

18.901 Notes

1 Topological Spaces

Definition 1.1.

1. A **topology** on a set X is a set \mathcal{T} of subsets of X called **open sets** such that

- $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}$
- $\mathcal{T}' \subseteq \mathcal{T} \implies \bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{T}'} U \in \mathcal{T}$. (Preserved under arbitrary unions)
- $U_1, \dots, U_n \in \mathcal{T} \implies \bigcap_{i=1}^n U_i \in \mathcal{T}$. (Preserved under finite intersections)

(X, \mathcal{T}) – or just X when \mathcal{T} is understood – is a **(topological) space**.

2. Suppose $\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{T}'$ are two topologies on X with $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$. We say \mathcal{T}' is **finer** than \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T} is **coarser** than \mathcal{T}' .

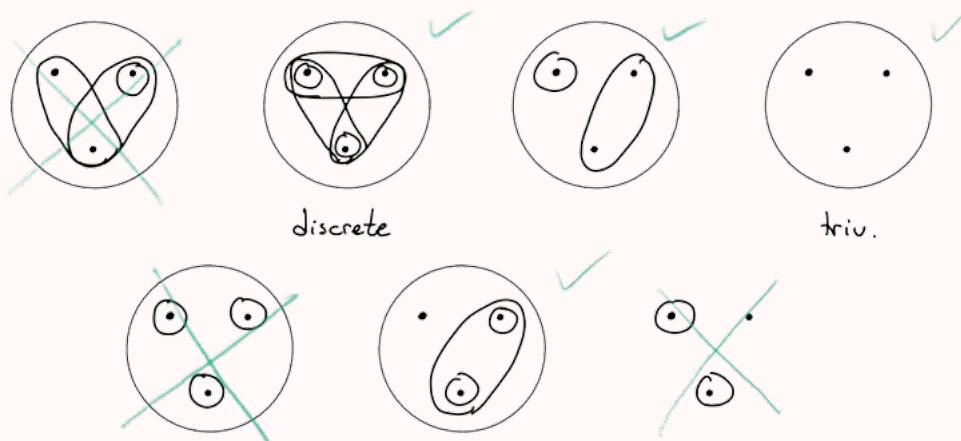
3. $A \subseteq X$ is **closed** if $X \setminus A$ is open. Hence \emptyset, X are closed, and closedness is preserved under finite unions and arbitrary intersections.

Example 1.1.

1. The **discrete topology** on X is $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{P}(X)$.

2. The **trivial topology** on X is $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X\}$.

3. $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$:



Definition 1.2. A set \mathcal{B} of subsets of X is a **basis** if

- $X = \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} B$
- $x \in B_1 \cap B_2$ with $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B} \implies (\exists B \in \mathcal{B}) (x \in B \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2)$

Theorem 1.1. A basis \mathcal{B} generates a topology \mathcal{T} via

$$U \in \mathcal{T} \iff (\forall x \in U) (\exists B \in \mathcal{B}) (x \in B \subseteq U).$$

Proof. $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$ (vacuously) and $X \in \mathcal{T}$ since \mathcal{B} covers X . We then verify the union and intersection properties:

- Suppose $U_\alpha \subseteq X$ are open, then $\bigcup_\alpha U_\alpha$ is open because

$$x \in \bigcup_\alpha U_\alpha \implies x \in U_\alpha \text{ for some } \alpha \implies x \in B_\alpha \subseteq U_\alpha \subseteq \bigcup_\alpha U_\alpha$$

- Suppose U_1, U_2 are open, then $U_1 \cap U_2$ is open because

$$x \in U_1 \cap U_2 \implies \begin{cases} x \in B_1 \subseteq U_1 \text{ for some } B_1 \in \mathcal{B} \\ x \in B_2 \subseteq U_2 \text{ for some } B_2 \in \mathcal{B} \end{cases} \implies x \in B \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2 \subseteq U_1 \cap U_2$$

for some $B \in \mathcal{B}$. By induction, any finite intersection of open sets is open. ■

Example 1.2. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$. We can construct three topologies via the bases:

1. $\{(a, b) : a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$ (the **standard topology** on \mathbb{R})
2. $\{[a, b) : a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$
3. $\{U \subseteq \mathbb{R} : U = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \text{ for some } x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}\}$

Note, (2) is finer than (1), and (1) is finer than (3).

Remark.

1. Uncountable intersections may not be open. E.g. $\bigcap_n (-1/n, 1/n) = \{0\}$ is not open in the standard topology on \mathbb{R} .
2. Different bases could generate the same topology. E.g. For $X = \mathbb{R}^2$, open balls generate the same topology as open squares do.

Definition 1.3. Let X be a space, and $A \subseteq X$.

1. $\text{int}(A) = \bigcup \{U \subseteq A : U \text{ is open}\}$ is the **interior** of A .
2. $\bar{A} = \bigcap \{C \supseteq A : C \text{ is closed}\}$ is the **closure** of A .
3. A is **dense** if $\bar{A} = X$.

Example 1.3.

1. $\text{int}(A) = \bar{A} = A$ in the discrete topology.
2. $\text{int}(A) = \emptyset; \bar{A} = X$ in the trivial topology for any $A \neq \emptyset, X$.
3. \mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R} .

Warning. A, B dense does not imply $A \cap B$ dense, e.g. take \mathbb{Q} and $\mathbb{Q} + \sqrt{2}$.

Theorem 1.2.

1. $A \text{ open} \Leftrightarrow A = \text{int}(A)$
2. $A \text{ closed} \Leftrightarrow A = \bar{A}$

Definition 1.4.

1. A **neighborhood of $x \in X$** is an open set that contains x .
2. $x \in X$ is a **limit point** of A if $(\forall x \in U \in \mathcal{T}) (A \cap U \setminus \{x\} \neq \emptyset)$.
3. $x \in X$ is an **adherent point** of A if $(\forall x \in U \in \mathcal{T}) (A \cap U \neq \emptyset)$.
4. The **boundary** of A is $\partial A = \{x \in X : x \text{ adh pt of } A \text{ and } X \setminus A\} = \bar{A} \cap \overline{X \setminus A}$.

Theorem 1.3.

1. $\bar{A} = \{\text{adherent pts of } A\} = A \cup \{\text{limit pts of } A\} = \text{int}(A) \sqcup \partial A$.
2. $X = \text{int}(A) \sqcup \partial A \sqcup \text{int}(X \setminus A)$.

Theorem 1.4. If U_1, U_2 are dense and open, then $U_1 \cap U_2$ is dense and open.

Proof. Suppose $x \in X$. We want to show that for any $U \in \mathcal{T}$ open we have $U \cap (U_1 \cap U_2) \neq \emptyset$.

Since U_1 is dense, $U \cap U_1 \neq \emptyset$. Since U_2 is also dense, $U \cap U_1 \cap U_2 \neq \emptyset$. ■

2 Metric Spaces

Definition 2.1.

1. A **metric** on a set X is a function $d : X^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

- $d(x, y) \geq 0$ and equality holds if and only if $x = y$
- $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$
- $d(x, y) + d(y, z) \geq d(x, z)$

The set $B_x(\varepsilon) = \{y : d(x, y) < \varepsilon\}$ is the (open) **ε -ball centered at x** .

2. The **metric topology** on (X, d) is the topology generated by the basis

$$\mathcal{B} = \{B_x(r) : x \in X, r > 0\}$$

Example 2.1. The **euclidean metric** d on \mathbb{R}^n is $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sqrt{\sum_i (x_i - y_i)^2}$.

3 Subspace Spaces

Definition 3.1. Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a space and $A \subseteq X$. The **subspace topology** on A (with respect to X) is

$$\mathcal{T}_A = \{A \cap U : U \in \mathcal{T}\}.$$

We call A with this topology a **subspace** of X .

Theorem 3.1. A basis \mathcal{B} for \mathcal{T} defines a basis \mathcal{B}_A for \mathcal{T}_A via

$$\mathcal{B}_A = \{A \cap B : B \in \mathcal{B}\}.$$

Remark. If (X, d) is a metric space and $A \subseteq X$ then (A, d_A) is a metric space where $d_A(a_1, a_2) = d(a_1, a_2)$.

Theorem 3.2. Let (X, d) be a metric space. Then the metric topology on $A \subseteq X$ agrees with the subspace topology of $A \subseteq X$.

Proof. The subspace topology on A has basis $\mathcal{B}_S = \{A \cap B_x(r)\}_{x \in X}$ whereas the metric topology on A has basis $\mathcal{B}_M = \{B_x^A(r)\} = \{A \cap B_x(r)\}_{x \in A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}_S$. On the other hand, given any open U in the subspace topology and $x \in U \subseteq A$, we have $x \in A \cap B_x(r) \subseteq U$ for some $r > 0$, but this is just $x \in B_x^A(r) \subseteq U$. Since $x \in U$ was arbitrary, U is open in the metric topology too. ■

Definition 3.2. $A \subseteq X$ (space) is discrete if its subspace topology is discrete.

Example 3.1. Is $X = \{0\} \cup_n \{1/n\}$ discrete in \mathbb{R} ? No. $\{0\}$ is not open in X . If it were, then $\exists(a, b)$ such that $(a, b) \cap X = \{0\}$, but $1/n < b$ for large n .

Warning. $B = A = \mathbb{R} \times \{0\} \subseteq X = \mathbb{R}^2$ are examples for the following statements:

1. B open in A does not imply B open in X .
2. Suppose $A \subseteq Y \subseteq X$, then the $\text{int}(A)$ in Y may not be $Y \cap \text{int}(A)$.

But these versions are true:

Theorem 3.3.

1. B open in A , and A open in X , then B open in X .
2. Suppose $A \subseteq Y \subseteq X$, the closure of A in Y is $Y \cap (\text{closure of } A \text{ in } X)$.

4 Product Spaces

Definition 4.1. Let $\{X_\alpha\}_\alpha$ be a collection of spaces.

1. The **product topology** on $X_1 \times \cdots \times X_n$ is generated by the basis

$$\mathcal{B} = \{Y_1 \times \cdots \times Y_n : Y_1, \dots, Y_n \text{ open}\}$$

2. More generally, the **product topology** on $\prod_\alpha X_\alpha$ is generated by the basis

$$\mathcal{B} = \{\prod_\alpha Y_\alpha : Y_\alpha \text{ open for all } \alpha, \text{ and only finitely many } Y_\alpha \neq X_\alpha\}$$

Theorem 4.1.

1. If $A \subseteq X; B \subseteq Y$ are subspaces, then the subspace topology and product topology on $A \times B$ agree.
2. The metric topology on \mathbb{R}^n agrees with the product topology on \mathbb{R}^n .

5 Quotient Space

Definition 5.1.

- Let X be a space, Y be a set, and $q : X \rightarrow Y$ be surjective. The **quotient topology** on Y induced by the **quotient map** q is given by

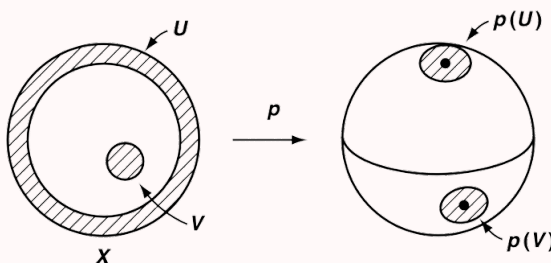
$$\mathcal{B} = \{U \subseteq Y : q^{-1}(U) \text{ open in } X\}$$

- Let $A \subseteq X$ be a subset and define $x \stackrel{A}{\sim} y \Leftrightarrow x = y \text{ or } x, y \in A$. We denote X/A the space on $X/\stackrel{A}{\sim}$ with quotient topology induced by the canonical map $q : X \twoheadrightarrow X/\stackrel{A}{\sim}$.

Remark. An equivalence relation \sim on X determines the surjective **canonical map** $q : X \twoheadrightarrow X/\sim$ defined by $q(x) = \text{equivalence class of } x$.

Example 5.1.

1. Consider the unit 2-disk $X = D^2 = \{x \times y : x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$. If we identify together all points on the boundary ∂D^2 , we get the quotient space $D^2/\partial D^2$ that is homeomorphic with the subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 called the unit 2-sphere $S^2 = \{x \times y \times z : x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1\}$.



2. We can construct a *torus* $S^1 \times S^1$ from the rectangle $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$.
3. We can patch two disks $D^2 \sqcup D^2$ along their boundaries to obtain S^2 . Formally, given a homeomorphism $\varphi : \partial D_1^2 \rightarrow D_2^2$, we have $(D_1^2 \sqcup D_2^2) / \sim = S^2$ where $x \sim y \Leftrightarrow x = y$ or $x \in \partial D_1^2, y \in \partial D_2^2, \varphi(x) = y$.

6 Continuous Functions

Definition 6.1. Let X, Y be spaces. A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is

- **continuous at $x \in X$** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X for all neighborhoods V of $f(x)$.
- **continuous** if $f^{-1}(V)$ is open in X for all V open in Y .
- a **homeomorphism** if f is bijective, and f and f^{-1} are continuous.

Theorem 6.1.

1. Let \mathcal{B} be a basis of X . The map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if and only if $f^{-1}(B)$ is open for all $B \in \mathcal{B}$.
2. A composition of continuous functions is continuous.
3. Let $A \subseteq X$ be a subspace and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be continuous. Then $f|_A$ is continuous.
4. Let $f : Z \rightarrow X \times Y$ where $f = f_X \times f_Y$. Then f is continuous if and only if f_X, f_Y are continuous.
5. Any quotient map is continuous. Given a quotient map $q : X \rightarrow Y$, $f : Y \rightarrow Z$ is continuous if and only if $g = f \circ q$ is continuous.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 X & & \\
 q \downarrow & \searrow g & \\
 Y & \xrightarrow{\quad f \quad} & Z
 \end{array}$$

6. The following are equivalent to $f : X \rightarrow Y$ being continuous:
 - (1) $f^{-1}(C)$ is closed for all closed $C \subseteq Y$.
 - (2) Given any $x \in X$ and $f(x) \in V$ open, there exists open U with $f(U) \subseteq V$.
 - (3) $f(\overline{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$ for all $A \subseteq X$.

Proof of (6).

- Continuity is equivalent to (1) by taking complements.
- For (2), say f is continuous, then $U = f^{-1}(V)$ works. Conversely, say (2) is true. Then for any open $V \subseteq Y$, any $v \in V$ admits a neighborhood within V , which has an open preimage $U_v \subseteq X$. Then $f^{-1}(V) = \bigcup_{v \in V} U_v$ is open, and thus f is continuous.
- (1) \Rightarrow (3). Since $A \subseteq f^{-1}(f(A)) \subseteq f^{-1}(\overline{f(A)})$ which is closed, we have $\overline{A} \subseteq f^{-1}(\overline{f(A)})$ and thus $f(\overline{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$.
- (3) \Rightarrow (1). Let $C \subseteq Y$ be closed. Then $f(\overline{f^{-1}(C)}) = \overline{f(f^{-1}(C))} \subseteq \overline{C} = C$ and hence $\overline{f^{-1}(C)} \subseteq f^{-1}(\overline{f(f^{-1}(C))}) \subseteq f^{-1}(C)$ and thus $f^{-1}(C)$ is closed. ■

Corollary 6.1. Say X, Y are metric spaces. $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if and only if

$$(\forall x \in X, \varepsilon > 0) (\exists \delta > 0) (\forall d_X(x, y) < \delta) (d_Y(f(x), f(y)) < \varepsilon).$$

Theorem 6.2. (Pasting Lemma) Let $X = A \cup B$ be a space where A, B are closed. If $f_A : A \rightarrow Y$ and $f_B : B \rightarrow Y$ are continuous and $f_A(x) = f_B(x)$ for all $x \in A \cap B$, then $f : X \rightarrow Y$ defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} f_A(x) & x \in A \\ f_B(x) & x \in B \end{cases}$$

is continuous.

7 Limits and Continuity

Definition 7.1. $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in X **converges** to $x \in X$ if any neighborhood of x contains all but finitely many x_n . Write $x_n \rightarrow x$.

Warning. Limits may not be unique:

1. In the trivial topology, any sequence converges to all points.
2. In $\mathbb{R}_1 \sqcup \mathbb{R}_2 / \sim$ where $x \sim y \Leftrightarrow x \in \mathbb{R}_1, y \in \mathbb{R}_2, x = y \neq 0$, we have

$$1/n \rightarrow 0_1 \quad \text{and} \quad 1/n \rightarrow 0_2 \quad (\textbf{fat point})$$

Theorem 7.1. If $x_n \rightarrow x$, then $x \in \overline{\{x_n\}_n}$.

Definition 7.2. A space X is **first-countable** if for any $x \in X$, there exists a countable number of neighborhoods U_1, U_2, \dots such that any neighborhood of x contains some U_i . The $\{U_i\}$ is called a **neighborhood basis** of x .

Theorem 7.2. If X is first-countable,

1. $x \in \overline{A} \implies \exists x_1, x_2, \dots \in A$ such that $x_n \rightarrow x$.
2. $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if and only if $(x_n \rightarrow x) \implies (f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x))$.

8 Connectedness

Definition 8.1. A space X is **connected** if there is no nontrivial clopen (closed and open) set $A \subseteq X$.

Example 8.1. The subspace $(0, 1) \cup (2, 3)$ of \mathbb{R} is not connected.

Theorem 8.1. $[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is connected.

Proof. Suppose the contrary, that $[a, b] = A \sqcup B$ where A, B are closed and non-empty. WLOG Assume $b \in B$. Then $s = \sup A < b$. If $s \in A$, since A is also open, there exists $(s - \varepsilon, s + \varepsilon) \subseteq A \implies \sup A \geq s + \varepsilon$, a contradiction. Hence $s \in B$ instead. Since B is open, there exists $(s - \varepsilon, s + \varepsilon) \subseteq B$ and thus $\sup A \leq s - \varepsilon$, a contradiction. ■

Definition 8.2. A space X is **path-connected** if every pair $x, y \in X$ can be joined by a *path* in X : a continuous map $\gamma : I = [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ such that $\gamma(0) = x$ and $\gamma(1) = y$.

Example 8.2.

1. \mathbb{R}^n is path-connected. Use the path $\gamma(t) = t\mathbf{x} + (1 - t)\mathbf{y}$.
2. S^n is path-connected. Use the path $\gamma(t) = \frac{t\mathbf{x} + (1 - t)\mathbf{y}}{|t\mathbf{x} + (1 - t)\mathbf{y}|}$.
3. A torus is path-connected: Start with a path in I^2 and then take the quotient.

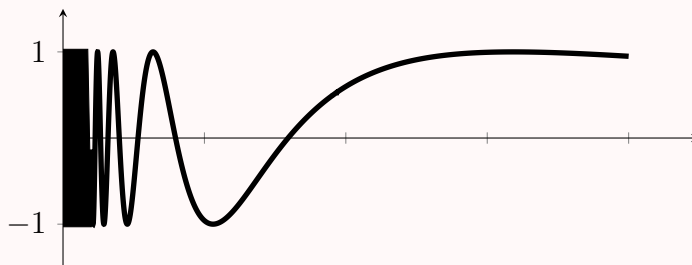
Theorem 8.2.

1. Any path-connected space is connected.
2. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous and surjective,
 - X connected $\implies Y$ connected.
 - X path-connected $\implies Y$ path-connected.
3. Quotients of a (path-)connected space is (path-)connected.
4. A product of (path-)connected spaces is (path-)connected.

Example 8.3. The *topologist's sine curve* defined by

$$X = \{(x \times \sin(1/x)) : x > 0\} \cup \{0\} \times [-1, 1]$$

is connected but not path-connected.



Definition 8.3. The equivalence relation $x \sim y$ where there is a (path-)connected subspace containing both x, y partitions the space into (path-)connected **components**.

9 Compactness

Definition 9.1.

1. An **open cover** of X is a collection of open sets that cover X . A space X is **compact** if every open cover of X admits a finite subcover.
2. A space X is **sequentially compact** if every sequence of points in X admits a convergent subsequence.

Theorem 9.1. 1st-countable + compact \implies sequentially compact.

Proof. Suppose $\{x_n\}_n$ does not have a convergent subsequence. Let $x \in X$, then there exists a countable neighborhood basis U_1, U_2, \dots . We can safely let $U_1 \supseteq U_2 \supseteq \dots$ by taking successive intersections. Since there is no subsequence that converges to x , only finitely many x_n lie in U_n for some sufficiently large n . Hence, every $x \in X$ has a neighborhood U_x that intersects $\{x_n\}_n$ at a finite number of points. Taking the union of all U_x and applying compactness shows that $\{x_n\}_n$ is finite, so we can conclude by the pigeonhole principle. ■

Theorem 9.2.

1. Every closed subspace of a compact space is compact.
2. A continuous function maps compact spaces to a compact image.
3. Suppose X is compact and $C_1 \supseteq C_2 \supseteq \dots$ is a sequence of closed and non-empty sets. Then $\bigcup_n C_n$ is non-empty.
4. A product of compact spaces is compact (Infinite case is hard: Tychonoff's Thm)
5. $[a, b]$ is compact.

Proof of (4). Suppose $[a, b] = \bigcup_\alpha U_\alpha$. Then

$$S = \{x \in [a, b] : [a, x] \text{ can be covered by finitely many } U_\alpha\}$$

contains $a \in S$ and is bounded above by b . Hence S has a supremum s .

Claim. $s \in S$.

Proof. Let $s \in U_\beta$ for some β , so there exists $(s - \varepsilon, s + \varepsilon) \subseteq U_\beta$. If $s \notin S$, just add U_β to the finite subcover of $[a, s - \varepsilon/2]$. □

Claim. $s = b$.

Proof. If not, then similarly, just add U_β to the finite subcover of $[a, s]$. □

Therefore $[a, b]$ can be covered by finitely many U_α . ■

Theorem 9.3. (Heine-Borel)

A subspace A of \mathbb{R}^n is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded.

Proof.

- (\Leftarrow) $X \subseteq [-M, M]^n$ is a closed subset of a compact space, so X is compact.

- (\Rightarrow) Compactness on the open cover $\{B_0(r)\}_{r>0}$ shows X is bounded. We then show any limit pt x of X is in X : For all $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$, $C_n := \overline{B_x 1/n} \cap X \neq \emptyset$, and thus $\bigcap_n C_n = X \cap \{x\}$ is non-empty. ■

10 Hausdorff Spaces

Definition 10.1. A space X is **Hausdorff** if for any distinct $x, y \in X$ there exists disjoint neighborhoods $x \in U, y \in V$.

Example 10.1.

1. The trivial topology is not Hausdorff. The discrete topology is.
2. Metric spaces are Hausdorff.
3. The finite complement topology on \mathbb{R} is not Hausdorff.
4. The space $\mathbb{R}_1 \sqcup \mathbb{R}_2 / \sim$ containing the fat point is not Hausdorff.

Theorem 10.1. X is Hausdorff if and only if $\Delta = \{(x \times x) : x \in X\} \subseteq X^2$ is closed.

Proof.

- (\Rightarrow) If X is Hausdorff, for any $x \neq y$ there exists disjoint neighborhoods U, V of x, y respectively. Then $U \times V$ is a neighborhood of $(x \times y) \in X \times Y$ disjoint from Δ . Taking the union over all $(x \times y)$ implies Δ is closed.
- (\Leftarrow) If Δ is closed, given any $x \neq y$ there exists a basis neighborhood $U \times V$ of $(x \times y)$ disjoint from Δ . Then U, V are the desired neighborhoods. ■

Theorem 10.2.

1. In a Hausdorff space, a sequence of points converge to at most one point.
2. One-point sets in a Hausdorff space are closed.
3. A subspace of a Hausdorff space is Hausdorff.
4. A finite product of Hausdorff spaces is Hausdorff.
5. A compact subspace of a Hausdorff space is closed.

Warning. A quotient of a Hausdorff space may not be Hausdorff.

11 Normal Spaces

Definition 11.1.

1. X is T_1 if one-point sets are closed.
2. A space is **normal** if it is T_1 , and, for any pair of disjoint closed sets $A, B \subseteq X$ there exists disjoint open sets $U, V \subseteq X$ such that $A \subseteq U, B \subseteq V$.

Remark.

1. Normal \implies Hausdorff $\implies T_1$.
2. A quotient, subspace, or product of normal space(s) need not be normal.

Example 11.1.

1. The fat point $\mathbb{R}_1 \sqcup \mathbb{R}_2 / \sim$ is T_1 but not Hausdorff.
2. The **K -topology** on \mathbb{R} generated by $\{(a, b) \cup \{(a, b) \setminus \bigcup_n \{1/n\}\}\}$ is Hausdorff but not normal.
3. The topology \mathbb{R}_ℓ on \mathbb{R} generated by $\{[a, b)\}$ is normal, but \mathbb{R}_ℓ^2 is not normal.

Theorem 11.1.

1. A closed subspace A of a normal space X is normal.
2. Compact + Hausdorff \implies Normal.

Proof of (2). Suppose $A, B \subseteq X$ are disjoint and closed. Fix $a \in A$. Then for each $b \in B$ there exists disjoint neighborhoods U_b, V_b . Since B is also compact, there exists finitely many V_b that cover B . The union of such finitely many V_b and the intersection of their corresponding U_b form disjoint open sets containing a and B respectively. Repeat the same procedure for every $a \in A$ and then apply compactness of A . ■

Theorem 11.2. Metric spaces are normal.

Proof. We can show that, for any subset $A \subseteq X$, the *point-to-set distance* $d(-, A) : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $d(x, A) = \inf_{a \in A} d(x, a)$ is continuous. For disjoint closed sets A, B , the open sets

$$U = \{x : d(x, A) < d(x, B)\}, \quad V = \{x : d(x, A) > d(x, B)\}$$

contain A, B respectively and are disjoint. ■

Theorem 11.3. X is normal if and only if for any closed A and open U such that $A \subseteq U$, there exists an open set V such that $A \subseteq V \subseteq \overline{V} \subseteq U$.

Theorem 11.4. (Urysohn's Lemma)

Let X be normal and A, B be disjoint closed sets of X . There exists a continuous map

$$f : X \rightarrow I$$

such that $f(A) = \{0\}$ and $f(B) = \{1\}$.

Proof. Define open sets U_p for each $p \in \mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]$ as follows: Enumerate $\mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1]$ such that 1 and 0 are the first two elements. Define $U_1 = X - B$ and by normality pick U_0 such that $A \subseteq U_0 \subseteq \overline{U_0} \subseteq U_1$. By induction, say we defined U_p for a finite number of p 's and let r be the next rational in the enumeration. We must have $p < r < q$ where U_p, U_q are already defined. By normality we pick U_r such that $\overline{U_p} \subseteq U_r \subseteq \overline{U_r} \subseteq U_q$.

Additionally, we let $U_p = \emptyset$ for all rationals $p < 0$ and $U_p = X$ for all rationals $p > 1$. Hence,

$$p < q \Rightarrow \overline{U_p} \subseteq U_q.$$

We then define $f(x) = \inf \{p : x \in U_p\}$. It is easy to see $f(A) = \{0\}$ and $f(B) = \{1\}$. We show that f is continuous.

Lemma 1. $x \in \overline{U_r} \Rightarrow f(x) \leq r$

Proof. If $x \in \overline{U_r}$, then $x \in U_s$ for every $s > r$. Hence $f(x) \leq r$. □

Lemma 2. $x \notin \overline{U_r} \Rightarrow f(x) \geq r$.

Proof. If $x \notin \overline{U_r}$, then $x \notin U_s$ for any $s < r$. Hence $f(x) \geq r$. □

Given a ball $I = (f(x) - \delta, f(x) + \delta)$, we wish to find a neighborhood U of x such that $f(U) \subseteq I$. First we choose rational numbers $p, q \in I$ such that $p < f(x) < q$. Then the open set $U_q \setminus \overline{U_p}$ is the desired neighborhood using the lemmas above. ■

Theorem 11.5. (Tietze Extension Theorem)

Let A be closed in a normal space X . Any continuous map from A to I can be extended to a continuous map from X to I . True also for \mathbb{R} instead of I .

Proof. We show for $[-1, 1]$ instead of I , and then for $(-1, 1)$ instead of \mathbb{R} .

Lemma. If $f : A \rightarrow [-\varepsilon, \varepsilon]$ is continuous, there exists continuous $g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $g(X) \subseteq [-\varepsilon/3, \varepsilon/3]$ and $(g - f)(A) \subseteq [-2\varepsilon/3, 2\varepsilon/3]$.

Proof. Applying the Urysohn Lemma on the disjoint closed sets $L = f^{-1}([-\varepsilon, -\varepsilon/3])$ and $R = f^{-1}([\varepsilon/3, \varepsilon])$, there exists $g : X \rightarrow [-\varepsilon/3, \varepsilon/3]$ such that $g(L) = \{-\varepsilon/3\}$ and $g(R) = \{\varepsilon/3\}$. This g works. \square

Now let $f : A \rightarrow [-1, 1]$ be continuous. Then we can find $g_1 : X \rightarrow [-1/3, 1/3]$ such that $|f(a) - g_1(a)| \leq 2/3$ for all $a \in A$. Then we apply the Lemma on $f - g_1$ again, so we get $g_2 : X \rightarrow [-2/9, 2/9]$ such that $|f(a) - g_1(a) - g_2(a)| \leq 4/9$. Recursively, we get a sequence of functions g_n such that $g_{n+1} : X \rightarrow [-(2/3)^n/3, (2/3)^n/3]$ and

$$|f(a) - g_1(a) - \cdots - g_{n+1}(a)| \leq \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{n+1}.$$

By the Weierstrass M -test, $g(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} g_n(x)$ converges to the desired function (Exercise).

To show the $(-1, 1)$ version, take g from the $[-1, 1]$ case. Apply the Urysohn Lemma to the disjoint closed sets A and $D = g^{-1}(\{-1\}) \cup g^{-1}(\{1\})$ to get a continuous $\varphi : X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ so that $\varphi(D) = \{0\}$ and $\varphi(A) = \{1\}$. Then $h(x) = \varphi(x)g(x)$ works ($|h(x)| < 1$). \blacksquare

Urysohn Metrization Theorem

Definition 11.2.

1. A space is **second-countable** if it has a countable basis.
2. A space is **metrizable** if it is homeomorphic to a metric space.

Theorem 11.6. (Urysohn Metrization Theorem)

2nd countable + Normal \implies Metrizable.

Proof. We first note that $I^\omega = \{\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots) : x_i \in I\}$ with the metric

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sup_n \frac{|x_n - y_n|}{n}.$$

is a metric space. Let X be normal with a countable basis \mathcal{B} . We will embed X into I^ω .

Lemma. There exists a collection $\{f_n : X \rightarrow I\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of continuous functions such that given any $x \in X$ and any neighborhood U , there exists some f_n that is positive at x but vanishes outside U .

Proof. For each $B, C \in \mathcal{B}$ with $\overline{B} \subseteq C$, apply the Urysohn Lemma to construct a continuous function $g_{B,C} : X \rightarrow I$ such that $g_{B,C}(\overline{B}) = \{1\}$ and $g_{B,C}(X \setminus C) = \{0\}$. $\{g_{B,C} : \overline{B} \subseteq C\}$ is the desired collection. It is countable because $\mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{B}$ is countable, and given any x with neighborhood U , we can choose by Theorem 11.3 the sequence of open sets $x \in B \subseteq \overline{B} \subseteq C \subseteq U$, and then use $g_{B,C}$. \square

Using $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ from the Lemma, define $F : X \rightarrow I^\omega$ such that

$$F(x) = (f_0(x), f_1(x), f_2(x), \dots)$$

- F is injective because given $x \neq y$, there exists some $f_n(x) > 0 = f_n(y)$ (Hausdorff!).
- F is continuous: Let $B_x(\varepsilon) \subseteq I^\omega$. Fix an integer $N > 2/\varepsilon$. Since each f_n is continuous, for each $1 \leq n \leq N$ there exists a neighborhood U_n such that $y \in U_n \implies |f_n(x) - f_n(y)| \leq \varepsilon/2$. Hence for any $y \in U_1 \cap \dots \cap U_N$,

$$\begin{aligned} d(F(x), F(y)) &= \sup_n \frac{|f_n(x) - f_n(y)|}{n} \\ &\leq \max \left(\sup_{1 \leq n \leq N} \frac{|f_n(x) - f_n(y)|}{n}, \sup_{n > N} \frac{|f_n(x) - f_n(y)|}{n} \right) \\ &\leq \max \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2}, \frac{1}{N+1} \right) < \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

- For each open set U in X , $F(U)$ is open in $F(X)$: Let $x \in U$ and $f(x) = z$. Choose a f_N that is positive at x but vanishes outside U . Let

$$W = F(X) \cap \pi_N^{-1}((0, 1])$$

be open in $F(X)$. We claim that $z \in W \subseteq F(U)$. Firstly, we have $z = F(x) \in W$ because $f_N(x) > 0$. Secondly, given any $F(y) \in W$, we must have $f_N(y) > 0$. Since f_N vanishes outside U , y must be in U , so $F(y) \in F(U)$.

Therefore, X is homeomorphic to its image under F , a subspace of the metric space I^ω , which is also a metric space. \blacksquare

12 Manifolds

Definition 12.1. An ***n*-manifold** is a 2nd countable Hausdorff space X such that each $x \in X$ has a neighborhood homeomorphic with an open subset of \mathbb{R}^n . We also write $X = X^n$. A 1-manifold is a ***curve***, and a 2-manifold is a ***surface***.

Theorem 12.1. $X^n \times Y^m$ is an $(n + m)$ -manifold.

Proof. Hausdorffness and 2nd Countability follow immediately. Fix $(x \times y) \in X \times Y$, then there exists neighborhoods U, V of x, y homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^m$ respectively. Then $U \times V$ is a neighborhood of $(x \times y)$ homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \cong \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$. ■

Example 12.1.

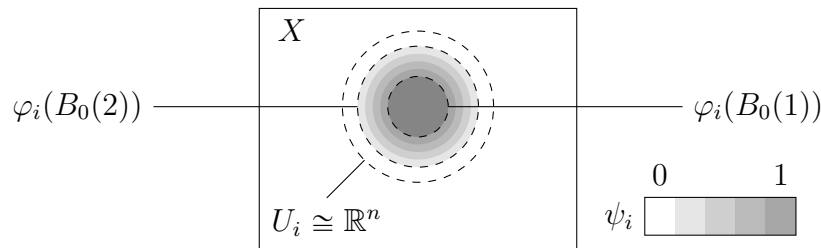
1. \mathbb{R}^n is an n -manifold.
2. S^n is an n -manifold. (Write $S^n = e_1^n \cup e_2^n$ where $e^n = \text{int}(D^n) \cong \mathbb{R}^n$).
3. The **real projective space** $\mathbb{RP}^n = S^n / \sim$ (where $x \sim y \Leftrightarrow x = \pm y$) is an n -manifold.
4. $T^n = \underbrace{S^1 \times \cdots \times S^1}_n$ is an n -manifold. T^2 is a **torus**.
5. *Fact:* Every connected curve is homeomorphic to either \mathbb{R} and S^1 .

Theorem 12.2. A compact n -manifold X can be embedded in \mathbb{R}^N for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. Each $x \in X$ admits a neighborhood U^x with a homeo $\varphi^x : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow U^x$. We can choose a basis $x \in B^x \subseteq \varphi^x(B_0(1))$, and hence by compactness of X via the B^x there exists U_1, \dots, U_m with homeos $\varphi_i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow U_i$ and $X \subseteq \bigcup_i \varphi_i(B_0(1))$

By Urysohn's Lemma, there exists $\rho_i : X \rightarrow I$ such that $\rho_i(\overline{\varphi_i(B_0(1))}) = \{1\}$ and $\rho_i(X \setminus \varphi_i(B_0(2))) = \{0\}$. Via the pasting lemma, let $\psi_i : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be the continuous function

$$\psi_i(x) = \begin{cases} \rho_i(x)\varphi_i^{-1}(x) & x \in U_i \\ (0, \dots, 0) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$



Then $F(x) = (\rho_1(x), \dots, \rho_m(x), \psi_1(x), \dots, \psi_m(x))$ embeds X into $\mathbb{R}^{m(n+1)}$. ■

13 Paracompactness

Definition 13.1.

- An open cover $\{U_\alpha\}_\alpha$ of X is **locally finite** if every $x \in X$ has a neighborhood that intersects only finitely many U_α .
- A **refinement** of an open cover $\{U_\alpha\}_\alpha$ of X is an open cover $\{V_\beta\}_\beta$ such that each V_β is contained in some U_α (depends on β).
- A space X is **paracompact** if it is Hausdorff, and, every open cover of X admits a locally finite refinement.

Warning.

1. Some sources do not require Hausdorffness in the definition.
2. Quotient/Subspace/Product of paracompact space(s) may not be paracompact.

Example 13.1. \mathbb{R}^n is paracompact. Let $B(r)$ be the open ball of radius r centered at the origin. Given any open covering \mathcal{A} , for each $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ we can pick a finite number of elements of \mathcal{A} that covers $\overline{B(n)}$. Intersect them with $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \overline{B(n-1)}$. The union of these open sets is a desired locally finite refinement.

Theorem 13.1.

1. A closed subspace of a paracompact space is paracompact.
2. Compact + Hausdorff \implies Paracompact
3. Metric space \implies Paracompact.
4. Paracompact \implies Normal.

Proof of (4). Let A, B be closed and disjoint. We first prove the case when $A = \{a\}$. For each $b \in B$ pick disjoint neighborhoods $u \in U_b, v \in V_b$. Since $(X \setminus B) \cup_b V_b$ is an open cover of X , by paracompactness there exists a locally finite refinement of V_α 's that cover B . Also, x has a neighborhood W that intersects only finitely many V_α , say V_{b_1}, \dots, V_{b_n} . Then the open sets $U = U_{b_1} \cap \dots \cap U_{b_n}$ and $V = V_{b_1} \cap \dots \cap V_{b_n}$ form a desired pair.

For the general case, we update the notation so that for each $a \in A$ there exists disjoint open sets $u \in U_a, B \subseteq V_a$. Let $\{U_\alpha\}$ be a locally finite refinement that covers A , so $b \in B$ admits a neighborhood W_b that intersects finitely many U_α , say U_{a_1}, \dots, U_{a_n} . We then let

$V_b = W_b \cap_i V_{a_i}$. Then $U = \bigcup_{\alpha} U_{\alpha}$ and $V = \bigcup_{b \in B} V_b$ give the desired separation. ■

Definition 13.2. A *partition of unity* on X for a locally finite open cover $\{U_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha}$ is a collection of continuous $\rho_{\alpha} : X \rightarrow I$ such that

- $\rho_{\alpha}(x) > 0 \implies x \in U_{\alpha}$
- $\sum_{\alpha} \rho_{\alpha}(x) = 1$ (well-defined due to local finiteness)

Theorem 13.2. Every cover of a paracompact space admits a refinement that has a partition of unity.

Proof. Let $\{U_{\alpha}\}$ be a cover of X . For each $x \in X$ there is an $x \in U_{\alpha_x}$ and hence we can pick $x \in W_x \subseteq \overline{W_x} \subseteq U_{\alpha_x}$ by normality. Let $\{V_{\beta}\}$ be a locally finite refinement of $\{W_x\}$. By Urysohn's Lemma, there exists $\psi_{\beta} : X \rightarrow I$ such that $\psi_{\beta}(\overline{V_{\beta}}) = \{1\}$ and $\psi_{\beta}(X \setminus U_{\alpha_{\beta}}) = \{0\}$. Then $\rho_{\beta}(x) = \psi_{\beta}(x) / \sum_{\gamma} \psi_{\gamma}(x)$ is a desired partition of unity. ■

Theorem 13.3. Manifold \implies Paracompact.

Proof. We first prove that a manifold X can be a limit of increasing compact sets.

Lemma. $\exists K_1, K_2, \dots$ compact with $K_n \subseteq \text{int}(K_{n+1})$ and $X = \bigcup_n \text{int}(K_n)$.

Proof. Let U_i with homeos $\varphi_i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow U_i$ such that $\{\varphi_i(B_0(1))\}$ covers X . Then take the compact spaces $K_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \bigcup_{j=1}^n \varphi_i(\overline{B_0(j)})$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$. □

Let $X = \bigcup_{\alpha} U_{\alpha}$. Then for each n there exists $U_1^n, \dots, U_{t_n}^n$ that cover the compact space K_n . Then $V_j^n = U_j^n \setminus K_{n-1}$ form a locally finite refinement: Any $x \in X$ is contained within some $\text{int}(K_n)$, which means it can only be in the sets V_j^m ($1 \leq j \leq t_m$) ($1 \leq m \leq n$). This is similar to Example 13.1. ■

14 Covering Dimension

Definition 14.1.

1. The **covering dimension** of a space X is the infimum over $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$(\forall \text{ open cover } \{U_\alpha\}) (\exists \text{ refinement } \{V_\beta\}) (\forall x \in X) (x \text{ is in } \leq n + 1 \text{ of the } V_\beta)$$

or equivalently

$$\dim X = \max_{\mathcal{A} \text{ open cover } X} \left[\min_{\mathcal{B} \text{ refint of } \mathcal{A}} \underbrace{\left(\max_{x \in X} |\{B \in \mathcal{B} : x \in B\}| \right)}_{\text{order of } \mathcal{B}} \right] - 1$$

2. A **Lebesgue number** for an open cover $\{U_\alpha\}$ of a compact metric space is a real $\delta > 0$ such that any subset of X of diameter $< \delta$ is contained within some U_α .

Theorem 14.1. (Lebesgue's Covering Lemma)

Any open cover $\{U_\alpha\}$ of a compact metric space (X, d) has a Lebesgue number.

Proof. Since X is compact, assume $\{U_\alpha\} = \{U_1, \dots, U_n\}$. The map $f(x) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} d(x, X \setminus U_i) > 0$ is continuous on a compact space and thus $f(X)$ has a minimum $\delta > 0$. ■

Example 14.1.

1. Any compact subspace of \mathbb{R} has dimension at most 1.

Proof. Note that $\mathcal{C} = \{(n, n+1), (n - \frac{1}{2}, n + \frac{1}{2}) : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ has order 2. Let \mathcal{A} be any open covering of a compact subspace X of \mathbb{R} , with some Lebesgue number $\delta > 0$. The image \mathcal{J} of \mathcal{C} under $f : x \mapsto \delta x/2$ is an open covering whose elements have diameter $\delta/2 < \delta$, and hence is an open refinement subcover of \mathcal{A} . Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \dim X &= \max_{\mathcal{A} \text{ open cover } X} \left[\min_{\substack{\mathcal{B} \text{ open refinement} \\ \text{subcover of } \mathcal{A}}} (\text{order of } \mathcal{B}) \right] - 1 \\ &\leq \max_{\mathcal{A} \text{ open cover } X} [2] - 1 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

2. $\dim I = 1$.

Proof. We show that there is some open covering \mathcal{A} such that any open refinement subcover of \mathcal{A} has order at least 2. Let $\mathcal{A} = \{[0, 1), (0, 1]\}$ and let \mathcal{B} be any open refinement subcovering. Since 0 and 1 cannot belong to the same refinement, \mathcal{B} has at least two elements. Partition \mathcal{B} into two nonempty parts \mathcal{B}_1 and \mathcal{B}_2 . If \mathcal{B} had order 1 then $\bigcup \mathcal{B}_1$ and $\bigcup \mathcal{B}_2$ disconnect $[0, 1]$, a contradiction.

3. *Fact:* $\dim I^n = n$, and every compact subspace of \mathbb{R}^n has dimension $\leq n$.

Theorem 14.2.

- If Y is a closed subspace of a finite dimensional space X , then $\dim Y \leq \dim X$.
- If $X = Y \cup Z$ where Y, Z are closed finite dimensional subspaces of X , then $\dim X = \max(\dim Y, \dim Z)$.
- Every compact subspace of \mathbb{R}^N has dimension at most N .

Tangent: Baire's Theorem, Function Spaces and Geometry

Definition 14.2. Let X be a compact metric space.

1. $\mathcal{C}(X, \mathbb{R}^n) = \{f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \text{ cts}\}$ is the metric space equipped with the uniform metric $d(f, g) = \sup_x |f(x) - g(x)|$.
2. For $A \subseteq X$, $\text{diam}(A) = \sup_{x, y \in A} d(x, y)$.
3. $\Delta(f) = \sup \{\text{diam}(f^{-1}\{z\}) : z \in f(X)\}$ (Deviation of f from injectivity).

Remark. $\bigcap_n U_{1/n} = \{f : \Delta(f) = 0\} = \{f \text{ injective}\}.$

Theorem 14.3. (Baire's Theorem)

Let $\{U_n\}$ be a countable collection of dense open sets in a compact Hausdorff space X . Then $\bigcap_n U_n$ is dense in X .

Proof. Let W_1 be an open set. We want to show $W_1 \cap_n U_n \neq \emptyset$.

- Since U_1 is dense and open, there exists $x_1 \in W_1 \cap U_1$ open.
- Inductively, since X is normal, there exists $x_n \in W_n \subseteq \overline{W_n} \subseteq W_{n-1} \cap U_{n-1}$.

Since X is compact and $\overline{W_1} \supseteq \overline{W_2} \supseteq \cdots$, we have

$$\emptyset \neq \bigcap_n \overline{W_n} \subseteq \bigcap_n (U_n \cap W_n) \subseteq W \cap_n U_n. \quad \blacksquare$$

Definition 14.3.

1. $\{z_0, \dots, z_m\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ are **geometrically independent** if

$$\lambda_0 z_0 + \cdots + \lambda_m z_m = \mathbf{0}, \quad \lambda_0 + \cdots + \lambda_m = 0 \implies \lambda_0 = \cdots = \lambda_m = 0$$

2. $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is in **general position** if any subset of size $n + 1$ are geom. ind.

Theorem 14.4. Given $\{z_0, \dots, z_m\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\delta > 0$, there exists $\{y_0, \dots, y_m\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ that is in general position such that all $|z_i - y_i| < \delta$.

Back to dimension theory

Theorem 14.5. (Embedding Compact Metric Spaces)

Every compact metric space X of dimension n can be embedded in \mathbb{R}^{2n+1} .

Define $U_\varepsilon = \{f \in \mathcal{C}(X, \mathbb{R}^{2n+1}) : \Delta(f) < \varepsilon\}$.

Claim. U_ε is open.

Proof. Let $f \in U_\varepsilon$, we want to show $\exists B_f(\delta) \subseteq U_\varepsilon$. Pick $\varepsilon < b < \Delta(f)$ and define

$$A = \{(x \times y) : d(x, y) \geq b\} \subseteq X^2$$

Note that $f(x) = f(y) \implies d(x, y) \leq \Delta(f) < b \implies (x \times y) \notin A$. Hence $|f(x) - f(y)|$ has a positive minimum 2δ on A . Now if $g \in B_f(\delta)$, then for any $(x \times y) \in A$,

$$|f(x) - g(x)| < \delta, \quad |f(y) - g(y)| < \delta, \quad |f(x) - f(y)| \geq 2\delta$$

so $g(x) \neq g(y)$. In other words, $g(x) = g(y) \implies d(x, y) < b \implies \Delta g \leq b < \varepsilon$. \square

Claim. U_ε is dense. (Difficult!)

Proof. Let $f \in \mathcal{C}(X, \mathbb{R}^{2n+1})$ and $\delta > 0$, we want to find a $g \in B_f(\delta) \cap U_\varepsilon$. Firstly, we cover X with V_1, \dots, V_m such that

- (1) $\text{diam}(V_i) < \varepsilon/2$
- (2) $\text{diam}(f(V_i)) < \delta/2$
- (3) Each $x \in X$ is in at most $n+1$ of the V_i .

To do this, pick a Lebesgue number $0 < \kappa < \varepsilon/4$ such that any $B_x(\kappa) \subseteq f^{-1}(B_y(\delta/4))$ for some y . Since $\dim X \leq n$, there exists a refinement $\{V_\beta\}_\beta$ of $\{B_x(\kappa)\}_x$ such that (3) holds. Since $V_\beta \subseteq B_{x(\beta)}(\kappa)$ for some $x(\beta)$, (1) and (2) also hold. By compactness, we can find a finite cover using V_i .

Let $\varphi_i : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a partition of unity associated to the U_i . Also, fix $x_i \in U_i$ and $z_i \in \mathbb{R}^{2n+1}$ such that $|f(x_i) - z_i| < \delta/2$ and $\{z_i\}$ is in general position. Define

$$g(x) = \sum_i \varphi_i(x) z_i.$$

Then $d(f, g) < \delta$ because

$$|g(x) - f(x)| = \left| \sum_i \varphi_i(x)(z_i - f(x_i)) + \sum_i \varphi_i(x)(f(x_i) - f(x)) \right| < \sum_i \varphi_i(x) \left(\frac{\delta}{2} + \frac{\delta}{2} \right) = \delta.$$

and $g \in U_\varepsilon$ because $g(x) = g(y) \implies \sum_i (\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_i(y)) z_i = \mathbf{0} \implies \varphi_i(x) = \varphi_i(y) \forall i$ since x, y are in $\leq 2(n+1)$ of the U_i . Since $\varphi_i(x) > 0$ for some i , we have $x, y \in U_i \implies d(x, y) < \varepsilon/2$. Therefore $\Delta(g) \leq \varepsilon/2 < \varepsilon$. \square

By Baire's theorem, $\bigcap_n U_{1/n}$ is dense and hence non-empty, i.e. there is a continuous injective $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2n+1}$. Also since X is compact and $f(X)$ is Hausdorff, f sends closed sets to closed sets (i.e. is closed). Hence f embeds X into \mathbb{R}^{2n+1} . \blacksquare

Theorem 14.6. (Embedding Manifolds)

Every manifold can be embedded in some \mathbb{R}^N .

Proof. Let X be an m -manifold.

Lemma 1. Let $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$ such that $f^{-1}(\text{compact}) = \text{compact}$. Then f is closed (sends closed sets to closed sets).

Proof. Let $C \subseteq X$ be closed. Suppose $y \in \mathbb{R}^N \setminus f(C)$. By Heine-Borel, $\overline{B_y(\varepsilon)}$ is compact and hence $K = C \cap f^{-1}(\overline{B_y(\varepsilon)})$ is compact $\implies f(K) \subseteq f(C)$ is compact $\implies V = B_y(\varepsilon) \setminus f(K)$ is a neighborhood of y . Note that

$$\begin{aligned} z \in V \cap f(C) &\implies \exists x \in f^{-1}(B_y(\varepsilon)) \cap C \subseteq K \text{ with } f(x) = z \\ &\implies z \in f(K) \implies V \cap f(C) = \emptyset \end{aligned}$$

and thus $f(C)$ is closed. \square

Lemma 2. There exists continuous $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f^{-1}(\text{compact}) = \text{compact}$.

Proof. Using the Lemma from Theorem 13.3, we can write X as a limit of increasing compact sets $\bigcup_n K_n$ where $K_n \subseteq \text{int}(K_{n+1})$. Since manifold \implies paracompact \implies normal, we can use Urysohn's Lemma to construct continuous maps $\varphi_n : X \rightarrow I$ such that $\varphi_n(K_n) \equiv 0$ and $\varphi_n(\overline{X \setminus K_{n+1}}) \equiv 1$. Then we define $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $f = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \varphi_n$.

- $x \in K_n \implies \varphi_n(x) = \varphi_{n+1}(x) = \dots = 0$ and hence f is well-defined.
- $x \notin K_n \implies \varphi_{n-1}(x) = \varphi_{n-2}(x) = \dots = 1 \implies f(x) \geq n - 1$.
- f is continuous: Given any $(a, b) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $f^{-1}((a, b)) \subseteq K_{[b+2]}$ and hence $f^{-1}((a, b))$ is the preimage of (a, b) under $\sum_{n=1}^{[b+1]} \varphi_n$ (a continuous map) which is open.
- $f^{-1}(C)$ is compact for any compact $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}$: Since C is closed and bounded, $f^{-1}(C)$ is closed and contained within some K_N (compact), and hence $f^{-1}(C)$ is compact (closed subspace of a compact space). \square

Take K_n and f from Lemma 2, and denote $R_n = K_n \setminus \text{int}(K_{n-1})$ and $U_n = \text{int}(K_{n+1}) \setminus K_{n-2}$. By Urysohn's Lemma again, construct $\rho_n : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $\rho_n(R_n) \equiv 1, \rho_n(X \setminus U_n) \equiv 0$.

Since $D_n = K_{n+1} \setminus \text{int}(K_{n-2})$ is compact and metrizable (normal and 2nd countable), there exists a cts closed inj $f_n : D_n \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2m+1}$. Then define $\psi_n : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2m+1}, \psi : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{4m+3}$ as

$$\psi_n(x) = \begin{cases} \rho_n(x)f_n(x) & x \in U_n \\ \mathbf{0} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \psi(x) = \left(\sum_{\text{even } n} \psi_n(x), \sum_{\text{odd } n} \psi_n(x), f(x) \right).$$

ψ is injective (Exercise: $f(x) = f(y) \implies x, y \in R_\ell$, and $\sum_{i=2\ell} \psi_i(x) = \psi_\ell(x) = f_\ell(x) = f_\ell(y) \implies x = y$) and closed (for any compact $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^N$, $\psi^{-1}(K)$ is closed and contained within the compact $f^{-1}(\pi_N(K))$). Thus ψ embeds X into \mathbb{R}^{4m+3} . \blacksquare

15 Homotopies

From now on, assume all ‘maps’ are continuous.

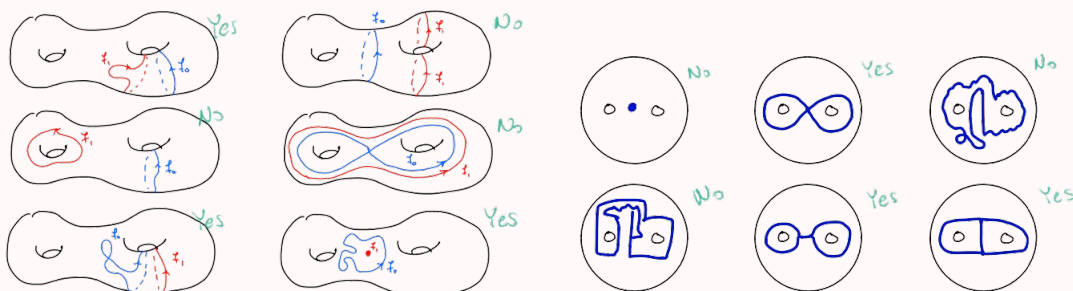
Definition 15.1.

1. Given $f_0, f_1 : X \rightarrow Y$, a **homotopy** from f_0 to f_1 is $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ such that $f_0(x) = H(x, 0)$, $f_1(x) = H(x, 1)$. We sometimes write $H(x, t) = f_t(x)$. If such homotopy exists, we say f_0, f_1 are **homotopic** ($f_0 \simeq f_1$).
2. A **homotopy relative to $A \subseteq X$** (homotopy rel A) is a homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ such that $H(a, t) = H(a, 0)$ for all $a \in A$.
3. A **reparameterization** of $\alpha : I \rightarrow X$ is a map $\beta : I \rightarrow X$ such that $\beta = \alpha \circ r$ where $r : I \rightarrow I$ satisfies $r(0) = 0, r(1) = 1$.
4. X, Y are **homotopy equivalent** ($X \simeq Y$) if there exists $f : X \rightarrow Y, g : Y \rightarrow X$ (called homotopy equivalences) such that $f \circ g \simeq \mathbf{1}_Y$ and $g \circ f \simeq \mathbf{1}_X$.
5. X is **contractible** if $X \simeq \text{point}$. $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is **nullhomotopic** if $f \simeq \text{constant}$.
6. A **retraction** of X onto $A \subseteq X$ is a map $r : X \rightarrow X$ with $r|_A = \mathbf{1}_A, r(X) = A$. If it exists, A is a **retract** of X .
7. A **deformation retraction** of X onto $A \subseteq X$ is a homotopy rel A from the identity on X to a retraction of X onto A . If it exists, A is a **deformation retract** of X .

Example 15.1.

(L) Which paths $f : S^1 \rightarrow T^2 \# T^2$ are homotopic?

(R) $D^2 \setminus \{x_0, x_1\}$ deformation retracts to which blue sets?



Remark.

1. If β is a reparam of α then $\alpha \simeq \beta \text{ rel } \{0, 1\}$.
2. $X \cong Y \implies X \simeq Y$ but not converse, e.g. Möbius band $\simeq S^1 \simeq \text{Band } S^1 \times I$.
3. *Fact:* $X \simeq Y \iff \exists Z$ that deformation retracts to both X and Y .

16 CW Complexes

Definition 16.1. A *CW complex / cell complex* is a space X built as such:

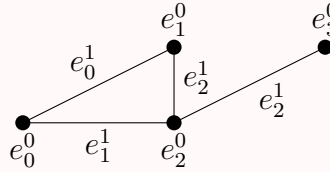
1. Start with a discrete set X^0 , whose points are **0-cells**.
2. Let D_α^n be n -balls (with $\partial D_\alpha^n = S_\alpha^{n-1}$). Inductively, form the **n -skeleton** X^n as the quotient space of $X^{n-1} \sqcup_\alpha D_\alpha^n$ by identifying $x \sim \varphi_\alpha(x)$ where $\varphi_\alpha : \partial D_\alpha^n \rightarrow X^{n-1}$ are the **attaching maps**. This makes $X^n = X^{n-1} \sqcup_\alpha \text{int}(D_\alpha^n)$ as a set. The $e_\alpha^n = \text{int}(D_\alpha^n)$ are called **n -cells**.
3. One can stop after finite n , setting $X = X^n$. Or one can set $X = \bigcup_{n=0}^\infty X^n$, giving it the *weak topology*: $U \subseteq X$ is open $\iff U \cap X^n$ is open in X^n for all n .

The **characteristic map** of a cell e_α^n is the map

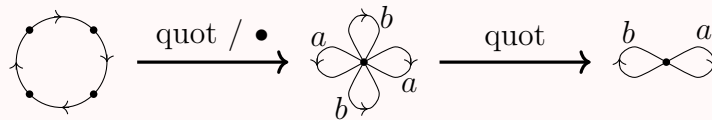
$$\Phi_\alpha : D_\alpha^n \hookrightarrow X^{n-1} \sqcup_\beta D_\beta^n \xrightarrow{\text{quot}} X^n \hookrightarrow X$$

Example 16.1.

1. A 1-dim CW complex is a **graph**, whose 0-cells are **nodes** and 1-cells are **edges**.



2. $X = T^2$ is a CW complex, with $X^0 = \{e_0^0\}$, $X_1 = X^0 \sqcup e_a^0 \sqcup e_b^0$ where $\varphi_a \equiv \varphi_b \equiv e_0^0$ being constant, and $X^2 = X^1 \sqcup e^2$ with attaching map $\varphi : S^1 \rightarrow X^1$ given by



Note: If we swap the direction of two adjacent leaves in the middle step, we get a **Klein bottle**. Attaching maps matter!

3. The n -sphere S^n is a cell complex with two cells e^0 and e^n , with the attaching map $S^{n-1} \rightarrow e^0$. Or, we can inductively attach two n -cells to the equator S^{n-1} .
4. $\mathbb{RP}^n \cong S^n/(v \sim -v) \cong D^n/(v \sim -v : v \in \partial D^n)$ is a cell complex by attaching an n -cell to \mathbb{RP}^{n-1} via the map $S^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^{n-1}$. We can also have $\mathbb{RP}^\infty = \bigcup_n \mathbb{RP}^n$.

Definition 16.2. A *subcomplex* of a CW complex X is a closed subspace $A \subseteq X$ that is a union of cells of X . The pair (X, A) is a **CW pair**.

Example 16.2.

1. $\mathbb{RP}^k \subseteq \mathbb{RP}^n$ is a subcomplex ($k \leq n$).
2. $S^k \subseteq S^n$ is not a subcomplex with the two-cell structure, but is a subcomplex using the recursive CW structure.

Theorem 16.1.

- If X, Y are cell complexes, then $X \times Y$ is a cell complex, whose cells are $e_\alpha^m \times e_\beta^n$ where e_α^m, e_β^n are cells of X, Y respectively.
- If (X, A) is a CW pair, then the quotient space X/A is a cell complex, whose cells are the cells of $X \setminus A$, and one new 0-cell: the image of A in X/A .

Definition 16.3. $A \subseteq X$ has the *homotopy extension property* if given any map $f_0 : X \rightarrow Y$ and a homotopy $f_t|_A : A \rightarrow Y$ of $f_0|_A$, we can extend $f_t|_A$ to a homotopy f_t on X . Equivalently, given any maps $H_1 : X \times \{0\} \rightarrow Y$ and $H_2 : A \times I \rightarrow Y$ that agree on $A \times \{0\}$, there exists a map $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ such that H agrees with both H_1, H_2 where their domains meet.

Theorem 16.2. $A \subseteq X$ has the homotopy extension property if and only if

$$X \times \{0\} \cup A \times [0, 1] \text{ is a retract of } X \times [0, 1].$$

Proof. Let $Z = X \times \{0\} \cup A \times [0, 1]$.

- If $A \subseteq X$ has h.e.p then given the maps $H_1 : X \times \{0\} \rightarrow Z$ and $H_2 : A \times I \rightarrow Z$ with

$$H_1(x, 0) = (x, 0) \quad \text{and} \quad H_2(a, t) = (a, t)$$

we can get an extension $H : X \times I \rightarrow Z$ constant on Z . Hence H is the retraction.

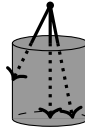
- The converse is easy if we assume A is closed. Say $r : X \times I \rightarrow Z$ is a retraction. Given any H_1, H_2 as in the definition, we can combine them via the Pasting Lemma to get $H_3 : Z \rightarrow Y$. Then $H_3 \circ r : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ is the required homotopy. For the full proof where A is not necessarily closed, see appendix of [Hatcher]. ■

Theorem 16.3. If (X, A) is a CW pair, A has the homotopy extension property.

Proof. To prove $X \times \{0\} \cup A \times I$ is a retract of $X \times I$, we first prove

Lemma. $D^n \times \{0\} \cup \partial D^n \times I$ is a deformation retract of $D^n \times I$.

Proof. Consider radial projection r from $(0, 2) \in D^n \times \mathbb{R}$:



Then $f_t = t \cdot r + (1 - t) \cdot \mathbf{1}$ is a deformation retract. □

Applying the deformation retraction to every D^n attached to X^{n-1} that is not in A^n , we get a deformation retraction H_n from $X^n \times I$ onto $X^n \times \{0\} \cup (X^{n-1} \cup A^n) \times I$. Note that concatenating adjacent H_n and H_{n+1} gives a deformation retraction

$$\begin{aligned} X^{n+1} \times I &\xrightarrow{H_{n+1}} X^{n+1} \times \{0\} \cup (X^n \cup A^{n+1}) \times I \\ &\xrightarrow{H_n} X^{n+1} \times \{0\} \cup ((X^n \times \{0\} \cup (X^{n-1} \cup A^n) \times I) \cup (A^{n+1} \times I)) \\ &= X^{n+1} \times \{0\} \cup (X^{n-1} \cup A^{n+1}) \times I \end{aligned}$$

and thus by concatenating all H_0, H_1, \dots into $[1/4, 1/2], [1/8, 1/4], \dots$ we get a deformation retract from $X \times I$ onto $X \times \{0\} \cup A \times I$. (In the infinite case, there is no continuity problem at $t = 0$ since X is given the weak topology). ■

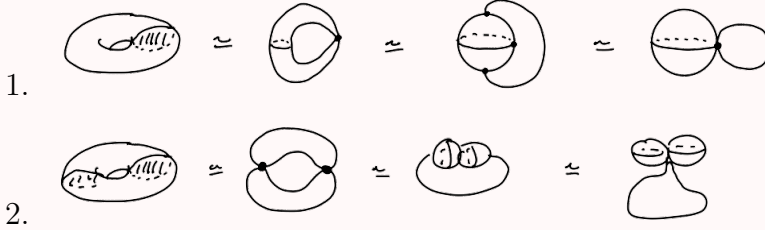
Theorem 16.4. If (X, A) is a CW pair and A is contractible, then the quotient map $X \twoheadrightarrow X/A$ is a homotopy equivalence.

Proof. Let $f_t : X \rightarrow X$ be a homotopy extension of the contraction of A with $f_0 = \mathbf{1}_X$. Since $f_t(A) \subseteq A$ and $f_1(A) = \text{pt}$, we can construct well-defined maps \bar{f}_t, g satisfying

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{f_t} & X \\ q \downarrow & & \downarrow q \\ X/A & \xrightarrow{\bar{f}_t} & X/A \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{f_1} & X \\ q \downarrow & \nearrow g & \\ X/A & & \end{array}$$

Then $g \circ q = \underline{f_1} \simeq \underline{f_0} = \mathbf{1}_X$ and $q(g([x])) = q(g(q(x))) = q(f_1(x)) = \overline{f_1}(q(x)) = \overline{f_1}([x])$ and hence $q \circ g = \overline{f_1} \simeq \overline{f_0} = \mathbf{1}_{X/A}$, so g, q are homotopy equivalences.

Example 16.3.



17 Fundamental Groups

Definition 17.1.

1. A **path** on X is $\alpha : I \rightarrow X$. Define $\Omega_{x_0}(X) = \{\text{path } \alpha \mid \alpha(0) = \alpha(1) = x_0\}$.
2. Given paths $\alpha, \beta \in \Omega_{x_0}(X)$, define the **concatenation** $\alpha \cdot \beta \in \Omega_{x_0}(X)$ by

$$(\alpha \cdot \beta)(s) = \begin{cases} \alpha(2s) & 0 \leq s \leq 0.5 \\ \beta(2s - 1) & 0.5 \leq s \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

3. Given a path $\gamma \in \Omega_{x_0}(X)$, define the **reversed path** $\overline{\gamma}(t) = \gamma(1 - t)$.
4. The **fundamental group** of X based at x_0 is the group

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) = \Omega_{x_0}(X) / \sim$$

where $\alpha \sim \beta \Leftrightarrow \alpha \simeq \beta \text{ rel } \{0, 1\}$, with group law $[\alpha] \cdot [\beta] = [\alpha \cdot \beta]$ and $[\gamma]^{-1} = [\overline{\gamma}]$.

Theorem 17.1. Let γ be a path from x_0 to x_1 . The map $\Phi_\gamma : \pi_1(X, x_1) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$ by $\Phi([\alpha]) = [\gamma \cdot \alpha \cdot \overline{\gamma}]$ is an isomorphism.

Corollary. If X is path-connected, $\pi_1(X, x)$ are isomorphic over all $x \in X$ (say $\pi_1(X)$).

Theorem 17.2. If X, Y are path-connected, $\pi_1(X \times Y) = \pi_1(X) \times \pi_1(Y)$.

Definition 17.2. X is **simply connected** if X is path-connected and $\pi_1(X)$ is trivial.

Definition 17.3.

1. Write $f : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ if $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $f(x_0) = y_0$.
2. The **homomorphism induced** by $f : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ is the homomorphism

$$f_* : \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, y_0)$$

given by $f_*([\alpha]) = [f \circ \alpha]$.

Theorem 17.3.

1. $(f \circ g)_* = f_* \circ g_*$.
2. If $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ are homotopic rel x_0 , then $f_* = g_*$.
3. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy equivalence, then f_* is an isomorphism.

Theorem 17.4. $\pi_1(S^1) = \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. Let $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$ given by $p(\lambda) = (\cos(2\pi\lambda), \sin(2\pi\lambda))$. The following two facts will be proven in the Covering Spaces chapter.

1. Given any path γ of S^1 , there exists a unique path $\tilde{\gamma}$ of \mathbb{R} such that $\tilde{\gamma}(0) = 0$ and $\gamma = p \circ \tilde{\gamma}$.
2. Given any homotopy $f_t : I \rightarrow S^1$, there exists a unique homotopy $\tilde{f}_t : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f_t = p \circ \tilde{f}_t$.

The map $\Phi([\gamma]) = \tilde{\gamma}(1) \in \mathbb{Z}$ is then a well-defined isomorphism. ■

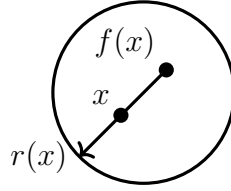
Theorem 17.5. If A is a retract of X , then the inclusion $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ induces an injective homomorphism i_* . If A is a deformation retract of X , then i_* is an isomorphism.

Proof. Let $r : X \rightarrow A$ be a retraction. Then $r \circ i = \mathbf{1} \implies r_* \circ i_* = \mathbf{1} \implies i_*$ injective. If there is a deformation retraction, then i is a homotopy equivalence and hence i_* is an isomorphism. ■

Theorem 17.6. (Brouwer's Fixed Point Theorem)

$f : D^2 \rightarrow D^2 \implies f(x) = x$ for some $x \in D^2$.

Proof. Otherwise, the map r defined by



is a retract from D^2 to S^1 , so $i : S^1 \rightarrow D^2$ induces an injective $i_* : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \{0\}$, contradiction. ■

Theorem 17.7. (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra)

Every complex polynomial of positive degree has a root.

Proof. Let $f(x) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0$ where $n > 0$. Assume f has no roots. Then

$$\gamma_t(s) = \frac{f(t \cdot e^{2\pi i s})}{|f(t \cdot e^{2\pi i s})|}$$

form a homotopy between γ_1 and the trivial loop γ_0 . Hence $[\gamma_1] = 0 \in \mathbb{Z}$. However,

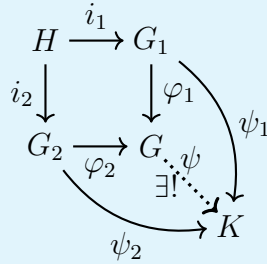
$$\delta_t(s) = \frac{F_t(e^{2\pi i s})}{|F_t(e^{2\pi i s})|}$$

with $F_t(x) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}t + \cdots + a_0t^n$ is a homotopy between $\delta_1 = \gamma_1$ and the path $\delta_0(s) = e^{2\pi i n s}$ that loops around the circle $n > 0$ times, and hence $[\gamma_1] = n \neq 0$. ■

18 Van Kampen's Theorem

Definition 18.1. Let $i_1 : H \hookrightarrow G_1$ and $i_2 : H \hookrightarrow G_2$ be homomorphisms. The **amalgamated free product** of G_1 and G_2 along H , denoted as $G = G_1 *_H G_2$, is the unique group (up to isomorphism) that satisfies

- (1) There exists homomorphisms $\varphi_i : G_i \rightarrow G$ with $\varphi_1 \circ i_1 = \varphi_2 \circ i_2$.
- (2) For any other homomorphisms $\psi_i : G_i \rightarrow K$ with $\psi_1 \circ i_1 = \psi_2 \circ i_2$, there exists a unique homomorphism $\psi : G \rightarrow K$ with $\psi \circ \varphi_i = \psi_i$.



If $H = \{0\}$, then $G_1 * G_2 = G_1 *_H G_2$ is just the **free product** of G_1 and G_2 .

Remark.

1. Such a group always exists, e.g. if $G_i = \langle S_i \mid R_i \rangle$ then

$$G_1 *_H G_2 = \langle S_1 \sqcup S_2 \mid R_1 \cup R_2 \cup \{i_1(h)i_2(h^{-1}) : h \in H\} \rangle.$$

Uniqueness follows from the uniqueness of ψ between two such possible groups.

2. Think of $G_1 *_H G_2$ by first treating H as a common subgroup of G_1, G_2 , then construct all possible words of finite length with letters from $G_1 \cup G_2$. When two adjacent letters in a word both come from the same G_i , or if they both belong to H , we can further simplify the word.

Example 18.1.

1. The free group with n letters is simply $F_n = \underbrace{\mathbb{Z} * \cdots * \mathbb{Z}}_n$.
2. The free product of $\mathbb{Z}_2 = \{1, a, a^2 = 1\}$ and itself $\mathbb{Z}_2 = \{1, b, b^2 = 1\}$ is

$$\mathbb{Z}_2 * \mathbb{Z}_2 = \{1, a, b, ab, ba, aba, bab, \dots\}$$

(This is the semi-direct product of $\mathbb{Z} = \langle c := ab \rangle, \mathbb{Z}_2 = \langle a \rangle$ with $ac = c^{-1}a$, sometimes called the *infinite dihedral group*.)

3. If we embed $H = \mathbb{Z}_2$ into the two \mathbb{Z}_2 's above by $h \mapsto a$ and $h \mapsto b$, then the free product collapses into

$$\mathbb{Z}_2 *_H \mathbb{Z}_2 = \{1, h, h^2 = 1\} = \mathbb{Z}_2$$

Theorem 18.1. (Van Kampen's Theorem, two-set version)

Suppose $X = U \cup V$ where $U, V, U \cap V$ are open and path-connected, then for $x_0 \in U \cap V$ we have $\pi_1(X, x_0) = \pi_1(U, x_0) *_{\pi_1(U \cap V, x_0)} \pi_1(V, x_0)$ (with $\pi_1(U \cap V, x_0) \hookrightarrow \pi_1(U, x_0)$ and $\pi_1(U \cap V, x_0) \hookrightarrow \pi_1(V, x_0)$ being the maps induced by the inclusions $U \cap V \hookrightarrow U$ and $U \cap V \hookrightarrow V$ respectively).

Example 18.2. $\pi_1(S^n) = \{0\}$ for $n \geq 2$ (*high-dim spheres are simply connected*).

S^n is the union of open neighborhoods of the north and south hemisphere, intersecting at the equator $\simeq S^{n-1}$. Hence $\pi_1(S^n) = \pi_1(e^n) *_{\pi_1(S^{n-1})} \pi_1(e^n) = \{0\} *_{\pi_1(S^{n-1})} \{0\} = \{0\}$.

Definition 18.2. Suppose $x_0 \in X, y_0 \in Y$. The **wedge sum** $(X, x_0) \vee (Y, y_0)$ is the space $(X \sqcup Y)/\{x_0, y_0\}$ (gluing X and Y together at x_0, y_0). Lazy: $X \vee Y$.

Example 18.3. $S^1 \vee S^1$ is the figure-eight, homemorphic to the shape ∞ .

Theorem 18.2. If \exists neighborhoods $x_0 \in U, y_0 \in V$ in X, Y such that $\{x_0\}, \{y_0\}$ are deformation retracts of U, V respectively, then $\pi_1(X \vee Y) = \pi_1(X) \times \pi_1(Y)$.

Proof. Let $H_t : U \rightarrow U, G_t : V \rightarrow V$ be deformation retracts onto x_0, y_0 respectively.

- We can define $\overline{G}_t : X \vee V \rightarrow X \vee V$ by

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X \sqcup V & \xrightarrow{1 \sqcup G_t} & X \sqcup V \\ q \downarrow & & \downarrow q \\ X \vee V & \xrightarrow{\overline{G}_t} & X \vee V \end{array}$$

which is a deformation retraction of $X \vee V$ onto $X \vee \{y_0\} \cong X$. Hence $X \vee V$ deformation retracts onto X and (similarly) $U \vee Y$ deformation retracts onto Y .

- We claim that $U \vee V \subseteq X \vee Y$ is contractible. The map $F_t : U \vee V \rightarrow U \vee V$ defined by

$$\begin{array}{ccc} U \sqcup V & \xrightarrow{H_t \sqcup G_t} & U \sqcup V \\ q \downarrow & & \downarrow q \\ U \vee V & \xrightarrow{F_t} & U \vee V \end{array}$$

is a deformation retraction onto $x_0 \in U \vee V$.

- By Van Kampen, $\pi_1(X \vee Y) = \pi_1(X \vee V) *_{\pi_1(U \vee V)} \pi_1(U \vee Y) = \pi_1(X) * \pi_1(Y)$. ■

Corollary 18.2. $\pi_1(\bigvee_{i=1}^n S^1) = F_n$.

Theorem 18.3. If Γ is a connected graph, then $\pi_1(\Gamma) = F_{1-\chi(\Gamma)}$ where $\chi(\Gamma) = |V(\Gamma)| - |E(\Gamma)|$ is the **Euler characteristic** of Γ .

Proof. Let T be a spanning tree of Γ , which is contractible. Then by collapsing T , the graph $\Gamma/T \simeq \Gamma$ is a wedge sum of $|E(\Gamma - T)|$ circles. Hence $\pi_1(\Gamma) = F_n$ where

$$n = |E(\Gamma)| - |E(T)| = |E(\Gamma)| - (|V(T)| - 1) = 1 - \chi(T). \quad \blacksquare$$

Theorem 18.4. If $i : H \rightarrow G = \langle S \mid R \rangle$, then $G *_H \{0\} = \langle S \mid R \cup i(H) \rangle$

Example 18.4. We can compute $\pi_1(T^2)$ as follows:

$$\pi_1(T^2) = \pi_1(U) *_{\pi_1(U \cap V)} \pi_1(V) = \langle a, b \rangle *_{\mathbb{Z}} \{0\} = \langle a, b \mid aba^{-1}b^{-1} \rangle = \mathbb{Z}^2.$$

Fundamental Group of CW Complexes

Theorem 18.5.

1. Let X^2 be a CW complex obtained from X^1 by attaching 2-cells e_α^2 via $\varphi_\alpha : \partial D_\alpha^2 \rightarrow X^1$. For each α , let γ_α be a path on X^1 from x_0 to a point $z_\alpha \in \partial D_\alpha^2$.

$$\pi_1(X^2, x_0) = \pi_1(X^1, x_0) / N$$

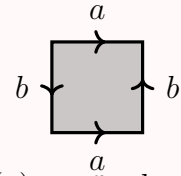
where N is the normal closure of the subgroup of $\pi_1(X^1, x_0)$ generated by paths $[\gamma_\alpha \cdot \varphi_\alpha \cdot \overline{\gamma}_\alpha]$ (treating φ_α as a closed path based at z_α).

2. Attaching n -cells ($n \geq 3$) does not change the fundamental group, i.e.

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) = \pi_1(X^2, x_0)$$

Example 18.5.

1. For the Klein bottle K , we have $\pi_1(K) = \langle a, b \rangle / N$ where N is generated by $aba^{-1}b$, so $\pi_1(K) = \langle a, b \mid aba^{-1}b \rangle$.

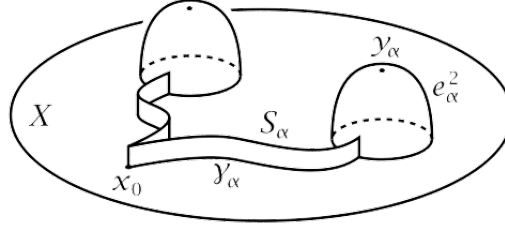


2. If X is obtained by attaching a single 2-cell to a circle \mathbb{C}^\times via $\varphi(z) = z^n$, then $\pi_1(X) = \langle x \mid x^n \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_n$. In particular, $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2) = \mathbb{Z}_2$.

Corollary 18.5. Given any group G , there exists a space X with $\pi_1(X) = G$.

Proof. Write $G = \langle S \mid R \rangle$ and attach 2-cells (according to R) to the wedge sum $\bigvee_{s \in S} S_s^1$. ■

Proof of Theorem 18.5. First expand X^2 by bulging up the e_α^2 's and then adding strips $S_\alpha = I \times I$ along each γ_α . Pick a $y_\alpha \in e_\alpha^2$ that is not on the strip. Call this larger space Z .



We then slice this space along half the height of the S_α 's, and consider an open neighborhood of the top and bottom parts U, V respectively (e.g. $U = Z \setminus X^1$ and $V = Z \setminus \bigcup_\alpha \{y_\alpha\}$). U is contractible while V deformation retracts to X^1 . Hence

$$\pi_1(X^2, x_0) = \pi_1(Z, x_0) = \pi_1(U, x_0) *_{\pi_1(U \cap V, x_0)} \pi_1(V, x_0) = \{0\} *_{\pi_1(U \cap V, x_0)} \pi_1(X^1, x_0).$$

So it remains to show that $\pi_1(U \cap V, x_0)$ is generated by the $[\gamma_\alpha \cdot \varphi_\alpha \cdot \overline{\gamma_\alpha}]$: We can apply Van Kampen again on $U \cap V$ by covering it with the open sets $A_\alpha = U \cap V \setminus \bigcup_{\beta \neq \alpha} D_\beta^2$ which deformation retract to a circle and hence is generated by $\gamma_\alpha \cdot \varphi_\alpha \cdot \overline{\gamma_\alpha}$. This shows (1).

To show (2), we perform the same procedure. However, in the last step, the A_α deformation retract to spheres, which are simply connected. The finite X^n case follows from induction. If X is infinite-dimensional, any closed loop at x_0 is compact and hence is contained in some finite X^n anyway. ■

Definition 18.3.

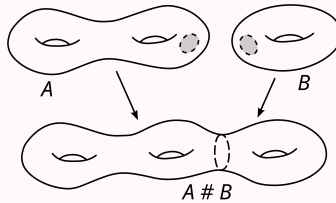
1. Let Σ, Σ' be surfaces. The **connect sum**, $\Sigma \# \Sigma'$ is defined by

$$(\Sigma \setminus \text{int}(D^2)) \sqcup (\Sigma' \setminus \text{int}(D^2)) / \sim$$

where \sim identifies boundary points.

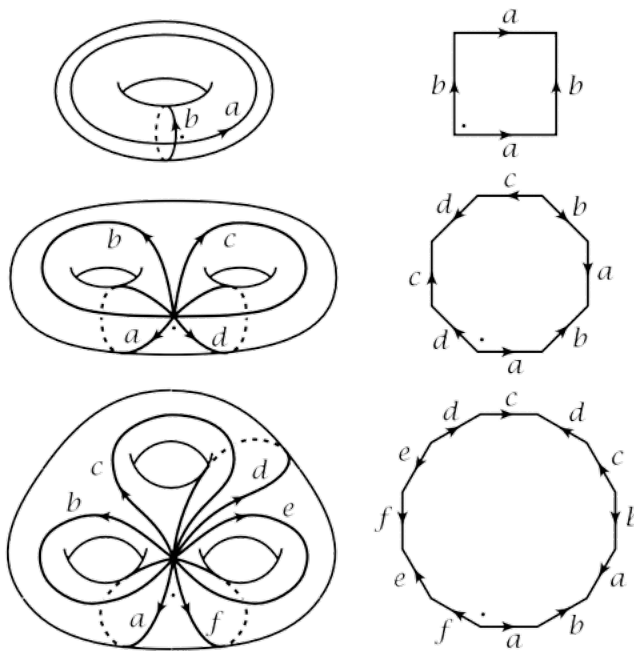
2. The **surface of genus g** is $\Sigma_g = \underbrace{T^2 \# \cdots \# T^2}_n \# S^2$ (The g -holed torus).

Example 18.6.



Theorem 18.6. $\pi_1(\Sigma_g) = \langle a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2, \dots, a_g, b_g \mid a_1 b_1 a_1^{-1} b_1^{-1} \dots a_g b_g a_g^{-1} b_g^{-1} \rangle$

Diagram.



19 Covering Spaces

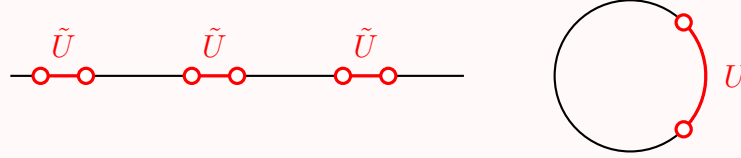
Definition 19.1.

1. A **covering space** of X is a space \tilde{X} with a map $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ such that every $x \in X$ admits a neighborhood U such that $f^{-1}(U) = \bigsqcup_{\alpha} \tilde{U}_{\alpha}$ (a disjoint union of open sets) where each $p|_{\tilde{U}_{\alpha}}$ is a homeomorphism. We say that U is **evenly covered** by the **sheets** \tilde{U}_{α} .
2. A **lift** of a map $f : Y \rightarrow X$ is a map $\tilde{f} : Y \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ with $f = p \circ \tilde{f}$.

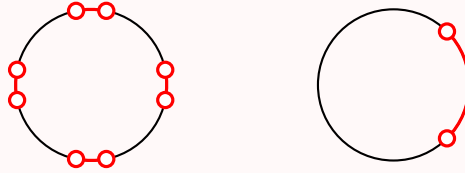
$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & \tilde{f} \nearrow & \tilde{X} \\
 Y & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\
 & & \downarrow p
 \end{array}$$

Example 19.1.

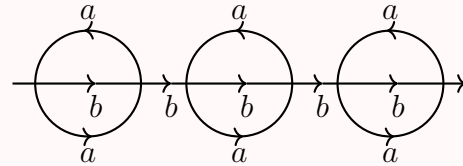
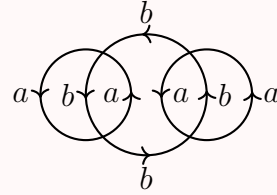
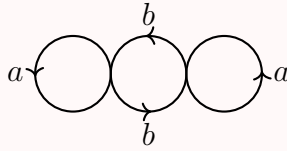
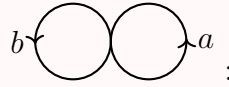
1. $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1, p(\lambda) = e^{2\pi i \lambda}$.



2. $p_n : S^1 \rightarrow S^1, p(z) = z^n$.



3. A few covering spaces of $S^1 \vee S^1$, as



Theorem 19.1. Let Y be a connected space and $f : Y \rightarrow X$. If two lifts $\tilde{f}_1, \tilde{f}_2 : Y \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ agree at some point $y \in Y$, then $\tilde{f}_1 = \tilde{f}_2$.

Proof. Let U be a neighborhood of $f(y)$ that is evenly covered, by sheets \tilde{U}_α .

- $\{z \in Y : \tilde{f}_1(z) = \tilde{f}_2(z)\}$ is open: Suppose $\tilde{f}_1(z) = \tilde{f}_2(z) \in \tilde{U}_\beta$, then by continuity there exists a neighborhood $z \in V$ with $\tilde{f}_1(V), \tilde{f}_2(V) \subseteq \tilde{U}_\beta$. Then

$$\tilde{f}_1|_V = p|_{\tilde{U}_\beta}^{-1} \circ p|_{\tilde{U}_\beta} \circ \tilde{f}_1|_V = p|_{\tilde{U}_\beta}^{-1} \circ f|_V = \tilde{f}_2|_V.$$

- $\{z \in Y : \tilde{f}_1(z) = \tilde{f}_2(z)\}$ is closed: $\tilde{f}_1(z) \neq \tilde{f}_2(z) \implies \tilde{f}_1(z) \in \tilde{U}_{\beta_1}, \tilde{f}_2(z) \in \tilde{U}_{\beta_2} \ (\beta_1 \neq \beta_2)$. By continuity there exists a neighborhood $z \in V$ with $\tilde{f}_i(V) \subseteq \tilde{U}_{\beta_i}$.

Since Y is connected, $Y = \{z \in Y : \tilde{f}_1(z) = \tilde{f}_2(z)\}$. ■

Theorem 19.2. (Homotopy Lifting Property)

Given a homotopy $f_t : Y \rightarrow X$ and a lift $\tilde{f}_0 : Y \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ of f_0 , there exists a unique homotopy $\tilde{f}_t : Y \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ of f_t that agrees with \tilde{f}_0 .

Remark. The two facts used in Theorem 17.4 follow from the case $Y = \text{pt}$ and $Y = I$.

Proof. Use the $H(x, t) = f_t(x)$ notation.

Lemma. For any $y \in Y$, there exists open $y \in V$ and $0 = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = 1$ such that $H(V \times [t_i, t_{i+1}]) \subseteq U_i$ for all i .

Proof. Fix y . For each $t \in I$ there exists a neighborhood U_t of $H(y, t)$ that is evenly covered, and there exists a basis $V_t \times W_t \subseteq Y \times I$ with $(y, t) \in V_t \times W_t \subseteq H^{-1}(U_t)$. Since the W_t cover I which is compact, we have a finite subcover W_{s_0}, \dots, W_{s_m} of I and hence we can take $V = V_{s_0} \cap \dots \cap V_{s_m}$ and t_i the endpoints of all W_{s_k} .

We first prove the theorem by fixing y and restricting f_t on a neighborhood $V \subseteq Y$. By induction, suppose \tilde{H} has been constructed over $V \times [0, t_i]$. Let $U \supseteq H(V \times [t_i, t_{i+1}])$ be evenly covered by sheets \tilde{U}_α . Let $\tilde{H}(y, t_i) \in \tilde{U}_\beta$, then by the pasting lemma we can construct $\tilde{H}|_{V' \times [0, t_i]}$, where V' is a smaller open set than V by restricting to the pre-image within \tilde{U}_β . Relabelling V' as V , after a finite number of steps, we constructed \tilde{f}_t on a neighborhood V of y . Note that such \tilde{f}_t is unique by the previous Theorem on the common point (v, t) for each $v \in V$.

To construct \tilde{f}_t on the entire Y , we construct a unique \tilde{f} on a neighborhood V_y at every $y \in Y$. By uniqueness on each $\{y\} \times I$, the \tilde{f} 's agree on the overlaps. By the same uniqueness, the entire \tilde{f} is unique. ■

Theorem 19.3. Let $p_* : \pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$ be induced by p .

1. p_* is injective.
2. $\text{Im}(p_*) = \{[\alpha] \in \pi_1(X, x_0) : \tilde{\alpha}(0) = \tilde{\alpha}(1) = \tilde{x}_0\}$.

Proof. Suppose $p_*([\beta]) = 0$. Then $p \circ \beta \simeq \text{constant rel } \{0, 1\}$. This nullhomotopy has a unique lift in \tilde{X} , which gives a nullhomotopy for β , i.e. $[\beta] = 0$. This proves (1).

For (2), we have $p_*([\beta]) = [p \circ \beta] = [\tilde{\beta}]$. ■

Theorem 19.4. If X, \tilde{X} are path-connected, then $|p^{-1}(x_0)| = [\pi_1(X, x_0) : \text{Im}(p_*)]$ (There is a bijection between each preimage of x_0 and each coset of $\text{Im}(p_*)$).

Definition 19.2. A space Y is **locally path-connected** if for all $y \in Y$ and any neighborhood $y \in U$, there exists a neighborhood $y \in V \subseteq U$ that is path-connected.

Theorem 19.5. Say $f : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ where Y is path-connn and locally path-connn.

$$\exists \tilde{f} : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) \iff \text{Im}(f_*) \subseteq \text{Im}(p_*)$$

Proof. For (\Rightarrow) , $f = p \circ \tilde{f} \implies f_* = p_* \circ \tilde{f}_*$. For (\Leftarrow) , suppose $\text{Im}(f_*) \subseteq \text{Im}(p_*)$. Pick for each $y \in Y$ a path γ_y from y_0 to y , then define $\tilde{f}(y) = \tilde{g}_y(1)$ where $g_y = f \circ \gamma_y$ and $\tilde{g}_y(0) = \tilde{x}_0$.

- \tilde{f} is well-defined: Let γ_1, γ_2 be two paths from y_0 to y . Then $[\gamma_1 \cdot \overline{\gamma_2}] \in \pi_1(Y, y_0)$ and hence exists $[\alpha] \in \pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0)$ with $p \circ \alpha \simeq f \circ \gamma_1 \cdot \overline{\gamma_2} \text{ rel } \{0, 1\}$. This homotopy H_t has a unique lift \tilde{H}_t with $\tilde{H}_0 = \alpha$. Since $H_1 = (f \circ \gamma_1) \cdot (f \circ \gamma_2)$, by uniqueness if we have $g_1 = f \circ \gamma_1, g_2 = f \circ \gamma_2$ then $\tilde{H}_1 = \tilde{g}_1 \cdot \tilde{g}_2$, and thus $\tilde{g}_1(1) = \tilde{H}_1(0.5) = \tilde{g}_2(1)$.
- \tilde{f} is a lift: $p \circ \tilde{f}(y) = p \circ \tilde{g}_y(1) = g_y(1) = f(y)$.
- \tilde{f} is continuous: Let W be a neighborhood of $\tilde{f}(y)$. Let $f(y) \in U$ be evenly covered by \tilde{U}_α , and $\tilde{f}(y) \in \tilde{U}$. Since f is continuous, \exists neighborhood $y \in V'$ with $f(V') \subseteq p(\tilde{U} \cap W)$. By local path-connectedness, let $y \in V \subseteq V'$ be a path-connected neighborhood. Then any path from y_0 to y can be extended to a path from y_0 to any $z \in V$. This eventually shows $\tilde{f}(V) \subseteq \tilde{U} \cap W$. ■

Definition 19.3.

1. A space X is **locally contractible** if $\forall x \in X, \exists$ neighborhood $x \in U \simeq \text{pt}$.
2. A space X is **locally simply connected** if $\forall x \in X, \exists$ neighborhood $x \in U$ that is simply connected.
3. A space X is **semilocally simply connected** if for all $x \in X$ there exists a neighborhood $x \in U$ where $\pi_1(U, x) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x)$ is trivial.
4. X is **'nice'** if it is path-connn, locally path-connn and semilocally simply conn.
5. $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ is a **universal cover** of X if X is path-connn and \tilde{X} is simply conn.
6. Two covering spaces $p_i : \tilde{X}_i \rightarrow X$ are **isomorphic** if there exists a homeomorphism $\varphi : \tilde{X}_1 \rightarrow \tilde{X}_2$ with $p_2 \circ \varphi = p_1$.

Theorem 19.6. CW complexes are locally contractible and locally path-connected.

Theorem 19.7.

1. If X is nice, then X has a universal cover.
2. If X is nice, for any subgroup $H \subseteq \pi_1(X, x_0)$ there exists a covering space $p_H : \tilde{X}_H \rightarrow X$ such that $\text{Im}(p_{H*}) = H$.

Proof of (1). We use a Lemma and 5 steps.

Lemma. $\mathcal{B} = \{U \subseteq X : U \text{ open, path-conn, } \pi_1(U) \rightarrow \pi_1(X) \text{ trivial}\}$ is a basis for the topology of a nice X .

Proof. \mathcal{B} covers X since X is nice. Suppose $x \in U \cap V$ where $U, V \in \mathcal{B}$. Since X is locally path-conn, there exists path-connected $x \in W \subseteq U \cap V$, which means $\pi_1(W, x) \rightarrow \pi_1(U, x) \xrightarrow{\text{triv}} \pi_1(X, x) \implies W \in \mathcal{B}$. Hence \mathcal{B} is a basis. To prove the second part, given any open $x \in W$, choose open $x \in V$ via semilocal simply connectedness, then pick a open and path-connected $U \subseteq V \cap W$ via local path-connectedness. Then $U \in \mathcal{B}$ with $U \subseteq W$. ■

1. Define $\tilde{X} = \{[\gamma] \mid \gamma : I \rightarrow X, \gamma(0) = x_0\}$ with $[\gamma] = [\delta] \iff \gamma \simeq \delta \text{ rel } \{0, 1\}$. Define the covering map $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ by $p([\gamma]) = \gamma(1)$.
2. Define the topology on \tilde{X} as follows: Given $U \in \mathcal{B}$ and $[\gamma] \in \tilde{X}$ with $\gamma(1) \in U$, define

$$U_{[\gamma]} = \{[\gamma \cdot \eta] \mid \eta : I \rightarrow U \text{ with } \eta(0) = \gamma(1)\}$$

Then $\{U_{[\gamma]}\}_{[\gamma]}$ is a basis (Exercise; (*) Note that $[\delta] \in U_{[\gamma]} \implies U_{[\delta]} = U_{[\gamma]}$), and we generate the topology from it.

3. Claim: $p : U_{[\gamma]} \rightarrow U$ is a homeomorphism.

- Surjective: $U \text{ path-conn} \implies \forall x \in U, \exists \text{ path } \eta \text{ from } \gamma(1) \text{ to } x \implies p([\gamma \cdot \eta]) = x$.
- Injective: $p([\gamma \cdot \eta]) = p([\gamma \cdot \eta']) \implies \eta(1) = \eta'(1)$. Since $\pi_1(U) \rightarrow \pi_1(X)$ is trivial, $\eta \simeq \eta' \implies [\gamma \cdot \eta] = [\gamma \cdot \eta']$.
- Homeo: Note that $\{B \cap U\}_{B \in \mathcal{B}}$ and $\{B_{[\delta]} \cap U_{[\gamma]}\}_{B \in \mathcal{B}}$ are bases for U and $U_{[\gamma]}$ respectively, and (1) $p(B_{[\delta]} \cap U_{[\gamma]}) = B \cap U$; and (2) $p^{-1}(B \cap U) \cap U_{[\gamma]} = B_{[\delta]} \cap U_{[\gamma]}$ for any $[\delta] \in U_{[\gamma]}$ with $\delta(1) \in B$ since $B_{[\delta]} \subseteq U_{[\delta]} \stackrel{(*)}{=} U_{[\gamma]}$ and $p|_{U_{[\delta]}}$ is bijective.

4. p is a covering map: Given any $U \in \mathcal{B}$, $p^{-1}(U) = \bigcup_{[\gamma]} U_{[\gamma]}$ which is a disjoint union of equivalence classes due to (*).

5. \tilde{X} is simply connected: Let $[x_0]$ = class of constant paths. Given any $[\gamma] \in \tilde{X}$, the path $\gamma_t(s) = \gamma(\min(s, t))$ from $\gamma(0)$ to $\gamma(t)$ brings $[x_0]$ to $[\gamma]$, and thus \tilde{X} is path-connected. To show $\pi_1(\tilde{X}, [x_0]) = 0$, we show $\text{Im}(p_*) = \{0\}$:

$$[\alpha] \in \text{Im}(p_*) \implies [x_0] = \tilde{\alpha}(0) = \tilde{\alpha}(1) = [\alpha] \implies [\alpha] = 0. \quad \blacksquare$$

Proof of (2). Consider the equivalence relation \sim on the universal cover \tilde{X} defined by

$$[\gamma] \sim [\delta] \iff \gamma(1) = \delta(1) \text{ and } [\gamma \cdot \bar{\delta}] \in H.$$

Then $X_H = \tilde{X}/\sim$ is a covering space of X . To show $\text{Im}(p_{H*}) = H$: For any $[\alpha] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$, we have a lift $\tilde{\alpha} = \alpha_t$ from $[\tilde{x}_0]$ to $[\alpha]$, so

$$[\alpha] \in H \iff [\tilde{x}_0] \sim [\alpha] \iff \tilde{\alpha}(0) = \tilde{\alpha}(1) \iff [\alpha] \in \text{Im}(p_{H*})$$

Theorem 19.8. Let \tilde{X} be path-connected. Then $p_*\left(\pi_1\left(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0\right)\right)$ is conjugate to $p_*\left(\pi_1\left(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_1\right)\right)$ for any $\tilde{x}_0, \tilde{x}_1 \in p^{-1}(x_0)$.

Proof. Conjugate using any path from \tilde{x}_0 to \tilde{x}_1 . \blacksquare

Theorem 19.9. (Classification Theorem of Covering Spaces)

If X is nice, there is a bijective ***Galois correspondence*** between

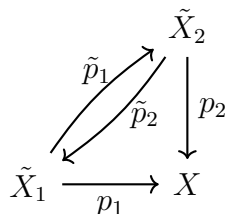
$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{conj. classes of} \\ \text{subgrps of } \pi_1(X, x_0) \end{array} \right\} \longleftrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{isom. classes of path-} \\ \text{conn. covers } \tilde{X} \rightarrow X \end{array} \right\}$$

Proof. We prove that $p_1 : \tilde{X}_1 \rightarrow X$ and $p_2 : \tilde{X}_2 \rightarrow X$ are isomorphic if and only if $\text{Im}(p_{1*})$ and $\text{Im}(p_{2*})$ are conjugate in $\pi_1(X)$.

- Assume $p_1 \cong p_2$. Then $\text{Im}(p_{1*}) = \text{Im}(p_{2*} \circ \varphi_*) = p_{2*}\left(\pi_1\left(\tilde{X}_2, \varphi(\tilde{x}_1)\right)\right)$ which is conjugate to $p_{2*}\left(\pi_1\left(\tilde{X}_2, \tilde{x}_2\right)\right)$ since $p_2 \circ \varphi(\tilde{x}_1) = p_1(\tilde{x}_1) = x_0 = p_2(\tilde{x}_2)$.
- Suppose $\text{Im}(p_{1*}) = [\alpha]^{-1}\text{Im}(p_{2*})[\alpha]$. Let $\tilde{\alpha} : I \rightarrow \tilde{X}_2$ be a lift of α based at \tilde{x}_2 . Then

$$p_{2*}\left(\pi_1\left(\tilde{X}_2, \tilde{\alpha}(1)\right)\right) = p_{1*}\left(\pi_1\left(\tilde{X}_1, \tilde{x}_1\right)\right)$$

so there exists lifts $\tilde{p}_1 : \left(\tilde{X}_1, \tilde{x}_1\right) \rightarrow \left(\tilde{X}_2, \tilde{\alpha}(1)\right), \tilde{p}_1 : \left(\tilde{X}_2, \tilde{\alpha}(1)\right) \rightarrow \left(\tilde{X}_1, \tilde{x}_1\right)$ with



Since $\tilde{p}_2 \circ \tilde{p}_1$ and $\mathbf{1}$ agree at \tilde{x}_1 and are both lifts of $p_1 : \tilde{X}_1 \rightarrow X$ to \tilde{X}_1 , we have $\tilde{p}_2 \circ \tilde{p}_1 = \mathbf{1}$ and similarly $\tilde{p}_1 \circ \tilde{p}_2 = \mathbf{1}$. Thus $p_1 \cong p_2$. ■

20 Regular Coverings

Definition 20.1.

1. A **deck transformation** is a self-isomorphism $\tilde{X} \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ of a covering space $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$. The group of deck transformations is denoted $\text{Aut}(\tilde{X})$.
2. A covering space is **regular** if for each $x \in X$ and $\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}' \in p^{-1}(x)$, there exists $\varphi \in \text{Aut}(\tilde{X})$ with $\varphi(\tilde{x}) = \tilde{x}'$.

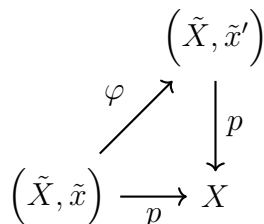
Example 20.1. $\text{Aut}(\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 20.1. $\varphi \in \text{Aut}(\tilde{X})$ is completely determined by $\varphi(\tilde{x}_0)$ when \tilde{X} is path-connected and locally path-connected.

Proof. φ is a lift to \tilde{X} , which is uniquely determined by where it sends some point. ■

Theorem 20.2. Suppose X is nice. Then $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ is regular if and only if $\text{Im}(p_*)$ is normal. When this is true, $\text{Aut}(\tilde{X}) = \pi_1(X, x_0)/\text{Im}(p_*)$.

Proof. p is regular \Leftrightarrow for any $\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}' \in p^{-1}(x)$ there exists a lift φ where



which is equivalent to $p_* \left(\pi_1 \left(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x} \right) \right) = p_* \left(\pi_1 \left(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}' \right) \right) \quad \forall \tilde{x}, \tilde{x}'$, i.e. $p_* \left(\pi_1 \left(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x} \right) \right)$ is normal. To prove the second part, consider the map $\pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow \text{Aut}(\tilde{X})$ is $p_*(\pi_1(X, x_0))$ given by $[\alpha] \mapsto \varphi_\alpha$ where $\varphi_\alpha(\tilde{\alpha}(0) = \tilde{x}_0) = \tilde{\alpha}(1)$.

- It is a homomorphism: Since a lift of $\alpha \cdot \beta$ is $\tilde{\alpha} \cdot \varphi_\alpha(\tilde{\beta})$, so

$$[\alpha][\beta] \mapsto \varphi_{\alpha \cdot \beta}(\tilde{x}_0) = \varphi_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha(\tilde{x}_0) \implies \varphi_{\alpha \cdot \beta} = \varphi_\beta \varphi_\alpha.$$

- It is injective: $[\alpha] \mapsto 0 \iff [\alpha] \in p_* \left(\pi_1 \left(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x} \right) \right)$.
- It is surjective: Fix a path γ in \tilde{X} from \tilde{x}_0 to $\tilde{x}_1 \in p^{-1}(x_0)$. Then $[p \circ \gamma] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$ has lift γ . ■