# Algebraic Topology

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# Chapter 1

# Categories.

## 1.1 Categories and Subcategories.

**Definition.** A category C is a collection of a class of **objects**, denoted obj C a collection of sets of **morphisms**  $\operatorname{Hom}(A,B)$  for each  $A,B \in \operatorname{obj} C$  and a binary operation  $\circ : \operatorname{Hom}(A,B) \times \operatorname{Hom}(B,C) \to \operatorname{Hom}(A,C)$ , defined by  $(f,g) \to g \circ f$ , called **composition** such that:

- (1) Each Hom (A, B) is pairwise disjoint for all  $A, B \in \text{obj } \mathcal{C}$ .
- (2)  $\circ$  is associative when defined; that is if either  $(g \circ f) \circ h$  or  $g \circ (f \circ h)$  are defined, then  $(g \circ f) \circ h = g \circ (f \circ h)$ , for morphisms f, g, h.
- (3) For each  $A \in \text{obj } \mathcal{C}$ , there exists an **identity** morphism  $1_A \in \text{Hom } (A, A)$  such that for each  $B, C \in \text{obj } \mathcal{C}$ ,  $1_A \circ f = f$  and  $g \circ 1_A = g$  for each morphism  $f \in \text{Hom } (B, A)$  and  $g \in \text{Hom } (A, C)$ .

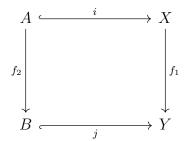
We denote morphisms by  $f: A \to B$  instead of  $f \in (A, B)$ .

**Definition.** Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a category and  $f: A \to B$  a morphism in  $\mathcal{C}$ . We call A and B the **domain** and **codomain** of f, respectively, and we call the set  $G_f = \{(a, f(a)) : a \in A\} \subseteq B$  the **graph** of f.

- **Example 1.1.** (1) The category of all sets Set has as onjects the class of all sets. The morphisms in Set are all functions  $f: A \to B$  where A and B are sets. The composition of Set is the usual composition of functions.
  - (2) The category of all topological spaces Top has as objects all topological spaces, and as morphisms all continuous maps  $f: Y \to Y$  from a space X to a space Y. The composition is the usual composition.
  - (3) The category of all groups, Grp has as objects all groups and as morphisms all homomorphisms  $f: G \to H$ , under the usual composition.
  - (4) The category of rings with unit Rng has as objects all rings with unit, along with all ring homomorphisms  $f: R \to K$  to be the morphisms under the usual composition.

**Definition.** We call a category a **subcategory** of a category  $\mathcal{C}$  if obj  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \text{obj } \mathcal{C}, \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(A, B) \subseteq \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(A, B)$  for all  $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$ , and  $\mathcal{A}$  inherits the composition of  $\mathcal{C}$ .

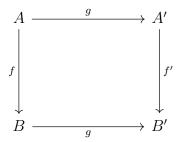
**Example 1.2.** (1) The category of all pairs of topological spaces (X, A) where A is a subspace of X, whose morphisms are pairs of continuous maps  $f = (f_1, f_2)$  such that  $f_1i = jf_2$  where  $i: A \to X$  and  $j: B \to Y$  are inclusions, is a subcategory of Top. We denote this category Top<sup>2</sup>.



- (2) The category of all **pointed spaces**, Top\* is defined with the objects being all pairs  $(X, \{x_0\})$ , where  $x_0 \in X$  with the morphisms of Top<sup>2</sup>. Top\* is a subcategory of Top<sup>2</sup>. We call  $x_0$  the **base point**, and we call the morphisms of Top\* **pointed maps**.
- (2) The category of all Abelian groups, Ab is a subcategory of Grp. Likewise, the category of all commutative rings with unit is a subcategory of Rng.

## 1.2 Commutative Diagrams and Congruences.

**Definition.** A diagram in a category is a directed graph with its vertex set a subset of objects, and whose edge set are morphisms between those objects. We call a diagram **commutative** if for any pair of objects, every pair of morphisms between those objects are equal. That is if A, A' and B, B' are pairs of objects with pairs of morphisms  $f: A \to B$ ,  $f: A \to A'$  and  $f': A' \to B'$ ,  $g': B \to B'$  we have that  $g \circ f' = f \circ g'$ 



**Definition.** A **congruence** on a category  $\mathcal{C}$  is an equivalence relation  $\sim$  on morphisms in  $\mathcal{C}$  such that:

- (1) If  $f \in \text{Hom}(A, B)$ , and  $f \sim f'$ , then  $f' \in \text{Hom}(A, B)$ .
- (2) If  $f \sim g$  and  $f' \sim g'$ , then  $g \circ f \sim g' \circ f'$ .

1.3. FUNCTORS.

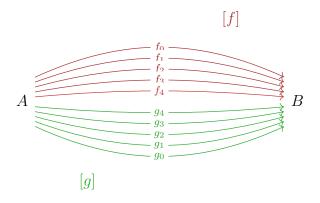


Figure 1.1: An equivalence relation between morphisms.

**Theorem 1.2.1.** Let C be a category with congruence  $\sim$ . Define  $C/\sim$  as follows:

- (1)  $\operatorname{obj}^{\mathcal{C}}/_{\sim} = \operatorname{obj} \mathcal{C}$ .
- (2)  $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}_{\infty}}(A, B) = \{ [f] : f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(A, B) \}.$
- $(3) [g] \circ [f] = [g \circ f]$

Then  $\mathcal{C}_{\sim}$  is a category.

*Proof.* We have by equivalence that obj  $\mathcal{C}_{\sim}$  is a class. Moreover, since  $\sim$  partitions  $\mathcal{C}$ , it partions all of the Hom (A,B) for each A,B. So each Hom (A,B) is a set, moreover, they are pariwise disjoint by definition of  $\sim$ . Now, notice that by hypothesis, composition in  $\mathcal{C}_{\sim}$  is well defined, so  $[1_A] \circ [f] = [1_A \circ f] = [f]$  and  $[g] \circ [1_A] = [g \circ 1_A] = [g]$ . This makes  $\mathcal{C}_{\sim}$  a category.

*Remark.* On can think of the category  $\mathcal{C}_{\sim}$  as taking all morphisms with they same domain and codomain, and collapsing them into a single morphism.

**Definition.** Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a catogory and  $\sim$  a congruence of  $\mathcal{C}$ . We call the category  $\mathcal{C}/\sim$  induced by  $\sim$  the **quotient category**.

## 1.3 Functors.

**Definition.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$  be categories. We deine a **covariant functor** to be a map  $F: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{C}$  such that:

- (1)  $A \in \text{obj } \mathcal{A} \text{ implies } F(A) \in \text{obj } \mathcal{C}.$
- (2) If  $f: A \to B$  is a morphism in  $\mathcal{A}$ , then  $F(f): F(A) \to F(B)$  is a morphism in  $\mathcal{C}$ .

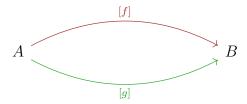


Figure 1.2: Morphisms in a category with the same domain and codomain get collapsed onto a single morphism in the correspinding quotient category.

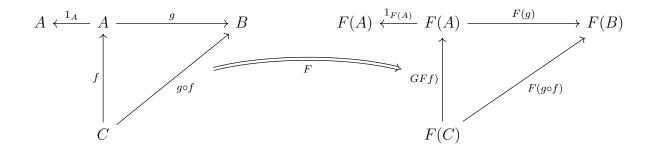


Figure 1.3: A covariant functor taking a diagram in on category to a diagram in the other.

- (3) For all morphisms f and g in  $\mathcal{A}$ , for which  $g \circ f$  is defined, we have that  $F(g \circ f) = F(g) \circ F(f)$ , and  $F(1_A) = 1_{F(A)}$ .
- **Example 1.3.** (1) We define the **forgetful functor** the map  $F: \mathcal{C} \to \operatorname{Set}$  that takes all objects in  $\mathcal{C}$  to their underlying sets, and morphisms in  $\mathcal{C}$  to themselves considered as functions under the usual composition. For example the forgetful functor  $F: \operatorname{Top} \to \operatorname{Set}$  takes topological spaces X to their underlying sets, and continuous maps to themselves, considered just as functions.
  - (2) The **identity functor** is the functor  $I: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{C}$  that takes objects and morphisms in  $\mathcal{C}$  to themselves.
  - (3) Let M be a topological space. Define  $F_M$ : Top  $\to$  Top by  $F_M$ :  $X \to X \times M$ , and for each continuous map  $f: X \to Y$ ,  $F(f): X \times M \to Y \times M$  is defined by  $(x,m) \to (f(x),m)$ . Then  $F_M$  is a functor.
  - (4) Let  $A \in \text{obj } \mathcal{C}$  and take the map  $\text{Hom } (A, *) : \mathcal{C} \to \text{Set that takes } A \to \text{Hom } (A, B)$  and for each morphism  $f : B \to B'$ ,  $\text{Hom } (A, f) : \text{Hom } (A, B) \to \text{Hom } (A, B')$  is given by  $g \to f \circ g$ . With call this functor the **covariant Hom functor**, and denote it  $f_*$ .

**Definition.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$  be categories. We deine a **contravariant functor** to be a map  $G: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{C}$  such that:

(1)  $A \in \text{obj } \mathcal{A} \text{ implies } G(A) \in \text{obj } \mathcal{C}.$ 

1.3. FUNCTORS.

- (2) If  $f: A \to B$  is a morphism in  $\mathcal{A}$ , then  $G(f): G(B) \to G(A)$  is a morphism in  $\mathcal{C}$ .
- (3) For all morphisms f and g in  $\mathcal{A}$ , for which  $g \circ f$  is defined, we have that  $G(g \circ f) = G(f) \circ G(g)$ , and  $G(1_A) = 1_{G(A)}$ .

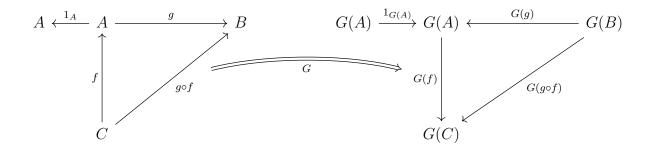


Figure 1.4: A contravariant functor taking a diagram in on category to a diagram in the other.

- **Example 1.4.** (1) Let F be a field, and Vec the category of all finite dimensional vector spaces over F, whose morphisms are linear transformations. Define the map  $T : \text{Vec} \to \text{Vec}$  by taking  $T : V \to V^{\perp}$ , and  $T : f \to f^{T}$ . That is T takes vector spaces to their dual spaces, and linear transformation to their transpose. T is a contravariant functor called the **dual space functor**.
  - (2) Define  $\operatorname{Hom}(*,B):\mathcal{C}\to\mathcal{C}$  by taking  $\operatorname{Hom}(*,B):A\to\operatorname{Hom}(A,B)$  and for each morphism  $g:A\to A'$  in  $\mathcal{C}$ ,  $\operatorname{Hom}(f,B):\operatorname{Hom}(A',B)\to\operatorname{Hom}(A,B)$  is defined by taking  $h\to h\circ g$ . This is analogous to the covariant Hom functor, and we call it the **contravariant Hom functor.**

**Definition.** We call a morphism  $f: A \to B$  an **equivalence** if there exists a morphism  $g: B \to A$  such that  $f \circ g = 1_B$  and  $g \circ f = 1_A$ 

**Theorem 1.3.1.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$  be categories, and  $F: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{C}$  be a functor. If f is an equivalence in  $\mathcal{A}$ , then F(f) is an equivalence in  $\mathcal{C}$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that F is a covariant functor. Notice that if  $f: A \to B$  is an equivalence, then there is a  $g: B \to A$  with  $f \circ g = 1_B$  and  $g \circ f = 1_A$ . Then  $F(f \circ g) = F(f) \circ F(g) = F(1_B) = 1_{F(B)}$ , and  $F(g \circ f) = F(g) \circ F(f) = F(1_A) = 1_{F(A)}$ .

Likewise, if F is contravariant, notice that  $F(f): B \to A$  and  $F(g): A \to B$ . Then  $F(f \circ g) = F(g) \circ F(f) = 1_{F(A)}$ , and  $F(g \circ f) = F(f) \circ F(g) = 1_{F(B)}$ . In eithe case, we find that F(f) is an equivalence in C.

# Chapter 2

# Homotopy, Convexity, and Connectedness.

## 2.1 Homotopy

**Definition.** If X and Y are topological spaces, and  $f_0: X \to Y$  and  $f_1: X \to Y$  are continuous maps, we say that  $f_0$  is **homotopic** to  $f_1$  if there exists a continuous map  $F: X \times I \to Y$  with  $F(x,0) = f_0(x)$  and  $F(x,1) = f_1(x)$ . We write  $f_0 \simeq f_1$  and call F a **homotopy**. We also write  $F: f_0 \simeq f_1$  to denote a homotopy between  $f_0$  and  $f_1$ .

**Lemma 2.1.1** (The Pasting Lemma). Let X is a topological space that is covered by open sets  $\{X_n\}$ . If Y is some topological space for which there exist unique maps  $f_n: X_n \to Y$  that coincide in the intersections of their domains, then there exists a unique map  $f: X \to Y$  such that  $f|_{X_n} = f_n$ , for all n.

**Lemma 2.1.2.** Homotopy between continuous maps is an equivalence relation.

*Proof.* Let  $f: X \to Y$  be a continuous map. Define  $F: X \times I \setminus Y$  by  $(x,t) \to f(x)$  for all  $(x,t) \in X \times I$ . Then F is continuous by definition; moreover, F(x,0) = F(x,1) = f(x), making  $f \simeq f$ .

Now suppose there exist a homotopy  $F: f \simeq g$  for maps  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: X \to Y$ . Define the map  $G: X \times I \to Y$  by  $(x,t) \to F(x,1-t)$ . G is the composition of continuous maps, so G is continuous, moreover, G(x,0) = F(x,1) = g(x) and G(x,1) = F(x,0) = f(x), so that  $g \simeq f$ .

Lastly, suppose that  $F: f \simeq g$  and  $G: g \simeq h$  for maps f, g, h. Define the map  $H: X \times I \to Y$  by:

$$H(x,t) = \begin{cases} F(x,2t), & \text{if } 0 \le t \le \frac{1}{2} \\ G(x,2t-1), & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} \le t \le 1 \end{cases}$$

Notice that F and G conicide in their domains which cover X. Therefore, by the pasting lemma, H is continuous. Now notice also that  $H(x,0) = F(x,2\cdot 0) = F(x,0) = f(x)$  and  $H(x,1) = G(x,2\cdot 1-1) = G(x,1) = h(x)$ . This makes  $f \simeq h$ .

**Definition.** For any continuous map  $f: X \to Y$  we define the **homotopy class** of f to be the equivalence class of all continuous maps homotopic to f. That is:

$$[f] = \{g : X \to Y : g \text{ is continous and } g \simeq f\}$$

**Lemma 2.1.3.** Let  $f_0: X \to Y$ ,  $f_1: X \to Y$  and  $g_0: X \to Y$ ,  $g_1: X \to Y$  be continuous maps. If  $f_0 \simeq f_1$  and  $g_0 \simeq g_1$ , then  $g_0 \circ f_0 \simeq g_1 \circ f_1$ . That is  $[g_0 \circ f_0] = [g_1 \circ f_1]$ .

Proof. Let  $F: f_0 \simeq f_1$  and  $G: g_0 \simeq g_1$  be the homotopies of  $f_0$  into  $f_1$  and  $g_0$  into  $g_1$ , respectively. Define the map  $H: X \times I \to Y$  by taking  $(x,t) \to G(f_0(x),t)$ . Then we have that H is continuous by composition, and that  $H(x,0) = G(f_0(x),0) = g_0(f_0(x))$ , and  $H(x,1) = G(f_0(x),1) = g_1(f_0(x))$ . Thus we see that  $g_0 \circ f_0 \simeq g_1 \circ f_0$ .

Now define the map  $K: X \times I \to Y$  by  $K = g_1 \circ F$ . We have that K is continuous by composition, and that  $K(x,0) = g_1 \circ f_0$  and  $K(x,1) = g_1 \circ f_1$ , making  $g_1 \circ f_0 \simeq g_1 \circ f_1$ . Therefore, by transitivity of homotopy,  $g_0 \circ f_0 \simeq g_1 \circ f_1$ .

**Theorem 2.1.4.** Homotopy is a congruence on the category Top.

*Proof.* The proof follows by lemmas 2.1.2 and 2.1.3.

**Definition.** We call the quotient category of Top induced by homotopy the **homotopy** category and denote it hTop.

**Definition.** A continuous map  $f: X \to Y$  is a **homotopy equivalence** if there exists a continuous map  $g: Y \to X$  such that  $f \circ g \simeq 1_Y$  and  $g \circ f \simeq 1_X$ . We say that the spaces X and Y have the same **homotopy type** if there exists a homotopy equivalence.

**Definition.** We call a continuous map **nullhomotopic** if it is homotopic to a constant map.

**Example 2.1.** The space of complex numbers  $\mathbb C$  and the unit circle  $S^1$  have the same homnotopy type.

**Definition.** Let Y and Z be topological spaces, and  $X \subseteq Y$  a subspace of Y. If  $f: X \to Z$  is a continuous map, then we call the map  $g: Y \to Z$  defined by  $g \circ i = f$  an **extension** of f, where  $i: X \to Y$  is the inclusion map.

**Theorem 2.1.5.** Let  $f: S^n \to Y$  be a continuous map into a topological space Y. The following are equivalent:

- (1) f is nullhomotopic.
- (2) f can be extended to a continuous map  $B^{n+1} \to Y$ .
- (3) There exists a constant map  $k: S^n \to Y$ , taking  $x \to f(x_0)$ , for all  $x \in S^n$ , such that  $f \simeq k$ , for  $x_0 \in S^n$ .

*Proof.* Notice that (3) implies (1) immediately. Now suppose that f is nullhomotopic. Then there exists a constant map  $k: X \to Y$ , such that for some  $x_0 \in S^n$ ,  $k: x \to x_0$  for all  $x \in S^n$  implies that  $f \simeq k$ . Now, define the map  $g: B^{n+1} \to Y$  by:

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} y_0, & \text{if } 0 \le ||x|| \le \frac{1}{2} \\ F(\frac{x}{||x||}, 2 - 2||x||), & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} \le ||x|| \le 1 \end{cases}$$

Notice, that if  $||x|| = \frac{1}{2}$ , then  $g(x) = F(2x, 1) = y_0$ . Therefore, by the pasting lemma, g is continuous. Moreover, if ||x|| = 1, g(x) = F(x, 0) = f, which makes g an extension of f.

Now, suppose that there exists an extension  $g:B^{n+1}\to Y$  of f. Since  $S^n$  is a subspace of  $B^{n+1}$ , we have that  $g\circ i=g|_{S^n}=f$ , where  $i:Y\to S^n$  is an inclusion. Now, let  $x_0\in S^n$  and define the constant map  $k:S^n\to Y$  by taking  $x\to f(x_0)$  for all  $x\in S^n$ . Additionally, define the map  $F:S^N\times I\to Y$  given by  $F(x,t)=g((1-t)x+x_0t)$ . We have that F is continuous by composition of continuous maps, and that F(x,0)=g(x)=f(x), since F has the domain  $S^n\times I$ , and that  $F(x,1)=g(x_0)=f(x_0)$ , since F has the domain  $S^n\times I$ . This makes  $f\simeq k$  with F as the associated homotopy.

## 2.2 Quotient Spaces

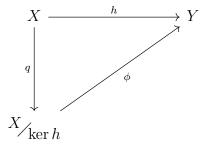
**Definition.** Let X be a topological space, and  $X' = \{X_{\alpha}\}$  a partion of X. We define the **natrual map**  $q: X \to X'$  by taking  $x \to X_{\alpha}$  where  $x \in X_{\alpha}$ . We define the **quotient topology** on X' to be the family:

$$\mathcal{T} = \{ U' \subseteq X' : q^{-1}(U') \text{ is open in } X \}$$

We denote quotient spaces by  $X_q$ ,  $X_{X'}$ , or  $X_{\sim}$  where  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation partitioning X into X'.

**Example 2.2.** (1) Consider the space I = [0, 1] and let  $A = \{0, 1\}$ . The the quotient space  $I_A$  identifies 0 to 1, and hence, under the quotient topology, is homeomorphic to  $S^1$ .

- (2) Consider the space  $I \times I$  and define an equivalence relation  $(x,0) \sim (x,1)$  for all  $x \in I$ . Then the quotient topology formed on  $I \times I / \sim$  is homeomorphic to the cylinder  $S^1 \times I$ . Defining another equivalence  $(0,y) \sim (1,y)$  for all  $y \in I$ , we get the quotient space on  $S^1 \times I / \sim$  under this equivalence relations is homeomorphic to the torus  $S^1 \times S^1$ .
- (3) Let  $h: X \to Y$  be a map, and define  $\ker h$  the equivalence relation on X such that  $x \ker hx'$  if, and only if h(x) = h(x'). The quotient space  $X_{\ker h}$  has the following relation to the natural map on X via the commutative diagram

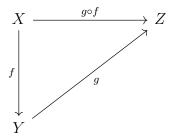


Where  $\phi: X/_{\ker h} \to Y$  is a 1–1 map defined by  $\phi([x]) = h(x)$ .

**Definition.** A continuous map  $f: X \to Y$  of a topological space X onto a topological space Y is call an **identification** if a subset U of Y is open if, and only if  $f^{-1}(U)$  is open in X. We denote the quotient space on X induced by f by X/f.

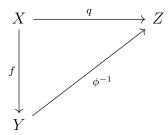
- **Example 2.3.** (1) The natural map  $q: X \to X/\sim$  is an identification, where  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on X inducing the quotient topology.
  - (2) If  $f: X \to Y$  takes spaces X onto Y, is open or closed, then f is an identification.
  - (3) If  $f: X \to Y$  is a continuous map such that there exists a map  $s: Y \to X$  such that  $f \circ s = 1_Y$ , then f is an identification. We call the map s a **section** of f.

**Theorem 2.2.1.** Let  $f: X \to Y$  be a continuous map of a topological space X onto a topological space Y. f is an identification if, and only if for any topological space Z, and all maps  $g: Y \to Z$ , then g is continuous if, and only if  $g \circ f$  is continuous.



*Proof.* Suppose that f is an identification. If g is continuous, then so is  $g \circ f$ , by continuity of f. On the other hand, if  $g \circ f$  is continuous, letting V be open in Z we have  $(g \circ f)^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(V))$  which is open in X. By hypothesis,  $g^{-1}(V)$  is open in Y, which makes g continuous.

Now, suppose that g is continuous if, and only if  $g \circ f$  is continuous. Let  $Z = X/\ker f$ , and  $q: X \to X/\ker f$  the natural map. Additionally, define the 1–1 map  $\phi: X/\ker f \to Y$  by  $\phi([x]) = f(x)$ . Since f is onto, we get that so is  $\phi$ . Consider the following commutative diagram:

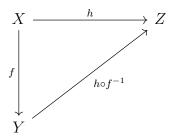


Then  $\phi^{-1} \circ f = q$  is continuous which implies that  $\phi^{-1}$  is continuous.  $\phi$  is also continuous since q is an identification. Therefore  $\phi$  is a homeomorphism between Y and Z. Notice now, that  $f = \phi \circ q$ . Then since q and  $\phi$  are continuous, this makes f continuous by composition. Moreover,  $f^{-1}(U) = q^{-1}(\phi^{-1}(U))$ . Since q is an identification,  $\phi^{-1}(U)$  is open in Z, which makes  $f^{-1}(U)$  open in X. This makes f an identification.

f

**Corollary.** Let  $f: X \to Y$  be an identification, and for some space Z, define  $h: X \to Z$  to

be the continuous map constant on each fiber of f. Then  $h \circ f^{-1}: Y \to Z$  is continuous.



Moreover  $h \circ f^{-1}$  is open or closed if, and only if h(U) is open or closed in Z whenever  $U = f^{-1}(f(U))$  is open or closed in X.

Corollary. If  $h: X \to Z$  is an identification, then the map  $\phi: X/\ker h \to Z$  defined by  $[x] \to h(x)$  is a homeomorphism.

## 2.3 Convexity and Contracibilty

**Definition.** We call a subset X of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  **convex** if for every  $x, y \in X$ , the line segment joining x to y is convex. That is the line  $tx + (1 - t)y \in X$  for all  $t \in [0, 1]$ .

**Example 2.4.** The sets  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $I^n$ ,  $B^n$  and  $\Delta(\mathbb{R}^n)$  are all convex. The sphere  $S^{n-1}$  is not convex.

**Definition.** We call a topological space X contracible if  $1_X$  is nullhomotopic.

**Example 2.5.** (1) Let  $X = \{x, y\}$  together with the topology  $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, \{x\}, X\}$ . Then X is contractible under the topology  $\mathcal{T}$ . We call X together with  $\mathcal{T}$  the **Sierpinski** space.

- (2) The space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is contractible, but the sphere  $S^{n-1}$  is not contractible.
- (3) Continuous images of contractible spaces need not be contractible.

**Theorem 2.3.1.** Every convex set is contractible.

*Proof.* Choose  $x_0 \in X$  and consider the constant map  $c: X \to X$  by  $x \to x_0$  for all  $x \in X$ . Define  $F: X \times I \to X$  by  $F(x,t) = tx_0 + (1-t)x$ . This map is continuous, with  $F(x,0) = x = 1_X(x)$  and  $F(x,1) = x_0 = c(x)$ . Therefore  $1_X \simeq c$ .

**Lemma 2.3.2.** If X is a contractible space, and homeomorphic to a space Y, then Y is also contractible.

**Example 2.6.** If X and Y are subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , with X homeomorphic to Y, and X convex, then Y is contractible by lemma 2.3.2, however, Y may not be convex. This shows that not all contractible spaces are convex spaces.

**Lemma 2.3.3.** Contractible spaces are connected.

Corollary. Convex sets are connected.

*Proof.* This follows from theorem 2.3.1.

**Definition.** If X is a topological space, define the equivalence relation  $\sim$  on  $X \times I$  by  $(x,t) \sim (x',t')$  if, and only if t=t'=1. Denote the equivalence classes of (x,t) as [x,t]. We call the quotient space  $X \times I \sim$  the **cone** over X, and denote it CX. We call the equivalence class [x,1] the **vertex** of CX.

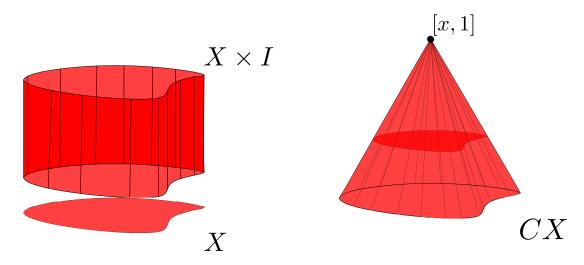


Figure 2.1: The space X and the cone CX formed by identifying all t=1 of  $X\times I$  to a point.

**Example 2.7.** (1) For topological spaces X and Y, every continuous map  $f: X \times I \to Y$  with  $f(x,1) = y_0$  for some  $y_0 \in Y$  induces a continuous map  $Cf: CX \to Y$  by taking  $[x,t] \to f(x,t)$ .

(2) The cone over  $S^{n-1}$  is  $CS^{n-1} = D^n$  and has the vertex 0.

**Theorem 2.3.4.** For any topological space X, the cone over X is contractible.

*Proof.* Define the map  $F: CX \times I \to CX$  by taking  $([x,t],s) \to [x,(1-s)t+s]$ . This map is continuous by composition, moreover F([x,t],0) = [x,t] and F([x,t],1) = [x,1] which makes  $1_{CX} \simeq c$  where  $c: CX \to CX$  is the constant map taking  $[x,t] \to [x,1]$  for all  $x \in X$ .

**Theorem 2.3.5.** A topological space has the same homotopy type as a point if, and only if X is contractible.

Proof. Let  $\{a\}$  be a point space, and suppose that  $X \simeq \{a\}$  have the same homotopy type. Then there are maps  $f: X \to \{a\}$  and  $g: \{a\} \to X$  with  $a \xrightarrow{g} x_0$  such that  $g \circ f \simeq 1_X$  and  $f \circ g \simeq 1_{\{a\}}$ . Notice that  $g \circ f(x) = g(a) = x_0$ , for all  $x \in X$ , so  $g \circ f$  is constant. This makes  $1_X$  (and  $1_Y$ ) nullhomotopic. Therefore X is contractible.

On the otherhand, supposing that X is contractible, let  $1_X \simeq c$  where  $c: X \to X$  is the constant map defined by  $x \to x_0$  for all  $x \in X$ . Define the maps  $f: X \to \{x_0\}$  and  $g: \{x_0\} \to X$  by  $x \xrightarrow{f} x_0$  and  $x_0 \xrightarrow{g} x_0$ . Observe that  $g \circ f = 1_X$ , and that  $f \circ g \simeq 1_{\{x_0\}}$ .

Remark. This theorem shows that the simplest objects in hTop are the contractible spaces.

**Theorem 2.3.6.** If Y is a contractible space, then any two maps  $X \to Y$  are homotopic.

*Proof.* Suppose that  $1_Y \simeq c$  where  $c: Y \to Y$  takes  $y \to y_0$  for all  $y \in Y$ . Defie  $g: X \to Y$  by taking  $x \to y_0$  for all  $x \in X$ . If  $f: X \to Y$  is any continuous map, then  $f \simeq g$ . Consider the diagram

$$X \longrightarrow Y \xrightarrow{l_{Y}} Y$$

Since  $1_Y \simeq k$ , we get that  $f = 1_Y \circ f \simeq k \circ f = g$ .

Corollary. Any two maps  $X \to Y$  are nullhomotopic.

#### 2.4 Path Connectedness.

**Definition.** A **path** in a topological space X is a continuous map  $f : [0,1] \to X$  such that f(0) = a and f(1) = b for some  $a, b \in X$ . We call a and b the **endpoints** of f, we say f goes **from** a **to** b.

**Definition.** We call a topological space X **path connected** if there exists a path from a to b for all  $a, b \in X$ .

**Example 2.8.** The sphere  $S^n$  is path connected.

**Lemma 2.4.1.** If  $f: X \to Y$  is a continuous map and X is a path connected space, then f(X) is also path connected.

**Theorem 2.4.2.** If X is a path connected space, then X is a connected space.

*Proof.* Suppose that X is disconnected. Then there exists a separation of X into disjoint open sets U and V. That is  $X = U \cup V$ . Suppose however that X is path connected. Then for points  $a \in U$  and  $b \in V$ , there is a path  $f: [0,1] \to X$  from a to b. Since [0,1] is a connected space, so is f([0,1]); however notice that  $f([0,1]) = (U \cap f([0,1])) \cup (f([0,1]) \cap v)$ , which is a separation of f([0,1]), since U and V form a separation.

**Example 2.9.** The converse of theorem 2.4.1 is not true in general. Consider the following two examples:

- (1) Consider the subspace  $X = (0 \times [0,1]) \cup G$  where G is the graph of  $\sin \frac{1}{x}$  on the interval  $(0,2\pi]$ . We have that X is connected, since the component containing G is closed, and  $0 \times [0,1] \subseteq \operatorname{cl} G$ . However, X is not path connected. We call the space X the **topologists sine curve**.
- (2) Another example of a connected space in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  that is not path connected is the **topologist's whirlpool**.

**Lemma 2.4.3.** Every contractible space is path connected.

**Lemma 2.4.4.** A topological space X is path connected if, and only if any two constant maps  $X \to X$  are homotopic.

**Lemma 2.4.5.** If X is a contractible space and Y a path connected space, then any two continuous maps  $X \to Y$  are homotopic.

Corollary. The continuous maps are nullhomotopic.

**Lemma 2.4.6.** If X and Y are path connected spaces, then so is  $X \times Y$ .

**Lemma 2.4.7.** If  $f: X \to Y$  is a continuous map and X is a path connected space, then f(X) is also path connected.

**Theorem 2.4.8.** If X is a topological space, then the relation  $\sim$  defined on X by  $a \sim b$  if, and only if there is a path from a to b, is an equivalence relation.

*Proof.* Consider the constant path  $c:[0,1]\to X$  where c(x)=a for all  $x\in A$ . c is continuous, and c(0)=c(1)=a. So  $a\sim a$ .

Now suppose that for  $a, b \in X$ , that  $a \sim b$ . Then there is a path  $f:[0,1] \to X$  with f(0) = a and f(1) = b. Consider the map  $g:[0,1] \to X$  defined by g(t) = f(1-t). g is continuous by composition, and g(0) = f(1) = b and g(1) = f(0) = a, which makes  $b \sim a$ .

Lastly, suppose that  $a \sim b$  and  $b \sim c$  for some  $a, b, c \in X$ . Then there exist paths  $f: [0,1] \to X$  and  $g: [0,1] \to X$  with f(0) = a, f(1) = b, and g(0) = b, g(1) = a. Now, consider the map  $h: [0,1] \to X$  defined by:

$$h(t) = \begin{cases} f(2t), & \text{if } 0 \le t \le \frac{1}{2} \\ g(2t-1), & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} \le t \le 1 \end{cases}$$

Notice that  $f(\frac{1}{2}) = g(\frac{1}{2}) = f(1) = g(0) = b$ , so the domains of f and g coincide. Therefore by the pasting lemma, h is continuous. Now, observe that h(0) = f(0) = a, and that h(1) = g(1) = c. This makes  $a \sim c$ .

**Definition.** We define the equivalence classes of X under path connectedness to be called **path components** of X.

**Definition.** We denote the collection of all path components of a topological space X to be  $pi_0(X)$ ; that is  $pi_0(X) = X/\sim$  (not necessarily as a quotient space), Moreover, we define the map  $pi_0(f): pi_0(X) \to pi_0(Y)$  to be the map taking the path component C to the unique path component of Y containing f(C).

**Theorem 2.4.9.**  $pi_0 : \text{Top} \to \text{Set } is \ a \ funtor.$ 

Proof. Consider  $1_X: X \to X$  the identity on X. Let  $\pi_0(X) = \{X_\alpha\}$  where  $X_\alpha$  is a path component of X. We have that  $pi_0(1_X): \pi_0(X) \to \pi_0(X)$  sends  $X_\alpha \to X_\beta$  where  $X_\beta$  is the unique path component of X containing  $1_X(X_\alpha) = X_\alpha$ . However, since  $X_\alpha$  and  $X_\beta$  are equivalence classes, we have  $X_\alpha \subseteq X_\beta$  if and only if  $\alpha = \beta$ , i.e.  $X_\alpha = X_\beta$ . This makes  $pi_0(1_X) = 1_{\pi_0(X)}$ .

Now let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to Z$  be continuous maps. Let  $\pi_0(X) = \{X_\alpha\}$ ,  $\pi_0(Y) = \{Y_\beta\}$ ,  $\pi_0(Z) = \{Z_\gamma\}$  the collection of path components of X, Y, and Z, respectively. Now

consider  $X_{\alpha}$  and  $Z_{\gamma}$  such that  $\pi_0(g \circ f)(X_{\alpha}) = Z_{\gamma}$ . Then  $Z_{\gamma}$  is the unique path component of Z containing  $g(f(X_{\alpha}))$ . Now, if  $Y_{\beta}$  is the unique path component of Y containing  $X_{\alpha}$ , then  $\pi_0(f)(X_{\alpha}) = Y_{\beta}$  and we see that  $g(f(X_{\alpha})) \subseteq g(Y_{\beta})$ . Moreover, if  $Z_{\gamma}$  is the unique path component of Z containing  $g(Y_{\beta})$ , then  $\pi_0(g)(Y_{\beta}) = Z_{\gamma'}$ , and  $g(Y_{\beta}) \subseteq Z_{\gamma'}$ . But  $g(f(X_{\alpha})) \subseteq g(Y_{\beta}) \subseteq Z_{\gamma'}$ ; by above, and since path components partition their spaces, this makes  $\gamma = \gamma'$ . Thus  $Z_{\gamma} = Z_{\gamma'}$  and we have that  $g(f(X_{\alpha})) \subseteq g(Y_{\beta}) \subseteq Z_{\gamma}$ . Therefore  $Z_{\gamma}$  is the unique path component of Z containing both  $g(f(X_{\alpha}))$  and  $g(Y_{\gamma})$ ; that is  $\pi_0(g)(Y_{\beta}) = Z_{\gamma}$ , where  $\pi_0(f)(X_{\alpha}) = Y_{\beta}$ . This implies that  $pi_0(g \circ f) = \pi_0(g) \circ \pi_0(f)$ , which makes  $\pi_0$  a functor.

Corollary. If  $f \simeq g$ , then  $\pi_0(f) = \pi_0(g)$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that  $F: f \simeq g$  is a homotopy between the maps  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: X \to Y$ . Let C be a path component of X, then  $C \times I$  is path connected by lemma 2.4.6. Thus by lema 2.4.1,  $F(C \times I)$  is also path connected. Notice then that:

$$f(C) = F(C \times 0) \subseteq F(C \times I)$$

and

$$g(C) = F(C \times 1) \subseteq F(C \times I)$$

So the unique path connected component of Y containing  $F(C \times I)$  contains both f(C) and g(C). Therefore  $\pi_0(f) = \pi_0(g)$ .

Corollary. If X and Y are topological spaces with the same homotopy type, then they have the same number of path components.

Proof. Suppose that  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to X$  are continuous maps with  $g \circ f = 1_X$  and  $f \circ g = 1_Y$ . Since f is a homotopy equivalence, then [f] is an equivalence in hTop. Restricting  $\pi_0$  to hTop, this also gives use that  $\pi_0([f])$  is an equivalence in Set. That is f is 1–1 and onto.

**Definition.** A topological space X is **locally path connected** if, for each  $x \in X$ , and every open neighborhood U of x there is an open set V with  $x \in V \subseteq U$  such that any two points in V can be joined by a path in U.

**Example 2.10.** Form the subspace X of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  by asjoining a curve from (0,1) to  $(\frac{1}{2\pi},0)$  on the topologist's sine curve. Then X is path connected, but not locally path connected.

**Theorem 2.4.10.** A topological space is locally path connected if, and only if path components of open sets are open.

*Proof.* Suppose that X is locally path connectd, and lwet U be open in X. Let  $x \in C$ , where C s a path component of U. Then there is an open V with  $x \in V \subseteq U$  such that very point of V can be joined to x by a path in U. Thus each point of V lies in the path component of x, which is C. Thus  $V \subseteq C$ , which makes C open.

Conversely, suppose that path components of open sets in X are open. Let U be an open set of X, and for some  $x \in U$ , let C be the path component of x in U. Then we have  $x \in C \subseteq U$ . Since C is open, this makes X locally path connected.

Corollary. If X is locally path connected, then its path components are open.

**Corollary.** X is locally path connected if, and only if for every  $x \in X$ , and each open neighborhood U of x, there is an open path connected set V with  $x \in V \subseteq U$ .

**Corollary.** If X is locally path connected, then the connected components of every open set coincide with its path components. In particular the connected components of X coincide with the path components of X.

Corollary. If X is connected, and locally path connected, then X is connected.

**Definition.** Let A be a subspace of a topological space X, and let  $i: A \to X$  be the inclusion. Then A is a **deformation retract** of X if there is a continuous map  $r: X \to A$  such that r is a retraction of X; i.e.  $r \circ i = 1_A$  and  $i \circ r = 1_X$ .

Lemma 2.4.11. Every deformation retract is a retract.

**Theorem 2.4.12.** If A is a deformation retract of a topological space X, then X and A have the same homotopy type.

Corollary.  $S^1$  is a deformation retract of  $\mathbb{C}\setminus 0$ .

Proof. For every  $z \in \mathbb{C}\backslash 0$ , we can write z as  $z = \rho e^{i\theta}$ , where  $\rho > 0$ , and  $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$ . Now, define  $F: (\mathbb{C}\backslash 0) \times I \to \mathbb{C}\backslash 0$  by taking  $(\rho e^{i\theta}, t) \to ((1-t)\rho + t)e^{i\theta}$ . Notice that F is never 0, and that F is continuous, with  $F(\rho e^{i\theta}, 0) = \rho e^{i\theta}$ ,  $F(e^{i\theta}, 1) = e^{i\theta}$ . Moreover  $F(\rho e^{i\theta}, 1) = F(e^{i\theta}) = e^{i\theta}$ . Writing  $S^1$  as  $S^1 = \{e^{i\theta} : 0 \le \theta \le 2\pi\}$ . We see that F makes  $S^1$  into a deformation retract of  $\mathbb{C}\backslash 0$ .

Corollary.  $S^1$  has the same homotopy type as  $\mathbb{C}\setminus 0$ .

**Definition.** Let  $f: X \to Y$  be a continuous map from a topological space X to a topological space Y. Define

$$M_f = (X \times I) \cup Y_{\sim}$$

Where  $(X \times I) \cup Y$  is a disjoint union, and  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation defined by  $(x, t) \sim y$  if y = f(x) and t = 1. Denote the equivalence classes of (x, t) by [x, t]. We call the quotient spec  $M_f$  the **mapping cylinder** of f.



Figure 2.2: The mapping cylinder of a continuous map  $f: X \to Y$ .

# Chapter 3

# Simplexes.

## 3.1 Affine Spaces.

**Definition.** We call a subset  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  affine if for every  $x, y \in X$ , the line l(x, y) passing through x and y is contained in X.

Lemma 3.1.1. Affine sets are convex.

*Proof.* Note that the line l(x,y) contains the segment l[x,y] which is in X for every  $x,y \in X$ .

**Theorem 3.1.2.** If  $\{X_{\alpha}\}$  is a collection of affine (or convex) sets in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then the intersection of all  $X_{\alpha}$  is affine (or convex) in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Proof. Let  $X = \bigcap X_{\alpha}$  and let  $x, y \in X$ . let l(x, y) be the line passing through x and y, then  $l(x, y) \in X_{\alpha}$  for every  $\alpha$ , since  $x, y \in X_{\alpha}$  which is affine. This makes  $l(x, y) \in X$ , which makes X affine in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The proof for convexity of X is the same except using the line segment l[x, y].

**Definition.** An affine combination of points  $x_0, \ldots, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$x = t_0 x_1 + \dots + t_m x_m$$

Where  $\sum t_i = 1$ . A **convex combination** is an affine combination in which each  $t_i \geq 0$  for  $o \leq i \leq m$ .

**Example 3.1.** The line tx + (1-t)y is a convex combination in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition.** We say a subset  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  spans an affine set [X] if [X] is the intersection of all affine subsets containing X. Similarly, we say X spans a convex set [X] if [X] is the intersection of all convex subsets containing X. We call these the affine and convex hulls, respectively.

**Theorem 3.1.3.** If  $x_0, \ldots, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then the convex hull  $[x_0, \ldots, x_m]$  is the set of all convex combinations of  $x_0, \ldots, x_m$ .

*Proof.* Let S be the set of all convex combinations of  $x_0, \ldots, x_m$ , then  $[x_0, \ldots, x_m] \subseteq S$ . Now, let  $t_j = 1$  and  $t_i = 0$ , then  $x_i \in S$  for all j. Moreovoer, let  $\alpha = \sum a_i x_i$  and  $\beta = \sum b_i x_i$  where  $\sum a_i = \sum b_i = 1$ . Then for  $t \in [0, 1]$  we have

$$t\alpha + (1-t)\beta = t\sum a_i x_i + (1-t)\sum b_i x_i = \sum (t(a_i x_i) + (1-t)b_i x_i)$$

moreover,  $t \sum a_i + (1-t) \sum b_i = 1$  and  $ta_i + (1-t)b_i \ge 0$  for all  $0 \le i \le m$ , so  $t\alpha + (1-t)\beta$  is a convex combination in S.

Now, let X be any convex set containing  $\{x_0, \ldots, x_m\}$ . By induction on m, for m = 0,  $S = \{x_0\}$ . Now let  $m \ge 0$  and  $t_i \ge 0$  with  $\sum t_i = 1$ . Assume without loss of generality that  $t_0 \ne 1$ . Then

$$y = (\frac{t_1}{1 - t_0})x_0 + \dots + (\frac{t_m}{1 - t_0})x_m \in X$$

which makes  $x = t_0 x_0 + (1 - t_0) y \in X$  This makes  $S \subseteq [x_0, \dots, x_m]$ .

**Definition.** We call points  $x_0, \ldots, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$  affinely independent if  $\{x_1 - x_0, \ldots, x_m - x_0\}$  is linearly independent in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  as a vector space. We say the points  $x_0, \ldots, x_m$  are affinely dependent if they are not affinely independent.

**Theorem 3.1.4.** For any points  $x_0, \ldots, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the following are equivalent:

- (1)  $x_0, \ldots, x_m$  are affinely independent.
- (2) If  $s_0, \ldots, s_m \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\sum s_i x_i = 0$  and  $\sum s_i = 0$ , then  $s_0 = \cdots = s_m = 0$ .
- (3) If A is an affine set spanned by  $x_0, \ldots, x_m$ , then every  $x \in A$  can be written as a unique affine combination of  $x_0, \ldots, x_m$ .

*Proof.* Suppose, that  $x_0, \ldots, x_m$  are affinely independent. Let  $a_0, \ldots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\sum a_i = 0$  and  $\sum a_i x_i = 0$ . We see that

$$\sum a_i x_i = \sum a_i x_i - 0 \cdot x_0 = \sum a_i x_i - x_0 \sum a_i =_i (x_i - x_0) = 0$$

Now, since  $x_0, \ldots, x_m$  are affinelt independent,  $x_1 - x_0, \ldots, x_m - x_0$  are linearly independent which implies that  $a_0 = \cdots = a_m = 0$ .

Now, suppose that if  $\sum a_i = 0$  and  $\sum a_i x_i = 0$ , then  $a_0 = \cdots = a_m = 0$ . Let A be an affine set spanned by  $x_0, \ldots, x_m$  and suppose there is an  $x \in A$  for which  $x = \sum a_i x_i$  and  $x = \sum b_i x_i$ . Then

$$\sum a_i x_i = \sum (b_i x)$$

so that  $\sum (a_i - b_i)x_i = 0$ . Notice also that  $\sum a_i - b_i = \sum a_i - \sum b_i = 1 - 1 = 0$ , so that by hypothesis,  $a_i - b_i = 0$  for each i. That is  $a_i = b_i$ .

Finally, suppose that A is an affine set spanned by  $x_0, \ldots, x_m$  for which every  $x \in A$  can be written uniquely as an affine combination of these points. That is  $x = \sum a_i x_i$  where  $\sum a_i = 1$ . Now, if m = 0, we get each  $x = a_0 x_0$  which is trivially affinely independent. Now, suppose  $m \ge 0$  and by induction on m, suppose that  $x_1 - x_0, \ldots, x_m - x_0$  are linearly

dependent. Then there exists  $a_0, \ldots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}$  not all 0 such that  $\sum a_i(x_i - x_0) = 0$ . Choose  $r_j \neq 0$  then

$$\sum \frac{r_i}{r_j} (x_i - x_0) = 0$$

Suppose then, without loss of generality that  $r_j = 1$ . Then  $x_j \in \{x_0, \dots, x_m\}$  which gives  $x_j$  two affine combinations:

$$x_j = 1 \cdot x_j$$
  
$$x_j = -\sum_i a_i x_i + (1 + \sum_i a_i) x_0$$

This contradicts that each  $x \in A$  has a unique representation as an affine combination, hence  $x_1 - x_0, \ldots, x_m - x_0$  have to be linearly independent, making  $x_0, \ldots, x_m$  affinely independent.

**Corollary.** Given points  $x_0, \ldots, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , affine independence on the points is independent of their ordering.

**Corollary.** If  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is an affine set spanned by affinely independent points  $x_0, \ldots, x_m$ , then it is the translation of an m-dimensional subspace V of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  as a vector space.

Proof. Let  $p_0 = x_0$  and V subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  as a vector space with basis  $\{x_1 - x_0, \dots, x_m - x_0\}$ . If  $z \in A$ , then  $z = \sum a_i x_i$  where  $\sum a_i = 1$  Then  $z = \sum a_i x_i + a_0 x_0 = \sum a_i x_i - \sum a_i x_0 + (a_0 + \sum a_i)x_0 = \sum a_i(x_i - x_0) + x_0 \in V + x_0$ . By similar reasoning, if we have  $z \in V + p_0$ , then  $z \in A$ .

**Definition.** We say a set of points  $a_1, \ldots, a_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are in **general position** if every n+1 of its points are affinely independent.

**Theorem 3.1.5.** Given  $k \geq 0$ ,  $\mathbb{R}^n$  contains k points in general position.

*Proof.* For  $0 \le k \le n+1$ , take the origin 0 together with any k-1 elements of a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . These points are in general position.

Now, suppose that k > n + 1, and choose  $r_1, \ldots, r_k \in \mathbb{R}$  and define

$$a_i = (r_i, r_i^2, \dots, r_i^n)$$
 for  $1 \le i \le k$ 

Suppose additionally that the points  $a_1, \ldots, a_k$  are not in general position. Then n+1 of the points  $a_{i_0}, \ldots, a_{i_n}$  which are affinely dependent. Then  $a_{i_1} - a_{i_0}, \ldots, a_{i_n} - a_{i_0}$  are linearly dependent. Then there exist  $s_0, \ldots, s_n$ , not all 0 such that

$$\sum s_j(a_{i_j} - a_{i_0}) = 0$$

Consider now, the  $n \times n$  south east block,  $V^*$  of the  $(n+1) \times (n+1)$  Vandermonde matrix obtained from  $r_{i_0}, \ldots, r_{i_n}$ . Let  $\sigma = (s_0, \ldots, s_m)$ , then the equation above give the matrix equation

$$V^* \sigma^T = 0 \tag{3.1}$$

Now, since  $V^*$  is nonsingular, and each of the  $r_{i_j}$  is distinct, we get that  $\sigma=0$ , which contradicts our assumption that  $a_{i_0},\ldots,a_{i_n}$  are affinely independent.

**Definition.** Let  $x_0, \ldots, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be affinely independent and let  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be such that  $x = \sum t_i x_i$ . We call the (m+1)-tuple  $(t_0, x_0, \ldots, t_m, x_m)$  the **barycentric coordinates** fo x.

**Definition.** Let  $x_0, \ldots, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be affinely independent. We call the convex set spanned by each of these points,  $[x_0, \ldots, x_m]$  an m-simplex. We call the n-simplex  $[e_0, \ldots, e_n]$  of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ , where  $\{e_0, \cdots e_m\}$  is the standard basis of  $\mathbb{R}^N n + 1$  the **standard** m-simplex, and we denote it  $\Delta^n$ .

**Theorem 3.1.6.** If  $x_0, \ldots, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are affinely independent then each  $x \in [x_0, \ldots, x_m]$  is the unique convex combination of barycentric coordinates.

*Proof.* Note that barycentric coordinates are unuque by theorem 3.1.4.

**Definition.** If  $x_0, \ldots, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are affinely independent, the **barycenter** of  $[x_0, \ldots, x_m]$  is the point  $\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} x_i$  of  $[x_0, \ldots, x_m]$ .

**Example 3.2.** (1)  $[x_0]$  is a 0-simplex with  $x_0$  as its barycenter.

- (2) The 1-simplex  $[x_0, x_1]$  has as its barycenter the point  $\frac{x_0+x_1}{2}$ , which is the midpoint of a closed line segment between  $x_0$  and  $x_1$ .
- (3) The 2-simplex  $[x_0, x_1, x_2]$  has barycenter  $\frac{x_0 + x_1 + x_2}{3}$  which is the geometric barycenter of a triangle.
- (4) Let  $\Delta^n$  the standard *n*-simplex. Every point  $x \in \Delta^n$  has the form  $\sum t_i e_i$ , which is represented as  $(t_0, \ldots, t_n)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  as a vector space. Therefore the barycentric coordinates of any point in  $\Delta^n$  are precisely its cartesian coordinates.

**Definition.** Let  $[x_0, \ldots, x_m]$  be an m-simplex. We define the **face opposite** of  $x_i$  to be the set

$$[x_0, \dots \hat{x_i}, \dots x_m] = \{ \sum t_j x_j : t_j \ge 0, \sum t_j = 0, \text{ and } t_i = 0 \}$$

We define a k-face of  $[x_0, \ldots, x_m]$  to be a k-simplex spanned by k+1 vertices of  $[x_0, \ldots, x_n]$ . We define the **boundry** of  $[x_0, \ldots, x_m]$  to be the union of all faces opposite  $x_i$  for all  $0 \le i \le m$ , and we write  $\partial[x_0, \ldots, x_m]$ .

**Example 3.3.** (1) Note that  $\partial[e_0,\ldots,e_n]=\partial\Delta^n$ .

(2) Given any *m*-simplex, it has  $\binom{m+1}{k+1}$  *k*-faces.

**Theorem 3.1.7.** Let  $S = [x_0, \ldots, x_n]$  be an n-simplex. The following are true

- (1) If  $u, v \in S$ , then  $||u v|| \le \sup_i ||u x_i||$
- (2) diam  $S = \sup_{i,j} ||x_i x_j||$
- (3) If b is the barycenter of S, then  $||b x_i|| \le \frac{n}{n+1} \operatorname{diam} S$ .

3.2. AFFINE MAPS.

Proof. Let  $u, v \in S$ , and  $v = \sum t_i x_i$  where  $t_i \geq 0$  and  $\sum t_i = 1$ . Then  $||u - v|| = ||u - \sum t_i x_i|| = ||u \sum t_i - \sum t_i x_i|| \leq \sum t_i ||u_i - x_i|| \leq \sum t_i \sup ||u - x_i|| = \sup ||u - x_i||$ . It also follow that the second statement is true using the properties of least upperbounds.

Now, let  $b = \frac{x_0 + \dots + x_n}{n+1}$  the barycenter of S. Then

$$||b - x_i|| = ||\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_j x_j - x_i||$$

$$= ||frac_1 n + 1 \sum_j x_j - \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_j x_i||$$

$$= ||\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_j x_j - x_i||$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_j ||x_j - x_i||$$

$$\leq \frac{n}{n+1} \sup_j ||x_j - x_i||$$

$$= \frac{n}{n+1} \operatorname{diam} S$$

## 3.2 Affine Maps.

**Definition.** Let  $x_0, \ldots, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be affinely independent points and let A be the affine set spanned by these points. An **affine map** is a map  $T: A \to \mathbb{R}^k$ , with  $k \le n$  such that

$$T(\sum a_i x_i) = \sum a_i T(x_i)$$

whenever  $\sum a_i = 1$  for  $a_1, \ldots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 3.2.1.** If  $[x_0, \ldots, x_m]$  and  $[y_0, \ldots, y_n]$  are m and n-simplexes, and  $f : \{x_0, \ldots, x_m\} = > [y_0, \ldots, x_m]$  os a map, then there exists a unique affine map  $T : [x_0, \ldots, x_m] \to [y_0, \ldots, y_m]$  such that  $T(x_i) = f(x_i)$  for all  $1 \le i \le m$ .

# Chapter 4

# The Fundamental Group.

## 4.1 The Fundamental Groupoid

**Definition.** Let  $f: \to_X$  and  $g: I \to X$  be paths with f(1) = g(0). We define **path** multiplication to be the operation

$$f * g = \begin{cases} f(2t), & \text{if } 0 \le t \le \frac{1}{2} \\ g(2t-1), & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} \le t \le 1 \end{cases}$$

We call f \* g the **path product** of f and g.

**Lemma 4.1.1.** The path product of two paths is a continuous map.

*Proof.* This follows from the pasting lemma.

Corollary. The path product is a path.

*Proof.* Notice that if f and g are paths with f(1) = g(0), then f \* g(0) = f(0) and f \* g(1) = g(1).

**Definition.** Let X be a topological space and A a subspace of X Let  $f_0: X \to Y$  and  $f_1: X \to Y$ , are continuous maps with  $f_0|_A = f_1|_A$ . we say that  $f_0$  is **homotopic** to  $f_1$  relative A, and write  $f_0 \simeq f_1$  rel A or  $f_0 \simeq_A f_1$ , if there is a continuous map  $F: X \times I \to Y$  that defines a homotopy between  $f_0$  and  $f_1$ , and  $F(a,t) = f_0(a) = f_1(a)$  for all  $a \in A$ . We call F the relative homotopy.

**Lemma 4.1.2.** Relative homotopy is an equivalence relation.

**Definition.** Let  $\partial I$  be the boundry of I = [0,1] in  $\mathbb{R}$ . The equivalence class of  $f: I \to X \operatorname{rel} \partial I$  is called the **path class** of f, and denoted [f].

**Theorem 4.1.3.** Let  $f_0$ ,  $f_1$  and  $g_0$ ,  $g_1$  be paths on X with  $f_0 \simeq f_1 \operatorname{rel} \partial I$  and  $g_0 \simeq g_1 \operatorname{rel} \partial I$ . If  $f_0(1) = g_0(0)$  and  $f_1(1) - g_1(0)$  then  $f_0 * g_0 \simeq f_1 * g_1 \operatorname{rel} \partial I$ .

*Proof.* Let  $F: f_0 \sim_{\partial I} f_1$  and  $G: g_0 \sim_{\partial I} g_1$  be the relative homotopies between  $f_0$  and  $f_1$ , and  $g_0$  and  $g_1$ , respectively. Define the map  $H: I \times I \to Y$  by

$$H(s,t) = \begin{cases} F(2t,s), & \text{if } 0 \le t \le \frac{1}{2} \\ G(2t-1,s), & \text{, if } \frac{1}{2} \le t \le 1 \end{cases}$$

H is continuous by the pasting lemma, moreover,  $H(0,s) = F(0,s) = f_0 * g_0(s)$ , and  $H(1,s) = G(1,s) = f_1 * g_1(s)$ . Additionally,  $\partial I$  is fixed by H. This makes H a relative homotopy.

**Definition.** Let  $f: I \to X$  be a path from  $x_0$  to  $x_1$  on X. The **origin** of f is  $x_0$  and we write  $x_0 = \alpha(f)$ , and the **end** of f is  $x_1$  and we write  $x_1 = \omega(f)$ . We call f a **closed** path if  $\alpha(f) = \omega(f)$ . We define the maps  $i_p: I \to X$  and  $i_q: I \to X$  given by  $i_p(t) = \alpha(f)$ , and  $i_q(t) = \omega(f)$  to be the **constant paths**. We define the **inverse path** of f to be the path f(1-t) and denote it  $f^{-1}$ .

**Definition.** A set G together with an operation \* is called a **groupoid** if for all  $a, b \in G$  we have:

- (1) a \* (b \* c) = (a \* b) \* c (Associativity)
- (2) There exist elements  $e_1, e_2 \in G$  such that  $a * e_1 = a$  and  $e_1 * a = a$ .
- (3) For ever  $a \in G$ , there is an element  $a^{-1} \in G$  such that  $a * a^{-1} = e_1$  and  $a^{-1} * a = e_2$ .

**Theorem 4.1.4.** For any topological space, the collection of all path classes forms a groupoid under path multiplication. More precisely, if  $p = \alpha[f]$  and  $q = \omega[f]$  then:

- (1) Path multiplication is associative whenever defined.
- (2)  $i_p * f \simeq f \operatorname{rel} \partial I$  and  $f * i_q \simeq f \operatorname{rel} \partial I$ .
- (3)  $f * f^{-1} \simeq i_p \operatorname{rel} \partial I$  and  $f^{-1} * f \simeq i_q \operatorname{rel} \partial I$ .

*Proof.* Let [f] be a path with  $p = \alpha[f]$  and  $q = \omega[f]$ . Consider the following space (see figure 4.1) of  $I \times I$  together with the line joining the points (0,1) and  $(\frac{1}{2},0)$ . This line has equation 2s = t - 1s. Now, define  $\theta_t : [\frac{1-t}{2},1] \to [0,1]$  to be the affine map:

$$\theta_t(s) = \frac{s - \frac{1-t}{2}}{1 - \frac{1-t}{2}}$$

Define the map  $H: I \times I \to I$  by:

$$H(s,t) = \begin{cases} p, & \text{if } 2s \le 1 - t\\ f(\theta_t(s)), & \text{if } 2s \ge 1 - t \end{cases}$$

By the pasting lemma, H is continuous. Moreover,  $H(0,t) = p = \alpha(f) = i_p * f$ , and  $H(1,t) = f(\theta_t(1)) = f(t)$ . Lastly,  $\partial I$  is fixed on H, so we have  $i_p * f \simeq f \operatorname{rel} \partial I$ . By similar reasoning, we also get  $f * i_q \simeq f \operatorname{rel} \partial I$ .

Now, consider the space of figure ?? on  $I \times I$  together with slanted lines. Construct a

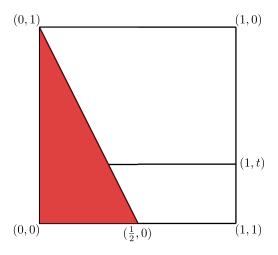


Figure 4.1:

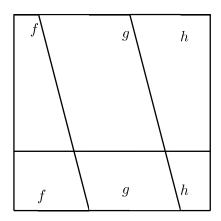


Figure 4.2:

continuous map defined by the affine map from  $[0, \frac{1}{2}]$  to  $[0, \frac{2-t}{4}]$ . It follows that  $f * (g * h) \simeq (f * g) * h \operatorname{rel} \partial I$ .

Finally, subdivied  $I \times I$ , again, as in figure ?? and define the map  $H: I \times I \to X$  by

$$H(s,t) = \begin{cases} f(2(s(1-t))), & \text{if } 0 \le s \le \frac{1}{2} \\ f(2(1-s)(1-t)), & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} \le s \le 1 \end{cases}$$

This map is continuous by the pasting lemma with  $H(0,t)=f*f^{-1}$ , and  $H(1,t)=i_q(t)$ . Therefore  $f*f^{-1}\simeq i_p\operatorname{rel}\partial I$ . Again by similar reasoning, we get  $f^{-1}*f\simeq i_q\operatorname{rel}\partial I$ .

**Definition.** Let X be a topological space and  $x_0 \in X$ . The **fundamental group** of X with **basepoint**  $x_0$  is the collection of all path classes on X which are closed at  $x_0$ . We denote it  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ .

**Theorem 4.1.5.** The fundamental group of a topoligical space is a group under path multiplication for every basepoint in the space.

## 4.2 The $\pi_1$ Functor

**Theorem 4.2.1.** The map  $\pi_1$ : Top  $\rightarrow$  Grp is a covariant functor. Moreover, if h:  $(X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$  and k:  $(X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$  are continuous maps such that  $h \simeq k \operatorname{rel} x_0$ , then  $\pi_1 h = \pi_1 k$ .

Proof. Let  $[f] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$  and define  $\pi_1 h : [f] \to [h \circ f]$ . Notice that the map  $h \circ f : I \to Y$  is continuous by composition and well defined. Moreover  $h \circ f$  is a closed path in Y at  $y_0$ . This shows that  $\pi_1 h([f]) = [h \circ f] \in \pi_1(Y, y_0)$ . Now, if  $f \simeq f' \operatorname{rel} \partial I$ , then  $h \circ f \simeq h \circ f' \operatorname{rel} \partial I$ , so that if f and g are closed paths in X, at  $x_0$ , then  $h \circ (f * g) = (h \circ f) * (h \circ g)$ . This makes  $\pi_1 h$  into a homomorphism. Moreover,  $\pi_1 1_{(X,x_0)} = 1_{\pi_1(X,x_0)}$ . This shows that  $\pi_1$  is a functor, and that it is covariant.

Now, let  $h \simeq k \operatorname{rel} \partial I$ . Then  $h \circ f \simeq k \circ f \operatorname{rel} \partial I$ , where f is some closed path in X at  $x_0$ . That is  $\pi_1 h = \pi_1 k$ .

**Definition.** We define the **pointed homotopy category** hTop to be the quotient category of Top\* arising from the congruence of relative homotopy.

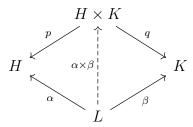
**Theorem 4.2.2.** Let  $x_0 \in X$ , and  $X_0$  the path component of X containing  $x_0$ . Then  $\pi_1(X_0, x_0) \simeq \pi_1(X, x_0)$ .

Proof. Consider the inclusion  $j:(X_0,x_0)\to (X,x_0)$  and let  $[f]\in \ker \pi_1 j$ . Then  $j\circ f\simeq c\operatorname{rel}\partial I$  where  $c:I\to X$  is the constant path from t to  $x_0$ . Let  $F:j\circ f\simeq c$  a homotopy, then  $F(0,0)=x_0$ , the space  $F(I\times I)$  is path connected, and  $F(I\times I)\subseteq X$ . It remains to show that f is nullhomotopic. Notice that  $F(I\times I)$  makes  $\pi_1 j$  1–1. Now, if f is a closed path in  $X_0$  at  $x_0$ , then  $f(I)\subseteq X_0$ . Define  $f':I\to X_0$  by f'(t)=f(t) for all  $t\in I$ . Then notice that f(I)=f(t) notice that f(I)=f(t) has makes f(I)=f(t) onto.

**Theorem 4.2.3.** If X is a path connected space, then the fundamental group of X is independent of the basepoint chosen; i.e. if  $x_0, x_1 \in X$ , then  $\pi_1(X, x_0) \simeq \pi_1(X, x_1)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\gamma: I \to X$  be a path from  $x_0$  to  $x_1$ . Define the map  $\phi: \pi_1(X, x_0) \to \pi_1(X, x_1)$  by  $\phi: [f] \to [\gamma][f][\gamma^{-1}]$ . By theorem 4.1.4,  $\phi$  is an isomorphism.

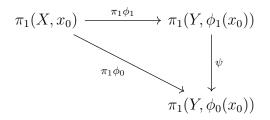
**Definition.** Let H and K be sets. We define the **projections**  $p: H \times K \to H$  and  $q: H \times K \to K$  defined by  $p: h \times k \to h$  and  $q: h \times k \to k$ . Additionally, for some set L, there exist maps  $\alpha: L \to H$  and  $\beta: L \to H$  such that the map  $\alpha \times \beta: L \to H \times K$  satisfies  $p \circ (\alpha \times \beta) = \alpha$  and  $q \circ (\alpha \times \beta) = \beta$ .



**Theorem 4.2.4.** For pointed spaces  $(X, x_0)$  and  $(Y, y_0)$ , we have that  $\pi_1(X \times Y, x_0 \times y_0) \simeq \pi_1(X, x_0) \times \pi_1(Y, y_0)$ .

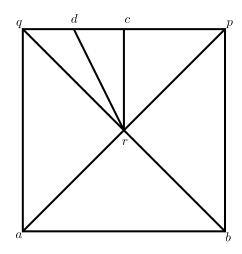
Proof. Let p and q the projections of  $(X \times Y, x_0 \times y_0)$  onto  $(X, x_0)$  and  $(Y, y_0)$ , respectively. Then  $\pi_1 p \times \pi_1 q : \pi_1(X \times Y, x_0 \times y_0) \to \pi_1(X, x_0) \times \pi_1(Y, y_0)$  is a homomorphism. If f is a closed path, in  $X \times Y$  at  $x_0 \times y_0$ , then  $\pi_1 p \times \pi_1 q([f]) = [pf] \times [qf]$ . Now, let g be a closed path in X at  $x_0$  and h a closed path in Y at  $y_0$  and define  $\theta : [g] \times [h] \to [g \times h]$ . Then  $\theta$  is well defined and is the incerse of  $\pi_1 p \times \pi_1 q$ .

**Lemma 4.2.5.** Suppose that  $F: \phi_0 \simeq \phi_1$  is a free homotopy, where  $\phi_0: X \to Y$  and  $\phi_1: X \to Y$  are continuous. Choose an  $x_0 \in X$  and let  $\lambda = F(x_0, t)$  the path in Y from  $\phi_0(x_0)$  to  $\phi_0(x_0)$ . Then there is a commutative diagram



where  $\psi: [g] \to [\lambda * g * \lambda^{-1}].$ 

*Proof.* Let  $f: I \to X$  a closed path at X and define  $G: I \times I \to Y$  by  $t \times s \to F(f(s), t)$ . Then  $G: \phi_0 \circ f \simeq \phi_1 \circ f$ . Consider the triangulations of the box  $I \times I$  and define a continuous



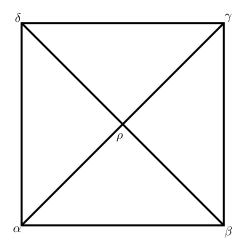


Figure 4.3:

map  $H: I \times I \to I \times I$  by defining it in each triangle and applying the pasting lemma. Let

$$H(a) = H(q) = \alpha$$

$$H(b) = H(p) = \beta$$

$$H(c) = \gamma$$

$$H(d) = \delta$$

$$H(r) = \rho$$

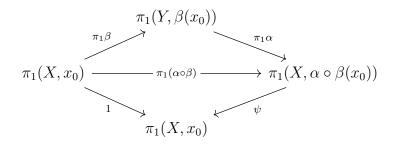
Then the map  $J = G \circ H$  is a relative homotopy with  $J : \phi_0 \circ f \simeq \lambda * (\phi_1 \circ f) * \lambda^{-1} \operatorname{rel} \partial I$ . So  $\pi_1 \phi_0([f]) = [\phi_0 \circ f] = [\lambda * (\phi_1 \circ f) * \lambda^{-1}]$  and  $\psi \circ \pi_1 \phi_1([f]) = \psi([\phi_1 \circ f]) = [\lambda * (\phi_1 \circ f) * \lambda^{-1}]$  as desired.

Corollary. If  $\phi_0$  and  $\phi_1$  are homotopic, then

- (1)  $\pi_1\phi_0$  and  $\pi_1\phi_1$  are conjugate.
- (2) If  $\pi_1(X, y_0)$  is Abelian, then  $\pi_1 \phi_0 = \pi_1 \phi_1$ .

**Theorem 4.2.6.** If  $\beta: X \to Y$  is a homotopy equivalence, then the induces homomorphism  $\pi_1\beta$  is an isomorphism for every  $x_0 \in X$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\alpha: Y \to X$  a continuous map with  $\alpha \circ \beta = 1_X$  and  $\beta \circ \alpha = 1_Y$ . Then the lower triangle of the diagram



commutes. Since  $\psi$ , defined in lemma 4.2.5 is an isomporphism, then so is  $\pi_1(\alpha \circ \beta)$ . Moreover, the top tirangle also commutes since  $\pi_1$  is a functor, and  $\pi_1(\alpha \circ \beta) = \pi_1\alpha \circ \pi_1\beta$ , so that  $\pi_1\beta$  is 1–1 and  $\pi_1\alpha$  is onto. A similar diagram arising from  $\beta \circ \alpha = 1_Y$  shows that  $\pi_1\beta$  is onto.

**Corollary.** If X and Y are path connected with the same homotopy type, then for any  $x_0 \in X$ ,  $y_0 \in Y$ ,  $\pi_1(X, x_0) \simeq \pi_1(Y, y_0)$ .

**Corollary.** If X is a contractible space, then for any  $x_0 \in X$ ,  $\pi_1(X, x_0) \simeq \langle 1 \rangle$ , the trivial group.

Corollary. If  $\beta:(X,x_0)\to (Y,y_0)$  is freely nullhomotopic, then the induced isomorphism  $\pi_1\beta$  is trivial.

*Proof.* Let  $k: X \to Y$  the constant map at y. Then  $\pi_1 k$  is trivial since  $\pi_1 k([f]) = [k \circ f]$  and  $k \circ f$  is constant. Then if  $\beta \simeq k$  by lemma 4.2.5, there is an isomorphism  $\psi$  with  $\psi \circ \pi_1 \beta = \pi_1 k$ , so that  $\pi_1 \beta = \phi^{-1} \pi_1 k$ , which makes  $\pi_1 \beta$  trivial.

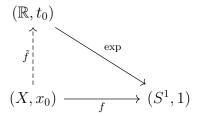
**Definition.** We call a topological space **simply connected** if it is path connected with trivial fundamental group.

## 4.3 The Fundamental Group of $S^1$ .

**Lemma 4.3.1.** If  $\pi_1(X, y_0) \neq \langle 1 \rangle$  for some pointed space  $(Y, y_0)$ , then  $\pi_1(S^1, 1) \neq \langle 1 \rangle$ .

*Proof.* We defer the proof.

**Lemma 4.3.2.** Let X be a compact convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , and  $f:(X,x_0)\to (S^1,1)$  a continuous map. For  $t_0\in\mathbb{Z}$ , there exists a unique continuous map  $\tilde{f}:(X,x_0)\to(\mathbb{R},t_0)$  with  $\exp \tilde{f}=f$ , where  $\exp t=e^{2i\pi t}$ 



*Proof.* Since X is compact and metrizable under the norm  $\|\cdot\|$ , we have that f is uniformly continuous. That is, there is an  $\varepsilon > 0$  for which  $\|f(x) - f(y)\| < 2$  whenever  $\|x - y\| < \varepsilon$ , and where  $2 = \text{diam } S^1$  so that f(x) and f(y) are not antipodal. Now, since X is compact and metrizable, it is also bounded. So there exists an n > 0 with

$$\frac{\|x - x_0\|}{n} < \varepsilon \text{ for all } x_0 \in X$$

Now, partition the line segment  $l(x, x_0) \in X$  with endpoints x and  $x_0$  into intervals of equal length according to the partition  $\{x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n = x\}$ . Then  $\|x_j - x_{j+1}\| = \frac{\|x - x_0\|}{n} < \varepsilon$ , hence  $\frac{f(x_{j+1})}{f(x_j)} \neq -1$ , i.e.  $f(x_j)$  and  $f(x_{j+1})$  are not antipodal for all j. Now, define  $g_j : X \to S^1 \setminus \{-1\}$  for all  $0 \le j \le n-1$  by the rule

$$g_j(x) = \frac{f(x_{j+1})}{f(x_j)}$$

Then  $g_j$  is continuous, and  $g_j(x_0) = 1$  for all j. Now, considering  $S^1$  as a subspace of  $\mathbb{C}$ , since it is a multiplicative group, there exists a product

$$f(x) = f(x_0) \frac{f(x_1)}{f(x_0)} \frac{f(x_2)}{f(x_1)} \dots \frac{f(x_n)}{f(x_{n-1})} = f(x_0) g_0(x) \dots g_{n-1}(x)$$

Consider now the restriction of exp to  $(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ . for which it is a homeomorphism. Let  $\lambda: S^1 \setminus \{-1\} \to (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  the inverse map of exp. Then  $\lambda(1) = 0$ , moreover,  $g_j(X) \subseteq S^1 \setminus \{-1\}$  and  $\lambda \circ g_j$  is defined and continuous. Thus, define the map  $\tilde{f}: X \to \mathbb{R}$  by

$$\tilde{f} = t_0 + \lambda(g_0(x)) + \dots + \lambda(g_{n-1}(x))$$

Then  $\tilde{f}$  is continuous with  $\tilde{f}(x_0) = t_0$ . Moreover, since exp is a homomorphism of groups

$$\exp \tilde{f} = (\exp t_0) g_0(x) \dots g_{n-1}(x) = f$$

Now, let  $\tilde{g}: X \to \mathbb{R}$  a continuous map with  $\exp g = f$ , and  $g(x_0) = t_0$ . Define  $h: X \to \mathbb{R}$  by  $h = \tilde{f} - \tilde{g}$ . Then h is continuous, and  $\exp h = \exp \tilde{f} - \tilde{g} = 1$ , that is

$$\frac{\exp \tilde{f}}{\exp \tilde{g}} = 1$$

so that  $\exp \tilde{f} = \exp \tilde{g}$ . Taking  $\lambda$  on both sides we get  $\tilde{f} = \tilde{g}$  which establishes the uniquness.

**Corollary.** Let  $f:(I,\partial I)\to (S^1,1)$  be a continuous map. Then there exists a unique  $\tilde{f}I\to\mathbb{R}$  with  $\exp\tilde{f}=f$  and  $\tilde{f}(0)=0$ . Moreover, if  $g:(I,\partial I)\to (S^1,1)$  is a map for which  $f\simeq g\operatorname{rel}\partial I$ , then  $\tilde{f}\simeq \tilde{g}\operatorname{rel}\partial I$ .

*Proof.* Notice that  $I \times I$  is compact and convex. Choose  $0 \times 0$  as the basepoint, and let  $F: I \times I \to S^1$  be the relative homotopy  $F: f \simeq g \operatorname{rel} \partial I$ . By the above theorem there exists a map  $\tilde{F}: I \times I \to \mathbb{R}$  with  $\exp \tilde{F} = F$  and  $\tilde{F}(0,0) = 0$ . Then it can be shown that  $\tilde{F}: \tilde{f} \simeq \tilde{g} \operatorname{rel} \partial I$  (hint let  $\phi_i(s) = \tilde{F}(s,i)$  and  $\theta_i(t) = \tilde{F}(i,t)$  for  $i \in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ ).

**Definition.** Let X be a compact convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , and  $f:(X,x_0)\to (S^1,1)$  a continuous map. For  $t_0\in\mathbb{Z}$ , we call the unique map  $\tilde{f}:X\to\mathbb{R}$  such that  $\tilde{f}=f$  and  $\tilde{f}(x_0)=t_0$  the **lifting** of f into  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Example 4.1.** One example of a lifting is the winding number. Consider  $S^1 = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : ||z|| = 1\}$  as a subspace of  $\mathbb{C}$ . We define the **winding number** of a paramtrization  $f: (I, \partial I) \to (S^1, 1)$  of  $S^1$  to be

$$W(f) = \frac{1}{2i\pi} \oint_f \frac{dz}{z}$$

One can lift f to the map  $\tilde{f}$  and compute W(f) as a Riemann (or Lebesgue) integra. Take  $z = f(t) = \exp \tilde{f}(t)$  and  $dz = z2i\pi \tilde{f}(t)$  dt. Then

$$W(f) = \frac{1}{2i\pi} \oint_{f} \frac{dz}{z} = \int_{0}^{1} \tilde{f}'(t) \ dt = \tilde{f}(1) - \tilde{f}(0)$$

**Definition.** If  $f:(I,\partial I)\to (S^1,1)$  is continuous, we define the **degree** of f to be deg  $f=\tilde{f}(1)$ , where  $\tilde{f}$  is the unique lifting of f, and  $\tilde{f}(0)=0$ .

**Theorem 4.3.3.**  $\pi_1(S^1, 1) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$ , in particular,  $\deg f * g = \deg f + \deg g$ .

*Proof.* Define  $d: \pi_1(S^1, 1) \to \mathbb{Z}$  by  $[f] \to \deg f$ . By lemma 4.3.2, d is well defined. Moreover, notice that the map  $f: z \to z^m$  has degree  $\deg f = m$ , for all  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ , so that d is onto.

Now, suppose that deg f = 0, where f is a closed path in  $S^1$  at 1, then  $\tilde{f}(1) = 0$  so that  $\tilde{f}$  is a closed path in  $\mathbb{R}$  at 0. Notice that exp induces a homomorphism  $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}, 0) \to \pi_1(S^1, 1)$  by  $[\tilde{f}] \to [\exp f] = [f]$ . Since  $\mathbb{R}$  is contractible, then  $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}, 0) = \langle 1 \rangle$  so that  $[\tilde{f}] = [f] = 1$  is the identity map.

Now, suppose that f and g are closed paths in  $S^1$  at 1, with degrees  $\deg f = m$  and  $\deg g = n$ . Let  $\tilde{g}$  be the lifting of g with  $\tilde{g}(0) = 0$ , and define  $\tilde{\gamma}(t) = m + \tilde{g}(t)$ . Then  $\gamma$  is a

path in  $\mathbb{R}$  from m to m+n. Let  $\tilde{f}$  the lifting of f with  $\tilde{f}(0)=0$ . Then  $\tilde{f}*\tilde{\gamma}$  is a path in  $\mathbb{R}$  from 0 to m+n where

$$\exp\left(\tilde{f}*ga\tilde{m}ma\right) = \begin{cases} \exp\tilde{f}(2t) \text{ if } 0 \le t \le \frac{1}{2} \\ \exp\tilde{g}(2t-1) \text{ if } \frac{1}{2} \le t \le 1 \end{cases}$$

since  $\tilde{f}$  is a lifting of f,  $\exp \tilde{f} = f$ , and  $\exp \gamma = e^{2i\pi m} \exp \tilde{g} = g$ . Since  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $\tilde{g}$  is a lifting of g we get  $\exp \tilde{f} * \tilde{\gamma} = f * g$ , thus  $\deg f * g = \deg f + \deg g = m + n$ . Moreover notice that  $\ker d = \langle 1 \rangle$ , and so we are done.

Corollary.  $S^1$  is not simply connected.

Corollary.  $\pi_1(S^1, t) = \pi_1 S^1$ .

*Proof.* Notice that since  $S^1$  is path connected, its fundamental group is independent of any base point.

**Corollary.** Two closed paths in  $S^1$  are homotopic relative  $\partial I$  if, and only if they have the same degree.

**Theorem 4.3.4** (The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra). Every nonconstant polynomial with coefficients in  $\mathbb{C}$  as at least one root in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

*Proof.* Define  $\Sigma_{\rho} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : ||z|| = \rho\}$  the circle of radius  $\rho$  centered at the point  $0 + i_0$  in  $\mathbb{C}$ . For  $n \geq 0$  define  $f_{\rho}^n : \Sigma_{\rho} \to \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$  the restriction to  $\Sigma_{\rho}$  of the map  $z \to z^n$ . Consider

then the composition  $h: S^1 \xrightarrow{\rho z} \Sigma_{\rho} \xrightarrow{z^n} \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\} \xrightarrow{\frac{\varepsilon}{\|z\|}} S_1$ . Then  $h(z) = z^n$ . Suppose that  $f_{\rho}^n$  is freely nullhomotopic, then so is h, and hence  $\pi_1 h: \pi_1 S^! \to \pi_1 S^1$  is trivial. In particular,  $\pi_1 h([\exp]) = [h \circ \exp] = [\exp^n]$  is trivial. That is  $\exp^n$  is nullhomotopic relative  $\partial I$ , so  $\deg \exp^n = 0$ , but  $\deg \exp^n = n > 0$ , which is a contradiction. Thus  $f_{\rho}^n$  is not nullhomotopic.

Now, consider the polynomial

$$g(z) = z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1z + a_0 \in \mathbb{C}[z]$$

and choose  $\rho > \max\{, \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \|a_i\|\}$  and define the map  $F: \Sigma_{\rho} \to \mathbb{C}$  by

$$F(z,t) = z^{n} + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (1-t)a_{i}z^{i}$$

Then  $F: g_{\Sigma_{\rho}} \operatorname{rel} f_{\rho}^{n}$ . Suppose that  $F(I \times I) \not\subseteq \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ , then F(z,t) = 0 for some  $t \in I$ , and  $z \in \Sigma_{\rho}$ . Then

$$z^{n} = -\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (1-t)a_{i}z^{i}$$

by the triangle inequality, we have

$$\rho^{n} \leq \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (1-t) \|a_{i}\| \rho^{i} \leq \rho^{n-1} (\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \|a_{i}\|)$$

For  $\rho > 1$ , we get  $\rho^i \leq \rho^{n-1}$ , and we get  $\rho \leq \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \|a_i\|$ , which contradicts our choice of  $\rho$ . Suppose now that g has no complex roots. Define  $G: \Sigma_\rho \times I \to \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$  by G(z,t) = g((-1t)z). Notice that  $G: g|_{\Sigma_\rho} \simeq k$ , where k is the constant map at  $a_0$ . Thus  $g|_{\Sigma_\rho}$  is nullhomotopic, which makes  $f_\rho^n$  null homotopic. A contradiction. Therefore g must have at least one root in  $\mathbb{C}$  Chapter 5
Singular Homology

# Bibliography

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