{1}-b_{2}\right)=\alpha(a)
$$

and so $\beta\left(b_{1}-b_{2}\right)$ is mapped to the image of $\alpha$. And so since

$$
i^{-1} \beta\left(b_{1}-b_{2}\right)=i^{-1} \beta p^{-1}\left(c_{1}-c_{2}\right)
$$

we have that $c_{1}-c_{2}$ is mapped to the image of $\alpha$ and so

$$
i^{-1} \beta p^{-1}\left(c_{1}\right)=i^{-1} \beta p^{-1}\left(c_{2}\right) \in A^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \alpha
$$

and (27) is well-defined.
We have shown that there exists a homomorphisms $\delta$ connecting two exact sequences (25) and (26) into a sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \alpha \xrightarrow{\bar{j}} \operatorname{ker} \beta \xrightarrow{\bar{p}} \operatorname{ker} \gamma \xrightarrow{\delta} A^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \alpha \xrightarrow{\bar{i}} B^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \beta \xrightarrow{\bar{q}} C^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \gamma \rightarrow 0
$$

What is left to show is the exactness at ker $\gamma$ and coker $\alpha$, these parts will be left out. [4, pg. 269, Excercise C-3.25 (i), (ii), Ch. C-3.5]

Note that if we change diagram (24) in the Snake Lemma above to

we would get an exact sequence

$$
\operatorname{ker} \alpha \xrightarrow{\bar{j}} \operatorname{ker} \beta \xrightarrow{\bar{p}} \operatorname{ker} \gamma \xrightarrow{\delta} A^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \alpha \xrightarrow{\bar{i}} B^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \beta \xrightarrow{\bar{q}} C^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} \gamma,
$$

since the injectivity of $\bar{j}$ and surjectivity of $\bar{q}$ is a direct consequence of $j$ being injective and $q$ being surjective (part (i) and (ii) in the proof above). We will use this to prove The Long Exact Sequence of Cohomology 5.6 in section 5.

We will now look at induced exact sequences.

### 3.2 Exact Sequences Derived From Hom-sets

Given $R$-modules $M, N, D$ and a homomorphism $\varphi$ as below,

we can always construct a composite homomorphism $f \varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D)$, for any $f \in$ $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D)$. Since $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D)$ are abelian groups, see Proposition 2.5 (i) we can define a homomorphism of groups: $\varphi^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D)$, by $f \mapsto f \varphi$.
Proposition 3.11. Let $M, N$ and $D$ be $R$-modules and let $\varphi: M \rightarrow N$ be an $R$-module homomorphism.
(i) Then the induced map

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D) & \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D) \\
f & \longmapsto f \varphi
\end{aligned}
$$

is a homomorphism of abelian groups.
(ii) Moreover if $\varphi$ is surjective the induced map $\varphi^{*}$ is injective.

Proof. Let $m \in M$ and $n \in N$. By Proposition 2.5 are $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D)$ abelian groups. From the addition defined in 2.5(iv) we get $(f+g)(\varphi(m))=f(\varphi(m))+$ $g(\varphi(m))$ and so $\varphi^{*}(f+g)=\varphi^{*}(f)+\varphi^{*}(g)$ and $\varphi^{*}$ is a homomorphism. For the second part, assume $\varphi$ is surjective, then for all $n \in N$ we have that $n=\varphi(m)$ for some $m \in M$. Let $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ be two homomorphisms from $N$ to $D$, assume $f_{1} \varphi(m)=f_{2} \varphi(m)$, since $\varphi$ is surjective $f_{1} \varphi(m)=f_{2} \varphi(m)$ for all $m \in M$ implies $f_{1}(n)=f_{2}(n)$ for all $n \in N$ and so $f_{1}=f_{2}$ and $\varphi^{*}$ is injective.

Part (ii) of proposition 3.11 can be written in terms of exact sequences; from the exact sequence of modules,

$$
M \xrightarrow{\varphi} N \longrightarrow 0,
$$

we get the exact sequence

$$
0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D) \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D) .
$$

of abelian groups. Part (i) of proposition 3.11 implies that given a composite,

$$
\begin{equation*}
L \xrightarrow{\psi} M \xrightarrow{\varphi} N \longrightarrow 0, \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

there exists a sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D) \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D) \xrightarrow{\psi^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(L, D),
$$

where $\psi^{*}=f^{\prime} \psi$ for $f^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Hom}(M, D)$. The theorem below then shows that if the extended sequence (28) is exact so is the induced sequence of Hom groups.

Theorem 3.12. Let $D$ be an $R$-module and let

$$
\begin{equation*}
L \xrightarrow{\psi} M \xrightarrow{\varphi} N \longrightarrow 0 \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

be a sequence of $R$-modules. Define the homomorphisms $\varphi^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}(N, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M, D)$ and $\psi^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}(M, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(L, D)$ as

$$
\begin{gathered}
\varphi^{*}: f \mapsto f \varphi, \\
\psi^{*}: f^{\prime} \mapsto f^{\prime} \psi .
\end{gathered}
$$

If sequence (29) is exact, is the associated sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D) \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D) \xrightarrow{\psi^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(L, D)
$$

exact.
Proof. According to Proposition 3.11, $\varphi^{*}$ is injective so the sequence is exact at $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D)$. We need to show that the sequence is exact at $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D)$, that is $\operatorname{Ker} \psi^{*}=\operatorname{Im} \varphi^{*}$. First we show that $\operatorname{Im} \varphi^{*} \subseteq \operatorname{Ker} \psi^{*}:$ for $f^{*} \in \operatorname{Im} \varphi^{*}$ we want to show $\psi^{*} \varphi^{*}(f)=0$. Consider the diagram

we have that $\varphi^{*}(f)=f \varphi$ and so $\psi^{*} \varphi^{*}(f)=(f \varphi) \psi=f(\varphi \psi)=f 0=0$. Next we show that $\operatorname{Ker} \psi^{*} \subseteq \operatorname{Im} \varphi^{*}$ : Let $f^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Ker} \psi^{*}$ then $f^{\prime}: M \rightarrow D$ and $f^{\prime} \psi=0$. For any $m$ and $m^{\prime} \in M$ where

$$
m=m^{\prime} \bmod \operatorname{im} \psi
$$

we have that $f(m)=f\left(m^{\prime}\right)$ and so $f^{\prime}$ is constant on $M / \operatorname{im} \psi$, meaning $f^{\prime}$ is welldefined on $M / \mathrm{im} \psi \rightarrow D$. Since the sequence (29) is exact and since $p$ is projective we have $M / \operatorname{im} \psi=M /$ ker $p \cong N$ and there exists a welldefined map $f: N \rightarrow D$ by

$$
f(n)=f \varphi(m)=f^{\prime}(m) .
$$

Since $f \varphi$ is in the image of $\varphi^{\prime}, f^{\prime}$ is in the image of $\varphi^{*}$. For proof of the "only if" part of the statement see [1, pg. 393-394, Thm. 33, ch.10.5]. [3, pg. 468, Thm. B-4.21 (iii), ch.B-4], [6, StackExchange, (1)]

If the sequence (29) were short exact, would it induce a short exact sequence of Hom groups? Consider the diagram below where $0 \longrightarrow L \xrightarrow{\psi} M$, is an exact sequence


Just like in Proposition 3.11, composing $f^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D)$ with $\psi$ induce a group homomorphism,

$$
\psi^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(L, D)
$$

defined by

$$
f^{\prime} \longmapsto f^{\prime} \psi .
$$

Suppose $\psi^{*}$ is surjective, then there would be a lift $f^{\prime}$ for every $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(L, D)$ such that $f=f^{\prime} \psi$, and this is not in general true, see [1, pg. 393, Sec.10.5]. However, some modules are such that there exists a lift $f^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D)$ for every $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(L, D)$. These modules, analogous to projective modules (Definition 2.26) are called injective modules.
Definition 3.13. Let $\psi: L \longrightarrow M$ be an injective $R$-map and $L, M$ and $D$ left $R$-modules, then $D$ is called an injective module if there exists a map $f^{\prime}$ for every map $f$ such that $f^{\prime}$ to $f$. That is, there exists a map $f^{\prime}$ for every map $f$ such that the diagram

commutes.
Given an injective module $D$, the sequence

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D) \xrightarrow{\psi^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(L, D) \longrightarrow 0,
$$

is exact.
Corollary 3.14. A module $D$ is injective if and only if for every exact sequence

$$
0 \longrightarrow L \xrightarrow{\psi} M \xrightarrow{\varphi} N \longrightarrow 0
$$

the induced sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D) \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D) \xrightarrow{\psi^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(L, D) \rightarrow 0 \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

is short exact.
Proof. Consider the diagram


Assume $D$ is an injective module then there exists a lift $f^{\prime}$ for each $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D)$, the induced map $\psi^{*}$ is then surjective and the exact sequence,

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D) \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D) \xrightarrow{\psi^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(L, D),
$$

from Theorem 3.12 is extended to a short exact sequence. On the other hand, given a short exact sequence (30) then $\psi^{*}$ is surjective by definition and $f=\psi^{*}\left(f^{\prime}\right)=f^{\prime} \psi$ for all $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D)$ and $D$ is an injective module.

## 4 Complexes

A complex of modules is a sequence of modules together with a sequence of homomorphisms such that the composition of any two consecutive homomorphisms is zero. Most constructions for modules can be applied to complexes and in the first part of this section we will state some properties for complexes analogue to modules, in particular we will define short exact sequences of complexes. The second and third part describes how we can resolve a module $M$ with an exact sequence of free modules and, by extension, how we can replace a short exact sequence of modules with a short exact sequence of free resolutions.

### 4.1 Chain and Cochain Complexes

An exact sequence is an example of a more general structure called a complex, where instead of equality of images and kernels of consecutive homomorphisms, the former is a subset of the later.

Definition 4.1. A chain complex is a sequence of modules and homomorphisms

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)=\cdots \longrightarrow C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} C_{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} C_{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}} \ldots \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that the composition of adjacent homomorphisms is $0: d_{n} d_{n+1}=0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. The maps $d_{n}$ are called differentials. [2, pg. 317, Definition, Ch. 5.5]

We will sometimes use $\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}$ to refer to a chain complex ( $\left.\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)$ and we will often say complex to mean chain complex.

Definition 4.2. Define the zero complex $0_{\bullet}=\left(C_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)$ as the complex where each $C_{n}=$ $\{0\}$ and thus $d_{n}=0$ for all $n$.
[4, pg. 257, Example (iv), Ch. C-3.4]
By adding the zero complex to the left and right of any $R$-module homomorphism it can be viewed as a complex.

Example 4.3. Any $R$-map $f: A \longrightarrow B$ can be extended to a complex by adding zeromodules and zero maps. Let $A=C_{1}, B=C_{0}$ and $f=d_{1}$ then

$$
0 \bullet \xrightarrow{d_{2}} C_{1} \xrightarrow{d_{1}} C_{0} \xrightarrow{d_{0}} 0 \bullet
$$

is a complex where every module and map except $C_{0}, C_{1}$ and $d_{1}$ are zero. Since the differentiations $d_{2}$ and $d_{0}$ are both zero maps we have that

$$
\operatorname{im} d_{2}=0 \subseteq \operatorname{ker} d_{1}
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{im} d_{1} \subseteq \operatorname{ker} d_{0}=C_{0}
$$

[4, pg. 257, Example (v), Ch. C-3.4]

In the same way as in the example above we can view any exact sequence, $0 \longrightarrow$ $A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \longrightarrow 0$ as a complex since the equality $\operatorname{Im} \alpha=\operatorname{ker} \beta$ implies the inclusion $\operatorname{Im} \alpha \subseteq \operatorname{ker} \beta$.

Definition 4.4. (i) A positive chain complex is a complex where $C_{n}=0$ for all $n<0$ :

$$
\longrightarrow C_{n} \longrightarrow C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \ldots \longrightarrow C_{1} \longrightarrow C_{0} \longrightarrow 0
$$

(ii) A negative complex or a cochain complex is a complex where $C_{n}=0$ for all $n>0$ :

$$
0 \longrightarrow C_{0} \longrightarrow C_{-1} \longrightarrow \ldots \longrightarrow C_{-n} \longrightarrow C_{-(n+1)} \longrightarrow \ldots
$$

The negative indices are usually changed to positive and instead put as a superscript:

$$
0 \longrightarrow C^{0} \longrightarrow C^{1} \longrightarrow \ldots \longrightarrow C^{n} \longrightarrow C^{n+1} \longrightarrow \ldots
$$

[2, pg. 328-329, Definition, Ch. 6.1][2, pg. 329, Ch. 6.1]
Note that the customary notation for cochain complexes do not follow the definition of a complex as the indexes are increasing by one instead of decreasing. However, the negative notation is according to the definition and all statements regarding complexes can be applied to cochain complexes with the appropriate adjustments to the indices.

A homomorphism of complexes $f: \mathbf{C}_{\bullet} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is a sequence of maps $f_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}^{\prime}$ creating a commutative diagram.

Definition 4.5. If $\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)$ and $\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ are complexes, then a chain map

$$
f=f^{\bullet}:\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)
$$

is a sequence of morphisms $f_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}^{\prime}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ making the following diagram commute:

[2, pg. 318, Definition Ch. 5.5]
Complexes inherit the properties of modules. A direct sum of complexes $\left(C_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \oplus$ $\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ for example, is defined as the complex

$$
\longrightarrow C_{n+1} \oplus C_{n+1}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\bar{d}_{n+1}} C_{n} \oplus C_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\bar{d}_{n}} C_{n-1} \oplus C_{n-1}^{\prime} \longrightarrow
$$

where

$$
\bar{d}_{n}: c \oplus c^{\prime} \mapsto d_{n}(c) \oplus d_{n}^{\prime}(c) .
$$

And a chain map $f: \mathbf{C} \bullet \rightarrow \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{0}}^{\prime}$ is an isomorphism if and only if each $f_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}^{\prime}$ is an isomorphism in which case the sequence of inverses, $f^{-1}$, is also a chain map. The First Isomorphism Theorem holds for any chain map $f: \mathbf{C}_{\boldsymbol{\bullet}} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}_{\boldsymbol{\bullet}}^{\prime}$ if

$$
C_{n} / \operatorname{Ker} f_{n} \cong \operatorname{Im} f_{n}
$$

for each homomorphism $f_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}^{\prime}$. [2, pg. 319, Examples (i), (ii), Ch. 5.5] It follows that the notion of exactness can also be applied to chain maps.
Definition 4.6. (i) A complex $\left(\mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, \delta_{\bullet}\right)$ is a subcomplex of $\left(C_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)$ if, for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $A_{n}$ is a submodule of $C_{n}$ and $\delta_{n}=d_{n} \mid A_{n}$.
(ii) If $A_{\bullet}$ is a subcomplex of $\mathbf{C}_{\boldsymbol{\bullet}}$ then the qoutient complex is defined as

$$
\text { C. } / \mathrm{A}_{\bullet}=\cdots \rightarrow C_{n} / A_{n} \xrightarrow{\hat{d_{n}}} C_{n-1} / A_{n-1} \rightarrow
$$

where $\hat{d}_{n}: c_{n}+A_{n} \mapsto d_{n} c_{n}+A_{n-1}$.
(iii) Let $f_{\bullet}:\left(C_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \longrightarrow\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ be a chain map. Then $\operatorname{ker} f$, defined by

$$
\operatorname{ker} f=\longrightarrow \operatorname{ker} f_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\delta_{n+1}} \operatorname{ker} f_{n} \xrightarrow{\delta_{n}} \operatorname{ker} f_{n-1} \longrightarrow, \quad \delta_{n}=d_{n} \mid \operatorname{ker} f_{n},
$$

is a subcomplex of $C \bullet$ and $\operatorname{im} f$, defined by

$$
\operatorname{im} f=\longrightarrow \operatorname{im} f_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\Delta_{n+1}} \operatorname{im} f_{n} \xrightarrow{\Delta_{n}} \operatorname{im} f_{n-1} \longrightarrow, \Delta_{n}=d_{n}^{\prime} \mid \text { ker } f_{n},
$$

is a subcomplex of $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$.
(iv) A sequence of complexes and chain maps

$$
\ldots \longrightarrow \mathbf{C}_{\bullet}^{n+1} \underset{f_{n+1}}{\longrightarrow} \mathbf{C}_{\bullet}^{n} \underset{f_{n}}{\longrightarrow} \mathbf{C}_{\bullet}^{n-1} \longrightarrow \ldots
$$

is exact if $\operatorname{im} f_{n+1}=\operatorname{ker} f_{n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.
[2, pg. 318-320, Ch. 5.5]
To illustrate the above definition of an exact sequence of complexes, if we write each complex as a column, then a short exact sequence of complexes, $0 \longrightarrow \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{0}}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} \mathbf{C} \xrightarrow{g}$ $\mathrm{C}_{.}^{\prime \prime} \longrightarrow 0$, is a commutative diagram where the columns are complexes and the rows are exact:


We will now show how to construct complexes from any module and short exact complexes from short exact sequences of modules.

### 4.2 Projective Resolutions of Modules

From a short exact sequence of modules we can construct a short exact sequence of complexes. The following section is based on [2, pg 325-326, ch. 6.1] unless otherwise specified.

In Example 3.4 we saw that for any module $M$ we can create a short exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \longrightarrow K \xrightarrow{i} F(X) \xrightarrow{\varphi} M \longrightarrow 0 \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X$ is a generating set of $M, F(X)$ is the free module with basis $X$ and $K$ is the kernel of $\varphi$. If we let $Y$ be a generating set of $K$ then $(X, Y)$ is a presentation of $M$. Presentations allows us to to treat equations in $M$ as if they were equations in the free module $F(X)$ [2, pg 325, ch. 6.1]. If $K$ is free and $Y$ is a basis computations in $F$ would become much easier but a sub module of a free module is not necessarily free and so $K$ does not need to be free. However, assuming $K$ is not free, starting from $K$ we can create another short exact sequence as the one above,

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \longrightarrow K_{1} \xrightarrow{i_{1}} F_{1}\left(X_{1}\right) \xrightarrow{\varphi_{1}} K \longrightarrow 0, \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $F_{1}$ is a free module over some generating set $X_{1}$ of $K$ and where $K_{1}$ is the kernel of $\varphi_{1}$. We can then combine the two sequences (33) and (34) and get

$$
0 \longrightarrow K_{1} \xrightarrow{i_{1}} F_{1}\left(X_{1}\right) \xrightarrow{\varphi_{1}} K \xrightarrow{i} F(X) \xrightarrow{\varphi} M \longrightarrow 0 .
$$

By continuing to iterate over $K_{n}$ in this manner we can construct an exact sequence of free modules from $M$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
-->F_{3}\left(X_{3}\right)--F_{3}\left(X_{2}\right)--F_{1}\left(X_{1}\right)--f_{1}^{f_{1}}>F(X) \xrightarrow{\varphi}>M \longrightarrow 0 \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the functions $f_{n}$ are the composite functions $i_{n} \circ \varphi_{n+1}$. The sequence is exact by design, since the image of $f_{n}$ is $K_{n-1}$ and $K_{n-1}$ is the kernel of $\varphi_{n-1}$. The sequence (35) is called a free resolution of $M$ and can be seen as a generalized presentation of $M$ and a way of treating equations in $M$ by a sequence of equations in free modules [2, pg 325, Sec. 6.1 ]. There are however many different generating sets of a module and a single module $M$ can have many different resolutions.
Definition 4.7. Let $A$ be any $R$-module. A free resolution of $A$ is an exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \longrightarrow F_{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} F_{n-1} \longrightarrow \ldots \xrightarrow{d_{1}} F_{0} \xrightarrow{\epsilon} A \longrightarrow 0 \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that each $F_{i}$ is a free $R$-module. Since free modules are projective, this is also a projective resolution.
[1, pg 779, Sec. 17.1]

Example 4.8. The sequence

$$
0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{n} \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0
$$

from Example 3.4(i) is a projective resolution of $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$. In general we have that any $\mathbb{Z}$ module M have a free resolution of the form

$$
0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{ker} \varphi \longrightarrow F(X) \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0
$$

This is because $\operatorname{ker} \varphi$ is free due to $F(X)$ being a $\mathbb{Z}$-module, see Example 2.22.
The module $A$ in sequence (36) is the cokernel of $d_{1}: A \cong F_{0} / \operatorname{Ker} \epsilon=F_{0} / \operatorname{Im} d_{1}$ and this allows us to delete $A$ without losing any information.

Definition 4.9. Let $A$ be a module and let the exact sequence

$$
\cdots \longrightarrow F_{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} F_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow F_{1} \xrightarrow{d_{1}} F_{0} \xrightarrow{\epsilon} A \longrightarrow 0,
$$

be a free resolution of $A$, then the deleted resolution of $A$ is the complex

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \longrightarrow F_{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} F_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow F_{1} \xrightarrow{d_{1}} F_{0} \longrightarrow 0 . \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that the sequence (37) is no longer exact since at $F_{0}$ we have that $\operatorname{Ker}\left(F_{0} \rightarrow\right.$ $\{0\})=F_{0}$ and im $d_{1} \neq F_{0}$.

### 4.3 Simultaneous Resolution

Free resolutions are exact and as such they are complexes. Given a homomorphism $f$ between modules $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ there exists homomorphisms $f_{n}: F_{n} \rightarrow F_{n}^{\prime}$ between the modules of some free resolutions of $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ respectively, constituting a chain map. This chain map is the result of an iteration of lifts, starting with the lift $\hat{f}_{0}$ of the initial composite function $f \epsilon$,


Since free modules are projective modules, see Corollary 2.27, we are ensured that a lift $\hat{f}_{n}$ always exists. The next theorem states that there exist a chain map between the projective resolutions of modules $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ provided there is a homomorphism $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ to start the iteration of lifts. Take note in the proof that it suffice for the top row to be projective and the second row to be exact.

Proposition 4.10. Let $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ be any homomorphism of $R$-modules. Take projective resolutions of $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ respectively. Then for each $n \geq 0$ there is a lift $\hat{f}_{n}$ of $f$ such that
the following diagram commutes,

This makes $\hat{f}: \mathbf{P}_{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{P}_{A^{\prime}}$ a chain map, where $\mathbf{P}_{A}$ and $\mathbf{P}_{A^{\prime}}$ are the deleted resolutions of $A$ and $A^{\prime}$.

Proof. Since $P_{0}$ is projective there is a lift $\hat{f}_{0}$ of the composite map $f \epsilon$ such that $\epsilon^{\prime} \hat{f}_{0}=f \epsilon$. The following lifts can be shown by induction where it suffices to show that $\operatorname{Im} \hat{f}_{n} d_{n+1} \subseteq$ Im $d_{n+1}^{\prime}$ since $P_{n+1}$ being projective ensures a lift $\hat{f}_{n+1}$ such that $d_{n+1}^{\prime} \hat{f}_{n+1}=\hat{f} d_{n+1}$. The rows are exact so we will show $\operatorname{Im} \hat{f}_{n} d_{n+1} \subseteq \operatorname{Ker} d_{n}^{\prime}$. We have the base step $\hat{f}_{0}$ which allows us to assume there exists a lift $\hat{f}_{n}$ such that $d_{n}^{\prime} \hat{f}_{n}=\hat{f}_{n-1} d_{n}$ and so

$$
d_{n}^{\prime} \hat{f}_{n} d_{n+1}=\hat{f}_{n-1} d_{n} d_{n+1}=0
$$

Note that there are no lifts required from the second row in the diagram and that it is enough for the second row to be exact, not necessarily projective. [4, pg. 273-274, Theorem C-3.46 (i)]

Given a homomorphism $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ of modules there exists a chain map $\hat{f}: \mathbf{P}_{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{P}_{A^{\prime}}$ of deleted resolutions, moreover $\mathbf{P}_{A}$ being projective and $\mathbf{P}_{A}^{\prime}$ being exact also gives rise to lifts $s_{n}: P_{n} \rightarrow P_{n+1}^{\prime}$ such that for any two chain maps $\hat{f}, g: \mathbf{P}_{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{P}_{A^{\prime}}$ we have $f_{n}-g_{n}=d_{n+1}^{\prime} s_{n}+s_{n-1} d_{n}$.

Definition 4.11. Two chain maps $f, g:\left(\mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow\left(\mathbf{A}_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ are homotopic if,
(i) for chain complexes $\left(\mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)$ and $\left(\mathbf{A}_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$;

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \ldots \longrightarrow A_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} A_{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} A_{n-1} \longrightarrow \ldots \\
& \ldots \longrightarrow A_{n+1}^{\prime} \xrightarrow[d_{n+1}^{\prime}]{s_{n}^{\prime}} A_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow[d_{n}^{\prime}]{f_{n}-g_{n}} A_{n-1}^{\prime} \longrightarrow \ldots .
\end{aligned}
$$

there are maps $s_{n}: A_{n} \rightarrow A_{n+1}^{\prime}$ such that

$$
f_{n}-g_{n}=d_{n+1}^{\prime} s_{n}+s_{n-1} d_{n}
$$

(ii) and for cochain complexes $\left(\mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)$ and $\left(\mathbf{A}_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$;

there are maps $s_{n}: A_{n} \rightarrow A^{\prime n-1}$ such that

$$
f_{n}-g_{n}=d_{n-1}^{\prime} s_{n}+s_{n+1} d_{n}
$$

When a chain map $f$ is homotopic to the zero chain map 0 where $0_{n}: A_{n} \rightarrow 0$, f is called nullhomotopic.

Proposition 4.12. Let $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ be a homomorphism of modules and let $\mathbf{P}_{A}$ and $\mathbf{P}_{A}^{\prime}$ be deleted projective resolutions of $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ respectively, then any two chain maps $\hat{f}, g: \mathbf{P}_{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{P}_{A^{\prime}}$ that are lifts of $f$ are homotopic.

Proof. The proof will not be written out in its entirety, it is by induction and similar to the one before. Consider the diagram


We want to show that there exists maps $s_{n}$ such that $g_{n}-f_{n}=d_{n+1}^{\prime} s_{n}+s_{n-1} d_{n}$. For the base step, define $g_{-1}=f=\hat{f}_{-1}$ then by defining $s_{-1}=0=s_{-2}$ we get

$$
g_{-1}-\hat{f}_{-1}=0=d_{0}^{\prime} s_{-1}+s_{-2} d_{-1}
$$

This holds for all $d_{0}^{\prime}$ and $d_{-1}$, particularly $d_{0}^{\prime}=\epsilon^{\prime}$ and $d_{-1}=0$. Continuing with the inductive step, assuming $g_{n}-\hat{f}_{n}=d_{n+1}^{\prime} s_{n}+s_{n-1} d_{n}$ we want to show $g_{n+1}-\hat{f}_{n+1}=$ $d_{n+2}^{\prime} s_{n+1}+s_{n} d_{n+1}$. To do this we only need to show

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Im}\left(g_{n+1}-\hat{f}_{n+1}-s_{n} d_{n+1}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{Im} d_{n+2}^{\prime} \tag{40}
\end{equation*}
$$

since if (40) is true, $P_{n+1}$ being projective ensures a map $s_{n+1}$ such that $d_{n+2}^{\prime} s_{n+1}=$ $g_{n+1}-\hat{f}_{n+1}-s_{n} d_{n+1}$. As in the proposition above, the proof is finalized by showing $d_{n+1}^{\prime}\left(g_{n+1}-\hat{f}_{n+1}-s_{n} d_{n+1}\right)=0$ since the exactness of the bottom row of diagram (39) gives im $d_{n+2}^{\prime}=\operatorname{ker} d_{n+1}^{\prime}$. For full proof see [4, pg. 273-274, Theorem C-3.46 (ii)].

We will now show the Simultaneous Resolution Lemma which says that given a short exact sequence of modules there exists a short exact sequence of resolutions. By constructing a projective resolution of $M$ from the direct product of the free resolutions of modules $L$ and N we get a commutative diagram where the columns are complexes and the rows exact.

Lemma 4.13. (Simultaneous Resolution or the Horseshoe Lemma) Let $0 \longrightarrow L \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow$ $N \longrightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence of $R$-modules. Let $L$ and $N$ have projective resolutions
as in the diagram below


Then there exist a projective resolution of $M$ so that the three columns form an exact sequence of complexes:


Proof. Let $P_{n}=P_{n}^{\prime} \oplus P_{n}^{\prime \prime}$, then each row,

$$
0 \longrightarrow P_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\iota^{\prime}} P_{n}^{\prime} \oplus P_{n}^{\prime \prime} \xrightarrow{\rho^{\prime \prime}} P_{n}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0,
$$

is an exact sequence where $\iota^{\prime}$ and $\rho^{\prime \prime}$ are the usual injections and projections. Since $P_{n}^{\prime} \oplus P_{n}^{\prime \prime}$ and $P_{n}^{\prime} \oplus P_{n}^{\prime \prime}$ are projective so is $P_{n}^{\prime} \oplus P_{n}^{\prime \prime}$ (Corollary $2.27($ iii) $)$. Let $f^{\prime}=\psi \epsilon^{\prime}$ and let $f^{\prime \prime}$ be
the lift of $\epsilon^{\prime \prime}, \epsilon^{\prime \prime}=\varphi f^{\prime \prime}$, since $P_{0}^{\prime \prime}$ is projective such lift exists.


By Proposition 2.19 there exists a unique homomorphism $\theta: P_{0}^{\prime} \oplus P_{0}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow M$ defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho^{\prime}+\rho^{\prime \prime} \mapsto f^{\prime} \rho^{\prime}+f^{\prime \prime} \rho^{\prime \prime} \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\rho^{\prime}$ is the projection $P_{0}^{\prime} \oplus P_{0}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow P_{0}^{\prime}$. The square with base $M \rightarrow N$ then commutes since

$$
\epsilon^{\prime \prime} \rho^{\prime \prime}=\varphi f^{\prime \prime} \rho^{\prime \prime}=\varphi\left(0+f^{\prime \prime} \rho^{\prime \prime}\right)=\varphi \theta
$$

where $0: P_{0}^{\prime} \oplus P_{0}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0_{M}$. Similarly the square with base $L \rightarrow M$ commutes since

$$
\psi \epsilon^{\prime}=f^{\prime} 1_{P_{0}^{\prime}}=f^{\prime} \rho^{\prime} \iota^{\prime}=\left(f^{\prime} \rho^{\prime}+0\right) \iota^{\prime}=\theta \iota^{\prime}
$$

and we have established that the first two rows are commutative. The next step is to use the Snake lemma to get the diagram,

where the top and the bottom rows are exact (see proof of lemma 3.10). Since $\epsilon^{\prime}$ and $\epsilon^{\prime \prime}$ are surjective, coker $\epsilon^{\prime}=$ coker $\epsilon^{\prime \prime}=0$ and since the bottom row is exact coker $\theta=0$ and $\theta$
is surjective. We are left with a commutative diagram,


Since the resolutions of $L$ and $N$ gives us surjective maps $P_{1}^{\prime} \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \epsilon^{\prime}$ and $P^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow$ ker $\epsilon_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ we can construct the following diagram in the same way as the one above,


The proof is by induction on the diagrams and then splicing the $n+1$ diagram to the $n$th diagram by defining $\theta_{n+1}: P_{n+1} \rightarrow P_{n}$ as the composition $P_{n+1} \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \theta_{n} \rightarrow P_{n}$, this also implies that the constructed resolution of $M$ is exact since the image of $\theta_{n+1}$ is the kernel of $\theta_{n}$. [2, pg. 349-350, Proposition 6.24]

## 5 Cohomology and Homology

In this section will we define homology and cohomology of chain and cochain complexes respectively. We will show that homotopic chain maps induce the same map over homology/ cohomology. Lastly we will prove the Long Exact Sequence of Cohomology groups using the Snake Lemma.

### 5.1 Cohomology

Let ( $\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}$ ) be a chain or a cochain complex. Since the image of one map $d$ is a subgroup of the kernel of the following map we can make quotients out of images and kernels. These quotients are called the homology or cohomology of the complex depending on the direction of the complex. Since the difference lies in the direction of the complex, homology and cohomology are basically the same quotient and with the appropriate changes to notation any statements regarding cohomology can be applied to homology.

Definition 5.1. (i) Let C. be a complex:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \longrightarrow C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} C_{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \ldots \tag{48}
\end{equation*}
$$

then its $n^{\text {th }}$ homology is the quotient ker $d_{n} /$ image $d_{n+1}$ and is denoted $H_{n}(\mathbf{C}$ • $)$.
(ii) Let C. be a cochain complex:

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \longrightarrow C^{0} \xrightarrow{d_{0}} C^{1} \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow C^{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}} C^{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} C^{n+1} \longrightarrow \ldots, \tag{49}
\end{equation*}
$$

then its $n^{\text {th }}$ cohomology is the quotient ker $d_{n} /$ image $d_{n-1}$ and is denoted $H^{n}(\mathbf{C}$. $)$.
We will focus on cohomology groups from now on.
Example 5.2. A cochain complex is an exact sequence if and only if all of its cohomology groups are $\{0\}$ since $\operatorname{Ker} d_{n} / \operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}=\{0\}$ directly implies $\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}=\operatorname{Ker} d_{n}$ for all $n$.

Let $f: \mathbf{C} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ be a chain map of cochain complexes, the commutativity of the diagram

ensures that each $f_{n}$ map the kernel of $d_{n}$ to the kernel of $d_{n}^{\prime}$ and the image of $d_{n+1}$ to the image of $d_{n+1}^{\prime}$ which implies there exists well-defined homomorphism ker $d_{n} / \operatorname{im} d_{n-1} \rightarrow$ ker $d_{n}^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}^{\prime}$.

Lemma 5.3. Let $f:\left(C_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ be a chain map, then for $c \in \operatorname{ker} d_{n}, f_{n}(c) \in \operatorname{ker} d_{n}^{\prime}$ and for $c \in i m d_{n-1}, f_{n}(c) \in i m d_{n-1}^{\prime}$.
Proof. From the commutativity in diagram (50) we have that $f_{n+1} d_{n}=d_{n}^{\prime} f_{n}$. Let $p \in$ ker $d_{n}$ then

$$
f_{n+1} d_{n}(p)=d_{n}^{\prime} f_{n}(p)=0
$$

and so $f_{n}(p) \in \operatorname{ker} d_{n}^{\prime}$. Let $a \in \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}$ then we get that

$$
f_{n}(a)=f_{n} d_{n-1}(c)=d_{n-1}^{\prime} f_{n-1}(c)
$$

for some $c \in C_{n-1}$ and so $f_{n}(a) \in \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}^{\prime}$.
Proposition 5.4. If $f:\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ is a chain map of cochain complexes then there are group homomorphisms $H^{n}(f): H^{n}\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(\mathbf{C}^{\prime}{ }^{\bullet}\right)$ defined by

$$
H^{n}(f): z+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1} \mapsto f_{n}(z)+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}^{\prime}
$$

where $f_{n}: C^{n} \rightarrow C^{\prime n}, z \in$ ker $d_{n}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{n \geq 0}$

Proof. Let $f:\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow\left(\mathbf{C}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ be a chain map then there is a commutative diagram,


By Lemma 5.3 we have that if $z \in \operatorname{ker} d_{n}$ then $f_{n}(z) \in \operatorname{ker} d_{n}^{\prime}$ and so we can define a map $z+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1} \mapsto f_{n}(z)+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}^{\prime}$ and since $z \in \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}$ implies $f_{n}(z) \in \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}^{\prime}$ by the same Lemma, this map is well-defined: Let $z+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}=y+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}$, then $z-y \in \operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}$ and so $f_{n}(z-y) \in \operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}^{\prime}$ and we get $f_{n}(z)+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}^{\prime}=f_{n}(y)+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}^{\prime}$. $[4, \mathrm{pg} .263$, first part of Proof for Proposition C-3-37]

Since the cohomology groups of a complex are quotients where the zero coset is im $d_{n-1}$, any two chain maps $f$ and $g$ where

$$
\left(f_{n}-g_{n}\right)(z) \in \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}^{\prime},
$$

for all $z \in \operatorname{ker} d_{n}$, induce the same map on cohomology groups. Homotopic chain maps do this and when compositions of chain maps are homotopic to the identity chain map, cohomology groups are isomorphic. Before we show this note that $H^{n}$ maps the identity map of chain complexes to the identity map of cosets; let $1_{C}$. be the identity map between a chain complex and itself, that is the sequence of maps $1_{C_{n}}: C^{n} \rightarrow C^{n}$, then $H^{n}\left(1_{C_{\bullet}}\right)$ is the identity map on $H^{n}\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}\right)$, mapping

$$
z+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1} \mapsto 1_{C_{n}}(z)+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}=z+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}
$$

for each $H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), z \in \operatorname{ker} d_{n}$. Note also that $H^{n}$ preserves composition; let $f$ and $g$ be two chain maps where

$$
\left(C_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \xrightarrow{f}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{g}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right)
$$

then

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{n}(g f)\left(z+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}\right) & =(g f)_{n}(z)+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}^{\prime \prime} \\
& =g_{n}\left(f_{n}(z)+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}^{\prime}\right) \\
& =H_{n}(g)\left(f_{n}(z)+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}^{\prime}\right) \\
& =H_{n}(g) H_{n}(f)\left(z+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

and so $H_{n}(g f)=H_{n}(g) H_{n}(f)$. Let $f, g:$ A $\rightarrow$ A $\bullet$ be homotopic chain maps of cochain complexes, then according to Definition 4.11 (ii) we have

$$
f_{n}-g_{n}=d_{n-1}^{\prime} s_{n}+s_{n+1} d_{n}
$$

where $s_{n}$ are the maps in the below diagram;


An immediate consequence of the definition is that homotopic chain maps induce the same homomorphisms between cohomoloy groups since for all $z \in \operatorname{ker} d_{n}$ we get

$$
\left(f_{n}-g_{n}\right)(z)=d_{n-1}^{\prime} s_{n}(z)+s_{n+1} d_{n}(z)=d_{n-1}^{\prime} s_{n}(z) \in \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}^{\prime}
$$

which is equivalent to

$$
f_{n}(z)+\operatorname{im} d_{n-1}=g_{n}(z)+\operatorname{im} d_{n-1},
$$

and so if $f$ and $g$ are homotopic then $H^{n}(f)=H^{n}(g)$. It follows that given two chain maps

$$
h: \mathbf{C}_{\bullet} \longrightarrow \mathbf{C}_{\bullet}^{\prime}, g: \mathbf{C}_{\bullet}^{\prime} \longrightarrow \mathbf{C}_{\bullet}
$$

if $g h$ is homotopic to $1_{\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}}$ and $h g$ is homotopic to $1_{\mathbf{C}^{\prime}}$. then $H^{n}(\mathbf{C}) \bullet \cong H^{n}\left(\mathbf{C}^{\prime}\right)$. since

$$
H^{n}(g h)=H^{n}\left(1_{\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}}\right) \text { and } H^{n}(h g)=H^{n}\left(1_{\mathbf{C}^{\prime}}\right)
$$

is the same as

$$
\left.H^{n}(g) H^{n}(h)=1_{H^{n}(\mathbf{C} \bullet)} \text { and } H^{n}(h) H^{n}(g)=1_{H^{n}\left(\mathbf{C}^{\prime} \bullet\right.}\right)
$$

and this makes $H^{n}(h)$ an isomorphism with inverse $H^{n}(g)$. We summarize the above in the proposition below. [4, pg. 265, chapter C-3. Proposition C-3.39], [2, pg. 346-347, Proposition 6.20]

## Proposition 5.5.

(i) Let $1_{C}$, be the identity chain map on a cochain complex $\mathbf{C}_{\boldsymbol{\bullet}}$, then $H^{n}\left(1_{C \bullet}\right)=1_{H^{n}\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}\right)}$, for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{n \geq 0}$, where $1_{H^{n}\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}\right)}$ is the identity map on $H^{n}\left(\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{\bullet}}\right)$.
(ii) Let $f: \mathbf{C} \longrightarrow \mathbf{C}^{\prime}$, and $g: \mathbf{C}_{\bullet}^{\prime} \longrightarrow \mathbf{C}$, be two chain maps then

$$
H^{n}(g f)=H^{n}(g) H^{n}(f)
$$

(iii) If $g, f:\left(\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{\bullet}}, d_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow\left(\mathbf{A}^{\prime}, d_{\mathbf{\bullet}}^{\prime}\right)$ are two homotopic chain maps between cochain complexes then

$$
H^{n}(f)=H^{n}(g): H^{n}\left(\mathcal{A}_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\prime} \bullet\right) .
$$

(iv) Let $C \bullet$ and $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ be two cochain complexes and let $h: \mathbf{C}_{\bullet} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}^{\prime}$, and $g: \mathbf{C}^{\prime} \bullet \rightarrow \mathbf{C}$ be two chain maps. If gh is homotopic to $1_{C_{\bullet}}$ and hg is homotopic to $1_{C^{\prime}}$ then $H^{n}\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}\right)$ and $H^{n}\left(\mathbf{C}^{\prime} \bullet\right)$ are isomorphic.
Proof. We have showed the statements in the text above.
We will now use the Snake Lemma to show that there exists a Long Exact Sequence of cohomology groups given a short exact sequence of complexes.

Theorem 5.6. (The Long Exact Sequence in Cohomology) Let $0 \rightarrow \mathbf{C}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\bullet} \mathbf{C} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence of cochain complexes. Then there is a long exact sequence of cohomology groups

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \cdots \longrightarrow H^{n-1}\left(C^{\prime}\right) \longrightarrow H^{n-1}(C) \longrightarrow H^{n-1}\left(C^{\prime \prime}\right) \longrightarrow H^{n}\left(C^{\prime}\right) \longrightarrow \\
& \longrightarrow H^{n}(C) \longrightarrow H^{n}\left(C^{\prime \prime}\right) \longrightarrow H^{n+1}\left(C^{\prime}\right) \longrightarrow H^{n+1}(C) \cdots-\cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. The first, main part of the proof is showing that given a short exact sequence of cochain complexes,

there exists a commutative diagram with exact rows,

$$
\begin{align*}
& C_{n}^{\prime} / \mathrm{im} d_{n-1}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\bar{f}_{n}} C_{n} / \mathrm{im} d_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\bar{g}_{n}} C_{n}^{\prime \prime} / \mathrm{im} d_{n-1}^{\prime \prime} \longrightarrow 0 \tag{52}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\bar{d}_{n}$ is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{d}_{n}: c+\operatorname{im} d_{n-1} \mapsto d_{n}(c) \tag{53}
\end{equation*}
$$

$c \in C_{n}$, and define $\bar{f}_{n}$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{f}_{n}: x^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} d_{n-1}^{\prime} \mapsto f_{n}\left(x^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{im} d_{n-1}, \tag{54}
\end{equation*}
$$

$x^{\prime} \in C^{\prime}$. The maps $\bar{d}_{n}$ and ${\overline{d^{\prime \prime}}}_{n}$ are defined as $\bar{d}_{n}$ and $\bar{g}_{n}$ is defined as $\bar{f}_{n}$.
The second part of the proof is applying the Snake Lemma 3.10 to diagram (52) and observing that the exact sequence which appears is a sequence of cohomology groups.
(i) Since im $d_{n} \subset \operatorname{ker} d_{n+1}$, the map (53) exists and since im $d_{n-1} \subset \operatorname{ker} d_{n}$, it is welldefined: Let $x=y, x, y \in C_{n}$ then $x-y \in \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}$ and so

$$
\bar{d}_{n}: x-y+\operatorname{im} d_{n-1} \mapsto d_{n}(x-y)=0
$$

and $d_{n}(x)=d_{n}(y)$. According to Lemma 5.3, $f_{n}\left(y^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}$ for any $y^{\prime} \in \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}^{\prime}$ and this makes the map (54) welldefined, the proof is the same as the one above. The diagram (52 )is commutative since the short exact complex is commutative, for the square

$$
\begin{gather*}
C_{n}^{\prime} / \operatorname{im~} d_{n-1}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\bar{f}_{n}} C_{n} / \operatorname{im~} d_{n-1}  \tag{55}\\
\qquad{ }^{\mid \bar{d}^{\prime}{ }_{n}} \\
\operatorname{ker} d_{n+1}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\bar{f}_{n+1}} \stackrel{\bar{d}_{n}}{ } \operatorname{ker} d_{n+1}
\end{gather*}
$$

we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \bar{f}_{n+1} \bar{d}^{\prime}{ }_{n}\left(x^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{im} d_{n-1}=f_{n+1}\left(d_{n}\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right)+\operatorname{im} d_{n-1}= \\
& d_{n} f_{n}\left(x^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{im} d_{n-1}=\bar{d}_{n}\left(f_{n}\left(x^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{im} d_{n-1}\right)= \\
& \bar{d}_{n} \bar{f}_{n}\left(x^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} d_{n-1}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Define $\bar{g}_{n}$ in the same way as $\bar{f}_{n}$, the above then applies with the appropriate changes. We will now show exactness of the top row of diagram (52). Since $g_{n} f_{n}=0$, it follows immediately that $\bar{g}_{n} \bar{f}_{n}=0$, that is $\operatorname{im} \bar{f}_{n} \subset \operatorname{ker} \bar{g}_{n}$. To show ker $\bar{g}_{n} \subset \operatorname{im} \bar{f}_{n}$ : If

$$
x+\operatorname{im} d_{n-1} \in \operatorname{ker} \bar{g}_{n},
$$

then $g_{n}(x) \in \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}^{\prime \prime}$, since $g_{n-1}$ is surjective there exists an element $y \in C_{n-1}$ such that $d_{n-1}^{\prime \prime} g_{n-1}(y)=g_{n}(x)$ and because the complex (51) is commutative we have that $x \in \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}$ and since $\operatorname{im} d_{n-1} \subset \operatorname{ker} d_{n}, d_{n}(x)=0_{C_{n+1}}$. Since $f_{n+1}$ is injective, $f_{n+1}(z)=0_{C_{n+1}}$ implies $z=0_{C_{n+1}^{\prime}}$ and there exists a $x^{\prime} \in C_{n}^{\prime}$ such that $d_{n}^{\prime} f_{n+1}\left(x^{\prime}\right)=d_{n}(x)$. Commutativity of (51) then gives us that $x \in \operatorname{im} f_{n}$ and so $x+\operatorname{im} d_{n-1}$ is in the image of $\bar{f}_{n}$ and ker $\bar{g}_{n} \subset \operatorname{im} \bar{f}_{n}$.
(ii) We have shown that diagram (52) is a commutating diagram where the rows are exact, we can then apply the Snake Lemma 3.10 (and the text following the Snake Lemma) and observe that the exact sequence which appears is a sequence of cohomology groups,


The kernel of $\bar{d}_{n}$ is the cohomology group $H^{n}(C)=\operatorname{ker} d_{n} / \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}$ and the cokernel of $\bar{d}_{n}$ is the cohomology group $H^{n+1}(C)=\operatorname{ker} d_{n+1} / \operatorname{im} d_{n}$. The Long exact Sequence then arises from repeating $(i)$ and (ii), starting with the commutative diagram emerging from shifting diagram (51) one step such that the middle row will be indexed $n+1$.

The next commutative diagram with cohomology groups would then be

and the proof is finalized with an induction proof on the last two diagrams.
[4, pg. 269-270, Exercise C-3.25 (ii), (iii), Ch. C-3.5]

## 6 Additive Categories and Additive Functors

Chain complexes, modules and groups are all objects belonging to different mathematical systems. Category mathematics is used to compare mathematical structures shared by different systems or categories, it consists of a general mathematical language where statements often are depicted by diagrams of arrows and objects. Two examples are the diagrams in Proposition 2.19 defining products and coproducts which in the category of R-modules both are direct sums. A transformation of objects from one category into another is called a functorial map if it also transforms the maps between the objects. The mapping of cohomology groups, $H^{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ derived from chain maps of complexes $f: \mathbf{C}_{\bullet} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}^{\prime} \bullet$ in section 5 can be seen as a functorial transformation from the category of complexes to the categroy of groups and the mapping of Hom-groups, $\varphi^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}(N, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M, D)$ derived from the $R$-module homomorphism $\varphi: M \rightarrow N$ in section 3 is also a functorial mapping. Both $H^{n}$ and Hom will be defined as functors in the next section but in order to do that we need to define categories and functors.

### 6.1 Categories

A category is defined as a class of objects together with sets of morphisms on which composition is defined. It is possible to define a category solely as a set of morphisms since each object can be uniquely identified by an identity morphism but it is more natural to think of categories as containing both objects and morphisms [2, pg. 17].

Definition 6.1. A category $\mathcal{C}$ consists of
(i) A class of objects,
(ii) a set of morphisms $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(A, B)$ for every ordered pair of objects $A, B$ in $\mathcal{C}$
(iii) and composition for every ordered triple of objects $A, B, C$ denoted by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(A, B) \times \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(B, C) & \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(A, C) \\
(f, g) & \mapsto g f .
\end{aligned}
$$

The objects and morphism must satisfy the following three axioms for objects $A, B, C, D \in$ $\mathcal{C}$ :
(1) Each object $B$ has an identity morphism $1_{B} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(B, B)$ such that $1_{B} f=f$ and $g 1_{B}=g$ for $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(A, B)$ and $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(B, C)$.
(2) Each $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(A, B)$ has a unique domain $A$ and a unique codomain $B$. It follows that if $(A, B) \neq(C, D), \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(A, B)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(C, D)$ are disjoint sets.
(3) Composition is associative. For $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(A, B), g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(B, C)$ and $h \in$ $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(C, D)$,

$$
h(g f)=(h g) f
$$

[2, pg. 8, Definition, Sec. 1.2]
A diagram in a category $\mathcal{C}$ is a directed multigraph where the vertices is a set of objects of $\mathcal{C}$ and the arrows are morphisms. Using diagrams we can effectively depict categorical statements, we may picture composition, Definition 6.1 (iii), as the commutative diagram

where it is clearly illustrated that the domain of $g$ is the codomain of $f$ and that the domain and codomain of $g f$ is the domain of $f$ and the codomain of $g$ respectively. The associativity of composition, axiom three of Definition 6.1 is displayed by the commutative diagram

and the first axiom is pictured by the commutative diagram


Hom-sets are allowed to be empty in general, one exception is the set of morphisms $\operatorname{Hom}(A, A)$ which must contain the identity morphism $1_{A}$. That each object can be identified by its identity morphism follows from the first axiom which implies that the identity
morphism is unique for each object, since if we let $1_{A}$ and $1_{A}^{\prime}$ both be the identity morphism on $A \in \mathcal{C}$ then $1_{A}^{\prime} 1_{A}=1_{A}$ and $1_{A}^{\prime} 1_{A}=1_{A}^{\prime}$ and so $1_{A}=1_{A}^{\prime}$.

Example 6.2. (i) The category Ab has as its objects abelian groups, as its morphisms homomorphisms, and composition is the usual composition.
(ii) The category ${ }_{R}$ Mod has as its objects left $R$-modules over a ring $R$, as its morphisms $R$-homomorphisms, and as its composition the usual composition of functions. If $R$ is $\mathbb{Z}$, then $\mathbb{Z}_{\mathbb{M}} \mathbf{M o d}=\mathbf{A b}$ since $\mathbb{Z}$-modules are abelian groups.
(iii) The category ${ }_{R}$ Comp has as its objects complexes ( $\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}, \mathbf{d}_{\bullet}$ ), where $C_{n}$ are left $R$ modules and $d_{n}$ are $R$-module homomorphisms and as its morphisms chain maps $f=f_{\bullet}:\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}, \mathbf{d}_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow\left(\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \mathbf{d}_{\bullet}\right)$.
[3, pg. 444, Example B-4.1 (iii), (vi)], [4, pg.259, Defintion, Ch. C-3.4]
Definition 6.3. Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a category and let $C \in \mathcal{C}$.
(i) An object $A \in \mathcal{C}$ is called initial if, for every object $C$ there exists a unique morphism $A \rightarrow C$.
(ii) An object $\Omega \in \mathcal{C}$ is called terminal if, for every object $C$ there exists a unique morphism $C \rightarrow \Omega$.
(iii) A zero object in a category $\mathcal{C}$ is an object which is both initial and terminal.
[2, pg. 216, Defintion, Ch. 5.1], [2, pg. 218, Definition, Ch. 5.1], [2, pg. 226, Exercise 5.2, Ch. 5.1]

Definition 6.4. Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a category and let $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$.
(i) An object $P \in \mathcal{C}$ is a product of $A$ and $B$ if there exists maps $p_{1}: P \rightarrow A$ and $p_{2}: P \rightarrow B$ such that for every $X \in \mathcal{C}$ and every pair of morphisms $X \rightarrow A$ and $X \rightarrow B$ there is a unique morphism $X \rightarrow P$ such that the diagram below commutes,

(ii) an object $S \in \mathcal{C}$ is a coproduct of $A$ and $B$ if there exists maps $\iota_{1}: A \rightarrow S$ and $\iota_{2}: B \rightarrow S$ such that for every $X \in \mathcal{C}$ and every pair of morphisms $A \rightarrow X$ and $B \rightarrow X$ there is a unique morphism $S \rightarrow X$ such that the diagram below commutes,


Lemma 6.5. In ${ }_{R}$ Mod we have that
(i) the zero object is the zero module $\{0\}$ and
(ii) the product and the coproduct of any two left $R$-modules $A, B$ are isomorphic and is their direct sum, $A \oplus B$.

Proof. (i) Assume $B$ is the zero object in ${ }_{R}$ Mod then there exists a unique morphism $B \rightarrow B$. Since $\operatorname{Hom}(B, B)$ is a ring, see Proposition $2.5(\mathrm{iv})$, it must contain both the identity homomorphism on $B, 1_{B}$, and the zero homomorphism 0 and so $1_{B}=0$ and $B$ needs to be the zero module. [2, pg. 226, Exercise 5.2, Ch. 226 ]
(ii) See Proposition 2.19 and the commutative diagrams (3) and (4).

### 6.1.1 Additive Categories

In additive categories Hom-sets are abelian groups under point wise addition where the distributive law holds in regard to composition.

Definition 6.6. A category $\mathcal{A}$ is pre-additive if
(i) $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(A, B)$ is an (additive) abelian group for every $A, B \in \operatorname{obj} \mathcal{A}$,
(ii) the distributive laws hold: given morphisms

$$
X \xrightarrow{k} A \underset{g}{\stackrel{f}{\rightrightarrows}} B \xrightarrow{h} Y
$$

where $X$ and $Y \in \operatorname{obj} \mathcal{A}$, then

$$
h(f+g)=h f+h g \text { and }(f+g) k=f k+g k .
$$

A category $\mathcal{A}$ is additive if it is pre-additive and
(iii) $\mathcal{A}$ has a zero object,
(vi) $\mathcal{A}$ has finite products and finite coproducts: for all objects $A, B$ in $\mathcal{A}$, both their product and their coproduct exist in obj $\mathcal{A}$.
[2, pg. 303, Definition, Section 5.5]
Proposition 6.7. The category ${ }_{R}$ Mod is an additive category.
Proof. Let $A, B \in_{R}$ Mod, according to Proposition $2.5 \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(A, B)$ is an abelian group and the distributive laws in (ii) hold for any $f, g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(A, B)$ according to Proposition 2.5 (iii). The zero object is the zero module according to Lemma 6.5(i) and the product and coproduct is the direct sum according to Lemma 6.5(ii).

Proposition 6.8. The category ${ }_{R}$ Comp of ${ }_{R}$ Mod complexes and chain maps, is a preadditive category if we define, for chain maps $f, g$

$$
(f+g)_{n}=f_{n}+g_{n}
$$

for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.
[4, pg. 259, Ch. 3.4]
Proof. This follows from chain maps consisting of homomorphisms of modules. The group structure of an additive abelian group then follows as do the distributive laws.

### 6.2 Functors

A functor is a structure preserving map between categories mapping both objects and morphisms, it maps identity to identity and it preserves composition of morphisms. An additive functor is a functor between pre-additive categories preserving the point-wise addition of the Hom-sets and since Hom sets in additive categories are abelian groups under pointwise addition the additive functor acts as a homomorphism over the Hom sets. As such additive functors maps zero to zero as well as identity to identity and preserves thus complexes, direct sums and homotopic maps. Functors are either covariant or contravariant, where the last reverses the direction of the morphisms between the mapped objects.

Definition 6.9. A functor $T: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$, where $\mathcal{C}$ and $\mathcal{D}$ are categories, is a function such that
(i) if $A \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathcal{C})$ then $T(A) \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathcal{D})$,
(ii) $T\left(1_{A}\right)=1_{T(A)}$ for every $A \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathcal{C})$.
(iii) A covariant functor $T: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$
(a) maps $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ to $T(f): T(A) \rightarrow T\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ and
(b) $A \xrightarrow{f} A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g} A^{\prime \prime}$ to $T(A) \xrightarrow{T(f)} T\left(A^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{T(g)} T\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right)$
(c) and if $g f$ is a composition of morphisms in $\mathcal{C}$ then $T(g f)=T(g) T(f)$ is a composition of morphisms in $\mathcal{D}$.
(iv) A contravariant functor $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$
(a) maps $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ to $F(f): F\left(A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow F(A)$ and
(b) $A \xrightarrow{f} A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g} A^{\prime \prime}$ to $F\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{F(g)} F\left(A^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{F(f)} F(A)$
(c) and if $g f$ is a composition of morphisms in $\mathcal{C}$ then $F(g f)=F(f) T(g)$ is a composition of morphisms in $\mathcal{D}$.
[2, pg. 17, 19, Definition, Ch. 1.2]
Since a functor preservers composition of morphisms it also preserves commutative diagrams. For example, let $f: X \rightarrow P, g: A \rightarrow X$ and $h: X \rightarrow B$ be the morphisms from diagram (4) in Definition 6.4, defining a categorical product in $\mathcal{C}$. Let $T: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ be a functor into some category $\mathcal{D}$, then we have

$$
T(h)=T\left(p_{1} f\right)=T\left(p_{1}\right) T(f)
$$

and

$$
T(g)=T\left(p_{2} f\right)=T\left(p_{2}\right) T(f)
$$

and so $T$ preserves the commutativity of diagram (4), but not necessarily the product. An additive functor however does.

Definition 6.10. Let $\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{D}$ be additive categories and let $C, C^{\prime} \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathcal{C})$. A functor $T: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ of either variance is called an additive functor if, for every pair of morphisms $f, g: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
T(f+g)=T(f)+T(g) \tag{61}
\end{equation*}
$$

The definition of an additive functor $T$ turns $T$ into an homomorphism over the Homsets and as such $T$ will map zero maps to zero maps and subsequently zero objects to zero objects.

Proposition 6.11. Let $T:{ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod} \rightarrow{ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod}$ be an additive functor of either variance, then $T(0)=0$ where 0 is the zero map or the zero object in ${ }_{R}$ Mod.

Proof. Since the Hom-sets of ${ }_{R}$ Mod are abelian groups, the equation (61) turns $T$ into a homomorphism over the Hom-sets and as such $T$ preserves the zero homomorphism. Let $A$ be the zero object in ${ }_{R}$ Mod then there exists a unique homomorphism $f: A \rightarrow A$ which, according to the proof of Lemma $6.5(i)$, is the zero homomorphism and so $T(f)$ is the zero homomorphism and $T(A)$ is the zero object. [3, pg. 474, Excercise B-4.18, Ch. B-4]

Using Proposition 6.11 we can show that additive functors preserves direct sums, complexes and homotopic maps.

Proposition 6.12. Let $T:{ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod} \rightarrow_{R}$ Mod be an additive functor then
(i) $T\left(A_{1} \oplus A_{2}\right) \cong T\left(A_{1}\right) \oplus T\left(A_{2}\right)$ where $A_{1}, A_{2} \in{ }_{R}$ Mod,
(ii) If $\left(\boldsymbol{A}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \in{ }_{R} \mathbf{M o d}$ is a chain complex the functored sequence $\left(T \mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, T d_{\bullet}\right)$ is a chain complex.
(iii) If $f, g:\left(\boldsymbol{A}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow\left(\boldsymbol{B}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)$ are homotopic chain maps in ${ }_{R} \boldsymbol{M o d}$, the functored maps $T(f), T(g)$ are also homotopic.

Proof. (i) A direct sum $M=A_{1} \oplus A_{2}$ is characterized by the equations in Proposition 2.16 (iv):

$$
\rho_{i} \iota_{i}=1_{M_{i}}, \rho_{i} \iota_{j}=0 \text { where } i \neq j, \iota_{1} \rho_{1}+\iota_{2} \rho_{2}=1_{M}
$$

where $\iota_{n}: A_{n} \rightarrow M$ and $\rho_{n}: M \rightarrow A_{n}$. Since $T$ is a functor it preserves composition and the identity map and since $T$ is an additive functor it preserves addition and the zero map and so $T$ will preserve the above equations. [3, pg. 466, Prop. B-4.18, Ch B-4]
(ii) Let $T$ be a covariant functor then for a complex

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right)=\cdots \rightarrow A_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} A_{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} A_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots, \tag{62}
\end{equation*}
$$

we get the functored sequence

$$
\left(T \mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, T d_{\bullet}\right)=\cdots \rightarrow T\left(A_{n+1}\right) \xrightarrow{T\left(d_{n+1}\right)} T\left(A_{n}\right) \xrightarrow{T\left(d_{n}\right)} T\left(A_{n-1}\right) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

Since $T$ is an additve functor we then have

$$
T\left(d_{n}\right) T\left(d_{n+1}\right)=T\left(d_{n} d_{n+1}\right)=T(0)=0 .
$$

Let $T$ be a contravariant functor then the functored sequence will be

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(T \mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{\bullet}}, T d_{\bullet}\right)=\cdots \rightarrow T\left(A_{n-1}\right) \xrightarrow{T\left(d_{n}\right)} T\left(A_{n}\right) \xrightarrow{T\left(d_{n+1}\right)} T\left(A_{n+1}\right) \rightarrow \cdots \tag{63}
\end{equation*}
$$

However, the sequence (63) have increasing indices which is in conflict with the definition of a complex. We can fix this by setting $X_{-n}=T\left(A_{n}\right)$ and $\delta_{-n+1}=T\left(d_{n}\right)$ to get the sequence

$$
\left(T \mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, T d_{\bullet}\right)=\cdots \rightarrow X_{-n+1} \xrightarrow{\delta_{-n+1}} X_{-n} \xrightarrow{\delta_{-n}} X_{-n-1} \rightarrow \cdots,
$$

and just as in the definition of a cochain complex, Definition 4.4 (ii), we change the indices to positive and put them as a superscript;

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(T \mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, T d_{\bullet}\right)=\cdots \rightarrow X^{n-1} \xrightarrow{\delta^{n-1}} X^{n} \xrightarrow{\delta^{n}} X^{n+1} \rightarrow \cdots \tag{64}
\end{equation*}
$$

We then get

$$
\delta^{n} \delta^{n-1}=\delta_{-n} \delta_{-n+1}=T\left(d_{n+1}\right) T\left(d_{n}\right)=T\left(d_{n} d_{n+1}\right)=T(0)=0 .
$$

and (64) is a cochain complex. [4, pg.258, Ex. C-3.34 (ix, x) Ch. C-3.4]
(iii) Let $T$ be an additive covariant functor, let ( $\mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}$ ) be the complex (62) and ( $\mathbf{B}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ ) be a similar positive complex and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow\left(\mathbf{B}_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right) \tag{65}
\end{equation*}
$$

be a chain map. According to the definition of a covariant functor

$$
\left(T \mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, T d_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow\left(T \mathbf{B}_{\bullet}, T d_{\bullet}\right)
$$

is a chain map where ( $T \mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, T d_{\bullet}$ ) are (positive) chain complexes according to (ii). According to definition 4.11 homotopic chainmaps $f, g:\left(\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{\bullet}}, d_{\mathbf{\bullet}}\right) \rightarrow\left(\mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{\bullet}}, d_{\mathbf{\bullet}}^{\prime}\right)$ are defined by the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{n}-f_{n}=d_{n+1}^{\prime} s_{n}+s_{n-1} d_{n}, \tag{66}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $s_{n}: A_{n} \rightarrow B_{n+1}$. Since $T$ is an additive covariant functor it will map equation (66) to

$$
T\left(g_{n}\right)-T\left(f_{n}\right)=T\left(d_{n+1}^{\prime}\right) T\left(s_{n}\right)+T\left(s_{n-1} T\left(d_{n}\right),\right.
$$

where $T\left(s_{n}\right): T\left(A_{n}\right) \rightarrow T\left(B_{n+1}\right)$. And this makes $T(f), T(g)$ homotopic chain maps. Let $F$ be an additive contravariant functor. According to the definition of a contravariant functor $F$ maps (65) to

$$
\left(F \mathbf{B}_{\bullet}, F d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(F \mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, F d_{\bullet}\right)
$$

where, according to $(\mathrm{ii}),\left(F \mathbf{B}_{\bullet}, F d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ and $\left(F \mathbf{A}_{\bullet}, F d_{\bullet}\right)$ are cochain complexes. Since $F$ is additive equation (66) is mapped to

$$
F\left(f_{n}\right)-F\left(g_{n}\right)=F\left(s_{n}\right) F\left(d_{n+1}^{\prime}\right)+F\left(d_{n}\right) F\left(s_{n-1}\right)
$$

where $F\left(s_{n}\right): F\left(B_{n+1}\right) \rightarrow F\left(A_{n}\right)$ and so, according to Definition 4.11, $F(f)$ and $F(g)$ are homotopic.

Additive Functors preserve complexes but not necessarily exactness, when they do they are called exact functors.

Definition 6.13. (i) A covariant functor is called left exact if exactness of

$$
0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{p} C
$$

implies exactness of

$$
0 \rightarrow T(A) \xrightarrow{T(i)} T(B) \xrightarrow{T(p)} T(C) .
$$

(ii) A contravariant functor is called left exact if exactness of

$$
A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{p} C \rightarrow 0
$$

implies exactness of

$$
0 \rightarrow T(C) \xrightarrow{T(p)} T(B) \xrightarrow{T(i)} T(A) .
$$

(iii) A functor of either variance is called exact if all the above sequences are extended to short exact sequences.

### 6.3 Products of Categories and Bifunctors

There exists products of categories. Let $\mathcal{B}$ and $\mathcal{C}$ be two categories, let the sequence

$$
B \xrightarrow{f} B^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f^{\prime}} B^{\prime \prime}
$$

of objects and morphisms belong to $\mathcal{B}$ and let the sequence

$$
C \xrightarrow{g} C^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g^{\prime}} C^{\prime \prime}
$$

belong to $\mathcal{C}$. The product $\mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{C}$ is a category whose objects are pairs $\langle B, C\rangle$ and whose morphisms are pairs $\langle f, g\rangle$. The composition,

$$
\langle B, C\rangle \xrightarrow{\left\langle f^{\prime}, g^{\prime}\right\rangle}\left\langle B^{\prime}, C^{\prime}\right\rangle \xrightarrow{\langle f, g\rangle}\left\langle B^{\prime \prime}, C^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle
$$

in $\mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{C}$ is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\langle f, g\rangle\left\langle f^{\prime}, g^{\prime}\right\rangle=\left\langle f f^{\prime}, g g^{\prime}\right\rangle \tag{67}
\end{equation*}
$$

As per Definition 6.4 (i), $\mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{C}$ is a product of categories if there exists a category $\mathcal{D}$ and functors $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ such that the diagram

commutes and in which $F$ is a unique functor, mapping any morphism $h$ in $\mathcal{D}$ to $\langle L h, R h\rangle \in$ $\mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{C}$.

A bifunctor $S$ is a functor $\mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{C} \longrightarrow \mathcal{D}$ of two arguments determined by the set of one-argument functors $S_{B}$ and $S_{C}$ fixing $B$ and $C$ respectively for all objects $\langle B, C\rangle$ : Define functors

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S_{B}: \mathcal{C} \longrightarrow \mathcal{D} \\
& S_{C}: \mathcal{B} \longrightarrow \mathcal{D}
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $C \in \mathcal{C}$ and all $B \in \mathcal{B}$ where

$$
S_{B}(C)=S_{C}(B)
$$

Let $f: B \rightarrow B^{\prime} \in \mathcal{B}$ and $g: C \rightarrow C^{\prime} \in \mathcal{C}$ then there exists a bifunctor $S: \mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{C} \longrightarrow \mathcal{D}$ such that

$$
\begin{align*}
S_{B}(C) & =S(B, C)  \tag{68}\\
S_{B}(g) & =S\left(i d_{B}, g\right) \tag{69}
\end{align*}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{C}(B) & =S(B, C) \\
S_{C}(f) & =S\left(f, i d_{C}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{B^{\prime}}(g) S_{C}(f)=S_{C^{\prime}}(f) S_{B}(g) \in \mathcal{D} \tag{70}
\end{equation*}
$$

Assume $S$ is a bifunctor. Using the definition (67) of composition in $\mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{C}$ we have

$$
\left\langle i d_{B^{\prime}}, g\right\rangle\left\langle f, i d_{C}\right\rangle=\left\langle i d_{B^{\prime}} f, g i d_{C}\right\rangle=\langle f, g\rangle=\left\langle f i d_{B}, i d_{C^{\prime}} g\right\rangle=\left\langle f, i d_{C^{\prime}}\right\rangle\left\langle i d_{B}, g\right\rangle
$$

which gives us

$$
S\left(i d_{B^{\prime}}, g\right) S\left(f, i d_{C}\right)=S\left(f, i d_{C^{\prime}}\right) S\left(i d_{B}, g\right)
$$

in $\mathcal{D}$ which is the same as (70). Conversely, given functors $S_{B}$ and $S_{C}$ for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$ and all $C \in \mathcal{C}$, for every pair $\langle f, g\rangle$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{B^{\prime}}(g) S_{C}(f)=S\left(i d_{B^{\prime}}, g\right) S\left(f, i d_{C}\right) & =S\left(\left(i d_{B^{\prime}}, g\right)\left(f, i d_{C}\right)\right) \\
& =S\left(i d_{B^{\prime}} f, g i d_{C}\right) \\
& =S(f, g) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly we have $S_{C^{\prime}}(f) S_{B}(g)=S(f, g)$ and so equation (70) implies the functor $S$.
[5, pg. 36-38, Proposition 1, Sec. II Construction on Categories, Subsec. 3. Products of Categories]

### 6.4 Opposite Categories

Given a categorical statement, its dual statement is a statement arising from reversing directions of morphisms. If a statement is depicted by a commutative digram its dual is a commutative diagram where all the arrows are reversed. For example is the dual of a categorical product $P$ in Definition 6.4(i) the coproduct $S$ in $6.4(i i)$ and the dual of the initial object $A$ in $6.3(i)$ is the terminal object $\Omega$ in $6.3(i i)$. The statements defining a category all have duals. The dual of Definition 6.1(iii) regarding composition is the reversal of the commutative diagram (56), which is the commutative diagram


The duals of axioms 6.1 (3) and 6.1 (1) regarding associativity of composition and identity are the reversals of the commutative diagrams (57) and (58) which are the commutative diagrams

and


The above diagrams are as valid as the original which implies that any dual of a categorical statement based on Definition 6.1 is as valid as the original. This is called the duality principle. The duality principle can be applied to statements involving several categories and functors between them where statements of each category are simultaneously dualized. [5, pg. 31-32, Duality, Construction on Categories]

The duality principle allows us to associate each category $\mathcal{C}$ with an opposite category $\mathcal{C}^{o p}$ where the morphisms are reversed and where each statement is a dual to a statement in $\mathcal{C}$.

Definition 6.14. Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a category, then the associated opposite category $\mathcal{C}^{o p}$ is a category whose objects are the objects of $\mathcal{C}$ and whose morphisms are in one-to-one correspondence to the morphisms of $\mathcal{C}$ : For each morphism

$$
f: A \rightarrow B
$$

in $\mathcal{C}$, there is an opposite, reversed, morphism

$$
f^{o p}: B \rightarrow A
$$

in $\mathcal{C}^{o p}$. Let $g: B \rightarrow C$ be a morphism in $\mathcal{C}$. The composite $f^{o p} g^{o p}$ is defined

$$
f^{o p} g^{o p}=(g f)^{o p}
$$

and exists exactly when $g f$ is defined in $\mathcal{C}$.
Any categorical statement about $\mathcal{C}$ generate a dual statement in $\mathcal{C}^{o p}$ and a dual statement is true in $\mathcal{C}^{o p}$ if and only if the original statement is true in $\mathcal{C}$. [5, pg. 33, Contravariance and opposites, Construction on Categories]

Example 6.15. The opposite of ${ }_{R} \mathbf{M o d},{ }_{R} \mathbf{M o d}^{o p}$, is an additive category. According to Definition 6.14 if $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ there exists a homomorphism $\varphi^{o p} \in \operatorname{Hom}(B, A)$. It follows immediately from Definition 2.5 that $\operatorname{Hom}(B, A)$ is an additive group and that the distributive law holds. We also want to show that the zero-object, products and coproducts exists in ${ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod}^{o p}$ : Since we have that the initial object and the terminal object are duals the zero-object exists in ${ }_{R} \mathbf{M o d}^{o p}$ and is the same as in ${ }_{R}$ Mod. For the same reason do products and coproducts exist in ${ }_{R}$ Mod $^{o p}$ : Since coproducts and products are duals and since they exist and coincide in ${ }_{R}$ Mod they exist and coincide in ${ }_{R}$ Mod $^{o p}$.

Contravariant functors $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ are often defined as covariant functors $\mathcal{C}^{o p} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$. Define a covariant functor $S: \mathcal{C}^{o p} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ we then have that

$$
f^{o p}: D \rightarrow C \in \mathcal{C}^{o p}
$$

is mapped covariantly

$$
S\left(f^{o p}\right): S(D) \rightarrow S(C) \in \mathcal{D}
$$

and compositions are mapped

$$
S\left(f^{o p} g^{o p}\right)=S\left(f^{o p}\right) S\left(g^{o p}\right)
$$

given that $f^{o p} g^{o p}$ exists in $\mathcal{C}^{o p}$. Since we have defined the functor $S$ on $\mathcal{C}^{o p}$ we may also define it on $\mathcal{C}$. Let $\bar{S}: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ be the functor $S$ defined on $\mathcal{C}$ then

$$
\bar{S}(f)=S\left(f^{o p}\right)
$$

and

$$
\bar{S}(f) \bar{S}(g)=S\left(f^{o p}\right) S\left(g^{o p}\right)
$$

which makes $\bar{S}$ a contravariant functor since

$$
f: C \rightarrow D \in \mathcal{C}
$$

is mapped

$$
\bar{S}(f): \bar{S}(D) \rightarrow \bar{S}(C) \in \mathcal{D}
$$

and composition is mapped

$$
\bar{S}(g f)=\bar{S}(f) \bar{S}(g)
$$

[5, pg. 33, Contravariance and opposites, Construction on Categories]
We can use the above and define an additive contravariant functor ${ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod} \rightarrow{ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod}$ 'covariantly' as an additive functor ${ }_{R} \mathbf{M o d}^{o p} \rightarrow{ }_{R} \mathbf{M o d}$.

Definition 6.16. Let $\bar{T}:{ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod} \rightarrow{ }_{R}$ Mod be an additive contravariant functor. Define an additive covariant functor

$$
T:{ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod}^{o p} \rightarrow{ }_{R} \text { Mod }
$$

where $T$ maps elements $A \in{ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod}^{o p}$ to elements $\bar{T}(A) \in{ }_{R}$ Mod and homomorphisms

$$
f^{o p}: A \rightarrow B
$$

in ${ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod}^{o p}$ to homomorphisms

$$
\bar{T}(f): \bar{T}(A) \rightarrow \bar{T}(B)
$$

in ${ }_{R}$ Mod. Composition is mapped

$$
T\left(f^{o p} g^{o p}\right)=\bar{T}(f) \bar{T}(g)
$$

The properties of $T$ follows from the properties of $\bar{T}$. Even though $T$ technically is a covariant functor, it is regarded as and referred to as an contravariant functor. In the next section we will define the contravariant Hom functor as a functor ${ }_{R} \mathbf{M o d}^{o p} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$.

## 7 Functors Hom, $\mathbf{H}^{n}$ and Derived Functors Ext

We will begin this section by defining the additive contravariant bifunctor $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, D)$ and the cohomology functor $H^{n}$. Then, using these definitions, we will continue to define the Right Derived Functors of Hom: $\mathbf{E x t}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)$. We will show and then state the axioms characterizing $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)$ which we will use to show some computations of Ext-groups. As an application of $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)$ we will characterize injective modules and we will finally define the bijection between $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$ and the set of extension classes of the extension $A$ by $C$.

### 7.1 Functors Hom and $\mathbf{H}^{n}$

In section 3.2 we defined homomorphisms of hom-sets $\varphi^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}(N, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M, D)$ derived from $R$-module homomorphisms $\varphi: M \rightarrow N$ and in section 5 we defined homomorphisms of cohomology groups, $H^{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ derived from chain maps of complexes $f: \mathbf{C} \bullet \rightarrow \mathbf{C}^{\prime}$. We will now show that these definitions constitutes functorial mappings.

### 7.1.1 The Contravariant Hom functor

Using Proposition 3.11 we can define a bifunctor in ${ }_{R}$ Mod. Let $\varphi: M \longrightarrow N$ be an homomorphism in ${ }_{R}$ Mod and let $D$ be an $R$-module. Define a bifunctor

$$
T:{ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod} \times{ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}
$$

by

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(M, D) & =\operatorname{Hom}(M, D), \\
T\left(\varphi, i d_{D}\right) & =\varphi^{*}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\varphi^{*}$ is the homomorphism defined in Proposition 3.11. If we fix the module $D$, Proposition 3.11 and the text following shows that $T$ maps the sequence

$$
L \xrightarrow{\psi} M \xrightarrow{\varphi} N
$$

to the sequence

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D) \xrightarrow{\varphi^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D) \xrightarrow{\psi^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(L, D)
$$

making $T$ a bifunctor contravariant in the first argument.
Since $D$ is fixed we can view $T$ as a contravariant functor $T^{D}:{ }_{R} \mathbf{M o d} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ of one argument, similar to the functor (69) in the section before. Alongside $T^{D}$ there exist a functor

$$
T_{D}:{ }_{R} \mathbf{M o d} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}
$$

similar to (68) for which the equality (70) holds making $T$ a bifunctor. This is the covariant Hom-functor $\operatorname{Hom}(B, \square)$ which we are not including in this text. [5, pg. 38, Sec. II Construction on Categories, Subsec. 3. Products of Categories]

Proposition 7.1. Let $B \in{ }_{R}$ Mod then
(i) $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, B)$ is a contravariant additive functor, $T^{B}:{ }_{R} \boldsymbol{M o d}^{\boldsymbol{o p}} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{b}$, defined for all objects $C \in{ }_{R}$ Mod by

$$
\begin{aligned}
T^{B}:{ }_{R} \boldsymbol{M o d}^{\boldsymbol{o p}} & \rightarrow \boldsymbol{A b} \\
C & \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}(C, B),
\end{aligned}
$$

and defined for $f: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$ in ${ }_{R}$ Mod by

$$
\begin{aligned}
T^{B}\left(f^{o p}\right): \operatorname{Hom}\left(C^{\prime}, B\right) & \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(C, B) \\
h & \mapsto h f .
\end{aligned}
$$

We will denote $T^{B}\left(f^{o p}\right)$ by $f^{*}$.
(ii) $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, B)$ is a left exact functor; if the sequence

$$
L \rightarrow M \rightarrow N \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact in ${ }_{R}$ Mod is the sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(N, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(L, B)
$$

exact.
(iii) $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, B)$ is an exact functor if and only if $B$ is an injective module: The sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(N, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(M, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(L, B) \rightarrow 0
$$

is a short exact sequence whenever

$$
0 \rightarrow L \rightarrow M \rightarrow N \rightarrow 0
$$

is a short exact sequence in ${ }_{R}$ Mod and if and only if $B$ is injective.
Proof. (i) The mappings of objects and morphisms are shown in Proposition 3.11 and its proof. We need to show that composition is preserved and that identity is mapped to identity and finally that additivity is preserved. Let $C, C^{\prime}, C^{\prime \prime}$ and $B$ be $R$-modules and let $h$ be any map in Hom $\left(C^{\prime \prime}, B\right)$. Consider the diagram of $R$-module homomorphisms below,


We have that

$$
g^{*}: h \rightarrow h g
$$

and so

$$
f^{*} g^{*}: h \rightarrow h g \rightarrow(h g) f
$$

and since

$$
(g f)^{*}: h \rightarrow h(g f)=(h g) f
$$

$(g f)^{*}=f^{*} g^{*}$ and we have shown composition. For the identity mapping, let $1_{C}$ : $C \rightarrow C$ be the identity map then $1_{C}^{*}: h \rightarrow h$ for any map $h \in \operatorname{Hom}(C, B)$ since,

$$
1_{C}^{*}: h \rightarrow h 1_{C}=h
$$

and we have shown that $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, B)$ is a functor. What is left to show is additivity. Let $f, g: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$ and let $h \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(C^{\prime}, B\right)$ be any homomorphism. From Proposition 2.5 (iii) we get that

$$
h(f+g)=h f+h g
$$

that is

$$
(f+g)^{*}=f^{*}+g^{*}
$$

and so $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, B)$ is an additive functor. [2, pg. 20, Example. 1.10, Ch 1.2], [2, pg. 40, Proposition 2.5, Ch 2.1]
(ii) - (iii) Follows from Theorem 3.12 and Corollary 3.14.

### 7.1.2 The Cohomology Functor $H^{n}$

We will now use Propositions 5.4 and 5.5 to define the functor $H^{n}$.
Proposition 7.2. The cohomology functor, denoted $H^{n}$, is an additive functor $H^{n}$ : $\boldsymbol{\operatorname { C o m p }}\left({ }_{R} \mathbf{M o d}\right) \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, defined for all objects $\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}=\left(C_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \in{ }_{R} \boldsymbol{C o m p}$ by

$$
\begin{aligned}
H^{n}: \mathbf{C o m p}\left({ }_{R} \mathbf{M o d}\right) & \rightarrow \mathbf{A b} \\
C & \mapsto \text { ker } d_{n} / \text { Image } d_{n-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

for every $C_{n}$ in $\mathbf{C}_{\bullet}$. And defined for all chain maps $f:\left(C_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ where $f_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow$ $C_{n}^{\prime}$ by

$$
H^{n}(f): z_{n}+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1} \mapsto f_{n}\left(z_{n}\right)+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}^{\prime}
$$

for every $z_{n} \in C^{n}$.
Proof. The morphisms are welldefined according to Proposition 5.4. In Proposition 5.5(i) and (ii) we have shown that identity and composition are preserved. Lastly $H^{n}$ is additive since group homomorphisms are additive: Let $\left.f, g: C_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, d_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ be two chain maps, then we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{n}(f+g): z+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1} & \mapsto\left(f_{n}+g_{n}\right) z+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}^{\prime} \\
& =\left(f_{n}(z)+g_{n}(z)\right)+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}^{\prime} \\
& =\left(H_{n}(f)+H_{n}(g)\right)\left(z+\operatorname{Im} d_{n-1}^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. [4, pg. 263-264, Proposition C-3.37, Ch. C-3.5]

### 7.2 Ext Groups and Right Derived Functors Ext

The contravariant functors $\mathbf{E x t}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)$ are a set of functors ${ }_{R} \mathbf{M o d} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$, called the right derived functors for $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\square, D)$. They are a composition of functors $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\square, D)$ and $H^{n}$ applied on the projective resolution of a module $A$, that is $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)(A)=\mathbf{E x t}_{R}^{n}(A, D)$ generate cohomology groups derived from a complex of Hom-groups which in turn are derived from the projective resolution of the module $A$.

Let us start with the projective resolution of an $R$-module $A$ and let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{P}_{A}=\cdots \longrightarrow P_{n} \xrightarrow{d_{n}} P_{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}} \ldots \xrightarrow{d_{1}} P_{0} \xrightarrow{\epsilon} 0 \tag{72}
\end{equation*}
$$

be the deleted projective resolution of $A$. Apply $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\square, D)$, since $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\square, D)$ is an additive contravariant functor, see Proposition 7.1, and the sequence (72) is a chain complex the functored sequence is the cochain complex,

$$
0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P_{0}, D\right) \xrightarrow{d_{1}^{*}} \ldots \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P_{n-1}, D\right) \xrightarrow{d_{n}^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P_{n}, D\right) \longrightarrow \ldots
$$

The $n^{\text {th }}$ cohomology group of the sequence above is called $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(A, D)$ indicating that it is derived specifically from a complex emerging from the projective resolution of $A$ after being mapped by the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\square, D)$.

Definition 7.3. Let $A$ and $D$ be $R$-modules. Let $\mathbf{P}_{A}$ be the deleted resolution (72) and let

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P_{0}, D\right) \xrightarrow{d_{1}^{*}} \ldots \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P_{n-1}, D\right) \xrightarrow{d_{n}^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P_{n}, D\right) \longrightarrow \ldots \tag{73}
\end{equation*}
$$

be the cochain complex of abelian groups resulting from applying the functor $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\square, D)$ to each $P_{n} \in \mathbf{P}_{A}$. Define

$$
\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(A, D)=H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\mathbf{P}_{A}, D\right)\right)=\operatorname{ker} d_{n+1}^{*} / \operatorname{im} d_{n}^{*}
$$

to be the cohomology group derived from the $n^{\text {th }}$ element of (73).
Example 7.4. Let $A$ and $B$ be $\mathbb{Z}$-modules, we showed in Example 4.8 that a free resolution of $A$ is of the form

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \varphi \rightarrow F(X) \xrightarrow{\varphi} A \rightarrow 0
$$

which gives us a deleted resolution

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \varphi \rightarrow F(X) \rightarrow 0 \tag{74}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $F=F(X)$ and $K=\operatorname{ker} \varphi$, if apply $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\square, B)$ to (74) we get

$$
0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(F, B) \xrightarrow{d_{1}^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(K, B) \xrightarrow{d_{2}^{*}} 0
$$

which gives us the groups $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{0}(A, B)=\operatorname{ker} d_{1}^{*}$ and $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(A, B)=\operatorname{ker} d_{2}^{*} / \mathrm{im} d_{1}^{*}$ and we get $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{n}(A, B)=0$ for all $n>1$.

Since $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\square, D)$ is a left exact functor it maps the first modules of the resolution of $A$, which is the exact sequence

$$
P_{1} \xrightarrow{d_{1}} P_{0} \xrightarrow{\epsilon} A \longrightarrow 0,
$$

to the exact sequence

$$
0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(A, D) \xrightarrow{\epsilon^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P_{0}, D\right) \xrightarrow{d_{1}^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(P_{1}, D\right)
$$

The exactness of the last sequence then gives us that $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(A, D) \cong \operatorname{im} \epsilon^{*}=\operatorname{ker} d_{1}^{*}$. According to definition we have that

$$
\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{0}(A, D)=\operatorname{ker} d_{1}^{*} / 0=\operatorname{ker} d_{1}^{*}
$$

and we get that $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{0}(A, D) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(A, D)$. We state the result in the Proposition below.
Proposition 7.5. For any $R$-module $A$ and $D$ we have that $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{0}(A, D) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(A, D)$ Proof. This follows from the text above.

Since any two chain maps $f, \hat{f}: \mathbf{P}_{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{P}_{A^{\prime}}^{\prime}$ over the same homomorphism $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ are homotopic, see Proposition 4.12, the induced chain maps $f^{*}, \hat{f}^{*}$ are also homotopic due to additive functors preserving homotopy, see Proposition 6.12. A consequence of this is that the cohomology groups $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(A, D)$ do not depend on the choice of resolution of $A$, that is if $\mathbf{P}_{A}$ and $\mathbf{P}_{A}^{\prime}$ are two different projective resolutions of $A, H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\mathbf{P}_{A}, D\right)\right)$ and $H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\mathbf{P}_{A}^{\prime}, D\right)\right)$ are canonically isomorphic.

Proposition 7.6. The groups $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(A, D)$ are independent of the choice of projective resolution of $A$.

Proof. Let $\mathbf{P}$ and $\mathbf{P}^{\prime}$ be two projective resolutions of the the module $A$ and let $g: \mathbf{P}_{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{P}^{\prime}{ }_{A}$ and $h: \mathbf{P}_{A}^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{P}_{A}$ be two chain maps over $1_{A}$ and consider the diagram below,


The compositions $h g$ and the identity chain map $1_{\mathbf{P}_{A}}$ are both chain maps $\mathbf{P}_{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{P}_{A}$ over $1_{A}$ and as such they are homotopic according to Proposition 4.12. In the same way are $g h$ and $1_{\mathbf{P}^{\prime}}{ }_{A}$ homotopic chain maps $\mathbf{P}_{A}^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{P}^{\prime}{ }_{A}$. Since $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, D)$ is a contravariant additive functor we have that

$$
(h g)^{*}=g^{*} h^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\mathbf{P}_{A}, D\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\mathbf{P}_{A}, D\right)
$$

is homotopic to $1_{\mathbf{P}_{A}}^{*}$ and that

$$
(g h)^{*}=h^{*} g^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\mathbf{P}_{A}^{\prime}, D\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\mathbf{P}_{A}^{\prime}, D\right)
$$

is homotopic to $1_{\mathbf{P}^{\prime} A_{A}}^{*}$ and, according to Proposition 5.5, $H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\mathbf{P}_{A}, D\right)\right) \cong$ $H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\mathbf{P}_{A}^{\prime}, D\right)\right)$.

Proposition 7.7. Let $P$ be a projective $R$-module and $D$ any $R$-module then $E x t_{R}^{n}(P, D)=$ 0 for $n \geq 1$.

Proof. Due to Proposition 7.6 we only need to show that the statement is true for some resolution of $P$. Since $P$ is projective a projective resolution of $P$ is

$$
\cdots \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow P \xrightarrow{1_{P}} P \longrightarrow 0
$$

which gives us the deleted resolution

$$
\mathbf{C}_{P}=\cdots \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow 0
$$

where every $C_{n}=0$ for $n \geq 1$. After applying $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, D)$ we get the complex

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(P, D) \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \cdots
$$

where every $H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\mathbf{C}_{P}, D\right)\right)=H^{n}(0)=0$ for $n \geq 1$. And $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(P, D)=0$ for $n \geq$ 1.

We will now define the right derived functors for Hom.
Proposition 7.8. Let $B$ be an R-module. The right derived functors for Hom, $\boldsymbol{E x t} t_{R}^{n}(\square, B), n \geq 0$, is a set of additive contravariant functors ${ }_{R} \mathbf{M o d} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$.

Ext $t_{R}^{n}(\square, B)$ is defined on objects $A \in{ }_{R}$ Mod by

$$
A \mapsto \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(A, B)
$$

where $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(A, B)=H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\mathbf{P}_{A}, B\right)\right)$ are the cohomology groups in Definition 7.3.
Ext $t_{R}^{n}(\square, B)$ is defined on morphisms $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime} \in{ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod}$ by

$$
\begin{gathered}
f \mapsto H^{n}\left(\hat{f}_{n}^{*}\right), \\
H^{n}\left(\hat{f}_{n}^{*}\right): H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\mathbf{C}_{A^{\prime}}, B\right)\right) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\mathbf{P}_{A}, B\right)\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

where $H^{n}$ is the cohomology functor in Proposition 7.2 and where $\hat{f}_{n}^{*}: \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n}, B\right) \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{n}, B\right)$ is the map induced by the lift $\hat{f}_{n}: P_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}$ in the chainmap $\hat{f}: \mathbf{P}_{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}_{A^{\prime}}$ where $\boldsymbol{C}_{A^{\prime}}$ is the deleted resolution of the module $A^{\prime}$.

Proof. That $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, B)$ is additive follows from Hom and $H^{n}$ being additive. That $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, B)$ is well defined follows from Hom and $H^{n}$ being well-defined functors together with Proposition 7.6 since by Proposition 7.6 the $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(A, B)$ groups are the same (canonically isomorphic) regardless of the choice of resolution of $A$. That $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, B)$ is contravariant follows from $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, D)$ being contravariant. Let

be the commutative diagram of projective resolutions constructed from $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$, see Proposition 4.10. Since $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, B)$ is an additive contravariant functor, applying Hom on diagram (75) generates a diagram where the rows and columns are reversed making it a chain map of cochain complexes:


By Proposition 7.2 we can apply $H^{n}$ and get a set of homomorphisms

$$
H^{n}\left(\hat{f}^{*}\right): \operatorname{ker} d_{n}^{*} / \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}^{\prime *} \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} d_{n}^{*} / \operatorname{im} d_{n-1}^{*}
$$

which according to Definition 7.3 is the same as

$$
H^{n}\left(\hat{f}^{*}\right): \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(A, B)
$$

and $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, B)$ are contravariant functors.

### 7.2.1 The Long Exact Sequence of Ext Groups

Next we will use the Horseshoe Lemma (Lemma 4.13) and the Long Exact Sequence in Cohomology (Theorem 5.6) to derive a long exact sequence of Ext groups. Take the projective resolution of modules $L$ and $N$ in the short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow L \rightarrow M \rightarrow N \rightarrow 0$, according to the Horseshoe Lemma there exists a short exact sequence of complexes whose columns are complexes and rows are split,


If we replace the first row with zeroes, turning the columns into deleted resolutions, we still have a short exact sequence of complexes since deleted resolutions are still complexes and the remaining rows are still short exact sequences:


Next we apply $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\square, D)$ to the diagram above and get the diagram

where we have left out the stars on induced maps to simplify notation. By Proposition 6.12 the diagram (76) is also a short exact complex: The columns are cochain complexes since $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\square, D)$ turns chain complexes into cochain complexes, and the rows are split exact since

$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{n}^{\prime} \oplus P_{n}^{\prime \prime}, D\right)=\operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{n}^{\prime}, D\right) \oplus \operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{n}^{\prime \prime}, D\right)
$$

due to $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(\square, D)$ preserving direct sums. By Theorem 5.6 there now exists a long exact sequence of cohomology groups,

$$
0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{ker} d^{\prime \prime 1} / 0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{ker} d^{1} / 0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{ker} d^{\prime 1} / 0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{ker} d^{\prime \prime 2} / \operatorname{im} d^{\prime \prime 1} \longrightarrow
$$

$\longrightarrow$ ker $d^{2} / \operatorname{im} d^{1} \longrightarrow$ ker $d^{\prime 2} / \operatorname{im} d^{1} \longrightarrow \operatorname{ker} d^{\prime \prime 3} / \operatorname{im} d^{\prime 2} \longrightarrow \operatorname{ker} d^{3} / \operatorname{im} d^{2} \longrightarrow \cdots$ which, according to Definition 7.3 and Proposition 7.5, is the same as

$$
\begin{gathered}
0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(N, D) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, D) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(L, D) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(N, D) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(M, D) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(L, D) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{2}(N, D) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{2}(M, D) \longrightarrow \cdots .
\end{gathered}
$$

We will summarize the above in the next theorem which also characterizes the right derived functors $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)[2$, pg. 373, Theorem 6.64, Ch. 6.2].

Theorem 7.9. Let $E x t_{R}^{n}(\square, D):{ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{A b}$ be the right derived functor of Hom defined in Proposition 7.8. Then
(i) for every short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0
$$

of left $R$-modules there is a long exact sequence and a connecting homomorphisms

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(C, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(B, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(A, D) \xrightarrow{\delta_{n}} \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n+1}(C, D) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

(ii) where $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{0}(\square, D)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, D)$ are equivalent and where
(iii) $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(P, D)=0$ for all modules $D$ and all projective modules $P$.

Proof. The first statement follows from the text above, the second and third is Proposition 7.5 and Proposition 7.7

Theroem 7.9 can be used in determining Ext-groups whose arguments are finitely generated $\mathbb{Z}$-modules. Let $A$ and $B$ be $\mathbb{Z}$-modules. In Example 7.4 we showed that the only nonzero $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{n}(A, B)$-groups are $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{0}(A, B)$ and $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(A, B)$ where $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{0}(A, B)=\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, B)$ by statement (iii) in the Theorem above. What is left to determine is $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(A, B)$. In Example 2.20 we stated that any finitely generated module over a $P I D$ can be decomposed into a direct sum of cyclic groups, in particular finitely generated $\mathbb{Z}$-modules have a unique decomposition of cyclic modules. We assume that $A$ is finitely generated and $B$ is cyclic. Since $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)$ preserves direct sums we can compute $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(A, B)$ by decomposing $A$ into a direct sum of cyclic submodules $C$, the group $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(A, B)$ is then the direct sum of groups $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(C, B)$ which we can determine using the statements below.

## Example 7.10.

(i) $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{n}(\mathbb{Z}, B)=0, n>0$ and where $B$ is any $\mathbb{Z}$-module.
(ii) $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$.
(iii) $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z} / g \mathbb{Z}$ where $g=\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)$.
(i) This follows from Theorem 7.9 (iii), since $\mathbb{Z}$ is a free module and as such projective.
(ii) The projective resolution of $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ is a short exact sequence

$$
0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{n} \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0
$$

(Example 4.8) where $n$ is the homorphisms multiplying each element in $\mathbb{Z}$ by $n$. By Theorem 7.9 (i) there exists an exact sequence,

$$
0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{n^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow 0
$$

where $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z})=0$ due to (i). In particular is

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{n^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow 0
$$

exact. Since $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and $n^{*}$ is multiplication by $n$, there exists an exact sequence

$$
\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{n} \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow 0
$$

Using the First Isomorphism Theorem we then get $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$.
(iii) This example follows the one above. The projective resolution of $\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}$ is a short exact sequence

$$
0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{m} \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow 0
$$

Theorem $7.9(i)$ gives us an exact sequence of Ext-groups:

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{m^{*}} \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow 0
$$

where $\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})$ is zero due to (i). Using Example 2.6(i) we get an exact sequence

$$
\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{m} \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow 0
$$

and so

$$
\operatorname{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{1}(\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}) \cong(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}) / m(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})=\mathbb{Z} / g \mathbb{Z}
$$

To show the last equality: Let $G=\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$, and $m G=m(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})$ and let $t$ be the order of $m G$. Let $m=l g$ and $n=k g$ where $g=\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)$ where $k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$. We will show that $t=k$ which leads to $|G / m G|=|G| /|m G|=g$ implying that $G / m G$ is a cyclic group of order $g$. First we show that $t \mid k$ : Since $\operatorname{gcd}(l, k)=1$ we have that $k g l=l c m(m, n)$ and since $k g l=k m$, we get that $k(m x)=0$ and so $t \mid k$. Next we show that $k \mid t$ : We have that $t(m x)=0_{\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}}$ and so $n \mid t m$ which implies $k \mid t l$ and since $\operatorname{gcd}(k, l)=1$ we get that $k \mid t$. And so $t=k$.

We can use $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)$ to characterize injective modules. Consider Diagram (76), if we let $D$ be an injective module then according to Proposition $7.1(i i i)$ the columns of the diagram would be not only complexes but also exact at every group $\operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{n}, D\right)$ where $n \geq 1$. In other words, given an injective module $D$ the $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)$ groups where $n \geq 1$ are all zero. Proposition $7.1(i i i)$ is an if and only if statement which means that the converse is also true: if $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(N, D)=0$ for all $R$-modules $N$ then $D$ is an injective module and if $D$ is injective then the following $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(\square, D)$ groups are also zero. We have the equivalent statements of the Proposition below characterizing injective modules.

Proposition 7.11. The following are equivalent.
(i) $D$ is injective.
(ii) $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(N, D)=0$ for all $R$-modules $N$.
(iii) $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(N, D)=0$ for all $R$-modules $N$ and $n \geq 1$.
[1, pg. 784, Proposition 9, Sec. 17.1]
In the last part of this text we will show that there is a bijection between the cohomology group $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$ and the set of equivalence classes of extensions $A$ by $C$.

### 7.2.2 Bijection of $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$ and $e(C, A)$

In section 3 we defined equivalent extensions $A$ by $C$ as two extensions making the diagram

commute. We will now show, using Lemma 3.9 that there is a bijection between the set of equivalence classes of extensions $A$ by $C$ and the group $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$.
Theorem 7.12. For any $R$-modules $C$ and $A$ there is a bijection between the group $E x t_{R}^{n}(C, A)$ and the set of equivalence classes of extensions $A$ by $C$.

Proof. Define

$$
e(C, A)=\{[\xi] \mid \xi \text { is an extension of } A \text { by } C\} .
$$

We will first define the map

$$
\psi: e(C, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)
$$

and then construct its inverse

$$
\theta: \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A) \rightarrow e(C, A)
$$

Let

$$
\mathbf{P}=\rightarrow P_{2} \xrightarrow{d_{2}} P_{1} \xrightarrow{d_{1}} P_{0} \longrightarrow C \rightarrow 0
$$

be a projective resolution of a module $C$ and remember that

$$
\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)=\operatorname{ker} d_{2}^{*} / \operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*}
$$

where $d_{2}^{*}$ is the homomorphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{1}, A\right) & \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{2}, A\right) \\
\alpha_{1} & \mapsto \alpha_{1} d_{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $[\xi]=0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ be an extension class $A$ by $C$ and consider the diagram


From Proposition 4.10 we get that there exists a chain map $\alpha_{n}$ over $1_{C}$ since the first row is projective and the second row is exact. Since $\alpha_{n}$ is a chain map the diagram commutes and we have that $\alpha_{1} d_{2}=0$, that is $\alpha_{1} \in \operatorname{ker} d_{2}^{*}$ and we can now define $\psi$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\psi: e(C, A) & \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A) \\
{[\xi] } & \mapsto \alpha_{1}+\operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose $\mathbf{Q}=\cdots \rightarrow P_{2} \rightarrow P_{1} \xrightarrow{t_{1}} P_{0} \rightarrow C$ is another resolution of $C$ we would then have a chain map $\beta: \mathbf{Q} \rightarrow \xi$ and a homomorphis $\beta_{1}: Q_{1} \rightarrow A$ and we could define $\psi$ as

$$
[\xi] \mapsto \beta_{1}+\operatorname{im} t_{1}^{*}
$$

However, since any two resolutions of $C$ gives rise to isomorphic groups $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{n}(C, A)$, see Proposition 7.6 , we have an isomorphism $\pi$ such that

$$
\pi\left(\beta_{1}+\operatorname{im} t_{1}^{*}\right)=\alpha_{1}+\operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*}
$$

and the map $\psi$ is independent of the resolution. We need to show that $\psi$ does not depend on the chain map $\alpha_{n}$. Proposition 4.12 states that any two chain maps over $1_{C}$ are homotopic, this means that given a chain map $\alpha_{n}^{\prime}$,

there exists maps $s_{1}: P_{1} \rightarrow 0$ and $s_{0}: P_{0} \rightarrow A$ such that

$$
\alpha^{\prime}-\alpha=0 s_{1}+s_{0} d_{1}=s_{0} d_{1}
$$

and $\alpha-\alpha^{\prime} \in \operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*}$ and so $\alpha+\operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*}=\alpha_{1}^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*}$ and we have shown that $\psi$ does not depend on the chain map $\alpha_{n}$. We also need to show that $\psi$ does not depend on the extension $\xi$. Consider the diagram below where the two bottom rows are equivalent extensions,


Since equivalent extensions implies commutating diagrams we can view the equivalence of the rows as a chain map and the chain map $\mathbf{P} \rightarrow \xi^{\prime}$ as the composition $\mathbf{P} \rightarrow \xi \rightarrow \xi^{\prime}$ and so $\psi\left(\xi^{\prime}\right)=1_{A} \alpha+\operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*}=\alpha+\operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*}=\psi(\xi)$.

We will now construct the inverse of $\psi$ :

$$
\theta: \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A) \rightarrow e(C, A)
$$

Let $u \in \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$, choose a projective resolution to $C$ and choose a homomorphism $\alpha_{1}: P_{1} \rightarrow A$, such that $\alpha_{1}+\operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*}$ represents the coset $u$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{P}=\longrightarrow P_{2} \xrightarrow{d_{2}} P_{1} \xrightarrow{d_{1}} P_{0} \xrightarrow{d_{0}} C \longrightarrow 0 \tag{79}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\alpha_{1} \in \operatorname{ker} d_{2}^{*}$ we have that $\alpha_{1} d_{2}=0_{A}$ and $\alpha_{1}$ induces a homomorphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
\bar{\alpha}_{1}: P_{1} / \operatorname{im} d_{2} & \rightarrow A \\
x_{1}+\operatorname{im~} d_{2} & \mapsto \alpha_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $x_{1} \in P_{1}$. Given the resolution $\mathbf{P}$ in diagram (79) we have by the First Isomorphism Theorem that $P_{1} / \mathrm{im} d_{2} \cong \operatorname{im} d_{1}$ and by the exactness of $\mathbf{P}$ that im $d_{1}=$ ker $d_{0}$ and there exists a short exact sequence

$$
\Xi=0 \longrightarrow P_{1} / \operatorname{im} d_{2} \xrightarrow{\bar{d}_{1}} P_{0} \xrightarrow{d_{0}} C \longrightarrow 0,
$$

where $\bar{d}_{1}\left(x_{1}+\operatorname{im} d_{2}\right)=d_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)$. By Lemma 3.9 there exists a commutative diagram


We can now define the map $\theta$ where the cosets of $\operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$ maps to the equivalence class, $\left[\bar{\alpha}_{1} \Xi\right]$ which are all extensions $C$ by $A$ in the bottom row of ( 80 ) completing the diagram. Define $\theta$ as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\theta: \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A) & \rightarrow e(C, A) \\
\alpha_{1}+\operatorname{im~} d_{1}^{*} & \mapsto\left[\bar{\alpha}_{1} \Xi\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

We need to show that $\theta$ does not depend on the choice of homomorphism representing the coset $\alpha_{1}+\operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*}$, first note that the commutativity of diagram

implies diagram (80) and vice versa. We have that

$$
\alpha_{1}+\operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*}=\left\{\alpha_{1}+s d_{1} \mid s \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(P_{0}, A\right)\right\}
$$

and so any other representative for the coset is of the form $\alpha_{1}^{\prime}=\alpha_{1}+s d_{1}$. Consider the diagram

where the top row is the resolution chosen initially and the bottom row is the extension in diagram (80). This diagram commutes:

$$
\left(\alpha_{1}+s d_{1}\right) d_{2}=\alpha_{1} d_{2}+s d_{1} d_{2}=0_{A}
$$

and

$$
(\beta+i s) d_{1}=\beta d_{1}+i s d_{1}=i \alpha_{1}+i s d_{1}=i\left(\alpha_{1}+s d_{1}\right)
$$

and finally

$$
p(\beta+i s)=p \beta+p i s=d_{0}+p i s=d_{0}
$$

Since diagram (82) commutes we have that

commutes and so $\left[\bar{\alpha}_{1}^{\prime} \Xi\right]=\left[\bar{\alpha}_{1} \Xi\right]$ according to Lemma 3.9. We also have to show that $\theta \psi$ and $\psi \theta$ are identity maps. To show that $\psi \theta$ is an identity map, let $\alpha_{1}+\operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*} \in \operatorname{Ext}_{R}^{1}(C, A)$ then $\theta\left(\alpha_{1}+\operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*}\right)$ is the extension class consisting of the bottom rows of

which are the same sequences as the bottom row of the chain map $\alpha_{n}$ over $1_{C}$ starting with $\alpha_{1}$,


And so, from the definition of $\psi$ we get that $\psi \theta\left(\alpha_{1}+\operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*}\right)=\alpha_{1}+\operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*}$. For the reversed map, let $\xi$ be an extension of $C$ by $A$ then $\psi(\xi)=\alpha+\operatorname{im} d_{1}^{*}$ where $\alpha$ is a map

making the diagram commute. This implies there exists a diagram

and so $\xi \in[\alpha \Xi]$ and $\theta \psi(\xi)=[\alpha \Xi]$ is an identity map. [2, pg. 421-426, Theorem 7.30, Ch. 7.2]

## References

[1] Dummit, Foote Abstract Algebra,
[2] Rotman An Introduction to Homological Algebra,
[3] Rotman Advanced Modern Algebra, Part 1
[4] Rotman Advanced Modern Algebra, Part 2
[5] Saunders Mac Lane Categories for the Working Mathematician,
[6] StackExchange, https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/1200021/ m-to-m-to-m-to-0-exact-implies-0-to-texthomm-n-to-texthomm?rq=1

