Notes on Deligne's theorem

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December 11, 2017

Contents

1 Introduction

> Algebra is the offer made by the devil to the mathematician. The devil says: I will give you this powerful machine, it will answer any questions you like. All you need to do is give me your soul: give up geometry and you will have this marvelous machine.
>
> M. Atiyah, 2002

These are the notes I took while learning about Deligne's theorem on tensor categories and its applications to physics, in particular supersymmetry.

Almost none of the material is original, including the order of presentation, which follows [11] *very* closely.

The fact that it's just a collection of notes means that it assumes as background more or less exactly what I knew before I started (although I have made some effort to keep it self-contained).

2 Algebra

In this chapter we collect some basic definitions and corollaries so that we may refer to them later. The methods of proof are often non-standard, as we prefer to provide proofs whose methods lend themselves to categorification.

2.1 Monoids

Definition 2.1.1 (monoid)**.** A monoid is a set M together with a binary operation $\cdot\colon M \times M \to M$ such that

- $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$ for all a, b, c, and
- There exists an element $1 \in M$ such that $1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a$ for all $a \in M$.

Lemma 2.1.1. *The above definition is equivalent to the following.*

Let M be a set, $\cdot$ an associative binary operation on M. Then we say M is a monoid if there is an element $1 \in M$ such that $1 \cdot 1 = 1$ and the maps $M \to M$, $a \mapsto 1 \cdot a$ and $a \mapsto a \cdot 1$ are bijections.

Proof. If $1 \cdot a = a$ for all a, then the maps $a \to 1 \cdot a$ and $a \mapsto a \cdot 1$ are trivially bijections.

Now, if the map $a \mapsto 1 \cdot a$ is a bijection, then every element a of M can be written $a = 1 \cdot a'$ for some a' in M. Then

$$\begin{aligned} 1 \cdot a &= 1 \cdot (1 \cdot a') \\ &= (1 \cdot 1) \cdot a' \\ &= 1 \cdot a' \\ &= a. \end{aligned}$$

The proof for right-multiplication by 1 is identical. □

2.2 Groups

Definition 2.2.1 (group)**.** A group $(G, \cdot)$ is a monoid with inverses, i.e. a set G with a function $\cdot\colon G \times G \to G$ which is

1. Associative: $(ab)c = a(bc)$
2. Unital: There is an element $e \in G$ such that $eg = ge$ for all $g \in G$
3. Invertible: for all $g \in G$, there is an element $g^{-1} \in G$ such that $gg^{-1} = g^{-1}g = e$

Lemma 2.2.1. *The above definition is equivalent to the following.*

A group is a monoid such that for all $g \in G$, the maps $G \to G$; $h \mapsto gh$ and $h \mapsto hg$ are bijections.

Proof. If all elements of G are invertible, left-multiplication is obviously bijective. Now suppose left-multiplication by g is a bijection. Then for any $h \in G$, there exists an element $h' \in G$ such that $g \cdot h' = h$. But this is certainly true in particular when $h = e$, so all elements of G are invertible.

The right-multiplication case is identical. □

Definition 2.2.2 (abelian group)**.** A group G is abelian if for all $a, b \in G$, $ab = ba$.

Definition 2.2.3 (free abelian group)**.** Let E be a set. The free abelian group generated by E is the group whose elements are formal finite sums of elements of E.

Definition 2.2.4 (direct sum of abelian groups)**.** Let A, B be abelian groups. Their direct sum, denote $A \oplus B$, is the group whose

1. underlying set is $A \times B$, the cartesian product of the underlying sets of A and B, and whose
2. multiplication is given component-wise.

2.3 Rings

Definition 2.3.1. (ring) A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a set R with two binary operations $+$ and $\cdot$ such that

0. R is closed under $+$ and $\cdot$.
1. R is an Abelian group with respect to $+$.
2. $\cdot$ is associative: $(xy)z = x(yz)$.
3. $\cdot$ is distributive from the left and from the right: $x(y+z) = xy + xz$, $(x+y)z = xz + yz$.

Further,

- R is a commutative ring if $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ for all a, $b \in R$.
- R is a ring with identity if R contains an element 1_R such that $1_R \cdot x = x \cdot 1_R$ for all $x \in R$.

Definition 2.3.2 (zero-divisor)**.** A nonzero element a in a ring R is said to be a left (right) zero divisor if there exists $b \neq 0$ such that $ab = 0$ $(ba = 0)$. A zero divisor is an element of R which is both a left and a right zero divisor.

Definition 2.3.3 (invertible element)**.** An element a in a ring R is said to be left- (right-)invertible if there exists $b \in R$ such that $ab = 1$ $(ba = 1)$. An element $a \in \mathbb{R}$ which is both left- and right-invertible is said to be invertible, or a unit.

Definition 2.3.4 (field)**.** A field is a commutative ring such that every nonzero element has a multiplicative inverse.

Example 2.3.1 (important example)**.** Let X be a topological space. The set

$$C^1(X) = \left\{ f\colon X \to \mathbb{R} \,\middle|\, f \text{ continuous} \right\}$$

is a commutative ring with identity, with addition and multiplication defined pointwise. To see this, we need to check the axioms in Definition 2.3.1:

0. The sum of two continuous functions is continuous; the product of two continuous functions is continuous.
1. $C^1(X)$ inherit its abelian group structure from the real numbers; the additive identity is the function which maps all $x \in X$ to $0 \in \mathbb{R}$.
2. Associativity is inherited from the real numbers
3. Distributivity is inherited from the real numbers.

Definition 2.3.5 (ring homomorphism)**.** Let R and S be rings. A function $f\colon R \to S$ is a ring homomorphism if

$$f(a+b) = f(a) + f(b), \qquad \text{and} \qquad f(ab) = f(a)f(b).$$

Definition 2.3.6 (ring isomorphism)**.** A ring isomorphism is a bijective ring homomorphism.

Definition 2.3.7 (ideal)**.** Let R be a ring and I a nonempty subset of R. I is called a left (right) ideal if

1. I is closed under addition:
$$a, b \in I \implies a + b \in I.$$

2. I absorbs elements of R under multiplication:
$$r \in R \quad \text{and} \quad x \in I \implies rx \in I \quad (xr \in I).$$

If I is both a left and a right ideal, it is called an ideal.

Theorem 2.3.1. *Let R be a ring, and let $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a set of [left] ideals of X. Then*
$$A = \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i$$
is an ideal.

Proof. According to Definition 2.3.7, we need to check two things:

1. Closure under addition: let a, $b \in A$. Then $a + b$ is in each of the A_i, so it must be in their intersection.
2. Absorption: for any $a \in A$ and any $r \in R$, ra must be in A_i for all i; hence it must be in their intersection.

□

Definition 2.3.8 (ideal generated by a subset)**.** Let X be a subset of a ring R. Let $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$ be the family of all [left] ideals in R which contain X. Then
$$\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i$$
is called the [left] ideal generated by X, and is denoted (X). The elements of X are called the generators of (X).

Definition 2.3.9 (localization)**.** Let R be a commutative ring with unity, and let S be a subset of R. The localization of R at S is given, as a set, by the quotient
$$R \times S/\sim,$$
where $(r_1, r_2) \sim (s_1, s_2)$ if there exists $t \in S$ such that
$$t(r_1 s_2 - r_2 s_1) = 0.$$
It is easy to check that this is an equivalence relation.

The multiplication and addition on $S^{-1}R$ are defined via
$$(r_1, s_2) \times (r_2, s_2) = (r_1 r_2, s_1 s_2),$$
and
$$(r_1, s_2) + (r_2, s_2) = (r_1 s_2 + r_2 s_1, s_1 s_2).$$

Note 2.3.1. The idea is to think of $S^{-1}R$ as consisting of fractions $\frac{r}{s}$. The addition and multiplication laws are therefore just mimic the addition and multiplication of fractions.

There is a ring homomorphism $R \to S^{-1}R$ which maps $r \mapsto \frac{r}{1}$. This is not injective in general.

2.4 Modules

Definition 2.4.1 (module)**.** Let R be a ring. A (left) R-module is an additive abelian group A together with a function $*\colon R \times A \to A$ such that for all r, $s \in R$ and a, $b \in A$,

1. $r * (a + b) = r * a + r * b$
2. $(r + s) * a = r * a + s + a$
3. $(rs) * a = r * (s * a)$.

If R has an identity element 1_R and $1_R * a = a$ for all $a \in A$, then A is said to be a unitary R-module.

Note 2.4.1. Right R-modules are defined in the obvious way.

Note 2.4.2. We will now stop notationally differentiating between R-multiplication and A-multiplication, using juxtaposition for both.

Definition 2.4.2 (bimodule)**.** A R-S-bimodule is an Abelian group A which is a left R-module and a right S-module, such that

$$(ra)s = r(as) \qquad \text{for all } r \in R, \quad s \in S, \quad a \in A.$$

We say that the left-multiplication and the right multiplication are *consistent*.

Theorem 2.4.1. *If R is a commutative ring and A is a left R-module, then A can be canonically transformed into a right module or a bimodule.*

Proof. With $ar \equiv ra$, A is both a right R-module and an R-bimodule. The axioms in Definition 2.4.1 are immediate. ☐

Definition 2.4.3 (nilpotent)**.** Let R be a ring. An element $r \in R$ is said to be nilpotent if

$$r^n = 0 \qquad \text{for some } n \in \mathbb{N}^+.$$

Definition 2.4.4 (commutator)**.** Let R be a ring, a, $b \in R$. The commutator of a and b is

$$[a, b] \equiv ab - ba.$$

Theorem 2.4.2. *Let R be a ring, a, $b \in R$. The commutator satisfies the following properties.*

- $[a, b] = -[b, a]$
- $[a, [b, c]] + [b, [c, a]] + [c, [a, b]] = 0.$

Further, if A is a ring and B is an A-algebra (in the sense of Definition 2.5.1), then for any $a \in A$, b, $c \in B$, the following identity holds.

$$a[b, c] = [ab, c] = [b, ac] = [b, ca] = [b, a]c.$$

Proof.

- $[a, b] = ab - ba = -(ba - ab) = -[b, a]$.
- We have

$$\begin{aligned} [a, [b, c]] &= a(bc - cb) - (bc - cb)a \\ [b, [c, a]] &= b(ca - ac) - (ca - ac)b \\ [c, [a, b]] &= c(ab - ba) - (ab - ba)c, \end{aligned}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} [a, [b, c]] + [b, [c, a]] + [c, [a, b]] = \quad & abc - acb - bca + cba \\ & + bca - bac - cab + acb \\ & + cab - cba - abc + bac. \end{aligned}$$

Terms cancel in pairs.

- $a[b, c] = a(bc - cb) = (ab)c - c(ab) = [ab, c] = b(ac) - (ac)b = [b, ac] = (bc - cb)a = [b, c]a.$

☐

Definition 2.4.5 (free module)**.** Let E be a set, R be a ring. The free left module of E over R, denoted $R^{(E)}$, is the module whose elements are are finite formal R-linear combinations of the elements of E.

Example 2.4.1. The free abelian group over a set E is also a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module over E with the identification

$$\underbrace{a + a + \cdots + a}_{n \text{ times}} = na.$$

Definition 2.4.6 (projective module)**.** Let A be a commutative ring, and P an A-module. One says that P is projective if for any A-module epimorphism $\varphi\colon Q \to R$ and any homomorphism $\psi\colon P \to R$. there exists a homomorphism $\xi\colon P \to Q$ such that $\varphi \circ \xi = \psi$, i.e. the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} & P \arrow[dl, dashed, "\exists\xi"'] \arrow[d, "\psi"] \\ Q \arrow[r, two heads, "\varphi"'] & R \end{tikzcd}$$

Definition 2.4.7 (finitely generated module)**.** Let R be a ring, M be an R-module. We say that M is finitely generated if there exist m_1, m_2, $\ldots$, m_k such that any $m \in M$ can be expressed

$$m = r_1 m_1 + r_2 m_2 + \cdots + r_k m_k$$

for some $r_i \in R$.

Note 2.4.3. We are *not* demanding that the m_1 be linearly independent.

2.5 Algebras

Definition 2.5.1 (algebra over a ring)**.** Let R be a commutative ring. An R-algebra is a ring A which is also an R-module (with left-multiplication $*\colon R \times A \to A$) such that the multiplication map $\cdot\colon A \times A \to A$ is R-bilinear, i.e.

$$r * (a \cdot b) = (r * a) \cdot b = a \cdot (r * b), \qquad \text{for any } a, b \in A, \quad r \in R.$$

Theorem 2.5.1. *Let A, R be unital rings, R commutative, and let $f\colon R \to A$ be a unital ring homomorphism. Then A naturally has the structure of an R-module. Furthermore, if the image of R is in the center of A, then A naturally has the structure of an R-algebra.*

Proof. Define the action

$$*\colon R \times A \to A; \qquad (r, a) \mapsto f(r) \cdot a.$$

The verification that this makes A into an R-module is trivial; we need only check left and right distributivity, associativity, and that $1_R * a = a$. We omit this.

To see that what we have is even an algebra, we need to check that $*$ is bilinear, i.e.

$$r * (a \cdot b) = f(r) \cdot (a \cdot b) = (f(r) \cdot a) \cdot b = (r * a) \cdot b$$

and

$$r * (a \cdot b) = f(r) \cdot a \cdot b = a \cdot f(r) \cdot b = a \cdot (r * b).$$

□

Often we are interested specifically in algebras over a field. In that case we have the following.

Definition 2.5.2 (algebra over a field)**.** An algebra A over a field k is a k-vector space with a k-bilinear product $A \times A \to A$.

Further, an algebra A is

- associative if for all a, b, $c \in A$, $(a \times b) \times c = a \times (b \times c)$.
- unitary if there exists an element $1 \in A$ such that $1 \times a = a \times 1 = a$ for all $a \in A$.

Note 2.5.1. In general, algebras are taken to be associative and unital by default. A notable exception is Lie algebras.

2.6 Tensor products

In this section we give a brief overview of the construction of the tensor product.

Definition 2.6.1 (middle-linear map)**.** Let R be a ring, M be a right R-module, N a left R-module, and G an abelian group. A map $\varphi\colon M \times N \to G$ is said to be R-middle-linear if for all m, $m' \in M$, n, $n' \in N$, and $r \in R$ we have

1. $\varphi(m, n + n') = \varphi(m, n) + \varphi(m, n')$
2. $\varphi(m + m', n) = \varphi(m, n) + \varphi(m', n)$
3. $\varphi(m \cdot r, n) = \varphi(m, r \cdot n)$.

Definition 2.6.2 (tensor product of modules)**.** Let R be a ring, M be a right R-module, N a left R-module. The tensor product of M and N, denoted $M \otimes_R N$, is constructed as follows.

Let F be the free abelian group generated by $M \times N$ (Definition 2.2.3). Let K be the subgroup of F generated by elements of the form

- $(m, n + n') - (m, n) - (m, n')$
- $(m + m', n) - (m, n) - (m'n)$
- $(m \cdot r, n) - (m, r \cdot n)$.

The tensor product of M and N is then

$$M \otimes_R N = F/K.$$

Note 2.6.1. If R is commutative, then we can canonically make M and N into bimodules. In this case we don't need to distinguish between left and right multiplication. If R is a field, we recover the notion of the 'standard' tensor product, which is usually given by the following definition.

Definition 2.6.3 (tensor product of vector spaces)**.** Let k be a field, V and W k-vector spaces. The tensor product $V \otimes W$ is the vector space defined as follows.

Denote by $\mathcal{F}(V \times W)$ the free vector space over $V \times W$. Consider the vector subspace K of $\mathcal{F}(V \times W)$ generated by elements of the forms

- $(v_1 + v_2, w) - (v_1, w) - (v_2, w)$
- $(v, w_1 + w_2) - (v, w_1) - (v, w_2)$
- $(\alpha v, w) - \alpha(v, w)$
- $(v, \alpha w) - \alpha(v, w)$

for all v_1, $v_2 \in V$, w_1, $w_2 \in W$, $\alpha \in k$. Then define

$$V \otimes W = \mathcal{F}(V \times W)/K.$$

Pairs $(v, w) \in V \times W$ are called representing tuples.

Definition 2.6.4 (tensor product of linear maps)**.** Let V, W, X, and Y be k-vector spaces, and let $S\colon V \to X$, $T\colon W \to Y$. Then the tensor product of S and T is the map

$$S \otimes T\colon V \otimes W \to X \otimes Y; \qquad (v \otimes w) \mapsto S(v) \otimes T(w).$$

Of course, one must show that this is well-defined by showing that it vanishes on the subspace by which one quotients in the definition of the tensor product. But this is trivial.

3 Categories

In this chapter (and to some extent the following chapters), I will do my best to stick to the conventions used at the nlab ([20]).

3.1 Basic definitions

Definition 3.1.1 (category)**.** A category C consists of

- a class $\mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ of *objects*, and
- for every two objects A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, a class $\mathrm{Hom}(A, B)$ of *morphisms* with the following properties.
  1. For $f \in \mathrm{Hom}(A, B)$ and $g \in \mathrm{Hom}(B, C)$, there is an associated morphism
  $$g \circ f \in \mathrm{Hom}(A, C),$$
  called the *composition* of f and g.
  2. This composition is associative.
  3. For every $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, there is at least one morphism 1_A, called the *identity morphism* which functions as both a left and right identity with respect to the composition of morphisms.

Note 3.1.1. There is a reason we say that the objects and morphisms of a category are a *class* rather than a set. It may be that there may be 'too many' objects to be contained in a set. For example, we will see that there is a category of sets, but there is no set of all sets. Categories whose objects and/or morphisms *are* small enough to be contained in a set will play an especially important role.

Notation 3.1.1. Following Aluffi ([10]), we will use the sans-serif font `mathsf` to denote categories. For example C, Set.

If ever it is potentially unclear which category we are talking about, we will add a subscript to Hom, writing for example $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$ instead of $\mathrm{Hom}(A, B)$.

Notation 3.1.2. The identity morphism 1_A is often simply denoted by A. We will avoid this in the earlier chapters since it is potentially confusing, but use it freely in later chapters.

Example 3.1.1. The prototypical category is Set, the category whose objects are sets and whose morphisms are set functions.

Example 3.1.2 (category with one object)**.** The category $\mathsf{1}$, where $\mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{1})$ is the singleton $\{*\}$, and the only morphism is the identity morphism $\mathrm{id}_*\colon * \to *$.

Example 3.1.3. Pretty much all standard algebraic constructions naturally live in categories. For example, we have

- the category Grp, whose objects are groups and whose morphisms are group homomorphisms;
- the category Ab, whose objects are abelian groups and whose morphisms are group homomorphisms;
- the category Ring, whose objects are rings and whose morphisms are ring homomorphisms;
- the category R-Mod, whose objects are modules over a ring R and whose morphisms are module homomorphisms;
- the category Vect_k, whose objects are vector spaces over a field k and whose morphisms are linear maps;
- the category $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$, whose objects are finite-dimensional vector spaces over a field k and whose morphisms are linear maps;

- the category Alg_k, whose objects are algebras over a field k and whose morphisms are algebra homomorphisms.

Example 3.1.4. In addition to algebraic structures, categories help to formulate geometric structures, such as

- the category Top, whose objects are topological spaces and whose morphisms are continuous maps;
- the category Met, whose objects are metric spaces and whose morphisms are metric maps;
- the category Man^p, whose objects are manifolds of class C^p and whose morphisms are p-times differentiable functions;
- the category $\mathsf{SmoothMfd}$, whose objects are C^∞ manifolds and whose morphisms are smooth functions

and many more.

Here are a few ways we can use existing categories to create new ones.

Definition 3.1.2 (opposite category)**.** Let C be a category. The opposite category C^{op} is the category whose objects are the same as the objects $\mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and whose morphisms $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}}}(A, B)$ are defined to be the morphisms $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B, A)$.

That is to say, the opposite category is the category one gets by formally reversing all the arrows in a category. If $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$, i.e. $f \colon A \to B$, then in C^{op}, $f \colon B \to A$.

Definition 3.1.3 (product category)**.** Let C and D be categories. The product category $\mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{D}$ is the category whose

- objects are ordered pairs (C, D), where $C \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and $D \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{D})$, whose
- morphisms are ordered pairs (f, g), where $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(C_1, C_2)$ and $g \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(D_1, D_2)$, in which
- composition is taken componentwise, so that

  $$(f_1, g_1) \circ (f_2, g_2) = (f_1 \circ g_1, f_2 \circ g_2),$$

  and
- the identity morphisms are given in the obvious way:

  $$1_{(C,D)} = (1_C, 1_D).$$

Definition 3.1.4 (subcategory)**.** Let C be a category. A category S is a subcategory of C if

- The objects $\mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{S})$ of S are a subcollection of the objects of C
- For S, $T \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{S})$, the morphisms $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{S}}(S, T)$ are a subcollection of the morphisms $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(S, T)$ such that
  - for every $S \in \mathrm{Obj}(S)$, the identity $1_C \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{S}}(S, S)$.
  - for all $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{S}}(S, T)$ and $g \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{S}}(T, U)$, the composite $g \circ f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{S}}(S, U)$.

If S is a subcategory of C, we will write $\mathsf{S} \subseteq \mathsf{C}$.

Definition 3.1.5 (full subcategory)**.** Let C be a category, $\mathcal{I} \colon \mathsf{S} \hookrightarrow \mathsf{C}$ a subcategory. We say that S is full in C if for every S, $T \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{S})$, $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{S}}(S, T) \simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(S, T)$. That is, if there are no morphisms in $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(S, T)$ which cannot be written $\mathcal{I}(f)$ for some $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{S}}(S, T)$.

Example 3.1.5. Recall that Vect_k is the category of vector spaces over a field k, and $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$ is the category of finite dimensional vector spaces.

It is not difficult to see that $\mathsf{FinVect}_k \subseteq \mathsf{Vect}_k$: all finite dimensional vector spaces are vector spaces, and all linear maps between finite-dimensional vector spaces are maps between vector spaces. In fact, since for V and W finite-dimensional, one does not gain any maps by moving from $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{FinVect}_k}(V, W)$ to $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Vect}_k}(V, W)$, $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$ is even a *full* subcategory of Vect_k.

Category theory has many essences, one of which is as a major generalization of set theory. We would like to upgrade definitions and theorems about functions between sets to definitions and theorems about morphisms between objects in a category. It is here that we run into our first major challenge: in general, the objects of a category are *not* sets, so we cannot talk about their elements. We therefore have to find definitions which we can give purely in terms objects and morphisms between them.

Definition 3.1.6 (isomorphism)**.** Let C be a category, A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. A morphism $f \in \mathrm{Hom}(A, B)$ is said to be an isomorphism if there exists a morphism $g \in \mathrm{Hom}(B, A)$ such that

$$g \circ f = 1_A, \qquad \text{and} \quad f \circ g = 1_B.$$

If we have an isomorphism $f\colon A \to B$, we say that A and B are isomorphic, and write $A \simeq B$.

Definition 3.1.7 (monomorphism)**.** Let C be a category, A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. A morphism $f\colon A \to B$ is said to be a monomorphism if for all $Z \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and all g_1, $g_2\colon Z \to A$, $f \circ g_1 = f \circ g_2$ implies $g_1 = g_2$.

$$\begin{tikzcd} Z \arrow[r, shift left, "g_1"] \arrow[r, shift right, "g_2"'] & A \arrow[r, "f"] & B \end{tikzcd}$$

Note 3.1.2. When we wish to notationally distinguish monomorphisms, we will denote them by hooked arrows: if $f\colon A \to B$ is mono, we will write

$$A \xhookrightarrow{f} B\ .$$

Theorem 3.1.1. *In* Set*, a morphism is a monomorphism precisely when it is injective.*

Proof. Suppose $f\colon A \to B$ is a monomorphism. Then for any set Z and any maps g_1, $g_2\colon Z \to A$, $f \circ g_1 = f \circ g_2$ implies $g_1 = g_2$. In particular, take $Z = \{*\}$ and suppose $g_1(*) = a_1$ and $g_2(*) = a_2$. Then $(f \circ g_1)(*) = f(a_1)$ and $(f \circ g_2)(*) = f(a_2)$, so

$$f(a_1) = f(a_2) \implies a_1 = a_2.$$

But this is exactly the definition of injectivity.

Now suppose that f is injective. Then for any Z and g_1, g_2 as above,

$$(f \circ g_1)(z) = (f \circ g_2)(z) \implies g_1(z) = g_2(z) \qquad \text{for all } z \in Z.$$

But this means that $g_1 = g_2$, so f is mono. □

Example 3.1.6. In Vect_k, monomorphisms are injective linear maps.

Definition 3.1.8 (epimorphism)**.** Let C be a category, A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. A morphism $f\colon A \to B$ is said to be a epimorphism if for all $Z \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and all g_1, $g_2\colon B \to Z$, $g_1 \circ f = g_2 \circ f$ implies $g_1 = g_2$.

$$\begin{tikzcd} A \arrow[r, "f"] & B \arrow[r, shift left, "g_1"] \arrow[r, shift right, "g_2"'] & Z \end{tikzcd}\ .$$

Notation 3.1.3. We will denote epimorphisms by two-headed right arrows. That is, if $f\colon A \to B$ is epi, we will write

$$\begin{tikzcd} A \arrow[r, two heads, "f"] & B \end{tikzcd}$$

Example 3.1.7. In Set, epimorphisms are surjections.

Example 3.1.8. In Vect_k, epimorphism are surjective linear maps.

Note 3.1.3. In Set, isomorphisms are bijections, bijections are injective surjections, and injective surjections are monic epimorphisms, so a morphism is iso if and only if it is monic and epic. This is *not* true in general: a morphism can be monic and epic without being an isomorphism.

Take, for example, Top, where the morphisms are continuous maps. In order for a morphism f to be monic and epic, it is necessary only that it be injective and surjective; it must have a set-theoretic inverse. However its inverse does not have to be continuous, and therefore may not be a morphism in Top.

Set theory has some foundational annoyances: not every collection of objects is small enough to be a set, for example. Category theory has its own foundational issues, which for the most part we will avoid. However, there are a few important situations in which foundational questions play an unavoidably important role.

Definition 3.1.9 (small, locally small, hom-set)**.** A category C is

- small if $\mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ is a set and for all objects A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$ is a set.
- locally small if for all A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$ is a set. In this case, we call $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$ the hom-set. (Actually, terminology is often abused, and $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$ is called a hom-set even if it is not a set.)

Example 3.1.9. Here is a slightly whimsical example of a category, which will turn out to have great relevance for Deligne's theorem.

Let G be a group. Let us create a category G which behaves like this group.

- Our category G has only one object, called $*$.
- The set $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{G}}(*, *)$ is equal to the underlying set of the group G, and for f, $g \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{G}}(*, *)$, the compositions $f \circ g = f \cdot g$, where $\cdot$ is the group operation in G. The identity $e \in G$ is the identity morphism 1_* on $*$.

$$\begin{tikzcd} * \arrow[loop above, "g"] \arrow[loop left, "h"] \arrow[loop right, "e=1_*"] \arrow[loop below, "g\circ h"] \end{tikzcd}$$

Note: since each $g \in G$ has an inverse, every morphism in G is an isomorphism.

3.2 Functors

Just as morphisms connect objects in the same category, functors allow us to connect different categories. In fact, functors can be viewed as morphisms in a 'category of categories.'

Definition 3.2.1 (functor)**.** Let C and D be categories. A functor $\mathcal{F}$ from C to D is a mapping which associates

- to each object $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ an object $\mathcal{F}(X) \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{D})$.
- to each morphism $f \in \mathrm{Hom}(X, Y)$ a morphism $\mathcal{F}(f)$ such that $\mathcal{F}(1_X) = 1_{\mathcal{F}(X)}$ for all X, and one of the two following properties are satisfied.
  - The morphism $f \in \mathrm{Hom}(\mathcal{F}(X), \mathcal{F}(Y))$ and if $f : X \to Y$ and $g \colon Y \to Z$, then
  $$\mathcal{F}(g \circ f) = \mathcal{F}(g) \circ \mathcal{F}(f).$$
  In this case we say that $\mathcal{F}$ is covariant.
  - The morphism $f \in \mathrm{Hom}(\mathcal{F}(Y), \mathcal{F}(X))$, and if $f \colon X \to Y$ and $g \colon Y \to Z$, then
  $$\mathcal{F}(g \circ f) = \mathcal{F}(f) \circ \mathcal{F}(g).$$
  In this case, we say that $\mathcal{F}$ is contravariant.

Notation 3.2.1. We will typeset functors with calligraphic letters using the font `eucal`, and notate them with squiggly arrows. For example, if C and D are categories and $\mathcal{F}$ is a functor from C to D, then we would write
$$\mathcal{F} \colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}.$$

Note 3.2.1. One can also define a contravariant functor $\mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$ as a covariant functor $\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$.

Note 3.2.2. When the adjective is unspecified, a *functor* will mean a *covariant functor*.

Example 3.2.1. Let $\mathsf{1}$ be the category with one object $*$ (Example 3.1.2). Let C be any category. Then for each $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, we have the functor

$$\mathcal{F}_X : \mathsf{1} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}; \qquad \mathcal{F}(*) = X, \quad \mathcal{F}(\mathrm{id}_*) = \mathrm{id}_X.$$

Example 3.2.2. Recall that Grp is the category of groups. Denote by CRing the category of commutative rings.

We can construct the following functors $\mathsf{CRing} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Grp}$.

- The functor GL_n, which assigns to each commutative ring the group of all $n \times n$ matrices with nonzero determinant, and to each morphism $f\colon K \to K'$ the homomorphism $\mathrm{GL}_n(K) \to \mathrm{GL}_n(K')$ which maps a matrix with entries in K to a matrix with entries in K' by mapping each entry individually.
- The functor $(\,\cdot\,)^*$, which maps each commutative ring K to its group of units K^*, and each morphism $K \to K'$ to its restriction to K^*.

One of the nice things about functors is that they map commutative diagrams to commutative diagrams. For example, if $\mathcal{F}$ is a contraviariant functor, then one might see the following.

$$\begin{tikzcd} A \arrow[rr, "h=g\circ f"] \arrow[dr, "f"'] & & B \\ & C \arrow[ur, "g"'] & \end{tikzcd} \quad \overset{\mathcal{F}}{\rightsquigarrow} \quad \begin{tikzcd} \mathcal{F}(A) & & \mathcal{F}(B) \arrow[ll, "\mathcal{F}(h)=\mathcal{F}(f)\circ\mathcal{F}(g)"'] \arrow[dl, "\mathcal{F}(g)"] \\ & \mathcal{F}(C) \arrow[ul, "\mathcal{F}(f)"] & \end{tikzcd}$$

Definition 3.2.2 (full, faithful)**.** Let C and D be locally small categories (Definition 3.1.9), and let $\mathcal{F} : \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$. Then $\mathcal{F}$ induces a family of set-functions

$$\mathcal{F}_{X,Y} : \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X,Y) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(X), \mathcal{F}(Y)).$$

We say that $\mathcal{F}$ is

- full if $\mathcal{F}_{X,Y}$ is surjective for all X, $Y \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$
- faithful if $\mathcal{F}_{X,Y}$ is injective for all X, $Y \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$,
- fully faithful if $\mathcal{F}$ is full and faithful.

Note 3.2.3. Fullness and faithfulness are *not* the functorial analogs of surjectivity and injectivity. A functor between small categories can be full (faithful) without being surjective (injective) on objects. Instead, we have the following result.

Lemma 3.2.1. *A fully faithful functor is injective on objects up to isomorphism. That is, if $\mathcal{F}\colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$ is a fully faithful functor and $\mathcal{F}(A) \simeq \mathcal{F}(B)$, then $A \simeq B$.*

Proof. Let $\mathcal{F}\colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$ be a fully faithful functor, and suppose that $\mathcal{F}(A) \simeq \mathcal{F}(B)$. Then there exist $f'\colon \mathcal{F}(A) \to \mathcal{F}(B)$ and $g'\colon \mathcal{F}(B) \to \mathcal{F}(A)$ such that $f' \circ g' = 1_{\mathcal{F}(B)}$ and $g' \circ f' = 1_{\mathcal{F}(A)}$. Because the function $\mathcal{F}_{A,B}$ is bijective it is invertible, so there is a unique morphism $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A,B)$ such that $\mathcal{F}(f) = f'$, and similarly there is a unique $g \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B,A)$ such that $\mathcal{F}(g) = g'$.

Now,

$$1_{\mathcal{F}(A)} = g' \circ f' = \mathcal{F}(g) \circ \mathcal{F}(f) = \mathcal{F}(g \circ f),$$

and since $\mathcal{F}$ is injective, we must have $g \circ f = 1_A$. Identical logic shows that we must also have $f \circ g = 1_B$. Thus $A \simeq B$. ☐

Definition 3.2.3 (essentially surjective)**.** A functor $\mathcal{F}\colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$ is essentially surjective if for every $A' \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{D})$, there exists $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ such that $A' \simeq \mathcal{F}(A)$.

Example 3.2.3 (diagonal functor)**.** Let C be a category, $\mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C}$ the product category of C with itself. The diagonal functor $\Delta\colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C}$ is the functor which sends

- each object $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ to the pair $(A,A) \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C})$, and
- each morphism $f\colon A \to B$ to the ordered pair

$$(f,f) \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}\times\mathsf{C}}(A \times B, A \times B).$$

Definition 3.2.4 (bifunctor)**.** A bifunctor is a functor whose domain is a product category (Definition 3.1.3).

Example 3.2.4. Recall Example 3.1.9. Let G be a group, and G the category which mimics it.

Then functors $\rho\colon \mathsf{G} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Vect}_k$ are k-linear representations of G!

To see this, let us unwrap the definition. The functor ρ assigns to $* \in \mathsf{Obj}(\mathsf{G})$ an object $\rho(*) = V \in \mathsf{Obj}(\mathsf{Vect})$, and to each morphism $g\colon * \to *$ a morphism $\rho(g)\colon V \to V$. This assignment sends units to units, and this composition is associative.

3.3 Natural transformations

Saunders Mac Lane, one of the fathers of category theory, used to say that he invented categories so he could talk about functors, and he invented functors so he could talk about natural transformations. Indeed, the first paper ever published on category theory, published by Eilenberg and Mac Lane in 1945, was titled "General Theory of Natural Equivalences." [23]

Natural transformations provide a notion of 'morphism between functors.' They allow us much greater freedom in talking about the relationship between two functors than equality.

Here is a motivating example. Let A and B be sets. There is an isomorphism from $A \times B$ to $B \times A$ which is given by switching the order of the ordered pairs:

$$\mathrm{swap}_{A,B}\colon (a,b) \mapsto (b,a).$$

Similarly, for sets C and D, there is an isomorphism $C \times D$ to $D \times C$ which is given by switching the order of ordered pairs.

$$\mathrm{swap}_{C,D}\colon (c,d) \mapsto (d,c).$$

In some obvious intuitive sense, these isomorphisms are really the same isomorphism. However, it is not obvious how to formalize this, since the definition of a function contains the information about the image and coimage, so they cannot be equal as functions.

Here is how it is done. Notice that for *any* functions $f\colon A \to C$ and $g\colon B \to D$, the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} A \times B \arrow[r, "{(f,g)}"] \arrow[d, "\mathrm{swap}_{A,B}"'] & C \times D \arrow[d, "\mathrm{swap}_{C,D}"] \\ B \times A \arrow[r, "{(g,f)}"] & D \times C \end{tikzcd}$$

That is to say, if you're trying to go from $A \times B$ to $D \times C$ and all you've got is functions $f\colon A \to B$ and $g\colon C \to D$ and the two swap isomorphisms, it doesn't matter whether you use the swap isomorphism on $A \times B$ and then use (g,f) to get to $D \times C$, or immediately go to $C \times D$ with (f,g), then use the swap isomorphism there: the result is the same. Furthermore, this is true for *any* functions f and g.

As we will see, the cartesian product of sets is a functor from the product category (Definition 3.1.3) $\mathsf{Set} \times \mathsf{Set}$ to Set which maps (A,B) to $A \times B$. There is another functor $\mathsf{Set} \times \mathsf{Set} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$ which sends (A,B) to $B \times A$. The above means that there is a natural isomorphism, called swap, between them.

This example makes clear another common theme of natural transformations: they formalize the idea of 'the same function between different objects.' They allow us to make precise statements like '$\mathrm{swap}_{A,B}$ and $\mathrm{swap}_{C,D}$ are somehow the same, despite the fact that they are in no way equal as functions.'

Definition 3.3.1 (natural transformation)**.** let C and D be categories, and let $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ be covariant functors from C to D. a natural transformation η between $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ consists of

- for each object $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ a morphism $\eta_A\colon \mathcal{F}(A) \to \mathcal{G}(A)$, such that
- for all A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(C)$, for each morphism $f \in \mathrm{Hom}(A,B)$, the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathcal{F}(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{F}(f)"] \arrow[d, "\eta_A"'] & \mathcal{F}(B) \arrow[d, "\eta_B"] \\ \mathcal{G}(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{G}(f)"'] & \mathcal{G}(B) \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes.

If the functors $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ are contravariant, the changes needed to make the definition make sense are obvious: basically, some arrows need to be reversed. However, this is one of those times where it's easier, in line with Note 3.2.1, to just pretend that we have a covariant functor from the opposite category.

Definition 3.3.2 (natural isomorphism)**.** A natural isomorphism $\eta\colon \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ is a natural transformation such that each η_A is an isomorphism.

Notation 3.3.1. We will use double-shafted arrows to denote natural transformations: if $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ are functors and η is a natural transformation from $\mathcal{F}$ to $\mathcal{G}$, we will write

$$\eta\colon \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}.$$

Definition 3.3.3 (set of all natural transformations)**.** Let C and D be categories, $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ functors $\mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$. The set of all natural transformations $\mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ is denoted $\mathrm{Nat}(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{G})$.

Example 3.3.1. Recall the functors GL_n and $(\cdot)^*$ from Example 3.2.2.

Denote by $\det_K M$ the determinant of a matrix M with its entries in a commutative ring K. Then the determinant is a map

$$\det_K\colon \mathrm{GL}_n(K) \to K^*.$$

Because the determinant is defined by the same formula for each K, the action of f commutes with $\det_K$: it doesn't matter whether we map the entries of M with f first and then take the determinant, or take the determinant first and then feed the result to f.

That is to say, the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathrm{GL}_n(K) \arrow[r, "\det_K"] \arrow[d, "\mathrm{GL}_n(f)"'] & K^* \arrow[d, "f^*"] \\
\mathrm{GL}_n(K') \arrow[r, "\det_{K'}"] & K'^*
\end{tikzcd}$$

But this means that det is a natural transformation $\mathrm{GL}_n \Rightarrow (\,\cdot\,)^*$.

We can compose natural transformations in the obvious way.

Lemma 3.3.1. *Let C and D be categories, $\mathcal{F}$, $\mathcal{G}$, $\mathcal{H}$ be functors, and Φ and Ψ be natural transformations as follows.*

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathsf{C} \arrow[r, rightsquigarrow, bend left=60, "\mathcal{F}"{name=F}] \arrow[r, rightsquigarrow, "\mathcal{G}"{name=G, description}] \arrow[r, rightsquigarrow, bend right=60, "\mathcal{H}"'{name=H}] & \mathsf{D}
\arrow[from=F, to=G, Rightarrow, "\Phi"]
\arrow[from=G, to=H, Rightarrow, "\Psi"]
\end{tikzcd}$$

This induces a natural transformation $\mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{H}$.

Proof. For each object $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, the composition $\Psi_A \circ \Phi_A$ exists and maps $\mathcal{F}(A) \to \mathcal{H}(A)$. Let's write

$$\Psi_A \circ \Phi_A = (\Psi \circ \Phi)_A.$$

We have to show that these are the components of a natural transformation, i.e. that they make the following diagram commute for all A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, all $f : A \to B$.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathcal{F}(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{F}(f)"] \arrow[d, "(\Psi\circ\Phi)_A"'] & \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{B}) \arrow[d, "(\Psi\circ\Phi)_B"] \\
\mathcal{H}(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{H}(f)"] & \mathcal{H}(B)
\end{tikzcd}$$

We can do this by adding a middle row.

$$
\begin{tikzcd}
\mathcal{F}(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{F}(f)"] \arrow[d, "\Phi_A"'] & \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{B}) \arrow[d, "\Phi_B"] \\
\mathcal{G}(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{G}(f)"] \arrow[d, "\Psi_A"'] & \mathcal{G}(B) \arrow[d, "\Psi_B"] \\
\mathcal{H}(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{H}(f)"] & \mathcal{H}(B)
\end{tikzcd}
$$

The top and bottom squares are the naturality squares for Φ and Ψ respectively. The outside square is the one we want to commute, and it manifestly does because each of the inside squares does. $\square$

Definition 3.3.4 (vertical composition)**.** The above composition $\Psi \circ \Phi$ is called vertical composition.

Definition 3.3.5 (functor category)**.** Let C and D be categories. The functor category $\mathsf{Func}(\mathsf{C}, \mathsf{D})$ (sometimes D^{C} or $[\mathsf{C}, \mathsf{D}]$) is the category whose objects are functors $\mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$, and whose morphisms are natural transformations between them. The composition is given by vertical composition.

We can also compose natural transformations in a not so obvious way.

Lemma 3.3.2. *Consider the following arrangement of categories, functors, and natural transformations.*

$$
\begin{tikzcd}
\mathsf{C} \arrow[r, bend left, squiggly, "\mathcal{F}"] \arrow[r, bend right, squiggly, "\mathcal{F}'"'] \arrow[r, phantom, "\Downarrow\Phi"] & \mathsf{D} \arrow[r, bend left, squiggly, "\mathcal{G}"] \arrow[r, bend right, squiggly, "\mathcal{G}'"'] \arrow[r, phantom, "\Downarrow\Psi"] & \mathsf{E}
\end{tikzcd}
$$

This induces a natural transformation $\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}' \circ \mathcal{F}'$.

Proof. By definition, Φ and Ψ make the diagrams

$$
\begin{tikzcd}
\mathcal{F}(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{F}(f)"] \arrow[d, "\Phi_A"'] & \mathcal{F}(B) \arrow[d, "\Phi_B"] \\
\mathcal{F}'(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{F}'(f)"'] & \mathcal{F}'(B)
\end{tikzcd}
\quad \text{and} \quad
\begin{tikzcd}
\mathcal{G}(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{G}(f)"] \arrow[d, "\Psi_A"'] & \mathcal{G}(B) \arrow[d, "\Psi_B"] \\
\mathcal{G}'(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{G}'(f)"'] & \mathcal{G}'(B)
\end{tikzcd}
$$

commute respectively. Since functors take commutative diagrams to commutative diagrams, we can map everything in the first diagram to E with $\mathcal{G}$.

$$
\begin{tikzcd}
(\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F})(A) \arrow[r, "(\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F})(f)"] \arrow[d, "\mathcal{G}(\Phi_A)"'] & (\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F})(B) \arrow[d, "\mathcal{G}(\Phi_B)"] \\
(\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F}')(A) \arrow[r, "(\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}')(f)"] & (\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F}')(B)
\end{tikzcd}
$$

Also, since $\mathcal{F}'(f) \colon \mathcal{F}'(A) \to \mathcal{F}'(B)$ is a morphism in D and Ψ is a natural transformation, the following diagram commutes.

$$
\begin{tikzcd}
(\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F}')(A) \arrow[r, "(\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}')(f)"] \arrow[d, "\Psi_{\mathcal{F}'(A)}"'] & (\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F}')(B) \arrow[d, "\Psi_{\mathcal{F}'(B)}"] \\
(\mathcal{G}' \circ \mathcal{F}')(A) \arrow[r, "(\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F}')(f)"] & (\mathcal{G}' \circ \mathcal{F}')(B)
\end{tikzcd}
$$

Sticking these two diagrams on top of each other gives a new commutative diagram.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F})(A) \arrow[r, "(\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F})(f)"] \arrow[d, "\mathcal{G}(\Phi_A)"'] & (\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F})(B) \arrow[d, "\mathcal{G}(\Phi_B)"] \\
(\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}')(A) \arrow[r, "(\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}')(f)"] \arrow[d, "\Psi_{\mathcal{F}'(A)}"'] & (\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}')(B) \arrow[d, "\Psi_{\mathcal{F}'(B)}"] \\
(\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F}')(A) \arrow[r, "(\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F}')(f)"] & (\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F}')(B)
\end{tikzcd}$$

The outside rectangle is nothing else but the commuting square for a natural transformation

$$(\Psi * \Phi)\colon \mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F}'$$

with components $(\Psi * \Phi)_A = \Psi_{\mathcal{F}(A)} \circ \mathcal{G}(\Phi_A)$. □

Definition 3.3.6 (horizontal composition)**.** The natural transformation $\Psi * \Phi$ defined above is called the horizontal composition of Φ and Ψ.

Note 3.3.1. Really, the above definition of the horizontal composition is lopsided and ugly. It becomes less so if we notice the following. The first step in our construction of $\Psi * \Phi$ was to apply the functor $\mathcal{G}$ to the commutative diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathcal{F}(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{F}(f)"] \arrow[d, "\Phi_A"'] & \mathcal{F}(B) \arrow[d, "\Phi_B"] \\
\mathcal{F}'(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{F}'(f)"'] & \mathcal{F}'(B)
\end{tikzcd}.$$

We could instead have applied the functor $\mathcal{G}'$, giving us the following.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F})(A) \arrow[r, "(\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F})(f)"] \arrow[d, "\mathcal{G}'(\Phi_A)"'] & (\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F})(B) \arrow[d, "\mathcal{G}'(\Phi_B)"] \\
(\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F}')(A) \arrow[r, "(\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F}')(f)"] & (\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F}')(B)
\end{tikzcd}$$

Then we could have glued to it the bottom of the following commuting square.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F})(A) \arrow[r, "(\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F})(f)"] \arrow[d, "\Psi_{\mathcal{F}(A)}"'] & (\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F})(B) \arrow[d, "\Psi_{\mathcal{F}(B)}"] \\
(\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F})(A) \arrow[r, "(\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F})(f)"] & (\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F})(B)
\end{tikzcd}$$

If you do this you get *another* natural transformation $\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F}'$, with components $\mathcal{G}'(\Phi_A)\circ\Psi_{\mathcal{F}(A)}$. Why did we use the first definition rather than this one?

It turns out that $\Psi_{\mathcal{F}(A)} \circ \mathcal{G}(\Phi_A)$ and $\mathcal{G}'(\Phi_A)\circ\Psi_{\mathcal{F}(A)}$ are equal. To see this, pick any $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{A})$. From the morphism

$$\Phi_A\colon \mathcal{F}(A) \to \mathcal{F}'(A),$$

the natural transformation Ψ gives us a commuting square

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F})(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{G}(\Phi_A)"] \arrow[d, "\Psi_{\mathcal{F}(A)}"'] & (\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}')(A) \arrow[d, "\Psi_{\mathcal{F}'(A)}"] \\
(\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F})(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{G}'(\Phi_A)"] & (\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F}')(A)
\end{tikzcd};$$

the two ways of going from top left to bottom right are nothing else but $\Psi_{\mathcal{F}(A)} \circ \mathcal{G}(\Phi_A)$ and $\mathcal{G}'(\Phi_A) \circ \Psi_{\mathcal{F}(A)}$.

Example 3.3.2 (whiskering)**.** Consider the following assemblage of categories, functors, and natural transformations.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, bend left, "\mathcal{F}", ""{name=U, below}] \arrow[r, bend right, "\mathcal{F}'"', ""{name=D, above}] & \mathsf{D} \arrow[r, "\mathcal{G}"] & \mathsf{E} \arrow[Rightarrow, from=U, to=D, "\Phi"] \end{tikzcd}$$

The horizontal composition allows us to Φ to a natural transformation $\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F}$ to $\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F}'$ as follows. First, augment the diagram as follows.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, bend left, "\mathcal{F}", ""{name=U, below}] \arrow[r, bend right, "\mathcal{F}'"', ""{name=D, above}] & \mathsf{D} \arrow[r, bend left, "\mathcal{G}", ""{name=U2, below}] \arrow[r, bend right, "\mathcal{G}"', ""{name=D2, above}] & \mathsf{E} \arrow[Rightarrow, from=U, to=D, "\Phi"] \arrow[Rightarrow, from=U2, to=D2, "1_{\mathcal{G}}"] \end{tikzcd}$$

We can then take the horizontal composition of Φ and $1_{\mathcal{G}}$ to get a natural transformation from $\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F}$ to $\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F}'$ with components

$$(1_{\mathcal{G}} * \Phi)_A = \mathcal{G}(\Phi_A).$$

This natural transformation is called the *right whiskering* of Φ with $\mathcal{G}$, and is denoted $\mathcal{G}\Phi$. That is to say, $(\mathcal{G}\Phi)_A = \mathcal{G}(\Phi_A)$.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, bend left, "\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}", ""{name=U, below}] \arrow[r, bend right, "\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}'"', ""{name=D, above}] & \mathsf{E} \arrow[Rightarrow, from=U, to=D, "\mathcal{G}\Phi"] \end{tikzcd}$$

The reason for the name is clear: we removed a whisker from the RHS of our diagram.

We can also remove a whisker from the LHS. Given this:

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, "\mathcal{F}"] & \mathsf{D} \arrow[r, bend left, "\mathcal{G}", ""{name=U, below}] \arrow[r, bend right, "\mathcal{G}'"', ""{name=D, above}] & \mathsf{E} \arrow[Rightarrow, from=U, to=D, "\Psi"] \end{tikzcd}$$

we can build a natural transformation (denoted $\Psi\mathcal{F}$) with components

$$(\Psi\mathcal{F})_A = \Psi_{\mathcal{F}(A)},$$

making this:

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, bend left, "\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}", ""{name=U, below}] \arrow[r, bend right, "\mathcal{G}'\circ\mathcal{F}"', ""{name=D, above}] & \mathsf{E} \arrow[Rightarrow, from=U, to=D, "\Psi\mathcal{F}"] \end{tikzcd}.$$

This is called the *left whiskering* of Ψ with $\mathcal{F}$

Lemma 3.3.3. *If we have a natural isomorphism $\eta\colon \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}$, we can construct a natural isomorphism $\eta^{-1}\colon \mathcal{G} \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$.*

Proof. The natural transformation gives us for any two objects A and B and morphism $f\colon A \to B$ a naturality square

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathcal{F}(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{F}(f)"] \arrow[d, "\eta_A"'] & \mathcal{F}(B) \arrow[d, "\eta_B"] \\ \mathcal{G}(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{G}(f)"] & \mathcal{G}(B) \end{tikzcd}$$

which tells us that

$$\eta_B \circ \mathcal{F}(f) = \mathcal{G}(f) \circ \eta_A.$$

Since η is a natural isomorphism, its components η_A are isomorphisms, so they have inverses η_A^{-1}. Acting on the above equation with η_A^{-1} from the right and η_B^{-1} from the left, we find

$$\mathcal{F}(f) \circ \eta_A^{-1} = \eta_B^{-1} \circ \mathcal{G}(f),$$

i.e. the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathcal{G}(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{G}(f)"] \arrow[d, "\eta_A^{-1}"'] & \mathcal{G}(B) \arrow[d, "\eta_B^{-1}"] \\ \mathcal{F}(A) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{F}(f)"] & \mathcal{F}(B) \end{tikzcd}$$

But this is just the naturality square for a natural isomorphism η^{-1} with components $(\eta^{-1})_A = \eta_A^{-1}$. $\square$

We would like to be able to express when two categories are the 'same.' The correct notion of sameness is provided by the following definition.

Definition 3.3.7 (categorical equivalence)**.** Let C and D be categories. We say that C and D are equivalent if there is a pair of functors

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, squiggly, shift left, "\mathcal{F}"] & \mathsf{D} \arrow[l, squiggly, shift left, "\mathcal{G}"] \end{tikzcd}$$

and natural isomorphisms $\eta\colon \mathcal{F}\circ\mathcal{G} \Rightarrow 1_{\mathsf{C}}$ and $\varphi\colon 1_{\mathsf{C}} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}$.

Note 3.3.2. The above definition of categorical equivalence is equivalent to the following: C and D are equivalent if there is a functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$ which is fully faithful (Definition 3.2.2) and essentially surjective (Definition 3.2.3). That is to say, if the equivalence $\mathcal{F}$ is 'bijective up to isomorphism.'

Definition 3.3.8 (essentially small category)**.** A category C is said to be essentially small if it is equivalent to a small category (Definition 3.1.9).

Example 3.3.3. Let G be a group, G the category which mimics it, and let ρ and $\rho'\colon \mathsf{G} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Vect}$ be representations (recall Example 3.2.4.)

A natural transformation $\eta\colon \rho \Rightarrow \rho'$ is called an *intertwiner*. So what *is* an intertwiner?

Well, η has only one component, $\eta_*\colon \rho(*) \to \rho'(*)$, which is subject to the condition that for any $g \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{G}}(*,*)$, the diagram below commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \rho(*) \arrow[r, "\rho(g)"] \arrow[d, "\eta_*"'] & \rho(*) \arrow[d, "\eta_*"] \\ \rho'(*) \arrow[r, "\rho'(g)"] & \rho'(*) \end{tikzcd}$$

That is, an intertwiner is a linear map $\rho(*) \to \rho'(*)$ such that for all g,

$$\eta_* \circ \rho(g) = \rho'(g) \circ \eta_*.$$

3.4 Some special categories

3.4.1 Comma categories

Definition 3.4.1 (comma category)**.** Let A, B, C be categories, $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{T}$ functors as follows.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{A} \arrow[r, squiggly, "\mathcal{S}"] & \mathsf{C} & \mathsf{B} \arrow[l, squiggly, "\mathcal{T}"'] \end{tikzcd}$$

The comma category $(\mathcal{S} \downarrow \mathcal{T})$ is the category whose

- objects are triples (α, β, f) where $\alpha \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{A})$, $\beta \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{B})$, and $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(\mathcal{S}(\alpha), \mathcal{T}(\beta))$, and whose
- morphisms $(\alpha, \beta, f) \to (\alpha', \beta', f')$ are all pairs (g, h), where $g\colon \alpha \to \alpha'$ and $h\colon \beta \to \beta'$, such that the diagram

  $$\begin{tikzcd} \mathcal{S}(\alpha) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{S}(g)"] \arrow[d, "f"'] & \mathcal{S}(\alpha') \arrow[d, "f'"] \\ \mathcal{T}(\beta) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{T}(h)"] & \mathcal{T}(\beta') \end{tikzcd}$$

  commutes.

Notation 3.4.1. We will often specify the comma category $(\mathcal{S} \downarrow \mathcal{T})$ by simply writing down the diagram

$$\mathsf{A} \overset{\mathcal{S}}{\rightsquigarrow} \mathsf{C} \overset{\mathcal{T}}{\leftsquigarrow} \mathsf{B} .$$

Let us check in some detail that a comma category really is a category. To do so, we need to check the three properties listed in Definition 3.1.1

1. We must be able to compose morphisms, i.e. we must have the following diagram.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(\alpha, \beta, f) \arrow[r, "(g,h)"] \arrow[rr, bend left, "(g',h')\circ(g,h)"] & (\alpha', \beta', f') \arrow[r, "(g',h')"] & (\alpha'', \beta'', f'')
\end{tikzcd}$$

But we certainly do, since by definition, each square of the following diagram commutes,

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathcal{S}(\alpha) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{S}(g)"] \arrow[d, "f"'] & \mathcal{S}(\alpha') \arrow[r, "\mathcal{S}(g')"] \arrow[d, "f'"'] & \mathcal{S}(a'') \arrow[d, "f''"] \\
\mathcal{T}(\alpha) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{T}(h)"] & \mathcal{T}(\alpha') \arrow[r, "\mathcal{T}(h')"] & \mathcal{T}(a'')
\end{tikzcd}$$

so the square formed by taking the outside rectangle

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathcal{S}(\alpha) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{S}(g')\circ\mathcal{S}(g)"] \arrow[d, "f"'] & \mathcal{S}(\alpha'') \arrow[d, "f''"] \\
\mathcal{T}(\alpha) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{T}(h')\circ\mathcal{T}(h)"] & \mathcal{T}(\alpha'')
\end{tikzcd}$$

commutes. But $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{T}$ are functors, so

$$\mathcal{S}(g') \circ \mathcal{S}(g) = \mathcal{S}(g' \circ g),$$

and similarly for $\mathcal{T}(h' \circ h)$. Thus, the composition of morphisms is given via

$$(g', h') \circ (g, h) = (g' \circ g, h' \circ h).$$

2. We can see from this definition that associativity in $(\mathcal{S} \downarrow \mathcal{T})$ follows from associativity in the underlying categories A and B.
3. The identity morphism is the pair $(1_{\mathcal{S}(\alpha)}, 1_{\mathcal{T}(\beta)})$. It is trivial from the definition of the composition of morphisms that this morphism functions as the identity morphism.

3.4.2 Slice categories

A special case of a comma category, the so-called *slice category*, occurs when $\mathsf{C} = \mathsf{A}$, $\mathcal{S}$ is the identity functor, and $\mathsf{B} = \mathsf{1}$, the category with one object and one morphism (Example 3.1.2).

Definition 3.4.2 (slice category)**.** A slice category is a comma category

$$\mathsf{A} \overset{\mathrm{id}_A}{\rightsquigarrow} \mathsf{A} \overset{\mathcal{T}}{\leftsquigarrow} \mathsf{1} .$$

Let us unpack this prescription. Taking the definition literally, the objects in our category are triples (α, β, f), where $\alpha \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{A})$, $\beta \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{1})$, and $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{A}}(\mathrm{id}_{\mathsf{A}}(\alpha), \mathcal{T}(\beta))$.

There's a lot of extraneous information here, and our definition can be consolidated considerably. Since the functor $\mathcal{T}$ is given and $\mathsf{1}$ has only one object (call it $*$), the object $\mathcal{T}(*)$ (call it X) is singled out in A.

We can think of $\mathcal{T}$ as $\mathcal{F}_X$ (Example 3.2.1). Similarly, since the identity morphism doesn't do anything interesting, Therefore, we can collapse the following diagram considerably.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathcal{F}_X(*) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{F}_X(1_*)"] \arrow[d, "f"'] & \mathcal{F}_X(*) \arrow[d, "f'"] \\ \mathrm{id}_A(\alpha) \arrow[r, "\mathrm{id}_A(g)"] & \mathrm{id}_A(\alpha') \end{tikzcd}$$

The objects of a slice category therefore consist of pairs (α, f), where $\alpha \in \mathrm{Obj}(A)$ and

$$f : \alpha \to X;$$

the morphisms $(\alpha, f) \to (\alpha', f')$ consist of maps $g\colon \alpha \to \alpha'$. This allows us to define a slice category more neatly.

Let A be a category, $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{A})$. The slice category $(\mathsf{A} \downarrow X)$ is the category whose objects are pairs (α, f), where $\alpha \in \mathrm{Obj}(A)$ and $f\colon \alpha \to X$, and whose morphisms $(\alpha, f) \to (\alpha', f')$ are maps $g : \alpha \to \alpha'$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} \alpha \arrow[rr, "g"] \arrow[dr, "f"'] & & \alpha' \arrow[dl, "f'"] \\ & X & \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes.

One can also define a coslice category, which is what you get when you take a slice category and turn the arrows around: coslice categories are *dual* to slice categories.

Definition 3.4.3 (coslice category)**.** Let A be a category, $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(A)$. The coslice category $(X \downarrow \mathsf{A})$ is the comma category given by the diagram

$$\mathsf{1} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}_X} \mathsf{A} \xleftarrow{\mathrm{id}_A} \mathsf{A} .$$

The objects are morphisms $f\colon X \to \alpha$ and the morphisms are morphisms $g\colon \alpha \to \alpha'$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} & X \arrow[dl, "f"'] \arrow[dr, "f'"] & \\ \alpha \arrow[rr, "g"'] & & \alpha' \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes.

3.5 Universal properties

Note 3.5.1. It is assumed that the reader is familar with the basic idea of a universal property and has seen (but not necessarily understood) a few examples, such as the universal properties for products and tensor algebras.

In general, the 'nicest' definition of a structure uses only the category-theoretic information about the category in which the structure lives; the definition of a product (of sets, for example) is best given without making use of hand-wavy statements like "ordered pairs of an element here and an element there." The idea is similar to the situation in linear algebra, where it is aesthetically preferrable to avoid introducing an arbitrary basis every time one needs to prove something, instead using properties intrinsic to the vector space itself.

The easiest way to do this in general is by using the idea of a *universal property.*

Definition 3.5.1 (initial objects, final objects, zero objects)**.** Let C be a category. An object $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ is said to be an

- initial object if $\mathrm{Hom}(A, B)$ has exactly one element for all $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, i.e. if there is exactly one arrow from A to every object in C.
- final object (or *terminal object*) if $\mathrm{Hom}(B, A)$ has exactly one element for all $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, i.e. if there is exactly one arrow from every object in C to A.
- zero object if it is both initial and final.

Example 3.5.1. In Set, there is exactly one map from any set S to any one-element set $\{*\}$. Thus $\{*\}$ is a terminal object in Set.

Furthermore, it is conventional that there is exactly one map from the empty set $\emptyset$ to any set B. Thus the $\emptyset$ is initial in Set.

Example 3.5.2. The trivial group is a zero object in Grp.

Theorem 3.5.1. *Let C be a category, let I and I' be two initial objects in C. Then there exists a unique isomorphism between I and I'.*

Proof. Since I is initial, there exists exactly one morphism from I to *any* object, including I itself. By Definition 3.1.1, Part 3, I must have at least one map to itself: the identity morphism 1_I. Thus, the only morphism from I to itself is the identity morphism. Similarly, the only morphism from I' to itself is also the identity morphism.

But since I is initial, there exists a unique morphism from I to I'; call it f. Similarly, there exists a unique morphism from I' to I; call it g. By Definition 3.1.1, Part 1, we can take the composition $g \circ f$ to get a morphism $I \to I$.

But there is only one isomorphism $I \to I$: the identity morphism! Thus

$$g \circ f = 1_I.$$

Similarly,

$$f \circ g = 1_{I'}.$$

This means that, by Definition 3.1.6, f and g are isomorphisms. They are clearly unique because of the uniqueness condition in the definition of an initial object. Thus, between any two initial objects there is a unique isomorphism, and we are done.

Here is a bad picture of this proof.

$$\begin{tikzcd} I \arrow[loop left, "1_I = g\circ f"] \arrow[r, bend left, "f"] & I' \arrow[l, bend left, "g"] \arrow[loop right, "1_{I'} = f\circ g"] \end{tikzcd}$$

□

Definition 3.5.2 (category of morphisms from an object to a functor)**.** Let C, D be categories, let $\mathcal{U}\colon \mathsf{D} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$ be a functor. Further let $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(C)$. The category of morphisms $(X \downarrow \mathcal{U})$ is the following comma category (see Definition 3.4.1):

$$\mathsf{1} \overset{\mathcal{F}_X}{\rightsquigarrow} \mathsf{C} \overset{\mathcal{U}}{\leftsquigarrow} \mathsf{D}\ .$$

Just as for (co)slice categories (Definitions 3.4.2 and 3.4.3), there is some unpacking to be done. In fact, the unpacking is very similar to that of coslice categories. The LHS of the commutative square diagram collapses because the functor $\mathcal{F}_X$ picks out a single element X; therefore, the objects of $(X \downarrow \mathcal{U})$ are ordered pairs

$$(\alpha, f); \qquad \alpha \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{D}), \quad f\colon X \to \mathcal{U}(\alpha),$$

and the morphisms $(\alpha, f) \to (\alpha', f')$ are morphisms $g\colon \alpha \to \alpha'$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} & X \arrow[dl, "f"'] \arrow[dr, "f'"] & \\ \mathcal{U}(\alpha) \arrow[rr, "\mathcal{U}(g)"'] & & \mathcal{U}(\alpha') \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes.

Just as slice categories are dual to coslice categories, we can take the dual of the previous definition.

Definition 3.5.3 (category of morphisms from a functor to an object)**.** Let C, D be categories, let $\mathcal{U}\colon \mathsf{D} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$ be a functor. The category of morphisms $(\mathcal{U} \downarrow X)$ is the comma category

$$\mathsf{D} \overset{\mathcal{U}}{\rightsquigarrow} \mathsf{C} \overset{\mathcal{F}_X}{\leftsquigarrow} 1 \; .$$

The objects in this category are pairs (α, f), where $\alpha \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{D})$ and $f\colon \mathcal{U}(\alpha) \to X$. The morphisms $(\alpha, f) \to (\alpha', f')$ are morphisms $g\colon \alpha \to \alpha'$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathcal{U}(\alpha) \arrow[rr, "\mathcal{U}(g)"] \arrow[dr, "f"'] & & \mathcal{U}(\alpha') \arrow[dl, "f'"] \\ & X & \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes.

Definition 3.5.4 (initial morphism)**.** Let C, D be categories, let $\mathcal{U}\colon \mathsf{D} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$ be a functor, and let $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. An initial morphism (called a *universal arrow* in [17]) is an initial object in the category $(X \downarrow \mathcal{U})$, i.e. the comma category which has the diagram

$$1 \overset{\mathcal{F}_X}{\rightsquigarrow} \mathsf{C} \overset{\mathcal{U}}{\leftsquigarrow} \mathsf{D}$$

This is not by any stretch of the imagination a transparent definition, but decoding it will be good practice.

The definition tells us that an initial morphism is an object in $(X \downarrow \mathcal{U})$, i.e. a pair (I, φ) for $I \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{D})$ and $\varphi\colon X \to \mathcal{U}(\alpha)$. But it is not just any object: it is an initial object. This means that for any other object (α, f), there exists a unique morphism $(I, \varphi) \to (\alpha, f)$. But such morphisms are simply maps $g\colon I \to \alpha$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} & X \arrow[dl, "\varphi"'] \arrow[dr, "f"] & \\ \mathcal{U}(I) \arrow[rr, "\mathcal{U}(g)"'] & & \mathcal{U}(\alpha) \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes.

We can express this schematically via the following diagram (which is essentially the above diagram, rotated to agree with the literature).

$$\begin{tikzcd} X \arrow[r, "\varphi"] \arrow[dr, "f"'] & \mathcal{U}(I) \arrow[d, "\mathcal{U}(g)"] & & I \arrow[d, "\exists! g"] \\ & \mathcal{U}(\alpha) & & \alpha \end{tikzcd}$$

As always, there is a dual notion.

Definition 3.5.5 (terminal morphism)**.** Let C, D be categories, let $\mathcal{U}\colon \mathsf{D} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$ be a functor, and let $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. A terminal morphism is a terminal object in the category $(\mathcal{U} \downarrow X)$.

This time "terminal object" means a pair (I, φ) such that for any other object (α, f) there is a unique morphism $g\colon \alpha \to I$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathcal{U}(\alpha) \arrow[rr, "\mathcal{U}(g)"] \arrow[dr, "f"'] & & \mathcal{U}(I) \arrow[dl, "\varphi"] \\ & X & \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes.

Again, with the diagram helpfully rotated, we have the following.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathcal{U}(\alpha) \arrow[d, "\mathcal{U}(g)"'] \arrow[dr, "f"] & & \alpha \arrow[d, "\exists! g"] \\ \mathcal{U}(I) \arrow[r, "\varphi"'] & X & I \end{tikzcd}$$

Definition 3.5.6 (universal property)**.** There is no hard and fast definition of a universal property. In complete generality, an object with a universal property is just an object which is initial or terminal in some category. However, quite a few interesting universal properties are given in terms of initial and terminal morphisms, and it will pay to study a few examples.

Note 3.5.2. One often hand-wavily says that an object I satisfies a universal property if (I, φ) is an initial or terminal morphism. This is actually rather annoying; one has to remember that when one states a universal property in terms of a universal morphism, one is defining not only an object I but also a morphism φ, which is often left implicit.

Example 3.5.3 (tensor algebra)**.** One often sees some variation of the following universal characterization of the tensor algebra, which was taken (almost) verbatim from Wikipedia. We will try to stretch it to fit our definition, following the logic through in some detail.

> Let V be a vector space over a field k, and let A be an algebra over k. The tensor algebra $T(V)$ satisfies the following universal property.
>
> Any linear transformation $f\colon V \to A$ from V to A can be uniquely extended to an algebra homomorphism $T(V) \to A$ as indicated by the following commutative diagram.

$$\begin{tikzcd} V \arrow[r, "i"] \arrow[dr, "f"'] & T(V) \arrow[d, "\tilde{f}"] \\ & A \end{tikzcd}$$

As it turns out, it will take rather a lot of stretching.

Let $\mathcal{U}\colon k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Vect}_k$ be the forgetful functor which assigns to each algebra over a field k its underlying vector space. Pick some k-vector space V. We consider the category $(V \downarrow \mathcal{U})$, which is given by the following diagram.

$$\mathsf{1} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}_V} \mathsf{Vect}_k \xleftarrow{\mathcal{U}} k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}$$

By Definition 3.5.4, the objects of $(V \downarrow \mathcal{U})$ are pairs (A, L), where A is a k-algebra and L is a linear map $V \to \mathcal{U}(A)$. The morphisms are algebra homomorphisms $\rho\colon A \to A'$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} & V \arrow[dl, "L"'] \arrow[dr, "L'"] & \\ \mathcal{U}(A) \arrow[rr, "\mathcal{U}(\rho)"'] & & \mathcal{U}(A') \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes. An object $(T(V), i)$ is initial if for any object (A, f) there exists a unique morphism $g\colon T(V) \to A$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} V \arrow[r, "i"] \arrow[dr, "L"'] & \mathcal{U}(T(V)) \arrow[d, "\mathcal{U}(g)"] & T(V) \arrow[d, "\exists! g"] \\ & \mathcal{U}(A) & A \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes.

Thus, the pair $(i, T(V))$ is the initial object in the category $(V \downarrow \mathcal{U})$. We called $T(V)$ the *tensor algebra* over V.

But what is i? Notice that in the Wikipedia definition above, the map i is from V to $T(V)$, but in the diagram above, it is from V to $\mathcal{U}(T(V))$. What gives?

The answer that the diagram in Wikipedia's definition does not take place in a specific category. Instead, it implicitly treats $T(V)$ only as a vector space. But this is exactly what the functor $\mathcal{U}$ does.

Example 3.5.4 (tensor product)**.** According to the excellent book [3], the tensor product satisfies the following universal property.

> Let V_1 and V_2 be vector spaces. Then we say that a vector space V_3 together with a bilinear map $\iota\colon V_1 \times V_2 \to V_3$ has the *universal property* provided that for any bilinear map $B\colon V_1 \times V_2 \to W$, where W is also a vector space, there exists a unique linear map $L\colon V_3 \to W$ such that $B = L\iota$. Here is a diagram describing this 'factorization' of B through ι:

$$\begin{tikzcd} V_1 \times V_2 \arrow[r, "\iota"] \arrow[dr, "B"'] & V_3 \arrow[d, "L"] \\ & W \end{tikzcd}$$

It turns out that the tensor product defined in this way is neither an initial or final morphism. This is because in the category Vect_k, there is no way of making sense of a bilinear map.

Example 3.5.5 (categorical product)**.** Here is the universal property for a product, taken verbatim from Wikipedia ([21]).

> Let C be a category with some objects X_1 and X_2. A product of X_1 and X_2 is an object X (often denoted $X_1 \times X_2$) together with a pair of morphisms $\pi_1\colon X \to X_1$ and $\pi_2\colon X \to X_2$ such that for every object Y and pair of morphisms $f_1\colon Y \to X_1$, $f_2\colon Y \to X_2$, there exists a unique morphism $f\colon Y \to X_1 \times X_2$ such that the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} & Y \arrow[dl, "f_1"'] \arrow[d, "f"] \arrow[dr, "f_2"] & \\ X_1 & X_1 \times X_2 \arrow[l, "\pi_1"] \arrow[r, "\pi_2"'] & X_2 \end{tikzcd}$$

Consider the comma category $(\Delta \downarrow (X_1, X_2))$ (where Δ is the diagonal functor, see Example 3.2.3) given by the following diagram.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, squiggly, "\Delta"] & \mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C} & \mathsf{1} \arrow[l, squiggly, "\mathcal{F}_{(X_1, X_2)}"'] \end{tikzcd}$$

The objects of this category are pairs $(A, (s,t))$, where $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and

$$(s,t)\colon \Delta(A) = (A,A) \to (X_1, X_2).$$

The morphisms $(A,(s,t)) \to (B,(u,v))$ are morphisms $r\colon A \to B$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} (A,A) \arrow[rr, "{(r,r)}"] \arrow[dr, "{(s,t)}"'] & & (B,B) \arrow[dl, "{(u,v)}"] \\ & (X_1, X_2) & \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes.

An object $(X_1 \times X_2, (\pi_1, \pi_2))$ is final if for any other object $(Y, (f_1, f_2))$, there exists a unique morphism $f\colon Y \to X_1 \times X_2$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} (Y,Y) \arrow[d, "{(f,f)}"'] \arrow[dr, "{(f_1,f_2)}"] & \\ (X_1 \times X_2, X_1 \times X_2) \arrow[r, "{(\pi_1,\pi_2)}"'] & (X_1, X_2) \end{tikzcd} \qquad \begin{tikzcd} Y \arrow[d, "\exists! f"] \\ X_1 \times X_2 \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes. If we re-arrange our diagram a bit, it is not too hard to see that it is equivalent to the one given above. Thus, we can say: a product of two sets X_1 and X_2 is a final object in the category $(\Delta \downarrow (X_1, X_2))$

3.6 Cartesian closed categories

This section loosely follows [24].

Cartesian closed categories are the prototype for many of the structures possessed by monoidal categories. They are interesting in their own right, but will not be essential in what follows.

3.6.1 Products

We saw in Example 3.5.5 the definition for a categorical product. In some categories, we can naturally take the product of any two objects; one generally says that such a category *has products*. We formalize that in the following.

Definition 3.6.1 (category with products)**.** Let C be a category such that for every two objects A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, there exists an object $A \times B$ which satisfies the universal property (Example 3.5.5). Then we say that C has products.

Note 3.6.1. Sometimes people call a category with products a *Cartesian category*, but others use this terminology to mean a category with all finite limits.[1] We will avoid it altogether.

Theorem 3.6.1. *Let C be a category with products. Then the product can be extended to a bifunctor (Definition 3.2.4) $\mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C} \to \mathsf{C}$.*

Proof. Let X, $Y \in \mathrm{Obj}(C)$. We need to check that the assignment $(X, Y) \mapsto \times(X, Y) \equiv X \times Y$ is functorial, i.e. that $\times$ assigns

- to each pair $(X, Y) \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C})$ an object $X \times Y \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and
- to each pair of morphisms $(f, g)\colon (X, Y) \to (X', Y')$ a morphism

$$\times(f, g) = f \times g\colon X \times Y \to X' \times Y'$$

  such that

  - $1_X \times 1_Y = 1_{X \times Y}$, and
  - $\times$ respects composition as follows.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(X,Y) \arrow[r, "{(f,g)}"] \arrow[rr, bend left, "{(f',g')\circ(f,g)=(f'\circ f,g'\circ g)}"] & (X',Y') \arrow[r, "{(f',g')}"] \arrow[d, squiggly, "\times"] & (X'',Y'') \\
X \times Y \arrow[r, "f\times g"] \arrow[rr, bend right, "f'\times g'\circ f\times g=(f'\circ f)\times(g'\circ g)"'] & X' \times Y' \arrow[r, "f'\times g'"] & X'' \times Y''
\end{tikzcd}$$

□

[1] We will see later that any category with both products and equalizers has all finite limits.

We know how $\times$ assigns objects in $\mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C}$ to objects in C. We need to figure out how $\times$ should assign to a pair of (f, g) a morphism $f \times g$. We do this by diagram chasing.

Suppose we are given two maps $f\colon X_1 \to X_2$ and $g\colon Y_1 \to Y_2$. We can view this as a morphism (f, g) in $\mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C}$.

Recall the universal property for products: a product $X_1 \times Y_1$ is a final object in the category $(\Delta \downarrow (X_1, Y_1))$. Objects in this category can be thought of as diagrams in $\mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C}$.

$$(X_1 \times Y_1, X_1 \times Y_1) \xrightarrow{\pi_1, \pi_2} (X_1, Y_1) \ .$$

By assumption, we can take the product of both X_1 and Y_1, and X_2 and Y_2. This gives us two diagrams living in $\mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C}$, which we can put next to each other.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(X_1 \times Y_1, X_1 \times Y_1) \arrow[r, "(\pi_1,\pi_2)"] & (X_1, Y_1) \\
(X_2 \times Y_2, X_2 \times Y_2) \arrow[r, "(\rho_1,\rho_2)"] & (X_2, Y_2)
\end{tikzcd}$$

We can draw in our morphism (f, g), and take its composition with (π_1, π_2).

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(X_1 \times Y_1, X_1 \times Y_1) \arrow[r, "(\pi_1,\pi_2)"] \arrow[dr, "(f\circ\pi_1, g\circ\pi_2)"'] & (X_1, Y_1) \arrow[d, "(f,g)"] \\
(X_2 \times Y_2, X_2 \times Y_2) \arrow[r, "(\rho_1,\rho_2)"'] & (X_2, Y_2)
\end{tikzcd}$$

Now forget about the top right of the diagram. I'll erase it to make this easier.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(X_1 \times Y_1, X_1 \times Y_1) \arrow[dr, "(f\circ\pi_1, g\circ\pi_2)"] & \\
(X_2 \times Y_2, X_2 \times Y_2) \arrow[r, "(\rho_1,\rho_2)"'] & (X_2, Y_2)
\end{tikzcd}$$

The universal property for products says that there exists a unique map $h\colon X_1 \times Y_1 \to X_2 \times Y_2$ such that the diagram below commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(X_1 \times Y_1, X_1 \times Y_1) \arrow[d, "(h,h)"'] \arrow[dr, "(f\circ\pi_1, g\circ\pi_2)"] & & X_1 \times Y_1 \arrow[d, "\exists! h"] \\
(X_2 \times Y_2, X_2 \times Y_2) \arrow[r, "(\rho_1,\rho_2)"'] & (X_1, X_2) & X_2 \times Y_2
\end{tikzcd}$$

And h is what we will use for the product $f \times g$.

Of course, we must also check that h behaves appropriately. Draw two copies of the diagram for the terminal object in $(\Delta \downarrow (X, Y))$ and identity arrows between them.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(X \times Y, X \times Y) \arrow[r, "(\pi_1,\pi_2)"] \arrow[d, "(1_{X\times Y}, 1_{X\times Y})"'] & (X, Y) \arrow[d, "(1_X, 1_Y)"] \\
(X \times Y, X \times Y) \arrow[r, "(\pi_1,\pi_2)"'] & (X, Y)
\end{tikzcd}$$

Just as before, we compose the morphisms to and from the top right to draw a diagonal arrow, and then erase the top right object and the arrows to and from it.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(X \times Y, X \times Y) \arrow[d, "{(1_{X\times Y}, 1_{X\times Y}) = (1_X \times 1_Y, 1_X \times 1_Y)}"'] \arrow[dr, "{(1_X \circ \pi_1, 1_Y \circ \pi_2)}"] & & X \times Y \arrow[d, "1_X \times 1_Y = 1_X \times 1_Y"] \\
(X \times Y, X \times Y) \arrow[r, "{(\pi_1, \pi_2)}"'] & (X, Y) & X \times Y
\end{tikzcd}$$

By definition, the arrow on the right is $1_X \times 1_Y$. It is also $1_{X \times Y}$, and by the universal property it is unique. Therefore $1_{X\times Y} = 1_X \times 1_Y$.

Next, put three of these objects together. The proof of the last part is immediate.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(X_1 \times Y_1, X_1 \times Y_1) \arrow[d, "{(f\times g, f \times g)}"] \arrow[dd, bend right=60, "{(f' \times g') \circ (f \times g) = (g' \circ g) \times (f' \circ f)}"'] & (X_1, Y_1) \arrow[d, "{(f,g)}"'] \arrow[dd, bend left=60, "{(g' \circ g, f' \circ f)}"] \\
(X_2 \times Y_2, X_2 \times Y_2) \arrow[d, "{(f' \times g', f' \times g')}"] & (X_2, Y_2) \arrow[d, "{(f', g')}"'] \\
(X_3 \times Y_3, X_3 \times Y_3) & (X_3, Y_3)
\end{tikzcd}$$

The meaning of this theorem is that in any category where you can take products of the objects, you can also take products of the morphisms.

Example 3.6.1. The category Vect_k of vector spaces over a field k has the direct sum $\oplus$ as a product.

The product is, in an appropriate way, commutative.

Lemma 3.6.1. *There is a natural isomorphism between the following functors* $\mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C} \to \mathsf{C}$

$$\times\colon (A, B) \to A \times B \qquad \text{and} \qquad \tilde{\times}\colon (A, B) \to B \times A.$$

Proof. We define a natural transformation $\Phi\colon \times \Rightarrow \tilde{times}$ whose components are

$$\Phi_{A,B}\colon A \times B \to B \times A$$

as follows. Denote the canonical projections for the product $A \times B$ by π_A and π_B. Then (π_B, π_A) is a map $A \times B \to (B, A)$, and the universal property for products gives us a map $A \times B \to B \times A$. We can pull the same trick to go from $B \times A$ to $A \times B$, using the pair (π_A, π_B) and the universal property. Furthermore, these maps are inverse to each other, so $\Phi_{A,B}$ is an isomorphism.

We need only check naturality, i.e. that for $f\colon A \to A'$, $g\colon B \to B'$, the following square commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
A \times B \arrow[r] \arrow[d] & A' \times B' \arrow[d] \\
B \times A \arrow[r] & B' \times A'
\end{tikzcd}$$

∎

Note 3.6.2. It is an important fact that the product is associative. We shall see this in Theorem 3.7.2, after we have developed the machinery to do it cleanly.

3.6.2 Coproducts

Definition 3.6.2. Let C be a category, X_1 and $X_2 \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. The coproduct of X_1 and X_2, denoted $X_1 \amalg X_2$, is the initial object in the category $((X_1, X_2) \downarrow \Delta)$. In everyday language, we have the following.

An object $X_1 \amalg X_2$ is called the coproduct of X_1 and X_2 if

1. there exist morphisms $i_1 \colon X_1 \to X_1 \amalg X_2$ and $i_2 \colon X_2 \to X_1 \amalg X_2$ called *canonical injections* such that
2. for any object Y and morphisms $f_1 \colon X_1 \to Y$ and $f_2 \colon X_2 \to Y$ there exists a unique morphism $f \colon X_1 \amalg X_2 \to Y$ such that $f_1 = f \circ i_1$ and $f = f_2 = f \circ i_2$, i.e. the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} & Y & \\ X_1 \arrow[ur, "f_1"] \arrow[r, "i_1"'] & X_1 \amalg X_2 \arrow[u, "f"] & X_2 \arrow[ul, "f_2"'] \arrow[l, "i_2"] \end{tikzcd}$$

Definition 3.6.3 (category with coproducts)**.** We say that a category C has coproducts if for all A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(C)$, the coproduct $A \amalg B$ is in $\mathrm{Obj}(C)$.

We have the following analog of Theorem 3.6.1.

Theorem 3.6.2. *Let C be a category with coproducts. Then we have a functor $\amalg \colon C \times C \rightsquigarrow C$.*

Proof. We verify that $\amalg$ allows us to define canonically a coproduct of morphisms. Let X_1, X_2, Y_1, $Y_2 \in \mathrm{Obj}(C)$, and let $f \colon X_1 \to Y_1$ and $g \colon X_2 \to Y_2$. We have the following diagram.

$$\begin{tikzcd} X_1 \arrow[r, "i_{1,X}"] \arrow[d, "f"'] \arrow[dr, "i_{i,Y} \circ f"] & X_1 \amalg X_2 & X_2 \arrow[l, "i_{2,X}"'] \arrow[d, "g"] \arrow[dl, "i_{2,Y} \circ g"'] \\ Y_1 \arrow[r, "i_{1,Y}"] & Y_1 \amalg Y_2 & Y_2 \arrow[l, "i_{2,Y}"'] \end{tikzcd}$$

But by the universal property of coproducts, the diagonal morphisms induce a map $X_1 \amalg X_2 \to Y_1 \amalg Y_2$, which we define to be $f \amalg g$.

$$\begin{tikzcd} X_1 \arrow[r, "i_{1,X}"] \arrow[dr, "i_{i,Y} \circ f"'] & X_1 \amalg X_2 \arrow[d, "f \amalg g"] & X_2 \arrow[l, "i_{2,X}"'] \arrow[dl, "i_{2,Y} \circ g"] \\ & Y_1 \amalg Y_2 & \end{tikzcd}$$

The rest of the verification that $\amalg$ really is a functor is identical to that in Theorem 3.6.1. ☐

Example 3.6.2. In Set, the coproduct is the disjoint union.

Example 3.6.3. In Vect_k, the coproduct $\oplus$ is the direct sum.

Example 3.6.4. In Alg_k the tensor product is the coproduct. To see this, let A, B, and R be k-algebras. The tensor product $A \otimes_k B$ has canonical injections $\iota_1 \colon A \to A \otimes B$ and $\iota_2 \colon B \to A \otimes B$ given by

$$\iota_A \colon v \to v \otimes 1_B \qquad \text{and} \qquad \iota_B \colon v \mapsto 1 \otimes v.$$

Let $f_1 \colon A \to R$ and $f_2 \colon B \to R$ be k-algebra homomorphisms. Then there is a unique homomorphism $f \colon A \otimes B \to R$ which makes the following diagram commute.

$$\begin{tikzcd} A \arrow[r, "\iota_A"] \arrow[dr, "f_1"'] & A \otimes B \arrow[d, "f"] & B \arrow[l, "\iota_B"'] \arrow[dl, "f_2"] \\ & R & \end{tikzcd}$$

3.6.3 Biproducts

A lot of the stuff in this section was adapted and expanded from [33].

One often says that a biproduct is an object which is both a product and a coproduct, but this is both misleading and unnecessarily vague. Objects satisfying universal properties are only defined up to isomorphism, so it doesn't make much sense to demand that products *coincide* with coproducts. However, demanding only that they be isomorphic (or even naturally isomorphic) is too weak, and does not determine a biproduct uniquely. In this section we will give the correct definition which encapsulates all of the properties of the product and the coproduct we know and love.

In order to talk about biproducts, we need to be aware of the following result, which we will consider in much more detail in Definition 3.12.2.

Definition 3.6.4 (zero morphism)**.** Let C be a category with zero object 0. For any two objects A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, the zero morphism $0_{A,B}$ is the unique morphism $A \to B$ which factors through 0.

$$\begin{tikzcd} A \arrow[r] \arrow[rr, bend left, "0_{A,B}"] & 0 \arrow[r] & B \end{tikzcd}$$

Notation 3.6.1. It will often be clear what the source and destination of the zero morphism are; in this case we will drop the subscripts, writing 0 instead of 0_{AB}. With this notation, for all morphisms f and g we have $f \circ 0 = 0$ and $0 \circ g = 0$.

Definition 3.6.5 (category with biproducts)**.** Let C be a category with zero object 0, products $\times$ (with canonical projections π), and coproducts $\amalg$ (with natural injections ι). We say that C has biproducts if for each two objects A_1, $A_2 \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, there exists an isomorphism

$$\Phi_{A_1,A_2} \colon A_1 \amalg A_2 \to A_1 \times A_2$$

such that

$$A_i \xrightarrow{\iota_i} A_1 \amalg A_2 \xrightarrow{\Phi_{A_1,A_2}} A_1 \times A_2 \xrightarrow{\pi_j} A_j \quad = \begin{cases} 1_{A_1}, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

Here is a picture.

$$\begin{tikzcd} & A_1 \amalg A_2 \arrow[dd, "\Phi_{A_1,A_2}"] & \\ A_1 \arrow[ur, "\iota_1"] & & A_2 \arrow[ul, "\iota_2"'] \\ & A_1 \times A_2 \arrow[ul, "\pi_1"] \arrow[ur, "\pi_2"'] & \end{tikzcd}$$

Lemma 3.6.2. *The isomorphisms $\Phi_{A,B}$ are unique if they exist.*

Proof. We can compose Φ_{A_1,A_2} with π_1 and π_2 to get maps $A_1 \amalg A_2 \to A_1$ and $A_1 \amalg A_2 \to A_2$. The universal property for products tells us that there is a unique map $\varphi \colon A_1 \amalg A_2 \to A_1 \times A_2$ such that $\pi_1 \circ \varphi = \pi_1 \circ \Phi_{A_1,A_2}$ and $\pi_2 \circ \varphi = \pi_2 \circ \Phi_{A_1,A_2}$; but φ is just Φ_{A_1,A_2}. Hence Φ_{A_1,A_2} is unique. $\square$

Lemma 3.6.3. *In any category C with biproducts $\Phi_{A,B} \colon A \amalg B \to A \times B$, any map $A \amalg B \to A' \times B'$ is completely determined by its components $A \to A'$, $A \to B'$, $B \to A'$, and $B \to B'$. That is, given any map $f \colon A \amalg B \to A' \times B'$, we can create four maps*

$$\pi_{A'} \circ f \circ \iota_A \colon A \to A', \qquad \pi_{B'} \circ f \circ \iota_A \colon A \to B', \qquad etc.,$$

and given four maps

$$\psi_{A,A'} \colon A \to A'; \qquad \psi_{A,B'} \colon A \to B'; \qquad \psi_{B,A'} \colon B \to A', \qquad \text{and } \psi_{B,B'} \colon B \to B',$$

we can construct a unique map $\psi \colon A \amalg B \to A' \times B'$ such that

$$\psi_{A,A'} = \pi_{A'} \circ \psi \circ \iota_A, \qquad \psi_{A,B'} = \pi_{B'} \circ \psi \circ \iota_A, \qquad etc.$$

Proof. The universal property for coproducts give allows us to turn the morphisms $\psi_{A,A'}$ and $\psi_{A,B'}$ into a map $\psi_A\colon A \to B \times B'$, the unique map such that

$$\pi_{A'} \circ \psi_A = \psi_{A,A'} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \pi_{B'} \circ \psi_A = \psi_{A,B'}.$$

The morphisms $\psi_{B,A'}$ and $\psi_{B,B'}$ give us a map ψ_B which is unique in the same way.

But now the universal property for coproducts gives us a map $\psi\colon A \amalg B \to A' \times B'$, the unique map such that $\psi \circ \iota_A = \psi_A$ and $\psi \circ \iota_B = \psi_B$. □

Theorem 3.6.3. *The $\Phi_{A,B}$ defined above form the components of a natural isomorphism.*

Proof. Let A, B, A', and $B' \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, and let $f\colon A \to A'$ and $g\colon B \to B'$. To check that $\Phi_{A,B}$ are the components of a natural isomorphism, we have to check that the following naturality square commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} A \amalg B \arrow[r, "f \amalg g"] \arrow[d, "\Phi_{A,B}"'] & A' \amalg B' \arrow[d, "\Phi_{A',B'}"] \\ A \times B \arrow[r, "f \times g"'] & A' \times B' \end{tikzcd}$$

That is, we need to check that $(f \times g) \circ \Phi_{A,B} = \Phi_{A',B'} \circ (f \amalg g)$.

Both of these are morphisms $A \amalg B \to A' \times B'$, and by Lemma 3.6.3, it suffices to check that their components agree, i.e. that □

Example 3.6.5. In the category Vect_k of vector spaces over a field k, the direct sum $\oplus$ is a biproduct.

Example 3.6.6. In the category Ab of abelian groups, the direct sum $\oplus$ is both a product and a coproduct. Hence Ab has biproducts.

3.6.4 Exponentials

Astonishingly, we can talk about functional evaluation purely in terms of products and universal properties.

Definition 3.6.6 (exponential)**.** Let C be a category with products, A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. The exponential of A and B is an object $B^A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ together with a morphism $\varepsilon\colon B^A \times A \to B$, called the *evaluation morphism*, which satisfies the following universal property.

> For any object $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and morphism $f\colon X \times A \to B$, there exists a unique morphism $\bar{f}\colon X \to B^A$ which makes the following diagram commute.

$$\begin{tikzcd} B^A & & B^A \times A \arrow[r, "\varepsilon"] & B \\ X \arrow[u, "\exists! \bar{f}"] & & X \times A \arrow[u, "\bar{f} \times 1_A"] \arrow[ur, "f"'] & \end{tikzcd}$$

Example 3.6.7. In Set, the exponential object B^A is the set of functions $A \to B$, and the evaluation morphism ε is the map which assigns $(f, a) \mapsto f(a)$. Let us check that these objects indeed satisfy the universal property given.

Suppose we are given a function $f\colon X \times A \to B$. We want to construct from this a function $\bar{f}\colon X \to B^A$. i.e. a function which takes an element $x \in X$ and returns a function $\bar{f}(x)\colon A \to B$. There is a natural way to do this: fill the first slot of f with x! That is to say, define $\bar{f}(x) = f(x, -)$. It is easy to see that this makes the diagram commute:

$$\begin{tikzcd} (f(x,-), a) \arrow[r, mapsto, "\varepsilon"] & f(x,a) \\ (x,a) \arrow[u, mapsto, "\bar{f} \times 1_A"] \arrow[ur, mapsto, "f"'] & \end{tikzcd}$$

Furthermore, $\bar{f}$ is unique since if it sent x to any function other than f the diagram would not commute.

Example 3.6.8. One might suspect that the above generalizes to all sorts of categories. For example, one might hope that in Grp, the exponential H^G of two groups G and H would somehow capture all homomorphisms $G \to H$. This turns out to be impossible; we will see why in REF.

3.6.5 Cartesian closed categories

Definition 3.6.7 (cartesian closed category)**.** A category C is cartesian closed if it has

1. products: for all $A, B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, $A \times B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$;
2. exponentials: for all $A, B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, $B^A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$;
3. a terminal element (Definition 3.5.1) $1 \in \mathsf{C}$.

Cartesian closed categories have many inveresting properties. For example, they replicate many properties of the integers: we have the following familiar formulae for any objects A, B, and C in a Cartesian closed category with coproducts $+$.

1. $A \times (B + C) \simeq (A \times B) + (A \times C)$
2. $C^{A+B} \simeq C^A \times C^B$.
3. $(C^A)^B \simeq C^{A \times B}$
4. $(A \times B)^C \simeq A^C \times B^C$
5. $C^1 \simeq C$

We could prove these immediately, by writing down diagrams and appealing to the universal properties. However, we will soon have a powerful tool, the Yoneda lemma, that makes their proof completely routine.

3.7 Hom functors and the Yoneda lemma

3.7.1 The Hom functor

Given any locally small category (Definition 3.1.9) C and two objects $A, B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, we have thus far notated the set of all morphisms $A \to B$ by $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$. This may have seemed a slightly odd notation, but there was a good reason for it: $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}$ is really a functor.

To be more explicit, we can view $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}$ in the following way: it takes two objects, say A and B, and returns the set of morphisms $A \to B$. It's a functor $\mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C}$ to set!

(Actually, as we'll see, this isn't quite right: it is actually a functor $\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathsf{C} \to \mathsf{Set}$. But this is easier to understand if it comes about in a natural way, so we'll keep writing $\mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C}$ for the time being.)

That takes care of how it sends objects to objects, but any functor has to send morphisms to morphisms. How does it do that?

A morphism in $\mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C}$ between two objects (A', A) and (B', B) is an ordered pair (f', f) of two morphisms:

$$f \colon A \to B' \qquad \text{and} \qquad f \colon A' \to B',$$

where A, B, A', and $B' \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. We can draw this as follows.

$$\begin{array}{c} A' \xrightarrow{f'} B' \\ A \xrightarrow{f} B \end{array}$$

We have to send this to a set-function $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A', A) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B', B)$. So let m be a morphism in $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, A')$. We can draw this into our little diagram above like so.

$$\begin{tikzcd} A' \arrow[r, "f'"] \arrow[d, "m"'] & B' \\ A \arrow[r, "f"] & B \end{tikzcd}$$

Notice: we want to build from m, f, and f' a morphism $B' \to B$. Suppose f' were going the other way.

$$\begin{tikzcd} A' \arrow[d, "m"'] & B' \arrow[l, "f'"'] \\ A \arrow[r, "f"] & B \end{tikzcd}$$

Then we could get what we want simply by taking the composition $f \circ m \circ f'$.

$$\begin{tikzcd} A' \arrow[d, "m"'] & B' \arrow[l, "f'"'] \arrow[d, "f\circ m\circ f'"] \\ A \arrow[r, "f"] & B \end{tikzcd}$$

But we can make f' go the other way simply by making the first argument of $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}$ come from the opposite category: that is, we want $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}$ to be a functor $\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathsf{C} \to \mathsf{Set}$.

As the function $m \mapsto f \circ m \circ f'$ is the action of the functor $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}$ on the morphism (f', f), it is natural to call it $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(f', f)$.

Of course, we should check that this *really is* a functor, i.e. that it treats identities and compositions correctly. This is completely routine, and you should skip it if you read the last sentence with annoyance.

First, we need to show that $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(1_{A'}, 1_A)$ is the identity function $1_{\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A',A)}$. It is, since if $m \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A', A)$,

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(1_{A'}, 1_A) \colon m \mapsto 1_A \circ m \circ 1_{A'} = m.$$

Next, we have to check that compositions work the way they're supposed to. Suppose we have objects and morphisms like this:

$$\begin{tikzcd} A' & B' \arrow[l, "f'"'] & C' \arrow[l, "g'"'] \\ A \arrow[r, "f"] & B \arrow[r, "g"] & C \end{tikzcd}$$

where the primed stuff is in C^{op} and the unprimed stuff is in C. This can be viewed as three objects (A', A), etc. in $\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathsf{C}$ and two morphisms (f', f) and (g', g) between them.

Okay, so we can compose (f', f) and (g', g) to get a morphism

$$(g', g) \circ (f', f) = (f' \circ g', g \circ f) \colon (A', A) \to (C', C).$$

Note that the order of the composition in the first argument has been turned around: this is expected since the first argument lives in C^{op}. To check that $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}$ handles compositions correctly, we need to verify that

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(g, g') \circ \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(f, f') = \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(f' \circ g', g \circ f).$$

Let $m \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A', A)$. We victoriously compute

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(g, g') \circ \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(f, f')](m) &= \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(g, g')(f \circ m \circ f') \\ &= g \circ f \circ m \circ f' \circ g' \\ &= \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(f' \circ g', g \circ f). \end{aligned}$$

Let's formalize this in a definition.

Definition 3.7.1 (hom functor)**.** Let C be a locally small category. The hom functor $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}$ is the functor

$$\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$$

which sends the object (A', A) to the set $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A', A)$ of morphisms $A' \to A$, and the morphism $(f', f) \colon (A', A) \to (B', B)$ to the function

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(f', f) \colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A', A) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B', B); \qquad m \mapsto f \circ m \circ f'.$$

Example 3.7.1. Hom functors give us a new way of looking at the universal property for products, coproducts, and exponentials.

Let C be a locally small category with products, and let X, A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. Recall that the universal property for the product $A \times B$ allows us to exchange two morphisms

$$f_1 \colon X \to A \qquad \text{and} \qquad f_2 \colon X \to B$$

for a morphism

$$f \colon X \to A \times B.$$

We can also compose a morphism $g \colon X \to A \times B$ with the canonical projections

$$\pi_A \colon A \times B \to A \qquad \text{and} \qquad \pi_B \colon A \times B \to B$$

to get two morphisms

$$\pi_A \circ f \colon X \to A \qquad \text{and} \qquad \pi_B \circ f \colon X \to B.$$

This means that there is a bijection

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, A \times B) \simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, A) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, B).$$

In fact this bijection is natural in X. That is to say, there is a natural bijection between the following functors $\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \to \mathsf{Set}$:

$$h_{A\times B} \colon X \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, A \times B) \qquad \text{and} \qquad h_A \times h_B \colon X \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, A) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, B).$$

Let's prove naturality. Let

$$\Phi_X \colon \mathrm{Hom}(X, A \times B) \to \mathrm{Hom}(X, A) \times \mathrm{Hom}(X, B); \qquad f \mapsto (\pi_A \circ f, \pi_B \circ f)$$

be the components of the above transformation, and let $g \colon X' \to X$. Naturality follows from the fact that the diagram below commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathrm{Hom}(X, A \times B) \arrow[r, "\mathrm{Hom}(g, 1_{A\times B})"] \arrow[d, "\Phi_X"'] & \mathrm{Hom}(X', A \times B) \arrow[d, "\Phi_{X'}"] \\
\mathrm{Hom}(X, A) \times \mathrm{Hom}(X, B) \arrow[r, "\mathrm{Hom}(g, 1_A) \times \mathrm{Hom}(g, 1_B)"] & \mathrm{Hom}(X', A) \times \mathrm{Hom}(X', B)
\end{tikzcd}$$

$$\begin{tikzcd}
f \arrow[r, mapsto] \arrow[d, mapsto] & f \circ g \arrow[d, mapsto] \\
(\pi_A \circ f, \pi_B \circ g) \arrow[r, mapsto] & (\pi_A \circ f \circ g, \pi_B \circ f \circ g)
\end{tikzcd}$$

The coproduct does a similar thing: it allows us to trade two morphisms

$$A \to X \qquad \text{and} \qquad B \to X$$

for a morphism

$$A \amalg B \to X,$$

and vice versa. Similar reasoning yields a natural bijection between the following functors $\mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$:

$$h^{A \amalg B} \Rightarrow h^A \times h^B.$$

The exponential is a little bit more complicated: it allows us to trade a morphism

$$X \times A \to B$$

for a morphism

$$X \to B^A,$$

and vice versa. That is to say, we have a bijection between two functors $\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$

$$X \mapsto \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X \times A, B) \qquad \text{and} \qquad X \mapsto \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, B^A).$$

The fact that the functors are more complicated does not hurt us: the above bijection is still natural.

The hom functor as defined above is cute, but not a whole lot else. Things get interesting when we curry it.

Recall from computer science the concept of currying. Suppose we are given a function of two arguments, say $f(x, y)$. The idea of currying is this: if we like, we can view f as a family of functions of only one variable y, indexed by x:

$$h_x(y) = f(x, y).$$

We can even view h as a function which takes one argument x, and which returns a *function* h_x of one variable y.

This sets up a correspondence between functions $f\colon A \times B \to C$ and functions $h\colon A \to C^B$, where C^B is the set of functions $B \to C$. The map which replaces f by h is called *currying*. We can also go the other way (i.e. $h \mapsto f$), which is called *uncurrying*.

We have been intentionally vague about the nature of our function f, and what sort of arguments it might take; everything we have said also holds for, say, bifunctors.

In particular, it gives us two more ways to view our bifunctor $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}$. We can fix any $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and curry either argument. This gives us the following.

Definition 3.7.2 (curried hom functor)**.** Let C be a locally small category, $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. We can construct from the hom functor $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}$

- a functor $h^A\colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$ which maps
  - an object $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ to the set $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$, and
  - a morphism $f\colon B \to B'$ to a Set-function

$$h^A(f)\colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B'); \qquad m \mapsto f \circ m.$$

- a functor $h_A\colon \mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$ which maps
  - an object $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ to the set $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B, A)$, and
  - a morphism $f\colon B \to B'$ to a Set-function

$$h_A(f)\colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B', A) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B, A); \qquad m \mapsto m \circ f.$$

3.7.2 Representable functors

Roughly speaking, a functor $\mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$ is representable if it is

Definition 3.7.3 (representable functor)**.** Let C be a category. A functor $\mathcal{F}\colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$ is representable if there is an object $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and a natural isomorphism (Definition 3.3.2)

$$\eta\colon \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} h^A, & \text{if } \mathcal{F} \text{ is covariant} \\ h_A, & \text{if } \mathcal{F} \text{ is contravariant.} \end{cases}$$

Note 3.7.1. Since natural isomorphisms are invertible, we could equivalently define a representable functor with the natural isomorphism going the other way.

Example 3.7.2. Consider the forgetful functor $\mathcal{U}\colon \mathsf{Grp} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$ which sends a group to its underlying set, and a group homomorphism to its underlying function. This functor is represented by the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$.

To see this, we have to check that there is a natural isomorphism η between $\mathcal{U}$ and $h^{\mathbb{Z}} = \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Grp}}(\mathbb{Z}, -)$. That is to say, for each group G, there a Set-isomorphism (i.e. a bijection)

$$\eta_G\colon \mathcal{U}(G) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Grp}}(\mathbb{Z}, G)$$

satisfying the naturality conditions in Definition 3.3.1.

First, let's show that there's a bijection by providing an injection in both directions. Pick some $g \in G$. Then there is a unique group homomorphism which sends $1 \mapsto g$, so we have an injection $\mathcal{U}(G) \hookrightarrow \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Grp}}(\mathbb{Z}, G)$.

Now suppose we are given a group homomorphism $\mathbb{Z} \to G$. This sends 1 to some element $g \in G$, and this completely determines the rest of the homomorphism. Thus, we have an injection $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Grp}(\mathbb{Z},G)} \hookrightarrow \mathcal{U}(G)$.

All that is left is to show that η satisfies the naturality condition. Let F and H be groups, and $f\colon G \to H$ a homomorphism. We need to show that the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathcal{U}(G) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{U}(f)"] \arrow[d, "\eta_G"'] & \mathcal{U}(H) \arrow[d, "\eta_H"] \\ \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Grp}}(\mathbb{Z}, G) \arrow[r, "h^{\mathbb{Z}}(f)"] & \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Grp}}(\mathbb{Z}, H) \end{tikzcd}$$

The upper path from top left to bottom right assigns to each $g \in G$ the function $\mathbb{Z} \to G$ which maps $1 \mapsto f(g)$. Walking down η_G from $\mathcal{U}(G)$ to $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Grp}}(\mathbb{Z}, G)$, g is mapped to the function $\mathbb{Z} \to G$ which maps $1 \mapsto g$. Walking right, we compose this function with f to get a new function $\mathbb{Z} \to H$ which sends $1 \mapsto f(g)$. This function is really the image of a homomorphism and is therefore unique, so the diagram commutes.

3.7.3 The Yoneda embedding

The Yoneda embedding is a very powerful tool which allows us to prove things about any locally small category by embedding that category into Set, and using the enormous amount of structure that Set has.

In the thread [19] on the sci.math google group, John Baez explains the importance of the Yoneda lemma in the following way.

> Category theory can be viewed in many ways, but one is as a massive generalization of set theory. The category Set has sets as objects and functions between them as morphisms. In practice, other categories are often built by taking as objects "sets with extra structure" and as morphisms "functions preserving the extra structure." For example, Vect is the category whose objects are vector spaces and whose morphisms are linear functions. The extra structure in this case is the linear structure. One can easily list hundreds more such examples.
>
> However, an abstract category needn't have as its objects "sets with structure"—its objects are simply abstract thingamabobs! (I would have said "simply abstract objects", but that would sound circular here, since it is, so I resorted to a more technical term.) At this point the Yoneda lemma leaps to our rescue by saying that all (small enough) categories can be embedded in categories in which the objects are sets with structure and the morphisms are structure-preserving functions between these.
>
> Here's the basic idea of how it works, in watered-down form. To each object x, we associate the set $S(x)$ of all morphisms *to* x from all other objects. This set has a certain structure which one can work out, and a morphism $f\colon x \to y$ gives rise to a structure-preserving function $S(f)$ from $S(x)$ to $S(y)$ in the obvious way: given a morphism from something to x, just compose it with f to get a morphism to y.
>
> So we have taken our original category and embedded in a category of "sets with structure."

Definition 3.7.4 (Yoneda embedding)**.** Let C be a locally small category. The Yoneda embedding is the functor

$$\text{よ}\colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow [\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}}, \mathsf{Set}], \qquad A \mapsto h_A = \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(-, A).$$

where $[\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}}, \mathsf{Set}]$ is the category of functors $\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$, defined in Definition 3.3.5.

Of course, we also need to say how よ behaves on morphisms. Let $f\colon A \to A'$. Then よ(f) will be a morphism from h_A to $h_{A'}$, i.e. a natural transformation $h_A \Rightarrow h_{A'}$. We can specify how it behaves by specifying its components $(\text{よ}(f))_B$.

Plugging in definitions, we find that $(\text{よ}(f))_B$ is a map $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B, A) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B, A')$. But we know how to get such a map—we can compose all of the maps $B \to A$ with f to get maps $B \to A'$. So よ(f), as a natural transformation $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(-, A) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(-, A')$, simply composes everything in sight with f.

Theorem 3.7.1 (Yoneda lemma)**.** *Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a functor from C^{op} to Set. Let $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. Then there is a set-isomorphism (i.e. a bijection) η between the set $\mathrm{Hom}_{[\mathsf{C}^{op},\mathsf{Set}]}(h_A, \mathcal{F})$ of natural transformations $h_A \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$ and the set $\mathcal{F}(A)$. Furthermore, this isomorphism is natural in A.*

Note 3.7.2. A quick admission before we begin: we will be sweeping a lot of issues with size under the rug in what follows by tacitly assuming that $\mathrm{Hom}_{[\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}},\mathsf{Set}]}(h_A, \mathcal{F})$ is a set. The reader will have to trust that everything works out in the end.

Proof. A natural transformation $\Phi \colon h_A \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$ consists of a collection of Set-morphisms (that is to say, functions) $\Phi_B \colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B, A) \to \mathcal{F}(A)$, one for each $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. We need to show that to each element of $\mathcal{F}(A)$ there corresponds exactly one Φ. We will do this by showing that any Φ is completely determined by where Φ_A sends the identity morphism $1_A \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, A)$, so there is exactly one natural transformation for each place Φ can send 1_A.

The proof that this is the case can be illustrated by the following commutative diagram.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathrm{Hom}(A,A) \arrow[rrr, "h_A(f)"] \arrow[ddd, "\Phi_A"'] & & & \mathrm{Hom}(B,A) \arrow[ddd, "\Phi_B"] \\
& 1_A \arrow[r, mapsto] \arrow[d, mapsto] & f \arrow[d, mapsto] & \\
& a \arrow[r, mapsto] & (\mathcal{F}f)(a) \overset{!}{=} \Phi_B(f) & \\
\mathcal{F}(A) \arrow[rrr, "\mathcal{F}(f)"'] & & & \mathcal{F}(B)
\end{tikzcd}$$

Here's what the above diagram means. The natural transformation $\Phi \colon h_A \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$ has a component $\Phi_A \colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, A) \to \mathcal{F}(A)$, and Φ_A has to send the identity transformation 1_A *somewhere*. It can send it to any element of $\mathcal{F}(A)$; let's call $\Phi_A(1_A) = a$.

Now the naturality conditions force our hand. For any $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and any $f \colon B \to A$, the naturality square above means that $\Phi_B(f)$ *has to* be equal to $(\mathcal{F}f)(a)$. We get no choice in the matter.

But this completely determines Φ! So we have shown that there is exactly one natural transformation for every element of $\mathcal{F}(A)$. We are done!

Well, almost. We still have to show that the bijection we constructed above is natural. To that end, let $f \colon B \to A$. We need to show that the following square commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathrm{Hom}_{[\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}},\mathsf{Set}]}(h_A, \mathcal{F}) \arrow[r, "\eta_A"] \arrow[d, "\mathrm{Hom}_{[\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}},\mathsf{Set}]}(\mathcal{Y}(f), \mathcal{F})"'] & \mathcal{F}(A) \arrow[d, "\mathcal{F}(f)"] \\
\mathrm{Hom}_{[\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}},\mathsf{Set}]}(h_B, \mathcal{F}) \arrow[r, "\eta_B"] & \mathcal{F}(B)
\end{tikzcd}$$

This is notationally dense, and deserves a lot of explanation. The natural transformation $\mathrm{Hom}_{[\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}},\mathsf{Set}]}(\mathcal{Y}(f), \mathcal{F})$ looks complicated, but it's really not since we know what the hom functor does: it takes every natural transformation $h_A \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$ and pre-composes it with $\mathcal{Y}(f)$. The natural transformation η_A takes a natural transformation $\Phi \colon h_A \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$ and sends it to the element $\Phi_A(1_A) \in \mathcal{F}(A)$.

So, starting at the top left with a natural transformation $\Phi \colon h_A \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$, we can go to the bottom right in two ways.

1. We can head down to $\mathrm{Hom}_{[\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}},\mathsf{Set}]}(h_B, \mathcal{F})$, mapping
$$\Phi \mapsto \Phi \circ \mathcal{Y}(f),$$
then use η_B to map this to $\mathcal{F}(B)$:
$$\Phi \circ \mathcal{Y}(f) \mapsto (\Phi \circ \mathcal{Y}(f))_B(1_B).$$
We can simplify this right away. The component of the composition of natural transformations is the composition of the components, i.e.
$$(\Phi \circ \mathcal{Y}(f))_B(1_B) = (\Phi_B \circ \mathcal{Y}(f)_B)(1_B).$$

We also know how $\mathcal{Y}(f)$ behaves: it composes everything in sight with f.

$$\mathcal{Y}(f)(1_B) = f.$$

Thus, we have

$$(\Phi \circ \mathcal{Y}(f))(1_B) = \Phi_B(f).$$

2. We can first head to the right using η_A. This sends Φ to

$$\Phi_A(1_A) \in \mathcal{F}(A).$$

We can then map this to $\mathcal{F}(B)$ with f, getting

$$\mathcal{F}(f)(\Phi_A(1_A)).$$

The naturality condition is thus

$$(\mathcal{F}(f))(\Phi_A(1_A)) = \Phi_B(f),$$

which we saw above was true for any natural transformation Φ. □

Lemma 3.7.1. *The Yoneda embedding is fully faithful (Definition 3.2.2).*

Proof. We have to show that for all A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, the map

$$\mathcal{Y}_{A,B}\colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{[\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}},\mathsf{Set}]}(h_A, h_B)$$

is a bijection.

Fix $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, and consider the functor h_B. By the Yoneda lemma, there is a bijection between $\mathrm{Hom}_{[\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}},\mathsf{Set}]}(h_A, h_B)$ and $h_B(A)$. By definition,

$$h_B(A) = \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B).$$

But $\mathrm{Hom}_{[\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}},\mathsf{Set}]}(h_A, h_B)$ is nothing else but $\mathrm{Hom}_{[\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}},\mathsf{Set}]}(h_A, h_B)$, so we are done. □

Note 3.7.3. We defined the Yoneda embedding to be the functor $A \mapsto h_A$; this is sometimes called the *contravariant Yoneda embedding*. We could also have studied to map A to h^A, called the *covariant Yoneda embedding*, in which case a slight modification of the proof of the Yoneda lemma would have told us that the map

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}}}(B, A) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{[\mathsf{C},\mathsf{Set}]}(h^A, h^B)$$

is a natural bijection. This is often called the *covariant Yoneda lemma*.

Here is a situation in which the Yoneda lemma is commonly used.

Corollary 3.7.1. *Let* C *be a locally small category. Suppose for all* $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ *there is a bijection*

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B) \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B')$$

which is natural in A*. Then* $B \simeq B'$

Proof. We have a natural isomorphism $h_B \Rightarrow h_{B'}$. Since the Yoneda embedding is fully faithful, it is injective on objects up to isomorphism (Lemma 3.2.1). Thus, since h_B and $h_{B'}$ are isomorphic, so must be $B \simeq B'$. □

3.7.4 Applications

We have now built up enough machinery to make the proofs of a great variety of things trivial, as long as we accept a few assertions.

It is possible, for example, to prove that the product is associative in *any* locally small category, just from the fact that it is associative in Set.

Lemma 3.7.2. *The Cartesian product is associative in* Set. *That is, there is a natural isomorphism* α *between* $(A \times B) \times C$ *and* $A \times (B \times C)$ *for any sets* A, B, *and* C.

Proof. The isomorphism is given by $\alpha_{A,B,C} \colon ((a,b),c) \mapsto (a,(b,c))$. This is natural because for functions like this,

$$A \xrightarrow{f} A'$$
$$B \xrightarrow{g} B'$$
$$C \xrightarrow{h} C'$$

the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} ((a,b),c) \arrow[r, mapsto, "((f,g),h)"] \arrow[d, mapsto, "\alpha_{A,B,C}"'] & ((f(a),g(b)),h(c)) \arrow[d, mapsto, "\alpha_{A',B',C'}"] \\ (a,(b,c)) \arrow[r, mapsto, "(f,(g,h))"'] & (f(a),(g(b),h(c))) \end{tikzcd}$$

□

Theorem 3.7.2. *In any locally small category* C *with products, there is a natural isomorphism* $(A \times B) \times C \simeq A \times (B \times C)$.

Proof. We have the following string of natural isomorphisms for any X, A, B, $C \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X,(A \times B) \times C) &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, A \times B) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X,C) \\ &\simeq (\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X,A) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X,B)) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X,C) \\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X,A) \times (\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X,B) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X,C)) \\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X,A) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, B \times C) \\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, A \times (B \times C)). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by Corollary 3.7.1, $(A \times B) \times C \simeq A \times (B \times C)$. □

Note 3.7.4. By induction, all finite products are associative.

Theorem 3.7.3. *In any category with products* $\times$, *coproducts* $+$, *initial object* 0, *final object* 1, *and exponentials, we have the following natural isomorphisms.*

1. $A \times (B + C) \simeq (A \times B) + (A \times C)$
2. $C^{A+B} \simeq C^A \times C^B$.
3. $(C^A)^B \simeq C^{A \times B}$
4. $(A \times B)^C \simeq A^C \times B^C$
5. $C^0 \simeq 1$
6. $C^1 \simeq C$

Proof.

1. We have the following list of natural isomorphisms.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A \times (B + C), X) &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B + C, X^A) \\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B, X^A) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(C, X^A) \\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B \times A, X) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(C \times A, X) \\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}((B \times A) + (C \times A), X). \end{aligned}$$

2. We have the following list of natural isomorphisms.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{Hom}(X, C^{A+B}) &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}(X \times (A+B), C)\\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}((X\times A) + (X \times B), C)\\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X \times A, C) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X \times B, C)\\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, C^A) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, C^B)\\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, C^A \times C^B).\end{aligned}$$

Etc. □

3.8 Limits

3.8.1 Limits and colimits

As we have seen, one often gets categorical concepts by 'categorifying' concepts from set theory. One example of this is the notion of a *diagram*, which is the categorical generalization of an indexed family.

Definition 3.8.1 (indexed family)**.** Let J and X be sets. A family of elements in X indexed by J is a function

$$x\colon J \to X; \qquad j \mapsto x_j.$$

To categorify this, one considers a functor from one category J, called the *index category*, to another category C. Using a functor from a category instead of a function from a set allows us to index the morphisms as well as the objects.

Definition 3.8.2 (diagram)**.** Let J and C be categories. A diagram of type J in C is a (covariant) functor

$$\mathcal{D}\colon \mathsf{J} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}.$$

One thinks of the functor $\mathcal{D}$ embedding the index category J into C.

Definition 3.8.3 (cone)**.** Let C be a category, J an index category, and $\mathcal{D}\colon \mathsf{J} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$ be a diagram. Let $\mathsf{1}$ be the category with one object and one morphism (Example 3.1.2) and $\mathcal{F}_X$ the functor $\mathsf{1} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$ which picks out $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ (see Example 3.2.1). Let $\mathcal{K}$ be the unique functor $\mathsf{J} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{1}$.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{1} \arrow[dr, rightsquigarrow, "\mathcal{F}_X"] & \\ \mathsf{J} \arrow[u, rightsquigarrow, "\mathcal{K}"] \arrow[r, rightsquigarrow, "\mathcal{D}"'] & \mathsf{C} \end{tikzcd}$$

A cone of shape J from X is an object $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ together with a natural transformation

$$\varepsilon\colon \mathcal{F}_X \circ \mathcal{K} \Rightarrow \mathcal{D}.$$

That is to say, a cone to J is an object $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ together with a family of morphisms $\Phi_A\colon X \to \mathcal{D}(A)$ (one for each $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$) such that for all A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$ and all $f\colon A \to B$ the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} & X \arrow[dl, "\Phi_A"'] \arrow[dr, "\Phi_B"] & \\ \mathcal{D}(A) \arrow[rr, "\mathcal{D}(f)"] & & \mathcal{D}(B) \end{tikzcd}$$

Note 3.8.1. Here is an alternate definition. Let Δ be the functor $\mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow [\mathsf{J}, \mathsf{C}]$ (the category of functors $\mathsf{J} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$, see TODO) which assigns to each object $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ the constant functor $\Delta_X : \mathsf{J} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$, i.e. the functor which maps every object of J to X and every morphism to 1_X. A cone over $\mathcal{D}$ is then an object in the comma category (Definition 3.4.1) $(\Delta \downarrow \mathcal{D})$ given by the diagram

$$\mathsf{C} \xrightarrow{\Delta} [\mathsf{J}, \mathsf{C}] \xleftarrow{\mathcal{D}} \mathsf{1}\ .$$

The objects of this category are pairs (X, f), where $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and $f\colon \Delta(X) \to \mathcal{D}$; that is to say, f is a natural transformation $\Delta_X \Rightarrow \mathcal{D}$.

This allows us to make the following definition.

Definition 3.8.4 (category of cones over a diagram)**.** Let C be a category, J an index category, and $\mathcal{D}\colon \mathsf{J} \to \mathsf{C}$ a diagram. The category of cones over $\mathcal{D}$ is the category $(\Delta \downarrow \mathcal{D})$.

Note 3.8.2. The alternate definition given in Note 3.8.1 not only reiterates what cones look like, but even prescribes what morphisms between cones look like. Let (X, Φ) be a cone over a diagram $\mathcal{D}\colon \mathsf{J} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$, i.e.

- an object in the category $(\Delta \downarrow \mathcal{D})$, i.e.
- a pair (X, Φ), where $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and $\Phi\colon \Delta_X \Rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is a natural transformation, i.e.
- for each $J \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$ a morphism $\Phi_J\colon X \to \mathcal{D}(J)$ such that for any other object $J' \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$ and any morphism $f\colon J \to J'$ the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} & X \arrow[dl, "\Phi_J"'] \arrow[dr, "\Phi_{J'}"] & \\ \mathcal{D}(J) \arrow[rr, "\mathcal{D}(f)"] & & \mathcal{D}(J') \end{tikzcd}$$

This agrees with our previous definition of a cone.

Let (Y, Γ) be another cone over $\mathcal{D}$. Then a morphism $\Xi\colon (X, \Phi) \to (Y, \Gamma)$ is

- a morphism $\Xi \in \mathrm{Hom}_{(\Delta\downarrow\mathcal{D})}((X, \Phi), (Y, \Gamma))$, i.e.
- a natural transformation $\Xi\colon \Delta_X \Rightarrow \Delta_Y$ (i.e. a morphism $\Delta_X \to \Delta_Y$ in the category $[\mathsf{J}, \mathsf{C}]$) such that the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} \Delta_X \arrow[rr, Rightarrow, "\Xi"] \arrow[dr, Rightarrow, "\Phi"'] & & \Delta_Y \arrow[dl, Rightarrow, "\Gamma"] \\ & \mathcal{D} & \end{tikzcd}$$

  commutes, i.e.
- a morphism $\xi\colon X \to Y$ such that for each $J \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$, the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} X \arrow[rr, "\xi"] \arrow[dr, "\Phi_J"'] & & Y \arrow[dl, "\Gamma_J"] \\ & \mathcal{D}(J) & \end{tikzcd}$$

  commutes.

Cocones are the dual notion to cones. We make the following definition.

Definition 3.8.5 (cocone)**.** A cocone over a diagram $\mathcal{D}$ is an object in the comma category $(\mathcal{D} \downarrow \Delta)$.

Definition 3.8.6 (category of cocones)**.** The category of cocones over a diagram $\mathcal{D}$ is the category $(\mathcal{D} \downarrow \Delta)$.

The categorical definitions of cones and cocones allow us to define limits and colimits succinctly.

Definition 3.8.7 (limits, colimits)**.** A limit of a diagram $\mathcal{D}\colon \mathsf{J} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$ is a final object in the category $(\Delta \downarrow \mathcal{D})$. A colimit is an initial object in the category $(\mathcal{D} \downarrow \Delta)$.

Note 3.8.3. The above definition of a limit unwraps as follows. The limit of a diagram $\mathcal{D}\colon \mathsf{J} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$ is a cone (X, Φ) over $\mathcal{D}$ such that for any other cone (Y, Γ) over $\mathcal{D}$, there is a unique map $\xi\colon Y \to X$ such that for each $J \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$, the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} Y \arrow[rr, "\xi"] \arrow[dr, "\Gamma_J"'] & & X \arrow[dl, "\Phi_J"] \\ & \mathcal{D}(J) & \end{tikzcd}$$

Notation 3.8.1. We often denote the limit over the diagram $\mathcal{D}\colon \mathsf{J} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$ by

$$\lim_{\leftarrow} \mathcal{D}.$$

Similarly, we will denote the colimit over $\mathcal{D}$ by

$$\lim_{\rightarrow} \mathcal{D}.$$

If there is notational confusion over which functor we are taking a (co)limit, we will add a dummy index:

$$\lim_{\leftarrow i} \mathcal{D}_i.$$

Example 3.8.1. Here is a definition of the product $A \times B$ equivalent to that given in Example 3.5.5: it is the limit of the following somewhat trivial diagram.

$$\begin{tikzcd} A \arrow[loop left, "1_A"] & B \arrow[loop right, "1_B"] \end{tikzcd}$$

Let us unwrap this definition. We are saying that the product $A \times B$ is a cone over A and B

$$\begin{tikzcd} & A \times B \arrow[dl, "\pi_A"'] \arrow[dr, "\pi_B"] & \\ A & & B \end{tikzcd}$$

But not just any cone: a cone which is universal in the sense that any *other* cone factors through it uniquely.

$$\begin{tikzcd} & X \arrow[dl, "f_1"'] \arrow[d, "\exists! f"] \arrow[dr, "f_2"] & \\ A & A \times B \arrow[l, "\pi_A"] \arrow[r, "\pi_B"'] & B \end{tikzcd}$$

In fact, this allows us to generalize the product: the product of n objects $\prod_{i=1}^n A_i$ is the limit over diagram consisting of all the A_i with no morphisms between them.

Definition 3.8.8 (equalizer)**.** Let J be the category with objects and morphisms as follows. (The necessary identity arrows are omitted.)

$$\begin{tikzcd} J \arrow[r, shift left, "1"] \arrow[r, shift right, "2"'] & J' \end{tikzcd}$$

A diagram $\mathcal{D}$ of shape J in some category C looks like the following.

$$\begin{tikzcd} A \arrow[r, shift left, "f"] \arrow[r, shift right, "g"'] & B \end{tikzcd}$$

The equalizer of f and g is the limit of the diagram $\mathcal{D}$; that is to say, it is an object $\mathrm{eq} \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and a morphism $e\colon \mathrm{eq} \to A$

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathrm{eq} \arrow[r, "e"] & A \arrow[r, shift left, "f"] \arrow[r, shift right, "g"'] & B \end{tikzcd}$$

such that for any *other* object Z and morphism $i\colon Z \to A$ such that $f \circ i = g \circ i$, there is a unique morphism $e\colon Z \to \mathrm{eq}$ making the following diagram commute.

$$\begin{tikzcd} Z \arrow[d, dashed, "\exists! u"'] \arrow[dr, "i"] & & \\ \mathrm{eq} \arrow[r, "e"'] & A \arrow[r, shift left, "f"] \arrow[r, shift right, "g"'] & B \end{tikzcd}$$

Example 3.8.2. What does it mean for the above diagram to commute in, say, Set? We need $(f \circ e)(x) = (g \circ e)(x)$ for all $x \in \mathrm{eq}$. That is, once we have been mapped by e into A, we need to be taken to the same place by f and g. The range of e must lie entirely within the set

3.8.2 Pullbacks and kernels

In what follows, C will be a category and A, B, etc. objects in $\mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$.

Definition 3.8.9 (pullback)**.** Let f, g be morphisms as follows.

$$\begin{tikzcd} & B \arrow[d, "g"] \\ A \arrow[r, "f"'] & C \end{tikzcd}$$

A pullback of f along g (also called a pullback of g over f, sometimes notated $A \times_C B$) is a commuting square

$$\begin{tikzcd} U \arrow[r, "q"] \arrow[d, "p"'] & B \arrow[d, "g"] \\ A \arrow[r, "f"'] & C \end{tikzcd}$$

such that for any other commuting square

$$\begin{tikzcd} V \arrow[r, "t"] \arrow[d, "s"'] & B \arrow[d, "g"] \\ A \arrow[r, "f"'] & C \end{tikzcd}$$

there is a unique morphism $h\colon V \to U$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} V \arrow[dr, dashed, "\exists! h"] \arrow[drr, bend left, "t"] \arrow[ddr, bend right, "s"'] & & \\ & U \arrow[r, "q"] \arrow[d, "p"'] & B \arrow[d, "g"] \\ & A \arrow[r, "f"'] & C \end{tikzcd}$$

Note 3.8.4. Here is another definition: the pullback $A \times_C B$ is the limit of the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} & B \arrow[d, "g"] \\ A \arrow[r, "f"'] & C \end{tikzcd}$$

This might at first seem odd; after all, don't we also need an arrow $A \times_C B \to C$? But this arrow is completely determined by the commutativity conditions, so it is superfluous.

Example 3.8.3. In Set, U is given (up to unique isomorphism) by

$$U = \left\{ (a, b) \in A \times B \,\middle|\, f(a) = g(b) \right\}.$$

The morphisms p and q are given by the projections $p(a, b) = a$, $q(a, b) = b$.

To see that this really does satisfy the universal property, consider any other set V and functions $s\colon V \to A$ and $t\colon V \to B$ making the above diagram commute. Then for all $v \in V$, $f(s(v)) = t(g(v))$.

Now consider the map $V \to U$ sending v to $(s(v), t(v))$. This certainly makes the above diagram commute; furthermore, any other map from V to U would not make the diagram commute. Thus U and h together satisfy the universal property.

Lemma 3.8.1. *Let $f\colon X \to Y$ be a monomorphism. Then any pullback of f is a monomorphism.*

Proof. Suppose we have the following pullback square.

$$\begin{tikzcd} X' \arrow[r, "p_1"] \arrow[d, "p_2"'] & X \arrow[d, hook, "f"] \\ Y' \arrow[r, "g"] & Y \end{tikzcd}$$

Our aim is to show that p_2 is a monomorphism.

Suppose we are given an object Z and two morphisms α, $\beta\colon Z \to X'$.

$$\begin{tikzcd} Z \arrow[dr, shift left, "\alpha"] \arrow[dr, shift right, "\beta"'] & & \\ & X' \arrow[r, "p_1"] \arrow[d, "p_2"'] & X \arrow[d, hook, "f"] \\ & Y' \arrow[r, "g"] & Y \end{tikzcd}$$

We can compose α and β with p_2. Suppose that these agree, i.e.

$$p_2 \circ \alpha = p_2 \circ \beta.$$

We will be done if we can show that this implies that $p_1 = p_2$.

We can compose with g to find that

$$g \circ p_2 \circ \alpha = g \circ p_2 \circ \beta.$$

but since the pullback square commutes, we can replace $g \circ p_2$ by $f \circ p_1$.

$$f \circ p_1 \circ \alpha = f \circ p_1 \circ \beta.$$

since f is a monomorphism, this implies that

$$p_1 \circ \alpha = p_1 \circ \beta.$$

Now forget α and β for a minute. we have constructed a commuting square as follows.

$$\begin{tikzcd} Z \arrow[drr, bend left, "p_1\circ\alpha=p_1\circ\beta"] \arrow[ddr, bend right, "p_2\circ\alpha=p_2\circ\beta"'] & & \\ & X' \arrow[r, "p_1"] \arrow[d, "p_2"'] & X \arrow[d, hook, "f"] \\ & Y' \arrow[r, "g"] & Y \end{tikzcd}$$

the universal property for pullbacks tells us that there is a unique morphism $Z \to X'$ making the diagram commute. But either α or β will do! So $\alpha = \beta$. $\square$

Definition 3.8.10 (kernel of a morphism)**.** Let C be a category with an initial object (Definition 3.5.1) 0 and pullbacks. The kernel $\ker(f)$ of a morphism $f\colon A \to B$ is the pullback along f of the unique morphism $0 \to B$.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \ker(f) \arrow[r] \arrow[d, "\iota"'] & 0 \arrow[d] \\ A \arrow[r, "f"] & B \end{tikzcd}$$

That is to say, the kernel of f is a pair $(\ker(f), \iota)$, where $\ker(f) \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and $\iota\colon \ker(f) \to A$ which satisfies the above universal property.

Note 3.8.5. Although the kernel of a morphism f is a pair $(\ker(f), \iota)$ as described above, we will sometimes sloppily say that the object $\ker(f)$ is the kernel of f, especially when the the morphism ι is obvious or understood. Such abuses of terminology are common; one occasionally even sees the morphism ι being called the kernel of f.

Example 3.8.4. In Vect_k, the initial object is the zero vector space $\{0\}$. For any vector spaces V and W and any linear map $f\colon V \to W$, the kernel of f is the pair $(\ker(f), \iota)$ where $\ker(f)$ is the vector space

$$\ker(f) = \left\{ v \in V \,\middle|\, f(v) = 0 \right\}$$

and ι is the obvious injection $\ker(f) \to V$.

Lemma 3.8.2. *Let $f\colon A \to B$, and let $(\iota, \ker(f))$ be the kernel of f. Then ι is a monomorphism (Definition 3.1.7).*

Proof. Suppose we have an object $Z \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and two morphisms g_1, $g_2\colon Z \to \ker(f)$. We have the following diagram.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
Z \arrow[dr, shift left, "g_1"] \arrow[dr, shift right, "g_2"'] & & \\
& \ker(f) \arrow[r] \arrow[d, "\iota"] & 0 \arrow[d] \\
& A \arrow[r, "f"] & B
\end{tikzcd}$$

Further suppose that $\iota \circ g_1 = \iota \circ g_2$.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
Z \arrow[dr, shift left, "g_1"] \arrow[dr, shift right, "g_2"'] \arrow[drr, bend left] \arrow[ddr, bend right, "\iota\circ g_1 = \iota\circ g_2"'] & & \\
& \ker(f) \arrow[r] \arrow[d, "\iota"'] & 0 \arrow[d] \\
& A \arrow[r, "f"] & B
\end{tikzcd}$$

Now pretend that we don't know about g_1 and g_2.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
Z \arrow[drr, bend left] \arrow[ddr, bend right, "\iota\circ g_1 = \iota\circ g_2"'] & & \\
& \ker(f) \arrow[r] \arrow[d, "\iota"'] & 0 \arrow[d] \\
& A \arrow[r, "f"] & B
\end{tikzcd}$$

The universal property for kernels tells us that there is a unique map $Z \to \ker(f)$ making the above diagram commute. But since g_1 and g_2 both make the diagram commute, g_1 and g_2 must be the same map, i.e. $g_1 = g_2$. □

3.8.3 Pushouts and cokernels

Pushouts are the dual notion to pullbacks.

Definition 3.8.11 (pushouts)**.** Let f, g be morphisms as follows.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
C \arrow[r, "g"] \arrow[d, "f"'] & B \\
A &
\end{tikzcd}$$

The <u>pushout of f along g</u> (or g along f) is a commuting square

$$\begin{tikzcd}
C \arrow[r, "g"] \arrow[d, "f"'] & B \arrow[d, "q"] \\
A \arrow[r, "p"'] & U
\end{tikzcd}$$

such that for any other commuting square

$$\begin{tikzcd} C \arrow[r, "g"] \arrow[d, "f"'] & B \arrow[d, "t"] \\ A \arrow[r, "s"'] & V \end{tikzcd}$$

there exists a unique morphism $h\colon U \to V$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} C \arrow[r, "g"] \arrow[d, "f"'] & B \arrow[d, "q"] \arrow[ddr, bend left, "t"] & \\ A \arrow[r, "p"'] \arrow[drr, bend right, "s"'] & U \arrow[dr, dashed, "\exists! h"] & \\ & & V \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes.

Note 3.8.6. As with pullbacks, we can also define a pushout as the colimit of the following diagram.

$$\begin{tikzcd} C \arrow[r, "g"] \arrow[d, "f"'] & B \\ A & \end{tikzcd}$$

Example 3.8.5. Let us construct the pushout in Set. If we ignore the object C and the morphisms f and g, we discover that U must satisfy the universal property of the coproduct of A and B.

$$\begin{tikzcd} & B \arrow[d, "q"] \arrow[ddr, bend left, "t"] & \\ A \arrow[r, "p"'] \arrow[drr, bend right, "s"'] & U \arrow[dr, dashed, "\exists! h"] & \\ & & V \end{tikzcd}$$

Let us therefore make the ansatz that $U = A \amalg B = A \sqcup B$ and see what happens when we add C, f, and g back in.

$$\begin{tikzcd} C \arrow[r, "g"] \arrow[d, "f"'] & B \arrow[d, "q"] \arrow[ddr, bend left, "t"] & \\ A \arrow[r, "p"'] \arrow[drr, bend right, "s"'] & U \arrow[dr, dashed, "\exists! h"] & \\ & & V \end{tikzcd}$$

In doing so, we find that the square A-C-B-U must also commute, i.e. we must have that $(q \circ g)(c) = (p \circ f)(c)$ for all $c \in C$. Since p and q are just inclusions, we see that

$$U = A \amalg B / \sim,$$

where $\sim$ is the equivalence relation generated by the relations $f(c) \sim g(c)$ for all $c \in C$.

Definition 3.8.12 (cokernel of a morphism)**.** Let C be a category with terminal object 1. The cokernel of a morphism $f\colon A \to B$ is the pushout of f along the unique morphism $A \to 1$.

$$\begin{tikzcd} A \arrow[r, "f"] \arrow[d] & B \arrow[d, "\pi"] \\ 1 \arrow[r] & \operatorname{coker}(f) \end{tikzcd}$$

Example 3.8.6. In Vect_k, the terminal object is the vector space $\{0\}$. If V and W are k-vector spaces and f is a linear map $V \to W$, then $\operatorname{coker}(f)$ is

$$W/\sim,$$

where $\sim$ is the relation generated by $f(v) \sim 0$ for all $v \in V$. But this relation is exactly the one which mods out by $\operatorname{im}(f)$, so $\operatorname{coker}(f) = W/\operatorname{im}(f)$.

Lemma 3.8.3. *For any morphism $f\colon A \to B$, the canonical projection $\pi\colon B \to \operatorname{coker}(f)$ is an epimorphism.*

Proof. The proof is dual to the proof that the canonical injection ι is mono (Lemma 3.8.2). □

Definition 3.8.13 (normal monomorphism)**.** A monomorphism (Definition 3.1.7) $f\colon A \to B$ is normal if it the kernel of some morphism. To put it more plainly, f is normal if there exists an object C and a morphism $g\colon B \to C$ such that (A, f) is the kernel of g.

$$A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$$

Example 3.8.7. In Vect_k, monomorphisms are injective linear maps (Example 3.1.6). If f is injective then sequence

$$\{0\} \longrightarrow V \xrightarrow{f} W \xrightarrow{\pi} W/\operatorname{im}(f), \longrightarrow \{0\}$$

is exact, and we always have that $\operatorname{im}(f) = \ker(\pi)$. Thus in Vect_k, every monomorphism is normal.

Definition 3.8.14 (conormal epimorphism)**.** An epimorphism $f\colon A \to B$ is conormal if it is the cokernel of some morphism. That is to say, if there exists an object C and a morphism $g\colon C \to A$ such that (B, f) is the cokernel of g.

Example 3.8.8. In Vect_k, epimorphisms are surjective linear maps. If $f\colon V \to W$ is a surjective linear map, then the sequence

$$\{0\} \longrightarrow \ker(f) \xrightarrow{\iota} V \xrightarrow{f} W \longrightarrow \{0\}$$

is exact. But then $\operatorname{im}(\iota) = \ker(f)$, so f is conormal. Thus in Vect_k, every epimorphism is conormal.

Note 3.8.7. To show that in our proofs that in Vect_k monomorphisms were normal and epimorphisms were conormal, we showed that monomorphisms were the kernels of their cokernels, and epimorphisms were the cokernels of their kernels. This will be a general feature of Abelian categories.

Definition 3.8.15 (binormal category)**.** A category is binormal if all monomorphisms are normal and all epimorphisms are conormal.

Example 3.8.9. As we have seen, Vect_k is binormal.

3.8.4 A necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of finite limits

In this section we prove a simple criterion to check that a category has all finite limits (i.e. limits over diagrams with a finite number of objects and a finite number of morphisms). The idea is as follows.

In general, adding more objects to a diagram makes the limit over it larger, and adding more morphisms makes the limit smaller. In the extreme case in which the only morphisms are the identity morphisms, the limit is simply the categorical product. As we add morphisms, roughly speaking, we have to get rid of the parts of the product which are preventing the necessary triangles from commuting. Thus, to make the universal cone over a diagram, we can start with the product, and cut out the bare minimum we need to make everything commute: the way to do that is with an equalizer.

The following proof was adapted from [25].

Theorem 3.8.1. *Let C be a category. The following are equivalent.*

1. *C has all finite limits.*

2. *C has all finite products and equalizers.*
3. *C has all pullbacks and a terminal object.*

Proof. Since finite products, equalizers, pullbacks, and terminal objects are all instances of finite limits (the terminal object is the limit of the empty diagram), 1 clearly implies 2 and 3.

Next we show that 2 $\implies$ 1. Assume 2, i.e. suppose that C has all finite products and equalizers.

Let $\mathcal{D}\colon \mathsf{J} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$ be a finite diagram. We want to prove that $\mathcal{D}$ has a limit; we will do this by constructing a universal cone over it, i.e.

- an object $L \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, and
- for each $j \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$, a morphism $P_j\colon L \to \mathcal{D}(j)$

such that

1. for any $i, j \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$ and any $\alpha\colon i \to j$ the following diagram commutes,
$$\begin{tikzcd} & L \arrow[dl, "P_i"'] \arrow[dr, "P_j"] & \\ \mathcal{D}(i) \arrow[rr, "\mathcal{D}(\alpha)"] & & \mathcal{D}(j) \end{tikzcd}$$
and
2. for any other object $L' \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and family of morphisms $Q_j\colon L' \to \mathcal{D}(j)$ which make the diagrams
$$\begin{tikzcd} & L' \arrow[dl, "Q_i"'] \arrow[dr, "Q_j"] & \\ \mathcal{D}(i) \arrow[rr, "\mathcal{D}(\alpha)"] & & \mathcal{D}(j) \end{tikzcd}$$
commute for all i, j, and α, there is a unique morphism $f\colon L' \to L$ such that $Q_j = P_j \circ f$ for all $j \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$.

Denote by $\mathrm{Mor}(\mathsf{J})$ the set of all morphisms in J. For any $\alpha \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{J}}(i, j) \subseteq \mathrm{Mor}(\mathsf{J})$, let $\mathrm{dom}(\alpha) = i$ and $\mathrm{cod}(\alpha) = j$.

Consider the following finite products:
$$A = \prod_{j \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})} \mathcal{D}(j) \qquad \text{and} \qquad B = \prod_{\alpha \in \mathrm{Mor}(\mathsf{J})} \mathcal{D}(\mathrm{cod}(\alpha)).$$

From the universal property for products, we know that we can construct a morphism $f\colon A \to B$ by specifying a family of morphisms $f_\alpha\colon A \to \mathcal{D}(\mathrm{cod}(\alpha))$, one for each $\alpha \in \mathrm{Mor}(\mathsf{J})$. We will define two morphisms $R, S\colon A \to B$ in this way:
$$R_\alpha = \pi_{\mathcal{D}(\mathrm{cod}(\alpha))}; \qquad S_\alpha = \mathcal{D}(\alpha) \circ \pi_{\mathcal{D}(\mathrm{dom}(\alpha))}.$$

Now let $e\colon L \to A$ be the equalizer of R and S (we are guaranteed the existence of this equalizer by assumption). Further, define $P_j\colon L \to \mathcal{D}(j)$ by
$$P_j = \pi_{\mathcal{D}(j)} \circ e$$
for all $j \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$.

The claim is that L together with the P_j is the limit of $\mathcal{D}$. We need to verify conditions 1 and 2 on L and P_j listed above.

1. We need to show that for all $i, j \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$ and all $\alpha\colon i \to j$, we have the equality $\mathcal{D}(\alpha) \circ P_i = P_j$. Now, for every $\alpha\colon i \to j$ we have
$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}(\alpha) \circ P_i &= \mathcal{D}(\alpha) \circ \pi_{\mathcal{D}(i)} \circ e \\ &= S_\alpha \circ e \\ &= R_\alpha \circ e \\ &= \pi_{\mathcal{D}(j)} \circ e \\ &= P_j. \end{aligned}$$

2. We need to show that for any other $L' \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and any other family of morphisms $Q_j\colon L' \to \mathcal{D}(j)$ such that for all $\alpha\colon i \to j$, $Q_j = \mathcal{D}(\alpha) \circ Q_i$, there is a unique morphism $h\colon L' \to L$ such that $Q_j = P_j \circ h$ for all $j \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$. Suppose we are given such an L' and Q_j.

   The universal property for products allows us to construct from the family of morphisms Q_j a morphism $Q\colon L' \to A$ such that $Q_j = \pi_{\mathcal{D}(j)} \circ Q$. Now, for any $\alpha\colon i \to j$,

$$\begin{aligned} R_\alpha \circ Q &= \pi_{\mathcal{D}(j)} \circ Q \\ &= Q_j \\ &= \mathcal{D}(\alpha) \circ Q_i \\ &= \mathcal{D}(\alpha) \circ \pi_i \circ Q \\ &= S_\alpha \circ Q. \end{aligned}$$

   Thus, $Q\colon L' \to A$ equalizes R and S. But the universal property for equalizers guarantees us a unique morphism $h\colon L' \to L$ such that $Q = P \circ h$. We can compose both sides of this equation on the left with $\pi_{\mathcal{D}(j)}$ to find

$$\pi_{\mathcal{D}(j)} \circ Q = \pi_{\mathcal{D}(j)} \circ P \circ h,$$

   i.e.

$$Q_j = P_j \circ h$$

   as required.

It remains only to show that $3 \implies 1$, i.e. that if C has pullbacks and a terminal object 1, then it has all finite limits. We do this by showing that □

Note 3.8.8. The meat of this theorem is the fact that finite products and equalizers yield all finite limits.

3.8.5 The hom functor preserves limits

Theorem 3.8.2. *Let C be a locally small category. The hom functor $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}\colon \mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$ preserves limits in the second argument, i.e. for $\mathcal{D}\colon \mathsf{J} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$ a diagram in C we have a natural isomorphism*

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Y, \lim_{\leftarrow} \mathcal{D}) \simeq \lim_{\leftarrow} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Y, \mathcal{D}),$$

where the limit on the RHS is over the hom-set diagram

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Y, -) \circ \mathcal{D}\colon \mathsf{J} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}.$$

Proof. Let L be the limit over the diagram $\mathcal{D}$. Then for any map $f\colon Y \to L$, there is a cone from Y to $\mathcal{D}$ by composition, and for any cone with tip Y over $\mathcal{D}$ we get a map $f\colon Y \to L$ from the universal property of limits. Thus, there is a bijection

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Y, \lim_{\leftarrow} \mathcal{D}) \simeq \mathrm{Cones}(Y, \mathcal{D}),$$

which is natural in Y since the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Y, \lim_{\leftarrow} \mathcal{D}) \arrow[r, "(-)\circ f"] \arrow[d] & \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Z, \lim_{\leftarrow} \mathcal{D}) \arrow[d] \\ \mathrm{Cones}(Y, \mathcal{D}) \arrow[r, "(-)\circ f"] & \mathrm{Cones}(Z, \mathcal{D}) \end{tikzcd}$$

trivially commutes. We will be done if we can show that there is also a natural isomorphism

$$\mathrm{Cones}(Y, \mathcal{D}) \simeq \lim_{\leftarrow} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Y, \mathcal{D}).$$

Let us understand the elements of the set $\lim_{\leftarrow} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Y, \mathcal{D})$. The diagram

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Y, -) \circ \mathcal{D}\colon \mathsf{J} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$$

maps $J \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$ to $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Y, \mathcal{D}(J)) \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{Set})$. A universal cone over this diagram is a set S together with, for each $J_i \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$, a function

$$f_i \colon S \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Y, \mathcal{D}(J_i))$$

such that for each $\alpha \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{J}}(J_i, J_j)$, the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} & S \arrow[dl, "f_i"'] \arrow[dr, "f_j"] & \\ \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Y, \mathcal{D}(J_i)) \arrow[rr, "\mathcal{D}(\alpha)\circ(-)"'] & & \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Y, \mathcal{D}(J_j)) \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes.

Now pick any element $s \in S$. Each f_i maps this to a function $Y \to \mathcal{D}(J_i)$ which makes the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} & Y \arrow[dl, "f_i(s)"'] \arrow[dr, "f_j(s)"] & \\ \mathcal{D}(J_i) \arrow[rr, "\mathcal{D}(\alpha)"'] & & \mathcal{D}(J_j) \end{tikzcd}$$

commute. But this is exactly an element of $\mathrm{Cones}(Y, \mathcal{D})$. Conversely, every element of $\mathrm{Cones}(Y, \mathcal{D})$ gives us an element of S, so we have a bijection

$$\mathrm{Cones}(Y, \mathcal{D}) \simeq \varprojlim \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Y, \mathcal{D}),$$

which is natural as required. □

Corollary 3.8.1. *The first slot of the hom functor turns colimits into limits. That is,*

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(\varinjlim \mathcal{D}, Y) \simeq \varprojlim \mathrm{Hom}_{C}(\mathcal{D}, Y).$$

Proof. Dual to that of Theorem 3.8.2. □

3.8.6 Filtered colimits and ind-objects

Definition 3.8.16 (preorder)**.** Let S be a set. A preoreder on S is a binary relation $\leq$ which is

1. reflexive ($a \leq a$)
2. transitive (if $a \leq b$ and $b \leq c$, then $a \leq c$)

A preorder is said to be directed if for any two objects a and b, there exists an 'upper bound', i.e. an object r such that $a \leq r$ and $b \leq r$.

Filtered categories are a generalization of filtered preorders.

Definition 3.8.17 (filtered category)**.** A category J is filtered if

- for each pair of objects J, $J' \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{J})$, there exists an object K and morphisms $J \to K$ and $J' \to K$.

$$\begin{tikzcd} J \arrow[dr] & \\ & K \\ J' \arrow[ur] & \end{tikzcd}$$

  That is, every diagram with two objects and no morphisms is the base of a cocone.

- For every pair of morphisms i, $j \colon J \to J'$, there exists an object K and a morphism $f \colon J' \to K$ such that $f \circ i = f \circ j$, i.e. the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} J \arrow[r, shift left, "i"] \arrow[r, shift right, "j"'] & J' \arrow[r, "f"] & K \end{tikzcd}$$

  That is, every diagram of the form $\bullet \rightrightarrows \bullet$ is the base of a cocone.

Definition 3.8.18 (filtered colimit)**.** A filtered colimit is a colimit over a diagram $\mathcal{D}\colon \mathsf{J} \to \mathsf{C}$, where J is a filtered category.

We now define the so-called *category of inductive objects* (or simply *ind-objects*).

Definition 3.8.19 (category of ind-objects)**.** Let C be a category. We define the category of ind-objects of C, denote $\mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{C})$ as follows.

- The objects $F \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{C}))$ are defined to be filtered colimits of objects of diagrams $\mathcal{F}\colon \mathsf{D} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$.
- For two objects $F = \lim_{\to d} \mathcal{F}_d$ and $G = \lim_{\to e} \mathcal{G}_e$, the morphisms $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{C})}(F, G)$ are defined to be the set
$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{C})}(F, G) = \lim_{\leftarrow d} \lim_{\to e} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(\mathcal{F}_d, \mathcal{G}_e).$$

Note 3.8.9. There is a fully faithful embedding $\mathsf{C} \hookrightarrow \mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{C})$ which exhibits any object A as the colimit over the trivial diagram $\bullet \circlearrowleft$.

The importance of the category of ind-objects can be seen in the following example.

Example 3.8.10. Let V be an infinite-dimensional vector space over some field k. Then V can be realized as an object in the category $\mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{FinVect})$.

In fact, there is an equivalence of categories $\mathsf{Vect}_k \simeq \mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{FinVect}_k)$. Similarly, there is an equivalence of categories $\mathsf{SVect}_k \simeq \mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{FinSVect}_k)$

Note 3.8.10. This is stated without proof as Example 3.39 of [11]. I haven't been able to find a real source for it.

3.9 Adjunctions

Consider the following functors:

- $\mathcal{U}\colon \mathsf{Grp} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$, which sends a group to its underlying set, and
- $\mathcal{F}\colon \mathsf{Set} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Grp}$, which sends a set to the free group on it.

The functors $\mathcal{U}$ and $\mathcal{F}$ are dual in the following sense: $\mathcal{U}$ is the most efficient way of moving from Grp to Set since all groups are in particular sets; $\mathcal{F}$ might be thought of as providing the most efficient way of moving from Set to Grp. But how would one go about formalizing this?

Well, these functors have the following property. Let S be a set, G be a group, and let $f\colon S \to \mathcal{U}(G)$, $s \mapsto f(s)$ be a set-function. Then there is an associated group homomorphism $\tilde{f}\colon \mathcal{F}(S) \to G$, which sends $s_1 s_2 \ldots s_n \mapsto f(s_1 s_2 \ldots s_n) = f(s_1) \cdots f(s_n)$. In fact, $\tilde{f}$ is the unique homomorphism $\mathcal{F}(S) \to G$ such that $f(s) = \tilde{f}(s)$ for all $s \in S$.

Similarly, for every group homomorphism $g\colon \mathcal{F}(S) \to G$, there is an associated function $S \to \mathcal{U}(G)$ given by restricting g to S. In fact, this is the unique function $\mathcal{F}(S) \to G$ such that $f(s) = \tilde{f}(s)$ for all $s \in S$.

Thus for each $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Grp}}(S, \mathcal{U}(G))$ we can construct an $\tilde{f} \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Set}}(\mathcal{F}(S), G)$, and vice versa.

Let us add some mathematical scaffolding to the ideas explored above. We build two functors $\mathsf{Set}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathsf{Grp} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$ as follows.

1. Our first functor maps the object $(S, G) \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{Set}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathsf{Grp})$ to the hom-set $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Grp}}(\mathcal{F}(S), G)$, and a morphism $(\alpha, \beta)\colon (S, G) \to (S', G')$ to a function
$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Grp}}(\mathcal{F}(S), G) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Grp}}(\mathcal{F}(S'), G'); \qquad m \mapsto \mathcal{F}(\alpha) \circ m \circ \beta$$
2. Our second functor maps (S, G) to $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Set}}(S, \mathcal{U}(G))$, and (α, β) to
$$m \mapsto \alpha \circ m \circ \mathcal{U}(\beta).$$

We can define a natural isomorphism Φ between these functors with components
$$\Phi_{S,G}\colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Grp}}(\mathcal{F}(S), G) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Set}}(S, \mathcal{U}(G)); \qquad f \to \tilde{f}.$$

This mathematical structure turns out to be a recurring theme in the study of categories, called an *adjuction*. We have encountered it before: we saw in Example 3.7.1 that there was a natural bijection between

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X \times (-), B) \qquad \text{and} \qquad \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, B^{(-)}).$$

Definition 3.9.1 (hom-set adjunction)**.** Let C, D be categories and $\mathcal{F}$, $\mathcal{G}$ functors as follows.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, squiggly, bend left, "\mathcal{F}"] & \mathsf{D} \arrow[l, squiggly, bend left, "\mathcal{G}"] \end{tikzcd}$$

We say that <u>$\mathcal{F}$ is left-adjoint to $\mathcal{G}$</u> (or equivalently $\mathcal{G}$ is right-adjoint to $\mathcal{F}$) and write $\mathcal{F} \dashv \mathcal{G}$ if there is a natural isomorphism

$$\Phi\colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(-), -) \Rightarrow \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(-, \mathcal{G}(-)),$$

which fits between $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ like this.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathsf{D} \arrow[rr, squiggly, bend left, "\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(-),-)"] \arrow[rr, squiggly, bend right, "\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(-,\mathcal{G}(-))"'] \arrow[rr, phantom, "\Downarrow\Phi"] & & \mathsf{Set} \end{tikzcd}$$

The natural isomorphsim amounts to a family of bijections

$$\Phi_{A,B}\colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(A), B) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, \mathcal{G}(B))$$

which satisfies the coherence conditions for a natural transformation.

Here are two equivalent definitions which are often used.

Definition 3.9.2 (unit-counit adjunction)**.** We say that two functors $\mathcal{F}\colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$ and $\mathcal{G}\colon \mathsf{D} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$ form a <u>unit-counit adjunction</u> if there are two natural transformations

$$\eta\colon 1_{\mathsf{C}} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F}, \qquad \text{and} \qquad \varepsilon\colon \mathcal{F} \circ \mathcal{G} \Rightarrow 1_{\mathsf{D}},$$

called the *unit* and *counit* respectively, which make the following so-called *triangle diagrams*

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathcal{F} \arrow[r, Rightarrow, "\mathcal{F}\eta"] \arrow[dr, Rightarrow, "1_{\mathcal{F}}"'] & \mathcal{F}\mathcal{G}\mathcal{F} \arrow[d, Rightarrow, "\varepsilon\mathcal{F}"] \\ & \mathcal{F} \end{tikzcd}, \qquad \begin{tikzcd} \mathcal{G} \arrow[r, Rightarrow, "\eta\mathcal{G}"] \arrow[dr, Rightarrow, "1_{\mathcal{G}}"'] & \mathcal{G}\mathcal{F}\mathcal{G} \arrow[d, Rightarrow, "\mathcal{G}\varepsilon"] \\ & \mathcal{G} \end{tikzcd}$$

commute.

The triangle diagrams take quite some explanation. The unit η is a natural transformation $1_{\mathsf{C}} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F}$. We can draw it like this.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, squiggly, bend left, "1_{\mathsf{C}}"] \arrow[r, squiggly, bend right, "\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}"'] \arrow[r, phantom, "\Downarrow\eta"] & \mathsf{C} \end{tikzcd}.$$

Analogously, we can draw ε like this.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{D} \arrow[r, squiggly, bend left, "\mathcal{F}\circ\mathcal{G}"] \arrow[r, squiggly, bend right, "1_{\mathsf{D}}"'] \arrow[r, phantom, "\Downarrow\varepsilon"] & \mathsf{D} \end{tikzcd}.$$

We can arrange these artfully like so.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, squiggly, "\mathcal{F}"] \arrow[rr, squiggly, bend left=60, "1_{\mathsf{C}}"] \arrow[rr, squiggly, bend left=25, "\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}"'] & \mathsf{D} \arrow[r, squiggly, "\mathcal{G}"] \arrow[rr, squiggly, bend right=25, "\mathcal{F}\circ\mathcal{G}"] \arrow[rr, squiggly, bend right=60, "1_{\mathsf{D}}"'] & \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, squiggly, "\mathcal{F}"] & \mathsf{D} \end{tikzcd}$$

Notice that we haven't actually *done* anything; this diagram is just the diagrams for the unit and counit, plus some extraneous information.

We can whisker the η on top from the right, and the ε below from the left, to get the following diagram,

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathsf{C} \arrow[r, squiggly, "\mathcal{F}"] \arrow[rrr, squiggly, bend left=60, "\mathcal{F}"] \arrow[rrr, squiggly, bend left=25, "\mathcal{F}\circ\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}"] \arrow[rrr, phantom, bend left=45, "\Downarrow \mathcal{F}\eta"] \arrow[rrr, squiggly, bend right=25, "\mathcal{F}\circ\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}"'] \arrow[rrr, phantom, bend right=45, "\Downarrow \varepsilon\mathcal{F}"] \arrow[rrr, squiggly, bend right=60, "\mathcal{F}"'] & \mathsf{D} \arrow[r, squiggly, "\mathcal{G}"] & \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, squiggly, "\mathcal{F}"] & \mathsf{D}
\end{tikzcd}$$

then consolidate to get this:

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathsf{C} \arrow[r, squiggly, bend left=60, "\mathcal{F}"] \arrow[r, squiggly, "\mathcal{F}\circ\mathcal{G}\circ\mathcal{F}"] \arrow[r, phantom, bend left=30, "\Downarrow \mathcal{F}\eta"] \arrow[r, phantom, bend right=30, "\Downarrow \varepsilon\mathcal{F}"] \arrow[r, squiggly, bend right=60, "\mathcal{F}"'] & \mathsf{D}
\end{tikzcd}$$

We can then take the composition $\varepsilon\mathcal{F} \circ \mathcal{F}\eta$ to get a natural transformation $\mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathsf{C} \arrow[r, squiggly, bend left=50, "\mathcal{F}"] \arrow[r, phantom, "\Downarrow \varepsilon\mathcal{F}\circ\mathcal{F}\eta"] \arrow[r, squiggly, bend right=50, "\mathcal{F}"'] & \mathsf{D};
\end{tikzcd}$$

the first triangle diagram says that this must be the same as the identity natural transformation $1_{\mathcal{F}}$.

The second triangle diagram is analogous.

Lemma 3.9.1. *The functors $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ form a unit-counit adjunction if and only if they form a hom-set adjunction.*

Proof. Suppose $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$ form a hom-set adjunction with natural isomorphism Φ. Then for any $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, we have $\mathcal{F}(A) \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{D})$, so Φ give us a bijection

$$\Phi_{A,\mathcal{F}(A)} \colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(A), \mathcal{F}(A)) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, (\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F})(A)).$$

We don't know much in general about $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(A), \mathcal{F}(A))$, but the category axioms tell us that it always contains $1_{\mathcal{F}(A)}$. We can use $\Phi_{A,\mathcal{F}(A)}$ to map this to

$$\Phi_{A,\mathcal{F}(A)}(1_{\mathcal{F}(A)}) \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, (\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F})(A)).$$

Let's call $\Phi_{A,\mathcal{F}(A)}(1_{\mathcal{F}(A)}) = \eta_A$.

Similarly, if $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{D})$, then $\mathcal{G}(B) \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, so Φ gives us a bijection

$$\Phi_{\mathcal{G}(B),B} \colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}((\mathcal{F} \circ \mathcal{G})(B), B) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(\mathcal{G}(B), \mathcal{G}(B)).$$

Since $\Phi_{\mathcal{G}(B),B}$ is a bijection, it is invertible, and we can evaluate the inverse on $1_{\mathcal{G}(B)}$. Let's call

$$\Phi^{-1}_{\mathcal{G}(B),B}(1_{\mathcal{G}(B)}) = \varepsilon_B.$$

Clearly, η_A and ε_B are completely determined by Φ and Φ^{-1} respectively. It turns out that the converse is also true; in a manner reminiscent of the proof of the Yoneda lemma, we can express $\Phi_{A,B}$ in terms of η, and $\Phi^{-1}_{A,B}$ in terms of ε, for *any* A and B. Here's how this is done.

We use the naturality of Φ. We know that for any $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{D})$, and $g \colon \mathcal{F}(A) \to B$, the following diagram has to commute.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(A), \mathcal{F}(A)) \arrow[r, "g\circ(-)"] \arrow[d, "\Phi_{A,\mathcal{F}(A)}"'] & \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(A), B) \arrow[d, "\Phi_{A,B}"] \\
\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, (\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F})(A)) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{G}(g)\circ(-)"] & \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, \mathcal{G}(B)).
\end{tikzcd}$$

Let's start at the top left with $1_{\mathcal{F}(A)}$ and see what happens. Taking the top road to the bottom right, we have $\Phi_{A,B}(g)$, and from the bottom road we have $\mathcal{G}(g) \circ \eta_A$. The diagram commutes, so we have

$$\Phi_{A,B}(g) = \mathcal{G}(g) \circ \eta_A.$$

Similarly, the commutativity of the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}((\mathcal{F} \circ \mathcal{G})(B), B) \arrow[r, "(-)\circ\mathcal{F}(f)"] & \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(A), B) \\ \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(\mathcal{G}(B), \mathcal{G}(B)) \arrow[u, "\Phi^{-1}_{\mathcal{G}(B),B}"] \arrow[r, "(-)\circ f"] & \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, \mathcal{G}(B)) \arrow[u, "\Phi^{-1}_{A,B}"'] \end{tikzcd}$$

means that, for any $f \colon A \to \mathcal{G}(B)$,

$$\Phi^{-1}_{A,B}(f) = \varepsilon_B \circ \mathcal{F}(f)$$

To show that η and ε as defined here satisfy the triangle identities, we need to show that for all $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and all $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{D})$,

$$(\varepsilon\mathcal{F})_A \circ (\mathcal{F}\eta)_A = (1_{\mathcal{F}})_A \qquad \text{and} \quad (\mathcal{G}\varepsilon)_B \circ (\eta\mathcal{G})_B = (1_{\mathcal{G}})_B.$$

We have

$$(\varepsilon\mathcal{F})_A \circ (\mathcal{F}\eta)_A = \varepsilon_{\mathcal{F}(A)} \circ \mathcal{F}(\eta_A) = \Phi^{-1}_{A,\mathcal{F}(A)}(\eta_A) = 1_A = (1_{\mathcal{F}})_A$$

and

$$(\mathcal{G}_{\varepsilon})_B \circ (\eta\mathcal{G})_B = \mathcal{G}(\varepsilon_B) \circ \eta_{\mathcal{G}(B)} = \Phi_{\mathcal{G}(B),B}(\varepsilon_B) = 1_B = (1_{\mathcal{G}})_B.$$

□

Definition 3.9.3 (adjunct)**.** Let $\mathcal{F} \dashv \mathcal{G}$ be an adjunction as follows.

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, bend left, squiggly, "\mathcal{F}"] & \mathsf{D} \arrow[l, bend left, squiggly, "\mathcal{G}"] \end{tikzcd}$$

Then for each $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{D})$, we have a natural isomorphism (i.e. a bijection)

$$\Phi_{A,B} : \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(A), B) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, \mathcal{G}(B)).$$

Thus, for each $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(A), B)$ there is a corresponding element $\tilde{f} \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, \mathcal{G}(B))$, and vice versa. The morphism $\tilde{f}$ is called the adjunct of f, and f is called the adjunct of $\tilde{f}$.

Lemma 3.9.2. *Let C and D be categories, $\mathcal{F} \colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$ and $\mathcal{G}$, $\mathcal{G}' \colon \mathsf{D} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$ functors,*

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, squiggly, "\mathcal{F}"] & \mathsf{D} \arrow[l, bend right, squiggly, "\mathcal{G}"'] \arrow[l, bend left, squiggly, "\mathcal{G}'"] \end{tikzcd}$$

and suppose that $\mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{G}'$ are both right-adjoint to $\mathcal{F}$. Then there is a natural isomorphism $\mathcal{G} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}'$.

Proof. Since any adjunction is a hom-set adjunction, we have two isomorphisms

$$\Phi_{C,D} \colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(C), D) \Rightarrow \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(C, \mathcal{G}(D)) \qquad \text{and} \qquad \Psi_{C,D} \colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(C), D) \Rightarrow \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(C, \mathcal{G}'(D))$$

which are natural in both C and D. By Lemma 3.3.3, we can construct the inverse natural isomorphism

$$\Phi^{-1}_{C,D} \colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(C, \mathcal{G}(D)) \Rightarrow \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(C), D),$$

and compose it with Ψ to get a natural isomorphsim

$$(\Psi \circ \Phi^{-1})_{C,D} \colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(C, \mathcal{G}(D)) \Rightarrow \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(C, \mathcal{G}'(D)).$$

Thus for any morphism $f\colon D \to E$, the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(C, \mathcal{G}(D)) \arrow[r, "{\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(C,\mathcal{G}(f))}"] \arrow[d, "(\Psi\circ\Phi^{-1})_{C,D}"'] & \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(C, \mathcal{G}(E)) \arrow[d, "(\Psi\circ\Phi^{-1})_{C,E}"] \\
\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(C, \mathcal{G}'(D)) \arrow[r, "{\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(C,\mathcal{G}'(f))}"] & \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(C, \mathcal{G}'(E))
\end{tikzcd}$$

But the fully faithfulness of the Yoneda embedding tells us that there exist isomorphisms μ_D and μ_E making the following diagram commute,

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathcal{G}(D) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{G}(f)"] \arrow[d, "\mu_D"'] & \mathcal{G}(E) \arrow[d, "\mu_E"] \\
\mathcal{G}'(D) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{G}'(f)"] & \mathcal{G}'(E)
\end{tikzcd}$$

and taking the collection of all such $\mu_{(-)}$ gives us a natural isomorphism $\mu\colon \mathcal{G} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}'$. □

Note 3.9.1. We do not give very many examples of adjunctions now because of the frequency with which category theory graces us with them. Howver, it is worth mentioning a specific class of adjunctions: the so-called *free-forgetful adjunctions.* There are many *free* objects in mathematics: free groups, free modules, free vector spaces, free categories, etc. These are all unified by the following property: the functors defining them are all left adjoints.

Let us take a specific example: the free vector space over a set. This takes a set S and constructs a vector space which has as a basis the elements of S.

There is a forgetful functor $\mathcal{U}\colon \mathsf{Vect}_k \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}$ which takes any set and returns the set underlying it. There is a functor $\mathcal{F}\colon \mathsf{Set} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Vect}_k$, which takes a set and returns the free vector space on it. It turns out that there is an adjunction $\mathcal{F} \dashv \mathcal{U}$.

And this is true of any free object! (In fact by definition.) In each case, the functor giving the free object is left adjoint to a forgetful functor.

Theorem 3.9.1. *Let* C *and* D *be categories and* $\mathcal{F}$ *and* $\mathcal{G}$ *functors as follows.*

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathsf{C} \arrow[r, rightsquigarrow, bend left, "\mathcal{F}"] & \mathsf{D} \arrow[l, rightsquigarrow, bend left, "\mathcal{G}"]
\end{tikzcd}$$

Let $\mathcal{F} \dashv \mathcal{G}$ *be an adjunction. Then* $\mathcal{G}$ *preserves limits, i.e. if* $\mathcal{D}\colon \mathsf{J} \to \mathsf{C}$ *is a diagram and* $\lim_{\leftarrow i} \mathcal{D}_i$ *exists in* C*, then*

$$\mathcal{G}(\lim_{\leftarrow i} \mathcal{D}_i) \simeq \lim_{\leftarrow i} (\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{D}_i).$$

Proof. We have the following chain of isomorphisms, natural in $Y \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{D})$.

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(Y, \mathcal{G}(\lim_{\leftarrow i} \mathcal{D}_i)) &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(\mathcal{F}(Y), \lim_{\leftarrow i} \mathcal{D}_i) \\
&\simeq \lim_{\leftarrow i} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(\mathcal{G}(Y), \mathcal{D}_i) && \left(\begin{array}{c}\text{Hom functor commutes with} \\ \text{limits: Theorem 3.8.2}\end{array}\right) \\
&\simeq \lim_{\leftarrow i} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(Y, \mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{D}_i) \\
&\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Y, \lim_{\leftarrow i} (\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{D}_i)).
\end{aligned}$$

By the Yoneda lemma, specifically Corollary 3.7.1, we have a natural isomorphism

$$\mathcal{G}(\lim_{\leftarrow i} \mathcal{D}_i) \simeq \lim_{\leftarrow i} (\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{D}_i).$$

□

Corollary 3.9.1. *Any functor* $\mathcal{F}$ *which is a left-ajoint preserves colimits.*

Proof. Dual to the proof of Theorem 3.9.1. □

3.10 Monoidal categories

Recall the definition of a monoid (Definition 2.1.1). Basically, a monoid is a group without inverses.

Monoidal categories are the first ingredient in the categorification and generalization of the tensor product. Roughly speaking, the tensor product allows us to multiply two vector spaces to produce a new vector space. There are natural isomorphisms making this multiplication associative, and an 'identity vector space' given by the ground field regarded as a one-dimensional vector space over itself. This means that the tensor product gives the set of all vector spaces the structure of a monoid.

A monoidal category will be a category in which the objects have the structure of a monoid, i.e. there is a suitably defined 'multiplication' which is unital and associative. The prototypical example of categorical multiplication is the product (see Example 3.5.5), although it is far from the only one.

Definition 3.10.1 (monoidal category)**.** A monoidal category is a category C equipped with a monoidal structure. A monoidal structure is the following:

- A bifunctor (Definition 3.2.4) $\otimes\colon \mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C} \to \mathsf{C}$ called the *tensor product*,
- An object I called the *unit object*, and
- Three natural isomorphisms (Definition 3.3.2) subject to coherence conditions expressing the fact that the tensor product
  - is associative: there is a natural isomorphism α

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C} \times \mathsf{C} \arrow[rr, squiggly, bend left, "(\_\otimes\_)\otimes\_"] \arrow[rr, squiggly, bend right, "\_\otimes(\_\otimes\_)"'] \arrow[rr, phantom, "\Downarrow\alpha"] & & \mathsf{C} \end{tikzcd}$$

    called the *associator*, with components

$$\alpha_{A,B,C}\colon (A \otimes B) \otimes C \xrightarrow{\sim} A \otimes (B \otimes C)$$

  - has left and right identity: there are two natural isomorphisms λ

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, squiggly, bend left, "I\otimes\_"] \arrow[r, squiggly, bend right, "1_{\mathsf{C}}"'] \arrow[r, phantom, "\Downarrow\lambda"] & \mathsf{C} \end{tikzcd}$$

    and ρ

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{C} \arrow[r, squiggly, bend left, "\_\otimes I"] \arrow[r, squiggly, bend right, "1_{\mathsf{C}}"'] \arrow[r, phantom, "\Downarrow\rho"] & \mathsf{C} \end{tikzcd}$$

    respectively called the *left unitor* and *right unitor* with components

$$\lambda_A\colon I \otimes A \xrightarrow{\sim} A$$

    and

$$\rho_A\colon A \otimes I \xrightarrow{\sim} A.$$

The coherence conditions are that the following diagrams commute for all A, B, C, and $D \in \mathrm{Obj}(C)$.

- The *triangle diagram*

$$\begin{tikzcd} (A \otimes I) \otimes B \arrow[rr, "\alpha_{A,I,B}"] \arrow[dr, "\rho_A \otimes 1_B"'] & & A \otimes (I \otimes B) \arrow[dl, "1_A \otimes \lambda_B"] \\ & A \otimes B & \end{tikzcd}$$

- The *home plate diagram*.[2] (usually the *pentagon diagram*)

$$\begin{tikzcd}
 & (A\otimes(B\otimes C))\otimes D \arrow[dr, "\alpha_{A,B\otimes C,D}"] & \\
((A\otimes B)\otimes C)\otimes D \arrow[ur, "\alpha_{A,B,C}\otimes 1_D"] \arrow[d, "\alpha_{A\otimes B,C,D}"'] & & A\otimes((B\otimes C)\otimes D) \arrow[d, "1_A\otimes\alpha_{B,C,D}"] \\
(A\otimes B)\otimes(C\otimes D) \arrow[rr, "\alpha_{A,B,C\otimes D}"'] & & A\otimes(B\otimes(C\otimes D))
\end{tikzcd}$$

More succinctly, a monoidal structure on a category C is a quintuple $(\otimes, 1, \alpha, \lambda, \rho)$.

Notation 3.10.1. The notation $(\otimes, 1, \alpha, \lambda, \rho)$ is prone to change. If the associator and unitors are not important, or understood from context, they are often left out. We will often say "Let $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ be a monoidal category."

Example 3.10.1. The simplest (though not the prototypical) example of a monoidal category is Set with the Cartesian product. We have already studied this structure in some detail in Section 3.6. We check that it satisfies the axioms in Definition 3.10.1.

- The Cartesian product on Set *is* a set-theoretic product, and can be naturally viewed, thanks to Theorem 3.6.1, as the bifunctor.
- Any set with one element $I = \{*\}$ functions as the unit object.
- For all sets A, B, C
  - The universal property of products guarantees us an isomorphism $\alpha_{A,B,C}\colon (A\times B)\times C \to A\times(B\times C)$ which sends $((a,b),c)\mapsto(a,(b,c))$.
  - Since $\{*\}$ is terminal, we get an isomorphism $\lambda_A\colon \{*\}\times A\to A$ which sends $(*,a)\mapsto a$.
  - Similarly, we get a map $\rho_A\colon A\times\{*\}\to A$ which sends $(a,*)\mapsto a$.

The pentagon and triangle diagram commute vacuously since the cartesian product is associative.

Lemma 3.10.1. *The tensor product $\otimes$ of vector spaces is a bifunctor $\mathsf{Vect}_k\times\mathsf{Vect}_k \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Vect}_k$.*

Proof. It is clear what the domain and codomain of the tensor product is, and how it behaves on objects and morphisms (Definition 2.6.4). The only non-trivial aspect is showing that the standard definition of the tensor product of morphisms respects composition, which is not difficult. □

Example 3.10.2. The category Vect_k is a monoidal category with

1. The bifunctor $\otimes$ is given by the tensor product.
2. The unit 1 is given by the field k regarded as a 1-dimensional vector space over itself.
3. The associator is the map which sends $(v_1\otimes v_2)\otimes v_3$ to $v_1\otimes(v_2\otimes v_3)$. It is not *a priori* obvious that this is well-defined, but it is also not difficult to check.
4. The left unitor is the map which sends $(x,v)\in k\times V$ to $xv\in V$.
5. The right unitor is the map which sends

$$(v,x)\mapsto xv.$$

Definition 3.10.2 (monoidal subcategory)**.** Let $(\mathsf{C},\otimes,1)$ be a monoidal category. A monoidal subcategory of C is a subcategory (Definition 3.1.4) $\mathsf{S}\subseteq\mathsf{C}$ which is closed under the tensor product, and which contains 1.

[2] Unfortunately, the home plate, as drawn, is actually upside down.

Example 3.10.3. Recall that $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$ is the category of finite dimensional vector spaces over a field k. We saw in Example 3.1.5 that $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$ was a full subcategory of Vect_k.

We have just seen that Vect_k is a monoidal category with unit object $1 = k$. Since k is a one-dimensional vector space over itself, $k \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{FinVect}_k)$, and since the dimension of the tensor product of two finite-dimensional vector spaces is the product of their dimensions, the tensor product is closed in $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$. Hence $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$ is a monoidal subcategory of Vect_k.

Lemma 3.10.2. *Let C be a category with monoidal structure $(\otimes, 1, \alpha, \lambda, \rho)$. Then the maps λ_1 and $\rho_1 \colon 1 \otimes 1 \to 1$ agree.*

Proof. □

Lemma 3.10.3. *Let C be a category with monoidal structure $(\otimes, 1, \alpha, \lambda, \rho)$. Then for all $X, Y \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, the diagram*

$$\begin{tikzcd} (1 \otimes X) \otimes Y \arrow[d, "\alpha_{1,X,Y}"'] \arrow[dr, "\lambda_X \otimes 1_Y"] & \\ 1 \otimes (X \otimes Y) \arrow[r, "\lambda_{X \otimes Y}"'] & X \otimes Y \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes.

Proof. □

Note 3.10.1. This insight is due to [14].

The triangle and pentagon diagram are the first in a long list of hulking coherence diagrams designed to pacify categorical structures into behaving like their algebraic counterparts. For a monoid, multiplication is associative by fiat, and the extension of this to n-fold products follows by a trivial application of induction. In monoidal categories, associators are isomorphisms rather than equalities, and we have no a priori guarantee that different ways of composing associators give the same isomorphism.

That is exactly what the coherence diagrams do for us, as the below theorem shows.

Theorem 3.10.1 (Mac Lane's coherence theorem)**.** *Any two ways of freely composing unitors and associators to go from one expression to another coincide.*

Sketch of proof. The proof involves showing that any two such natural transformation can be put in a canonical form in which they agree. □

Definition 3.10.3 (invertible object)**.** Let $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ be a monoidal category. An invertible object (sometimes called a *line object*) is an object $L \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ such that both of the functors $\mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$

- $\ell_L \colon A \mapsto L \otimes A$
- $r_L \colon A \mapsto A \otimes L$

are categorical equivalences.

The following lemma is the categorification of Lemma 2.1.1.

Lemma 3.10.4. *If $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ is a monoidal category and L is an invertible object, then there is an object $L^{-1} \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, unique up to isomorphism, such that $L \otimes L^{-1} \simeq L^{-1} \otimes L \simeq 1$. Furthermore, L is invertible only if there exists such an L^{-1}.*

Proof. Suppose L is invertible. Then the functor $\ell_L \colon A \mapsto L \otimes A$ is bijective up to isomorphism, i.e. for any $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, there is an object $A' \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, unique up to isomorphism, such that

$$\ell_L(A') = L \otimes A' \simeq A.$$

But if this is true for *any* A, it must also be true for 1, so there exists an object L^{-1}, unique up to isomorphism, such that

$$\ell_L(L^{-1}) = L \otimes L^{-1} \simeq 1.$$

The same logic tells us that there exists some other element L'^{-1}, such that

$$\reflectbox{ℓ}_L(L'^{-1}) = L'^{-1} \otimes L \simeq 1.$$

Now

$$1 \simeq L'^{-1} \otimes L \simeq L'^{-1} \otimes (L \otimes L^{-1}) \otimes L \simeq (L'^{-1} \otimes L) \otimes (L^{-1} \otimes L) \simeq (L'^{-1} \otimes L) \otimes 1 \simeq L'^{-1} \otimes L,$$

so L'^{-1} is also a left inverse for L. But since ℓ_L is an equivalence of categories, L only has one left inverse up to isomorphism, so L^{-1} and L'^{-1} must be isomorphic. □

Definition 3.10.4. Let $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ be a monoidal category. Then the full subcategory (Definition 3.1.5) $(\mathrm{Line}(\mathsf{C}), \otimes, 1) \subseteq (\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ whose objects are the line objects in C is called the line subcategory of $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$. Since invertibility is closed under the tensor product and 1 is invertible ($1^{-1} \simeq 1$), $\mathrm{Line}(\mathsf{C})$ is a monoidal subcategory of C.

The following definition was taken *mutatis mutandis* from [13].

Definition 3.10.5 (monoidal functor)**.** Let C and C' be monoidal categories. A functor $\mathcal{F} \colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}'$ is lax monoidal if it is equipped with

- a natural transformation $\Phi_{X,Y} \colon \mathcal{F}(X) \otimes \mathcal{F}(Y) \to \mathcal{F}(X \otimes Y)$, and
- a morphism $\varphi \colon 1_{C'} \to \mathcal{F}(1_C)$ such that
- the following diagrams commute for any X, Y, $Z \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(\mathcal{F}(X) \otimes \mathcal{F}(Y)) \otimes \mathcal{F}(Z) \arrow[r, "\Phi_{X,Y} \otimes 1_{\mathcal{F}(Z)}"] \arrow[d, "\alpha_{\mathcal{F}(X),\mathcal{F}(Y),\mathcal{F}(Z)}"'] & \mathcal{F}(X \otimes Y) \otimes \mathcal{F}(Z) \arrow[r, "\Phi_{X \otimes Y, Z}"] & \mathcal{F}((X \otimes Y) \otimes Z) \arrow[d, "\mathcal{F}(\alpha_{X,Y,Z})"] \\
\mathcal{F}(X) \otimes (\mathcal{F}(Y) \otimes \mathcal{F}(Z)) \arrow[r, "1_{\mathcal{F}(X)} \otimes \Phi_{Y,Z}"'] & \mathcal{F}(X) \otimes \mathcal{F}(Y \otimes Z) \arrow[r, "\varphi_{X, Y \otimes Z}"'] & \mathcal{F}(X \otimes (Y \otimes Z))
\end{tikzcd}$$

$$\begin{tikzcd}
1 \otimes \mathcal{F}(X) \arrow[r, "\lambda_{\mathcal{F}(X)}"] \arrow[d, "\varphi \otimes 1_{\mathcal{F}(X)}"'] & \mathcal{F}(X) \\
\mathcal{F}(1) \otimes \mathcal{F}(X) \arrow[r, "\Phi_{1,X}"] & \mathcal{F}(1 \otimes X) \arrow[u, "\mathcal{F}(\lambda_X)"']
\end{tikzcd}$$

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathcal{F}(X) \otimes 1 \arrow[r, "\rho_{\mathcal{F}(X)}"] \arrow[d, "1_{\mathcal{F}(X) \otimes \varphi}"'] & \mathcal{F}(X) \\
\mathcal{F}(X) \otimes \mathcal{F}(1) \arrow[r, "\Phi_{X,1}"] & \mathcal{F}(X \otimes 1) \arrow[u, "F(\lambda_X)"']
\end{tikzcd}$$

If Φ is a natural isomorphism and φ is an isomorphism, then $\mathcal{F}$ is called a strong monoidal functor.

We will denote the above monoidal functor by $(\mathcal{F}, \Phi, \varphi)$.

Note 3.10.2. The above diagrams above are exactly those necessary to ensure that the monoidal structure is preserved. They do this by demanding that the associator and the unitors be $\mathcal{F}$-equivariant.

Note 3.10.3. In much of the literature, a strong monoidal functor is simply called a monoidal functor.

Lemma 3.10.5. *The composition of lax (strong) monoidal functors is lax (strong) monoidal.*

Proof. □

Definition 3.10.6 (monoidal natural transformation)**.** Let (F, Φ, φ) and (G, Γ, γ) be monoidal functors. A natural transformation $\eta : \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ is monoidal if the following diagrams commute.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathcal{F}(X) \otimes \mathcal{F}(Y) \arrow[r, "\eta_X \otimes \eta_Y"] \arrow[d, "\Phi_{X,Y}"'] & \mathcal{G}(X) \otimes \mathcal{G}(Y) \arrow[d, "\Gamma_{X,Y}"] \\
\mathcal{F}(X \otimes Y) \arrow[r, "\eta_{X \otimes Y}"] & \mathcal{G}(X \otimes Y)
\end{tikzcd}
\qquad
\begin{tikzcd}
1 \arrow[d, "\varphi"'] \arrow[dr, "\gamma"] & \\
\mathcal{F}(1) \arrow[r, "\eta_1"] & \mathcal{G}(1)
\end{tikzcd}$$

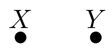
3.10.1 Braided monoidal categories

Any insightful remarks in this section are due to [12].

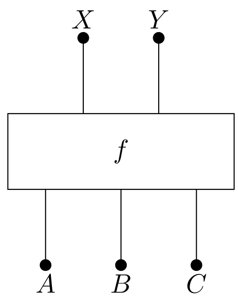
Braided monoidal categories capture the idea that we should think of morphisms between tensor products spatially, as diagrams embedded in 3-space. This sounds odd, but it turns out to be the correct way of looking at a wide class of problems.

To be slightly more precise, we can think of the objects X, Y, etc. in any monoidal category as little dots.

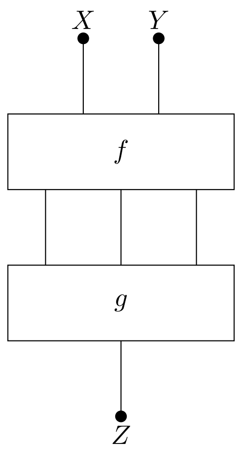
We can express the tensor product $X \otimes Y$ by putting the dots representing X and Y next to each other.



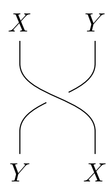
A morphism f between, say, $X \otimes Y$ and $A \otimes B \otimes C$ can be drawn as a diagram consisting of some lines and boxes.



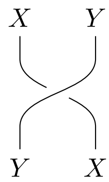
We can compose morphisms by concatenating their diagrams.



In a braided monoidal category, we require that for any two objects X and Y we have an isomorphism $\gamma_{XY} : X \otimes Y \to Y \otimes X$, which we draw like this.



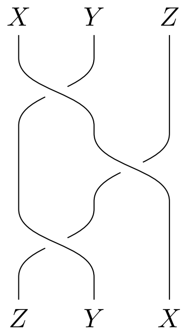
Since γ_{AB} is an isomorphism, it has an inverse γ_{AB}^{-1} (not necessarily equal to γ_{BA}!) which we draw like this.



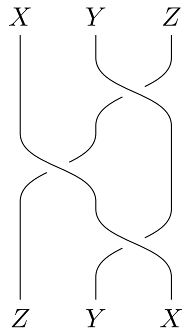
The idea of a braided monoidal category is that we want to take these pictures seriously: we want two expressions involving repeated applications of the $\gamma_{\cdot\cdot}$ and their inverses to be equivalent if and only if the braid diagrams representing them are homotopic. Thus we want, for example,

$$\gamma_{XY} \circ \gamma_{YZ} \circ \gamma_{XY} = \gamma_{YZ} \circ \gamma_{XY} \circ \gamma_{YZ}$$

since



is homotopic to



.

A digression into the theory of braid groups would take us too far afield. The punchline is that to guarantee that all such compositions involving the γ are identified in the correct way, we must define braided monoidal categories as follows.

Definition 3.10.7 (braided monoidal category)**.** A catgory C with monoidal structure $(\otimes, 1, \alpha, \lambda, \rho)$ is braided if for every two objects A and $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, there is an isomorphism $\gamma_{A,B} \colon A \otimes B \to B \otimes A$ such that the following *hexagon diagrams* commute.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
 & A \otimes (B \otimes C) \arrow[r, "\gamma_{A,B\otimes C}"] & (B \otimes C) \otimes A \arrow[dr, "\alpha_{BCA}"] & \\
(A \otimes B) \otimes C \arrow[ur, "\alpha_{ABC}"] \arrow[dr, "\gamma_{AB}\otimes 1"'] & & & B \otimes (C \otimes A) \\
 & (B \otimes A) \otimes C \arrow[r, "\alpha_{BAC}"'] & B \otimes (A \otimes C) \arrow[ur, "1\otimes\gamma"'] &
\end{tikzcd}$$

$$\begin{tikzcd}
 & (A \otimes B) \otimes C \arrow[r, "\gamma_{A\otimes B,C}"] & C \otimes (A \otimes B) \arrow[dr, "\alpha^{-1}_{CAB}"] & \\
A \otimes (B \otimes C) \arrow[ur, "\alpha^{-1}_{ABC}"] \arrow[dr, "1\otimes\gamma_{BC}"'] & & & (C \otimes A) \otimes B \\
 & A \otimes (C \otimes B) \arrow[r, "\alpha^{-1}_{ACB}"'] & (A \otimes C) \otimes B \arrow[ur, "\gamma_{AC}\otimes 1"'] &
\end{tikzcd}$$

The collection of such γ form a natural isomorphism betweem the bifunctors

$$(A, B) \mapsto A \otimes B \qquad \text{and} \qquad (A, B) \mapsto B \otimes A,$$

and is called a braiding.

Definition 3.10.8 (braided monoidal functor)**.** A lax monoidal functor $(\mathcal{F}, \Phi, \phi)$ (Definition 3.10.5) is braided monoidal if it makes the following diagram commute.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathcal{F}(x) \otimes \mathcal{F}(y) \arrow[r, "\gamma_{\mathcal{F}(x),\mathcal{F}(y)}"] \arrow[d, "\Phi_{x,y}"'] & \mathcal{F}(y) \otimes \mathcal{F}(x) \arrow[d, "\Phi_{x,y}"] \\
\mathcal{F}(x \otimes y) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{F}(\gamma_{x,y})"] & \mathcal{F}(y \otimes x)
\end{tikzcd}$$

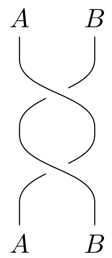
Note 3.10.4. There are no extra conditions imposed on a monoidal natural transformation to turn it into a braided natural transformation.

3.10.2 Symmetric monoidal categories

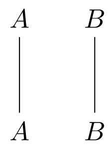
Until now, we have been calling the bifunctor $\otimes$ in Definition 3.10.1 a tensor product. This has been an abuse of terminology: in general, one defines tensor products not to be those bifunctors which come from any monoidal category, but only those which come from *symmetric* monoidal categories. We will define these shortly.

Conceptually, passing from the definition of a braided monoidal category to that of a symmetric monoidal category is rather simple. One only requires that for any two objects A and B, $\gamma_{BA} = \gamma_{AB}^{-1}$, i.e. $\gamma_{BA} \circ \gamma_{AB} = 1_{A \otimes B}$.

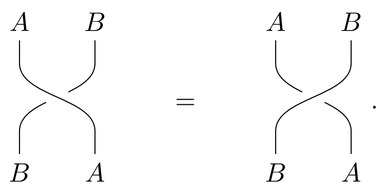
We can interpret this nicely in terms of our braid diagrams. We can draw $\gamma_{BA} \circ \gamma_{AB}$ like this.



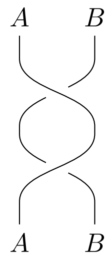
The requirement that this must be homotopic to the identity transformation



can be expressed by making the following rule: in a *symmetric* monoidal category, we don't care about the difference between undercrossings and overcrossings:



Then we can exchange the diagram representing $\gamma_{BA} \circ \gamma_{AB}$ for



which is clearly homotopic to the identity transformation on $A \otimes B$.

Definition 3.10.9 (symmetric monoidal category)**.** Let C be a braided monoidal category with braiding γ. We say that C is a symmetric monoidal category if for all A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, $\gamma_{BA} \circ \gamma_{AB} = 1_{A \otimes B}$. A braiding γ which satisfies such a condition is called symmetric.

Note 3.10.5. There are no extra conditions imposed on a monoidal natural transformation to turn it into a symmetric natural transformation.

3.11 Internal hom functors

We can now generalize the notion of an exponential object (Definiton 3.6.6) to any monoidal category.

3.11.1 The internal hom functor

Recall the definition of the hom functor on a locally small category C (Definition 3.7.1): it is the functor which maps two objects to the set of morphisms between them, so it is a functor

$$\mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}.$$

If we take $\mathsf{C} = \mathsf{Set}$, then our hom functor never really leaves Set; it is *internal* to Set. This is our first example of an *internal hom functor*. In fact, it is the prototypical internal hom functor, and we can learn a lot by studying its properties.

Let X and Y be sets. Denote the set of all functions $X \to Y$ by $[X, Y]$.

Let S be any other set, and consider a function $f\colon S \to [X, Y]$. For each element $s \in S$, f picks out a function $h_s\colon X \to Y$. But this is just a curried version of a function $S \times X \to Y$! So as we saw in Section 3.7.1, we have a bijection between the sets $[S, [X, Y]]$ and $[S \times X, Y]$. In fact, this is even a *natural* bijection, i.e. a natural transformation between the functors

$$[-, [-, -]] \qquad \text{and} \qquad [- \times -, -]\colon \mathsf{Set}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathsf{Set}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathsf{Set} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Set}.$$

Let's check this. First, we need to figure out how our functors act on functions. Suppose we have sets and functions like so.

$$A'' \xleftarrow{f''} B''$$
$$A' \xleftarrow{f'} B'$$
$$A \xrightarrow{f} B$$

Our functor maps

$$(A'', A', A) \mapsto [A'', [A', A]] = \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Set}}(A'', \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Set}}(A', A)),$$

so it should map (f'', f', f) to a function

$$[f'', [f', f]]\colon [A'', [A', A]] \to [B'', [B', B]].$$

The way to do that is by sending $m \in [A'', [A', A]]$ to

$$[f', f] \circ m \circ f''.$$

You can check that this works as advertised.

The other one's not so tough. Our functor maps an object (A'', A', A) to $[A'' \times A', A]$. We need to map (f'', f', f) to a function

$$[f'' \times f', f] \colon [A'' \times A', A] \to [B'' \times B', B].$$

We do that by sending $m \in [A'' \times A', A]$ to

$$f \circ m \circ (f'', f') \in [B'' \times B', B].$$

Checking that $[-, [-, -]]$ and $[- \times -, -]$ really *are* functorial would be a bit much; each is just the composition of hom functor and the Cartesian product. We will however check that there is a natural isomorphism between them, which amounts to checking that the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
{[A'' \times A', A]} \arrow[rrr, "{[f'' \times f', f]}"] \arrow[ddd, "\Phi_{[A'' \times A', A]}"'] & & & {[B'' \times B', B]} \arrow[ddd, "\Phi_{[B'' \times B', B]}"] \\
& m \arrow[r, mapsto] \arrow[d, mapsto] & f \circ m \circ (f', f'') \arrow[d, mapsto] & \\
& \Phi(m) \arrow[r, mapsto] & {[f', f] \circ \Phi(m) \circ f'' \overset{!}{=} \Phi(f \circ m \circ (f', f''))} & \\
{[A'', [A', A]]} \arrow[rrr, "{[f'', [f', f]]}"'] & & & {[B'', [B', B]]}
\end{tikzcd}$$

In other words, we have to show that

$$\Phi_{[A'' \times A', A]}(f \circ m \circ (f', f'')) = [f', f] \circ \Phi_{[B'' \times B', B]}(m) \circ f''.$$

So what is each of these? Well, $f \circ m \circ (f', f'')$ is a map $B'' \times B' \to B$, which maps (say) $(b'', b') \mapsto b$.

The natural transformation Φ tells us to curry this, i.e. turn it into a map $B'' \to [B', B]$. Not just any map, though: a map which when evaluated on b'' turns into a map which, when evaluated on b', yields b.

We know that $f \circ m \circ (f', f'') \colon (b'', b') \mapsto b$, i.e.

$$f(m(f''(b''), f'(b'))) = b.$$

If we can show that this is *also* what $[f', f] \circ \Phi_{[B'' \times B', B]}(m) \circ f''$ is equal to when evaluated on b'' and then b', we are done, since two functions are equal if they take the same value for all inputs.

Well, let's go through what this definition means. First, we take b'' and feed it to f''. Next, we let $\Phi_{[B'' \times B', B]}(m)$ act on the result, i.e. we fill the first argument of m with $f''(b'')$. What we get is the following:

$$m(f''(b''), -).$$

Then we are to precompose this with f' and stick the result into f:

$$f(m(f''(b''), f'(-))).$$

Finally, we are to evaluate this on b' to get

$$f(m(f''(b''), f'(b'))).$$

Indeed, this is equal to b, so the diagram commutes.

In other words, Φ is a natural bijection between the hom-sets $[-, [-, -]]$ and $[- \times -, -]$.

We picked this example because the collection $[A, B]$ of all functions between two sets A and B is itself a set. Therefore it makes sense to think of the hom-sets $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$ as living within the same category as A and B. We saw in Section 3.6 that in a category with products, we could sometimes view hom-sets as exponential objects. However, we now have the technology to be even more general.

Definition 3.11.1 (internal hom functor)**.** Let $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes)$ be a monoidal category. An internal hom functor is a functor

$$[-,-]_{\mathsf{C}}\colon \mathsf{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$$

such that for every $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ we have a pair of adjoint functors

$$(-) \otimes X \dashv [X, -]_{\mathsf{C}}.$$

The objects $[A, B]_{\mathsf{C}}$ are called internal hom objects.

Note 3.11.1. The reason for the long introduction to this section was that the pair of adjoint functors in Definition 3.11.1 really matches the one in Set. Recall, in Set there was a natural transformation

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Set}}(S \times X, Y) \simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Set}}(S, [X, Y]).$$

This means that for any set X, there is a pair of adjoint functors

$$(-) \times X \dashv [X, -],$$

which is in agreement with the statement of Definition 3.11.1.

Notation 3.11.1. The convention at the nLab is to denote the internal hom by square braces $[A, B]$, and this is for the most part what we will do. Unfortunately, we have already used this notation for the *regular* hom functor. To remedy this, we will add a subscript if the category to which the hom functor belongs is not clear: $[-,-]_{\mathsf{C}}$ for a hom functor internal to C, $[-,-]_{\mathsf{Set}}$ for the standard hom functor (or the hom functor internal to Set, which amounts to the same).

There is no universally accepted notation for the internal hom functor. One often sees it denoted by a lower-case hom: $\mathrm{hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$. Many sources (for example DMOS [16]) distinguish the internal hom with an underline: $\underline{\mathrm{Hom}}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$. Deligne typesets it with a script H: $\mathscr{H}om_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$.

Definition 3.11.2 (closed monoidal category)**.** A monoidal category equipped with an internal hom functor is called a closed monoidal category.

Note 3.11.2. Here is another (clearly equivalent) definition of $[X, Y]_{\mathsf{C}}$: it is the object representing (Definition 3.7.3) the functor

$$T \mapsto \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(T \otimes X, Y).$$

Example 3.11.1. In many locally small categories whose objects can be thought of as "sets with extra structure," it is possible to pile structure on top of the hom sets until they themselves can be viewed as bona fide objects in their categories. It often (*but not always!*) happens that these beefed-up hom sets coincide (up to isomorphism) with the internal hom objects.

Take for example Vect_k. For any vector spaces V and W, we can turn $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Vect}_k}(V, W)$ into a vector space by defining addition and scalar multiplication pointwise; we can then view $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Vect}_k}(V, W)$ as belonging to $\mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{Vect}_k)$. It turns out that this is precisely (up to isomorphism) the internal hom object $[V, W]_{\mathsf{Vect}_k}$.

To see this, we need to show that there is a natural bijection

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Vect}_k}(A, \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Vect}_k}(B, C)) \simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Vect}_k}(A \otimes B, C).$$

Suppose we are given a linear map $f\colon A \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Vect}_k}(B, C)$. If we act with this on an element of A, we get a linear map $B \to C$. If we evaluate this on an element of B, we get an element of C. Thus, we can view f as a bilinear map $A \times B \to C$, hence as a linear map $A \otimes B \to C$.

Now suppose we are given a linear map $g\colon A \otimes B \to C$. By pre-composing this with the tensor product we can view this as a bilinear map $A \times B \to C$, and by currying this we get a linear map $A \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Vect}_k}(B, C)$.

For the remainder of this chapter, let $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ be a closed monoidal category with internal hom functor $[-,-]_{\mathsf{C}}$.

In a closed monoidal category, the adjunction between the internal hom and the tensor product even holds internally.

Lemma 3.11.1. *For any X, Y, $Z \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ there is a natural isomorphism*

$$[X \otimes Y, Z]_{\mathsf{C}} \xrightarrow{\sim} [X, [Y, Z]_{\mathsf{C}}]_{\mathsf{C}}.$$

Proof. Let $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. We have the following string of natural isomorphisms.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, [X \otimes Y, Z]_{\mathsf{C}}) &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A \otimes (X \otimes Y), Z) \\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}((A \otimes X) \otimes Y, Z) \\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A \otimes X, [Y, Z]_{\mathsf{C}}) \\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, [X, [Y, Z]_{\mathsf{C}}]_{\mathsf{C}}).\end{aligned}$$

Since this is true for each A we have, by Corollary 3.7.1,

$$[X \otimes Y, Z]_{\mathsf{C}} \xrightarrow{\sim} [X, [Y, Z]_{\mathsf{C}}]_{\mathsf{C}}.$$

□

Lemma 3.11.2. *Let $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ be a closed symmetric monoidal category. For any A, B, $R \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, there is a transformation*

$$[A, B]_{\mathsf{C}} \to [R \otimes A, R \otimes B]_{\mathsf{C}}$$

which is natural in A and B.

Proof. The assignment $R \otimes (-)$ is a functor, hence induces a transformation of the regular hom functor

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B) \mapsto \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(R \otimes A, R \otimes B)$$

which is natural in A and B. We would like to show that the internal hom functor also has this property. The following string of natural transformations guarantees it by the Yoneda lemma.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, [A, B]_{\mathsf{C}}) &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X \otimes A, \otimes B) \\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(R \otimes X \otimes A, R \otimes B) \\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X \otimes (R \otimes A), R \otimes B) \\ &\simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, [R \otimes A, R \otimes B]_{\mathsf{C}}).\end{aligned}$$

□

3.11.2 The evaluation map

The internal hom functor gives us a way to talk about evaluating morphisms $f\colon X \to Y$ without mentioning elements of X.

Definition 3.11.3 (evaluation map)**.** Let $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. We have seen that the adjunction

$$(-) \otimes X \dashv [X, -]_{\mathsf{C}}$$

gives us, for any A, X, $Y \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, a natural bijection

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A \otimes X, Y) \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, [X, Y]_{\mathsf{C}}).$$

In particular, with $A = [X, Y]_{\mathsf{C}}$, we have a bijection

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}([X, Y]_{\mathsf{C}} \otimes X, Y) \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}([X, Y]_{\mathsf{C}}, [X, Y]_{\mathsf{C}}).$$

The adjunct (Definition 3.9.3) of $1_{[X,Y]_{\mathsf{C}}} \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}([X, Y]_{\mathsf{C}}, [X, Y]_{\mathsf{C}})$ is an object in $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}\left([X, Y]_{\mathsf{C}} \otimes X, Y\right)$, denoted

$$\mathrm{eval}_{X,Y}\colon [X, Y]_{\mathsf{C}} \otimes X \to Y,$$

and called the evaluation map.

Example 3.11.2. As we saw in Example 3.10.1, the category Set is a monoidal category with a bifunctor given by the cartesian product. The internal hom is simply the regular hom functor

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Set}}(-,-) = [-,-].$$

Let us explore the evaluation map on Set. It is the adjunct of the identity map $1_{[X,Y]}$ under the adjunction

$$[[X,Y] \times X, Y] \dashv [[X,Y],[X,Y]].$$

Thus, it is a function

$$\mathrm{eval}_{X,Y} \colon [X,Y] \times X \to Y; \qquad (f,x) \mapsto \mathrm{eval}_{X,Y}(f,x).$$

So far, we don't know what $\mathrm{eval}_{X,Y}$ sends (f,x) to; we just know that we'd *like it* if it sent it to $f(x)$.

The above adjunction is given by currying: we start on the LHS with a map $\mathrm{eval}_{X,Y}$ with two arguments, and we turn it into a map which fills in only the first argument. Thus the map on the RHS adjunct to $\mathrm{eval}_{X,Y}$ is given by

$$f \mapsto \mathrm{eval}_{X,Y}(f,-).$$

If we want the map $f \mapsto \mathrm{eval}_{X,Y}(f,-)$ to be the identity map, f and $\mathrm{eval}_{X,Y}(f,-)$ must agree on all elements x, i.e.

$$f(x) = \mathrm{eval}_{X,Y}(f,x) \qquad \text{for all } x \in X.$$

Thus, the evaluation map is the map which sends $(f,x) \mapsto f(x)$.

3.11.3 The composition morphism

The evaluation map allows us to define composition of morphisms without talking about internal hom objects as if they have elements.

Definition 3.11.4 (composition morphism)**.** For X, Y, $Z \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, the composition morphism

$$\circ_{X,Y,Z} \colon [Y,Z]_{\mathsf{C}} \otimes [X,Y]_{\mathsf{C}} \to [X,Z]_{\mathsf{C}}$$

is the $(-) \otimes X \vdash [X,-]_{\mathsf{C}}$-adjunct of the composition

$$[Y,Z]_{\mathsf{C}} \otimes [X,Y]_{\mathsf{C}} \otimes X \xrightarrow{\left(1_{[Y,Z]_{\mathsf{C}}}, \mathrm{eval}_{X,Y}\right)} [Y,Z]_{\mathsf{C}} \otimes Y \xrightarrow{\mathrm{eval}_{Y,Z}} Z .$$

Example 3.11.3. In Set, the composition morphism $\circ_{X,Y,Z}$ lives up to its name. Let $f \colon X \to Y$, $g \colon Y \to Z$, and $x \in X$. The above composition goes as follows.

1. The map $\left(1_{[Y,Z]}, \mathrm{eval}_{X,Y}\right)$ turns the triple (g,f,x) into the pair $(g, f(x))$.
2. The map $\mathrm{eval}_{Y,Z}$ turns $(g, f(x))$ into $g(f(x)) = (g \circ f)(x)$.

The evaluation morphism $\circ_{X,Y,Z}$ is the currying of this, i.e. it sends

$$(f,g) \mapsto (f \circ g)(-).$$

3.11.4 Dual objects

Recall that for any k-vector space V, there is a dual vector space

$$V^* = \{L \colon V \to k\}.$$

This definition generalizes to any closed monoidal category.

Definition 3.11.5 (dual object)**.** Let $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. The dual object to X, denoted X^*, is defined to be the object

$$[X,1]_{\mathsf{C}}.$$

That is to say, X^* is the internal hom object modelling the hom set of morphisms from X to the identity object 1.

Notation 3.11.2. The evaluation morphism (Definition 3.11.3) has a component

$$\mathrm{eval}_{X^*,X} \colon X^* \otimes X \to 1.$$

To clean things up a bit, we will write eval_X instead of $\mathrm{eval}_{X^*,X}$.

Notation 3.11.3. In many sources, e.g. DMOS ([16]), the dual object to X is denoted $X^\vee$ instead of X^*.

Lemma 3.11.3. *There is a natural isomorphism between the functors*

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(-, X^*) \qquad \textit{and} \qquad \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}((-) \otimes X, 1).$$

Proof. For any $X, T \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, the definition of the internal hom $[-,-]_{\mathsf{C}}$ gives us a natural isomorphism

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(T \otimes X, 1) \simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(T, [X, 1]_{\mathsf{C}}) = \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(T, X^*).$$

□

Theorem 3.11.1. *The map $X \mapsto X^*$ can be extended to a contravariant functor.*

Proof. We need to figure out how our functor should act on morphisms. We define this by analogy with the familiar setting of vector spaces. Recall that for a linear map $L \colon V \to W$, the dual map $L^t \colon W^* \to V^*$ is defined by

$$(L^t(w))(v) = w(L(v)).$$

By analogy, for $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, Y)$, we should define the dual morphism $f^t \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B^*, A^*)$ by demanding that the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
h^* \otimes X \arrow[r, "f^t \otimes 1_X"] \arrow[d, "1_Y \otimes f"'] & X^* \otimes X \arrow[d, "\mathrm{eval}_X"] \\
h^* \otimes Y \arrow[r, "\mathrm{eval}_Y"] & 1
\end{tikzcd}$$

To check that this is functorial, we must check that it respects compositions, i.e. that the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
Z^* \otimes X \arrow[r, "(f^t \circ g^t) \otimes 1_X"] \arrow[d, "1_Z \otimes (g \circ f)"'] & X^* \otimes X \arrow[d, "\mathrm{eval}_X"] \\
Z^* \otimes Z \arrow[r, "\mathrm{eval}_Z"] & 1
\end{tikzcd}$$

Let's add in some more objects and morphisms.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
Z^* \otimes X \arrow[r, "g^t \otimes 1_X"] \arrow[d, "1_{Z^*} \otimes f"'] & h^* \otimes X \arrow[r, "f^t \otimes 1_X"] \arrow[d, "1_{h^*} \otimes f"'] & X^* \otimes X \arrow[dd, "\mathrm{eval}_X"] \\
Z^* \otimes Y \arrow[r, "g^t \otimes 1_Y"] \arrow[d, "1_{Z^*} \otimes g"'] & h^* \otimes Y \arrow[dr, "\mathrm{eval}_Y"] & \\
Z^* \otimes Z \arrow[rr, "\mathrm{eval}_Z"'] & & 1
\end{tikzcd}$$

We want to show that the outer square commutes. But it clearly does: that the top left square commutes is trivial, and the right and bottom 'squares' are the commutativity conditions defining f^t and g^t. □

Note 3.11.3. It's not clear to me why f^t as defined above exists and is unique.

The above is one, but not the only, way to define dual objects. We can be more general.

Definition 3.11.6 (right duality)**.** Let C be a category with monoidal structure $(\otimes, 1, \alpha, \lambda, \rho)$. Right duality of two objects A and $A^* \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ consists of

1. A morphism of the form
$$\mathrm{eval}_A \colon A^* \otimes A \to 1,$$
called the *evaluation map* (or *counit* if you're into Hopf algebras)
2. A morphism of the form
$$i_A \colon 1 \to A \otimes A^*,$$
called the *coevaluation* map (or *unit*)

such that the compositions

$$X \xrightarrow{i_A \otimes 1_X} (X \otimes X^*) \otimes X \xrightarrow{\alpha_{X,X^*,X}} X \otimes (X^* \otimes X) \xrightarrow{1_X \otimes \mathrm{eval}_X} X$$

$$X^* \xrightarrow{1_{X^*} \otimes \mathrm{eval}_X} X^* \otimes (X \otimes X^*) \xrightarrow{\alpha^{-1}_{X^*,X,X^*}} (X^* \otimes X) \otimes X^* \xrightarrow{\mathrm{eval}_X \otimes 1_{X^*}} X^*$$

are the identity morphism.

Definition 3.11.7 (rigid monoidal category)**.** A monoidal category $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ is rigid if every object has a left and right dual.

Theorem 3.11.2. *Every rigid monoidal category is a closed monoidal category (i.e. has an internal hom functor, see Definition 3.11.2) with internal hom object*

$$[A, B]_{\mathsf{C}} \simeq B \otimes A^*.$$

Proof. We can prove the existence of this isomorphism by showing, thanks to Corollary 3.7.1, that for any $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ there is an isomorphsm

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, [A, B]_{\mathsf{C}}) \simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, B \otimes A^*).$$

The defining adjunction of the internal hom gives us

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, [A, B]_{\mathsf{C}}) \simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X \otimes A, B).$$

Now we can map any $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X \otimes A, B)$ to

$$(f \otimes 1_A) \circ (1_X \otimes i_A) \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, B \otimes A^*).$$

We will be done if we can show that the assignment

$$f \mapsto (f \otimes 1_A) \circ (1_X \otimes i_A)$$

is an isomorphism. We'll do this by exhibiting an inverse:

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, B \otimes A^*) \ni g \mapsto (1_W \otimes \mathrm{eval}_V) \circ (g \otimes 1_V) \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X \otimes A, B).$$

Of course, first we should show that $(f \otimes 1_A) \circ (1_X \otimes i_A)$ really does map $X \to B \otimes A^*$. But it does; it does this by first acting on X with i_A:

$$X \to X \otimes A \otimes A^*$$

and then acting on the $X \otimes A$ with f and letting the A^* hang around:

$$X \otimes A \otimes A^* \to B \otimes A^*.$$

To show that

$$g \mapsto (1_B \otimes \mathrm{eval}_A) \circ (g \otimes 1_A)$$

really is an inverse, we can shove the assignment

$$f \mapsto (f \otimes 1_A) \circ (1_X \otimes i_A)$$

into it and show that we get f right back out. That is to say, we need to show that

$$(1_B \otimes \mathrm{eval}_A) \circ ([(f \otimes 1_A) \circ (1_X \otimes i_A)] \otimes 1_A) = f.$$

This is easy to see but hard to type. Write it out. You'll need to use first of the two composition identities.

To show that the other composition yields g, you have to use the other. □

3.12 Abelian categories

This section draws heavily from [22].

3.12.1 Additive categories

Recall that Ab is the category of abelian groups (Definition 2.2.2).

Definition 3.12.1 (Ab-enriched category)**.** A category C is Ab-enriched if

1. for all objects A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, the hom-set $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$ has the structure of an abelian group (i.e. one can add morphisms), such that
2. the composition
$$\circ \colon \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B, C) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{C}(A, C)$$
is additive in each slot: for any f_1, $f_2 \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(B, C)$ and $g \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$, we must have
$$(f_1 + f_2) \circ g = f_1 \circ g + f_2 \circ g,$$
and similarly in the second slot.

Note 3.12.1. In any Ab-enriched category, every hom-set has at least one element—the identity element of the hom-set taken as an abelian group.

Definition 3.12.2 (endomorphism ring)**.** Let C be an Ab-enriched category, and let $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. The endomorphism ring of A, denoted $\mathrm{End}(A)$, is $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, A)$, with addition given by the abelian structure and multiplication given by composition.

Lemma 3.12.1. *In an* Ab*-enriched category* C*, a finite product is also a coproduct, and vice versa. In particular, initial objects and terminal objects coincide.*

Proof. See [39], Proposition 2.1 for details. □

Definition 3.12.3 (additive category)**.** A category C is additive if it has biproducts (Definition 3.6.5) and is Ab-enriched.

Example 3.12.1. The category Ab of Abelian groups is an additive category. We have already seen that it has the direct sum $\oplus$ as biproduct. Given any two abelian groups A and B and morphisms f, $g \colon A \to B$, we can define the sum $f + g$ via

$$(f + g)(a) = f(a) + g(a) \qquad \text{for all } a \in A.$$

Then for another abelian group C and a morphism $h \colon B \to C$, we have

$$[h \circ (f + g)]\,(a) = h(f(a) + g(a)) = h(f(a)) + h(g(a)) = [h \circ f + h \circ g]\,(a),$$

so

$$h \circ (f + g) = h \circ f + h \circ g,$$

and similarly in the other slot.

Example 3.12.2. The category Vect_k is additive. Since vector spaces are in particular abelian groups under addition, it is naturally Ab-enriched,

Definition 3.12.4 (additive functor)**.** Let $\mathcal{F}\colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$ be a functor between additive categories. We say that $\mathcal{F}$ is additive if for each X, $Y \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ the map

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(X, Y) \to \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{D}}(\mathcal{F}(X), \mathcal{F}(Y))$$

is a homomorphism of abelian groups.

Lemma 3.12.2. *For any additive functor $\mathcal{F}\colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$, there exists a natural isomorphism*

$$\Phi\colon \mathcal{F}(-) \oplus \mathcal{F}(-) \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}(- \oplus -).$$

Proof. The commutativity of the following diagram is immediate.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathcal{F}(X \oplus Y) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{F}(f\oplus g)"] \arrow[d, "\Phi_{X,Y}"'] & \mathcal{F}(X' \oplus Y') \arrow[d, "\Phi_{X',Y'}"] \\
\mathcal{F}(X) \oplus \mathcal{F}(Y) \arrow[r, "\mathcal{F}(f)\oplus\mathcal{F}(g)"] & \mathcal{F}(X') \oplus \mathcal{F}(Y')
\end{tikzcd}$$

The (X, Y)-component $\Phi_{X,Y}$ is an isomorphism because □

3.12.2 Pre-abelian categories

Definition 3.12.5 (pre-abelian category)**.** A category C is pre-abelian if it is additive and every morphism has a kernel (Definition 3.8.10) and a cokernel (Definition 3.8.12).

Lemma 3.12.3. *Pre-abelian categories have equalizers (Definition 3.8.8).*

Proof. We show that in an pre-abelian category, the equalizer of f and g coincides with the kernel of $f - g$. It suffices to show that the kernel of $f - g$ satisfies the universal property for the equalizer of f and g.

Here is the diagram for the universal property of the kernel of $f - g$.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
Z \arrow[dr, dashed, "\exists!\bar{i}"] \arrow[drr, bend left] \arrow[ddr, bend right, "i"'] & & \\
& \ker(f-g) \arrow[r] \arrow[d, "\iota_{f-g}"'] & 0 \arrow[d] \\
& A \arrow[r, "f-g"] & B
\end{tikzcd}$$

The universal property tells us that for any object $Z \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and any morphism $i\colon Z \to A$ with $i \circ (f - g) = 0$ (i.e. $i \circ f = i \circ g$), there exists a unique morphism $\bar{i}\colon Z \to \ker(f - g)$ such that $i = \bar{i} \circ \iota_{f-g}$. □

Corollary 3.12.1. *Every pre-abelian category has all finite limits.*

Proof. By Theorem 3.8.1, a category has finite limits if and only if it has finite products and equalizers. Pre-abelian categories have finite products by definition, and equalizers by Lemma 3.12.3. □

Recall from Section 3.6.3 the following definition.

Definition 3.12.6 (zero morphism)**.** Let C be a category with zero object 0. For any two objects A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$, the zero morphism $0_{A,B}$ is the unique morphism $A \to B$ which factors through 0.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
A \arrow[r] \arrow[rr, bend left, "0_{A,B}"] & 0 \arrow[r] & B
\end{tikzcd}$$

Notation 3.12.1. It will often be clear what the source and destination of the zero morphism are; in this case we will drop the subscripts, writing 0 instead of 0_{AB}.

It is easy to see that the left- or right-composition of the zero morphism with any other morphism results in the zero morphism: $f \circ 0 = 0$ and $0 \circ g = 0$.

Lemma 3.12.4. *Every morphism $f\colon A \to B$ in a pre-abelian catgory has a canonical decomposition*

$$A \xrightarrow{p} \operatorname{coker}(\ker(f)) \xrightarrow{\bar{f}} \ker(\operatorname{coker}(f)) \xrightarrow{i} B\ ,$$

where p is an epimorphism (Definition 3.1.8) and i is a monomorphism (Definition 3.1.7).

Proof. We start with a map

$$A \xrightarrow{f} B\ .$$

Since we are in a pre-abelian category, we are guaranteed that f has a kernel $(\ker(f), \iota)$ and a cokernel $(\operatorname{coker}(f), \pi)$. From the universality squares it is immediate that $f \circ \iota = 0$ and $\pi \circ f = 0$ This tells us that the composition $\pi \circ f \circ \iota = 0$, so the following commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
& A \arrow[r, "f"] & B \arrow[dr, "\pi"] & \\
\ker(f) \arrow[ur, "\iota"] \arrow[dr] & & & \operatorname{coker}(f) \\
& 0 \arrow[r] & 0 \arrow[ur] &
\end{tikzcd}$$

We know that π has a kernel $(\ker(\pi), i)$ and ι has a cokernel $(\operatorname{coker}(\iota), p)$, so we can add their commutativity squares as well.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
& A \arrow[r, "f"] \arrow[d, "p"] & B \arrow[dr, "\pi"] & \\
\ker(f) \arrow[ur, "\iota"] \arrow[dr] & \operatorname{coker}(\iota) & \ker(\pi) \arrow[u, "i"'] \arrow[d] & \operatorname{coker}(f) \\
& 0 \arrow[u] \arrow[r] & 0 \arrow[ur] &
\end{tikzcd}$$

If we squint hard enough, we can see the following diagram.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
A \arrow[drr, bend left] \arrow[ddr, bend right, "f"'] & & \\
& \ker(\pi) \arrow[r] \arrow[d, "i"] & 0 \arrow[d] \\
& B \arrow[r, "\pi"] & \operatorname{coker}(f)
\end{tikzcd}$$

The outer square commutes because $\pi \circ f = 0$, so the universal property for $\ker(\pi)$ gives us a unique morphism $A \to \ker(\pi)$. Let's add this to our diagram, along with a morphism $0 \to \ker(\pi)$ which trivially keeps everything commutative.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
& A \arrow[r, "f"] \arrow[d, "p"] \arrow[dr] & B \arrow[dr, "\pi"] & \\
\ker(f) \arrow[ur, "\iota"] \arrow[dr] & \operatorname{coker}(\iota) & \ker(\pi) \arrow[u, "i"'] \arrow[d] & \operatorname{coker}(f) \\
& 0 \arrow[u] \arrow[r] \arrow[ur] & 0 \arrow[ur] &
\end{tikzcd}$$

Again, buried in the bowels of our new diagram, we find the following.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\ker(f) \arrow[r, "\iota"] \arrow[d] & A \arrow[d, "\pi"] \arrow[ddr, bend left] & \\
0 \arrow[r] \arrow[drr, bend right] & \operatorname{coker}(\iota) & \\
& & \ker(\pi)
\end{tikzcd}$$

And again, the universal property of cokernels gives us a unique morphism $\bar{f}\colon \operatorname{coker}(\iota) \to \ker(\pi)$.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
& A \arrow[r, "f"] \arrow[d, "p"] \arrow[dr] & B \arrow[dr, "\pi"] & \\
\ker(f) \arrow[ur, "\iota"] \arrow[dr] & \operatorname{coker}(\iota) \arrow[r, "\bar{f}"] & \ker(\pi) \arrow[u, "i"] \arrow[d] & \operatorname{coker}(f) \\
& 0 \arrow[u] \arrow[ur] \arrow[r] & 0 \arrow[ur] &
\end{tikzcd}$$

The fruit of our laborious construction is the following commuting square.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
A \arrow[r, "f"] \arrow[d, "p"'] & B \arrow[d, "i"] \\
\operatorname{coker}(\iota) \arrow[r, "\bar{f}"] & \ker(\pi)
\end{tikzcd}$$

We have seen (Lemma 3.8.2) that i is mono, and (Lemma 3.8.3) that p is epi.

Now we abuse terminology by calling $\iota = \ker(f)$ and $\pi = \operatorname{coker}(f)$. Then we have the required decomposition. $\square$

Note 3.12.2. The abuse of notation above is ubiquitous in the literature.

3.12.3 Abelian categories

This section is under very heavy construction. Don't trust anything you read here.

Definition 3.12.7 (abelian category)**.** A pre-abelian category C is abelian if for each morphism f, the canonical morphism guaranteed by Lemma 3.12.4

$$\bar{f}\colon \operatorname{coker}(\ker(f)) \to \ker(\operatorname{coker}(f))$$

is an isomorphism.

Note 3.12.3. The above piecemeal definition is equivalent to the following.

A category C is *abelian* if

1. it is Ab-enriched Definition 3.12.3, i.e. each hom-set has the structure of an abelian group and composition is bilinear;
2. it admits finite coproducts, hence (by Lemma 3.12.1) biproducts and zero objects;
3. every morphism has a kernel and a cokernel;
4. for every morphism, f, the canonical morphism $\bar{f}\colon \operatorname{coker}(\ker(f)) \to \ker(\operatorname{coker}(f))$ is an isomorphism.

For the remainder of the section, let C be an abelian category.

Lemma 3.12.5. *In an abelian category, every morphism decomposes into the composition of an epimorphism and a monomorphism.*

Proof. For any morphism f, bracketing the decomposition $f = i \circ \bar{f} \circ p$ as

$$i \circ (\bar{f} \circ p).$$

gives such a composition. ☐

Note 3.12.4. The above decomposition is unique up to unique isomorphism.

Definition 3.12.8 (image of a morphism)**.** Let $f\colon A \to B$ be a morphism. The object $\ker(\mathrm{coker}(f))$ is called the image of f, and is denoted $\mathrm{im}(f)$.

Lemma 3.12.6.

1. *A morphism $f\colon A \to B$ is mono iff for all $Z \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and for all $g\colon Z \to A$, $f \circ g = 0$ implies $g = 0$.*
2. *A morphism $f\colon A \to B$ is epi iff for all $Z \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and for all $g\colon B \to Z$, $g \circ f = 0$ implies $g = 0$.*

Proof.

1. First, suppose f is mono. Consider the following diagram.

$$\begin{tikzcd} Z \arrow[r, shift left, "g"] \arrow[r, shift right, "0"'] & A \arrow[r, "f"] & B \end{tikzcd}$$

   If the above diagram commutes, i.e. if $f \circ g = 0$, then $g = 0$, so $1 \implies 2$.

   Now suppose that for all $Z \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and all $g\colon Z \to A$, $f \circ g = 0$ implies $g = 0$.

   Let g, $g'\colon Z \to A$, and suppose that $f \circ g = f \circ g'$. Then $f \circ (g - g') = 0$. But that means that $g - g' = 0$, i.e. $g = g'$. Thus, $2 \implies 1$.

2. Dual to the proof above.

☐

Lemma 3.12.7. *Let $f\colon A \to B$. We have the following.*

1. *The morphism f is mono iff $\ker(f) = 0$*
2. *The morphism f is epi iff $\mathrm{coker}(f) = 0$.*

Proof.

1. We first show that if $\ker(f) = 0$, then f is mono. Suppose $\ker(f) = 0$. By the universal property of kernels, we know that for any $Z \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and any $g\colon Z \to A$ with $f \circ g = 0$ there exists a unique map $\bar{g}\colon Z \to \ker(f)$ such that $g = \iota \circ \bar{g}$.

$$\begin{tikzcd} Z \arrow[dr, dashed, "\exists! g"] \arrow[ddr, bend right, "g"'] & & \\ & \ker(f) = 0 \arrow[r] \arrow[d, "\iota"'] & 0 \arrow[d] \\ & A \arrow[r, "f"] & B \end{tikzcd}$$

   But then g factors through the zero object, so we must have $g = 0$. This shows that $f \circ g = 0 \implies g = 0$, and by Lemma 3.12.6 f must be mono.

   Next, we show that if f is mono, then $\ker(f) = 0$. To do this, it suffices to show that $\ker(f)$ is final, i.e. that there exists a unique morphism from every object to $\ker(f)$.

   Since $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(Z, \ker(f))$ has the structure of an abelian group, it must contain at least one element. Suppose it contains two morphisms h_1 and h_2.

$$\begin{tikzcd} Z \arrow[dr, shift left, "h_1"] \arrow[dr, shift right, "h_2"'] & & \\ & \ker(f) \arrow[r] \arrow[d, "\iota"'] & 0 \arrow[d] \\ & A \arrow[r, "f"] & B \end{tikzcd}$$

Our aim is to show that $h_1 = h_2$. To this end, compose each with ι.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
Z \arrow[dr, shift left, "h_1"] \arrow[dr, shift right, "h_2"'] \arrow[ddr, bend right, "\iota\circ h_1"] \arrow[ddr, bend right=50, "\iota\circ h_2"'] & & \\
& \ker(f) \arrow[r] \arrow[d, "\iota"'] & 0 \arrow[d] \\
& A \arrow[r, "f"] & B
\end{tikzcd}$$

Since $f \circ \iota = 0$, we have $f \circ (\iota \circ h_1) = 0$ and $f \circ (\iota \circ h_2) = 0$. But since f is mono, by Lemma 3.12.6, we must have $\iota \circ h_1 = 0 = \iota \circ h_2$. But by Lemma 3.8.2, ι is mono, so again we have

$$h_1 = h_2 = 0,$$

and we are done.

2. Dual to the proof above.

□

Lemma 3.12.8. *We have the following.*

1. *The kernel of the zero morphism $0 : A \to B$ is the pair $(A, 1_A)$.*
2. *The cokernel of the zero morphism $0 : A \to B$ is the pair $(B, 1_B)$.*

Proof.

1. We need only verify that the universal property is satisfied. That is, for any object $Z \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ and any morphism $h\colon Z \to A$ such that $0 \circ g = 0$, there exists a unique morphism $\bar{g}\colon Z \to \ker(0)$ such that the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
Z \arrow[dr, dashed, "\bar{g}=g"] \arrow[ddr, bend right, "g"'] & & \\
& \ker(0) = A \arrow[r, "0"] \arrow[d, "\iota=1_A"'] & 0 \arrow[d] \\
& A \arrow[r, "0"] & B
\end{tikzcd}$$

But this is pretty trivial: $\bar{g} = g$.

2. Dual to above.

□

Theorem 3.12.1. *All abelian categories are binormal (Definition 3.8.15). That is to say:*

1. *all monomorphisms are kernels*
2. *all epimorphisms are cokernels.*

Proof.

1. Consider the following diagram taken Lemma 3.12.4, which shows the canonical factorization of any morphism f.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
& A \arrow[r, "f"] \arrow[d, "p"] \arrow[dr] & B \arrow[dr, "\pi"] & \\
\ker(f) \arrow[ur, "\iota"] \arrow[dr] & \mathrm{coker}(\iota) \arrow[r, "\bar{f}"] & \ker(\pi) \arrow[u, "i"] \arrow[d] & \mathrm{coker}(f) \\
& 0 \arrow[u] \arrow[r] \arrow[ur] & 0 \arrow[ur] &
\end{tikzcd}$$

By definition of a pre-abelian category, we know that $\bar{f}$ is an isomorphism.

□

Note 3.12.5. The above theorem is actually an equivalent definition of an abelian category, but the proof of equivalence is far from trivial. See e.g. [40] for details.

Definition 3.12.9 (subobject, quotient object, subquotient object)**.** Let $Y \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$.

1. A subobject of Y is an object $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ together with a monomorphism $i\colon X \hookrightarrow Y$. If X is a subobject of Y we will write $X \subseteq Y$.
2. A quotient object of Y is an object Z together with an epimorphism $p\colon Y \twoheadrightarrow Z$.
3. A subquotient object of Y is a quotient object of a subobject of Y.

Lemma 3.12.9. *Let O be an object, Z be a subquotient of O, and Z' a subquotient of Z. Then Z' is a subquotient of O.*

Proof. A subquotient Z of O is a quotient Z of a subobject X of O.

$$\begin{tikzcd} X \arrow[r, hook] \arrow[d, two heads] & O \\ Z & \end{tikzcd}$$

A subquotient Z' of Z looks like this.

$$\begin{tikzcd} & X \arrow[r, hook] \arrow[d, two heads] & O \\ X' \arrow[r, hook] \arrow[d, two heads] & Z & \\ Z' & & \end{tikzcd}$$

Take pullback yadda yadda. Will finish later. □

Definition 3.12.10 (quotient)**.** Let $X \subseteq Y$, i.e. let there exist a monomorphism $f\colon X \hookrightarrow Y$. The quotient Y/X is the cokernel $(\mathrm{coker}(f), \pi_f)$.

Example 3.12.3. Let V be a vector space, $W \subseteq V$ a subspace. Then we have the canonical inclusion map $\iota\colon W \hookrightarrow V$, so W is a subobject of V in the sense of Definition 3.12.9.

According to Definition 3.12.10, the quotient V/W is the cokernel $(\mathrm{coker}(\iota), \pi_\iota)$ of ι. We saw in Example 3.8.6 that the cokernel of ι was $V/\mathrm{im}(\iota)$. However, $\mathrm{im}(\iota)$ is exactly W! So the categorical notion of the quotient V/W agrees with the linear algebra notion.

Definition 3.12.11 (k-linear category)**.** An abelian category C is k-linear if for all A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ the hom-set $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{C}}(A, B)$ has the structure of a k-vector space whose additive structure is the abelian structure, and for which the composition of morphisms is k-linear.

Example 3.12.4. The category Vect_k is k-linear.

Definition 3.12.12 (k-linear functor)**.** let C and D be two k-linear categories, and $\mathcal{F}\colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$ a functor. Suppose that for all objects C, $D \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ all morphisms f, $g\colon C \to D$, and all α, $\beta \in k$, we have

$$\mathcal{F}(\alpha f + \beta g) = \alpha\mathcal{F}(f) + \beta\mathcal{G}(g).$$

Then we say that $\mathcal{F}$ is k-linear.

3.12.4 Exact sequences

Definition 3.12.13 (exact sequence)**.** A sequence of morphisms

$$\cdots \longrightarrow X_{i-1} \xrightarrow{f_{i-1}} X_i \xrightarrow{f_i} X_{i+1} \longrightarrow \cdots$$

is called exact in degree i if the image (Definition 3.12.8) of f_{i-1} is equal to the kernel (Definition 3.8.10) of f_i. A sequence is exact if it is exact in every degree.

Lemma 3.12.10. *If a sequence*

$$\cdots \longrightarrow X_{i-1} \xrightarrow{f_{i-1}} X_i \xrightarrow{f_i} X_{i+1} \longrightarrow \cdots$$

is exact in degree i, then $f_i \circ f_{i-1} = 0$.

Definition 3.12.14 (short exact sequence)**.** A short exact sequence is an exact sequence of the following form.

$$0 \longrightarrow X \longrightarrow Y \longrightarrow Z \longrightarrow 0$$

This definition has some immediate trivial consequences.

Lemma 3.12.11. *Let*

$$0 \longrightarrow X \xrightarrow{f} Y \xrightarrow{g} Z \longrightarrow 0$$

be a short exact sequence. Then

1. *f is mono*
2. *g is epi*
3. *$Z \simeq Y/X$.*

Proof.

1. An easy consequence of Lemma 3.12.7, part 1.
2. An easy consequence of Lemma 3.12.7, part 2.
3. We need to show that

□

Definition 3.12.15 (exact functor)**.** Let C, D be abelian categories, $\mathcal{F}\colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$ a functor. We say that $\mathcal{F}$ is

- left exact if it preserves biproducts and kernels
- right exact if it preserves biproducts and cokernels
- exact if it is both left exact and right exact.

Theorem 3.12.2. *Let $\mathcal{F}\colon \mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$ be a functor between abelian categories. Let*

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

be a short exact sequence in C. Then

- *if $\mathcal{F}$ is left exact, then*
$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(A) \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(B) \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(C)$$
is an exact sequence in D.
- *if $\mathcal{F}$ is right exact, then*
$$\mathcal{F}(A) \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(B) \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(C) \longrightarrow 0$$
is an exact sequence in D.
- *if $\mathcal{F}$ is exact, then*
$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(A) \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(B) \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(C) \longrightarrow 0$$
is an exact sequence in D.

Proof. □

3.12.5 Length of objects

Definition 3.12.16 (simple object)**.** A nonzero object $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ is called simple if 0 and X are its only subobjects.

Example 3.12.5. In Vect_k, the only simple object (up to isomorphism) is k, taken as a one-dimensional vector space over itself.

Definition 3.12.17 (semisimple object)**.** An object $Y \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ is semisimple if it is isomorphic to a dirct sum of simple objects.

Example 3.12.6. In Vect_k, all finite-dimensional vector spaces are semisimple.

Definition 3.12.18 (semisimple category)**.** An abelian category C is semisimple if every object of C is semisimple.

Example 3.12.7. The category $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$ is semisimple.

Definition 3.12.19 (Jordan-Hölder series)**.** Let $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. A filtration

$$0 = X_0 \subset X_1 \subset \cdots \subset X_{n-1} \subset X_n = X$$

of X such that X_i/X_{i-1} is simple for all i is called a Jordan Hölder series for X. The integer n is called the length of the series X_i.

The importance of Jordan-Hölder series is the following.

Theorem 3.12.3 (Jordan-Hölder)**.** *Let X_i and Y_i be two Jordan-Hölder series for some object $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$. Then the length of X_i is equal to the length of Y_i, and the objects Y_i/Y_{i-1} are a reordering of X_i/X_{i-1}.*

Proof. □

Definition 3.12.20 (length)**.** The length of an object X is defined to be the length of any of its Jordan-Hölder series. This is well-defined by Theorem 3.12.3.

3.13 Tensor Categories

The following definition is taken almost verbatim from [11].

Definition 3.13.1 (tensor category)**.** Let k be a field. A k-tensor category A (as considered by Deligne in [30]) is an

1. essentially small (Definition 3.3.8)
2. k-linear[3] (Definition 3.12.11)
3. rigid (Definition 3.11.7)
4. symmetric (Definition 3.10.9)
5. monoidal category (Definition 3.10.1)

such that

1. the tensor product functor $\otimes\colon \mathsf{A} \times \mathsf{A} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{A}$ is, in both arguments separately,
   a) k-linear (Definition 3.12.12)
   b) exact (Definition 3.12.15)
2. $\mathrm{End}(1) \simeq k$, where End denotes the endomorphism ring (Definition 3.12.2).

Example 3.13.1. $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$ is a tensor category. It is

In Deligne's proof of Theorem 7.0.1, several notions of size are used. We collect them here.

[3]Hence abelian.

Definition 3.13.2 (finite tensor category)**.** A k-tensor category A is called finite (over k) if

1. There are only finitely many simple objects in A, and each of them admits a projective presentation.[4]
2. Each object A of A is of finite length.
3. For any two objects A, B of A, the hom-object (i.e. k-vector space) $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{A}}(A, B)$ is finite-dimensional.

Example 3.13.2. The category $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$ is finite.

1. The only simple object is k taken as a one-dimensional vector space over itself.
2. The length of a finite-dimensional vector space is simply its dimension.
3. The vector space $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{FinVect}}(V, W)$ has dimension $\dim(V) \times \dim(W)$.

Definition 3.13.3 (finitely $\otimes$-generated)**.** A k-tensor category A is called finitely $\otimes$-generated if there exists an object $E \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{A})$ such that every other object $X \in A$ is a subquotient (Definition 3.12.9) of a finite direct sum of tensor products of E; that is to say, if there exists a finite collection of integers n_i such that X is a subquotient of $\bigoplus_i E^{\otimes n_i}$.

$$
\begin{tikzcd}
 & \bigoplus_i E^{\otimes n_i} \arrow[d, two heads, "\pi"] \\
X \arrow[r, hook, "\iota"] & \left(\bigoplus_i E^{\otimes n_i}\right)/Q
\end{tikzcd}
$$

Example 3.13.3. The category $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$ is finitely generated since any finite-dimensional vector space is isomorphic to $k^n = k \oplus \cdots \oplus k$ for some n.

Definition 3.13.4 (subexponential growth)**.** A tensor category A has subexponential growth if, for each object X there exists a natural number N_X such that

$$\mathrm{len}(X^{\otimes n}) \leq (N_X)^n.$$

Example 3.13.4. The category $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$ has subexponential growth. For any finite-dimensional vector space V, we always have

$$\dim(V^{\otimes^n}) = (\dim(V))^n,$$

so we can take $N_V = \dim(V)$.

Theorem 3.13.1. *Let A be a tensor category, and suppose that*

1. *every object $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{A})$ has a finite length*
2. *the dimension of every hom space $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{A}}(A, B)$ is finite over k.*

Then the category $\mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{A})$ of ind-objects of A (Definition 3.8.19) has the following properties.

1. *$\mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{A})$ is abelian (Definition 3.12.7).*
2. *$A \hookrightarrow \mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{A})$ is a full subcategory (cf. Note 3.8.9).*
3. *The tensor product on A extends to $\mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{A})$ via*

$$
\begin{aligned}
X \otimes Y &\simeq (\varinjlim_{i} X_i) \otimes (\varinjlim_{j} Y_j) \\
&\simeq \varinjlim_{i,j} (X_i \otimes Y_j).
\end{aligned}
$$

4. *The category $\mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{A})$ fails only to be a tensor category because it is not necessarily essentially small and rigid. More specifically, an object $A \in \mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{A})$ is dualizable if and only if it is in A.*

Proof. Stated without proof as Proposition 3.38 in [11]. □

[4] The definition of this is a bit tricky, and I don't understand it. It is meant to generalize the notion of a projective module (Definition 2.4.6). However, it's satisfied trivially by pretty much every 'obviously finite' category we'll look at.

Definition 3.13.5 (tensor functor)**.** Let $(\mathscr{A}, \otimes_A, 1_A)$ and $(\mathscr{B}, \otimes_B, 1_B)$ be k-tensor categories. A functor $\mathcal{F}\colon \mathscr{A} \to \mathscr{B}$ is called a tensor functor if it is

1. braided (Definition 3.10.8) and
2. strong monoidal (Definition 3.10.5).

In any k-tensor category $\mathscr{A}$, the hom-sets have the structure of k-vector spaces, and we can view them as living in Vect_k. This allows us to treat vector spaces, in certain situations, as 'honorary $\mathscr{A}$-objects'.

Definition 3.13.6 (tensor product of a vector space and a tensor category object)**.** Let $\mathscr{A}$ be a k-tensor category. Let V be a vector space. Define a functor $(-)\tilde{\otimes}X\colon \mathsf{Vect}_k \to \mathscr{A}$ as left-adjoint to $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathscr{A}}(X, -)$:

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathscr{A}}(V\tilde{\otimes}X, Y) \simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Vect}_k}(V, \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathscr{A}}(X, Y)).$$

Indeed, this extends to a functor $\tilde{\otimes}\colon \mathsf{Vect}_k \times \mathscr{A} \to \mathscr{A}$ in the obvious way. It is also not difficult to check that it is k-linear in each slot.

Definition 3.13.7 (hom between vector space and tensor category object)**.** Let $\mathscr{A}$ be a tensor category and $(-)\tilde{\otimes}X$ the functor from Definition 3.13.6. Define a functor $\mathscr{H}om()$

Notation 3.13.1. Although the functor $\tilde{\otimes}$ defined above is obviously not the same as the bifunctor $\otimes$ from the monoidal structure on $\mathscr{A}$, we will drop the tilde from now on. The idea is to view vector spaces as *almost* $\mathscr{A}$-objects.

3.14 Internalization

One of the things category theory is best for is generalization. One of the most powerful ways of doing this is known as *internalization*.

3.14.1 Internal groups

Definition 3.14.1 (group object)**.** Let C be a category with binary products $\times$ and a terminal object $*$. A group object in C (or a *group internal to* C) is an object $G \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ together with

- a map $e\colon * \to G$, called the *unit map*;
- a map $(-)^{-1}\colon G \to G$, called the *inverse map*; and
- a map $m\colon G \times G \to G$, called the *multiplication map*

such that

- multiplication is associative, i.e. the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} G \times G \times G \arrow[r, "\mathrm{id}_G \times m"] \arrow[d, "m \times \mathrm{id}_G"'] & G \times G \arrow[d, "m"] \\ G \times G \arrow[r, "m"'] & G \end{tikzcd}$$

- the unit picks out the 'identity element,' i.e. the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd} G \arrow[r, "e \times \mathrm{id}_G"] \arrow[d, "\mathrm{id}_G \times e"'] & G \times G \arrow[d, "m"] \\ G \times G \arrow[r, "m"'] & G \end{tikzcd}$$

- The inverse map behaves as an inverse, i.e. the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
& G \times G \arrow[rr, "(-)^{-1}\times \mathrm{id}"] & & G \times G \arrow[dr, "m"] & \\
G \arrow[ur, "\delta"] \arrow[rr, "\exists !"] \arrow[dr, "\delta"'] & & * \arrow[rr, "e"] & & G \\
& G \times G \arrow[rr, "\mathrm{id}\times(-)^{-1}"'] & & G \times G \arrow[ur, "m"'] &
\end{tikzcd}$$

Here, $\delta\colon G \to G \times G$ is the diagonal map defined uniquely by the universal property of the product

$$\begin{tikzcd}
& G \arrow[dl, "\mathrm{id}_G"'] \arrow[d, "\delta"] \arrow[dr, "\mathrm{id}_G"] & \\
G & G \times G \arrow[l, "\pi_1"] \arrow[r, "\pi_2"'] & G
\end{tikzcd}.$$

It will be convenient to represent the above data in the following way.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
G \times G \arrow[d, "m"] \\
G \arrow[loop right, "i"] \\
* \arrow[u, "e"]
\end{tikzcd}$$

Note 3.14.1. The sloppiness in notation (e.g. notationally supressing associators) is completely standard.

4 A few concepts from algebraic geometry

4.1 Elementary notions

The elementary notions of algebraic geometry are assumed, but a few definitions are given here for concreteness. For the remainder of this section, let k be an algebraically closed field of characteristic 0.

Definition 4.1.1 (Zariski topology)**.** We define a topology on k^n, called the Zariski topology, as follows. Let $A = k[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ be the ring of polynomials on k^n. For any subset $S \subseteq A$, define

$$Z(S) = \left\{ (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in k^n \;\middle|\; f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in S \right\}.$$

Clearly, if $(S) = \mathfrak{a}$ is the ideal generated by S, then $Z(S) = Z(\mathfrak{a})$.

The Zariski topology on k^n is then the topology whose closed sets are given by $Z(\mathfrak{a})$ for ideals $\mathfrak{a}$ of A.

Definition 4.1.2 (affine space)**.** Denote by $\mathbb{A}^n$ the space k^n, together with the Zariski topology.

Note that if this were a real textbook on algebraic geometry, we would be careful about the definition of $\mathbb{A}^n$, defining it as a torsor over the the vector space k^n.

Definition 4.1.3 (affine algebraic variety)**.** A subset $S \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n$ is called an affine algebraic variety if it is closed in the Zariski topology.

Note 4.1.1. Many authors (e.g. Hartshorne [32]) demand that a variety be irreducible.

4.2 Sheaves

4.2.1 Presheaves

Definition 4.2.1 (category of opens)**.** Let (X, τ) be a topological space. The category of opens of X, $\mathsf{Open}(X)$ is the category whose objects are

$$\mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{Open(X)}) = \tau$$

and whose morphisms are, for U, $V \in \tau$,

$$\mathrm{Hom}(U, V) = \begin{cases} r(V, U), & U \subseteq V \\ \emptyset, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

To put it another way, if U and V are open sets in X, then there is exactly one morphism from U to V if $U \subseteq V$, and none otherwise.

Of course, we must check that $\mathsf{Open}(X)$ really is a category.

1. If $U \subseteq V$ and $V \subseteq W$, then $U \subseteq W$, so we are forced to define the composition
$$r(W, V) \circ r(V, U) = r(W, U).$$
2. The composition $\circ$ is associative since set inclusion is.
3. The identity morphism $r(U, U)$ is the identity with respect to composition: restricting a set to itself is the same thing as not restricting.

Definition 4.2.2 (presheaf)**.** A presheaf on a topological space (X, τ) is a contravariant functor from $\mathsf{Open}(X)$ to some category C. Usually, C will be the category Ring of rings.

Example 4.2.1 (important example)**.** The prototypical example of a presheaf on a topological space X is the presheaf $\mathcal{C}_X$ of real continuous functions on X. Since by Definition 4.2.2 $\mathcal{C}_X$ must be a contravariant functor, we need to specify what $\mathcal{C}_X$ does to the objects $\mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{Open}(X))$ and the morphisms $\mathrm{res}_{V,U}$.

For every open set $U \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{Open}(X))$, define

$$\mathcal{C}_X(U) = \left\{ f \colon U \to \mathbb{R} \,\middle|\, f \text{ continuous} \right\},$$

the ring of all real continuous functions $U \to \mathbb{R}$.

Recall that for two open sets U and $V \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{Open}(X))$, there is a unique morphism $r(V, U)$ from U to V if and only if $V \subseteq U$. Thus, we need to assign to each $r(V, U)$ a ring homomorphism from $\mathcal{C}_X(V)$ to $\mathcal{C}_X(U)$. We use the restriction homomorphism, which maps $f \in \mathcal{C}_X(V)$ to $f|_U$, its restriction to U. We denote this by

$$\mathrm{res}_{V,U}(f) = f|_U.$$

In other words,

$$\mathcal{C}_X(r(V, U)) = \mathrm{res}_{V,U}.$$

Example 4.2.2. Let M be a C^∞ manifold, and let $\mathsf{Open}(M)$ be its category of opens. Then for each $U \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{Open}(M))$, define a functor $C^\infty \colon \mathsf{Open}(M)^{\mathrm{op}} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Ring}$ on objects by

$$C^\infty(U) = \left\{ f \colon U \to \mathbb{R} \,\middle|\, f \text{ smooth} \right\},$$

and on morphisms by restriction. Then C^∞ is a presheaf.

4.2.2 Sheaves

Definition 4.2.3 (sheaf)**.** Let X be a topological space. A presheaf $\mathcal{F}$ on X is called a sheaf if it satisfies the following:

1. **Identity:** Let $U \subseteq X$ be an open set, and let $\{U_i\}$ be an open cover of U. If f_1, $f_2 \in \mathcal{F}(U)$ such that
$$f_1|_{U_i} = f_2|_{U_i}$$
for all i, then $f_1 = f_2$. That is to say, if two sections of $\mathcal{F}$ over U agree on every element of an open cover of U, then they must agree on U.
2. **Glueability:** Suppose $\{U_i\}$ is an open cover of U, and $f_i \in \mathcal{F}(U_i)$ is a collection of sections of $\mathcal{F}$ such that if $U_i \cap U_j \neq \emptyset$ then
$$f_i|_{U_i \cap U_j} = f_j|_{U_i \cap U_j}.$$
Then there exists some $f \in \mathcal{F}(U)$ such that
$$f|_{U_i} = f_i$$
for all i. In other words, If we have sections of an open cover of U which agree on overlaps, then we can glue them together to get a section on all of U.

Note 4.2.1. Here is another definition of a sheaf: A presheaf $\mathcal{F}$ on a topological space X is a *sheaf* if for any open cover $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$ of an open set U, the diagram

$$\mathcal{F}(U) \xrightarrow{\gamma} \prod_{i \in I} \mathcal{F}(U_i) \underset{\beta}{\overset{\alpha}{\rightrightarrows}} \prod_{i,j \in I} \mathcal{F}(U_i \cap U_j)$$

is an equalizer.

The map γ is constructed as follows. For each $U_i \subseteq U$, there is a restriction map $\mathrm{res}_{U_i,U} \colon \mathcal{F}(U) \to \mathcal{F}(U_i)$. The universal property of the product turns these into one map $\mathcal{F}(U) \to \prod_{i \in I} \mathcal{F}(U_i)$.

The map α is constructed similary from the maps $\mathrm{res}_{U_i \cap U_j, U_i}$.

For each $\mathcal{F}(U_i \cap U_j)$, there is a canonical projection down to $\mathcal{F}(U_j)$, and from there a restriction $\mathrm{res}_{U_j \cap U_j, U_i}$. The map β is the composition of these.

To see that this is an equality,

Example 4.2.3 (important example continued)**.** The presheaf $\mathcal{C}_X$ from Example 4.2.1 is a sheaf, as is the presheaf from Example 4.2.2.

Example 4.2.4 (a presheaf which is not a sheaf)**.** Let $X = \mathbb{R}$, and define a presheaf $\mathcal{F}$ on X via

$$\mathcal{F}(U) = \left\{ f \colon U \to \mathbb{R} \,\middle|\, f \text{ bounded} \right\}.$$

This is a presheaf since the restriction of a bounded map is bounded.

However, we do not have condition 2 of Definition 4.2.3: glueability. To see this, consider the following open cover

$$\mathbb{R} = \bigcup_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} U_n, \qquad U_n = (n-1, n+1).$$

Clearly, the identity function 1_{U_n} on U_n is bounded for all n. However, the function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ which agrees with 1_{U_n} on all the U_n is the identity function $1_{\mathbb{R}}$, which is unbounded.

Definition 4.2.4 (stalk)**.** Let X be a topological space, $x \in X$, and let $\mathcal{F}$ be a presheaf on X. The stalk of $\mathcal{F}$ at x is

$$\mathcal{F}_x = \left\{ (f, U) \,\middle|\, x \in U,\ f \in \mathcal{F}(U) \right\} / \sim,$$

where

$$(f, U) \sim (g, V)$$

if there exists an open set $W \subseteq U \cap V$ with $x \in W$ such that $f|_W = g|_W$.

Lemma 4.2.1. *If $\mathcal{F}$ is a sheaf of objects with some algebraic structure, like rings, then the stalk $\mathcal{F}_x$ inherits this algebraic structure.*

Proof. For the sake of concreteness, consider the case in which $\mathcal{F}$ is a presheaf of rings. Let $[(f, U)]$, $[(g, V)] \in \mathcal{F}_x$. We need to define

$$[(f, U)] + [(g, V)] \qquad \text{and} \qquad [(f, U)] \cdot [(g, V)].$$

In each case, we can simply use representatives of the equivalence classes, letting

$$[(f, U)] + [(g, V)] = [(f + g, U \cap V)], \qquad \text{and} \qquad [(f, U)] \cdot [(g, V)] = [(f \cdot g, U \cap V)].$$

We need of course to prove well-definition: that if $(f, U) \sim (f', U')$ and $(g, V) \sim (g', V')$, then

$$[f + g] = [f' + g'],$$

and similarly for multiplication.

But if $(f, U) \sim (f', U')$, then there exists an open set $U'' \in U \cap U'$ with $x \in U''$ such that $f|_{U''} = f'|_{U''}$, and similarly V''. But since $x \in U''$ and $x \in V''$, we must also have that $x \in U'' \cap V''$. Since f and f' (and g and g') agree on $U'' \cap V''$, so must $f + g$ and $f' + g'$. Thus $[(f + g, U \cap V)]$ is well-defined.

The proof of the well-definition of multiplication is exactly analogous. □

We now drop the open set in the notation of an element of a stalk, writing $[f]$ instead of $[(f, U)]$.

Example 4.2.5 (important example continued)**.** What do the stalks of $\mathcal{C}_X$ (Example 4.2.1) look like? Let $x \in X$, and define $\varphi \colon (\mathcal{C}_X)_x \to \mathbb{R}$ via

$$\varphi \colon [f] \mapsto f(x).$$

This is a ring homomorphism since

$$\varphi([f][g]) = \varphi([fg]) = (fg)(x) = f(x)g(x) = \varphi([f])\varphi([g]),$$

and similarly for addition. It is also surjective; to see this, we need only find a single function which maps to any $r \in \mathbb{R}$. (The constant function will do.)

Denote $\ker(\varphi) = \mathfrak{m}_x$. By the first isomorphism theorem,

$$(\mathcal{C}_X)_x/\mathfrak{m}_x \simeq \mathbb{R}.$$

But since $\mathbb{R}$ is a field, $\mathfrak{m}_x$ must be maximal.

If $\mathfrak{M} \neq \mathfrak{m}_x$ is another maximal ideal, then there must exist $[g] \in \mathfrak{M} \setminus \mathfrak{m}_x$ (since if $\mathfrak{M} \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_x$, $\mathfrak{M}$ isn't maximal). Since $[g] \notin \ker(\varphi)$, $g(x) \neq 0$. But since g is continuous, there exists a neighborhood V of x such that $g \neq 0$ on V.

But then g is invertible on V, and hence is invertible in the stalk $(\mathcal{C}_X)_x$; thus, $\mathfrak{M}$ contains an invertible element, hence contains the identity 1_R, hence is the whole ring; and we have a contradiction.

Thus each stalk of $\mathcal{C}_X$ has a unique maximal ideal.

4.2.3 Ringed spaces

Definition 4.2.5 (ringed space)**.** A ringed space is a double $(X, \mathcal{O}_X)$, where X is a topological space and $\mathcal{O}_X$ is a sheaf of rings on X.

Definition 4.2.6 (local ring)**.** A ring R is local if it has a unique maximal ideal.

Definition 4.2.7 (locally ringed space)**.** A locally ringed space is a ringed space whose stalks are local rings.

Example 4.2.6 (important example continued)**.** By the toil of Example 4.2.5, each stalk of $\mathcal{C}_X$ is a local ring, hence $\mathcal{C}_X$ is a locally ringed space.

Note 4.2.2. It is *not* necessary that each local section of a locally ringed space be a local ring; only the stalks must be local.

There are many ways to build sheaves. Here are two.

Definition 4.2.8 (restriction sheaf)**.** Let X be a topological space, and $\mathcal{F}$ a sheaf on X. Let U be an open subset of X. The restriction sheaf $\mathcal{F}|_U$ is the sheaf which maps open subsets $V \subseteq U$ to their images under $\mathcal{F}$:

$$\mathcal{F}_U(V) = \mathcal{F}(V), \qquad \text{for } V \subseteq U.$$

For open sets V, $W \subseteq U$, the restriction $r(W, V)$ is mapped to

$$\mathcal{F}|_U(r(W, V)) \equiv \mathcal{F}(r(W, V)) = \mathrm{res}_{W,V},$$

the same restriction as in $\mathcal{F}$.

Definition 4.2.9 (pushforward sheaf)**.** Let X and Y be topological spaces, $\pi \colon X \to Y$ a continuous function. Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a sheaf on X. Define the pushforward of $\mathcal{F}$ by π, denoted $\pi_*\mathcal{F}$, by

$$(\pi_*\mathcal{F})(V) = \mathcal{F}(\pi^{-1}(V)), \qquad V \subseteq Y \text{ open},$$

and

$$(\pi_*\mathcal{F})(r(V, U)) = \mathrm{res}_{\pi^{-1}(V),\pi^{-1}(U)}.$$

We can view sheaves as objects in a category. We can then talk about their morphisms, and find the correct definition of a sheaf isomorphism.

First, we need to define a homomorphism of presheaves. Since we defined a presheaf on a topological space X as a functor $\mathsf{Open}(X) \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{C}$ for some category C (Definition 4.2.2), we can define a sheaf homomorphism as a morphism in the functor category $\mathsf{C}^{\mathsf{Open}(X)}$, which is to say

Definition 4.2.10 (presheaf homomorphism)**.** Let $\mathcal{C}$, $\mathcal{D}$ be C-presheaves on a topological space X. A presheaf homomorphism $\mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$ is a morphism in the category $\mathsf{C}^{\mathsf{Open}(X)}$, i.e. a natural transformation between $\mathcal{C}$ and $\mathcal{D}$.

Definition 4.2.11 (sheaf homomorphism)**.** Since sheaves are in particular presheaves, a sheaf homomorphism is simply a presheaf homomorphism between sheaves.

Definition 4.2.12 (sheaf isomorphism)**.** A sheaf isomorphism is defined in the obvious way.

Definition 4.2.13 (locally isomorphic)**.** Let X be a topological space, $\mathcal{F}$, and let $\mathcal{G}$ be C-sheaves on X. We say that $\mathcal{F}$ is locally isomorphic to $\mathcal{G}$ if for every $x \in X$, there exists a neighborhood U of x such that the restriction sheaf (Definition 4.2.8) $\mathcal{F}|_U$ is sheaf-isomorphic to $\mathcal{G}$.

4.3 Schemes

We follow closely the treatment in [41], together with some help from [2].

Note 4.3.1. This section really needs a lot of filling out, as well as a fair amount of fixing. The goal of the section is an explanation of the fact that $\mathsf{Alg}_k^{\mathrm{op}}$ is categorically equivalent to the category of affine schemes over k. This will justify talking about objects in $\mathsf{Alg}_k^{\mathrm{op}}$ as if they had geometric structure.

Let A be a commutative ring. Denote by V the set of all prime ideals in A. For any ideal $\mathfrak{a} \in V$, we write

$$V(\mathfrak{a}) = \left\{ \mathfrak{q} \in V \,\middle|\, \mathfrak{a} \subset \mathfrak{q} \right\}.$$

Theorem 4.3.1. *The sets $V(\mathfrak{a})$ form the closed sets for a topology for V.*

Proof. We need to show three things:

1. There exists prime ideals $\mathfrak{p}$, $\mathfrak{q} \in V$ such that $V(\mathfrak{p}) = V$ and $V(\mathfrak{q}) = \emptyset$.
2. For any prime ideals $\mathfrak{a}$ and $\mathfrak{b}$, there exists a prime ideal $\mathfrak{c}$ such that
$$V(\mathfrak{a}) \cup V(\mathfrak{b}) = V(\mathfrak{c}).$$
3. For any family $\mathfrak{g}_i$ of prime ideals, there exists a prime ideal $\mathfrak{h}$ such that
$$\bigcap_i V(\mathfrak{g}_i) = V(\mathfrak{h}).$$

For 1., take $\mathfrak{p} = 0$ and $\mathfrak{q} = V$. For 2., take $\mathfrak{c} = \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}$. For 3., take

$$\mathfrak{h} = \sum_i \mathfrak{g}_i.$$

□

Definition 4.3.1 (prime spectrum)**.** The topology defined in Theorem 4.3.1 is called the Zariski topology, and the set V together with the Zariski topology is called the (prime) spectrum of A, and denoted $\mathrm{Spec}(A)$.

Definition 4.3.2 (principal open subsets)**.** For any $f \in A$ define

$$D(f) \equiv A\big((f)\big)^{\mathrm{c}} = \left\{ \mathfrak{p} \in V \,\middle|\, f \notin \mathfrak{p} \right\},$$

where (f) is the ideal generated by f. Subsets of this form are called the *principal open subsets* of V.

We will denote by $\mathcal{B}$ the set of all principal open subsets.

Theorem 4.3.2. *The principle open subsets form a basis for the Zariski topology on V.*

Proof. □

Since $\mathrm{Spec}(A)$ is a topological space, it makes sense to talk about a sheaf of rings on it. This would entail defining for each open subset of $U \subset A$ a ring $\mathscr{O}_{\mathrm{Spec}(A)}(U)$ on it, and checking some axioms. However, it will be efficient to define first a sheaf on the principal open subsets $\mathcal{B}$ of $\mathrm{Spec}(A)$, and then show that such a sheaf extends uniquely to all of $\mathrm{Spec}(A)$.

Since $\mathcal{B}$ is closed under finite intersections, we can use it as the collection of objects in a category of opens $\mathsf{Open}(\mathcal{B})$ (see Definition 4.2.1).[1] A sheaf of on $\mathcal{B}$ is a contravariant functor $\mathsf{Open}(\mathcal{B}) \to \mathsf{Ring}$ which satisfies the sheaf conditions (Definition 4.2.3).

We now define a sheaf $\mathscr{O}_V$ on $\mathcal{B}$ as follows: For any principal open subset D, define

$$S_D = A \setminus \bigcup_{\mathfrak{p} \in D} \mathfrak{p}.$$

[1]This is a slightly different notation to the one in Definition 4.2.1. Here we're specifying the open subsets rather than the underlying topological space.

Clearly, S_D is multiplicatively closed. It is also *saturated*, i.e. if $fg \in S_D$ then $f \in S_D$ and $g \in S_D$.

In particular, if $D = D(f)$, then S_D is the smallest multiplicatively closed saturated subset containing f, i.e.

$$S_{D(f)} = \left\{ f^n \,\middle|\, n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \right\}.$$

We then define $\mathscr{O}_V(D) = S_D^{-1}A$, the localization of A by S_D (Definition 2.3.9). If $D \subset D'$ then $S_{D'} \subset S_D$ so there is an embedding $S_{D'}^{-1}A \hookrightarrow S_D^{-1}A$. These embeddings are functorial, so $\mathscr{O}_V$ is indeed a presheaf. In fact, they satisfy the sheaf conditions.

Write $\mathrm{Spec}(A)$ for the ringed space $(\mathrm{Spec}(A), \mathscr{O}_{\mathrm{Spec}(A)})$. In fact it is a locally ringed space.

Definition 4.3.3 (affine scheme)**.** An affine scheme is a ringed space which is isomorphic to $(\mathrm{Spec}(A), \mathscr{O}_{\mathrm{Spec}(A)})$ for some A.

Lemma 4.3.1. *Let $\varphi\colon A \to B$ be a homomorphism of commutative rings. Then if $\mathfrak{b}$ is a prime ideal in B, $\varphi^{-1}(\mathfrak{b})$ is a prime ideal in A.*

Corollary 4.3.1. *The map* Spec *extends to a contravariant functor* $\mathsf{CRing} \to \mathsf{Top}$.

5 Some basic superalgebra

In this chapter we give some basic definitions of various super-* structures in a haphazard, rushed way. The clarifying categorical aspects will be left until the following chapter.

Most of the material in this chapter is from [44].

5.1 Super rings

Definition 5.1.1 (super ring)**.** A super ring (or $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ graded ring) A is, additively, an abelian group A with a direct sum decomposition

$$A = A_0 \oplus A_1.$$

Elements $a \in A_0$ are said to be of degree zero, denoted $\tilde{a} = 0$; elements $b \in A_1$ are said to be of degree one, denoted $\tilde{b} = 1$.

Additionally, there is a multiplicative structure which is associative and distributive from the left and the right; the only change from the normal definition of a ring is that the multiplicative structure must obey the axiom

$$\widetilde{ab} = \tilde{a} + \tilde{b},$$

where the addition is taken modulo 2.

Note 5.1.1. Of course, not all elements $c \in A$ are in A_0 or A_1; formulae which talk about the grading must be understood to be extended via additivity. If $a = a_0 + a_1$ and $b = b_0 + b_1$, then

$$ab = a_0 b_0 + a_1 b_0 + a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_1,$$

and the axiom concerning the multiplicative grading can be taken to say that the grading applies to each monomial.

Example 5.1.1 (exterior algebra)**.** Consider the exterior algebra

$$\bigwedge \mathbb{R}^n = \bigoplus_{i=0}^{n} \bigwedge^i \mathbb{R}^n.$$

With multiplication given by the wedge product, $\bigwedge \mathbb{R}^n$ is a super ring with grading given by

$$\left(\bigoplus_{i \text{ even}} \bigwedge^i \mathbb{R}^n \right) \oplus \left(\bigoplus_{i \text{ odd}} \bigwedge^i \mathbb{R}^n \right).$$

Example 5.1.2. Let V be a vector space over a field k of characteristic not 2. The so-called *parity transformation* on V is the map

$$P\colon V \to V; \qquad v \mapsto -v.$$

This preserves any quadratic form, and hence extends to an algebra homomorphism $\mathrm{C}\ell(P) \equiv \alpha$ of any quadratic vector space $\mathrm{C}\ell(V,q)$. Since

$$\alpha^2 = \mathrm{C}\ell(P) \circ \mathrm{C}\ell(P) = \mathrm{C}\ell(P \circ P) = \mathrm{C}\ell(\mathrm{id}_{(V,q)}) = \mathrm{id}_{\mathrm{C}\ell(V,q)},$$

α is invertible, hence an isomorphism. Indeed, from the above equation we can say more. For the moment ignoring the multiplicative structure of $\mathrm{C}\ell(V,q)$ and considering it only as a vector space, α can be thought of as a linear bijection whose square is the identity. This means α has two eigenvalues $+1$ and -1, and additively $\mathrm{C}\ell(V,q)$ decomposes into a direct sum

$$\mathrm{C}\ell(V,q) = \mathrm{C}\ell^0(V,q) \oplus \mathrm{C}\ell^1(V,q),$$

where

$$\mathrm{C}\ell^0(V,q) = \left\{\varphi \in \mathrm{C}\ell(V,q) \,\middle|\, \alpha(\varphi) = \varphi\right\}, \qquad \text{and} \qquad \mathrm{C}\ell^0(V,q) = \left\{\varphi \in \mathrm{C}\ell(V,q) \,\middle|\, \alpha(\varphi) = -\varphi\right\}.$$

For $\varphi_1 \in \mathrm{C}\ell^i(V,q)$ and $\varphi_2 \in \mathrm{C}\ell^j(V,q)$,

$$\alpha(\varphi_1\varphi_2) = \alpha(\varphi_1)\alpha(\varphi_2);$$

this gives us the following multiplication table.

$\times$	$\mathrm{C}\ell^0(V,q)$	$\mathrm{C}\ell^1(V,q)$
$\mathrm{C}\ell^0(V,q)$	$\mathrm{C}\ell^0(V,q)$	$\mathrm{C}\ell^1(V,q)$
$\mathrm{C}\ell^1(V,q)$	$\mathrm{C}\ell^1(V,q)$	$\mathrm{C}\ell^0(V,q)$

Thus, $\mathrm{C}\ell(V,q)$ is a superalgebra.

Definition 5.1.2 (supercommutator)**.** Let A be a commutative ring. The supercommutator is the map

$$[\cdot,\cdot]\colon A \times A \to A; \qquad (a,b) \to [a,b] = ab - (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}ba.$$

Definition 5.1.3 (supercommutation)**.** We will say that a supercommutes with b if $[a,b] = 0$; this means in particular that two even elements commute if $ab = ba$, and two odd elements supercommute if $ab = -ba$.

Note 5.1.2. Supercommutativity should not be confused with regular commutativity. Here is an example of a super ring which is commutative but not supercommutative.

Example 5.1.3. Consider the ring $C^0(\mathbb{R})$ of continuous functions $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$. This is a super ring with the direct sum decomposition is given by

$$C^0(\mathbb{R}) = \{\text{even functions}\} \oplus \{\text{odd functions}\};$$

this can be seen since any $f \in C^0(\mathbb{R})$ can be written

$$f(x) = \underbrace{\frac{f(x)+f(-x)}{2}}_{\text{even}} + \underbrace{\frac{f(x)-f(-x)}{2}}_{\text{odd}}.$$

The multiplication defined pointwise inherits its commutativity from the real numbers; but *all* elements are commutative, even the odd elements. Hence $C^0(\mathbb{R})$ is commutative but not supercommutative.

Definition 5.1.4 (super ring homomorphism)**.** Let A, B be super rings. A super ring homomorphism $f\colon A \to B$ is a ring homomorphism which preserve the grading.

One might wonder if, in fact, *all* ring homomorphisms between super rings are super ring homomorphisms. This is not the case.

Counterexample 5.1.1 (Not all super ring homomorphisms preserve the grading)**.** Consider the set

$$R = \left\{f\colon \mathbb{R} \to \bigwedge \mathbb{R}^2\right\}.$$

A general element $f \in R$ is of the form

$$f(x) = f_{00}(x) + f_{10}(x)\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} + f_{01}(x)\hat{\boldsymbol{y}} + f_{11}(x)\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} \wedge \hat{\boldsymbol{y}},$$

where $\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{y}}$ are basis vectors for $\mathbb{R}^2$. Define multiplication pointwise:

$$\begin{aligned}(f\cdot g)(x) = f(x)g(x) = &f_{00}(x)g_{00}(x)\\ &+ (f_{00}(x)g_{10}(x) + f_{10}(x)g_{00}(x))\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}\\ &+ (f_{00}(x)g_{01}(x) + f_{01}(x)g_{00}(x))\hat{\boldsymbol{y}}\\ &+ (f_{11}(x)g_{00}(x) + f_{00}(x)g_{11}(x) + f_{10}(x)g_{01}(x) - f_{01}(x)g_{10}(x))\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} \wedge \hat{\boldsymbol{y}}.\end{aligned}$$

Then R becomes a ring. In fact it is more; it is easy (if tedious) to check from the above multiplication law that R can be seen as a super ring with grading given by

$$f(x) = \underbrace{\frac{f(x)+f(-x)}{2}}_{R_0} + \underbrace{\frac{f(x)-f(-x)}{2}}_{R_1}.$$

Now consider the evaluation homomorphism

$$\iota\colon R \to \bigwedge \mathbb{R}^2; \qquad f \mapsto f(0).$$

This is a ring homomorphism which does not preserve grading. To see this, consider the constant function

$$\varphi(x) = \hat{\boldsymbol{x}} \qquad \text{for all } x.$$

Non-zero constant functions such as φ are even, but $\hat{\boldsymbol{x}}$ is odd in $\bigwedge \mathbb{R}^2$.

Definition 5.1.5 (supercenter)**.** The supercenter of A is the set

$$Z(A) = \left\{ a \in A \,\middle|\, \text{for all } b \in A,\ [a,b] = 0 \right\}.$$

In the theory of unexceptional (=not super) algebra, we have Definition 2.5.1 of an algebra over a ring. This definition generalizes naturally to the case where A and R are super rings:

Definition 5.1.6 (super algebra over a ring)**.** Let R be a supercommutative super ring. An R-super-algebra is a super ring A which is also an R-module (with left multiplication $*\colon R \times A \to A$) such that the multiplication map $\cdot\colon A \times A \to A$ is R-bilinear, i.e.

$$r * (a \cdot b) = (r * a) \cdot b = (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{r}} a \cdot (r * b).$$

Theorem 2.5.1 also generalizes nicely.

Theorem 5.1.1. *Let A, R be unital super rings, R supercommutative, and let $f\colon R \to A$ be a unital super ring homomorphism. Then A naturally has the structure of an R-module. Furthermore, if the image $f(R)$ is in the supercenter of A, then A naturally has the structure of an R-super algebra.*

Proof. The module axioms (Definition 2.4.1) don't involve commutivity, so their verification is trivial as before. We must only check that if $f(R)$ is in the supercenter of A then $*$ is R-bilinear, i.e. that

$$r * (a \cdot b) = f(r) \cdot a \cdot b = (f(r) \cdot a) \cdot b = (r * a) \cdot b,$$

and

$$r * (a \cdot b) = f(r) \cdot a \cdot b = (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\widetilde{f(r)}} a \cdot f(r) \cdot b = (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{r}} a \cdot f(r) \cdot b = (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{r}} (r * b).$$

□

Theorem 5.1.2. *Let R be a supercommutative super ring, $r \in R_1$. Then r is nilpotent (Definition 2.4.3).*

Proof.

$$r^2 = \frac{1}{2}[r,r] = 0.$$

□

We have the following analog to Theorem 2.4.2.

Lemma 5.1.1. *Let B be an associative superring. The supercommutator satisfies the following identities.*

- $[a,b] = -(-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}[b,a]$.
- $[a,[b,c]] + (-1)^{\tilde{a}(\tilde{b}+\tilde{c})}[b,[c,a]] + (-1)^{\tilde{c}(\tilde{a}+\tilde{b})}[c,[a,b]] = 0$

Furthermore, if B is an A-algebra, then the following holds for all $a \in A$, $b, c \in B$.

- $a[b,c] \overset{1}{=} [ab,c] \overset{2}{=} (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}[ba,c] \overset{3}{=} (-1)^{\tilde{a}(\tilde{b}+\tilde{c})}[b,ca] \overset{4}{=} (-1)^{\tilde{a}(\tilde{b}+\tilde{c})}[b,c]a$

Proof.

- $[a,b] = ab - (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}ba = ba(-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}} - \left((-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}\right)^2 ab = (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}\left(ba - (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}ab\right) = (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}[b,a]$
- Nightmarish.

$$\begin{aligned}
[a,[b,c]] &= a(bc - (-1)^{\tilde{b}\cdot\tilde{c}}cb) - (-1)^{\tilde{a}(\tilde{b}+\tilde{c})}(bc - (-1)^{\tilde{b}\cdot\tilde{c}}cb)a \\
[b,[c,a]] &= b(ca - (-1)^{\tilde{c}\cdot\tilde{a}}ac) - (-1)^{\tilde{b}(\tilde{c}+\tilde{a})}(ca - (-1)^{\tilde{c}\cdot\tilde{a}}ac)b \\
[c,[a,b]] &= c(ab - (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}ba) - (-1)^{\tilde{c}(\tilde{a}+\tilde{b})}(ab - (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}ba)c
\end{aligned}$$

  Truly nightmarish.

- My apologies for the formatting.

Equality 1:

$$\begin{aligned}
a[b,c] &= a(bc - (-1)^{\tilde{b}\cdot\tilde{c}}cb) \\
&= abc - (-1)^{\tilde{b}\cdot\tilde{c}}acb \\
&= abc - (-1)^{\tilde{b}\cdot\tilde{c}}(-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{c}}cab \\
&= (ab)c - (-1)^{\tilde{ab}\cdot\tilde{c}}c(ab) \\
&= [ab,c]
\end{aligned}$$

Equality 2:

$$\begin{aligned}
[ab,c] &= (ab)c - (-1)^{\widetilde{ab}\cdot\tilde{c}}c(ab) \\
&= (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}\left((ba)c - (-1)^{\widetilde{ab}\cdot\tilde{c}}c(ba)\right) \\
&= (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}[ba,c]
\end{aligned}$$

Equality 3:

$$\begin{aligned}
(-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}[ba,c] &= (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}\left((ba)c - (-1)^{\tilde{ab}\cdot\tilde{c}}c(ba)\right) \\
&= (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}\left(b(ac) - (-1)^{\tilde{c}(\tilde{a}+\tilde{b})}(-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}(-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{c}}(ac)b\right) \\
&= (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}\left(b(ac) - (-1)^{\tilde{b}(\tilde{a}+\tilde{c})}(ac)b\right) \\
&= (-1)^{\tilde{a}\cdot\tilde{b}}[b,ac]
\end{aligned}$$

Equality 4: Similar.

□

5.2 Supermodules

The definition of a supermodule is very similar to that of a regular module (Definition 2.4.1).

Definition 5.2.1 (supermodule)**.** Let A be an abelian group with a $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ grading, i.e.

$$A = A_0 \oplus A_1.$$

Further, let R be a superring with identity. A (left) supermodule is a triple $(A, R, *)$, with A and R as above and $*$ a function $R \times A \to A$ such that

1. if $r \in R_i$ and $a \in A_j$ then $r * a \in A_{i+j \mod 2}$.
2. $*$ satisfies all the module axioms listed in Definition 2.4.1.

If R is supercommutative and A is a left supermodule, we can make A into a right supermodule or a super bimodule as in Theorem 2.4.1.

Definition 5.2.2 (super bimodule)**.** An abelian group A which is both a left and a right R module is a super bimodule if left and right multiplication obey the compatibility condition

$$ra = (-1)^{\tilde{r}\cdot\tilde{a}} ar \qquad \text{for all } a \in A, \quad r \in R.$$

Lemma 5.2.1. *Let R be a supercommutative superring, A be a left R-module. Then A can naturally be given the structure of a right R-module or a bimodule.*

Proof. Define a right action $ra \equiv (-1)^{\tilde{r}\cdot\tilde{a}} ar$. This makes A into a right R-module, and □

Definition 5.2.3 (superlinear map)**.** Let R be a super ring, A and B be R-supermodules. A map $f\colon A \to B$ is called

5.3 Super vector spaces

Definition 5.3.1 ($\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector space)**.** A $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector space over a field k (for simplicity of characteristic zero) is a $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector space

$$V = V_0 \oplus V_1.$$

As before elements of V_0 are *even*, elements of V_1 are *odd*, and elements of $V_1 \cup V_2 \setminus \{0\}$ are *homogeneous*.

Definition 5.3.2 (dimension of a $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector space)**.** Let

$$V = V_0 \oplus V_1.$$

be a $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector space. The dimension of V is

$$(\dim V_0 | \dim V_1) \in (\mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\})^2.$$

Definition 5.3.3 (finite-dimensional $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector space)**.** We say that a $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector space V is finite dimensional if V_1 and V_2 are.

Definition 5.3.4 ($\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector space morphism)**.** Let V and W be $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector spaces. A morphism from V to W (also called a $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded linear map) is a linear map $V \to W$ which preserves the grading, i.e. which maps $V_0 \to W_0$ and $V_1 \to W_1$.

Definition 5.3.5 (direct sum of $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector spaces)**.** Let V and W be $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector spaces. Their direct sum, denoted $V \oplus W$, is the $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector space with grading

$$(V \oplus W)_i = V_i \oplus W_i, \qquad i = 1, 2.$$

Definition 5.3.6 (tensor product of $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector spaces)**.** Let V and W be $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector spaces. Their tensor product denoted $V \otimes W$, is the tensor product of the underlying ungraded vector spaces, with the grading

$$(V \otimes W)_0 = (V_0 \otimes W_0) \oplus (V_1 \otimes V_1), \qquad (V \otimes W)_1 = (V_0 \otimes W_1) \oplus (V_1 \otimes V_0).$$

5.4 Superalgebras

Definition 5.4.1 (superalgebra)**.** A superalgebra A is a $\mathbb{Z}/2$-graded vector space $A = A_0 \oplus A_1$ together with a bilinear map

$$\cdot \colon A \times A \to A,$$

which respects the grading in the sense that $A_i \cdot A_j \subseteq A_{i+j \mod(2)}$.

Definition 5.4.2 (supercommutative superalgebra)**.** A supercommutative superalgebra is a superalgebra which obeys the Koszul sign rule, i.e. $\widetilde{a \cdot b} = \tilde{a} \cdot \tilde{b}$ for elements a, b of pure degree.

Definition 5.4.3 (superalgebra homomorphism)**.** Let A and B be superalgebras. A superalgebra homomorphism $f\colon A \to B$ is a homomorphism of the underlying algebras which respects the grading. That is,

$$f = f_0 \oplus f_1,$$

where f_0 and f_1 are algebra homomorphisms.

Definition 5.4.4 (parity involution)**.** Let $A = A_0 \oplus A_1$ be a supercommutative superalgebra. Then there is an algebra automorphism $P\colon A \to A$ called the parity involution which acts on elements of pure degree via

$$P(a) = (-1)^{\tilde{a}} a.$$

6 Superalgebra and supergeometry in categories

Until now, we have been defining super-* strucutures haphazardly, imposing the Koszul sign rule by hand as we went. Seemingly miraculously, this worked in the sense that if one added the appropriate sign changes to the definitions, they would turn up in the right places in the theorems. In the first part of this chapter, we will see that the appearance of the Koszul sign rule is much more natural: it is a manifestation of the fact that the supercommutativity is really just a different sort of commutativity, one which shows up naturally in the study of $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector spaces.

We will do this by defining supercommutative structures simply as commutative structures internal to the category of super vector spaces. For example:

- For k a field, a supercommutative k-superalgebra is a commutative monoid internal to SVect_k.
- For A any supercommutative superalgebra (i.e. a commutative monoid internal to SVect_k), a supercommutative A-algebra is an A-module internal to SVect_k.

In the second section, we will apply the machinery of algebraic geometry to our new understanding of supercommutative algebra, and arrive at a natural definition of a superspace.

In the third section, we generalize the ideas of the second section, leading to a definition of a super vector bundle.

For the remainder of this chapter, let $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ be a monoidal category.

6.1 Supercommutativity

The goal of this section is to explain the ubiquity of supercommutativity (i.e. the Koszul sign rule) in the study of $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded spaces. Stated roughly, the reason is this: it is the only possible multiplication law on a $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded algebra which knows about the grading. That is to say, the only other possible multiplication law (up to an appropriate sort of isomorphism) on a $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded algebra is the trivial one, which is equivalent to treating the vector space as ungraded.

Of course, this doesn't explain why we should care about $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector spaces in the first place. Their importance to theoretical physics is partially explained by Deligne's theorem, which is the topic of these notes.

6.1.1 The category SVect_k

Definition 6.1.1 (category of $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector spaces)**.** The category of $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector spaces, i.e. the category whose objects are $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector spaces (Definition 5.3.1) and whose morphisms are $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector space morphisms, is notated $\mathsf{Vect}_k^{\mathbb{Z}_2}$.

Note 6.1.1. We call this category the category of $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded vector spaces rather than the category of super vector spaces because we will reserve the latter name for the category with the appropriate symmetric monoidal structure, i.e. that which yields the Koszul sign rule. We will explore this structure now.

Lemma 6.1.1. *The $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded tensor product (Definition 5.3.6) can be extended to a bifunctor*

$$\otimes \colon \mathsf{Vect}_k^{\mathbb{Z}_2} \times \mathsf{Vect}_k^{\mathbb{Z}_2} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Vect}_k^{\mathbb{Z}_2}.$$

Proof. The behavior of the $\mathbb{Z}_2$ tensor product on objects and morphisms is inherited from the ungraded tensor product. It is not hard to check that the tensor product of two $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded linear maps defined in this way is $\mathbb{Z}_2$-graded. $\square$

Theorem 6.1.1. *There are only two inequivalent choices for a symmetric braiding γ (Definition 3.10.9) on $\mathsf{Vect}_k^{\mathbb{Z}_2}$ (that is to say, up to a categorical equivalence Definition 3.3.7 whose functors are braided monoidal (Definition 3.10.8)), with components*

$$\gamma_{V,W} \colon V \otimes W \to W \otimes V :$$

1. *The* trivial braiding*, which acts on representing tuples (Definition 2.6.3) by*

$$\gamma_{V,W} \colon (v, w) \mapsto (w, v)$$

2. *The* super braiding*, which acts on representing tuples of pure degree by*

$$\gamma_{V,W} \colon (v, w) \mapsto (-1)^{\tilde{v} \cdot \tilde{w}} (w, v).$$

Proof. See [11], Proposition 3.15. $\square$

Definition 6.1.2 (category of super vector spaces)**.** The category of super vector spaces, denoted SVect_k, is the category $\mathsf{Vect}_k^{\mathbb{Z}_2}$ together with the super braiding γ.

Lemma 6.1.2. *The evident forgetful functor*

$$\mathcal{U} \colon \mathsf{SVect}_k \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Vect}_k$$

is strong monoidal (Definition 3.10.5).

Proof. We need to find a natural isomorphism Φ with components

$$\Phi_{X,Y} \colon \mathcal{U}(X) \otimes \mathcal{U}(Y) \to \mathcal{U}(X \otimes Y)$$

and an isomorphism

$$\varphi \colon 1_{\mathsf{Vect}_k} \to \mathcal{U}(\mathsf{SVect}_k)$$

which make some diagrams commute.

But the tensor product on SVect_k is inherited from that on Vect_k, so we can take $\Phi_{X,Y}$ to be the identity transformation for all X and Y, and since the field k is the identity object in both categories, we can take $\varphi = 1_k$.

The necessary diagrams in Definition 3.10.5 commute trivially with these definitions. $\square$

Lemma 6.1.3. *The canonical inclusion $\mathcal{I} \colon \mathsf{Vect}_k \hookrightarrow \mathsf{SVect}_k$, which sends a k-vector space V to the super vector space with grading $V \oplus 0$ extends to a strong braided monoidal functor Definition 3.10.8.*

Proof. First, we need to show that $\mathcal{U}$ is strong monoidal, i.e. that there is a natural isomorphism with components

$$\Phi_{U,V} \colon (V \otimes W) \oplus 0 \to (V \oplus 0) \otimes (W \oplus 0).$$

Finding the correct isomorphism is trivial, as is showing that the appropriate diagram commutes.

Then we need to find a morphism $\varphi \colon 1 \to 1 \oplus 0$. Again, the obvious choice is the correct one.

Then we need to show that some diagrams commute. With the choices made above, there is basically nothing to check. $\square$

6.1.2 Commutative monoids

Definition 6.1.3 (internal monoid)**.** Let C be a monoidal category (Definition 3.10.1) with monoidal structure $(\otimes, 1, \alpha, \lambda, \rho)$. A monoid internal to C is

1. an object $A \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$,
2. a morphism $e\colon 1 \to A$, called the unit, and
3. a morphism $\mu\colon A \otimes A \to A$, called the product,

such that the following diagrams commute.

1. Associativity

$$\begin{tikzcd}
(A \otimes A) \otimes A \arrow[rr, "\alpha"] \arrow[d, "\mu"'] & & A \otimes (A \otimes A) \arrow[d, "\mu"] \\
A \otimes A \arrow[dr, "\mu"'] & & A \otimes A \arrow[dl, "\mu"] \\
& A &
\end{tikzcd}$$

2. Unitality

$$\begin{tikzcd}
1 \otimes A \arrow[r, "e"] \arrow[dr, "\lambda"'] & A \otimes A \arrow[d, "\mu"] & A \otimes 1 \arrow[l, "e"'] \arrow[dl, "\rho"] \\
& A &
\end{tikzcd}$$

Moreover, if C is a symmetric monoidal category with symmetric braiding γ, then the monoid (A, e, μ) is called commutative if the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
A \otimes A \arrow[rr, "\gamma_{A,A}"] \arrow[dr, "\mu"'] & & A \otimes A \arrow[dl, "\mu"] \\
& A &
\end{tikzcd}$$

Example 6.1.1. Let $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ be a monoidal category. The tensor unit 1 is a monoid internal to C, with product $\lambda_1\colon 1 \otimes 1 \to 1$ and unit $\mathrm{id}_1\colon 1 \to 1$.

We could equally use ρ instead of λ by Lemma 3.10.2.

Definition 6.1.4 (morphism of monoids)**.** A homomorphism of monoids $(A_1, \mu_1, e_1) \to (A_2, \mu_2, e_2)$ is a morphism $f\colon A_1 \to A_2$ such that the following diagrams commute.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
A_1 \otimes A_1 \arrow[r, "f \otimes f"] \arrow[d, "\mu_1"'] & A_2 \otimes A_2 \arrow[d, "\mu_2"] \\
A_1 \arrow[r, "f"] & A_2
\end{tikzcd}$$

$$\begin{tikzcd}
1 \arrow[r, "e_1"] \arrow[dr, "e_2"'] & A_1 \arrow[d, "f"] \\
& A_2
\end{tikzcd}$$

Definition 6.1.5 (category of monoids)**.** Let $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ be a monoidal category. Denote by $\mathsf{Mon}(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ the category of monoids in C, i.e. the category whose objects are monoids of C and whose morphism are homomorphisms.

Denote by $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ the full subcategory of $\mathsf{Mon}(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ whose objects are commutative monoids.

Lemma 6.1.4. *For any monoidal category* $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$*, the category* $\mathsf{Mon}(\mathsf{C})$ *has as its initial object the tensor unit* 1.

Proof. By definition, we have for any module object $A \in \mathsf{Mon}(\mathsf{C})$ a morphism

$$e\colon 1 \to A.$$

This is a module homomorphism by

and it is therefore unique since any other module morphism $\varphi\colon 1 \to A$ would have to make the following diagram commute, forcing $\varphi = e$.

$$\begin{tikzcd} 1 \arrow[r, "\sim"] \arrow[dr, "e"'] & 1 \arrow[d, "\varphi"] \\ & A \end{tikzcd}$$

This is exactly the property which defines initial objects. □

Corollary 6.1.1. *For any symmetric monoidal category* $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$*, the category* $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathsf{C})$ *has initial object* 1.

Lemma 6.1.5. *Let* $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes_{\mathsf{C}}, 1_{\mathsf{C}})$ *and* $(\mathsf{D}, \otimes_{\mathsf{D}}, 1_{\mathsf{D}})$ *be monoidal categories, and let* $(\mathcal{F}, \Phi, \varphi)$ *be a lax monoidal functor* $\mathsf{C} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{D}$ *(Definition 3.10.5). Then for any monoid* (A, μ_A, e_A) *in* C*, its image* $\mathcal{F}(A)$ *in* D *can be made a monoid by setting*

$$\mu_{\mathcal{F}(A)}\colon\ \mathcal{F}(A) \otimes_{\mathsf{D}} \mathcal{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\Phi_{A,A}} \mathcal{F}(A \otimes_{\mathsf{C}} A) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\mu_A)} \mathcal{F}(A)\ ,$$

and

$$e_{\mathcal{F}(A)}\colon\ 1_{\mathscr{D}} \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathcal{F}(1_{\mathsf{C}}) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(e_A)} \mathcal{F}(A)\ ,$$

where φ *is again the structure morphism of* $\mathcal{F}$*. This construction extends to a functor*

$$\mathsf{Mon}(\mathcal{F})\colon \mathsf{Mon}(\mathsf{C}, \otimes_{\mathsf{C}}, 1_{\mathsf{C}}) \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{Mon}(\mathsf{D}, \otimes_{\mathsf{D}}, 1_{\mathsf{D}}).$$

Furthermore, if C *and* D *are symmetric monoidal categories,* $\mathcal{F}$ *is a braided monoidal functor, and* A *is a commutative monoid, then so is* $\mathcal{F}(A)$*, and this construction extends to a functor*

$$\mathsf{CMon}(\mathcal{F})\colon \mathsf{CMon}(\mathsf{C}, \otimes_{\mathsf{C}}, 1_{\mathsf{C}}) \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{CMon}(\mathsf{D}, \otimes_{\mathsf{D}}, 1_{\mathsf{D}}).$$

Proof. All of these are easy to see but hard to write down. The diagrams end up too big to fit comfortably on one page. □

Definition 6.1.6 (tensor product of commutative monoids)**.** Let $(\mathsf{C}, \otimes, 1)$ be a symmetric monoidal category and (E_1, μ_1, e_1) and (E_2, μ_2, e_2) monoids internal to C. Then we can construct a new monoid internal to C, the tensor product of E_1 and E_2 with

1. The object given by $E_1 \otimes E_2$
2. The multiplication map

$$\mu_{E_1 \otimes E_2}\colon (E_1 \otimes E_2) \otimes (E_1 \otimes E_2) \to (E_1 \otimes E_2)$$

   given by (notationally suppressing the obvious identities and associators)

$$E_1 \otimes E_2 \otimes E_1 \otimes E_2 \xrightarrow{\quad\gamma\quad} E_1 \otimes E_1 \otimes E_2 \otimes E_2 \xrightarrow{\quad\mu_1 \otimes \mu_2\quad} E_1 \otimes E_2$$

3. and the unit map $e_{E_1 \otimes E_2}$ given by

$$1 \xrightarrow{\lambda_1^{-1}} 1 \otimes 1 \xrightarrow{e_1 \otimes e_2} E_1 \otimes E_2$$

It is easy to show that these maps make the necessary diagrams commute.

Theorem 6.1.2. *Let* C *be a symmetric monoidal category. The category* $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathsf{C})$ *has coproducts, given by the tensor product of monoids.*

Proof. The canonical injections are given by

$$\iota_1 = e_1 \circ \rho_{E_1}^{-1}, \qquad \text{and} \quad \iota_2 = \lambda_{E_2}^{-1} \circ e_2.$$

It remains to check that for any commutative monoid R and monoid homomorphisms $f_i \colon E_i \to R$, there exists a unique map $f \colon E_1 \otimes E_2 \to R$ making the following diagram commute.

$$\begin{tikzcd} A_1 \arrow[r, "e_2\circ\rho_{E_1}^{-1}"] \arrow[dr, "f_1"'] & A_1 \otimes A_2 \arrow[d, "\exists! f"] & A_2 \arrow[l, "\lambda_{E_2}^{-1}\circ e_1"'] \arrow[dl, "f_2"] \\ & R & \end{tikzcd}$$

The map f is given by the composition $m_R \circ f_1 \otimes f_2$. ☐

Corollary 6.1.2. *For any symmetric monoidal category* C*, the category* $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathsf{C})^{\mathrm{op}}$ *has finite products.*

6.1.3 Algebras

Definition 6.1.7 (commutative (super)algebra)**.** Let $\mathscr{A}$ be either Vect_k or SVect_k. A commutative $\mathscr{A}$-algebra is a commutative monoid internal to $\mathscr{A}$. The category of commutative $\mathscr{A}$-algebras is $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A})$.

If $\mathscr{A} = \mathsf{Vect}_k$, we call the objects of $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A})$ commutative algebras. If $\mathscr{A} = \mathsf{SVect}_k$, we call them supercommutative superalgebras.

That is to say, an algebra is a triple (A, ∇, η) which makes the following diagrams commute.

$$\begin{tikzcd} A \otimes A \otimes A \arrow[r, "A\otimes\nabla"] \arrow[d, "\nabla\otimes A"'] & A \otimes A \arrow[d, "\nabla"] \\ A \otimes A \arrow[r, "\nabla"] & A \end{tikzcd}$$

Note 6.1.2. Although *supercommutative superalgebra* is the most precise name, it sounds a bit silly so we often call simply *supercommutative algebras.*

Example 6.1.2. Let us see that a monoid internal to Vect_k really is an associative k-algebra with unity.

Let (A, μ, e) be a monoid internal to Vect_k. We need to find a product $\cdot \colon A \times A \to A$ and a unit element $1 \in A$; show that the product is bilinear and associative; and that the unit behaves like a unit.

We have a linear map $\mu \colon V \otimes V \to V$, which gives us a bilinear map $V \times V \to V$ by pre-composition with the tensor product functor:

$$V \times V \xrightarrow{\otimes} V \otimes V \xrightarrow{\mu} V \ ; \qquad (v, v') \mapsto v \cdot v' \mu(v \otimes v') \equiv v \cdot v'.$$

It's associative since the associativity diagram says that

$$(v_1 \cdot v_2) \cdot v_3 = \mu((v_1 \otimes v_2) \otimes v_3) = \mu(v_1 \otimes (v_2 \otimes v_3)) = v_1 \cdot (v_2 \cdot v_3).$$

For the unit, we take the image of the unit in $1 = k$ under the map e; call it $1_V = e(1_k)$. To see that this behaves like a unit, we let it act on $v \in V$:

$$1 \cdot v = \mu(1 \otimes v).$$

However, the unitality diagram says that this has to equal $\lambda \colon 1 \otimes V \to V$, and we know how that behaves from Example 3.10.2: it sends $r \otimes v \mapsto rv$. With $r = 1$, it just sends $1 \otimes v \mapsto v$ as we'd like.

The story for multiplication on the right is identical, but with ρ instead of λ.

Now, let A be a unital, associative k-algebra. We need to show that A is a monoid internal to Vect_k. The map $A \otimes A \to A$ is exactly that guaranteed by the universal property of the tensor product; the map e sends $r \in k$ to $r \cdot 1_A \in A$. It is easy to show that the appropriate diagrams commute.

Example 6.1.3. A commutative monoid internal to Vect_k is exactly a commutative, associative k-algebra with unity.

Example 6.1.4. A supercommutative superalgebra (Definition 5.4.2) is nothing else but a commutative monoid in the symmetric monoidal category SVect_k.

Let $V = V_0 \oplus V_1$ be a super vector space. We define, as in Example 6.1.2, a bilinear map $V \times V \to V$ by pre-composing μ with the tensor product on SVect_k:

$$\cdot\colon (v, v') \mapsto \mu(v \otimes v').$$

The product as defined here inherits the correct grading from the graded tensor product. The unit element is the image of the unit in k under e, and the verification that this behaves correctly is identical to that in Example 6.1.2.

All that remains is the verification of the Koszul sign rule: we must have the multiplication law

$$v_1 \cdot v_2 = (-1)^{\tilde{v_1}\cdot\tilde{v_2}} v_2 \cdot v_1.$$

But we do by the following:

$$\begin{aligned} v_1 \cdot v_2 &= \mu(v_1 \otimes v_2) \\ &= \mu(\gamma_{V,V}(v_1 \otimes v_2)) && \left(\substack{\text{by the commutativity diagram} \\ \text{in Definition 6.1.3}}\right) \\ &= \mu((-1)^{\tilde{v_1}\cdot\tilde{v_2}} v_2 \otimes v_1) \\ &= (-1)^{\tilde{v_1}\cdot\tilde{v_2}} \mu(v_2 \otimes v_1) \\ &= (-1)^{\tilde{v_1}\cdot\tilde{v_2}} v_2 \cdot v_1. \end{aligned}$$

Example 6.1.5. For a super vector space concentrated in even degree, i.e. of the form $V \oplus 0$, a supercommutative superalgebra is just a commutative algebra.

The above example is a reflection of the following.

Theorem 6.1.3. *There is a full subcategory inclusion*

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathsf{Alg}_k \arrow[r, hook, "\iota"] \arrow[d, equal] & \mathsf{SAlg}_k \arrow[d, equal] \\ \mathsf{CMon}(\mathsf{Vect}_k) \arrow[r, hook, "\iota"] & \mathsf{CMon}(\mathsf{SVect}_k) \end{tikzcd}$$

of commutative algebras into supercommutative algebras induced via Lemma 6.1.5 by the full inclusion $\mathcal{I}\colon \mathsf{Vect}_k \hookrightarrow \mathsf{SVect}_k$ (which is a strong braided monoidal functor by Lemma 6.1.3). The image of a commutative algebra A under ι is the supercommutative algebra $A \oplus 0$, and the image of a morphism $f\colon A \to B$ is the morphism $f \oplus 0\colon A \oplus 0 \to B \oplus 0$.

Proof. To show that ι is a full subcategory inclusion, we need to show that it is fully faithful (Definition 3.2.2), i.e. that for all commutative k-algebras A and B, every morphism $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{SAlg}_k}(\iota(A), \iota(B))$ can be written as the image $\iota(\tilde{f})$ of some morphism $\tilde{f} \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathsf{Alg}_k}(A, B)$, and the morphism $\tilde{f}$ is unique.

Any such morphism f is direct sum $f_0 \oplus f_1$, where $f_0\colon A_0 \to B_0$ and $f_1\colon A_1 \to B_1$. Every supercommutative superalgebra in the image of ι is of the form $A \oplus 0$, so $f_0\colon A \to B$ and $f_1\colon 0 \to 0$. Thus f can be written $\iota(f_0)$, where f_0 is clearly unique. ∎

6.2 Supervarieties

This section expands on ideas taken from [41].

The objects central to our interests will be so-called *algebraic super-groups*. These are a generalization of the notion of an *algebraic group*, which is, roughly speaking, a group object in the category of algebraic varieties.

First, we must generalize the notion of an algebraic variety. Recall Definition 4.1.3: an algebraic variety is a surface cut out as the zero set of a set of polynomials.

6.2.1 Varieties as formal duals to algebras

Let k be an algebraically closed field of characteristic zero and let

$$S \subseteq k[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$$

be a set of polynomials. For any k-algebra R, we can define the *zero set* of S over R as follows:

$$Z_R(S) = \left\{ (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \in R^n \,\middle|\, f(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in S \right\}.$$

We can see that algebraic varieties over R are precisely sets of the type $Z_R(S)$.

This is a perfectly good definition of an algebraic variety, but it is poorly suited to the task at hand. In this section we will find a better one. First, we must make a few observations.

- Clearly, if $\mathfrak{a} = (S)$ is the ideal generated by S, then $Z_R(S) = Z_R(\mathfrak{a})$ for any k-algebra R.
- Any homomorphism of k-algebras $\varphi\colon R \to R'$ induces a map $Z_R(\mathfrak{a}) \to Z_{R'}(\mathfrak{a})$. Therefore, any ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ defines a functor
$$\mathcal{V}_{\mathfrak{a}}\colon k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg} \to \mathsf{Set}; \qquad R \mapsto Z_R(\mathfrak{a})$$
which takes a k-algebra to its zero set.

Theorem 6.2.1. *Let $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq k[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ be an ideal, let*

$$A = k[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]/\mathfrak{a}.$$

The functor $\mathcal{V}_{\mathfrak{a}}\colon R \mapsto Z_R(\mathfrak{a})$ is representable (Definition 3.7.3). It is represented by the k-algebra

$$A = k[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]/\mathfrak{a}.$$

Proof. We need to show that $\mathcal{V}_{\mathfrak{a}}$ is naturally isomorphic to the functor

$$h^A\colon R \mapsto \mathrm{Hom}_{k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}}(A, R),$$

i.e. that there is a bijection

$$\Phi_R\colon \mathrm{Hom}_{k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}}(A, R) \to Z_R(\mathfrak{a})$$

which is natural in R.

We define Φ_R as follows. Let $\eta \in \mathrm{Hom}_{k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}}(A, R)$. Then η extends uniquely to a k-algebra homomorphism

$$\bar{\eta}\colon k[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \to R$$

which vanishes on $\mathfrak{a}$. That is, we have the following commutative diagram.

$$\begin{tikzcd} k[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \arrow[d, two heads, "\pi"'] \arrow[dr, "\bar{\eta}"] & \\ A \arrow[r, "\eta"] & R \end{tikzcd}$$

We then define

$$\Phi_R\colon \eta \mapsto (\bar{\eta}(x_1), \bar{\eta}(x_2), \dots, \bar{\eta}(x_n)).$$

To simplify notation, let $\bar{\eta}(x_i) = a_i$.

Of course, a priori the codomain of Φ_R is just R^n. Our first job is to show that our map is well-defined, i.e. that for any $f \in \mathfrak{a}$, $f(a_1, a_2, \dots a_n) = 0$.

Any $f \in k[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ can be written

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum c_D x_1^{d_1} \cdots x_n^{d_n},$$

where D is a multi-index. Now,

$$\begin{aligned}
\bar{\eta}(f(x_1, \dots, x_n)) &= \bar{\eta}\left(\sum c_D x_1^{d_1} \cdots x_n^{d_n}\right) \\
&= \sum c_D \bar{\eta}(x_1)^{d_1} \cdots \bar{\eta}(x_n)^{d_n} && \text{(since } \bar{\eta} \text{ is a homomorphism)} \\
&= \sum c_D a_1^{d_1} \cdots a_i^{d_n} \\
&= f(a_1, \dots, a_n).
\end{aligned}$$

But since the above diagram commutes, $\bar{\eta}(f) = \eta(\pi(f)) = \eta(0) = 0$, since $\eta \in \mathfrak{a}$.

We still must show that Φ_R is bijective. It is clearly injective since any homomorphism

$$k[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \to R$$

is completely determined by how it behaves on the x_i, and the homomorphism $\bar{\eta}$ is uniquely determined by η. It is surjective since any tuple $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ is the image of the unique homomorphism which sends $x_i \mapsto a_i$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

It remains only to show that Φ_R is natural, which can be seen from the commutativity of the following diagram (with $\varphi\colon R \to R'$ a homomorphism).

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathrm{Hom}_{k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}}(A, R) \arrow[rr, "\varphi\circ(-)"] \arrow[dd, "\Phi_R"'] & & \mathrm{Hom}_{k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}}(A, R') \arrow[dd, "\Phi_{R'}"] \\
\eta \arrow[r, mapsto] \arrow[d, mapsto] & \varphi \circ \eta \arrow[d, mapsto] & \\
(\bar{\eta}(x_1), \dots, \bar{\eta}(x_n)) \arrow[r, mapsto] & ((\phi \circ \bar{\eta})(x_1), \dots, (\phi \circ \bar{\eta})(x_n)) & \\
Z_R(\mathfrak{a}) \arrow[rr, "\mathcal{V}_{\mathfrak{a}}(\varphi)"] & & Z_{R'}(\mathfrak{a})
\end{tikzcd}$$

□

The meaning of the above theorem is that we can study the variety cut out by the zeroes of the ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ in R^n by studying the hom-set $\mathrm{Hom}_{k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}}(A = k[x_i]/\mathfrak{a}, R)$. There is a lot of benefit to this new perspective: we have studied hom functors in some detail, and we can apply results about them to the study of varieties.

However, we can take this abstraction further. Since by definition any variety over R is the zero-set $Z_R(\mathfrak{a})$ of some ideal $\mathfrak{a}$, we can view the study of varieties over R as equivalent to the study of those functors $k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg} \to \mathsf{Set}$ which are represented by some finitely-presented k-algebra $A = k[x_i]/\mathfrak{a}$. The image of R under such a functor would be of the form $\mathrm{Hom}_{k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}}(A, R)$, hence naturally isomorphic to $Z_R(\mathfrak{a})$.

This new perspective allows us to make a new definition, which will be more useful to us.

Definition 6.2.1 (affine (algebraic) variety 2)**.** An affine variety is a representable functor $k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg} \to \mathsf{Set}$. An affine variety is algebraic if it is represented by a finitely presented k-algebra.

The category of affine algebraic varieties is thus given by the category of functors $k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg} \to \mathsf{Set}$ which are representable by a finitely presented k-algebra.

By the covariant Yoneda lemma (see Note 3.7.3), the category of functors $k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg} \to \mathsf{Set}$ is equivalent to the opposite of the category of k-algebras, and the subcategory of such functors which are represented by a finitely presented k-algebra is equivalent to the opposite of the category of finitely presented k-algebras. This gives us the following equivalent definition.

Definition 6.2.2 (affine (algebraic) variety 3)**.** An affine variety is the 'formal dual' of a k-algebra; that is, it is an object in the category $k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}^{\mathrm{op}}$. An affine variety is algebraic if it is dual to a finitely presented k-algebra.

By the 'formal dual' of a finitely-presented k-algebra A, we mean that given a finitly-presented k-algebra, we can always use the following recipe to end up with an algebraic variety.

1. We start with a finitely-presented k-algebra A, which by definition can always be expressed as a quotient $k[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]/\mathfrak{a}$ for some ideal $\mathfrak{a}$.
2. We dualize, viewing A as an object in the opposite category $k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}^{\mathrm{op}}$.
3. We apply the covariant Yoneda embedding to get the functor

$$h^A = \mathrm{Hom}_{k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}}(A, -) \colon k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg} \to \mathsf{Set}.$$

   By the covariant Yoneda lemma, the assignment $A \mapsto h^A$ is an equivalence of categories.
4. Evaluating this functor on any k-algebra R yields the set $\mathrm{Hom}_{k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}}(A, R)$. For each $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}}(A, R)$, the images $a_i = f(x_i)$ of the generators x_i give a point $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \in R^n$ which lies on the variety in question.

Note 6.2.1. The condition of finite presentability is necessary from a geometric point of view to preserve the interpretation of h^A as being the functor which assigns to a group 'R-points', i.e. its points in affine R-space $\mathbb{A}^n_R$. However, as long as we vow to view these algebras only algebraically, we can just as easily work with algebras that are not finitely presented. It is still possible to view these algebras as formal duals to geometrical structures, namely schemes.

6.2.2 Supervarieties

The generality introduced in the last section allows us to give a slick definition of a supervariety.

Definition 6.2.3 (affine supervariety). A affine supervariety is equivalently defined by

- A representable functor $\mathsf{SAlg}_k \to \mathsf{Set}$;
- a supercommutative superalgebra. That is, an object in the category SAlg_k.

These notions are dual to each other in that there is a contravariant equivalence of categories between them, since by the Yoneda lemma the category of representable functors $\mathsf{SAlg}_k \to \mathsf{Set}$ is equivalent to $\mathsf{SAlg}_k^{\mathrm{op}}$.

If we are given a supervariety in the form of a functor $G \colon \mathsf{SAlg}_k \to \mathsf{Set}$, we call the associated superalgebra $\mathscr{O}(G)$. If we are given a supercommutative superalgebra A, we call the associated functor $\mathrm{Spec}(A)$. Both of these are simply different notations for the opposite functor.

Since we will be dealing only with affine supervarieties, we will often refer to them as simply supervarieties.

Note that we do not give any definition of an affine algebraic supervariety. The reason for this is that the motivation for the definition of an affine algebraic variety is purely geometrical, and imagining supervarieties as embedded in $\mathbb{A}^n_A$ for A a supercommutative algebra turns out not to be the correct approach. For the correct geometric interpretation of supervarieties, one needs to the theory of super schemes, which are beyond the scope of these notes. For us, it will suffice to consider supervarieties purely algebraically.

6.3 Supergroups as supercommutative Hopf algebras

We have seen that a (super)variety A can be viewed as the formal dual of (super)commutative algebra $\mathscr{O}(A)$. We will soon define affine (super)groups to be (super)varieties which are also groups, i.e. group objects (A, m, e) in the category of affine (super)varieties. This extra structure on A will correspond to extra structure on the algebra $\mathscr{O}(A)$ to which it is formally dual, giving it the structure of a *Hopf algebra*.

6.3.1 Coalgebras

Coalgebras are dual to algebras. In other words, to get the definition of a coalgebra, we take the definition of an algebra and turn the arrows around. More formally, we have the following.

Definition 6.3.1 (coalgebra)**.** Let $\mathscr{A}$ be either Vect_k or SVect_k An $\mathscr{A}$-coalgebra is dual to a monoid internal to $\mathscr{A}^{\mathrm{op}}$. Thus the category of coalgebras is

$$\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A}^{\mathrm{op}})^{\mathrm{op}}.$$

That is, a coalgebra is a triple (C, Δ, ε) where

- $C \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$;
- $\Delta\colon C \to C \times C$; and
- $\varepsilon\colon C \to k$;

which make the following diagrams commute.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
C \arrow[r, "\Delta"] \arrow[d, "\Delta"'] & C \otimes C \arrow[d, "C\otimes\Delta"] \\
C \otimes C \arrow[r, "\Delta\otimes C"'] & C \otimes C \otimes C
\end{tikzcd}$$

$$\begin{tikzcd}
C \arrow[rr, bend left, "C"] \arrow[dr, "\Delta"'] & & C \\
& C \otimes C \arrow[ur, shift left, "C\otimes\varepsilon"] \arrow[ur, shift right, "\varepsilon\otimes C"'] &
\end{tikzcd}$$

A homomorphism of coalgebras $(C, \Delta_C, \varepsilon_C) \to (D, \Delta_D, \varepsilon_D)$ is a morphism $f \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathscr{A}}(C, D)$ which makes the following diagram commute.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
C \otimes C \arrow[r, "f\otimes f"] & D \otimes D \\
C \arrow[u, "\Delta_C"] \arrow[r, "f"] & D \arrow[u, "\Delta_D"']
\end{tikzcd}$$

6.3.2 Bialgebras

Definition 6.3.2 (bialgebra)**.** A $\mathscr{A}$-bialgebra is a monoid internal to $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A})^{\mathrm{op}}$.

Lemma 6.3.1. *Equivalently, it is a quintuple $(A, \nabla, \eta, \Delta, \varepsilon)$, where (A, ∇, η) is an algebra and (A, Δ, ε) is a coalgebra.*

6.3.3 (Super)commutative Hopf algebras

Definition 6.3.3 ((super)commutative Hopf algebra)**.** Let $\mathscr{A} = \mathsf{Vect}_k$ or SVect_k. A commutative $\mathscr{A}$-Hopf algebra is the formal dual to a group object in the category $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A})^{\mathrm{op}}$.

If $\mathscr{A} = \mathsf{Vect}_k$, then we call the objects of $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A})^{\mathrm{op}}$ commutative Hopf algebras. If $\mathscr{A} = \mathsf{SVect}_k$, we call them supercommutative Hopf algebras.

Note 6.3.1. By Corollary 6.1.2, the product $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A})^{\mathrm{op}}$ always has products, and by Lemma 6.1.4 it has terminal objects. This means that it makes sense to talk about group objects.

What exactly is the dual to a group object in $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A})^{\mathrm{op}}$? First, let's answer the question: what is a group object in $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A})^{\mathrm{op}}$. Then we can dualize.

A group object in the category $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A})^{\mathrm{op}}$ consists of object $\mathrm{Spec}(H) \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A})^{\mathrm{op}})$, together with the following.

- A *multiplication* map $\mu\colon \mathrm{Spec}(H) \times \mathrm{Spec}(H) \to \mathrm{Spec}(H)$;
- An *identity* map $\iota\colon \mathrm{Spec}(*) \to \mathrm{Spec}(H)$, where $*$ is the terminal object in $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A})$;

- An *inverse* map $i\colon \mathrm{Spec}(H) \to \mathrm{Spec}(H)$.

We can organize this information like so.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
\mathrm{Spec}(H) \times \mathrm{Spec}(H) \arrow[d, "\mu"] \\
\mathrm{Spec}(H) \arrow[loop right, "i"] \\
\mathrm{Spec}(*) \arrow[u, "\iota"]
\end{tikzcd}$$

The commutative monoid H itself comes with some structure. In particular, it has its own unit map $\eta\colon * \to H$, and its own multiplication $\nabla\colon H \otimes H \to H$. We can write this like.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
H \otimes H \arrow[d, "\nabla"] \\
H \\
* \arrow[u, "\eta"]
\end{tikzcd}$$

We can take the information from the first diagram and put it on the second as long as we dualize. Remember: by Theorem 6.1.2, $\mathrm{Spec}(H) \times \mathrm{Spec}(H) = \mathrm{Spec}(H \otimes H)$.

$$\begin{tikzcd}
H \otimes H \arrow[d, bend left, "\nabla"] \\
H \arrow[u, bend left, "\Delta"] \arrow[loop right, "S"] \arrow[d, bend right, "\varepsilon"'] \\
* \arrow[u, bend right, "\eta"']
\end{tikzcd}$$

6.3.4 What does this have to do with algebraic super groups?

Definition 6.3.4 (affine (super)group)**.** An affine $\mathscr{A}$-group is an affine (super)variety that is also a group, i.e. a group object in the category of representable functors $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A}) \to \mathsf{Set}$.

By the Yoneda lemma, we could equivalently say that an affine super group G is a group internal to the category $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A})^{\mathrm{op}}$. In particular it is a monoid internal to $\mathsf{CMon}(\mathscr{A})^{\mathrm{op}}$ if we forget about the inverse-assigning morphism S, and hence a dual to a coalgbra.

This means that $\mathscr{O}(G)$ is both an algebra $(\mathscr{O}(G), \nabla, \eta)$ and a bialgebra $(\mathscr{O}(G), \Delta, \varepsilon)$. But we can say more.

Note 6.3.2. We could equivalently define an affine (super)group as the formal dual of a (super)commutative Hopf algebra.

If we are given an affine (super)group in the form of a functor G, we write $\mathscr{O}(G)$ for the corresponding Hopf algebra. If we are given a Hopf algebra H, write $\mathrm{Spec}(H)$ for the corresponding functor.

Example 6.3.1. The prototypical example of an affine group is SL_n. Here we will explain how SL_n is a commutative Hopf algebra.

As we have seen (Example 3.2.2), GL_n is a functor $\mathsf{CRing} \to \mathsf{Grp}$. The same is certainly true of SL_n, which will be more convenient to study.

We can also view SL_n as a functor to Set by composing it with the forgetful functor $\mathsf{Grp} \to \mathsf{Set}$. Since all k-algebras are in particular commutative rings, we can also view SL_n as a functor $k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg} \to \mathsf{Set}$. This is the viewpoint we will take from now on.

For each commutative algebra R, the group structure on $\mathrm{SL}_n(R)$ gives us the following.

- Matrix multiplication on $\mathrm{SL}_n(R)$ gives us a natural transformation
$$m\colon \mathrm{SL}_n \times \mathrm{SL}_n \to \mathrm{SL}_n.$$
- We get a natural transformation $e\colon \mathcal{T}_e \to \mathrm{SL}_n$, where $\mathcal{T}_e\colon k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg} \to \mathsf{Grp}$ is the constant functor which sends everything to the trivial group. This picks out the identity element of SL_n.
- We get a natural transformation $i\colon \mathrm{SL}_n \to \mathrm{SL}_n$ which sends matrices to their inverses.

These natural transformations make SL_n a group object (Definition 3.14.1) in the functor category (Definition 3.3.5) $\mathsf{Func}(k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}, \mathsf{Set})$.

Thanks to the proof of Theorem 6.2.1, it is hopefully no surprise that the functor SL_n is represented by the k-algebra
$$A = k[X_{11}, X_{12}, \dots, X_{nn}]/(\det(X_{ij}) - 1).$$

That is, there is a natural isomorphism
$$\mathrm{SL}_n \simeq \mathrm{Hom}_{k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}}(A, -) = h^A.$$

By the Yoneda lemma, we can learn everything we need to know about h^A by studying its opposite object under the embedding $h^A \mapsto A$, where A is viewed as an object in the opposite category $\mathsf{Alg}_k = \mathsf{CMon}(\mathsf{Vect}_k)$. In particular:

- The identity $e\colon h^* \to h^A$ is the image of a map $\varepsilon\colon A \to *$, where $* = k$ is the initial object in the category $k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}$.
- The inverse $i\colon h^A \to h^A$ is the image of a map $S\colon A \to A$
- By combining Theorem 6.1.2 and the coproduct section of Example 3.7.1, $h^A \times h^A \simeq h^{A\otimes A}$. Therefore the multiplication m can be viewed as a natural transformation $h^{A\otimes A} \to h^A$, and its counterpart on $k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg}$ is a map $A \to A \otimes A$, which we'll call Δ.

Now let's consider how these behave on elements. First, we need some notation. Let
$$\pi\colon k[X_{11}, X_{12}, \dots, X_{nn}] \to k[X_{11}, X_{12}, \dots, X_{nn}]/(\det(X_{ij}) - 1)$$
be the canonical projection, and let $x_{ij} = \pi(X_{ij})$.

- The counit ε maps
$$x_{ij} \mapsto \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}.$$
- The map $S\colon A \to A$ sends each x_{ij} to the (i, j)th element in the formal inverse matrix $(x_{ij})^{-1}$.
- The map $\Delta\colon A \mapsto A \otimes A$ maps
$$x_{ij} \mapsto \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_{ik} \otimes x_{kj}.$$

The algebraic group SL_n is easier than GL_n because its defining equation, $\det(X_{ij}) = 1$, defines it in terms of the zeroes of a polynomial. We can treat the case $G = \mathrm{GL}_n$ in a similar way; we just have to be a bit tricky.

Example 6.3.2. We now show that GL_n is an algebraic group. Unfortunately, the set
$$\left\{(x_{11}, x_{12} \dots, x_{nn}) \in R^n \,\middle|\, \det(x_{ij}) \neq 0\right\}$$
is not given by the zeroes of any sets of polynomials, so we cannot mimic exactly the construction of SL_n. We have to be tricky.

The trick is to add an extra coordinate and then ignore it. Define
$$A = k[X_{11}, X_{12}, \dots, X_{nn}, Y]/(\det(X_{ij}) \cdot Y - 1),$$
let π be the canonical projection as before, and let
$$x_{ij} = \pi(X_{ij}), \qquad y = \pi(Y).$$

Then GL_n, as a functor $k\text{-}\mathsf{Alg} \to \mathsf{Set}$, is represented by A. We have the same maps as before, but this time slightly extended:

- The counit ε maps
$$x_{ij} \mapsto \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}, \qquad \text{and} \quad y \mapsto 1.$$
- The map $S\colon A \to A$ sends each x_{ij} to $y \cdot (x)^{-1}_{ij}$ (where $(x)^{-1}_{ij}$ is the (i,j)th element of the formal 'inverse matrix' to x_{ij}), and y to 1.
- The map $\Delta\colon A \mapsto A \otimes A$ maps
$$x_{ij} \mapsto \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_{ik} \otimes x_{kj}, \qquad \text{and} \quad y \mapsto y \otimes y.$$

Definition 6.3.5 (inner parity)**.** Let G be an affine algebraic supergroup. An inner parity on G is an superalgebra homomorphism $\varepsilon^*\colon \mathscr{O}(G) \to k$ such that

- the result of the composition
$$\mathscr{O}(G) \xrightarrow{\Psi} \mathscr{O}(G) \otimes \mathscr{O}(G) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon^* \otimes \varepsilon^*} k \otimes k \simeq k\ ,$$
agrees with the counit $\varepsilon\colon \mathscr{O}(G) \to k$. Morally, this means that it behaves like the multiplication by ± 1; this will become clear when we study the representation theory of affine algebraic supergroups.
- The result of the composition
$$\mathscr{O}(G) \xrightarrow{(\mathrm{id} \otimes \Psi) \circ \Psi} \mathscr{O}(G) \otimes \mathscr{O}(G) \otimes \mathscr{O}(G) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon^* \otimes \mathrm{id} \otimes (c \circ \varepsilon^*)} k \otimes \mathscr{O}(G) \otimes k$$
is equal to the parity involution (Definition 5.4.4).

6.4 Modules and comodules in symmetric monoidal categories

For the remainder of this section, $\mathscr{A}$ will stand for either Vect_k or SVect_k.

6.4.1 Modules

Due to time constraints, most of the proofs in this section are omitted. Hopefully this is not a permanent situation.

Note 6.4.1. It appears that the material in this chapter is necessary for understanding the proof of Deligne's theorem, but not its statement. It will almost certainly not make it into the project.

Definition 6.4.1 (module object)**.** Let (A, μ, e) a monoid internal to $\mathscr{A}$. A [left] module object in $\mathscr{A}$ over A is

1. An object $N \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathscr{A})$ and
2. A morphism $\rho\colon A \otimes N \to N$ (called the *action*)

such that the following diagrams commute.

1. (unitality)
$$\begin{tikzcd} 1 \otimes N \arrow[r, "e \otimes 1_N"] \arrow[dr, "\lambda_N"'] & A \otimes N \arrow[d, "\rho"] \\ & N \end{tikzcd}$$
2. (action property)
$$\begin{tikzcd} A \otimes A \otimes N \arrow[r, "A \otimes \rho"] \arrow[d, "\mu \otimes N"'] & A \otimes N \arrow[d, "\rho"] \\ A \otimes N \arrow[r, "\rho"] & N \end{tikzcd}$$

Definition 6.4.2 (homomorphism of module objects)**.** A homomorphism of [left] A-module objects (N_1, ρ_1), (N_2, ρ_2) is a morphism

$$f\colon N_1 \to N_2$$

such that the diagram

$$\begin{tikzcd} A \otimes N_1 \arrow[r, "1_A \otimes f"] \arrow[d, "\rho_1"'] & A \otimes N_2 \arrow[d, "\rho_2"] \\ N_1 \arrow[r, "f"'] & N_2 \end{tikzcd}$$

commutes.

Definition 6.4.3 (category of internal A-modules)**.** Let $(\mathscr{A}, \otimes, 1)$ be a symmetric monoidal category. Write $A\text{-}\mathsf{Mod}(\mathscr{A})$ for the category whose objects are A-modules internal to $\mathscr{A}$ and whose morphisms are homomorphisms of module objects.

The subscript will often be dropped if the category we're talking about is obvious.

Example 6.4.1. As we saw in Example 6.1.1, we can view the tensor unit $1 \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathscr{A})$ as a monoid internal to $\mathscr{A}$. Then for every object $C \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathscr{A})$, the left unitor $\lambda_C\colon 1 \otimes C \to C$ makes C into a a left module.

This holds for any $C \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathscr{A})$, and in fact gives an equivalence of categories

$$\mathscr{A} \simeq 1\text{-}\mathsf{Mod}(\mathscr{A}).$$

Example 6.4.2. Any monoid (A, μ, e) is a left-module over itself with $\rho = \mu$.

Example 6.4.3. Let $C \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathscr{A})$ and (A, μ, e) a monoid internal to $\mathscr{A}$. Then $A \otimes C$ has a natural left-module structure with

$$\rho\colon A \otimes (A \otimes C) \to A \otimes C$$

given by the composition.

$$A \otimes (A \otimes C) \xrightarrow{\alpha^{-1}_{A,A,C}} (A \otimes A) \otimes C \xrightarrow{\rho \otimes 1_C} A \otimes C \ .$$

Modules of this form are called <u>free modules</u> because the the functor

$$\mathcal{F}_A\colon \mathscr{A} \to A\text{-}\mathsf{Mod}(\mathscr{A}); \qquad C \mapsto (C \otimes A, \rho)$$

which sends an object to its free A-module is left-adjoint to the functor

$$\mathcal{U}\colon A\text{-}\mathsf{Mod}(\mathscr{A}) \to \mathscr{A}; \qquad (N, \rho) \mapsto N.$$

To see this,

Definition 6.4.4 (tensor product of module objects)**.** For any commutative monoid (A, μ, e) and two left A-module objects (N_1, ρ_1) and (N_2, ρ_2), the <u>tensor product of module objects</u>, denoted $N_1 \otimes_A N_2$, is the coequalizer

$$\begin{tikzcd} N_1 \otimes A \otimes N_2 \arrow[r, shift left, "1_{N_1} \otimes \rho_2"] \arrow[r, shift right, "\rho_1 \circ (\gamma_{N_1, A} \otimes N_2)"'] & N_1 \otimes N_2 \arrow[r, "\mathrm{coeq}"] & N_1 \otimes_A N_2 \end{tikzcd}$$

That is to say, roughly speaking, it is the quotient of $N_1 \otimes A \otimes N_2$ by the smallest equivalence relation so that left-multiplication agrees with right-multiplication.

Definition 6.4.5 (function module)**.** For (N_1, ρ_1) and (N_2, ρ_2) two A-modules internal to a closed symmetric $\mathscr{A}$, the <u>function module</u> $\hom_A(N_1, N_1)$ is, as an object, the equalizer

$$\begin{tikzcd} \hom_A(N_1, N_2) \arrow[r, "\mathrm{equ}"] & {[N_1, N_2]_{\mathscr{A}}} \arrow[rr, "{[\rho_1, 1_{N_2}]_{\mathscr{A}}}"] \arrow[dr, "A \otimes (-)"'] & & {[A \otimes N_1, N_2]_{\mathscr{A}}} \\ & & {[A \otimes N_1, A \otimes N_2]_{\mathscr{A}}} \arrow[ur, "{[1_{A \otimes N_1}, \rho_2]_{\mathscr{A}}}"'] & \end{tikzcd} ,$$

where $[-,-]_{\mathscr{A}}$ denotes the hom functor internal to $\mathscr{A}$, and $A \otimes (-)$ is the natural transformation from Lemma 3.11.2.

The left action $A \otimes \hom_A(N_1, N_2) \to \hom_A(N_1, N_2)$ is given by

Theorem 6.4.1. *Let (A, μ, e) be a commutative monoid internal to $\mathscr{A}$. Then if $\mathscr{A}$ has all coequalizers, the category A-$\mathsf{Mod}(\mathscr{A})$ of A-modules internal to $\mathscr{A}$ becomes a symmetric monoidal category with*

- *The tensor product $\otimes$ given by $\otimes_A$ (see Definition 6.4.4).*
- *The tensor unit 1 given by A, with the A-module structure as in Example 6.4.2.*

Additionally, if all equalizers exist the $\mathscr{A}$ is a closed monoidal category, with the function module $\hom_A$ *from Definition 6.4.5 acting as the internal hom.*

Proof. See [11], Proposition 3.65. □

6.4.2 Comodules

Definition 6.4.6 (comodule object)**.** Let (A, m, e) be an $\mathscr{A}$-coalgebra.

An A-comodule is a pair (V, ρ), where $V \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathscr{A})$ and

$$\rho\colon V \to A \otimes V$$

is a morphism which makes the following diagrams commute.

$$\begin{tikzcd} V \arrow[r, "\rho"] & V \otimes A \arrow[r, shift left, "V\otimes\rho"] \arrow[r, shift right, "\Delta\otimes A"'] & V \otimes V \otimes A \end{tikzcd}$$

$$\begin{tikzcd} V \arrow[r, "\rho"'] \arrow[rr, bend left, "V"] & V \otimes A \arrow[r, "V\otimes\varepsilon"'] & V \end{tikzcd}$$

Definition 6.4.7 (comodule homomorphism)**.** Let V and V' be A-comodule objects. A A-comodule homomorphism $\varphi\colon V \to V'$ is a homomorphism of commutative monoids which makes the following diagram commute.

$$\begin{tikzcd} V \arrow[r, "\varphi"] \arrow[d, "\rho"'] & V' \arrow[d, "\rho'"] \\ V \otimes A \arrow[r, "\varphi\otimes A"] & V' \otimes A \end{tikzcd}$$

Definition 6.4.8 (category of comodules)**.** Denote by A-Comod the category whose objects are comodules over A (Definition 6.4.6) and whose morphisms are comodule homomorphisms (Definition 6.4.7).

Definition 6.4.9 (tensor product of comodules)**.** Let A be a commutative Hopf algebra (Definition 6.3.3) over k, and let V and V' be A-comodules (Definition 6.4.6).

The comodule tensor product is the object $V \otimes V'$ together with the coaction $V \otimes V' \to A \otimes V \otimes V'$ given by the composition

$$V \otimes V' \xrightarrow{\rho\otimes\rho'} A \otimes V \otimes A \otimes V' \xrightarrow{\gamma} A \otimes A \otimes V \otimes V' \xrightarrow{\nabla} A \otimes V \otimes V' .$$

6.5 Linear representations as Comodules

Definition 6.5.1 (representation of a group)**.** Let G be an algebraic group, and let $H = \mathscr{O}(G)$ be its commutative Hopf algebra. A representation of G on $V \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{Vect}_k)$ is a natural transformation $r\colon G \to \mathrm{Aut}_{(-)\text{-}\mathsf{Mod}}(V \otimes -)$, where for any k-algebra R, $V \otimes R$ has the module structure from Example 6.4.3.

A representation is called finite dimensional if V is finite-dimensional.

That is, for every commutative k-algebra R, it is a group homomorphism $G(R) \to \mathrm{Aut}_{R\text{-}\mathsf{Mod}}(V \otimes R)$ which makes the naturality square commute.

Definition 6.5.2 (homomorphism of representations)**.** Let (V, r) and (V', r') be representations of G on

Theorem 6.5.1. *Let G be an affine algebraic group. There is a bijection between*

- *The set of of representations of G, i.e. the set of natural transformations*

$$G \to \mathrm{Aut}_{(-)\text{-}\mathsf{Mod}}(V \otimes -)$$

- *The set of $\mathscr{O}(G)$-comodules*

Example 6.5.1. Let $G = \mathrm{SL}_n$. Then its associated Hopf algebra is

$$\mathscr{O}(\mathrm{SL}_n) = A = k[X_{11}, X_{12}, \ldots, X_{nn}]/(\det(X_{ij}) - 1),$$

with the Hopf algebra structure investigated in Example 6.3.1.

According to Definition 6.5.1, a representation of SL_n is a natural transformation $r\colon \mathrm{SL}_n \to \mathrm{Aut}_{(-)\text{-}\mathsf{Mod}}(V \otimes -)$. That is, it is for each commutative k-algebra R a group homomorphism

$$r_R\colon \mathrm{SL}(R) \to \mathrm{Aut}_{R\text{-}\mathsf{Mod}_k}(V \otimes R)$$

which makes the naturality square commute.

6.6 Super fiber functors and their automorphism groups

We would like to view tensor categories $\mathscr{A}$ as categories of representations. Thus, we would like to be able to view the objects of $\mathscr{A}$ as being the objects of some other category $\mathscr{V}$, plus some extra structure. The extra structure should be extra in the sense that it is forgettable, so there should be a forgetful functor

$$\omega\colon \mathscr{A} \to \mathscr{V}.$$

For example, the category $\mathsf{FinRep}_k(G) = \mathsf{Func}(\mathbf{B}G, \mathsf{FinVect}_k)$ of finite-dimensional k-linear representations of G has as its objects pairs (ρ, V), where V is a vector space and ρ is a homomorphism $G \to \mathrm{Aut}(V)$. There is an obvious forgetful functor $\mathsf{FinRep}_k(G) \to \mathsf{FinVect}_k$ which sends $(\rho, V) \to V$. Note that this functor is not 'maximally forgetful' in the sense that it retains some of its structure. Thus it is wise to demand that such a functor ω retain a reasonable amount of structure. In our case, it should be a tensor functor (Definition 3.13.5).

Definition 6.6.1 (fiber functor)**.** Let $\mathscr{A}$ and $\mathscr{T}$ be two k-tensor categories. Suppose that both $\mathscr{A}$ and $\mathscr{T}$ satisfy the following criteria.

1. All objects are of finite length.
2. All of the hom-spaces are finite-dimensional as k-vector spaces.

Let $R \in \mathsf{CMon}(\mathsf{Ind}(\mathscr{T}))$, where $\mathsf{Ind}(\mathscr{T})$ is the *category of inductive objects over $\mathscr{T}$*, see Definition 3.8.19.

A tensor functor (Definition 3.13.5)

$$\omega\colon \mathscr{A} \to R\text{-}\mathsf{Mod}(\mathsf{Ind}(\mathscr{T}))$$

is called a fiber functor on $\mathscr{A}$ over R.

Definition 6.6.2 (super fiber functor, neutral super tannakian category)**.** A fiber functor over $\mathscr{T} = \mathsf{FinSVect}$ is called a super fiber functor. A tensor category $\mathscr{A}$ which admits a super fiber functor is called a neutral super tannakian category.

Note that in this case a fiber functor over $\mathsf{FinSVect}_k$ is a fiber functor to

$$\mathsf{CMon}(\mathsf{Ind}(\mathsf{FinSVect}_k)) = \mathsf{CMon}(\mathsf{SVect}_k).$$

6.7 Super-exterior powers and Schur functors

One of the core ideas of category theory is that the intrinsic structure of an object can often be best understood by studying its relationships to other objects. For V a vector space, one defines its dimension $\dim(V)$ as the cardinality of any linearly independent spanning subset of V. When moving to the category

Vect_k, one does not have the option of defining things in terms of elements. However, there is an alternate way of defining $\dim(V)$ which does not reference the elements: it is the smallest natural number n such

$$\bigwedge^n V = 0.$$

This definition is very appealing because the notion of an exterior product makes sense in any tensor category.

Definition 6.7.1 (exterior power)**.** Let $(\mathscr{A}, \otimes, 1)$ be a k-tensor category with braiding γ. Let $X \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathscr{A})$. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we can use γ to build an action of S_n on $X^{\otimes n}$ (by Mac Lane's coherence theorem, the specifics of how we do this don't matter).

We define an antisymmetrization map $A\colon X^{\otimes n} \to X^{\otimes n}$ by

$$A_n = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \mathrm{sgn}(\sigma)\sigma.$$

The nth exterior power of X, denoted $\bigwedge^n X$, is then defined to be the cokernel (Definition 3.8.12) of A_n.

However, this notion is not general enough to completely capture the dimension in a tensor category. Suppose that $\mathscr{A} = \mathsf{SFinVect}_k$, and X is a super vector space concentrated in odd degree. Then the action of σ on X comes alrcady with a factor of $\mathrm{sgn}(\sigma)$ from the super braiding, and A_n reduces to the symmetrization of $X^{\otimes n}$, which never vanishes. What is needed is an operation which is general enough to include both symmetrization and antisymmetrization.

The correct generalization turns out to be that of a *Schur functor*. But before we define Schur functors, we need to recall some representation theory.

6.7.1 Interlude: representations of the symmetric group

Much of this section is from [43].

Let G be a group. We say that two elements g and g' are *conjugate* if there exists $h \in G$ such that $g' = hgh^{-1}$. Conjugacy is an equivalence relation, and partitions a group into *conjugacy classes*.

The conjugacy classes of S_n are in one-to-one correspondence with partitions of n, notated by so-called *Young tableaux*.

Definition 6.7.2 (partition)**.** Denote by λ is a sequence of integers $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_s > 0$. For simplicity, we will define $\lambda_r = 0$ for $r > s$. We denote

$$|\lambda| = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \lambda_r,$$

and say that λ is a partition of $|\lambda|$.

The importance of the conjugacy classes is that they correspond precisely to irreducible representations of S_n. Thus for any partition λ of n we have an irreducible representation ρ_λ of S_n on a vector space V_λ.

Definition 6.7.3 (Schur functor)**.** Any

7 Deligne's theorem on tensor categories

Deligne's theorem tells us that every k-tensor category, for k an algebraically closed field of characteristic zero, is the category of representations of some algebraic super group.

The following statement of Deligne's theorem was taken, mutatis mutandis, from [11].

Theorem 7.0.1 (Deligne's theorem on tensor categories)**.** *Let $\mathscr{A}$ be a k-tensor category (Definition 3.13.1) such that*

1. *k is an algebraically closed field of characteristic zero, and*
2. *$\mathscr{A}$ is of subexponential growth (Definition 3.13.4).*

Then $\mathscr{A}$ is a neutral super Tannakian category (REF), and there exists

1. *an affine algebraic supergroup G (REF) whose algebra of functions $\mathscr{O}(G)$ is a finitely-generated k-algebra, and*
2. *a tensor equivalence of categories*

$$\mathscr{A} \simeq \mathsf{Rep}(G, \varepsilon)$$

between $\mathscr{A}$ and the category of representations of G of finite-dimension, according to REF.

Deligne's proof of Theorem 7.0.1 ([30]) can be broken down into the following steps.

1. First, he shows that in any k-tensor category $\mathscr{A}$, an object X is of subexponential growth if and only if there is a Schur functor that annihilates it.
2. Then, he shows that if every object of $\mathscr{A}$ is annihilated by some Schur functor, then $\mathscr{A}$ admits a super fiber functor over some over some supercommutative superalgebra R, so every object of $\mathscr{A}$ has underlying it a super vector space with some extra structure.
3. Finally, he shows that every k-tensor category which admits such a fiber functor

$$\omega\colon \mathscr{A} \to \mathsf{SVect}_k$$

is equivalent to the category of representations of the automorphism supergroup of ω.

8 Relevance to physics

8.1 Symmetries in quantum mechanics

Quantum mechanics is usually introduced

- in the non-relativistic arena, and
- in the Schrödinger picture.

This can obscure the vital importance that symmetries play in quantum mechanics. In the next section, we give an example of the standard treatment of symmetry.

8.1.1 Symmetries in the Schrödinger picture

Note 8.1.1. This section isn't really written in the right tone. I'll go back and remove some of the more opinionated sentences.

Consider the non-relativistic free particle in one dimension. For simplicity we set $\hbar = 1$ and consider our particle to have mass 1. Our Hilbert space is $\mathscr{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R})$, and the Hamiltonian is

$$H = -\frac{1}{2}\frac{d^2}{dx^2}.$$

According to the standard treatment, a symmetry is given by an operator on $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ which commutes with the Hamiltonian. Taking this definition, the free particle propagating in one-dimensional has two important classes of symmetries.

1. Translation symmetry, i.e. for each $a \in \mathbb{R}$ an operator
$$M_a \colon \psi(x) \mapsto \psi(x+a).$$
2. Parity symmetry, i.e. an operator
$$P \colon \psi(x) \mapsto \psi(-x).$$

These symmetries are both derived from the symmetries of the underlying space $\mathbb{R}$: the isometry group of $\mathbb{R}$ is generated by translations and parity transformations.

However, in a sense we are missing some symmetries. We are describing a non-relativistic quantum particle. Recall that even in non-relativistic mechanics one can introduce spacetime, and the symmetries of our theory should include those of the underlying spacetime. The symmetries of the non-relativistic $(1+1)$-dimensional spacetime underlying our example are given by the $(1+1)$-dimensional Galilean group. These include the translation and parity symmetries that we have seen, but also three more classes of symmetries:

1. Galilean boosts, i.e. for each $v \in \mathbb{R}$ an operator
$$B_v \colon \psi(x,t) \mapsto \psi(x+vt,t);$$
2. Time inversion, i.e. an operator
$$T \colon \psi(x,t) \mapsto \psi(x,-t);$$
3. Time translation, i.e. for each $s \in \mathbb{R}$ an operator
$$U_s \colon \psi(x,t) \mapsto \psi(x,t+s).$$

Note that the first two of these are not symmetries in the traditional sense; Galilean boosts and time inversion do not commute with the Hamiltonian. However, these are certainly *are* symmetries of non-relativistic mechanics, so they should be symmetries of non-relativistic quantum mechanics. The third is a symmetry in the traditional sense, but is not just any old symmetry; it is exactly the evolution defined by the Schrödinger equation.

The lack of these symmetries stems from a conceptually ugliness in the Schrödinger picture: one is implicitly forced to choose a preferred frame of reference. This is convenient for calculations, but in general masks symmetries of the underlying theory which do not leave the frame fixed.

By considering the symmetries of spacetime to be fundamental, one avoids the conceptually rather ugly step of choosing a reference frame. Moreover, with the above expanded notion of symmetry we do not need to take the Schrödinger equation as an axiom: the existence of time evolution is taken care of by the time translation operators guaranteed us by postulating Galilean symmetry. We will see how this works in more detail in the next section.

8.1.2 Quantum mechanics and symmetries

As we saw in the last section, the postulate that the state vector ψ evolves via the Schrödinger equation is superfluous if we use the correct notion of symmetry. This suggests that we can do away with the postulate that our system evolves in time via the Schrödinger equation if we think about a quantum theory as being defined by its symmetries.

Thus, we should think of a quantum system as consisting of the following.

1. A separable complex Hilbert space $\mathscr{H}$ in which our state vectors live.
2. A collection of operators which implement symmetry transformations.

Note that standard quantum mechanics, the Hilbert space is infinite-dimensional. In this case we do not even really have to think of the Hilbert space as included in the data, since there is only one infinite-dimensional separable Hilbert space up to isomorphism.

We are being intentionally vague about what sort of operators are allowed, and what sort of symmetry transformations we want to include. This is a complicated question to which we hope to present a partial answer. However, we will mention the most common way of specifying such a collection of symmetry transformations.

Example 8.1.1. Suppose we decide that we want to study a quantum mechanical system which is invariant under some group G of symmetries. Imagine fixing some state ψ. Each element $g \in G$ will map ψ to some other state $\psi' = \hat{g}\psi$; in our example, the time translation U_s maps $\psi(t)$ to $\psi(t+s)$. Furthermore, we want the states $\hat{g}\psi$ to obey the reasonable condition that

$$h(g\psi) = (hg)\psi.$$

This means that the action of G on $\mathscr{H}$ is given by a representation

$$\rho\colon G \to \operatorname{Aut}(\mathscr{H}); \qquad g \mapsto \hat{g}.$$

If one further assumes

1. that G is a simply connected Lie group; and
2. that the representation of G is unitary (which is sensible because then its action will preserve probability) and strongly continuous (i.e. that $\lim_{g\to g_0} \hat{g} = \hat{g}_0$)

then Stone's theorem implies that we can choose a representation of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ of G and express any $\hat{g}$ as the exponential of a Lie algebra element

$$\hat{g} = e^{iX}$$

where X is self-adjoint.

In particular, we can parametrize the operators representing any one-dimensional subgroup $\{g(t)\}_{t\in\mathbb{R}}$ as

$$\hat{g}(t) = e^{-iXt}.$$

In our example, $\hat{g}(t) = U(t)$, and we can write

$$U(t) = e^{-iHt}$$

for some self-adjoint operator H. Letting this operator act on a state ψ and differentiating with respect to t, we find

$$i\frac{d}{dt}\psi = H\psi,$$

which is precisely the Schrodinger equation.

However, we have have exchanged one conceptual difficulty for a far greater one: we no longer have any idea what it means for an operator to be a symmetry. Before we had a concrete definition, if a defective one: a symmetry was an operator which commuted with the Hamiltonian. Now that we have demoted the Hamiltonian, we will need some way of distinguishing bona fide symmetries from other operators.

We propose the following radical definition: the operators which represent symmetries are those which commute with all the other operators one considers. Or rather, the only other operators one is allowed to consider are those that commute with the symmetry operators. Note that this is a restriction not of the symmetry operators themselves, but the other operators in the theory.

This is a rather draconian definition, but it has a nice interpretation: we wish to consider only quantum systems which are *defined* by their symmetries. That is, we view our quantum system as completely determined by the symmetry transformations, and the only other operators we allow are those which do not interfere with them in precisely the sense that they commute.

This excludes a great deal of physically interesting quantum mechanical systems from the discussion: for example, the only symmetries of the simple harmonic oscillator in one dimension are time translation and parity, so one would not be justified in talking about the position operator. In practice, when dealing with the harmonic oscillator, we borrow operators from the free theory which has full Galilean invariance. This is all very well, but if we view symmetries as fundamental we should have no qualms about excluding such systems.

We can formalize this in a definition.

Definition 8.1.1 (symmetric quantum system)**.** A symmetric quantum system consists of

- A separable Hilbert space $\mathscr{H}$.
- A set $\mathcal{S}$ of operators on $\mathscr{H}$ which one views as implementing symmetries.

The only other operators one is allowed to talk about are those which commute with every operator in $\mathcal{S}$.

So far we have made no mention of the form that the symmetry operators take: they are just some operators. Now we need to make some assumptions.

- First, we make a *huge* simplifying assumption: we restrict our attention to finite-dimensional quantum systems, i.e. quantum systems whose underlying Hilbert space is finite-dimensional.
- Next, we demand that there should be some notion of two systems having the 'same' underlying symmetry. The trivial quantum system with underlying Hilbert space $\mathscr{H} = \mathbb{C}$ and only the identity as a symmetry operator should be viewed as trivially possessing every symmetry.

  Another way of saying this is that we want to be able to consider all quantum systems with a given symmetry. We make the technical assumption that these fit in a set.
- We demand that given two quantum systems with a given symmetry, we can create the composite system, and that the composite system will share the symmetry of its component systems.
  - As with regular old quantum mechanics, the Hilbert space underlying the composite system is given by the tensor product of the Hilbert spaces of the component systems.
  - We further require that each symmetry operator of the composite system be expressible as the tensor product of a symmetry operator from each system.
- We can swap the order in which we consider taking the composite system. Note that we do *not* assume that this is given by the standard braiding of the tensor product which sends $v \otimes w \mapsto w \otimes v$; we allow for more general notions of swapping.

- However, we demand that if we swap our systems twice, we get back the system we started with. [1]
- Lastly, we demand that for any symmetric quantum system $\mathscr{H}$ with symmetry operators $\{O_i\}$, the dual space $\mathscr{H}^*$ with symmetry operators $\{O_i^*\}$ is also a symmetric quantum space.

Now let us consider a fixed type of symmetry and consider the collection of all finite-dimensional quantum systems carrying this symmetry. We can consider maps between these quantum systems

Under these conditions, we have constructed a category whose objects are symmetric quantum spaces and whose morphisms are intertwiners. Deligne's theorem tells us that this category is equivalent to the category $\mathsf{Rep}(G)$ for some affine algebraic super group G. That is, the symmetry operators have to form a representation of some affine algebraic super group.

8.2 Practicalities of supergeometry

8.2.1 The super Lie algebra of an algebraic super-group

8.2.2 Super Harish-Chandra pairs

8.3 Wigner's classification of fundamental particle species

This section follows [26] closely. Some stuff was taken from [27].

The axioms of quantum mechanics tell us that the states of a quantum system correspond to vectors ψ belonging to some separable Hilbert space $\mathscr{H}$. However, this is not the end of the story. The observable quantities built from the states, i.e. the conditional probabilities

$$P(\varphi|\psi) = \frac{|\langle\varphi|\psi\rangle|^2}{\|\varphi\|^2 \cdot \|\psi\|^2}$$

are invariant under a rescaling of either φ or ψ by any nonzero complex number: that is,

$$\psi \sim \psi' \qquad \text{if} \qquad \psi' = \lambda\psi \qquad \text{for some } \lambda \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\},$$

where $\sim$ should be read as 'is physically indistinguishable from.'

One often 'fixes' this problem by working only with normalized state vectors, but this does not completely solve the problem. Instead we should think about two states which differ only by a nonzero complex factor as being physically equivalent. That is, the true space of states of our quantum system is not $\mathscr{H}$, but $\mathscr{H}/\sim$, *projective Hilbert space.* Physically inequivalent quantum states are in one-to-one correspondence to the equivalence classes in $\mathscr{H}/\sim$.

Now suppose we want our quantum theory to have Poincaré symmetry. For us, the Poincaré group will mean the proper orthochromous Poincaré group. Its elements are ordered pairs (a, Λ), with $a \in \mathbb{R}^4$ and $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}_+^\uparrow$.

Pick any ray $[\psi_0] \in \mathscr{H}/\sim$. For any Poincaré transformation $g \in \mathcal{P}$, there should be another state (i.e. ray) $[\psi]_g$, which corresponds to the result of acting on the system with g. Furthermore, we want the result of acting on $[\psi_0]$ with a sequence of Poincaré transformations to be the same no matter how we imagine them to be bracketed. Mathematically, this means that if we are to consider a quantum theory which is Poincaré-invariant, we want a Hilbert space $\mathscr{H}$ which admits an injective homomorphism

$$\rho\colon \mathbb{R}^4 \rtimes \mathcal{L}_+^\uparrow \hookrightarrow \mathrm{Aut}(\mathscr{H}/\sim).$$

Of course, having such a ρ is nice, but quantum mechanics does not deal with projective spaces and ray transformations. If we are to use these results as-is, we need to translate them to results about $\mathscr{H}$ itself.

Pick one specific element $g \in \mathcal{P}$. To this element there is associated a bijective ray map on $\mathscr{H}$. Obviously, we can mimic this bijective ray map with a function $\bar{U}\colon \mathscr{H} \to \mathscr{H}$; we need only ensure that the vectors making up individual rays are mapped to the correct target rays. Equally obviously however, this does

[1] It is not entirely clear that this assumption is justified; 2-d QFTs can exhibit braid group symmetry.

not specify $\bar{U}(g)$ uniquely; there are many possible ways of mixing the vectors composing the rays. We have some freedom to choose this mixing in as nice as possible a way.

By a theorem of Wigner, we can get away with demanding that $\bar{U}(g)$ be additive, length-preserving, and either

- linear and unitary or
- antilinear and antiunitary.

In doing so, we specify $\bar{U}(g)$ up to an arbitrary phase.

But we have many $\bar{U}(g)$—one for each Poincaré transformation. The arbitrarity in the phases translates to a change in representation law for multiplication of the $\bar{U}(g)$; we now have

$$\bar{U}(g)\bar{U}(g') = \eta(g, g')\bar{U}(gg')$$

where the phases η are arbitrary.

Recall that we have restricted our attention to the component of $\mathcal{P}$ connected to the identity, the *proper orthochronous Poincaré group* $\mathcal{P}_+^\uparrow$. In this setting, we can use the fact that on a connected Lie group, every element has a square root, so

$$\bar{U}(g) = \eta(g', g')(\bar{U}(g'))^2 \qquad \text{for some } g' \in \mathcal{P}.$$

But even if $\bar{U}(g')$ is antilinear and antiunitary, its square will be linear and unitary. Since this is true for any g, we must have that for all $g \in \mathcal{P}_+^\uparrow$, $\bar{U}(g)$ is linear and unitary.

In fact, we can do even more. By another theorem of Wigner, we can use the phase factor η to replace our unitary ray representation of $\mathcal{P}_+^\uparrow$ by a bona fide unitary representation of the universal covering group $\overline{\mathcal{P}_+^\uparrow}$. To save on symbols, we'll call this $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}}$.

The moral of the story so far: the Hilbert space of any quantum mechanical theory which is invariant under the proper orthochronous Poincaré group must admit a representation of the covering group of the proper orthochronous Poincaré group, $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}}$.

Denote the representation of (a, α) by $U(a, \alpha)$.

Consider some vector in $\mathbb{R}^4$, say

$$\hat{e}_0 = (1, 0, 0, 0).$$

The one-dimensional subspace of $\mathbb{R}^4$ generated by $\hat{e}_0$ is a one-dimensional Lie subgroup of $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}}$, so by Stone's theorem, we can write its action on $\mathscr{H}$ as follows:

$$U(\hat{e}_0 t, I) = e^{iP_0 t}, \qquad P_0 = -i\frac{d}{dt}\bigg|_{t=0} U(\hat{e}_0 t, I).$$

For each of the other canonical basis vectors $\hat{e}_i$ we get similar P_i. Since $\mathbb{R}^4$ is abelian, these commute, so by the BCH formula,

$$U(a^\mu \hat{e}_\mu, I) = e^{iP_\mu a^\mu}.$$

Each of the P_μ are Hermitian, and they commute. Thus, they have a common eigenbasis. A priori, all we know is that their spectrum must inhabit some subspace $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^4$. For each spectral component $p_\mu \in S$, we have an associated degeneracy space $\mathscr{H}_p \subseteq \mathscr{H}$, and if we wave our hands a bit, we can decompose $\mathscr{H}$ into these subspaces.

$$\mathscr{H} = \bigoplus_{p \in S} \mathscr{H}_p$$

That is to say, for any $\psi \in \mathscr{H}_p$, we have $P_\mu \psi = p_\mu \psi$.

Under the action of $\alpha \in \mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} P_\mu \mapsto P'_\mu = U^{-1}(\alpha, 0) P_\mu U(\alpha, 0) &= U^{-1}(\alpha, 0) \left[-i\frac{d}{dt}\bigg|_{t=0} U(I, \hat{e}_\mu t)\right] U(\alpha, 0) \\ &= -i\frac{d}{dt}\bigg|_{t=0} U^{-1}(\alpha, 0) U(I, \hat{e}_\mu t) U(\alpha, 0) = -i\frac{d}{dt}\bigg|_{t=0} U\left(I, \Lambda^{-1}(\alpha)\hat{e}_\mu t\right) = \Lambda^{-1}(\alpha)_\mu^\nu P_\nu. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, if p_μ is in S, so must be the entire orbit of p_μ under the Lorentz group, i.e. the invariant hyperboloid on which p_μ lives. Furthermore, these orbits are never mixed by the action of $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}}$.

Perhaps now is a good time to make the following remark. Henceforth, everything we have said applies to *any* quantum system which admits a Poincaré symmetry. As is well know, if we wish to view two quantum systems with Hilbert spaces $\mathscr{H}_1$ and $\mathscr{H}_2$ as a single composite system, the Hilbert space we consider is $\mathscr{H}_1 \otimes \mathscr{H}_2$. That is to say, composite systems are the tensor product of their constituents. And the composite system's representation of $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}}$ is given by the tensor product of the representations of its constituents.

This would seem to imply that given a Poincaré-invariant quantum system and its associated representation of $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}}$, we could break it and its representation down into smaller and smaller subsystems, until we hit 'atomic' subsystems whose representations were irreducible, i.e. could not be broken down any further. The resulting atomic representations would be the building blocks of our original system.

But we can pull this trick with *any* system! This means that cataloging the irreducible representations of $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}}$ will give us a list of the building blocks of any Poincaré-invariant system—the fundamental particles.

Now let us concentrate on our previous analysis again. Recall: the orbit of any point p_μ in the spectrum of P_μ is the invariant hyperboloid on which p_μ lives. Different hyperboloids are not mixed by $U(a, \alpha)$. Thus, the spectrum of an *irreducible representation* must be concentrated on one hyperboloid, or else the Hilbert space could be decomposed into invariant subspaces. This gives us our first breakdown of the irreducible representations of $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}}$. The following table was taken, mutatis mutandis, from [26].

class	orbit			
m_+	Hyperboloid in forward cone;	$p^2 = m^2$	and	$p_0 > 0$.
0_+	Surface of forward cone;	$p^2 = 0$	and	$p_0 \geq 0$.
0_0	The single point $p_\mu = 0$.			
κ	Space-like hyperboloid;	$p^2 = -\kappa^2$	(κ real).	
m_-	Hyperboloid in backward cone;	$p^2 = m^2$	and	$p_0 < 0$.
0_-	Surface of backward cone;	$p^2 = 0$	and	$p_0 \leq 0$.

Only the first two of these are physically interesting.

Case 1: positive mass

Let us focus first on the case m_+.

If we can understand how U acts on each of the $\mathscr{H}_p$, and we understand how it maps the $\mathscr{H}_p$ amongst each other, we understand everything about it. Pick some $\bar{p}$, and for every other p on its orbit, find some $\beta(\alpha) \in \mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ such that $\Lambda(\beta(\alpha))\bar{p} = p$. If we pick a basis in $\mathscr{H}_{\bar{p}}$, we can use $U(\beta(\alpha))$ to map it to a basis for $\mathscr{H}_p$; in this way we arrive at a basis for our entire Hilbert space

$$\mathscr{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^3) \otimes \mathscr{H}_{\bar{p}}.$$

Now here is the claim: we can understand the action of *any* $\alpha \in \bar{\mathcal{L}}$ if we understand its action on $\mathscr{H}_{\bar{p}}$. For any $\alpha \in \bar{\mathcal{L}}$, we can make the decomposition

$$\alpha = \beta(\Lambda(\alpha)p)\gamma(\alpha, p)\beta^{-1}(p) :$$

we map $\mathscr{H}_p$ to our proto-little-Hilbert-space $\mathscr{H}_{\bar{p}}$, act on it with some $\gamma \in \bar{\mathcal{L}}$ which fixes $\mathscr{H}_{\bar{p}}$, then map it back to where it needs to be. Since we can pull this trick for any α and p, to get an irreducible representation on $\mathscr{H}$, we only need an irreducible representation of the stabilizer of $\bar{p}$ in $\mathscr{H}_{\bar{p}}$.

There is a particularly easy choice: we can choose

$$\bar{p}_\mu = (m, 0, 0, 0).$$

With this choice, it becomes manifest that the subgroup of $\mathcal{P}$ which leaves $\bar{p}_\mu$ invariant is exactly the covering group of SO(3), i.e. Spin(3) = SU(2).

Thus, to obtain an irreducible representation of $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}}$ on $\mathscr{H}$, we need only find an irreducible representation of SU(2) on $\mathscr{H}_{\bar{p}_\mu}$. These are classified by half-integers.

Case 2: zero mass

Next, let us focus on the class 0_+. In this case, we do not have the 'canonical' choice of $\bar{p}_\mu = (m, 0, 0, 0)$. We can make a different choice, however:

$$\bar{p}_\mu = (1/2, 0, 0, 1/2).$$

As far as the action of $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}}$ is concerned, this vector is really the matrix

$$\hat{p} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

via the correspondence between 2×2 matrices $\hat{V}$ and vectors $V^\mu \in \mathbb{R}^4$

$$\hat{V} = V^\mu \sigma_\mu; \qquad V^\mu = \frac{1}{2}\mathrm{tr}(\hat{V}\sigma_\mu).$$

The action of $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ is via conjugation:

$$\hat{V} \mapsto \alpha \hat{V} \alpha^\dagger$$

The subgroup of $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ which fixes $\hat{p}$ is generated by the following subgroups of $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$:

$$\gamma_\varphi = \begin{pmatrix} e^{i\varphi} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-i\varphi} \end{pmatrix} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \gamma_\eta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \eta \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

where $\varphi \in [0, 2\pi)$ and $\eta \in \mathbb{C}$.

The non-trivial representations of the group γ_η are infinite-dimensional, and appear not to be realized in experiments. The irreducible representations of γ_φ are all one-dimensional, and are classified by integers:

$$U(\gamma_\varphi) = e^{in\varphi}, \qquad n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Since

$$\Lambda(\gamma_\varphi) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos(2\varphi) & -\sin(2\varphi) & 0 \\ 0 & \sin(2\varphi) & \cos(2\varphi) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

the matrix representing rotation by 2φ in the x^1-x^2 plane, it makes sense to interpret $n/2$ as angular momentum along the axis of $\bar{p}_\mu$, i.e. the *helicity*.

8.3.1 A caveat or two

This is mostly from [36]

The eagle-eyed reader has probably noticed that not all fundamental particles fit into this classification scheme: both quarks and neutrinos can exist in a superposition of states of different mass, so they cannot be classified by mass-squared. This is because quarks and neutrinos are not irreducible representations of the Poincaré group, but rather of the full symmetry group

$$G = \overbrace{\mathrm{ISO}(1,3)}^{\text{Poincaré}} \times \overbrace{\mathrm{SU}(3) \times \mathrm{SU}(2) \times \mathrm{U}(1)}^{\text{gauge}} \times \mathrm{U}(3),$$

where the final $\mathrm{U}(3)$ factor interchanges the three generations of particles which couple to the weak interaction.

Thus it is not exactly correct to say that fundamental particles are exactly irreducible representations of the symmetry group of spacetime: the more correct statement is that particles are irreducible representations of the total symmetry group. Of course, for a given particle species, it may be that the representation of the full group decomposes into a direct sum of representations of each individual part, in which case one can consider the representation of the Poincaré group separately. Then one recovers the classification by mass-squared and spin/helicity.

8.4 Feynman diagrams: representations and intertwiners

The ideas in this section were taken from [35].

In high-energy physics, one is generally interested in computing quantities known as scattering amplitudes. One imagines a collection of particles headed for each other, some time before a collision, and asks the question: long after the collision has occured, when the particles created in the collision are flying away from each other, what is the probability that one has ended up with some given collection of particles?

For any interesting or physically realistic theory (i.e. one with interactions), scattering amplitudes are fiendishly difficult to compute; in general one must resort to expressing them as an asymptotic series. Physicists have come up with a lot of tricks to make computing these more routine, such as representing the terms diagrammatically as *Feynman diagrams.*

Here's how this works. Let's imagine for simplicity that we want to compute a particularly simple scattering amplitude: an electron and a photon go in, an electron goes out. Or to put it another way, an electron absorbs a photon.

The incoming lines (from the top) represent the electron and the photon; the squiggly one is the photon and the straight one is the electron. The

8.5 Why SUSY? The standard explanation

There are many standard justifications given for the existence of supersymmetry.

- The combination of the Coleman-Mandula and the Haag-Łopuszański-Sohnius theorem.
- The low mass of the Higgs.

Roughly speaking, the Coleman-Mandula theorem says that the only possible connected Lie groups which give the symmetries of the S-matrix of a four-dimensional relativistic quantum field theory are a direct product of the Poincaré group and an internal symmetry group.

The Haag-Łopuszański-Sohnius theorem generalizes the assumptions of this theorem by expanding the definition of 'symmetry' to include super Lie groups. The Coleman-Mandula theorem still applies to the even part; however, one finds that the odd-graded elements are allowed to mix internal and spacetime symmetries in a non-trivial way. In particular, one has the following schematic multiplication laws:

$$\{\text{odd}, \text{odd}\} = \text{even}; \qquad [\text{even}, \text{even}] = \text{even}; \qquad [\text{odd}, \text{even}] = \text{odd},$$

where the even part is the direct product guaranteed by the Coleman-Mandula theorem, and the odd part is the super- component of the super-Poincaré algebra.

We will prove neither the Coleman-Mandula nor the Haag-Łopuszański-Sohnius theorem. We will, however, give their statements.

The statement of the Coleman-Mandula theorem, taken from [29] is as follows.

Theorem 8.5.1 (Coleman-Mandula)**.** *Let G be a connected symmetry group of the S-matrix, i.e. a group whose generators commute with the S-matrix, and make the following five assumptions.*

1. Lorentz-invariance: *G contains a subgroup which is locally isomorphic to the Poincaré group.*
2. Particle finiteness: *All particles types correspond to positive-energy representations of the Poincaré group. For any finite mass M, there is only a finite number of particles with mass less than M.*
3. Weak elastic analyticity: *Elastic scattering amplitudes are analytic functions of center-of-mass energy squared s and invariant momentum transfer squared t in some neighbourhood of the physical region, except at normal thresholds.*
4. Occurence of scattering: *Let $|p\rangle$ and $|p'\rangle$ be any two one-particle momentum eigenstates, and let $|p, p'\rangle$ be the two-particle state constructed from these. Then*

$$T\,|p, p'\rangle \neq 0$$

where T is the T-matrix defined by

$$S = \mathbf{1} = i(2\pi)^4\delta^4(p_\mu - p'_\mu)T,$$

except, perhaps, for certain values of S. In simpler terms this assumption means: Two plane waves scatter at almost any energy.

5. Technical assumption: *The generators of G, considered as integral operators in momentum space, have distributions for their kernels.*

Then the group G is locally isomorphic to the direct product of a compact symmetry group and the Poincaré group.

The Haag-Łopuszański-Sohnius theorem extends the above theorem by allowing G to be a super group. In the end, one finds that the Poincaré algebra can be extended to the more general *super-Poincaré algebra*.

If one is to use Haag-Łopuszański-Sohnius theorem to motivate supersymmetry, one must navigate a minefield of caveats and grains of salt. In order to use either theorem at all, one must conform to the assumptions in the statement of the Coleman-Mandula theorem, which are very restrictive. To view it as a motivation for supersymmetry, one must believe the following.

1. Spacetime is 4-dimensional, and its symmetry group is the Poincaré group.
2. Spacetime and internal symmetries ought to be unified.
3. There are no more loopholes that no one has thought of yet.

The other reason is that the mass of the Higgs boson is lower than one would expect. The Higgs

8.6 What does Deligne's theorem do for us?

The propose of these notes is to present some physical applications of Deligne's theorem. First, we should understand exactly what it is that Deligne's theorem tells us.

The following statement of Deligne's theorem was taken, mutatis mutandis, from [11]. For us, $k = \mathbb{C}$.

Theorem 7.0.1 (Deligne's theorem on tensor categories). *Let $\mathscr{A}$ be a k-tensor category such that*

1. *k is an algebraically closed field of characteristic zero, and*
2. *$\mathscr{A}$ is of subexponential growth.*

Then $\mathscr{A}$ is a neutral super Tannakian category, and there exists

1. *an affine algebraic supergroup G whose algebra of functions $\mathscr{O}(G)$ is a finitely-generated k-algebra, and*
2. *a tensor equivalence of categories*
$$\mathscr{A} \simeq \mathsf{Rep}(G, \varepsilon)$$
between $\mathscr{A}$ and the category of representations of G of finite-dimension.

Our first task will be to understand the statement of Deligne's theorem. Given time constraints, we will only be able to give a rough outline.

First, we need the notion of a *category*. Categories formalize and generalize the relationship between sets and functions between them.

A category C consists of a collection of objects $\mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ (think of sets) and for every two objects A, $B \in \mathrm{Obj}(\mathsf{C})$ a collection of morphisms $A \to B$ (think of functions). Categories also have some extra structure in the form of additional axioms to make objects and morphisms mimic sets.

The best thing I can do to give a sense of what categories are is to give some examples. Apart from the category Set of sets, there are many other categories:

- The category Top, whose objects are topological spaces and whose morphisms are continuous maps between them.

- The category Grp, whose objects are groups and whose morphisms are homomorphisms between them.
- The category $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$, whose objects are finite-dimensional k-vector spaces and whose morphisms are k-linear maps between them.

Just as categories provide a formalism to talk about things which behave like sets and functions between them with, k-tensor categories are special type of category which provide a means of talking about things which behave like finite-dimensional vector spaces and linear maps between them. The prototypical example is the category $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$ of finite-dimensional k-vector spaces.

Unlike the definition of a category, the definition of a tensor category is so technical that there is no hope of giving any real sense of what they are. They are categories with the following properties, as well as many others.

- For any two objects V_1, V_2 in a k-tensor category, one can form the *'tensor product'*
$$V_1 \otimes V_2$$
- For each object V there is a dual object V^* which behaves like the dual space.
- And *many* more.

Deligne's theorem isn't about just any tensor categories though, it's about those which satisfy a special requirement: *subexponential growth.* This is a technical condition which makes sure that the objects in our tensor category have an attribute which behaves roughly like a dimension.

Again, $\mathsf{FinVect}_k$ is the prototypical example of a tensor category with subexponential growth. However, it's far from the *only* one. For example, for any group G there is a category $\mathsf{FinRep}_k(G)$ whose objects are finite-dimensional linear representations of G and whose morphisms are G-equivariant linear maps called *intertwiners.* With the tensor product given by the tensor product of representations, these form tensor categories with subexponential growth.

In fact, Deligne's theorem tells us that these are nearly all the tensor categories with subexponential growth. More specifically, it says that that any tensor category which satisfies the condition of subexponential growth arises as (in jargon, there exists a tensor-equivalence of categories between) the category of finite-dimensional representations of an algebraic super-group.

But what is an algebraic super-group? Again, they have a horribly technical definition: they are group objects in the category of affine super-schemes; affine super-schemes in turn are the formal duals of commutative monoids internal to $\mathsf{FinSVect}_k$. For the purposes of this talk, the best definition I can give is: They are exactly the sort of groups that physicists like to study.

Admittedly, this is a very loaded definition. Here are some examples.

- Any matrix group is an algebraic super-group.
    - Hence, the Lorentz group is an algebraic supergroup
- For any n, the n-dimensional translation group is an algebraic super-group.
    - Hence, the Poincaré group is an algebraic super-group.

In fact, these are simply algebraic groups, which are a special case of algebraic super-groups.

- The super-* examples of all of these are also algebraic super-groups.
    - For example, the Super Poincaré group is an algebraic super-group.

This is where physics enters the story.

In quantum mechanics, a finite-dimensional quantum system is G-symmetric if it admits a unitary representation of G. This means that finite-dimensional G-symmetric quantum systems live in the category $\mathsf{FinURep}_{\mathbb{C}}(G)$.

This is a monoidal subcategory of $\mathsf{FinRep}_{\mathbb{C}}(G)$, (and even a full tensor subcategory if we make a slightly unnatural definition of morphisms). Therefore, Deligne's theorem tells us that the most general sort of symmetry that a finite-dimensional quantum system can have is that given by an algebraic super-group.

This is nice, but few interesting quantum systems are finite-dimensional; Deligne's theorem cannot be applied to infinite-dimensional quantum systems without some finesse.

We need a few physical assumptions. It is clear that some of these assumptions can be weakened, but not always obvious what is the best weakening. This is an interesting problem, but I will not have time to discuss it.

Firstly, we will model spacetime with Minkowski space. The so-called *little group* analysis, originally due to Wigner [42] and generalized by Mackey [38], tells us that we can therefore restrict our attention to symmetry groups of the form

$$\mathbb{R}^4 \rtimes \mathcal{G}.$$

Wigner's analysis tells us that we can separate off $\mathcal{G}$ and interpret it as the symmetry group of the internal Hilbert space $\mathfrak{h}$ of the our system.

This is not a terribly restrictive assumption, and it has an attractive physical interpretation. It allows us to separate external degrees of freedom (position, momentum) from internal degrees of freedom (spin, charge). It allows us, very roughly, to imagine particles as zipping around on Minkowski space, carrying with them some finite collection of internal characteristics.

But Wigner's analysis means we can regard $\mathfrak{h}$ as a finte-dimensional quantum system in its own right. This means that we can apply Deligne's theorem to it!

Under our assumptions, Deligne's theorem tells us that the most general type of group that can act on the internal space $\mathfrak{h}$ of a special-relativistic quantum theory is an algebraic super-group. To put it another way, it says that the most general sort of symmetry that a Poincarë-invariant theory can exhibit is supersymmetry.

8.7 Wigner classification with a general global symmetry group

The axioms of quantum mechanics tell us that the states of a quantum system correspond to vectors ψ belonging to some Hilbert space $\mathscr{H}$. However the observable quantities built from the states, i.e. the conditional probabilities

$$P(\varphi|\psi) = \frac{|\langle\varphi|\psi\rangle|^2}{\|\varphi\|^2 \cdot \|\psi\|^2}$$

are invariant under a rescaling of either φ or ψ by any nonzero complex number: that is,

$$\psi \sim \psi' \qquad \text{if} \qquad \psi' = \lambda\psi \qquad \text{for some } \lambda \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\},$$

where $\sim$ should be read as 'is physically indistinguishable from.'

Therefore, we should think about two states which differ only by a nonzero complex factor as being physically equivalent. That is, the true space of states of our quantum system is not $\mathscr{H}$, but $\mathscr{H}/\sim$, *projective Hilbert space*. Physically inequivalent quantum states are in one-to-one correspondence to the equivalence classes in $\mathscr{H}/\sim$.

Now suppose we want our quantum theory to have a symmetry given by some group G. Pick any ray $[\psi_0] \in \mathscr{H}/\sim$. For any group element $g \in G$, there should be another state (i.e. ray) $[\psi]_g$, which corresponds to the result of acting on the system with g. Furthermore, we want the result of acting on $[\psi_0]$ with a sequence of group elements to be the same no matter how we imagine them to be bracketed. Mathematically, this means that if we are to consider a quantum theory which is G-symmetric, we want a Hilbert space $\mathscr{H}$ which admits an injective homomorphism

$$\rho\colon G \hookrightarrow \mathrm{Aut}(\mathscr{H}/\sim).$$

Of course, having such a ρ is nice, but quantum mechanics does not deal with projective spaces and ray transformations. If we are to use these results as-is, we need to translate them to results about $\mathscr{H}$ itself.

Pick one specific element $g \in G$. To this element there is associated a bijective ray map on $\mathscr{H}$. Obviously, we can mimic this bijective ray map with a function $\bar{U}(g)\colon \mathscr{H} \to \mathscr{H}$; we need only ensure that the vectors making up individual rays are mapped to the correct target rays. Equally obviously however, this does not specify $\bar{U}(g)$ uniquely; there are many possible ways of mixing the vectors composing the rays. We have some freedom to choose this mixing in as nice as possible a way.

It turns out, due to a theorem of Bargmann FINISH THIS

The moral of the story so far: the Hilbert space of any quantum mechanical theory which is invariant under a symmetry group G must admit a linear representation of the covering group $\bar{G}$.

Perhaps now is a good time to make the following remark. If we wish to view two quantum systems with Hilbert spaces $\mathscr{H}_1$ and $\mathscr{H}_2$ as a single composite system, the Hilbert space we consider is $\mathscr{H}_1 \otimes \mathscr{H}_2$. That is to say, composite systems are the tensor product of their constituents. And the representation carried by the composite system representation of $\bar{G}$ is given by the tensor product of the representations of its constituents.

This would seem to imply that given a G-invariant quantum system and its associated representation of $\bar{G}$, we could break it and its representation down into smaller and smaller subsystems, until we hit 'atomic' subsystems whose representations were irreducible, i.e. could not be broken down any further. The resulting atomic representations would be the building blocks of our original system.

But we can pull this trick with *any* system! This means that cataloging the irreducible representations of $\bar{G}$ will give us a list of the building blocks of any G-invariant system: the fundamental particles.

This line of reasoning led Wigner to *identify* the fundamental particles of any quantum theory with symmetry group G with irreducible representations of $\bar{G}$. [2]

The reason for the previous discussion is this: Every quantum theory which makes any attempt to describe the world we see must account for the the existence of spacetime, so every quantum system will admit *some* symmetry group G, namely the (covering group of the) symmetries of spacetime. This means that, by Wigner's analysis, any quantum system can be viewed as a composite system made up a (large) number of fundamental particles which are irreducible representations of $\bar{G}$. This ensures that quantum systems will have certain properties.

1. One can always consider two or more quantum systems as a single composite system (for example, a proton is a composite system comprised of three quarks). Mathematically, the Hilbert space underlying a composite system is the tensor product of the Hilbert spaces of the component systems, i.e.

$$\mathscr{H}_{\text{composite}} = \overbrace{\mathscr{H}_1 \otimes \mathscr{H}_2 \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathscr{H}_n}^{\text{subsystems}}.$$

   The fact that $\mathscr{H}_{\text{composite}}$ always admits a G-representation, namely the tensor product representation

$$\varrho_1 \otimes \varrho_2 \otimes \cdots \otimes \varrho_n \colon G \to \mathscr{H}_1 \otimes \mathscr{H}_2 \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathscr{H}_n$$

   reflects the fact that the composite system always shares the symmetries of its constituents. That is, we can 'multiply' any two quantum systems which admit a $\bar{G}$-symmetry to get another.

2. The order in which we form composites does not matter since the tensor product is naturally associative,[3] i.e. there is a natural isomorphism

$$\alpha_{1,2,3} \colon (\mathscr{H}_1 \otimes \mathscr{H}_2) \otimes \mathscr{H}_3 \simeq \mathscr{H}_1 \otimes (\mathscr{H}_2 \otimes \mathscr{H}_3).$$

3. There is a trivial quantum system with $\mathscr{H}_{\text{trivial}} = \mathbb{C}$ which admits the trivial representation of $\bar{G}$, and which has the property that

$$\mathscr{H}_{\text{trivial}} \otimes \mathscr{H} \simeq \mathscr{H} \simeq \mathscr{H} \otimes \mathscr{H}_{\text{trivial}}.$$

These properties, phrased in mathematical language, say that the collection of all quantum systems which admit a $\bar{G}$-symmetry has the structure of a **monoidal category**. [4]

[2] As an aside: the symmetry group of the standard model is

$$G = \overbrace{\mathrm{ISO}(1,3)}^{\text{Poincaré}} \times \overbrace{\mathrm{SU}(3) \times \mathrm{SU}(2) \times \mathrm{U}(1)}^{\text{gauge}} \times \mathrm{U}(3),$$

where the final $\mathrm{U}(3)$ factor interchanges the three generations of particles which couple to the weak interaction.

All of the fundamental particles in the standard model are correspond to irreducible representations of G. Contrary to popular belief, $\mathrm{ISO}(3,1)$ by itself is not enough. Neutrinos, for example, can exist in a superposition of different mass states; the reason for this is that mass-squared is not a casimir operator of the representation to which they belong.[36]

[3] The keyword here is *naturally*, which is a term from category theory which formalizes the intuitive notion of 'canonical'.

[4] Of course, one must also check that the triangle and pentagon diagram are satisfied, but this is trivial and devoid of physical meaning.

4. The order in which we place our quantum systems before considering them as a composite does not matter, since there is an isomorphism

$$\gamma_{1,2} \colon \mathscr{H}_1 \otimes \mathscr{H}_2 \to \mathscr{H}_2 \otimes \mathscr{H}_1.$$

   This means that our collection of $\bar{G}$-symmetric quantum systems is a **braided monoidal category**.

5. If we swap the order in which we adjoin two quantum systems twice, we get the same thing we started with:

$$\gamma_{2,1} \circ \gamma_{1,2} = \mathrm{id}_{\mathscr{H}_1 \otimes \mathscr{H}_2} \colon \mathscr{H}_1 \otimes \mathscr{H}_2$$

   This means $\bar{G}$-symmetric quantum systems form a **symmetric monoidal category**. We'll denote this by Sym_G.

If $\bar{G}$ is completely general, then we can say no more about the category of G-symmetric quantum systems. However, one may make further physical assumptions to tame the group G. Here we need to do a bit of physics.

First, we must assume that the spacetime on which our quantum theory takes place is Minkowski space, that is, $\mathbb{R}^4$ together with the semi-Riemannian metric

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The isometry group of Minkowski space is $\mathcal{P} = \mathrm{ISO}(1,3)$. We can factorize $\mathcal{P}$ as follows:

$$\mathcal{P} = \left(\text{translations} = \mathbb{R}^4\right) \rtimes \left(\text{rotations} = \mathrm{SO}(1,3)\right).$$

The group $\bar{G}$ which acts on the Hilbert space of any quantum system which takes place on Minkowski space includes $\bar{\mathcal{P}}$ as a subgroup.

It is here that we make the core simplifying assumption: we demand that $\bar{G}$ can be written

$$\bar{G} = \mathbb{R}^4 \rtimes H,$$

where H admits finite-dimensional representations, and we consider only these finite-dimensional representations.

This is not a terribly restrictive assumption, and it has an attractive physical interpretation. It allows us to separate external degrees of freedom (position, momentum) from internal degrees of freedom (spin, charge). It allows us, very roughly, to imagine particles as zipping around on Minkowski space, carrying with them some finite collection of internal characteristics.

With this assumption, we can use the little group method (the so-called *Mackey machine*) to factor out the $\mathbb{R}^4$ sector of $\bar{G}$ and focus on H. Since we deal with only finite-dimensional representations, we don't have to deal with the eccentricities of infinite-dimensional Hilbert spaces. Thus, we can say more about our category.

6. Each fundamental particle has an antiparticle, and we can construct from any composite system an anti-system, in which all of its particles are replaced by antiparticles. This corresponds mathematically to the fact that our finite-dimensional Hilbert spaces $\mathscr{H}$ have duals $\mathscr{H}^*$ which admit the contragredient representation of H.

   This means that we are dealing with a **rigid symmetric monoidal category**.

These, plus several other technical requirements ()

9 Questions

1. Is the tensor product in SUSY treated as graded?
2. Is the coordinate ring $\mathscr{O}(G)$ the same as the group algebra $k[G]$?

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