

The Geometry of Module Extensions*

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1.

When we teach linear algebra to undergraduates, probably the first major result we prove is the following: if V is a vector space over a field and W is a subspace of V , then every basis of W can be extended to a basis of V . As a consequence, for W in V , there exists U in V so that $W \oplus U = V$.

These results really have nothing to do with the commutativity of the field. They remain true (with essentially the same proof) for vector spaces over a "non-commutative field" or division ring.

If we focus on the direct sum consequence above, then this holds over even more general coefficient rings. Explicitly, let R be a ring and consider the following property of modules over R :

- (*) Given an R -module V and a submodule W , then there exists a submodule U of V so that $W \oplus U = V$.

Every full matrix algebra over a division ring has this property (*); and so (therefore) does every finite product of such rings. The surprise is that the converse is true: if R has the property (*), then R must have the above structure. Such a ring is called semi-simple. This basic result was found in essence by Wedderburn in the first decade of the century, and in the general form by Artin in the twenties.

There is a useful restatement of (*). Given an exact sequence of R -modules,

$$0 \longrightarrow W \longrightarrow V \xrightarrow{\pi} W' \longrightarrow 0,$$

we say the sequence splits if there is a homomorphism $\tau : W' \longrightarrow V$ so that $\tau\pi$ is the identity on W' . Then $V = W \oplus W'\tau$. Property (*) is equivalent to the statement that every exact sequence of R -modules splits.

To understand the modules over a ring we need to know the simple modules, which form the building blocks of all modules, and to understand how the simple modules may be glued together. For semi-simple rings, the

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gluing process is irrelevant since then every module is a direct sum of simple modules. But for non semi-simple rings, there are usually many ways of gluing together two modules. The study of this is called extension theory.

The most important ring in mathematics is not semi-simple. I mean, of course, the ring of natural integers, \mathbb{Z} . Let p be a prime and write $M = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$. So M is a simple \mathbb{Z} -module. A sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow V \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0$$

may or may not split: if $V = \mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z}$, then it is non-split. Suppose we enlarge the kernel:

$$0 \longrightarrow M \oplus M \longrightarrow E \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0.$$

A little experimentation shows that we must have $E \simeq V \oplus M$, with V as before. The same conclusion holds however large we make the kernel: if we use $M^{(k)}$ instead of $M^{(2)}$, then $E \simeq V \oplus M^{(k-1)}$.

What happens if we enlarge the image? Given

$$0 \longrightarrow M^{(k)} \longrightarrow E \longrightarrow M^{(2)} \longrightarrow 0,$$

we find $E \simeq W \oplus M^{(k-2)}$, where W arises in an extension

$$0 \longrightarrow M^{(2)} \longrightarrow W \longrightarrow M^{(2)} \longrightarrow 0.$$

There are various possibilities for W . (1) It could, of course, simply be $M^{(4)}$ (which happens if the sequence splits); (2) it could have the form $W \simeq U \oplus M$, where U arises in the non-split sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow U \longrightarrow M^{(2)} \longrightarrow 0;$$

or (3) W may have no direct summand M .

In this last case W is unique. To make this precise, we use the following general definition. Two extensions (exact sequences) of modules over an arbitrary ring

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow E_1 \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow 0 \\ 0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow E_2 \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow 0 \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

are *isomorphic* if there exists an isomorphism $\varphi : E_1 \longrightarrow E_2$ so that φ induces the identity on B .

The module W in this case (3) above is uniquely determined to within an isomorphism. In case (2), there are various possibilities for U . We may view $M^{(2)}$ as a two dimensional vector space over the prime field Z/pZ and this has $p + 1$ different one dimensional subspaces. Each such subspace yields some U and two different one-dimensional subspaces yield non-isomorphic extensions.

If we replace $M^{(2)}$ by $M^{(3)}$, $M^{(4)}$, ..., things get progressively more complicated. But there is a pattern behind it all as we shall see.

2.

We now make a fresh start. Let R be a given ring, B a fixed R -module and M a simple R -module. We are after the global structure of the totality of all extensions of the form

$$0 \longrightarrow M^{(k)} \longrightarrow E \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow 0$$

for $k \geq 0$.

To state the results we need some preparation. For an extension over B , meaning an exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\iota} E \xrightarrow{\pi} B \longrightarrow 0, \quad (2)$$

we adopt the abbreviated notation $(A|E)$ and write its isomorphism class as $[A|E]$.

(I) *The push-out and pull-back.* These two easy constructions are quite general and were learnt by algebraists from the topologists.

Given (2) and a homomorphism $\alpha : A \longrightarrow C$, we construct the following picture:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & A & \xrightarrow{\iota} & E & \xrightarrow{\pi} & B & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ & & \downarrow \alpha & & \downarrow & & \parallel & & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & C & \longrightarrow & H & \longrightarrow & B & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array},$$

by setting $H = (C \oplus E)/N$, where N is the submodule generated by all $(a\alpha, -a\iota)$, $a \in A$. The lower sequence is called the *pushout* to $(A|E)$ via α and we shall denote it by $(A|E)\alpha$.

If we are given a homomorphism $\beta : C \rightarrow B$, we produce the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & A & \xrightarrow{\iota} & E & \xrightarrow{\pi} & B \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \parallel & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \beta \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A & \longrightarrow & L & \longrightarrow & C \longrightarrow 0 \end{array},$$

where $L = \{(e, c) \in E \oplus C \mid e\pi = c\beta\}$. This is the *pull-back*.

(II) *Products*. Given extensions $(A_1|E_1)$, $(A_2|E_2)$, we construct the pull-back to

$$0 \longrightarrow A_1 \oplus A_2 \longrightarrow E_1 \oplus E_2 \longrightarrow B \oplus B \longrightarrow 0$$

via $\beta : B \rightarrow B \oplus B$, $b\beta = (b, b)$. This is the product of the extensions and written $(A_1|E_1) \prod (A_2|E_2)$.

(III) *Ext*(B, A). Two extensions, as in (1) above, are called *equivalent* if they are isomorphic and the isomorphism $\varphi : E_1 \rightarrow E_2$ induces the identity on A. This is an equivalence relation on the totality of extensions over B with kernel A; we denote the set of all equivalence classes by *Ext*(B, A) and the class containing $(A|E)$ by $\overline{(A|E)}$.

Given $(A|E_1)$, $(A|E_2)$, let $\alpha : A \oplus A \rightarrow A$ be $(x, y) \mapsto x + y$; define a binary operation + on *Ext*(B, A) by

$$\overline{(A|E_1)} + \overline{(A|E_2)} = \overline{((A|E_1) \prod (A|E_2))\alpha}.$$

This makes *Ext*(B, A) into an additive group. If $\varphi \in \text{End}_R A$, the *R*-endomorphism ring of A, then we define

$$\overline{(A|E)}\varphi = \overline{(A|E)\varphi}.$$

Now *Ext*(B, A) is a module over *End*_R A.

We apply this with $M = A$. Since *M* is simple, *End*_R *M* = *D* is a division ring. We are now exclusively interested in extensions of the form $(M^{(k)}|E)$. So without loss of clarity we may denote such an extension by $(k|E)$. If $(k|E)$ has no direct summand isomorphic to *M*, we call $(k|E)$ an *essential cover* (of B). This is equivalent to having $M^{(k)}$ contained in the

Frattini module of E : if W is a submodule of E so that $W + M^{(k)} = E$, then $W = E$.

Theorem *Every extension $(k|E)$ can be decomposed uniquely (to within an isomorphism) in the form*

$$(l|F) \amalg S,$$

where $(l|F)$ is an essential cover and S is a split extension: $S = M^{(k-l)} \oplus B$.

This theorem allows us henceforth to focus our attention on essential covers. Now at last, the geometry promised in the title of this lecture enters the discussion.

Given $(k|E)$, define

$$(k|E)_M = \{ \overline{(k|E)\varphi} \mid \varphi \in \text{Hom}_R(M^{(k)}, M) \}.$$

Thus $()_M$ is a mapping of extensions to subsets of $\text{Ext}(B, M)$. This mapping has some very nice properties:

- (a) $(k|E)_M$ is a D -submodule of $\text{Ext}(B, M)$;
- (b) $((k|E) \amalg (l|F))_M = (k|E)_M + (l|F)_M$;
- (c) if $(k|E)$ is essential, then k is the dimension over D of $(k|E)_M$;
- (d) $(k|E)_M \supset (l|F)_M$ if, and only if, there exists $(k|E) \rightarrow (l|F)$.

(By $(k|E) \rightarrow (l|F)$ we mean a diagram of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & M^{(k)} & \longrightarrow & E & \longrightarrow & B \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \parallel \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & M^{(l)} & \longrightarrow & F & \longrightarrow & B \longrightarrow 0 \end{array} \quad .)$$

Clearly, $()_M$ induces a mapping $[]_M$ on the isomorphism classes of extensions.

Theorem $[]_M$ is a bijection of the set of all isomorphism classes of essential covers onto the set \mathcal{P} of all finitely generated D -submodules of $\text{Ext}(B, M)$.

Thus \mathcal{P} is precisely the projective geometry on the D -space $Ext(B, M)$. The geometric containment relation corresponds to the existence of morphisms between the extensions (in the sense of (d) above). The theorem makes it plain that we have a unique maximal essential cover — the one corresponding to the ambient space $Ext(B, M)$ — provided this is finitely generated over D .

For example, if $R = Z$, $B = \mathcal{F}_p^{(n)}$, $M = \mathcal{F}_p$, then $D = \mathcal{F}_p$ and $\dim_D Ext(B, M) = n$. The case we examined at the start was $n = 2$, the projective line.

3.

The above theory also applies to group extensions. To see how this comes about it is best to use a general method of passing from group extensions to module extensions, and back. Here is a brief description.

A surjective group homomorphism $\pi : E \rightarrow G$ gives rise, by linearization, to a ring homomorphism $\pi : ZE \rightarrow ZG$. In particular, if $G = 1$, then π is the usual augmentation map on ZE and the kernel is $(E - 1)$, the ideal in ZE generated by all elements $e - 1$, $e \in E$. In general, if A is the kernel of $E \rightarrow G$, then the kernel of $ZE \rightarrow ZG$ is the ideal in ZE generated by the augmentation ideal $(A - 1)$ of A :

$$0 \rightarrow (A - 1)E \rightarrow ZE \xrightarrow{\pi} ZG \rightarrow 0.$$

Of course, $(E - 1)\pi = (G - 1)$, the augmentation ideal of G . We now obtain an exact sequence of ZG -modules by factoring out the action of A :

$$0 \rightarrow (A - 1)E / (E - 1)(A - 1) \rightarrow (E - 1) / (E - 1)(A - 1) \rightarrow (G - 1) \rightarrow 0. \quad (3)$$

Here

$$A/A' \simeq (A - 1)E / (E - 1)(A - 1)$$

via $aA' \mapsto (a - 1) + (E - 1)(A - 1)$ and the isomorphism is one of G -modules. Henceforth, assume A is abelian ($A' = 1$).

Now suppose we are given an exact sequence of ZG -modules,

$$0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow V \xrightarrow{\varphi} (G - 1) \rightarrow 0.$$

We wish to construct a group extension over G with kernel A . Let GV be the split extension of V (normal) by G and let $\psi : GV \rightarrow G(G - 1)$ be the group homomorphism

$$(g, v) \mapsto (g, v\varphi).$$

If $\theta : G \longrightarrow G(G-1)$ is $g \longmapsto (g, g-1)$, then θ is an embedding of G and $G\theta\psi^{-1} = E$ is a group giving the required extension

$$1 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow E \xrightarrow{\psi\theta^{-1}} G \longrightarrow 1. \quad (4)$$

These two constructions are, in a natural way, inverse to each other. They provide a dictionary for translating module theory to group theory, and vice versa.

If M is a simple G -module, then an essential cover of $(G-1)$ with kernel $M^{(k)}$ corresponds to a group extension E over G whose kernel $M^{(k)}$ is contained in the Frattini group of E (a Frattini extension). Moreover, we have a bijection between the isomorphism classes of Frattini extensions

$$1 \longrightarrow M^{(k)} \longrightarrow E \longrightarrow G \longrightarrow 1$$

and isomorphism classes of essential covers

$$0 \longrightarrow M^{(k)} \longrightarrow V \longrightarrow (G-1) \longrightarrow 0.$$

So these isomorphism classes of group extensions form a projective geometry on $Ext((G-1), M)$ over $D = End_G M$.

As a very simple example, let G be the direct product of two cyclic groups of order 2 and M the trivial G -module $Z/2Z$. Then $D = \mathcal{F}_2$ and $Ext((G-1), M)$ has dimension 3 over \mathcal{F}_2 . We therefore have a projective plane with 7 points and 7 lines. If two points are commutative (correspond to commutative extension groups), then the line joining them is also commutative (it corresponds to the extension-theoretic product, by property (b) of the mapping $(\)_M$). Hence there are exactly 3 commutative points. One sees quite easily that there are 3 dihedral points, whence the remaining point must be quaternion.

If G is a finite, but otherwise unrestricted group and M is any simple G -module, then $Ext((G-1), M)$ is certainly finitely generated over D and hence our theory ensures the existence of a unique maximal Frattini extension. This fact was first proved by Gaschütz in the early fifties (by a completely different method); when M is a trivial module the result essentially goes back to work of Schur in the early part of the century.

Relevant Literature.

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