

## LECTURE 25, MONDAY 10.05.04

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Galois cohomology studies the action of Galois groups on certain abelian groups (fields, rings, ideals, units, class groups, ...). A typical example is the following: let  $K/\mathbb{Q}$  be a normal extension and consider the exact sequence

$$(1) \quad 1 \longrightarrow E_K \longrightarrow K^\times \longrightarrow P_K \longrightarrow 1,$$

where  $E_K = \mathcal{O}_K^\times$  is the group of units of  $\mathcal{O}_K$ ,  $K^\times = K \setminus \{0\}$  is the unit group of  $K$ , and  $P_K$  is the group of nonzero principal ideals ( $\alpha$ ).

Now let  $A$  be an abelian group on which  $G = \text{Gal}(K/\mathbb{Q})$  acts; we say that  $A$  is a Galois module. In such a situation, we define the fixed module of  $A$  by  $A^G = \{a \in A : a^\sigma = a \text{ for all } \sigma \in G\}$ . It is the largest submodule of  $A$  on which  $G$  acts trivially.

In the above example, we have  $E_K^G = \mathbb{Z}^\times = \{\pm 1\}$  and  $(K^\times)^G = \mathbb{Q}^\times$ . If we had  $P_K^G = P_\mathbb{Q}$ , taking the fixed modules would transform (refE1) into the exact sequence

$$1 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}^\times \longrightarrow \mathbb{Q}^\times \longrightarrow P_\mathbb{Q} \longrightarrow 1.$$

But things are not that simple. Take e.g. the quadratic field  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ . Then  $(\sqrt{2})$  is a principal ideal, and it is fixed by  $G = \text{Gal}(K/\mathbb{Q})$  since  $(\sqrt{2}) = (-\sqrt{2})$ . Thus  $P_K^G$  contains  $(\sqrt{2})$ , but  $P_\mathbb{Q}$  does not.

This shows that taking fixed modules does not transform exact sequences into exact sequences (in more fancy words: it is not an exact functor from the category of  $G$ -modules to the category of abelian groups).

### 1. THE FIRST COHOMOLOGY GROUP

**Proposition 1.** *Let  $G$  be a group and*

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\iota} B \xrightarrow{\pi} C \longrightarrow 0$$

*and exact sequence of  $G$ -modules. Then*

$$0 \longrightarrow A^G \longrightarrow B^G \longrightarrow C^G$$

*is exact. In other words, taking fixed modules is a left exact functor from the category of  $G$ -modules to the category of abelian groups.*

*Proof.* Since we can view  $A$  as a subgroup of  $B$ , it is clear that  $A^G$  is a subgroup of  $B^G$ , hence the first map is injective. Now let  $\pi^G$  denote the restriction of  $\pi : B \rightarrow C$  to  $B^G$ . Clearly elements from  $A^G$  get killed by  $\pi^G$ , so take an element  $b \in \ker \pi^G$ . Then  $\pi(b) = 0$ , hence  $b = \iota(a)$  for some  $a \in A$ . Moreover,  $\iota(ga) = g\iota(a) = gb = b = \iota(a)$ , so  $\iota(ga - a) = 0$ , and since  $\iota$  is injective, we have  $ga = a$ . Thus  $a \in A^G$ , and the claim follows.  $\square$

Our example shows that we cannot paste some  $\rightarrow 0$  to the end of the exact sequence of fixed modules. Of course we could make it into an exact sequence by adding  $\rightarrow C^G/B^G \rightarrow 0$ , but that would not be of much help in practice. What

we will do instead is try to prove that  $B^G \longrightarrow C^G$  is surjective (of course we will not succeed) and use the information gained by doing this to get a clear picture of the obstruction to surjectivity.

We take an element  $c \in C^G$ . Since  $\pi$  is surjective, there is a  $b \in B$  such that  $\pi(b) = c$ . We would like to show that  $b \in B^G$ ; now  $\pi(gb) = g\pi(b) = gc = c = \pi(b)$ , hence  $\pi(gb - b) = 0$ , and therefore  $gb - b \in \ker \pi = \text{im } \iota$ . Thus there is an  $a_1 \in A$  such that  $gb - b = a_1$  (we now identify  $A$  with a subgroup of  $B$ ). If we could choose  $b$  in such a way that  $a_1 = 0$  for all  $g \in G$ , then we would have  $b \in B^G$  and we would be done.

The problem is that we cannot see how we should achieve this. What he have achieved so far is this: given  $c \in C^G$ , we have constructed a map  $x : G \longrightarrow A$  with  $x(g) = gb - b$ . This map  $x$  is not a homomorphism: we have  $x(gh) = gh(b) - b = g(h(b) - b) + g(b) - b = gx(h) + x(g)$ . Maps  $x : G \longrightarrow A$  with the property that  $x(gh) = gx(h) + x(g)$  are called *crossed homomorphisms*. They clearly form a group with respect to addition that will be denoted by  $C^1(G, A)$ .

Thus it seems we have constructed a map  $C^G \longrightarrow C^1(G, A)$ ; actually, we haven't, because the map sending  $c \in C^G$  to the crossed homomorphism  $x(g) = gb - b$  is not well defined: it depends on the choice of  $b$ . In fact, assume that  $\pi(b') = c$  and  $x'(g) = gb' - b'$ ; then  $\pi(b - b') = 0$ , so  $b - b' = a$  for some  $a \in A$ , hence  $x(g) - x'(g) = ga - a$ . Thus the maps  $x$  and  $x'$  differ by a very special map sending  $g$  to  $ga - a$ ; these maps are called split crossed homomorphism, and we will denote them by the elements  $a$  themselves: thus  $a : G \longrightarrow A$  is defined by  $a(g) = ga - a$ . The set of all split crossed homomorphisms is denoted by  $B^1(G, A)$  and forms a subgroup of  $C^1(G, A)$ . The quotient  $H^1(G, A) = C^1(G, A)/B^1(G, A)$  is called the first cohomology group of  $G$  with values in  $A$ .

What we have so far is this: to every element  $c \in C^G$  we have assigned a crossed homomorphism in  $C^1(G, A)$  that is defined up to a split crossed homomorphism in  $B^1(G, A)$ . In other words: we have a map  $C^G \longrightarrow H^1(G, A)$ . It is now straightforward to check that this map is a homomorphism, and that we have a long exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow A^G \longrightarrow B^G \longrightarrow C^G \longrightarrow H^1(G, A) \longrightarrow H^1(G, B) \longrightarrow H^1(G, C).$$

This suggests defining  $H^0(G, A) = A^G$ ; then the above sequence is a sequence of cohomology groups of dimension 0 and 1.

Instead of verifying this directly, we now go back, start from scratch, and let the snake lemma do the work.

## 2. SECOND CONSTRUCTION

Let  $X$  be a  $G$ -module; we define

$$C^1(G, X) = C^1(X) = \{x : G \longrightarrow X : x(gh) = gx(h) + x(g)\}.$$

We add these 1-cocycles via  $(x + y)(g) = x(g) + y(g)$ ; this makes  $C^1(G, X)$  into an abelian group. If  $G$  acts trivially on  $X$ , then clearly  $C^1(G, X) = \text{Hom}(G, X)$  is just the group of homomorphisms from  $G$  to  $A$ .

Next we address functoriality: a  $G$ -homomorphism  $f : X \longrightarrow Y$  between  $G$ -modules induces a homomorphism  $f^1 : C^1(G, X) \longrightarrow C^1(G, Y)$  via  $f^1 : C^1(X) \longrightarrow C^1(Y) : x \longmapsto f^1 \circ x$ . A simple calculation shows

**Lemma 2.** *If  $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$  is an exact sequence of  $G$ -modules, then*

$$0 \longrightarrow C^1(G, A) \longrightarrow C^1(G, B) \longrightarrow C^1(G, C)$$

*is an exact sequence of abelian groups.*

Thus  $C^1$  is a left exact functor from the category of  $G$ -modules to abelian groups. Next we define homomorphisms  $\lambda: X \rightarrow C^1(G, X)$ ; actually we already did that: for each  $x \in X$  we have the element  $x \in C^1(G, X)$  sending  $g \in G$  to  $gx - x$ . The kernel of  $\lambda$  consists of all elements  $x \in X$  for which  $gx - x = 0$  for all  $g \in G$ : this is exactly the fixed module  $X^G$ . Moreover, the image of  $\lambda$  is the set of all split crossed homomorphisms, hence  $\text{im } \lambda = B^1(G, X)$  and  $\text{coker } \lambda = H^1(G, X)$ . Thus we have an exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow X^G \longrightarrow X \longrightarrow C^1(G, X) \longrightarrow H^1(G, X) \longrightarrow 0.$$

Collecting everything into one big diagram we end up with

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ & & A^G & & B^G & & C^G \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A & \longrightarrow & B & \longrightarrow & C \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & C^1(A) & \longrightarrow & C^1(B) & \longrightarrow & C^1(C) \end{array}$$

The snake lemma then implies

**Proposition 3.** *For every exact sequence of  $G$ -modules*

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

*there is an exact sequence*

$$0 \longrightarrow A^G \longrightarrow B^G \longrightarrow C^G \longrightarrow H^1(G, A) \longrightarrow H^1(G, B) \longrightarrow H^1(G, C).$$

In general, the homomorphism  $H^1(G, B) \rightarrow H^1(G, C)$  will not be surjective. Attempting to prove that it is leads to a definition of groups  $H^2(G, A)$ , and this process can be continued indefinitely, giving us an infinite exact sequence of cohomology groups.

### 3. BASIC PROPERTIES

**Proposition 4.** *Any  $G$ -homomorphism  $f: A \rightarrow B$  of  $G$ -modules induces a homomorphism  $f^1: H^1(G, A) \rightarrow H^1(G, B)$  of abelian groups.*

*Proof.* Exercise. □

**Proposition 5.** *Let  $G$  be a finite group of order  $n$ ; then  $H^1(G, A)$  is a torsion group killed by  $n$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $x \in C^1(G, A)$ ; we have to show that  $nx \in B^1(G, A)$ . Now  $x(g) = x(h^{-1}hg) = h^{-1}x(hg) + x(h^{-1})$ ; adding these equations for all  $h \in G$  and putting  $a = \sum_{h \in G} x(h^{-1})$  we find

$$nx(g) = a + \sum_{h \in G} h^{-1}x(hg) = a + g \left( \sum_{h \in G} (hg)^{-1}x(hg) \right).$$

As  $h$  runs through  $G$ , so does  $hg$ ; moreover  $0 = x(1) = x(h^{-1}h) = h^{-1}x(h) + x(h^{-1})$ , hence  $h^{-1}x(h) = -x(h^{-1})$  and  $\sum_{h \in G} h^{-1}x(h) = -a$ . Thus  $nx(g) = a - ga$  for all  $g \in G$ , and this shows that  $nx \in B^1(G, A)$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 6.** *If  $G$  is a finite group of order  $n$  and if  $A$  is uniquely divisible by  $n$  (i.e., every equation  $ny = a$  has a unique solution for all  $a \in A$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ), then  $H^1(G, A) = 0$ .*

*Proof.* The short exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{n} A \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0$$

yields

$$0 \longrightarrow H^1(G, A) \xrightarrow{n} H^1(G, A) \longrightarrow H^1(G, 0) = 0,$$

i.e., multiplication by  $n$  induces an automorphism of  $H^1(G, A)$ ; since  $H^1(G, A)$  is killed by  $n$ , we conclude that  $H^1(G, A) = 0$ .  $\square$

The group  $\mathbb{Q}$  is uniquely divisible by any  $n \geq 1$ . A finite group of order  $m$  is uniquely divisible by any  $n$  coprime to  $m$ . This implies in particular that  $H^1(G, A) = 0$  if  $G$  and  $A$  are finite groups with coprime order.