

## Lecture Note 4: Maps between Topological Spaces

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**Definition 1** (Continuous Map). a *continuous map* is a continuous function between two topological spaces, denoted as, e.g.

$$f : \mathbf{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$$

**Definition 2** (Simplicial Map). A *simplicial map* between simplicial complexes  $K$  and  $L$  is a function

$$\varphi : \text{Vert}(K) \rightarrow \text{Vert}(L)$$

from the vertex set of  $K$  to that of  $L$  such that whenever  $v_0, v_1, \dots, v_q$  span a  $q$ -simplex of  $K$ ,  $\varphi(v_0), \varphi(v_1), \dots, \varphi(v_q)$  span a  $p$ -simplex ( $p \leq q$ ) of  $L$ . Of course, repetition among  $\varphi(v_0), \varphi(v_1), \dots, \varphi(v_q)$  are allowed.

Note that the simplicial map  $\varphi$  can be regarded as a function from  $K$  to  $L$ : this function sends a simplex  $\sigma$  of  $K$  with vertices  $v_0, v_1, \dots, v_q$  to the simplex  $\varphi(\sigma)$  of  $L$  spanned by vertices  $\varphi(v_0), \varphi(v_1), \dots, \varphi(v_q)$ , so we also write  $\varphi$  as

$$\varphi : K \rightarrow L$$

Note that the simplicial map  $\varphi$  also induces a continuous map

$$\varphi : |K| \rightarrow |L|$$

between the polyhedra of  $K$  and  $L$ , denoted as  $|K|$  and  $|L|$ , where a point inside polyhedron  $|K|$  spanned by vertex  $v_0, v_1, \dots, v_q$  is sent to a point inside polyhedron  $|L|$  continuously by

$$\varphi \left( \sum_{j=0}^q t_j v_j \right) = \sum_{j=0}^q t_j \varphi(v_j) \quad \text{whenever} \quad 0 \leq t_j \leq 1 \quad \text{for} \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, q \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{j=0}^q t_j = 1$$

As a closing remark, there are thus three equivalent ways of describing a simplicial map:

1. as a function between the vertex sets of two simplicial complexes, e.g.  $\varphi : \text{Vert}(K) \rightarrow \text{Vert}(L)$
2. as a function from one simplicial complex to another, e.g.  $\varphi : K \rightarrow L$
3. as a continuous map between the polyhedra of two simplicial complexes, e.g.  $\varphi : |K| \rightarrow |L|$

We shall describe a simplicial map using the representation that is most appropriate in the given context.

## 1 Simplicial Approximation Theorem

You may have experience with *Minecraft* game or *Lego* toy. It seems obvious that any real world object can be represented by a labeled discretized lattice. The mathematical theorem to behind is *simplicial approximation*

*theorem*, which is a foundational result for algebraic topology, guaranteeing that given an embedded mesh, a continuous manifold can be (by a slight deformation) approximated by a simplicial complex of the simplest kind.

The manifold  $\mathbf{M}$  embedded by a given simplicial complex  $L$ , was described by a continuous map from a parametric simplicial complex  $K$ , with its space of parameter denoted by  $|K|$ , to the space of polyhedron of simplicial complex  $L$ , denoted by  $|L|$ :

$$\mathbf{M} : |K| \rightarrow |L|$$

**Example 3** (manifold embedded by simplicial complex). See figure 1, manifold  $\mathbf{M}$  was parametrized by a continuous map from space of a simplicial complex  $K$ , denoted by  $|K|$ , to the polyhedron of another simplicial complex  $L$ , the embedded space of manifold  $\mathbf{M}$ , denoted by  $|L|$

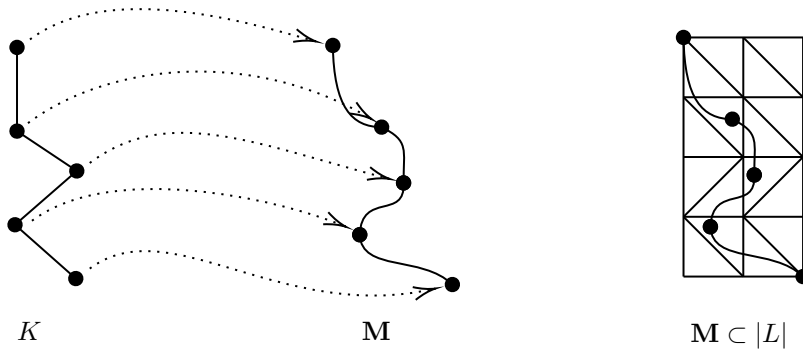


Figure 1: manifold  $\mathbf{M}$  was represented by a continuous map:  $\mathbf{M} : |K| \rightarrow |L|$

**Definition 4** (Star of a Vertex, “discrete version of neighbor of a point”). Let  $K$  be a simplicial complex and let  $p \in \text{Vert}(K)$ . Then the *star* of  $p$ , denoted by  $\text{st}(p)$ , is defined by

$$\text{st}(p) = \bigcup s^\circ \subset |K| \quad \text{where simplex } s \in K \quad \text{such that} \quad p \in \text{Vert}(s)$$

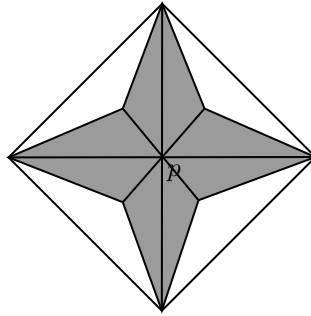


Figure 2: star of  $p$ , denoted by  $\text{st}(p)$

**Example 5** (Star of a Vertex). as shown in figure 2,  $\text{st}(p)$  consists of the open shaded region, all the open simplexes of which  $p$  is a neighbor.

**Definition 6** (Simplicial Approximation). a manifold  $\mathbf{M}$ , parametrized by simplicial complex  $K$ , embedded in simplicial complex  $L$ , represented by a continuous map

$$\mathbf{M} : |K| \rightarrow |L|$$

Its meshing approximation candidate  $\mathbf{M}_\Delta$ , parametrized by simplicial complex  $K$ , embedded in simplicial complex  $L$ , represented by a simplicial map

$$\mathbf{M}_\Delta : K \rightarrow L$$

Then  $\mathbf{M}_\Delta$  is *simplicial approximation* to  $\mathbf{M}$  if, for every vertex  $p$  of  $K$ ,

$$\mathbf{M}(\text{st}(p)) \subset \text{st}(\mathbf{M}_\Delta(p))$$

which means  $\mathbf{M}$  carries neighboring simplexes of  $p$  inside the union of the simplexes near  $\mathbf{M}_\Delta(p)$ .  $\mathbf{M}_\Delta$  and  $\mathbf{M}$  are close up to a meshing unit.

**Example 7** (Simplicial Approximation). See figure 3,  $\mathbf{M}_\Delta$  is an simplicial approximation to  $\mathbf{M}$ .

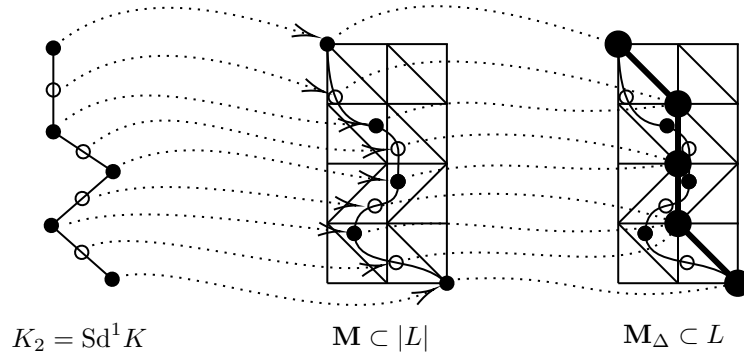


Figure 3:  $\mathbf{M}_\Delta$ , illustrated by biggest nodes and bolded edges on right side, is the simplest approximation to  $\mathbf{M}$ , achieved by first-order barycentric subdivision of  $K$ , denoted by  $\text{Sd}^1 K$ . The simplicial approximation theorem guarantees that a simplest approximation in a given embedding mesh will be achieved by sufficient iterations of barycentric subdivision. (barycentric subdivision and simplicial approximation theorem will be explained right away)

**Definition 8** (Barycentric Subdivision). If  $s$  is a simplex, let  $b^s$  denote its barycenter. If  $K$  is a simplicial complex, define  $\text{Sd } K$ , the *barycentric subdivision* of  $K$ , to be the simplicial complex with

$$\text{Vert}(\text{Sd } K) = \{b^s : s \in K\}$$

note that here  $s \in K$  are simplex of all dimensions in  $K$ . Recall that if  $s$  is a 0-simplex then trivially  $b^s = s$ ; if  $s$  is a 1-simplex then  $b^s$  is the central point of two vertices; and so on. The  $q$  times iteration of barycentric subdivision is denoted by

$$\text{Sd}^q K$$

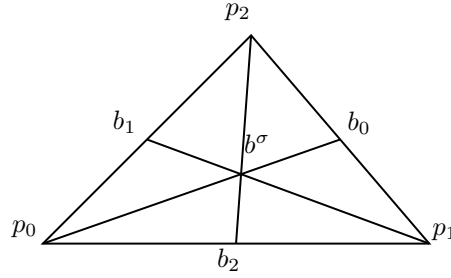
**Example 9** (Barycentric Subdivision). If simplex  $\sigma = [p_0, p_1, p_2]$ , then  $\text{Vert}(\text{Sd } \sigma) = \{p_0, p_1, p_2, b_0, b_1, b_2, b^\sigma\}$ . See figure 4

**Theorem 10** (Simplicial Approximation Theorem). *Given simplicial complexes  $K$  and  $L$ . A smooth manifold  $\mathbf{M}$ , parametrized by  $K$ , embedded in  $|L|$  (the polyhedron of  $L$ ), represented by*

$$\mathbf{M} : |K| \rightarrow |L|$$

*must have a simplicial approximation, and could be found its simplest kind after some barycentric subdivision by*

$$\mathbf{M}_\Delta : \text{Sd}^q K \rightarrow L \quad \text{where } q \geq 1$$

Figure 4: first order barycentric subdivision of the simplex  $\sigma$ 

Simplicial approximation theorem was the foundation of modern movie industry and game industry, since it provide a theoretical guarantee that the simplest discrete digital approximation of any smooth-shaped object exists.

**Example 11** (Simplicial Approximation Theorem). See figure 1, one cannot construct a simplicial approximation to  $\mathbf{M}$  by its mapping parameter  $K$ , but one can do so by its first-order barycentric subdivision  $K_2$ , as shown in figure 3

## 2 Chern-Gauss-Bonnet Theorem

**Definition 12** (Induced Maps). Algebraic topology constructs functor

$$\mathfrak{C}_1 \rightarrow \mathfrak{C}_2$$

between  $\mathfrak{C}_1 = \{\text{Topological Spaces, Homeomorphisms}\}$  and  $\mathfrak{C}_2 = \{\text{Groups, Homomorphisms}\}$ . Therefore, a continuous map  $f : \mathbf{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$ , where  $\mathbf{M}$  and  $\mathbf{N}$  are two manifolds, naturally induces homomorphism. there basically two kinds of *induced map*:

- *push-forward map*, denoted as  $f_{\#}$  if on homotopy, and denoted as  $f_*$  if on homology.

$f_{\#}$  maps between fundamental groups<sup>1</sup>:

$$f_{\#} : \pi_1(\mathbf{M}) \rightarrow \pi_1(\mathbf{N})$$

$f_*$  maps between homology groups:

$$f_* : H_p(\mathbf{M}) \rightarrow H_p(\mathbf{N})$$

- *push-forward map*, denoted as  $f^*$  if it maps between cohomology groups<sup>2</sup>:

$$f^* : H^p(\mathbf{N}) \rightarrow H^p(\mathbf{M})$$

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<sup>1</sup> $f_{\#}$  takes “curves” to “curves”:

$$f_{\#} : C_p(\mathbf{M}) \rightarrow C_p(\mathbf{N})$$

$f_{\#}$  takes “cycles” to “cycles”:

$$f_{\#} : Z_p(\mathbf{M}) \rightarrow Z_p(\mathbf{N})$$

$f_{\#}$  takes “boundaries” to “boundaries”:

$$f_{\#} : B_p(\mathbf{M}) \rightarrow B_p(\mathbf{N})$$

<sup>2</sup>here we explain why push forward and pull back are opposite direction but both natural. Points are sent forward. Given  $p \in \mathbf{M}$  we have  $f(p) \in \mathbf{N}$ . Functions are sent back, i.e. pull back from  $\mathbf{N}$  to  $\mathbf{M}$ . If we have a function  $\omega : \mathbf{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  then we get the composition  $\omega \circ f : \mathbf{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . So the pull back can be consider a functional map, which maps from function on  $\mathbf{N}$  to function on  $\mathbf{M}$

**Example 13** (Induced Maps of Surface). Suppose  $\mathbf{M}$  and  $\mathbf{N}$  are two closed surfaces, a continuous map:

$$f : \mathbf{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$$

induces a push-forward map on first homology:

$$f_* : H_1(\mathbf{M}) \rightarrow H_1(\mathbf{N})$$

and a pull-back map on first cohomology:

$$f^* : H^1(\mathbf{N}) \rightarrow H^1(\mathbf{M})$$

Suppose a curve  $\sigma \in C_1(\mathbf{M}) \subset H_1(\mathbf{M})$  and a vector field  $\omega \in C^1(\mathbf{N}) \subset H^1(\mathbf{M})$ , then

$$\omega[f_*(\sigma)] = [f^*(\omega)](\sigma)$$

**Definition 14** (Degree of a Map). Suppose  $\mathbf{M}$  and  $\mathbf{N}$  are two closed surfaces, a continuous map:

$$f : \mathbf{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$$

then the *degree of map* is the algebraic number<sup>3</sup> of pre-image  $f^{-1}(q)$  for arbitrary point  $q \in \mathbf{N}$ , denoted as  $\deg(f)$ , which is independent of the choice of the point  $q$ . An example see figure 5

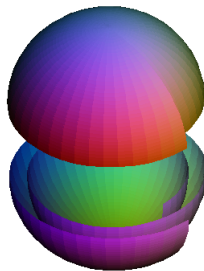


Figure 5: a continuous map  $f : \mathbf{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{M}$  from a sphere to itself but in 2x speed. For every point  $q \in \mathbf{M}$ , there are two pre-image, so  $\deg(f) = 2$

**Example 15** (Degree of a Map). Suppose  $\mathbf{M}$  and  $\mathbf{N}$  are two closed surfaces, a continuous map:

$$f : \mathbf{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$$

induces a push-forward map on second homology:

$$f_* : H_2(\mathbf{M}) \rightarrow H_2(\mathbf{N})$$

since  $H_2(\mathbf{M}, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z} \cong H_2(\mathbf{N}, \mathbb{Z})$ , we also write its isomorphism:

$$\tilde{f}_* : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$$

and it must have the form

$$\tilde{f}_*(z) = \deg(f) \cdot z$$

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<sup>3</sup>if Jacobian at that point  $q$  is positive then count +1, else then count -1, then degree of map is sum of total count

**Definition 16** (Euler-Poincaré Characteristic). let  $g$  be the genus of a closed surface  $\mathbf{S}$ , then *Euler characteristic*, denoted as  $\chi(\mathbf{S})$ , is

$$\chi(\mathbf{S}) = 2(1 - g)$$

the discrete version, if  $\mathbf{S}$  triangulated in  $\mathbf{S}_\Delta$ , is

$$\chi(\mathbf{S}_\Delta) = |\text{Faces}| - |\text{Edges}| + |\text{Vertices}|$$

**Definition 17** (Gaussian Curvature). At any point on a surface, we can find a normal vector that is at right angles to the surface; planes containing the normal vector are called normal planes. The intersection of a normal plane and the surface will form a curve called a normal section and the curvature of this curve is the normal curvature. For most points on most surfaces, different normal sections will have different curvatures; the maximum and minimum values of these are called the principal curvatures, call these  $\kappa_1, \kappa_2$ . The *Gaussian curvature* is the product of the two principal curvatures  $K = \kappa_1 \cdot \kappa_2$ , as shown in figure 6

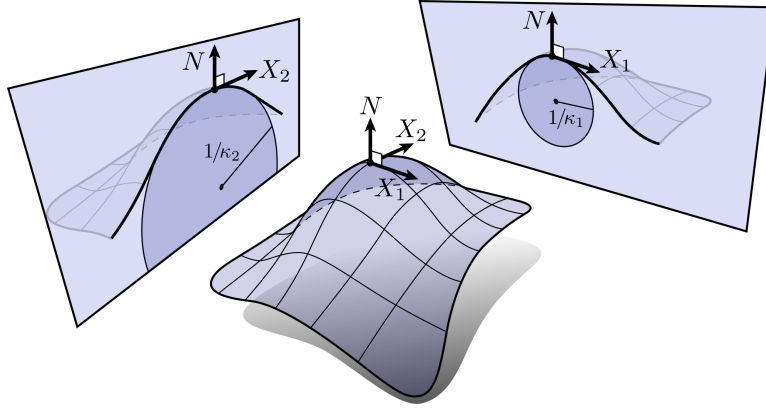


Figure 6: Gaussian curvature is the product of  $\kappa_1, \kappa_2$

**Theorem 18** (Chern-Gauss-Bonnet Theorem). Let  $\mathbf{S}$  be a closed surface,  $K(p)$  the Gaussian curvature at point  $p$  on surface, and  $dA(p)$  the element area at point  $p$  on surface, then its total Gaussian curvature

$$\int_{\mathbf{S}} K(p) dA(p) = 2\pi\chi(\mathbf{S})$$

Shiing-Shen Chern provided simple intrinsic proof of Gauss-Bonnet Theorem, which added his name to Gauss-Bonnet. We illustrate his beautiful proof by applying degree of Gauss map and homotopy between surfaces.

*proof.* consider the Gauss Map  $G : \mathbf{S}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^2$  from a canonical closed surface  $\mathbf{S}^*$  to unit sphere  $\mathbb{S}^2$ . Whenever a point  $p$  on surface with normal  $\mathbf{n}(p)$ , the Gauss Map maps it to a point  $G(p)$  on unit sphere with the same normal  $\mathbf{n}(p)$ .

Note that

$$\deg(G) = 1 - g$$

so the total area of the image of  $\mathbf{S}^*$  on unit sphere  $\mathbb{S}^2$  is

$$\text{Area}(\mathbb{S}^2) \times \deg(G) = 4\pi \deg(G) = 4\pi(1 - g) = 2\pi\chi(\mathbf{S}^*)$$

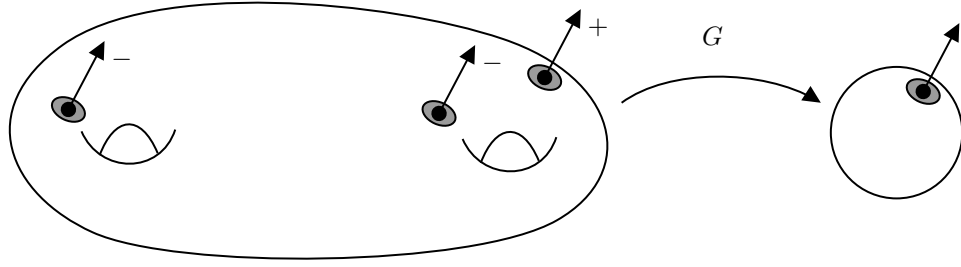


Figure 7: The canonical shape of genus  $g$  closed surface  $\mathbf{S}^*$  can guarantee  $\deg(G) = 1 - g$  since the count of pre-image is strictly negative whenever a hole appears.

Note that the total area of the image of  $\mathbf{S}^*$  on unit sphere  $\mathbb{S}^2$  also equals to

$$\int_{\mathbf{S}^*} \frac{\text{Area}(G(p))}{\text{Area}(p)} dA(p)$$

which equals to, since it is a Gauss Map<sup>4</sup>:

$$\int_{\mathbf{S}^*} \frac{\text{Area}(G(p))}{\text{Area}(p)} dA(p) = \int_{\mathbf{S}^*} K(p) dA(p)$$

thus we get, for a canonical closed surface  $\mathbf{S}^*$ , the identity

$$\int_{\mathbf{S}^*} K(p) dA(p) = 2\pi\chi(\mathbf{S}^*)$$

Now consider the quantity

$$\frac{\int_{\mathbf{S}^*} K(p) dA(p)}{2\pi} = \chi(\mathbf{S}^*) \in \mathbb{Z}$$

is an integer, which should not change under continuous deformation from canonical shaped  $\mathbf{S}^*$  to any closed surface  $\mathbf{S}$  with same genus  $g$ , thus we get for any closed surface  $\mathbf{S}$

$$\int_{\mathbf{S}} K(p) dA(p) = 2\pi\chi(\mathbf{S})$$

□

**Example 19** (Chern-Gauss-Bonnet Theorem). let  $\mathbf{S}$  be a sphere with radius  $R$ , its genus  $g = 0$ , then  $\chi(\mathbf{S}) = 2 \times (1 - 0) = 2$ , its Gaussian curvature is constant  $\frac{1}{R^2}$ , according to Chern-Gauss-Bonnet formula

$$\int_{\mathbf{S}} \frac{1}{R^2} dA(p) = \frac{1}{R^2} \int_{\mathbf{S}} dA(p) = \frac{1}{R^2} \times \text{Area}(\mathbf{S}) = 2\pi\chi(\mathbf{S}) = 4\pi$$

<sup>4</sup>for Gauss Map, when shrinking a patch around point  $p$ , its limit is Gaussian curvature:

$$\lim_{\Omega_p \rightarrow 0} \frac{\text{Area}(G(\Omega_p))}{\text{Area}(\Omega_p)} = K(p)$$

indeed  $\text{Area}(\mathbf{S}) = 4\pi R^2$ .

### 3 Fixed Point Theorem

**Definition 20** (Inclusion Map). an *inclusion map*  $i$  from  $A$  to  $B$ , where  $A \subset B$ , satisfies that for any element  $x \in A$  we have  $i(x) = x$ , denoted as

$$i : A \hookrightarrow B$$

**Theorem 21** (Brouwer's Fixed Point Theorem). Suppose  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is a compact convex set,  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  is a continuous map, then there exists a point  $p \in \Omega$  such that

$$f(p) = p$$

*proof.* Assume  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  has no fixed point, namely

$$\forall p \in \Omega, \quad f(p) \neq p$$

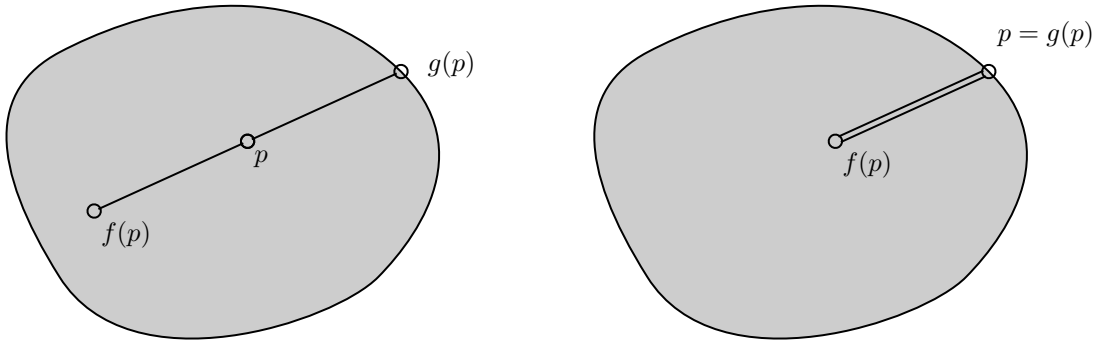


Figure 8: diagram of  $g : \Omega \rightarrow \partial\Omega$  (left) and  $(g \circ i) : \partial\Omega \rightarrow \partial\Omega$  (right)

We can construct  $g : \Omega \rightarrow \partial\Omega$ , a ray starting from  $f(p)$  through  $p$  and intersect  $\partial\Omega$  at  $g(p)$ . Because our assumption  $f(p) \neq p$  and  $\Omega$  is convex,  $g$  is well-defined. Note that if point  $p \in \partial\Omega$  then  $g(p) = p$ , as shown in figure 8. We construct an inclusion map  $i : \partial\Omega \hookrightarrow \Omega$ , which maps a point  $p \in \partial\Omega$  to itself. Then we compose it with  $g$ ,

$$\partial\Omega \xrightarrow{i} \Omega \xrightarrow{g} \partial\Omega$$

we get an identity map:

$$(g \circ i) : \partial\Omega \rightarrow \partial\Omega$$

which induces a push-forward map on  $(n-1)^{th}$  homology:

$$(g \circ i)_* : H_{n-1}(\partial\Omega, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(\partial\Omega, \mathbb{Z})$$

since it is identity map,

$$(g \circ i)_* : z \mapsto z$$



$g : \Omega \rightarrow \partial\Omega$  induces a push-forward map on  $(n-1)^{th}$  homology:

$$g_* : H_{n-1}(\Omega, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(\partial\Omega, \mathbb{Z})$$

however, since  $\Omega$  is compact convex set

$$H_{n-1}(\Omega, \mathbb{Z}) = 0, \quad g_* = 0$$

so

$$(g \circ i)_* = g_* \circ i_* = 0$$

contradiction!  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  has fixed point. □

In 1910, Luitzen Egbertus Jan Brouwer proved his fixed point theorem, which ensured the existence of fixed point of a continuous self-map of convex compact space. Often, it can be stated as follow:

**Theorem 22** (“Swirling Coffee” Theorem). *Use a stick (volume can be ignored) to swirl a cup of coffee without making any bubble. In the end, there is a molecule with final position the same as initial position in your coffee.*

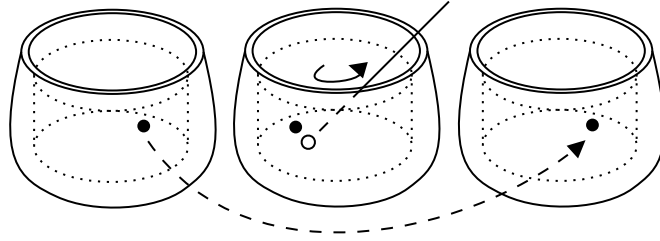


Figure 9: “swirling coffee” theorem: at least one molecule, “doesn’t move” before and after coffee swirling

In 1926, Solomon Lefschetz gave a formula that relates the number of fixed points of a map to the induced push-forward maps on homology.

**Definition 23** (Index of Fixed Point). Suppose  $\mathbf{M}$  is an  $n$ -dimensional topological space,  $p$  is a fixed point of self-map  $f : \mathbf{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{M}$ . Choose a neighborhood  $\mathbf{U}$  such that  $p \in \mathbf{U} \subset \mathbf{M}$ , consider the boundary of  $\mathbf{U}$ , which is a  $(n-1)$ -dimensional  $\partial\mathbf{U}$ . Similar to the concept “degree of a map” (see example 15), the induced push-forward map on  $(n-1)^{th}$  homology:

$$f_* : H_{n-1}(\partial\mathbf{U}, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(\partial\mathbf{U}, \mathbb{Z})$$

is  $f_* : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  and must have the form  $f_* : z \mapsto \lambda z$ , where  $\lambda$  is an integer called the *algebraic index of fixed point*  $p$  of map  $f$ , denoted as

$$\text{Ind}(f, p) = \lambda$$

**Definition 24** (Trace of Self-map). Let  $\mathbf{A}$  be a matrix representing a self-map  $f : \mathbf{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{M}$  under any basis, then the *trace* of  $f$ , denoted as

$$\text{Tr}(f)$$

is  $\text{Tr}(\mathbf{A})$ , the trace of  $\mathbf{A}$ , which is independent of choice of basis.

**Definition 25** (Lefschetz-Hopf Fixed Point Formula). Given compact topological space  $\mathbf{M}$ . The sum of indexes of all fixed points of a self-map  $f : \mathbf{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{M}$  equals to the alternating sum of trace of push-forward map on  $k^{th}$  homology  $f_{*k} : H_k(\mathbf{M}, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_k(\mathbf{M}, \mathbb{Z})$  induced by the self-map  $f$

$$\sum_{p \in \text{Fix}(f)} \text{Ind}(f, p) = \sum_k (-1)^k \text{Tr}(f_{*k}) =: \Lambda(f)$$

where  $\Lambda(f)$  is called *Lefschetz number*

**Example 26** (Lefschetz-Hopf Fixed Point Formula). consider a simple self-map  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ . we have

$$\Lambda(f) = \underbrace{\text{Tr}(f_{*0} : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z})}_1 - \underbrace{\text{Tr}(f_{*1} : 0 \rightarrow 0)}_0 = 1 = \sum_{p \in \text{Fix}(f)} \text{Ind}(f, p)$$

as shown in figure 10

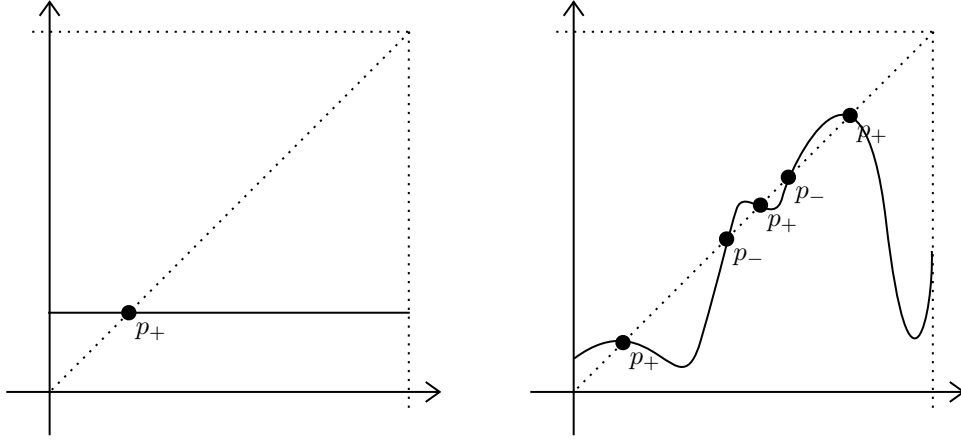


Figure 10: a self-map  $f_1 : [0, 1] \rightarrow \text{const}$  (left) versus its homotopic self-map  $f_2$  with same Lefschetz number  $\Lambda(f_1) = \Lambda(f_2) = 1$

**Theorem 27** (Lefschetz's Fixed Point Theorem). Given a continuous self-map of a compact topological space  $f : \mathbf{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{M}$ , if its Lefschetz number  $\Lambda(f) \neq 0$ , then there is a point  $p \in \mathbf{M}$  such that

$$f(p) = p$$

*Proof (Advanced).* Notation update:

- $f_k$ : the induced push-forward map on  $k$ -dimensional space
- $f_k \mid C_k$ : the induced map on  $k$ -chain group
- $f_k \mid H_k$ : the induced map on  $k$ -homology
- $\oplus$ : direct sum between groups, e.g.  $A \oplus B = \{(a + b) \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$

According to simplicial approximation theorem, there must be approximated maps up to any precision. So we triangulate  $\mathbf{M}$  first, and assume its induced map  $f$  can be both embedded in chain space and smooth space, as shown in the commutative diagram as figure 11:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{C_k}{Z_k} & \xrightarrow{f_k} & \frac{C_k}{Z_k} \\
\partial_k \uparrow \text{---} \partial_k^{-1} & & \downarrow \partial_k \\
B_{k-1} & \xrightarrow{f_{k-1}} & B_{k-1}
\end{array}$$

Figure 11: commutative diagram of induced map and boundary operator

we have

$$(f_{k-1} \mid B_{k-1}) = \partial_k \circ (f_k \mid \frac{C_k}{Z_k}) \circ \partial_k^{-1}$$

and thus

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Tr}(f_{k-1} \mid B_{k-1}) &= \text{Tr}([\partial_k][f_k \mid \frac{C_k}{Z_k}][\partial_k^{-1}]) \\
&= \text{Tr}([f_k \mid \frac{C_k}{Z_k}][\partial_k^{-1}][\partial_k]) \\
&= \text{Tr}(f_k \mid \frac{C_k}{Z_k})
\end{aligned}$$

according to property of trace.

Let  $C_k$  be  $k$ -chain group,  $Z_k$  closed chain group,  $B_k$  exact chain group,  $H_k$  homology group. We have

$$C_k \cong \frac{C_k}{Z_k} \oplus Z_k \quad \text{and} \quad Z_k \cong B_k \oplus H_k$$

thus

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Tr}(f_k \mid C_k) &= \text{Tr}(f_k \mid \frac{C_k}{Z_k} \oplus Z_k) \\
&= \text{Tr}(f_k \mid \frac{C_k}{Z_k}) + \text{Tr}(f_k \mid Z_k) \\
&= \text{Tr}(f_{k-1} \mid B_{k-1}) + \text{Tr}(f_k \mid B_k) + \text{Tr}(f_k \mid H_k)
\end{aligned}$$

thus

$$\sum_k (-1)^k \text{Tr}(f_k \mid C_k) = \sum_k (-1)^k \text{Tr}(f_{k-1} \mid B_{k-1}) + \text{Tr}(f_k \mid B_k) + \text{Tr}(f_k \mid H_k) \quad (1)$$

$$= \sum_k (-1)^k \text{Tr}(f_k \mid H_k) \quad (2)$$

$$= \Lambda(f) \quad (3)$$

according to Lefschetz-Hopf fixed point formula. Whenever  $\Lambda(f) \neq 0$ , there is an entry in a matrix such that  $\text{Tr}(f_k \mid C_k) \neq 0$ , which means there is simplex  $\sigma \in C_k$  such that  $f_k(\sigma) \subset \sigma$ , for any point in  $|\sigma|$ , the continuous map  $f_k : |\sigma| \rightarrow |\sigma|$  must have a Brouwer's fixed point such that  $f_k(p) = p$ , which means

$$f(p) = p$$

□

**Example 28** (Lefschetz Number, Betti Number and Euler-Poincaré Characteristic). Consider an identity map of a closed surface

$$\text{id} : \mathbf{S} \rightarrow \mathbf{S}$$

the identity map is, of course, a self-map. According to equations 1, 2 and 3, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda(\text{id}) &= \sum_k (-1)^k \text{Tr}(\text{id}_k | C_k) = \underbrace{\text{Tr}(\text{id}_2 | C_2)}_{|\text{Faces}|} - \underbrace{\text{Tr}(\text{id}_1 | C_1)}_{|\text{Edges}|} + \underbrace{\text{Tr}(\text{id}_0 | C_0)}_{|\text{Vertices}|} \\ &= \sum_k (-1)^k \text{Tr}(\text{id}_k | H_k) = \underbrace{\text{Tr}(\text{id}_2 | H_2)}_{b_2} - \underbrace{\text{Tr}(\text{id}_1 | H_1)}_{b_1} + \underbrace{\text{Tr}(\text{id}_0 | H_0)}_{b_0} \\ &= \chi(\mathbf{S}) \end{aligned}$$

Here we show that for an identity map, the connection between its Lefschetz number and Euler-Poincaré characteristic, and where Euler (number of triangulation element) and Poincaré (Betti number<sup>5</sup>) coincide.

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<sup>5</sup>geometrically, Betti number of surface can be understood as:

- $b_0$  is the number of connected components
- $b_1$  is the number of one-dimensional or “circular” holes
- $b_2$  is the number of two-dimensional “voids” or “cavities”