

This is the main reason why we care about derived functors: $R^i F(x)$ measures how much F fails to be exact, and $R^{i+1} F(x)$ measures how much $R^i F(x)$ fails to be exact.

Proof: use horseshoe lemma to assume that $I_y = I_x \oplus I_z$ without loss of generality. Then

$$F(I_y) = F(I_x) \oplus F(I_z) \quad \Rightarrow \quad 0 \rightarrow F(I_x) \rightarrow F(I_y) \rightarrow F(I_z) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{is exact in } \mathbf{Ch}(D)$$

because short exact sequences are ~~preserved~~ by additive functors (regardless of exactness). The thesis follows applying the long exact sequence for cohomology. \square

A similar picture works for $L_i F$:

$$\begin{aligned} &\rightarrow L_2 F(x) \rightarrow L_2 F(y) \rightarrow L_2 F(z) \rightarrow \\ &\rightarrow L_1 F(x) \rightarrow L_1 F(y) \rightarrow L_1 F(z) \rightarrow Fx \rightarrow Fy \rightarrow Fz \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

Tohoku viewpoint (Grothendieck 1957): for \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{D} as above a δ -functor $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is a sequence of functors

$$T^i : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}, \quad i \geq 0$$

with natural transformations $T^i z \rightarrow T^{i+1} x$ for n.e.s. $0 \rightarrow x \rightarrow y \rightarrow z \rightarrow 0$ such that

$$0 \rightarrow T^0 x \rightarrow T^0 y \rightarrow T^0 z \rightarrow T^1 x \rightarrow T^1 y \rightarrow T^1 z \rightarrow \dots \quad \text{is exact.}$$

Is there a unique way to extend a given left-exact T^0 to a δ -functor? No. Is there a universal one? Yes. If (T^i) is a δ -functor, $\exists!$ natural transformation

$$R^i(T^0) \rightarrow T^i \quad (\text{if } \mathcal{C} \text{ has enough injectives})$$

Some examples of derived functors

(i) Let \mathcal{C} be any abelian category with enough injectives. $A \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$

$$\text{Hom}(A, \cdot) : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \text{Ab} \quad \text{is a left exact functor}$$

$$\text{We set } \text{Ext}_\mathcal{C}^i(A, B) = R^i(\text{Hom}_\mathcal{C}(A, \cdot))(B) \quad \text{this is a functor } \mathcal{C}^{\text{op}} \times \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \text{Ab}$$

If $A_1 \rightarrow A_2$ we get a natural transformation

$$\text{Hom}(A_2, \cdot) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A_1, \cdot)$$

and then a natural transformation between right derived functors $\text{Ext}^i(A_2, B) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^i(A_1, B)$.

General fact: a natural transformation $F_1 \rightarrow F_2$ between left exact functors yields a natural transformation

$$R^i(F_1) \rightarrow R^i(F_2) \quad \forall i$$

Prop: TFAE for $A \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$

- (i) A is projective
- (ii) $\text{Ext}^i(A, \cdot)$ is the zero functor $\forall i > 0$
- (iii) $\text{Ext}^1(A, \cdot)$ is the zero functor

(Ext detects projectives)

General statement: TFAE

- (i) F is exact
- (ii) $L^i(F) = 0 \quad \forall i > 0$
- (iii) $R^1(F) = 0$

Proof: (i \Rightarrow ii \Rightarrow iii) are clear

(iii \Rightarrow i) If this holds, then for every $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow C \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ we have the following exact sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\cdot A} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\cdot B} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\cdot C} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\cdot C} 0 \xrightarrow{\cdot C} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\cdot F(A)} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\cdot F(B)} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\cdot F(C)} \dots \Rightarrow F \text{ is exact}$$

□

For example let $\mathcal{E} = \text{Ab}$, $n \geq 2$. What is $\text{Ext}^i(\mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}}, \mathbb{Z})$?

We have $\text{Ext}^0(\mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}}, \mathbb{Z}) = \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}}, \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. The sequence $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}}$ is an injective resolution of \mathbb{Z} .

$$\text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}}, \mathbb{Z}) = 0$$

$$\text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}}, \mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z}) = ? \quad \text{Let } \mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}} \text{ must go to } \frac{a}{n} \text{ for } a \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}}, \mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}}$$

$$\text{We get } 0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{then } \text{Ext}^1(\mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}}, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}} \quad \text{Ext}^i(\mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}}, \mathbb{Z}) = 0 \quad \forall i \neq 1$$

We can consider $\text{Hom}(\cdot, B)$ as $\mathcal{E}^{\text{op}} \rightarrow \text{Ab}$. If \mathcal{E}^{op} has enough injectives we can derive this

Prop: if \mathcal{E} has both enough injectives and projectives, then

$$\text{Ext}^i(A, B) = R^i(\text{Hom}(\cdot, B))(A)$$

Equivalently: we can compute Ext using either an injective resolution of B or a projective resolution of A . For example in the above example we can use the projective resolution of $\mathbb{Z}_{n\mathbb{Z}}$ given by $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. This result is called "balancing of Ext "

Sketch of proof: choose $P_{\cdot} \rightarrowtail$ projective resolution

$B \rightarrow I^{\cdot}$ injective resolution

We want to show $H^i(\text{Hom}(P_{\cdot}, B)) \cong H^i(\text{Hom}(A, I^{\cdot}))$

Consider the diagram $X^{P_{\cdot}} = \text{Hom}(P_{\cdot}, I^{\cdot})$ and $T^i = \bigoplus_{p+q=i} X^{P_p}$ (total complex)

Fact: T^i is a cochain complex and the maps $P_0 \rightarrow A$, $B \rightarrow I^0$ give quasi-isomorphisms

$$\text{Hom}(A, I^{\cdot}) \xrightarrow{\sim} T^i \xleftarrow{\sim} \text{Hom}(P_{\cdot}, B)$$

by composition $P_0 \xrightarrow{A \rightarrow I^0} \text{element of } X^{P_0} \in T^0$ $\xrightarrow{\text{differential}} \text{element of } X^{P_1} \in T^1$ $\xrightarrow{\text{differential}} \text{element of } X^{P_2} \in T^2$

□

Corollary: B is injective $\Leftrightarrow \text{Ext}^i(A, B)$ vanishes $\forall A \forall i \geq 1$
 $\Leftrightarrow \text{Ext}^i(A, B)$ vanishes $\forall A$

We can use Ext to decide both injectives and projectives.

(2) Group cohomology

Let G be a group, the category of $\mathbb{Z}[G]\text{-Mod}$ is abelian. Consider the functor

$$(-)^G : \mathbb{Z}[G]\text{-Mod} \rightarrow \text{Ab}$$

which is naturally isomorphic to $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}[G]}(\mathbb{Z}, -)$

$$\text{Def: } H^i(G, M) = R^i((-)^G)(M) = \text{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}[G]}^i(\mathbb{Z}, M)$$

We can use 2 approaches to computing this:

- injective resolutions of M $\forall M$
- projective resolution of \mathbb{Z}

It is clear that computing a projective resolution of \mathbb{Z} is considerably less work and will allow us to move Ext explicit in this case.

$$\mathbb{Z}[G] \xrightarrow{g^{-1}} \mathbb{Z}[G] \quad \text{is a projective resolution of } \mathbb{Z} \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}[G]\text{-Mod}$$

So for any M in $\mathbb{Z}[G]\text{-Mod}$

$H^i(G, M)$: i -th cohomology of $\text{Hom}(\text{resolution}, M)$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hom}(\text{resolution}, M) &\Rightarrow M \xrightarrow{[g^{-1}]} M \rightarrow H^0(G, M) = M^{g=1} \\ H^1(G, M) &= M /_{(g^{-1})M} \end{aligned}$$

For any G , there exists a systematic way to build a projective resolution of \mathbb{Z} in $\mathbb{Z}[G]\text{-Mod}$ ("bar resolution")

Def: let $X_n = \text{free } \mathbb{Z}[G]\text{-module on set of symbols } (g_1, \dots, g_n)$ where $g_i \in G$.

$$X_0 = \mathbb{Z}[G]$$

$$d: X_n \rightarrow X_{n-1} \text{ defined as } \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i g_i$$

$$d^0(g_1, \dots, g_n) = [g_1](g_2, \dots, g_n)$$

$$d^1(g_1, \dots, g_n) = (g_1, \dots, g_1 g_2, g_3 g_4, \dots, g_n)$$

$$d^n(g_1, \dots, g_n) = (g_1, \dots, g_{n-1})$$

For example if $X_0 = \mathbb{Z}[G]$

$$X_1 = \bigoplus_{g \in G} \mathbb{Z}[G](g)$$

$$d: X_1 \rightarrow X_0$$

$$(g) \mapsto g^{-1}$$

Fact: X is a projective (indeed free) resolution of \mathbb{Z} in $\mathbb{Z}[G]\text{-Mod}$.

Hence

$$H^i(G, M) = H^i(\text{Hom}(X_0, M))$$

i -cochain

$\text{Hom}(X_i, M)$ is called the group of i -chains of G with values in M , which equals the M -valued functions on $G \times \dots \times G$ (i -times) by construction of the free $\mathbb{Z}[G]\text{-module } X_i$. If we set $C^i(G, M) = \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}[G]}(X_i, M)$ then

$$H^i(G, M) = H^i(C^*(G, M))$$

We have done a rather unusual thing: we have given a canonical choice of a resolution that allows to compute the derived functor for any M . This doesn't usually happen as we compute derived functors ~~relying~~ "let us choose a resolution of this object".

General fact: in many cases we can compute derived functors using a much wider class of resolutions.

Let $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ left exact and \mathcal{C} has enough injectives we define

Def: $Y \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$ is F -acyclic if $R^i(F)(Y) = 0 \quad \forall i \geq 1$.

Injective objects are F -acyclic for every functor F as above.

Prop: let $X \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$ and $[x] \rightarrow Y^\bullet$ an F -acyclic right resolution of X . Then

$$R^i(F)(X) \cong H^i(F(Y^\bullet))$$

Proof: we have, for all $n \geq 0$, short exact sequences

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^n(Y) \rightarrow Y^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{n+1}(Y) \rightarrow 0$$

because Y^\bullet is exact at the n -th spot. We deduce a long exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow F(z^m Y) \rightarrow F(Y^m) \rightarrow F(z^{m+1} Y) \rightarrow R^1 F(z^m Y) \rightarrow R^2 F(z^{m+1} Y) \rightarrow \dots$$

Lemma for all $n \geq 0, j \geq 1$

$$R^j F(z^{m+j} Y) \subseteq R^{j+1} F(z^{m+1} Y)$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} R^m F(X) &\cong R^m(F)(z^m Y) \cong R^m(F)(z^m Y) \cong \dots \cong R^j F(z^{m+j} Y) \\ &= \text{coker}(F(Y^m) \rightarrow F(z^m Y)) = \\ &= \text{coker}(F(Y^m) \rightarrow z^m(FY)). \quad (\text{by exactness}) \\ &= H^m(FY) \end{aligned}$$

□

Notational point: if (Y, d) is a cochain complex

$$z^i Y = \ker(d^i : Y^i \rightarrow Y^{i+1}) \quad i\text{-cocycles} \quad B^i Y = \text{Im}(d^{i-1} : Y^{i-1} \rightarrow Y^i) \quad i\text{-coboundaries}$$

This recalls the topological setting: if X is a simplicial complex

$$C^i(X, \underline{\mathbb{Z}}) = \{ \underline{\mathbb{Z}}\text{-valued function, on } i\text{-simplices} \text{ of } X \}$$

and cocycles and coboundaries are defined using a differential d and looking at $i-1$ -simplices.

Example: if $\mathcal{C} = \mathbb{Z}[G]\text{-Mod}$ and $F(M) = M^G$ then $C^*(G, M)$ is not an injective resolution of M , but it is an F -acyclic one. This gives an alternative proof of the fact that $H^i(G, M) = H^i(C^*(G, M))$.

(3) Sheaves

Let X be a topological space. An abelian sheaf on X is a collection of abelian groups $\mathcal{Y}(U)$, $U \in \mathcal{X}$ open, together with restriction maps

$$\mathcal{Y}(U) \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}(V) \quad \text{if } V \subset U \text{ open}$$

It is called an abelian sheaf if whenever $U = \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$:

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}(U) \xrightarrow{\text{rest.}} \prod_{i \in I} \mathcal{Y}(U_i) \xrightarrow{\text{res}_{U_i \cap U_j} - \text{res}_{U_i}} \prod_{i, j \in I} \mathcal{Y}(U_i \cap U_j) \quad \text{is an exact sequence.}$$

The category of sheaves on X , $\text{Sh}(X)$, is an abelian category having enough injectives.

The functor

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma : \text{Sh}(X) &\longrightarrow \text{Ab} \\ \mathcal{Y} &\longmapsto \mathcal{Y}(X) \end{aligned}$$

is not exact.

(Recall that as Ab^{op} is a subcategory of Ab where cokernels don't agree, the same happens in $\text{Sh}(X) \subseteq \text{PSh}(X)$. However Γ is left exact so we can compute its right derived functors.)

$$\text{Def: } H^i(X, \mathcal{Y}) = R^i(\Gamma)/\mathcal{Y} \quad \text{in particular} \quad H^0(X, \mathcal{Y}) = \mathcal{Y}(X)$$

Fact: if X is nice enough (e.g. paracompact manifolds), $H^i(X, \underline{\mathbb{Z}})$ coincides with cohomology defined using singular cochains, where

$$\underline{\mathbb{Z}} = \text{"constant sheaf"} \quad \underline{\mathbb{Z}}(U) = \text{constant functions } U \rightarrow \underline{\mathbb{Z}}$$

(is the sheafification of the constant presheaf $\underline{\mathbb{Z}}$)

Advantage of sheaf viewpoint: there are many rational operations on schemes which don't preserve constant sheaves.

If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a morphism, for any $\mathcal{Y} \in \text{Ob}(\text{Sh}(X))$ we define its direct image $f_* \mathcal{Y} \in \text{Ob}(\text{Sh}(Y))$ defined by

$$f_* \mathcal{Y}(U_Y) = \mathcal{Y}(f^{-1}(U_Y))$$

This construction respects composition: $(f_2 \circ f_1)_* = (f_2)_* \circ (f_1)_*$. Hence we can write

$$X \xrightarrow{f_1} Y \xrightarrow{f_2} \{\text{pt}\}$$
$$(f_2 \circ f_1)_* = (f_2)_* \circ (f_1)_*$$
$$\quad \quad \quad \Gamma$$

and thus we can reduce the computation of the derived functors of Γ to the computation of derived functors of f_1 , possibly mapping X in "simpler" spaces.

This fits into a general approach - started by Grothendieck in algebraic geometry - of studying morphisms (or varieties together with morphisms to a base space) rather than varieties alone. The emphasis shifts from spaces to maps between them.

