## MATH 6441: Algebraic Topology I

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### Lecture 1

### Jan. 6 — CW-Complexes

#### 1.1 Introduction and Motivation

Algebraic topology builds "functions" (actually functors)

 $\{\text{topological spaces, continuous maps}\} \longrightarrow \{\text{algebraic things, algebraic maps}\},\$ 

where "algebraic things" can be groups, vector spaces, etc. The main objective of algebraic topology is to distinguish topological spaces, e.g. showing that  $\mathbb{R}^n \ncong \mathbb{R}^m$  for  $n \ne m$ . More applications are:

- 1. Studying maps between spaces.<sup>1</sup>
  - Does a given space M embed in N? For instance, for what m does  $\mathbb{R}P^n$  embed in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ? (This is still not known in general.) Here  $\mathbb{R}P^n$  is the real projective space.
  - Lifting maps, i.e. given  $f: A \to B$  and  $g: E \to B$ , does there exist a map  $\widetilde{f}: A \to E$  such that  $g \circ \widetilde{f} = f$ ? In other words, is there a map  $\widetilde{f}$  such that the following diagram commutes:

$$A \xrightarrow{\tilde{f}} B \xrightarrow{\tilde{f}} B$$

- Fixed point problems: Given  $f: X \to X$ , does f have a fixed point, i.e.  $x \in X$  such that f(x) = x? Such theorems are used to prove the existence of solutions to ordinary differential equations, for instance.
- 2. Group actions, e.g. which finite groups act freely on  $S^n$ ?
- 3. Group theory, e.g. showing that every subgroup of a free group is free. Another example is that if  $F_n$  is the free group on n generators, then its commutator  $[F_n, F_n]$  is not finitely generated.
- 4. Algebra, e.g. proving the fundamental theorem of algebra.

This course will cover the following topics:

- 1. The fundamental group  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  of a space X for  $x_0 \in X$ , and covering spaces.
- 2. The homology groups  $H_k(X)$  for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$  These groups are abelian.
- 3. The cohomology ring  $H^*(X) = \bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} H^k(X)$ .

But before getting to this, we need to develop some important ideas.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>All maps and functions in this class are continuous unless otherwise specified.

#### 1.2 CW-Complexes

**Definition 1.1.** Let  $D^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be the unit disk and  $S^{n-1} = \partial D^n$ . Given a topological space Y and a continuous map  $a: S^{n-1} \to Y$ , the space obtained from Y by attaching an n-cell (via a) is

$$Y \cup_a D^n = (Y \sqcup D^n)/\sim,$$

where the equivalence relation  $\sim$  is given by  $x \sim a(x)$  for  $x \in \partial D^{n}$ .

**Definition 1.2.** An *n-complex* or an *n-dimensional CW-complex* is defined inductively by:

- A (-1)-complex is the empty set  $\varnothing$ .
- An n-complex  $X^n$  is a space obtained from an (n-1)-complex by attaching n-cells.

An *n*-complex is *finite* if it involves only a finite number of cells. The *k*-skeleton of X is the union of all *n*-cells in X with n < k.

Remark. Any CW-complex is Hausdorff. See Hatcher for a proof.

**Example 1.2.1.** Here are some examples of CW-complexes:

- A 0-complex is a union of points. This is because  $D^0 = \{pt\}$  and  $\partial D^0 = \emptyset$ .
- A 1-complex is a graph (points and lines connecting them).
- The torus T (a square with opposite sides identified) is a 2-complex. Here the 0-skeleton  $T^{(0)}$  is the common corner on the square and the 1-skeleton  $T^{(1)}$  is two sides of the square after taking the quotient. The 2-skeleton  $T = T^{(2)}$  is the entire torus.
- Another example of a 2-complex is the two-holed torus, which is obtained by identifying the edges of an octagon (pairs of every other edge identified with opposite orientation).
- A third example of a 2-complex is  $X^{(1)} \cup_a D^2$  given an attaching map  $D^2 \to X^{(1)}$ .
- Consider the unit sphere  $S^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ . One way to give  $S^2$  a CW-complex structure is to see the sphere as two disks  $D^2$  glued together, resulting in one 0-cell, one 1-cell, and two 2-cells. Another way is to start with two points, attach a 1-cell to get a circle, and then attaching two disks to get  $S^2$ . This results in two 0-cell, two 1-cell, and two 2-cells.

The second idea generalizes to  $S^n$ . We can write

$$S^n = S^{n-1} \cup_{a_1} D^n \cup_{a_2} D^n,$$

where  $S^{n-1}$  inductively has a CW-complex structure. This yields two k-cells for each  $k \leq n$ .

Another way to put a CW-complex structure on  $S^n$  is to attach  $D^n$  to a point with  $\partial D^n \to \{pt\}$ . In particular, notice that a space can in general have several different CW-complex structures.

• Consider the *n*-dimensional real projective space

$$\mathbb{R}P^n = \{ \text{lines through the origin in } \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \}.$$

Since each line through the origin passes through  $S^n$  twice, we can equivalently think of  $\mathbb{R}P^n$  as the unit sphere  $S^n$  with antipodal points identified.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Here  $A \sqcup B$  denotes the *disjoint union* of A and B.

We can also think of this as  $D^n$  with antipodal points on  $\partial D^n$  identified. Since  $\partial D^n = S^{n-1}$ , this is simply  $\mathbb{R}P^{n-1} \cup_a D^n$ , where  $a: \partial D^n \to \mathbb{R}P^{n-1}$  is the quotient map. This gives  $\mathbb{R}P^n$  a CW-complex structure with one k-cell for each  $k \leq n$ .

- The complex projective space  $\mathbb{C}P^n$  has a similar CW-complex structure with one k-cell for each even  $k \leq 2n$ . One can verify this as an exercise.
- Any smooth manifold has a CW-complex structure. See Hatcher.

Exercise 1.1. Show the product of CW-complexes is a CW-complex.

**Definition 1.3.** A subcomplex of a CW-complex X is a closed subset  $A \subseteq X$  that is a union of cells in X. In particular, A is also a CW-complex and (X, A) is called a CW-pair.

#### 1.3 Homotopy

**Definition 1.4.** Let X and Y be topological spaces. Two maps  $f, g: X \to Y$  are homotopic, denoted  $f \sim g$ , if there exists a continuous map  $\Phi: X \times [0,1] \to Y$  such that

$$\Phi(x, 0) = f(x)$$
 and  $\Phi(x, 1) = g(x)$ .

In this case,  $\Phi$  is called a homotopy between f and g.

**Remark.** We note the following:

- A homotopy  $\Phi$  gives a family of maps  $\Phi_{t_0}: X \to Y$  given by  $x \mapsto \Phi(x, t_0)$  which is continuous in  $t_0$ . So maps are homotopic if there is a continuous family of maps between them.
- If  $A \subseteq X$  then we say that f is homotopic to g rel A, denoted  $f \sim_A g$ , if there exists  $\Phi$  as above with the additional property that  $\Phi(x,t) = f(x)$  for all  $x \in A$ , i.e. points in A are fixed.
- If  $A \subseteq X$  and  $B \subseteq Y$ , then the notation  $f: (X, A) \to (X, B)$  means that  $f: X \to Y$  and  $f(a) \in B$  for each  $a \in A$ . We say that f is a map of pairs. If  $f, g: (X, A) \to (Y, B)$ , then f, g are homotopic as maps of pairs if each  $\Phi_t$  is a map of pairs.