## Algebraic Topology

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## Chapter 1

## Categories.

#### 1.1 Categories and Subcategories.

**Definition.** A category  $\mathcal{C}$  is a collection of a class of **objects**, denoted obj  $\mathcal{C}$  a collection of sets of **morphisms**  $\operatorname{Hom}(A,B)$  for each  $A,B \in \operatorname{obj}\mathcal{C}$  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  $g \in \text{Hom } (A, C)$ .

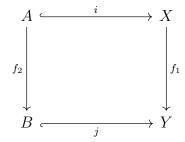
We denote morphisms by  $f: A \to B$  instead of  $f \in (A, B)$ .

**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  $\mathcal{C}$ .

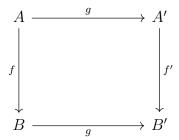
**Example 1.2.** (1) The category of all pairs of topological spaces (X, A) where A is a subspace of X, whose morphisms are pairs of continuous maps  $f = (f_1, f_2)$  such that  $f_1i = jf_2$  where  $i: A \to X$  and  $j: B \to Y$  are inclusions, is a subcategory of Top. We denote this category Top<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. 5

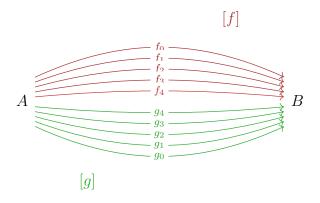


Figure 1.1: An equivalence relation between morphisms.

**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)  $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}_{A}}(A, B) = \{ [f] : f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(A, B) \}.$
- $(3) [g] \circ [f] = [g \circ f]$

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  $\mathcal{C}$ .

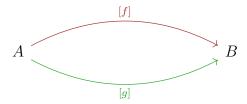


Figure 1.2: Morphisms in a category with the same domain and codomain get collapsed onto a single morphism in the correspinding quotient category.

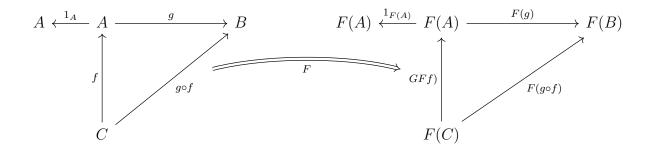


Figure 1.3: A covariant functor taking a diagram in on category to a diagram in the other.

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

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- (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  $G(1_A) = 1_{G(A)}$ .

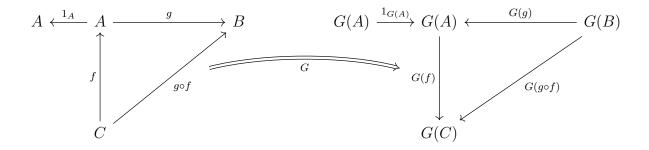


Figure 1.4: A contravariant functor taking a diagram in on category to a diagram in the other.

- **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  $g_1 \circ f_0 \simeq g_1 \circ f_1$ .

**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

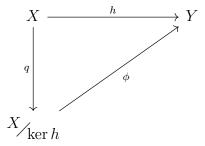
**Definition.** Let X be a topological space, and  $X' = \{X_{\alpha}\}$  a partion of X. We define the **natrual map**  $q: X \to X'$  by taking  $x \to X_{\alpha}$  where  $x \in X_{\alpha}$ . We define the **quotient topology** on X' to be the family:

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

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

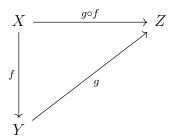


Where  $\phi: X/_{\ker h} \to Y$  is a 1–1 map defined by  $\phi([x]) = h(x)$ .

**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  $X/_f$ .

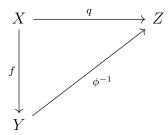
- **Example 2.3.** (1) The natural map  $q: X \to X/\sim$  is an identification, where  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on X inducing the quotient topology.
  - (2) If  $f: X \to Y$  takes spaces X onto Y, is open or closed, then f is an identification.
  - (3) If  $f: X \to Y$  is a continuous map 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:

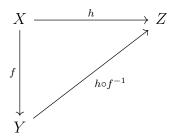


Then  $\phi^{-1} \circ f = q$  is continuous which implies that  $\phi^{-1}$  is continuous.  $\phi$  is also continuous since q is an identification. Therefore  $\phi$  is a homeomorphism between Y and Z. Notice now, that  $f = \phi \circ q$ . Then since q and  $\phi$  are continuous, this makes f continuous 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.

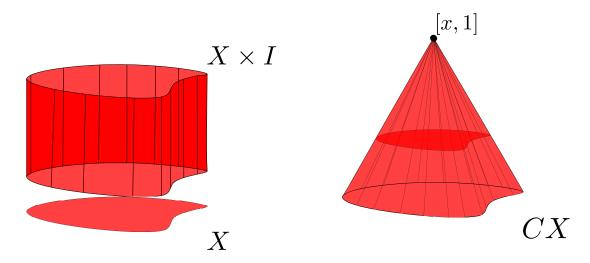


Figure 2.1: The space X and the cone CX formed by identifying all t = 1 of  $X \times I$  to a point.

**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.

Χ

**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.

# Bibliography

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