

HIGHER ALGEBRA, CHAPTER 0

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ABSTRACT. These are lecture notes from my course on homological algebra at Caltech (Math 128) during the spring 2023 quarter (building off of those from the winter 2021 iteration, which are available [here](#)). They are **under construction**, and will be updated at the course website at the end of each lecture.

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0. MISCELLANEA

0.1. Exercises.

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0.1.1. In order to obtain a grade of 100% on the homework by the end of the quarter, you will need to earn **TBD** points.

0.1.2. Partial solutions may be submitted for partial credit.

0.1.3. Solutions to exercises should always be justified (even if e.g. the exercise is stated as merely a “yes or no” question).

0.1.4. In preparing your homework, please copy down the problem statement, since it is possible that the numbering may change.

0.2. Conventions.

0.2.1. As this document is a work in progress, I will sometimes want to make changes to existing material (in addition to adding material as we cover it during lecture). Of course, it would be quite difficult for a reader to spot such changes, especially as the document grows. Therefore, any substantial such changes will be temporarily flagged by their change date (for easy searching) and additionally will be colored as follows: changes that have occurred since the most recent lecture are **red**, changes made between the past two lectures are **blue**, and changes made between two and three lectures ago are **green**. Older changes are no longer colored or dated.

0.2.2. We use standard notation without comment, e.g. $\mathbb{Z}$ denotes the integers and **Set** denotes the category of sets. However, notation will very often only be “local”: the meanings of various symbols will be fluid, and notation may change slightly through the document as needed.

0.2.3. The term “natural number” (and the notation $\mathbb{N}$) sometimes will include 0 and sometimes will not. It will often be a good exercise to think through this boundary case, to see whether the given assertion holds (or even makes mathematical sense).

0.2.4. We use the basic language of category theory freely. The canonical reference is [Mac71]. Many more efficient introductions are available, e.g. [Saf] or [Wei94, §A]. We consider posets as categories without comment. We write e.g. $\mathbb{N}^{\leq}$ and $\mathbb{Z}^{\leq}$ for the usual poset structures on the natural numbers and the integers. Given some datum in a category (e.g. an object or morphism), we may use the superscript $(-)^{\circ}$ to denote the corresponding datum in the opposite category, although we may also omit this superscript when our meaning is sufficiently clear. We mostly ignore set-theoretic issues.¹ We refer the reader to [Shua] for a thorough discussion of the role of set theory in category theory.

¹Or, said differently, we implicitly work with respect to a fixed Grothendieck universe.

0.2.5. Especially in later sections, we will frequently give references to Lurie’s books [Lur09] and [Lur]. Our exposition is nevertheless intended to be self-contained, with these references merely providing the reader with entry points for exploring those books further. For brevity, we will use the abbreviations “T” and “A” to refer to these works, and moreover we will omit environment names (except for the section symbol §). So for instance, we will refer to [Lur09, Theorem 4.1.3.1] simply as [T.4.1.3.1] and to [Lur, §1.3.3] simply as [§A.1.3.3].

0.2.6. The term “(commutative) ring” means “associative unital (resp. commutative) ring”. Likewise, modules are always unital (meaning that the unit element acts as the identity).

0.2.7. To simplify language, universal quantifiers will often be dropped. For instance, an assertion involving an integer n should generally be understood to refer to *all* integers n unless otherwise specified, and formulas involving arbitrary elements (e.g. of abelian groups) should generally be understood to refer to *all* elements unless otherwise specified.

0.2.8. For brevity, we will often use a slash to make multiple statements at once. This idiom has two possible meanings; the specific meaning should always be clear from context. On the one hand, we will write e.g. “homotopy co/kernel sequence” as a stand-in for “sequences which are simultaneously homotopy cokernel sequences and homotopy kernel sequences – and let us not forget that it suffices to check either condition in order to deduce both”. On the other hand, we will write e.g. “co/limits” as a stand in for “both colimits and limits”.

PART I. HOMOLOGICAL ALGEBRA

1. SOME MOTIVATION FOR HOMOLOGICAL ALGEBRA

1.1. **Intersection theory.** A basic endeavor in geometry is to understand *intersections*. For example, given a (smooth) manifold M and two submanifolds $N_0, N_1 \subseteq M$ of complementary dimensions, a fundamental question is to compute the algebraic intersection number

$$[N_0] \cdot [N_1] \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

If N_0 and N_1 intersect *transversely* (i.e. $T_p N_0 + T_p N_1 = T_p M$ for all $p \in (N_0 \cap N_1)$), then this is simply the (signed) sum of their intersection points. Moreover, this is invariant under small perturbations, as long as the intersection remains transverse.

However, if the intersection of N_0 and N_1 is not transverse, the situation is somewhat complicated. On the one hand, there will always exist arbitrarily small perturbations of either N_0 or N_1 that make the intersection transverse, and it is a fact that the resulting intersection number will not depend on the chosen perturbation.² However, this approach has a number of (related) drawbacks.

- (1) Perturbations are noncanonical.

²A good introduction to these ideas is [GP74].

- (2) Perturbations will generally destroy the inherent symmetries of the situation.³
- (3) Even if one begins with algebraic varieties, the perturbations guaranteed by the genericity of transversality are generally only transcendental.⁴

A first application of homological algebra is to compute non-transverse intersections without perturbations. We will illustrate the failure of ordinary (i.e. non-homological) algebra in §1.4, after some preliminaries.

1.2. Tensor products of modules. We first recall the notion of tensor product.

Let R be a commutative ring, and let M and N be R -modules. The (*relative*) **tensor product** of M and N over R ,⁵ denoted $M \otimes_R N$, is the universal abelian group equipped with an R -balanced bilinear function

$$M \times N \xrightarrow{\varphi} M \otimes_R N ,$$

i.e. a function satisfying the following axioms:

- (1) $\varphi(m + m', n) = \varphi(m, n) + \varphi(m', n)$ and $\varphi(m, n + n') = \varphi(m, n) + \varphi(m, n')$;
- (2) $\varphi(m \cdot r, n) = \varphi(m, r \cdot n)$.⁶

In other words, for any abelian group A , precomposition with φ determines a canonical isomorphism

$$\{R\text{-bilinear functions } M \times N \rightarrow A\} \xleftarrow{\cong} \{\text{abelian group homomorphisms } M \otimes_R N \rightarrow A\} .$$

In the case that R is understood (and particularly when $R = \mathbb{Z}$ or when R is a field), we may simply write $\otimes := \otimes_R$.

The relative tensor product $M \otimes_R N$ is defined by a universal property, which does not a priori guarantee that it exists. However, it is also easy to construct explicitly. Namely, one begins with the abelian group $M \times N$ and quotients by the following relations:

- (1) $(m + m', n) \sim (m, n) + (m', n)$ and $(m, n + n') \sim (m, n) + (m, n')$;
- (2) $(m \cdot r, n) \sim (m, r \cdot n)$.

Exercise 1.1 (2 points). For any natural numbers $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$, prove that $\mathbb{Z}/m \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/n \cong \mathbb{Z}/\gcd(m, n)$.

³For instance, perturbations to transverse intersections need not exist in the equivariant context.

⁴It turns out that it is in some sense always possible to perturb of algebraic varieties that achieve transversality, however, at least when the ambient variety is sufficiently nice. This is *Chow's moving lemma*, which is fundamental in the classical approach to intersection theory in algebraic geometry [EH16]. (In that context, “perturb” means “change to a new but rationally equivalent algebraic cycle”.)

⁵The word “relative” here is meant to emphasize that R is an arbitrary commutative ring. By contrast, the term “absolute tensor product” would emphasize that $R = \mathbb{Z}$.

⁶The notation here stems from the fact that more generally, we can define the relative tensor product when R is merely an associative ring, M is a right R -module, and N is a left R -module.

1.3. Basic principles of algebraic geometry. In order to illustrate intersection theory via tensor products, we recall a few basic principles of algebraic geometry. We work over $\mathbb{R}$ to adhere to geometric intuition, but the same ideas apply over any field. For further background, see [Har77, §I.1].

1.3.1. The polynomial functions on $\mathbb{R}^n$ are the n -variate polynomials: $\mathcal{O}(\mathbb{R}^n) = \mathbb{R}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. We simply write $R = \mathcal{O}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ (leaving n implicit).

1.3.2. By definition, an **algebraic subset** of $\mathbb{R}^n$ is a closed subset $Z \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ that is cut out by (i.e. equal to) the vanishing of some subset $S \subseteq R$ of polynomial functions on $\mathbb{R}^n$.⁷ In this case we write $Z = V(S)$, and we say that Z is the **vanishing locus** of the elements of S . If $J \subseteq R$ is the ideal generated by a subset $S \subseteq R$, then $V(J) = V(S)$.⁸

1.3.3. We write $I(Z) \subseteq R$ for the ideal of those functions that vanish along Z . Then, the ring of polynomial functions on Z is

$$\mathcal{O}(Z) = R/I(Z) .$$

1.3.4. Conversely, any ideal $J \subseteq R$ has a corresponding vanishing locus

$$V(J) := \{p \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(p) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in J\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n .$$

1.3.5. These constructions determine functions

$$\{\text{subsets of } \mathbb{R}^n\} \xrightleftharpoons[V]{I} \{\text{ideals in } R\} .^9$$

These are inclusion-reversing, and associate intersections of subsets with unions of ideals. In particular, given algebraic subsets $Z_0, Z_1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and writing $I_i = I(Z_i)$, we have

$$\mathcal{O}(Z_0 \cap Z_1) \cong R/(I_0, I_1) \cong R/I_0 \otimes_R R/I_1 .$$

1.4. Intersections via tensor products. We now proceed to study a few basic examples of intersections via tensor products.

⁷By definition of the Zariski topology, these are precisely the Zariski-closed subsets of $\mathbb{R}^n$.

⁸Since R is noetherian, any ideal is finitely generated. In other words, we may always take S to be a *finite* set of polynomial functions on $\mathbb{R}^n$.

⁹Over an algebraically closed field $\mathbb{k}$, this construction restricts to a bijection between *closed* subsets of $\mathbb{k}^n$ (with respect to the Zariski topology) and *radical* ideals of $\mathbb{k}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. The composite $V \circ I$ carries a subset $Y \subseteq \mathbb{k}^n$ to its closure $\overline{Y} \subseteq \mathbb{k}^n$, while the composite $I \circ V$ carries an ideal $I \subseteq \mathbb{k}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ to its radical $\sqrt{I} = \{f \in \mathbb{k}[x_1, \dots, x_n] : \exists n > 0 \text{ s.t. } f^n \in I\} \subseteq R$. By contrast, over $\mathbb{R}$ the function V fails to be injective, e.g. $V(\mathbb{R}[x]) = V(x^2 + 1) = \emptyset$.

1.4.1. Our first example merely illustrates the above principles.

Consider the curves $y = x^2$ and $y = x$ in the plane $\mathbb{R}^2$. Their intersection is the locus where $x = x^2$, or $x \cdot (x - 1) = 0$. Now, $\mathbb{R}$ is an integral domain (in fact, it is a field), and so the equation $r \cdot s = 0$ in $\mathbb{R}$ implies that $r = 0$ or $s = 0$. In this case, we find that the solutions are $x = 0$ and $x = 1$.

We now compute the same intersection, but using the above principles. The algebraic subsets

$$Z_0 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : y = x^2\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \quad \text{and} \quad Z_1 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : y = x\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$$

respectively correspond to the ideals

$$I_0 = I(Z_0) = (y - x^2) \subseteq R \quad \text{and} \quad I_1 = I(Z_1) = (y - x) \subseteq R.$$

So, the polynomial functions on $Z_0 \cap Z_1$ are

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{O}(Z_0 \cap Z_1) &\cong R/I_0 \otimes_R R/I_1 \cong R/(I_0, I_1) \cong \mathbb{R}[x, y]/(y - x^2, y - x) \cong \mathbb{R}[x]/(x - x^2) \\ &= \mathbb{R}[x]/(x \cdot (1 - x)) \cong \mathbb{R}[x]/x \times \mathbb{R}[x]/(1 - x) \cong \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}, \end{aligned}$$

where the second-to-last isomorphism is via the Chinese remainder theorem (note that $\mathbb{R}[x]$ is a PID, in fact it is a Euclidean domain).¹⁰ The fact that this is a 2-dimensional $\mathbb{R}$ -algebra corresponds to the fact that $Z_0 \cap Z_1$ consists of two points.

1.4.2. Our second example illustrates the power of *scheme theory*, i.e. the presence of nilpotent elements, which can in good situations detect the correct multiplicity of a non-transverse intersection point.

Consider the ideals $I_0 = (y - x^2)$ and $I_1 = (y)$ in R . These correspond to the curves $y = x^2$ and $y = 0$. These intersect “twice” at the origin. This can be seen in differential topology by taking derivatives (in fact, it can be seen in algebraic geometry that way too). Correspondingly, we compute that

$$R/I_0 \otimes_R R/I_1 \cong R/(I_0, I_1) \cong \mathbb{R}[x, y]/(y - x^2, y) \cong \mathbb{R}[x]/(x^2).$$

The 2-dimensionality of this $\mathbb{R}$ -algebra again reflects the fact that the two curves $V(I_0)$ and $V(I_1)$ intersect “with multiplicity two”. Namely, this $\mathbb{R}$ -algebra corresponds to “the origin along with infinitesimal fuzz in the direction of the x -axis”. This is in contrast with the previous example, where the tensor product split as a cartesian product.

These techniques are quite robust.

¹⁰An explicit inverse is given by carrying the pair $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ to the function $x \mapsto f_{a,b}(x) := a + (b - a) \cdot x$ (which has $f_{a,b}(0) = a$ and $f_{a,b}(1) = b$), considered as an element of $\mathbb{R}[x]/(x \cdot (1 - x))$. One can check directly that this is a ring homomorphism. It is clearly injective. To see that it is surjective, for any $g \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ we claim that $g - f_{g(0),g(1)}$ lies in the ideal generated by $x \cdot (x - 1)$. Observe that $g - f_{g(0),g(1)}$ vanishes at $x = 0$ and $x = 1$. So this is simply the assertion that if a polynomial vanishes at $r \in \mathbb{R}$, then we can factor out $(x - r)$. (And this can be accomplished via the Euclidean algorithm.)

Exercise 1.2 (4 points). Consider the curves $y = x^2$ and $y = -1$ in $\mathbb{R}^2$. Compute and interpret their scheme-theoretic intersection.

1.4.3. Here is the simplest example of a non-transverse intersection for which ordinary (as opposed to homological) algebra fails to give the correct answer.

Consider points $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^1$ as algebraic subsets. These correspond to the ideals $I_0 = (x - a) \subseteq R$ and $I_1 = (x - b) \subseteq R$. We compute the functions on their intersection to be

$$\mathcal{O}(\{a\} \cap \{b\}) \cong R/I_0 \otimes_R R/I_1 \cong \mathbb{R}[x]/(x - a, x - b) \cong \mathbb{R}/(a - b) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{R}, & a = b \\ 0, & a \neq b \end{cases}.$$

Generically, two points in the line do not intersect, and in this situation (i.e. when $a \neq b$) we obtain the expected intersection number of 0. However, in the non-generic situation where $a = b$, we obtain a 1-dimensional $\mathbb{R}$ -algebra.

Using homological algebra, namely the notion of *derived tensor products*, we will be able to obtain the expected intersection number of 0 even when $a = b$.

1.4.4. The following exercise illustrates another source of failure of the expected dimension, introducing projective space along the way.

Exercise 1.3 (6 points). Generically, two lines in $\mathbb{R}^2$ intersect in a point. Of course, not all pairs of lines are in general position. For instance, consider the curves $y = x$ and $y = x + 1$ in $\mathbb{R}^2$.

(a) Compute (the functions on) their intersection using tensor products.

The issue here is that these lines “just barely avoid intersecting”: morally they should intersect “at infinity”.¹¹ This issue is repaired by passing to the projective plane, i.e. the quotient

$$\mathbb{RP}^2 := (\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \{0\})/\mathbb{R}^\times$$

by the scaling action. So, its points are specified by nonzero triples $[x : y : z]$, called *homogeneous coordinates*, which are governed by the relation that for any $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^\times$ we have $[x : y : z] = [\lambda x : \lambda y : \lambda z]$. Moreover, there is an inclusion $\mathbb{R}^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{RP}^2$ given by the formula $(x, y) \mapsto [x : y : 1]$.¹²

(b) Show that a *homogenous* polynomial $g \in \mathbb{R}[x, y, z]$ (i.e. one for which $g(\lambda p) = \lambda^d \cdot g(p)$ for some $d \in \mathbb{N}$) has a well-defined vanishing locus $\tilde{V}(g) \subseteq \mathbb{RP}^2$.

¹¹A better way to say this would be to consider the equations $y = x$ and $y = tx + 1$: these are surfaces in $\mathbb{R}^3$, which may be considered as families of lines indexed by the parameter $t \in \mathbb{R}$. As $t \rightarrow 1^+$ their intersection point has $x \rightarrow -\infty$, while as $t \rightarrow 1^-$ their intersection point has $x \rightarrow +\infty$. This suggests that there should be a *single* point “at infinity” where they intersect in the case that $t = 1$.

¹²So, the “points at infinity” are those of the form $[x : y : 0]$. Since we disallow the possibility that $x = y = 0$, these form a copy of $\mathbb{RP}^1 := (\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\})/\mathbb{R}^\times$. Note that each such point $[x : y : 0]$ may be uniquely identified with a slope $\frac{y}{x}$, where we declare that $\infty := \frac{y}{0}$ for $y \neq 0$ (this is the unique point in $\mathbb{RP}^1 \setminus \mathbb{R}^1$).

- (c) Find *homogenizations* of $f_1 = y - x$ and $f_2 = y - x - 1$, i.e. homogenous polynomials $g_1, g_2 \in \mathbb{R}[x, y, z]$ such that $g_i([x : y : 1]) = f_i(x, y)$.
- (d) Compute and interpret the intersection of the vanishing loci $\tilde{V}(g_i) \subseteq \mathbb{RP}^2$.

1.4.5. As we have seen in §1.4.4, given two lines in $\mathbb{R}^2$, we are more likely to get the expected number if we intersect them (or rather their closures) in $\mathbb{RP}^2$: namely, this gives the correct answer even when the lines are parallel. However, this fails to give the correct answer when the two lines are *equal*. Derived tensor products repair this failure. Namely, the derived tensor product of a (projective) line with itself in $\mathbb{RP}^2$ is “a line, but with cardinality equal to that of a single point”.

1.4.6. Of course, there are also examples that are not self-intersections where derived tensor products give the correct answer where ordinary tensor products do not. For this it is necessary to work in higher dimensions, see e.g. [EH16, Example 2.6].

2. CHAIN COMPLEXES, HOMOLOGY, AND TENSOR PRODUCTS

We now proceed to introduce the basic objects of study in homological algebra.

2.1. **Algebra conventions.** For concreteness, we work in the context of ordinary algebra. Namely, we fix a commutative ring $\mathbb{k}$ and a $\mathbb{k}$ -algebra R . For the most part, we will work in $\mathbf{Mod}_R$, the category of (right) R -modules, and one may take $\mathbb{k}$ to be $\mathbb{Z}$. However, at times we will want to specialize to a commutative ring, and for this it is convenient for $\mathbb{k}$ to be arbitrary.¹³ Moreover, we will study some interactions between $\mathbb{k}$ -modules and R -modules. At the level of ordinary (i.e. non-homological) algebra, these are encapsulated by the following facts.

- (1) The category $\mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{k}}$ is symmetric monoidal via the tensor product, which we denote by $\otimes := \otimes_{\mathbb{k}}$; its unit object is $\mathbb{k}$.
- (2) The category $\mathbf{Mod}_R$ is naturally enriched in $\mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{k}}$. In other words, for any R -modules $M, N \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$, the set $\mathbf{hom}_{\mathbf{Mod}_R}(M, N)$ of R -linear homomorphisms carries the natural structure of a $\mathbb{k}$ -module, and moreover composition in $\mathbf{Mod}_R$ is $\mathbb{k}$ -multilinear.
- (3) Moreover, $\mathbb{k}$ -modules naturally act on R -modules in two different ways: for any $\mathbb{k}$ -module $T \in \mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{k}}$ and any R -modules $M, N \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ we have R -modules

$$T \otimes_{\mathbb{k}} M \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{hom}_{\mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{k}}}(T, N) ,$$

where the (right) R -actions are induced from those on M and N , and these constructions participate in natural isomorphisms

- (1) $\mathbf{hom}_{\mathbf{Mod}_R}(T \otimes_{\mathbb{k}} M, N) \cong \mathbf{hom}_{\mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{k}}}(T, \mathbf{hom}_{\mathbf{Mod}_R}(M, N)) \cong \mathbf{hom}_{\mathbf{Mod}_R}(M, \mathbf{hom}_{\mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{k}}}(T, N))$.

¹³Of course, we will apply results developed for R -modules to $\mathbb{k}$ -modules without comment.

Of course, one may take $R = \mathbb{k}$ as a special case.¹⁴ As a result, the notions that we will develop relating to the interactions between $\mathbb{k}$ -modules and R -modules will all be *generalizations* of the notions that we develop relating to $\mathbb{k}$ -modules alone.

As we will see later, most of the theory works equally well for a general abelian category, although there will be some additional hiccups that do not arise when studying modules.¹⁵

Exercise 2.1 (4 points).

- (a) Given a $\mathbb{k}$ -module $T \in \mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{k}}$ and R -modules $M, N \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$, verify the isomorphisms (1).
- (b) Verify the naturality of the isomorphisms (1) in all three variables.

2.2. Chain complexes. A *chain complex* of R -modules is a diagram

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{d_{n+2}} M_{n+1} \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} M_n \xrightarrow{d_n} M_{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}} \cdots$$

of R -modules such that for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ we have the equality

$$d_n \circ d_{n+1} = 0$$

in $\mathbf{hom}_{\mathbf{Mod}_R}(M_{n+1}, M_{n-1})$. One may simply write $M_{\bullet}$ for a chain complex; the bullet indicates that “all indices are being referred to at once”. To emphasize the differentials, one may write $(M_{\bullet}, d_{\bullet})$. Also, one may simply refer to a chain complex as a “complex”.¹⁶ On the other hand, we also may omit the bullet and simply write $M := M_{\bullet}$ for simplicity. The integer n is called the *degree* or the *dimension*. For an element $m \in M_n$, we may write $\deg(m) := n$.

The morphisms d_n are called the *differentials* of the chain complex. We fix the convention that they are always indexed by their *source* (i.e. the source of d_n is M_n). However, one frequently omits the indices, in which case the equation $d_n \circ d_{n+1} = 0$ may be more simply written as $d^2 = 0$. On the other hand, when we wish to emphasize that these are the differentials of $M_{\bullet}$, we superscript them as d_n^M .

¹⁴The above facts then reduce to the assertion that $\mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{k}}$ is a *closed* symmetric monoidal category, i.e. that it carries a self-enrichment that is compatible with its symmetric monoidal structure. (More generally, facts 2 and 3 can be simultaneously articulated as the assertion that $\mathbf{Mod}_R$ is naturally a *closed module* over the closed symmetric monoidal category $\mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{k}}$.)

¹⁵On the other hand, the *Freyd–Mitchell embedding theorem* states that any abelian category embeds fully faithfully into $\mathbf{Mod}_R$ for some ring R (although the choice of such a ring R is noncanonical). So in a sense, working at the level of abelian categories offers no additional generality.

¹⁶The word “chain” here is historical. Namely, given a simplicial complex X , the first example of a chain complex was given in degree n by the “ n^{th} chain group” of X , i.e. the group of chains (i.e. formal linear combinations) of n -simplices of X , with differentials given by taking an n -simplex to the signed sum of its boundary $(n-1)$ -simplices (for which reason the morphisms d_n of a chain complex are also sometimes referred to as its “boundary maps”); see ?? (and ??) for a closely related discussion. It was only later realized that chain complexes are worth studying in their own right.

In this notation, a *morphism* of chain complexes $M_\bullet \xrightarrow{f_\bullet} N_\bullet$ is by definition a sequence of morphisms $M_n \xrightarrow{f_n} N_n$ of R -modules such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \xrightarrow{d_{n+2}^M} & M_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}^M} & M_n & \xrightarrow{d_n^M} & M_{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}^M} \cdots \\ & & \downarrow f_{n+1} & & \downarrow f_n & & \downarrow f_{n-1} \\ \cdots & \xrightarrow{d_{n+2}^N} & N_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}^N} & N_n & \xrightarrow{d_n^N} & N_{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}^N} \cdots \end{array}$$

commutes.¹⁷ These morphisms are often referred to as **chain maps**. We write $\mathbf{Ch}_R$ for the category of chain complexes of R -modules.

In depicting a complex, it is customary to decorate the term in degree 0 with a squiggled underline whenever it appears explicitly.

Any R -module $M \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ determines a chain complex concentrated in degree 0:

$$\cdots \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \underline{\underline{M}} \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \cdots .$$

This construction determines a fully faithful embedding

$$\mathbf{Mod}_R \hookrightarrow \mathbf{Ch}_R .$$

As a result, we may not notationally distinguish between data in $\mathbf{Mod}_R$ and its image in $\mathbf{Ch}_R$.

When a complex only has a few nonzero terms, for brevity one may omit the terms that are zero. For instance, the above complex may also be written as $\underline{\underline{M}}$.

2.3. Homology. Fix a chain complex $M_\bullet$. Its *n -cycles* and *n -boundaries* are the submodules

$$Z_n(M_\bullet) := \ker(d_n) \subseteq M_n \quad \text{and} \quad B_n(M_\bullet) := \operatorname{im}(d_{n+1}) \subseteq M_n .^{18}$$

Note that $B_n(M_\bullet) \subseteq Z_n(M_\bullet)$ because $d^2 = 0$. Then, the n^{th} **homology** of $M_\bullet$ is the quotient R -module

$$H_n(M_\bullet) := \frac{Z_n(M_\bullet)}{B_n(M_\bullet)} := \frac{\ker(d_n)}{\operatorname{im}(d_{n+1})} .$$

Although $H_n(M_\bullet)$ is an R -module, it is common to refer to it merely as a *homology group*.

Exercise 2.2 (2 points). Verify that the constructions Z_n , B_n , and H_n define functors

$$\mathbf{Ch}_R \longrightarrow \mathbf{Mod}_R .$$

A morphism $M_\bullet \xrightarrow{f_\bullet} N_\bullet$ in $\mathbf{Ch}_R$ is called a **quasi-isomorphism** if the induced morphisms $H_n(M_\bullet) \xrightarrow{H_n(f_\bullet)} H_n(N_\bullet)$ are isomorphisms for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. We may indicate that a morphism is a quasi-isomorphism by decorating the arrow as $\xrightarrow{\sim}$.

¹⁷For typographical reasons, we will generally draw morphisms of chain complexes vertically in this way.

¹⁸The German words for “cycle” and “boundary” respectively begin with the letters “Z” and “B”.

We say that a complex $M_\bullet$ is **acyclic** if $H_n(M_\bullet) = 0$ for all n . So, $M_\bullet$ is acyclic if and only if either (and hence both) of the unique maps $0 \rightarrow M_\bullet$ and $M_\bullet \rightarrow 0$ is a quasi-isomorphism.

2.4. The derived category of R -modules.

2.4.1. By and large, we would like to think of quasi-isomorphic chain complexes as “essentially interchangeable”, with some representatives of a given quasi-isomorphism class (namely the *projective* and *injective* complexes introduced in ??) being “well-adapted” for certain purposes.^{19,20} In other words, one should think of quasi-isomorphisms as if they are actual isomorphisms.

This can be made literally true by **localizing** the category $\mathbf{Ch}_R$ at the quasi-isomorphisms, i.e. by adjoining formal inverses for them. This yields a category that (for reasons that will be explained shortly in §2.4.3) we will denote by $H_0(\mathbf{D}_R)$ and refer to as **the derived category of R -modules**; its objects are called **derived R -modules**.²¹ So by definition, there is a canonical functor

$$\mathbf{Ch}_R \longrightarrow H_0(\mathbf{D}_R)$$

that carries all quasi-isomorphisms to isomorphisms, and moreover it is universal with respect to this requirement. Indeed, for any category $\mathcal{C}$, the restriction functor

$$(2) \quad \mathbf{Fun}(\mathbf{Ch}_R, \mathcal{C}) \longleftarrow \mathbf{Fun}(H_0(\mathbf{D}_R), \mathcal{C})$$

is a fully faithful inclusion, whose image consists of those functors $\mathbf{Ch}_R \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ that carry quasi-isomorphisms to isomorphisms.²²

¹⁹This is very closely akin to how one should think of equivalent categories as “essentially interchangeable”, even when they are not isomorphic. However, in a precise sense, *all* categories are “equally well-adapted” for all purposes (in contrast with chain complexes).

²⁰While quasi-isomorphic complexes have isomorphic homology groups, the converse is generally false: the obstruction is encoded by **k -invariants**, as explained in ??. (This same name is given to the (closely analogous) obstructions to spaces with the same homotopy groups being weak homotopy equivalent.) That is, a quasi-isomorphism class of complexes is equivalent data to its homology groups along with all of its k -invariants. For this reason, we will generally consider quasi-isomorphism classes of complexes themselves as the “true” mathematical objects of lasting interest, while their homology groups are merely algebraic invariants that can be extracted therefrom.

²¹The placement of the word “derived” in the term “the derived category of R -modules” is admittedly slightly unfortunate, but this term is quite common. (It arises from the fact that this term is a shortening of “the derived category of the category of R -modules”.)

²²This should be thought of as a “many-object” version of the localization of the $\mathbb{k}$ -algebra R with respect to a subset $S \subset R$: this yields a $\mathbb{k}$ -algebra $R[S^{-1}]$ equipped with a $\mathbb{k}$ -algebra homomorphism $R \rightarrow R[S^{-1}]$ such that for any $\mathbb{k}$ -algebra T , the restriction map $\mathrm{hom}_{\mathrm{Alg}_{\mathbb{k}}}(R, T) \leftarrow \mathrm{hom}_{\mathrm{Alg}_{\mathbb{k}}}(R[S^{-1}], T)$ is the inclusion of those homomorphisms $R \rightarrow T$ that carry all elements of S to invertible elements of T . (Namely, the latter is obtained by considering $\mathbb{k}$ -algebras as one-object $\mathbb{k}$ -linear categories.)

Note that a derived R -module is a “purely homotopical” object: while it can by definition be presented by a chain complex of R -modules, one cannot speak e.g. of its underlying R -module in dimension 0, as this notion is not preserved under quasi-isomorphisms.²³ On the other hand, one *can* speak e.g. of its n^{th} homology, since by definition a quasi-isomorphism induces an isomorphism on n^{th} homology. Thus, the n^{th} homology functor admits a factorization

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{Ch}_R & \xrightarrow{H_n} & \mathbf{Mod}_R \\ \downarrow & \nearrow H^n & \\ \mathbf{H}_0(\mathbf{D}_R) & & \end{array},$$

which is unique up to unique isomorphism (and which is denoted using the same notation, as is justified by the fully faithful inclusion (2)).

2.4.2. Essentially by construction, given two complexes $M, N \in \mathbf{Ch}_R$, morphisms from M to N in the derived category $\mathbf{H}_0(\mathbf{D}_R)$ are given by equivalence classes of zigzags

$$M \xleftarrow{\approx} \bullet \longrightarrow \bullet \xleftarrow{\approx} \dots \longrightarrow \bullet \xleftarrow{\approx} N$$

(in which all backwards maps are quasi-isomorphisms).²⁴ Thankfully, it will turn out that every equivalence class contains representatives of the forms

$$M \xleftarrow{\approx} \bullet \longrightarrow N \quad \text{and} \quad M \longrightarrow \bullet \xleftarrow{\approx} N,$$

which makes the situation substantially more manageable.²⁵

2.4.3. Although we introduce the derived category now, we will not have much use for it: it contains too little information. The richer and more primitive object is $\mathbf{D}_R$, the *derived ∞ -category* of R . This is a mathematical entity whose objects are still the derived R -modules, but whose hom-objects are more elaborate: namely, they are *derived $\mathbb{k}$ -modules*.²⁶ As the notation suggests, passing from $\mathbf{D}_R$ to $\mathbf{H}_0(\mathbf{D}_R)$ amounts to extracting the 0^{th} homology groups of these hom-objects.

[changed 4/7] In fact, the relationship between the derived ∞ -categories $\mathbf{D}_R$ and $\mathbf{D}_{\mathbb{k}}$ precisely mirrors that between the categories $\mathbf{Mod}_R$ and $\mathbf{Mod}_{\mathbb{k}}$ laid out in §2.1. However, it will take us a while to see this, since the likewise relationship between the categories $\mathbf{Ch}_R$ and $\mathbf{Ch}_{\mathbb{k}}$ will have to be “homotopically corrected” in order to descend to the corresponding derived ∞ -categories. We discuss tensor products of chain complexes presently, but defer the discussion

²³Likewise, one cannot speak of the underlying set of a weak homotopy equivalence class of topological spaces, nor can one speak of the set of objects of an equivalence class of categories.

²⁴Returning to the context of Footnote 22, this zigzag of morphisms in $\mathbf{Ch}_R$ is analogous to a formal product $s_1^{-1} \cdot r_1 \cdot s_2^{-1} \cdot r_2 \cdot \dots \cdot s_n^{-1}$ in which the elements s_i^{-1} are formally adjoined inverses of the elements $s_i \in S$.

²⁵These reductions are guaranteed by the existence of two different *model structures* on $\mathbf{Ch}_R$, which respectively have the features that all objects are fibrant and that all objects are cofibrant; see ??.

²⁶So to be more precise, $\mathbf{D}_R$ is a $\mathbb{k}$ -linear ∞ -category (see ??).

of hom-complexes to ?? in order to highlight more fundamental homotopical notions in §3.²⁷ We discuss “homotopical corrections” in ??, and finally return to the derived ∞ -category in ??.

2.5. Tensor products of chain complexes. Given complexes $M, N \in \mathbf{Ch}_{\mathbb{k}}$ of $\mathbb{k}$ -modules, we define their *tensor product* complex

$$(M \otimes N)_{\bullet} := (M \otimes_{\mathbb{k}} N)_{\bullet}$$

as follows. First of all, we define its k^{th} term to be

$$(M \otimes N)_k := \bigoplus_{i+j=k} (M_i \otimes N_j) := \bigoplus_{i+j=k} (M_i \otimes_{\mathbb{k}} N_j) .$$

Then, the differential is characterized by the fact that it carries a pure tensor

$$m \otimes n \in (M_i \otimes N_j) \subseteq (M \otimes N)_k$$

to the sum of pure tensors

$$d(m \otimes n) := d(m) \otimes n + (-1)^i \cdot m \otimes d(n) , \quad {}^{28}$$

(an element of $((M_{i-1} \otimes N_j) \oplus (M_i \otimes N_{j-1})) \subseteq (M \otimes N)_{k-1}$). More elaborately, this may be written as

$$d_k^{M \otimes N}(m \otimes n) := d_i^M(m) \otimes n + (-1)^i \cdot m \otimes d_j^N(n) .$$

Exercise 2.3 (2 points). Verify that this formula defines a complex.

In particular, in solving Exercise 2.3 you will see why the signs are necessary in the definition of the tensor product of complexes. In fact, many sign conventions are possible (and all give equivalent symmetric monoidal categories), but it is impossible to remove all signs from the theory (unless one works over $\mathbb{F}_2$).

From here, it is straightforward to see that the above construction defines a monoidal structure

$$\mathbf{Ch}_{\mathbb{k}} \times \mathbf{Ch}_{\mathbb{k}} \xrightarrow{\otimes} \mathbf{Ch}_{\mathbb{k}} ,$$

with unit object $\mathbb{k} := \underline{\mathbb{k}} \in \mathbf{Ch}_{\mathbb{k}}$. In fact, this is a *symmetric* monoidal structure, with symmetry isomorphisms

$$M \otimes N \xrightarrow{\cong} N \otimes M$$

²⁷This ordering of topics is due to the fact that the discussion of §3 makes (light) use of the tensor product of complexes.

²⁸The factor $(-1)^i$ is determined by the *Koszul sign rule*, which is a general principle asserting that in commuting graded quantities past one another of degrees $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}$ one should pick up a factor of $(-1)^{\alpha \cdot \beta}$. Namely, we consider the symbol “ d ” as an expression of degree -1 (which makes sense since it changes dimensions by 1).

determined by the formula

$$m \otimes n \longmapsto (-1)^{\deg(m) \cdot \deg(n)} \cdot n \otimes m .^{29}$$

More generally, this same construction defines an action

$$\mathbf{Ch}_{\mathbb{k}} \times \mathbf{Ch}_R \xrightarrow{\otimes} \mathbf{Ch}_R$$

of the symmetric monoidal category $(\mathbf{Ch}_{\mathbb{k}}, \otimes, \mathbb{k})$ on the category $\mathbf{Ch}_R$.

Exercise 2.4 (8 points). Fix two complexes $M, N \in \mathbf{Ch}_{\mathbb{k}}$.

(a) Verify that the formula $[m] \otimes [n] \mapsto [m \otimes n]$ determines a morphism

$$H_i(M) \otimes H_j(N) \longrightarrow H_{i+j}(M \otimes N)$$

of $\mathbb{k}$ -modules.

It follows that we obtain a morphism

$$\bigoplus_{i+j=k} (H_i(M) \otimes H_j(N)) \longrightarrow H_k(M \otimes N)$$

of $\mathbb{k}$ -modules.

(b) Prove that this is an isomorphism under the assumption that $\mathbb{k}$ is a field.

(c) Find an example where this is not an isomorphism.

3. HOMOTOPIES, HOMOTOPY CO/KERNELS, AND EXACT SEQUENCES

3.1. Homotopies.

3.1.1. Let $M_1 \xrightarrow{f} M_0$ be a morphism of R -modules. This gives us a complex $M_{\bullet} := (M_1 \xrightarrow{f} \underline{M_0})$. Observe that this has a canonical morphism

$$\begin{array}{ccc} M_{\bullet} & & M_1 \xrightarrow{f} \underline{M_0} \\ \downarrow & := & \downarrow \quad \quad \downarrow \\ \text{coker}(f) & & 0 \longrightarrow \underline{\text{coker}(f)} \end{array}$$

to the cokernel of f (considered as a complex in degree 0). Observe further that

$$H_n(M_{\bullet}) \cong \begin{cases} \text{coker}(f) , & n = 0 \\ \text{ker}(f) , & n = 1 \\ 0 , & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} .$$

Hence, the above map is a quasi-isomorphism iff f is an injection. One might think of $M_{\bullet}$ as a “presentation” of the underlying R -module $H_0(M_{\bullet}) \cong \text{coker}(f)$: the generators are M_0 , the relations are M_1 (i.e. each $m \in M_1$ gives a relation $d(m) \sim 0$), but then $H_1(M_{\bullet})$ furthermore

²⁹This formula is another instance of the Koszul sign rule.

measures the “redundancy” of the relations. Said differently, $M_\bullet$ is a “homotopically correct” version of the cokernel of f , which remembers not only the literal cokernel but also the extent to which the relations are overdetermined. Indeed, it will be the *homotopy cokernel* of the morphism f .

3.1.2. Let $M_\bullet, N_\bullet \in \mathbf{Ch}_R$ be complexes and let $f_\bullet, g_\bullet \in \mathbf{hom}_{\mathbf{Ch}_R}(M_\bullet, N_\bullet)$ be morphisms. A *(chain) homotopy* from $f_\bullet$ to $g_\bullet$ is a set of morphisms

$$M_n \xrightarrow{h_n} N_{n+1}$$

satisfying the condition that

$$g_n - f_n = d_{n+1}^N \circ h_n + h_{n-1} \circ d_n^M. \quad {}^{30}$$

We may write this as $f_\bullet \xRightarrow{h_\bullet} g_\bullet$. A *nullhomotopy* of $g_\bullet$ is a homotopy $0 \xRightarrow{h_\bullet} g_\bullet$ from the zero map. A *contraction* of a complex is a nullhomotopy of its identity map. If a complex admits a contraction, we say that it is *contractible*.

Exercise 3.1 (3 points). Show that the relation of homotopy on $\mathbf{hom}_{\mathbf{Ch}_R}(M_\bullet, N_\bullet)$ is an equivalence relation.

In fact, the argument of Exercise 3.1 easily upgrades to imply that we can enhance $\mathbf{Ch}_R$ from an ordinary category to a category enriched in groupoids (a.k.a. a $(2, 1)$ -category).³¹ its objects are chain complexes, its 1-morphisms are chain maps, and its 2-morphisms are chain homotopies.³² Indeed, the arguments for transitivity, reflexivity, and symmetry of the relation of homotopy respectively endow these hom-categories with their composition laws, identity morphisms, and inverses (so that they are indeed hom-groupoids). It is moreover clear that homotopies may be composed appropriately, either by definition or using Exercise 3.2 below.

³⁰Chain homotopies are sometimes depicted as in the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \xrightarrow{d_{n+2}^M} & M_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}^M} & M_n & \xrightarrow{d_n^M} & M_{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}^M} \cdots \\ & & \downarrow f_{n+1} & \swarrow h_n & \downarrow f_n & \swarrow h_{n-1} & \downarrow f_{n-1} \\ & & N_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}^N} & N_n & \xrightarrow{d_n^N} & N_{n-1} \xrightarrow{d_{n-1}^N} \cdots \end{array} ;$$

this may be helpful as a mnemonic device, but note that it does *not* commute in any reasonable sense.

³¹As we will see, this is the homotopy $(2, 1)$ -category of a more fundamental object, namely an ∞ -category (meaning an $(\infty, 1)$ -category).

³²This explains the notation $f_\bullet \Rightarrow g_\bullet$ just introduced.

3.1.3. For present and future use, we introduce the complex $\mathbb{I} \in \mathbf{Ch}_{\mathbb{k}}$ and the morphisms $i_0, i_1 \in \mathbf{hom}_{\mathbf{Ch}_{\mathbb{k}}}(\mathbb{k}, \mathbb{I})$ according to the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \begin{array}{c} \mathbb{k} \\ \downarrow i_0 \\ \mathbb{I} \\ \uparrow i_1 \\ \mathbb{k} \end{array} & := & \begin{array}{ccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{k} \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow (\mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{k}}, 0) \\ \mathbb{k} & \xrightarrow{(-\mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{k}}, \mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{k}})} & \mathbb{k} \oplus \mathbb{k} \\ \uparrow & & \uparrow (0, \mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{k}}) \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{k} \end{array} .
 \end{array}$$

This object $\mathbb{I} \in \mathbf{Ch}_{\mathbb{k}}$ (along with the two maps i_0 and i_1) is an *interval object* for the homotopy theory of chain complexes (which explains the notation).³³ The general definition of an interval object is suggested by the discussion of ???. In the present setting, this assertion amounts to the following result.

Exercise 3.2 (4 points). Given morphisms $f, g \in \mathbf{hom}_{\mathbf{Ch}_R}(M, N)$, prove that a homotopy $f \Rightarrow g$ is equivalent data to a morphism $\mathbb{I} \otimes M \xrightarrow{h} N$ that makes the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 \mathbb{k} \otimes M \cong M & & & & \\
 \downarrow i_0 \otimes \mathrm{id}_M & & \searrow f & & \\
 \mathbb{I} \otimes M & \xrightarrow{\quad h \quad} & N & & \\
 \uparrow i_1 \otimes \mathrm{id}_M & & \nearrow g & & \\
 \mathbb{k} \otimes M \cong M & & & &
 \end{array}$$

commute.

3.1.4. A morphism $M \xrightarrow{f} N$ in $\mathbf{Ch}_R$ is a *homotopy equivalence* if there exists a morphism $N \xrightarrow{g} M$ and homotopies $\mathrm{id}_M \Rightarrow g \circ f$ and $f \circ g \Rightarrow \mathrm{id}_N$.³⁴ We may indicate that a morphism is a homotopy equivalence by decorating it as $\xrightarrow{\sim}$.

As a special case, a complex $M_{\bullet}$ is contractible if and only if either unique map $0 \rightarrow M_{\bullet}$ or $M_{\bullet} \rightarrow 0$ is a homotopy equivalence.

³³This is a particularly natural choice of an interval object: as we will see, it is the (nondegenerate) simplicial chains (with coefficients in $\mathbb{k}$) on the 1-simplex Δ^1 (whose underlying topological space is a closed interval), and the two maps i_0 and i_1 are the simplicial chains on the inclusions of its two 0-simplices (i.e. the endpoints of the closed interval).

³⁴The directions of these homotopies are intended to be suggestive of adjunctions (with f functioning as the left adjoint), but by Exercise 3.1 (specifically the symmetry of the relation of homotopy) they are irrelevant. (Likewise, equivalences of categories are both left adjoints and right adjoints.)

Exercise 3.3 (3 points). Show that homotopic maps on complexes give equal maps on homology.

It follows immediately from Exercise 3.3 that homotopy equivalences are quasi-isomorphisms, and in particular that contractible complexes are acyclic. However, the converse is false.

Exercise 3.4 (10 points).

(a) Show that the complex

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{2} \mathbb{Z}/4 \xrightarrow{2} \mathbb{Z}/4 \xrightarrow{2} \mathbb{Z}/4 \xrightarrow{2} \cdots$$

of $\mathbb{Z}/4$ -modules is acyclic but not contractible.

(b) Show that the complex

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{x} \mathbb{k}[x]/x^2 \xrightarrow{x} \mathbb{k}[x]/x^2 \xrightarrow{x} \mathbb{k}[x]/x^2 \xrightarrow{x} \cdots$$

of $\mathbb{k}[x]/x^2$ -modules is acyclic. Show that it is contractible as a complex of $\mathbb{k}$ -modules, but not as a complex of $\mathbb{k}[x]/x^2$ -modules (assuming that $\mathbb{k} \neq 0$).

3.1.5. We will generally consider homotopic maps as “essentially interchangeable”. On the other hand, rather than merely positing the *existence* of a homotopy between two maps, we will always want to *keep track* of the homotopy that witnesses them as being homotopic. In fact, this will be accomplished by hom-complexes, which will also keep track of homotopies between homotopies, homotopies between those, ad infinitum (see ??).

The idea of keeping track of data instead of merely remembering its existence is a fundamental one in (higher) category theory, which has already appeared in §3.1.1 and will continue to feature prominently throughout this text.

3.2. Homotopy cokernels.

3.2.1. Recall that the cokernel of a morphism $M \xrightarrow{f} N$ in $\mathbf{Mod}_R$ is by definition an R -module $\mathrm{coker}(f) \in \mathbf{Mod}_R$ equipped with a morphism

$$N \xrightarrow{u} \mathrm{coker}(f)$$

satisfying the universal property that precomposition with u determines a natural bijection

$$\mathrm{hom}_{\mathbf{Mod}_R}(\mathrm{coker}(f), T) \xrightarrow{\cong} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{morphisms } N \rightarrow T \text{ such that the} \\ \text{composite } M \xrightarrow{f} N \rightarrow T \text{ is zero} \end{array} \right\}. \quad 35$$

³⁵Said differently, the cokernel of f is the pushout

$$\begin{array}{ccc} M & \xrightarrow{f} & N \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & \mathrm{coker}(f) \end{array},$$

i.e. the initial cocone under the diagram $0 \leftarrow M \xrightarrow{f} N$.

From here, the principles indicated in §3.1.5 lead directly to the definition of a **homotopy cokernel** of a morphism $M_\bullet \xrightarrow{f_\bullet} N_\bullet$ in $\mathbf{Ch}_R$: this is an object $\mathbf{hcoker}(f_\bullet) \in \mathbf{Ch}_R$ equipped with a morphism

$$N_\bullet \xrightarrow{u_\bullet} \mathbf{hcoker}(f_\bullet)$$

satisfying the universal property that precomposition with $u_\bullet$ determines a natural bijection

$$\mathrm{hom}_{\mathbf{Ch}_R}(\mathbf{hcoker}(f_\bullet), T_\bullet) \xrightarrow{\cong} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{morphisms } N_\bullet \rightarrow T_\bullet \text{ equipped with a} \\ \text{nullhomotopy of the composite } M_\bullet \xrightarrow{f_\bullet} N_\bullet \rightarrow T_\bullet \end{array} \right\} .^{36}$$

In fact, we have already seen an example of a homotopy cokernel: namely, for any morphism $M \xrightarrow{f} N$ in $\mathbf{Mod}_R$, the complex $(M \xrightarrow{f} \underline{N}) \in \mathbf{Ch}_R$ equipped with the map

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & \underline{N} \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \mathrm{id}_N \\ M & \xrightarrow{f} & \underline{N} \end{array}$$

is a homotopy cokernel of f (when considered in $\mathbf{Ch}_R$). More generally, given a morphism $M_\bullet \xrightarrow{f_\bullet} N_\bullet$ in $\mathbf{Ch}_R$, consider the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \xrightarrow{\begin{pmatrix} -d_1^M & 0 \\ f_1 & d_2^N \end{pmatrix}} & \begin{array}{c} M_0 \\ \oplus \\ N_1 \end{array} & \xrightarrow{\begin{pmatrix} -d_0^M & 0 \\ f_0 & d_1^N \end{pmatrix}} & \begin{array}{c} M_{-1} \\ \oplus \\ \underline{N_0} \end{array} & \xrightarrow{\begin{pmatrix} -d_{-1}^M & 0 \\ f_{-1} & d_0^N \end{pmatrix}} & \begin{array}{c} M_{-2} \\ \oplus \\ N_{-1} \end{array} & \xrightarrow{\begin{pmatrix} -d_{-2}^M & 0 \\ f_{-2} & d_{-1}^N \end{pmatrix}} & \cdots \end{array}$$

of R -modules.

³⁶Similarly, the homotopy cokernel of f may be characterized as the *homotopy pushout*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} M_\bullet & \xrightarrow{f_\bullet} & N_\bullet \\ \downarrow & \nearrow & \downarrow \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & \mathbf{hcoker}(f_\bullet) \end{array} ,$$

i.e. the *initial homotopy-coherent cocone* under the diagram $0 \leftarrow M_\bullet \xrightarrow{f_\bullet} N_\bullet$ (though we'll refrain from defining this notion precisely here). Here, the symbol $\Rightarrow$ indicates that the square only commutes up to a (specified) homotopy. This is an algebraic analog of the topological construction taking a map $X \rightarrow Y$ of spaces to the space

$$\mathbf{hcoker}(X \rightarrow Y) := Y \coprod_X \mathrm{cone}(X) ,$$

where $\mathrm{cone}(X) := (X \times [0, 1]) / (X \times \{0\})$ denotes the *cone* on the space X (and we consider X to be embedded as the subspace $X \times \{1\}$ thereof). This topological construction is often called the (*mapping*) *cone*, and as a result it is common to refer its algebraic analog using this same term. However, we prefer the term “homotopy cokernel” as it is more directly suggestive of the object’s “role in life” (a.k.a. its *raison d'être*). (It is also common to refer to this object as the *homotopy cofiber*, but that term deviates from the more standard terminology of “cokernel” (as opposed to “cofiber”) in the context of an abelian category.)

Exercise 3.5 (6 points). Verify that the above diagram indeed defines a complex and moreover is a homotopy cokernel of $f_\bullet$.

In particular, we find that for a morphism $M \xrightarrow{f} N$ in $\mathbf{Mod}_R$, we have a canonical morphism $\mathbf{hcoker}(f) \rightarrow \mathbf{coker}(f)$, and this is a quasi-isomorphism iff f is injective. This is an instance of the general principle that homotopically sensitive constructions are equivalent (in this case quasi-isomorphic) to their ordinary variants in “simple” situations (in this case, when there is no redundancy in the relations). More generally, we have the following.

Exercise 3.6 (6 points). Fix a morphism $M \xrightarrow{f} N$ in $\mathbf{Ch}_R$ that is injective in each dimension.

- (a) Show that the canonical morphism

$$\mathbf{hcoker}(f) \longrightarrow \mathbf{coker}(f)$$

to the levelwise cokernel is a quasi-isomorphism.

- (b) Give an example showing that this map need not be a homotopy equivalence.

As the following exercise illustrates, homotopy cokernels give us a way of translating conditions on morphisms between chain complexes to conditions on chain complexes themselves.

Exercise 3.7 (4 points). Fix a morphism $M \xrightarrow{f} N$ in $\mathbf{Ch}_R$.

- (a) Prove that f is a quasi-isomorphism iff $\mathbf{hcoker}(f)$ is acyclic.³⁷
 (b) Prove that f is a homotopy equivalence iff $\mathbf{hcoker}(f)$ is contractible.

³⁷The corresponding statement fails e.g. for spaces: there exist spaces X such that the morphism $X \rightarrow \mathbf{pt}$ is not a weak homotopy equivalence and yet $\Sigma X := \mathbf{hcoker}(X \rightarrow \mathbf{pt})$ is weakly contractible. Such spaces are called *acyclic*, as they are characterized by having the integral homology of a point.

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