# MATH 6441: Algebraic Topology I

Frank Qiang Instructor: John Etnyre

Georgia Institute of Technology Spring 2025

# Contents

1	Jan	. 6 — CW-Complexes
		Introduction and Motivation
	1.2	CW-Complexes
		Homotopy
_	-	
		. 8 — Homotopy
	2.1	More on Homotopy
	2.2	Homotopy Groups
	2.3	Homotopy Equivalence

### 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  $x \in \partial D^n$ . Here  $\sqcup$  denotes disjoint union.

**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).<sup>2</sup>
- 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 two 1-cells to get a circle, and then attaching two disks to get  $S^2$ . This results in two 0-cells, two 1-cells, 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>This CW-decomposition of the two-holed torus results in one 0-cell, four 1-cells, and one 2-cell.

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  $\Phi(x,1) = g(x)$ 

for all  $x \in X$ . 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  $\phi_t: (X, A) \to (X, B)$  is a map of pairs.

### Lecture 2

### Jan. 8 — Homotopy

### 2.1 More on Homotopy

**Example 2.0.1.** For any space X, any map  $f: X \to [0,1]$  is homotopic to the map  $g: X \to [0,1]$  given by  $x \mapsto 0$ . To see this, we have the homotopy  $\Phi: X \times [0,1] \times [0,1]$  defined by

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

We can see that  $\Phi(x,0) = f(x)$  and  $\Phi(x,1) = 0 = g(x)$ .

**Exercise 2.1.** Show that homotopy is an equivalence relation on maps  $X \to Y$ .

**Definition 2.1.** Let  $C(X,Y) = \{\text{continuous maps from } X \text{ to } Y\}$ . Let  $[X,Y] = C(X,Y)/\sim$ , i.e. homotopic maps are identified with each other.

**Example 2.1.1.** We have the following:

- 1.  $[X, [0,1]] = \{g\}$  for any space X, where g is the map  $x \mapsto 0$  as above.
- 2.  $[\{*\}, X] = \{\text{path components of } X\}.$

#### 2.2 Homotopy Groups

**Definition 2.2.** We call a space X pointed if there is a designated "base point"  $x_0 \in X$ . Given two pointed spaces  $(X, x_0)$  and  $(Y, y_0)$ , we define

$$[X,Y]_0 = \{\text{homotopy classes of maps of pairs } (X,\{x_0\}) \to (Y,\{y_0\})\}.$$

**Definition 2.3.** Let  $y_0$  be the north pole in  $S^n$ , i.e.  $S^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  is the unit sphere and  $y_0 = (0, \dots, 0, 1)$ . The *nth homotopy group* of a pointed space  $(X, x_0)$  is  $\pi_n(X, x_0) = [S^n, X]_0$ .

**Remark.** The homotopy group  $\pi_n(X, x_0)$  is in fact a group. We will study  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  next and it is called the *fundamental group* of  $(X, x_0)$ .

**Remark.** For which  $(Y, y_0)$  is  $[Y, X]_0$  "naturally" a group for all  $(X, x_0)$ ? Similarly, for which  $(Y, y_0)$  is  $[X, Y]_0$  a group for all  $(X, x_0)$ ? Here, given a map  $f: (X_1, x_1) \to (X_2, x_2)$ , there is an obvious induced  $map \ f_*: [Y, X_1]_0 \to [Y, X_2]_0$  given by  $[g] \mapsto [f \circ g]$ . Similarly, there is a map  $f^*: [X_2, Y]_0 \to [X_1, Y]_0$  given by  $[g] \mapsto [g \circ f]$ . In the questions above, "naturally" means that  $f_*$  and  $f^*$  are homomorphisms. for any  $(X_1, x_1)$  and  $(X_2, x_2)$ . The (perhaps unsatisfying) answer is that a space satisfying the first condition is called an H-space, and a space satisfying the second is called an H-space.

#### 2.3 Homotopy Equivalence

**Definition 2.4.** We say that  $f: X \to Y$  is the homotopy inverse to a function  $g: Y \to X$  if  $f \circ g \sim \mathrm{id}_Y$  and  $g \circ f \sim \mathrm{id}_X$ , where  $\mathrm{id}_X$  and  $\mathrm{id}_Y$  are the identity maps on X and Y. If g has a homotopy inverse, then we call g a homotopy equivalence from Y to X and we call X, Y homotopy equivalent.

Exercise 2.2. Show that homotopy equivalence is an equivalence relation.

Lemma 2.1. The following are equivalent:

- 1. X and Y are homotopy equivalent.
- 2. For any space Z, there is a one-to-one correspondence  $\phi_Z : [X, Z] \to [Y, Z]$  such that for all continuous maps  $h : Z \to Z'$ , the following diagram commutes:

$$[X, Z] \xrightarrow{\phi_Z} [Y, Z]$$

$$\downarrow^{h_*} \qquad \downarrow^{h_*}$$

$$[X, Z'] \xrightarrow{\phi_{Z'}} [Y, Z']$$

3. For any space Z, there is a one-to-one correspondence  $\phi^Z : [Z, X] \to [Z, Y]$  such for that all continuous maps  $h: Z \to Z'$ , the following diagram commutes:

$$[Z', X] \xrightarrow{\phi^{Z'}} [Z', Y]$$

$$\downarrow^{h^*} \qquad \downarrow^{h^*}$$

$$[Z, X] \xrightarrow{\phi^Z} [Z, Y]$$

*Proof.* This is left as an exercise.

**Remark.** Based on the previous lemma, two spaces are homotopy equivalent if and only if homotopy classes of maps to and from the space are "naturally equivalent."

**Example 2.4.1.** We have the following:

- Homeomorphic spaces are homotopy equivalent.
- Let  $X = S^1$  and  $Y = S^1 \times [0, 1]$ . We claim that X is homotopy equivalent to Y.

Define the maps  $f: S^1 \to S^1 \times [0,1]$  by  $x \mapsto (x,0)$  and  $g: S^1 \times [0,1] \to S^1$  by  $(x,t) \mapsto x$ . Then we can see that  $g \circ f: S^1 \to S^1$  maps  $x \mapsto x$ , so  $g \circ f = \mathrm{id}_{S^1}$ . On the other hand, the composition  $f \circ g: S^1 \times [0,1] \to S^1 \times [0,1]$  maps  $(x,t) \mapsto (x,0)$ . Now  $f \circ g \sim \mathrm{id}_{S^1 \times [0,1]}$  by homotopy. For instance, define  $\Phi: (S^1 \times [0,1]) \times [0,1] \to (S^1 \times [0,1])$  by  $((x,t),s) \mapsto (x,st)$ , so

$$\Phi((x,t),1) = (x,t) = \mathrm{id}_{S^1 \times [0,1]}(x,t)$$
 and  $\Phi((x,t),0) = (x,0) = f \circ g$ .

Thus f is a homotopy equivalence from  $S^1$  to  $S^1 \times [0,1]$ . Note that  $S^1 \times [0,1]$  is the annulus.

**Definition 2.5.** A space is called *contractible* if it is homotopy equivalent to a point.

**Example 2.5.1.** The spaces [0,1] and  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are contractible (exercise).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>We will denote homotopy equivalence by  $X \simeq Y$  or simply  $X \sim Y$ .

**Definition 2.6.** If  $A \subseteq X$ , then a retraction of X to A is a map  $r: X \to A$  such that r(a) = a for every  $a \in A$ . A deformation retraction of X to A is a retraction  $r: X \to A$  that is homotopic rel A to the identity map  $\mathrm{id}_X$ , i.e. we can find  $\phi_t: X \to X$  for  $t \in [0,1]$  such that  $\phi_0(x) = x$  and  $\phi_1(X) \subseteq A$  and  $\phi_t(x) = x$  for all  $x \in A$  and  $t \in [0,1]$ .

**Remark.** If X deformation retracts to A, then X is homotopy equivalent to A. To see this, suppose we have a homotopy  $\phi_t: X \to X$  as above, and let  $i: A \to X$  be the inclusion map. Then  $\phi_1 \circ i = \mathrm{id}_A$  and  $i \circ \phi_1 = \phi_1 \sim \phi_0 = \mathrm{id}_X$ , so  $\phi_1$  is a homotopy equivalence from X to A.

**Definition 2.7.** Given two spaces X, Y and a map  $f: X \to Y$ , the mapping cylinder of f is the space

$$M_f = ((X \times [0,1]) \cup Y) / \sim,$$

where the equivalence relation  $\sim$  is given by by  $(x,1) \sim f(x)$  for  $x \in X$ .

**Remark.** The mapping cylinder  $M_f$  deformation retracts to Y. To see this, consider the map  $\widetilde{\phi}_t$  given by  $(x,s)\mapsto (x,(1-t)s+t)$  on  $X\times [0,1]$  and  $y\mapsto y$  on Y. Since  $\widetilde{\phi}_t$  respects the equivalence relation, it descends to a map  $\phi_t:M_f\to M_f$  on the quotient space. Note that  $\phi_0=\mathrm{id}_{M_f}$  and  $\phi_1(M_f)=Y\subseteq M_f$ , and  $\phi_t=\mathrm{id}_Y$  for all t. Thus  $\phi_1$  is a deformation retraction. In particular, this means that  $M_f\simeq Y$ .

**Remark.** There are obvious inclusions  $i: X \to M_f$  given by  $x \mapsto (x,0)$  and  $j: Y \to M_f$  given by  $y \mapsto y$ . Note that  $\phi_1$  defined above is the homotopy inverse to j. Now we have the diagram



where j is a homotopy equivalence and  $j \circ f \sim i$  (exercise).

**Remark.** The above remark shows the following "slogan" of algebraic topology:

Any map is an inclusion up to homotopy.

**Example 2.7.1.** Let X be three circles with two enclosed in a third bigger one, and let Y be two circles enclosing the inner two circles of X connected by a line segment. Let Z be the region inside by the outer circle of X and outside the inner two circles of X.

Define  $f: X \to Y$  to be the map which sends  $x \in X$  to the point in Y at the other end of an interval (points on the inner circles of X are mapped by radial lines to the circles in Y, and points on the outer circle of X are mapped radially to either the circles or the line segment in Y). One can write an explicit formula for f as an exercise.

Then Z is homeomorphic to  $M_f$ , and in particular  $Z \simeq Y$ . Similarly,  $M_f$  is homotopy equivalent to two circles joined at a point, or a circle with a diameter.