

Algebraic Topology

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Preface

These are assorted notes in algebraic topology, compiled during my time in graduate school while taking a year-long course in the subject. The notes proceed in order through the fundamental topics: fundamental groups, homology, cohomology, higher homotopy groups, and the Serre spectral sequence. Some sections are incomplete, and typographical errors may be present. Corrections and suggestions are welcome and can be sent to junaaid.aftab1994@gmail.com.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1. What is Algebraic Topology?

Algebraic topology employs tools from abstract algebra to study topological spaces, primarily by associating algebraic objects to these spaces that capture their essential topological features. The essence of the subject can be succinctly understood through the lens of category theory. In this framework, the goal is to construct functors from a ‘topological category’ (such as the category of topological spaces, **Top**) to an ‘algebraic category’ (such as the category of abelian groups, **Ab**). This allows us to attach *topological invariants* to topological spaces that can be computed algebraically. One of the most fundamental tools in this approach is the construction of homology, cohomology, and homotopy groups. Each of these functors serves as an algebraic invariant of topological spaces, capturing different aspects of their structure.

- (1) The homology functors

$$H_n : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$$

are defined for each $n \geq 0$. Vaguely speaking, the homology groups $H_n(X)$ encode the structure of n -dimensional holes in the space X , and they can be computed using combinatorial techniques such as simplicial complexes, cellular decomposition, or techniques from homological algebra such as long exact sequences in homology and the Serre spectral sequence.

- (2) Cohomology provides another algebraic invariant that captures even more detailed information about a space. The cohomology functors

$$H^n : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$$

are defined for $n \geq 0$. The cohomology functors are closely related to homology functors, H_n , but cohomology measures the dual aspects of these topological features using co-chains and co-boundaries. The distinguishing feature of cohomology is that cohomology functors are, in fact, functors:

$$H^n : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{CRing},$$

where **CRing** is the category of commutative rings. This shows that cohomology is a finer invariant than homology since it associates commutative rings to topological spaces.

- (3) In addition to homology and cohomology, homotopy groups are another central tool in algebraic topology, particularly in the study of the higher-dimensional structure of topological spaces. Homotopy groups focus on the classification of maps and the way spaces can be deformed continuously into each other. The fundamental group, $\pi_1(X)$, is the first homotopy group of a space X based at a point x_0 , and it captures the basic loop structure of the space by studying homotopy class of maps from \mathbb{S}^1 to X . Beyond π_1 , higher homotopy groups, $\pi_n(X)$ for $n \geq 2$ capture more intricate

topological features, such as the higher-dimensional ‘loops’ of a topological space by studying homotopy class of maps from \mathbb{S}^n to X .

1.2. Preliminaries

Throughout these notes, we freely use standard terminology and conventions from category theory and topology.

1.2.1. Notation. Here is a list of some standard notation used throughout the notes:

\mathbb{R}^n	Euclidean space
$\mathbb{D}^n = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \ x\ \leq 1\}$	n -dimensional disk
$\mathbb{S}^{n-1} = \{x \in \mathbb{D}^n \mid \ x\ = 1\}$	$(n-1)$ -dimensional sphere
$\mathbb{B}^n = \mathbb{D}^n \setminus \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$	n -dimensional unit open ball
$I^n = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid 0 \leq x_i \leq 1\}$	n -dimensional unit cube
$\partial I^n = \{x \in I^n \mid x_i = 0 \text{ or } 1 \text{ for some } i\}$	boundary of I^n

1.2.2. Category Theory. We assume familiarity with the language of category theory. In particular:

- A *category* \mathcal{C} consists of
 - a collection of objects $\text{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$,
 - for each pair of objects $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$, a set of morphisms $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, Y)$,
 - identity morphisms Id_X for each X ,
 - a composition law \circ satisfying associativity and unitality.
- A *functor* $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ assigns to each object $X \in \mathcal{C}$ an object $\mathcal{F}(X) \in \mathcal{D}$, and to each morphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$ a morphism $\mathcal{F}(f) : \mathcal{F}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(Y)$, such that:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{F}(\text{Id}_X) &= \text{Id}_{\mathcal{F}(X)} \\ \mathcal{F}(g \circ f) &= \mathcal{F}(g) \circ \mathcal{F}(f)\end{aligned}$$

The class of morphisms between $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$ is denoted by $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(\cdot, \cdot)$. We usually write $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(\cdot, \cdot)$ as simply $\text{Hom}(\cdot, \cdot)$.

- A *natural transformation* $\eta : \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ between functors $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{G} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ assigns to each object X in \mathcal{C} a morphism $\eta_X : \mathcal{F}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{G}(X)$ in \mathcal{D} such that for every morphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$ in \mathcal{C} , the following square commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}\mathcal{F}(X) & \xrightarrow{F(f)} & \mathcal{F}(Y) \\ \downarrow \eta_X & & \downarrow \eta_Y \\ \mathcal{G}(X) & \xrightarrow{G(f)} & \mathcal{G}(Y)\end{array}$$

- A functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is an *equivalence of categories* if there exists a functor $G : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{F} \circ \mathcal{G} &\cong \text{Id}_{\mathcal{D}} \\ \mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F} &\cong \text{Id}_{\mathcal{C}}\end{aligned}$$

Equivalently, $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is an equivalence of categories if and only if:

- \mathcal{F} is *fully faithful*, i.e., for all objects $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$, the map

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, Y) \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{D}}(F(X), F(Y))$$

is a bijection; and

- \mathcal{F} is *essentially surjective*, i.e., for every object $D \in \mathcal{D}$, there exists an object $C \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $\mathcal{F}(C) \cong D$ in \mathcal{D} .
- A *diagram* in a category \mathcal{C} is a functor

$$D : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$$

from an index category \mathcal{J} . The *limit* (resp. *colimit*) of such a diagram is a universal cone (resp. cocone) over D . Examples of limits include products and pullbacks; examples of colimits include coproducts and pushouts.

- A functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is said to be: *left adjoint* to $\mathcal{G} : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ if there is a natural isomorphism:

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{D}}(\mathcal{F}(X), Y) \cong \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, \mathcal{G}(Y))$$

for all $X \in \mathcal{C}$, $Y \in \mathcal{D}$. In this case, $\mathcal{F} \dashv \mathcal{G}$ and \mathcal{G} is called a *right adjoint*.

Remark 1.2.1. *The language of derived functors and resolutions is reviewed in the appendix (Part 6).*

We will frequently make use of various *algebraic* categories. A few standard examples are listed below:

- **Grp** : The objects of **Grp** are groups and $\mathrm{Hom}(G, H)$ consists of group homomorphisms from G to H .
- **Ab** : The objects of **Ab** are abelian groups and $\mathrm{Hom}(G, H)$ consists of group homomorphisms from G to H .
- **CRing** : The objects of **CRing** are commutative rings, and $\mathrm{Hom}(R, S)$ consists of ring homomorphisms from R to S .
- **Grpd** : The objects of **Grpd** are groupoids, which are categories in which each morphism is an isomorphism, and $\mathrm{Hom}(X, Y)$ consists of functors between groupoids from X to Y .

1.2.3. Topology. Basic notions in topology will be assumed throughout. We usually assume that a fixed base point $x_0 \in X$ has been chosen, in which case X is called a pointed topological space. A continuous function $f : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ between pointed topological spaces is assumed to satisfy $f(x_0) = y_0$. Such functions are called pointed continuous maps. The following categories naturally arise in algebraic topology:

- **Top** : The objects are topological spaces and $\mathrm{Hom}(X, Y)$ is the set of continuous functions from X to Y .
- **Top*** : The objects are pointed topological spaces, (X, x_0) and $\mathrm{Hom}((X, x_0), (Y, y_0))$ consists of continuous maps $f : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ such that $f(x_0) = y_0$. Such maps are called pointed continuous maps.
- **Top²** : The objects are all pairs (X, A) where X is a topological space and $A \subseteq X$ is a subspace and $\mathrm{Hom}((X, A), (Y, B))$ is simply the set of continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ such that $f(A) \subseteq B$.
- **Top³** : The objects are all triples (X, A, B) where X is a topological space and $B \subseteq A \subseteq X$ is a subspace. Then $\mathrm{Hom}((X, A, C), (Y, B, D))$ is simply the set of continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ such that $f(A) \subseteq B$ and $f(C) \subseteq D$.

Remark 1.2.2. Given $(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, we can simply forget about the basepoint and consider the underlying space. This defines a functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}$. There is also a functor in the other direction: given any $X \in \mathbf{Top}$, we can define a based space

$$X_+ = X \sqcup \{*\}$$

Here we have adjoined a disjoint basepoint to X . It can be checked that the functor $\mathcal{G} : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_*$ defined by mapping X to X_+ is left adjoint to \mathcal{F} . That is, we have a bijection:

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}_*}(X^+, (Y, y_0)) \cong \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}}(X, Y)$$

for $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ and $(Y, y_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$.

Additional categories arising in algebraic topology will be introduced as needed later in the notes. Below, we recall some basic universal properties that will be invoked frequently throughout.

- **Top** has products and co-products. The product of X, Y is given by the Cartesian product $X \times Y$ of topological spaces with the product topology. The product is an example of a categorical pullback:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & & \\ \swarrow \scriptstyle f & & \searrow \scriptstyle g \\ & X \times Y & \xrightarrow{\pi_X} X \\ & \downarrow \scriptstyle \pi_Y & \\ & Y & \end{array}$$

The co-product of X, Y is given by the disjoint union $X \sqcup Y$ with the disjoint union topology. The disjoint union is an example of a categorical pushout:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & X & \\ \iota_X \downarrow & & \searrow \scriptstyle g \\ Y \xrightarrow{\iota_Y} & X \amalg Y & \\ & \downarrow \scriptstyle f & \\ & A & \end{array}$$

- The category **Top**_{*} has products and co-products. The product of $(X, x_0), (Y, y_0)$ is given by the pointed Cartesian product $(X \times Y, (x_0, y_0))$. The pointed Cartesian product is an example of a categorical pullback:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & & \\ \swarrow \scriptstyle f & & \searrow \scriptstyle g \\ & X \times Y & \xrightarrow{\pi_X} X \\ & \downarrow \scriptstyle \pi_Y & \downarrow \\ & Y & \longrightarrow \{*\} \end{array}$$

The coproduct of $(X, x_0), (Y, y_0)$ is given by the wedge sum

$$X \vee Y := (X \times Y) / \sim$$

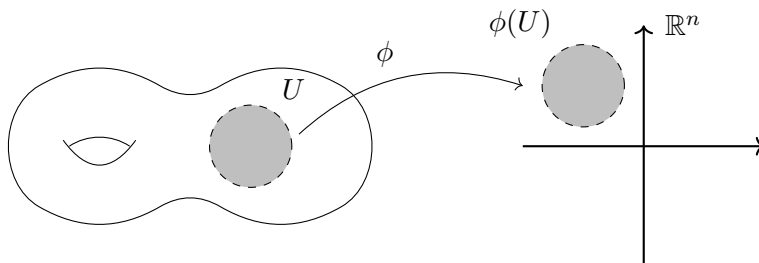
where the quotient identifies the basepoints x_0 and y_0 to a single point. The wedge sum is an instance of a categorical pushout:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \{*\} & \longrightarrow & X \\
 \downarrow & & \downarrow \iota_X \\
 Y & \xrightarrow{\iota_Y} & X \vee Y \\
 & \searrow f & \nearrow g \\
 & & A
 \end{array}$$

1.3. Topological Manifolds

One of the primary class of spaces we aim to understand using topological invariants in algebraic topology are topological manifolds. These are spaces that locally resemble Euclidean space. Familiar examples include plane curves such as circles and parabolas, as well as surfaces like spheres and tori.

Definition 1.3.1. Let X be a topological space. X is a topological n -manifold if X is a second-countable, Hausdorff space that is locally homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n . That is, each point of X is contained in a coordinate chart, which is a pair (U, ϕ) , where U is an open subset of X and $\phi : U \rightarrow \phi(U) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a homeomorphism from U to an open subset $\phi(U)$ of \mathbb{R}^n .



Remark 1.3.2. The number n is attached to a single chart and might apriori depend on the chart itself. This turns out to be not the case. This result is called the invariance of dimension and will be proved later.

Remark 1.3.3. A collection of charts (U_α, ϕ_α) such that $\bigcup_\alpha U_\alpha = M$ is an atlas for X .

We discuss the implications of the conditions imposed in **Definition 1.3.1**. Since a topological manifold is locally Euclidean, it is easy to see that it inherits a number of properties of Euclidean space locally. For instance, we have the following:

Proposition 1.3.4. Let X be a topological n -manifold. Then X is locally compact, locally path-connected and locally contractible.

PROOF. Every point of X has a neighborhood homeomorphic to the open unit ball in \mathbb{R}^n . Each open ball in \mathbb{R}^n is locally compact, locally compact and locally path-connected, locally contractible. The claim follows. \square

The locally Euclidean condition does not impose any topological properties at the global level. The second-countability and Hausdorff conditions account for this detail. Intuitively, Hausdorff spaces have ‘enough open sets.’ This ensures that familiar properties hold: for example, in a Hausdorff space, finite subsets are closed, limits of convergent sequences are unique etc. Moreover, this condition also excludes certain pathological examples like the line with two origins etc. On the other hand, second-countable spaces ‘don’t have too many open sets that are required to cover the space.’ The following is a sample global topological property of a topological n -manifold.

Proposition 1.3.5. *Let X be a topological n -manifold. X has a countable basis of precompact coordinate balls.*

PROOF. First consider the special case in which X can be covered by a single chart. Suppose $\varphi : M \rightarrow U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a global coordinate chart. Let

$$\mathcal{B} = \{B_r(x) : x \in \mathbb{Q}, x \in \mathbb{Q}^n, B_{r'}(x) \subseteq U \text{ for some } r' < r\}$$

Each $B_r(x) \in \mathcal{B}$ is pre-compact in U , and it is easy to check that \mathcal{B} is a countable basis for the topology of U . Because φ is a homeomorphism, it follows that $\varphi^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$ is a countable basis for X , consisting of pre-compact coordinate balls. More generally, each $p \in M$ is in the domain of a coordinate chart. Since X is second-countable, X is covered by countably many coordinate charts $\{(U_i, \varphi_i)\}_{i=1}^\infty$. By the argument in the preceding paragraph, each U_i has a countable basis of coordinate balls that are pre-compact in U_i . If $V \subseteq U_i$ is one of these balls, then the closure of V in U_i is compact, and because X is Hausdorff, it is closed in X . It follows that the closure of V in X is the same as its closure in U_i , so V is precompact in X as well. Clearly, the union of all these countable bases is a countable basis for X . \square

Example 1.3.6. The following is a list of examples of topological manifolds.

- (1) \mathbb{R}^n is a topological n -manifold. \mathbb{R}^n is covered by a single chart $(\mathbb{R}^n, \text{Id}_{\mathbb{R}^n})$, where $\text{Id}_{\mathbb{R}^n} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is the identity map.
- (2) (**Spheres**) The unit n -sphere, \mathbb{S}^n , is Hausdorff and second-countable because it is a topological subspace of \mathbb{R}^{n+1} . For each $1 \leq i \leq n+1$, consider the sets:

$$\begin{aligned} U_i^+ &= \{(u^1, \dots, u^{n+1}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid u^i > 0\} \\ U_i^- &= \{(u^1, \dots, u^{n+1}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid u^i < 0\} \end{aligned}$$

Let $f : \mathbb{B}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the continuous function defined by

$$f(x) = \sqrt{1 - \|x\|^2}$$

For each $1 \leq i \leq n$, $U_i^\pm \cap \mathbb{S}^n$ is the graph of the function

$$u^i = \pm f(u^1, \dots, \widehat{u^i}, \dots, u^{n+1}),$$

where the hat indicates that u^i is omitted. Thus, each subset $U_i^\pm \cap \mathbb{S}^n$ is locally Euclidean of dimension n , and the maps $\phi_i : U_i^\pm \cap \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{B}^n$ given by

$$\phi_i(u^1, \dots, u^{n+1}) = (u^1, \dots, \widehat{u^i}, \dots, u^{n+1})$$

defines the desired homeomorphism.

- (3) **(Real Projective Space)** The real projective space, \mathbb{RP}^n , is defined as the quotient space, $\mathbb{RP}^n = (\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}) / \sim$ with the equivalence relation

$$x \sim y \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\} \iff x = \lambda y \text{ for some } \lambda \in \mathbb{R}^\times$$

It is made into a topological space by giving it the quotient topology via the map

$$\pi: \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^n,$$

where $[x] := \pi(x) = \text{span}\{x\}$. It can be easily checked that

$$\mathbb{RP}^n \cong \mathbb{S}^n / \sim$$

where \sim is the equivalence relation on \mathbb{S}^n such that $x \sim -x$ (i.e., antipodal points are identified). We check that \mathbb{RP}^n is both second-countable and Hausdorff:

- (a) Consider the quotient map: $q: \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n / \sim$. Note that q is an open map. Indeed for any open subset $V \subseteq \mathbb{S}^n$, we have:

$$q^{-1}(q(V)) = V \cup -V,$$

Since \mathbb{S}^n is second-countable, $\mathbb{RP}^n \cong \mathbb{S}^n / \sim$ is also second-countable as q is an open map.

- (b) If $[x], [y] \in \mathbb{S}^n / \sim$, then one can choose $\varepsilon > 0$ small enough that

$$U = \mathbb{B}(x, \varepsilon) \cap \mathbb{S}^n$$

$$V = \mathbb{B}(y, \varepsilon) \cap \mathbb{S}^n$$

are open sets in \mathbb{S}^n such that $\pm U, \pm V$ are pairwise disjoint. Since,

$$q^{-1}(q(U)) = U \cup -U$$

$$q^{-1}(q(V)) = V \cup -V$$

$q^{-1}(q(U))$ and $q^{-1}(q(V))$ are open disjoint subsets of \mathbb{S}^n / \sim containing $[x]$ and $[y]$. Hence, $\mathbb{RP}^n \cong \mathbb{S}^n / \sim$ is Hausdorff.

For each $1 \leq i \leq n+1$, consider the sets:

$$\tilde{U}_i = \{(u^1, \dots, u^{n+1}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid u^i \neq 0\}$$

Let $U_i = \pi(\tilde{U}_i)$. By properties of the quotient topology, U_i is an open subset of \mathbb{RP}^n . Consider the map $\phi_i: U_i \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ defined as:

$$\phi_i([u]) = \left(\frac{u^1}{u^i}, \dots, \frac{u^{i-1}}{u^i}, 1, \frac{u^{i+1}}{u^i}, \dots, \frac{u^{n+1}}{u^i} \right).$$

This map is well-defined because its value is unchanged by multiplying x by a nonzero constant. By properties of the quotient topology, ϕ_i is continuous. In fact, ϕ_i is a homeomorphism because it has a continuous inverse given by

$$\phi_i^{-1}(u^1, \dots, u^n) = [u^1, \dots, u^{i-1}, 1, u^i, \dots, u^n];$$

This shows that \mathbb{RP}^n is locally Euclidean of dimension n .

- (4) **(Tori)** For a positive integer $n \geq 2$, the $(n-1)$ -torus is the product space

$$\mathbb{S}^1 \times \dots \times \mathbb{S}^1$$

It is clear that a product of topological manifolds is a topological manifold. Hence, T is topological n -manifold since \mathbb{S}^1 is a 1-manifold.

Remark 1.3.7. For $n \geq 2$, we usually abbreviate the n -torus as \mathbb{T}^{n-1} .

Sets such as closed intervals in \mathbb{R} and closed balls in \mathbb{R}^n fail to be both topological manifolds since they ‘have a boundary of sorts.’ We make precise the notion of a topological manifold with boundary.

Definition 1.3.8. Let X be a topological space. X is a topological n -manifold with boundary if X is a second countable, Hausdorff space such that each point $x \in M$ is contained in a coordinate chart, (U, ϕ) , such that:

- (1) **(Interior Chart)** Either $\phi : U \rightarrow \phi(U) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a homeomorphism from U to an open subset $\phi(U)$ of \mathbb{R}^n .
- (2) **(Boundary Chart)** Or $\phi : U \rightarrow \phi(U) \subseteq \mathbb{H}^n$ is a homeomorphism from U to an open subset $\phi(U)$ of \mathbb{H}^n , the upper-half plane, such that $\phi(x) \cap \partial\mathbb{H}^n \neq \emptyset$.

A point $p \in M$ is called an interior point of X if it is in the domain of some interior chart or a boundary chart (U, ϕ) such that $\phi(U) \cap \partial\mathbb{H}^n = \emptyset$. It is a boundary point of X if it is in the domain of a boundary chart that sends p to $\partial\mathbb{H}^n$. The boundary of X (the set of all its boundary points) is denoted by ∂M ; similarly, its interior, the set of all its interior points, is denoted by $\text{Int}(M)$.

Remark 1.3.9. A point $p \in M$ might *a priori* simultaneously be a boundary point and an interior point, meaning that there is one interior chart whose domain contains p , and another boundary chart that sends p to $\partial\mathbb{H}^n$. This turns out not to be the case. This result is called the invariance of boundary and will be proved later.

Example 1.3.10. (Sketch) The following is a list of basic examples of a topological manifold with boundary.

- (1) $\overline{\mathbb{B}^n}$ is smooth n -manifold with boundary. One can prove this by definition. We skip details.
- (2) If X is a n -dimensional manifold with boundary, then ∂M is a $(n-1)$ -dimensional manifold without boundary. We skip details.

1.4. CW Complexes

1.4.1. Definitions. Another primary class of spaces we aim to understand using topological invariants in algebraic topology are topological manifolds. An arbitrary topological space, X , can be difficult to visualize and analyze. We shall focus mostly on the subcategory of topological spaces that can be constructed inductively using open cells. This will be category of CW-complexes. This approach will allow us to meaningfully study a lot of topological spaces.

Definition 1.4.1. An open n -cell is a topological space that is homeomorphic to the open unit ball \mathbb{B}^n . A closed n -cell is a topological space homeomorphic to \mathbb{D}^n .

Remark 1.4.2. We will only use the phrase *n-cell* when the context is clear.

New topological spaces can be constructed from old topological spaces by attaching an n -cell. Let X be a topological space. Suppose there is a map $\varphi : \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \rightarrow X$ a map. One can form a new topological space, $X \amalg_{\varphi} \mathbb{D}^n$, from the disjoint union $X \amalg \mathbb{D}^n$ by identifying each $\varphi(x) \in \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$ with $\varphi(x) \in X$ for all $x \in \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$, and equipping the resulting set with the quotient topology. The map φ is called the characteristic map. We refer to the space $X \amalg_{\varphi} \mathbb{D}^n$ as being obtained from X by ‘attaching an n -cell’, and call $\varphi : \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \rightarrow X$

the attaching map. Using the the universal properties of the disjoint union and quotient topology, we have the following commutative diagram.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \mathbb{S}^{n-1} & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & X \\
 \downarrow \iota & & \downarrow \\
 \mathbb{D}^n & \rightarrow & X \amalg_{\varphi} \mathbb{D}^n \\
 & \searrow f_2 & \nearrow f_1 \\
 & & Y
 \end{array}$$

(Note: A dotted arrow labeled f also points from $X \amalg_{\varphi} \mathbb{D}^n$ to Y .)

Remark 1.4.3. *In fact, this shows that $X \amalg_{\varphi} \mathbb{D}^n$ is a pushout in **Top**.*

One can also attach more than one n -cell. Let $\{\mathbb{D}_i^n\}_{i \in I_n}$ be a collection of n -cells and let $\varphi_i^n : \mathbb{S}_i^{n-1} \rightarrow X$ be a collection of continuous maps. One can form a new topological space, $X \amalg_{\varphi_i} \mathbb{D}_i^n$, by attaching the aforementioned collection of n -cells using the rule prescribed above. Once again, we have a commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \amalg_{\substack{i \in I_n \\ \varphi_i^n}} \mathbb{S}_i^{n-1} & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\
 \downarrow \iota & & \downarrow \\
 \amalg_{\substack{i \in I_n \\ \varphi_i^n}} \mathbb{D}_i^n & \longrightarrow & X \amalg_{\varphi_i^n} \mathbb{D}_i^n
 \end{array}$$

Remark 1.4.4. *This shows that $X \amalg_{\varphi_i} \mathbb{D}_i^n$ is a pushout in **Top**.*

Definition 1.4.5. Let X be a topological space. A CW decomposition of X is a sequence of subspaces

$$X^0 \subseteq X^1 \subseteq X^2 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq X^n \subseteq \cdots \quad n \in \mathbb{N},$$

of X such that the following three conditions are satisfied:

- (1) The space X^0 is discrete.
- (2) The space X^n is obtained from X^{n-1} by attaching a (possibly) infinite number of n -cells $\{\mathbb{D}_i^n\}_{i \in I_n}$ via attaching maps $\varphi_i : \mathbb{S}_i^{n-1} \rightarrow X^{n-1}$.
- (3) The topology of X is compatible with quotient topology on X that makes the

$$\coprod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} X^n \rightarrow X$$

continuous. In other words, $A \subseteq X$ is open if and only if $A \cap X^n$ is open for all $n \geq 0$.

Remark 1.4.6. *If X admits a CW decomposition, then it can be easily checked that X is a colimit of $\{X^n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}}$. In particular, X is the colimit of the diagram*

$$X^0 \xrightarrow{j_0} X^1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow X^n \xrightarrow{j_n} X^{n+1} \rightarrow \cdots$$

*in **Top**. Here j_n is the inclusion of X_n into X_{n+1} .*

We can now define the following categories:

- (1) **CW** is the category of whose objects are topological spaces that admit a CW structure and morphisms between CW complexes are cellular continuous maps. That is, $f(X^n) \subseteq Y^n$ for each $n \geq 0$ where f is a continuous map. In other words, if X and Y are CW complexes and we have a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} X^0 & \longrightarrow & X^1 & \longrightarrow & \cdots & \longrightarrow & X^n & \longrightarrow & X^{n+1} & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & & & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ Y^0 & \longrightarrow & Y^1 & \longrightarrow & \cdots & \longrightarrow & Y^n & \longrightarrow & Y^{n+1} & \longrightarrow & \cdots \end{array}$$

then, on forming the colimits, we obtain an induced map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ which is a cellular map.

- (2) **CW_{*}** is the category of pointed CW complexes defined analogously to **Top_{*}**.
(3) **CW²** is the category of pairs of CW complexes defined analogously to **Top²**.

Remark 1.4.7. The categories **CW_{*}** and **CW²** are defined similarly.

Each cell \mathbb{D}_i^n has its characteristic map Φ_i^n , which is by definition the composition of continuous maps:

$$\begin{array}{c} \Phi_i^n \\ \curvearrowright \\ \mathbb{D}_i^n \hookrightarrow X^{n-1} \amalg \mathbb{D}_i^n \twoheadrightarrow X^{n-1} \amalg_{\varphi} \mathbb{D}_i^n \hookrightarrow X \end{array}$$

Proposition 1.4.8. Let X be a topological space with a CW decomposition. $A \subseteq X$ is open if and only if $(\Phi_i^n)^{-1}(\mathbb{D}_i^n)$ is continuous for each $i \in I_n$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. In particular, X is a quotient space of $\coprod_{i \in I_n} \mathbb{D}_i^n$.

PROOF. The forward implication is clear. Conversely, suppose $(\Phi_i^n)^{-1}(\mathbb{D}_i^n)$ is open in \mathbb{D}_i^n for each $i \in I_n$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Suppose by induction on n that $A \cap X^{n-1}$ is open in X^{n-1} . Since $(\Phi_i^n)^{-1}(\mathbb{D}_i^n)$ is open in \mathbb{D}_i^n for all $i \in I_n$, then $A \cap X^n$ is open in X^n by the definition of the quotient topology on X^n . The last implication is clear by definition. \square

Definition 1.4.9. Let X be a topological space. X is a CW complex if X admits a CW decomposition satisfying the following two properties:

- (1) The closure of each open cell is contained in a union of finitely many cells.
- (2) The topology of X is coherent with $\{\{\mathbb{D}_i^n\}_{i \in I_n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}^1$.

A CW complex is finite (or finite-dimensional) if there are only finitely many cells involved. Every finite CW decomposition is automatically a finite CW complex. In fact, every locally finite CW decomposition is automatically a CW complex as we show below.

Proposition 1.4.10. Let X be a topological space endowed with a CW decomposition. If $\{\{\mathbb{D}_i^n\}_{i \in I_n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is a locally finite collection, then X is a CW complex.

PROOF. By assumption, every point \mathbb{D}_i^n has a neighborhood that intersects only finitely many cells. Since \mathbb{D}_i^n is compact, it is covered by finitely many such neighborhoods. This readily implies (1) in Definition 1.4.9. Suppose $A \subseteq X$ is a subset such that $A \cap \mathbb{D}_i^n$ is closed for each $i \in I_n$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Given $x \in X \setminus A$, let W_x be a neighborhood of x that intersects

¹That is, $A \subseteq X$ is open/closed if and only if $A \cap \overline{\mathbb{D}_i^n}$ is open/closed for each $i \in I_n$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

the closures of only finitely many cells, say $\mathbb{D}_1^{n_1}, \dots, \mathbb{D}_k^{n_k}$. Since $A \setminus \mathbb{D}_j^{n_j}$ is closed in $\mathbb{D}_j^{n_j}$ and thus in X , it follows that

$$W \setminus A = W \setminus (A \cap \mathbb{D}_1^{n_1}) \cup \dots \cup (A \cap \mathbb{D}_k^{n_k})$$

is a neighborhood of x contained in $X \setminus A$. Thus $X \setminus A$ is open, so A is closed. This readily implies (2) in [Definition 1.4.9](#). \square

1.4.2. Examples. In the examples that follows, we will not explicitly check that condition (3) in [Definition 1.4.5](#) is satisfied. It should be straightforward to do verify these claims, though.

Example 1.4.11. Let $N = (0, \dots, 0, 1)$ in \mathbb{S}^n . Consider the map $\sigma_N : \mathbb{S}^n \setminus \{N\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ by ²

$$\sigma_N(u^1, \dots, u^{n+1}) = \left(\frac{u^1}{1 - u^{n+1}}, \dots, \frac{u^n}{1 - u^{n+1}} \right)$$

Similarly, consider $\beta_N : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n \setminus \{N\}$

$$\beta_N(u^1, \dots, u^n) = \left(\frac{2u^1}{|u|^2 + 1}, \dots, \frac{2u^n}{|u|^2 + 1}, \frac{|u|^2 - 1}{|u|^2 + 1} \right).$$

It is easy to check that σ_N, β_N are inverses of each other. Hence, $\mathbb{R}^n \cong \mathbb{S}^n \setminus \{N\}$. The map σ_N is called the stereographic projection. \mathbb{S}^n can now be given a CW structure with one 0-cell (\mathbb{D}^0) and one n -cell (\mathbb{D}^n). The attaching map for the n -cell is $\varphi : \mathbb{S}^{n-1} = \partial \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \{*\}$.

Example 1.4.12. \mathbb{S}^n can be given a different CW structure with two k -cells in each dimension for $0 \leq k \leq n$. Let $X^0 = \mathbb{S}^0 = \{\mathbb{D}_1^0, \mathbb{D}_2^0\}$. Then $X^1 = \mathbb{S}^1$ where the two 1-cells $\mathbb{D}_1^1, \mathbb{D}_2^1$ are attached to the 0-cells by homeomorphisms on their boundary. Similarly, two 2-cells can be attached to $X^1 = \mathbb{S}^1$ by homeomorphism on their boundary, giving $X^2 = \mathbb{S}^2$. Proceed inductively.

Example 1.4.13. There are natural inclusions

$$\mathbb{S}^0 \subseteq \mathbb{S}^1 \subseteq \dots \subseteq \mathbb{S}^n \subseteq \dots \subseteq$$

We can then define $\mathbb{S}^\infty = \varinjlim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{S}^n$. If \mathbb{S}^n is given a CW structure as in [Example 1.4.12](#) for each $n \geq 0$, then \mathbb{S}^∞ is a CW complex as well. Note that \mathbb{S}^∞ is a colimit of the \mathbb{S}^n 's for $n \geq 0$.

Example 1.4.14. Consider \mathbb{RP}^n as the quotient of \mathbb{S}^n with anti-podal points identified. An easy observation shows that \mathbb{RP}^n is a quotient of \mathbb{D}^n by the relation $x \sim -x$ on the boundary \mathbb{S}^{n-1} ³. Thus, \mathbb{RP}^n can be obtained from \mathbb{RP}^{n-1} by attaching a one cell.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{S}^{n-1} & \hookrightarrow & \mathbb{D}^n \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \mathbb{RP}^{n-1} & \hookrightarrow & \mathbb{RP}^n \end{array}$$

Thus \mathbb{RP}^n can be built as a CW complex with a single cell in each dimension $\leq n$.

²Let $x = (x^1, \dots, x^{n+1}) \in \mathbb{S}^n \setminus \{N\}$. The line through N and x is parameterized by

$$u^1 = x^1 t, \dots, u^n = x^n t, u^{n+1} = (x^{n+1} - 1)t + 1$$

The intersection of this line with $u^{n+1} = 0$ occurs when $t = \frac{1}{1 - x^{n+1}}$. Hence, the intersection point is $(\sigma_N(x), 0)$, as desired. Therefore, $\sigma_N(x)$ is the intersection of the line through N and x with the \mathbb{R}^n plane.

³It is easy to check that these identifications are consistent with out discussion of the real projective plane, which is \mathbb{RP}^2 .

Example 1.4.15. There are natural inclusions

$$\mathbb{RP}^0 \subseteq \mathbb{RP}^1 \subseteq \dots \subseteq \mathbb{RP}^n \subseteq \dots \subseteq$$

We can then define $\mathbb{RP}^\infty = \varinjlim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{RP}^n$. Note that \mathbb{RP}^∞ is a colimit of the \mathbb{RP}^n 's for $n \geq 0$. We can define \mathbb{CP}^∞ similarly to \mathbb{RP}^∞ .

Example 1.4.16. The complex projective space, \mathbb{CP}^n , is defined as the quotient space $\mathbb{CP}^n = (\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}) / \sim$ with the equivalence relation $x \sim y$ in $\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ if and only if $x = \lambda y$ for some $\lambda \neq 0$. Note that there is a map

$$\mathbb{D}^{2n} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$$

$$(z_0, \dots, z_{n-1}) \mapsto [z_0, \dots, z_{n-1}, \sqrt{1 - \|z\|}]$$

The boundary of \mathbb{D}^{2n} (where $\sqrt{1 - \|z\|} = 0$) is sent to \mathbb{CP}^{n-1} . In this way, \mathbb{CP}^n is obtained from \mathbb{CP}^{n-1} by attaching one $2n$ -cell. So \mathbb{CP}^n has a CW structure with one cell in each even dimension $0, 2, \dots, 2n$.

Example 1.4.17. There are natural inclusions

$$\mathbb{CP}^0 \subseteq \mathbb{CP}^1 \subseteq \dots \subseteq \mathbb{CP}^n \subseteq \dots \subseteq$$

We can then define $\mathbb{CP}^\infty = \varinjlim_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{CP}^n$ as before.

Let's discuss some 2-dimensional examples. It is well-known that compact, connected 2-dimensional manifolds are classified into the following types:

- (1) \mathbb{S}^2 ,
- (2) A connected sum of g -tori \mathbb{T} (or a g -hole torus) for $g \geq 2$,
- (3) A connected sum of g -projective spaces \mathbb{RP}^2 , for $g \geq 2$.

We have already discussed a CW-structure on \mathbb{S}^2 . We discuss examples of the other 2-manifolds below:

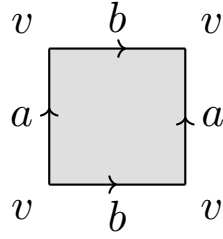
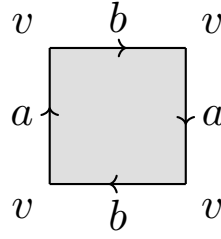
Example 1.4.18. Consider $X = \mathbb{T}^2 = \mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1$ (the 1-torus) or \mathbb{RP}^2 (the real projective plane). Both spaces can be constructed as quotients of a rectangle by identifying edges according to specific rules: for the torus, opposite edges are identified in the same direction, while for \mathbb{RP}^2 , one pair of opposite edges are identified normally and the other pair with reversed orientation. These identification diagrams offer a convenient way to visualize the topology of each space. Each space admits a natural CW complex structure with the following cells:

- (1) a single 0-cell representing the vertex of the rectangle,
- (2) two 1-cells corresponding to the edges of the rectangle,
- (3) a single 2-cell which is attached via a continuous map from the boundary circle \mathbb{S}^1 into the 1-skeleton.

Example 1.4.19. For $g \geq 1$, a model for a connected sum of g copies of the torus $\mathbb{T}^2 = \mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1$ is denoted by M_g , and is known as an orientable surface of genus g . The surface M_g can be constructed by taking a polygon with $4g$ sides and identifying its edges in pairs according to the word

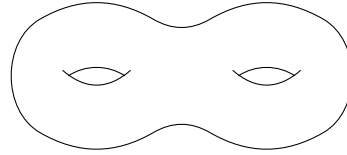
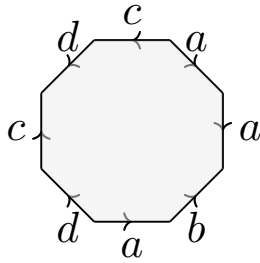
$$a_1 b_1 a_1^{-1} b_1^{-1} \dots a_g b_g a_g^{-1} b_g^{-1},$$

which encodes the edge identifications that yield a closed orientable surface. Each pair a_i, a_i^{-1} and b_i, b_i^{-1} contributes a 'handle,' so M_g can be visualized as a torus with g holes, or

 $X = \mathbb{T}$  $X = \mathbb{RP}^2$

a g -holed doughnut. This construction endows M_g with a natural CW complex structure consisting of:

- (1) a single 0-cell where all loops based on the edges are attached;
- (2) $2g$ 1-cells corresponding to the edges of the polygon;
- (3) a single 2-cell attached along the loop described by the edge word above.

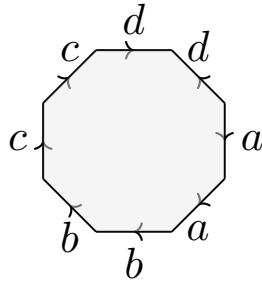


Example 1.4.20. For $g \geq 2$, a model for the connected sum of g copies of the real projective plane \mathbb{RP}^2 is denoted by N_g , and is known as a non-orientable surface of genus g . The surface N_g can be constructed from a polygon with g sides by identifying the edges according to the word

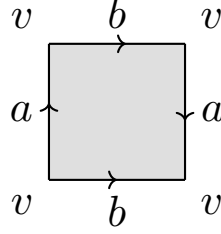
$$a_1 a_1 \cdots a_g a_g,$$

where each pair $a_i a_i$ represents an edge identification. This construction yields a closed surface that is non-orientable and has genus g . The surface N_g admits a CW complex structure consisting of:

- (1) a single 0-cell to which all loops are attached;
- (2) g 1-cells corresponding to the edges of the polygon;
- (3) a single 2-cell attached via a loop following the word $a_1 a_1 \cdots a_g a_g$.



Remark 1.4.21. N_2 is usually called a Klein bottle. Another model for the Klein bottle is given by the CW structure shown below:



It can be checked that both models are homeomorphic.

1.4.3. Properties. A sub-complex of X is a subspace $Y \subseteq X$ that is a union of open cells of X , such that if Y contains a cell, it also contains its closure. It follows immediately that the union and the intersection of any collection of sub-complexes are themselves sub-complexes. Examples of a sub-complexes would be the subspaces X^n for $n \geq 0$ in the definition of a CW complex.

Proposition 1.4.22. *Suppose X is a CW complex and Y is a sub-complex of X . Then Y is closed in X , and with the subspace topology and the cell decomposition that it inherits from X , it is a CW complex.*

PROOF. Let $\mathbb{B}^n \subseteq Y$ denote such an open n -cell in Y . Since $\overline{\mathbb{B}^n} \subseteq Y$, the finitely many cells of X that have nontrivial intersections with \mathbb{B}^n must also be cells of Y . So condition (1) in Definition 1.4.9 is automatically satisfied by Y . In addition, any characteristic map $\varphi : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow X$ for \mathbb{D}^n in X also serves as a characteristic map for $\overline{\mathbb{B}^n}$ in Y . Suppose $A \subseteq Y$ is a subset such that $A \cap \mathbb{D}^n$ is closed in \mathbb{D}^n for every n -cell \mathbb{D}^n contained in Y . Let \mathbb{D}^n be a n -cell of X that is not contained in Y . We know that $\mathbb{D}^n \setminus \mathbb{B}^n$ is contained in the union of finitely many open cells of X ; some of these, say $\mathbb{B}_1^{n_1}, \dots, \mathbb{B}_k^{n_k}$, might be contained in Y . Then $\overline{\mathbb{B}_1^{n_1}} \cup \dots \cup \overline{\mathbb{B}_k^{n_k}} \subseteq Y$, and

$$A \cap \mathbb{D}^n = A \cap (\overline{\mathbb{B}_1^{n_1}} \cup \dots \cup \overline{\mathbb{B}_k^{n_k}}) \cap \mathbb{D}^n = ((A \cap \overline{\mathbb{B}_1^{n_1}}) \cup \dots \cup (A \cap \overline{\mathbb{B}_k^{n_k}})) \cap \mathbb{D}^n$$

which is closed in \mathbb{D}^n . It follows that A is closed in X and therefore in Y . This implies (2) in Definition 1.4.9. Hence Y is a CW complex. Taking $A = Y$ shows that Y is closed. \square

Proposition 1.4.23. *The following is a list of some categorical/topological properties of CW complexes.*

- (1) *If A is a subcomplex of X , then the inclusion $\iota : A \hookrightarrow X$ is a cellular map.*
- (2) *If A is a subcomplex of X , then X/A is a CW complex such that the quotient map $X \rightarrow X/A$ is a cellular map.*
- (3) *If X and Y are finite CW complexes, then $X \times Y$ is a CW complex.*
- (4) *The closure of each cell in a CW complex is contained in a finite subcomplex.*
- (5) *A subset of a CW complex is compact if and only if it is closed and contained in a finite subcomplex.*
- (6) *A CW complex is compact if and only if it is a finite complex.*
- (7) *A CW complex is locally compact if and only if it is locally finite.*
- (8) *A CW complex is locally path-connected.*
- (9) *A CW complex is a T_1 , normal space. Hence, a CW complex is a Hausdorff space.*

PROOF. (**Sketch**) The proof of some of the properties is given below:

- (1) The proof is skipped, but it is clear given the definition of a sub-complex.
- (2) The proof is skipped.
- (3) The proof is skipped.
- (4) Let \mathbb{D}^n be an n -cell of a CW complex. We prove the claim by induction on n . If $n = 0$, then $\overline{\mathbb{D}^0} = \mathbb{D}^0$ is itself a finite subcomplex. Assume the claim is true for every cell of dimension less than n . By (1) in [Definition 1.4.9](#), $\mathbb{D}^n \setminus \mathbb{D}^n$ is contained in the union of finitely many cells of lower dimension, each of which is contained in a finite subcomplex by the inductive hypothesis. The claim now follows by taking a union of these these finite subcomplexes together with \mathbb{D}^n .
- (5) Every finite subcomplex $Y \subseteq X$ is compact because it is the union of finitely many closed cells. Thus, if $K \subseteq X$ is closed and contained in a finite subcomplex, it is also compact. Conversely, suppose $K \subseteq X$ is compact. If K intersects infinitely many cells, by choosing one point of K in each such cell, we obtain an infinite discrete subset of K , which is impossible. Therefore, K is contained in the union of finitely many cells, and thus in a finite subcomplex by (1).
- (6) This follows from (5).
- (7) This essentially follows from (5).
- (8) Consider the spaces $X^n \subseteq X$ ⁴. We induct on $n \in \mathbb{N}$. X^0 is obviously locally path-connected. If X^{n-1} is locally path-connected then X^n is also locally path-connected since it is the the quotient of the disjoint union of X^{n-1} and a bunch of n -cells which are locally path-connected. Therefore, $\coprod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} X_n$ is locally path-connected. Since

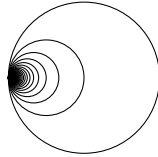
$$\coprod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} X_n \rightarrow X$$

is a quotient map, X is locally-path connected.

- (9) See [\[Hat02\]](#) for a proof.

This completes the proof. □

Remark 1.4.24. *Every topological space is not a CW complex. Consider the Hawaiian earring, X :*



The easiest way to see the Hawaiian earring has no CW decomposition is using information about the first homology group. If X were a CW-complex, then it would have to be a finite CW-complex by [Proposition 1.4.23\(6\)](#) since it is compact. Since every finite CW-complex has finitely generated homology, it suffices to show that the homology of X is not finitely generated. Observe that for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, X has a retract which is a wedge of n circles - namely, the union of n of the circles that make up X (the retraction just maps all the other circles to the origin). The first homology group of a wedge of n circles is \mathbb{Z}^n , which cannot

⁴We will use the following facts from general topology. A disjoint union of locally path-connected spaces is locally path-connected. Moreover, a quotient of a locally path-connected space is locally path-connected.

be generated by fewer than n elements. It follows that $H_1(X)$ cannot be generated by fewer than n elements for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and thus cannot be finitely generated. We have

$$\mathbf{CW} \subsetneq \mathbf{Top}$$

as inclusion of categories.

Part 1

First Homotopy Group

CHAPTER 2

Fundamental Group

2.1. Paths & Homotopy

2.1.1. Paths and π_0 .

Definition 2.1.1. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. A path in X from x to y is a continuous map $f : [0, a] \rightarrow X$ such that $f(0) = x$ and $f(a) = y$ for some $a \geq 0$.

Proposition 2.1.2. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. Paths in X form a category, called the path category, \mathbf{Paths}_X .

PROOF. The objects of this category are points of X and a morphism between two points, x, y , is simply a path. Composition of paths is defined as: if $f_1 : [0, a_1]$ and $f_2 : [0, a_2]$ such that $f_1(a_1) = f_2(0)$ are two paths, then the product path is defined as follows:

$$f_2 \cdot f_1 : [0, a_1 + a_2] \rightarrow X$$

$$t \mapsto \begin{cases} f_1(t) & \text{if } t \in [0, a_1] \\ f_2(t - a_1) & \text{if } t \in [a_1, a_1 + a_2] \end{cases}$$

For each $x \in X$, the identity path Id_x is simply the path $\text{Id}_x : [0, 0] \rightarrow X$ such that $\text{Id}_x(t) = x$ for each $t \in [0, 0]$. Associativity and the identity axiom can be easily checked. \square

Being connected by paths is an equivalence relation on X : each $x \in X$ is connected to x via the identity path. if x is connected to y by a path $f : [0, a] \rightarrow X$ such that $f(0) = x$ and $f(a) = y$, then y is connected to x via the reverse path:

$$f_r : [0, a] \rightarrow X$$

$$t \mapsto f(a - t)$$

If x is connected to y by a path f and y is connected to z via a path g , then x is connected to z via the path $f_2 \cdot f_1$.

Definition 2.1.3. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. An equivalence relation on X under the equivalence relation of being connected by a path is a path-component.

We denote by $\pi_0(X)$ the set of path components, and by $\pi_0(x)$ the path component of the point x . π_0 then defines a functor

$$\pi_0 : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Sets}$$

$$X \mapsto \pi_0(X)$$

Indeed, a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ induces $\pi_0(f) : \pi_0(X) \rightarrow \pi_0(Y)$ given by $\pi_0(x) \mapsto \pi_0(f(x))$ for each $x \in X$. π_0 assigns an invariant to a topological space in the sense that if X and Y are homeomorphic topological space via a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, then

$$\pi_0(X) \cong \pi_0(Y)$$

as sets. This can be easily checked. See [Proposition 2.1.12](#) for a more general argument. Hence, the cardinality of $\pi_0(X)$ can be used to distinguish some simple topological spaces.

Example 2.1.4. \mathbb{R} is not homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n for $n > 1$. Suppose $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a homeomorphism. Then $\mathbb{R} \cong \mathbb{R}^n$. WLOG let $f(0) = 0$. Hence, $\mathbb{R} \setminus 0 \cong \mathbb{R}^n \setminus 0$. $\mathbb{R} \setminus 0$ has two path-components and $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus 0$ has a single path-component, a contradiction.

Example 2.1.5. Let

$$X = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x = 0 \text{ or } y = 0\}$$

be the union of the x and y axes in \mathbb{R}^2 . X is not homeomorphic to \mathbb{R} since $X \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ has four path-components and $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ has two path-components.

Example 2.1.6. Assume that $\mathbb{R} \cong X \times Y$. Then $X \times Y$ and hence X, Y are path-connected. Assume $|X|, |Y| \geq 2$. Let $(x_0, y_0) \in X \times Y$. Then $X \times Y \setminus (x_0, y_0)$ is path-connected¹. However, $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{*\}$ is not path-connected. Hence, either $|X| = 1$ or $|Y| = 1$.

2.1.2. Homotopy. Topology can at best be thought of as ‘squishy geometry.’ Perhaps it is possible to continuously deform a path while still retaining its underlying topological properties. More generally, perhaps two functions $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ can be ‘deformed into each other’ This leads to the notion of homotopy.

Definition 2.1.7. Let $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$ and let $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ be continuous maps. A homotopy from f to g is a continuous map

$$H : X \times [0, 1] \rightarrow Y$$

such that $f(x) = H(x, 0)$ and $g(x) = H(x, 1)$ for $x \in X$. In this case, we write $f \sim g$. H is said to be relative to $A \subseteq X$ if the restriction $H|_A$ is constant on A . In this case, we write $f \sim_A g$.

Example 2.1.8. A homotopy between paths $f_i : [0, a_i] \rightarrow X$ from x to y is a continuous map

$$H : I \times I \rightarrow X$$

such that

$$h(s, 0) = f_1(s)$$

$$h(s, 1) = f_2(s)$$

$$h(0, t) = x$$

$$h(1, t) = y$$

for all $s, t \in I$. In other words, we have a homotopy relative to the set $\{x, y\}$.

Proposition 2.1.9. *The homotopy operation satisfies the following properties:*

- (1) \sim is an equivalence relation.
- (2) \sim is compatible with composition of maps.
- (3) If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous function, then $f \circ \text{Id}_X \sim \text{Id}_Y \circ f$

PROOF. The proof is as follows:

¹Let $(a, b), (c, d) \in X \times Y$. If $a = c \neq x_0$ or $b = d \neq y_0$, then exists a path between (a, b) & (c, d) in either $\{a\} \times Y$ or $X \times \{b\}$ resp. avoiding (x_0, y_0) . If $a = c = x_0$, then $b, d \neq y_0$. Choose a point $x \neq x_0 \in X$. Consider the path $(a, b) \rightarrow (x, b) \rightarrow (x, d) \rightarrow (c, d)$ which avoids (x_0, y_0) . A similar argument works if $b = d = y_0$. If $a \neq c$ and $b \neq d$, consider two paths: $(a, b) \rightarrow (c, b) \rightarrow (c, d)$ and $(a, b) \rightarrow (a, d) \rightarrow (c, d)$. (x_0, y_0) cannot be on both paths. This covers all cases.

- (1) Any map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is homotopic to itself via the constant homotopy

$$\begin{aligned} H(x, t) : X \times [0, 1] &\rightarrow Y \\ (x, t) &\mapsto f(x) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $f \sim f$. Given $H : f \sim g$, the inverse homotopy

$$\begin{aligned} H(x, t) : X \times [0, 1] &\rightarrow Y \\ (x, t) &\mapsto H(x, 1 - t) \end{aligned}$$

shows $g \sim f$. Let $K : f \sim g$ and $L : g \sim h$ be given. The product homotopy $K * L$ is defined by

$$(K * L)(x, t) = \begin{cases} K(x, 2t) & 0 \leq t \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ L(x, 2t - 1) & \frac{1}{2} \leq t \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

and shows $f \sim h$.

- (2) Consider continuous functions

$$\begin{aligned} f_i : X &\rightarrow Y \\ g_i : Y &\rightarrow Z \end{aligned}$$

for $i = 1, 2$. Assume $f_1 \sim f_2$ via a homotopy F and $g_1 \sim g_2$ via a homotopy G . Define a homotopy:

$$\begin{aligned} G \circ F : X \times I &\rightarrow Z \\ (x, t) &\mapsto G(F(x, t), t) \end{aligned}$$

This shows that $f_2 \circ f_1 \sim g_2 \circ g_1$.

- (3) This is clear.

This completes the proof. \square

We now have a new category **hTop**: objects in **hTop** are the same as objects as in **Top** and morphisms are homotopy classes of continuous maps. **Proposition 2.1.9** shows that **hTop** is well-defined. If $X, Y \in \mathbf{hTop}$, the set of homotopy classes of continuous maps between X and Y is denoted by $[X, Y]$.

Remark 2.1.10. We can also define \mathbf{hTop}_* corresponding to \mathbf{Top}_* . For instance, if $(X, x_0), (Y, y_0) \in \mathbf{hTop}_*$, then a pointed homotopy in \mathbf{hTop}_* is a continuous function such that

$$H : (X, x_0) \times I \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$$

such that $H|_{(X, x_0) \times \{t\}}$ for each $t \in I$ is a pointed map. The set of pointed homotopy classes from X to Y is denoted as $[X, Y]_*$. Note that $[X, Y]_*$ is itself a pointed set with the basepoint given by the homotopy class of the constant map $X \rightarrow y_0$.

Remark 2.1.11. If $A = \{\bullet\}$, then **Definition 2.1.7** is a statement about the homotopy of maps considered as morphisms in \mathbf{Top}_* . We can also define a notion of homotopy for morphisms in \mathbf{Top}^2 . If there are two maps $f, g : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ in \mathbf{Top}^2 , a homotopy of pairs from f to g is a homotopy $H : f \simeq g$ that, in addition, satisfies $H(a, t) \in B$ for all $t \in [0, 1]$ and $a \in A$. This defines a new category, \mathbf{hTop}^2 .

We now show that π_0 is a topological invariant in **hTop**.

Proposition 2.1.12. *Let $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$. If X and Y are homotopy equivalent, then*

$$\pi_0(X) \cong \pi_0(Y)$$

as sets.

PROOF. Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $g : Y \rightarrow X$ be the homotopy equivalent maps. We have a function

$$f_* : \pi_0(X) \rightarrow \pi_0(Y),$$

that sends the path component $[x]$ in X to the path component $[f(x)]$ in Y . Clearly, this is well-defined. We similarly have a function

$$g_* : \pi_0(Y) \rightarrow \pi_0(X),$$

that sends the path component $[y]$ in Y to the path component $[g(y)]$ in X . Moreover, homotopic maps give the same function, since $I \times I$ is path-connected. Since $g \circ f \cong \text{Id}_X$ and $f \circ g \cong \text{Id}_Y$, we must have that $\pi_0(X) \cong \pi_0(Y)$. \square

We discuss a few basic but useful results:

Proposition 2.1.13. *The following statements are true:*

- (1) *Let $A, X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$. If $f_0 \sim f_1 : A \rightarrow X$ and $g_0 \sim g_1 : A \rightarrow Y$, then*

$$(f_0, g_0) \sim (f_1, g_1) : A \rightarrow X \times Y.$$

- (2) *Let $X, Y, B \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. If $f_0 \sim f_1 : X \rightarrow B$ and $g_0 \sim g_1 : Y \rightarrow B$, then*

$$\{f_0, g_0\} \sim \{f_1, g_1\} : X \vee Y \rightarrow B.$$

PROOF. For (1), let H_t be the homotopy between f_0 and f_1 and G_t the homotopy between g_0 and g_1 . Then $(H_t, G_t) : A \rightarrow X \times Y$ is a homotopy between (f_0, g_0) and (f_1, g_1) . The proof of (2) is similar. \square

Remark 2.1.14. *Proposition 2.1.13 implies that we have bijections*

$$\begin{aligned} [A, X] \times [A, Y] &\cong [A, X \times Y] \\ [X, B]_* \times [Y, B]_* &\cong [X \vee Y, B]_* \end{aligned}$$

An important instance of a homotopy arises when we consider the following question: perhaps it is possible to deform a topological space into a ‘smaller’ space continuously. This leads to the notion of a deformation retraction which is a specific instance of a homotopy.

Definition 2.1.15. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. A deformation retraction of X onto a subspace A is a homotopy

$$H : X \times [0, 1] \rightarrow X$$

such that $H(\cdot, 0) = \text{Id}_X$, $H(\cdot, 1) = A$, and $H(\cdot, t)|_A = \text{Id}_A$ for all $t \in [0, 1]$. X is said to be contractible if deformation retracts to a point $A = \{*\}$.

Example 2.1.16. The following are examples of some deformation retractions:

- (1) \mathbb{R}^n is contractible. More generally, any star-shaped region is contractible. Indeed, if X is star-shaped with respect to some point $a \in X$, then

$$H(x, t) = (1 - t)x + ta$$

defines a homotopy between the constant map and the identity map. Hence star-shaped sets are contractible.

- (2) $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus 0$ deformation retracts to \mathbb{S}^{n-1} . Simply consider the straight-line homotopy:

$$H(x, t) = (1 - t)x + \frac{tx}{\|x\|}.$$

- (3) \mathbb{S}^∞ is contractible. Let H_1 be given by

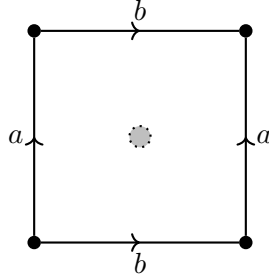
$$\begin{aligned} H_1 : \mathbb{R}^\infty \times I &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\infty, \\ (x, t) &\mapsto (1 - t)(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) + t(0, x_1, x_2, \dots). \end{aligned}$$

Note that $H_1(-, 1)$ is the right shift map. For any $x \in \mathbb{S}^\infty$, the vector $H_1(x, -)$ is not a multiple of x , so the line segment between them does not pass through the origin. Thus, we can define a homotopy from the identity on \mathbb{S}^∞ by setting $H_1/\|H_1\|$. The idea is now to contract the image of $H_1(-, 1)$, which is a codimension-1 sphere, to a point not on it—say, $(1, 0, 0, 0, 0, \dots)$. Let

$$\begin{aligned} H_2 : \mathbb{R}^\infty \times I &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\infty \\ (x, t) &= (1 - t)(0, x_1, x_2, \dots) + t(1, 0, 0, \dots). \end{aligned}$$

Clearly, $H_2 = H_2/\|H_2\|$ is a homotopy from the map $H_1(-, 1)$ to the constant map at $(1, 0, 0, \dots)$ on \mathbb{S}^∞ . The composition is the desired homotopy that shows that \mathbb{S}^∞ is contractible.

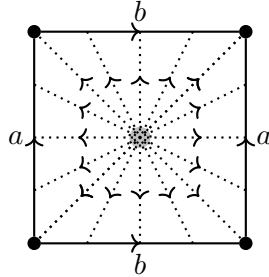
- (4) Let Y be the topological space obtained by identifying opposite sides $[-1, 1] \times [-1, 1]$. Let $X = Y \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$. See the diagram below:



Consider the homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow X$ defined by the formula

$$H((x, y), t) = \begin{cases} (t \frac{x}{|y|} + (1 - t)x, t \frac{y}{|y|} + (1 - t)y) & |y| > |x| \\ (t \frac{x}{|x|} + (1 - t)x, t \frac{y}{|x|} + (1 - t)y) & |x| > |y| \end{cases}$$

If $(x, y) \in X$ and $|y| > |x|$, the homotopy H linearly slides (x, y) onto a point such that the x -coordinate of $H((x, y), 1)$ is $\text{sgn}(x)$. See the diagram below:



The image of $H(\cdot, 1)$ is clearly the identified edges of X , which is, geometrically, a figure eight: a graph consisting of two circles intersecting in a point.

- (5) Consider the Mobius strip, M , obtained as the quotient space of the square $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ by identifying

$$(x, 0) \sim (1 - x, 1) \quad \text{for all } 0 \leq x \leq 1.$$

The line $\{(x, \frac{1}{2}) : x \in [0, 1]\} \subseteq \mathbb{S}^1$ is \mathbb{S}^1 as a subspace of M . Then the map

$$H : M \times [0, 1] \rightarrow M$$

$$((x, y), t) \mapsto \left(x, (1 - t)y + \frac{t}{2}\right)$$

gives a well-defined strong deformation retract of M to \mathbb{S}^1 (as can be checked).

The following example is quite important:

Example 2.1.17. $\mathbb{D}^n \times I$ deformation retracts onto $\mathbb{D}^n \times \{0\} \cup \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \times I$. Define

$$r(x, t) = \begin{cases} (\frac{2x}{2-t}, 0) & \|x\| \leq \frac{2-t}{2} \\ (\frac{x}{\|x\|}, 2 - \frac{2-t}{\|x\|}) & \|x\| \geq \frac{2-t}{2} \end{cases}$$

It is easy to check that this is a well-defined continuous map. For $t = 0$ we get $\frac{2-t}{2} = 1$ and thus $r(x, 0) = (x, 0)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{D}^n$. For $x \in \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$ we have $r(x, t) = (x, t)$. Thus r is a retraction.

Remark 2.1.18. *There is a geometric interpretation of r in Example 2.1.17. For each (x, t) consider the line $L_{x,t}$ through $(0, 2)$ and (x, t) . This line intersects $\mathbb{D}^n \times \{0\} \cup \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \times I$ in a single point $r(x, t)$.*

Example 2.1.19. Let $X = \{\bullet_1, \bullet_2\}$ be a two-point topological space. If X is given the discrete topology, then X is not contractible. Indeed, contractible spaces are path-connected and X is not path connected with the discrete topology. If X is given the Sierpinski topology, $\{\emptyset, X, \{\bullet_1\}\}$, then X is contractible. Define

$$H : X \times [0, 1] \rightarrow X$$

so that $H(x, 0) = x$ for all $x \in X$, and $H(x, t) = \bullet_1$ for all $x \in X$ and $t \in (0, 1]$. It is easy to see that H is continuous and hence defines a homotopy.

Definition 2.1.20. A map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ defines a homotopy equivalence if there exists $g : Y \rightarrow X$ such that $g \circ f$ and $f \circ g$ are both homotopic to the identity. X and Y are homotopy equivalent if there exists a homotopy equivalence. In this case, we write $X \sim Y$.

Example 2.1.21. For any $X \in \mathbf{Top}$, $X \times I$ is homotopy equivalent to X . Consider the maps

$$\pi_1 : X \times I \rightarrow X, \quad i_0 : X \rightarrow X \times I,$$

$$(x, t) \mapsto x. \quad x \mapsto (x, 0).$$

Note that $\pi_1 \circ i_0 = \text{Id}_X$. Moreover, $i_0 \circ \pi_1 \sim \text{Id}_{X \times I}$ via the homotopy:

$$H : (X \times I) \times I \rightarrow X \times I,$$

$$((x, t), s) \mapsto (x, (1 - s)t).$$

Remark 2.1.22. *Example 2.1.21 can be generalized to prove that if X is a topological space and Y is a contractible topological space, then the projection*

$$\pi_1 : X \times Y \rightarrow X$$

is a homotopy equivalence.

Proposition 2.1.23. *Let X, Y be topological space. The following are some properties of the homotopy and homotopy equivalence concept.*

- (1) *X is contractible if and only if every map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, for arbitrary Y , is homotopic to a constant map. Similarly, X is contractible if and only if every map $f : Y \rightarrow X$ is homotopic to a constant map.*
- (2) *Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous map. Suppose there exist $g, h : Y \rightarrow X$, possibly different, such that $f \circ g \simeq \text{Id}_Y$ and $h \circ f \simeq \text{Id}_X$. Then f is a homotopy equivalence.*

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) Suppose X is contractible. Let $H : X \times I \rightarrow X$ be a homotopy such that $H(\cdot, 0) = \text{Id}_X$ and $H(\cdot, 1)$ is the constant map with value x_0 .
 - (a) If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous map for any topological space Y , then $f \circ G : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy from f to the constant map with value $f(x_0)$. Thus, f is homotopic to a constant map. Conversely, letting $Y = X$ and $f = \text{Id}_X$ shows that X is contractible.
 - (b) If $f : Y \rightarrow X$ is a continuous map for any topological space Y , then the map

$$H : Y \times I \rightarrow X \quad H(y, t) \mapsto H(f(y), t)$$

is a homotopy from f to the constant map with value x_0 . Thus, f is homotopic to a constant map. Conversely, letting $Y = X$ and $f = \text{Id}_X$ shows that X is contractible.

- (2) If $h \circ f \sim \text{Id}_X$ and $f \circ g \sim \text{Id}_Y$, then

$$g \sim \text{Id}_X \circ g \sim (h \circ f) \circ g \sim h \circ (f \circ g) \sim h \circ \text{Id}_Y \sim h$$

Thus, $g \circ f \sim h \circ f \sim \text{Id}_X$, and since $f \circ g \sim \text{Id}_Y$, g is a homotopy equivalent to f .

This completes the proof. \square

2.2. Fundamental Group

2.2.1. π_1 . Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. Recall the definition of homotopy from the previous section. In this section, we focus on homotopy of paths relative to the boundary of $I = [0, 1]$, denoted as ∂I . We have the following observations:

Lemma 2.2.1. *The product of paths (read left to right) has the following properties:*

- (1) *Let $\alpha : I \rightarrow I$ be continuous and $\alpha(0) = 0$, $\alpha(1) = 1$. Then $f \sim f \circ \alpha$.*
- (2) *$f \cdot (g \cdot h) \sim (f \cdot g) \cdot h$ ²*
- (3) *$f \sim f'$ and $g \sim g'$ implies $f \cdot g \sim f' \cdot g'$.*
- (4) *If c_x denotes the constant path at $x \in X$, then $c_{f(0)} \cdot f \sim f \sim f \cdot c_{f(1)}$*
- (5) *$f \cdot f_r \sim c_{f(1)}$ and $f_r \cdot f \sim c_{f(0)}$ where f_r is the reverse of f*

PROOF. The proof is given below:

²This assumes that at least one side of the equation is well-defined.

- (1) α defines a reparamterization of the identity map from I to I . Let $H : I \times I \rightarrow I$ denote the straight-line homotopy from Id_I to α . Then $f \circ H$ is a path homotopy from f to $f \circ \alpha$
- (2) We provide a proof in words. We need to show that

$$(f \cdot g) \cdot h \sim f \cdot (g \cdot h)$$

for any three paths in X such that the left-hand side is well-defined. The first path follows f and then g at quadruple speed for $s \in [0, \frac{1}{2}]$, and then follows h at double speed for $s \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1]$, while the second follows f at double speed and then g and h at quadruple speed. The two paths are therefore reparametrizations of each other and thus homotopic.

- (3) We show that $c_{f(0)} \cdot f \sim f$. The other homotopy follows similarly. Define $H : I \times I \rightarrow X$ as

$$H(s, t) = \begin{cases} f(0), & t \geq 2s, \\ f\left(\frac{2s-t}{2-t}\right), & t \leq 2s. \end{cases}$$

Geometrically, this maps the portion of the square on the left of the line $t = 2s$ to the point $f(0)$, and it maps the portion on the right along the path f at increasing speeds as t goes from 0 to 1. This map is continuous by the gluing lemma, and we have that $H(s, 0) = f(s)$ and $H(s, 1) = c_{f(0)} * f(s)$. The claim follows.

- (4) We just show that $f \cdot f_r \simeq c_{f(1)}$. Define a homotopy by the following recipe: at any time t , the path H_t follows f as far as $f(t)$ at double speed while the parameter s is in the interval $[0, t/2]$; then for $s \in [t/2, 1 - t/2]$, it stays at $f(t)$; then it retraces f at double speed back to p . Formally,

$$H(s, t) = \begin{cases} f(2s), & 0 \leq s \leq t/2, \\ f(t), & t/2 \leq s \leq 1 - t/2, \\ f(2 - 2s), & 1 - t/2 \leq s \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

It is easy to check that H is a homotopy from $c_{f(1)}$ to $f \cdot f_r$.

This completes the proof. \square

For $X \in \mathbf{Top}$, [Lemma 2.2.1](#) implies that one can consider a category $\Pi(X)$ whose objects are points of X and morphisms are homotopy classes of paths between points of X relative to ∂I . $\Pi(X)$ is called the fundamental groupoid of X because each element in $\text{Hom}_{\Pi(X)}(\cdot, \cdot)$ has an inverse path. In particular, $\text{Hom}_{\Pi(X)}(X, x_0)$ is a group for each $x \in X$.

Definition 2.2.2. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ and $x_0 \in X$. The fundamental group of X at x is

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) = \text{Aut}_{\Pi(X)}(x_0)$$

X is simply connected (or 1-connected) if it is path connected and its fundamental group is trivial.

Remark 2.2.3. A loop based at $x_0 \in X$ is a map $f : I \rightarrow X$ such that $f(0) = f(1) = x$. Since $I/\partial I \cong \mathbb{S}^1$ where the homeomorphism is given by the exponential function, $\varepsilon(t) = \exp(2\pi it)$, f descends to a continuous map from \mathbb{S}^1 to X .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} I & & \\ \downarrow \varepsilon & \searrow f & \\ \mathbb{S}^1 & \xrightarrow{\tilde{f}} & X \end{array}$$

Therefore, we have

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) \cong [(\mathbb{S}^1, *), (X, x_0)]$$

where $[(\mathbb{S}^1, *), (X, x_0)]$ denotes the set of homotopy classes of maps from $(\mathbb{S}^1, *)$ to (X, x_0) such that $*$ maps to x_0 .

We next state an important lemma:

Lemma 2.2.4. (Square Lemma) Let $F : W \rightarrow I \times X$ be a continuous map, and let f, g, h , and k be the paths in X defined by:

$$f(s) = F(s, 0) \quad g(s) = F(1, s) \quad h(s) = F(0, s) \quad k(s) = F(s, 1)$$

Then $f \cdot g \sim h \cdot k$.

PROOF. (Sketch) Consider an appropriate straight-line homotopy from the corners of the square $I \times I$. \square

Proposition 2.2.5. Let $(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. The following are some properties of the fundamental group of X at x_0 .

- (1) For each $x'_0 \in X$, such that $x'_0 \in \pi_0(x_0)$, we have

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) \cong \pi_1(X, x'_0)$$

More generally, if X_0 is a path component of X that contains x_0 , and $i : X_0 \rightarrow X$ is the inclusion map, then

$$i_* : \pi_1(X_0, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$$

is an isomorphism.

- (2) $\Pi(\cdot)$ is a functor from \mathbf{Top} to \mathbf{Grpd} , the category of groupoids.
 (3) π_1 is a functor from \mathbf{Top}_* to \mathbf{Grp} , the category of groups.
 (4) if (X, x_0) and (Y, y_0) are pointed topological spaces, then

$$\pi_1(X \times Y, (x_0, y_0)) \cong \pi_1(X, x_0) \cong \pi_1(Y, y_0)$$

That is, π_1 preserves products.

- (5) If $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ are homotopic with a homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ and h is the path $h(t) = H(x, \cdot)$, then the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \pi_1(X, f(x_0)) & \\ f_* \nearrow & \downarrow \Phi_g & \\ \pi_1(X, x_0) & & \pi_1(X, g(x_0)) \\ g_* \searrow & & \end{array}$$

- (6) If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy equivalence, then the induced homomorphism

$$f_* : \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, f(x_0))$$

is an isomorphism.

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) Let α be a path from x to x' . Consider the map

$$\Phi_\alpha : \pi(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi(X, x'_0) \quad \beta \mapsto \alpha \cdot \beta \cdot \alpha_r$$

Note that Φ_α is a homomorphism:

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_\alpha[\beta_2 \cdot \beta_1] &= [\alpha \cdot \beta_2 \cdot \beta_1 \cdot \alpha_r] \\ &= [\alpha \cdot \beta_2 \cdot \alpha_r \cdot \alpha \cdot \beta_1 \cdot \alpha_r] \\ &= [\alpha \cdot \beta_2 \cdot \alpha_r] \cdot [\alpha \cdot \beta_1 \cdot \alpha_r] \\ &= \Phi_\alpha[\beta_2] \cdot \Phi_\alpha[\beta_1] \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that Φ_α is bijective with inverse

$$\Phi_{\alpha_r} : \pi(X, x'_0) \rightarrow \pi(X, x_0) \quad \beta \mapsto \alpha_r \cdot \beta \cdot \alpha$$

More generally, any loop in X based at x must in fact be a loop in X_0 , so it is necessary only to check that two homotopic loops in X are homotopic in X_0 . But this is immediate since if

$$F : I \times I \rightarrow X$$

is a homotopy whose image contains x_0 , its image must lie entirely in X_0 , because $I \times I$ is path-connected.

- (2) A continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ induces a homomorphism

$$f_* : \Pi(X) \rightarrow \Pi(Y)$$

defined by $f_*([\alpha]) = [f \circ \alpha]$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} f_*([\beta] \cdot [\alpha]) &= f_*([\beta \cdot \alpha]) \\ &= [f \circ (\beta \cdot \alpha)] \\ &= [(f \circ \beta) \cdot (f \circ \alpha)] \\ &= f_*[\beta] \cdot f_*[\alpha] \end{aligned}$$

The rest of the axioms can be checked in a straightforward way.

- (3) This is similar to (2).
 (4) Consider the map

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi : \pi_1(X \times Y, (x_0, y_0)) &\rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0) \times \pi_1(Y, y_0) \\ [\alpha] &\mapsto ([\alpha_X], [\alpha_Y]) \end{aligned}$$

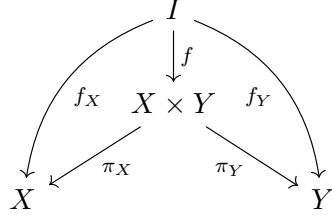
It is clear that Φ is well-defined since $f \sim g$ implies that

$$\alpha_X = \pi \circ \alpha \sim \pi \circ \alpha = \alpha_X$$

Similarly, $\alpha_Y \sim \alpha_Y$. The universal property of the product topology shows that Φ is a surjective. Moreover, if $[\alpha_X] = [c_x]$ and $[\alpha_Y] = [c_y]$ we can choose we choose homotopies H_x and H_y . Then the map $H : I \times I \rightarrow X \times Y$ given by

$$H(s, t) = (H_x(s, t), H_y(s, t))$$

is a homotopy from f to the constant loop $c_{(x_0, y_0)}$. Checking that Φ is a homomorphism is easy.



- (5) Let α be any loop in X based at x . What we need to show is

$$\begin{aligned} g_*[\alpha] &= \Phi_g \circ f_*[\alpha] \\ \iff g \circ \alpha &\sim h \cdot (f \circ \alpha) \cdot h_r \\ \iff (f \circ \alpha) \cdot h &\sim h \cdot (g \circ \alpha) \end{aligned}$$

This readily follows from the square lemma applied to the map $F : I \times I \rightarrow Y$ defined by $F(s, t) = H(\alpha(s), t)$.

- (6) Let $g : Y \rightarrow X$ be a homotopy inverse for f , so that $f \circ g \simeq 1_Y$ and $g \circ f \simeq 1_X$. Consider the maps:

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) \xrightarrow{f_*} \pi_1(Y, f(x_0)) \xrightarrow{g_*} \pi_1(X, g(f(x_0))) \xrightarrow{f_*} \pi_1(Y, f(g(f(x_0))))$$

The composition of the first two maps is an isomorphism by (4). In particular, f_* is injective. The same reasoning with the second and third maps shows that g_* is injective. Thus the first two of the three maps are injections and their composition is an isomorphism, so g_* must be injective and surjective.

This completes the proof. \square

Remark 2.2.6. Note that the homomorphism Φ_α in [Proposition 2.2.5\(a\)](#) depends only on the homotopy class of α . Indeed, assume that $\alpha \cong \alpha'$ where α and α' are continuous path joining x and x' . Then:

$$\Phi_\alpha[\beta] = [\alpha \cdot \beta \cdot \alpha_r] = [\alpha] \cdot [\beta] \cdot [\alpha_r] = [\alpha'] \cdot [\beta] \cdot [\alpha'_r] = \Phi_{\alpha'}[\beta].$$

Hence we have $\Phi_\alpha = \Phi_{\alpha'}$.

Remark 2.2.7. [Proposition 2.2.5](#) implies that if X is a path-connected space, then

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) \cong \pi_1(X, x'_0)$$

for each $x, x' \in X$. We shall mostly be concerned with path-connected spaces. Therefore, we shall not write the basepoint from now on.

How does one compute fundamental groups? This might be a difficult problem. But we can at the very least state some trivial calculations:

Proposition 2.2.8. The following are calculations of some fundamental groups:

- (1) If $X = \{\bullet\}$ is a one-point space, then $\pi_1(X) = \{1\}$, is the trivial group.
- (2) If X is contractible, then $\pi_1(X, x_0) = \{1\}$ is the trivial group.

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) A one-point space has only the constant loop. Hence, its fundamental group is trivial.

(2) This follows from the [Proposition 2.2.5\(5\)](#) and (1) above.

This completes the proof. \square

Remark 2.2.9. A topological space, X , is simply connected if its fundamental group is the trivial group. One can easily check that X is simply connected if and only if there is a unique homotopy class of paths connecting any two points in X . For the forward direction, let $x, y \in X$, and $f, g : I \rightarrow X$ are paths from x to y . Then we have the following sequence of homotopies:

$$f \sim f * c_y \sim f * \bar{g} * g \sim c_x * g \sim g,$$

where we use the fact that $\bar{g} * g$ and $f * \bar{g}$ are loops at y and x , respectively, and hence are homotopic to the respective constant paths. For the reverse direction, take $x = y$. By hypothesis, any loop γ at $x \in X$ is in the homotopy class of the constant loop c_x .

As we shall see by way of examples, fundamental groups are rarely abelian. However, there is an important class of groups for which the fundamental groups are abelian. Before identifying this class, we identify when a fundamental group is abelian.

Lemma 2.2.10. Let X be a path-connected topological space X . For any $x \in X$, $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ is abelian if and only if all basepoint-change homomorphisms Φ_α depend only on the endpoints of the path α .

PROOF. Assume $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ is abelian and consider two paths α, α' with same endpoints x and x' . Since $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ is abelian, $\pi_1(X, x'_0)$ is also abelian since $\pi_1(X, x_0) \cong \pi_1(X, x'_0)$. We have:

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_\alpha[\beta] &= [\alpha] \cdot [\beta] \cdot [\alpha_r] \\ &= [\alpha] \cdot [\beta] \cdot [c_x] \cdot [\alpha_r] \\ &= [\alpha] \cdot [\beta] \cdot [\alpha'_r \cdot \alpha'] \cdot [\alpha_r] \\ &= ([\alpha] \cdot [\beta] \cdot [\alpha'_r]) \cdot ([\alpha' \cdot \alpha_r]) \\ &= ([\alpha' \cdot \alpha_r]) \cdot ([\alpha] \cdot [\beta] \cdot [\alpha'_r]) \\ \Phi_\alpha[\beta] &= [\alpha'] \cdot [\beta] \cdot [\alpha'_r] = \Phi_{\alpha'}(\beta). \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\Phi_\alpha = \Phi_{\alpha'}$. Conversely, assume all basepoint-change homomorphisms Φ_α depend only on the endpoints of the path α . Consider $x' = x$ and loops c_x (constant loop) and $[\beta] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$. Then $\Phi_\beta = \Phi_{c_x}$. We can easily see that this implies

$$[\beta] \cdot [\beta'] = [\beta'] \cdot [\beta]$$

for each $[\beta'] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$. Hence $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ is abelian. \square

Example 2.2.11. We argue that the fundamental group of a topological group, G , is abelian. Let e_G be the identity element chosen as the base point. Let $[\alpha], [\beta] \in \pi_1(G, e_G)$. Define a map

$$\begin{aligned} F : I \times I &\rightarrow G \\ (t, s) &\mapsto \alpha(t) \cdot \beta(s) \end{aligned}$$

In $I \times I$, let

$$(0, 0) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_1} (1, 0), \quad (1, 0) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_2} (1, 1), \quad (0, 0) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_3} (0, 1), \quad (1, 0) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_4} (1, 1), \quad (0, 0) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_5} (1, 1)$$

be the straight line paths. Applying $F \varepsilon_5$ yields a path

$$\alpha * \beta(t) = \alpha(t) \cdot \beta(t)$$

Since $I \times I$ is convex, we have

$$\varepsilon_2 \cdot \varepsilon_1 \simeq \varepsilon_5 \simeq \varepsilon_4 \cdot \varepsilon_3,$$

since all three are paths from $(0, 0) \rightarrow (1, 1)$. Applying F to this gives

$$\beta \cdot \alpha \sim \alpha * \beta \sim \alpha \cdot \beta$$

Hence $[\beta \cdot \alpha] = [\alpha \cdot \beta]$. Hence, $\pi_1(G, e_G)$ is abelian.

2.2.2. Categorical Remarks. We end this section with some categorical remarks that will be useful in the next section. Recall that there is a useful notion of a skeleton of a category \mathcal{C} . This is a full subcategory with one object from each isomorphism class of objects of \mathcal{C} . We denote the skeleton as $\text{Sk } \mathcal{C}$. The inclusion functor

$$\mathcal{J} : \text{Sk } \mathcal{C} \hookrightarrow \mathcal{C}$$

is an equivalence of categories. Indeed, an inverse functor

$$\mathcal{C} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \text{Sk } \mathcal{C}$$

is obtained by letting $\mathcal{F}(X)$ be the unique object in $\text{Sk } \mathcal{C}$ that is isomorphic to X . We also choose an isomorphism $\alpha_X \in \text{Hom}(X, \mathcal{F}(X))$. We choose $\alpha_X = \text{Id}_X$ to be the identity morphism if $X \in \text{Sk } \mathcal{C}$. If $f \in \text{Hom}(x_0, y_0)$, we define

$$\mathcal{F}(f) = \alpha_Y \circ f \circ \alpha_X^{-1}$$

We have $\mathcal{F} \circ \mathcal{J} = \text{Id}_{\text{Sk } \mathcal{C}}$. Moreover, the α_X 's specify a natural isomorphism

$$\alpha : \text{Id}_X \rightarrow \mathcal{J} \circ \mathcal{F}$$

A category \mathcal{C} is said to be connected if any two of its objects can be connected by a sequence of morphisms. For example, a sequence

$$A \leftarrow B \rightarrow C$$

connects A to C , although there need be no morphism $A \rightarrow C$. However, a groupoid \mathcal{C} is connected if and only if any two of its objects are isomorphic. Hence if \mathcal{C} is a groupoid, the group of endomorphisms of any object in \mathcal{C} is then a skeleton of \mathcal{C} . Hence, we have:

Corollary 2.2.12. *Let X be a path-connected space. For each point $x_0 \in X$, the inclusion $\pi_1(X, x_0) \hookrightarrow \Pi(X)$ is an equivalence of categories.*

PROOF. $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ is a category with a single object x , and it is a skeleton of $\Pi(X)$. □

2.3. Seifert-Van Kampen Theorems

The Seifert Van Kampen (SVK) theorems gives a method for computing the fundamental groups of spaces that can be decomposed into simpler spaces whose fundamental groups are already known.

Proposition 2.3.1. (SVK for Groupoids) *Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$, and let $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$ be an open cover of X such that that the intersection of finitely many open sets again belongs to the open cover. Then*

$$\Pi(X) = \varinjlim_{i \in I} \Pi(U_i)$$

in the category of groupoids.

Remark 2.3.2. Note that *Proposition 2.3.1* states that Π preserves colimits.

PROOF. We verify the universal property of colimits in the category of groupoids. Let G be some groupoid and let $\Gamma_i : \Pi(U_i) \rightarrow G$ be groupoid morphisms. We show that there exists a unique groupoid morphism $\Phi : \Pi(X) \rightarrow G$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \Pi(\bigcap_{j \in J \subseteq I} U_j) & \hookrightarrow & \Pi(U_{i_{|J|}}) \\
 \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 \Pi(U_{i_1}) & \hookrightarrow & \Pi(X) \\
 & \searrow \Gamma_{i_1} & \downarrow \Gamma_{i_{|J|}} \\
 & & G
 \end{array}$$

(Note: A dashed arrow labeled Φ points from $\Pi(X)$ to G .)

for each subset $J \subseteq I$. Consider the following observations:

- (1) An object of $\Pi(X)$ is a point $x \in X$ and so lies in one of U_i . If $x \in U_i$, we are forced to set $\Gamma(x) = \Gamma_i(x)$. If x is contained in the intersection of finitely many U_i 's, these definitions agree by the commutative square above³.
- (2) A morphism in $\Pi(X)$ is a homotopy class of a path α in X . If α is solely contained in some U_i , we would be forced to set $\Phi(\alpha) = \Gamma_i(\alpha)$. Since the open cover is closed under finite intersections, this specification is independent of the choice of U_i if α lies entirely in more than one U_i . What if a path intersects $\bigcap_{j \in J \subseteq I} U_j$ for some subset $J \subseteq I$ such that $|J| \geq 2$? If $\alpha : I \rightarrow X$, then the Lebesgue covering lemma implies that there is a decomposition

$$0 = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_{m-1} < t_m = 1$$

such that $\alpha([t_i, t_{i+1}])$ is contained in solely one of U_i . In this case, we are forced to set

$$\Phi(\alpha) = F_1(\alpha_1) \circ \cdots \circ F_m(\alpha_m)$$

where each F_k is one of the Γ_i 's as necessary.

The observations above pin down the map Φ . However, in order for Φ to be well-defined, we must show that it is independent of the choice of a path, α , in a homotopy class of paths. Let

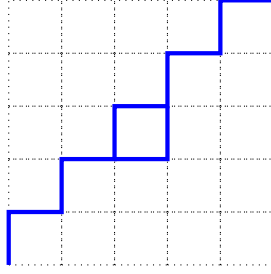
$$H : I \times I \rightarrow X$$

be a homotopy of paths from x to y . By the Lebesgue covering lemma, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that H sends each sub-square

$$\left[\frac{i}{n}, \frac{i+1}{n} \right] \times \left[\frac{j}{n}, \frac{j+1}{n} \right]$$

into one of U_i . Consider edge-paths in the subdivided square $I \times I$ which differ by a sub-square, as indicated in the following figure.

³We implicitly use here the fact that the open cover is closed under finite intersections.



We apply H and obtain two paths in X . They yield the same result since they differ by a homotopy on some subinterval which stays inside one of the sets U_i . Changes of this type allow us to pass inductively from H on the lower to H on the upper boundary path from $(0,0)$ to $(1,1)$. Hence, Φ is well-defined. It is easy to check that Φ is indeed a functor between $\Pi(X)$ and G . By construction, the diagram commutes. \square

Proposition 2.3.1 contains a lot of redundant information since we only want to know how to compute $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ for some $x \in X$.

Corollary 2.3.3. (SVK for Groups) *Let $(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}$ be path-connected. Let $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$ be an open cover of X by path-connected open subsets such that $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$ is closed under taking finite intersections and such that $x_0 \in U_i$ for each $i \in I$, then*

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) = \varinjlim_{i \in I} \pi(U_i, x_0)$$

PROOF. (Sketch) We will only prove the case where the open cover is finite. The proof for the general case can be found in See [May99, Section 2.7]. We need to verify the universal property of colimits in the category of groups. Let G be some group and let $\Gamma_i : \pi(U_i, x_0) \rightarrow G$ be group homomorphisms. We show that there exists a unique group homomorphism $\Phi : \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow G$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \pi_1(\bigcap_{j \in J \subseteq I} U_j, x_0) & \hookrightarrow & \pi_1(U_{i_{|J|}}, x_0) \\
 \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 \pi_1(U_{i_1}, x_0) & \hookrightarrow & \pi_1(X, x_0) \\
 & \searrow \Gamma_{i_1} & \downarrow \Gamma_{i_{|J|}} \\
 & & G
 \end{array}$$

Φ (dashed arrow from $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ to G)

for each subset $J \subseteq I$. Recall that the inclusion of categories $\mathcal{J} : \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow \Pi(X)$ is actually an equivalence of categories. An inverse equivalence $\mathcal{F} : \Pi(X) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$ is determined by a choice of path classes $x \rightarrow y$ for $y \in X$. We choose c_x when $y = x$ and so ensure that $\mathcal{F} \circ \mathcal{J} = \text{Id}_{\pi_1(X, x_0)}$. Because the cover is finite and closed under finite intersections, we can choose our paths inductively so that the path $x \rightarrow y$ lies entirely in *every* U_i for *all* U_i such that $y \in U_i$ ⁴. This ensures that the chosen paths determine compatible inverse equivalences $\mathcal{F}_{U_i} : \Pi(U_i) \rightarrow \pi_1(U_i, x_0)$ to the inclusions $\mathcal{J}_{U_i} : \pi_1(U_i, x_0) \rightarrow \Pi(U_i)$. Thus, the functors

$$\Pi(U_i) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}_{U_i}} \pi_1(U_i, x_0) \xrightarrow{\Gamma_{U_i}} G$$

⁴We assume here that the open cover is finite

specify diagram of groupoids. By **Corollary 2.3.3**, there is a unique map of groupoids

$$\tilde{\Gamma} : \Pi(X) \rightarrow G$$

that restricts to $\Gamma_{U_i} \circ \mathcal{F}_{U_i}$ on $\Pi(U_i)$ for each U_i . The composite

$$\Gamma : \pi_1(X, x_0) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{J}} \Pi(X) \xrightarrow{\tilde{\Gamma}} G$$

It restricts to Γ_i on $\pi_1(U_i, x_0)$ by a diagram chase argument and the fact that $\mathcal{F}_{U_i} \circ \mathcal{J}_{U_i} = \text{Id}_{\pi_1(U_i, x_0)}$. Indeed, we have that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & \Gamma_i & & \\ & \swarrow & & \searrow & \\ \pi_1(X, x_0) & & & & \pi_1(U_i, x_0) \\ \mathcal{J} \downarrow & \longleftarrow & \Pi(X) & \longleftrightarrow & \Pi(U_i) \xleftarrow{\mathcal{J}_{U_i}} \\ \tilde{\Gamma} \downarrow & & & & \\ G & \longleftarrow & & & \end{array}$$

$\tilde{\Gamma} \circ \mathcal{J}_{U_i}$

It is unique because $\tilde{\Gamma}$ is unique. Indeed, if we are given $\Gamma' : \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow G$ that restricts to Γ_i on each $\pi_1(U_i, x_0)$, then $\Gamma' \circ \mathcal{F} : \Pi(X) \rightarrow G$ restricts to $\Gamma_i \circ \mathcal{F}_{U_i}$ on each $\Pi(U_i)$. Therefore $\tilde{\Gamma} = \Gamma' \circ \mathcal{F}$ and thus $\tilde{\Gamma} \circ \mathcal{J} = \Gamma'$. This completes the proof. \square

Note that the Seifert-Van Kampen theorem does not apply when the open sets in the cover we consider do not have path-connected intersections. An important example is \mathbb{S}^1 . If we cover it by two open semi-circles, their intersection would be two disjoint open intervals which is not path-connected. This leads to the idea of constructing a “fundamental group with multiple basepoints” and its corresponding Seifert-Van Kampen theorem. We discuss this approach briefly.

Definition 2.3.4. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ be path-connected. For a set $A \subseteq X$, let $\Pi(X, A)$ denote the full subcategory of $\Pi(X)$ on the objects in A .

As before, our strategy for proving the Seifert-Van Kampen theorem for multiple basepoints will be to deduce it from the version for the full fundamental groupoid.

Proposition 2.3.5. (SVK for Groupoids - Multiple Base-points) Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ be path-connected. Let $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$ be an open cover of X of open subsets such that $\{U_i\}_{i \in I}$ is closed under taking finite intersections. Let $A \subseteq X$ (not necessarily a singleton) such that A contains one point from each path-component of U_i . Then

$$\Pi(X, A) = \varinjlim_{i \in I} \Pi(U_i, A)$$

Remark 2.3.6. We will need to invoke the notion of a retract of a diagram in a category, \mathcal{C} . Recall that an object $X \in \mathcal{C}$ in a category is called a retract of an object $Y \in \mathcal{C}$ if there are morphisms

$$i : X \rightarrow Y, \quad r : Y \rightarrow X$$

such that $r \circ i = \text{Id}_X$. In this case, r is called a retraction of Y onto X . A commutative diagram, \mathcal{D}_1 , in \mathcal{C} is a retract of another commutative diagram, \mathcal{D}_2 , in \mathcal{C} if each ‘corner’ of \mathcal{D}_1 is a retract of the corresponding corner of \mathcal{D}_2 such that all of the inclusions and

retractions are compatible with one another in the sense that the diagram obtained by ‘pasting together’ \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2 via the inclusions and retractions commutes. We will use below the categorical fact that the retract of a colimit diagram in category is a colimit diagram.

PROOF. Consider the diagram determined by $\Pi(U_i)$ ’s and also consider the diagram determined by $\Pi(U_i, A)$ ’s. Denote the diagrams \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2 respectively. We claim that \mathcal{D}_2 is a retraction of \mathcal{D}_1 . The inclusions at each ‘corner’ are the just inclusions

$$\Pi(U_i, A) \hookrightarrow \Pi(U_i)$$

The retractions are built as follows. To retract $\Pi(U_i)$ onto $\Pi(U_i, A)$, pick for every point $x \in U_i$, a path α_x from x to some point $y \in A$ but do this in such a way that if $x \in A$, then α_x is the identity morphism at x ⁵. We define the retraction by sending each $x \in U_i$ to the other endpoint of α_x , and each morphism $\beta : x \rightarrow y$ to the morphism $\alpha_y \circ \beta \circ \alpha_x^{-1}$ ⁶. The claim follows by noting that \mathcal{D}_1 is a colimit diagram. See [Bro06, Proposition 6.7.2] and [Die08, Theorem 2.6.2] for some relevant partial details. \square

2.4. Computations

We calculate the fundamental group of some topological spaces. Our main working tool will be the SVK theorems. Let’s first discuss a general example.

2.4.1. Fundamental Group of Circle. We cannot use Corollary 2.3.3 to compute the the fundamental group of \mathbb{S}^1 . This is because if we cover \mathbb{S}^1 by two open semi-circles, their intersection would be two disjoint open intervals which is not path-connected. Instead, we use Proposition 2.3.5. Let

$$\begin{aligned} U_1 &= \mathbb{S}^1 \setminus \{(0, 1)\} \\ U_2 &= \mathbb{S}^1 \setminus \{(0, -1)\} \\ A &= \{(-1, 0), (1, 0)\} \end{aligned}$$

Then U_1, U_2 are simply connected (they are both homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}) while $U_1 \cap U_2$ is a homeomorphic to a disjoint union of two copies of \mathbb{R} . What is $\Pi(U, A)$? There are clearly morphisms

$$\begin{aligned} (1, 0) &\rightarrow (-1, 0) \\ (-1, 0) &\rightarrow (1, 0) \end{aligned}$$

and they are inverses of each other since any path $(1, 0) \rightarrow (-1, 0) \rightarrow (1, 0)$ can be shrunk to $(1, 0)$ alone. So $\Pi(U, A)$ is simply a category with two objects and a single isomorphism between them. Similar remarks apply to $\Pi(V, A)$. Similarly, $\Pi(U \cap V, A)$ is a category with two distinct objects and no morphisms between the distinct objects. In other words, it is a two object discrete category. What is $\Pi(X, A)$? It is a groupoid with two objects and *two* isomorphisms between. One isomorphism comes from $\Pi(U, A)$ and the other from $\Pi(V, A)$. Denote the isomorphisms as i_U and i_V . Beyond that it is free as possible. So, for example, all the composites $(i_V^{-1} \circ i_U)^n$ are distinct (because there is no reason for them not to be). We get that

⁵We can always pick these paths because the hypothesis includes that A has at least one point in each component of U_i .

⁶To ensure that the cube formed by the two van Kampen squares and the four retractions commutes, simply always pick the same α_x for x in all of the groupoids it appears in.

$$\pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, (1, 0)) \cong \{i_V^{-1} \circ i_U\}^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\} \cong \mathbb{Z}$$

Remark 2.4.1. Usually, x_0 is chosen to be the point $(1, 0)$ if we consider $\mathbb{S}^1 \subseteq \mathbb{C}$. We denote the basepoint as $*$. We can also use the theory of covering spaces (which are special instances of fiber bundles) that

$$\pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, *) \cong \mathbb{Z}$$

We now derive a number of consequences of this result:

Proposition 2.4.2. *The following statements are true:*

- (1) We have $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}, x_0) \cong \mathbb{Z}$
- (2) We have

$$\pi_1\left(\underbrace{\mathbb{S}^1 \times \cdots \times \mathbb{S}^1}_{n\text{-times}}, (*_1, \dots, *_n)\right) \cong \underbrace{\pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, *_1) \times \cdots \times \pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, *_n)}_{n\text{-times}} \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$$

- (3) \mathbb{R}^2 is not homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n for $n \geq 3$ ⁷.
- (4) (**Brouwer's Fixed Point Theorem**) If $f : \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^2$ is a continuous function, then f has a fixed point. That is, there is a $x \in \mathbb{D}^2$ such that $f(x) = x$.
- (5) (**Fundamental Theorem of Algebra**) Any non-constant polynomial $p \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ has a root.
- (6) There are no retractions $r : X \rightarrow A$ in the following cases:
 - (a) $X = \mathbb{R}^3$, with A any subspace homeomorphic to \mathbb{S}^1 .
 - (b) $X = \mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{D}^2$, with A its boundary torus $\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1$.
 - (c) X is the Möbius band and A its boundary circle.

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) This follows since $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ deformation retracts to \mathbb{S}^1 .
- (2) This is a straightforward consequence of [Proposition 2.2.5](#) and that $\pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, *) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.
- (3) Suppose $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a homeomorphism. Without loss of generality, let $f(0) = 0$. Hence, $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\} \cong \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$. $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus 0$ deformation retracts to \mathbb{S}^1 and $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ deformation retracts to \mathbb{S}^{n-1} . Therefore,

$$\mathbb{Z} \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, *) \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus 0) \cong \pi_1((\mathbb{R}^n \setminus 0) \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}, *) \cong \{1\}.$$

a contradiction. Here we use the fact that $\pi_1(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}, *) \cong \{1\} = 0$ for $n \geq 3$. See [\[Lee10, Lemma 7.19 & Theorem 7.20\]](#) for a proof of this fact. See also below.

- (4) Assume that $f(x) \neq x$ for all $x \in \mathbb{D}^2$. There is then a deformation retraction $r : \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1$ that carries a point $x \in \mathbb{D}^2$ to the intersection of the ray from $f(x)$ to x with the boundary circle \mathbb{S}^1 . Hence, we have the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \text{Id}_{\mathbb{S}^1} & \\ \mathbb{S}^1 & \xhookrightarrow{\quad} \mathbb{D}^2 & \xrightarrow{\quad r \quad} \mathbb{D}^2 \end{array}$$

⁷Clearly, \mathbb{R}^2 is not homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^0 . We have already checked above that \mathbb{R}^2 is not homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^1 . Clearly, \mathbb{R}^2 is homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^2 .

Applying π_1 , we have the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & \text{Id}_{\mathbb{Z}} & & \\ & \searrow & & \swarrow & \\ \mathbb{Z} \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, *) & \hookrightarrow & \{\bullet\} & \longrightarrow & \pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, *) \cong \mathbb{Z} \end{array}$$

This is clearly a contradiction.

- (5) We may assume that the polynomial $p(z)$ is of the form

$$p(z) = z^n + a_1 z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_n.$$

Suppose that $p(z)$ has no roots. Fix a $R > 0$ such that

$$R > \max \left\{ 1, \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i| \right\}$$

Then for $|z| = R$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} |z^n| &> (|a_1| + \cdots + |a_n|)|z^{n-1}| \\ &> |a_1 z^{n-1}| + \cdots + |a_n| \\ &\geq |a_1 z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_n|. \end{aligned}$$

From the inequality $|z^n| > |a_1 z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_n|$, it follows that the polynomial

$$p_t(z) = z^n + t(a_1 z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_n)$$

has no roots on the circle $|z| = R$ when $0 \leq t \leq 1$. Note that p_t defines a homotopy between the polynomials z^n and $p(z)$. Consider the formula

$$f_t(s) = \frac{p(tRe^{2\pi is})/p(tR)}{|p(tRe^{2\pi is})/p(tR)|}$$

defined on $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$. For each fixed t , Then each $f_t(s)$ defines a loop in the unit circle $\mathbb{S}^1 \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ based at 1. Note that

$$f_0(s) = 1, \quad f_1(s) = \frac{p(Re^{2\pi is})/p(R)}{|p(Re^{2\pi is})/p(R)|}$$

Write $p(z) = z^n + q(z)$. Consider

$$H_t(s) = \frac{[re^{2\pi is}]^n + tq(re^{2\pi is})/(r^n + tq(r))}{|[re^{2\pi is}]^n + tq(re^{2\pi is})/(r^n + tq(r))|}$$

This defines a homotopy between f_1 and $\omega_n = e^{2\pi ins}$. Since f_0 is homotopic to the constant map and f_0 is homotopic to f_1 , we have that ω_n is homotopic to the constant map. Hence, $n = 0$. This is a contradiction.

- (6) We use the fact that if $r : X \rightarrow A$ is retraction, then the induced map on fundamental groups is injective.
- (a) This follows because there is no injection from $0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$.
 - (b) This follows because there is no injection from $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ to \mathbb{Z} . Let $h : \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ be any group homomorphism. Suppose $h(1, 0) = a$ and $h(0, 1) = b$. It follows that $h(-b, a) = (0, 0)$, and hence $\ker(h) \neq (0, 0)$.
 - (c) Skipped.

This completes the proof. □

Remark 2.4.3. Here are two cute applications of Brouwer's fixed point theorem:

- (1) A 3×3 real invertible matrix with non-negative entries has a real positive eigenvalue. Let $T : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be the linear map corresponding to a matrix A . Define

$$B = \mathbb{S}^2 \cap \{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x_1, x_2, x_3 \geq 0\} \cong \mathbb{D}^2.$$

If $x \in B$, then all coordinates of $Tx = Ax$ are non-negative and not all zero since A is non-singular and not all coordinates of $x \in B$ can be zero. Therefore, the normalized vector $Tx/\|Tx\|$ lies in B . Now, consider the continuous map $f : B \rightarrow B$ defined by

$$f(x) = \frac{Tx}{\|Tx\|}.$$

By Brouwer's Fixed Point Theorem, there exists a point $x_0 \in B$ such that $f(x_0) = x_0$, which implies $Tx_0 = \|Tx_0\|x_0$. Setting $\lambda = \|Tx_0\|$, we conclude that λ is an eigenvalue of A , with $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\lambda > 0$.

- (2) A 3×3 real matrix with positive entries has a positive real eigenvalue. This follows as in (1).

2.4.2. Fundamental Group of Spheres. Let $X = \mathbb{S}^n$ for $n \geq 2$. Let

$$U = \mathbb{S} \setminus \{N\}, \quad V = \mathbb{S} \setminus \{S\}$$

Clearly, $U, V \cong \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ via the stereographic projection. Hence, U and V are two open simply connected subsets of \mathbb{S}^n with path connected intersection. Hence, we have that \mathbb{S}^n is simply connected for $n \geq 2$, since the colimit of two trivial groups is the trivial the group. Let's consider a basic application:

Example 2.4.4. Consider $X_m = \mathbb{R}^n - \{m \text{ points}\}$ for $n \geq 3$. We compute the fundamental group of X_n by induction on n . The case $m = 1$ is easy since

$$\mathbb{R}^n - \{\text{a point}\} \cong \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R}^+$$

which is simply connected:

$$\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^n - \{\text{a point}\}) \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}, *) \times \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^+, 1) \cong \{\bullet\}$$

Now assume that $m > 1$. Divide the points in into two sets of smaller size, A and B . A and B can be separated by the hyperplane H , and that N^+ and N^- are two open neighborhoods of the half-spaces that result. For an arbitrary base-point $x_0 \in H$, Van Kampen theorem applies, giving a surjection

$$\pi_1(N^+ \setminus A, x_0) * \pi_1(N^- \setminus B, x_0) \twoheadrightarrow \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^n - \{m \text{ points}\}, x_0)$$

By the induction hypothesis⁸, both $N^+ \setminus A$ and $N^- \setminus B$ are simply connected. Hence,

$$\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^n - \{m, \text{ points}\}, x_0) \cong 0.$$

Example 2.4.5. Let V be a finite-dimensional real vector space and $W \subset V$ a (proper) linear subspace. We compute the fundamental group $\pi_1(V \setminus W)$. Since every finite-dimensional real vector space is linearly homeomorphic to some \mathbb{R}^n , we can assume WLOG that $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ and $W = \mathbb{R}^m$ for $m < n$. Projecting first onto $(\mathbb{R}^m)^\perp$ and then unit sphere shows that $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \mathbb{R}^m$ is homotopically equivalent to \mathbb{S}^{n-m-1} . Therefore, we have:

$$\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \mathbb{R}^m) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } m = n - 2, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

⁸Here we use the observation that a open half space in \mathbb{R}^n is homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n .

2.4.3. Fundamental Group of Wedge Sums. In order to use Van Kampen's theorem to compute the fundamental group of the wedge sum, we need to put a mild restriction on the type of base points we consider. A point p in a topological space X is said to be a non-degenerate base point if p has a neighborhood that admits a strong deformation retraction onto p .

Lemma 2.4.6. *Suppose $x_i \in X_i$ is a non-degenerate base point for $i = 1, \dots, n$. Then $\bigvee_{i=1}^n x_i$ is a non-degenerate base point in $X_1 \vee \dots \vee X_n$.*

PROOF. For each i , choose a neighborhood W_i of x_i that admits a deformation retraction $r_i : W_i \rightarrow \{x_i\}$, and let $H_i : W_i \times I \rightarrow W_i$ be the associated homotopy. Define a map

$$H : \coprod_{i=1}^n W_i \times I \rightarrow \coprod_{i=1}^n W_i$$

by letting $H = H_i$ on $W_i \times I$. Let W be the image of $\coprod_{i=1}^n W_i$ under the quotient map

$$q : \coprod_{i=1}^n X_i \rightarrow \bigvee_{i=1}^n X_i$$

Since $\coprod_{i=1}^n W_i$ is a saturated open set, W is an open set of $X_1 \vee \dots \vee X_n$ that is a neighbourhood of $\bigvee_{i=1}^n x_i$. We have that

$$q \times \text{Id}_I : \coprod_{i=1}^n W_i \times I \rightarrow W \times I$$

is a quotient map. Since $q \circ H$ respects the identifications made by $q \times \text{Id}_I$, it descends to the quotient and yields a deformation retraction of W onto $\bigvee_{i=1}^n x_i$. \square

Proposition 2.4.7. *Let X_1, \dots, X_n be spaces with non-degenerate base points $x_i \in X_i$. The map*

$$\Phi : \pi_1(X_1, x_1) * \dots * \pi_1(X_n, x_n) \rightarrow \pi_1\left(\bigvee_{i=1}^n X_i, \bigvee_{i=1}^n x_i\right)$$

induced by $\iota_i : \pi_1(X_i, x_i) \rightarrow \pi_1(\bigvee_{i=1}^n X_i, \bigvee_{i=1}^n x_i)$ is an isomorphism.

PROOF. It suffices to consider the case $n = 2$. The general case follows by induction. Choose neighborhoods W_i in which x_i is a deformation retract, and let

$$U = q(X_1 \coprod W_2), \quad V = q(W_1 \coprod X_2)$$

where $q : X_1 \coprod X_2 \rightarrow X_1 \vee X_2$ is the quotient map. Since $X_1 \coprod W_2$ and $W_1 \coprod X_2$ are saturated open sets in $X_1 \coprod X_2$, the restriction of q to each of them is a quotient map onto its image, and U and V are open in the wedge sum. The three maps

$$\begin{aligned} \{*\} &\hookrightarrow U \cap V, \\ X_1 &\hookrightarrow U, \\ X_2 &\hookrightarrow V \end{aligned}$$

are all homotopy equivalences. Because $U \cap V$ is contractible, we have: $U \hookrightarrow X_1 \vee X_2$ and $V \hookrightarrow X_1 \vee X_2$ induce an isomorphism

$$\pi_1(U) * \pi_1(V) \cong \pi_1(X_1 \vee X_2).$$

Moreover, the injections $\phi_1 : X_1 \hookrightarrow U$ and $\phi_2 : X_2 \hookrightarrow V$, which are homotopy equivalences, induce isomorphisms

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_1(X_1, x_1) &\cong \pi_1(U) \\ \pi_1(X_2, x_2) &\cong \pi_1(V)\end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\pi_1(X_1, x_1) * \pi_1(X_2, x_2) \cong \pi_1(X_1 \vee X_2, x_1 \vee x_2).$$

The general case follows by induction. \square

Example 2.4.8. The following is a list of computations based on the information about the fundamental group of wedge sums:

- (1) Consider $X = \bigvee_{i=1}^n \mathbb{S}^1$. We have

$$\pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1 \vee \cdots \vee \mathbb{S}^1, \bigvee_{i=1}^n *_{i=1} \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, *_{1}) * \cdots * \pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, *_{n}) \cong \underbrace{\mathbb{Z} * \cdots * \mathbb{Z}}_{n \text{ times}}$$

- (2) Let X be the union of n lines through the origin in \mathbb{R}^3 . Then $\mathbb{R}^3 - X$ deformation retracts to \mathbb{S}^2 minus $2n$ points, which is homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^2 minus $2n - 1$ points. This in turn admits a deformation retraction to a wedge of $2n - 1$ circles, so

$$\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 - X, x_0) \cong \underbrace{\mathbb{Z} * \cdots * \mathbb{Z}}_{2n-1 \text{ times}}$$

2.4.4. Fundamental Group of Graphs.

Definition 2.4.9. A graph is a CW complex of dimension 0 or 1. The 0-cells of a graph are called its vertices, and the 1-cells are called its edges.

It follows from the definition of a CW complex that for each edge e , the set $\bar{e} \setminus e$ consists of one or two vertices. If a vertex v is contained in \bar{e} , we say that v and e are incident. A subgraph is a subcomplex of a graph. Thus, if a subgraph contains an edge, it also contains the vertex or vertices incident with it. Here is some more important terminology:

- An edge path in a graph is a finite sequence $(v_0, e_1, v_1, \dots, v_{k-1}, e_k, v_k)$ that starts and ends with vertices and alternates between vertices and edges, such that for each i , $\{v_{i-1}, v_i\}$ is the set of vertices incident with the edge e_i .
- An edge path is said to be closed if $v_0 = v_k$, and simple if no edge or vertex appears more than once, except that v_0 might be equal to v_k .
- A cycle is a nontrivial simple closed edge path.
- A tree is a connected graph that contains no cycles.

Lemma 2.4.10. *Let G be a finite graph.*

- (1) *If G is a tree, then G is contractible and hence simply connected. In fact, if v_0 is a vertex of G , then v_0 is a deformation retract of G .*
- (2) *If G is a connected graph, then G contains a maximal tree - called a spanning tree.*

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) We induct on the number of edges, n . If $n = 1$, it G is homeomorphic to an interval I . The claim is clearly true in this case. Assume the claim is true for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and consider the case $n + 1 \in \mathbb{N}$. Since G is simple, every edge of G is incident with exactly two vertices. If every vertex in G is incident with at least two edges, then, we can construct sequences $(v_j)_{j \in \mathbb{Z}}$ of vertices and $(e_j)_{j \in \mathbb{Z}}$ of edges such that for

each j , v_{j-1} and v_j are the two vertices incident with e_j , and e_j , e_{j+1} are two different edges incident with v_j . Because T is finite, there must be some integers n and $n+k > n$ such that $v_n = v_{n+k}$. If n and k are chosen so that k is the minimum positive integer with this property, this means that $(v_n, e_{n+1}, \dots, e_{n+k}, v_{n+k})$ is a cycle, contradicting the assumption that G is a tree. Hence, we can choose $v_1 \in G$ such that v_1 is incident to only one edge. Let v'_1 denote the other vertex. Then e deformation retracts onto the vertex v'_1 . The result is then a tree with n edges, which deformation retracts onto v_0 .

- (2) Since the empty subgraph is a tree, an application of Zorn's lemma shows that G contains a maximal subtree - a subgraph that is a tree and is not properly contained in any larger tree in G .

This completes the proof. \square

Remark 2.4.11. *Lemma 2.4.10 can be extended to the case of infinite graphs.*

Remark 2.4.12. *A spanning tree $T \subseteq G$ contains every vertex of G . Indeed, suppose that there is a vertex $v \in G$ that is not contained in T . Because G is connected, there is an edge path from a vertex $v_0 \in T$ to v , say $(v_0, e_1, \dots, e_k, v_k = v)$. Let v_i be the last vertex in the edge path that is contained in T . Then the edge e_{i+1} is not contained in T , because if it were, v_{i+1} would also be in T since T is a subgraph. The subgraph $T' = T \cup \{e_{i+1}\}$ properly contains T , so it is not a tree, and therefore contains a cycle. This cycle must include e_{i+1} or v_{i+1} , because otherwise it would be a cycle in T . However, since e_{i+1} is the only edge of T' that is incident with v_{i+1} , and v_{i+1} is the only vertex of T' incident with e_{i+1} , there can be no such cycle.*

Proposition 2.4.13. *Let G be a finite graph and let $T \subseteq G$ be a spanning tree. Let $n_{G \setminus T}$ denote the number of edges in $G \setminus T$. If $v_0 \in G$, then*

$$\pi_1(G, v_0) \cong \underbrace{\mathbb{Z} * \dots * \mathbb{Z}}_{n_{G \setminus T} \text{ times}}$$

PROOF. The proof is by induction on the number of edges in $G \setminus T$. Let $n = 1$. Clearly, $G/T \cong \mathbb{S}^1$. Consider the map

$$q : G \rightarrow G/T \cong \mathbb{S}^1.$$

We show q is a homotopy equivalence. We define a map

$$q' : G/T \cong \mathbb{S}^1 \rightarrow G.$$

Let e be the edge not contained in T . Pick paths α_1 and α_2 in T from v_0 to v_1 and v_2 , respectively. Consider the loop $\alpha_1 \circ e \circ \alpha_2^{-1}$. It is easily checked that $q \circ q'$ and $q' \circ q$ are homotopic to the identity maps. If $n > 1$ and assume that the claim is true for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. we can use Van Kampen's theorem to prove the case for $n + 1 \in \mathbb{N}$. Let e_1, \dots, e_{n+1} be edges in $G \setminus T$. For each $i = 1, \dots, n + 1$, choose a point $x_i \in e_i$. Let

$$\begin{aligned} U &= G \setminus \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \\ V &= G \setminus \{x_{n+1}\} \end{aligned}$$

Both U and V are open in G . Just as before, it is easy to construct deformation retractions to show that

$$U \cap V \simeq T, \quad U \simeq T \cup e_{n+1} \quad V \simeq G \setminus e_{n+1}.$$

By the inductive hypothesis, we have $\pi_1(V, v_0) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and

$$\pi_1(V, v_0) = \underbrace{\mathbb{Z} * \cdots * \mathbb{Z}}_{n \text{ times}}$$

The claim follows by Van Kampen's theorem noting that Since $U \cap V \cong T$ is simply connected. \square

2.4.5. Fundamental Group of CW Complexes. Let X be a connected CW complex. If $X = X^0$, then X is a point and the fundamental group of X is the trivial. If $X = X^1$, then X is a graph and we have already covered that case.

Proposition 2.4.14. *Let X be a path-connected CW complex such that $X = X^2$. Let $x_0 \in X$ and let $\varphi_\alpha : \mathbb{S}^1 \rightarrow X$ be the attaching maps of the 2-cells \mathbb{D}_α and let $\gamma_\alpha : I \rightarrow X$ be a path from x_0 to $\varphi_\alpha(1)$. Then*

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) \cong \pi_1(X^1, x_0)/N,$$

where N is the normal subgroup generated by the path $\{\gamma_\alpha \circ \varphi_\alpha \circ \bar{\gamma}_\alpha\}$.

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) Let A be a subcomplex generated by the union of the 2-cells, \mathbb{D}_α^2 and together with the φ_α 's. Then A is a contractible subcomplex. Hence,

$$\pi_1(A, x_0) \cong \{1\}$$

- (2) Choose points $x_\alpha \in \mathbb{D}_\alpha^2$ and define the subset $B = X^2 - \bigcup_\alpha \{x_\alpha\}$. Then B retracts to X^1 . Hence,

$$\pi_1(B, x_0) \cong \pi_1(X^1, x_0)$$

- (3) We have $X^2 = A \cup B$ and $A \cap B$ consists of precisely those edge-cycles starting at x_0 that make up loops homotopic to the boundaries of 2-cells, or in other words, the images of \mathbb{S}_α^1 under the attaching maps. Therefore, each element of $\pi_1(A \cap B, x_0)$ represents a an of $\{\gamma_\alpha \circ \varphi_\alpha \circ \bar{\gamma}_\alpha\}$.
- (4) By Van-Kampen's theorem,

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) \cong \pi_1(X^2, x_0) \cong \frac{\pi_1(A, x_0) * \pi_1(B, x_0)}{N} \cong \pi_1(X^1, x_0)/N$$

This completes the proof. \square

In fact, we now show that the fundamental group of a CW complex only depends on its 2-skeleton with basepoint x_0 .

Corollary 2.4.15. *Let X be a path-connected CW complex. If $x_0 \in X$, then*

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) \cong \pi_1(X^2, x_0).$$

PROOF. This follows simply because $A \cap B$ as in [Proposition 2.4.14](#) will comprised on boundaries of n -cells for $n \geq 3$. These are all contractible. Hence, an application of Van-Kampen's theorem yields the desired result. \square

Example 2.4.16. We can use the discussion in the previous section to compute the fundamental groups of topological spaces introduced [Section 1.4.2](#).

- (1) Let $X = \mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1$. We have already computed the fundamental group of X , but we can also compute it using the discussion above. We have,

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z}}{\langle aba^{-1}b^{-1} \rangle} \cong \langle a, b \mid aba^{-1}b^{-1} \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$$

- (2) Let $X = \mathbb{RP}^2$. We have,

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) = \frac{\mathbb{Z}}{\langle a^2 \rangle} \cong \langle a \mid a^2 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$$

In general, if $X = \mathbb{RP}^n$, we have

$$\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^n, x_0) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$$

This follows at once from the computation above and that 2-skeleton of \mathbb{RP}^n is just \mathbb{RP}^2 .

- (3) If $X = \mathbb{CP}^n$ then X is simply-connected. This is because the 1-skeleton of X consists of a single 0-cell.
- (4) Let X be the g -holed surface in [Example 1.4.19](#). We have

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) = \langle a_1, b_1, \dots, a_g, b_g \mid [a_1, b_1] \cdots [a_g, b_g] = 1 \rangle$$

This follows pretty much by the definition of X and the fact that the 1-skeleton is a wedge sum of $2g$ circles.

- (5) Let $X = K$ (Klein bottle). We have,

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) = \frac{\mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z}}{\langle abab^{-1} \rangle} \cong \langle a, b \mid abab^{-1} \rangle$$

Let A be the subgroup generated by a and B be the subgroup generated by b . We have $A, B \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Then since $bab^{-1} = a^{-1}$, we have that B is a normal subgroup. Clearly, A and B generate $\pi_1(X, v)$ and since every element has a unique representation in the form $b^n a^m$, we have that $A \cap B = \{e\}$. Hence,

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) \cong \mathbb{Z} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}$$

2.4.6. Fundamental Group of Knot Complements.

CHAPTER 3

Covering Spaces

3.1. Definitions & Examples

Covering spaces offer a powerful framework in topology by enabling the study of complex spaces through simpler, well-behaved ones. One of their most compelling features is the ability to lift paths and homotopies from the base space to the covering space. This lifting property allows us to analyze the behavior of loops and paths in the base space by observing their images in the covering space, where the geometry and topology are often easier to handle. Importantly, this process reveals rich information about the fundamental group of the base space.

3.1.1. Definitions.

Definition 3.1.1. Let X be a topological space. A covering space of X is a topological space \tilde{X} together with a continuous surjective map $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ called a covering map such that for every point $x \in X$, there exists an open neighborhood $U_x \subseteq X$ and a discrete topological spaces, D_x , such that

$$p^{-1}(U_x) = \coprod_{\alpha \in D_x} U_\alpha$$

where U_d is an open set of \tilde{X} homeomorphic to U_x .

Remark 3.1.2. *Covering spaces are special examples of fiber bundles where the fiber is a discrete topological space. In a covering space $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$, the local triviality condition resembles that of fiber bundles: for each $x \in X$, there exists an open neighborhood $U_x \subseteq X$ such that $p^{-1}(U_x) \cong U_x \times F$, where F is a discrete set (the fiber).*

Remark 3.1.3. *If X is a connected topological space, the cardinality of D_x in [Definition 3.1.1](#) is constant. That is, $|D_x| = |D_y|$ for each $x, y \in X$. Indeed, let $x \in X$ and let U_x be an open set as in [Definition 3.1.1](#). Then for each $y \in U_x$ and $\alpha \in D_x$, the intersection $p^{-1}(\{y\}) \cap U_\alpha$ contains exactly one point, since the restriction of p to U_α is a homeomorphism onto U_x . Now fix $a \in X$, and define the set*

$$A := \{x \in X \mid |p^{-1}(\{x\})| = |p^{-1}(\{a\})|\}.$$

By the above argument, the cardinality of the fiber is locally constant so both A and its complement A^c are open sets in X . Since X is connected, it follows that $X \setminus A = \emptyset$, and thus $A = X$. If the cardinality is n , we say that p is a n -sheeted covering map.

Example 3.1.4. The following is a list of examples of covering spaces:

- (1) Any homeomorphism is a covering map.
- (2) If X is any topological space and D is a discrete topological spaces, then the projection $p : X \times D \rightarrow X$ is a covering map.

- (3) The map $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1$ defined by

$$p(t) = (\cos 2\pi t, \sin 2\pi t).$$

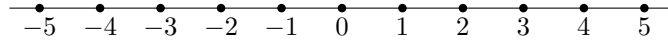
Indeed, let $x = (x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{S}^1$ be a point on the unit circle such that $x_1 > 0$. Consider the open set

$$U := \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{S}^1 \mid x_1 > 0\},$$

which is an open neighborhood of x in \mathbb{S}^1 . The pre-image of U under p is the disjoint union

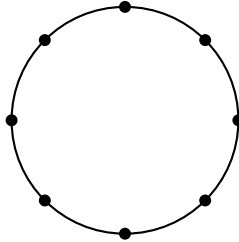
$$p^{-1}(U) = \bigsqcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \left(n - \frac{1}{4}, n + \frac{1}{4}\right),$$

where each interval $(n - 1/4, n + 1/4)$ is mapped homeomorphically onto U by p . Hence, p is an ∞ -sheeted covering map. The fiber over the point $1 \in \mathbb{S}^1$ is given by \mathbb{Z} .



The fiber over the point $1 \in \mathbb{S}^1$ is given by \mathbb{Z} .

- (4) The map $p : \mathbb{S}^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1$ defined by $p(z) = z^n$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is an n -sheeted covering map. The fiber of 1 are the n -th roots of unity.



The fiber of 1 are the 8-th roots of unity.

Let's now prove some general properties about covering spaces:

Proposition 3.1.5. *The following are properties of covering spaces.*

- (1) *A covering map is an open map.*
- (2) *A covering map is a local homeomorphism.*
- (3) *The restriction of a covering map is a covering map.*
- (4) *A finite product of covering maps is a covering map.*

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) Let $p : \bar{X} \rightarrow X$ be a covering map. Let U be an open set in \bar{X} , and fix a point $p(x) \in p(U)$. Since p is a covering map, let $U_{p(x)} \subseteq X$ be as in [Definition 3.1.1](#). Let U_α be the slice of $p^{-1}(U_{p(x)})$ containing x . Then p maps U_α homeomorphically onto $U_{p(x)}$. So $p(U_\alpha \cap U) \subseteq p(U)$ is open in X . Hence, p is an open map.
- (2) This is clear.

- (3) Let $p : \bar{X} \rightarrow X$ be a covering map. Let $X_0 \subseteq X$ and consider the restricted map $p|_{p^{-1}(X_0)} : p^{-1}(X_0) \rightarrow X_0$. The map is clearly continuous. Since $p : \bar{X} \rightarrow X$ is a covering space, for each $x \in X$ there exists an open set U_x such that $p^{-1}(U_x)$ satisfies **Definition 3.1.1**. The map $p|_{p^{-1}(X_0)}$ satisfies **Definition 3.1.1** if we choose the open set to be $U_x \cap X_0$.
- (4) $p_i : \bar{X}_i \rightarrow X_i$ be covering maps for $i = 1, 2$. Choose $(x_1, x_2) \in X_1 \times X_2$. Then there is a neighborhood U_{x_i} of x_i in X_i such that $p_i^{-1}(U_{x_i})$ satisfies **Definition 3.1.1**. Then $U_{x_1} \times U_{x_2}$ is an open set of $X_1 \times X_2$ such that $(p_1 \times p_2)^{-1}(U_{x_1} \times U_{x_2})$ satisfies **Definition 3.1.1**.

This completes the proof. \square

How are two covering spaces of a topological space related? Can we define a map between two covering spaces to identify them up to isomorphism? This question leads us to the definition of homomorphisms between covering spaces.

Definition 3.1.6. Let (\bar{X}_1, p_1) and (\bar{X}_2, p_2) be covering spaces of a topological space X . A morphism of (\bar{X}_1, p_1) into (\bar{X}_2, p_2) is a continuous map $\phi : \bar{X}_1 \rightarrow \bar{X}_2$ such that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \bar{X}_1 & \xrightarrow{\phi} & \bar{X}_2 \\ & \searrow p_1 & \swarrow p_2 \\ & X & \end{array}$$

A homomorphism ϕ of (\bar{X}_1, p_1) into (\bar{X}_2, p_2) is an isomorphism if there exists a homomorphism ψ of (\bar{X}_2, p_2) into (\bar{X}_1, p_1) such that $\psi \circ \phi$ and $\phi \circ \psi$ are the identity maps on \bar{X}_1 and \bar{X}_2 .

3.1.2. Examples. Group actions on topological spaces provide a rich source of covering maps, which have significant applications in various areas of mathematics, particularly in geometric topology and geometric group theory. For instance, in geometric topology the quotient spaces formed by group actions often inherit interesting topological properties, which can be studied via covering space theory. These spaces provide insights into the structure of manifolds and their fundamental groups.

Proposition 3.1.7. Let G be a topological group acting on a topological space X . Assume that for each $x \in X$, there exists an open set $U_x \subseteq X$ containing x such that for each $g \in G$ with $g \neq e$, we have $gU_x \cap U_x = \emptyset$. The quotient map $p : X \rightarrow X/G$ is a covering map.

Remark 3.1.8. A group action satisfying the condition in **Proposition 3.1.7** is called a covering space action. We use this terminology from now.

PROOF. (**Proposition 3.1.7**) Since $q^{-1}(q(U_x)) = \bigsqcup_{g \in G} gU_x$, the set $q(U_x) = GU_x$ is open in X/G and satisfies **Definition 3.1.1**. Hence, $p : X \rightarrow X/G$ is a covering map. \square

Example 3.1.9. The following is a list of examples of covering maps generated by group actions:

- (1) Let \mathbb{Z} act on \mathbb{R} by translations: for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, define the action $n \cdot x = x + n$. This action satisfies the assumptions in **Proposition 3.1.7**. Hence, the map $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{S}^1$ is a covering map. This reproves **Example 3.1.4(1)**.

(2) Let \mathbb{Z}_2 act on the n -sphere \mathbb{S}^n by the antipodal map:

$$g \cdot x = -x, \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{S}^n.$$

where $g \neq e \in \mathbb{Z}_2$. This action satisfies [Proposition 3.1.7](#). Hence, the projection map $p : \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n/\mathbb{Z}_2 \cong \mathbb{RP}^n$ is a covering space. In fact, it is a two-sheeted covering map since each point in \mathbb{RP}^n corresponds to a pair of antipodal points on \mathbb{S}^n .

(3) We can generalize (2). Let \mathbb{Z}_p act on the odd-dimensional sphere $\mathbb{S}^{2n-1} \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$ by

$$\zeta \cdot (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n) = (\zeta^{q_1} z_1, \zeta^{q_2} z_2, \dots, \zeta^{q_n} z_n),$$

where $\zeta \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ is a primitive p -th root of unity (i.e., $\zeta = e^{2\pi i/p}$) and $q_1, \dots, q_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ are integers coprime to p . This action satisfies [Proposition 3.1.7](#), so the quotient

$$\mathbb{S}^{2n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{2n-1}/\mathbb{Z}_p$$

is a covering map. $L(p; q_1, \dots, q_n) := \mathbb{S}^{2n-1}/\mathbb{Z}_p$ is called a lens space. The projection map is a p -sheeted covering map.

Remark 3.1.10. *Lens spaces generalize real projective spaces $\mathbb{RP}^{2n-1} \cong L(2; 1, \dots, 1)$. and play an important role in low-dimensional topology and the study of 3-manifolds.*

3.2. Lifting Properties

Studying the lifting properties of maps in covering spaces is fundamental because it allows us to transfer complex topological problems to simpler, often more manageable spaces. Lifting of paths helps in understanding how loops and homotopies in the base space relate to the structure of the covering space, providing key insights into the fundamental group.

Proposition 3.2.1. *Let $p : \bar{X} \rightarrow X$ be a covering map. Any path $f : I \rightarrow X$ with initial point x_0 can be uniquely lifted to a path $\bar{f} : I \rightarrow \bar{X}$ with an initial point in $p^{-1}(x_0)$ such that $p \circ \bar{f} = f$.*

PROOF. We first prove existence. First assume that $f(I) \subseteq U_{x_0}$, where U_{x_0} satisfies [Definition 3.1.1](#). For any $\bar{x}_0 \in p^{-1}(x_0)$, let \bar{U} be an open set containing \bar{x}_0 that is mapped homeomorphically to U_{x_0} . the path component of $p^{-1}(U)$ which contains \bar{x}_0 . Clearly, the path $\bar{f} = p^{-1}|_{U_{x_0}} \circ f : I \rightarrow \bar{X}$ is a path such that $p \circ \bar{f} = f$. Now assume that the image of f is not contained in U_{x_0} or in a single. In this case, let $\{U_i\}_i$ be an open cover of X by open sets satisfying [Definition 3.1.1](#). Then, $\{f^{-1}(U_i)\}_i$ is an open covering of I . Let λ be the Lebesgue number of the covering. Now, choose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $1/n < \lambda$. Divide the interval I into the closed sub-intervals of length $1/n$. Since the diameter of these intervals is less than λ , f maps each of these intervals inside some U_i . We can now apply the argument above. We now show uniqueness by proving that given any two maps $\bar{f}_0, \bar{f}_1 : I \rightarrow \bar{X}$ with same initial point such that $p \circ \bar{f}_0 = p \circ \bar{f}_1$, the set

$$A = \{t \in I \mid \bar{f}_0(t) = \bar{f}_1(t)\}$$

is either empty or all of I . It suffices to show that A is cl-open. First we will see that it is a closed set. Let t be in the closure of A and let $x = p \circ \bar{f}_0(t) = p \circ \bar{f}_1(t)$. Assume $\bar{f}_0(t) \neq \bar{f}_1(t)$. We will see that this leads to a contradiction. Let $x \in U_x$ be an open satisfying [Definition 3.1.1](#), and let \bar{U}_0 and \bar{U}_1 be open sets of \bar{X} containing $\bar{f}_0(t)$ and $\bar{f}_1(t)$ respectively that are mapped homeomorphically to x . Since \bar{f}_0 and \bar{f}_1 are both continuous, we can find a neighborhood $t \in W \subseteq I$ such that $\bar{f}_0(W) \subseteq \bar{U}_0$ and $\bar{f}_1(W) \subseteq \bar{U}_1$. But $\bar{U}_0 \cap \bar{U}_1 = \emptyset$. This is a contradiction to the fact that every neighborhood of t must intersect

the set A . This shows that A is closed. Analogously, we can argue that every point in A is an interior point and therefore the set is open. Since \tilde{f}_0 and \tilde{f}_1 agree on at least one point in I , i.e., $\tilde{f}_0(0) = \tilde{f}_1(0)$, they have to be equal. \square

Proposition 3.2.2. *Let $p : \bar{X} \rightarrow X$ be a covering map. Any homotopy $H : Y \times I \rightarrow X$ can be uniquely lifted to \bar{X} if $H_0 : Y \rightarrow X$ can be lifted to \bar{X} provide that \bar{H}_0 has been specified.*

PROOF. A more general version of [Proposition 3.2.2](#) will be proved in [Proposition 10.2.4](#). For an alternative approach, see [\[Lee10\]](#), which demonstrates how [Proposition 3.2.2](#) can be applied by generalizing the argument in [Proposition 3.2.1](#). \square

Let us now use [Proposition 3.2.1](#) and [Proposition 3.2.2](#) to recompute the fundamental group of \mathbb{S}^1 .

Example 3.2.3. (Homotopy Classification of Loops in \mathbb{S}^1) Consider the covering space $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1$. We compute the fundamental group of \mathbb{S}^1 in the following steps:

- (1) If $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1$, then any two lifts $\tilde{f}_1, \tilde{f}_2(0)$ such that $\tilde{f}_1(0) = \tilde{f}_2$ differ by an integer. Indeed, the fact that $p(\tilde{f}_1) = p(\tilde{f}_2)$ implies that $\tilde{f}_1(t) - \tilde{f}_2(t) \in \mathbb{Z}$ for each $t \in I$. Since $\tilde{f}_1 - \tilde{f}_2$ is a continuous function from the connected space I into the discrete space \mathbb{Z} , it must be constant.
- (2) Let $f_0, f_1 : I \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1$ be two paths in \mathbb{S}^1 with same initial and terminal points. If $\tilde{f}_0(0) = \tilde{f}_1(0)$, then $f_0 \sim f_1$ if and only if $\tilde{f}_0(1) = \tilde{f}_1(1)$. The forward direction is clear since \mathbb{R} is simply-connected ([Remark 2.2.9](#)). For the reverse direction, suppose that $f_0 \sim f_1$. Let $H : I \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1$ be a between f_0 and f_1 . Then [Proposition 3.2.2](#) implies that H lifts to a homotopy

$$\bar{H} : I \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

such that $\bar{H}(\cdot, 0) = \tilde{f}_0$. Now $\bar{H}_1(\cdot, 1) : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a path of that is a lift of f_1 starting at $\tilde{f}_1(0)$. By uniqueness of lifts, it must be equal to \tilde{f}_1 . Thus, $\tilde{f}_0 \sim \tilde{f}_1$ and this implies that $\tilde{f}_0(1) = \tilde{f}_1(1)$.

- (3) **(Winding Number)** Suppose $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1$ is a loop based at a point $x_0 \in \mathbb{S}^1$. If $\tilde{f} : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is any lift of f , then $\tilde{f}(1)$ and $\tilde{f}(0)$ are both points in the fiber $p^{-1}(x_0)$, so they differ by an integer. Since any other lift differs from \tilde{f} by an additive constant, the difference

$$\tilde{f}(1) - \tilde{f}(0)$$

is an integer that depends only on f , and not on the choice of lift. This integer is denoted by $N(f)$, and is called the winding number of f . (1) and (2) at once imply that two loops in \mathbb{S}^1 based at the same point are path-homotopic if and only if they have the same winding number.

- (4) **(Fundamental Group of \mathbb{S}^1)** We can now show that $\pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, 1) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ generated by $[\omega]$ where $\omega : I \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1$ such that $\omega(t) = e^{2\pi it}$. Define the maps

$$\begin{aligned} J : \mathbb{Z} &\rightarrow \pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, 1), & K : \pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, 1) &\rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \\ n &\mapsto [\omega^n] & [f] &\mapsto N(f) \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that J, K are well-defined and that J, K are homomorphisms. We show that J, K are two-sided inverses. To prove that $K \circ J = \text{Id}_{\mathbb{Z}}$, let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ be arbitrary. Note that

$$K(J(n)) = K([\omega^n]) = K([\alpha_n]) = N(\alpha_n) = n,$$

where $\alpha_n : I \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1$ is the map $\alpha_n(t) = e^{2\pi i n t}$. To prove that $J \circ K = \text{Id}_{\pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, 1)}$, suppose f is any element of $\pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, 1)$, and let n be the winding number of f . Then f and α_n are path-homotopic because they are loops based at 1 with the same winding number. Therefore,

$$J(K([f])) = J(n) = [\omega]^n = [\alpha_n].$$

Let us now use [Proposition 3.2.1](#) and [Proposition 3.2.2](#) to determine how the fundamental groups of the based space and covering space in a covering map relate to each other.

Proposition 3.2.4. *Let $p : (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ be a covering map such that $x_0 = p(\tilde{x}_0)$.*

- (1) *The induced homomorphism $p_* : \pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$ is injective. Hence, $\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0)$ can be identified with a subgroup of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$.*
- (2) *If \bar{X} is path-connected, the subgroups $p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \tilde{x}))$ for $\tilde{x} \in p^{-1}(x_0)$ are exactly the conjugacy class of subgroups of $p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0))$.*
- (3) *If \bar{X} is path-connected, the the number of sheets of p equals the index of $p_* : \pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$.*
- (4) *If \bar{X} is path-connected and simply connected, then*

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) \cong p^{-1}(x_0)$$

as sets.

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) Let $[\alpha]$ and $[\beta]$ be two homotopy classes of paths in \bar{X} and suppose that $p_*[\alpha] = p_*[\beta]$. If $f_\alpha \in [\alpha]$ and $f_\beta \in [\beta]$, then $p \circ g_\alpha \sim p \circ g_\beta$. It follows from [Proposition 3.2.2](#) that $g_\alpha \sim g_\beta$ in \bar{X} . So, $[\alpha] = [\beta]$. Thus the map is injective.
- (2) First suppose that $\bar{x}_0, \bar{x}_1 \in p^{-1}(x_0)$. Let γ be a path from \bar{x}_0 to \bar{x}_1 . This defines an isomorphism ([Proposition 2.2.5](#)):

$$\begin{aligned} \phi : \pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) &\rightarrow \pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_1) \\ [\alpha] &\mapsto [\gamma \circ \alpha \circ \gamma^{-1}] \end{aligned}$$

We thus have the following commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \pi_1(\bar{X}, \tilde{x}_0) & \xrightarrow{p_*} & \pi_1(X, x_0) \\ \phi \downarrow & & \downarrow \psi \\ \pi_1(\bar{X}, \tilde{x}_1) & \xrightarrow{p_*} & \pi_1(X, x_0) \end{array}$$

Here, ψ is defined such that

$$\psi([\beta]) = [(p_*(\gamma))^{-1} \circ \beta \circ (p_*(\gamma))]$$

We conclude that the images of $\pi_1(\bar{X}, \tilde{x}_0)$ and $\pi_1(\bar{X}, \tilde{x}_1)$ are conjugate via $[p_*(\gamma)]$. Conversely, any subgroup in the conjugacy class of $p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \tilde{x}_0))$ is of the form

$$[\alpha^{-1}] p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \tilde{x}_0)) [\alpha]$$

for some $[\alpha] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$. Let $f \in [\alpha]$. By [Proposition 3.2.1](#) $g : I \rightarrow \bar{X}$ is a unique lift of f initial point \tilde{x}_0 . Let \tilde{x}_1 be the terminal point of the lifted path. Then

$$p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \tilde{x}_1)) = [\alpha^{-1}] p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \tilde{x}_0)) [\alpha]$$

(3) Let $H = p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0))$. Define a map

$$\begin{aligned} \phi : \frac{\pi_1(X, x_0)}{H} &\rightarrow p^{-1}(x_0) \\ [f] + H &\mapsto \bar{f}(1) \end{aligned}$$

Here \bar{f} is a lift of the path f . We claim that ϕ is well-defined. Given $[f] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$ and $[h] \in H$, let \bar{h} be a loop in \bar{X} based at \bar{x}_0 . Thus, $(\bar{h} \cdot \bar{f})(1) = \bar{f}(1)$. This shows that ϕ is well-defined. We claim that ϕ is a bijection. Since \bar{X} is path-connected, for any $\bar{x} \in p^{-1}(x_0)$, there exists a path \bar{g} from \bar{x}_0 to \bar{x} , and it must project to a loop g in X based at x_0 . Thus, ϕ is surjective. Now suppose

$$\phi([f] + H) = \phi([f'] + H)$$

Then $\bar{f}(1) = \bar{f}'(1)$, and so the path $f \cdot (f')^{-1}$ lifts to a loop in \bar{X} based at \bar{x}_0 , i.e., $[f][f']^{-1} \in H$. This shows that ϕ is connected.

(4) This follows from (3).

This completes the proof. \square

Example 3.2.5. Consider the covering $p : \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^n$. For $n \geq 2$, \mathbb{S}^n is path-connected and simply-connected. Hence, [Proposition 3.2.4](#) implies that

$$\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^n, x_0) \rightarrow p^{-1}(x_0)$$

as sets. Since $|p^{-1}(x_0)| = 2$ and there is a unique group of order 2, it follows that

$$\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^n, x_0) \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

for $n \geq 2$. For $n = 1$, we have that $\mathbb{RP}^1 \cong \mathbb{S}^1$. Hence, $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^1, x_0) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

Previously, we considered a path in the unit interval I within X and lifted it to a corresponding path in the covering space \bar{X} . We now extend this concept by studying the lifting of paths in X from an arbitrary connected space Y . Let $p : (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ be a covering space. Let (Y, y_0) be a topological space and let $f : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ be a pointed continuous map. We seek to determine conditions under which there exists a map $\phi : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0)$ such that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) & \\ \bar{\phi} \nearrow & \downarrow p & \\ (Y, y_0) & \xrightarrow{\phi} & (X, x_0) \end{array}$$

If ϕ exists, we say that ϕ can be lifted to \bar{X} . We refer to $\bar{\phi}$ as a lifting of ϕ . Note that if ϕ exists, then the following commutative diagram of group homomorphisms holds:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) & \\ \bar{\phi}_* \nearrow & \downarrow p_* & \\ \pi_1(Y, y_0) & \xrightarrow{\phi_*} & \pi_1(X, x_0) \end{array}$$

Since p_* is injective, for the diagram to commute it is necessary that

$$\phi_*(\pi_1(Y, y_0)) \subseteq p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0))$$

This condition is also sufficient.

Proposition 3.2.6. *Let $p : (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ be a covering map. Let (Y, y_0) be a connected and locally path-connected space. Given a pointed continuous map $\phi : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$, there exists a lifting $\phi : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0)$ if and only if*

$$\phi_*(\pi_1(Y, y_0)) \subseteq p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0))$$

PROOF. Skipped. □

3.2.1. Covering Space Automorphisms. An automorphism of a covering map is an isomorphism from a covering space to itself. An automorphism of a covering map interchanges points in the fiber point in the base space. The set of all automorphisms of forms a group under composition and can be interpreted as the symmetries of the covering space.

Remark 3.2.7. *Automorphisms of a covering map are also called deck transformations.*

Using [Proposition 3.2.1](#) and [Proposition 3.2.6](#), we first establish various properties of the morphisms of a covering map.

Corollary 3.2.8. *Let (\bar{X}_1, p_1) and (\bar{X}_2, p_2) be covering spaces of a topological space (X, x_0) such that $p_1(\bar{x}_1) = p_2(\bar{x}_2) = x_0$*

- (1) *Let ϕ_0 and ϕ_1 be homomorphisms of (\bar{X}_1, p_1) into (\bar{X}_2, p_2) . If there exists a point $x \in \bar{X}_1$ such that $\phi_0(x) = \phi_1(x)$, then $\phi_0 = \phi_1$.*
- (2) *There exists a morphism ϕ of (\bar{X}_1, p_1) into (\bar{X}_2, p_2) such that $\phi(\bar{x}_1) = \bar{x}_2$ if and only if*

$$p_{1*}(\pi_1(\bar{X}_1, \bar{x}_1)) \subseteq p_{2*}(\pi_1(\bar{X}_2, \bar{x}_2))$$

- (3) *The morphism in (2) is an isomorphism if and only if*

$$p_{1*}(\pi_1(\bar{X}_1, \bar{x}_1)) = p_{2*}(\pi_1(\bar{X}_2, \bar{x}_2))$$

- (4) *(\bar{X}_1, p_1) and (\bar{X}_2, p_2) are isomorphic if and only if the subgroups $p_{1*}(\pi_1(\tilde{X}_1, \tilde{x}_1))$ and $p_{2*}(\pi_1(\tilde{X}_2, \tilde{x}_2))$ of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ belong to the same conjugacy class.*

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) This follows from [Proposition 3.2.1](#).
- (2) This is a special case of [Proposition 3.2.6](#).
- (3) This follows from (2).
- (4) This follows (3) and [Proposition 3.2.4\(3\)](#).

This completes the proof. □

We can now specialize to the case of an automorphism of a covering map.

Corollary 3.2.9. *Let $p : (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ be a covering map.*

- (1) *If ϕ is an automorphism (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) and ϕ is not the identity map then ϕ has no fixed points.*
- (2) *Let $\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2 \in p^{-1}(x_0)$. There exists an automorphism $\phi \in \text{Aut}(\bar{X}, p)$ such that $\phi(\bar{x}_1) = \bar{x}_2$ if and only if*

$$p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_1)) = p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_2))$$

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) This follows from [Corollary 3.2.8\(1\)](#).
- (2) This follows from [Corollary 3.2.8\(3\)](#).

This completes the proof. \square

3.3. Action of Fundamental Group on Fibers

We have seen in [Proposition 3.2.4](#) if $p : (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ is a covering map, then if \bar{X} is path-connected and simply-connected, then

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) \cong p^{-1}(x_0)$$

as sets. We provide another perspective on this bijection of sets by observing that $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ acts naturally on $p^{-1}(x_0)$. For any point $\bar{x} \in p^{-1}(x_0)$ and any $[\alpha] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$, define $\bar{x} \cdot [\alpha] \in p^{-1}(x_0)$ as follows: let $\bar{\alpha}$ be the lift of α to \bar{X} starting at \bar{x} , so that $p_*(\bar{\alpha}) = \alpha$. Then define $\bar{x} \cdot [\alpha]$ to be the terminal point of the path class $\bar{\alpha}$.

Remark 3.3.1. *It can be verified that the action defined above is well-defined.*

It follows from the definition that:

- (1) $\bar{x} \cdot [c_{x_0}] = \bar{x}$
- (2) $(\bar{x} \cdot \alpha) \cdot \beta = \bar{x} \cdot (\alpha\beta)$

Therefore, this defines a right group action of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ on the set $p^{-1}(x_0)$.

Proposition 3.3.2. *Let $p : (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ be a covering map. If \bar{X} is path-connected, the action of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ on $p^{-1}(x_0)$ is transitive. As a right $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ -space, we have*

$$p^{-1}(x_0) \cong \frac{\pi_1(X, x_0)}{p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0))}$$

PROOF. Let $\bar{x}, \bar{y} \in p^{-1}(x_0)$. Since \bar{X} is path-connected, there exists a path $\bar{\alpha}$ in \bar{X} with the initial point \bar{x} and terminal point \bar{y} . Let $[\alpha] = [p_*(\bar{\alpha})]$. We have $\bar{x} \cdot [\alpha] = \bar{y}$. This shows that the action is transitive. Note that the isotropy subgroup of any \bar{x}_0 is the set.

$$\{[\alpha] \in \pi_1(X, x_0) \mid \bar{x}_0 \cdot [\alpha] = \bar{x}_0\} \cong p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0))$$

The desired isomorphism of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ -sets follows by the orbit-stabilizer theorem. \square

In fact, the automorphism group of the covering space, denoted as $\text{Aut}(\bar{X}, p)$, acts on the fiber $p^{-1}(x_0)$ as a right $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ -space. This action is compatible with the group action of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ on the fiber. Indeed, let $\phi \in \text{Aut}(\bar{X}, p)$, any point $\bar{x} \in p^{-1}(x_0)$, and any $[\alpha] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$. Lift α to a path $\bar{\alpha}$ in \bar{X} with initial point \bar{x} , such that $p_*(\bar{\alpha}) = \alpha$. Note that $\bar{x} \cdot [\alpha]$ is the terminal point of $\bar{\alpha}$. Now consider the path $\phi \circ \bar{\alpha}$ in \bar{X} . Its initial point is $\phi(\bar{x})$ and the terminal point is $\phi(\bar{x} \cdot [\alpha])$. Observe that:

$$p(\phi \circ \bar{\alpha}) = (p \circ \phi)(\bar{\alpha}) = p(\bar{\alpha}) = \alpha.$$

This implies that $\phi \circ \bar{\alpha}$ is also a lifting of α . By definition, $(\phi(\bar{x})) \cdot [\alpha]$ is the terminal point of $\phi \circ \bar{\alpha}$. Therefore, we have

$$\phi(\bar{x} \cdot [\alpha]) = \phi(\bar{x}) \cdot [\alpha]$$

We now state an important result relating automorphisms of covering spaces to automorphisms of the fiber.

Proposition 3.3.3. *Let $p : (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ be a covering map.*

- (1) $\text{Aut}(\bar{X}, p)$ is naturally isomorphic to the group of automorphisms of the set $p^{-1}(x_0)$ considered as a right $\pi_1(X, x)$ -set.
- (2) The automorphism group $\text{Aut}(\bar{X}, p)$ is isomorphic to the quotient group

$$\frac{N(p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0)))}{p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0))},$$

where $N(p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0)))$ denotes the normalizer of $\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0)$ in $\pi_1(X, x_0)$.

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) Note that if ϕ is an automorphism of \bar{X} , then $\phi|_{p^{-1}(x)}$ is an automorphism of the fiber $p^{-1}(x_0)$. We will prove that the map

$$\phi \mapsto \phi|_{p^{-1}(x_0)}$$

is bijective. Suppose $\phi|_{p^{-1}(x_0)} = \psi|_{p^{-1}(x_0)}$. This implies that $(\phi \circ \psi^{-1})|_{p^{-1}(x_0)} = \text{Id}_{p^{-1}(x_0)}$. Since automorphisms of covering spaces have no fixed points unless they are the identity ([Corollary 3.2.8](#)(1)), it follows that $\phi \circ \psi^{-1} = \text{Id}_{(\bar{X}, p)}$, and thus $\phi = \psi$. This shows the map is injective. If ϕ is an automorphism of the fiber $p^{-1}(x_0)$ such that $\phi(\bar{x}_0) = \bar{x}_1$, where $\bar{x}_1 \in p^{-1}(x_0)$. Then $p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0)) = p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_1))$. By [Corollary 3.2.9](#)(2), there exists an automorphism $\psi \in \text{Aut}(\bar{X}, p)$ such that $\psi(\bar{x}_0) = \bar{x}_1$. This shows the map is surjective.

- (2) This follows from (1) and the group-theoretic fact that if Z is a transitive G -set and H is the isotropy subgroup of some $z \in Z$. Then the automorphism group $\text{Aut}(Z)$ is isomorphic to the quotient group

$$\text{Aut}(Z) \cong \frac{N(H)}{H}$$

This completes the proof. □

We now state two important corollaries of the previous result:

Corollary 3.3.4. *Let $p : (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ be a covering map.*

- (1) *If $p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0))$ is a normal subgroup of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$, then*

$$\text{Aut}(\bar{X}, p) \cong \frac{\pi_1(X, x_0)}{p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0))}$$

- (2) *If \bar{X} is simply-connected then*

$$\text{Aut}(\bar{X}, p) \cong \pi_1(X, x_0)$$

PROOF. (1) follows at once from [Proposition 3.3.3](#). (2) also follows from (1) since $N(\{c_{x_0}\}) = \pi_1(X, x_0)$. □

[Corollary 3.3.4](#) provides key insights into the structure of the automorphism group of a covering space.

- (1) The first part shows that when the image of the induced map on the fundamental group $p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0))$ is a normal subgroup of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$, the automorphism group of the covering space is isomorphic to the quotient of the fundamental group of the base space by this normal subgroup. Moreover, for any $\bar{x} \in p^{-1}(x_0)$, we have

$$p_*(\pi_1(X, \bar{x}_0)) \cong p_*(\pi_1(X, \bar{x}))$$

since there is only one conjugacy class of $p_*(\pi_1(X, \bar{x}))$. Covering spaces that satisfy this property are called *regular/normal* covering spaces.

- (2) The second part of the corollary, which applies when \bar{X} is simply-connected, shows that the automorphism group of such a covering space is isomorphic to the fundamental group of the base space. Covering spaces that are simply connected are called *universal* covering spaces

3.4. Classification of Covering Spaces

If $p : (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ is a covering map, we have proven that a covering space (\bar{X}, p) is determined up to isomorphism by the conjugacy class of the subgroup $p_*(\pi_1(X, \bar{x}_0))$ of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ ([Corollary 3.2.9](#)). Now, we address the inverse question:

Suppose (X, x_0) is a topological space and we are given a conjugacy class of subgroups of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$. Does there exist a topological space (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) and a covering map $p : (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ such that $p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}))$ belongs to the given conjugacy class?

We will see that the properties of regular and universal covering spaces are closely related to this question.

Proposition 3.4.1. *Let (X, x_0) be a topological space that is connected, locally path-connected, and semi-locally simply connected. Then, given any conjugacy class of subgroups of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$, there exists a topological space (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) and a covering map $p : (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ such that $p_*(\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}))$ belongs to the given conjugacy class.*

Remark 3.4.2. *A topological space (X, x_0) is semi-locally simply connected if every $x \in X$ has a neighborhood U_x such that the homomorphism*

$$\pi_1(U_x, x) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x)$$

is trivial. That is, every loop in U_x can be contracted to x within X . Note that U need not be simply connected since every loop in U may not be contractible within U . For this reason, a space can be semi-locally simply connected without being locally simply connected. The definition of the latter is obvious. It turns out that (X, x_0) has a universal cover if and only if (X, x_0) is connected, locally path-connected, and semi-locally simply connected. See [Lee10; Hat02] for details. Universal covering spaces are called universal because they satisfy the following property: let $q : (\bar{Y}, \bar{y}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ be a covering map such that (\bar{Y}, \bar{y}_0) is a universal covering space. Then for any other covering space $p : (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$, there exists a unique covering map

$$\phi : (\bar{Y}, \bar{y}_0) \rightarrow (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0)$$

such that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} (Y, y_0) & \xrightarrow{\phi} & (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \\ & \searrow q \quad \swarrow p & \\ & (X, x_0) & \end{array}$$

This follows at once from [Corollary 3.2.8\(2\)](#).

PROOF. ([Proposition 3.4.1](#)) The assumptions on (X, x_0) imply that there exists a universal covering space, (Y, y_0) , for (X, x_0) . Let $q : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ denote the corresponding (universal) covering map. We know the following facts:

- (1) $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ acts freely and transitively on the set $q^{-1}(x_0)$.
- (2) $\text{Aut}(Y, q) \cong \pi_1(X, x_0)$.

Choose a subgroup $G \subseteq \pi_1(X, x_0)$ that lies in the given conjugacy class. Consider the following subgroup:

$$H := \{\phi : \text{Aut}(Y, q) \mid \text{there exists } \alpha_\phi \in G \text{ such that } \phi(y) = y \cdot [\alpha] \in p^{-1}(x_0)\}$$

Note that $G \cong H$ under the correspondence $\phi \mapsto \alpha_\phi$. Since H is a subgroup of $\text{Aut}(Y, q)$, it satisfies the hypothesis of [Proposition 3.1.7](#). Hence, the quotient map $r : Y \rightarrow Y/G := \bar{X}$ is a covering map. The universal property of universal covering spaces ([Remark 3.4.2](#)) implies that we have a commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} (Y, y_0) & & \\ \downarrow q & \searrow r & \\ & & (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \\ & \swarrow p & \\ (Y, x_0) & & \end{array}$$

Here $p : \bar{X} \rightarrow X$ is a map induced by q and $\bar{x}_0 = r(y_0) \in p^{-1}(x_0)$. It is not hard to verify that $p : \bar{X} \rightarrow X$ is a covering map. Thus, the group $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ acts transitively on the right of the set $p^{-1}(x_0)$. Since Y is simply-connected, we have $\text{Aut}(Y, r) \cong \pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0)$. We claim that $\text{Aut}(Y, r) = H$. Clearly, $H \subseteq \text{Aut}(Y, r)$. Suppose $y_1, y_2 \in Y$, and let $\phi \in G$ be such that $\phi(y_1) = y_2$. Since ϕ is a covering transformation, we can choose an automorphism $\psi \in \text{Aut}(Y, p)$ such that $\psi(y_1) = y_2$. It follows that $\phi = \psi$. Hence, $\text{Aut}(Y, p) \subseteq G$, and therefore $G = \text{Aut}(Y, p)$ ¹. Hence, we have

$$\text{Aut}(Y, r) \cong H \cong G.$$

So p_* maps $\pi_1(\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0)$ onto G . This completes the proof. \square

Remark 3.4.3. *Proposition 3.4.1 proves the additional fact that if a group acts on a simply-connected space X such that the group action satisfies the hypotheses in [Proposition 3.1.7](#), then the quotient map $p : X \rightarrow X/G$ is a regular covering map, and*

$$\text{Aut}(X/G, p) \cong \pi_1(X, x_0) \cong G$$

We have shown that there is a one-to-one correspondence:

$$\{\text{Conjugacy classes of } \pi_1(X, x_0)\} \longleftrightarrow \{\text{Covering maps } p : (\bar{X}, \bar{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)\}$$

provided that (X, x_0) is connected, locally path-connected, and semi-locally simply connected. Since the universal covering space is connected, we in fact have a one-to-one correspondence for connected covering maps. Let us now consider some examples to illustrate this correspondence.

Example 3.4.4. (Coverings of \mathbb{S}^1) Since \mathbb{R} is simply connected, the covering map $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1$ is a universal covering map. We know that $\pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, x_0) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Every connected covering space of \mathbb{S}^1 corresponds to a subgroup of \mathbb{Z} . Every non-trivial subgroup of \mathbb{Z} is of the form $n\mathbb{Z}$ for some integer $n \geq 1$. Note that the index of $n\mathbb{Z}$ is n . For each $n \geq 1$, [Proposition 3.4.1](#) implies that there exists a unique (up to isomorphism) connected n -fold covering space of

¹This shows that $r : Y \rightarrow Y/G$ is a regular covering map.

\mathbb{S}^1 , which can be described as the quotient $\mathbb{R}/n\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{S}^1$. The associated covering map is the n -th power map on \mathbb{S}^1 .

Part 2

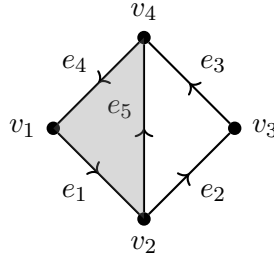
Homology

CHAPTER 4

Simplicial & Singular Homology

4.1. What is Homology?

Heuristically, homology measures the existence of holes in a topological space. For instance, consider the topological space, X , shown below:



Intuitively, the boundary of an edge in the diagram can be thought of as a formal difference between the ‘target’ and the ‘source’. So, the boundary of e_1 is given by $v_2 - v_1$. Moreover, let us define a chain of paths to be a formal sum of edges. For instance, we have the chains

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 &= e_1 + e_5 + e_4 \\ c_2 &= e_2 + e_3 + e_5^{-1} \\ c_3 &= e_1 + e_2 + e_3 + e_4 \end{aligned}$$

Here e_5^{-1} denotes the that edge e_5 is traversed in the opposite direction. In this terminology, we say there is a loop in X if the boundary of a formal sum of edges vanish. For instance, the boundary of c_1, c_2, c_3 vanishes. However, the loop c_1 can be shrunk to a point by deforming the path $e_4 + e_1$ to e_5 by continuously moving it within the interior of c_1 . In our terminology, this can be detected by the fact that c_1 is the boundary of the solid triangle v_1, v_2, v_4 . On the other hand, c_2 cannot be shrunk to a point since the triangle v_2, v_3, v_4 is hollow. Hence, we expect that there is one hole in X . The first homology group shall detect the presence of such a hole.

Remark 4.1.1. *The above intuition can be made precise by Hurewicz theorem which states that*

$$H_1(X) \cong \frac{\pi_1(X)}{[\pi_1(X), \pi_1(X)]}$$

That is $H_1(X)$ is isomorphic to the abelianization of $\pi_1(X)$, the fundamental group of X which quite literally is a measure of holes in a topological space.

More generally, the n -th homology group measures the existence of n -dimensional holes in a topological space, X . We consider an n -dimensional loop in $L \subseteq X$ which are reasonably such that that $L \cong \mathbb{S}^n$. For some n -dimensional loops $L \subseteq X$, there might be an $(n + 1)$ -dimensional disc $D \subseteq X$ such that $D \cong \mathbb{B}^{n+1}$ and L is the boundary of D . A n -dimensional

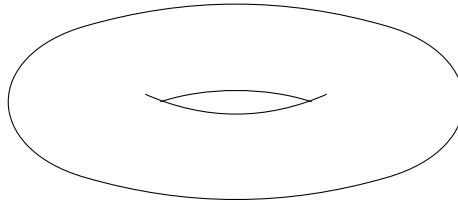
hole will then be a n -dimensional loop that is not the boundary of a n -dimensional disc. The n -th homology group will then be a measure of the existence of such n -dimensional holes.

Remark 4.1.2. *The phrase n -dimensional is only used informally in this section. Moreover, the statement above is only meant for intuition and should be taken with a grain of salt. In general, there is only a group homomorphism*

$$\pi_n(X) \rightarrow H_n(X),$$

for $n \geq 2$ if X is path-connected.

Example 4.1.3. The remarks made above precisely hold in one important case. Consider a hollow doughnut-shaped surface, D , considered as a subset of \mathbb{R}^3 .



Intuitively, there are two 1-dimensional holes in D . We will see that the first homology group (with \mathbb{Z} -coefficients) will be $\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$. The fact that there is a direct sum of two copies of \mathbb{Z} is a measure of the existence of two and only two 1-dimensional holes. Note that D is hollow. Hence, we expect that there is 2-dimensional hole in D - a region in space with empty volume! We will see that the second homology group (once again with \mathbb{Z} -coefficients) will be \mathbb{Z} since there is one and only one 2-dimensional hole.

4.2. Simplicial Homology

Let X be a topological space. In this section, we will define simplicial homology. Simplicial homology has the advantage of being computationally tractable since it can be used when a topological space can be triangulated. Indeed, we will define it in terms of Δ -complexes which will serve as basic building block of our triangulation.

Definition 4.2.1. Let $[v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n]$ be an ordered tuple in \mathbb{R}^m .

- (1) $[v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n] \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ is said to be affinely independent if the set

$$\{v_1 - v_0, v_2 - v_0, \dots, v_n - v_0\}$$

is linearly independent¹.

- (2) Given an affinely independent ordered tuple $[v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n] \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$, the n -simplex generated by $[v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n]$ is the convex span in \mathbb{R}^m of the $n+1$ points v_0, \dots, v_n :

$$\text{conv}[v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n] = \left\{ x = \sum_{i=0}^n t_i v_i \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid t_i \geq 0, \sum_i t_i = 1 \right\},$$

We call the points v_i the vertices of the n -simplex $[v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n]$.

¹Thus necessarily $n \leq m$

- (3) Given an n -simplex $\text{conv}[v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n]$, the face opposite to v_i is the $(n-1)$ -simplex:

$$\text{conv}[v_0, \dots, \widehat{v_i}, \dots, v_n] := \{x \in \text{conv}[v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n] \mid t_i = 0\}.$$

The boundary of an n -simplex is the union of its faces.

Geometrically, one can think of an n -simplex as the smallest convex subset containing v_0, \dots, v_n such that the points do not lie in a hyperplane of dimension less than n . As an example consider the standard n -simplex:

Definition 4.2.2. The standard simplex, $\Delta^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$, is

$$\Delta^n = \left\{ (t_0, \dots, t_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid t_i \geq 0, \sum_i t_i = 1 \right\}.$$

Remark 4.2.3. The standard simplex allows one to induce coordinates on all n -simplices by sending $e_i \mapsto v_i$ inducing a map of simplicies:

$$(t_0, \dots, t_n) \mapsto \sum_{i=0}^n t_i v_i$$

(t_0, \dots, t_n) are called barycentric coordinates.

Definition 4.2.4. A Δ -complex structure on a topological space X is a collection of maps $\{\sigma_j^n : \Delta^n \rightarrow X\}_{n \geq 0}^{j \in J_n}$ such that:

- (1) The restriction $\sigma_j^n|_{\text{Int}(\Delta^n)}$ is injective, and each point of X is in the image of exactly one such $\sigma_j^n|_{\text{Int}(\Delta^n)}$.
- (2) Restriction of each σ_j^n to a face of Δ^n is one of the maps $\sigma_k^{n-1} : \Delta^{n-1} \rightarrow X$.
- (3) A set $A \subseteq X$ is open if and only if $(\sigma_j^n)^{-1}(A)$ is open in Δ^n for each σ_j^n .

Remark 4.2.5. In what follows, we shall identify a $\sigma_j^n : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ with a n -simplex $[v_0, \dots, v_n]$.

Our goal is to define the simplicial homology groups of a Δ -complex structure on a topological space, X . Let $\Delta_n(X)$ be the free abelian group with basis the open n -simplices of X . Elements of $\Delta_n(X)$ are called n -chains. These can be written as finite formal sums

$$\sum_{j \in J_n} n_j \sigma_j^n \quad n_j \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Definition 4.2.6. Let X be a topological space with a Δ -complex structure. The boundary operator

$$\partial_n^\Delta : \Delta_n(X) \rightarrow \Delta_{n-1}(X)$$

is defined on each basis element of $\Delta_n(X)$ as:

$$\partial_n^\Delta[v_0, \dots, v_n] = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i [v_0, \dots, \widehat{v_i}, \dots, v_n]$$

We say that

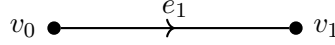
$$\partial_n^\Delta \left(\sum_{j \in J_n} n_j \sigma_j^n \right) \in \Delta_{n-1}(X)$$

is the boundary of $\sum_{j \in J_n} n_j \sigma_j^n$ in X .

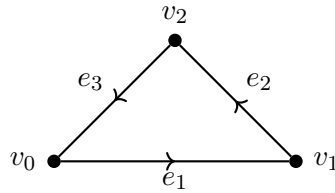
Remark 4.2.7. Note that the boundary of an n -simplex in X is a \mathbb{Z} -linear combination (with coefficients ± 1) of $n-1$ -simplices. This provides one motivation as to why we consider \mathbb{Z} -linear combinations of n -simplices. Moreover, heuristically the signs are inserted to take orientations into account, so that all the faces of a simplex are coherently oriented. See [Example 4.2.8](#).

Example 4.2.8. The following are examples of boundaries some standard simplices.

(1) Consider $X = \Delta^1$. Then $\partial_1^\Delta[v_0, v_1] = [v_1] - [v_0]$



(2) Consider $X = \Delta^2$. Then $\partial_2^\Delta[v_0, v_1, v_2] = [v_1, v_2] - [v_0, v_2] + [v_0, v_1]$



Lemma 4.2.9. Let X be a topological space with a Δ -complex structure. The map,

$$\partial_{n-1}^\Delta \circ \partial_n^\Delta : \Delta_n(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_n^\Delta} \Delta_{n-1}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}^\Delta} \Delta_{n-2}(X)$$

is zero for each $n \geq 0$.

PROOF. Note that:

$$\sum_{0 \leq j < i \leq n} (-1)^i (-1)^j [v_0, \dots, \widehat{v_j}, \dots, \widehat{v_i}, \dots, v_n] + \sum_{0 \leq i < j \leq n} (-1)^i (-1)^{j-1} [v_0, \dots, \widehat{v_i}, \dots, \widehat{v_j}, \dots, v_n] = 0$$

The latter two summations cancel since after switching i and j in the second sum, it becomes the negative of the first. \square

Remark 4.2.10. Note that $\Delta^1 \in \ker \partial_1^\Delta$ if and only if $v_0 = v_1$. In this case, Δ^1 can be thought of as a circle or a 1-loop. Indeed, this observation motivates the observation that n -loops in X correspond to elements of $\ker \partial_n^\Delta$ for each $n \geq 1$. Moreover, the condition $\partial_n^\Delta \circ \partial_{n+1}^\Delta = 0$ is the observation that the boundary of a \mathbb{Z} -linear combination of $(n+1)$ -simplices is a n -loop.

Let $C_n^\Delta(X) = \Delta_n(X)$ for each $n \geq 0$. Purely algebraically, we have a sequence of homomorphisms of abelian groups:

$$\dots \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}^\Delta} C_n^\Delta(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_n^\Delta} C_{n-1}^\Delta(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}^\Delta} C_{n-2}^\Delta(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-2}^\Delta} \dots$$

The boundary map $\partial_n^\Delta : C_n^\Delta(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}^\Delta(X)$ is such that

$$\partial_{n-1}^\Delta \circ \partial_n^\Delta = 0$$

That is,

$$\text{im}(\partial_{n+1}^\Delta) \subseteq \ker(\partial_n^\Delta)$$

Elements of $\ker(\partial_n^\Delta)$ are called n -cycles (or n -loops) and elements of $\text{im}(\partial_{n+1}^\Delta)$ are called n -boundaries.

Definition 4.2.11. Let X be a topological space with a Δ -complex structure. The n -th simplicial homology group of X with \mathbb{Z} -coefficients of the associated chain complex $(C_n^\Delta(X), \partial_n^\Delta)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is

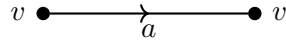
$$H_n^\Delta(X; \mathbb{Z}) = \frac{\ker(\partial_n^\Delta)}{\text{im}(\partial_{n+1}^\Delta)}$$

$H_n^\Delta(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is called the n -th simplicial homology group of X .

Remark 4.2.12. In what follows, we will not explicitly verify [Definition 4.2.4\(3\)](#). For instance, we will not explicitly verify that the Δ -complex structure on the circle, \mathbb{S}^1 , in [Example 4.2.13\(1\)](#) is compatible with the topology on \mathbb{S}^1 . Similarly, [Example 4.2.13\(2\)-\(8\)](#) we will not explicitly verify that the Δ -complex structure is compatible with the underlying quotient topology. It should be straightforward to do verify these claims, though.

Example 4.2.13. We compute simplicial homology groups of various topological spaces below.

- (1) **(Circle)** Consider $X = \mathbb{S}^1$ with a Δ -complex structure with a single 1-simplex and a single 0-simplex.



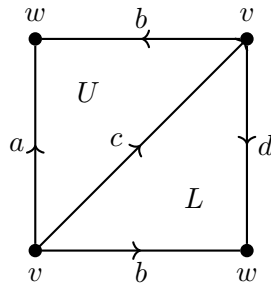
We have a chain complex of the following form:

$$\cdots \longrightarrow 0 \xrightarrow{\partial_2^\Delta} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\partial_1^\Delta} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\partial_0^\Delta} 0.$$

Here ∂_1^Δ is the zero map. Therefore, we have:

$$H_n^\Delta(\mathbb{S}^1, \mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } n = 0, 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- (2) **(Möbius Band)** Consider $X = M$, the Möbius band. A Δ -complex structure on M is pictured below.



We have a complex of the following form:

$$\cdots 0 \xrightarrow{\partial_3^\Delta} \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 2} \xrightarrow{\partial_2^\Delta} \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 4} \xrightarrow{\partial_1^\Delta} \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 2} \xrightarrow{\partial_0^\Delta} 0.$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_1^\Delta a &= \partial_1^\Delta b = \partial_1^\Delta d = w - v \\ \partial_1^\Delta c &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\text{Im } \partial_1^\Delta \cong \mathbb{Z}$, implying that $H_0^\Delta(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 2}/\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Also

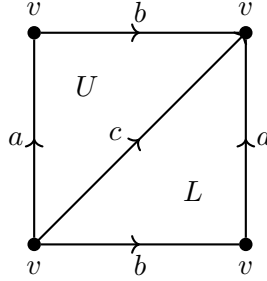
$$\partial_2^\Delta U = a - b - c$$

$$\partial_2^\Delta L = b - d - c$$

This implies ∂_2^Δ is injective. Hence $H_2^\Delta(X) \cong 0$. A basis for $\ker \partial_1^\Delta$ is $\{x = a - d, y = b - d, z = c\}$. Hence $\ker \partial_1^\Delta \cong \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$. A basis for $\text{Im } \partial_2^\Delta$ is $\{x - y - z, y - z\}$. An equivalent basis is $\{x, y - z\}$. Hence $H_1^\Delta(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

$$H_n^\Delta(M, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 0, 1 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

- (3) (**Torus**) Consider the $X = \mathbb{T}$, the torus, with the Δ -complex structure is pictured below having one vertex, three edges a , b , and c , and two 2-simplices U and L ².



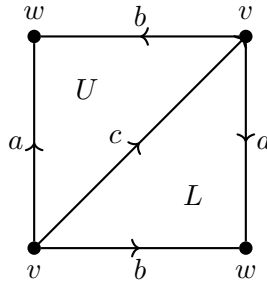
We have a complex of the following form:

$$\dots 0 \xrightarrow{\partial_3^\Delta} \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 2} \xrightarrow{\partial_2^\Delta} \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 3} \xrightarrow{\partial_1^\Delta} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\partial_0^\Delta} 0.$$

As in the previous example, $\partial_1^\Delta = 0$. Also $\partial_2^\Delta U = a + b - c = \partial_2^\Delta L$. Since $\partial_1^\Delta = 0$, $H_0^\Delta(T) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Since $\{a, b, a+b-c\}$ is a valid basis for $\mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 3}$, it follows that $H_1^\Delta(T) \cong \mathbb{Z}^2$ with basis the homology classes $[a]$ and $[b]$. Since there are no 3-simplices, $H_2^\Delta(T)$ is equal to $\ker \partial_2^\Delta$, which is infinite cyclic generated by $U - L$. Thus,

$$H_n^\Delta(T, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 1 \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 0, 2 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

- (4) (**Real Projective Plane**) Consider $X = \mathbb{RP}^2$. The delta complex structure is pictured below.



²We use the notation \mathbb{T} is homomorphic to $\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1$ the donught-shaped surface in [Section 4.1](#).

We have a complex of the following form:

$$\dots 0 \xrightarrow{\partial_3^\Delta} \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 2} \xrightarrow{\partial_2^\Delta} \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 3} \xrightarrow{\partial_1^\Delta} \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 2} \xrightarrow{\partial_0^\Delta} 0.$$

We have

$$\partial_1^\Delta b = \partial_1^\Delta a = w - v \quad \partial^\Delta c = 0.$$

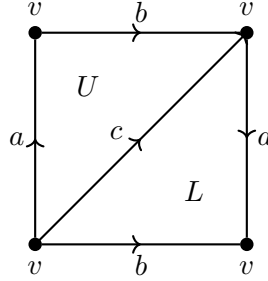
Hence $\text{Im } \partial_1^\Delta \cong \mathbb{Z}$, implying that $H_0^\Delta(X) = \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 2}/\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Also

$$\partial_2^\Delta U = a - b - c \quad \partial_2^\Delta L = b - a - c$$

This implies ∂_2^Δ is injective. Hence $H_2^\Delta(X) \cong 0$. A basis for $\ker \partial_1^\Delta$ is $\{x = a - b, y = c\}$. Hence $\ker \partial_1^\Delta \cong \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$. A basis for $\text{Im } \partial_2^\Delta$ is $\{x - y, -x - y\}$. An equivalent basis is $\{x - y, 2y\}$. Hence $H_1^\Delta(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$.

$$H_n^\Delta(\mathbb{RP}^2, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 0 \\ \mathbb{Z}_2 & \text{for } n = 1 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

- (5) **(Klein Bottle)** Consider $X = K$, the Klein bottle, with the Δ -complex structure is pictured below having one vertex, three edges a , b and c , and two 2-simplices U and L :



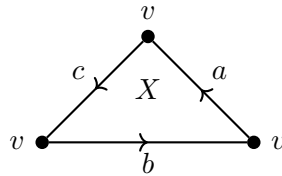
We have a complex of the following form:

$$\dots 0 \xrightarrow{\partial_3^\Delta} \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 2} \xrightarrow{\partial_2^\Delta} \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 3} \xrightarrow{\partial_1^\Delta} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\partial_0^\Delta} 0.$$

Clearly, $\partial_1^\Delta = 0$. $\partial_2^\Delta U = a + b - c$ and $\partial_2^\Delta L = a - b + c$. Since $\partial_1^\Delta = 0$, $H_0^\Delta(K) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. We have $\text{Im}(\partial_2^\Delta) = \text{span}\{2a, a + b - c\}$. Since $\{a, a + b - c, c\}$ is a valid basis for $\mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 3}$, it follows that $H_1^\Delta(K) \cong \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$. Since there are no 3-simplices, $H_2^\Delta(K)$ is equal to $\ker \partial_2^\Delta$, which is easily seen to be trivial. Thus,

$$H_n^\Delta(K, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 & \text{for } n = 1 \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

- (6) **(Triangular Parachute)** Let X be a triangular parachute obtained from Δ^2 by identifying its three vertices to a single point.



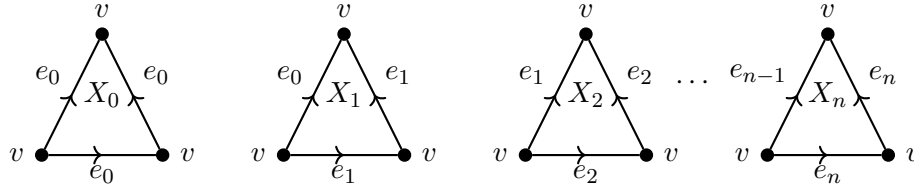
We have 1 face, 3 edges, and 1 vertex so that $\Delta^2(X)$, $\Delta^0(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, $\Delta^1(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}^3$. Note that

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_2^\Delta(X) &= b + a - c \\ \partial_1^\Delta(a) &= \partial_1^\Delta(b) = \partial_1^\Delta(c) = \partial_0^\Delta(v) = 0\end{aligned}$$

Hence $\ker \partial_2^\Delta = 0$, $\ker \partial_1^\Delta = \mathbb{Z}^3$, $\ker \partial_0^\Delta = \mathbb{Z}$. On the other hand, $\text{Im } \partial_2^\Delta = \mathbb{Z}$ as the subgroup $\langle b + a - c \rangle$ is free on one generator. Hence we have,

$$H_n^\Delta(X, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 0 \\ \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 2} & \text{for } n = 1 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

- (7) Let X be the topological space obtained from $n+1$ 2-simplices $\Delta_0^2, \dots, \Delta_n^2$ by identifying all three edges of Δ_0^2 to a single edge, and for $i > 0$ identifying the edges $[v_0, v_1]$ and $[v_1, v_2]$ of Δ_i^2 to a single edge and the edge $[v_0, v_2]$ to the edge $[v_0, v_1]$ of Δ_{i-1}^2 .



We have 1 vertex, $n+1$ edges, and $n+1$ faces so that $\Delta_0(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, $\Delta_1(X)$, $\Delta_2(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$. We have a complex of the following form:

$$\dots 0 \xrightarrow{\partial_3^\Delta} \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus n+1} \xrightarrow{\partial_2^\Delta} \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus n+1} \xrightarrow{\partial_1^\Delta} \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus 1} \xrightarrow{\partial_0^\Delta} 0.$$

Clearly, $\partial_0^\Delta = 0$ and $\text{Im } \partial_1^\Delta = 0$. Hence $H_0^\Delta(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Let's compute $\text{Im } \partial_2$. Note that:

$$\partial_2 X_i = \begin{cases} e_0 & \text{if } i = 0 \\ 2e_i - e_{i-1} & \text{if } i > 1 \end{cases}$$

It is clear that a basis for $\text{Im } \partial_2 = \{e_0\} \cup \{2e_i - e_{i-1} : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$. Note that in $H_1^\Delta(X) = \ker \partial_1 / \text{Im } \partial_2$, we set $e_0 = 0$ and $2e_i - e_{i-1} = 0$ so that $e_0 = 0$, $2e_i = e_{i-1}$. This implies that

$$2e_1 = e_0 = 0 \quad 2^2 e_2 = e_0 = 0 \quad \dots \quad 2^k e_k = e_0 = 0$$

so that Therefore:

$$H_1^\Delta(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} / (\mathbb{Z} \times 2\mathbb{Z} \times \dots \times 2^n \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4 \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{2^n}$$

It is easy to see that $\ker \partial_2^\Delta = 0$. Hence $H_2^\Delta(X) = 0$. Therefore, we have:

$$H_n^\Delta(X, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 0 \\ \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4 \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{2^n} & \text{for } n = 1 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

- (8) Let X_n be obtained from an n -simplex by identifying all faces of the same dimension. Since there is only one k -simplex for each $k \leq n$, we see that $\Delta^k(X_n) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ for $k \leq n$. Choose a generator σ_k for each of these. Note that the restriction of σ_k to a $(k-1)$ -dimensional face will just be σ_{k-1} . Thus,

$$\partial_k^\Delta \sigma_k = \sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^i \sigma_{k-1} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k = 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } k \leq n, \text{ and } k \text{ is odd,} \\ \sigma_{k-1} & \text{if } k \leq n, \text{ and } k \text{ is even,} \\ 0 & \text{if } k > n. \end{cases}$$

Therefore:

$$\ker(\partial_k^\Delta) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } k = 0, \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } k \leq n, \text{ and } k \text{ is odd,} \\ 0 & \text{if } k \leq n, \text{ and } k \text{ is even,} \\ 0 & \text{if } k > n. \end{cases} \quad \text{Im}(\partial_k) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k = 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } k \leq n, \text{ and } k \text{ is odd,} \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } k \leq n, \text{ and } k \text{ is even,} \\ 0 & \text{if } k > n. \end{cases}$$

Hence:

$$H_k^\Delta(X_n, \mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } k = 0, \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } k = n, \text{ and } n \text{ is odd,} \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

4.3. Homological Algebra

In this section we take an algebraic detour and introduce the basics of homological algebra by discussing exact sequences, chain complexes and some diagram chasing lemmas. We work in the category **Ab**, the category of abelian groups. However, the discussion applies verbatim in **Mod** $_R$, the category of R -modules³.

4.3.1. Exact Sequences. We first discuss the fundamental concept of exact sequences. Exact sequences are a central tool in homological algebra and algebraic topology, providing a way to relate algebraic invariants of different objects. They encode how one algebraic object maps into another and help detect kernels and images of homomorphisms, which are essential for defining and computing homology and cohomology groups.

Definition 4.3.1. A sequence

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

of two homomorphisms of abelian groups is said to be exact at B if $\text{im } f = \ker g$. More generally, a sequence

$$\dots \rightarrow A_{n+1} \xrightarrow{f_{n+1}} A_n \xrightarrow{f_n} A_{n-1} \rightarrow \dots \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

is said to be exact if it is exact at A_n for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Such a sequence is called a long exact sequence of abelian groups.

The following is an important special case:

³In general, in any abelian category.

Definition 4.3.2. A short exact sequence of abelian groups is an exact sequence of the form

$$0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0.$$

that is exact in each degree.

Example 4.3.3. Using the notion of exactness, we can rephrase familiar definitions from basic algebra. Suppose $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a homomorphism of abelian groups.

- (1) f is injective if and only if $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B$ is exact. Indeed, the sequence is exact at A if and only if $\ker f = 0$ if and only if f is injective.
- (2) f is surjective if and only if $A \xrightarrow{f} B \rightarrow 0$ is exact. Indeed, the sequence is exact at B if and only if $\operatorname{im} f = B$ if and only if f is surjective.
- (3) f is an isomorphism if and only if $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \rightarrow 0$ is exact. This follows from the two statements above.

Remark 4.3.4. *Functors in \mathbf{Ab} (or in any abelian category) can preserve algebraic structure in different ways. A functor \mathcal{F} is said to be left exact if it sends exact sequences of the form*

$$0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$$

to exact sequences

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(C).$$

Similarly, a functor is said to be right exact if it sends exact sequences of the form

$$A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$$

to exact sequences

$$\mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(C) \rightarrow 0.$$

A functor is called exact if it is both left exact and right exact. The notion of exact functors is used in the appendix (Part 6) and later on.

4.3.2. Chain Complexes & Chain Homotopy. We now define the notions of chain complexes and chain homotopy. Chain complexes provide the algebraic framework for computing homology, encoding sequences of abelian groups connected by boundary maps. Chain homotopy, on the other hand, allows us to compare chain maps up to a ‘deformation,’ playing a crucial role in establishing when two chain complexes have the same homological properties.

Definition 4.3.5. A chain complex is a sequence of abelian groups and homomorphisms

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+2}} C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} C_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}} \cdots$$

for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ which satisfies $\partial_n \circ \partial_{n+1} = 0$, for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. That is,

$$\operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1} \subseteq \ker \partial_n \iff \partial_n \circ \partial_{n+1} = 0$$

We refer to the entire complex as $(C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet)$ or sometimes just C_\bullet . The maps ∂_n are called the boundary operators of the chain complex.

Example 4.3.6. Let X be a topological space. The chain complex

$$(C_n^\Delta(X), \partial_n^\Delta)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$$

encountered in Section 4.2 is a chain complex. We call this the simplicial chain complex. Note that in this example the abelian groups are all zero for negative subscripts; this, however, is not part of the definition in general.

Remark 4.3.7. Elements of $\ker \partial_n$ are called n -chains and elements of $\operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1}$ are called n -boundaries.

We now define the notion of a chain map between chain complexes.

Definition 4.3.8. Let $(C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet)$ and $(C'_\bullet, \partial'_\bullet)$ be chain complexes of abelian groups. A chain map between $(C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet)$ and $(C'_\bullet, \partial'_\bullet)$ is a sequence of group homomorphisms $f_n : C_n \rightarrow C'_n$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that the diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} & C_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots \\ & & \downarrow f_{n+1} & & \downarrow f_n & & \downarrow f_{n-1} \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & C'_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial'_{n+1}} & C'_n & \xrightarrow{\partial'_n} & C'_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots \end{array}$$

Proposition 4.3.9. Chain complexes of abelian groups form a category, denoted as $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}$.

PROOF. Objects in $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}$ are chain complexes of abelian groups and a morphism between chain complexes of abelian groups is a chain map. If $(C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet)$, $(C'_\bullet, \partial'_\bullet)$ and $(C''_\bullet, \partial''_\bullet)$ are chain complexes such that $f_\bullet : C_\bullet \rightarrow C'_\bullet$ and $g_\bullet : C'_\bullet \rightarrow C''_\bullet$ are two chain maps. Then

$$(g \circ f)_\bullet : C_\bullet \rightarrow C''_\bullet$$

is the chain map given by $(g \circ f)_n = g_n \circ f_n$. This is indeed a valid chain map as the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} & C_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots \\ & & \downarrow f_{n+1} & & \downarrow f_n & & \downarrow f_{n-1} \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & C'_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial'_{n+1}} & C'_n & \xrightarrow{\partial'_n} & C'_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots \\ & & \downarrow g_{n+1} & & \downarrow g_n & & \downarrow g_{n-1} \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & C''_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial''_{n+1}} & C''_n & \xrightarrow{\partial''_n} & C''_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial''_{n-1}} \cdots \end{array}$$

commutes essentially by construction as can be easily checked. This defines the composition of two chain maps. Moreover, the identity chain map

$$\operatorname{Id} : C_\bullet \rightarrow C_\bullet$$

is the chain map given by $\operatorname{Id}_n = \operatorname{Id}_{C_n}$ where Id_{C_n} is the identity homomorphism from C_n to C_n .

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} & C_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots \\ & & \downarrow \operatorname{Id}_{n+1} & & \downarrow \operatorname{Id}_n & & \downarrow \operatorname{Id}_{n-1} \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial'_{n+1}} & C_n & \xrightarrow{\partial'_n} & C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots \end{array}$$

All that is required is check that composition of chain maps satisfies the associativity property and the composition of a chain map with the identity chain map yields the original chain map. All these are routine checks. \square

We now define the notion of a chain homotopy between chain complexes.

Definition 4.3.10. Suppose (C_\bullet, ∂) and (C'_\bullet, ∂') are two chain complexes with chain maps f_\bullet, g_\bullet . A chain homotopy between f_\bullet, g_\bullet is a series of maps $T_n : C_n \rightarrow C'_{n+1}$ and C_{n+1} such that

$$\begin{aligned} f_n - g_n &= \partial'_{n+1} T_n + T_{n-1} \partial_n & n \geq 1 \\ T_0 \circ \partial_1 &= f_0 - g_0 & n = 0 \end{aligned}$$

That is, the following diagram commutes

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} & C_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots \\ & \swarrow T_{n+1} & \downarrow f_{n+1} & \swarrow g_{n+1} & \downarrow f_n & \swarrow g_n^{T_{n-1}} & \downarrow f_{n-1} \\ & & C'_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial'_{n+1}} & C'_n & \xrightarrow{\partial'_n} & C'_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots \end{array}$$

Remark 4.3.11. In [Section 4.5](#), we will provide a geometric intuition behind the definition of a chain homotopy.

Proposition 4.3.12. Let (C_\bullet, ∂) and (C'_\bullet, ∂') be two chain complexes. The relation of chain homotopy between these chain complexes is an equivalence relation.

PROOF. Let f_\bullet be a chain map. Define $T_n : C_n \rightarrow C'_{n+1}$ to be the zero map. Then

$$T_{n-1} \partial_n + \partial'_{n+1} T_n = 0 = f - f,$$

so f is chain homotopic to itself. Assume f_\bullet is chain homotopic to g_\bullet . That is, consider maps $f_n, g_n : C_n \rightarrow C'_n$ such that there is a $T_n : C_n \rightarrow C'_{n+1}$ such that

$$f_n - g_n = T_{n-1} \partial_n + \partial'_{n+1} T_n$$

Then

$$g_n - f_n = -(f_n - g_n) = -T_{n-1} \partial_n + \partial'_{n+1} T_n = (-T_{n-1}) \partial_n + \partial'_{n+1} (-T_n)$$

Therefore g_\bullet is chain homotopic to f_\bullet . Finally, suppose f_\bullet is chain homotopic to g_\bullet and that g_\bullet is chain homotopic to h_\bullet . Then there exist maps $T_n, S_n : C_n \rightarrow C'_{n+1}$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} f_n - g_n &= T_{n-1} \partial_n + \partial'_{n+1} T_n \\ g_n - h_n &= S_{n-1} \partial_n + \partial'_{n+1} S_n \end{aligned}$$

Adding equations, we get

$$f_n - h_n = (T_{n-1} + S_{n-1}) \partial_n + \partial'_{n+1} (T_n + S_n)$$

Thus, f_\bullet is chain homotopic to h_\bullet . This proves the claim. \square

4.3.3. Homology of a Chain Complex. Given a chain complex, $(C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet)$, the condition $\partial_n \circ \partial_{n+1} = 0$ implies that

$$\text{im } \partial_{n+1} \subseteq \ker \partial_n$$

This motivates the following definition:

Definition 4.3.13. Let $(C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet)$ be a chain complex. The n -th homology group is defined as

$$H_n(C_\bullet) := \frac{\ker \partial_n}{\text{im } \partial_{n+1}}.$$

Example 4.3.14. Let's compute the homology of some chain complexes:

(1) Consider the chain complex

$$C_\bullet : \cdots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\partial_2} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\partial_1} 0 \rightarrow \cdots,$$

where the chain groups are given by

$$\begin{aligned} C_1 &= \mathbb{Z}, \\ C_2 &= \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}, \\ C_n &= 0 \quad \text{for } n \neq 1, 2. \end{aligned}$$

The homomorphism ∂_2 is defined by $\partial_2(x, y) = 3x + 3y$. Note that we have the following

$$\ker \partial_n \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } n = 1 \text{ or } n = 2, \\ 0, & \text{if } n \neq 1, 2. \end{cases}$$

Similarly, we have

$$\operatorname{im} \partial_n \cong \begin{cases} 3\mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } n = 2, \\ 0, & \text{if } n \neq 2. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, the homology of the chain complex is given as:

$$H_n(C_\bullet) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}_3, & \text{if } n = 1, \\ \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } n = 2, \\ 0, & \text{if } n \neq 1, 2. \end{cases}$$

(2) Consider the chain complex:

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \cdots$$

where $C_n = \mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}$ for $n \leq 0$ and $C^n = 0$ for $n > 0$ and the map ∂ is given by $x \bmod 8 \mapsto 4x \bmod 8$. It is easy to see that

$$\begin{aligned} \ker \partial &= \{\bar{0}, \bar{2}, \bar{4}, \bar{6}\} \cong \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} \\ \operatorname{im} \partial &= \{\bar{0}, \bar{4}\} \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \end{aligned}$$

for $n < 0$. Hence,

$$H_n(C_\bullet) \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}}{\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}} \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

Trivially, $H_n(C_\bullet) \cong 0$ for $n > 0$ and $H_0(C_\bullet) \cong \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$.

Proposition 4.3.15. *Let $(C, \partial_\bullet), (C', \partial'_\bullet)$ be chain complexes and let f_\bullet, g_\bullet be chain maps between the chain complexes. If there is a chain homotopy f_\bullet and g_\bullet , then the induced maps in homology are equal, i.e., we have:*

$$H_n(f) = H_n(g) : H_n(C_\bullet) \rightarrow H_n(C'_\bullet)$$

PROOF. Let $(T_n)_{n \geq 1}$ be the sequence of maps defining a chain homotopy. Let $[c] \in H_n(C)$. If $n = 0$, we have

$$H_0(f)([c]) = [f_0(c)] = [g_0(c) + \partial_1 T_0(c)] = [g_0(c)] = H_0(g)([c])$$

For $n \geq 1$, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
 H_n(f)([c]) &= [f_n(c)] \\
 &= [g_n(c) + \partial'_{n+1}T_n(c) + T_{n-1}\partial_n(c)] \\
 &= [g_n(c)] \\
 &= H_n(g)([c])
 \end{aligned}$$

The third equality uses that c is a n -cycle and that a homology class is not changed if we add a n -boundary. The claim follows. \square

Proposition 4.3.16. *There is a functor $H_n : \mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ that associates to a chain complex over abelian groups its n -th homology group.*

PROOF. Consider a chain map between chain complexes given by the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} & C_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots \\
 & & \downarrow f_{n+1} & & \downarrow f_n & & \downarrow f_{n-1} \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & C'_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial'_{n+1}} & C'_n & \xrightarrow{\partial'_n} & C'_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots
 \end{array}$$

The relation $f_n \partial_{n+1} = \partial'_{n+1} f_{n+1}$ implies that f_n takes n -cycles to n -cycles for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. This is because if $\partial_n c = 0$, then

$$\partial'_n(f_n(c)) = f_{n-1}(\partial_n c) = 0$$

Also, f_n takes n boundaries to n -boundaries since

$$f_n(\partial_{n+1}c) = \partial'_{n+1}(f_{n+1}c)$$

Hence f_n descends to a homomorphism

$$H_n(f) : H_n(C_\bullet) \rightarrow H_n(C'_\bullet)$$

It remains to check that $H_n(g \circ f) = H_n(g) \circ H_n(f)$ and that $H_n(\text{Id}_X) = \text{Id}_{H_n(X)}$. Both of these are immediate from the definitions. \square

4.3.4. Diagram Chasing Lemmas. In this section, we discuss some important diagram chasing lemmas in homological algebra. In particular, we discuss the short-five lemma, four-lemma, five-lemma and the snake lemma. The snake lemma allows us to construct a long exact sequence of homology⁴ of pairs of topological spaces. We end our discussion by discussing the braid lemma. The braid lemma will allow us to construct a long exact sequence of homology of triples of topological spaces.

Proposition 4.3.17. (Short Five Lemma) *Consider the diagram below:*

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 0 & \longrightarrow & A & \xrightarrow{f} & B & \xrightarrow{g} & C \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \alpha \downarrow & & \beta \downarrow & & \gamma \downarrow \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & A' & \xrightarrow{f'} & B' & \xrightarrow{g'} & C' \longrightarrow 0
 \end{array}$$

be a commutative diagram with exact rows of abelian groups. We have the following:

- (1) *If α and γ are injective homomorphisms, then β is an injective homomorphism.*

⁴And cohomology later on.

- (2) If α and γ are surjective homomorphisms, then β is a surjective homomorphism.
 (3) If α and γ are isomorphisms, then β is an isomorphism.

PROOF. The proof of (2) is similar to that of (1). (3) follows from (1) and (2). We prove (1). Let $b \in B$ such that $\beta(b) = 0$. Clearly, $g'(\beta(b)) = 0$. But by the commutativity of the right-most square, we also have that $\gamma(g(b)) = 0$. Since γ is injective, $g(b) = 0$. Hence $b \in \ker g = \text{im } f$. Therefore, there is a $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$. By the commutativity of the left-most square, we must have that $f'(\alpha(a)) = 0$. Since f' and α are injective, $a = 0$. Hence, $b = 0$.

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} a & \xrightarrow{f} & b & \xrightarrow{g} & g(b) \\ \downarrow \alpha & & \downarrow \beta & & \downarrow \gamma \\ \alpha(a) & \xrightarrow{f'} & 0 & \xrightarrow{g'} & 0 \end{array}$$

This completes the proof. \square

Proposition 4.3.18. (Four & Five Lemmas) Consider the diagram below:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & B & \xrightarrow{g} & C & \xrightarrow{h} & D & \xrightarrow{i} & E \\ \alpha \downarrow & & \beta \downarrow & & \mu \downarrow & & \gamma \downarrow & & \delta \downarrow \\ A' & \xrightarrow{f'} & B' & \xrightarrow{g'} & C' & \xrightarrow{h'} & D' & \xrightarrow{i'} & E' \end{array}$$

be a commutative diagram with exact rows of abelian groups. We have the following:

- (1) (**Four Lemma I**) If α is a surjective homomorphism and β and γ are injective homomorphisms, then μ is an injective homomorphism.
 (2) (**Four Lemma II**) If δ is an injective homomorphism and β and γ are surjective homomorphisms, then μ is a surjective homomorphism.
 (3) (**Five Lemma**) If α is a surjective homomorphism, δ is an injective homomorphism, and β and γ are isomorphisms, then μ is an isomorphism.

PROOF. (3) follows from (1) and (2) and the proof of (2) is similar to that of (1). We only prove (1). Let $c \in C$ such that $\mu(c) = 0$. Note that: $\gamma \circ h(c) = h' \circ \mu(c) = 0$. Since γ is an injective homomorphism, $h(c) = 0$. Therefore, there exists a $b \in B$ such that $g(b) = c$. Note that $g' \circ \beta(b) = \mu \circ g(c) = 0$. Hence, there exists a $a' \in A$ such that $f'(a') = \beta(b)$. Since α is a surjective homomorphism, there exists a $a \in A$ such that $\alpha(a) = a'$. Since β is an injective homomorphism, we must have that $f(a) = b$. But then $c = g(b) = f \circ g(a) = 0$.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & 0 & & & & \\ & \searrow & & \nearrow & & & \\ a & \xrightarrow{f} & b & \xrightarrow{g} & c & \xrightarrow{h} & h(c) \\ \downarrow \alpha & & \downarrow \beta & & \downarrow \mu & & \downarrow \gamma \\ a' & \xrightarrow{f'} & \beta(b) & \xrightarrow{g'} & 0 & \xrightarrow{h'} & 0 \end{array}$$

This completes the proof. \square

Where are we headed? We would like to consider a short exact sequence of chain complexes. A short exact sequence of chain complexes is a commutative diagram of the

form:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & A_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} & A_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & A_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}} \cdots \\
 & & \downarrow i_{n+1} & & \downarrow i_n & & \downarrow i_{n-1} \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & B_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial'_{n+1}} & B_n & \xrightarrow{\partial'_n} & B_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial'_{n-1}} \cdots \\
 & & \downarrow j_{n+1} & & \downarrow j_n & & \downarrow j_{n-1} \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial''_{n+1}} & C_n & \xrightarrow{\partial''_n} & C_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial''_{n-1}} \cdots \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0
 \end{array}$$

We abbreviate the diagram as

$$0_\bullet \longrightarrow A_\bullet \xrightarrow{i_\bullet} B_\bullet \xrightarrow{j_\bullet} C_\bullet \longrightarrow 0_\bullet$$

The snake lemma will be a statement about short exact sequences in $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}$. We can define the category of short exact sequence of chain complexes, $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}^{\mathbf{Exact}}$. Objects in $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}^{\mathbf{Exact}}$ are short exact sequences of chain complexes. A morphism between short exact sequence of chain complexes is a diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 0_\bullet & \longrightarrow & A_\bullet & \xrightarrow{i_\bullet} & B_\bullet & \xrightarrow{j_\bullet} & C_\bullet \longrightarrow 0_\bullet \\
 & & \downarrow f_\bullet & & \downarrow g_\bullet & & \downarrow h_\bullet \\
 0_\bullet & \longrightarrow & A'_\bullet & \xrightarrow{i'_\bullet} & B'_\bullet & \xrightarrow{j'_\bullet} & C'_\bullet \longrightarrow 0_\bullet
 \end{array}$$

such that $f_\bullet, g_\bullet, h_\bullet$ are chain maps. We will not go through the pain of writing the diagram out explicitly.

Proposition 4.3.19. (Snake Lemma) *Consider a short exact sequence in $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}$:*

$$0_\bullet \rightarrow A_\bullet \xrightarrow{i_\bullet} B_\bullet \xrightarrow{j_\bullet} C_\bullet \rightarrow 0_\bullet$$

For each $n \geq 1$, there exist connecting morphisms

$$\delta_n : H_n(C_\bullet) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(A_\bullet)$$

such that there is a long exact sequence of homology groups:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & H_{n+1}(B_\bullet) & \longrightarrow & H_{n+1}(C_\bullet) & & \\
 & & \searrow \delta_{n+1} & & \nearrow & & \\
 & \longrightarrow & H_n(A_\bullet) & \longrightarrow & H_n(B_\bullet) & \longrightarrow & H_n(C_\bullet) \\
 & & \searrow \delta_n & & \nearrow & & \\
 & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(A_\bullet) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(B_\bullet) & \longrightarrow & \cdots
 \end{array}$$

In fact, the above construction defines a functor from $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}^{\mathbf{Exact}}$ to $\mathbf{Ab}^{\mathbf{Long}}$, the category of long exact sequences of abelian groups.

PROOF. The short exact sequence of chain complexes can be drawn more explicitly as:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & A_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} & A_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & A_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}} \cdots \\
 & & \downarrow i_{n+1} & & \downarrow i_n & & \downarrow i_{n-1} \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & B_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial'_{n+1}} & B_n & \xrightarrow{\partial'_n} & B_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial'_{n-1}} \cdots \\
 & & \downarrow j_{n+1} & & \downarrow j_n & & \downarrow j_{n-1} \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial''_{n+1}} & C_n & \xrightarrow{\partial''_n} & C_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial''_{n-1}} \cdots \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0
 \end{array}$$

Since i_\bullet and j_\bullet are chain maps, the homology functor maps induce maps on the homology groups which we write as $H_n(i)$ and $H_n(j)$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The connecting morphisms δ_n are constructed as follows: let $c \in C_n$ be a cycle representative for $[\alpha] \in H_n(C)$. Then, since j_n is surjective, there exists $b \in B_n$ such that $c = j_n(b)$. Therefore, we have that $\partial'_n(b) \in B_{n-1}$. By the commutativity of the diagram, we know that

$$j_{n-1}(\partial''_n(b)) = \partial''_n(j_{n-1}(b)) = \partial''_n(c) = 0,$$

since c is a cycle. Therefore, $\partial'_n(b) \in \ker j_{n-1} = \text{im } i_{n-1}$. So, there exists a (unique, since i_{n-1} is injective) $a \in A_{n-1}$ with $\partial'_n(b) = i_{n-1}(a)$. We show that a is a cycle. Note that

$$i_{n-2}(\partial_{n-1}(a)) = \partial'_{n-1}(i_{n-1}(a)) = \partial'_{n-1}(\partial'_n(b)) = 0$$

Since i_{n-2} is injective, this implies that $\partial_{n-1}(a) = 0$. Finally, we define $\delta_n([\alpha]) = [a] \in H_{n-1}(A)$. We have to show that this assignment is independent of all choices.

- (1) Suppose we choose $b' \in B_n$ such that $j_n(b') = c$. Then, $b' - b \in \ker j_n = \text{im } i_n$. So, there exists $a' \in A_n$ such that $b' - b = i_n(a')$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \partial'_n(b') &= \partial'_n(b) + \partial'_n(i_n(a')) \\
 &= \partial'_n(b) + i_{n-1}(\partial_n(a')) \\
 &= i_{n-1}(a) + i_{n-1}(\partial_n(a')) \\
 &= i_{n-1}(a + \partial_n(a')).
 \end{aligned}$$

So we see that changing b to b' amounts to changing a by a homologous cycle $a + \partial_n(a')$.

- (2) If instead of c we use $c + \partial''_{n+1}(c')$ for some $c' \in C_{n+1}$. But then, $c' = j_{n+1}(b')$ for some $b' \in B_{n+1}$. So,

$$\begin{aligned}
 c + \partial''_{n+1}(c') &= c + \partial''_{n+1}(j_{n+1}(b')) \\
 &= c + j_n(\partial'_{n+1}(b')) \\
 &= j_n(b + \partial'_{n+1}(b'))
 \end{aligned}$$

Then b will be replaced by $b + \partial'_{n+1}(b')$, which leaves $\partial'_n(b)$ unchanged, hence a unchanged.

We now prove that the following sequence is exact:

$$\cdots \longrightarrow H_n(A) \xrightarrow{H_n(i)} H_n(B) \xrightarrow{H_n(j)} H_n(C) \xrightarrow{\delta_n} H_{n-1}(A) \xrightarrow{H_{n-1}(i_{n-1})} H_{n-1}(B) \longrightarrow \cdots$$

- (1) $\text{im } H_n(i) \subseteq \ker H_n(j)$. This is immediate since $j_n \circ i_n = 0$ implies $H_n(j) \circ H_n(i) = 0$.
- (2) $\text{im } H_n(j) \subseteq \ker \delta_n$. We have $\delta_n \circ H_n(j) = 0$ since in this case $\partial'_n b = 0$ in the definition of δ_n .
- (3) $\text{im } \delta_n \subseteq \ker H_{n-1}(i_{n-1})$. This follows because $H_{n-1}(i_{n-1}) \circ \delta_{n-1,*}$ takes $[c]$ to $[\partial'_n b] = 0$.
- (4) $\ker H_{n-1}(i_{n-1}) \subseteq \text{im } \delta_n$. Given a cycle $a \in A_{n-1}$ such that $i_{n-1}(a) = \partial'_n b$ for some $b \in B_n$, $j_n(b)$ is a cycle since $\partial''_n j_n(b) = j_{n-1}(\partial'_n b) = j_{n-1}i_{n-1}(a) = 0$, and δ_n takes $[j_n(b)]$ to $[a]$.
- (5) $\ker H_n(j) \subseteq \text{im } H_n(i)$. A homology class in $\ker H_n(j)$ is represented by a cycle $b \in B_n$ with $j_n(b)$ a boundary, so $j_n(b) = \partial''_{n+1} c'$ for some $c' \in C_{n+1}$. Since j_{n+1} is surjective, $c' = j_{n+1}(b')$ for some $b' \in B_{n+1}$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} j_n(b - \partial'_{n+1} b') &= j_n(b) - j_n(\partial'_{n+1} b') \\ &= j_n(b) - \partial''_{n+1} j_{n+1}(b') = 0 \end{aligned}$$

since $\partial''_{n+1} j_{n+1}(b') = \partial'_{n+1} c' = j_n(b)$. So $b - \partial'_{n+1} b' = i_n(a)$ for some $a \in A_n$. This a is a cycle since

$$\begin{aligned} i_{n-1}(\partial_n a) &= \partial'_n i_n(a) \\ &= \partial'_n(b - \partial'_{n+1} b') \\ &= \partial'_n b = 0 \end{aligned}$$

and i_{n-1} is injective. Thus $H_n(i)[a] = [b - \partial'_{n+1} b'] = [b]$, showing that $H_n(i)$ maps onto $\ker H_n(j)$.

- (6) $\ker \delta_n \subseteq \text{im } H_n(j)$. Given a cycle $c \in C_n$ such that $\delta_n(c) = 0$, we have that $\delta_n(c) = \partial_n(a)$ for some $a \in A_n$. Let $b \in B_n$ be the element constructed in the definition of δ_n . The element $b - i_n(a)$ is a cycle since

$$\begin{aligned} \partial'_n(b - i_n(a)) &= \partial'_n b - \partial'_n i_n(a) \\ &= \partial'_n b - i_{n-1}(\partial_n a) \\ &= \partial'_n b - i_{n-1}(\delta_n(c)) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Note that:

$$j_n(b - i_n(a)) = j_n(b) - j_n i_n(a') = j_n(b) = c$$

So $H_n(j)$ maps $[b - i_n(a)]$ to $[c]$.

We now show that the above construction defines a functor from $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}^{\text{Exact}}$ to $\mathbf{Ab}^{\text{Long}}$. Consider the following diagram in $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}^{\text{Exact}}$:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} 0_{\bullet} & \longrightarrow & A_{\bullet} & \xrightarrow{i_{\bullet}} & B_{\bullet} & \xrightarrow{j_{\bullet}} & C_{\bullet} & \longrightarrow & 0_{\bullet} \\ & & \downarrow f_{\bullet} & & \downarrow g_{\bullet} & & \downarrow h_{\bullet} & & \\ 0_{\bullet} & \longrightarrow & A'_{\bullet} & \xrightarrow{i'_{\bullet}} & B'_{\bullet} & \xrightarrow{j'_{\bullet}} & C'_{\bullet} & \longrightarrow & 0_{\bullet} \end{array}$$

We show that induces the following commutative diagram.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & H_n(A) & \xrightarrow{H_n(i)} & H_n(B) & \xrightarrow{H_n(j)} & H_n(C) & \xrightarrow{\delta_n} & H_{n-1}(A) & \xrightarrow{H_{n-1}(i_{n-1})} & H_{n-1}(B) & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\ & & \downarrow H_n(f_n) & & \downarrow H_n(g_n) & & \downarrow H_n(h_n) & & \downarrow H_{n-1}(f_{n-1}) & & \downarrow H_{n-1}(g_{n-1}) & & \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & H_n(A') & \xrightarrow{H_n(i'_n)} & H_n(B') & \xrightarrow{H_n(j'_n)} & H_n(C') & \xrightarrow{\delta'_n} & H_{n-1}(A') & \xrightarrow{H_n(i'_{n-1})} & H_{n-1}(B') & \longrightarrow & \cdots \end{array}$$

The commutativity of the first two squares and the last square is obvious since n -th homology is a functor. It suffices to check that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H_n(C) & \xrightarrow{\delta_n} & H_{n-1}(A) \\ H_n(h_n) \downarrow & & \downarrow H_{n-1}(f_{n-1}) \\ H_n(C') & \xrightarrow{\delta'_n} & H_{n-1}(A') \end{array}$$

is commutative. Recall that the map $\delta_n : H_n(C) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(A)$ was defined by $\delta_n[c] = [a]$ where $c = j_n(b)$ and $i_{n-1}(a) = \partial'_n b$. Consider $h_n(c) \in C'_n$. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} h_n(c) &= h_n(j_n(b)) = j'_n(g_n(b)) \\ i'_{n-1}(f_{n-1}(a)) &= g_{n-1}(i_{n-1}(a)) = g_{n-1}(\partial'_n(b)) = d'_n(g_n(b)). \end{aligned}$$

Here d'_n is the map from B'_n to B'_{n-1} . Hence,

$$[\delta'_n h_n(c)] = [f_{n-1}(a)] = [f_{n-1}\delta_n(c)]$$

This shows that the construction defines a functor from the $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}^{\mathbf{Exact}}$ to $\mathbf{Ab}^{\mathbf{Long}}$. \square

Proposition 4.3.20. (Braid Lemma) *Suppose three long exact sequences and a chain complex we have a commutative diagram. Then the chain complex is also a long exact sequence*

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} \cdots & \xrightarrow{\quad} & A & \xrightarrow{g_1} & D & \xrightarrow{h_3} & G & \xrightarrow{j_4} & J & \xrightarrow{\quad} & \cdots \\ & \searrow & \uparrow g_0 & \searrow f_1 & \uparrow h_2 & \searrow g_2 & \uparrow j_3 & \searrow h_4 & \uparrow f_5 & \searrow & \\ \cdots & & O & & C & & F & & I & & \cdots \\ & \swarrow & \downarrow j_0 & \swarrow h_1 & \downarrow f_2 & \swarrow j_2 & \downarrow g_3 & \swarrow f_4 & \downarrow h_5 & \swarrow & \\ \cdots & \xrightarrow{\quad} & B & \xrightarrow{j_1} & E & \xrightarrow{f_3} & H & \xrightarrow{g_4} & K & \xrightarrow{\quad} & \cdots \end{array}$$

PROOF. WLOG, assume that the f maps describe the chain complex. By symmetry, it suffices to show exactness at C, E and H :

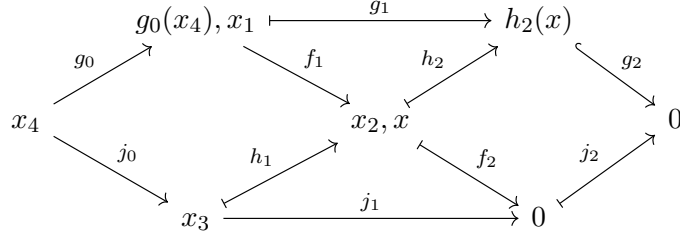
- (1) $\ker(f_2) \subseteq \operatorname{im}(f_1)$: Let $x \in \ker(f_2)$. Then $0 = f_2(x) = j_2 f_2(x) = g_2 h_2(x)$ by commutativity. It follows that $h_2(x) \in \ker(g_2) = \operatorname{im}(g_1)$. So $\exists x_1 \in A$ such that $g_1(x_1) = h_2(x)$. By commutativity, $g_1(x_1) = h_2 f_1(x_1)$. So we have that $0 = g_1(x_1) - h_2(x) = h_2(f_1(x_1) - x)$. Let $x_2 := f_1(x_1) - x \in \ker(h_2) = \operatorname{im}(h_1)$. Then $\exists x_3 \in B$ such that $h_1(x_3) = x_2$. Note that

$$j_1(x_3) = f_2 h_1(x_3) = f_2(x_2) = f_2(f_1(x_1) - x) = 0,$$

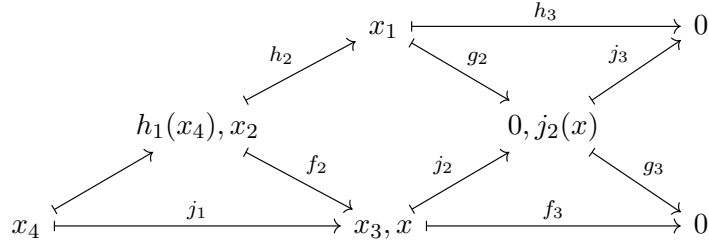
where the last equality follows from $f_2 \circ f_1 = 0$ and $f_2(x) = 0$. We therefore have that $x_3 \in \ker(j_1) = \operatorname{im}(j_0)$. So there exists $x_4 \in O$ such that $j_0(x_4) = x_3$. Consider $g_0(x_4)$. It satisfies

$$f_1 g_0(x_4) = h_1 j_0(x_4) = h_1(x_3) = x_2 = f_1(x_1) - x$$

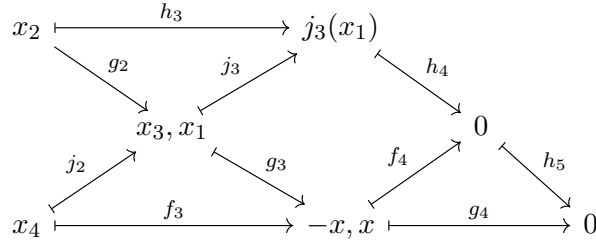
Therefore, we have $x = f_1(x_1 - g_0(x_4))$. This shows that $x \in \text{im}(f_1)$.



- (2) $\ker(f_3) \subseteq \text{im}(f_2)$: Let $x \in E$ be such that $f_3(x) = 0$. By commutativity, $g_3j_2(x) = 0$, so $j_2(x) \in \ker(g_3) = \text{im}(g_2)$. Then $\exists x_1 \in D$ such that $g_2(x_1) = j_2(x)$. It satisfies $h_3(x_1) = j_3g_2(x_1) = j_3j_2(x) = 0$, as (j_i) is a chain complex. So $x_1 \in \ker(h_3) = \text{im}(h_2)$. Therefore, there exists $x_2 \in C$ such that $h_2(x_2) = x_1$. This element is such that $j_2f_2(x_2) = g_2h_2(x_2) = g_2(x_1) = j_2(x)$. We therefore have $j_2(f_2(x_2) - x) = 0$. Let $x_3 := f_2(x_2) - x$. Then $x_3 \in \ker(j_2) = \text{im}(j_1)$. Let $x_4 \in B$ be such that $j_1(x_4) = x_3$. x_4 is such that $f_2h_1(x_4) = j_1(x_4) = x_3 = f_2(x_2) - x$. Finally, we see that $x = f_2(x_2 - h_1(x_4))$, so $x \in \text{im}(f_2)$ as required.



- (3) $\ker(f_4) \subseteq \text{im}(f_3)$: Let $x \in H$ be such that $f_4(x) = 0$. Then $0 = h_5f_4(x) = g_4(x)$. So $x \in \ker(g_4) = \text{im}(g_3)$. Let $x_1 \in F$ be such that $g_3(x_1) = x$. Then $h_4j_3(x_1) = f_4g_3(x_1) = f_4(x) = 0$. So $j_3(x_1) \in \ker(h_4) = \text{im}(h_3)$. Let $x_2 \in D$ be such that $h_3(x_2) = j_3(x_1)$. Then $j_3(x_1) = j_2g_2(x_2)$, such that $x_3 := g_2(x_2) - x_1 \in \ker(j_3) = \text{im}(j_2)$. Let $x_4 \in E$ be such that $j_2(x_4) = x_3$. Then $f_3(x_4) = g_3j_2(x_4) = g_3(x_3) = g_3(g_2(x_2) - x_1) = -g_3(x_1) = -x$. Therefore, $x = f_3(-x_4)$, and $x \in \text{im}(f_3)$ as required.



This completes the proof. \square

4.4. Singular Homology

In this section, we define singular homology. Singular homology is difficult to compute, but singular homology has nice theoretical properties which allows us to prove a host of

properties about a homology theory. It can be checked that simplicial homology and singular homology coincide as we will do later on. Hence, simplicial homology provides a computational tool to compute homology, and singular homology provides a theoretical tool to study homology theoretically.

Definition 4.4.1. Let X be a topological space. A singular n -simplex is a continuous map $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$.

Example 4.4.2. Since Δ^0 is a point, a 0-simplex in X is simply a point in X . Since Δ^1 is a closed interval, a 1-simplex is a path in X .

Remark 4.4.3. The phrase ‘singular’ is used here to express the idea that σ need not be an embedding or a homeomorphism but can have ‘singularities’ where its image does not look at all like a simplex. All that is required is that σ be continuous.

Let X be a topological space and let $C_n(X)$ be the free abelian group with basis the set of singular n -simplices in X :

$$C_n(X) = \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^n n_i \sigma_i : n_i \in \mathbb{Z}, \sigma_i : \Delta^n \rightarrow X \text{ continuous} \right\}$$

where each formal sum $\sum_{i=0}^n n_i \sigma_i$ is finite, i.e., all but finitely many n_i are zero. Elements of $C_n(X)$, called n -chains.

Remark 4.4.4. Let $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ be a singular n -simplex in X . If we restrict σ to one of the faces of Δ^n , we get a continuous map from an $(n-1)$ -simplex into X . Is this a singular $(n-1)$ -simplex? While any face of Δ^n is an $(n-1)$ -simplex, it is not the standard $(n-1)$ -simplex, since the domain is wrong. Thus, strictly speaking, the restriction of an n -simplex σ in X to a face is not actually a singular $(n-1)$ -simplex in X , since it is not a continuous map from Δ^{n-1} into X . This issue can be avoided as follows. Consider the map:

$$d_i^n : \Delta^{n-1} \rightarrow \Delta^n, \quad (t_0, \dots, t_{n-1}) \mapsto (t_0, \dots, t_{i-1}, 0, t_i, \dots, t_n),$$

for each $0 \leq i \leq n$. The image $d_i(\Delta^{n-1}) \subseteq \Delta^n$ can be identified with the i -th face of Δ^n . If $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ is a singular n -simplex, then composition $\sigma \circ d_i$ is then a singular $(n-1)$ -simplex in X . For the most part, however, we shall ignore this pedantic issue because after all, it's clear what we mean. For the most part, we shall use the notation $\sigma|_{[v_0, \dots, \widehat{v_i}, \dots, v_n]}$ to refer to the map d_i .

Definition 4.4.5. Let X be a topological space and let $C_n(X)$ be the free abelian group with basis the set of singular n -simplices in X . The n -th boundary map

$$\partial_n : C_n(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X)$$

is defined on the basis of $C_n(X)$ by the formula

$$\partial_n(\sigma) = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \sigma \circ d_i$$

Lemma 4.4.6. Let X be a topological space. The composition

$$\partial_{n-1} \circ \partial_n : C_n(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}} C_{n-2}(X)$$

is the zero map.

PROOF. The crucial observation about the maps d_i 's we need is that for every $n \geq 2$ and every $0 \leq j < i \leq n$, we have:

$$d_i^n \circ d_j^{n-1} = d_j^n \circ d_{i-1}^{n-1} : \Delta^{n-2} \rightarrow \Delta^n$$

Indeed, it is easy to verify that both maps are given by

$$(t_0, t_1, \dots, t_{n-2}) \mapsto (t_0, \dots, t_{j-1}, 0, t_j, \dots, t_{i-1}, 0, t_i, \dots, t_{n-2})$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_{n-1} \circ \partial_n(\sigma) &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^{i+j} \sigma \circ d_i^n \circ d_j^{n-1} \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \sum_{i=0}^j (-1)^{i+j} d_i^n \circ d_j^{n-1} + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \sum_{i=j+1}^n (-1)^{i+j} d_i^n \circ d_j^{n-1} \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \sum_{i=0}^j (-1)^{i+j} d_i^n \circ d_j^{n-1} + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \sum_{i=j+1}^n (-1)^{i+j} d_j^n \circ d_{i-1}^{n-1} \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \sum_{i=0}^j (-1)^{i+j} d_i^n \circ d_j^{n-1} + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \sum_{i=j}^{n-1} (-1)^{i+j+1} d_j^n \circ d_i^{n-1} \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \sum_{i=0}^j (-1)^{i+j} d_i^n \circ d_j^{n-1} - \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \sum_{i=j}^{n-1} (-1)^{i+j} d_j^n \circ d_i^{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

The second last equality follows by a shift of the inner summation index in the second nested sum. If we now interchange the roles of i and j in the second sum, the two nested sums cancel. \square

Remark 4.4.7. In what follows, we shall write the boundary operator as

$$\partial_n(\sigma) = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \sigma|_{[v_0, \dots, \widehat{v}_i, \dots, v_n]}$$

Note that:

$$\sum_{j < i} (-1)^i (-1)^j \sigma|_{[v_0, \dots, \widehat{v}_j, \dots, \widehat{v}_i, \dots, v_n]} + \sum_{j > i} (-1)^i (-1)^{j-1} \sigma|_{[v_0, \dots, \widehat{v}_i, \dots, \widehat{v}_j, \dots, v_n]} = 0.$$

The latter two summations cancel since after switching i and j in the second sum, it becomes the negative of the first.

Purely algebraically, we have a sequence of homomorphisms of abelian groups:

$$\dots \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} C_n(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}} C_{n-2}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-2}} \dots$$

The boundary map $\partial_n : C_n(X) \rightarrow C(X)_{n-1}$ is such that

$$\partial_n \circ \partial_{n+1} = 0$$

That is:

$$\text{im}(\partial_{n+1}) \subseteq \ker(\partial_n)$$

A sequence $(C_n(X), \partial_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ satisfying these properties is called a singular chain complex. Elements of $\ker(\partial_n)$ are called (singular) n -cycles and elements of $\text{im}(\partial_{n+1})$ are called (singular) n -boundaries.

Definition 4.4.8. Let X be a topological space. The n -th homology of the chain complex $(C_n(X), \partial_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is

$$H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) = \frac{\ker(\partial_n)}{\text{im}(\partial_{n+1})}$$

$H_n(X)$ is called the n -th singular homology group of X with \mathbb{Z} coefficients.

Calculation with singular homology is difficult because each C_n is generally a free abelian group on uncountably many generators! Eventually, however, we will show that simplicial homology and singular homology are isomorphic.

Remark 4.4.9. We will also introduce cellular homology which is isomorphic to singular homology and is amenable to computation.

Here is a trivial computation:

Example 4.4.10. (Singular Homology of a Point) If X is a single point, then there is exactly one map $\Delta_n \rightarrow X$, and it is continuous, so $C_n(X) = \mathbb{Z}$ for all n . Moreover,

$$\partial_n(\sigma_n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (-1)^i \sigma_{n-1} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } n \text{ odd} \\ \sigma_{n-1} & \text{for } n \text{ even} \end{cases}$$

We end up with:

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$$

Thus, we can quotient out to get the homology:

$$H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

On the other hand, singular homology is much nicer theoretically, because we don't have to worry about choosing a Δ -complex structure, so it provides a convenient tool to prove various properties about a homology theory. For instance:

Proposition 4.4.11. Let X be a topological space.

- (1) Let $(X_\alpha)_{\alpha \in A}$ are the path-connected components of X . Then,

$$H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \bigoplus_{\alpha \in A} H_n(X_\alpha; \mathbb{Z})$$

- (2) **(0-th Singular Homology Groups)** If X is non-empty and path-connected, then $H_0(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Hence, for any space X , $H_0(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is a direct sum of \mathbb{Z} 's, one for each path-component of X .

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) Since Δ^n is path-connected, and an n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ is a continuous map, we have that $\text{im}(\sigma) \subseteq X_\alpha$ for some α . Therefore, we get a decomposition:

$$C_n(X) \cong \bigoplus_{\alpha} C_n(X_\alpha).$$

The boundary maps preserve this decomposition, i.e., $\partial_n(C_n(X_\alpha)) \subseteq C_{n-1}(X_\alpha)$. Hence $\ker(\partial_n)$ and $\text{im}(\partial_{n+1})$ split similarly as direct sums, and the result follows.

(2) By definition, $H_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) = C_0(X)/\text{im } \partial_1$. Define a homomorphism

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon : C_0(X) &\rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \\ \sum_{i=0}^n n_i \sigma_i &\mapsto \sum_{i=0}^n n_i \end{aligned}$$

This is obviously surjective if X is non-empty. We claim that $\ker \varepsilon = \text{im } \partial_1$ if X is path-connected. Observe first that $\text{im } \partial_1 \subseteq \ker \varepsilon$ since for a singular 1-simplex $\sigma : \Delta^1 \rightarrow X$, we have

$$\varepsilon \partial_1(\sigma) = \varepsilon(\sigma|_{[v_1]} - \sigma|_{[v_0]}) = 1 - 1 = 0$$

For the reverse inclusion, $\ker \varepsilon \subseteq \text{im } \partial_1$, suppose $\varepsilon(\sum_{i=0}^n n_i \sigma_i) = 0$, so $\sum_{i=0}^n n_i = 0$. The σ_i 's are singular 0-simplices, which are simply points of X . Choose a path $\tau_i : I \rightarrow X$ from a basepoint, x_0 , to $\sigma_i(v_0)$, and let σ_0 be the singular 0-simplex with image x_0 . We can view τ_i as a singular 1-simplex, a map $\tau_i : [v_0, v_1] \rightarrow X$, and then we have $\partial \tau_i = \sigma_i - \sigma_0$. Hence,

$$\partial \left(\sum_{i=0}^n n_i \tau_i \right) = \sum_{i=0}^n n_i \sigma_i - \sum_{i=0}^n n_i \sigma_0 = \sum_{i=0}^n n_i \sigma_i,$$

since $\sum_{i=0}^n n_i = 0$. Thus, $\sum_{i=0}^n n_i \sigma_i$ is a boundary, which shows that $\ker \varepsilon \subseteq \text{im } \partial_1$. Hence, ε induces an isomorphism $H_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

This completes the proof. \square

Remark 4.4.12. *It is often very convenient to have a slightly modified version of homology for which a point has trivial homology groups in all dimensions, including zero. This is done by defining the reduced homology groups $\tilde{H}_n(X)$ to be the homology groups of the augmented chain complex:*

$$\cdots \rightarrow C_2(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_2} C_1(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_1} C_0(X) \xrightarrow{\epsilon} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$$

where

$$\epsilon \left(\sum_{i=0}^n n_i \sigma_i \right) = \sum_{i=0}^n n_i$$

Since $\epsilon \circ \partial_1 = 0$, ϵ vanishes on $\text{im } \partial_1$ and hence induces a map $H_0(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ with kernel $\tilde{H}_0(X)$, so

$$H_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \tilde{H}_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) \oplus \mathbb{Z}$$

Why all the fuss about singular homology? Singular homology defines a functor from **Top** to **Ab**. Thus, singular homology yields an invariant that can distinguish spaces. More importantly, it provides a systematic and general way to study topological spaces using algebraic methods. Unlike simplicial homology, which require specific decompositions, singular homology applies to all topological spaces, making it a powerful and flexible theoretical tool in algebraic topology.

Proposition 4.4.13. $H_n : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ is a covariant functor for each $n \geq 0$.

PROOF. Let X, Y be topological spaces and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous map. Then, we have a sequence of induced homomorphisms:

$$\begin{aligned} f_n : C_n(X) &\rightarrow C_n(Y) \\ \sigma &\mapsto f \circ \sigma \end{aligned}$$

Extending linearly gives a group homomorphism.

$$f_n \left(\sum_{i=0}^n n_i \sigma_i \right) = \left(\sum_{i=0}^n n_i f_n \sigma_i \right) = \left(\sum_{i=0}^n n_i f \circ \sigma_i \right)$$

Consider the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1}(X) & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} & C_n(X) & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & C_{n-1}(X) \longrightarrow \cdots \\ & & \downarrow f_{n+1} & & \downarrow f_n & & \downarrow f_{n-1} \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1}(Y) & \xrightarrow{\partial'_{n+1}} & C_n(Y) & \xrightarrow{\partial'_n} & C_{n-1}(Y) \longrightarrow \cdots \end{array}$$

This diagram commutes because:

$$\begin{aligned} f_n(\partial_{n+1}\sigma) &= f_n \left(\sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \sigma_\alpha|_{[v_0, \dots, \widehat{v_i}, \dots, v_n]} \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i f_n \sigma_\alpha|_{[v_0, \dots, \widehat{v_i}, \dots, v_n]} \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i f \circ \sigma_\alpha|_{[v_0, \dots, \widehat{v_i}, \dots, v_n]} = \partial'_{n+1}(f_{n+1}\sigma). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have a functor from **Top** to **Chain_{Ab}**. By [Proposition 4.3.16](#), we have a functor from **Chain_{Ab}** to **Ab**. Composing the two functors yields the desired functor. \square

4.5. The Eilenberg-Steenrod Axioms

We have met two homology theories: simplicial homology and singular homology. Later on, we will discuss cellular homology. In fact, there are many other homology theories in mathematics. Eilenberg and Steenrod united the different homology theories by laying out a set of axioms that all homology theories satisfy.

Definition 4.5.1. (Eilenberg-Steenrod Axioms) A homology theory with \mathbb{Z} coefficients consists of

- (1) A family of functors $H_n : \mathbf{Top}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ for $n \geq 0$, and
- (2) A family of natural transformations $\delta_n : H_n \rightarrow H_{n-1} \circ p$, where p is the functor sending (X, A) to (A, \emptyset) and $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ to $f|_A : (A, \emptyset) \rightarrow (B, \emptyset)$.

such that the following axioms are satisfied:

- (a) (Homotopy invariance) If $f, g : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ are homotopic maps, then the induced maps

$$H_n(f), H_n(g) : H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(Y, B; \mathbb{Z})$$

are such that $H_n(f) = H_n(g)$ for $n \geq 0$ ⁵.

⁵In other words, H_n may be regarded as a functor from **hTop** to **Ab**.

(b) (Long exact sequence) The inclusions

$$(A, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$$

give rise to a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \rightarrow H_{n+1}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n+1}(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\delta_{n+1}} H_n(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \cdots$$

(c) (Excision) If $Z \subseteq A \subseteq X$ are topological spaces such that $\bar{Z} \subseteq \text{Int}(A)$, the inclusion of pairs $(X \setminus Z, A \setminus Z) \subseteq (X, A)$ induces isomorphisms

$$H_n(X \setminus Z, A \setminus Z; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$$

for all $n \geq 0$.

(d) (Additivity) If $X = \coprod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$ is the disjoint union of a family of topological spaces X_{α} , then

$$H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) = \bigoplus_{\alpha} H_n(X_{\alpha}; \mathbb{Z})$$

for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Additionally, if a homology theory satisfies the following additional axiom

(e) (Dimension Axiom) For any one-point set $X = \{\bullet\}$,

$$H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

the homology theory is called an ordinary homology theory with \mathbb{Z} coefficients.

4.5.1. Relative Homology. We first introduce the notion of relative homology functors to make sense of the family of functors in [Definition 4.5.1](#):

$$H_n : \mathbf{Top}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$$

Given $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^2$, we have $C_n(A) \subseteq C_n(X)$ such that ∂_n restricts to a map from $C_n(A)$ to $C_{n-1}(A)$. Therefore, we can consider a chain complex $(C_{\bullet}(A), \partial_{\bullet}|_A)$ which is a subcomplex⁶ of the chain complex $(C_{\bullet}, \partial_{\bullet})$. The chain complex $(C_{\bullet}(A), \partial_{\bullet}|_A)$ is usually drawn as:

$$\cdots \longrightarrow C_2(A) \xrightarrow{\partial_2|_A} C_1(A) \xrightarrow{\partial_1|_A} C_0(A)$$

Note that $C_n(A)$ is an abelian subgroup of $C_n(X)$. Hence, we can consider quotient group

$$C_n(X, A) = \frac{C_n(X)}{C_n(A)}$$

Since the boundary map

$$\partial_n : C_n(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X)$$

takes $C_n(A)$ to $C_{n-1}(A)$, it induces a quotient boundary map

$$\bar{\partial}_n : C_n(X, A) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X, A)$$

Since $\partial_{n+1} \circ \partial_n = 0$ on $C_n(X)$, we have that $\bar{\partial}_{n+1} \circ \bar{\partial}_n = 0$ on $C_n(X, A)$. Therefore, we get a chain complex $(C_{\bullet}(X, A), \bar{\partial}_{\bullet})$. The chain complex is usually drawn as:

$$\cdots \longrightarrow C_2(X, A) \xrightarrow{\bar{\partial}_2} C_1(X, A) \xrightarrow{\bar{\partial}_1} C_0(X, A)$$

⁶Given a chain complex $(C_{\bullet}, \partial_{\bullet})$, a subcomplex of $(C_{\bullet}, \partial_{\bullet})$ is given by a family of subgroups $C'_n \subseteq C_n$ such that the boundary operator $\partial'_n : C'_n \rightarrow C'_{n-1}$ restricts to a homomorphism $C'_n \rightarrow C'_{n-1}$ for all n .

The above discussion implies that the construction of relative singular chain complexes defines a functor from \mathbf{Top}^2 to $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}$.

Definition 4.5.2. Let $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^2$. The n -th relative homology group with \mathbb{Z} coefficients, $H_n(X, A)$, is the n -th homology group of the chain complex $(C_\bullet(X, A), \bar{\partial}_\bullet)$. That is:

$$H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) = \frac{\text{Ker } \bar{\partial}_n}{\text{Im } \bar{\partial}_{n+1}}$$

Remark 4.5.3. It is clear that the n -th relative homology group with \mathbb{Z} coefficients defines a functor from \mathbf{Top}^2 to \mathbf{Ab} .

Remark 4.5.4. Since the homology of the empty set is trivial for all $n \geq 0$, we have:

$$H_n(X, \emptyset; \mathbb{Z}) = H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}), \quad \forall n \geq 0.$$

By considering the definition of the relative boundary map we see that: x

- (1) Elements of $H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ are represented by relative n -cycles: n -chains $\alpha \in C_n(X)$ such that $\partial_n(\alpha) \in C_{n-1}(A)$.
- (2) A relative n -cycle, α , is trivial in $H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ iff it is a relative n -boundary: $\alpha = \partial_{n+1}(\beta) + \gamma$ for some $\beta \in C_{n+1}(X)$ and $\gamma \in C_n(A)$.

In [Example 4.4.10](#), we have already seen that singular homology with \mathbb{Z} coefficients satisfies the dimension axiom. Moreover, an argument similar to that given in [Proposition 4.4.11\(a\)](#) shows that singular homology satisfies the additivity axiom. The purpose of the remainder of this section is to show that singular homology satisfies the homotopy invariance, long exact sequence and excision axioms. Hence, singular homology is an ordinary homology theory.

4.5.2. Homotopy Invariance of Singular Homology. We prove that singular homology groups satisfy the homotopy invariance axiom. We content ourselves to give a proof in the absolute case. The proof in the relative homology case is similar. In order to prove this statement, we will make use of the notion of a chain homotopy between chain complexes as introduced in [Section 4.3](#).

Remark 4.5.5. What does this definition of a chain homotopy mean geometrically? Let h be a homotopy between maps f, g from X to Y . Consider a 1-chain, a , in X . Then $f(a), g(a)$ are 1-chains in Y . The homotopy h maps the endpoints of $f(a)$ to the endpoints of $g(a)$. Let's look at the boundary of $h(a)$ in the diagram below ([Figure 1](#)). If we read counterclockwise starting at the bottom right, we see:

$$\partial_2 h(a) = g(a) - \delta_+ - f(a) + \delta_-$$

What is $\delta_+ - \delta_-$? It is $h(\partial_1 a)$! Hence:

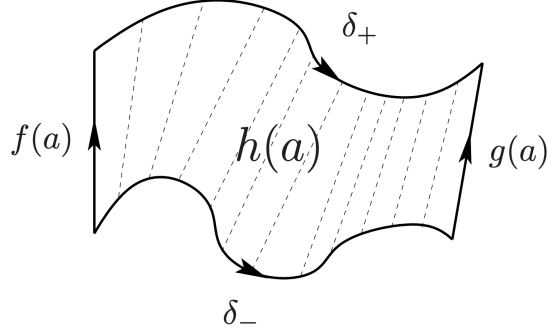
$$\partial_2 h(a) = g(a) - f(a) - h(\partial_1 a)$$

Hence the definition of a chain homotopy mimics the notion of a homotopy at the level of chain complexes.

Proposition 4.5.6. Let X and Y be topological spaces. If $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ are two homotopic maps, then

$$H_n(f) = H_n(g) : H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(Y; \mathbb{Z})$$

for each $n \geq 0$.



The image is taken from [Alu21].

Remark 4.5.7. Before providing the proof, we discuss the idea behind the proof. The essential ingredient is a procedure for subdividing $\Delta^n \times I$ into simplices. In $\Delta^n \times I$, let

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta^n \times 0 &= [v_0, \dots, v_n] \\ \Delta^n \times 1 &= [w_0, \dots, w_n]\end{aligned}$$

where v_i and w_i have the same image under the projection $\Delta^n \times I \rightarrow \Delta^n$. We can pass from $[v_0, \dots, v_n]$ to $[w_0, \dots, w_n]$ by interpolating a sequence of n simplices, each obtained from the preceding one by moving one vertex v_i up to w_i , starting with v_n and working backwards to v_0 . For instance,

$$[v_0, \dots, v_i, w_{i+1}, \dots, w_n]$$

moves up to

$$[v_0, \dots, v_{i-1}, w_i, \dots, w_n]$$

The region between these two n simplices is exactly the $(n+1)$ simplex

$$[v_0, \dots, v_i, w_i, \dots, w_n]$$

Lemma 4.5.8. $\Delta^n \times I$ is the union of $n+1$ copies of Δ^{n+1} .

PROOF. For $i = -1, 0, \dots, n-1$, let $g_i : \Delta^n \rightarrow I$ denote the map

$$g_i(s_0, s_1, \dots, s_n) = \sum_{j < i} s_j.$$

Let $G_i \subseteq \Delta^n \times I$ denote the graph of g_i . Then G_i is homeomorphic to Δ^n via the projection $\Delta^n \times I \rightarrow \Delta^n$ onto the first factor. Let us now label the vertices at the "bottom" (i.e., $\Delta^n \times \{0\}$) of $\Delta^n \times I$ by v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n and those at the "top" (i.e., $\Delta^n \times \{1\}$) by w_0, w_1, \dots, w_n . Then G_i is the n -simplex

$$G_i = [v_0, \dots, v_i, w_{i+1}, \dots, w_n].$$

Since G_i lies below G_{i-1} as $g_i \leq g_{i-1}$, it follows that the region between G_i and G_{i-1} is the $(n+1)$ -simplex $[v_0, \dots, v_i, w_i, \dots, w_n]$; this is indeed an $(n+1)$ -simplex as w_i is not in G_i and hence not in the n -simplex $[v_0, \dots, v_i, w_i, \dots, w_n]$. Since

$$0 = g_n \leq g_{n-1} \leq \dots \leq g_0 \leq g_{-1} = 1,$$

we see that $\Delta^n \times I$ is the union of the regions between the G_i , and hence the union of $n+1$ different $(n+1)$ -simplices $[v_0, \dots, v_i, w_i, \dots, w_n]$, each intersecting the next in an n -simplex face. \square

PROOF. (**Proposition 4.5.6**) Given a homotopy $F : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ from f to g and a singular simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$, we can form the composition

$$F \circ (\sigma \times \text{Id}_I) : \Delta^n \times I \rightarrow X \times I \rightarrow Y$$

Using this, we can define *prism operators* $P_n : C_n(X) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(Y)$ by the following formula:

$$P_n \sigma = \sum_{i=0}^{n+1} (-1)^i F \circ (\sigma \times 1)|_{[v_0, \dots, v_i, w_i, \dots, w_n]}.$$

The prism operator is our proposed chain homotopy. A simple computation shows that we have

$$f_n - g_n = \partial'_{n+1} P_n + P_{n-1} \partial_n$$

Indeed:

$$\begin{aligned} \partial'_{n+1} P_n(\sigma) &= \sum_{j \leq i} (-1)^i (-1)^j F \circ (\sigma \times 1)|_{[v_0, \dots, \widehat{v_j}, \dots, v_i, w_i, \dots, w_n]} \\ &\quad + \sum_{j \geq i} (-1)^i (-1)^{j+1} F \circ (\sigma \times 1)|_{[v_0, \dots, v_i, w_i, \dots, \widehat{w_j}, \dots, w_n]} \end{aligned}$$

The terms with $i = j$ in the two sums cancel except for

$$\begin{aligned} F \circ (\sigma \times 1)|_{[\widehat{v_0}, w_0, \dots, w_n]} &= g \circ \sigma = g_n(\sigma), \\ -F \circ (\sigma \times 1)|_{[v_0, \dots, v_n, \widehat{w_n}]} &= -f \circ \sigma = -f_n(\sigma). \end{aligned}$$

The terms with $i \neq j$ are exactly $-P_{n-1} \partial_n(\sigma)$. Hence, the sequence of maps $(P_n)_{n \geq 0}$ defines a chain homotopy. The claim follows by invoking **Proposition 4.3.15**. \square

Corollary 4.5.9. *If X is contractible, then $H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ for all $n > 0$.*

PROOF. Immediate from the previous corollary and that $H_n(\{*\}) = 0$ for $n \geq 1$. \square

4.5.3. Long Exact Sequence in Singular Homology. We now prove that singular homology satisfies the long exact sequence axiom. The importance of the long exact sequence axiom is that it allows us to compute homology groups of various spaces in using an ‘inductive’ and/or ‘bottom-up’ approach, as we shall see in various examples later on. We have a short exact sequence of chain complexes:

$$0_\bullet \longrightarrow (C_\bullet(A), \partial_\bullet|_A) \xrightarrow{i_\bullet} (C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet) \xrightarrow{j_\bullet} (C_\bullet(X, A), \bar{\partial}_\bullet) \longrightarrow 0_\bullet$$

Invoking the snake lemma (**Proposition 4.3.19**), we have the following long exact sequence is homology associated to the pair of spaces (X, A) :

$$\cdots \longrightarrow H_{n+1}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow H_{n+1}(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\delta_{n+1}} H_n(A) \longrightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow \cdots$$

Remark 4.5.10. *The boundary map $\delta_n : H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(A; \mathbb{Z})$ has a very simple description: if a class $[\alpha] \in H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ is represented by a relative cycle α , then $\delta_n[\alpha]$ is the class of the cycle $\delta_n \alpha$ in $H_{n-1}(A; \mathbb{Z})$.*

Remark 4.5.11. An easy generalization of the long exact sequence of a pair (X, A) is the long exact sequence of a triple $(X, A, B) \in \mathbf{Top}^3$. Indeed, we have $(X, A), (X, B), (A, B) \in \mathbf{Top}^2$. The three long exact sequences assemble in the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 H_{n+2}(X; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\quad g_1 \quad} & H_{n+2}(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) & \xRightarrow{\quad} & H_{n+1}(A, B; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\quad j_4 \quad} & H_n(B; \mathbb{Z}) \\
 \searrow f_1 & & \nearrow f_2 & & \searrow f_3 & & \nearrow f_4 \\
 & H_{n+2}(X, B; \mathbb{Z}) & & H_{n+1}(A; \mathbb{Z}) & & H_{n+1}(X, B; \mathbb{Z}) & \\
 \nearrow f_2 & & \searrow f_3 & & \nearrow f_4 & & \searrow f_5 \\
 H_{n+2}(A, B; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\quad j_1 \quad} & H_{n+1}(B; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\quad f_3 \quad} & H_{n+1}(X; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\quad g_4 \quad} & H_{n+1}(X, A; \mathbb{Z})
 \end{array}$$

The braid lemma ([Proposition 4.3.20](#)) implies that the chain complex labeled with \Rightarrow arrows is a chain complex. This is the desired long exact sequence in homology generated by (X, A, B) .

4.5.4. Excision in Singular Homology. We now prove that singular homology satisfies the excision axiom. The important of the excision axiom is that if $A \subseteq X$ if n -chains are “sufficiently inside” of A , we can cut A out without affecting the relative homology groups $H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$. Here is the formal statement we’d like to prove in this section:

Proposition 4.5.12. Suppose $Z \subseteq A \subseteq X$ are topological spaces such that $\bar{Z} \subseteq \text{Int}(A)$. Then there is an inclusion of the pair $(X \setminus Z, A \setminus Z) \subseteq (X, A)$, and the induced map

$$H_n(X \setminus Z, A \setminus Z; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$$

is an isomorphism for all $n \geq 0$. Equivalently, for subspaces $A, B \subseteq X$ whose interiors cover X , the inclusion $(B, A \cap B) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ induces isomorphisms

$$H_n(B, A \cap B; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$$

Remark 4.5.13. To see that the two statements of the Excision Theorem are equivalent, just take $B = X \setminus Z$ (or $Z = X \setminus B$). Then $A \cap B = A \setminus Z$, and the condition $\bar{Z} \subset \text{int}(A)$ is equivalent to $X = \text{int}(A) \cup \text{int}(B)$.

Let’s provide some intuition. Assume that $X = \text{int}(A) \cup \text{int}(B)$. We expect $H_n(X, A)$ remains unchanged if we cut A out. This argument works when all chains are belong either to A or B . But if a chain doesn’t entirely lie entirely in A or B , then we have a problem. The solution is given by the method of barycentric subdivision: replace the ‘large’ chains with ‘small’ chains by subdividing. We formalize this intuition in [Proposition 4.5.15](#). We first prove a lemma.

Lemma 4.5.14. Let $S = [v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n]$ denote an n -simplex in some Euclidean space. Then if $x, y \in S$, one has

$$\|x - y\| \leq \max_{0 \leq i \leq n} \|v_i - y\|$$

Hence⁷

$$\text{diam } S = \max_{0 \leq i, j \leq n} \|v_i - v_j\|.$$

If b is the barycenter of S

$$b = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{1}{n+1} v_i,$$

⁷The diameter of a simplex is the maximum Euclidean distance between any two of its points.

then

$$\|b - v_i\| \leq \frac{n}{n+1} \text{diam } S.$$

PROOF. Let $x, y \in S$, and write $x = \sum_{i=0}^n s_i v_i$ with $\sum_{i=0}^n s_i = 1$. Then

$$\|x - y\| \leq \sum_{i=0}^n s_i \|v_i - y\| \leq \max_{0 \leq i \leq n} \|v_i - y\|.$$

This shows in particular $\|y - v_i\| \leq \max_{0 \leq j \leq n} \|v_i - v_j\|$ for each $0 \leq i \leq n$. Hence, $\|x - y\| \leq \max_{0 \leq i \leq n} \|v_i - y\|$. If b is the barycenter, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|b - v_i\| &= \left\| \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{j=0}^n v_j - v_i \right\| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{j=0}^n \|v_j - v_i\| \\ &\leq \frac{n}{n+1} \max_{0 \leq j \leq n} \|v_j - v_i\| = \frac{n}{n+1} \text{diam } S \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof. \square

We now formalize the idea that subdividing a ‘large’ singular chains into a union of ‘small’ singular chains. Let $U = \{U_j\}$ be a collection of subspaces of X whose interiors form an open cover of X , and let $C_n^U(X)$ be the subgroup of $C_n(X)$ consisting of chains $\sum_i n_i \sigma_i$ such that each σ_i has image contained in some set in the cover U . The boundary map ∂_n takes $C_n^U(X)$ to $C_{n-1}^U(X)$, so the groups $C_n^U(X)$ form a chain complex. We denote the homology groups of this chain complex by $H_n^U(X)$.

Proposition 4.5.15. *Consider the chain map $\iota_\bullet : C_\bullet^U(X) \hookrightarrow C_\bullet(X)$ such that i_n is the inclusion map for each $n \geq 0$. There is a chain map $\rho : C_\bullet(X) \rightarrow C_\bullet^U(X)$ such that $\iota \circ \rho$ and $\rho \circ \iota$ are chain homotopic to the identity.*

PROOF. See [Hat02] for the the proof. \square

We can now prove the excision theorem:

PROOF. (**Proposition 4.5.12**) Assume that $X = A \cup B$. WLOG, assume that A and B are open sets. We have

$$C_n^U(X) = C_n(A) + C_n(B) \quad C_n(A \cap B) = C_n(A) \cap C_n(B)$$

Therefore, we have

$$\frac{C_n(B)}{C_n(A \cap B)} = \frac{C_n(B)}{C_n(A) \cap C_n(B)} \cong \frac{C_n(A) + C_n(B)}{C_n(A)} \cong \frac{C_n^U(X)}{C_n(A)}$$

All the maps appearing in the proof of **Proposition 4.5.15** take chains in A to chains in A . So these maps induce quotient maps when we factor out chains in A and the quotient maps satisfy all the corresponding formulas in the proof of **Proposition 4.5.15**. There, **Proposition 4.5.15** implies that the inclusion

$$C_n^U(X)/C_n(A) \hookrightarrow C_n(X)/C_n(A)$$

induces an isomorphism on homology. Since

$$C_n^U(X)/C_n(A) = \frac{C_n(B)}{C_n(A \cap B)},$$

we have that

$$H_n(B, A \cap B; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$$

for each $n \geq 0$. This completes the proof. \square

4.6. Relative Homology

We discuss relative homology in more detail in this section. We start with a useful lemma.

Lemma 4.6.1. *Let $A \subseteq X$ be topological spaces. Consider an exact sequence of abelian groups:*

$$A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow D \rightarrow E$$

- (1) $C = 0$ if and only if the map $A \rightarrow B$ is surjective and $D \rightarrow E$ is injective.
- (2) For a pair of spaces $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^2$, the inclusion $A \hookrightarrow X$ induces isomorphisms on all homology groups if and only if $H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ for all $n \geq 0$.

PROOF. The proof is as follows:

- (1) Let $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ be the corresponding maps. By exactness,

$$\text{Im}(\alpha) = \ker(\beta), \quad \text{Im}(\beta) = \ker(\gamma), \quad \text{Im}(\gamma) = \ker(\delta).$$

Note that α is surjective iff $\ker(\beta) = B$ iff $\text{Im}(\beta) = 0$, and δ is injective iff $\text{Im}(\gamma) = 0$ iff $\ker(\gamma) = C$. Putting both together, α is surjective and δ is injective iff $C = 0$, since $\text{Im}(\beta) = \ker(\gamma)$.

- (2) Consider the following part of the the long exact sequence in homology:

$$\cdots \rightarrow H_{n+1}(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n+1}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n+1}(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \cdots$$

The maps $H_n(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ are isomorphisms for all $n \geq 0$ if and only if they are both injective and surjective for all $n \geq 0$. By re-indexing, this is true if and only if the leftmost map in our five-term exact sequence is surjective and the rightmost map is injective for all $n \geq 0$. But (1), this is true if and only if the middle group vanishes for all $n \geq 0$.

This completes the proof. \square

Remark 4.6.2. As per [Lemma 4.6.1](#), we can think of $H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ as measuring the failure of the induced morphism $H_n(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ to be an isomorphism for each $n \geq 0$.

Based on [Lemma 4.6.1](#), we can characterize relative homology groups for $n = 0, 1$.

Proposition 4.6.3. *Let $A \subseteq X$ be topological spaces.*

- (1) $H_0(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ if and only if A meets each path-component of X .
- (2) $H_1(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ if and only if $H_1(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is surjective and each path-component of X contains at most one path-component of A .
- (3) Let (X, x) be a pointed topological space. Then

$$H_n(X, x; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \tilde{H}_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$$

for each $n \geq 1$.

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) We first prove the special case that if X is a non-empty *path-connected* space and $A \subseteq X$, then $H_0(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ if and only if A is not-empty. Consider the end of the long exact sequence for the pair $(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$:

$$H_0(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow 0$$

Note that $H_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. If A is empty, the sequence is,

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow H_0(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow 0$$

Since the map from \mathbb{Z} to $H_0(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ is injective, $H_0(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ must be non-zero. If A is non-empty, pick a point $a \in A$ and consider the homology class $[a] \in H_0(A; \mathbb{Z})$. The image of $[a]$ under

$$H_0(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X; \mathbb{Z})$$

is the homology class of a point, which generates the co-domain. So $H_0(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is onto. Hence

$$H_0(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$$

is onto as well implying that $H_0(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. More generally, suppose X has multiple connected components. Assume that A meets each path component of X . If X_i is a component of X , then $H_0(A \cap X_i; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X_i; \mathbb{Z})$ is surjective. But then

$$H_0(A; \mathbb{Z}) = \bigoplus_i H_0(A \cap X_i; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \bigoplus_i H_0(X_i; \mathbb{Z}) = H_0(X; \mathbb{Z})$$

is surjective. Therefore, So $H_0(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. Conversely, if A does not meet a component of X , say X_j , then $H_0(X_j, A; \mathbb{Z}) \neq 0$. But then $H_0(X_j, A; \mathbb{Z}) \neq 0$ is a direct summand of $H_0(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$. Hence $H_0(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ must be non-zero.

- (2) If $H_1(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$, then $H_1(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is onto and $H_0(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is injective by [Lemma 4.6.1](#). This last statement can't be true if some path component X_i of X contains multiple components of A because then $H_0(A \cap X_i) \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$ for some $n \geq 2$ while $H_0(X_i) = \mathbb{Z}$. So then

$$H_0(A \cap X_i) \rightarrow H_0(X_i)$$

can't be one-to-one, and the same follows for

$$H_0(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X; \mathbb{Z})$$

If $H_1(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is onto, then the kernel of the map $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_1(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ is $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$. So the map $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_1(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ is the 0 map. Similarly, if each component of X contains at most one component of A , then $H_0(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is injective. So its kernel is 0, so the image of $H_1(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(A; \mathbb{Z})$ is 0. But then by exactness, $0 = H_1(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$.

- (3) If $n \geq 2$, then $H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ and $H_{n-1}(x; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$, and thus we immediately see $H_n(X, x) \cong H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ by inspecting the long exact sequence in relative homology. For $n = 1$, consider the following part of the long exact sequence in relative homology:

$$0 \rightarrow H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_1(X, x; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow H_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X, x; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow 0$$

Proposition 4.6.3(1) readily implies that

$$0 \rightarrow H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_1(X, x; \mathbb{Z})$$

is surjective if and only if

$$H_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow H_0(X, x; \mathbb{Z})$$

is injective if and only if it is not-the zero map. The last equivalence follows from the observation that $H_0(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is a free abelian group. If it were the zero map, the map $H_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X, x; \mathbb{Z})$ will be injective. However, this is not the case since the point $x \in X$ defines a generator $\langle x \rangle$ of $H_0(X; \mathbb{Z})$ that is in the kernel of the map $H_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X, x; \mathbb{Z})$. Therefore, the claim is true for $n = 1$ as well.

This completes the proof. \square

Definition 4.6.4. Let (X, A) be in \mathbf{Top}^2 . If $A \subseteq X$ is a closed subspace such that there exists a neighborhood V of A such that A is a strong deformation retract of V , we say that $(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ is a good pair.

The next proposition allows us to identify an alternative way to think about relative homology in most cases of interest.

Proposition 4.6.5. *Let (X, A) be a good pair. Then*

$$H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_n(X/A, A/A; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \tilde{H}_n(X/A; \mathbb{Z})$$

for all $n \geq 0$.

PROOF. Consider the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X, V; \mathbb{Z}) & \longleftarrow & H_n(X - A, V - A; \mathbb{Z}) \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ H_n(X/A, A/A; \mathbb{Z}) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X/A, V/A; \mathbb{Z}) & \longleftarrow & H_n(X/A - A/A, V/A - A/A; \mathbb{Z}) \end{array}$$

The upper left horizontal map is an isomorphism since in the long exact sequence of the triple (X, V, A) (**Remark 4.5.11**) the groups $H_n(V, A)$ are zero for all $n \geq 0$, because a deformation retraction of V onto A gives a homotopy equivalence of pairs $(V, A) \simeq (A, A)$, and $H_n(A, A) = 0$. The deformation retraction of V onto A induces a deformation retraction of V/A onto A/A , so the same argument shows that the lower left horizontal map is an isomorphism as well. The other two horizontal maps are isomorphisms directly from excision. The right-hand vertical map is an isomorphism. It follows that the left-hand vertical arrow also is an isomorphism. \square

Corollary 4.6.6. *If $(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ is a good pair, then there is an exact sequence:*

$$\cdots \rightarrow \tilde{H}_n(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_n(X/A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n-1}(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n-1}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \cdots$$

PROOF. This is clear. \square

Corollary 4.6.7. *Let $(X_\alpha, x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in I}$ be a collection of good pairs in \mathbf{Top}_* . Let $X = \bigvee_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ with the basepoint $x = (x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in I}$ in \mathbf{Top}_* . Then*

$$\tilde{H}_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \bigoplus_{\alpha \in I} \tilde{H}_n(X_\alpha; \mathbb{Z})$$

for $n \geq 1$.

PROOF. Since $(X_\alpha, x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in I}$ be a collection of good pairs, (X, x) is also a good pair. We have:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{H}_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) &= \tilde{H}_n \left(\coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha \middle/ \coprod_{\alpha \in I} \{x_\alpha\}; \mathbb{Z} \right) \\ &\cong H_n \left(\coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha, \coprod_{\alpha \in I} \{x_\alpha\}; \mathbb{Z} \right) \\ &\cong \bigoplus_{\alpha \in I} H_n(X_\alpha, x_\alpha; \mathbb{Z}) \\ &\cong \bigoplus_{\alpha \in I} \tilde{H}_n(X_\alpha; \mathbb{Z}).\end{aligned}$$

The first and third equivalences follow by [Proposition 4.6.3](#). The second equivalence follows by observing that the additivity axiom holds in **Top**² as can be checked. \square

Example 4.6.8. (Homology of Spheres) We now are now in a position to compute the reduced homology groups of spheres. The reduced homology groups of spheres are given as:

$$\tilde{H}_k(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } k = n \\ 0, & \text{if } k \neq n \end{cases}$$

Since $(\mathbb{D}^n, \mathbb{S}^{n-1})$ is a good pair and $\mathbb{D}^n / \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \cong \mathbb{S}^n$, the long exact sequence in relative reduced homology yields:

$$\cdots \rightarrow \tilde{H}_k(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_k(\mathbb{D}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_k(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{k-1}(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{k-1}(\mathbb{D}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \cdots$$

Since \mathbb{D}^n is contractible, $\tilde{H}_k(\mathbb{D}^n; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ for $k \geq 0$. Therefore,

$$\tilde{H}_k(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \tilde{H}_k(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{k-1}(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \cdots$$

Hence, we have:

$$\tilde{H}_k(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \tilde{H}_{k-1}(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z})$$

The result now follows via induction and the observation that

$$\tilde{H}_0(\mathbb{S}^0; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z} \quad \tilde{H}_k(\mathbb{S}^0; \mathbb{Z}) \cong 0 \quad k > 0$$

The computation above readily implies the following:

$$H_k(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } k = 0, n = 0 \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } k = 0, n > 1 \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } k = n > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Corollary 4.6.9. *Let $m \neq n$.*

- (1) \mathbb{S}^m and \mathbb{S}^n are not homotopy equivalent.
- (2) \mathbb{R}^m and \mathbb{R}^n are not homeomorphic.
- (3) If $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ and $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ are non-empty homeomorphic open sets, then $m = n$.

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) This follows from [Example 4.6.8](#) since the homology groups are not isomorphic for $m \neq n$.

- (2) If m or n is zero, this is clear. So let $m, n > 0$. Assume we have a homeomorphism $f : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. WLOG assume that $f(0) = 0$. This restricts to a homeomorphism $\mathbb{R}^m \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{f(0)\}$. But these spaces are homotopy equivalent to spheres of different dimension, yielding a contradiction.
- (3) For all $x \in U$ and for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have

$$H_k(U, U \setminus \{x\}) \cong H_k(\mathbb{R}^m, \mathbb{R}^m \setminus \{x\})$$

by the Excision Theorem. Combining this with the long exact sequence for the reduced homology of $(\mathbb{R}^m, \mathbb{R}^m \setminus \{x\})$ and the fact that $\mathbb{R}^m \setminus \{x\}$ is homotopy equivalent to \mathbb{S}^{m-1} , we obtain for all $x \in U$ and all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$:

$$H_k(U, U \setminus \{x\}) \cong H_k(\mathbb{R}^m, \mathbb{R}^m \setminus \{x\}) \cong \tilde{H}_{k-1}(\mathbb{R}^m \setminus \{x\}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}, & k = m \\ 0, & k \neq m. \end{cases}$$

Similarly,

$$H_k(V, V \setminus \{x\}) \cong H_k(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{x\}) \cong \tilde{H}_{k-1}(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{x\}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}, & k = n \\ 0, & k \neq n. \end{cases}$$

If U, V are homeomorphic via $f : U \rightarrow V$, then

$$H_k(U, U \setminus \{x\}) \cong H_k(V, V \setminus \{f(x)\})$$

The claim follows by comparing homology groups.

This completes the proof. \square

Remark 4.6.10. If X is a topological space, $x \in X$, and $U \subseteq X$ is an open neighborhood of x , then for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the Excision Theorem yields that

$$H_n(X, X \setminus \{x\}) \cong H_n(U, U \setminus \{x\}).$$

In particular, for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the group $H_n(X, X \setminus \{x\})$ depends only on the topology of a neighborhood of x . Therefore, these homology groups are called the local homology groups of X at x .

Using the discussion about the homology groups of spheres and [Corollary 4.6.9](#), we can prove the invariance of dimension ([Remark 1.3.2](#)) and the invariance of boundary ([Remark 1.3.9](#)) results about topological manifolds.

PROOF. Let X be a topological n -manifold.

- (1) Working in local coordinate charts, this follows from [Corollary 4.6.9\(2\)](#).
- (2) Skipped.

This completes the proof. \square

Example 4.6.11. Let $A \subseteq X$ be a finite set of points in X . We compute $H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ in the two cases:

- (1) Let $X = \mathbb{S}^2$. Assume $|A| = k$ for $k \geq 1$. Since A is assumed to be non-empty, [Proposition 4.6.3](#) implies $H_0(\mathbb{S}^2, A; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. The long exact sequence in relative homology implies we have:

$$\cdots \rightarrow H_{n+1}(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n+1}(\mathbb{S}^2; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n+1}(\mathbb{S}^2, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(\mathbb{S}^2; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \cdots$$

Noting that,

$$H_1(\mathbb{S}^2; \mathbb{Z}) = 0 \quad H_0(\mathbb{S}^2; \mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Z} \quad H_0(A; \mathbb{Z}; \mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Z}^k,$$

the right most end of the long exact sequence becomes

$$\cdots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow H_1(\mathbb{S}^2, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0$$

Since \mathbb{Z} is a free abelian group, the sequence above splits and implies that

$$\mathbb{Z}^k \cong H_1(\mathbb{S}^2, A; \mathbb{Z}) \oplus \mathbb{Z}.$$

Hence,

$$H_1(\mathbb{S}^2, A; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{k-1}.$$

For $n \geq 2$, $H_n(A; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ implies that we have the sequence

$$\cdots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow H_{n+1}(\mathbb{S}^2; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n+1}(\mathbb{S}^2, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow H_n(\mathbb{S}^2; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(\mathbb{S}^2, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \cdots$$

By [Lemma 4.6.1](#), $H_n(\mathbb{S}^2) \rightarrow H_n(\mathbb{S}^2, A)$ is surjective. But the map is also injective. Hence by exactness and the first isomorphism theorem, Therefore,

$$H_n(\mathbb{S}^2, A; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_n(\mathbb{S}^2; \mathbb{Z}).$$

Hence, we have:

$$H_n(\mathbb{S}^2, A; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \geq 3 \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } n = 2 \\ \mathbb{Z}^{k-1} & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } n = 0 \end{cases}$$

- (2) Let $X = \mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1$. It can be checked that $\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1$ is homomorphic to the torus, T , considered in [Section 4.2](#). As in (1), $H_0(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1, A; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ and $H_n(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1, A; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_n(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1)$ for $n \geq 2$. For $n = 1$, noting that,

$$H_1(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1; \mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \quad H_0(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1; \mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Z} \quad H_0(A; \mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Z}^k$$

the right most end of the long exact sequence in Homology becomes

$$\cdots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow H_1(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0$$

The reduced homology version of the sequence above is

$$\cdots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \tilde{H}_1(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{k-1} \rightarrow 0$$

Since \mathbb{Z} is a free \mathbb{Z} -module, the sequence above splits and implies that

$$H_1(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1, A; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \tilde{H}_1(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1, A) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{k+1}.$$

Hence, we have:

$$H_n(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1, A; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \geq 3 \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } n = 2 \\ \mathbb{Z}^{k+1} & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } n = 0 \end{cases}^x$$

Example 4.6.12. We compute $H_1(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Q})$. We have the following exact sequence in homology,

$$\cdots \rightarrow H_n(\mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow H_n(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow H_n(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(\mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow \cdots$$

Since \mathbb{Q} is a totally disconnected set, every point $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ is a path-component. Hence, we have

$$H_n(\mathbb{Q}) = \begin{cases} \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } n = 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Since \mathbb{R} is contractible, the long-exact sequence on the right becomes

$$0 \rightarrow H_1(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0.$$

This implies that the map $H_1(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Z}$ is injective, and since subgroups of free groups are free, $H_1(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Q})$ is a free abelian group. Since \mathbb{Z} is a free \mathbb{Z} -module, we have

$$\bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Z} \cong H_1(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Q}) \oplus \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow H_1(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Q}) \cong \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Z}$$

If $\sigma_q : \Delta^0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$, the set $\{\sigma_0 - \sigma_q \mid q \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ is a basis for $H_1(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Q})$.

4.7. Equivalence of Simplicial Homology & Singular Homology

Let X be a topological space that admits a Δ -complex structure. We say that a subspace $A \subseteq X$ admits a Δ -subcomplex structure on X if A is a union of simplices of X . Relative simplicial homology group can be defined in the same way as relative (singular) homology groups. That is, the n -th relative simplicial homology group, $H_n^\Delta(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$, is the n -th homology group of the chain complex:

$$\cdots \longrightarrow \Delta_2(X)/\Delta_2(A) \xrightarrow{\bar{\partial}_2^\Delta} \Delta_1(X)/\Delta_1(A) \xrightarrow{\bar{\partial}_1^\Delta} \Delta_0(X; \mathbb{Z})/\Delta_0(A)$$

That is:

$$H_n^\Delta(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) = \frac{\text{Ker } \bar{\partial}_n^\Delta}{\text{Im } \bar{\partial}_{n+1}^\Delta}$$

As before, this yields a long exact sequence of simplicial homology groups for the pair $(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ by the same algebraic argument as for singular homology. We now show that the simplicial homology groups of X corresponding to any Δ -complex structure on X coincides with its singular homology groups of X .

Proposition 4.7.1. *Let X be a topological space that admits a Δ -complex structure and let A be a Δ -subcomplex of X . The inclusion map*

$$\Delta_n(X, A) \hookrightarrow C_n(X, A)$$

induces an isomorphism

$$H_n^\Delta(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$$

for each $n \geq 0$.

Remark 4.7.2. *Taking $A = \emptyset$, we obtain the equivalence of absolute singular and simplicial homology.*

Our strategy will be to proceed by induction X_k^Δ consisting of all simplices of dimension k or less.

PROOF. We proceed in multiple steps:

- (1) First suppose that X is finite dimensional. That is, $X_m^\Delta = \emptyset$ for $m \geq n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Assume that $A = \emptyset$. Consider the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc}
 H_{n+1}^\Delta(X_k^\Delta, X_{k-1}^\Delta Z) & \longrightarrow & H_n^\Delta(X_{k-1}^\Delta Z) & \longrightarrow & H_n^\Delta(X_k^\Delta Z) & \longrightarrow & H_n^\Delta(X_k^\Delta, X_{k-1}^\Delta Z) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}^\Delta(X_{k-1}^\Delta Z) \\
 \downarrow f_1 & & \downarrow f_2 & & \downarrow f_3 & & \downarrow f_4 & & \downarrow f_5 \\
 H_{n+1}(X_k^\Delta, X_{k-1}^\Delta Z) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X_{k-1}^\Delta Z) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X_k^\Delta Z) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X_k^\Delta, X_{k-1}^\Delta Z) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(X_{k-1}^\Delta Z)
 \end{array}$$

Note that $\Delta_k(X_k^\Delta, X_{k-1}^\Delta)$ is a free abelian group generated by k -simplices and $\Delta_n(X_k^\Delta, X_{k-1}^\Delta) = \emptyset$ for $n \neq k$. Therefore, we have:

$$\Delta_k(X_k^\Delta, X_{k-1}^\Delta) = \begin{cases} \text{free abelian group generated by } k\text{-simplices} & \text{if } n = k \\ \emptyset & \text{if } n \neq k \end{cases}$$

A simple calculation shows that:

$$H_n^\Delta(X_k^\Delta, X_{k-1}^\Delta Z) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}^{\#k\text{-simplices}} & \text{if } n = k \\ 0 & \text{if } n \neq k \end{cases}$$

It is easy to check that $(X_k^\Delta, X_{k-1}^\Delta)$ is a good pair and

$$X_k^\Delta / X_{k-1}^\Delta = \bigvee_{i=1}^{\#k\text{-simplices}} \mathbb{S}^k$$

Therefore, [Corollary 4.6.7](#) implies

$$H_n(X_k^\Delta, X_{k-1}^\Delta Z) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}^{\#k\text{-simplices}} & \text{if } n = k \\ 0 & \text{if } n \neq k \end{cases}$$

Therefore, both f_1 and f_4 are isomorphisms. An induction argument shows that f_2 and f_5 are isomorphisms. The five lemma ([Proposition 4.3.18](#)) then implies that f_3 is an isomorphism.

- (2) Suppose that X is possibly infinite-dimensional. Assume that $A = \emptyset$. Note that a compact set $C \subseteq X$ can meet only finitely many open simplices of X . If not, C would contain an infinite sequence of points x_i , each lying in a different open simplex. Then the sets

$$U_i = X - \bigcup_{j \neq i} \{x_j\}$$

which are open since their pre-images under the characteristic maps of all the simplices are clearly open, form an open cover of C with no finite sub-cover. This can be applied to show the map

$$H_n^\Delta(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$$

is bijective. For surjectivity, let $[c] \in H_n^\Delta(X; \mathbb{Z})$. Choose a representative n -cycle, α , of $[c]$. Now α is a linear combination of finitely many singular simplices with compact images, meeting only finitely many open simplices of X . Hence, α is in X_k^Δ for some k . We have shown that

$$H_n(X_k^\Delta Z) \cong H_n^\Delta(X_k^\Delta Z)$$

So there exists a n -cycle $v \in \Delta_n(X_k^\Delta)$ such that $[v]$ gets mapped to $[c]$. This proves surjectivity. Injectivity is similar so we omit details.

(3) Now consider the general case where $A \neq \emptyset$. Consider the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc}
 H_{n+1}^\Delta(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) & \longrightarrow & H_n^\Delta(A; \mathbb{Z}) & \longrightarrow & H_n^\Delta(X; \mathbb{Z}) & \longrightarrow & H_n^\Delta(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}^\Delta(A; \mathbb{Z}) \\
 \downarrow f_1 & & \downarrow f_2 & & \downarrow f_3 & & \downarrow f_4 & & \downarrow f_5 \\
 H_{n+1}(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) & \longrightarrow & H_n(A; \mathbb{Z}) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(A; \mathbb{Z})
 \end{array}$$

By (2), f_2, f_3, f_5 are isomorphisms. The claim now follows by induction and the five-lemma.

This completes the proof. \square

Example 4.7.3. Let $X = \mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1$. Note that X is homemorphic to the torus, T , considered in [Section 4.2](#). Hence, [Proposition 4.7.1](#) implies that

$$H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) = H_n^\Delta(T; \mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 1 \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 0, 2 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

Consider $Y = \mathbb{S}^1 \vee \mathbb{S}^1 \vee \mathbb{S}^2$. We have

$$H_n(Y) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 1 \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 0, 2 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

We see that

$$H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) = H_n(Y)$$

for $n \geq 0$. It can be checked that the covering spaces of X and Y have different homology groups. Hence, X and Y are not homotopy equivalent. Therefore, homology groups might not be able to distinguish topological spaces that are not homotopy equivalent.

CHAPTER 5

Computations & Applications of Homology

5.1. Mayer-Vietoris Sequence

In addition to the long exact sequence of homology groups for a pair (X, A) , there is another sort of long exact sequence, known as a Mayer–Vietoris sequence, which is equally powerful but is sometimes more convenient to use. The Mayer–Vietoris sequence is also applied frequently in induction arguments, where one might know that a certain statement is true for A , B , and $A \cap B$ by induction and then deduce that it is true for $A \cup B$ by the exact sequence¹.

Lemma 5.1.1. (*Barrett-Whitehead Lemma*) *Suppose we have the following commutative diagram of abelian groups, where the two rows are exact:*

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & A_n & \xrightarrow{i_n} & B_n & \xrightarrow{j_n} & C_n & \xrightarrow{k_n} & A_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\ & & \downarrow f_n & & \downarrow g_n & & \downarrow h_n & & \downarrow f_{n-1} & & \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & A'_n & \xrightarrow{i'_n} & B'_n & \xrightarrow{j'_n} & C'_n & \xrightarrow{k'_n} & A'_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & \cdots \end{array}$$

Assume each map $h_n : C_n \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ is an isomorphism. Then there is a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \longrightarrow A_n \xrightarrow{(i_n, f_n)} B_n \oplus A'_n \xrightarrow{g_n - i'_n} B'_n \xrightarrow{k_n h_n^{-1} j'_n} A_{n-1} \longrightarrow \cdots$$

PROOF. The proof is by a diagram chase. We omit details. □

Proposition 5.1.2. (*Mayer-Vietoris Sequence*) *Let $X_1, X_2 \subseteq X$ be open sets such that $X = X_1 \cup X_2$. Let*

$$i_1 : X_0 \hookrightarrow X_1, \quad i_2 : X_1 \hookrightarrow X$$

denote inclusions for $i = 1, 2$. Then there is a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \rightarrow H_n(X_1 \cap X_2; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(X_1; \mathbb{Z}) \oplus H_n(X_2; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(X_1 \cap X_2; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \cdots$$

PROOF. We have the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} (X_1 \cap X_2, \emptyset) & \xrightarrow{i_1} & (X_1, \emptyset) & \xrightarrow{f} & (X_1, X_1 \cap X_2) \\ \downarrow i_2 & & \downarrow j_1 & & \downarrow h \\ (X_2, \emptyset) & \xrightarrow{j_2} & (X, \emptyset) & \xrightarrow{g} & (X, X_2) \end{array}$$

¹Mayer–Vietoris sequence can also be thought of as an abelianization of the Seifert Van Kampen Theorem.

Applying **Remark 4.5.11** yields the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc}
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & H_n(X_1 \cap X_2; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{H_n(i_n)} & H_n(X_1; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{H_n(j_n)} & H_n(X_1, X_1 \cap X_2; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\delta_n} & H_n(X_1 \cap X_2; \mathbb{Z}) & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
 & & \downarrow H_n(f_n) & & \downarrow H_n(g_n) & & \downarrow H_n(h_n) & & \downarrow H_n(i_2) & & \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & H_n(X_2; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{H_n(i'_n)} & H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{H_n(j'_n)} & H_n(X, X_2; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\delta'_n} & H_n(X_2; \mathbb{Z}) & \longrightarrow & \cdots
 \end{array}$$

The excision axioms implies that $H_n(h_n)$ is an isomorphism for each $n \geq 0$. **Lemma 5.1.1** then implies the existence of the desired long exact sequence. \square

Remark 5.1.3. *By using augmented chain complexes, we also obtain a corresponding Mayer-Vietoris sequence for the reduced homology groups. We omit details.*

Remark 5.1.4. *We can also use the Mayer-Vietoris sequence to compute the homology groups of sphere. Indeed, consider the following argument. Let $X = \mathbb{S}^n$, $A = \mathbb{S}^n \setminus \{S\}$, and $B = \mathbb{S}^n \setminus \{N\}$, where S and N are the south pole and north pole, respectively. Then*

$$A \simeq \mathbb{R}^n \quad B \simeq \mathbb{R}^n \quad A \cap B \simeq \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$$

From the Mayer-Vietoris sequence for reduced homology groups, we get $\tilde{H}_k(\mathbb{S}^n) \simeq \tilde{H}_{k-1}(\mathbb{S}^{n-1})$ for all i . By induction, we find as before:

$$\tilde{H}_k(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \simeq \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}, & k = n \\ 0, & k \neq n. \end{cases}$$

Proposition 5.1.5. (Suspension Theorem)² *Let X be a topological space and let SX be its suspension. We have*

$$\tilde{H}_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \tilde{H}_{n+1}(SX; \mathbb{Z})$$

for $n \geq -1$.

PROOF. For $n = -1$, $\tilde{H}_{-1}(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is the trivial group. Since SX is path-connected, $\tilde{H}_0(SX; \mathbb{Z})$ is also the trivial group. Let $n \geq 0$. Let P, Q denote the collapsed spaces $X \times \{0\}$ and $X \times \{1\}$ respectively. Let $A = SX - \{P\}$ and let $B = SX - \{Q\}$. Each of A and B are homeomorphic to the cone space

$$CX = (X \times I)/(X \times \{0\})$$

By the Mayer-Vietoris sequence for reduced homology, since $A \cap B = X \times (0, 1)$, we obtain the exact sequence

$$\cdots \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n+1}(A; \mathbb{Z}) \oplus \tilde{H}_{n+1}(B; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n+1}(SX; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_n(A \cap B; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_n(A; \mathbb{Z}) \oplus \tilde{H}_n(B; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \cdots$$

for all n . Note that CX is contractible³. Moreover, $X \times (0, 1)$ deformation retracts down to X . Hence, the sequence simplifies to:

$$\cdots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n+1}(SX; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \cdots$$

This proves the claim. \square

²Suspension is defined formally later on.

³Indeed, the homotopy $h_t(x, s) = (x, (1-t)s)$ continuously shrinks CX down to its vertex point.

5.2. Degree Theory

We focus on the application of homology theory to degree theory (and fixed point theory) in this section. We shall see that we can use homology theory to study continuous maps between spheres. This allows us to introduce and study the notion of degree of a map between spheres. Moreover, degree of maps between spheres will play a fundamental role in our being able to compute cellular homology, which we discuss in the next section.

Definition 5.2.1. The degree of a continuous map $f : \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n$ is defined as:

$$\deg f := H_n(f)(1)$$

where

$$H_n(f) : H_n(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow H_n(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$$

is the homomorphism induced by f in homology, and $1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ denotes the generator.

In what follows, we write $H_n(f)$ as f_n .

Proposition 5.2.2. *Here are some basic properties of degree:*

- (1) $\deg(\text{Id}_{\mathbb{S}^n}) = 1$.
- (2) *If f is not surjective, then $\deg(f) = 0$.*
- (3) *If $f \simeq g$ are homotopic maps, then $\deg(f) = \deg(g)$.*
- (4) $\deg(g \circ f) = \deg(g) \cdot \deg(f)$.
- (5) *If f is a homotopy equivalence, then $\deg(f) = \pm 1$.*

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) This follows because $(\text{Id}_{\mathbb{S}^n})_n = \text{Id}_{\mathbb{Z}}$ which is multiplication by the integer 1.
- (2) Indeed, if f is not surjective, there is some $y \notin \text{Im}(f)$. Then we can factor f in the following way:

$$\mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n \setminus \{y\} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n$$

Since $\mathbb{S}^n \setminus \{y\} \simeq \mathbb{R}^n$ is contractible, $H_n(\mathbb{S}^n \setminus \{y\}) = 0$. Therefore, $f_n = 0$, so $\deg(f) = 0$.

- (3) This follows because if f and g are homotopic, then $f_n = g_n$ for $n \geq 0$.
- (4) This is clear.
- (5) By definition, there exists a map $g : \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n$ so that $g \circ f \simeq \text{Id}_{\mathbb{S}^n}$ and $f \circ g \simeq \text{Id}_{\mathbb{S}^n}$. The claim follows directly from previous results, since $f \circ g \simeq \text{id}_{\mathbb{S}^n}$ implies that $\deg(f) \cdot \deg(g) = \deg(\text{Id}_{\mathbb{S}^n}) = 1$.

This completes the proof. □

We now prove a far less obvious result:

Proposition 5.2.3. *Let $n \geq 1$ and let $A \in O(n+1)$ denote an orthogonal linear transformation. Set $f := A|_{\mathbb{S}^n}$. Then $\deg(f) = \det(A) = \pm 1$.*

PROOF. The group $O(n+1)$ has two connected components, $O^+(n+1)$ and $O^-(n+1)$, distinguished by $\det : O(n+1) \rightarrow \{+1, -1\}$. By homotopy invariance, it suffices to check the result for one such A in each component. Note that $I_{n+1} \in O^+(n+1)$ has degree 1. Hence, every $A \in O^+(n+1)$ has degree one. Consider $O^-(n+1)$. We take A to be reflection in a hyperplane $H \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. WLOG, we can assume the hyperplane is $\mathbb{R}^n \times \{0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ and

$$A(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n) = (x_0, x_1, \dots, -x_n).$$

The upper and lower hemispheres U and L of \mathbb{S}^n can be regarded as singular n -simplices, via their standard homeomorphisms with Δ^n ⁴. Then the generator of $H_n(\mathbb{S}^n)$ is $[U - L]$. The reflection map r maps the cycle $U - L$ to $L - U = -(U - L)$. So

$$H_n(r)([U - L]) = [L - U] = [-(U - L)] = -1 \cdot [U - L],$$

so $\deg(r) = -1$. □

Corollary 5.2.4. *If $a : \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n$ is the antipodal map, then $\deg(a) = (-1)^{n+1}$.*

PROOF. Note that a is a composition of $n + 1$ reflections since there are $n + 1$ coordinates in x , each changing sign by an individual reflection. From above, we know that the composition of maps leads to multiplication of degrees. □

This immediately gives a proof of the following famous result.

Proposition 5.2.5. (Hairy Ball Theorem) *\mathbb{S}^n has a continuous vector field of nonzero tangent vectors if and only if n is odd.*

PROOF. Suppose $x \mapsto v(x)$ is a tangent vector field on \mathbb{S}^n , assigning to a vector $x \in \mathbb{S}^n$ the vector $v(x)$ tangent to \mathbb{S}^n at x . Regarding $v(x)$ as a vector at the origin instead of at x , we have that $x \perp v(x)$ for each $x \in \mathbb{S}^n$. If $v(x) \neq 0$ for all x , we may normalize so that $|v(x)| = 1$ for all x by replacing $v(x)$ by $v(x)/|v(x)|$. Consider

$$\begin{aligned} W : \mathbb{S}^n \times I &\rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n, \\ (x, t) &\mapsto (\cos(\pi t))x + (\sin(\pi t))v(x). \end{aligned}$$

Note that W indeed takes values in \mathbb{S}^n since $x \perp v(x)$ for each $x \in \mathbb{S}^n$. Hence, we obtain a homotopy from the identity map on \mathbb{S}^n to the antipodal map on \mathbb{S}^n . This implies that $(-1)^{n+1} = 1$ and n must be odd. Conversely, if n is odd, say $n = 2k - 1$, we can define $v : \mathbb{R}^{2k} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2k}$ by

$$v(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{2k-1}, x_{2k}) = (-x_2, x_1, \dots, -x_{2k}, x_{2k-1})$$

Then $v(x) \perp x$ for each $x \in \mathbb{S}^n$. Hence, v is a vector field on \mathbb{S}^n , and it is non-vanishing since $|v(x)| = 1$ for all $x \in \mathbb{S}^n$. □

5.2.1. Applications to Fixed Point Theory. Let's note some results in fixed point theory that can be easily proved using degree theory.

- (1) If $f : \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n$ has no fixed points, then $\deg(f) = (-1)^{n+1}$. Since $f(x) \neq x$, the segment

$$(1 - t)f(x) + t(-x)$$

from $-x$ to $f(x)$ does not pass through the origin in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} . So we can normalize to obtain a homotopy:

$$\begin{aligned} g_t(x) : \mathbb{S}^n &\rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n \\ x &\mapsto \frac{(1 - t)f(x) + t(-x)}{\|(1 - t)f(x) + t(-x)\|} \end{aligned}$$

Note that this homotopy is well defined since $(1 - t)f(x) - tx \neq 0$ for any $x \in \mathbb{S}^n$ and $t \in [0, 1]$, because $f(x) \neq x$ for all x . Then g_t is a homotopy from f to a , the antipodal map, and the result follows.

⁴Here we are implicitly using the result that if $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a compact convex subset with nonempty interior, then C is a closed n -cell (and its interior is an open n -cell). That is, $C \cong \mathbb{D}^n$.

- (2) **(Brouwer's Fixed Point Theorem)** Let $n \geq 1$ and suppose that a continuous map $f : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ has no fixed points. Since $\mathbb{D}^n \cong \mathbb{S}_+^n$, where \mathbb{S}_+^n is the northern hemisphere, f can be thought of a map from \mathbb{S}_+^n to \mathbb{S}_+^n . Now we can extend f to a map on \mathbb{S}^n as follows. We define

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} f(x), & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{S}_+^n, \\ f \circ r(x), & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{S}_-^n \end{cases}$$

where $r(x)$ is reflection about the plane through the equator and \mathbb{S}_-^n is the southern hemisphere. It is clear that $g(x)$ is a continuous function; furthermore $g(x)$ has no fixed points. By (1), g is homotopic to the antipodal map on \mathbb{S}^n that has degree $(-1)^{n+1}$. Clearly, g is not surjective⁵. It follows that $\deg g = 0$. But $(-1)^{n+1} \neq 0$ for $n \geq 1$. Hence, every continuous map $f : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ has a fixed point.

- (3) Consider a continuous map $f : \mathbb{S}^{2n} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{2n}$. Then either f or $-f$ must have a fixed point. If f and $-f$ don't have fixed points, then f and $-f$ are homotopic to the antipodal map. Thus f and $-f$ have degree -1 . But both f and $-f$ both cannot have the same degree. Hence there is a point $x \in \mathbb{S}^{2n}$ such that $f(x) = \pm x$.
- (4) Consider a continuous map $f : \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n$ of degree zero. Then there exist points $x, y \in \mathbb{S}^n$ for such that $f(x) = x$ and $f(y) = -y$. If not, then f and $-f$ are homotopic to the antipodal map. But then degree of $\pm f$ is $0 \neq \pm(-1)^{n+1}$. Hence, there are points $x, y \in \mathbb{S}^n$ for such that $f(x) = x$ and $f(y) = -y$.

Remark 5.2.6. *Brouwer's fixed point theorem can be derived without resorting to degree theory. First, note that for $n \geq 1$ there does not exist a continuous map $r : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \partial\mathbb{D}^n$ such that $r(x) = x$ for $x \in \partial\mathbb{D}^n$. Assume by contradiction that there exists a retraction $r : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \partial\mathbb{D}^n = \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$. Then, if $i : \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ is the inclusion, we have $r \circ i = Id_{\mathbb{S}^{n-1}}$.*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{S}^{n-1} & \xrightarrow{Id} & \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \\ & \searrow i & \nearrow r \\ & \mathbb{D}^n & \end{array}$$

If $n > 1$, we then have:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{Z} \cong H_{n-1}(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{Id} & H_{n-1}(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z} \\ & \searrow 0 & \nearrow 0 \\ & H_{n-1}(\mathbb{D}^n; \mathbb{Z}) = 0 & \end{array}$$

This is a contradiction. A similar argument can be made in the case $n = 0$. We can now prove Brouwer's fixed point theorem: let $f : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ be a continuous map. Assume by contradiction that $f(x) \neq x$ for all $x \in \mathbb{D}^n$. Then, we may define a function $r : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$ in the following way. Let $x \in \mathbb{D}^n$ and let $[f(x), x)$ denote the (unique) ray based at $f(x)$ passing through x . Define $r(x)$ to be the unique element in $([f(x), x) \cap \partial\mathbb{D}^n) \setminus \{f(x)\}$. Then, r is continuous and is a retraction $\mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \partial\mathbb{D}^n$, a contradiction.

⁵Because no point in the southern hemisphere is in the image.

Remark 5.2.7. Here is a cute application of (3) above. Consider $g : \mathbb{RP}^{2n} \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^{2n}$. By covering space theory, the map g lifts to a map $\tilde{g} : \mathbb{RP}^{2n} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{2n}$. Define f as in the diagram below:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{S}^{2n} & \xrightarrow{\quad f \quad} & \mathbb{S}^{2n} \\ \downarrow & \nearrow \tilde{g} & \downarrow \\ \mathbb{RP}^{2n} & \xrightarrow{\quad g \quad} & \mathbb{RP}^{2n} \end{array}$$

Choose $x \in \mathbb{S}^{2n}$ such that $f(x) = \pm x$. Then the point $[x] \in \mathbb{RP}^{2n}$ is a fixed point for g ⁶. We have just seen that any linear transformation of \mathbb{R}^{2n+1} has a real eigenvalue! The analogous result is not necessarily true for \mathbb{R}^{2n} for $n \geq 1$. Consider the following matrix:

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} R_{\theta_1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & R_{\theta_1} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & R_{\theta_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

Here R_{θ_i} is a 2-by-2 matrix that represents a rotation through angle θ_i . Clearly, R maps \mathbb{S}^{2n-1} to \mathbb{S}^{2n-1} , but it has no fixed point since each R_{θ_i} has no (real) eigenvector.

Remark 5.2.8. Here is a cute application of (4) above. Let $F : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ be a continuous function such that $F(x) \neq 0$ for $x \in \mathbb{D}^n$. We can then consider the map

$$G(x) = \frac{F(x)}{\|F(x)\|}$$

Note that G maps \mathbb{S}^{n-1} to \mathbb{S}^{n-1} . Moreover, G has degree zero since \mathbb{D}^n has trivial homology. Hence, there are points $x, y \in \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$ such that $G(x) = x$ and $G(y) = -y$. If we think of F defining a vector field on \mathbb{D}^n , then this means that there exists a point on \mathbb{S}^{n-1} where the vector field points radially outward and another point on \mathbb{S}^{n-1} where the vector field points radially inward.

Remark 5.2.9. Consider a continuous map $f : \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n$ for $n \geq 1$. If f doesn't have a fixed point, then f is homotopic to the antipodal map. If n is odd, then the linear transformation represented by the matrix

$$R_t = \begin{pmatrix} R_{t\pi} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & R_{t\pi} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & R_{t\pi} \end{pmatrix}$$

is homotopy between the antipodal map and the identity map. If n is even, then we can apply the argument above to the “equatorial sphere” $\mathbb{S}^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{S}^n$. In any case, we see that if f is homotopic to continuous map with a fixed point.

⁶For $m \geq$, recall that $\mathbb{RP}^m = \mathbb{S}^{m+1} / \sim$ where we identify antipodal points in \mathbb{S}^m . Covering space theory tells us that \mathbb{S}^m is the universal covering space of \mathbb{RP}^m . Hence, the map g lifts since \mathbb{S}^{m+1} is simply-connected.

5.2.2. Local Degrees. How to compute degrees, though? We describe a technique for computing degrees which can be applied to most maps that arise in practice. Assume $f : \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n$ is surjective, and that f has the property that there exists some $y \in \text{Im}(\mathbb{S}^n)$ so that $f^{-1}(y)$ is a finite number of points, say $f^{-1}(y) = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m\}$. Let U_i be a neighborhood of x_i such that all U_i 's get mapped to some neighborhood V of y . So

$$f(U_i \setminus \{x_i\}) \subseteq V \setminus \{y\}$$

As f is continuous, we can choose the U_i 's to be disjoint. Let $f|_{x_i} : U_i \rightarrow V$ be the restriction of f to U_i , with the induced homomorphism

$$f_n|_{x_i} : H_n(U_i, U_i \setminus \{x_i\}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(V, V \setminus \{y\}; \mathbb{Z}).$$

Definition 5.2.10. Let $f : \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n$ be a continuous map. The local degree of f at x_i , $\deg(f|_{x_i})$, to be the degree of $f_n|_{x_i}$.

We have the following result:

Lemma 5.2.11. *The degree of f equals the sum of local degrees at points in a generic finite fiber, that is,*

$$\deg(f) = \sum_{i=1}^m \deg(f|_{x_i}).$$

PROOF. Consider the commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 \mathbb{Z} \cong H_n(U_i, U_i \setminus x_i; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{f_n|_{x_i}} & \mathbb{Z} \cong H_n(V, V \setminus y; \mathbb{Z}) \\
 \swarrow \cong & \downarrow k_i & \downarrow \cong \\
 \mathbb{Z} \cong H_n(\mathbb{S}^n, \mathbb{S}^n \setminus x_i; \mathbb{Z}) & \xleftarrow{p_i} & H_n(\mathbb{S}^n, \mathbb{S}^n - f^{-1}(y); \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{f_n} & H_n(\mathbb{S}^n, \mathbb{S}^n \setminus y; \mathbb{Z}) \\
 \swarrow \cong & \uparrow j & \uparrow \cong & & \uparrow \cong \\
 & \mathbb{Z} \cong \tilde{H}_n(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{f_n} & \mathbb{Z} \cong \tilde{H}_n(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z})
 \end{array}$$

The two isomorphisms in the upper half of the diagram come from excision, while the lower two isomorphisms come from exact sequences of pairs. The maps k_i and p_i are induced by inclusions, so the triangles and squares commute. The map j comes from the long exact sequence in homology. By excision,

$$H_n(\mathbb{S}^n, \mathbb{S}^n - f^{-1}(y); \mathbb{Z}) \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^m H_n(U_i, U_i \setminus x_i; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}^m$$

The map p_i is the projection onto the i -th summand. We have:

$$k_i(1) = (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$$

where the entry 1 is in the i th place. Also, $p_i \circ j(1) = 1$ for all i , so

$$j(1) = (1, 1, \dots, 1) = \sum_{i=1}^m k_i(1).$$

Commutativity of the upper square says that the middle f_n takes $k_i(1)$ to $\deg f|_{x_i}$, hence the sum $\sum_i k_i(1) = j(1)$ is taken to $\sum_i \deg f|_{x_i}$. The commutativity of the lower square gives:

$$\deg f = f_n j(1) = f_n \left(\sum_{i=1}^m k_i(1) \right) = \sum_{i=1}^m \deg f|_{x_i}.$$

This completes the proof. \square

5.3. Cellular Homology

We define the cellular homology of a CW complex X in terms of a given cell structure, then we show that it coincides with the singular homology, so it is in fact independent on the cell structure. Cellular homology is very useful for computations. Before discussing cellular homology, we compute the relative homology groups of a topological space, X , that can be given the structure of a CW complex.

Lemma 5.3.1. *Let X be a topological space that can be endowed with the structure of a CW complex. Then:*

- (1) *The relative homology $H_k(X^n, X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z})$ is given by:*

$$H_k(X^n, X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } k \neq n \\ \mathbb{Z}^{\#n\text{-cells}}, & \text{if } k = n. \end{cases}$$

for $k \geq 1$.

- (2) $H_k(X^n; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ if $k > n \geq 1$. In particular, if X is finite dimensional, then $H_k(X; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ if $k > \dim(X)$.
 (3) The inclusion $i: X^n \hookrightarrow X$ induces an isomorphism $H_k(X^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_k(X)$ if $k < n$.

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) Since (X^n, X^{n-1}) is a good pair, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} H_k(X^n, X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) &\cong \tilde{H}_k(X^n/X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \\ &= H_k(X^n/X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \\ &\cong \bigvee_{i=1}^{\#n\text{-cells}} \mathbb{S}^n \cong \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } k \neq n, \\ \mathbb{Z}^{\#n\text{-cells}}, & \text{if } k = n. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

- (2) Since (X^n, X^{n-1}) is a good pair for each $n \geq 1$, we can consider the following portion of the long exact sequence:

$$H_{k+1}(X^n, X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow H_k(X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow H_k(X^n; \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow H_k(X^n, X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z})$$

If $k+1 \neq n$ and $k \neq n$, we have from (1) we have that $H_{k+1}(X^n, X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ and $H_k(X^n, X^{n-1}) = 0$. Thus

$$H_k(X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_k(X^n; \mathbb{Z})$$

Hence, if $k > n$ (so in particular, $n \neq k+1$ and $n \neq k$), we get by iteration that

$$H_k(X^n; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_k(X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\cong} \dots \xrightarrow{\cong} H_k(X^0; \mathbb{Z})$$

Note that X^0 is just a collection of points, so $H_k(X^0; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. Thus, when $k > n \geq 1$, we have $H_k(X^n; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ as desired.

(3) We only prove the statement for finite-dimensional CW complexes. Let $k < n$, and consider the following portion of the long exact sequence:

$$\cdots \rightarrow H_{k+1}(X^{n+1}, X^n; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_k(X^n; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_k(X^{n+1}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_k(X^{n+1}, X^n; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \cdots$$

Since $k < n$, we have $k+1 \neq n+1$ and $k \neq n+1$, so by part (1), we get that $H_{k+1}(X^{n+1}, X^n; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ and $H_k(X^{n+1}, X^n; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. Thus, $H_k(X^n) \cong H_k(X^{n+1}; \mathbb{Z})$. By repeated iteration, we obtain:

$$H_k(X^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_k(X^{n+1}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_k(X^{n+2}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \cdots \cong H_k(X^{n+l}; \mathbb{Z}) = H_k(X; \mathbb{Z}),$$

where l is such that $X^{n+l} = X$ since we assumed X is finite dimensional. See [Hat02] for the case when X is infinite-dimensional.

This completes the proof. \square

In what follows we define the cellular homology of a CW complex, X , in terms of a given cell structure, then we show that it coincides with the singular homology.

Definition 5.3.2. The cellular homology $H^{\text{CW}}(X)$ of a CW complex X is the homology of the cellular chain complex $(C_*(X), d_*)$ indexed by the cells of X , i.e.,

$$C_n(X) := H_n(X^n, X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Z}^{\#n\text{-cells}},$$

and with differentials $d_n : C_n(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X)$ defined by the following diagram: d_n etc. are defined in the obvious way to make the diagram commute. It is easy to check that $d_{n+1} \circ d_n = 0$ since the composition of these two maps induces two successive maps in one of the diagonal exact sequences.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & & & & & & H_n(X^{n+1}, X^n; \mathbb{Z}) = 0 \\
 & & & & & \nearrow & \\
 0 = H_n(X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) & & & H_n(X^{n+1}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) & & & \\
 & \searrow & \nearrow i_n & & & & \\
 & & H_n(X^n; \mathbb{Z}) & \searrow j_n & & & \\
 & \nearrow \partial_{n+1} & & & & & \\
 H_{n+1}(X^{n+1}, X^n; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{d_{n+1}} & H_n(X^n, X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{d_n} & H_{n-1}(X^{n-1}, X^{n-2}; \mathbb{Z}) \\
 & & \searrow \partial_n & \nearrow j_{n-1} & & & \\
 & & & H_{n-1}(X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) & & & \\
 & & \nearrow & & & & \\
 & & H_{n-1}(X^{n-2}; \mathbb{Z}) = 0 & & & &
 \end{array}$$

Proposition 5.3.3. Let X be a topological space that admits a CW-complex structure. We have:

$$H_n^{\text{CW}}(X) \cong H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$$

for all n , where $H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is the singular homology of X .

PROOF. Since $H_n(X^{n+1}, X^n; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ and $H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_n(X^{n+1}; \mathbb{Z})$, we get from the diagram above that

$$H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \frac{H_n(X^n; \mathbb{Z})}{\ker i_n} \cong \frac{H_n(X^n; \mathbb{Z})}{\text{Im } \partial_{n+1}}.$$

Now, $H_n(X^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \text{Im } j_n \cong \ker \partial_n \cong \ker d_n$. The first isomorphism comes from j_n being injective, while the second follows by exactness. Finally, $\ker \partial_n = \ker d_n$ since $d_n = j_{n-1} \circ \partial_n$ and j_{n-1} is injective. Also, we have $\text{Im } \partial_{n+1} = \text{Im } d_{n+1}$. Indeed, $d_{n+1} = j_n \circ \partial_{n+1}$ and j_n is injective. Altogether, we have

$$H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \frac{\ker d_n}{\text{Im } d_{n+1}} = H_n^{\text{CW}}(X).$$

This completes the proof. \square

Let's make some observations which are immediate:

- (1) If X has no n -cells, then $H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. Indeed, in this case we have $C_n = H_n(X^n, X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. Therefore, $H_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$.
- (2) If X is connected and has a single 0-cell, then $d_1 : C_1 \rightarrow C_0$ is the zero map. Indeed, since X contains only a single 0-cell, $C_0 = \mathbb{Z}$. Also, since X is connected, $H_0(X) = \mathbb{Z}$. So, by the above theorem, $\mathbb{Z} = H_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) = \ker d_0 / \text{Im } d_1 = \mathbb{Z} / \text{Im } d_1$. This implies that $\text{Im } d_1 = 0$, so d_1 is the zero map as desired.

If X has no cells in adjacent dimensions, then $d_n = 0$ for all n , and $H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{\#n\text{-cells}}$ for all n . Indeed, in this case, all maps d_n vanish. So for any n , $H_n^{\text{CW}}(X) \cong C_n \cong \mathbb{Z}^{\#n\text{-cells}}$. Let's look at two examples:

Example 5.3.4. When $n > 1$, $\mathbb{S}^n \times \mathbb{S}^n$ has one 0-cell, two n -cells, and one $2n$ -cell. Since $n > 1$, these cells are not in adjacent dimensions. Hence:

$$H_k(\mathbb{S}^n \times \mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } k = 0, 2n \\ \mathbb{Z}^2, & \text{if } k = n \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Example 5.3.5. Recall that \mathbb{CP}^n has one cell in each even dimension $0, 2, 4, \dots, 2n$. So \mathbb{CP}^n has no two cells in adjacent dimensions. Hence:

$$H_k(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } k = 0, 2, 4, \dots, 2n \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We next discuss how to compute, in general, the maps

$$d_n : C_n(X) = \mathbb{Z}^{\#n\text{-cells}} \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X) = \mathbb{Z}^{\#(n-1)\text{-cells}}$$

of the cellular chain complex. Let us consider the n -cells $\{e_n^\alpha\}_\alpha$ as the basis for $C_n(X)$ and the $(n-1)$ -cells $\{e_{n-1}^\beta\}_\beta$ as the basis for $C_{n-1}(X)$. In particular, we can write:

$$d_n(e_n^\alpha) = \sum_{\beta} d_{\alpha,\beta} \cdot e_{n-1}^\beta \quad d_{\alpha,\beta} \in \mathbb{Z},$$

Proposition 5.3.6. (Cellular Boundary Formula) *The coefficient $d_{\alpha,\beta}$ is equal to the degree of the map $\Delta_{\alpha,\beta} : \mathbb{S}_\alpha^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}_\beta^{n-1}$ defined by the composition:*

$$\mathbb{S}_\alpha^{n-1} = \partial \mathbb{D}_\alpha^n \xrightarrow{\varphi_\alpha^n} X^{n-1} = X^{n-2} \cup_\gamma \mathbb{D}_\gamma^{n-1} \xrightarrow{\text{collapse}} X^{n-1} / (X^{n-2} \cup_{\gamma \neq \beta} \mathbb{D}_\gamma^{n-1}) = \mathbb{S}_\beta^{n-1},$$

where φ_α^n is the attaching map of \mathbb{D}_α^n , and the collapsing map sends $X^{n-2} \cup_{\gamma \neq \beta} \mathbb{D}_\gamma^{n-1}$ to a point.

PROOF. We will proceed with the proof by chasing the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
H_n(\mathbb{D}_\alpha^n, \mathbb{S}_\alpha^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & \tilde{H}_n(\mathbb{S}_\alpha^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{(\Delta_{\alpha,\beta})_*} & \tilde{H}_n(\mathbb{S}_\beta^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \\
(\Phi_\alpha^n)_* \downarrow & & (\phi_\alpha^n)_* \downarrow & & \uparrow q_{\beta,*} \\
H_n(X^n, X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & \tilde{H}_{n-1}(X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{q_*} & \tilde{H}_{n-1}(X^{n-1}/X^{n-2}; \mathbb{Z}) \\
& \searrow d_n & \downarrow j_{n-1} & & \downarrow \cong \\
& & H_{n-1}(X^{n-1}, X^{n-2}; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & H_{n-1}(X^{n-1}/X^{n-2}, X^{n-2}/X^{n-2}; \mathbb{Z})
\end{array}$$

The maps are as follows:

- (1) Φ_α^n is the characteristic map of the cell e_α^n , and ϕ_α^n is its attaching map.
- (2) The map

$$q_* : \tilde{H}_{n-1}(X^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n-1}(X^{n-1}/X^{n-2}; \mathbb{Z}) = \bigoplus_{\beta} \tilde{H}_{n-1}(\mathbb{D}_\beta^{n-1}/\partial\mathbb{D}_\beta^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z})$$

is induced by the quotient map $q : X^{n-1} \rightarrow X^{n-1}/X^{n-2}$.

- (3) $q_\beta : X^{n-1}/X^{n-2} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}_\beta^{n-1}$ collapses the complement of the cell e_β^{n-1} to a point, the resulting quotient sphere being identified with $\mathbb{S}_\beta^{n-1} = \mathbb{D}_\beta^{n-1}/\partial\mathbb{D}_\beta^{n-1}$ via the characteristic map Φ_β^{n-1} .
- (4) $\Delta_{\alpha\beta} : \mathbb{S}_\alpha^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}_\beta^{n-1}$ is the composition $q_\beta \circ q \circ \phi_\alpha^n$, i.e., the attaching map of e_α^n followed by the quotient map $X^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}_\beta^{n-1}$ collapsing the complement of \mathbb{D}_β^{n-1} in X^{n-1} to a point.

The top left-hand square commutes by naturality of the long-exact sequence in reduced homology. The top right-hand square commutes by the definition of $\Delta_{\alpha,\beta}$. The bottom left-hand triangle commutes by definition of d_n . The bottom right-hand square commutes due to the relationship between reduced and relative homology. The map $(\Phi_\alpha^n)_*$ takes the generator $[\mathbb{D}_\alpha^n] \in H_n(\mathbb{D}_\alpha^n, \mathbb{S}_\alpha^{n-1})$ to a generator of the \mathbb{Z} -summand of $H_n(X^n, X^{n-1})$ corresponding to \mathbb{D}_α^n , i.e.,

$$(\Phi_\alpha^n)_*([\mathbb{D}_\alpha^n]) = \mathbb{D}_\alpha^n$$

Since the top left square and the bottom left triangle both commute, this gives that

$$\sum_{\beta} d_{\alpha,\beta} \mathbb{D}_\beta^{n-1} = d_n(\mathbb{D}_\alpha^n) = d_n \circ (\Phi_\alpha^n)_*([\mathbb{D}_\alpha^n]) = j_{n-1} \circ (\phi_\alpha^n)_*([\mathbb{D}_\alpha^n]).$$

Here we have implicitly identified $H_n(\mathbb{D}_\alpha^n, \mathbb{S}_\alpha^{n-1})$ with $H_n(\mathbb{S}_\alpha^{n-1})$. Looking to the bottom right square, recall that since X is a CW complex, (X^n, X^{n-1}) is a good pair. This gives the isomorphism

$$\begin{aligned}
H_{n-1}(X^{n-1}, X^{n-2}; \mathbb{Z}) &\cong \tilde{H}_{n-1}(X^{n-1}/X^{n-2}; \mathbb{Z}) \\
&\cong H_{n-1}(X^{n-1}/X^{n-2}, X^{n-2}/X^{n-2}; \mathbb{Z}).
\end{aligned}$$

Notice that the map q_β , collapsing all the $n-1$ cells of X to the $n-1$ cell \mathbb{S}_β^{n-1} , induces the map $q_{\beta,*}$, which projects linear combinations of $\{\mathbb{D}_{\beta'}^{n-1}\}$ onto its summand of \mathbb{D}_β^{n-1} .

Therefore, the value of $d_n(\mathbb{D}_i^n)$ is going to be the sum of the projections $q_{\beta',*}$ on the $n-1$ dimensional cells e_β^{n-1} . In other words:

$$\sum_{\beta} d_{\alpha,\beta} \mathbb{D}_\beta^\beta = d_n(\mathbb{D}_n^\alpha) = \sum_{\beta} q_{\beta*} \circ q_* \circ (\phi_n^\alpha)_* \circ [\mathbb{D}_n^\alpha].$$

As noted before, we have defined $(\Delta_{\alpha\beta})_* = q_{\beta*} \circ q_* \circ (\phi_n^\alpha)_*$. The result now follows. \square

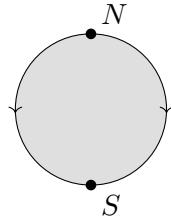
Example 5.3.7. Let $X = \mathbb{S}^2$. We \mathbb{S}^2 with \mathbb{D}^2 / \sim such that

$$(x, y) \sim (x', y') = x', y = |y'|$$

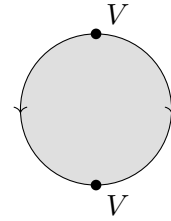
This induces a cell decomposition into one 2-cell, the image of the interior, one 1-cell, the image of $\mathbb{S}^1 \setminus \{(0, 1), (0, -1)\}$, and two 0-cells, the images of $(0, 1)$ and $(0, -1)$ which are N and S . Let $A = \{N, S\}$. Since A is a sub-complex, X/A inherits a CW complex structure with one 2-cell, one 1-cell and one 0-cell. We have

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{d_2} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{d_1} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$$

Since X/A is connected as has a single 0-cell, $d_1 \equiv 0$. The attaching map of the two-cell in



$X = \mathbb{S}^2$



$X = \mathbb{S}^2 / \{N, S\}$

either case can be identified with the map:

$$\phi_{1,2}(e^{\phi i}) = \begin{cases} e^{i\phi} & 0 \leq \phi \leq \pi \\ e^{-i\phi} & \pi \leq \phi \leq 2\pi \end{cases}$$

The map has degree 0. Hence, $d_2 \equiv 0$. As a result, we have

$$H_n(\mathbb{S}^2 / \{N, S\}; \mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } n = 0, 1, 2 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Example 5.3.8. Recall that \mathbb{RP}^n has a CW structure with one k -cell \mathbb{D}^k in each dimension $0 \leq k \leq n$. The attaching map for \mathbb{D}^k is the standard 2-fold covering map $\phi : \mathbb{S}^{k-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^{k-1}$ identifying a point and its antipodal point in \mathbb{S}^{k-1} . To compute the boundary map d_k , we compute the degree of the composition

$$f : \mathbb{S}^{k-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^{k-1} \rightarrow \frac{\mathbb{RP}^{k-1}}{\mathbb{RP}^{k-2}} = \mathbb{S}^{k-1}$$

We consider a neighborhood V of y and the two neighborhoods U_1 and U_2 given to exist by the local homeomorphism property of f . One of the homeomorphisms is the identity map and the other homeomorphism is the anti-podal map. Then by the local degree formula implies

$$d_k = 1 + (-1)^k$$

It follows that

$$d_k = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k \text{ is odd,} \\ 2 & \text{if } k \text{ is even,} \end{cases}$$

and therefore we obtain that

$$H_k(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}_2 & \text{if } k \text{ is odd, } 0 < k < n, \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } k = 0, n \text{ is odd,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

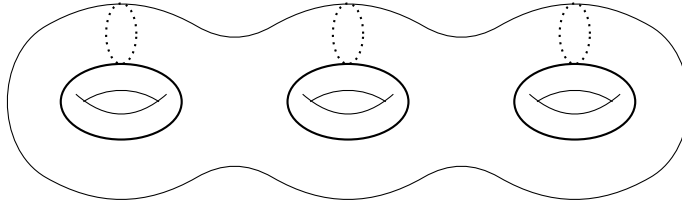
Example 5.3.9. Let M_g be the closed oriented surface of genus g , with its usual CW structure: one 0-cell, $2g$ 1-cells $\{a_1, b_1, \dots, a_g, b_g\}$, and one 2-cell attached by the product of commutators $[a_1, b_1] \cdot \dots \cdot [a_g, b_g]$. The associated cellular chain complex of M_g is:

$$0 \xrightarrow{d_3} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{d_2} \mathbb{Z}^{2g} \xrightarrow{d_1} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{d_0} 0$$

Since M_g is connected and has only one 0-cell, we get that $d_1 = 0$. We claim that d_2 is also the zero map. As the attaching map sends the generator to $a_1 b_1 a_1^{-1} b_1^{-1} \dots a_g b_g a_g^{-1} b_g^{-1}$, when we collapse all 1-cells (except a_i) to a point, the word defining the attaching map $a_1 b_1 a_1^{-1} b_1^{-1} \dots a_g b_g a_g^{-1} b_g^{-1}$ reduces to $a_i a_i^{-1}$. Hence, the coefficient $d_{ea_i} = 1 - 1 = 0$. Altogether, $d_2(e) = 0$. So the homology groups of M_g are given by

$$H_n(M_g; \mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 0, 2, \\ \mathbb{Z}^{2g} & \text{for } n = 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

For $g = 3$, see the figure below to visualize the $2g = 6$ generators of $H_1(M_3)$:



5.4. Euler Characteristic

Definition 5.4.1. Let X be a finite CW complex of dimension n . The Euler characteristic of X is defined as:

$$\chi(X) = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \cdot \#n\text{-cells} = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \cdot \# \text{rank}(C_i^{\text{CW}})$$

Here C_i^{CW} is the i -th abelian group in the chain complex that determines cellular homology. We show that the Euler characteristic does not depend on the cell structure chosen for the space X . As we will see below, this is not the case.

Proposition 5.4.2. *The Euler characteristic can be computed as:*

$$\chi(X) = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \cdot \text{rank}(H_i^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}))$$

In particular, $\chi(X)$ is independent of the chosen cell structure on X .

PROOF. We use the following notation: $B_i = \text{im}(d_{i+1})$, $Z_i = \ker(d_i)$, and $H_i^{\text{CW}} = Z_i/B_i$. The additivity of rank yields that

$$\begin{aligned}\text{rank}(C_i) &= \text{rank}(Z_i) + \text{rank}(B_{i-1}) \\ \text{rank}(Z_i) &= \text{rank}(B_i) + \text{rank}(H_i^{\text{CW}})\end{aligned}$$

Substitute the second equality into the first, multiply the resulting equality by $(-1)^i$, and sum over i to get that

$$\chi(X) = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \cdot \text{rank}(H_i^{\text{CW}})$$

Since cellular homology is isomorphic to singular homology and the latter is homotopy invariant, the result follows. \square

Proposition 5.4.3. *Let X, Y be finite-dimensional CW complexes and let*

$$\begin{aligned}\chi(X) &= \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i a_i \\ \chi(Y) &= \sum_{j=0}^m (-1)^j b_j\end{aligned}$$

Here a_i is the number of i -cells in X . Similarly, b_j is the number of j -cells in B . The Euler characteristic enjoys some nice properties:

- (1) $\chi(X \times Y) = \chi(X) \times \chi(Y)$
- (2) If $X = A \cup B$ such that A, B are sub-complexes of X . Then

$$\chi(X) = \chi(A) + \chi(B) - \chi(A \cap B)$$

- (3) If $p: \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ is an n -sheeted covering space, then

$$\chi(\tilde{X}) = n\chi(X)$$

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) For any index k , k -cells in $X \times Y$ are created by considering products of r -cells and $k - r$ cells from X and Y respectively where $0 \leq r \leq k$. Hence the number of k -cells is

$$\sum_{r=0}^k a_r b_{k-r}$$

Therefore,

$$\chi(X) \times \chi(Y) = \left(\sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i a_i \right) \times \left(\sum_{j=0}^m (-1)^j b_j \right) = \sum_{k=0}^{m+n} (-1)^k \sum_{r=0}^k a_r b_{k-r} = \chi(X \times Y)$$

- (2) Let a_i^A denote the number of i -cells in A . Similarly, let a_i^B be the number of i -cells in B . Similarly, let $a_i^{A \cap B}$ be the number of i -cells in $A \cap B$. We have

$$a_i = a_i^A + a_i^B - a_i^{A \cap B}$$

for $i = 1, \dots, n$. Therefore, we have,

$$\begin{aligned}\chi(X) &= \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i a_i \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i a_i^A + \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i a_i^B - \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i a_i^{A \cap B} \\ &= \chi(A) + \chi(B) - \chi(A \cap B)\end{aligned}$$

(3) Recall that if \mathbb{D}_α^k is a k -cell in X , then \tilde{X} has n k -cells. Therefore, it is clear that

$$\chi(\tilde{X}) = n\chi(X)$$

This completes the proof. \square

Example 5.4.4. Let M_g be the oriented surface of genus g , and let N_g be the oriented surface of genus g . We have

$$\begin{aligned}\chi_{M_g} &= 2 - 2g \\ \chi_{N_g} &= 2 - g\end{aligned}$$

Thus all the M_g, N_g are distinguished from each other by their Euler characteristics. There are only the relations

$$\chi(M_g) = \chi(N_{2g})$$

5.5. Tor Functor

We now discuss the Tor (derived) functor which will play an important role in the discussion of homology with coefficients.

Remark 5.5.1. *We work with commutative rings below. Hence, we don't make any distinction between the categories of left R -modules and right R -modules. We use the generic phrase ' R -module' to refer to a left/right R -module.*

Recall that the tensor product, \otimes_R , defines a functor from the category of R -modules to itself such that if N is a R -module, then

$$- \otimes_R M(N) = N \otimes_R M$$

Moreover, if $f : N \rightarrow N'$ is a R -module morphism, then

$$- \otimes_R M(f) : N \otimes_R M \xrightarrow{f \otimes \text{Id}_M} N' \otimes_R M$$

It can be checked that $- \otimes_R M$ is a right exact functor. However, $- \otimes_R M$ is not a left exact functor in general.

Example 5.5.2. The functor $- \otimes_R M$ need not be left exact functor. Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$. Consider the sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\cdot n} \mathbb{Z}$$

Here $\cdot n$ is the multiplication by n map. Let $M = \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ we obtain a map:

$$\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\cdot n \otimes \text{Id}_{\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}}} \mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$$

However, this is the zero map since we have

$$\cdot n \otimes \text{Id}_{\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}}(1 \otimes \overline{m}) = n \otimes \overline{m} = 1 \otimes \overline{nm} = 0.$$

The zero map is not injective.

Remark 5.5.3. A R -module M is called flat if $- \otimes_R M$ is a left exact functor. If M is a projective R -module, then $- \otimes_R M$ is a left exact functor. This follows because a projective R -module is a direct summand of a free R -module, a free R -module is a flat module and that a R -module is flat if and only if each summand is a flat R -module.

Since the $- \otimes_R M$ functor is a right exact functor which in general is not a left exact functor, we can consider its left derived functor.

Definition 5.5.4. Let R be a ring and let M be a R -module. The i -th Tor functor is the i -th left derived functor of $- \otimes_R M$. It is denoted as

$$\mathrm{Tor}_i^R(-, M)$$

By definition, $\mathrm{Tor}_i^R(-, M)$ is computed as follows. If N is a R -module, take any projective resolution

$$\cdots \rightarrow P^1 \rightarrow P^0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow 0,$$

and form the chain complex:

$$\cdots \rightarrow P^2 \otimes_R M \rightarrow P^1 \otimes_R M \rightarrow P^0 \otimes_R M$$

Then $\mathrm{Tor}_i^R(N, M)$ is the homology of this complex at position i .

$$\mathrm{Tor}_i^R(N, M) = H_i((P^i \otimes_R M)_\bullet)$$

Remark 5.5.5. General results about derived functors show that the homology is independent of the choice of the projective resolution.

If R is a commutative ring and M is a R -module, we can define another functor $M \otimes_R -$. The definition is similar to that of the functor defined above. It can also be checked that $M \otimes_R -$ is right exact functor that is, in general, not left exact. Hence, we can attempt to construct a left-derived functor associated to $M \otimes_R -$ as above. We label that derived functor $\overline{\mathrm{Tor}}_i^R(M, -)$. We have the following result:

Proposition 5.5.6. (Balancing Tor) Let R be a commutative ring and let M be a R -module. Then

$$\mathrm{Tor}_i^R(-, M) \cong \overline{\mathrm{Tor}}_i^R(M, -)$$

That is, for every R -module N , we have

$$\mathrm{Tor}_i^R(N, M) \cong \overline{\mathrm{Tor}}_i^R(M, N)$$

PROOF. See [Wei94] for a proof. □

Remark 5.5.7. In light of [Proposition 5.5.6](#), we can identify Tor_i^R with $\overline{\mathrm{Tor}}_i^R$ for each $i \geq 0$. This allows us to compute projective resolutions of either N or M to compute $\mathrm{Tor}_i^R(N, M)$ for each $i \geq 0$.

Proposition 5.5.8. Let R be a commutative ring and let M be a R -module. The Tor functor satisfies the following properties:

- (1) $\mathrm{Tor}_0^R(N, M) \cong N \otimes_R M$ for any R -modules M, N .
- (2) If N is a projective R -module, then $\mathrm{Tor}_i^R(N, M) = 0$ for all $i \geq 1$

(3) Any $f : N_1 \rightarrow N_2$ R -module homomorphism induces a morphism

$$f_*^i : \operatorname{Tor}_i^R(N_1, M) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_i^R(N_2, M)$$

for each $i \geq 0$.

(4) Any short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow N_1 \xrightarrow{\phi} N_2 \xrightarrow{\psi} N_3 \rightarrow 0$ of R -modules induces a long exact sequence:

$$\cdots \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(N_1, M) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(N_2, M) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(N_3, M) \rightarrow N_1 \otimes_R M \rightarrow N_2 \otimes_R M \rightarrow N_3 \otimes_R M \rightarrow 0$$

PROOF. (1) and (2) follow from general properties of derived functors (Corollary 13.5.15). For (3), let P_1^\bullet be a projective resolution of N_1 and P_2^\bullet be a projective resolution of N_2 . General properties about projective resolutions imply that f lifts to a chain map $\varphi^\bullet : P_1^\bullet \rightarrow P_2^\bullet$. Then, φ^\bullet induces a morphism of chain complexes $P_1^\bullet \otimes_R M \rightarrow P_2^\bullet \otimes_R M$ which, in turn, induces a morphism:

$$f_*^i : \operatorname{Tor}_i^R(N_1, M) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_i^R(N_2, M)$$

for each $i \geq 0$. For (4), let P^\bullet be a projective resolution of M . Then there is an induced short exact sequence of chain complexes:

$$0 \rightarrow N_1 \otimes_R P^\bullet \rightarrow N_2 \otimes_R P^\bullet \rightarrow N_3 \otimes_R P^\bullet \rightarrow 0$$

because each module P^i is projective. Applying the long exact sequence in homology produces the required long exact sequence. \square

We now specialize to the category of \mathbb{Z} -modules. In what follows, we fix G to be an abelian group. We have the following result:

Lemma 5.5.9. *For any abelian group A , we have $\operatorname{Tor}_i^{\mathbb{Z}}(A, G) = 0$ if $i > 1$.*

PROOF. Recall that any abelian group, A , admits a two-step free resolution.

$$0 \rightarrow F_1 \rightarrow F_0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$$

Thus, $\operatorname{Tor}_i^{\mathbb{Z}}(A, G) = 0$ if $i > 1$. \square

Remark 5.5.10. *Only $\operatorname{Tor}_1(-, G)$ encodes any interesting information. In what follows, we adopt the notation: $\operatorname{Tor}(-, G) := \operatorname{Tor}_1^{\mathbb{Z}}(-, G)$.*

Proposition 5.5.11. *If $R = \mathbb{Z}$, the Tor functor satisfies the following properties:*

- (1) $\operatorname{Tor}(\bigoplus_i A_i, G) \cong \bigoplus_i \operatorname{Tor}(A_i, G)$.
- (2) If A is a free abelian group, then $\operatorname{Tor}(A, G) = 0$.
- (3) $\operatorname{Tor}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, G) \cong \ker(G \xrightarrow{n} G)$.
- (4) For a short exact sequence: $0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow D \rightarrow 0$ of abelian groups, there is a natural exact sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(B, G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(C, G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(D, G) \rightarrow B \otimes_R G \rightarrow C \otimes_R G \rightarrow D \otimes_R G \rightarrow 0.$$

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) This follows from the identity,

$$\left(\bigoplus_i A_i \right) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G = \bigoplus_i (A_i \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G)$$

and noting that taking direct sums of projective resolutions of A_i forms a projective resolution for $\bigoplus_i A_i$, and that homology commutes with direct sums.

- (2) If A is free, then $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ is a projective resolution of A , so $\text{Tor}(A, G) = 0$.
 (3) The exact sequence $0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{n} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$ is a projective resolution of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. Tensoring with G and dropping the right-most term yields the complex:

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z} \otimes_R G \xrightarrow{\cdot n \otimes_R 1_G} G \cong \mathbb{Z} \otimes_R G \rightarrow 0,$$

Thus, $\text{Tor}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, G) = \ker(G \xrightarrow{n} G)$.

- (4) This follows from **Proposition 5.5.8**(4).

This completes the proof. \square

5.6. Homology with Coefficients & Universal Coefficient Theorem

In this section, we discuss homology with coefficients and the universal coefficient theorem in homology.

Definition 5.6.1. Let G be an abelian group and X a topological space. The homology of X with G -coefficients, denoted $H_n(X; G)$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, is the homology of the chain complex:

$$C_\bullet(X; G) = C_\bullet(X) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G$$

consisting of finite formal sums $\sum_i \eta_i \cdot \sigma_i$ with $\eta_i \in G$, and with boundary maps given by

$$\partial_n^G := \partial_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G.$$

Remark 5.6.2. Since ∂_n satisfies $\partial_n \circ \partial_{n+1} = 0$, it follows that $\partial_n^G \circ \partial_{n+1}^G = 0$. Hence, $(C_\bullet(X; G), \partial_\bullet^G)$ is indeed a chain complex.

We can construct versions of the usual modified homology groups (relative, reduced, etc.) in the most natural way.

- (1) **(Relative homology with G -coefficients)** Consider the augmented chain complex:

$$C_1(X; G) \rightarrow C_0(X; G) \rightarrow G \rightarrow 0$$

where $\epsilon(\sum_i \eta_i \sigma_i) = \sum_i \eta_i \in G$. Reduced homology with G -coefficients is defined as the homology of the augmented chain complex.

- (2) **(Relative chain Complex with G -coefficients)** Define relative chains with G -coefficients by:

$$C_n(X, A; G) := C_n(X; G) / C_n(A; G),$$

Consider the chain complex:

$$C_1(X, A; G) \rightarrow C_0(X, A; G) \rightarrow 0$$

The relative homology with G -coefficients is defined as the homology of the augmented chain complex.

- (3) **(Cellular homology with G -coefficients)** We can build cellular homology with G -coefficients by defining

$$C_n^G(X) = H_n(X_n, X_{n-1}; G) \cong G^{(\text{number of } n\text{-cells})}$$

The cellular boundary maps are given by:

$$d_n^G(e_n^\alpha) = \sum_{\beta} d_{\alpha\beta} e_{n-1}^\beta,$$

where $d_{\alpha\beta}$ is as before the degree of a map $\Delta_{\alpha\beta} : \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$. As it is the case for integers, we get an isomorphism:

$$H_n^{\text{CW}}(X; G) \cong H_n(X; G)$$

Example 5.6.3. Let's look at some examples:

- (1) By studying the chain complex with G -coefficients, it follows that:

$$H_n(\{*\}; G) = \begin{cases} G & \text{if } n = 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } n \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

- (2) (Sketch) The homology of a sphere as before by induction and using the long exact sequence of the pair $(\mathbb{D}^n, \mathbb{S}^n)$ to be:

$$H_n(\mathbb{S}^n; G) = \begin{cases} G & \text{if } i = 0, n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The result will follow more easily from our discussion of the universal coefficient theorem below.

We now prove an important theorem that relates how homology with different coefficients are connected. Changing the coefficient group in homology can alter the resulting invariants, and understanding this relationship is essential for computations and deeper theoretical insights. The theorem we present provides a precise mechanism—often involving universal coefficient theorems—for translating between homology groups with various coefficients.

Proposition 5.6.4. (Universal Coefficient Theorem) *If a chain complex $(C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet)$ of free abelian groups has homology groups $H_n(C_\bullet)$, then the homology groups $H_n(C_\bullet; G)$ are determined by the short exact sequence:*

$$0 \rightarrow H_n(C_\bullet) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G \rightarrow H_n(C_\bullet; G) \xrightarrow{h} \text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(C_\bullet), G) \rightarrow 0$$

PROOF. We have $B_n = \text{im } \partial_{n+1} \subseteq Z_n = \ker \partial_n \subseteq C_n$. Since $\partial_n|_{Z_n} = 0$ and $\partial_{n-1}|_{B_{n-1}} = 0$, we have the following short exact sequence of chain complexes:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & Z_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{i_{n+1}} & C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} & B_n \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow \partial_{n+1}=0 & & \downarrow \partial_{n+1} & & \downarrow \partial_n=0 \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & Z_n & \xrightarrow{i_n} & C_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & B_{n-1} \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow \partial_n=0 & & \downarrow \partial_n & & \downarrow \partial_{n-1}=0 \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & Z_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{i_{n-1}} & C_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}} & B_{n-2} \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \end{array}$$

Since C_n is a free abelian group, Z_n, B_n are also free abelian groups. Hence, $\otimes_{\mathbb{Z}}$ is an exact functor if applied to each row. Hence, we have a short exact sequence of chain complexes:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & \\
 & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & Z_{n+1} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G & \xrightarrow{i_{n+1} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G} & C_{n+1} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G} & B_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow 0 & & \downarrow \partial_{n+1} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G & & \downarrow 0 \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & Z_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G & \xrightarrow{i_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G} & C_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G & \xrightarrow{\partial_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G} & B_{n-1} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow 0 & & \downarrow \partial_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G & & \downarrow 0 \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & Z_{n-1} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G & \xrightarrow{i_{n-1} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G} & C_{n-1} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G} & B_{n-2} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots
 \end{array}$$

By the snake lemma ([Proposition 4.3.19](#)) we have a connecting homomorphism

$$\Delta_n : B_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G \rightarrow Z_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G$$

Following the construction of the connecting homomorphism in the proof of the snake lemma, we see that $\Delta_n = j_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_M$ where $j_n : B_n \rightarrow Z_n$ is the inclusion $B_n \subseteq Z_n$. Additionally, we get an exact sequence

$$\cdots \rightarrow H_n(B \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G) \xrightarrow{(j_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G)_*} H_n(Z \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G) \xrightarrow{(i_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G)_*} H_n(C \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G) \xrightarrow{(\partial_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G)_*} H_{n-1}(B \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G) \rightarrow \cdots$$

Since the chain complexes $Z \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G$ and $B \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G$ have null boundary maps, we deduce that the sequence

$$\cdots \rightarrow B_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G \xrightarrow{j_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G} Z_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G \xrightarrow{i_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G} H_n(C \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G) \xrightarrow{(\partial_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G)_*} B_{n-1} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G \rightarrow \cdots$$

We claim that this sequence is natural. Suppose that we have another chain complex $(C'_{\bullet}, \partial'_{\bullet})$ and a chain map $f : C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C'_{\bullet}$. We want to see that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & B_n(C) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} M & \xrightarrow{j_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G} & Z_n(C) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} M & \xrightarrow{i_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G} & H_n(C \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} M) \xrightarrow{(\partial_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G)_*} B_{n-1}(C) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} M \longrightarrow \cdots \\
 & & \downarrow f_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_M & & \downarrow f_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_M & & \downarrow (f_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_M)_* & & \downarrow f_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_M \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & B_n(C') \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} M & \xrightarrow{j'_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G} & Z_n(C') \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} M & \xrightarrow{i'_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G} & H_n(C' \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} M) \xrightarrow{(\partial'_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G)_*} B_{n-1}(C') \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} M \longrightarrow \cdots
 \end{array}$$

commutes. It suffices to show that the three squares commute. For the left-most square, given an n -boundary b_n , its image $f_n(b_n)$ is also an n -boundary, hence $f_n \circ j_n(b_n) = f_n(b_n) = j'_n \circ f_n(b_n)$. Therefore, we deduce that

$$(f_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G) \circ (j_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G) = (j'_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G) \circ (f_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G).$$

The middle square commutes for similar reasons. Finally, the right most square commutes since

$$(f_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G) \circ (\partial_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G) = (\partial'_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G) \circ (f_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \text{Id}_G).$$

From this discussion, we deduce the natural short exact sequences:

$$0 \rightarrow \operatorname{coker}(j_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \operatorname{Id}_G) \xrightarrow{i_n \otimes \operatorname{Id}} H_n(C \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G) \xrightarrow{(\partial_n \otimes \operatorname{Id}_G)_*} \ker(j_{n-1} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \operatorname{Id}_G) \rightarrow 0.$$

Consider the projections $\pi_n : Z_n \rightarrow H_n(C)$, and the short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow B_n \xrightarrow{j_n} Z_n \xrightarrow{\pi_n} H_n(C) \rightarrow 0.$$

Note that these sequences are free resolutions of the homology modules $H_n(C)$. Hence, by properties of Tor , we have

$$0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(H_n(C), G) \rightarrow B_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G \xrightarrow{i_n \otimes \operatorname{Id}_G} C_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G \xrightarrow{\pi_n \otimes \operatorname{Id}} H_n(C) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G \rightarrow 0.$$

We can now identify $\ker(j_{n-1} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \operatorname{Id}_G)$ as $\operatorname{Tor}(H_{n-1}(C), G)$ and $\operatorname{coker}(j_n \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \operatorname{Id}_G)$ as $H_n(C) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G$. The claim follows. \square

Remark 5.6.5. The sequence in [Proposition 5.6.4](#) splits. This is because in the beginning of the proof, we considered the exact sequences

$$0 \rightarrow Z_n \xrightarrow{i_n} C_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} B_{n-1} \rightarrow 0,$$

This sequence splits since B_{n-1} is a free abelian group. Hence, there must exist group homomorphisms $l_n : C_n \rightarrow Z_n$ such that $l_n \circ i_n = \operatorname{Id} : Z_n \rightarrow Z_n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Hence the compositions $(\pi_n \circ l_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ induce maps in homology

$$((\pi_n \circ l_n) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \operatorname{Id}_G)_* : H_n(C \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G) \rightarrow H_n(C) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G,$$

which are such that

$$((\pi_n \circ l_n) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \operatorname{Id}_G)_* \circ ((i_n)_* \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \operatorname{Id}_G) = (\operatorname{Id}_G \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \operatorname{Id}_G)_*.$$

As a consequence, the sequence splits and we obtain

$$H_n(C_{\bullet} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G) \cong (H_n(C_{\bullet}) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G) \oplus \operatorname{Tor}(H_{n-1}(C), G).$$

Remark 5.6.6. There is also a universal coefficient theorem for homology where \mathbb{Z} is replaced by a PID, R and G is a R -module. In this case, we have

$$0 \longrightarrow H_n(C_{\bullet}) \otimes_R G \longrightarrow H_n(C_{\bullet}; G) \xrightarrow{h} \operatorname{Tor}_1^R(H_{n-1}(C_{\bullet}), G) \longrightarrow 0$$

This comes from first establishing that Tor_i^R vanishes for $i \geq 2$ for when R is a PID, and then going through a proof for universal coefficient theorem essentially as above.

Example 5.6.7. Suppose $X = K$ is the Klein bottle, and $G = \mathbb{Z}/4$. Recall that $H_1(K; \mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/2$, and $H_2(K; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$, so:

$$\begin{aligned} H_2(K; \mathbb{Z}/4) &= (H_2(K; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/4) \oplus \operatorname{Tor}(H_1(K), \mathbb{Z}/4) \\ &= \operatorname{Tor}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/4) \oplus \operatorname{Tor}(\mathbb{Z}/2, \mathbb{Z}/4) \\ &= 0 \oplus \mathbb{Z}/2 \\ &= \mathbb{Z}/2. \end{aligned}$$

Example 5.6.8. Let $X = \mathbb{RP}^n$ and $G = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$. Recall that we have

$$H_k(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} & \text{if } k \text{ is odd, } 0 < k < n, \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } k = 0, n \text{ is odd,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We compute $H_k(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})$. We consider multiple cases. For $k = 0$, we have:

$$H_0(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \cong H_0(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}.$$

For $k = 1$, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} H_1(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) &\cong H_1(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \text{Tor}(H_0(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \\ &= (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \oplus \text{Tor}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \\ &= \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus 0 = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

For $1 < k < n$, such that k is an odd integer, we have

$$\begin{aligned} H_k(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) &\cong (H_k(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \oplus \text{Tor}(H_{k-1}(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \\ &= (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \oplus \text{Tor}(0, \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \\ &= \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \end{aligned}$$

For $1 < k < n$, such that k is an even integer, we have

$$\begin{aligned} H_k(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) &\cong (H_k(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \oplus \text{Tor}(H_{k-1}(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \\ &= (0 \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \oplus \text{Tor}(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \\ &= \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \end{aligned}$$

For $k = n$ even, we have

$$H_k(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) = (0 \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \oplus \text{Tor}(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

If $k = n$ is odd, we have

$$H_k(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) = (\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \oplus \text{Tor}(0, \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

All in all, we have

$$H_k(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} & \text{if } k = 0, \dots, n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

5.7. Equivalence of Homology Theories

We have encountered various homology theories, including singular, simplicial, and cellular homology, and have seen that they all coincide in specific cases. For instance, if a topological space admits a Δ -complex structure, the singular and simplicial homologies coincide. Similarly, if a topological space admits a CW-complex structure, the singular and cellular homologies coincide. We now demonstrate that this is a specific instance of a more general principle: homology theories are uniquely determined on well-behaved topological spaces, particularly within the category of CW pairs.

Proposition 5.7.1. *Let h_* be a homology theory in the sense of [Definition 4.5.1](#) with \mathbb{Z} coefficients defined as a collection of functors*

$$h_n : \mathbf{CW}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$$

If $h_n(; \mathbb{Z}) \cong 0$ for $n \neq 0$, then there exists a natural isomorphism*

$$h_n(X, A) \cong H_n(X, A; G)$$

for all CW-pairs (X, A) and for all $n \geq 1$, where $G := h_0(; \mathbb{Z}) \in \mathbf{Ab}$.*

PROOF. Since (X, A) is a good pair, we have an isomorphism

$$h_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \tilde{h}_n(X/A; \mathbb{Z})$$

for all $n \geq 0$. This is a formal consequence of Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms that we have verified for singular homology. Hence, we only need to check the absolute case. Just as for singular homology, we have

$$h_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong h_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$$

The hypothesis that $h_n(*; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ for $n \neq 0$ is used here. The long exact sequences of h_* homology groups for the pairs (X_n, X_{n-1}) give rise to a cellular chain complex.

$$\cdots \rightarrow h_n^{\text{CW}}(X_n, X_{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{d_n} h_{n-1}^{\text{CW}}(X_{n-1}, X_{n-2}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \cdots$$

We also have

$$\cdots \rightarrow H_n^{\text{CW}}(X_n, X_{n-1}; G) \xrightarrow{\partial_n} H_{n-1}^{\text{CW}}(X_{n-1}, X_{n-2}; G) \rightarrow \cdots$$

The individual groups are isomorphic, since

$$h_n^{\text{CW}}(X_n, X_{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong G^{\#n\text{-cells}} \cong H_n^{\text{CW}}(X_n, X_{n-1}; G).$$

Thus, it remains to show that $d_n = \partial_n$ for $n \geq 1$. For $n = 1$, we can pass from X to S^2X since suspension is a natural isomorphism in any homology theory. S^2X has no 1-cells, so immediately $d_1 = 0 = \partial_1$. Now let $n > 1$. The calculation of cellular boundary maps d_n for $n > 1$ in terms of degrees of certain maps between spheres works equally well for h_* , where degree now means degree with respect to the h_* theory. But a map

$$f : \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n$$

of degree m in the usual sense is simply multiplication by m on $H_n(\mathbb{S}^n; G) \cong G \cong h_n(\mathbb{S}^n; G)$. The claim follows. \square

Part 3

Cohomology

CHAPTER 6

Singular Cohomology

6.1. Why Cohomology?

Let X be a topological space and G an abelian group. In addition to studying the homology groups of X , there are several compelling reasons to study cohomology as well:

- (1) Cohomology groups with G -coefficients can be ‘summed up’ to yield a direct sum decomposition:

$$H^*(X; G) = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} H^n(X; G)$$

It turns out that $H^*(X)$ support a natural graded algebra structure induced by the cup product. This suggests that cohomology is a stronger topological invariant than homology: indeed, the classic example is that \mathbb{CP}^2 and $\mathbb{S}^2 \vee \mathbb{S}^4$ have isomorphic homology and cohomology groups, but different cohomology rings.

- (2) Categorically, cohomology is a better invariant than homology in that singular cohomology for ‘sufficiently nice’ topological spaces is a representable functor.
- (3) If we restrict to smooth manifolds, then there is a geometric interpretation of singular cohomology. This is given by the fact that singular cohomology is isomorphic to de-Rham cohomology, and the latter is defined in terms of differential forms on a smooth manifold. The k -th de Rham cohomology group measures the extent to which closed k -forms are exact k -forms on a smooth manifold. Since it is always possible to express a closed k -form as an exact k -form *locally*, we see that de Rham cohomology captures the general philosophy that a cohomology theory answers the following meta-question:

When can we promote local solutions of a problem to global solutions?

- (4) Poincaré duality presents a non-trivial relationship between de-Rham cohomology and homology for smooth manifolds. This duality can be understood geometrically in multiple ways. For instance, in certain situations Poincaré duality allows us to interpret the cup product on cohomology as “dual” to the intersection of submanifolds, which makes it relevant to intersection theory in differential topology.

6.2. Singular Cohomology

In parallel with the theory of singular homology, we develop the theory of singular cohomology. Let G be an abelian group and let X be a topological space with a singular chain complex $(C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet)$ of abelian groups:

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} C_n(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}} C_{n-2}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-2}} \cdots$$

Consider $C_n^*(X) = \text{Hom}(C_n(X), G)$, the group of singular n co-chains of X with G -coefficients. This defines the dual chain complex:

$$\xleftarrow{\partial_{n+1}^*} C_n^*(X) \xleftarrow{\partial_n^*} C_{n-1}^*(X) \xleftarrow{\partial_{n-1}^*} C_{n-2}^*(X) \xleftarrow{\partial_{n-2}^*} \dots$$

Remark 6.2.1. We write $(C^\bullet, \partial^\bullet)$ for the above diagram which is called a singular co-chain complex. We often abbreviate $(C^\bullet, \partial^\bullet)$ as C^\bullet . We write C^n for $C_n^* = \text{Hom}(C_n, G)$. Moreover, we shall also write the boundary map ∂_{n+1}^* as δ^n for the boundary map.

The boundary maps are $\partial_n^* : C_{n-1}^* \rightarrow C_n^*$ defined as:

$$(\partial_n^* \psi)(\alpha) = (\psi \circ \partial_n)(\alpha) \quad \psi \in C_{n-1}^*, \alpha \in C_n.$$

Note that the boundary map are such that $\partial_{n+1}^* \circ \partial_n^* = 0$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Indeed,

$$(\partial_{n+1}^* \circ \partial_n^*)(\psi) = \psi(\partial_{n+1} \circ \partial_n) = 0 \quad \psi \in C_{n-1}^*$$

We can now make the following definition:

Definition 6.2.2. Let G be an abelian group, and let $(C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet)$ be a chain complex of free abelian groups. The n -th cohomology group of $(C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet)$ with G -coefficients is defined as

$$H^n((C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet); G) := H_n((C^\bullet, \partial^\bullet); G)$$

Elements of $\ker \partial_{n+1}^*$ are called n -cocycles, and elements of $\text{Im } \partial_n^*$ are called n -coboundaries. We shall write $Z^n(X)$ for $\ker \partial_{n+1}^* = \ker \delta^n$ and $B^n(X)$ for $\text{Im } \partial_n^* = \ker \delta^{n-1}$.

Remark 6.2.3. Recall that chain complexes of abelian groups for a category, $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}$. The dual category, $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}^{\text{Op}}$, is called the category of co-chain complexes of abelian groups. Singular co-chain complexes are elements of $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}^{\text{Op}}$. It can be checked that both $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}$ and $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}^{\text{Op}}$ are abelian categories. Thus, all results that hold for $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}$, or singular chain complexes in particular continue to hold in $\mathbf{Chain}_{\mathbf{Ab}}^{\text{Op}}$, or singular co-chain co-chain complexes in particular. For instance, we have various diagram-chasing lemmas such as the five lemma, the nine lemma, and the snake lemma. We shall not repeat these details in these notes. In any case, the proofs are similar to those discussed in the context of homology.

Proposition 6.2.4. Singular cohomology with coefficients in G defines a contravariant functor \mathbf{Top} to \mathbf{Ab} .

PROOF. Recall that if $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous map, we have induced chain maps $f_n : C_n(X) \rightarrow C_n(Y)$ satisfying $f_n \circ \partial_{n+1} = \partial'_n \circ f_{n+1}$ for each $n \geq 0$.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1}(X) & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} & C_n(X) & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & C_{n-1}(X) \longrightarrow \dots \\ & & \downarrow f_{n+1} & & \downarrow f_n & & \downarrow f_{n-1} \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1}(Y) & \xrightarrow{\partial'_{n+1}} & C_n(Y) & \xrightarrow{\partial'_n} & C_{n-1}(Y) \longrightarrow \dots \end{array}$$

Apply the $\text{Hom}(-, G)$ functor, we get maps such that

$$f^n : C^n(Y; G) \rightarrow C^n(X; G)$$

defined such that

$$f^n(\gamma)(\sigma) = \gamma(f_n(\sigma)) = \gamma(f \circ \sigma)$$

for $\gamma : C_n(Y) \rightarrow G$ and $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ a singular n -simplex in X . We claim that

$$\delta^n \circ f^n = f^{n+1} \circ \delta^{n'}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
\cdots & \longleftarrow & C^{n+1}(X, G) & \xleftarrow{\delta^n} & C^n(X, G) & \xleftarrow{\delta^{n-1}} & C^{n-1}(X, G) & \longleftarrow & \cdots \\
& & f^{n+1} \uparrow & & f^n \uparrow & & f^{n-1} \uparrow & & \\
\cdots & \longleftarrow & C^{n+1}(Y, G) & \xleftarrow{\delta^{n'}} & C^n(Y, G) & \xleftarrow{\delta^{n-1'}} & C^{n-1}(Y, G) & \longleftarrow & \cdots
\end{array}$$

Indeed, we have

$$(\delta^n \circ f^n)(\gamma) = \partial_{n+1} \circ f_n(\gamma) = \partial'_{n+1} \circ f_{n+1}(\gamma) = f^{n+1} \circ \delta^{n'}(\gamma)$$

for $\gamma : C_n(Y) \rightarrow G$. If $\gamma \in Z^n(Y)$ then we claim that $f^n(\gamma) \in Z^n(X)$. Indeed,

$$\delta^n(f^n(\sigma)) = f^{n+1}(\delta^{n'}(\sigma)) = f^{n+1}(0) = 0.$$

for $\gamma : C_n(Y) \rightarrow G$. Similarly, if $\gamma \in B^n(Y)$ then $f^n(\gamma) \in B^n(X)$. Thus f_n induces a map $H_n(f) : H_n(Y, G) \rightarrow H_n(X, G)$. One easily sees that

$$H^n(\text{Id}_X) = \text{Id}_{H^n(X)}$$

and that if $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ then

$$H^n(g \circ f) = H^n(f) \circ H^n(g)$$

This completes the proof. \square

6.3. Ext Functor

We now discuss the Ext (derived) functor, which arises as a derived functor of $\text{Hom}(-, G)$, and plays a crucial role in the formulation of the Universal Coefficient Theorem for singular cohomology.

Remark 6.3.1. *We work with commutative rings below. Hence, we don't make any distinction between the categories of left R -modules and right R -modules. We use the generic phrase ' R -module' to refer to a left/right R -module.*

In the category of R -modules, recall that the $\text{Hom}(X, -)$ functor defines a covariant functor from the category of R -modules to itself. If M is an R -module, then

$$\text{Hom}(X, -)(M) = \text{Hom}(X, M).$$

Moreover, if $f : M \rightarrow M'$ is a morphism of R -modules, then the functor acts on morphisms by

$$\text{Hom}(X, -)(f) : \text{Hom}(X, M) \longrightarrow \text{Hom}(X, M')$$

defined. It can be checked that $\text{Hom}(X, -)$ is a left exact functor. However, $\text{Hom}(X, -)$ is not a right exact functor in general.

Example 6.3.2. The functor $\text{Hom}(X, -)$ is not a right exact functor in general. Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$. Consider the short exact sequence of abelian groups:

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{2} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0.$$

Apply the functor $\text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, -)$ to this sequence. We obtain:

$$0 \longrightarrow \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{(\cdot 2)^*} \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})$$

The resulting sequence is:

$$0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z},$$

which is not an exact since $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$ is not a surjective function.

Definition 6.3.3. Let R be a ring and let X be a R -module. The i -th Ext functor is the i -th left derived functor of $\text{Hom}(X, -) := h_X$. It is denoted as

$$\text{Ext}_I^i(X, -)$$

Remark 6.3.4. The subscript I denotes that we have taken an injective resolution.

By definition, $\text{Ext}_I^i(X, -)$ is computed as follows: for an R -module Y take any injective resolution

$$0 \rightarrow Y \rightarrow I_0 \rightarrow I_1 \rightarrow \cdots$$

and form the co-chain complex:

$$\text{Hom}(X, I_0) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(X, I_1) \rightarrow \cdots$$

For each integer i , $\text{Ext}_I^i(X, Y)$ is the homology of this co-chain complex at position i :

$$\text{Ext}_I^i(X, Y) = H_i(\text{Hom}(X, I_i)^\bullet)$$

Similarly, we can consider the contravariant Hom functor and consider its right derived functor. Since it is a contravariant functor, we take projective resolutions now.

Definition 6.3.5. Let R be a ring and let Y be a R -module. The i -th Ext functor is the i -th left derived functor of $\text{Hom}(-, Y) := h^Y$. It is denoted as

$$\text{Ext}_P^i(-, Y)$$

Remark 6.3.6. The subscript P denotes that we have taken a projective resolution.

By definition, $\text{Ext}_P^i(-, Y)$ is computed as follows: for an R -module X take any projective resolution

$$\cdots \rightarrow P^1 \rightarrow P^0 \rightarrow X \rightarrow 0,$$

and form the co-chain complex:

$$\text{Hom}(P^0, Y) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(P^1, Y) \rightarrow \cdots$$

Then $\text{Ext}_P^i(X, Y)$ is the homology of this co-chain complex at position i :

$$\text{Ext}_P^i(X, Y) = H_i(\text{Hom}(P^i, Y)^\bullet)$$

The left exact $\text{Hom}(-, -)$ functor can be thought of as a bifunctor which is covariant in the second variable and contravariant in the first variable. The discussion above seemingly provides us with two different strategies to compute the Ext functor. Fortunately, it turns out that we can use either strategy as formalized by the following proposition.

Proposition 6.3.7. (Balancing Ext) Let X, Y be R -modules. Then

$$\text{Ext}_P^i(X, Y) \cong \text{Ext}_I^i(X, Y)$$

for each $i \geq 0$.

PROOF. See [Wei94] for a proof. □

Therefore, one can work with either strategy mentioned above. Therefore, we can now unambiguously write $\text{Ext}^i(X, Y)$.

Proposition 6.3.8. The Ext functor satisfies the following properties:

- (1) $\text{Ext}^0(X, Y) \cong \text{Hom}(X, Y)$ for all R -modules X, Y .
- (2) If X is a projective R -module, then $\text{Ext}^i(X, Y) = 0$ for all $i \geq 1$
- (3) If Y is an injective R -module, then $\text{Ext}^i(X, Y) = 0$ for all $i \geq 1$

(4) Any $f : X_1 \rightarrow X_2$ induces a morphism

$$f^{*,i} : \text{Ext}^i(X_2, Y) \longrightarrow \text{Ext}^i(X_1, Y)$$

for each $i \geq 0$.

(5) Any $g : Y_1 \rightarrow Y_2$ induces a morphism

$$g_*^i : \text{Ext}^i(X, Y_1) \longrightarrow \text{Ext}^i(X, Y_2)$$

for each $i \geq 0$.

(6) Any short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow Y_1 \xrightarrow{\phi} Y_2 \xrightarrow{\psi} Y_3 \rightarrow 0$ induces a long exact sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Ext}^0(X, Y_1) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^0(X, Y_2) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^0(X, Y_3) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^1(X, Y_1) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^2(X, Y_2) \rightarrow \dots$$

(7) Any short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow X_1 \xrightarrow{\phi} X_2 \xrightarrow{\psi} X_3 \rightarrow 0$ induces a long exact sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Ext}^0(X_3, Y) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^0(X_2, Y) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^0(X_1, Y) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^1(X_3, Y) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^2(X_2, Y) \rightarrow \dots$$

PROOF. (1), (2) and (3) all follow from general properties of derived functors (**Corollary 13.5.15**). For (4) Let P_1^\bullet be a projective resolution of X_1 and P_2^\bullet be a projective resolution of X_2 . General properties about resolutions implies that f lifts to a chain map $\varphi^\bullet : P_1^\bullet \rightarrow P_2^\bullet$. Then, φ^\bullet induces a morphism of chain complexes $\text{Hom}(P_2^\bullet, Y) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(P_1^\bullet, Y)$ which, in turn, induces a morphism:

$$f^{*,i} : \text{Ext}^i(X_2, Y) \longrightarrow \text{Ext}^i(X_1, Y)$$

for each $i \geq 0$. For (5), let P^\bullet be a projective resolution of X . Then, there is a morphism of chain complexes $\beta^\bullet : \text{Hom}(P^\bullet, Y_1) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(P^\bullet, Y_2)$ induced by g , which, in turn, induces a morphism:

$$g_*^i : \text{Ext}^i(X, Y_1) \longrightarrow \text{Ext}^i(X, Y_2)$$

for each $i \geq 0$. For (6), let P^\bullet be a projective resolution of X . Then there is an induced short exact sequence of chain complexes:

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(P^\bullet, Y_1) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(P^\bullet, Y_2) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(P^\bullet, Y_3) \rightarrow 0$$

because each module P^i is projective. Indeed, at each degree i , P^i this sequence is

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(P^i, Y_1) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(P^i, Y_2) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(P^i, Y_3) \rightarrow 0$$

obtained by applying the functor $\text{Hom}(P^i, -)$, which is exact as P^i is projective. It is then easily checked that this gives a short exact sequence of chain complexes. Thus, applying the long exact sequence in homology produces the required long exact sequence. For (7), Let P^\bullet be a projective resolution of X_1 and let Q^\bullet be a projective resolution of X_3 . By the horseshoe lemma (**Lemma 13.5.16**), there exists a projective resolution R^\bullet of X_2 and a short exact sequence of chain complexes

$$0 \rightarrow P^\bullet \rightarrow R^\bullet \rightarrow Q^\bullet \rightarrow 0,$$

Since Q^i is projective, applying $\text{Hom}(-, Y)$ yields

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(Q^i, Y) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(R^i, Y) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(P^i, Y) \rightarrow 0$$

for each $i \geq 0$. It follows that there is a s.e.s. of cochain complexes

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(Q^\bullet, Y) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(R^\bullet, Y) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(P^\bullet, Y) \rightarrow 0.$$

The associated long exact sequence in cohomology is the required long exact sequence. \square

The above proposition show that the Ext groups ‘measure’ and ‘repair’ the non-exactness of the functors $\text{Hom}(-, Y)$ and $\text{Hom}(X, -)$. Let us now specialize to $R = \mathbb{Z}$. In what follows, let G be a fixed abelian group.

Lemma 6.3.9. *For any abelian group A , we have that*

$$\text{Ext}^n(A, G) = 0 \text{ if } n > 1,$$

PROOF. Any abelian group, A , admits a two-step free resolution.

$$0 \rightarrow F_1 \rightarrow F_0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$$

Thus, $\text{Ext}^n(A, G) = 0$ if $n > 1$. □

Remark 6.3.10. *Only $\text{Ext}^1(A, G)$ encodes interesting information for abelian groups. We write $\text{Ext}(A, G) := \text{Ext}^1(A, G)$.*

Proposition 6.3.11. *The Ext functor satisfies the following properties:*

- (1) $\text{Ext}(\bigoplus_i A_i, G) \cong \prod_i \text{Ext}(A_i, G)$.
- (2) *If A is free, then $\text{Ext}(A, G) = 0$.*
- (3) $\text{Ext}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, G) = G/nG$.
- (4) *If H is a finitely generated abelian group, then:*

$$\text{Ext}(H, G) = \text{Ext}(\text{Torsion}(H), G) = \text{Torsion}(H) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} G$$

- (5) *For a short exact sequence: $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow A' \rightarrow A'' \rightarrow 0$ of abelian groups, there is a natural exact sequence:*

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A'', G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A', G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}(A'', G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}(A', G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}(A, G) \rightarrow 0$$

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) This follows from the identity,

$$\text{Hom}\left(\bigoplus_i A_i, G\right) = \prod_i \text{Hom}(A_i, G),$$

and noting that taking direct sums of projective resolutions of A_i forms a projective resolution for $\bigoplus_i A_i$, and that homology commutes with arbitrary direct products.

- (2) If A is free, then

$$0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$$

is a projective resolution of A , so $\text{Ext}(A, G) = 0$.

- (3) Consider the projective resolution of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ given by

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{n} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$$

dualize it and use the fact that $\text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, G) \cong G$ to conclude that $\text{Ext}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, G) = G/nG$.

- (4) This follows at once from the previous statement.
- (5) This follows from [Proposition 6.3.8](#).

This completes the proof. □

Remark 6.3.12. *The discussion above implies has dealt with the case of \mathbb{Z} -modules (abelian groups). The general case can be more involved. For instance, consider \mathbb{Z}_2 as a \mathbb{Z}_4 -module.*

Let $\mathbb{Z}_4 \xrightarrow{q} \mathbb{Z}_2$ denote the quotient map. Let $\mathbb{Z}_4 \xrightarrow{\times 2} \mathbb{Z}_4$ denote multiplication by 2. \mathbb{Z}_2 has the following free resolution over \mathbb{Z}_4 :

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\times 2} \mathbb{Z}_4 \xrightarrow{\times 2} \mathbb{Z}_4 \xrightarrow{\times 2} \mathbb{Z}_4 \xrightarrow{\times 2} \mathbb{Z}_4 \xrightarrow{q} \mathbb{Z}_2 \rightarrow 0.$$

Since $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}_4}(\mathbb{Z}_4, \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ (by mapping the generator of \mathbb{Z}_4 to either 0 or 1), the dual of $\times 2 : \mathbb{Z}_4 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_4$ is simply the zero map. Hence, we have the dual sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2 \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z}_2 \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z}_2 \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z}_2 \rightarrow \cdots$$

Consider the truncated sequence

$$\mathbb{Z}_2 \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z}_2 \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z}_2 \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z}_2 \rightarrow \cdots$$

The homology of this complex is \mathbb{Z}_2 for every degree. Hence,

$$\text{Ext}_{\mathbb{Z}_4}^n(\mathbb{Z}_2, \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$$

is nonzero for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. This is stark contrast **Remark 6.3.10**.

Remark 6.3.13. The name *Ext* comes from the phrase *extension*. We say X is an extension of A by B if

$$0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow X \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$$

is exact. Given A and B , there is always the trivial extension $X = A \oplus B$, corresponding to the isomorphism class of the split exact sequence. It can be shown that isomorphism classes of extensions of A by B are in 1-1 correspondence with elements of $\text{Ext}^1(A, B)$, with the trivial extension corresponding to 0.

6.4. Universal Coefficient Theorem

Recall the construction of singular cohomology in **Section 6.2**. Since everything is determined in terms of $(C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet)$, can we compute cohomology groups using information about homology groups? The answer is a qualified yes. This is the universal coefficient theorem (UCT) for cohomology, which we now discuss. We first motivate the statement of UCT. As a first guess, we might think that

$$H^n(C_\bullet; G) := H_n(C^\bullet; G) \cong \text{Hom}(H_n(C_\bullet), G)$$

This turns out to be almost true. We indeed have a natural map:

$$\varphi : H^n(C_\bullet, G) \longrightarrow \text{Hom}(H_n(C_\bullet), G).$$

Denote $Z_n = \ker \partial_n \subseteq C_n$ and $B_n = \text{Im } \partial_{n+1} \subseteq C_n$. We have $B_n \subseteq Z_n$. A class in $H^n(C^\bullet; G)$ is represented by a homomorphism $\phi : C_n \rightarrow G$ such that $\partial_{n+1}^* \phi = 0$. That is, $\phi \partial_{n+1} = 0$, or in words, ϕ vanishes on B_n . The restriction $\phi_0 = \phi|_{Z_n}$ then induces a quotient homomorphism

$$\bar{\phi}_0 : Z_n/B_n \rightarrow G,$$

an element of $\text{Hom}(H_n(C_\bullet), G)$. If ϕ is in $\text{Im } \partial_n^*$, say $\phi = \psi \partial_n$ for some $\psi \in C_{n-1}^*$, then ϕ is zero on Z_n since $\partial_n \circ \partial_{n+1} = 0$. So $\phi_0 = 0$ and hence also $\bar{\phi}_0 = 0$.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+2}} & C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} & C_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & C_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}} \cdots \\ & & & \searrow \phi \circ \partial_{n+1} & \downarrow \phi & \swarrow \psi & \\ & & & & G & & \end{array}$$

Thus, there is a well-defined quotient map

$$h : H^n(C_\bullet, G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(H_n(C), G)$$

sending the cohomology class of $[\phi]$ to $\bar{\phi}_0$. Obviously h is a homomorphism.

Proposition 6.4.1. (Universal Coefficient Theorem) *If a chain complex $(C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet)$ of free abelian groups has homology groups $H_n(C_\bullet)$, then the cohomology groups $H^n(C_\bullet; G)$ of the cochain complex $\text{Hom}(C_n, G)$ are determined by the short exact sequence:*

$$0 \longrightarrow \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(C_\bullet), G) \longrightarrow H^n(C_\bullet; G) \xrightarrow{h} \text{Hom}(H_n(C_\bullet), G) \longrightarrow 0$$

PROOF. We first show that h is surjective. Consider the short exact sequence:

$$(*) \quad 0 \longrightarrow Z_n \xrightarrow[\quad i \quad]{\quad p \quad} C_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} B_{n-1} \longrightarrow 0$$

Since B_{n-1} is a free abelian group, the short exact sequence splits. Thus there is a homomorphism $p : C_n \rightarrow Z_n$ that restricts to the identity on Z_n . That is $p \circ i = \text{Id}_{Z_n}$. Composing with p gives a way of extending homomorphisms

$$\phi_0 : Z_n \rightarrow G$$

to homomorphisms

$$\phi = \phi_0 \circ p : C_n \rightarrow G$$

In particular, this extends homomorphisms $Z_n \rightarrow G$ that vanish on B_n to homomorphisms $C_n \rightarrow G$ that still vanish on B_n , or in other words, it extends homomorphisms $H_n(C_\bullet) \rightarrow G$ to elements of $\ker \partial_{n+1}^*$. Thus we have a homomorphism

$$\text{Hom}(H_n(C_\bullet), G) \rightarrow \ker \partial_{n+1}^*$$

Composing this with the quotient map $\ker \partial_{n+1}^* \rightarrow H^n(C_\bullet; G)$ gives a homomorphism from

$$\text{Hom}(H_n(C_\bullet), G) \rightarrow H^n(C_\bullet; G)$$

If we follow this map by h we get the identity map on $\text{Hom}(H_n(C_\bullet), G)$ since the effect of composing with h is simply to undo the effect of extending homomorphisms via p . This shows that h is surjective. We now analyze kernel of h . We have:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & \\ & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & \\ 0 & \longleftarrow & Z_{n+1}^* & \longleftarrow & C_{n+1}^* & \longleftarrow & B_n^* \longleftarrow 0 \\ & & \uparrow 0 & & \uparrow \partial_{n+1}^* & & \uparrow 0 \\ 0 & \longleftarrow & Z_n^* & \longleftarrow & C_n^* & \longleftarrow & B_{n-1}^* \longleftarrow 0 \\ & & \uparrow 0 & & \uparrow \partial_n^* & & \uparrow 0 \\ 0 & \longleftarrow & Z_{n-1}^* & \longleftarrow & C_{n-1}^* & \longleftarrow & B_{n-2}^* \longleftarrow 0 \\ & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \end{array}$$

The above complex follows by applying the $\text{Hom}(-, G)$ functor to the split short exact sequences in $(*)$. Since each such short exact sequence is split, the resulting chain complex

has rows consisting of split short exact sequences. The associated long exact sequence of homology groups has the form:

$$\cdots \longleftarrow B_n^* \longleftarrow Z_n^* \xleftarrow{i_n^*} H^n(C_\bullet, G) \longleftarrow B_{n-1}^* \longleftarrow Z_{n-1}^* \xleftarrow{i_{n-1}^*} \cdots$$

The connecting morphism $i_n^* : Z_n^* \rightarrow B_n^*$ are in fact the dual of the inclusion map $i_n : B_n \rightarrow Z_n$ ¹. One takes an element of Z_n^* , pulls it back to C_n^* , applies ∂_{n+1}^* to get an element of C_{n+1}^* , then pulls this back to B_n^* . The first of these steps extends a homomorphism $\phi_0 : Z_n \rightarrow G$ to $\phi : C_n \rightarrow G$, the second step composes this ϕ with ∂_{n+1} to yield a map $C_{n+1} \rightarrow G$ and the third step undoes this composition and restricts ϕ to B_n ². The net effect is just to restrict ϕ_0 from Z_n to B_n . A long exact sequence can always be broken up into short exact sequences, yielding:

$$0 \longrightarrow \text{coker } i_{n-1}^* \longrightarrow H^n(C_\bullet; G) \longrightarrow \ker i_{n-1}^* \longrightarrow 0$$

$\ker i_{n-1}^*$ can be identified with $\text{Hom}(H_n(C_\bullet), G)$. This is because elements of $\ker i_n^*$ are homomorphisms $Z_n \rightarrow G$ that vanish on the subgroup B_n , and such homomorphisms are the same as homomorphisms $Z_n/B_n \rightarrow G$. Under this identification of $\ker i_n^*$ with $\text{Hom}(H_n(C_\bullet), G)$, the map $H_n(C_\bullet; G) \rightarrow \ker i_n^*$ becomes the map h considered earlier. Hence:

$$0 \longrightarrow \text{coker } i_{n-1}^* \longrightarrow H^n(C_\bullet; G) \xrightarrow{h} \text{Hom}(H_n(C_\bullet), G) \longrightarrow 0$$

What about $\text{coker } i_{n-1}^*$? Consider the short exact sequence:

$$0 \longrightarrow B_{n-1} \xrightarrow{i_{n-1}} Z_{n-1} \longrightarrow H_{n-1}(C_\bullet) \longrightarrow 0$$

The exact sequence above is a free resolution of $H_{n-1}(C_\bullet)$. There is an associated natural exact sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow H_{n-1}^*(C_\bullet) \rightarrow Z_{n-1}^* \rightarrow B_{n-1}^* \rightarrow \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(C_\bullet), G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}(Z_{n-1}, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}(B_{n-1}, G) \rightarrow 0$$

We see that $\text{coker } i_{n-1}^*$ is the first cohomology group of the free resolution of $H_{n-1}(C_\bullet)$. This group is $\text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(C_\bullet), G)$, proving the claim. \square

Remark 6.4.2. *We have*

$$H^n(X; G) = \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}), G) \oplus \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(X; \mathbb{Z}), G).$$

This is because in the course of the proof of Proposition 6.4.1, we constructed a morphism

$$\text{Hom}(H_n(C_\bullet), G) \rightarrow H^n(C_\bullet; G)$$

that ensures that the sequence splits.

Corollary 6.4.3. *Let $(C_\bullet, \partial_\bullet)$ be a chain complex so that its \mathbb{Z} -homology groups are finitely generated. Let $T_n = \text{Torsion}(H_n)$. We have*

$$0 \rightarrow T_{n-1} \rightarrow H^n(C_\bullet; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n/T_n \rightarrow 0$$

This sequence splits³, so:

$$H^n(C_\bullet; \mathbb{Z}) \cong T_{n-1} \oplus H_n/T_n.$$

PROOF. Clear. \square

Let us now derive some immediate consequences of the UCT:

¹Hence the use of the suggestive notation.

²Go back to the short exact sequence analyzed to prove surjectivity to see why the third step has this effect.

³Since H_n/T_n is free and hence projective.

- (1) If $n = 0$, we have

$$H^0(X; G) = \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(H_0(X), G) \cong \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}^{\# \text{path components}}, G)$$

- (2) If $n = 1$, the Ext-term vanishes since $H_0(X)$ is free, so we get:

$$H^1(X; G) = \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(H_1(X), G)$$

Remark 6.4.4. *There is also a universal coefficient theorem for cohomology where \mathbb{Z} is replaced by a PID, R and G is a R -module. In this case, we have*

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Ext}_R^1(H_{n-1}(X; R), G) \rightarrow H^n(X; G) \xrightarrow{h} \text{Hom}_R(H_n(X; R), G) \rightarrow 0.$$

This comes from first establishing that Ext_R^n vanishes for $n \geq 2$ for when R is a PID, and then going through a proof for universal coefficient theorem as above.

6.5. Eilenberg-Steenrod Axioms

We have defined singular cohomology. There are many other cohomology theories: sheaf cohomology, Čech cohomology, etc. All these cohomology theories satisfy the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms. The purpose of this section is to state these axioms and prove that singular cohomology satisfies these axioms.

Definition 6.5.1. (Eilenberg-Steenrod Axioms) Let G be an abelian group. A (unreduced) cohomology theory consists of

- (1) A family of functors $H^n : \mathbf{Top}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ for $n \geq 0$, and
- (2) A family of natural transformations $\gamma^n : H^n \rightarrow H^{n+1} \circ p$, where p is the functor sending (X, A) to (A, \emptyset) and $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ to $f|_B : (A, \emptyset) \rightarrow (B, \emptyset)$.

such that the following axioms are satisfied:

- (a) (Homotopy invariance) If $f, g : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ are homotopic maps, then the induced maps

$$H^n(f), H^n(g) : H^n(X, A) \rightarrow H^n(Y, B)$$

are such that $H^n(f) = H^n(g)$ for $n \geq 0$. In other words, H^n may be regarded as a functor from \mathbf{hTop} to \mathbf{Ab} .

- (b) (Long exact sequence) For every pair (X, A) , the inclusions

$$(A, \emptyset) \xrightarrow{i} (X, \emptyset) \xrightarrow{j} (X, A)$$

give rise to a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \rightarrow H^n(X, A) \xrightarrow{j_n^*} H^n(X) \xrightarrow{i_n^*} H^n(A) \xrightarrow{\gamma^n} H^{n+1}(X, A) \xrightarrow{j_{n+1}^*} H^{n+1}(X) \xrightarrow{i_{n+1}^*} H^{n+1}(A) \rightarrow \cdots$$

- (c) (Excision) If $Z \subseteq A \subseteq X$ are topological spaces such that $\overline{Z} \subseteq \text{Int}(A)$, the inclusion of pairs $(X \setminus Z, A \setminus Z) \subseteq (X, A)$ induces isomorphisms

$$H^n(X \setminus Z, A \setminus Z) \rightarrow H^n(X, A)$$

for all $n \geq 0$.

- (d) (Multiplicativity) If $X = \coprod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$ and $A = \coprod_{\alpha} A_{\alpha}$ is the disjoint union of a family of topological spaces X_{α} , then

$$H^n(X, A) = \prod_{\alpha} H^n(X_{\alpha}, A_{\alpha})$$

for each $n \geq 0$.

Additionally, if a cohomology theory satisfies the following additional axiom

(e) (Dimension Axiom) For any one-point set $X = \{\bullet\}$,

$$H^n(X) = \begin{cases} G & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

the the cohomology theory is called an ordinary cohomology theory.

The purpose of the remainder of this section is to show that singular cohomology satisfies the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms.

6.5.1. Relative cohomology groups. We first construct the relative cohomology group that shall allow us to construct the appropriate functors from **Top** to **Ab**. We apply the $\text{Hom}(-, G)$ functor to the the relative singular chain complex to get

$$C^n(X, A; G) := \text{Hom}(C_n(X, A), G).$$

The group $C^n(X, A; G)$ can be identified with functions from the set of n -simplices in X to G that vanish on simplices in A , so we have a natural inclusion

$$C^n(X, A; G) \hookrightarrow C^n(X; G)$$

The relative coboundary maps

$$\bar{\delta}^n : C^n(X, A; G) \rightarrow C^{n+1}(X, A; G)$$

are obtained by restricting δ^n . We have a co-chain complex $(C^\bullet(X, A), \bar{\delta}^\bullet)$.

Definition 6.5.2. Let $A \subseteq X$ be a subspace of a topological space X . The n -th relative cohomology group, $H^n(X, A)$, is the n -th homology group of the chain complex $(C^\bullet(X, A), \bar{\delta}^\bullet)$. That is:

$$H^n(X, A) = \frac{\text{Ker } \bar{\delta}^n}{\text{Im } \bar{\delta}^{n+1}}$$

Similar to [Proposition 6.2.4](#), it is easily checked that each H^n is a functor from **Top**² to **Ab**. This effectively checks the first two conditons in the definition of the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms.

Remark 6.5.3. *Since the cohomology of the empty set is trivial for all $n \geq 0$, we have:*

$$H^n(X, \emptyset) = H^n(X), \quad \forall n \geq 0.$$

Remark 6.5.4. *Universal coefficient theorem continues to hold true for relative cohomology. The proof is identical as the one given before.*

We now prove that singular cohomology satisfies the long exact sequence axiom. The importance of the long exact sequence axiom is that it allows us to compute cohomology groups of various spaces in using an ‘inductive’ and/or ‘bottom-up’ approach. Applying by the $\text{Hom}(-, G)$ functor to the short exact sequence,

$$0 \rightarrow C_n(A) \xrightarrow{i_n} C_n(X) \xrightarrow{j_n} C_n(X, A) \rightarrow 0,$$

we get another short exact sequence⁴

$$0 \leftarrow C^n(A; G) \xleftarrow{i^*} C^n(X; G) \xleftarrow{j^*} C^n(X, A; G) \leftarrow 0.$$

⁴ $\text{Hom}(-, G)$ is only a left exact functor in general. But it can be checked in this case that the resulting sequence is both left exact and right exact.

Since i_n and j_n commute with the boundary maps, it follows that i_n^* and j_n^* commute with co-boundary maps. So we obtain a short exact sequence of cochain complexes:

$$0 \leftarrow C^\bullet(A; G) \xleftarrow{i^*} C^\bullet(X; G) \xleftarrow{j^*} C^\bullet(X, A; G) \leftarrow 0.$$

By taking the associated long exact sequence of homology groups, we get the long exact sequence for the cohomology groups of the pair (X, A) :

$$\cdots \rightarrow H^n(X, A; G) \xrightarrow{j_n^*} H^n(X; G) \xrightarrow{i_n^*} H^n(A; G) \xrightarrow{\gamma^n} H^{n+1}(X, A; G) \xrightarrow{j_{n+1}^*} H^{n+1}(X; G) \xrightarrow{i_{n+1}^*} \cdots$$

This shows that the long exact sequence axiom is satisfied.

6.5.2. Homotopy Invariance. We now show that singular cohomology satisfies the homotopy invariance property.

Proposition 6.5.5. (Homotopy Invariance) *Let X, Y be topological spaces, and let G be an abelian group. If $f \simeq g : X \rightarrow Y$ are homotopic maps, then*

$$H^n(f) = H^n(g) : H^n(Y, G) \rightarrow H^n(X, G).$$

PROOF. Recall from the proof of the similar statement for homology that a chain homotopy between $C_\bullet(X, A; G)$ and $C_\bullet(Y, B; G)$ is given by a prism operator

$$T_n : C_n(X, A; G) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(Y, B; G)$$

satisfying

$$f_n - g_n = T_{n-1} \circ \partial_n + \partial'_{n+1} \circ T_n$$

with f_n and g_n being the induced maps on singular chain complexes. The claim about cohomology follows by applying the $\text{Hom}(-, G)$ functor to the prism operator to get

$$T^n : C^{n+1}(Y, B; G) \rightarrow C^n(X, A; G)$$

which satisfies

$$f^n - g^n = \partial_n^* \circ T^{n-1} + T^n \circ \partial_{n+1}'.$$

Hence, we have a chain homotopy between $C^\bullet(X, A; G)$ and $C^\bullet(Y, B; G)$. It is now a standard fact that a chain homotopy induces the same maps on homology groups. Hence,

$$H^n(f) = H^n(g)$$

for each $n \geq 0$. □

Corollary 6.5.6. *If X is contractible, then $H^n(X) = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$.*

PROOF. Immediate from the homotopy invariance of singular cohomology and that $H^n(\{*\}) = 0$ for $n \geq 1$. □

6.5.3. Excision. We now prove that singular cohomology satisfies the excision axiom. The important of the excision axiom is that if $A \subseteq X$ and n -cochains are “sufficiently inside” of A , we can cut A out without affecting the relative cohomology groups $H^n(X, A)$. Here is the formal statement we’d like to prove in this section:

Proposition 6.5.7. (Excision) *Given a topological space X , suppose that $Z \subset A \subset X$, with $\overline{Z} \subseteq \text{int}(A)$. Then the inclusion of pairs $i : (X \setminus Z, A \setminus Z) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ induces isomorphisms:*

$$i^n : H^n(X, A; G) \rightarrow H^n(X \setminus Z, A \setminus Z; G)$$

for all n . Equivalently, if A and B are subsets of X with $X = \text{int}(A) \cup \text{int}(B)$, then the inclusion map $(B, A \cap B) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ induces isomorphisms in cohomology.

PROOF. Excision for singular homology implies that left and right maps in the diagram below are isomorphisms.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 0 & \longrightarrow & \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(X, A), G) & \longrightarrow & H^n(X, A; G) & \longrightarrow & \text{Hom}(H_n(X, A), G) \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\
 0 & \rightarrow & \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(X \setminus Z, A \setminus Z), G) & \rightarrow & H^n(X \setminus Z, A \setminus Z; G) & \rightarrow & \text{Hom}(H_n(X \setminus Z, A \setminus Z), G) \rightarrow 0
 \end{array}$$

The five-lemma then implies that the middle map is also an isomorphism. This completes the proof. \square

6.5.4. Dimension Axiom. Let $X = \{*\}$ be a single point space. By [Proposition 6.4.1](#), we have:

$$H^n(X; G) = \text{Hom}(H_n(X), G) \oplus \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(X), G).$$

Since

$$H_n(X) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

we get

$$\text{Hom}(H_n(X), G) \cong \begin{cases} G, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Furthermore, since $H_n(X)$ is free for all n , we also have that $\text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(X), G) = 0$, for all n . Therefore,

$$H^n(X; G) = \begin{cases} G, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

6.5.5. Multiplicativity Axiom. The multiplicativity axiom is easily seen to hold using the universal coefficient theorem in relative cohomology. Let $X = \coprod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$ and $A = \coprod_{\alpha} A_{\alpha}$. We have:

$$\begin{aligned}
 H^n(X, A; G) &= \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(X, A); G) \oplus \text{Hom}(H_n(X, A); G) \\
 &= \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(\coprod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}, \coprod_{\alpha} A_{\alpha}); G) \oplus \text{Hom}(H_n(\coprod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}, \coprod_{\alpha} A_{\alpha}); G) \\
 &= \text{Ext}(\bigoplus_{\alpha} H_{n-1}(X_{\alpha}, A_{\alpha}); G) \oplus \text{Hom}(\bigoplus_{\alpha} H_n(X_{\alpha}, A_{\alpha}); G) \\
 &= \prod_{\alpha} \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(X_{\alpha}, A_{\alpha}); G) \oplus \prod_{\alpha} \text{Hom}(H_n(X_{\alpha}, A_{\alpha}); G) \\
 &= \prod_{\alpha} \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(X_{\alpha}, A_{\alpha}); G) \oplus \text{Hom}(H_n(X_{\alpha}, A_{\alpha}); G) = \prod_{\alpha} H^n(X_{\alpha}, A_{\alpha}; G)
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we see that singular cohomology satisfies the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms.

Remark 6.5.8. *The Mayer-Vietoris sequence is a formal consequence of the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms. Therefore, we have that Mayer-Vietoris holds for singular cohomology: if*

X be a topological space, and A and B are open subsets of X such that $X = \text{int}(A) \cup \text{int}(B)$, then there is a long exact sequence of cohomology groups:

$$\cdots \rightarrow H^n(X; G) \xrightarrow{\psi} H^n(A; G) \oplus H^n(B; G) \xrightarrow{\phi} H^n(A \cap B; G) \rightarrow \cdots$$

We also have a Mayer-Vietoris sequence in relative cohomology groups.

Remark 6.5.9. We can also define reduced cohomology. Consider the augmented singular chain complex for X :

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\partial_3} C_2 \xrightarrow{\partial_2} C_1 \xrightarrow{\partial_1} C_0 \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$$

where $\varepsilon(\sum_i n_i x_i) = \sum_i n_i$. After applying the $\text{Hom}(-, G)$ functor, we get the augmented co-chain complex:

$$\xleftarrow{\partial_3^*} C_2^* \xleftarrow{\partial_2^*} C_1^* \xleftarrow{\partial_1^*} C_0^* \xleftarrow{\varepsilon^*} \mathbb{Z} \leftarrow 0$$

Note that since $\varepsilon \circ \partial_1 = 0$, we get by applying the $\text{Hom}(-, G)$ functor that $\partial_1^* \circ \varepsilon^* = 0$. The cohomology of this augmented cochain complex is the reduced cohomology of X with G -coefficients, denoted by $\tilde{H}^n(X; G)$. It follows by definition that

$$\tilde{H}^n(X; G) = H^n(X; G) \quad n > 0$$

and by the universal coefficient theorem (applied to the augmented chain complex), we get

$$\tilde{H}^0(X; G) = \text{Hom}(\tilde{H}^0(X), G).$$

Remark 6.5.10. If (X, A) is a good pair, then the long exact sequence in reduced cohomology holds true. This is because the analogous result is a formal consequence of the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms.

$$\cdots \rightarrow H^n(X, A; G) \rightarrow \tilde{H}^n(X; G) \rightarrow \tilde{H}^n(A; G) \rightarrow H^{n+1}(X, A; G) \rightarrow \cdots$$

In particular, if $A = \{*\}$ is a point in X , we get that

$$\tilde{H}^n(X; G) \cong H^n(X, x_0; G)$$

for $n \geq 1$. Moreover, we have

$$H^n(X, A; G) \cong H^n(X/A; G)$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The proof is the same as in the homology case since it is a formal consequence of the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms and the hypothesis on the space. Also, if each X_α is path-connected, we have

$$\tilde{H}^n\left(\bigvee_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}\right) = \prod_{\alpha} \tilde{H}^n(X_{\alpha})$$

for $n \geq 0$. Once again, the proof is similar to the proof in the case of singular homology. We also have a Mayer-Vietoris sequence in reduced cohomology.

Remark 6.5.11. We can define simplicial cohomology and cellular cohomology in exactly the same way as expected. As expected, simplicial cohomology and cellular cohomology are isomorphic to singular cohomology.

6.6. Examples

The purpose of this section is to compute cohomology groups of some topological spaces. We begin by looking at some specific examples.

Example 6.6.1. (Contractible Spaces) Let X be a contractible topological space. We have:

$$H^n(X; G) = \begin{cases} G, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

This follows immediately by the homotopy invariance of cohomology groups since X homotopy equivalent to a point.

Example 6.6.2. (Spheres) Let $X = \mathbb{S}^n$. Then we have

$$H_k(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } k = n = 0 \\ \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } k = n > 0, k = 0, n > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Since, \mathbb{Z} and $\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$ are free-abelian groups, the Ext term in the UCT for cohomology vanishes for each k . Hence,

$$H^k(\mathbb{S}^n, G) \cong \text{Hom}(H_k(\mathbb{S}^n, \mathbb{Z}), G) \cong \begin{cases} G \oplus G, & \text{if } k = n = 0 \\ G, & \text{if } k = n > 0, k = 0, n > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

for each $k \geq 0$.

Remark 6.6.3. We can also compute the cohomology groups of \mathbb{S}^n by using the above Mayer-Vietoris sequence. Cover \mathbb{S}^n by two open sets $A = \mathbb{S}^n \setminus \{N\}$ and $B = \mathbb{S}^n \setminus \{S\}$, where N and S are the North and South poles of \mathbb{S}^n . Then we have

$$A \cap B \simeq \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \quad A \simeq B \simeq \mathbb{R}^n$$

Thus, by the Mayer-Vietoris sequence for reduced cohomology, homotopy invariance, and induction, we get:

$$\tilde{H}^k(\mathbb{S}^n; G) \cong \tilde{H}_{k-n}(\mathbb{S}^0; G) \cong \begin{cases} G, & \text{if } k = n \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

for each $k \geq 0$.

Example 6.6.4. (Möbius Band) Let M denote the Möbius band. Since M is homotopic to \mathbb{S}^1 . we have,

$$H^k(M, G) \cong \begin{cases} G, & \text{if } k = 0, 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

for each $k \geq 0$.

Example 6.6.5. (Torus) Let $X = \mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1$. Recall that we have,

$$H_n(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 1 \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 0, 2 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

Since, \mathbb{Z} and $\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$ are free-abelian groups, the Ext term in the UCT for cohomology vanishes for each k . Hence,

$$H^n(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1, G) \cong \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(H_n(\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1, \mathbb{Z}), G) \cong \begin{cases} G \oplus G & \text{for } n = 1 \\ G & \text{for } n = 0, 2 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

Example 6.6.6. (Klein Bottle) Let $X = K$ be the Klein bottle. Recall that we have,

$$H_n(K, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } n = 0 \\ \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 & \text{for } n = 1 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

Note that we have,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ext}(H_0(K, \mathbb{Z}), G) &= 0, \\ \text{Ext}(H_1(K, \mathbb{Z}), G) &\cong \text{Ext}(\mathbb{Z}_2, G) \cong G/2G \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have

$$\begin{aligned} H^n(K, G) &\cong \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(H_n(K, \mathbb{Z}), G) \oplus \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(K, \mathbb{Z}), G) \\ &\cong \begin{cases} G, & \text{for } n = 0, \\ G \oplus G/2G, & \text{for } n = 1, \\ G/2G, & \text{for } n = 2, \\ 0, & \text{for } n \geq 3. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

The case $G = \mathbb{Z}_2$ is important. Then,

$$H^n(K, \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}_2 & \text{for } n = 0, 2, \\ \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 & \text{for } n = 1 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

Example 6.6.7. (Real Projective Space) Let $X = \mathbb{RP}^n$. Recall that we have,

$$H_k(\mathbb{RP}^n, \mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}_2 & \text{if } k \text{ is odd, } 0 < k < n, \\ \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } k = 0, n \text{ is odd,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Note that $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}_2, G) \cong G_2 = \{g \in G \mid 2g = 0\}$ and $\text{Ext}(\mathbb{Z}_2, G) \cong G/2G$. If n is odd, we have:

$$H^k(\mathbb{RP}^n, G) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{if } k = 0, n, \\ G/2G & \text{if } k \text{ is even, } 0 < k < n, \\ G_2 & \text{if } k \text{ is odd, } 0 < k < n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

If n is even, we have:

$$H^k(\mathbb{RP}^n, G) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{if } k = 0, \\ G/2G & \text{if } k \text{ is even, } 0 < k \leq n, \\ G_2 & \text{if } k \text{ is odd, } 0 < k < n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Remark 6.6.8. The case $G = \mathbb{Z}_2$ in *Example 6.6.7* is important. We have

$$H^k(\mathbb{RP}^n, \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}_2 & k = 0, \dots, n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Example 6.6.9. (Complex Projective Space) Let $X = \mathbb{CP}^n$. Recall that we have,

$$H_k(\mathbb{CP}^n, \mathbb{Z}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } k = 0, 2, 4, \dots, 2n \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Since \mathbb{Z} is a free abelian group, all the Ext terms in the UCT for cohomology vanish. Hence,

$$H^k(\mathbb{CP}^n, G) \cong \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(H_k(\mathbb{CP}^n, \mathbb{Z}), G) \cong \begin{cases} G, & \text{if } k = 0, 2, 4, \dots, 2n \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

CHAPTER 7

de-Rham Cohomology

This chapter assumes knowledge of smooth manifolds theory.

7.1. de-Rham Cohomology

7.1.1. Definitions. Singular cohomology is quite abstract and somewhat useless unless we develop algebraic computational tools to compute singular cohomology. We now discuss de Rham cohomology for smooth manifolds. This cohomology theory is quite geometric because it is phrased in terms of differential forms on smooth manifolds. Let M be a smooth manifold. Since

$$d^2 = d \circ d : \Omega^{k-1}(M) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^k(M) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega^{k+1}(M)$$

is the zero operator for every $k \geq 1$, we have

$$\operatorname{im} (d : \Omega^{k-1}(M) \rightarrow \Omega^k(M)) \subseteq \ker (d : \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(M)).$$

Thus, $\operatorname{im} d$ is a subspace of $\ker d$ for all $k \geq 1$.

Remark 7.1.1. Let M be a smooth n -dimensional manifold. For convenience, we set $\Omega^k(M) = \{0\}$ for all $k < 0$ and $k > n$. Moreover, we set

$$d = 0 : \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(M)$$

for all $k < 0$ and $k \geq n$. Then the inclusion above holds for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Definition 7.1.2. Let M be a smooth manifold. The quotient vector space

$$H_{\text{dR}}^k(M) = \frac{\ker(d : \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(M))}{\operatorname{im}(d : \Omega^{k-1}(M) \rightarrow \Omega^k(M))} = \frac{\{\omega \in \Omega^k(M) : d\omega = 0\}}{\{d\omega : \omega \in \Omega^{k-1}(M)\}}$$

is the k -th de Rham cohomology group of M .

Let M be a smooth manifold. A form $\omega \in \Omega^k(M)$ is closed if $d\omega = 0$ and exact if there exists a $(k-1)$ -form $\tau \in \Omega^{k-1}(M)$ for which $d\tau = \omega$. Since $d \circ d = 0$, every exact form is closed. hus,

$$H_{\text{dR}}^k(M) = \frac{\{\text{closed } k\text{-forms in } M\}}{\{\text{exact } k\text{-forms in } M\}}$$

This suggests that **Definition 7.1.2** measures the failure of closed forms to be exact forms. Indeed, every closed form need not be exact:

Example 7.1.3. Consider the 1-form on $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ defined by:

$$\omega = \frac{x dy - y dx}{x^2 + y^2}$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} d\omega &= \frac{(dx \wedge dy - dy \wedge dx)(x^2 + y^2) - (2x dx + 2y dy)(x dy - y dx)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} \\ &= \frac{2(x^2 + y^2) dx \wedge dy - (2x^2 dx \wedge dy - 2y^2 dy \wedge dx)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

So, ω is closed. But writing ω in polar coordinates and integrating around a circle centered at 0 in $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ gives

$$\int_{\mathbb{S}^1} \omega = 2\pi.$$

If $\omega = d\eta$ were exact, Stokes' theorem would imply

$$0 = \int_{\emptyset} \eta = \int_{\partial \mathbb{S}^1} \eta = \int_{\mathbb{S}^1} d\eta = \int_{\mathbb{S}^1} \omega = 2\pi.$$

Hence, ω is not exact.

Remark 7.1.4. Elements $H^k(M)$ are equivalence classes of k -forms. Given $\omega \in \ker(d : \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(M))$, we denote the equivalence class by

$$[\omega] = \{\omega + d\tau \in \Omega^k(M) : \tau \in \Omega^{k-1}(M)\}.$$

Therefore, $H_{dR}^k(M)$ is a vector space that classifies the closed k -forms in M up to exact forms.

7.1.2. Properties of de Rham cohomology. We now discuss several algebraic properties of de Rham cohomology, which are analogous to the properties of singular cohomology for general topological spaces. We first show that the de Rham cohomology defines a contravariant functor from the category of smooth manifolds, **Man**, to the category of abelian groups, **Ab**.

Proposition 7.1.5. Let M, N be smooth manifolds and let $F : M \rightarrow N$ be a smooth map. For each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, let $F^* : \Omega^k(N) \rightarrow \Omega^k(M)$ be the pullback map.

- (1) For each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, F^* descends to a linear map $F^\# : H_{dR}^k(N) \rightarrow H_{dR}^k(M)$ between the de Rham cohomology groups given by $F^\#[\omega] = [F^*\omega]$.
- (2) (**Functoriality**) For each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $H_{dR}^k : \mathbf{Man} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ is a contravariant functor.

PROOF. We shall use the fact that the exterior derivative commutes with pullbacks. The proof is given below:

- (1) Let ω is a closed form. Then

$$d(F^*\omega) = F^*(d\omega) = 0$$

Hence, $F^*\omega$ is also closed a form. This shows that $F^*\omega$ restricts to a map

$$F^* : \{\text{closed } k - \text{forms on } N\} \rightarrow \{\text{closed } k - \text{forms on } M\}$$

Now let $\omega = d\eta$ be an exact form. Then

$$F^*\omega = F^*(d\eta) = d(F^*\eta),$$

Hence, $F^*\omega$ is also an exact form. This shows that F^* descends to a well-defined map map

$$F^\# : H_{dR}^k(N) \rightarrow H_{dR}^k(M)$$

given by $F^\#[\omega] = [F^*\omega]$.

(2) This follows from (1).

This completes the proof. \square

Proposition 7.1.6. (de Rham Cohomology of Disjoint Unions) *Let $\{M_j\}_{j \in J}$ be a countable collection of smooth n -dimensional manifolds. Let $M = \bigsqcup_{j \in J} M_j$. For each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, the inclusion maps $i_j : M_j \hookrightarrow M$ induce an isomorphism*

$$H_{dR}^k(M) \cong \prod_{j \in J} H_{dR}^k(M_j)$$

PROOF. The pullback maps $i_j^* : H^k(M) \rightarrow H^k(M_j)$ induce an isomorphism from

$$i : H^k(M) \rightarrow \prod_{j \in J} H^k(M_j), \quad i(\omega) \mapsto (i_j^*(\omega))_{j \in J} = (\omega|_{M_j})_{j \in J}$$

This map is injective because any smooth k -form whose restriction to each M_j is zero must itself be zero, and it is surjective because giving an arbitrary smooth k -form on each M_j defines one on M . \square

We now discuss the homotopy invariance of de Rham cohomology, allowing us to show that de Rham cohomology is a topological invariant. If M and N are smooth manifolds, and $F, G : M \rightarrow N$ are smooth maps, we shall show homotopy invariance by constructing a co-chain homotopy between $F^\#$ and $G^\#$ which are given by linear maps

$$h_k : \Omega^k(N) \rightarrow \Omega^{k-1}(M)$$

for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$F^\#(\omega) - G^\#(\omega) = d(h_k \omega) - h_{k+1}(d\omega)$$

for each $\omega \in \Omega^k(N)$ and $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \xrightarrow{d} & \Omega^{k-1}(N) & \xrightarrow{d} & \Omega^k(N) & \xrightarrow{d} & \Omega^{k+1}(N) \xrightarrow{d} \cdots \\ & & \downarrow F^\# - G^\# & \swarrow h_k & \downarrow F^\# - G^\# & \swarrow h_{k+1} & \downarrow F^\# - G^\# \\ \cdots & \xrightarrow{d} & \Omega^{k-1}(M) & \xrightarrow{d} & \Omega^k(M) & \xrightarrow{d} & \Omega^{k+1}(M) \xrightarrow{d} \cdots \end{array}$$

The key to our proof of homotopy invariance is to construct a homotopy operator first in the following special case. Let M be a smooth manifold, and for each $t \in I$, let

$$i_t : M \rightarrow M \times I$$

be the map $i_t(x) = (x, t)$. We first construct a co-chain homotopy between $i_0^\#$ and $i_1^\#$.

Lemma 7.1.7. *Let M be a smooth n -dimensional manifold. There exists a co-chain homotopy between the two maps $i_0^\#$ and $i_1^\#$.*

PROOF. For each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, we need to define a linear map

$$h_k : \Omega^k(M \times I) \rightarrow \Omega^{k-1}(M)$$

such that

$$(*) \quad h_{k+1}(d\omega) + d(h_k \omega) = i_1^\#(\omega) - i_0^\#(\omega)$$

for each $\omega \in \Omega^k(M \times I)$. Let S be the vector field on $M \times \mathbb{R}$ given by $S(p, s) = (0, \frac{\partial}{\partial s}|_s)$. Given $\omega \in \Omega^k(M \times I)$, define $h_k(\omega) \in \Omega^{k-1}(M)$ by

$$h_k(\omega) = \int_0^1 i_t^\#(S \lrcorner \omega) dt.$$

We shall verify the formula in (*) in local coordinates. For $p \in M$, let $U = (x^1, \dots, x^n)$ denote a co-ordinate chart containing then. Then $U \times \mathbb{R} = (x^1, \dots, x^n, s)$ is a co-ordinate chart containing (p, s) for each $s \in \mathbb{R}$. In coordinates:

$$\omega = \sum_I \omega_I^1(x, s) ds \wedge dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_k} + \sum_J \omega_I^2(x, s) dx^{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{j_k}$$

where I, J range over all increasing k -multi-indices over $\{1, \dots, n\}$. We have,

$$S \lrcorner \omega = \sum_I \omega_I^1(x, s) dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_k}$$

$$i_t^\#(S \lrcorner \omega) = i_t^\# \left(\sum_I \omega_I^1(x, s) dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_k} \right) = \sum_I \omega_I^1(x, s) dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_k}$$

We have,

$$d(h_k \omega) = d \int_0^1 i_t^\#(S \lrcorner \omega) dt$$

$$= d \int_0^1 \left(\sum_I \omega_I^1(x, t) dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_k} \right) dt = \sum_I \int_0^1 \left(\frac{\partial \omega_I^1(x, t)}{\partial x^j} dx^j \wedge dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_k} \right) dt.$$

We now compute $h_{k+1}(d\omega)$. Here d is the exterior derivative on $M \times I$. First note that,

$$d\omega = \sum_I \frac{\partial \omega_I^1(x, s)}{\partial x^j} dx^j \wedge dt \wedge dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_k} + \sum_J \frac{\partial \omega_I^2(x, s)}{\partial x^l} dx^l \wedge dx^{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{j_k} + \sum_J \frac{\partial \omega_I^2(x, s)}{\partial s} ds \wedge dx^{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{j_k}$$

We now find $h_{k+1}(d\omega)$, which is given by the expression:

$$h_{k+1}(d\omega) = \int_0^1 i_t^\#(S \lrcorner d\omega) dt$$

We have,

$$S \lrcorner d\omega = \sum_J \frac{\partial \omega_I^2(x, s)}{\partial s} ds \wedge dx^{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{j_k} - \sum_I \frac{\partial \omega_I^1(x, s)}{\partial x^j} dt \wedge dx^j \wedge dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_k}$$

Therefore, we have,

$$h_{k+1}(d\omega) = \int_0^1 i_t^\#(S \lrcorner d\omega) dt$$

$$= \int_0^1 \left(\sum_J \frac{\partial \omega_I^2(x, t)}{\partial s} dx^{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{j_k} - \sum_I \frac{\partial \omega_I^1(x, t)}{\partial x^j} dx^j \wedge dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_k} \right) dt$$

We have,

$$d(h_k \omega) + h_{k+1}(d\omega) = \int_0^1 \left(\sum_J \frac{\partial \omega_I^2(x, t)}{\partial s} dx^{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{j_k} \right) dt$$

Noting that,

$$i_t^\#(\omega) = \sum_J \omega_I^2(x, t) dx^{j_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{j_k},$$

we have,

$$\frac{di_t^\#(\omega)}{dt} = \sum_J \frac{\partial \omega_I^2(x, t)}{\partial t} dx^{j_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{j_k}$$

As a result, we have,

$$d(h_k \omega) + h_{k+1}(d\omega) = \int_0^1 \frac{di_t^\#(\omega)}{dt} dt = i_1^\#(\omega) - i_0^\#(\omega)$$

Hence, (*) holds in every co-ordinate chart. This proves the claim. \square

Proposition 7.1.8. *Let M and N be smooth manifolds. If $F, G : M \rightarrow N$ are smoothly homotopic smooth maps, then the induced cohomology maps $F^*, G^* : H_{dR}^k(N) \rightarrow H_{dR}^k(M)$ are equal for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.*

PROOF. There exists a homotopy $H : M \times I \rightarrow N$ from F to G such that $F = H \circ i_0, G = H \circ i_1$. We have,

$$\begin{aligned} F^\# &= (H \circ i_0)^\# = i_0^\# \circ H^*, \\ G^\# &= (H \circ i_1)^\# = i_1^\# \circ H^*. \end{aligned}$$

By Lemma 7.1.7, we know the maps $i_0^\#$ and $i_1^\#$ are equal from $H_{dR}^k(M \times I)$ to $H_{dR}^k(M)$ for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore,

$$F^\# = (H \circ i_0)^\# = i_0^\# \circ H^* = i_1^\# \circ H^* = G^\#$$

This proves the claim. \square

Corollary 7.1.9. (Smooth Homotopy Invariance) *Let M and N be smoothly homotopy equivalent smooth manifolds. Then*

$$H_{dR}^k(M) \cong H_{dR}^k(N)$$

for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

PROOF. Let $F : M \rightarrow N$ and $G : N \rightarrow M$ be smooth maps such that

$$\begin{aligned} G \circ F &\simeq \text{Id}_M \\ F \circ G &\simeq \text{Id}_N \end{aligned}$$

We have,

$$\begin{aligned} (G \circ F)^\# &= F^\# \circ G^\# = \text{Id}_M^\# = \text{Id}_{H^k(M)}, \\ (F \circ G)^\# &= G^\# \circ F^\# = \text{Id}_N^\# = \text{Id}_{H^k(N)}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\text{Id}_M^\#$ is a surjective map, then $F^\#$ is surjective. Moreover, since $\text{Id}_N^\#$ is an injective map, then $F^\#$ is an injective map. Hence, $F^\#$ is a linear map bijection, and hence an isomorphism. Hence, we have

$$H_{dR}^k(M) \cong H_{dR}^k(N)$$

for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. \square

It is clear that if $M = \{*\}$, then $H_{\text{dR}}^k(M) = 0$ for all $k > 0$. We will verify this explicitly later on. If M is a star-like manifold, then by smooth homotopy invariance, $H_{\text{dR}}^k(M) = 0$ for all $k > 0$ since M is contractible. This immediately implies that the famous Poincaré lemma which states that if U is an open star-shaped subset of \mathbb{R}^n , then every closed form on U is exact. A consequence of the Poincaré lemma is that every closed form on a smooth manifold, M , is locally exact. This suggests that the obstruction of solving the equation

$$d\eta = \omega,$$

is connected to a global problem. This hints that the de Rham cohomology group is not affected by the differential structure that is of local nature. This is made precise below:

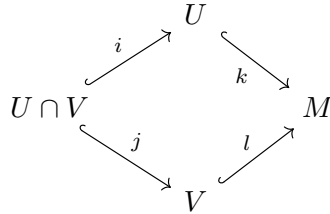
Corollary 7.1.10. (Topological Invariance of de Rham Cohomology) *If M and N are homotopy equivalent,*

$$H_{\text{dR}}^k(M) \cong H_{\text{dR}}^k(N)$$

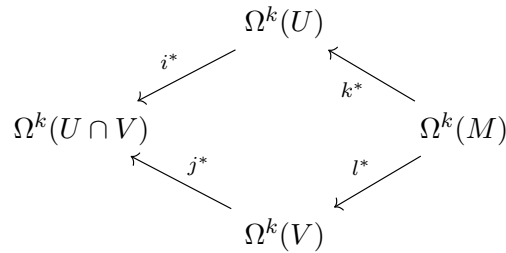
for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

PROOF. By Whitney's approximation theorem, every topological homotopy equivalence can be approximate is homotopic to a smooth homotopy equivalence. The result then follows from [Corollary 7.1.9](#). \square

7.1.3. Mayer–Vietoris Sequence. Suppose M is a smooth manifold, and let U and V be open subsets of M such that $U \cup V = M$. The main goal of using the Mayer-Vietoris Sequence is to compute $H_{\text{dR}}^k(M)$ in terms of $H_{\text{dR}}^k(U)$, $H_{\text{dR}}^k(V)$, and $H_{\text{dR}}^k(U \cap V)$ where $\{U, V\}$ is an open cover of M . We have the following inclusions:



For each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, these inclusion induce pullback maps on differential forms



Note that these pullbacks are in fact just restrictions. If we take some $\omega \in \Omega^k(M)$ and apply the map $k^* \oplus \ell^*$, we get

$$k^* \oplus \ell^*(\omega) : \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^k(U) \oplus \Omega^k(V), \quad k^* \oplus \ell^*(\omega) = (k^*\omega, \ell^*\omega) = (\omega|_U, \omega|_V)$$

Furthermore, if we take $(\omega, \eta) \in \Omega^k(U) \oplus \Omega^k(V)$ and apply the map $i^* - j^*$, we have

$$i^* - j^* : \Omega^k(U) \oplus \Omega^k(V) \rightarrow \Omega^k(U \cap V) \quad (i^* - j^*)(\omega, \eta) = \omega|_{U \cap V} - \eta|_{U \cap V}$$

In other words, we have the following diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
& & \Omega^k(U) & & \\
& \swarrow & & \nwarrow & \\
\Omega^k(U \cap V) & \xleftarrow{i^*} & \Omega^k(U) \oplus \Omega^k(V) & \xleftarrow{k^*} & \Omega^k(M) \\
& \searrow & & \swarrow & \\
& & \Omega^k(V) & &
\end{array}$$

$\xleftarrow{i^*-j^*}$ (between $\Omega^k(U \cap V)$ and $\Omega^k(U) \oplus \Omega^k(V)$)
 $\xleftarrow{j^*}$ (between $\Omega^k(U \cap V)$ and $\Omega^k(V)$)
 $\xleftarrow{k^* \oplus l^*}$ (between $\Omega^k(U) \oplus \Omega^k(V)$ and $\Omega^k(M)$)
 $\xleftarrow{l^*}$ (between $\Omega^k(V)$ and $\Omega^k(M)$)

Proposition 7.1.11. (Mayer–Vietoris Sequence) *Let M be a smooth manifold, and let U, V be open subsets of M such that $M = U \cup V$. For each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, there is a linear map $\delta^k : H_{dR}^k(U \cap V) \rightarrow H_{dR}^{k+1}(M)$ such that the following sequence, called the Mayer-Vietoris sequence for the open cover $\{U, V\}$, is exact:*

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\delta^{k-1}} H_{dR}^k(M) \xrightarrow{k^* \oplus l^*} H_{dR}^k(U) \oplus H_{dR}^k(V) \xrightarrow{i^* - j^*} H_{dR}^k(U \cap V) \xrightarrow{\delta^k} H_{dR}^{k+1}(M) \xrightarrow{k^* \oplus l^*} \cdots$$

PROOF. Consider the following sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow \Omega^k(M) \xrightarrow{k^* \oplus l^*} \Omega^k(U) \oplus \Omega^k(V) \xrightarrow{i^* - j^*} \Omega^k(U \cap V) \rightarrow 0$$

We show that this sequence is a short exact sequence. We first show that $k^* \oplus l^*$ is injective. Suppose that $\sigma \in \Omega^p(M)$ satisfies

$$(k^* \oplus l^*)(\sigma) = (\sigma|_U, \sigma|_V) = (0, 0)$$

This means that the restrictions of σ to U and V are both zero. Since $\{U, V\}$ is an open cover of M , this implies that σ is zero. We now show exactness at $\Omega^k(U) \oplus \Omega^k(V)$. Note that

$$(i^* - j^*) \circ (k^* \oplus l^*)(\sigma) = (i \circ j)(\sigma|_U, \sigma|_V) = \sigma|_{U \cap V} - \sigma|_{U \cap V} = 0,$$

This shows that $\text{Im}(k^* \oplus l^*) \subseteq \ker(i^* - j^*)$. Conversely, suppose we are given $(\alpha, \alpha') \in \Omega^k(U) \oplus \Omega^k(V)$ such that $(i^* \circ j^*)(\alpha, \alpha') = 0$. This means that $\alpha|_{U \cap V} = \alpha'|_{U \cap V}$. So there is $\sigma \in \Omega^k(M)$ defined by

$$\sigma = \begin{cases} \alpha & \text{on } U, \\ \alpha' & \text{on } V. \end{cases}$$

Clearly, $(\alpha, \alpha') = (k \oplus l)(\sigma)$. So $\ker(i^* - j^*) \subseteq \text{im}(k^* \oplus l^*)$. We now show that $i^* - j^*$ is surjective. Let $\omega \in \Omega^k(U \cap V)$. Let $\{\varphi, \psi\}$ be a smooth partition of unity subordinate to the open cover $\{U, V\}$ of M . Define $\alpha \in \Omega^k(U)$ and $\alpha' \in \Omega^k(V)$ by

$$\alpha = \begin{cases} \psi\omega & \text{on } U \cap V, \\ 0 & \text{on } U \setminus \text{supp } \psi \end{cases} \quad \alpha' = \begin{cases} -\varphi\omega & \text{on } U \cap V, \\ 0 & \text{on } U \setminus \text{supp } \varphi \end{cases}$$

We have

$$(i^* - j^*)(\alpha, \alpha') = \alpha|_{U \cap V} - \alpha'|_{U \cap V} = \psi\omega - (-\varphi\omega) = (\psi - \varphi)\omega = \omega.$$

Hence, the sequence is indeed a short exact sequence. Because pullback maps commute with the exterior derivative, above short exact sequence induces the following this will show that we have the following short exact sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow H_{dR}^k(M) \xrightarrow{k^* \oplus l^*} H_{dR}^k(U) \oplus H_{dR}^k(V) \xrightarrow{i^* - j^*} H_{dR}^k(U \cap V) \rightarrow 0$$

Since this is true for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ we get a short exact sequence of co-chain complexes involving the de-Rham cohomology groups. The Mayer–Vietoris theorem then a formal consequence of the snake lemma. \square

The snake lemma defines the connecting morphism

$$H_{\text{dR}}^k(U \cap V) \xrightarrow{\delta^k} H_{\text{dR}}^{k+1}(M)$$

A characterization of the connecting homomorphism is given in the proof of the snake lemma. Recalling it and adapting it to our case, we have that $\delta^k[\omega] = [\sigma]$, provided there exists $(\alpha, \alpha') \in \Omega^k(U) \oplus \Omega^k(V)$ such that

$$i^*\alpha - j^*\alpha' = \omega, \quad (k^*\sigma, l^*\sigma) = (d\alpha, d\alpha').$$

α, α' can be defined as in [Proposition 7.1.11](#) to satisfy the first equation. Given such forms (α, α') , the fact that ω is closed implies that $d\alpha = d\alpha'$ on $U \cap V$. Thus, there is a smooth $(k+1)$ -form σ on M that is equal to $d\alpha$ on U and $d\alpha'$ on V , and it satisfies the second equation.

7.1.4. de Rham cohomology in Degrees Zero & One. It is quite easy to characterize the de Rham cohomology in degree zero.

Proposition 7.1.12. *Let M be a connected smooth manifold. Then $H_{\text{dR}}^0(M)$ is equal to the space of constant functions. Therefore,*

$$H_{\text{dR}}^0(M) \cong \mathbb{R}$$

PROOF. Note that

$$H_{\text{dR}}^0(M) \cong \{\text{closed 0 forms on } M\} \cong \{f \in C^\infty(M) \mid df = 0\}$$

Since M is connected, $df = 0$ if and only if f is constant real-valued function. Therefore,

$$H_{\text{dR}}^0(M) \cong \mathbb{R}$$

This completes the proof. \square

Corollary 7.1.13. *Let M be a smooth manifold. Then*

$$H_{\text{dR}}^0(M) \cong \mathbb{R}^{|J|},$$

where $|J|$ is the number of connected components of M .

PROOF. We have,

$$M = \coprod_{j \in J} M_j,$$

where each M_j is a connected component of M and J is at most countably infinite. By [Proposition 7.1.6](#) and [Proposition 7.1.12](#), we have,

$$H_{\text{dR}}^0(M) \cong \prod_{j \in J} H_{\text{dR}}^0(M_j) \cong \prod_{j \in J} \mathbb{R} \cong \mathbb{R}^{|J|}$$

This completes the proof. \square

Another case in which we can say quite a lot about de Rham cohomology is in degree one. Let $\text{Hom}(\pi_1(M, p), \mathbb{R})$ denote the set of group homomorphisms from $\pi_1(M, p)$ to the additive group \mathbb{R} . We define a linear map $\Phi: H_{\text{dR}}^1(M) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(\pi_1(M, p), \mathbb{R})$ as follows: given a cohomology class $[\omega] \in H_{\text{dR}}^1(M)$, define $\Phi([\omega]): \pi_1(M, p) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$\Phi([\omega])([\gamma]) = \int_{\gamma} \omega,$$

where $[\gamma]$ is any path homotopy class in $\pi_1(M, p)$, and γ is any piecewise smooth curve representing the same path class.

Proposition 7.1.14. *Suppose M is a connected smooth manifold. For each $q \in M$, the linear map $\Phi: H_{\text{dR}}^1(M) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(\pi_1(M, p), \mathbb{R})$ is well defined and injective.*

PROOF. (Sketch) Given $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(M, p)$, it follows from the Whitney approximation theorem that there is some smooth closed curve segment $\tilde{\gamma}$ in the same path class as γ . We use without proof the fact that

$$\int_{\tilde{\gamma}} \omega = \int_{\gamma} \omega$$

for every closed forms, ω and every other smooth closed curve $\tilde{\gamma}$ in the same path class as γ . If $\tilde{\omega}$ is another smooth 1-form in the same cohomology class as ω , then $\tilde{\omega} - \omega = df$ for some smooth function f , which implies

$$\int_{\tilde{\gamma}} \tilde{\omega} - \int_{\tilde{\gamma}} \omega = \int_{\tilde{\gamma}} df = f(q) - f(q) = 0.$$

Thus, Φ is well defined. It follows from properties of the line integral that $\Phi([\omega])$ is a group homomorphism from $\pi_1(M, p)$ to \mathbb{R} , and that Φ itself is a linear map. Suppose $\Phi([\omega])$ is the zero homomorphism. This means that $\int_{\tilde{\gamma}} \omega = 0$ for every piecewise smooth closed curve $\tilde{\gamma}$ with basepoint q . If γ is a piecewise smooth closed curve starting at some other point $q_0 \in M$, we can choose a piecewise smooth curve α from q to q_0 , so that the path product $\alpha \cdot \gamma \cdot \bar{\alpha}$ is a closed curve based at q . It then follows that

$$0 = \int_{\alpha \cdot \gamma \cdot \bar{\alpha}} \omega = \int_{\alpha} \omega + \int_{\gamma} \omega + \int_{\bar{\alpha}} \omega = \int_{\alpha} \omega + \int_{\gamma} \omega - \int_{\alpha} \omega = \int_{\gamma} \omega.$$

Thus, ω is conservative and therefore exact. \square

Corollary 7.1.15. *If M is a connected smooth manifold with finite fundamental group, then $H_{\text{dR}}^1(M) = 0$.*

PROOF. There are no nontrivial homomorphisms from a finite group to \mathbb{R} . The claim follows from Proposition 7.1.14. \square

Remark 7.1.16. *If M is a connected smooth manifold whose fundamental group is a torsion group, then $H_{\text{dR}}^1(M) = 0$. This is because \mathbb{R} has no torsion elements. Hence, $\text{Hom}(\pi_1(M, p), \mathbb{R}) = 0$ in this case.*

7.2. Examples & Applications

We discuss some example computations of de Rham cohomology.

Example 7.2.1. (0-Dimensions) Let M be a 0-dimensional smooth manifold. We have,

$$M \cong \coprod_{i \in I} \{*\}$$

where $|I|$ is the cardinality¹ of M . Then

$$H_{\text{dR}}^k(M) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{R}^{|I|}, & \text{if } k = 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

where $|I|$ is the cardinality of M . This follows at once from [Proposition 7.1.6](#) and [Proposition 7.1.12](#).

Example 7.2.2. (Contractible Manifolds) Let M be contractible manifold. Then,

$$H_{\text{dR}}^k(M) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{R}^{|J|}, & \text{if } k = 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

where $|J|$ is the number of connected components of M . This follows immediately from [Example 7.2.1](#) and [Corollary 7.1.13](#).

Remark 7.2.3. *If M is a star-like manifold, then by homotopy invariance, $H_{\text{dR}}^k(M) = 0$ for all $k > 0$ since M is contractible. This immediately implies that the famous Poincaré lemma which states that if U is an open star-shaped subset of \mathbb{R}^n , then every closed form on U is exact. A consequence of the Poincaré lemma is that every closed form on a smooth manifold, M , is locally exact.*

Example 7.2.4. (Circle) Let's compute the de-Rham cohomology of \mathbb{S}^1 . Clearly, $H_{\text{dR}}^0(\mathbb{S}^1) = \mathbb{R}$ since \mathbb{S}^1 is connected. Write $\mathbb{S}^1 = U \cup V$, where U, V represent the 'northern hemisphere' and 'southern hemisphere'. U, V are contractible and $U \cap V \cong \{\pm 1\}$. The Mayer-Vietoris theorem implies

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \oplus \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \oplus \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow H_{\text{dR}}^1(\mathbb{S}^1) \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \dots$$

This clearly implies that $H_{\text{dR}}^k(\mathbb{S}^1) = 0$ for $k > 2$. We can immediately conclude via exactness that $H_{\text{dR}}^1(\mathbb{S}^1) = \mathbb{R}$. Hence,

$$H_{\text{dR}}^k(\mathbb{S}^1) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{R}, & \text{if } k = 0, 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

We can compute the generator for $H_{\text{dR}}^1(\mathbb{S}^1)$. The generator of is the angular 1-form $d\theta$. Notice that $d\theta$ is not globally defined on the circle since it is a multiple-valued function. Therefore, $d\theta$ is not zero in cohomology and generates $H_{\text{dR}}^1(\mathbb{S}^1)$.

Example 7.2.5. (Spheres) Let's compute the de Rham cohomology of \mathbb{S}^n for $n \geq 1$. We proceed by induction on k to show that

$$H_{\text{dR}}^k(\mathbb{S}^n) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{R}, & \text{if } k = 0, n \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

¹ $|I|$ is at most countably infinite.

We have verified the claim for $k = 1$ in [Example 7.2.4](#). Now assume the claim is true for $n - 1$. Let $U = \mathbb{S}^n \setminus \{N\}$ and $V = \mathbb{S}^n \setminus \{S\}$. We have

$$U \cap V \simeq \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \quad U \simeq V \simeq \mathbb{R}^n$$

The Mayer-Vietoris sequence implies

$$\cdots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow H_{\text{dR}}^{k-1}(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}) \rightarrow H_{\text{dR}}^k(\mathbb{S}^n) \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \cdots$$

This implies that $H_{\text{dR}}^{k-1}(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}) \cong H_{\text{dR}}^k(\mathbb{S}^n)$. The claim now follows via induction and [Example 7.2.4](#).

Example 7.2.6. (Punctured Euclidean Space) Let $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$ for $n \geq 2$. WLOG, we can assume that $p = 0$. We have

$$H_{\text{dR}}^k(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{p\}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{R}, & \text{if } k = 0, n - 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Indeed, the inclusion $\mathbb{S}^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a homotopy equivalence. The claim now follows from [Example 7.2.5](#).

We can now discuss some elementary applications of de-Rham cohomology. We can now prove the topological invariance of the dimension of smooth manifolds.

Proposition 7.2.7. *If $m \neq n$, then \mathbb{R}^n is not homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^m . In particular, if M be a topological n -manifold then its dimension is uniquely determined.*

PROOF. Assume that $\mathbb{R}^m \cong \mathbb{R}^n$. If $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is a homeomorphism, then $f : \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m \setminus \{f(0)\}$ is a homeomorphism. So,

$$H_{\text{dR}}^k(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}) = H_{\text{dR}}^k(\mathbb{R}^m \setminus \{f(0)\}),$$

for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. But $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \cong \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$ and $\mathbb{R}^m \setminus \{f(0)\} \cong \mathbb{S}^{m-1}$. So,

$$H_{\text{dR}}^k(\mathbb{S}^{m-1}) = H_{\text{dR}}^k(\mathbb{S}^{n-1})$$

for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. This is a contradiction by [Example 7.2.5](#). The claim for a topological manifold follows by working in co-ordinate charts. \square

We can also show that the rank of the de-Rham cohomology groups is finite for *most manifolds*. We first need a definition:

Definition 7.2.8. Let M be a smooth n -manifold and $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ an open cover of M . We say $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ is a good cover if for any finite subset $I = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k\} \subseteq \Lambda$ of indices, the intersection

$$U_I := U_{\alpha_1} \cap U_{\alpha_2} \cap \cdots \cap U_{\alpha_k}$$

is either empty or diffeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n .

Remark 7.2.9. *By using the theory of geodesically convex neighborhoods in Riemannian geometry, one can show that any open cover of any smooth manifold M admits a refinement which is a good cover. In particular, if M is compact, then M admits a good cover which contains only finitely many open sets. See [BT13].*

Proposition 7.2.10. *Let M be a smooth n -manifold. If M admits a finite good cover, $\dim H_{\text{dR}}^k(M) < \infty$ for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.*

PROOF. We proceed by induction on the number of sets in a finite good cover of M . If M admits a good cover that contains only one open set, then that open set has to be M itself. In this case, M is diffeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n , and the conclusion follows. Now suppose the theorem holds for any manifold that admits a good cover containing $k - 1$ open sets. Let M be a manifold with a good cover $\{U_1, \dots, U_k\}$. We denote

$$U = U_1 \cup \dots \cup U_{k-1} \quad \text{and} \quad V = U_k.$$

Then $U \cap V$ admits a finite good cover $\{U_1 \cap U_k, \dots, U_{k-1} \cap U_k\}$. By the induction hypothesis, all the de Rham cohomology groups of U , V , and $U \cap V$ are finite-dimensional. Now consider the Mayer-Vietoris sequence:

$$\dots \rightarrow H_{\text{dR}}^{k-1}(U \cap V) \xrightarrow{\delta^{k-1}} H_{\text{dR}}^k(M) \xrightarrow{\alpha^k} H_{\text{dR}}^k(U) \oplus H_{\text{dR}}^k(V) \rightarrow \dots$$

The conclusion follows since

$$\begin{aligned} \dim \text{Im}(\alpha_k) &\leq \dim H_{\text{dR}}^k(U) \oplus H_{\text{dR}}^k(V) < \infty, \\ \dim \ker(\alpha_k) &= \dim \text{Im}(\delta_{k-1}) \leq \dim H_{\text{dR}}^{k-1}(U \cap V) < \infty. \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof. \square

Corollary 7.2.11. *If M is a compact manifold (or M is homotopy equivalent to a compact manifold), then $\dim H_{\text{dR}}^k(M) < \infty$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.*

PROOF. This follows from [Proposition 7.2.10](#). \square

7.3. Compactly Supported de-Rham Cohomology

Let M be an orientable smooth manifold. Integration is a pairing between compactly supported forms and oriented manifolds. This observation motivates that $H_{\text{dR}}^n(M)$ is important for studying orientations on M . Unfortunately, if M is non-compact, the integration of a n -form is not nicely defined unless the differential form is compactly supported. This observation motivates the study of de-Rham cohomology with compact support.

Definition 7.3.1. Let M be a smooth n -manifold and let $\omega \in \Omega^k(M)$. The **support** of ω is

$$\text{supp}(\omega) = \{p \in M \mid \omega_p \neq 0\}.$$

ω is compactly supported if $\text{supp}(\omega)$ is a compact set.

We set,

$$\Omega_c^k(M) = \{\omega \in \Omega^k(M) \mid \omega \text{ is compactly supported}\},$$

be the set of all compactly supported smooth k -forms. Clearly, the following facts are true:

- (1) if ω_1, ω_2 are compactly supported k -forms, so is $c_1\omega_1 + c_2\omega_2$;
- (2) if ω is compactly supported, then $d\omega$ is also compactly supported.

So $\Omega_c^k(M)$ are real vector spaces for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, and the exterior derivative makes these vector spaces a co-chain complex:

$$0 \rightarrow \Omega_c^0(M) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega_c^1(M) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega_c^2(M) \xrightarrow{d} \Omega_c^3(M) \xrightarrow{d} \dots$$

Definition 7.3.2. Let M be a smooth manifold. The quotient vector space

$$H_{\text{dR},c}^k(M) = \frac{\ker(d : \Omega_c^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega_c^{k+1}(M))}{\text{im}(d : \Omega_c^{k-1}(M) \rightarrow \Omega_c^k(M))} = \frac{\{\omega \in \Omega_c^k(M) : d\omega = 0\}}{\{d\omega : \omega \in \Omega_c^{k-1}(M)\}}$$

is the k -th de Rham cohomology group with compact support of M .

Example 7.3.3. Let M be a smooth manifold. For $k = 0$, by definition

$$H_{\text{dR},c}^k(M) = \{f \in C^\infty(M) \mid df = 0 \text{ and } \text{supp}(f) \text{ is compact}\}.$$

But $df = 0$ if and only if f is locally constant, i.e., f is constant on each connected component. Moreover, a locally constant compactly supported function has to be zero on any non-compact connected component. So we conclude

$$H_{\text{dR},c}^0(M) \cong \mathbb{R}^{m_c},$$

where m_c is the number of *compact* connected components of M . In particular,

$$H_{\text{dR},c}^0(\text{pt}) = \mathbb{R}, \quad \text{and} \quad H_{\text{dR},c}^0(\mathbb{R}^n) = 0$$

for all $n \geq 1$.

Remark 7.3.4. Since \mathbb{R}^n is homotopy equivalent to $\{\text{pt}\}$, we conclude that $H_{\text{dR},c}^0(M)$ is no longer a homotopy invariant.

We now discuss the analog of the Mayer-Vietoris sequence for the compactly supported case. If $F : M \rightarrow N$ is a smooth map between smooth manifolds, note that by definition,

$$\text{supp}(F^*\omega) \subseteq F^{-1}(\text{supp}(\omega)).$$

So if $\omega \in \Omega_c^k(N)$, in general we may have $F^*\omega \notin \Omega_c^k(M)$. Hence, we cannot expect to pull back compactly-supported cohomology classes on N to compactly-supported cohomology classes on M !

Remark 7.3.5. If $F : M \rightarrow N$ is proper map, then the pull-back $F^*\omega$ of a compactly supported differential form $\omega \in \Omega_c^k(N)$ is still compactly supported. In this case, we have an induced map:

$$F^* : H_{\text{dR},c}^k(N) \rightarrow H_{\text{dR},c}^k(M)$$

In this case, one can prove that if $F_0, F_1 : M \rightarrow N$ are proper smooth maps that are properly homotopic, then the induced maps are equal:

$$F_1^* = F_0^* : H_{\text{dR},c}^k(N) \rightarrow H_{\text{dR},c}^k(M).$$

Note that any homeomorphism is proper. So, in particular, the compactly supported de Rham cohomology groups are still topological invariants up to homeomorphisms. That is, if $M \cong N$ as smooth manifolds, then

$$H_c^k(M) = H_c^k(N)$$

for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. We have already seen that compactly supported de Rham cohomology groups is not a topological invariant up to homotopy equivalence.

So how do we prove an analog of the Mayer-Vietoris sequence for the compactly supported case. Note that we can now instead pushforward compactly supported differential forms and hence cohomology classes. If $U \subseteq M$ is an open set, the inclusion $i : U \hookrightarrow M$ induces a map

$$i_* : \Omega_c^n(U) \rightarrow \Omega_c^n(M)$$

that sends a compactly supported differential form on U to the same differential form extended by zero outside of U .

Lemma 7.3.6. For each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, the map i_* commutes with the exterior derivative.

PROOF. For $\omega \in \Omega_c^n(U)$, we have $d\omega \in \Omega_c^{n+1}(U)$. Thus, applying $(i_* \circ d)$ to ω results in $d\omega$ extended by zero outside of U . If we first apply i_* , we obtain

$$i_*(\omega) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{on } M \setminus U, \\ \omega, & \text{on } U. \end{cases}$$

Taking the exterior derivative, we get

$$d(i_*\omega) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{on } M \setminus U, \\ d\omega, & \text{on } U. \end{cases}$$

Thus, i_* commutes with d . That is, $i_* \circ d = d \circ i_*$. \square

Lemma 7.3.6 allows us to establish the following version of the Mayer-Vietoris sequence for the compactly supported case.

Proposition 7.3.7. *Let M be a smooth n -manifold and let $U, V \subseteq M$ be open sets such that $U \cup V = M$. Then there exists linear maps $\delta_k^c : H_c^k(M) \rightarrow H_c^{k+1}(U \cap V)$ so that the following sequence is exact:*

$$\cdots \rightarrow H_c^k(U \cap V) \rightarrow H_c^k(U) \oplus H_c^k(V) \rightarrow H_c^k(M) \xrightarrow{\delta_k^c} H_c^{k+1}(U \cap V) \rightarrow \cdots$$

PROOF. The proof is so much like the original Mayer-Vietoris proof, and it involves a diagram chase. We omit details. \square

Example 7.3.8. We compute $H_{\text{dR},c}^k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ for $k < n$. We have seen $H_{\text{dR},c}^0(\mathbb{R}^n) = 0$. Now we show that

$$H_{\text{dR},c}^k(\mathbb{R}^n) = 0$$

for $1 \leq k < n$. We identify \mathbb{R}^n with then open set $\mathbb{S}^n - \{N\}$. Then we get an inclusion map

$$\iota : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n,$$

- (1) Let $k = 1$. Let $\omega \in \Omega_c^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$ such that $d\omega = 0$. Since d commutes with i as seen above, we have that $\iota_*\omega \in \Omega_c^1(\mathbb{S}^n)$ such that $d(\iota_*\omega) = 0$. Since²

$$H_{\text{dR},c}^1(\mathbb{S}^n) = H_{\text{dR}}^1(\mathbb{S}^n) = 0$$

there exists $\eta \in \Omega^0(\mathbb{S}^n) = C_c^\infty(\mathbb{S}^n)$ such that $\iota_*\omega = d\eta$. Noting that $\iota_*\omega$ is supported in $\mathbb{S}^n - U$ for open set U containing N , we have $d\eta = \iota_*\omega = 0$ on U . This implies that $\eta|_U \equiv c$ for some constant $c \in \mathbb{R}$. It follows that if we take $\tilde{\eta} = \eta - c$, then $\tilde{\eta} \in \Omega_c^0(\mathbb{S}^n - \{N\}) = \Omega_c^0(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and $d\tilde{\eta} = \omega$.

- (2) Let $k > 1$. Let $\omega \in \Omega_k^c(\mathbb{R}^n)$ such that $d\omega = 0$. As above, $\iota_*\omega \in \Omega_k^c(\mathbb{R}^n)$ such that $d(\iota_*\omega) = 0$, and $\iota_*\omega$ is supported in $\mathbb{S}^n - U$ for open set U containing N . Since³

$$H_{\text{dR},c}^k(\mathbb{S}^n) = H_{\text{dR}}^k(\mathbb{S}^n) = 0$$

there exists $\eta \in \Omega^{k-1}(\mathbb{S}^n)$ such that $\iota_*\omega = d\eta$. By shrinking the neighborhood U of N , we can assume that U is contractible. Then the fact that $d\eta = \iota_*\omega = 0$ in U implies that there exists a $\mu \in \Omega_c^{k-2}(U)$ such that $\eta|_U = d\mu$. Now pick a bump function ψ on \mathbb{S}^n which compactly supported in U that equals 1 on N . Then

$$\tilde{\eta} = \eta - d(\psi\mu) \in \Omega_c^{k-1}(\mathbb{S}^n)$$

and $\tilde{\eta} = 0$ near N . By construction, $d\tilde{\eta} = d\eta = \omega$.

²Note that $k = 1 < n$

³Once again, note that $k < 1 < n$

7.3.1. Top Degree Cohomology. We now set up the machinery to argue that the degree k de Rham cohomology with compact support is related to the orientation of smooth manifolds. First, an example:

Example 7.3.9. Let's compute $H_{\text{dR},c}^1(\mathbb{R})$. Consider the integration map

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} : \Omega_c^1(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad \omega \mapsto \int_{\mathbb{R}} \omega.$$

This map is clearly linear and surjective. Moreover, if $\omega = df$ is a compactly supported exact form, then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} df \, dx = \int_{-R}^R \frac{df}{dx} \, dx = f(R) - f(-R),$$

for each $R > 0$. Since $f \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R})$, $f(R) = f(-R) = 0$ for R large enough. So it induces a surjective linear map

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} : H_{\text{dR},c}^1(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

Moreover, if $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t) \, dt = 0$, where $f \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R})$, then consider the function

$$g(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t f(\tau) \, d\tau$$

Clearly, g is smooth. If we choose $T > 0$ and $R < 0$ large enough, we get

$$\begin{aligned} F(T) &= \int_{-\infty}^T f(t) \, dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \, dt = 0. \\ F(R) &= \int_{-\infty}^R f(t) \, dt = \int_{-\infty}^R 0 \, dt = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $g \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R})$. Since $dg = f$, we have $[f(t)dt]$ in $H_{\text{dR},c}^1(\mathbb{R})$. Thus, $\int_{\mathbb{R}}$ is an isomorphism between $H_c^1(\mathbb{R})$ and \mathbb{R} , i.e.,

$$H_c^1(\mathbb{R}) \cong \mathbb{R}.$$

The same method as in [Example 7.3.9](#) works generally. Let M be a connected, oriented n -manifold, and let $\omega \in \Omega_c^n(M)$ be a compactly supported n -form. Then ω is closed, and we have defined the integral $\int_M \omega$. So we get a map

$$\int_M : \Omega_c^n(M) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad \omega \mapsto \int_M \omega.$$

Suppose $\omega = d\eta$ for some $\eta \in \Omega_c^{n-1}(M)$. We can take a compact set $K \subseteq M$ such that $\text{supp}(\eta) \subseteq K$. By Stokes' theorem,

$$\int_M \omega = \int_M d\eta = \int_K d\eta = \int_{\partial K} \eta = 0.$$

Thus, \int_M induces a linear map

$$\int_M : H_{\text{dR},c}^n(M) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad [\omega] \mapsto \int_M \omega$$

Proposition 7.3.10. *Let M be an oriented smooth n -manifold. Then the map $\int_M : H_{\text{dR},c}^n(M) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is surjective.*

PROOF. Fix a n -form (a volume form) ω on M . For any $c \in \mathbb{R}$, one can find a smooth function f that is compactly supported in a coordinate chart U , such that $\int_U f\omega = c$. \square

We can prove the following corollary based on [Proposition 7.3.10](#):

Corollary 7.3.11. *The following statements are true:*

- (1) *If $\omega \in \Omega^n(\mathbb{S}^n)$ and $\int_{\mathbb{S}^n} \omega = 0$, then ω is exact.*
- (2) *We have*

$$H_{\text{dR},c}^k(\mathbb{R}^n) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{R}, & k = n, \\ 0, & k \neq n. \end{cases}$$

- (3) *Let M be a smooth n -manifold. if M admits a finite good cover, then $\dim H_{\text{dR},c}^k(M) < \infty$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.*

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) Note that

$$H_{\text{dR}}^n(\mathbb{S}^n) = H_{\text{dR},c}^n(\mathbb{S}^n) \cong \mathbb{R}$$

Hence, the map in [Proposition 7.3.10](#) is in fact a linear isomorphism. In other words, if $\int_{\mathbb{S}^n} \omega = 0$, then $[\omega] = 0$, i.e., ω is exact.

- (2) [Example 7.3.9](#) proves the case $n = 1$ and [Example 7.3.8](#) takes care of the case $1 \leq k < n$ for $n \geq 2$. We discuss the case $k = n \geq 2$. It suffices to show that the surjective linear map

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} : H_{\text{dR},c}^n(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad [\omega] \mapsto \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \omega$$

is in fact an isomorphism. We show that the map is injective. Assume that $\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \omega = 0$ for some $\omega \in \Omega_c^n(\mathbb{R}^n)$. Automatically, we have $d\omega = 0$. As before, consider the inclusion map $\iota : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n$. Then $\iota_*\omega \in \Omega^n(\mathbb{S}^n)$. Since

$$\int_{\mathbb{S}^n} \iota_*\omega = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \omega = 0,$$

by (1), we see $\iota_*\omega = d\eta$ for some $\eta \in \Omega^{n-1}(\mathbb{S}^n)$. The rest of the proof is similar to that of [Example 7.3.8\(2\)](#).

- (3) We can use Mayer-Vietoris sequence compactly supported de Rham cohomology and induction and the number of open sets in a good cover. The same as the proof for the ordinary de Rham cohomology.

This completes the proof. \square

We now reach the punchline for this section. We argue that [Proposition 7.3.10](#) is, in fact, a linear isomorphism if the underlying smooth manifold is connected and orientable.

Proposition 7.3.12. *Let M be a smooth connected orientable n -manifold. The map in [Proposition 7.3.10](#) is an isomorphism. In particular,*

$$H_{\text{dR},c}^n(M) \cong \mathbb{R}$$

PROOF. In [Proposition 7.3.10](#), we have already checked that the map is a surjective linear isomorphism. We check that it is injective. Let $\omega \in \Omega_c^n(M)$ such that $\int_M \omega = 0$. Since M is connected and $\text{supp}(\omega)$ is compact, we can take a connected compact set $\text{supp}(\omega) \subseteq K_\omega$. If we can cover K_ω by a good cover which contains only one chart, then [Corollary 7.3.11\(2\)](#) implies that $\omega = d\mu$ for some $\mu \in \Omega_c^{n-1}(M)$. We can now proceed by induction. Suppose

the claim is true if K_ω can be covered by $k - 1$ ‘good charts,’ and suppose $\omega \in \Omega_c^n(M)$ satisfies the property that K_ω admits a good cover $\{U_1, \dots, U_k\}$. There exists one U_i , say U_k for simplicity, such that both $U = U_1 \cup \dots \cup U_{k-1}$ and $V = U_k$ are connected⁴. Pick a partition of unity $\{\rho_U, \rho_V\}$ of $U \cup V$ subordinate to the cover $\{U, V\}$, and let $\omega|_U = \rho_U \omega$, $\omega|_V = \rho_V \omega$. Since K_ω is connected, $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$. We pick an n -form ω_0 compactly supported in $U \cap V$ so that

$$\int_M \omega_0 = \int_M \omega|_U.$$

Then $\omega|_U - \omega_0$ is compactly supported in U , which is connected and admits a good cover of $k - 1$ good charts, and

$$\int_M (\omega|_U - \omega_0) = 0.$$

So by the induction hypothesis,

$$\omega_U - \omega_0 = d\eta|_U$$

for some $\eta_U \in \Omega_c^{n-1}(M)$. Similarly,

$$\int_M (\omega|_V + \omega_0) = - \int_M \omega|_U + \int_M \omega_0 = 0$$

implies

$$\omega_V + \omega_0 = d\eta|_V$$

for some $\eta|_V \in \Omega_c^{n-1}(M)$. It follows that

$$\omega = \omega_U + \omega_V = d(\eta_U + \eta_V),$$

where $\eta|_U + \eta|_V \in \Omega_c^{n-1}(M)$. This completes the proof. \square

7.4. de-Rham’s Theorem

7.4.1. Smooth Singular Homology.

7.4.2. Proof of De-Rham’s Theorem.

7.4.3. Applications.

⁴This needs proof.

CHAPTER 8

Products & Duality

8.1. Cup Product

Let's revert back to singular cohomology. However, we will keep on referring to de Rham cohomology for some down-to-earth motivation. We have worked with coefficients G , where G is some abelian group. We now show that if we take $G = R$ to be a commutative ring R , then the singular cohomology with coefficients in R also forms a ring under the cup product operation. First, let's define the algebraic object over which we define the ring structure.

Definition 8.1.1. Let X be a topological space, and let R be a commutative ring. The total cohomology of X with coefficients in R is given by

$$H^\bullet(X; R) := \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} H^n(X; R).$$

Our aim is to make $H^\bullet(X; R)$ into a graded ring when R is a commutative ring. We shall do this by first making

$$C^\bullet(X; R) := \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} C^n(X; R)$$

into a graded ring, and then showing that the ring structure descends to cohomology. This will be done by introducing a cup product structure on $C^\bullet(X; R)$.

Example 8.1.2. We first discuss the special case of de Rham cohomology. The advantage here is that we can directly work at the de Rham cohomology groups. Let M be a smooth manifold, and let $\omega \in \Omega^k(M)$, $\eta \in \Omega^l(M)$ be closed forms. If $[\omega] = [\omega']$ and $[\eta] = [\eta']$, we have

$$\omega = \omega' + d\alpha, \quad \eta = \eta' + d\beta$$

for $\alpha \in \Omega^{k-1}(M)$ and $\beta \in \Omega^{l-1}(M)$. Note that we have

$$\begin{aligned} \omega \wedge \eta &= (\omega' + d\alpha) \wedge (\eta' + d\beta) \\ &= \omega' \wedge \eta' + \omega' \wedge d\beta + d\alpha \wedge \eta' + d(\alpha \wedge \beta) \\ &= \omega' \wedge \eta' - d\beta \wedge \omega' + d\alpha \wedge \eta' + d(\alpha \wedge \beta) \\ &= \omega' \wedge \eta' - d(\beta \wedge \omega') + d(\alpha \wedge \eta') + d(\alpha \wedge \beta) \\ &= \omega' \wedge \eta' - d(\beta \wedge \omega' + \alpha \wedge \eta' + \alpha \wedge \beta). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $[\omega \wedge \eta] = [\omega' \wedge \eta']$. This shows that the wedge product

$$\wedge : \Omega^k(M) \times \Omega^l(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k+l}(M)$$

descends to a well-defined bilinear map

$$\begin{aligned} \smile : H_{\text{dR}}^k(M) \times H_{\text{dR}}^l(M) &\rightarrow H_{\text{dR}}^{k+l}(M), \\ [\omega] \smile [\eta] &\mapsto [\omega \wedge \eta]. \end{aligned}$$

This is called the cup product in de-Rham cohomology.

Let's now move back to the singular cohomology case and define the cup product. We first define it at the level of $C^\bullet(X; R)$.

Definition 8.1.3. Let $\phi \in C^k(X; R)$ and $\psi \in C^l(X; R)$. The cup product $\phi \smile \psi \in C^{k+l}(X; R)$ is defined by:

$$(\phi \smile \psi)(\sigma : \Delta^{k+l} \rightarrow X) = \phi(\sigma|_{[v_0, \dots, v_k]}) \cdot \psi(\sigma|_{[v_k, \dots, v_{k+l}]})$$

where ‘ \cdot ’ denotes the multiplication in the ring R .

Remark 8.1.4. *Technically, these restricted maps in Definition 8.1.3 have the wrong domains; they aren't the standard k, l -simplices. But we just pre-compose with the ‘obvious’ maps from the standard simplices. We shall not do this below.*

The cup product extends by linearity to define a function $C^k(X; R) \times C^l(X; R) \rightarrow C^{k+l}(X; R)$ by

$$\left(\sum_i \phi_i \right) \smile \left(\sum_j \psi_j \right) := \sum_{i,j} \phi_i \smile \psi_j.$$

Let us first check this gives us a ring structure.

Lemma 8.1.5. *Let X be a topological space and let R be a commutative ring. Then $C^\bullet(X; R)$ is a graded ring under the cup product. If R has an identity then $C^\bullet(X; R)$ also has an identity.*

PROOF. Suppose $\phi \in C^k(X; R)$ and $\psi, \gamma \in C^l(X; R)$. We claim that $\phi \smile (\psi + \gamma) = \phi \smile \psi + \phi \smile \gamma$. For this, take $\sigma : \Delta^{k+l} \rightarrow X$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (\phi \smile (\psi + \gamma))(\sigma) &= \phi(\sigma|_{[v_0, \dots, v_k]}) \cdot (\psi + \gamma)(\sigma|_{[v_k, \dots, v_{k+l}]}) \\ &= \phi(\sigma|_{[v_0, \dots, v_k]}) \cdot \psi(\sigma|_{[v_k, \dots, v_{k+l}]}) + \phi(\sigma|_{[v_0, \dots, v_k]}) \cdot \gamma(\sigma|_{[v_k, \dots, v_{k+l}]}) \\ &= \phi \smile \psi(\sigma|_{[v_k, \dots, v_{k+l}]}) + \phi \smile \gamma(\sigma|_{[v_k, \dots, v_{k+l}]}) \end{aligned}$$

A similar computation shows that $(\phi + \psi) \smile \gamma = \phi \smile \gamma + \psi \smile \gamma$. Associativity follows by a similar computation. Let 1_R denote the identity in R . Define a cochain $\nu \in C^0(X; R)$ by $\nu(x) = 1_R \quad \forall x \in X$ and extend by linearity. It is clear that

$$\nu \smile \phi = \phi = \phi \smile \nu$$

for any $\phi \in C^n(X; R)$ and any $n \geq 0$. Thus, $C^\bullet(X; R)$ is indeed a graded ring. \square

Unfortunately, the ring structure on $C^\bullet(X; R)$ is not very useful, as it is too “large” and almost impossible to compute. However, as we will now see, the total cohomology $H^\bullet(X; R)$ also inherits a ring structure, and this structure is much nicer. We need the following result:

Lemma 8.1.6. *Let $\phi \in C^k(X; R)$ and $\psi \in C^l(X; R)$*

$$\delta^{k+l}(\phi \smile \psi) = \delta^k \phi \smile \psi + (-1)^k \phi \smile \delta^l \psi$$

PROOF. For $\sigma : \Delta^{k+l+1} \rightarrow X$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (\delta^k \phi \smile \psi)(\sigma) &= \sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^i \phi(\sigma_{[v_0, \dots, \widehat{v_i}, \dots, v_{k+1}]}) \cdot \psi(\sigma_{[v_{k+1}, \dots, v_{k+l+1}]}) \\ (-1)^k (\phi \smile \delta \psi)(\sigma) &= \sum_{i=k}^{k+l+1} (-1)^i \phi(\sigma_{[v_0, \dots, v_k]}) \cdot \psi(\sigma_{[v_k, \dots, \widehat{v_i}, \dots, v_{k+l+1}]}) \end{aligned}$$

When we add these two expressions, the last term of the first sum cancels with the first term of the second sum, and the remaining terms are exactly $\delta^{k+l}(\phi \smile \psi)(\sigma) = (\phi \smile \psi)(\partial_{k+l+1}\sigma)$ since

$$\partial_{k+l+1}\sigma = \sum_{i=0}^{k+l+1} (-1)^i \sigma_{[v_0, \dots, \widehat{v_i}, \dots, v_{k+l+1}]}$$

This completes the proof. \square

Corollary 8.1.7. *The following statements are true:*

- (1) *If $\phi \in C^k(X; R)$ and $\psi \in C^l(X; R)$ are cocycles, then $\delta^{k+l}(\phi \smile \psi) = 0$.*
- (2) *If $\phi \in C^k(X; R)$ and $\psi \in C^l(X; R)$ are such that one of ϕ or ψ is a cocycle and the other a coboundary, then $\phi \smile \psi$ is a coboundary.*

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) Since $\delta^k \phi = 0$ and $\delta^l \psi = 0$, we have that that

$$\delta^{k+l}(\phi \smile \psi) = \delta^k \phi \smile \psi + (-1)^k \phi \smile \delta^l \psi = 0$$

- (2) Say $\delta^k \phi = 0$ and $\psi = \delta^{l-1} \eta$. Then

$$\delta^{k+l-1}(\phi \smile \eta) = (-1)^k \phi \smile \delta^{l-1} \eta = (-1)^k \phi \smile \psi$$

The other case is similar.

This completes the proof \square

It follows that we get an induced cup product on cohomology:

$$\begin{aligned} \smile : H^k(X; R) \times H^l(X; R) &\rightarrow H^{k+l}(X; R) \\ [\phi] \times [\psi] &\mapsto [\phi \smile \psi] \end{aligned}$$

Well-definedness follows from [Corollary 8.1.7](#). Indeed, if $[\phi] = [\phi']$ and $[\psi] = [\psi']$, then

$$\phi = \phi' + \alpha, \quad \psi = \psi' + \beta$$

where α, β are co-chains. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \phi \smile \psi &= (\phi' + \alpha) \smile (\psi' + \beta) \\ &= \phi' \smile \psi' + (\phi' \smile \beta + \alpha \smile \psi' + \alpha \smile \beta) \end{aligned}$$

[Corollary 8.1.7](#) implies that the term in parenthesis is a coboundary. Hence,

$$[\phi \smile \psi] = [\phi' \smile \psi']$$

The operation is distributive and associative since it is so on the co-chain level. If R has an identity element, then there is an identity element for the cup product, namely the class $[1] \in H^0(X; R)$ defined by the 0-cocycle taking the value 1_R on each singular 0-simplex. Considering the cup product as an operation on the direct sum of all cohomology groups, we get a (graded) ring structure on $H^\bullet(X; R)$.

Definition 8.1.8. Let X be a topological space and let R be a commutative ring. The cohomology ring of X is the graded ring

$$H^\bullet(X; R) := \left(\bigoplus_{n \geq 0} H^n(X; R), \smile \right)$$

with respect to the cup product operation. If R has an identity, then so does $H^\bullet(X; R)$.

Remark 8.1.9. We can also define the relative cup product. The cup product on cochains

$$C^k(X; R) \times C^l(X; R) \rightarrow C^{k+l}(X; R)$$

restricts to cup products

$$\begin{aligned} C^k(X, A; R) \times C^l(X; R) &\rightarrow C^{k+l}(X, A; R), \\ C^k(X, A; R) \times C^l(X, A; R) &\rightarrow C^{k+l}(X, A; R), \\ C^k(X; R) \times C^l(X, A; R) &\rightarrow C^{k+l}(X, A; R). \end{aligned}$$

since $C^i(X, A; R)$ can be regarded as the set of cochains vanishing on chains in A , and if φ or ψ vanishes on chains in A , then so does $\varphi \smile \psi$. So there exist relative cup products:

$$\begin{aligned} H^k(X, A; R) \times H^l(X; R) &\rightarrow H^{k+l}(X, A; R), \\ H^k(X, A; R) \times H^l(X, A; R) &\rightarrow H^{k+l}(X, A; R), \\ H^k(X; R) \times H^l(X, A; R) &\rightarrow H^{k+l}(X, A; R). \end{aligned}$$

In particular, if A is a point, we get a cup product on the reduced cohomology $\tilde{H}^*(X; R)$. More generally, we can define

$$H^k(X, A; R) \times H^\ell(X, B; R) \rightarrow H^{k+\ell}(X, A \cup B; R)$$

when A and B are open subsets of X or sub-complexes of the CW complex X .

Normally, no one computes cohomology rings using the definition of the cup product, as this can be quite tedious for the most part. However, we compute a couple of basic examples:

Example 8.1.10. (Spheres) Let $X = \mathbb{S}^n$ for $n \geq 1$ and $R = \mathbb{Z}$. We have

$$H^k(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } k = 0, n \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

The generating element in $H^0(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ is the identity element. We label the generators of $H^0(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ and $H^n(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ as 1 and x respectively. We have the following relations

$$1 \smile 1 = 1, \quad 1 \smile x = x, \quad x \smile 1 = x, \quad x \smile x = 0$$

The last relation is true since $H^{2n}(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. Hence, we have

$$H^*(\mathbb{S}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]}{\langle x^2 \rangle} = \mathbb{Z}[x]/(x^2) \cong \Lambda_{\mathbb{Z}}[x]$$

Here $\Lambda_{\mathbb{Z}}[x]$ is the exterior algebra on two generator over \mathbb{Z} .

Remark 8.1.11. We can define a cup product for simplicial cohomology by the same formula as for singular cohomology. It can be checked that the isomorphism between simplicial and singular cohomology respects cup products. Hence, we can compute cup products using simplicial cohomology.

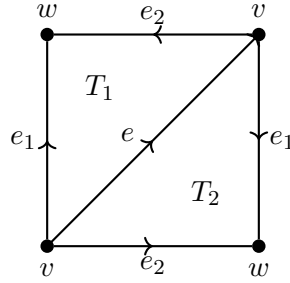
Example 8.1.12. (Real Projective Plane) Let $X = \mathbb{RP}^2$ and $R = \mathbb{Z}_2$. We have

$$H^k(\mathbb{RP}^2; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}_2 & k = 0, 1, 2, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Let α be the generator of $H^1(\mathbb{RP}^2; \mathbb{Z}_2)$. Consider

$$\alpha^2 := \alpha \smile \alpha \in H^2(\mathbb{RP}^2; \mathbb{Z}_2).$$

We claim that $\alpha^2 \neq 0$, so α^2 is in fact the generator of $H^2(\mathbb{RP}^2; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$. Consider the cell structure on \mathbb{RP}^2 shown in the figure below. The 2-cell T_1 is attached by the word $e_1 e_2^{-1} e^{-1}$, and the 2-cell T_2 is attached by the word $e_2 e_1^{-1} e^{-1}$.



Since α is a generator of $H^1(\mathbb{RP}^2; \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \cong \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(H_1(\mathbb{RP}^2; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})$, it is represented by a cocycle

$$\varphi : C_1(\mathbb{RP}^2) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

with $\varphi(e) = 1$, where e represents the generator of $H_1(\mathbb{RP}^2; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$. The co-cycle condition for φ translates into the identities:

$$0 = (\delta\varphi)(T_1) = \varphi(\partial T_1) = \varphi(e_1) - \varphi(e_2) - \varphi(e),$$

$$0 = (\delta\varphi)(T_2) = \varphi(\partial T_2) = \varphi(e_2) - \varphi(e_1) - \varphi(e).$$

As $\varphi(e) = 1$, we may WLOG take $\varphi(e_1) = 1$ and $\varphi(e_2) = 0$. Note that α^2 is represented by $\varphi \smile \varphi$, and we have:

$$(\varphi \smile \varphi)(T_1) = \varphi(e_1) \cdot \varphi(e) = 1.$$

Similarly,

$$(\varphi \smile \varphi)(T_2) = \varphi(e_2) \cdot \varphi(e) = 0.$$

Since the generator of $C_2(\mathbb{RP}^2)$ is $T_1 + T_2$, and we have

$$(\varphi \smile \varphi)(T_1 + T_2) = (\varphi \smile \varphi)(T_1) + (\varphi \smile \varphi)(T_2) = 1 + 0 = 1,$$

it follows that $\alpha^2 = [\varphi \smile \varphi]$ is the generator of $H^2(\mathbb{RP}^2; \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})$. Let I denote the ideal generated by the relations. Hence, we have

$$H^*(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}_2) = \frac{\mathbb{Z}_2[x]}{I} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)$$

Let's prove some important facts about the cup product.

Proposition 8.1.13. *Let X, Y be topological spaces and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous map. For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the induced maps*

$$f_n^* = H^n(Y; R) \rightarrow H^n(X; R)$$

are ring homomorphisms. That is,

$$f_n^*(\alpha \smile \beta) = f_n^*(\alpha) \smile f_n^*(\beta)$$

for each $\alpha, \beta \in H^k(Y; R)$.

PROOF. It suffices to show the following co-chain formula:

$$f^\#(\varphi \smile \psi) = f^\#(\varphi) \smile f^\#(\psi).$$

For $\varphi \in C^k(Y; \mathbb{R})$ and $\psi \in C^l(Y; \mathbb{R})$, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} (f^\# \varphi \smile f^\# \psi)(\sigma : \Delta^{k+l} \rightarrow X) &= (f^\# \varphi)(\sigma|_{[v_0, \dots, v_k]}) \cdot (f^\# \psi)(\sigma|_{[v_k, \dots, v_{k+l}]}) \\ &= \varphi((f^\# \sigma)|_{[v_0, \dots, v_k]}) \cdot \psi((f^\# \sigma)|_{[v_k, \dots, v_{k+l}]}) \\ &= (\varphi \smile \psi)(f^\# \sigma) \\ &= (f^\#(\varphi \smile \psi))(\sigma). \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof. \square

Corollary 8.1.14. *If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous map, then there is a ring homomorphism*

$$f^* : H^*(Y; R) \rightarrow H^*(X; R).$$

PROOF. We have

$$H^*(Y; R) = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} H^n(Y; R), \quad H^*(X; R) = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} H^n(X; R)$$

If we define f^* such that $f^*|_{H^n(Y; R)} = f_n^*$, the claim follows via [Proposition 8.1.13](#). \square

Remark 8.1.15. *The discussion above implies that the operation of taking the cohomology ring is a (contravariant) functor from **Top** to **CRing**.*

Example 8.1.16. The isomorphisms

$$H^*\left(\coprod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}; R\right) \cong \prod_{\alpha} H^*(X_{\alpha}; R)$$

whose coordinates are induced by the inclusions $i_{\alpha} : X_{\alpha} \hookrightarrow \coprod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$, is a ring isomorphism with respect to the coordinatewise multiplication in a ring product, since each coordinate function i_{α}^* is a ring homomorphism. Similarly, the group isomorphism

$$H^*\left(\bigvee_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}; R\right) \cong \prod_{\alpha} H^*(X_{\alpha}; R)$$

is a ring isomorphism.

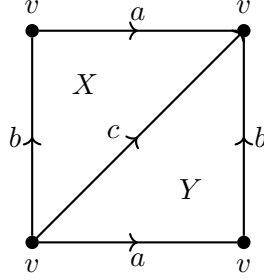
We now show that the cup product is graded anti-commutative.

Proposition 8.1.17. *Let X be a topological space and let R be a commutative ring. Let $\alpha \in H^k(X; R)$ and $\beta \in H^l(X; R)$. We have*

$$\alpha \smile \beta = (-1)^{kl} \beta \smile \alpha$$

PROOF. See [\[Hat02\]](#). \square

Example 8.1.18. Let $X = \mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1 = T^2$. We can use [Proposition 8.1.17](#) to compute $H^*(T^2; \mathbb{Z})$. Consider the following simplicial complex structure on T^2 :



The generator $1 \in H^0(T^2; \mathbb{Z})$ is the unit. By examining the dimensions of the other generators, the only non-identity generators which could multiply together and give something non-zero are the generators of $H^1(T^2; \mathbb{Z})$. Let $\alpha, \beta \in H^1(T^2; \mathbb{Z})$ be generators of $H^1(T^2; \mathbb{Z})$. We compute

$$\alpha \smile \alpha, \quad \alpha \smile \beta, \quad \beta \smile \alpha, \quad \beta \smile \beta.$$

By [Proposition 8.1.17](#), we must have $\alpha \smile \alpha = \beta \smile \beta = 0$. But let's verify it explicitly. α is represented by a cocycle

$$\varphi_\alpha : C_1(T^2) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$$

with $\varphi_\alpha(a) = 1, \varphi_\alpha(b) = 0$. Here a, b are generators of $H_1(T^2; \mathbb{Z})$. The co-cycle condition for φ translates into the identities:

$$0 = (\delta\varphi_\alpha)(X) = \varphi_\alpha(X) = \varphi_\alpha(a) - \varphi_\alpha(c) + \varphi_\alpha(b),$$

$$0 = (\delta\varphi_\alpha)(Y) = \varphi_\alpha(Y) = \varphi_\alpha(b) - \varphi_\alpha(c) + \varphi_\alpha(a).$$

As $\varphi_\alpha(a) = 1, \varphi_\alpha(b) = 0$, we must have $\varphi_\alpha(c) = 1$. Note that α^2 is represented by $\varphi \smile \varphi$, and we have:

$$(\varphi_\alpha \smile \varphi_\alpha)(X) = \varphi_\alpha(b) \cdot \varphi_\alpha(a) = 1.$$

$$(\varphi_\alpha \smile \varphi_\alpha)(Y) = \varphi_\alpha(a) \cdot \varphi_\alpha(b) = 1.$$

Hence, $\varphi_\alpha \smile \varphi_\alpha = 0$. This shows that $\alpha \smile \alpha = 0$. If we choose β to be represented by a cocycle

$$\varphi_\beta : C_1(T^2) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$$

with $\varphi_\beta(b) = 1, \varphi_\beta(a) = 0$, we similarly have $\beta \smile \beta = 0$. We now compute $\alpha \smile \beta$. Note that $\alpha \smile \beta$ is represented by $\varphi_\alpha \smile \varphi_\beta$. We have

$$(\varphi_\alpha \smile \varphi_\beta)(X) = \varphi_\alpha(b) \cdot \varphi_\beta(a) = 0.$$

$$(\varphi_\alpha \smile \varphi_\beta)(Y) = \varphi_\alpha(a) \cdot \varphi_\beta(b) = 1.$$

Since the generator of $C_2(T^2)$ is $X + Y$, and $(\varphi_\alpha \smile \varphi_\beta)(X + Y) = 1$, it follows that $\alpha \smile \beta$ is the generator of $H^2(T^2; \mathbb{Z})$. By [Proposition 8.1.17](#), we have $\beta \smile \alpha = -\alpha \smile \beta$. Hence, we have

$$H^*(T^2; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x, y]}{\langle x^2, y^2, xy + yx \rangle} \cong \Lambda_{\mathbb{Z}}[x, y]$$

Here $\Lambda_{\mathbb{Z}}[x, y]$ is the exterior algebra on two generator over \mathbb{Z} .

8.2. Poincaré Duality for Smooth Manifolds

We discuss Poincaré duality for smooth, oriented, n -manifolds in this section. We can prove this special case by leveraging de Rham cohomology. Using Stokes' theorem, Poincaré duality for smooth, oriented n -manifolds asserts that there is a non-degenerate pairing between de Rham cohomology groups:

$$H_{\text{dR}}^k(M) \times H_{\text{dR},c}^{n-k}(M) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad ([\alpha], [\beta]) \mapsto \int_M \alpha \wedge \beta.$$

It is easily checked that the pairing defined above is well-defined. The pairing above can be equivalently defined as a linear map from $H_{\text{dR}}^k(M)$ to $(H_{\text{dR},c}^{n-k}(M))^*$. We show that this linear map is an isomorphism.

Proposition 8.2.1. *Let M be a smooth, oriented, n -manifold that admits a good finite cover. Then*

$$H_{\text{dR}}^k(M) \cong (H_{\text{dR},c}^{n-k}(M))^*$$

for each $0 \leq k \leq n$.

8.3. Poincaré Duality

Poincaré duality is a fundamental result in algebraic topology that relates the homology and cohomology groups of an orientable closed manifold. It states that for an n -dimensional orientable manifold M , there exists an isomorphism

$$H_k(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_c^{n-k}(M; \mathbb{Z})$$

This duality provides deep insights into the topology of manifolds, constraining their possible homology groups and aiding in the computation of topological invariants. It also plays a crucial role in intersection theory. Before defining Poincaré duality, we need to define the notation of a fundamental class. In order to define a fundamental class, we need to define the notation of an orientation.

Part 4

Homotopy Theory

CHAPTER 9

Categorical Nuances

The category **hTop** is the appropriate framework for studying homotopy theory. However, not all concepts from the category **Top** carry over directly to **hTop**. For instance, we have the following pushout diagram in **Top**:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{S}^{n-1} & \rightarrow & \{*\} \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \mathbb{D}^n & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{S}^n \end{array}$$

On the other hand, we also have the pushout diagram in **Top**:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{S}^{n-1} & \rightarrow & \{*\} \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \{*\} & \longrightarrow & \{*\} \end{array}$$

Therefore, even though \mathbb{D}^n is homotopy equivalent to $\{*\}$, the two pushouts are not homotopy equivalent. Therefore, contrary to expectation, the pushout diagrams in **hTop** are not the same. This example suggests that further analysis and applications of the homotopy notion require a certain amount of formal (categorical) considerations. In this section, we discuss some basic constructions of a categorical nature. More advanced constructions such as homotopy pullbacks and homotopy pushouts will be discussed as necessary later on.

9.1. Cones & Suspensions

In this section, we discuss the categorical constructions of cones and suspensions.

9.1.1. Cone & Suspension. Let $I = [0, 1] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. The space $X \times I$ is called a cylinder over X , and the subspaces $X \times \{0\}$, $X \times \{1\}$ are the bottom and top “bases”. Now we will construct new spaces out of the cylinder $X \times I$.

Definition 9.1.1. Let X be a topological space. The cone of X is the quotient space:

$$CX = X \times I / (X \times \{0\})$$

Remark 9.1.2. CX has a natural basepoint given by the collapsed space $X \times \{0\}$. Hence, we have a functor

$$C : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_*$$

Indeed, if $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous map, we have a continuous map $f \times id_I : X \times I \rightarrow Y \times Y$ and if we define $C(f)$ to be the map

$$\begin{aligned} C(f) : CX &\rightarrow CY, \\ [x, t] &\mapsto [f(x), t], \end{aligned}$$

We have $Cf \circ q_X = q_Y \circ (f \times \text{id}_I)$ where q_X, q_Y are quotient maps defining CX and CY .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X \times I & \xrightarrow{f \times \text{id}_I} & Y \times I \\ \downarrow q_X & & \downarrow q_Y \\ CX & \xrightarrow{C(f)} & CY \end{array}$$

The universal property of quotient topology implies that Cf is continuous.

The cone of a topological space is always a contractible space.

Proposition 9.1.3. *Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. Then CX is contractible.*

PROOF. A homotopy between the identity on CX and the map to the basepoint is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} F : CX \times I &\rightarrow CX, \\ ([x, t], s) &\mapsto [x, (1-s)t] \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof. \square

The motivation for introducing the cone of a topological space is given by the following proposition:

Proposition 9.1.4. *Let $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$. A map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is nullhomotopic if and only if it extends to a map $\bar{f} : CX \rightarrow Y$.*

PROOF. Consider a continuous map $H : X \times [0, 1] \rightarrow Y$ with $H(\cdot, 0) = f(\cdot)$. Note that $H(x, 1)$ is constant for all $x \in X$ if and only if $X \times \{1\}$ is contained in a fiber of H , which in turn, by the universal property of quotient spaces, says that H factors uniquely through the canonical quotient map $X \times [0, 1] \rightarrow CX$. This proves the claim. \square

Remark 9.1.5. *Proposition 9.1.4 implies that a continuous map $f : \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow X$ is nullhomotopic if and only if f extends to a continuous map $\bar{f} : \mathbb{D}^{n+1} \rightarrow X$. This is because $C\mathbb{S}^n \cong \mathbb{D}^{n+1}$.*

We now define the suspension of a topological space.

Definition 9.1.6. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. The suspension of X is the quotient space:

$$SX = X \times I / (X \times \{0\}, X \times \{1\})$$

Remark 9.1.7. S defines a functor $S : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}$. This follows by a similar reasoning that cone is a functor.

Example 9.1.8. The suspension of $\mathbb{S}^0 = \{x, x_1\}$ consists of two lines (one over each point in \mathbb{S}^0) joined at 0 and 1, giving \mathbb{S}^1 . In fact,

$$\mathbb{S}^{n+1} \cong S\mathbb{S}^n$$

in general. To see this, WLOG, replace $I = [0, 1]$ by $I = [-1, 1]$. Define

$$f : \mathbb{S}^n \times [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{n+1}$$

by

$$f((x, \dots, x_n), t) = (x \cdot \sqrt{1-t^2}, \dots, x_n \cdot \sqrt{1-t^2}, t)$$

It is clear that f is continuous and surjective. Moreover, f agrees on the fibers of SS^n . Hence, f descends to a continuous bijection \tilde{f} from SS^n to S^{n+1} . Since SS^n is compact and S^{n+1} is Hausdorff, \tilde{f} is a homomorphism.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{S}^n \times [-1, 1] & & \\ \downarrow q & \searrow f & \\ SS^n & \xrightarrow{\tilde{f}} & S^{n+1} \end{array}$$

9.2. Compact Open Topology, Path & Loop Spaces

9.2.1. Compact Open Topology. If $(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, note that $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ is, in particular, a space of continuous functions. Hence, we would like to discuss what appropriate topology to put on the function space of continuous maps between topological spaces.

Definition 9.2.1. Let $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$ and let $C(X, Y)$ denote the set of continuous maps $X \rightarrow Y$. $C(X, Y)$ carries a natural topology, called the compact-open topology, generated by a subbasis formed by the sets of the form

$$B(K, U) = \{f : X \rightarrow Y \mid f(K) \subseteq U\}$$

where $K \subseteq X$ is a compact set and $U \subseteq Y$ is an open set.

Remark 9.2.2. The topological space given by this compact-open topology will be denoted by $\text{Maps}(X, Y)$.

Remark 9.2.3. For a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, one can form a typical basis open neighborhood by choosing compact subsets $K_1, \dots, K_n \subseteq X$ and small open sets $U_i \subseteq Y$ with $f(K_i) \subseteq U_i$ to get a neighborhood O_f of f ,

$$O_f = B(K_1, U_1) \cap \dots \cap B(K_n, U_n).$$

The collection of all such sets forms a basis for the compact-open topology.

What is the motivation behind the definition of the compact-open topology? If X is compact Hausdorff and Y a metric space, then one can consider the supremum norm on $(C(X, Y), \|\cdot\|_\infty)$. It can be checked that in this case $\text{Maps}(X, Y) = (C(X, Y), \|\cdot\|_\infty)$. We prove a slightly more genral claim:

Proposition 9.2.4. Let $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$ such that (Y, d) is a metric space. The compact-open topology and the topology of uniform convergence on compact sets coincide on $C(X, Y)$.

PROOF. We first prove that the topology of compact convergence is finer than the compact-open topology. Let $B(K, U)$ be a subbasis element for the compact-open topology, and let $f \in B(K, U)$. Because f is continuous, $f(K)$ is a compact subset of U . Therefore, we can choose $\varepsilon > 0$ so that the ε -neighborhood of $f(K)$ is contained in U . Then, as desired,

$$E_K(f, \varepsilon) \subseteq B(K, U).$$

Here

$$E_K(f, \varepsilon) = \{g \in C(X, Y) \mid \|f - g\|_{\infty, K} < \varepsilon\}$$

is a basis element of the topology of compact convergence. We now prove that the compact-open topology is finer than the topology of compact convergence. Let $f \in C(X, Y)$ and consider $E_K(f, \varepsilon)$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$. Every $x \in X$ has a neighborhood V_x such that $f(\overline{V_x})$

lies in an open set $U_{f(x)}$ of Y having diameter less than ε . For example, choose V_x so that $f(V_x)$ lies in the $\varepsilon/4$ -neighborhood of $f(x)$. Then $f(\overline{V_x})$ lies in the $\varepsilon/3$ -neighborhood of $f(x)$, which has diameter at most $2\varepsilon/3$. Cover K by finitely many such sets V_x , say for $x = x_1, \dots, x_n$. Let $K_x = \overline{V_x} \cap K$. Then K_x is compact, and the basis element

$$B(K_{x_1}, U_{x_1}) \cap \dots \cap B(K_{x_n}, U_{x_n})$$

contains f and lies in $E_K(f, \varepsilon)$, as desired. \square

Remark 9.2.5. *If Y is not a metric space, we need to redefine the notion of proximity between maps. Suppose $f, g \in \text{Maps}(X, Y)$ are two continuous maps. Let $K \subseteq X$ be a compact subset and $U \subseteq Y$ be an open subset such that $f(K) \subseteq U$. Assume that Y is Hausdorff, which ensures that closed sets in Y behave well under continuous maps. Since $f(K)$ is compact and Y is Hausdorff, $f(K)$ is closed in Y , and intuitively, small perturbations of $f(K)$ should remain within U . Thus, to define the topology on $\text{Maps}(X, Y)$, we say that a neighborhood of f is the set of maps $g \in \text{Maps}(X, Y)$ such that $g(K) \subseteq U$. This formalizes the notion that g is ‘close’ to f if it maps the compact set K into the same open set U that contains $f(K)$.*

Proposition 9.2.6. (Exponential Law) *Let $X, Y, Z \in \mathbf{Top}$. If X is Hausdorff and Y is locally compact, then*

$$\varphi : \text{Maps}(X \times Y, Z) \rightarrow \text{Maps}(X, \text{Maps}(Y, Z)), \quad \varphi(g)(x)(y) = g(x, y)$$

is a continuous bijection.

PROOF. We first show that φ is well-defined. Suppose g is continuous, and choose an arbitrary sub-basis open set $B(K, U)$ in $\text{Maps}(Y, Z)$. Choose $x \in \varphi(g)^{-1}(B(K, U))$, so $g(\{x\} \times K) \subseteq U$. Since K is compact and g is continuous, there are open sets $V \ni x$ and $W \supseteq K$ such that $g(V \times W) \subseteq U$. Then V is a neighborhood of x with $\varphi(g)(V) \subseteq B(K, U)$, showing that $\varphi(g)^{-1}(B(K, U))$ is open. Hence, φ is well-defined. φ is obviously an injection. We now show that φ is continuous and surjective.

We first show that φ is continuous. Let $g : X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ be a continuous map. Let $K_1 \subseteq X$ and $K_2 \subseteq Y$ be compact subsets, $U \subseteq Z$ be an open set. Let

$$B(K_1, B(K_2, U)) = \{g : X \rightarrow \text{Maps}(Y, Z) \mid g(K_1)(K_2) \subseteq U\}$$

be an open neighborhood of $\varphi(g)$. Then $[K_1 \times K_2, U]$ is an open neighborhood of g in $\text{Maps}(X \times Y, Z)$ ¹ such that

$$\varphi(B(K_1 \times K_2, U)) \subseteq B(K_1, B(K_2, U))$$

This shows that φ is continuous. We now show that φ is surjective. Let $f : X \rightarrow \text{Maps}(Y, Z)$ be a continuous map. Let $(x, y) \in X \times Y$ and W be an open neighborhood of $\varphi^{-1}(f)(x, y)$ in Z . We find neighborhoods $x \in U \subseteq X$ and $y \in V \subseteq Y$ such that $\varphi^{-1}(f)(U \times V) \subseteq W$. Since $f(x) : Y \rightarrow Z$ is continuous, $f(x)^{-1}(W)$ is an open neighborhood of y in Y . Since Y is locally compact, there exists a compact set $K \subseteq f(x)^{-1}(W)$ such that $y \in \text{Int}(K) \subseteq K$. Then $[K, W]$ is an open neighborhood of $f(y)$, and since $f : X \rightarrow \text{Maps}(Y, Z)$ is continuous at x , there exists an open neighborhood $x \in U \subseteq X$ such that $f(U) \subseteq [K, W]$. This implies that $F(U \times K) \subseteq W$. We can take $V = \text{Int}(K)$, and thus we have $F(U \times V) \subseteq W$. \square

Remark 9.2.7. *If X is locally compact Hausdorff, the continuous bijection in [Proposition 9.2.6](#) is in fact a homeomorphism.*

¹We need that X is Hausdorff here. See Lemma XII.5.1 (a) of Dugundji’s *Topology*.

Corollary 9.2.8. *Let $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$ such that X is locally compact and Y is Hausdorff. The evaluation map*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ev}_{X,Y} : X \times \text{Maps}(X, Y) &\rightarrow Y, \\ (x, f) &\mapsto f(x). \end{aligned}$$

is continuous.

PROOF. We take for granted the statement that Y is Hausdorff implies that $\text{Maps}(X, Y)$ is Hausdorff. **Proposition 9.2.6** implies there is a continuous bijection:

$$\text{Maps}(\text{Maps}(X, Y) \times X, Y) \cong \text{Maps}(\text{Maps}(X, Y), \text{Maps}(X, Y))$$

The inverse image of $\text{Id}_{\text{Maps}(X, Y)}$ is $\text{Ev}_{X,Y}$. □

Remark 9.2.9. *Here is an important observation. If $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$, then a homotopy between two maps $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ as an element of $\text{Maps}(X \times I, Y)$. Based on **Proposition 9.2.6**, it is possible to reinterpret a homotopy between two maps $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ as an element of $\text{Maps}(X, \text{Maps}(I, Y))$ or $\text{Maps}(I, \text{Maps}(X, Y))$. The latter says that a homotopy is a path in $\text{Maps}(X, Y)$.*

Proposition 9.2.10. *If $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$ are locally compact Hausdorff spaces, then the function*

$$\Phi_{X,Y,Z} : \text{Maps}(X, Y) \times \text{Maps}(Y, Z) \rightarrow \text{Maps}(X, Z)$$

given by composition is continuous.

PROOF. By **Proposition 9.2.6** we have the bijection

$$\text{Maps}(\text{Maps}(X, Y) \times \text{Maps}(Y, Z), \text{Maps}(X, Z)) \cong \text{Maps}(\text{Maps}(X, Y) \times \text{Maps}(Y, Z), X, Z)$$

Hence, $\Phi_{X,Y,Z}$ is continuous if and only if the image of $\Phi_{X,Y,Z}$, denoted $\Phi'_{X,Y,Z}$, under the exponential law is continuous. Let $(f, g) \in \text{Maps}(X, Y) \times \text{Maps}(Y, Z)$ and $x \in X$. We have

$$\Phi'_{X,Y,Z}((f, g), x) = (T(f, g))(x) = f(g(x)).$$

We can decompose $\Phi'_{X,Y,Z}$ as the following composition:

$$\text{Maps}(Y, Z) \times \text{Maps}(X, Y) \times X \xrightarrow{(f,g,x) \mapsto (f,g(x))} \text{Maps}(Y, Z) \times Y \xrightarrow{(g,y) \mapsto g(y)} Z.$$

The first map is just $\text{Id}_{\text{Maps}(Y, Z)} \times \text{Ev}_{X,Y}$ and the second map is $\text{Ev}_{Y,Z}$. Both these maps are continuous by **Corollary 9.2.8**. The claim follows. □

9.2.2. Path & Loop Spaces. We can consider special instances of the function space discussed above to define loop spaces. For instance, if $X \in \mathbf{Top}$, the space $\Lambda(X) = \text{Maps}(\mathbb{S}^1, X) \in \mathbf{Top}$ is the free loop space of X . Similarly, the space $P(X) = \text{Maps}(I, X) \in \mathbf{Top}$ is the free path space of X .

Remark 9.2.11. *If $X = I = [0, 1]$, Y is locally compact and Z is a topological space, then **Proposition 9.2.6** reads*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Maps}(Y, \text{Maps}(I, Z)) &\cong \text{Maps}(I \times Y, Z) \\ &\cong \text{Maps}(I, \text{Maps}(Y, Z)) \end{aligned}$$

This is called the cylinder-free path adjunction. This is because $I \times Y$ is a cylinder on Y and $(\text{Maps}(I, Z))$ is the path space on Z . Note that $\text{Maps}(I \times Y, Z) = [Y, Z]$.

We now make the following definition:

Definition 9.2.12. Let $(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$.

- (1) The path space $P(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ of (X, x_0) is the pointed space given by

$$P(X, x_0) = \{\gamma \in P(X) \mid \gamma(0) = x_0\}.$$

with the constant path c_x at x as the base point.

- (2) The loop space $\Omega(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ of (X, x_0) is the pointed space

$$\Omega(X, x_0) = \{\gamma \in P(X) \mid \gamma(0) = x_0 = \gamma(1)\}$$

with the constant loop c_x at x as the base point.

Remark 9.2.13. Note that $\Omega(X, x_0)$ consists of pointed loops $(\mathbb{S}^1, *) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$. Moreover, note that $P(X, x_0)$ can be thought of as a pullback:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P(X, x_0) & \longrightarrow & X^I \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \text{Ev}_0 \\ \{x_0\} & \hookrightarrow & X \end{array}$$

Proposition 9.2.14. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. The path space, $P(X, x_0)$, is contractible.

PROOF. A homotopy between the identity on $P(X, x_0)$ and the map to the basepoint (the constant path) is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} F : P(X, x_0) \times I &\rightarrow P(X, x_0), \\ (\gamma, s) &\mapsto (t \mapsto \gamma((1-s)t)). \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof. \square

Remark 9.2.15. We discuss some applications of function space $\text{Maps}(X, Y)$ to establish some basic facts:

- (1) A point in X can be identified with a map $x : * \rightarrow X$ sending the unique point $*$ to x . Hence, we have a bijective correspondence

$$X \cong \text{Maps}(*, X).$$

- (2) In the case of a pointed space, we have a bijective correspondence

$$\begin{aligned} (X, x_0) &\cong \text{Maps}((\{*, *'\}, *'), (X, x_0)) \\ &\cong \text{Maps}((\mathbb{S}^0, 1), (X, x_0)). \end{aligned}$$

- (3) Note that we have

$$[X, Y] \cong \pi_0(\text{Maps}(X, Y))$$

- (4) Let X, Y be locally compact Hausdorff spaces. Consider the continuous function

$$T : \text{Maps}(X, Y) \times \text{Maps}(Y, Z) \rightarrow \text{Maps}(X, Z)$$

Hence, T induces a map

$$\begin{aligned} [X, Y] \times [Y, Z] &= \pi_0(\text{Maps}(X, Y)) \times \pi_0(\text{Maps}(Y, Z)) \\ &= \pi_0(\text{Maps}(X, Y) \times \text{Maps}(Y, Z)) \\ &\rightarrow \pi_0(\text{Maps}(X, Z)) \\ &= [X, Z] \end{aligned}$$

In particular, a continuous function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ induces a map

$$f^\# : [Y, Z] \rightarrow [X, Z]$$

and a continuous function $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ induces a map

$$g_\# : [X, Y] \rightarrow [X, Z].$$

- (5) Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a homotopy equivalence with homotopy inverse and $g : Y \rightarrow X$. Using (3), we have two induced maps

$$f^\# : [Y, Z] \rightarrow [X, Z] \quad f_\# : [Z, X] \rightarrow [Z, Y]$$

The maps $g^\#$ and $g_\#$ are inverses of $f^\#$ and $f_\#$ respectively. Hence, we have a bijection of sets

$$[Y, Z] \cong [X, Z], \quad [Z, X] \cong [Z, Y]$$

9.3. Smash Products

We introduce the notion of a smash product that forces us to take basepoints seriously. The need for the smash product arises based on the need to consider the pointed analog of $\text{Maps}(\cdot, \cdot)$.

Definition 9.3.1. Let $(X, x_0), (Y, y_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. The pointed space $\text{Maps}((X, x_0), (Y, y_0))$ is defined to be subspace of $\text{Maps}(x_0, y_0)$ consisting of pointed maps, along with the natural basepoint given by constant map $X \rightarrow y_0$.

Remark 9.3.2. We have $[(X, x_0), (Y, y_0)] = \pi_0(\text{Maps}((X, x_0), (Y, y_0)))$.

We now define the smash product:

Definition 9.3.3. Let $(X, x_0), (Y, y_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. The smash product is defined as the quotient space

$$(X, x_0) \wedge (Y, y_0) = (X \times Y, (x_0, y_0)) / (X \vee Y)$$

Remark 9.3.4. The wedge sum $X \vee Y$ of two pointed spaces is naturally a pointed subspace of $(X, x_0) \times (Y, y_0)$. For pointed spaces (X, x_0) and (Y, y_0) , the pointed product $(X \times Y, (x_0, y_0))$ comes naturally with an inclusion map of (X, x_0) given by

$$\begin{aligned} (X, x_0) &\rightarrow (X \times Y, (x_0, y_0)), \\ x &\mapsto (x, y_0). \end{aligned}$$

There is a similar map $(Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X \times Y, (x_0, y_0))$. Since $X \vee Y$ is a pushout in \mathbf{Top}_* , we obtain a pointed map $X \vee Y \rightarrow (X \times Y, (x_0, y_0))$ which yields the desired inclusion.

Remark 9.3.5. It can be checked that the smash product defines a functor

$$\wedge : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_*$$

The motivation behind the definition of a smash product is to extend [Proposition 9.2.6](#) to \mathbf{Top}_* . Let $(X, x_0), (Y, y_0), (Z, z_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. Since y_0 and z_0 are basepoints in Y and Z , respectively, then $\text{Maps}((Y, y_0), (X, x_0))$ has a basepoint given by the constant function $X \rightarrow z_0$. We want a map $f : (X, x_0) \rightarrow \text{Maps}((Y, y_0), (Z, z_0))$ to preserve basepoints, meaning that it must satisfy

$$f(x_0)(y) = z_0 \quad \text{for all } y \in Y.$$

Additionally, for any $x \in X$, the map $f(x) : Y \rightarrow Z$ must also preserve basepoints, i.e.,

$$f(x)(y_0) = z_0 \quad \text{for all } x \in X.$$

Therefore, if [Proposition 9.2.6](#) is to be extended to \mathbf{Top}_* , then a map $f : X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ must be constant on

$$(\{x_0\} \times Y) \cup (X \times \{y_0\}),$$

sending it to z_0 . This is exactly how we have defined the smash product, which yields the following result:

Proposition 9.3.6. *Let $(X, x_0), (Y, y_0), (Z, z_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. If Y is locally compact and X is Hausdorff, then the smash product satisfies the pointed version of the exponential law. That is we have a continuous bijection:*

$$\text{Maps}_*((X, x_0) \wedge (Y, y_0), (Z, z_0)) \cong \text{Maps}_*((X, x_0), \text{Maps}((Y, y_0), (Z, z_0)))$$

PROOF. Clear. Invoke the discussion above, and note that [Proposition 9.2.6](#) descends to yield the desired result. \square

Remark 9.3.7. *If X is locally compact Hausdorff, the continuous bijection in [Proposition 9.3.6](#) is in fact a homeomorphism.*

Remark 9.3.8. *Let M, N be locally compact Hausdorff spaces. Then their one-point compactifications M_∞, N_∞ are compact Hausdorff spaces, and each is equipped with a canonical basepoint. We continue to write (M_∞, ∞_M) as M_∞ . The product $M \times N$ is locally compact Hausdorff and we have the basic relation*

$$(M \times N)_\infty \cong M_\infty \wedge N_\infty.$$

Indeed, there is canonical continuous map

$$u : M_\infty \times N_\infty \rightarrow (M \times N)_\infty$$

which maps $M \times N \subseteq M_\infty \times N_\infty$ via the identity onto $M \times N \subseteq (M \times N)_\infty$ and maps $M_\infty \times \{\infty_N\} \cup \{\infty_M\} \times N_\infty$ to $\{\infty_{M \times N}\}$. Therefore it induces a continuous bijection

$$u' : M_\infty \wedge N_\infty \rightarrow (M \times N)_\infty$$

on the quotient space $M_\infty \wedge N_\infty$ of $M_\infty \times N_\infty$. This space is compact, therefore u' is a homeomorphism.

Example 9.3.9. Each $(\mathbb{S}^n, *)$ is a pointed topological space. We have

$$(\mathbb{S}^n, *) = (\mathbb{S}^1, *) \wedge (\mathbb{S}^1, *)$$

Note that $(\mathbb{S}^1, *) \times (\mathbb{S}^1, *)$ is a torus. Visualizing the torus as quotient of a square with endpoints identified appropriately, $\mathbb{S}^1 \vee \mathbb{S}^1$ corresponds to the boundary of the square. The smash product identifies all these boundary points to a single point, yielding $(\mathbb{S}^2, *)$. More generally, we have

$$(\mathbb{S}^n, *) = (\mathbb{S}^1, *) \wedge \cdots \wedge (\mathbb{S}^1, *)$$

Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbb{S}^{m+n}, *) &\cong (\mathbb{R}^{m+n})_\infty \\ &= (\mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^n)_\infty \\ &\cong (\mathbb{R}^m)_\infty \wedge (\mathbb{R}^n)_\infty \cong (\mathbb{S}^m, *) \wedge (\mathbb{S}^n, *). \end{aligned}$$

Example 9.3.10. Let $(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. We can define the reduced cone of (X, x_0) as

$$\tilde{C}(X, x_0) = (X, x_0) \times (I, 0) / ((X, x_0) \times \{x_0\} \cup \{*\} \times (I, 0)).$$

Essentially by definition,

$$\tilde{C}(X, x_0) \cong (X, x_0) \wedge (I, 0)$$

We can also define the notion of a reduced suspension.

Definition 9.3.11. Let $(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. The reduced suspension $\Sigma(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ is the pointed space

$$\Sigma(X, x_0) = ((X, x_0) \times (\mathbb{S}^1, *)) / (\{x_0\} \times (\mathbb{S}^1, *) \cup (X, x_0) \times \{*\}),$$

where the base point is given by the collapsed subspace.

Remark 9.3.12. Using the quotient map $I \rightarrow I/\partial I \cong \mathbb{S}^1$, an alternative description of the reduced suspension $\Sigma(X, x_0)$ is given by

$$\Sigma(X, x_0) = ((X, x_0) \times (I, 0)) / (\{x_0\} \times I \cup X \times \{0, 1\}),$$

Example 9.3.13. Let $(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. We have

$$\Sigma(X, x_0) = (X, x_0) \wedge (\mathbb{S}^1, *)$$

Indeed, consider the quotient map $f : (I, 0) \rightarrow (\mathbb{S}^1, *)$ given by $f(t) = e^{2\pi it}$, and the diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} (X, x_0) \times (I, 0) & \xrightarrow{1 \times f} & (X, x_0) \times (\mathbb{S}^1, *) \\ p \downarrow & & \downarrow q \\ \Sigma(X, x_0) & & (X, x_0) \wedge (\mathbb{S}^1, *) \end{array}$$

It can be checked that We show that $1 \times f$ is a quotient map. The characteristic property of the quotient topology now implies that

$$\Sigma(X, x_0) \cong (X, x_0) \wedge (\mathbb{S}^1, *)$$

Remark 9.3.14. Along with [Example 9.3.9](#), the previous examples readily implies that we have

$$\Sigma(\mathbb{S}^n, *) = (\mathbb{S}^{n+1}, *)$$

Corollary 9.3.15. Let $(X, x_0), (Y, y_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ such that X is Hausdorff. Then there is a continuous bijective correspondence

$$\mathrm{Maps}_*(\Sigma(X, x_0), (Y, y_0)) \cong \mathrm{Maps}_*((X, x_0), \Omega(Y, y_0))$$

Passing to π_0 , we have

$$[\Sigma(X, x_0), (Y, y_0)] \cong [(X, x_0), \Omega(Y, y_0)].$$

PROOF. This follows from [Proposition 9.3.6](#) and that [Remark 9.3.14](#). □

9.4. Compactly Generated Spaces

The bijection in [Proposition 9.2.6](#) relies on the fact that Y is locally compact. A number of topological spaces in homotopy theory are non-locally finite CW complexes. Fundamental examples include \mathbb{RP}^∞ and \mathbb{CP}^∞ . We now look at a category of topological spaces where we expect homotopy theoretic propositions to be true without additional assumptions.

9.4.1. Compactly Generated Spaces. Informally, a compactly generated space is a topological space whose topology is determined by all continuous maps from arbitrary compact spaces.

Definition 9.4.1. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. A subset $A \subseteq X$ is called k -closed in X if, for any compact Hausdorff space K and continuous map $f : K \rightarrow X$, the preimage $f^{-1}(A) \subseteq K$ is closed in K .

The collection of k -closed subsets of X forms a topology, which contains the original topology of X . Let kX denote the topological space whose underlying set is that of X , but equipped with the topology of k -closed subsets of X . Because the k -topology contains the original topology on X , the identity function $\text{Id} : kX \rightarrow X$ is continuous.

Definition 9.4.2. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. X is compactly generated (CG) if $\text{Id} : kX \rightarrow X$ is a homeomorphism.

Let \mathbf{CG} denote the full subcategory of \mathbf{Top} consisting of compactly generated spaces. Let's discuss categorical properties:

Proposition 9.4.3. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$.

- (1) The k -ification is a functor.
- (2) For any space X , the map $k^2X \rightarrow kX$ is a homeomorphism. Hence, $k^2X \cong kX$.
- (3) The k -ification functor is right adjoint to the forgetful functor. That is,

$$\text{Hom}_{\mathbf{CG}}(X, kY) = \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}}(X, Y)$$

for all $X \in \mathbf{CG}$ and $Y \in \mathbf{Top}$.

- (4) The k -ification functor commutes with limits. Hence, limits exist in \mathbf{CG} .
- (5) Disjoint unions of compactly generated spaces are compactly generated. Quotients of compactly generated spaces by equivalence relations are compactly generated.
- (6) Colimits exist in \mathbf{CG} and can simply be computed in \mathbf{Top} .

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) Suppose $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is any continuous map and $A \subseteq Y$ is compactly closed. For any map $u : K \rightarrow X$, the set $u^{-1}(f^{-1}(A))$ is closed in K . Thus, $f^{-1}(A)$ is compactly closed in X . This means that $f : kX \rightarrow kY$ is continuous.
- (2) Given a compact Hausdorff space X and a (set) map $f : K \rightarrow X$, the map f is continuous if and only if $f : X \rightarrow kX$ is continuous. So the compactly closed sets of X are the same as the compactly closed sets of kX . In other words, $kX \cong k^2X$.
- (3) It suffices to show that $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if and only if $\bar{f} : X \rightarrow kY$ is continuous. Since the k -ification topology is finer, we assume that f is continuous and show that \bar{f} is continuous. But $k(f) : kX \rightarrow kY$ is continuous and $kX \cong X$.
- (4) This follows from (3) and categorical arguments. Indeed, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{CG}}(X, k(\varprojlim_i Y_i)) &\cong \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}}(X, \varprojlim_i Y_i) \\ &\cong \varprojlim_i \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}}(X, Y_i) \\ &= \varprojlim_i \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{CG}}(X, kY_i) = \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{CG}}(X, \varprojlim_i kY_i) \end{aligned}$$

for all $X \in \mathbf{CG}$ and $Y \in \mathbf{Top}$. Hence,

$$k(\varprojlim_i Y_i) = \varprojlim_i kY_i$$

- (5) Let $X = \coprod_i X_i$ such that each X_i is compactly generated. Let $A \subseteq X$ be k -closed. Then A has the form $\coprod_i A_i$, where $A_i = A \cap X_i$, and it is sufficient to check that A_i is closed in X_i . As X_i is CG, it is enough to check that A_i is k -closed in X_i . Consider a map $f : K \rightarrow X_i$. Then the composite $i \circ f : K \rightarrow X_i \hookrightarrow X$ is continuous and

$$f^{-1}(A_i) = (i \circ f)^{-1}(A),$$

which is closed because A is k -closed in X . Now let X be compactly generated and let $q : X \rightarrow Y$ a quotient map. Since X is compactly generated, q induces a continuous map $\tilde{q} : X \rightarrow kY$ as shown below:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & q & & \\ & \nearrow & & \searrow & \\ X & \xrightarrow{\tilde{q}} & kY & \xrightarrow{\text{Id}} & Y \end{array}$$

Let $A \subseteq Y$ be a k -open subset of Y . Hence, $\text{Id}^{-1}(A) \subseteq kY$ is open in kY . Then the preimage

$$q^{-1}(A) = (\text{Id} \circ \tilde{q})^{-1}(A) = \tilde{q}^{-1}(\text{Id}^{-1}(A)) \subseteq X$$

is open in X since $\tilde{q} : X \rightarrow kY$ is continuous. Therefore, $A \subseteq Y$ is open in Y since q is a quotient map.

- (6) Colimits in **Top** can be constructed by taking disjoint unions and quotients. The colimit of compactly generated spaces in the category **Top** is a compactly generated space. Thus, it is also the colimit in **CG**.

This completes the proof. \square

Remark 9.4.4. In *Proposition 9.4.3(3)* we have shown that $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if and only if $f : X \rightarrow kY$ is continuous for all $X \in \mathbf{CG}$ and $Y \in \mathbf{Top}$. This can be summarized such that following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} kY & \xrightarrow{\text{Id}} & Y \\ \uparrow \tilde{f} & \nearrow f & \\ X & & \end{array}$$

Note that \tilde{f} has the same underlying function as f . This exhibits $kY \rightarrow Y$ as the ‘closest approximation’ of Y by a CG space.

Proposition 9.4.5. Every locally compact Hausdorff space and CW-complex is CG.

PROOF. Let X be a locally compact space assume $f^{-1}(A) \subseteq K$ is closed for every compact Hausdorff space, K . We show A is closed by showing that A^c is open. Let $x \in A^c$. By local compactness, there exists a compact neighbourhood of x , say K_x . Let U_x be an open neighbourhood of x such that $x \in U_x \subseteq K_x$. Because $K_x \cap A$ is closed by hypothesis (consider the inclusion map $i_x : K_x \rightarrow X$), we have that $(K_x \cap A)^c$ is open. Therefore,

$$(K_x \cap A)^c \cap U_x = U_x^c := V_x$$

is an open neighbourhood of x not intersecting A . We have

$$A^c = \bigcup_{x \in A^c} V_x,$$

and therefore A^c is open. A CW complex is a colimit constructed by considering closed disks. Since closed disks are in **CG** and **CG** is closed under taking colimits, every CW complex is in **CG**. \square

Corollary 9.4.6. *Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. Then $X \in \mathbf{CG}$ if and only if X is a quotient space of a locally compact space.*

PROOF. Let $X \in \mathbf{CG}$. The converse follows from [Proposition 9.4.3](#). Consider the following collection:

$$\mathcal{K} = \{f_K(K) \mid f_K : K \rightarrow X \text{ is continuous and } K \text{ compact Hausdorff}\}$$

Let $Y = \bigoplus_{f_K(K) \in \mathcal{K}} f_K(K)$ where each $f_K(K) \in \mathcal{K}$ has the subspace topology inherited from X . Then Y is a locally compact space. Let

$$q : Y \rightarrow X$$

be the map maps each $f_K(K)$ onto the corresponding compact subset $f_K(K) \subseteq X$ by the identity map. We claim that the quotient topology, τ_q , generated by this mapping coincides with the original topology, τ , on X . Clearly, $\tau \subseteq \tau_q$ since q is a continuous map. Let $U \in \tau_q$. Let $g : L \rightarrow X$ be continuous such that L is compact. Since $U \in \tau_q$, we have that $q^{-1}(U)$ is open in Y . Since $g(L)$ is open in Y , it follows that $q^{-1}(U) \cap g(L)$ is open in Y . But $q^{-1}(U) \cap g(L) = g^{-1}(U)$. Thus, $g^{-1}(U)$ is open in L and consequently, $U \in \tau$. \square

Remark 9.4.7. *Limits in \mathbf{CG} need not coincide with limits in \mathbf{Top} . Let $X, Y \in \mathbf{CG}$ such that $X = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{1, 1/2, 1/3, \dots\}$ with the subspace topology, and let $Y = \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$ with the quotient topology. $X \in \mathbf{CG}$ since X is a CW complex² and $Y \in \mathbf{CG}$ by [Corollary 9.4.6](#). In fact, Y is also a CW complex since Y is an infinite bouquet of circles. However, $X \times Y$ is not compactly generated. Let*

$$A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \bigcup_{i,j=1}^{\infty} \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{i} + \frac{a_i}{j}, i + \frac{0.5}{j} \right) \in X \times Y : j \in \mathbb{N} \right\}, \quad a_i = \left(\frac{1}{i} - \frac{1}{i+1} \right) 10^{-i}.$$

The closure of A contains $(0, 0)$. Hence, A is not closed. But for any compact subset $K \subseteq X \times Y$, the set $A \cap K$ has only finitely many points. This is because for fixed $i \in \mathbb{N}$, there are only finitely many $j \in \mathbb{N}$, and also there can be only finitely many i . Hence A is k -closed. This shows that $X \times Y$ is not in \mathbf{CG} . See [\[Eng89\]](#) for details.

Remark 9.4.8. *We have*

$$\mathbf{CW} \subsetneq \mathbf{CG} \subsetneq \mathbf{Top}$$

as inclusion of categories. The inclusions are in general strict. Indeed, the Hawaiian earring is in \mathbf{CG} since it is compact and hence locally compact. However, we have already seen that it admits no CW decomposition. For the inclusion $\mathbf{CG} \subsetneq \mathbf{Top}$, consider the example in [Remark 9.4.7](#).

We can now discuss the mapping spaces with the notion of a compactly generated space in place. We need to modify the definition given in the previous section a bit since we deal with compact Hausdorff spaces in this section.

Definition 9.4.9. Let $C_0(X, Y)$ be the set of continuous functions from X to Y with the compact-open topology that is generated by a subbasis formed by the sets of the form

$$B(u, K, U) = \{f : K \rightarrow Y \mid f(u(K)) \subseteq U, u : K \rightarrow X \text{ is cts. s.t } K \text{ is cpt. Hausdorff}\}$$

We define $C(X, Y) = kC_0(X, Y)$.

²Right?

Remark 9.4.10. If $X, Y \in \mathbf{CG}$, then $X \times Y$ might not be in \mathbf{CG} . See [Remark 9.4.7](#). In this case, we can consider $k(X \times Y)$. Below, we write $k(X \times Y)$ as $X \times_k Y$.

Remark 9.4.11. If $X \in \mathbf{CG}$ and $Y \in \mathbf{Top}$ is locally compact, it turns out that $X \times Y \in \mathbf{CG}$. Since $X \in \mathbf{CG}$, we have $X = Z / \sim$ such that Z is locally compact by [Corollary 9.4.6](#). In other words, we have a quotient map $q : Z \rightarrow X$. Consider the map

$$q \times \text{Id}_Y : Z \times Y \rightarrow X \times Y$$

It is a standard fact that $q \times \text{Id}_Y$ is a quotient map since Y is assumed to be locally compact. It is clear that

$$X \times Y = \frac{Z}{\sim} \times Y = \frac{Z \times Y}{\sim'},$$

where $(z, y) \sim' (z', y')$ if and only if $z \sim z'$. In other words, we have “ $\sim' = \sim \times \text{Id}$ ”. Here we have implicitly used the fact that the bijection of sets

$$X \times Y \cong \frac{Z}{\sim} \times Y \cong \frac{Z \times Y}{\sim'}$$

is in fact a homeomorphism in \mathbf{Top} essentially because the product topology (left hand side) and the quotient topology (right hand side) are the same. Since $Z \times Y$ is locally compact, the claim follows from [Corollary 9.4.6](#).

Proposition 9.4.12. Let $X, Y, Z \in \mathbf{CG}$.

- (1) For $X, Y \in \mathbf{CG}$, $C(X, \cdot)$ is a covariant functor from \mathbf{CG} to \mathbf{Sets} . Similarly, $C(\cdot, Y)$ is a contravariant functor from \mathbf{CG} to \mathbf{Sets} .
- (2) The evaluation map

$$\text{Ev}_{X,Y} : X \times C(X, Y) \rightarrow Y$$

and the injection map

$$i_{X,Y} : Y \rightarrow C(X \times_k C(X, Y))$$

are continuous.

- (3) (**Exponential Law**) The map

$$\varphi : C(X \times_k Y, Z) \rightarrow C(X, C(Y, Z)),$$

as discussed in [Proposition 9.2.6](#) is a homeomorphism.

- (4) The composition map

$$\Phi_{X,Y,Z} : C(X, Y) \times_k C(Y, Z) \rightarrow C(X, Z)$$

is continuous.

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) We prove the the covariant case. It suffices to check that $C_0(X, \cdot)$ is a covariant functor. We have to check that if $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ is a continuous map, then $g_* = C_0(X, Y) \rightarrow C_0(X, Z)$ is continuous. But we have

$$(g_*)^{-1}B(u, K, U) = B(u, K, g^{-1}(U))$$

The claim follows.

- (2) It suffices to show that $Y \rightarrow C_0(X, X \times_k Y)$ or equivalently that $i^{-1}B(u, K, U)$ is open in Y . As $Y \in \mathbf{CG}$, it is equivalent to check that $v^{-1}i^{-1}B(u, K, U)$ is open in L for every test map $v : L \rightarrow Y$, where L is a compact Hausdorff space. Note that $u \times v : K \times_k L \rightarrow X \times_k Y$ is a test map, so $(u \times v)^{-1}(U)$ is open in $K \times_k L$. By the Tube Lemma, the set

$$\{b \in L : K \times \{b\} \subseteq (u \times v)^{-1}(U)\}$$

is open in L . It is easy to check that this set is the same as $v^{-1}\text{inj}^{-1}B(u, K, U)$, which completes the proof.

Consider an open set $U \subseteq Y$, and a map $u : K \rightarrow X \times_k C(X, Y)$. We show that $V = u^{-1}\text{Ev}^{-1}(U)$ is open in K . Let $v : K \rightarrow X$ and $w : K \rightarrow C(X, Y)$ be the two components of u , so

$$V = \{a \in K : w(a)(v(a)) \in U\}.$$

Suppose that $a \in V$. As $w(a) \circ v : K \rightarrow Y$ is continuous, we can choose a compact neighbourhood L of a in K such that $w(a)(v(L)) \subseteq U$. This means that $w(a) \in B(v, L, U) \subseteq C(X, Y)$. As $w : K \rightarrow C(X, Y)$ is continuous, the set $N = w^{-1}(B(v, L, U))$ is a neighbourhood of a in K . If $b \in N \cap L$, then $w(b)(v(b)) \in w(b)(v(L)) \subseteq U$, so $b \in V$. Thus, the neighbourhood $N \cap L$ of a is contained in V . This shows that V is open, as required.

- (3) We first show that it is a bijection at the level of sets. If $f : X \rightarrow C(Y, Z)$ is continuous, then its image

$$X \times_k Y \xrightarrow{f \times \text{Id}} C(Y, Z) \times_k Y \xrightarrow{\text{Ev}_{Y, Z}} Z$$

is continuous. On the other hand, if $g : X \times_{\mathbf{CG}} Y \rightarrow Z$ is continuous, then its image

$$X \xrightarrow{\text{inj}_{X, Y}} C(Y, X \times_k Y) \xrightarrow{\text{Ev}_{X, Y}} Y$$

is continuous. This shows that the exponential map is bijection. Moreover, if $W \in \mathbf{CG}$ we have bijections:

$$\begin{aligned} C(W, C(X, C(Y, Z))) &\cong C(W \times_k X, C(Y, Z)) \\ &\cong C(W \times_k X \times_k Y, Z) \\ &\cong C(W, C(X \times_k Y, Z)). \end{aligned}$$

This means that $C(X, C(Y, Z))$ and $C(X \times_k Y, Z)$ represent the same contravariant functor and the claim now follows by Yoneda's Lemma.

- (4) The proof is similar to [Proposition 9.2.10](#).

This completes the proof. □

Thus, we have obtained a category \mathbf{CG} that contains all locally compact Hausdorff spaces, CW-complexes, admits all limits and colimits, and is Cartesian closed.

9.4.2. Weakly Hausdorff Spaces. The category \mathbf{CG} still contains some bad topological spaces, like the Sierpinski space. These do not satisfy the Hausdorff condition and we would like to exclude them by imposing a Hausdorff like condition.

Definition 9.4.13. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. Then X is weakly Hausdorff (WH) if for every compact Hausdorff space K and every continuous map $u : K \rightarrow X$, the image $u(K) \subseteq X$ is closed in X .

Example 9.4.14. If X is a Hausdorff space, then X is weakly-Hausdorff since $u(K)$ is compact and thus closed in X . Every CW-complex is Hausdorff, hence in particular weakly Hausdorff.

Proposition 9.4.15. *Let X be a weakly Hausdorff topological space.*

- (1) *Any finer topology on X is still weakly Hausdorff. In particular, kX is weakly Hausdorff.*
- (2) *Any subspace of X is weakly Hausdorff.*

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) Let x be the set X equipped with a topology containing the original topology, i.e., the identity function $\text{Id} : x \rightarrow X$ is continuous. For any compact Hausdorff space K and continuous map $u : K \rightarrow x$, the composite $\text{Id} \circ u : K \rightarrow X$ is continuous, and so its image $(\text{Id} \circ u)(K) \subseteq X$ is closed in X . Thus, $u(K) = \text{Id}^{-1}((\text{Id} \circ u)(K))$ is closed in x .
- (2) Let $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ be the inclusion of a subspace in X . For any compact Hausdorff space K and continuous map $u : K \rightarrow A$, the composite $i \circ u : K \rightarrow X$ is continuous, and so its image $(i \circ u)(K) \subseteq X$ is closed in X , and thus in A as well.

This completes the proof. \square

Let \mathbf{CGWH} denote the full subcategory of \mathbf{CG} consisting of compactly generated weakly Hausdorff spaces. We have

$$\mathbf{CW} \subsetneq \mathbf{CGWH} \subsetneq \mathbf{CG} \subsetneq \mathbf{Top}$$

as inclusion of categories. The inclusion $\mathbf{CGWH} \subsetneq \mathbf{CG}$ is strict since the Sierpinski space is in \mathbf{CG} but not in \mathbf{CGWH} . Similarly, the inclusion $\mathbf{CW} \subsetneq \mathbf{CGWH}$ is strict. Simply consider the Hawaiian earring.

Proposition 9.4.16. *Let $X \in \mathbf{CG}$. Then $X \in \mathbf{CGWH}$ if and only if the diagonal subspace $\Delta_X = \{(x, x) \mid x \in X\}$ is k -closed in $X \times_k X$.*

PROOF. Suppose that X is weakly Hausdorff. First, observe that every one-point set $\{x\} \subseteq X$ is certainly a continuous image of a compact Hausdorff space and thus is closed in X , so X is T_1 . Next, consider a test map $u = (v, w) : K \rightarrow X \times_k X$. It will be enough to show that the set $u^{-1}(\Delta_X) = \{a \in K : v(a) = w(a)\}$ is closed in K . Suppose that $a \notin u^{-1}(\Delta_X)$, so $v(a) \neq w(a)$. Then the set

$$U = \{b : v(b) \neq w(a)\}$$

is an open neighbourhood of a (because $\{w(a)\}$ is closed in X). Now K is compact Hausdorff and therefore regular, so there is an open neighbourhood V of a in K such that $\overline{V} \subseteq U$, or equivalently $w(a) \notin v(\overline{V})$. This means that a lies in the set

$$W = w^{-1}(v(\overline{V})^c).$$

The weak Hausdorff condition implies that $v(\overline{V})$ is closed in X , and thus W is open in K . We claim that $(V \cap W) \cap u^{-1}(\Delta_X) = \emptyset$. Indeed, if $b \in V \cap W$, then $v(b) \in v(\overline{V})$ but $w(b) \in v(\overline{V})^c$ by the definition of W , so $v(b) \neq w(b)$, which implies $u(b) = (v(b), w(b)) \notin \Delta_X$. This shows that $u^{-1}(\Delta_X)$ is closed in K , as required.

Conversely, suppose that Δ_X is k -closed in $X \times_k X$. Let $u : K \rightarrow X$ be a test map. Given any other test map $v : L \rightarrow X$, we define

$$M = \{(a, b) \in K \times L : u(a) = v(b)\} \subseteq K \times L.$$

This can also be described as $(u \times v)^{-1}(\Delta_X)$, so it is closed in $K \times L$ and thus compact. It follows that the projection $\pi_L(M)$ is compact and hence closed in L . However, it is easy to see that $\pi_L(M) = v^{-1}(u(K))$. This shows that $u(K)$ is k -closed in X , and hence closed. This means that X is weakly Hausdorff. \square

Remark 9.4.17. *Proposition 9.4.16 is an important characterization of weakly Hausdorff spaces. In **Top**, the criteria in Proposition 9.4.16 is exactly the characterization of a Hausdorff space. That is $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ is Hausdorff if and only if $\Delta_X = \{(x, x) \mid x \in X\}$ is closed in $X \times X$. Here $X \times X$ is the product in **Top**.*

We now have two additional functors. The first is the forgetful functor from **CGWH** to **CG**. Another is weak-Hausdorffification, denoted as h , from **CG** to **CGWH**. We need to construct this functor h . We first need some additional facts about taking quotients in **CG**.

Lemma 9.4.18. *Let $X, Y \in \mathbf{CG}$ and let \sim be an equivalence relation on X .*

(1) *We have*

$$(X \times_k Y)/(\sim \times \text{Id}) \cong (X/\sim) \times_k Y$$

(2) *Let q be the map*

$$q : X \times_k X \rightarrow (X/\sim) \times_k (X/\sim)$$

The set $q^{-1}(\Delta_{X/\sim}) \subseteq X \times_k X$ is closed if and only if $X/\sim \in \mathbf{CGWH}$.

PROOF. The proof is given below:

(1) The standard map

$$f : X \times_k Y \rightarrow (X/\sim) \times_k Y$$

respects the relation $\sim \times \text{Id}$ and thus factors as

$$\bar{f} : (X \times_k Y)/(\sim \times \text{Id}) \rightarrow (X/\sim) \times_k Y$$

Let g_1 be the projection map.

$$g_1 : (X/\sim) \times_k Y \rightarrow (X \times_k Y)/(\sim \times \text{Id})$$

Using the exponential law, we get a map

$$g_2 : X \rightarrow C(Y, (X \times_k Y)/(\sim \times \text{Id}))$$

This respects \sim on the level of sets, and so factors to give a map

$$\bar{g}_2 : X/\sim \rightarrow C(Y, (X \times_k Y)/(\sim \times \text{Id}))$$

Using the exponential law again, we get a map

$$\bar{g} : X/\sim \times_k Y \rightarrow (X \times_k Y)/(\sim \times \text{Id})$$

\bar{f} and \bar{g} are clearly inverses.

(2) By applying (1) twice, we have

$$(X \times_k X)/(\sim \times \sim) \cong (X/\sim) \times_k (X/\sim)$$

Thus, $\Delta_{X/\sim}$ is closed if and only if $q^{-1}(\Delta_{X/\sim})$ is closed if and only if X/\sim is in **CGWH**.

This completes the proof. \square

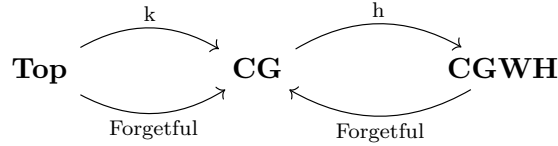
Proposition 9.4.19. *There exists a functor $h : \mathbf{CG} \rightarrow \mathbf{CGWH}$ that is a left adjoint to the forgetful functor $\mathbf{CGWH} \rightarrow \mathbf{CG}$. That is,*

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{CG}}(h(X), Y) = \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{CGWH}}(X, Y)$$

for all $X \in \mathbf{CG}$ and $Y \in \mathbf{CGWH}$.

PROOF. We first construct h . For $X \in \mathbf{CG}$, consider the smallest equivalence relation on $X \times_k X$ that is closed. We can take the intersection of all closed equivalence relations. Then $hX := X / \sim \in \mathbf{CGWH}$ and there is a natural projection map $p : X \rightarrow X / \sim$. We now show that h is left-adjoint to the forgetful functor. It suffices to show that every $f : X \rightarrow Y$ factors through $X \rightarrow hX$. Since $Y \in \mathbf{CGWH}$ $\Delta_Y \subseteq Y \times_k Y$ is closed and hence $f^{-1}(\Delta_Y)$ is closed in $X \times_k X$. This is an equivalence relation that contains \sim since it is closed. Thus $X \rightarrow Y$ respects \sim and factors through $X \rightarrow hX$. Moreover, h is a functor since for $f : X \rightarrow Y$ such that $X, Y \in \mathbf{CG}$, we have $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow hY$ which in turn gives $hX \rightarrow hY$. \square

Remark 9.4.20. *The functors discussed are summarized in the diagram below:*



Corollary 9.4.21. *The following properties hold:*

- (1) *Limits exist in \mathbf{CGWH} and can simply be computed in \mathbf{CG} . In fact, small colimits in \mathbf{CGWH} can be computed in \mathbf{CG} .*
- (2) *h commutes with colimits. In particular, colimits in exist in \mathbf{CGWH} and are obtained by applying h to the colimit in \mathbf{CG} . In particular, the category \mathbf{CGWH} is admits small colimits exist because \mathbf{CG} admits admits small colimits.*
- (3) *For $X \in \mathbf{CG}$ and $Y \in \mathbf{CGWH}$, $C(X, Y) \in \mathbf{CGWH}$. Hence, \mathbf{CGWH} is Cartesian closed.*

PROOF. (Sketch) The proof is given below:

- (1) (Sketch) This is because an arbitrary product in \mathbf{CG} of \mathbf{CGWH} spaces is still \mathbf{WH} , and so is an equalizer in \mathbf{CG} of two maps.
- (2) This follows since h is left adjoint to the forgetful functor.
- (3) Define

$$\mathrm{Ev}_x : C(X, Y) \cong \{x\} \times C(X, Y) \hookrightarrow X \times C(X, Y) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{Ev}} Y$$

We have

$$\Delta_{C(X, Y)} = \bigcap_{x \in X} (\mathrm{Ev}_x \times \mathrm{Ev}_x)^{-1}(\Delta_Y)$$

This is closed. Hence, $C(X, Y) \in \mathbf{CGWH}$,

This completes the proof. \square

Thus, we have obtained a category \mathbf{CGWH} that contains all locally compact Hausdorff spaces, CW-complexes, admits all limits and colimits, and is Cartesian closed.

Remark 9.4.22. *All results about $\text{Maps}(X, Y)$ that hold under the hypothesis of locally compact and Hausdorff hold without any additional assumptions in $\mathbf{C}(X, Y)$.*

CHAPTER 10

Fibrations

We adopt the following conventions from now on:

- (1) We will assume that we work in the category **CGWH**.
- (2) Abusing notation, we will write **CGWH** as **Top**.
- (3) We will write $X \times_k Y$ simply as $X \times Y$.

These assumptions will allow the theory of fibrations to be developed without further restrictions.

10.1. Fibrations

Fibrations play a fundamental role in homotopy theory. In a sense, fibrations can be thought of as ‘homotopically nice projections,’ a notion made precise below. We will introduce two types of fibrations - the Hurewicz fibrations and Serre fibrations - which are both obtained by imposing certain homotopy lifting properties. Prominent examples of fibrations are fiber covering spaces and fiber bundles, which are introduced in the next section. These fibrations provide powerful tools for understanding the relationships between the base and total spaces, and they allow us to analyze the homotopy type of complex spaces by studying simpler ones.

10.1.1. Definition & Examples.

Definition 10.1.1. Let $X, E \in \mathbf{Top}$. A continuous surjective map $p : E \rightarrow X$ satisfies the homotopy lifting for $A \in \mathbf{Top}$ if for any homotopy $H : A \times I \rightarrow X$ and map $f : A \times \{0\} \rightarrow E$, there exists a homotopy $\tilde{H} : A \times I \rightarrow E$ such that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 A \times \{0\} & \xrightarrow{H_0} & E \\
 \downarrow i_0 & \nearrow \tilde{H} & \downarrow p \\
 A \times I & \xrightarrow{H} & X
 \end{array}$$

- (1) We say a continuous surjective map $p : E \rightarrow X$ is a Hurewicz fibration if it satisfies the homotopy lifting property for any $A \in \mathbf{Top}$.
- (2) We say a continuous surjective map $p : E \rightarrow X$ is a Serre fibration if it satisfies the homotopy lifting property for any $I^n \in \mathbf{Top}$ for each $n \geq 0$.

Remark 10.1.2. Clearly, a Hurewicz fibration is a Serre fibration. It is clear that a fibration is a generalization of the notion of a covering space since covering spaces satisfy the homotopy lifting property.

Remark 10.1.3. A continuous surjective map $p : E \rightarrow X$ satisfies the homotopy lifting property for $A \in \mathbf{Top}$ if and only if the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 A & \xrightarrow{H} & X^I \\
 \searrow \tilde{H} & & \downarrow p_* \\
 & E^I & \xrightarrow{p_*} X^I \\
 \downarrow f & \downarrow \text{Ev}_0 & \downarrow \text{Ev}_0 \\
 & E & \xrightarrow{p} X
 \end{array}$$

Here Ev_0 is the evaluation at 0 map and X^I denotes $\text{Maps}(I, X)$.

Remark 10.1.4. If $p : E \rightarrow X$ is a fibration and $x \in X$, then $F_x := p^{-1}(x) \subseteq E$ is called the fiber of p over x . We write

$$F_x \rightarrow E \rightarrow X$$

Example 10.1.5. Let's look at some examples of fibrations:

- (1) For any $X \in \mathbf{Top}$, the unique map $X \rightarrow *$ is a Hurewicz fibration. This is clear.
- (2) Any projection $p : X \times Y \rightarrow X$ is a Hurewicz fibration. For $A \in \mathbf{Top}$, let $H : A \times I \rightarrow X$ be a homotopy such that H_0 lifts to a map $A \rightarrow X \times Y$. We can define \tilde{H} by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \tilde{H} : A \times I &\rightarrow X \times Y, \\
 (a, t) &\mapsto (H(a, t), H(a, 0)).
 \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that \tilde{H} satisfies the definition.

- (3) A homeomorphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a Hurewicz fibration since we can simply define $\tilde{H} = f^{-1} \circ H$.
- (4) Consider the evaluation map

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Ev}_{0,1} : \text{Maps}(I, X) &\rightarrow X \times X \\
 \gamma &\mapsto (\gamma(0), \gamma(1))
 \end{aligned}$$

We show that $\text{Ev}_{0,1}$ is a Hurewicz fibration. Consider the diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 A \cong A \times \{0\} & \xrightarrow{H_0} & \text{Maps}(I, X) \\
 \downarrow i_0 & \nearrow \tilde{H} & \downarrow \text{Ev}_{0,1} \\
 A \times I & \xrightarrow{H} & X \times X
 \end{array}$$

Equivalently, we are given a continuous map

$$\varphi : (A \times \{0\} \times I) \cup (A \times I \times \{0, 1\}) \rightarrow X$$

which we wish to extend to $A \times I \times I$. But

$$(\{0\} \times I) \cup (I \times \{0, 1\}) := J_1 \subseteq I^2$$

is a retract of I^2 . The argument is similar to [Example 2.1.17](#). Hence so is $A \times J_1$ of $A \times I \times I$. Therefore, we can simply pre-compose φ with the retraction

$$r : A \times I \times I \rightarrow A \times J_1$$

The unmarked dotted arrow from $A \times I$ to E can be completed since p is a Hurewicz fibration. The fact that the square is a pullback square then implies the existence of H .

(4) Consider the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 A & & & & \\
 \downarrow q & \nearrow H & & & \\
 & N_p & & & \\
 \downarrow \pi_1 & \nearrow \pi_2 & & & \\
 & E^I & \xrightarrow{p_*} & X^I & \\
 \downarrow \text{Ev}_0 & & \downarrow \text{Ev}_0 & & \\
 & E & \xrightarrow{p} & X &
 \end{array}$$

Suppose p satisfies the homotopy lifting property for N_p . Then the map s exists as in the diagram. By the universal property of pullbacks, there exists a map $q : Y \rightarrow N_p$ such that the diagram commutes. Then $s \circ q : Y \rightarrow E^I$ solves the problem.

This completes the proof. \square

Remark 10.1.7. We give N_p the subspace topology with respect to the compact open topology. We say that N_p is a universal test space $p : E \rightarrow X$.

10.1.2. Mapping Path Space. N_p is an instance of the construction of a mapping path space which we now describe.

Definition 10.1.8. Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous map. The mapping path space is the topological space

$$N_f = X \times_Y Y^I = \{(x, \gamma) \in X \times Y^I \mid f(x) = \gamma(0)\}.$$

We give N_f the subspace topology with respect to the compact open topology.

Note that N_f is defined as a pullback:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 N_f & \xrightarrow{\pi_2} & Y^I \\
 \downarrow \pi_1 & & \downarrow \text{Ev}_0 \\
 X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y
 \end{array}$$

We can now use the mapping path space construction in [Proposition 10.1.6\(4\)](#) to argue that any continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ can be decomposed as a composition of a homotopy equivalence and a Hurewicz fibration.

Proposition 10.1.9. Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous map. Then f can be decomposed as

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 & & f & & \\
 & \nearrow & & \searrow & \\
 X & \xrightarrow{i} & N_f & \xrightarrow{p} & Y
 \end{array}$$

where i is a homotopy equivalence and p is a Hurewicz fibration.

PROOF. We have $X \subseteq N_f$ via mapping $x \mapsto (x, c_{f(x)})$, where $c_{f(x)}$ is the constant path based at the image of x under f . Call this map i as in the diagram above. Define

$$\begin{aligned} p: N_f &\rightarrow Y \\ (x, \gamma) &\mapsto \gamma(1) \end{aligned}$$

Clearly, $f = p \circ i$. We first show that i is a homotopy equivalence. Let $\pi_1 : N_f \rightarrow X$ be the projection onto X . Then $\pi_1 \circ i = \text{Id}_X$ and we have a homotopy

$$\begin{aligned} H: N_f \times I &\rightarrow N_f \\ ((x, \gamma), t) &\mapsto (x, s \mapsto \gamma((1-t)s)) \end{aligned}$$

from $i \circ \pi_1$ to Id_{N_f} . We now check that p is a Hurewicz fibration. Consider the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A \times \{0\} & \xrightarrow{H_0} & N_f \\ \downarrow i_0 & & \downarrow p \\ A \times I & \xrightarrow{H} & Y \end{array}$$

First note that we have the following commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} A \cong A \times \{0\} & \xrightarrow{H_0} & N_f & \xrightarrow{\pi_1} & X \\ & \searrow \text{Id} & & \nearrow \pi_1 \circ H_0 & \\ \downarrow i_0 & & & & \uparrow \\ A \times I & \xrightarrow{\pi_A} & A \cong A \times \{0\} & & \end{array}$$

If we write $H_0(a) = (I(a), J(a))$, then $\pi_A \circ (\pi \circ H_0)(a, t) = I(a)$. Hence, we identify $\pi_A \circ (\pi_1 \circ H_0)$ with I . Moreover, using [Example 10.1.5\(4\)](#), we have the following commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} A \times \{0\} & \xrightarrow{H_0} & N_f & \xrightarrow{\pi_2} & Y^I \\ \downarrow i_0 & & & \nearrow K & \downarrow \text{Ev}_{0,1} \\ A \times I & \xrightarrow{(f \circ I, H)} & Y \times Y & & \end{array}$$

Hence, we can define $\tilde{H}(a, t) = (I(a, t), K(a, t))$. The image of \tilde{H} is in N_f . This is because

$$f(I(a)) = \text{Ev}_0(K(a, t))$$

Moreover, the intended diagram commutes since

$$\begin{aligned} (p \circ \tilde{H})(a, t) &= K(a, 1) = \text{Ev}_1 K(a, t) = H(a, t), \\ \tilde{H} \circ i_0(a) &= \tilde{H}(a, 0) = H_0(a). \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof. \square

Motivated by [Proposition 10.1.9](#) we can make the following definition of the homotopy fiber of any arbitrary continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$.

Definition 10.1.10. Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous map. Let $p : N_f \rightarrow Y$ denote the map as in [Proposition 10.1.9](#). The homotopy fiber of f over $y_0 \in Y$ is

$$\text{hFiber}_f(y_0) := p^{-1}(f) = \{(x, \gamma) \mid \gamma(0) = f(x), \gamma(1) = y_0\}$$

Remark 10.1.11. For each $y_0 \in Y$, note that there is a canonical map from the fiber of f over x to the homotopy fiber of f over x :

$$\begin{aligned} f^{-1}(y_0) &\rightarrow \text{hFiber}_f(y_0) \\ x &\mapsto (x, c_{f(x)}) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the fiber sits in the homotopy fiber while the homotopy fiber can be thought of as a ‘relaxed’ version of the fiber: a point of the homotopy fiber is a pair (x, γ) consisting of $x \in X$ together with a path γ in Y ‘witnessing’ that x ‘lies in the fiber up to homotopy.’

Remark 10.1.12. Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a fibration. We check that the canonical map

$$f^{-1}(y_0) \rightarrow \text{hFiber}_f(y_0)$$

is a homotopy equivalence in this case. Define a homotopy

$$\begin{aligned} H : N_f \times I &\rightarrow Y \\ ((x, \gamma), t) &\mapsto \gamma(t) \end{aligned}$$

Note that $H_0(x, \gamma) = \gamma(0) = f(x)$, and H_0 lifts through f by $\bar{H}_0 : N_f \rightarrow X$, $\bar{H}_0(x, \gamma) = x$. That is, $f \circ \bar{H}_0 = H_0$. Because $X \rightarrow Y$ is a fibration, there is a full lift

$$\bar{H} : N_f \times I \rightarrow X$$

of H through f . In other words, \bar{H}_t satisfies the following equation:

$$f(\bar{H}_t(x, \gamma)) = \gamma(t)$$

Now restrict everything to the fibers. Let

$$\begin{aligned} h_t : \text{hFiber}_f(y_0) &\rightarrow \text{hFiber}_f(y_0) \\ (x, \gamma) &\mapsto (\bar{H}_t(x, \gamma), \gamma|_{[t, 1]}) \end{aligned}$$

Then h_0 is the identity, whereas $h_1(x, \gamma) = (\bar{H}_1(x, \gamma), c_{y_0})$ is in the image of $i : f^{-1}(y_0) \rightarrow \text{hFiber}_f(y_0)$. Now that h_t is a homotopy between $i \circ h_1$ and the identity, while the restriction of h_t is a homotopy between $h_1 \circ i$ and the identity. This verifies the assertion.

10.1.3. Fiber Homotopy Equivalence. It is important to study fibrations over a given base space $X \in \mathbf{Top}$, working in the category of spaces over X which we denote as \mathbf{Top}_X . An object in \mathbf{Top}_X is a continuous map $p : E \rightarrow X$. Moreover, a morphism in \mathbf{Top}_X is a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E_1 & \xrightarrow{f} & E_2 \\ & \searrow p_1 & \swarrow p_2 \\ & X & \end{array}$$

A homotopy in \mathbf{Top}_X is commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E_1 \times I & \xrightarrow{H} & E_2 \\ & \searrow p_1 & \swarrow p_2 \\ & X & \end{array}$$

such that for all $t \in I$, we have the following commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E_1 \times \{t\} & \xrightarrow{H|_{E_1 \times \{t\}}} & E_2 \\ & \searrow p_1|_{E_1 \times \{t\}} & \swarrow p_2 \\ & X & \end{array}$$

Definition 10.1.13. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ and $E_1, E_2 \in \mathbf{Top}_X$. An object $f : E_1 \rightarrow E_2$ in \mathbf{Top}_X is homotopy equivalent if there exists another object $g : E_2 \rightarrow E_1$ in \mathbf{Top}_X such that

$$g \circ f \sim \text{Id}_{E_1}, \quad f \circ g \sim \text{Id}_{E_2},$$

in \mathbf{Top}_X . The maps f and g are called fibre homotopy equivalences.

The following result will be useful later on:

Proposition 10.1.14. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. Let $p_1 : E_1 \rightarrow X$ and $p_2 : E_2 \rightarrow X$ be fibrations in \mathbf{Top}_X . Let $f : E_1 \rightarrow E_2$ be a map such that $p_2 \circ f = p_1$. Suppose that f is a homotopy equivalence in \mathbf{Top} . Then f is a fiber homotopy equivalence in \mathbf{Top}_X .

PROOF. The proof is skipped. \square

10.1.4. Characterization of Fibrations. We end with a criterion that allows us to recognize Hurewicz fibrations. The criterion will also allow us to deduce that covering spaces and fiber bundles over nice spaces are Hurewicz fibrations.

Definition 10.1.15. Let \mathcal{U} be an open cover of $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. We say that \mathcal{U} is numerable if there are maps $\lambda_U : X \rightarrow I$ for each $U \in \mathcal{U}$ such that $\lambda_U^{-1}((0, 1]) = U$.

Proposition 10.1.16. Let $p : E \rightarrow X$ be a continuous surjective map and let \mathcal{U} be a locally finite numerable open cover of X . Then p is a Hurewicz fibration if and only if $p|_U : p^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U$ is a Hurewicz fibration for every $U \in \mathcal{U}$.

PROOF. The proof can be found in [May99]. We will see in [Proposition 10.2.4](#) that fiber bundles are Serre fibrations. This suffices for most purposes. \square

10.2. Fibre & Principal Bundles

In this section, we discuss fiber bundles providing the key definitions required to introduce some important examples of interest. Our primary interest in fiber bundles arises from the fact that important examples of Serre fibrations are given by fiber bundles.

10.2.1. Definitions.

Definition 10.2.1. Let $E, X, F \in \mathbf{Top}$. A continuous surjective map $p : E \rightarrow X$ is a F -fibre bundle if it satisfies the following conditions:

- (1) There is an open cover $\{U_\alpha\}_\alpha$
- (2) There are homeomorphisms $\varphi_\alpha : p^{-1}(U_\alpha) \rightarrow U_\alpha \times F$ such that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} p^{-1}(U_\alpha) & \xrightarrow{\varphi_\alpha} & U_\alpha \times F \\ p \downarrow & \swarrow \text{pr}_1 & \\ U_\alpha & & \end{array}$$

Remark 10.2.2. If $p : E \rightarrow X$ is a continuous surjective map, we will henceforth use the term *fibre bundle* to refer to a F -fibre bundle when the fiber F is clear from context.

Example 10.2.3. Here is a basic list of examples of fibre bundles:

- (1) A trivial fibre bundle is of the form $F \times X$ with fibre X . It is clear that this is a fibre bundle since $p : F \times X \rightarrow X$ is a continuous surjective map and the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X \times F & \xrightarrow{\text{Id}} & X \times F \\ p \downarrow & \swarrow \text{pr}_1 & \\ X & & \end{array}$$

- (2) Let $p : E \rightarrow X$ be a covering space with discrete fibres, F . Then $p : E \rightarrow X$ is a fibre bundle with fibre F .
- (3) Let $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$. Let $p : E \rightarrow X$ be a rank n \mathbb{K} -vector bundle. Then $p : E \rightarrow X$ is a fibre bundle with fibre \mathbb{K}^n .

Why are we interested in fiber bundles in homotopy theory? We demonstrate that a fiber bundle is a Serre fibration.

Proposition 10.2.4. Let $p : E \rightarrow X$ be a fibre bundle. Then $p : E \rightarrow X$ is a Serre fibration.

PROOF. Consider the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} I^n \times \{0\} & \xrightarrow{H_0} & E \\ \downarrow i_0 & & \downarrow p \\ I^n \times I & \xrightarrow{H} & X \end{array}$$

Since $\pi : E \rightarrow B$ is a fiber bundle, there exists an open covering by subsets U_α such that $p^{-1}(U_\alpha) \cong U_\alpha \times F$ (over U_α). We can cover I^{n+1} by the open subsets $H^{-1}(U_\alpha)$. Since I^{n+1} is compact, the Lebesgue number lemma implies there exists a $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that, for any sequence (j_1, \dots, j_n) of numbers $0 \leq j_1, \dots, j_n \leq k-1$, the small cube

$$\left[\frac{j_1}{k}, \frac{j_1+1}{k} \right] \times \dots \times \left[\frac{j_n}{k}, \frac{j_n+1}{k} \right]$$

is mapped by H into an open set $U_\alpha \subseteq X$. We construct the lift H incrementally, one cube at a time. Thus, we may assume that no further subdivision of I^{n+1} is necessary and that H maps I^{n+1} entirely into some U_α . Moreover, we are given H_0 defined on $I^n \times \{0\}$ that can be extended onto $\partial I^n \times I$. Consequently, we can also assume that p is the trivial fiber bundle $U_\alpha \times F$. Thus, we can construct such a lift as

$$\tilde{H} : I^{n+1} \rightarrow U_\alpha \times F; \quad (x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}) \mapsto (H(x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}), f(x_1, \dots, x_n)),$$

where f is the composition $I^{n+1} \rightarrow I^n \times \{0\} \cup \partial I^n \times I \rightarrow I^n \times \{0\} \rightarrow U_\alpha \times F \rightarrow F$. Here the first map is a deformation retraction. \square

Remark 10.2.5. *Proposition 10.1.16 implies that fibre bundles with paracompact base spaces are Hurewicz fibrations. Recall that a paracompact space is a topological space in which every open cover has an open refinement that is locally finite. Moreover, every open cover on a paracompact space can be shown to be numerable by working with the existence of bump functions guaranteed to exist by Urysohn's lemma.*

Let us consider some examples. We construct examples of fiber bundles (and hence Serre fibrations) via group actions. In fact, the examples we construct will be principal bundles, which are specific instances of fiber bundles. To proceed, we first define the notion of a principal bundle.

Definition 10.2.6. Let $p : E \rightarrow X$ be a fibre bundle with a topological group, G , as its fibre. Then $p : E \rightarrow X$ is a principal G -bundle if the following hold:

- (1) There is a continuous, free group action $E \times G \rightarrow E$,
- (2) For each $x \in X$, the action of G preserves the fibre E_x and the orbit map $G \rightarrow E_x$ is a homeomorphism,
- (3) The locally trivializing cover $\{U_\alpha, \varphi_\alpha\}_\alpha$ is such that each φ is G -equivariant. That is,

$$\varphi_\alpha(e \cdot g) = \varphi_\alpha(e) \cdot g$$

The group G is called the structure group of the principal G -bundle.

The examples of principal G -bundles we construct will be derived from the category of smooth manifolds. Consequently, the remainder of this section is adapted for the category of smooth manifolds. We will use the following important result:

Proposition 10.2.7. *Let G be a Lie group and M be a smooth manifold. A smooth, free, properly discontinuous action of G on M induces a smooth manifold structure on M/G such that the map $M \rightarrow M/G$ is principle G -bundle.*

PROOF. The proof is skipped. □

Example 10.2.8. (Hopf Fibrations) We discuss the all important example of Hopf fibrations over $k = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{H}$.

- (1) Let $\mathbb{S}^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. Let \mathbb{Z}_2 acts on \mathbb{S}^n via

$$\mathbb{S}^n \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{2n+1}, \quad (w, \pm 1) \mapsto \pm w.$$

The action is free. Since \mathbb{Z}_2 is compact, the action is proper as well. **Proposition 10.2.7** implies that the $\mathbb{S}^n/\mathbb{Z}_2$ is principal \mathbb{Z}_2 -bundle. In fact, we have

$$\mathbb{Z}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^n/\mathbb{Z}_2 \cong \mathbb{RP}^n$$

is a principal \mathbb{Z}_2 -bundle called the real Hopf bundle. By letting $n \rightarrow \infty$, we get:

$$\mathbb{Z}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^\infty$$

- (2) Let $\mathbb{S}^{2n+1} \subseteq \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ be a sphere of odd dimension. Let $\mathbb{S}^1 \cong \mathrm{U}(1) \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ acts on \mathbb{S}^{2n+1} via

$$\mathbb{S}^{2n+1} \times \mathbb{S}^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{2n+1}, \quad (w, z) \mapsto wz.$$

The action is free. Since \mathbb{S}^1 is compact, the action is proper as well. **Proposition 10.2.7** implies that the $\mathbb{S}^{2n+1}/\mathrm{U}(1)$ is principal \mathbb{S}^1 -bundle. Hence,

$$\mathbb{S}^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{2n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{2n+1}/\mathrm{U}(1) \cong \mathbb{CP}^n$$

is a principal \mathbb{S}^1 -bundle called the complex Hopf bundle. By letting $n \rightarrow \infty$, we get:

$$\mathbb{S}^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$$

(3) Let $\mathbb{S}^3 \subseteq \mathbb{H}$. and $\mathbb{S}^{4n+3} \subseteq \mathbb{H}^{n+1}$. An argument as in (2) shows that

$$\mathbb{S}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{4n+3} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{4n+3}/\mathbb{S}^3 \cong \mathbb{H}\mathbb{P}^n$$

is a principal \mathbb{S}^3 -bundle called the quaternionic Hopf bundle. By letting $n \rightarrow \infty$, we get:

$$\mathbb{S}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{H}\mathbb{P}^\infty$$

Remark 10.2.9. For $n = 1$, the Hopf fibrations reduce to:

$$\mathbb{S}^0 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1,$$

$$\mathbb{S}^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^2,$$

$$\mathbb{S}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^7 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^4.$$

There is also an octonionic fibration:

$$\mathbb{S}^7 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{15} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^8,$$

but there are no higher octonionic versions of the Hopf fibrations.

Let G be a Lie group and $H \subseteq G$ is a closed Lie subgroup. The natural of H on G by right multiplication is smooth, free and proper. Hence, [Proposition 10.2.7](#) implies that G/H is a H -principal bundle.

Example 10.2.10. (Homogeneous Spaces) The following is a list of examples of homogeneous space which are principal bundles.

(1) Consider $O(n-1)$ a closed subgroup acting naturally on $O(n)$. Note that

$$O(n)/O(n-1) \cong \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$$

This follows from the standard transitive action of $O(n)$ on \mathbb{S}^{n-1} , the orbit-stabilizer theorem and the characteristic property of smooth submersions. Hence,

$$O(n-1) \rightarrow O(n) \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$$

is a principal $O(n-1)$ -bundle.

(2) Consider $SO(n-1)$ a closed subgroup acting naturally on $SO(n)$. Note that

$$SO(n)/SO(n-1) \cong \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$$

This follows from the standard transitive action of $SO(n)$ on \mathbb{S}^{n-1} , the orbit-stabilizer theorem and the characteristic property of smooth submersions. Hence,

$$SO(n-1) \rightarrow SO(n) \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$$

is a principal $SO(n-1)$ -bundle.

(3) Consider $U(n-1)$ a closed subgroup acting naturally on $U(n)$. Note that

$$U(n)/U(n-1) \cong \mathbb{S}^{2n-1}$$

This follows from the standard transitive action of $U(n)$ on \mathbb{S}^{2n-1} , the orbit-stabilizer theorem and the characteristic property of smooth submersions. Hence,

$$U(n-1) \rightarrow U(n) \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{2n-1}$$

is a principal $U(n-1)$ -bundle.

We can generalize the above examples by introducing the notion of Stiefel manifolds.

Definition 10.2.11. Let $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{H}$. A k -frame in \mathbb{K}^n is an ordered orthonormal set of vectors $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\} \subseteq \mathbb{K}^n$ ¹. The set of all k -frames, $V_k(\mathbb{K}^n)$, is called the Stiefel manifold.

Remark 10.2.12. It can be verified that $V_k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ is a compact smooth manifold. Note that we have the following identifications:

- (1) $V_1(\mathbb{R}^n) \cong \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$
- (2) $V_1(\mathbb{C}^n) \cong \mathbb{S}^{2n-1}$
- (3) $V_n(\mathbb{R}^n) \cong O(n)$
- (4) $V_n(\mathbb{C}^n) \cong U(n)$

Example 10.2.13. Consider $O(n-k)$ a closed subgroup acting naturally on $O(n)$. Note that

$$O(n)/O(n-k) \cong V_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

The group $O(n)$ acts on the set $V_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ via

$$A \cdot (v_1, \dots, v_k) = (Av_1, \dots, Av_k).$$

Since the vectors v_1, \dots, v_k can be completed to form an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n , and $O(n)$ acts transitively on orthonormal bases, it follows that the action of $O(n)$ on $V_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is also transitive. The isotropy group of the point

$$p = (e_1, \dots, e_k) \in V_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

is given by

$$O(n)_p = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} E_k & 0 \\ 0 & A \end{pmatrix} \mid A \in O(n-k) \right\} \cong O(n-k).$$

The characteristic property of smooth submersions now implies that

$$V_k(\mathbb{R}^n) = O(n)/O(n-k).$$

as smooth manifolds. The discussion of homogenous spaces implies that

$$O(n-k) \rightarrow O(n) \rightarrow V_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

is a principal $O(n-k)$ -bundle.

Remark 10.2.14. Similarly, it can be shown that

$$\begin{aligned} V_k(\mathbb{C}^n) &= U(n)/U(n-k), \\ V_k(\mathbb{H}^n) &= \text{Sp}(n)/\text{Sp}(n-k). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have additional examples:

$$\begin{aligned} U(n-k) &\rightarrow U(n) \rightarrow V_k(\mathbb{C}^n), \\ \text{Sp}(n-k) &\rightarrow \text{Sp}(n) \rightarrow V_k(\mathbb{H}^n). \end{aligned}$$

We can also define the notion of a Grassmannian that can be used to generate additional principal G -bundles.

Example 10.2.15. Let $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{H}$. The set of all k -dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{K}^n , $G_k(\mathbb{K}^n)$, is called the Grassmannian.

¹Here we take the standard inner product.

There is a natural surjection

$$\begin{aligned} p : V_k(\mathbb{K}^n) &\longrightarrow G_k(\mathbb{K}^n) \\ \{v_1, \dots, v_n\} &\mapsto \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}. \end{aligned}$$

The fact that p is onto follows from the Gram-Schmidt procedure. Thus, $G_k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ is a topological space endowed with the quotient topology via p .

Example 10.2.16. (Sketch) Note that $O(k)$ acts on $V_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ smoothly, freely and properly discontinuously. We have that

$$V_k(\mathbb{R}^n)/O(k) \cong G_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

Hence,

$$O(k) \rightarrow V_k(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow G_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

is a principal $O(k)$ -bundle. If we let $n \rightarrow \infty$, we get:

$$O(k) \rightarrow V_k(\mathbb{R}^\infty) \rightarrow G_k(\mathbb{R}^\infty)$$

Here $G_k(\mathbb{R}^\infty)$ is the infinite Grassmannian.

Remark 10.2.17. Similarly, it can be shown that we have the following examples:

$$U(k) \rightarrow V_k(\mathbb{C}^n) \rightarrow G_k(\mathbb{C}^n)$$

If we let $n \rightarrow \infty$, we get:

$$U(k) \rightarrow V_k(\mathbb{C}^\infty) \rightarrow G_k(\mathbb{C}^\infty)$$

10.3. Based Fibrations

Fibrations discussed above are called unbased fibrations. We can now define pointed fibrations.

Definition 10.3.1. Let $(E, e_0), (X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. A pointed map $p : (E, e_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ is a based fibration if all the relevant maps in [Definition 10.1.1](#) are pointed maps.

Remark 10.3.2. $F = p^{-1}(x_0)$ is called the pointed fiber of p over x . We have a sequence

$$F \xrightarrow{i} E \xrightarrow{p} X$$

Remark 10.3.3. Let $(X, x_0), (Y, y_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. If $f : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ is a pointed map, we redefine N_f to be

$$N_f = X \times_f Y^I : \{(x, \gamma) \in X \times Y^I \mid f(x) = \gamma(1)\}.$$

The proof in [Proposition 10.1.9](#) goes through and f can be decomposed as:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & f & & \\ & \searrow & & \nearrow & \\ (X, x_0) & \xrightarrow{i} & N_f & \xrightarrow{p} & (Y, y_0) \end{array}$$

Here i is a homotopy equivalence as defined in [Proposition 10.1.9](#) and p is a (Hurewicz) fibration such that

$$\begin{aligned} p : N_f &\rightarrow Y \\ (x, \gamma) &\mapsto \gamma(0) \end{aligned}$$

Example 10.3.4. Let $(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ and let $f : \{x_0\} \hookrightarrow X$ denote the inclusion of a singleton. In this case, $N_f \cong P(X, x_0)$. Here N_f is as redefined in [Remark 10.3.3](#). We have

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & f & & \\ & \searrow & & \nearrow & \\ \{x_0\} & \longrightarrow & P(X, x_0) & \xrightarrow{p} & (X, x_0) \end{array}$$

Here p is a fibration called the path space fibration. Note that we have $p^{-1}(x_0) = \Omega(X, x_0)$. Hence, we have the following sequence

$$\Omega(X, x_0) \rightarrow P(X, x_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0).$$

Remark 10.3.5. *We shall only use the phrase fibration when working with a based fibration.*

We would like to generate a long exact sequence of homotopy groups associated to a continuous map. Here is the strategy. Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a pointed continuous map of pointed topological spaces. Using [Remark 10.3.3](#), we can decompose f as:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & f & & \\ & \searrow & & \nearrow & \\ X & \xrightarrow{i} & N_f & \xrightarrow{p'} & Y \end{array}$$

Consider the homotopy fiber:

$$\mathrm{hFiber}_f(y_0) := (p')^{-1}(y_0) = \{(x, \gamma) \in X \times P(Y, y_0) \mid \gamma(1) = f(x), \gamma(0) = y_0\}$$

For brevity, we write $\mathrm{hFiber}_f(y_0)$ and hFib_f . Note that hFib_f is a pullback:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathrm{hFib}_f & \longrightarrow & P(Y, y_0) \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \mathrm{Ev}_1 \\ X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \end{array}$$

Therefore, [Proposition 10.1.6](#) implies that the projection $p : \mathrm{hFib}_f \rightarrow X$ is a fibration. We get a sequence

$$\mathrm{hFib}_f \xrightarrow{p} X \xrightarrow{f} Y$$

We would like to iterate this construction. Since $x \in X_0$ is the basepoint of X , note that the fiber of the fibration p is

$$p^{-1}(x_0) = \{x_0\} \times \{\gamma \in P(Y, y_0) \mid \gamma(1) = f(x_0) = y_0, \gamma(0) = y_0\} \cong \Omega(Y, y_0)$$

Hence, the usual fiber of p over x_0 can be identified with $\Omega(Y, y_0)$. As before, we have an inclusion of $p^{-1}(x_0)$ into the homotopy fiber hFib_p . Since p is a fibration, this inclusion is a homotopy equivalence by [Remark 10.1.12](#). Hence, we have a sequence

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \Omega(Y, y_0) & \xrightarrow{i} & \mathrm{hFib}_f & \xrightarrow{p} & X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\ \downarrow \cong & & \parallel & & \parallel & & \parallel \\ \mathrm{hFib}_p & \xrightarrow{\mathrm{proj}} & \mathrm{hFib}_f & \xrightarrow{p} & X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \end{array}$$

Here i is the inclusion mapping $\gamma \rightarrow (x_0, \gamma)$. The left most square commutes by construction. Hence, the diagram above commutes in \mathbf{Top}_* . How shall we extend the sequence? The answer is given by the following result:

Lemma 10.3.6. *Let $(E, e_0), (X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ and let $f : (E, e_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ be a pointed map. Let $F = p^{-1}(x_0)$ and*

$$F \xrightarrow{g} E \xrightarrow{f} X$$

be the associated fiber sequence. The homotopy fibre hFiber_g of g is homotopy equivalent to $\Omega(X, x_0)$.

PROOF. Using [Remark 10.3.3](#), decompose f as:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} (E, e_0) & \xrightarrow{i} & N_f \\ & \searrow f & \swarrow p \\ & (X, x_0) & \end{array}$$

Since i is a homotopy equivalence and f, p are fibrations, [Proposition 10.1.14](#) implies that i is in fact a fiber homotopy equivalence. It follows that

$$i|_F : F \rightarrow \mathrm{hFiber}_f$$

is a homotopy equivalence. From the discussion above hFiber_f is defined as a pullback and the projection $\mathrm{hFiber}_f \rightarrow E$ is a fibration. We can furthermore decompose g as:

$$F \rightarrow N_g \rightarrow E$$

We know that N_g is also defined as a pullback, the map $F \rightarrow N_g$ is a homotopy equivalence and $N_g \rightarrow E$ is a fibration. The fiber of the fibration $N_g \rightarrow E$ is hFiber_g and the fiber of the fibration $\mathrm{hFiber}_f \rightarrow E$ is $\Omega(X, x_0)$. All in all, we have the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \mathrm{hFiber}_g & \hookrightarrow & N_g & & \\ & & \downarrow \cong & \searrow \text{fib.} & \\ & & F & \xrightarrow{g} & E \\ & & \downarrow \cong & \nearrow \text{fib.} & \\ \Omega(X, x_0) & \hookrightarrow & \mathrm{hFiber}_f & & \end{array}$$

Since the map from $N_g \rightarrow \mathrm{hFiber}_f$, [Proposition 10.1.14](#) implies that the map is in fact a fiber homotopy equivalence over E . In particular, the map restricts to a homotopy equivalence between hFiber_g and $\Omega(X, x_0)$. \square

We can now use [Lemma 10.3.6](#) to continue to construction of the sequence.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \Omega(X, x_0) & \xrightarrow{\Omega f} & \Omega(Y, y_0) & \xrightarrow{i} & \mathrm{hFib}_f & \xrightarrow{p} & X \xrightarrow{f} Y \\ \downarrow j' \circ \text{inv} & & \downarrow j & & \parallel & & \parallel \\ \mathrm{hFib}_i & \xrightarrow{\text{proj}'} & \mathrm{hFib}_p & \xrightarrow{\text{proj}} & \mathrm{hFib}_f & \xrightarrow{p} & X \xrightarrow{f} Y \end{array}$$

Here j is the homotopy equivalence discussed above and j' that exists by [Lemma 10.3.6](#). Moreover, inv is the map

$$\begin{aligned} \text{inv} : \Omega(X, x_0) &\rightarrow \Omega(X, x_0), \\ \gamma &\mapsto \gamma^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\mathrm{hFib}_p \cong \Omega(Y, y_0)$, we identify proj' to be simply the projection onto $\Omega(Y, y_0)$. We claim that the diagram above commutes in \mathbf{hTop}_* . The first and second squares are

clearly commutative. The third square commutes as discussed above. It suffices to consider the left most square. Let

$$k = \text{proj}' \circ (j' \circ \text{inv})$$

We claim that $k \sim j \circ \Omega f$. Note that we have

$$\begin{aligned} k[\gamma] &= (c_{y_0}, [\gamma^{-1}]) \\ j \circ \Omega f[\gamma] &= ([f \circ \gamma], c_{x_0}) \end{aligned}$$

The desired homotopy is given by

$$H([\gamma], t) = (f(\gamma|_{[t,1]}), [\gamma^{-1}|_{[0,t]}])$$

Iterating the above construction, we get the following sequence in \mathbf{hTop}_* :

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & \Omega(\text{hFib}_f) & \xrightarrow{\Omega p_1} & \Omega(X, x_0) & \xrightarrow{\Omega f} & \Omega(Y, y_0) & \xrightarrow{i} & \text{hFib}_f & \xrightarrow{p} & X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\ & & \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow \cong & & \parallel & & \parallel & & \parallel \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & \text{hFib}_{\Omega f} & \longrightarrow & \text{hFib}_i & \longrightarrow & \text{hFib}_p & \longrightarrow & \text{hFib}_f & \longrightarrow & X & \longrightarrow & Y \end{array}$$

For each pair of adjacent maps, the first is the inclusion of the homotopy fibre of the next, up to homotopy equivalence. What now? For a fixed Y , we can take the homotopy classes of maps $[Y, -]_*$, where \cdot is a space in the sequence above. We need the following lemma and a definition.

Definition 10.3.7. A sequence of functions of pointed sets

$$(A, a) \xrightarrow{f} (B, b) \xrightarrow{g} (C, c)$$

is exact if $f(A) = g^{-1}(c)$.

Lemma 10.3.8. Let $(E, e_0), (X, x_0), (Z, z_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. Let $p : (E, e_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ be a fibration and let $F = p^{-1}(x_0)$. The sequence

$$F \xrightarrow{i} E \xrightarrow{p} X$$

induces an exact sequence of sets²:

$$[Z, F]_* \xrightarrow{i_\#} [Z, E]_* \xrightarrow{p_\#} [Z, X]_*$$

PROOF. Let $[g] \in [Z, F]_*$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} p_\# \circ i_\#([g]) &: Z \rightarrow X \\ y &\mapsto x_0 \end{aligned}$$

and so

$$i_\#([Z, F]_*) \subseteq p_\#^{-1}([c_{x_0}])$$

where c_{x_0} is the constant map $E \rightarrow x_0$. Now, let $[f] \in p_\#^{-1}([c_{x_0}])$. So $f : Z \rightarrow E$ is such that

$$p_\#([f]) = [p \circ f] = [c_{x_0}]$$

²A sequence of functions of pointed sets $(A, a) \xrightarrow{f} (B, b) \xrightarrow{g} (C, c)$ is exact if $f(A) = g^{-1}(c)$.

That is $p \circ f$ is homotopic to c_{x_0} . Let $G : Z \times I \rightarrow X$ be the corresponding homotopy. Now define $H : Z \times I \rightarrow E$ via the homotopy lifting property as in the following commutative diagram.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Z \times \{0\} & \xrightarrow{f} & E \\ \downarrow i_0 & \nearrow H & \downarrow p \\ Z \times I & \xrightarrow{G} & X \end{array}$$

Then

$$p \circ H(z, 1) = G(z, 1) = c_{x_0}$$

Hence $H(Z, 1) \subseteq F$. So $z \mapsto H(z, 1)$ can be restricted to a map $f' : Z \rightarrow F$. But $H(z, 0) = f(z)$, so we have

$$f \cong i \circ f'$$

That is, $[f] = i_{\#}([f'])$ and so $[f] \in i_{\#}([Y, F])$. This completes the proof. \square

Let's now use [Lemma 10.3.8](#) to get the following result:

Proposition 10.3.9. (*Exact Puppe Sequence*) Let $(X, x_0), (Y, y_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ and let $f : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ be a pointed continuous map. The sequence

$$\cdots \longrightarrow \Omega(\mathrm{hFib}_f) \xrightarrow{\Omega p_1} \Omega(X, x_0) \xrightarrow{\Omega f} \Omega(Y, y_0) \xrightarrow{i} \mathrm{hFib}_f \xrightarrow{p} X \xrightarrow{f} Y$$

is exact.

PROOF. Let $(Z, z_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. First consider

$$\mathrm{hFib} \xrightarrow{p} X \xrightarrow{f} Y$$

Instead consider the sequence

$$\mathrm{hFib}_f \xrightarrow{i} N_f \xrightarrow{p'} Y$$

Here the map p' is an honest fibration and hFib_f is the fibre of p' . For $Y \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, we can apply [Lemma 10.3.6](#) to get an exact sequence of sets:

$$[Z, \mathrm{hFib}_f]_* \rightarrow [Z, N_f]_* \rightarrow [Z, Y]_*$$

However, note that $[Z, N_f]_* \cong [Z, X]_*$ since $P(Y, y_0)$ is contractible. Hence, we find that the sequence

$$\mathrm{hFib} \xrightarrow{p} X \xrightarrow{f} Y$$

is exact. Moreover,

$$\Omega^k(\mathrm{hFib}) \xrightarrow{p} \Omega^k(X, x_0) \xrightarrow{f} \Omega^k(Y, y_0)$$

is exact for each $k \geq 1$. This is because the sequence

$$[Z, \Omega^k(\mathrm{hFib})]_* \rightarrow [Z, \Omega^k(X, x_0)]_* \rightarrow [Z, \Omega^k(Y, y_0)]_*$$

can be written as

$$[\Sigma^k Z, \mathrm{hFib}]_* \rightarrow [\Sigma^k Z, (X, x_0)]_* \rightarrow [\Sigma^k Z, (Y, y_0)]_*$$

which is known to be exact. Hence, the given long exact sequence is an exact sequence. \square

CHAPTER 11

Cofibrations

CHAPTER 12

Higher Homotopy Groups

As before, we adopt the following conventions from now on:

- (1) We will assume that we work in the category **CGWH**.
- (2) Abusing notation, we will write **CGWH** as **Top**.
- (3) We will write $X \times_k Y$ simply as $X \times Y$.

Let's finally get to higher homotopy groups.

12.1. Definitions

In this section, we generalize the definition of the first homotopy group.

Definition 12.1.1. Let $(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ be a path-connected pointed topological space. The n -th homotopy group of (X, x_0) , denoted as $\pi_n(X, x_0)$, is defined as

$$\pi_n(X, x_0) = [(\mathbb{S}^n, *), (X, x_0)] := [\mathbb{S}^n, X]_*$$

X is n -connected if $\pi_k(X, x_0) = 0$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$. We say that X is weakly contractible or ∞ -connected if $\pi_k(X, x_0) = 0$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Remark 12.1.2. Note that

$$(I^n / \partial I^n, \partial I^n / \partial I^n) \cong (\mathbb{S}^n, *)$$

Hence, we have the following commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} (I^n, \partial I^n) & \xrightarrow{f} & (X, x_0) \\ \downarrow q & \nearrow g & \\ (I^n / \partial I^n, \partial I^n / \partial I^n) & & \end{array}$$

Equivalently, $\pi_n(X, x_0)$ consists of homotopy classes of maps $f : I^n \rightarrow X$ for which ∂I^n is mapped onto x_0 . This is because the properties of the quotient topology imply that every f in the diagram above uniquely factors through a g in the same diagram.

Remark 12.1.3. If $n = 0$, then $\pi_0(X, x_0)$ is the set of connected components of X . Indeed, we have $I^0 = \{*\}$ and $\partial I^0 = \emptyset$. Hence,

$$\pi_0(X, x_0) = \{[y] \mid y \in X\}$$

Moreover, $[y] \sim [y']$ if and only if there is a path between y and y' . Hence, $\pi_0(X, x_0)$ consists of homotopy classes of maps from a point into the space X .

Proposition 12.1.4. Let $(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. Then there is a bijection of pointed sets:

$$\pi_{n-1}(\Omega(X, x_0), c_{x_0}) \cong \pi_n(X, x_0)$$

for each $n \geq 1$. Here c_{x_0} is the constant loop at x_0 .

PROOF. We have:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \pi_{n-1}(\Omega(X, x_0), c_{x_0}) &= \pi_0(\text{Maps}((\mathbb{S}^{n-1}, *), \Omega(X, x_0))) \\
 &\cong \pi_0(\text{Maps}(\Sigma(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}, *), (X, x_0))) \\
 &\cong \pi_0(\text{Maps}((\mathbb{S}^n, *), (X, x_0))) \\
 &= \pi_n(X, x_0).
 \end{aligned}$$

for each $n \geq 1$. □

Remark 12.1.5. *We can also make the following computation:*

$$\begin{aligned}
 \pi_n(X, x_0) &\cong \pi_0(\text{Maps}((\mathbb{S}^n, *), (X, x_0))) \\
 &\cong \pi_0(\text{Maps}((\mathbb{S}^1, *) \wedge (\mathbb{S}^{n-1}, *), (X, x_0))) \\
 &\cong \pi_0(\text{Maps}((\mathbb{S}^1, *), \Omega'^{n-1}(X, x_0))) \\
 &:= \pi_1(\Omega'^{n-1}(X, x_0)).
 \end{aligned}$$

for each $n \geq 1$. Here we denote

$$\Omega'^{n-1}(X, x_0) := [(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}, *), (X, x_0)]_*$$

Note that we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\Omega'^{n-1}(X, x_0), c_{x_0}) &\cong [(\mathbb{S}^0, *), \Omega'^{n-1}(X, x_0)] \\
 &\cong [\Sigma^{n-1}(\mathbb{S}^0, *), (X, x_0)] \\
 &\cong [(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}, *), (X, x_0)] \\
 &:= \Omega'^{n-1}(X, x_0).
 \end{aligned}$$

This identification follows since $\Omega'^{n-1}(X, x_0)$ is a pointed topological space with the constant loop as the base point. Hence, we have

$$\pi_n(X, x_0) = \pi_1(\Omega'^{n-1}(X, x_0), c_{x_0})$$

for $n \geq 1$.

Proposition 12.1.6. *Let $(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. The set $\pi_n(X, x_0)$ forms a group for $n \geq 2$.*

PROOF. This follows immediately from the fact that $\pi_n(X, x_0) = \pi_1(\Omega'^{n-1}(X, x_0), c_{x_0})$ and $\pi_1(\cdot)$ is a group. We can also give a more direct argument. Consider the following map:

$$(f + g)(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n) = \begin{cases} f(2s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n) & \text{if } 0 \leq s_1 \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ g(2s_1 - 1, s_2, \dots, s_n) & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} \leq s_1 \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

Note that since only the first coordinate is involved in this operation, the same argument used to prove that $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ is a group is valid here as well. In particular, the identity element is the constant map taking all of I^n to x_0 and the inverse element is given by

$$-f(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n) = f(1 - s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n).$$

This completes the proof. □

The additive notation for the group operation is used because $\pi_n(X, x_0)$ is abelian for $n \geq 2$.

Lemma 12.1.7. (Eckmann–Hilton Argument) *Let X be a set equipped with two binary operations, \circ and \otimes , such that:*

- \circ and \otimes are both unital. That is, there are identity elements 1_\circ and 1_\otimes such that

$$\begin{aligned} 1_\circ \circ a &= a = a \circ 1_\circ \\ 1_\otimes \otimes a &= a = a \otimes 1_\otimes \end{aligned}$$

for all $a \in X$.

- We have,

$$(a \otimes b) \circ (c \otimes d) = (a \circ c) \otimes (b \circ d),$$

for all $a, b, c, d \in X$.

Then \circ and \otimes are the same and in fact commutative and associative.

PROOF. Observe that the units of the two operations coincide:

$$1_\circ = 1_\circ \circ 1_\circ = (1_\otimes \otimes 1_\otimes) \circ (1_\otimes \otimes 1_\otimes) = (1_\otimes \circ 1_\otimes) \otimes (1_\otimes \circ 1_\otimes) = 1_\otimes \otimes 1_\otimes = 1_\otimes.$$

We denote the common identity as 1. Now, let $a, b \in X$. Then

$$a \circ b = (1 \otimes a) \circ (b \otimes 1) = (1 \circ b) \otimes (a \circ 1) = b \otimes a = (b \circ 1) \otimes (1 \circ a) = (b \otimes 1) \circ (1 \otimes a) = b \circ a.$$

This establishes that the two operations coincide and are commutative. For associativity,

$$(a \otimes b) \otimes c = (a \otimes b) \otimes (1 \otimes c) = (a \otimes 1) \otimes (b \otimes c) = a \otimes (b \otimes c).$$

This completes the proof. \square

Proposition 12.1.8. *Let $(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. If $n \geq 2$, $\pi_n(X, x_0)$ is an abelian group.*

PROOF. We use [Lemma 12.1.7](#). To use [Lemma 12.1.7](#), we define an alternative binary operation. Let $[f], [g] \in \pi_n(X, x_0)$. Then define $[f] \times [g]$ to be the homotopy class of the map $f \times g$ defined by

$$(f \times g)(t_1, \dots, t_n) = \begin{cases} f(t_1, 2t_2, t_3, \dots, t_n) & \text{if } t_2 \in [0, 1/2], \\ g(t_1, 2t_2 - 1, t_3, \dots, t_n) & \text{if } t_2 \in [1/2, 1]. \end{cases}$$

It is clear that \times is a well-defined operation on $\pi_n(X, x_0)$. Moreover, \times is a unital operation with the identity element given by the constant map taking all of I^n to x_0 . To make use of [Lemma 12.1.7](#), it remains to prove that for any $[f], [g], [h], [k] \in \pi_n(X, x_0)$,

$$([f] \times [g]) + ([h] \times [k]) = ([f] + [h]) \times ([g] + [k]).$$

The left-hand side is defined to be the homotopy class of

$$((f \times g) + (h \times k))(t_1, \dots, t_n) = \begin{cases} f(2t_1, 2t_2, t_3, \dots, t_n) & \text{if } t_1 \leq \frac{1}{2}, t_2 \leq \frac{1}{2}, \\ g(2t_1, 2t_2 - 1, t_3, \dots, t_n) & \text{if } t_1 \leq \frac{1}{2}, t_2 \geq \frac{1}{2}, \\ h(2t_1 - 1, 2t_2, t_3, \dots, t_n) & \text{if } t_1 \geq \frac{1}{2}, t_2 \leq \frac{1}{2}, \\ k(2t_1 - 1, 2t_2 - 1, t_3, \dots, t_n) & \text{if } t_1 \geq \frac{1}{2}, t_2 \geq \frac{1}{2}. \end{cases}$$

The right-hand side is the homotopy class of

$$((f + h) \times (g + k))(t_1, \dots, t_n) = \begin{cases} f(2t_1, 2t_2, t_3, \dots, t_n) & \text{if } t_1 \leq \frac{1}{2}, t_2 \leq \frac{1}{2}, \\ h(2t_1 - 1, 2t_2, t_3, \dots, t_n) & \text{if } t_1 \geq \frac{1}{2}, t_2 \leq \frac{1}{2}, \\ g(2t_1, 2t_2 - 1, t_3, \dots, t_n) & \text{if } t_1 \leq \frac{1}{2}, t_2 \geq \frac{1}{2}, \\ k(2t_1 - 1, 2t_2 - 1, t_3, \dots, t_n) & \text{if } t_1 \geq \frac{1}{2}, t_2 \geq \frac{1}{2}. \end{cases}$$

Both these maps are exactly the same map. By [Lemma 12.1.7](#), $+$ is commutative, so $\pi_n(X, x_0)$ is abelian for $n \geq 2$. \square

Remark 12.1.9. The proof of [Proposition 12.1.8](#) makes it clear why $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ need not be abelian. We simply do not have “enough space” in $[0, 1]$ to carry out the same argument.

We end this section is devoted to discussing various properties of higher homotopy groups that are analogous to those of the fundamental group.

Proposition 12.1.10. Let $(X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. The following are some properties of $\pi_n(X, x_0)$ for $n \geq 1$.

- (1) For each $x'_0 \in X$, such that $x'_0 \in \pi_0(x)$, we have

$$\pi_n(X, x_0) \cong \pi_n(X, x')$$

- (2) For $n \geq 2$, π_n is a functor from \mathbf{Top}_* to \mathbf{Ab} , the category abelian of groups.
 (3) For each $n \geq 1$, π_n preserves products. If $(Y, y) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ then

$$\pi_n(X \times Y, (x_0, y_0)) \cong \pi_n(X, x_0) \cong \pi_n(Y, y_0)$$

That is, π_n preserves products for $n \geq 1$.

- (4) If $f : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ is a pointed homotopy equivalence, then the induced homomorphism $f_* : \pi_n(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_n(Y, y_0)$ is an isomorphism.
 (5) If $(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) \in \mathbf{Top}$ and $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ is a covering map, then $p_* : \pi_n(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) \rightarrow \pi_n(X, p(\tilde{x}_0))$ is an isomorphism for all $n \geq 2$.

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) This follows because

$$\pi_n(X, x_0) \cong \pi_1(\Omega^{n-1}(X, x_0), c_{x_0}) \cong \pi_1(\Omega^{n-1}(X, x'_0), c_{x'_0}) \cong \pi_n(X, x'_0)$$

Here we have used the fact that $\Omega^{n-1}(X, x_0)$ and $\Omega^{n-1}(X, x'_0)$ are homeomorphic topological spaces.

- (2) Let $\phi : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ be a continuous map. If $f \sim g$, then $\phi \circ f \sim \phi \circ g$ as before. Hence, the induced map $\phi_* : \pi_n(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_n(Y, y)$ is well-defined. Moreover, from the definition of the group operation on π_n , it is clear that we have

$$\phi \circ (f + g) = (\phi \circ f) + (\phi \circ g)$$

Thus, $\phi_*([f + g]) = \phi_*([f]) + \phi_*([g])$. Hence, ϕ_* is a group homomorphism.

- (3) The proof in the case of π_1 goes through as before.
 (4) Let $g : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ be an inverse pointed homotopy equivalence so that we have:

$$g \circ f \sim \text{Id}_X \text{ rel } x_0 \quad \text{and} \quad f \circ g \sim \text{Id}_Y \text{ rel } y_0.$$

Homotopy invariance gives¹ $g_* \circ f_* = (g \circ f)_* = \text{Id}_{\pi_n(X, x_0)}$, and similarly $f_* \circ g_* = \text{Id}_{\pi_n(Y, y_0)}$.

- (5) First, we show that p_* is surjective. Let $x_0 = p(\tilde{x}_0)$ and consider $f : (\mathbb{S}^n, *) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$. Since $n \geq 2$, we have $\pi_1(\mathbb{S}^n, *) = 0$, so

$$f_*(\pi_1(\mathbb{S}^n, *)) = \{0\} \subseteq p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x})).$$

By the path lifting criterion, f admits a lift to (X, \tilde{x}_0) . That is there exists $\tilde{f} : (\mathbb{S}^n, *) \rightarrow (\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0)$ such that $p \circ \tilde{f} = f$. Then $[f] = [p \circ \tilde{f}] = p_*([f])$. Next, we show

¹It is easy to see that homotopic maps induce identical homotopic maps and hence identical maps on homotopy groups.

that p_* is injective. Suppose $[\tilde{f}] \in \ker p_*$. So $[p \circ \tilde{f}] = 0$. Let $p \circ \tilde{f} = f$. Then $f \sim c_{x_0}$ via some homotopy

$$H_t : (\mathbb{S}^n, *) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$$

with $\varphi_1 = f$ and $\varphi_0 = c_{x_0}$. By the homotopy lifting criterion, there is a unique $\tilde{H}_t : (\mathbb{S}^n, *) \rightarrow (\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0)$ with $p \circ \tilde{H}_t = H_t$. Then we have $p \circ \tilde{H}_1 = H_1 = f$ and $p \circ \tilde{H}_0 = H_0 = c_{x_0}$, so by the uniqueness of lifts, we must have $\tilde{H}_1 = \tilde{f}$ and $\tilde{H}_0 = c_{\tilde{x}_0}$. Then H_t is a homotopy between \tilde{f} and $c_{\tilde{x}}$. So $[\tilde{f}] = 0$. Thus, p_* is injective.

This completes the proof. \square

Remark 12.1.11. *Proposition 12.1.10(5) can be interpreted as mentioning that covering spaces cannot be used to compute higher homotopy groups!*

How does one compute higher homotopy groups? In general, this is a difficult problem. But we can at the very least state some trivial calculations for definition and basic properties:

Proposition 12.1.12. *The following are calculations of some higher homotopy groups:*

- (1) *If $X = \{\bullet\}$ is a one-point space, then $\pi_n(X) = \{0\}$, is the trivial abelian group for $n \geq 2$.*
- (2) *If (X, x_0) is contractible, then $\pi_n(X, x_0) = \{0\}$ is the trivial abelian group for $n \geq 2$.*
- (3) *We have*

$$\pi_n(\mathbb{S}^1) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } n = 0, 1, \\ 0, & \text{if } n \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

- (4) *We have*

$$\pi_n\left(\underbrace{\mathbb{S}^1 \times \cdots \times \mathbb{S}^1}_{k\text{-times}}, (*_1, \dots, *_k)\right) = \{0\}$$

for $n \geq 2$.

- (5) *We have $\pi_n(\mathbb{RP}^k, *) \cong \pi_n(\mathbb{S}^k, *)$ for $n \geq 2$.*
- (6) *We have $\pi_n(\mathbb{RP}^\infty, *) = 0$ for $n \geq 2$.*

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) A one-point space has only the constant loop. Hence, each higher homotopy group is trivial.
- (2) This follows from the Proposition 12.1.10(5) and (1) above.
- (3) Consider \mathbb{S}^1 with its universal covering map $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1$. If $n \geq 2$, we have

$$\pi_n(\mathbb{S}^1, *) = \pi_n(\mathbb{R}, 0) = 0$$

We already know the result for $n = 0, 1$.

- (4) This follows from (3) and Proposition 12.1.10(3). We can also apply a covering space argument as in (3).
- (5) This is because $\mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^n$ is a covering map.
- (6) This is because $\mathbb{S}^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^\infty$ is a covering map and \mathbb{S}^∞ is contractible.

This completes the proof. \square

12.2. Cellular Approximation

Homotopy theory of CW complexes is more tractable. For instance, a key results includes the cellular approximation, which allows for approximating maps by cellular ones. We prove the cellular approximation theorem in this section. Since CW complexes are built inductively, the following strategy will not come as a surprise. Given a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ of CW complexes, we will try to deform f cell by cell into a cellular map. As an important building block for the proof of the theorem, there is the following case of a single cell.

Lemma 12.2.1. *Let $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$ such that we have a pushout diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{S}^{n-1} & \longrightarrow & X \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \mathbb{D}^n & \xrightarrow{\chi} & Y \end{array}$$

Any map $f : (\mathbb{D}^m, \mathbb{S}^{m-1}) \rightarrow (Y, X)$ with $m < n$ is homotopic relative to \mathbb{S}^{m-1} to a map g satisfying $g(\mathbb{D}^m) \subseteq X$.

Let us describe the strategy of the proof. The attaching map $\chi : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow Y$ restricts to a homeomorphism $\chi_{\text{Int}(\mathbb{D}^n)}$. Hence, we identify $\text{Int}(\mathbb{D}^n) \subseteq Y$. We show that we can construct a homotopy relative to \mathbb{S}^{m-1} such that $f \simeq h$ and $0 \notin h(\mathbb{D}^m)$. Here 0 is the origin of $\text{Int}(\mathbb{D}^n)$. To see that this is enough, consider $Y \setminus \{0\}$. The inclusion $i : X \rightarrow Y \setminus \{0\}$ is the inclusion of a strong deformation retraction $r : Y \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow X$ induced by collapsing $\text{Int}(\mathbb{D}^n) \setminus \{0\}$ onto \mathbb{S}^{n-1} . Hence, we have

$$\text{Id}_{Y \setminus \{0\}} \simeq i \circ r$$

relative to X which induces the desired relative homotopy

$$h = \text{Id}_{Y \setminus \{0\}} \circ h \simeq i \circ r \circ h = g$$

relative to \mathbb{S}^{m-1} . Putting these two homotopies together, we conclude that $f \simeq g$ relative to \mathbb{S}^{m-1} .

PROOF. We induct on n . Let $n = 1, m = 0$. In this case, $\mathbb{S}^{m-1} = \emptyset$ and $\mathbb{D}^m = \{*\}$. A map

$$f : (\{*\}, \emptyset) \rightarrow (Y, X)$$

is essentially the same as a point $y \in Y$. For some $x \in X$, there is a path $\omega : I \rightarrow Y$ with $\omega(0) = y$ and $\omega(1) = x \in X$. This path defines the desired homotopy. Assume the claim has been prove for $n - 1$. We list the following consequences of our inductive assumption:

- (1) Any map $\mathbb{S}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$ for $k < n - 1$ is homotopic to a constant map. Indeed, apply the inductive hypothesis to for $n - 1$ to the standard map $(\mathbb{D}^k, \mathbb{S}^{k-1}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{D}^{n-1} \coprod_{\mathbb{S}^{n-2}} *, *)$.
- (2) Any map $\mathbb{S}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \times (a, b)$ for $k < n - 1$ is homotopic to a constant map. This follows from (1) and that (a, b) is contractible.
- (3) Any map $\mathbb{S}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \times (a, b)$ for $k < n - 1$ can be extended \mathbb{D}^k . This follows from (2) and [Proposition 9.1.4](#).

We now construct a homotopy $f \simeq h : \mathbb{D}^m \rightarrow Y$ relative to \mathbb{S}^{m-1} such that $0 \notin h(\mathbb{D}^m)$. Consider the subsets

$$\begin{aligned} U_0 &= \{x \in \mathbb{D}^n \mid \|x\| < 2/3\}, \\ V_0 &= \{x \in \mathbb{D}^n \mid \|x\| > 1/3\}. \end{aligned}$$

and define two subsets of Y by setting $U = \chi(U_0)$ and $V = X \coprod_{\mathbb{S}^{n-1}} \chi(V_0)$. Note that

$$U \cap V \cong \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \times (1/3, 2/3).$$

We construct a homotopy $f \simeq h$ such that the image of h entirely lies in V , and hence avoids the point $0 \in Y$. WLOG replace $(\mathbb{D}^m, \mathbb{S}^{m-1})$ by $(I^m, \partial I^m)$. Note that $\{U, V\}$ is an open cover for Y . Pulling back the open cover of Y along f induces an open cover $f^{-1}(U), f^{-1}(V)$ of I^m . The Lebesgue number lemma implies there exists a $N > 0$ such that the image of each m -cube

$$I_{k_1, \dots, k_m}^m = \left[\frac{k_1}{N}, \frac{k_1+1}{N} \right] \times \cdots \times \left[\frac{k_m}{N}, \frac{k_m+1}{N} \right], \quad 0 \leq k_i < N$$

under f is contained in either U or V . We construct homotopies to modify f only on those I_{k_1, \dots, k_m}^m which are not entirely mapped to V . We define a filtration on I^m ,

$$\partial I^m \subseteq Z^{(-1)} \subseteq Z^{(0)} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq Z^{(m)} = I^m.$$

Let J^{-1} be the index set for all l -dimensional sub-cubes, $0 \leq l \leq m$, of all cubes I_{k_1, \dots, k_m}^m which are already completely mapped to V by f . Let us denote the l -dimensional sub-cube corresponding to such an index $\varphi \in J^{-1}$ by I_φ^l . We then set

$$Z^{(-1)} = \bigcup_{\varphi \in J^{-1}} I_\varphi^l,$$

and it follows from our assumption on f that $\partial I^m \subseteq Z^{(-1)}$. We now take care of the remaining sub-cubes, and this will be done by induction over the dimension of these sub-cubes. For each $0 \leq k \leq m$, let J_k be the index set for all k -dimensional sub-cubes, I_φ^k for $\varphi \in J_k$, of the cubes I_{k_1, \dots, k_m}^m which satisfy $f(I_\varphi^k) \not\subseteq V$. Set

$$Z^{(k)} = Z^{(k-1)} \coprod \bigcup_{\varphi \in J_k} I_\varphi^k.$$

This defines a filtration for X . We now want to inductively construct maps $h_k : Z^{(k)} \rightarrow Y$, $k \geq -1$, such that:

- The map h_{-1} is obtained from f by restriction.
- The map h_k sends the cubes I_φ^k to $U \cap V$ for all $\varphi \in J_k$ and $k \geq 0$.
- The map h_k extends h_{k-1} , i.e., we have $h_k|_{Z^{(k-1)}} = h_{k-1}$ for all $k \geq 0$.

For h_0 , note that $Z^{(0)}$ is obtained from $Z^{(-1)}$ by possibly adding some vertices which are mapped to U . For each such vertex, choose a path to a point in $U \cap V$. This defines h_0 . Inductively, assume that h_{k-1} has already been constructed. For each $\varphi \in J_k$, we have that $h_{k-1}(\partial I_\varphi^k) \subseteq U \cap V$. Since $U \cap V \cong \mathbb{S}^{n-1} \times (1/3, 2/3)$, the induction hypothesis and (3) above implies that we can find extensions as indicated in the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \partial I_\varphi^k & \xrightarrow{h_{k-1}} & U \cap V \\ \downarrow & \nearrow h_{k,\varphi} & \\ I_\varphi^k & & \end{array}$$

These maps $h_{k,\varphi}$ and h_{k-1} can be assembled together in order to define a map $h_k : Z^{(k)} \rightarrow Y$ with the desired properties. If we set $h = h_m : I^m = X^{(m)} \rightarrow Y$, then we have $h(I^m) \subseteq V$. Hence, it suffices to show that $f \cong h$ relative to ∂I^m . We show that in fact we construct

such a homotopy relative to $Z^{(-1)}$. Both maps f and h coincide on $Z^{(-1)}$. Moreover, the restrictions of both maps to $I^m - Z^{(-1)}$ can be considered as maps taking values in U . But, U is homeomorphic to an open n -disc, hence convex, so that the two restrictions are homotopic via linear homotopies. This homotopy, together with the constant homotopy on $Z^{(-1)}$, can be assembled together to give the desired homotopy $f \sim h$ relative to $Z^{(-1)}$. \square

We now state and prove the cellular approximation theorem.

Proposition 12.2.2. *Let (X, A) be a finite-dimensional CW pair, let Y be a CW complex. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous map such that $f|_A : A \rightarrow Y$ is a cellular map, then f is homotopic to a cellular map $g : X \rightarrow Y$ relative to A . In particular, any map of CW complexes is homotopic to a cellular map.*

PROOF. We have a filtration

$$A = X^{(-1)} \subseteq X^{(0)} \subseteq X^{(1)} \subseteq \dots \subseteq X^{(m)} = X,$$

Similarly, we also have a filtration for Y . Let $g_{-1} = f$. We construct maps $g_n : X \rightarrow Y$ and homotopies $g_{n-1} \simeq g_n$ such that

- (1) The map g_n sends the relative n -cells to $Y^{(n)}$.
- (2) The homotopy $g_{n-1} \simeq g_n$ is relative to $X^{(n-1)}$.

We proceed by induction. Let J_n denoting the set of relative n -cells. We have a pushout diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \bigsqcup_{\sigma \in J_n} \partial \mathbb{D}_\sigma^n & \longrightarrow & X^{(n-1)} \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \bigsqcup_{\sigma \in J_n} \mathbb{D}_\sigma^n & \longrightarrow & X^{(n)}. \end{array}$$

For each such cell \mathbb{D}_σ^n such that $g_{n-1}(\mathbb{D}_\sigma^n)$ is not contained in $Y^{(n-1)}$, there is a finite relative subcomplex Y' with

$$Y^{(n)} \subseteq Y' \subseteq Y$$

such that $g_{n-1}(\mathbb{D}_\sigma^n) \subseteq Y'$. Choose a cell of maximal dimension in Y' which has a nontrivial intersection with $g_{n-1}(\mathbb{D}_\sigma^n)$. By **Lemma 12.2.1**, this cell can be avoided up to relative homotopy. Repeating this finitely many times and gluing the relative homotopies together, we obtain a homotopy $H_{n,\sigma} : g_{n-1} \simeq g_{n,\sigma} : \mathbb{D}_\sigma^n \rightarrow Y$ relative to $\partial \mathbb{D}_\sigma^n$ such that $g_{n,\sigma}(\mathbb{D}_\sigma^n) \subseteq Y^{(n)}$. Recalling that $X^{(n)} \times [0, 1]$ carries the quotient topology with respect to the map

$$\left(X^{(n-1)} \sqcup \left(\bigsqcup_{\sigma \in J_n} \mathbb{D}_\sigma^n \right) \right) \times [0, 1] \longrightarrow X^{(n)} \times [0, 1].$$

We can glue the homotopies $H_{n,\sigma}$, the constant homotopies on $g_{n-1} : \mathbb{D}_\sigma^n \rightarrow Y$ for all n -cells with $g_{n-1}(e_\sigma^n) \subseteq Y^{(n)}$, and the constant homotopy on $g_{n-1}|_{X^{(n-1)}}$ together in order to obtain a homotopy

$$\tilde{H}_n : X^{(n)} \times [0, 1] \rightarrow Y.$$

relative to $X^{(n)}$. Since $X^{(n)} \rightarrow X$ is a cofibration, we obtain a homotopy

$$H_n : X \times [0, 1] \rightarrow Y.$$

which admits a solution since the inclusion $X^{(n)} \rightarrow X$ is a cofibration. We set $g_n = H_n(-, 1)$. Since $X^{(m)} = X$, it suffices to compose the finitely many homotopies H_k , $0 \leq k \leq n$, to obtain a homotopy $H : f \simeq g = g_n$ relative to A such that $g : X \rightarrow Y$ is a cellular map. \square

Remark 12.2.3. *Proposition 12.2.2 can be extended to the case where X is infinite-dimensional.*

12.3. Relative Homotopy Groups

We define relative homotopy groups. We also state and prove the long exact sequence in homotopy groups, which is a crucial tool for computations.

Definition 12.3.1. Let $(X, A, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_2^*$ such that A contains the basepoint x_0 . For $n \geq 1$, the n -th relative homotopy group, denoted as $\pi_n(X, A, x_0)$, is defined as

$$\pi_n(X, A, x_0) = [(\mathbb{D}^n, \mathbb{S}^{n-1}, *), (X, A, x_0)]$$

We say (X, A, x_0) is n -connected if $\pi_k(X, A, x_0) = 0$ for $0 \leq k \leq n$.

One can think about relative homotopy groups differently. Consider the relative path space

$$P(X, A, x_0) = \{\gamma \in P(X, x_0) \mid \gamma(1) \in A\}.$$

Note that $P(X, A, x_0)$ is a based topological sapce with basepoint the constant path at $I \rightarrow x_0$. Consider $\pi_{n-1}(P(X, A, x_0), c_{x_0})$. An element of $\pi_{n-1}(P(X, A, x_0), c_{x_0})$ is a map $(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}, *) \rightarrow P(X, A, c_{x_0})$ up to homotopy that sends $*$ to c_{x_0} . Equivalently, it is a map $(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}, *) \times I \rightarrow X$ up to homotopy that:

- (1) Maps $(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}, *) \times \{0\}$ to x_0 , as every path starts at x_0 .
- (2) Maps $\{*\} \times I$ to c_{x_0} .
- (3) Maps $(\mathbb{S}^{n-1}, *) \times \{1\}$ into A as paths end in A .

This is nothing but the data of a map

$$(\mathbb{D}^n, \mathbb{S}^{n-1}, *) \rightarrow (X, A, x_0)$$

defined up to homotopy. Hence,

$$\pi_n(X, A, x_0) = \pi_{n-1}(P(X, A, x_0), c_{x_0})$$

This shows that $\pi_n(X, A, x_0)$ is a group for $n \geq 2$ and an abelian group for $n \geq 3$. We have a long exact sequence in relative homotopy groups:

Proposition 12.3.2. *Let $(X, A, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*^2$ such that A is a closed subspace. Then there is an exact sequence of homotopy groups:*

$$\cdots \rightarrow \pi_n(A, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_n(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_n(X, A, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(A, x_0) \rightarrow \cdots$$

PROOF. Consider the inclusion map $i : A \rightarrow X$. The homotopy fiber of i is $P(X, A, x_0)$. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} [(\mathbb{S}^0, *), \Omega^n(P(X, A, x_0), c_{x_0})] &\cong [\Sigma^n(\mathbb{S}^0, *), (P(X, A, x_0), c_{x_0})] \\ &\cong [(\mathbb{S}^n, *), (P(X, A, x_0), c_{x_0})] \\ &= \pi_n(P(X, A, x_0), c_{x_0}) = \pi_{n+1}(X, A, x_0).d \end{aligned}$$

The claim now follows by letting $(Z, z_0) = (\mathbb{S}^0, *)$ and applying $[(\mathbb{S}^0, *), -]$ to the exact sequence in [Proposition 10.3.9](#). \square

Remark 12.3.3. *Using Proposition 12.3.2 and some algebraic manipulations, one can show if $(B \subset A \subset X) \in \mathbf{Top}_*^3$ such that $B \subseteq A \subseteq X$ and B contains the base point x_0 , then there is a long exact sequence:*

$$\cdots \rightarrow \pi_n(A, B, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_n(X, B, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_n(X, A, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(A, B, x_0) \rightarrow \cdots$$

12.4. Freudenthal's Suspension Theorem

The purpose of this section is to prove Freudenthal's suspension theorem. We first state a notion of the excision theorem for homotopy groups. Recall that a remarkable fact about homology groups is that the relative homology groups satisfy the excision property. However, this is not the case for relative homotopy groups. However, there is a version of excision that holds for CW complexes that have rather strong connectedness properties.

Proposition 12.4.1. *Let X be a CW complex such that $X = A \cup B$ and $A \cap B$ is non-empty and connected. If $(A, A \cap B)$ is k -connected, $(B, A \cap B)$ is l -connected, and $i : (A, A \cap B) \rightarrow (X, B)$ is the inclusion map, then for any $x_0 \in A \cap B$, the induced map*

$$i_* : \pi_n(A, A \cap B, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_n(X, B, x_0)$$

is an isomorphism when $n < k + l$ and is a surjection when $n = k + l$.

PROOF. The proof is lengthy and technical. See [May99; Hat02]. \square

We now state and prove Freudenthal's Suspension Theorem:

Proposition 12.4.2. *Let (X, x_0) be an $(k - 1)$ -connected pointed CW complex. For any map $f : \mathbb{S}^k \rightarrow (X, x_0)$, consider its suspension,*

$$\Sigma f : \Sigma \mathbb{S}^n = \mathbb{S}^{n+1} \rightarrow \Sigma(X, x_0).$$

The assignment

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_n((X, x_0)) &\rightarrow \pi_{n+1}(\Sigma(X, x_0)) \\ [f] &\mapsto [\Sigma f] \end{aligned}$$

is a homomorphism which is an isomorphism for $n < 2k - 1$ and a surjection for $n = 2k - 1$.

PROOF. We can think of ΣX as two copies of CX , which we call C^+X and C^-X , identified along their bases. Define j to be the composition of the following three maps drawn in the diagram below, each of which is induced by the obvious inclusion maps.

$$\pi_n(X, x_0) \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_{n+1}(C^+X, X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_{n+1}(\Sigma X, C^-X, x_0) \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_{n+1}(\Sigma X, x_0)$$

For any n , the leftmost and rightmost maps are isomorphisms because of the long exact sequences of the CW pairs (C^+X, X) and $(\Sigma X, C^-X)$, respectively, since $\pi_n(C^\pm X)$ is always trivial. Also, when X is $(k - 1)$ -connected, the CW pair $(C^\pm X, X)$ is k -connected by the long exact sequence of the pair $(C^\pm X, X)$. This allows us to apply [Proposition 12.4.1](#), so the middle map in the diagram above is an isomorphism when $n + 1 < 2k$ and a surjection when $n + 1 = 2k$. \square

Remark 12.4.3. *Let X be a k -connected CW complex. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, consider the sequence of maps:*

$$\cdots \rightarrow \pi_n(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_{n+1}(\Sigma X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_{n+2}(\Sigma^2 X, x_0) \rightarrow \cdots$$

Since X is an k -connected CW complex, the [Proposition 12.4.2](#) implies that $\pi_n(X, x_0) \cong \pi_{n+1}(\Sigma X, x_0)$ $n < 2k + 1$. We make the following observations:

(1) *In particular,*

$$\pi_n(\Sigma X, x_0) = \pi_{n-1}(X, x_0) = 0$$

if $0 < n \leq k+1$. If X is 0-connected (path-connected) then ΣX is also 0-connected (path-connected). Hence, we have that

$$X \text{ is } k\text{-connected} \implies \Sigma X \text{ is } (k+1)\text{-connected}$$

More generally, we have that $\Sigma^n X$ is $(k+n)$ -connected for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

- (2) Let $N(k, n) = n - 1 - 2k$, and observe that when $i > N(k, n)$, we have $n + i < 2(k + i) + 1$. Thus, the groups $\pi_{n+i}(\Sigma^i X)$ are isomorphic for all $i > N(k, n)$. Let $N = N(n, k)$, and define $\pi_{n+N}(\Sigma^N X, x_0)$ as the n -th stable homotopy group of X .

More generally, the n -th stable homotopy group of any $X \in \mathbf{Top}_*$,

$$\pi_n^s(X) := \varinjlim_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k X, x_0).$$

Observe that since ΣX is always 0-connected, we do not actually need X to be 0-connected, so every space X has n -th stable homotopy groups for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Moreover, [Proposition 12.4.2](#) proves this colimit is realized after finitely many elements along the sequence. This is the start of the subject of stable homotopy theory.

12.5. Some Computations

The purpose of this section is to compute the homotopy groups. Our main computational tool will be the long exact sequence associated with a fibration, as proved below. We begin by considering a basic example.

Example 12.5.1. (Spheres) Let $k \geq 2$. We compute $\pi_n(\mathbb{S}^k, *)$.

- (1) Let $1 \leq n < k$. Let $\mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^k$ be a continuous map. WLOG, we can assume that f is a cellular map by [Proposition 12.2.2](#). If \mathbb{S}^k is given the standard cellular structure with a 0-cell and a k -cell, then the n -th skeleton of \mathbb{S}^k for $n < k$ is simply the 0-cell. Therefore, $f : \mathbb{S}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^k$ is homotopic to the constant map. Hence, $\pi_n(\mathbb{S}^k, *) = 0$ for $1 \leq n < k$.
- (2) Let $n = k$. Since \mathbb{S}^n is $(n-1)$ -connected by (1), [Proposition 12.4.2](#) implies that $\pi_j(\mathbb{S}^n, *) \rightarrow \pi_{j+1}(\mathbb{S}^{n+1}, *)$ is an isomorphism for $j < 2n-1$. Therefore,

$$\pi_n(\mathbb{S}^n, *) \rightarrow \pi_{n+1}(\mathbb{S}^{n+1}, *)$$

for $n \geq 2$. Moreover, [Proposition 12.4.2](#) implies that $\mathbb{Z} \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1, *) \rightarrow \pi_2(\mathbb{S}^2, *)$ is surjective. We will show that in [Example 12.5.5](#) that in fact this map is an isomorphism since $\pi_2(\mathbb{S}^2, *) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore, we have

$$\mathbb{Z} \cong \pi_2(\mathbb{S}^2, *) \cong \pi_3(\mathbb{S}^3, *) \cong \pi_4(\mathbb{S}^4, *) \cong \dots$$

That is, $\pi_n(\mathbb{S}^n, *) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

Hence, for $k \geq 2$ we have

$$\pi_n(\mathbb{S}^k) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } 1 \leq n < k, \\ \mathbb{Z}, & \text{if } n = k. \end{cases}$$

Remark 12.5.2. [Example 12.5.1](#) implies that it remains to compute $\pi_n(\mathbb{S}^k)$ for $n > k$. This turns out to be a very difficult problem.

Remark 12.5.3. We can now also argue that homotopy groups are not a perfect topological invariant. Consider

$$X = \mathbb{S}^2 \times \mathbb{RP}^3, \quad Y = \mathbb{RP}^2 \times \mathbb{S}^3.$$

By [Example 12.5.1](#), we have:

$$\pi_1(X) \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{S}^2) \times \pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^3) \cong 0 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$$

$$\pi_1(Y) \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2) \times \pi_1(\mathbb{S}^3) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times 0 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$$

The universal cover of both X and Y is homeomorphic to \mathbb{S}^5 . Hence,

$$\pi_n(X) \cong \pi_n(Y)$$

for $n \geq 2$. Hence, X and Y have same homotopy groups. However, X and Y are not homotopy equivalent. Indeed,

$$H_5(X) = \mathbb{Z}, \quad H_5(Y) = 0$$

since X is compact and orientable, and Y is compact and non-orientable.

We now establish the long exact sequence associated with a fibration. Notably, we can leverage the properties of fibrations along with the exact Puppe sequence ([Proposition 10.3.9](#)) to derive a long exact sequence of homotopy groups.

Proposition 12.5.4. *Let $(E, e_0), (X, x_0) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ and let $p : (E, e_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ be a based fibration. Let $F = p^{-1}(x_0)$. Then we have an exact sequence of homotopy groups:*

$$\cdots \rightarrow \pi_n(F, e_0) \rightarrow \pi_n(E, e_0) \rightarrow \pi_n(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(F, e_0) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(E, e_0) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(X, x_0) \rightarrow \cdots$$

PROOF. Since p is a fibration, we have that the homotopy fiber of p is homotopy equivalent to F . Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} [(\mathbb{S}^0, *), \Omega^n(X, x_0)]_* &\cong [\Sigma^n(\mathbb{S}^0, *), (X, x_0)]_* \\ &\cong [(\mathbb{S}^n, *), (X, x_0)]_* \\ &= \pi_n(X, x_0) \end{aligned}$$

The claim now follows by letting $(Z, z_0) = (\mathbb{S}^0, *)$ and applying $[(\mathbb{S}^0, *), -]$ to the exact sequence in [Proposition 10.3.9](#). \square

We can perform further computations by exploiting the long exact sequence of homotopy groups associated to fibrations.

Example 12.5.5. (Hopf Fibration) Consider the Hopf Fibration:

$$\mathbb{S}^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^2$$

Barring π_0 , the long exact sequence reads:

$$\cdots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \pi_3(\mathbb{S}^3) \rightarrow \pi_3(\mathbb{S}^2) \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \pi_2(\mathbb{S}^2) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_2(\mathbb{S}^2, *) &\cong \mathbb{Z} \\ \pi_n(\mathbb{S}^3, *) &\cong \pi_n(\mathbb{S}^2, *), \quad n \geq 2 \end{aligned}$$

In particular,

$$\pi_3(\mathbb{S}^2, *) \cong \mathbb{Z}$$

Remark 12.5.6. *The computation in [Example 12.5.5](#) is independent of the computation in [Example 12.5.1](#). This shows that the claim $\pi_n(\mathbb{S}^n, *) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ made in [Example 12.5.1](#) is correct.*

Example 12.5.7. Consider the fibration

$$\mathbb{S}^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$$

Barring π_0 , the long exact sequence reads:

$$\cdots 0 \rightarrow \pi_3(\mathbb{CP}^\infty) \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \pi_2(\mathbb{CP}^\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \pi_1(\mathbb{CP}^\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$$

Hence,

$$\pi_n(\mathbb{CP}^\infty) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & k = 0, 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example 12.5.8. (Special Orthogonal Group) Consider the fibration:

$$\mathrm{SO}(k-1) \rightarrow \mathrm{SO}(k) \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{k-1}$$

We have a long exact sequence of homotopy groups:

$$\cdots \rightarrow \pi_n(\mathrm{SO}(k-1)) \rightarrow \pi_n(\mathrm{SO}(k)) \rightarrow \pi_n(\mathbb{S}^{k-1}) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(\mathrm{SO}(k-1)) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(\mathrm{SO}(k)) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(\mathbb{S}^{k-1}) \rightarrow \cdots$$

For $n \leq k-3$, we have

$$\cdots \rightarrow \pi_n(\mathrm{SO}(k-1)) \rightarrow \pi_n(\mathrm{SO}(k)) \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \cdots$$

This implies that

$$\pi_n(\mathrm{SO}(k)) \cong \pi_n(\mathrm{SO}(k-1))$$

for $k \geq n+3$. This isomorphism doesn't hold for $k = n+2$ ($n = k-2$). Indeed, if $k = 3$ and $n = 1$, we have

$$\mathbb{Z}_2 \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^3) \cong \pi_1(\mathrm{SO}(3)) \not\cong \pi_1(\mathrm{SO}(2)) \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{S}^1) \cong \mathbb{Z}$$

In any case if $k \geq n+3$, we have

$$\pi_n(\mathrm{SO}(k)) \cong \pi_n(\mathrm{SO}(k-1)) \cong \pi_n(\mathrm{SO}(n+2))$$

In particular, we have

$$\pi_0(\mathrm{SO}(k)) \cong \mathbb{Z}, \quad \pi_1(\mathrm{SO}(k)) \cong \begin{cases} 0 & k = 1 \\ \mathbb{Z} & k = 2 \\ \mathbb{Z}_2 & k = 3 \\ \mathbb{Z}_2 & k \geq 4 \end{cases}$$

Example 12.5.9. (Unitary Group) Consider the fibration:

$$\mathrm{U}(k-1) \rightarrow \mathrm{U}(k) \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{2k-1}$$

We have a long exact sequence of homotopy groups:

$$\cdots \rightarrow \pi_n(\mathrm{U}(k-1)) \rightarrow \pi_n(\mathrm{U}(k)) \rightarrow \pi_n(\mathbb{S}^{2k-1}) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(\mathrm{U}(k-1)) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(\mathrm{U}(k)) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(\mathbb{S}^{2k-1}) \rightarrow \cdots$$

For $n \leq 2k-3$, we have

$$\cdots \rightarrow \pi_n(\mathrm{U}(k-1)) \rightarrow \pi_n(\mathrm{U}(k)) \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \cdots$$

This implies that

$$\pi_n(\mathrm{U}(k)) \cong \pi_n(\mathrm{U}(k-1))$$

for $n \leq 2k - 3$. This isomorphism doesn't hold for $n = 2k - 1$. Indeed, if $k = 2$ and $n = 3$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{Z} &\cong \pi_3(\mathbb{S}^3) \\ &\cong \pi_3(\mathrm{SU}(2)) \\ &\cong \pi_3(\mathrm{SU}(2)) \times \pi_3(\mathbb{S}^1) \\ &\cong \pi_3(\mathrm{SU}(2) \times \mathbb{S}^1) \\ &\cong \pi_3(\mathrm{U}(2)) \not\cong \pi_3(\mathrm{U}(1)) \\ &\cong \pi_3(\mathbb{S}^1) \cong 0.\end{aligned}$$

In any case if $k \geq \lceil (n+3)/2 \rceil$, we have

$$\pi_n(\mathrm{U}(k)) \cong \pi_n(\mathrm{U}(k-1)) \cong \pi_n(\mathrm{U}(\lceil (n+3)/2 \rceil - 1))$$

In particular, we have

$$\pi_0(\mathrm{U}(k)) \cong \mathbb{Z}, \quad \pi_1(\mathrm{U}(k)) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & k=1 \\ \mathbb{Z} & k \geq 2 \end{cases} \quad \pi_2(\mathrm{U}(k)) \cong \begin{cases} 0 & k=1 \\ 0 & k=2 \\ 0 & k \geq 3 \end{cases} \quad \pi_3(\mathrm{U}(k)) \cong \begin{cases} 0 & k=1 \\ \mathbb{Z} & k=2 \\ \mathbb{Z} & k \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

12.6. Classification of Principal G -bundles

We can use homotopy theory to provide a homotopy-theoretic classification of principal G -bundles. More precisely, we show that the functor taking a topological space to the set of principal G -bundles on it is representable in the homotopy category. Recall that a principal G -bundle is defined as follows:

Definition 12.6.1. Let $E, X \in \mathbf{Top}$ such that $p : E \rightarrow X$ be a fibre bundle with a topological group, G , as its fibre. Then $p : E \rightarrow X$ is a principal G -bundle if the following hold:

- (1) There is a continuous, free group action $E \times G \rightarrow E$,
- (2) For each $x \in X$, the action of G preserves the fibre E_x and the orbit map $G \rightarrow E_x$ is a homeomorphism,
- (3) The locally trivializing cover $\{U_\alpha, \varphi_\alpha\}_\alpha$ is such that each φ is G -equivariant. That is,

$$\varphi_\alpha(e \cdot g) = \varphi_\alpha(e) \cdot g$$

The group G is called the structure group of the principal G -bundle.

We now define the notion of morphisms of principal G -bundles.

Definition 12.6.2. Let $p_i : E_i \rightarrow X_i$ be two principal G -bundles. A morphism of principal G -bundles is given by a pair of smooth functions $f : E_1 \rightarrow E_2$ and $g : X_1 \rightarrow X_2$ such f is a G -equivariant map and the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E_1 & \xrightarrow{f} & E_2 \\ 1 \downarrow & & \downarrow p_2 \\ X_1 & \xrightarrow{g} & X_2 \end{array}$$

commutes. A morphism of principal G -bundles is an isomorphism of principal G -bundles if f, g are diffeomorphisms.

Remark 12.6.3. If $p_i : E_i \rightarrow X_i$ be two principal G -bundles for $i = 1, 2$, any G -equivariant map $f : E_1 \rightarrow E_2$ defines a morphism of principal G -bundles. This is because

$$f(e_1 \cdot g) = g(e_1) \cdot g$$

implies that f maps fibers of E_1 to fibers of E_2 . Hence, defining

$$\begin{aligned} g : X_1 &\rightarrow X_2 \\ x_1 &\mapsto p_2(f(e_1)) \end{aligned}$$

is well-defined for any choice of $e_1 \in p_1^{-1}(x_1)$ and uniquely determines the base map $g : X_1 \rightarrow X_2$.

Remark 12.6.4. An important special case we will consider is when $X_1 = X_2 = X$. In this case, $g = \text{Id}_X$.

Before stating the classification theorem, we need to introduce some constructions of principal G -bundles, with the first important one being the pullback construction.

Example 12.6.5. The following are examples of constructions of principal G -bundles.

- (1) Let $X_1, X_2 \in \mathbf{Top}$ and let $p_i : E_i \rightarrow X_i$ be a principal G -bundles for $i = 1, 2$. Then

$$p_1 \times p_2 : E_1 \times E_2 \rightarrow X_1 \times X_2$$

is a principal G -bundle. Indeed, $p_1 \times p_2$ is a fibre bundle. This is in my other notes. The group action on $E_1 \times E_2$ is given by the diagonal action:

$$(e_1, e_2) \cdot g = (e_1 \cdot g, e_2 \cdot g)$$

It is clear that [Definition 12.6.1](#) is satisfied.

- (2) Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ and let $p : E \rightarrow X$ be a principal G -bundle. If $X' \subseteq X$ is a subspace of X , then

$$p|_{X'} : p^{-1}(X') \rightarrow X'$$

is a principal G -bundle. Indeed, $p|_{X'}$ is a fibre bundle. This is in my other notes. Moreover, [Definition 12.6.1](#) is easily satisfied.

- (3) **(Pullback)** Let $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$ and let $p : E \rightarrow Y$ be a principal G -bundle. Consider a continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$. We construct a principal G -bundle $f^*p : f^*E \rightarrow X$ that fits into the following commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} f^*E & \xrightarrow{\pi_2} & E \\ f^*p \downarrow & & \downarrow p \\ X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \end{array}$$

Consider

$$f^*E := \{(x, e) \in X \times E \mid f(x) = p(e)\} := X \times_Y E$$

We endow f^*E with the subspace topology of the product topology. Let f^*p and π_2 be projections onto first and second factors respectively. Consider the product principal G -bundle.

$$\text{Id}_X \times p : X \times E \rightarrow X \times Y$$

Consider the graph of f :

$$\Gamma_f = \{(x, y) \in X \times Y \mid y = f(x)\} \subseteq X \times Y$$

Note that we have

$$(x, e) \in (\text{Id}_X \times p)^{-1}(\Gamma_f) \iff f(x) = p(e).$$

Hence, the inverse image of Γ_f is f^*E . This shows that f^*E is a principal G -bundle. Uniqueness follows from categorical nonsense.

We now prove the important fact the pullbacks of principal G -bundles along homotopic maps are isomorphic.

Proposition 12.6.6. *Let $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$ be paracompact Hausdorff topological spaces. Let $p : E \rightarrow Y$ be a principal G -bundle. If $h_0, h_1 : X \rightarrow Y$ are homotopic maps, then $h_0^*(E) \cong h_1^*(E)$.*

Remark 12.6.7. *We will invoke the following facts on principal G -bundles in the proof of Proposition 12.6.6.*

- (1) *Every morphism of principal G -bundles is an isomorphism.*
- (2) *There is a bijection between morphisms of G -bundles $E_1 \rightarrow E_2$ over a common base and global sections of the associated bundle $E_1 \times_G E_2^2$ over X with fiber E_2 .*

These constructions and facts are covered in my other notes.

PROOF. Consider a homotopy

$$H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$$

such that $H_0 = h_0$ and $H_1 = h_1$. Pulling back $p : E \rightarrow Y$ along H , we get a principal G -bundle $H^*E \rightarrow X \times I$ such that

$$H^*E|_{X \times \{0\}} = h_0^*(E)$$

$$H^*E|_{X \times \{1\}} = h_1^*(E)$$

Hence, it suffices to show that for any principal G -bundle $q : F \rightarrow X \times I$, the restrictions $q|_{X \times \{0\}}$ and $q|_{X \times \{1\}}$ are isomorphic. Denote the restrictions as

$$q_0 : F_0 \rightarrow X \times \{0\} \cong X$$

$$q_1 : F_1 \rightarrow X \times \{1\} \cong X$$

It suffices to prove that $F \cong F_0 \times I$ as principal G -bundles over $X \times I$, since then restriction to $X \times \{1\}$ gives the isomorphism

$$F|_{X \times \{1\}} \equiv F_1 \cong (F_0 \times I)|_{X \times \{1\}} \equiv F_0.$$

It suffices to find a global section of $F \times_G (F_0 \times I) \rightarrow X \times I$. Now, $F \times_G (F_0 \times I)$ has a section over $X \times \{0\}$, since

$$F|_{X \times \{0\}} \cong F_0 \cong F_0 \times I|_{X \times \{0\}}$$

Since X is paracompact Hausdorff, $X \times I$ is paracompact Hausdorff. Hence,

$$F \times_G (F_0 \times I) \rightarrow X \times I$$

is a fibration by Remark 10.2.5. The claim now follows from the homotopy lifting property of fibrations.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X \times \{0\} & \longrightarrow & F \times_G (F_0 \times I) \\ \downarrow & \nearrow & \downarrow \\ X \times I & \xrightarrow{\text{Id}} & X \times I \end{array}$$

²Here E_2 is endowed with the left action $g \cdot e_2 := e_2 \cdot g^{-1}$

This completes the proof. \square

Let $\mathcal{P}(X, G)$ denote the set of isomorphism classes of principal G -bundles over X , and let $\mathcal{P}(G)$ denote the isomorphism classes of all principal G -bundles. The assignment

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Top} &\rightarrow \mathcal{P}(G) \\ X &\mapsto \mathcal{P}(X, G) \end{aligned}$$

is a contravariant (set-valued) functor. Indeed, this follows from the pullback construction. **Proposition 12.6.6** states that the functor actually descends to the homotopy category:

$$\mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(G)$$

The homotopy theoretic classification of principal G -bundles argues that this functor is representable. We restrict ourselves to the category CW complexes. The representability below can be generalized to other categories. We need the following facts about CW complexes.

Lemma 12.6.8. *Let (X, Y) be a CW pair and let $p : E \rightarrow X$ be a fiber bundle with fiber F . Assume that $p_k(F) = 0$ for each k such that $X \setminus Y$ has cells of dimension $k + 1$.*

- (1) *Every map $f : Y \rightarrow F$ extends to a map $\bar{f} : X \rightarrow F$.*
- (2) *Every section $s \in \Gamma(Y, E)$ can be extended to a global section $\bar{s} \in \Gamma(X, E)$. In particular (taking $Y = \emptyset$) $p : E \rightarrow X$ admits global sections if F is k -connected where $k = \dim(X)$.*

Remark 12.6.9. *Let $p : E \rightarrow X$ be fiber bundle with fiber F . We will invoke the following facts in the proof of **Lemma 12.6.8**.*

- (1) *There is a bijection between local sections defined over a locally trivial cover U_α and smooth maps $U_\alpha \rightarrow F$*

This is proved in my other notes.

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) We have a relative CW-complex structure:

$$Y \subseteq Z^{(-1)} \subseteq Z^{(0)} \subseteq \dots \subseteq Z^{(m)} = X.$$

We induct on k . Assume that f has been extended to $Z^{(k)}$. The base case $k = -1$ follows by assumption. For each $k + 1$ -cell $\mathbb{D}^{k+1} \subseteq X$ with attaching map $\varphi : \mathbb{S}^k \rightarrow Z^{(k)}$, the composition

$$f \circ \varphi : \mathbb{S}^k \rightarrow F$$

is nullhomotopic by assumption. Hence $f \circ \varphi$ can be extended to \mathbb{D}^{k+1} and hence to $Z^{(k)} \cup_\varphi \mathbb{D}^{k+1}$. Extending f in this way for each $k + 1$ -cell completes the induction.

- (2) If $E = X \times F$, the claim follows from (1) and **Remark 12.6.9**. Generally, we proceed as above by induction on k . Assume a section has been extended to $Z^{(k)}$, so $s \in \Gamma(Z^{(k)}, E)$. Given a $k + 1$ cell \mathbb{D}_{k+1} of X , we can subdivide $\mathbb{D}_{k+1} \cong I^{k+1}$ into sufficiently small cubes and reduce to the case $\mathbb{D}_{k+1} \subseteq U_\alpha$, where U_α is a locally trivial open set. The claim follows as above.

This completes the proof. \square

We now state and prove the main result regarding classification of principal G -bundles.

Proposition 12.6.10. *Let X be a CW-complex. For a topological group, G , $p_G : EG \rightarrow BG$ be a principal G -bundle such that EG is weakly contractible. There is a bijective correspondence*

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi : [X, BG] &\rightarrow \mathcal{P}(X, G) \\ [f] &\mapsto [f^* p_G] \end{aligned}$$

BG is called the classifying space for principal G -bundles.

Remark 12.6.11. *We will invoke the following facts on principal G -bundles in the proof of Proposition 12.6.10.*

- (1) *There is a bijection between morphisms of G -bundles $E_1 \rightarrow X_1$ and $E_2 \rightarrow X_2$ and global sections of the associated bundle $E_1 \times_G E_2^3$ over X_1 with fiber E_2 .*

This is covered in my other notes.

PROOF. Φ is well-defined by Proposition 12.6.6. We first show Φ is surjective. Suppose $p : E \rightarrow X$ is a principal G -bundle. We need to find $f : B \rightarrow BG$ and a principal G -bundle morphism $\hat{f} : E \rightarrow EG$ such that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E \cong f^*(EG) & \xrightarrow{\hat{f}} & EG \\ \downarrow p & & \downarrow p_G \\ X & \xrightarrow{f} & BG \end{array}$$

This is equivalent to the existence of a global section of the associated bundle $E \times_G EG \rightarrow X$ with fiber EG . Since EG is weakly contractible, such a section exists by Lemma 12.6.8(2). We now show Φ is injective. Suppose that $f_0, f_1 : B \rightarrow BG$ are two maps such that $E_0 := f_0^*(EG) \cong f_1^*(EG) := E_1$. Let $p_0 : E_0 \rightarrow X$ and $p_1 : E_1 \rightarrow X$. We show that $f_0 \sim f_1$. We have a commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E_0 \times \{0, 1\} & \xrightarrow{(\bar{f}_0, \bar{f}_1)} & EG \\ \downarrow p_0 \times \text{Id} & & \downarrow p_G \\ X \times \{0, 1\} & \xrightarrow{(f_0, f_1)} & BG \end{array}$$

We extend it to a commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E_0 \times I & \xrightarrow{\bar{H}} & EG \\ \downarrow p_0 \times \text{Id} & & \downarrow p_G \\ X \times I & \xrightarrow{H} & BG \end{array}$$

This yields the desired homotopy $H : X \times I$ between f_0 and f_1 . This is equivalent to finding a section of the associated bundle $(E_0 \times I) \times_G EG \rightarrow X \times I$ with fiber EG . We have already have a section of the associated bundle $(E_0 \times \{0, 1\}) \times_G EG \rightarrow X \times \{0, 1\}$. Under the obvious inclusion

$$(E_0 \times \{0, 1\}) \times_G EG \subseteq (E_0 \times I) \times_G EG,$$

this section can be regarded as a section of $(E_0 \times I) \times_G EG \rightarrow X \times I$ over $X \times \{0, 1\}$. Since EG is weakly contractible, the section can be extended via Lemma 12.6.8(2). \square

³Here E_2 is endowed with the left action $g \cdot e_2 := e_2 \cdot g^{-1}$

The question remains: how does one construct the universal bundle $EG \rightarrow BG$? We will not present a general construction; rather, we will explicitly find such universal bundles for specific examples. However, we can prove that such a universal bundle is defined uniquely up to homotopy.

Proposition 12.6.12. *Let G be a topological group. Then a universal principal G -bundle $p_G : EG \rightarrow BG$ such that EG is weakly contractible exists. Moreover, the construction is functorial in the sense that a continuous group homomorphism $\mu : G \rightarrow H$ induces a bundle map*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} EG & \xrightarrow{E\mu} & EH \\ \downarrow p_G & & \downarrow p_H \\ BG & \xrightarrow{B\mu} & BH \end{array}$$

Furthermore, the classifying space BG is unique up to homotopy.

PROOF. (Sketch) There is a general construction due to Milnor of BG associated to any locally compact topological group G . We don't discuss it here. We first show that BG is unique up to homotopy. Assume we are given two universal principal G -bundles

$$\begin{aligned} p_G : EG &\rightarrow BG \\ p_{G'} : EG' &\rightarrow BG' \end{aligned}$$

By regarding each as a universal principal G -bundle for the other principal G -bundle, we obtain the following commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} EG & \xrightarrow{\bar{f}} & EG' & \xrightarrow{\bar{f}} & EG \\ \downarrow p_G & & \downarrow p_{G'} & & \downarrow p_G \\ BG & \xrightarrow{g} & BG' & \xrightarrow{f} & BG \end{array}$$

By Proposition 12.6.10, $f \circ g = \text{Id}_{BG}$ and $g \circ f = \text{Id}_{BG'}$. This shows uniqueness up to homotopy. Functoriality is clear. \square

How does one construct the classifying space BG ? Note that if $EG \rightarrow BG$ is a principal G -bundle, then G acts freely on EG such that $BG \cong EG/G$. Hence, it suffices to find a weakly contractible space EG on which G acts freely.

Example 12.6.13. The following is a list of examples of some classifying spaces:

- (1) Let $G = \mathbb{Z}$. We can take $EG = \mathbb{R}$ since \mathbb{Z} acts freely on \mathbb{R} by translations. Hence, we have

$$\begin{aligned} B\mathbb{Z} &\cong E\mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z} \\ &\cong \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{S}^1 \end{aligned}$$

- (2) Let $G = \mathbb{Z}^n$. We can take $EG = \mathbb{R}^n$ since \mathbb{Z}^n acts freely on \mathbb{R}^n by translations. Hence, we have

$$\begin{aligned} B\mathbb{Z}^n &\cong E\mathbb{Z}^n/\mathbb{Z}^n \\ &\cong \mathbb{R}^n/\mathbb{Z}^n \cong \underbrace{\mathbb{S}^1 \times \cdots \times \mathbb{S}^1}_{n\text{-times}} \end{aligned}$$

- (3) Let $G = \mathbb{Z}_2$. We can take $EG = \mathbb{S}^\infty$ since \mathbb{Z}_2 acts freely on \mathbb{S}^∞ and \mathbb{S}^∞ is contractible. Hence, we have

$$\begin{aligned} B\mathbb{Z}_2 &\cong E\mathbb{Z}_2/\mathbb{Z}_2 \\ &\cong \mathbb{S}^\infty/\mathbb{Z}_2 \cong \mathbb{RP}^\infty \end{aligned}$$

- (4) Let $G = \mathbb{S}^1$. We can take $EG = \mathbb{S}^\infty$ since \mathbb{S}^1 acts freely on \mathbb{S}^∞ and \mathbb{S}^∞ is contractible. Hence, we have

$$\begin{aligned} B\mathbb{S}^1 &\cong E\mathbb{S}^1/\mathbb{S}^1 \\ &\cong \mathbb{S}^\infty/\mathbb{S}^1 \cong \mathbb{CP}^\infty \end{aligned}$$

- (5) Let $G = O(k)$. It can be checked that $V_k(\mathbb{R}^\infty)$ is contractible. Hence, we can take $EG = V_k(\mathbb{R}^\infty)$ since $O(k)$ acts freely on $V_k(\mathbb{R}^\infty)$. Hence, we have

$$\begin{aligned} BO(k) &\cong EO(k)/O(k) \\ &\cong V_k(\mathbb{R}^\infty)/O(k) \cong G_k(\mathbb{R}^\infty) \end{aligned}$$

- (6) Let $G = U(k)$. It can be checked that $V_k(\mathbb{C}^\infty)$ is contractible. Hence, we can take $EG = V_k(\mathbb{C}^\infty)$ since $U(k)$ acts freely on $V_k(\mathbb{C}^\infty)$. Hence, we have

$$\begin{aligned} BU(k) &\cong EU(k)/U(k) \\ &\cong V_k(\mathbb{C}^\infty)/U(k) \\ &\cong G_k(\mathbb{C}^\infty) \end{aligned}$$

Remark 12.6.14. *The following observation is quite useful. Since $EG \rightarrow BG$ is a principal G -bundle, the long exact sequence in homotopy associated to a fibration reads:*

$$\cdots \rightarrow \pi_{n+1}(BG) \rightarrow \pi_n(G) \rightarrow \pi_n(EG) \rightarrow \pi_n(BG) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(G) \rightarrow \cdots$$

As EG is weakly contractible, $\pi_n(EG) = 0$ for $n > 0$. Hence, we see that

$$\pi_{n+1}(BG) \cong \pi_n(G)$$

for $n \geq 1$.

12.7. Eilenberg-MacLane Spaces

We can use homotopy theory to show that the singular cohomology functor is representable in the homotopy category. If G is an abelian group, assume there exists a topological space Z_n such that

$$H^n(X, G) = [X, Z_n]$$

for all topological spaces and all $X \in \mathbf{Top}$. If $X = \mathbb{S}^k$, note that

$$\pi_k(Z_n) = [\mathbb{S}^k, Z_n] = H^n(\mathbb{S}^k, G) = \begin{cases} G & \text{if } n = 0, k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Hence, we see that $\pi_k(Z_n)$ is non-trivial for exactly one value of $k \in \mathbb{N}$. This motivates the following definition.

Definition 12.7.1. Let $X \in \mathbf{Top}$, $G \in \mathbf{Grp}$. If X has only one non-trivial homotopy group such that

$$\pi_n(X) \cong G$$

for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then X is called an Eilenberg-MacLane space.

A generic Eilenberg-MacLane space is denoted as $K(G, n)$. The question remains: how does one construct an Eilenberg-MacLane space $K(G, n)$. We will not present a general existence and uniqueness argument; rather, we will explicitly find $K(G, n)$ for specific examples. We first discuss a link between classifying spaces and Eilenberg-MacLane spaces for discrete groups:

Proposition 12.7.2. *Let G be a discrete abelian group. Then $BG \cong K(G, 1)$.*

PROOF. Since G is discrete, we have

$$\pi_n(G) = \begin{cases} G & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

By [Remark 12.6.14](#), we have $\pi_n(BG) = 0$ for $n \geq 2$. Since $EG \rightarrow BG$ is a universal covering map with discrete fibers G , covering space theory implies that $\pi_1(BG) \cong G$. This proves the claim. \square

Example 12.7.3. The following is a list of Eilenberg-MacLane space:

- (1) \mathbb{S}^1 is a model of $K(\mathbb{Z}, 1)$. This follows from [Proposition 12.7.2](#) and that $B\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{S}^1$.
- (2) \mathbb{RP}^∞ is a model of $K(\mathbb{Z}_2, 1)$. This follows from [Proposition 12.7.2](#) and that $B\mathbb{Z}_2 \cong \mathbb{RP}^\infty$.
- (3) More generally, the cyclic group \mathbb{Z}/m acts on \mathbb{S}^∞ when thought of as a direct limit of spheres in complex vector spaces \mathbb{C}^n , where the action is by multiplication of each coordinate by $e^{2\pi i/m}$. We have a principal \mathbb{Z}/m -bundle:

$$\mathbb{Z}/m \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^\infty/\mathbb{Z}/m$$

The quotient $\mathbb{S}^\infty/\mathbb{Z}/m$ is called the infinite-dimensional lens space, which is a $K(\mathbb{Z}/m, 1)$.

- (4) \mathbb{CP}^∞ is a model of $K(\mathbb{Z}, 2)$. This follows from [Example 12.5.7](#).
- (5) The wedge sum of n -circles is a model space for $K(F_n, 1)$, where F_n is the free group on n generators. Clearly, we have

$$\pi_1\left(\bigvee_{i=1}^n \mathbb{S}^1\right) \cong F_n$$

Moreover, the higher homotopy groups of a wedge sum of n -circles vanish since its universal covering space, which is the Cayley graph on n generators, is contractible. By [Proposition 12.7.2](#), we also have

$$BF_n \cong \bigvee_{i=1}^n \mathbb{S}^1$$

The following is a basic list of properties of $K(G, 1)$.

Proposition 12.7.4. *Let G be a group.*

- (1) *If G' is another group, we have*

$$K(G, n) \times K(G', n) \cong K(G \times G', n)$$

- (2) *$K(G, 1)$ exists for any finitely-generated abelian group.*
- (3) *If $X \cong K(G, n)$, then $\Omega X \cong K(G, n-1)$.*

PROOF. The proof is given below:

- (1) This is clear π_n is a functor that preserves products.
- (2) We have constructed a $K(\mathbb{Z}, 1)$ and a $K(\mathbb{Z}/m, 1)$ for each $m \geq 2$. Thus, we can construct a $K(G, 1)$ for any finitely generated G by (1).
- (3) This follows because $\pi_n(\Omega X) \cong \pi_{n+1}(X)$

This completes the proof. \square

Remark 12.7.5. *If G is a finitely-generated abelian group, then if G has torsion, then the $K(G, 1)$ contains an infinite-dimensional lens space in the product. Since a $K(G, 1)$ is unique up to homotopy equivalence (assumed without proof), a finite-dimensional $K(G, 1)$ cannot exist if G is finitely generated and has torsion.*

We now use homotopy theory to show that the singular cohomology functor is representable in the homotopy category in terms of Eilenberg-MacLane spaces. We will invoke the definition of reduced cohomology. We first prove the following lemma:

Lemma 12.7.6. *Let h^* be an unreduced cohomology theory with \mathbb{Z} coefficients defined as a collection of functors*

$$h^n : \mathbf{CW}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$$

If $h^n(; \mathbb{Z}) \cong 0$ for $n \neq 0$, then there exists a natural isomorphism*

$$h^n(X, A) \cong H^n(X, A; G)$$

for all CW-pairs (X, A) and for all $n \geq 1$, where $G := h^0(; \mathbb{Z}) \in \mathbf{Ab}$.*

PROOF. (Sketch) The proof is similar to the proof for homology theories defined on \mathbf{CW}^2 . (Proposition 5.7.1). See [Hat02] for the difference that needs to be accounted for. \square

Remark 12.7.7. *There is also a version of Lemma 12.7.6 for reduced cohomology.*

We now prove the desired result:

Proposition 12.7.8. *Let H^* be an unreduced singular cohomology theory with \mathbb{Z} coefficients defined as a collection of functors*

$$H^n : \mathbf{CW}_*^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$$

There exists a natural isomorphism

$$T_n : H^n(X; G) \rightarrow [X, K(G, n)]_*$$

for all $X \in \mathbf{CW}_$ and any abelian group G for all $n \geq 1$.*

PROOF. Using Proposition 12.7.4 we have that $\Omega K(G, n) \cong K(G, n-1)$. Define the functors

$$\begin{aligned} L^n : \mathbf{CW}_* &\rightarrow \mathbf{Ab} \\ X &\mapsto [X, K(G, n)]_* \end{aligned}$$

We claim that these functors define a reduced cohomology theory on \mathbf{CW}_* .

- (1) **(Homotopy invariance)** A map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ induces a map

$$f^* : [Y, K(G, n)]_* \rightarrow [X, K(G, n)]_*$$

which depends only on the basepoint-preserving homotopy class. It can be checked that f^* is indeed a homomorphism by replacing $K(G, n)$ with $\Omega K(G, n+1)$.

- (2) **(Wedge sum axiom)** Let $i_\alpha : X_\alpha \hookrightarrow \bigvee_{\alpha \in A} X_\alpha$ be the inclusion. We want to show that the map

$$\prod_{\alpha \in A} i_\alpha^* : \left[\bigvee_{\alpha \in A} X_\alpha, K(G, n) \right]_* \rightarrow \prod_{\alpha \in A} [X_\alpha, K(G, n)]_*$$

is an isomorphism for all n . This follows from [Remark 2.1.14](#).

- (3) **(Suspension Axiom)** We have

$$\begin{aligned} L^{n+1}(\Sigma X) &= [\Sigma X, K(G, n+1)]_* \\ &= [X, \Omega K(G, n+1)]_* \\ &= [X, K(G, n)]_* \\ &= L^n(X) \end{aligned}$$

for all n . Hence, the suspension axiom holds.

- (4) **(Long Exact Sequence)** This follows from the coexact Puppe sequence (which is not included in the notes for now).

Hence, we have an reduced cohomology theory. The reduced version of [Lemma 12.7.6](#) shows that there exists natural isomorphism

$$T_n : H^n(X; G) \rightarrow [X, K(G, n)]_*$$

This completes the proof. □

Remark 12.7.9. In the proof [Proposition 12.7.8](#) we used the fact that the family of spaces $\{K(G, n)\}_{n \geq 0}$ for a fixed $G \in \mathbf{Ab}$ is such that

$$K(G, n) \cong \Omega K(G, n+1)$$

We say that $\{K(G, n)\}_{n \geq 0}$ is an Ω -spectrum. This suggests that Ω -spectrum can be used to defined cohomology theories. This is the start of the study of spectra in stable homotopy theory.

Part 5

Spectral Sequences

CHAPTER 13

Serre Spectral Sequence

13.1. Construction

The Serre spectral sequence is a powerful computational tool in algebraic topology that arises in the study of the homology and cohomology of fibrations. It allows one to relate the (co)homology of the total space of a fibration to that of its base and fiber, often turning otherwise intractable computations into manageable ones. We present the Serre spectral sequence and illustrate its use through examples and applications. We will treat the general theory of spectral sequences largely as a black box, relying on established results without reproving them here.¹

Remark 13.1.1. *There is a version of the Serre spectral sequence for both homology and cohomology. In these notes, we focus on the cohomological version, as it is the one most commonly used in practice. The homological version is very similar in structure and can be invoked when needed. For further details, the reader is referred to [\[Hat04\]](#).*

¹Some of these general results are developed in more detail in my other notes.

Part 6

Appendix

Throughout, let \mathcal{A} be a locally small abelian category to ensure that the Hom functors are set-valued.

13.2. Hom Functors

We briefly review the Hom functors.

Definition 13.2.1. Let $A \in \mathcal{A}$. The Hom functor $\text{Hom}(A, -) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$, is defined by

$$\text{Hom}(A, -)(B) = \text{Hom}(A, B),$$

for all $B \in \mathcal{A}$.

Let's verify that $\text{Hom}(A, -)$ is indeed a functor.

Lemma 13.2.2. For $A \in \mathcal{A}$, $\text{Hom}(A, -)$ is a covariant functor.

PROOF. If $f : B \rightarrow B'$ is a morphism \mathcal{A} , then $\text{Hom}(A, -)(f) : \text{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A, B')$ is given by $h \mapsto f \circ h$. Note that the composite $f \circ h$ makes sense:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} A & \xrightarrow{h} & B & \xrightarrow{f} & B' \\ & \searrow & & \nearrow & \\ & & f \circ h & & \end{array}$$

We call $\text{Hom}(A, -)(f)$ the induced map, and we denote it by f_* . If f is the identity map $1_B : B \rightarrow B$, then

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} A & \xrightarrow{h} & B & \xrightarrow{1_B} & B \\ & \searrow & & \nearrow & \\ & & h & & \end{array}$$

Hence so that $(1_B)_* = 1_{\text{Hom}(A, B)}$. Suppose now that $g : B' \rightarrow B''$. We have the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & & & (g \circ f) \circ h & & \\ & & & & \curvearrowright & & \\ A & \xrightarrow{h} & B & \xrightarrow{f} & B' & \xrightarrow{g} & B'' \\ & \searrow & & \nearrow & \searrow & \nearrow & \\ & & f \circ h & & g \circ (f \circ h) & & \end{array}$$

Clearly, $g \circ (f \circ h) = (g \circ f) \circ h$. Therefore, we have $(g \circ f)_* = g_* \circ f_*$. □

We now discuss the contravariant Hom functor.

Definition 13.2.3. Let $B \in \mathcal{A}$. The contravariant Hom functor $\text{Hom}(A, -) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$, is defined by

$$\text{Hom}(-, A)(B) = \text{Hom}(A, B),$$

for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$.

Remark 13.2.4. It can be verified, similarly to [Lemma 13.2.2](#), that the contravariant Hom functor is indeed a well-defined contravariant functor.

We now show that the Hom functors are also left and right exact depending on the choice of the Hom functor.

Proposition 13.2.5. Let $A \in \mathcal{A}$.

- (1) The functor $\text{Hom}(A, -) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ is a left exact functor.
- (2) The functor $\text{Hom}(-, A) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ is a left exact functor.

PROOF. The proof is as follows:

(1) Let

$$0 \rightarrow X \xrightarrow{f} Y \xrightarrow{g} Z \rightarrow 0$$

be an exact sequence in \mathcal{A} . Applying $\text{Hom}(A, -)$, which we denote as h_A in the rest of the proof, we obtain homomorphisms

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(A, X) \xrightarrow{h_A(f)} \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(A, Y) \xrightarrow{h_A(g)} \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(A, Z)$$

of abelian groups. We claim that this sequence is exact. If $h_A(f)(\alpha) = 0$, then $f \circ \alpha = 0$, but f is a monomorphism, so $\alpha = 0$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & A & \\ & \downarrow \alpha & \searrow 0 \\ 0 & \longrightarrow X & \xrightarrow{f} Y \end{array}$$

Since h_A is a functor, we have $h_A(g) \circ h_A(f) = 0$. If $\beta \in \ker h_A(g)$, then $g \circ \beta = 0$. The universal property of the kernel implies that β factors through a morphism $X \rightarrow \ker g$.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & & A & & & \\ & & & \downarrow \beta & \searrow 0 & & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

But we have canonical isomorphisms

$$X \xrightarrow{\sim} \text{coim } f \xrightarrow{\sim} \text{im } f \xrightarrow{\sim} \ker g$$

the first as f is a monomorphism, the second by the first isomorphism theorem in a small abelian category and the third because the sequence is exact at Y . The composite of the composite of these with the canonical morphism $\ker g \rightarrow B$ is g .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & A & \\ \alpha \swarrow & & \searrow \beta \\ X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \end{array}$$

Therefore, we obtain a morphism $\alpha : X \rightarrow A$ satisfying $f \circ \alpha = \beta$.

(2) The statement in (2) is the dual of the statement in (1).

This completes the proof. \square

In fact, as the next lemma shows, exactness of a sequence can be checked by studying all possible Hom functors. More precisely:

Proposition 13.2.6. *Let \mathcal{A} be a small abelian category. A sequence*

$$X \xrightarrow{f} Y \xrightarrow{g} Z$$

is exact if every sequence

$$\text{Hom}(A, X) \xrightarrow{h_A(f)} \text{Hom}(A, Y) \xrightarrow{h_A(g)} \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(A, Z)$$

is exact for each $A \in \mathcal{A}$.

PROOF. For $A = X$, we get

$$g \circ f = h_X(g) \circ h_X(f)(\text{id}_A) = 0,$$

so we have a monomorphism $s : \text{im } f \rightarrow \ker g$.

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & X & & & \\ & \downarrow \text{Id}_X & & & \\ X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \\ & \searrow 0 & \nearrow & & \end{array}$$

For $A = \ker g$ and $\iota : \ker g \hookrightarrow Y$, we have $h_X(g)(\iota) = g \circ \iota = 0$, so there exists $\alpha : \ker g \rightarrow X$ with $f \circ \alpha = \iota$.

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & \ker g & & & \\ & \downarrow \iota & & & \\ X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \\ & \nwarrow \alpha & \nearrow & & \end{array}$$

Then ι factors as a morphism $t : \ker g \rightarrow \text{im } f$ which is the inverse to s . \square

Corollary 13.2.7. *Let \mathcal{A} be a small abelian category. A sequence*

$$X \xrightarrow{f} Y \xrightarrow{g} Z$$

is exact if every sequence

$$\text{Hom}(Z, A) \xrightarrow{h_A(g)} \text{Hom}(Y, A) \xrightarrow{h_A(f)} \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X, Z)$$

is exact for each $A \in \mathcal{A}$.

PROOF. The statement is dual to the statement in [Proposition 13.2.6](#). \square

Example 13.2.8. The functor $\text{Hom}(A, -)$ need not be right exact. To see this, let $\mathcal{A} = \mathbf{Ab}$ be the category of abelian groups and let $A = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$. Consider the short exact sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\cdot 2} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$$

Applying $\text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, -)$ and noting that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) &= 0 \\ \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) &\cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \end{aligned}$$

we obtain the sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$$

This sequence is not right exact since $0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ is not a surjective map.

13.3. Tensor Product Functor

Let's now introduce the tensor product functor. We assume the construction of the tensor product functor is known. Note that the tensor product functor is only defined in \mathbf{Mod}_R , the category of left R -modules. In what follows, we assume that R is a commutative ring, so we do not need to distinguish between left and right R -modules. Using a clever argument exploiting the adjunction between the Hom and tensor product functors, we can show the following:

Proposition 13.3.1. *Let R be a ring and let \mathbf{Mod}_R be the category of left R -modules. Let M be a right R -module. The functor $M \otimes_R -$ is a right exact functor.*

PROOF. Let $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ be an exact sequence in \mathbf{Mod}_R . We show that

$$M \otimes_R A \rightarrow M \otimes_R B \rightarrow M \otimes_R C \rightarrow 0$$

is an exact sequence. **Proposition 13.2.5** and **Corollary 13.2.7** imply that

$$M \otimes_R A \rightarrow M \otimes_R B \rightarrow M \otimes_R C \rightarrow 0$$

is an exact sequence if and only if

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(M \otimes_R C, X) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(M \otimes_R B, X) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(M \otimes_R A, X)$$

is an exact sequence for each left R -module X . We have

$$\text{Hom}(M \otimes_R N, X) = \text{Hom}(N, \text{Hom}(M, X)),$$

for all R -modules N . Hence, the sequence above can be written as

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(C, \text{Hom}(M, X)) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(B, \text{Hom}(M, X)) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A, \text{Hom}(M, X))$$

which is indeed exact by **Proposition 13.2.5**. \square

Example 13.3.2. The functor $M \otimes_R -$ need not be left exact functor. To see this, take $R = \mathbb{Z}$. Consider the sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}$$

Letting $M = \mathbb{Z}$ and noting that,

$$\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q} \cong 0$$

$$\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z},$$

we obtain the sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$$

which is not left exact since the map $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$ is not a surjective map.

13.4. Projective & Injective Objects

We now introduce special objects that can rectify the failure of the exactness of the Hom and tensor product functors.

13.4.1. Projective Objects. We first define the notion of projective objects.

Definition 13.4.1. An object $P \in \mathcal{A}$ is called projective if the functor $\text{Hom}(P, -)$ is an exact functor.

Remark 13.4.2. An object P is projective if and only if for every morphism $Y \rightarrow Z \rightarrow 0$ and $P \rightarrow Z$, there exists a morphism $P \rightarrow Y$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & P & & \\ & \swarrow \text{dashed} & \downarrow & & \\ Y & \longrightarrow & Z & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array}$$

commutes.

Example 13.4.3. The following are examples of projective objects:

- (1) The zero object in a small abelian category is projective.

(2) In \mathbf{Mod}_R , the object R is projective: indeed, the functor

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{Hom}(R, -) : \mathbf{Mod} R &\rightarrow \mathbf{Ab} \\ M &\mapsto M \end{aligned}$$

is just the forgetful functor, and hence clearly is exact.

Proposition 13.4.4. *An object P in \mathcal{A} is projective if and only if every exact sequence*

$$0 \rightarrow X \xrightarrow{f} Y \xrightarrow{p} P \rightarrow 0$$

in \mathcal{A} splits.

PROOF. Skipped. □

Proposition 13.4.5. *A direct summand of a projective object is a projective object. Moreover, an arbitrary direct sum of projective objects is a projective object*

PROOF. Let $P_1, P_2 \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $P_1 \oplus P_2$ is a projective object. Consider an epimorphism $f : Y \rightarrow Z \rightarrow 0$ and a morphism $\beta : P_1 \rightarrow Z$. Along with the zero morphism from P_2 to Z , the universal property of the co-product implies that there is a unique morphism $\gamma : P_1 \oplus P_2 \rightarrow Z$. Since $P_1 \oplus P_2$ is a projective object, there is a morphism $\gamma' : P_1 \oplus P_2 \rightarrow Y$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & P & & \\ & & \downarrow \iota_{P_1} & & \\ & & P \oplus P_2 & \xleftarrow{\iota_{P_2}} & Q \\ & \nearrow \gamma' & \downarrow \gamma & \nearrow 0 & \\ Y & \xrightarrow{f} & Z & \xrightarrow{\quad} & 0 \end{array}$$

commutes. The required morphism is then $\gamma' \circ \iota_{P_1}$. A similar argument as above shows that a direct sum of projective objects is a projective object. □

Projective objects in \mathbf{Mod}_R can be easily characterized in terms of free R -modules, which we now define:

Definition 13.4.6. A left R -module, F , is a **free module** if it is isomorphic to an arbitrary direct sum of copies of R as a left R -module. That is,

$$F \cong \bigoplus_{i \in I} R := R^I$$

Remark 13.4.7. Any free R -module F has a basis B in bijection with its indexing set, and therefore a map $F \rightarrow A$ for some left R -module A is prescribed uniquely by its (arbitrary) values on B .

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{Mod}_R}(F, A) = \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{Sets}}(B, A)$$

Proposition 13.4.8. *A free R -module, F , is a projective module.*

PROOF. Consider $\beta : F \rightarrow Z$ and a surjective R -module homomorphism² $f : Y \rightarrow Z \rightarrow 0$. Let B be a basis for F .

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & F & & \\ & \swarrow g & \downarrow \beta & & \\ Y & \xrightarrow{f} & Z & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array}$$

For each $b \in B$, the element $\beta(b) \in Z$ has the form $f(b) = p(a_b)$ for some $a_b \in A$, because f is surjective. By the Axiom of Choice, there is a function $u : B \rightarrow Y$ with $u(b) = a_b$ for all $b \in B$. By the remark above, we have an R -homomorphism $g : F \rightarrow Y$ with $g(b) = a_b$ for all $b \in B$. Clearly, g is the required morphism. \square

Proposition 13.4.9. *The following statements are equivalent:*

- (1) P is projective in \mathbf{Mod}_R .
- (2) There is a module Q such that $P \oplus Q \cong R^I$ for some set I . The module R^I is called a free module.

PROOF. Assume that P is a projective object and let I be the set of generators of P and let R^I denote a free module on the set of generators of P . Consider the natural map $\pi : R^I \rightarrow P$. It clearly is a surjective, and, since P is projective, it splits. Therefore,

$$P \oplus \ker \pi \cong R^I$$

The converse follows since a free module is projective and a direct summand of projective module is a projective module by **Proposition 13.4.5**. \square

Remark 13.4.10. *Every projective module need not be free. For example, consider*

$$R = \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

$\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ is a projective $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ -module since $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ is a projective $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ -module. However, $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ is not a free $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ -module: a (finitely generated) free $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ -module F is a direct sum of, say, n copies of $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$, and so F has 6^n elements. Therefore, $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ is not a free $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ since it has only three elements.

Example 13.4.11. Let $\mathcal{A} = \mathbf{Ab}$. The functor $\text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, -)$ is an exact functor. This is because \mathbb{Z} is a free object in \mathbf{Ab} .

Example 13.4.12. Let $\mathcal{A} = \mathbf{Ab}$. The functor $\text{Hom}(\mathbb{Q}, -)$ is not an exact functor. This is because \mathbb{Q} is not a projective object in \mathbf{Ab} since \mathbb{Q} cannot be a summand of a free \mathbb{Z} -module because a free \mathbb{Z} -module is not divisible but \mathbb{Q} is a divisible group.

13.4.2. Injective Objects. We now define the notion of injective objects.

Definition 13.4.13. Let \mathcal{A} be a small abelian category. An object $I \in \mathcal{A}$ is called injective if the functor $\text{Hom}(-, I)$ is an exact functor.

Remark 13.4.14. *Injective objects in \mathcal{A} are just projective objects in \mathcal{A}^{op} .*

Remark 13.4.15. *An object I is injective if and only if for every morphisms $0 \rightarrow X \rightarrow Y$ and $X \rightarrow I$, there exists a unique morphism $Y \rightarrow I$ such that the diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & I & & \\ & & \uparrow & \nearrow & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & X & \longrightarrow & Y \end{array}$$

²Epimorphisms and surjective R -module homomorphisms coincide in the category of R -modules.

commutes.

Proposition 13.4.16. *Let \mathcal{A} be a small abelian category. An object I in \mathcal{A} is injective if and only if every exact sequence*

$$0 \rightarrow I \xrightarrow{i} Y \xrightarrow{f} Z \rightarrow 0$$

in \mathcal{A} splits.

PROOF. Skipped. □

Proposition 13.4.17. *A direct summand of an injective object is an injective object. Moreover, an arbitrary product of injective objects is an injective object.*

PROOF. Let $I_1, \oplus I_2 \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $I_1 \oplus I_2$ is an injective object. Consider a monomorphism $f : 0 \rightarrow X \rightarrow Y$ and a morphism $\gamma : X \rightarrow I_1$. Note that $\iota_1 \circ \gamma$ is a morphism from X to $E_1 \oplus E_2$, where ι_1 is the canonical inclusion map. Since $E_1 \oplus E_2$ is injective, there is a morphism $\gamma' : Y \rightarrow E_1 \oplus E_2$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & \xrightarrow{\iota_1} & & \\ & E_1 & & E_1 \oplus E_2 & \\ & \uparrow \gamma & \xleftarrow{\pi_1} & \uparrow \gamma' & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \end{array}$$

commutes. Then $\pi_1 \circ \gamma'$ is the required morphism, where π_1 is the canonical projection map. A similar argument as above shows that a product of injective objects is an injective object. □

We now characterize injective objects in \mathbf{Mod}_R .

Proposition 13.4.18. (Baer's criterion) *An R -module, I , is injective if and only if for every left ideal $J \subseteq R$ and every R -module homomorphism $g : J \rightarrow I$, there exists $g' : R \rightarrow I$ such that the following diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & J & \longrightarrow & R \\ & & \downarrow g & \nearrow g' & \\ & & I & & \end{array}$$

commutes.

PROOF. The forward implication is clear. For the reverse implication, consider the diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & J & \longrightarrow & R \\ & & \downarrow g & & \\ & & I & & \end{array}$$

Consider the set of all intermediate extensions:

$$S = \{(C, h) \mid J \subseteq C \subseteq R \text{ submodule, } h \in \text{Hom}(C, I) \text{ and } h|_J = g\}$$

Set $(C, h) \leq (C', h')$ if and only if $C \subseteq C'$ and $h'|_C = h$. Note that $S \neq \emptyset$ because we can choose $C = J$. Suppose $\{(C_x, h_x)\}_{x \in I}$ is a chain for an index set I such that for any $x, y \in I$, $(C_x, h_x) \leq (C_y, h_y)$. Let

$$C = \bigcup_{x \in I} C_x$$

and define $h : C \rightarrow I$ by setting $h(a) = h_x(a)$ if $a \in C_x$ for some $x \in I$. This is well-defined by assumption, and $h|_{C_x} = h_x$ for any $x \in I$. Hence $(C_x, h_x) \leq (C, h)$ for any $x \in I$, showing that (C, h) is an upper bound. By Zorn's lemma, the chain has a maximal element, (C, h) . If $C = R$, we are done. Otherwise, let $b \in R \setminus C$. Consider the sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow J \xrightarrow{f_1} R \oplus C \xrightarrow{f_2} Rb \oplus C \rightarrow 0 \quad f_2(r, c) = rb + c \quad f_1(r) = (r, -rb)$$

where $J = \{a \in R \mid ab \in C\}$. Let $g : J \rightarrow I$, $g(a) = h(ab)$ and hence there exists a g' such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & J & \longrightarrow & R \\ & & \downarrow g & \nearrow g' & \\ & & I & & \end{array}$$

commutes. Consider a morphism:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{h} : Rb \oplus C &\rightarrow I \\ rb + c &\mapsto h(c) + rg'(1) \end{aligned}$$

We show that \hat{h} is well-defined. If $rb + c = r'b + c'$, then $(r - r')b = c' - c \in C$. It follows that $(r - r') \in J$. Therefore, $h((r - r')b)$ and $g(r - r')$ are defined. Moreover,

$$h(c' - c) = h((r - r')b) = g(r - r') = g'(r - r') = (r - r')g'(1).$$

Thus,

$$h(c') - h(c) = rg'(1) - r'g'(1),$$

which implies that

$$h(c') + r'g'(1) = h(c) + rg'(1)$$

Clearly, $\hat{h}(c) = h(c)$ so \hat{h}' extends h . With $\hat{C} = Rb + c$, we have that $(C, h) \leq (\hat{C}, \hat{h})$, so $(C, h) = (\hat{C}, \hat{h})$. Hence $b \in C$, a contradiction. This completes the proof. \square

Example 13.4.19. The following are examples of injective objects as can be easily deduced from [Proposition 13.4.18](#).

- (1) $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is an injective $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ -module for any $n \geq 1$.
- (2) $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ is an injective $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ -module, but not an injective $\mathbb{Z}/9\mathbb{Z}$ -module.
- (3) \mathbb{Q} is an injective \mathbb{Z} -module. A homomorphism $f : n\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ extends to a homomorphism $g : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$. Just take $y \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $ny = f(n)$ and define $g(z) = zy$.

Corollary 13.4.20. *Let $A \in \mathbf{Ab}$. A is an injective \mathbb{Z} -module if and only if A is a divisible group.*

PROOF. Assume that A is an injective \mathbb{Z} -module. Let $a \in A$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Consider the group homomorphism

$$\begin{aligned} f : n\mathbb{Z} &\rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \\ n &\mapsto a \end{aligned}$$

By assumption, f extends to a group homomorphism

$$\hat{f} : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow I$$

such that $\hat{f}(nk) = f(nk)$ for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Note that we have

$$a = f(n) = \hat{f}(n \cdot 1) = n\hat{f}(1)$$

Hence, A is a divisible group. Conversely, assume that A is a divisible group. We show that the criterion in [Proposition 13.4.18](#) is satisfied. Let $J \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ be an abelian subgroup and let $g : J \rightarrow A$ be a group homomorphism. Let $\{(K, g')\}$ be the set of pairs (K, g') such that $J \subseteq K \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ and $g' : K \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is a homomorphism with $g'|_J = g$. The set is non-empty since as it contains (J, J) , and it is partially ordered by

$$(K_1, g'_1) \leq (K_2, g'_2) \Leftrightarrow K_1 \subseteq K_2 \text{ and } g'_2|_{K_1} = g'_1.$$

It is clear that any ascending chain has an upper bound. By Zorn's Lemma, the set contains a maximal element (K, g') . We claim that $K = \mathbb{Z}$. Suppose not. Let $k \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus K$. If

$$\langle k \rangle \cap K = \{0\},$$

the sum $K + \langle k \rangle$ is in fact a direct sum, and we can extend g' to $K + \langle k \rangle$ by choosing an arbitrary image of k in \mathbb{Z} and extending linearly. This is a contradiction. Hence, assume that

$$nk \in \langle k \rangle \cap K$$

for some $n \neq 0$. Choose n_0 such that n_0 is minimal. Since $n_0 \in K$, and g' is defined on K , $g'(nk)$ is well-defined. Since A is divisible, there exists $a \in A$ such that

$$na = g'(nk).$$

It is now easy to see that we can extend g' to $K + \langle k \rangle$ by defining $g'(k) = a$. This is also a contradiction. \square

Example 13.4.21. Let $\mathcal{A} = \mathbf{Ab}$ and let k be a field of characteristic zero. The functor $\text{Hom}(-, k)$ is an exact functor. This is because k is a divisible group since for any $g \in k$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, there exists an $h \in k$ such that $hn = g$, since $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq k$.

13.5. Resolutions & Derived Functors

An arbitrary R -module, M , might be quite complicated to study; however, one can always find a set of (possibly infinite) generator for M^3 . In other words, one can always find a surjective morphism $F^0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$, where F^0 is a free R -module. Since M is not a free R -module, the morphism

$$F^0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$$

is in general not injective; indeed, the any non-trivial relationship between generators of M will force the kernel to be non-zero. However, we can repeat the construction as above: if we take a generating set for the kernel of the morphism $F^0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$, one can always find a morphism $F^1 \rightarrow F^0$, which is surjective onto the kernel of the morphism $F^0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$, and where F^1 is a free R -module on the generating set of the kernel of the morphism $F^0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$. We have the following sequence:

$$F^1 \rightarrow F^0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$$

We can repeat the above process unless it terminates, which only happens when there is no non-trivial relationship among elements generating the free module at the left end of the sequence

$$F^i \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow F^1 \rightarrow F^0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$$

This motivates the idea of taking a resolution of an object in a category by special types of objects (free R -modules in the case considered above) in order to study the structure of the original object in the category.

³A fact we used in a proof in the previous section.

13.5.1. Projective & Injective Resolutions. For an object $X \in \mathcal{A}$, we will first discuss taking a resolution of X in \mathcal{A} by projective objects in \mathcal{A} . An arbitrary category may not have projective objects, though.

Example 13.5.1. Let $\mathcal{A} = \mathbf{Ab}_{\mathbf{Fin}}$ be the category of finite abelian groups. \mathcal{A} has no projective objects except for the trivial abelian group. Indeed, the exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2n\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$$

is non-split, since $\mathbb{Z}/2n\mathbb{Z}$ is not isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$. Hence, $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is not projective. But every other non-zero finite abelian group has a direct summand \mathbb{Z}/n and the direct summand of a projective object is a projective object.

This motivates the following definition:

Definition 13.5.2. \mathcal{A} has enough projectives if for every $X \in \mathcal{A}$ there exists an epimorphism $f : P \rightarrow X \rightarrow 0$ where P is a projective object.

Example 13.5.3. Clearly, the category of R -modules has enough projective objects. Indeed, free modules are projective objects and free modules exist in abundance in the category of R -modules.

Definition 13.5.4. A projective resolution of $X \in \mathcal{A}$ is a nonnegative complex P^\bullet together with a morphism $\epsilon : P^0 \rightarrow X$ such that

$$\cdots \rightarrow P^3 \rightarrow P^2 \rightarrow P^1 \rightarrow P^0 \xrightarrow{\epsilon} X \rightarrow 0$$

is exact and the P^i 's are projective objects.

Example 13.5.5. In \mathbf{Ab} , the abelian group $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ has a projective resolution

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{n} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0.$$

Proposition 13.5.6. *If \mathcal{A} has enough projectives, then every object has a projective resolution.*

PROOF. Take any $X \in \mathcal{A}$. There is an epimorphism $P^0 \rightarrow X \rightarrow 0$ from a projective object, P^0 . Taking the kernel $K^0 \rightarrow P^0$, we have a projective P^1 with an epimorphism $P^1 \rightarrow K^0 \rightarrow 0$. We take its kernel $K^1 \rightarrow P^1$ and again get a projective $P^2 \rightarrow K^1 \rightarrow 0$. This way, we get that the diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & & 0 & & 0 & & \\
 & & \searrow & & \nearrow & & \\
 & & K^1 & & & & \\
 & \nearrow & & \searrow & & & \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & P^2 & \longrightarrow & P^1 & \longrightarrow & P^0 \longrightarrow X \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & & & \searrow & & \nearrow \\
 & & & & K^0 & & \\
 & & & & \nearrow & & \searrow \\
 & & & & 0 & & 0
 \end{array}$$

Continuing, this gives a projective resolution of X . □

We can similarly define injective resolutions.

Definition 13.5.7. \mathcal{A} has enough injectives if for every $X \in \mathcal{A}$ there exists a monomorphism $f : 0 \rightarrow X \rightarrow I$ where I is an injective object.

Proposition 13.5.8. *The category of R -modules has enough injective objects.*

PROOF. See [Rot09, Theorem 3.38]. \square

Definition 13.5.9. An injective resolution of $X \in \mathcal{A}$ is a non-negative complex I_\bullet together with a morphism $\epsilon : 0 \rightarrow X \rightarrow I_0$ such that

$$0 \rightarrow X \xrightarrow{\epsilon} I_0 \rightarrow I_1 \rightarrow \cdots$$

is exact and the I_i 's are injective objects.

Proposition 13.5.10. *If \mathcal{A} has enough injectives, then every object has a injective resolution.*

PROOF. The statement is the dual of the statement in Proposition 13.5.6, so it is clearly true. \square

Example 13.5.11. In \mathbf{Ab} , an injective resolution of \mathbb{Z} is

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$$

and an injective resolution of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$$

13.5.2. Derived functors. Derived functors provide us with a tool to quantitatively measure the failure of a functor to be an exact functor. The philosophy behind derived functors is the following: if $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is a left exact functor between two abelian categories, then any short exact sequence in \mathcal{A} ,

$$0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0,$$

gets transformed to a left exact sequence in \mathcal{D} :

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(C),$$

A right derived functor is a sequence of functors $R^i\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ for all $i \geq 0$ and a functorial isomorphism $R^0\mathcal{F} \cong \mathcal{F}$ such that for any short exact sequence,

$$0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0,$$

in \mathcal{A} there is a long exact sequence,

$$0 \rightarrow R^0\mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow R^0\mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow R^0\mathcal{F}(C) \rightarrow R^1\mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow R^1\mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow R^1\mathcal{F}(C) \rightarrow R^2\mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow \cdots,$$

for all $i \geq 0$. We expect that $R^1\mathcal{F}(A)$ to quantitatively measure the failure of \mathcal{F} to be a right exact functor since $R^1\mathcal{F}(A) = 0$ if and only if the sequence,

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(C),$$

is a right exact sequence.

On the other hand, if $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is a right exact sequence, a left derived functor is a sequence of functors $L^i\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ along with a functorial isomorphism $L^0\mathcal{F} \cong \mathcal{F}$ yielding a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \rightarrow L^1\mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow L^1\mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow L^1\mathcal{F}(C) \rightarrow L^0\mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow L^0\mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow L^0\mathcal{F}(C) \rightarrow 0.$$

The theory of left and right derived functors is quite similar. Therefore, in what follows we shall only focus on left derived functors of covariant functors. The theory of left derived functors of contravariant functors is similar to the theory of left derived functors of covariant functors, which we now describe. Left derived functors are constructed by means of projective resolutions.

Definition 13.5.12. Let \mathcal{A} be a locally small abelian category with enough projectives, \mathcal{D} be an abelian category, and $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ be a right exact functor. Given $X \in \mathcal{A}$, choose a projective resolution of X :

$$\cdots \rightarrow P^3 \rightarrow P^2 \rightarrow P^1 \rightarrow P^0 \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} X \rightarrow 0.$$

Apply \mathcal{F} to the above complex to obtain (the truncated) complex:

$$\cdots \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(P^3) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(P^2) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(P^1) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(P^0).$$

The i -th left derived functor of \mathcal{F} is defined as:

$$L^i(\mathcal{F}(X)) = H_i(\mathcal{F}(P^\bullet)).$$

Here $H_i(\mathcal{F}(P^\bullet))$ is the i -th homology (defined similarly to cohomology) of P^\bullet ,

Remark 13.5.13. If \mathcal{F} is a right exact contravariant functor, then the left derived functor is defined by taking an injective resolution.

The above definition naturally begs the question: is the definition of a left-derived functor well-defined? If this is the case, the definition of a left-derived functor should be independent of the projective resolution chosen. We show that this is indeed the case.

Proposition 13.5.14. (Comparison Theorem) Let \mathcal{A} be a locally small abelian category with enough projectives and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a morphism in \mathcal{A} . Let

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{d_2^X} P^1 \xrightarrow{d_1^X} P^0 \xrightarrow{d_0^X} X \longrightarrow 0$$

and

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{d_2^Y} Q^1 \xrightarrow{d_1^Y} Q^0 \xrightarrow{d_0^Y} Y \longrightarrow 0$$

be projective resolutions for X and Y . Then there is a sequence of homomorphisms $f^i : P^i \rightarrow Q^i$ such that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \xrightarrow{d_2^X} & P^1 & \xrightarrow{d_1^X} & P^0 & \xrightarrow{d_0^X} & X \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow f^1 & & \downarrow f^0 & & \downarrow f \\ \cdots & \xrightarrow{d_2^Y} & Q^1 & \xrightarrow{d_1^Y} & Q^0 & \xrightarrow{d_0^Y} & Y \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

Furthermore, any two such extensions of f are chain homotopic.

PROOF. (Existence) We proceed by induction on i . For the base case, note that since P^0 is projective, the morphism $f \circ d_0^X$ lifts to a unique morphism f^0 such that the right most square in the diagram above commutes. Assume that $f^i : P^i \rightarrow Q^i$ has been constructed. Denote by $\ker d_i^X$ and $\ker d_i^Y$ denote the kernels of d_i^X and d_i^Y , respectively. Since d_{i+1}^X factors through $\text{im} d_{i+1}^X$ which is isomorphic to $\ker d_i^X$, we can think of d_{i+1}^X as mapping

into $\ker d_i^X$. Moreover, f^i factors into $\ker d_i^Y$ since $f^{i-1}d_i^X = d_i^Y f^i$. Thus, consider the diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} P^{i+1} & \xrightarrow{d_{i+1}^X} & \ker d_i^X & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ \downarrow f^{i+1} & & \downarrow f^i & & \\ Q^{i+1} & \xrightarrow{d_{i+1}^Y} & \ker d_i^Y & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array}$$

The composition $f^i d_{i+1}^X$ gives a map from P^{i+1} to $\ker d_i^Y$, onto which d_{i+1}^Y surjects. Thus, the map f^{i+1} is furnished by the defining property of the projective object P^{i+1} , completing the induction.

(Uniqueness) To show that two extensions $\{f^i\}$ and $\{g^i\}$ are chain homotopic, we consider the difference $h^i := f^i - g^i$ and construct a chain homotopy $s^i : P^i \rightarrow Q^{i+1}$ such that

$$h^i = d_{i+1}^Y s^i + s^{i-1} d_i^X$$

We proceed by induction. Observe that $h^{-1} = f - g \equiv 0$, so that h^0 maps $P^0 \ker d_0^Y$ by the universal property of kernels, and therefore lifts to a map $s^0 : P^0 \rightarrow Q^1$ as in the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & P^0 & \xrightarrow{d_0^X} & A & \\ & \downarrow h^0 & \swarrow 0 & \downarrow h^{-1} & \\ Q^1 & \xrightarrow{d_1^Y} & \ker d_0^Y & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array}$$

This gives the base case for the induction. Suppose that $s^i : P^i \rightarrow Q^{i+1}$ has been constructed such that $h^i = d_{i+1}^Y s^i + s^{i-1} d_i^X$. It follows that the map $h^{i+1} - s^i d_{i+1}^X$ maps P^{i+1} into $\ker d_{i+1}^Y$ since

$$d_{i+1}^Y (h^{i+1} - s^i d_{i+1}^X) = h^i d_{i+1}^X - (h^i - s^{i-1} d_i^X) d_{i+1}^X = h^i d_{i+1}^X - h^i d_{i+1}^X = 0.$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & P^{i+1} & & & \\ & \downarrow h^{i+1} - s^i d_{i+1}^X & & & \\ Q^{i+2} & \xrightarrow{d_{i+2}^Y} & \ker d_{i+1}^Y & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array}$$

Thus we have the diagram above and projectivity furnishes the map s^{i+1} such that $d_{i+2}^Y s^{i+1} = h^{i+1} - s^i d_{i+1}^X$. \square

As a consequence of the comparison theorem, if P^\bullet is a projective resolution for X and Q^\bullet is a projective resolution for Y such that there is a morphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$, we get a well-defined map

$$H_i(F(P^\bullet)) \longrightarrow H_i(F(Q^\bullet)),$$

which is an isomorphism by the chain homotopy conclusion in the comparison theorem. Similarly, we have:

Corollary 13.5.15. *Let \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D} be abelian categories. The following are corollaries of Proposition 13.5.14:*

- (1) Suppose that P^\bullet and Q^\bullet are projective resolutions of $X \in \mathcal{A}$. Then there is a canonical isomorphism between $H_i(\mathcal{F}(P^\bullet))$ and $H_i(\mathcal{F}(Q^\bullet))$ for each $i \geq 0$.
- (2) let $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ be a right exact functor. For any $X \in \mathcal{A}$, $L^0\mathcal{F}(X) \cong \mathcal{F}(X)$.
- (3) Let $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ be a functor. If P is a projective object in \mathcal{A} , then $L^i\mathcal{F}(P) = 0$ for $i \geq 1$.

PROOF. The proof proceeds as follows:

- (1) If P^\bullet and Q^\bullet are two projective resolutions of $X \in \mathcal{A}$, then $\text{Id}_X : X \rightarrow X$ gives rise to unique maps (up to homotopy) by the [Proposition 13.5.14](#) such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & P^1 & \longrightarrow & P^0 & \longrightarrow & X \\ & & g^1 \nearrow & & f^1 \searrow & & \\ & & & & g^1 \nearrow & & \\ & & & & f^0 \searrow & & \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & Q^1 & \longrightarrow & Q^0 & \longrightarrow & X \end{array} \quad \text{Id}_X \begin{pmatrix} \nearrow \\ \searrow \end{pmatrix}$$

commutes. Hence, there are two chain homotopies

$$\begin{aligned} s : H_\bullet(\mathcal{F}(P^\bullet)) &\rightarrow H^*(\mathcal{F}(Q^\bullet)) \\ q : H_\bullet(\mathcal{F}(Q^\bullet)) &\rightarrow H^*(\mathcal{F}(P^\bullet)) \end{aligned}$$

such that both sq and qs compose to the identity (by uniqueness up to homotopy). Hence the derived functor is well-defined: for two choices of projective resolutions of objects, the construction yields isomorphic derived functors.

- (2) Choose a projective resolution of X :

$$\cdots \rightarrow P^3 \rightarrow P^2 \rightarrow P^1 \rightarrow P^0 \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} X \rightarrow 0.$$

Since \mathcal{F} is right exact, the sequence

$$\mathcal{F}(P^1) \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathcal{F}(P^0) \xrightarrow{\psi} \mathcal{F}(X) \rightarrow 0$$

is exact. Hence, ψ is an epimorphism and ψ is the cokernel of φ . By the first isomorphism theorem,

$$\mathcal{F}(X) \cong \frac{\mathcal{F}(P^0)}{\ker \psi} \cong \frac{\mathcal{F}(P^0)}{\text{im } \varphi} \cong \text{coker } \varphi$$

Hence, we have

$$L^0\mathcal{F}(X) = H_0(\mathcal{F}(P^\bullet)) \cong \text{coker } \varphi \cong \mathcal{F}(X).$$

- (3) Consider the projective resolution:

$$\cdots \rightarrow 0 \cdots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow P \xrightarrow{\text{Id}_P} P \rightarrow 0$$

Hence, we consider the homology of the complex:

$$\cdots \rightarrow 0 \cdots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(P)$$

and it is clear that

$$L^i\mathcal{F}(P) \cong H_i(\mathcal{F}(P^\bullet)) = 0$$

for $i \geq 1$.

□

We now prove the horseshoe lemma ([Lemma 13.5.16](#)). The horseshoe lemma allows us to construct a short exact sequence of projective resolutions given a short exact sequence of objects in an abelian category. In the statement and the proof of the horseshoe lemma, for ease of notation we use subscripts instead of superscripts to label indices of all projective objects.

Lemma 13.5.16. (Horseshoe Lemma) *Let \mathcal{A} be an abelian category and let*

$$0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow A' \rightarrow A'' \rightarrow 0$$

be a short exact sequence in \mathcal{A} . Assume that there are projective resolutions P^\bullet and $(P'')^\bullet$ of A and A'' respectively. Then there is projective resolution $(P')^\bullet$ of A' such that the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & \\
 & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & P_1 & \longrightarrow & P_0 & \longrightarrow & A \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & P'_1 & \longrightarrow & P'_0 & \longrightarrow & A' \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow j & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 \cdots & \longrightarrow & P''_1 & \longrightarrow & P''_0 & \longrightarrow & A'' \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0
 \end{array}$$

PROOF. Composition gives a map $P_0 \rightarrow A'$, and a map $P''_0 \rightarrow A'$ is furnished by projectivity. Using the universal property of the co-product, these combine to give a map $P_0 \oplus P''_0 \rightarrow A'$, and we set $P'_0 := P_0 \oplus P''_0$. The sequence $P_0 \rightarrow P_0 \oplus P''_0 \rightarrow P''_0$ is obviously split exact, we will show that the morphism $P_0 \oplus P''_0 \rightarrow A'$ is an epimorphism. This follows by applying the snake lemma to the two right most exact columns, yielding a morphism $\ker \varepsilon'_0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \varepsilon'_0$.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & \\
 & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\
 \ker \epsilon_0 & \longrightarrow & P_0 & \xrightarrow{\varepsilon_0} & A & \longrightarrow & 0 \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 \ker \epsilon'_0 & \longrightarrow & P_0 \oplus P''_0 & \xrightarrow{\varepsilon'_0} & A' & \longrightarrow & \operatorname{coker} \varepsilon'_0 \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 \ker \epsilon''_0 & \longrightarrow & P''_0 & \xrightarrow{\varepsilon''_0} & A'' & \longrightarrow & 0'' \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0
 \end{array}$$

By the snake lemma ([Proposition 4.3.19](#)), the left most column is exact and the connecting morphism yields a sequence which has a subsequence of the form

$$\cdots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \varepsilon'_0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \cdots$$

Hence, $\operatorname{coker} \varepsilon'_0 = 0$ and the morphism $P_0 \oplus P''_0 \rightarrow A'$ is an epimorphism. We then apply the same procedure to the diagram with kernels to construct $P_1 \oplus P''_1 \rightarrow \ker \varepsilon'_0$, where the

product is projective and the map is an epimorphism onto the kernel.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc}
 0 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & & \\
 \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\
 P_1 & \longrightarrow & \ker \epsilon_0 & \longrightarrow & P_0 & \xrightarrow{\epsilon_0} & A & \longrightarrow & 0 \\
 \downarrow & \searrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\
 P_1 \oplus P_1'' & \longrightarrow & \ker \epsilon'_0 & \longrightarrow & P_0 \oplus P_0'' & \xrightarrow{\epsilon'_0} & A' & \longrightarrow & 0 \\
 \downarrow & \nearrow & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\
 P_1'' & \longrightarrow & \ker \epsilon''_0 & \longrightarrow & P_0'' & \xrightarrow{\epsilon''_0} & A'' & \longrightarrow & 0 \\
 \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\
 0 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & &
 \end{array}$$

We continue this way iteratively and construct $P_n = P_n \oplus P_n''$ at the n -th step with the desired properties. \square

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