

# Geometry

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## **Part I**

# **Classical geometry**

# Chapter 1

## Euclidean geometry

1.1 Plane geometry

1.2 Solid geometry

1.3 Axiomatization

## Chapter 2

# Non-Euclidean geometry

### 2.1 Absolute geometry

axioms 1 to 4

### 2.2 Spherical and elliptic geometry

axioms 2 and 4

### 2.3 Hyperbolic geometry

axiomes 1 to 4

Models of hyperbolic geometry (metric description) Elementary figures Isometries Length, volume, angle

## **Chapter 3**

# **Non-metric geometry**

### **3.1 Ordered and incidence geometry**

axioms 1 and 2

### **3.2 Affine and projective geometry**

axioms 1,2,5

### **3.3 Conformal and inversive geometry**

## **Part II**

# **Smooth surfaces**



# Chapter 4

## Smooth manifolds

### 4.1 Local coordinates

### 4.2 Space curves

### 4.3 Space surfaces

Reparametrizations

**Theorem 4.3.1.** *Let  $S$  be a regular surface. Let  $v, w$  be linearly independent tangent vectors in  $T_p S$  for a point  $p \in S$ . Then,  $S$  admits a parametrization  $\alpha$  such that  $\alpha_x|_p = v$  and  $\alpha_y|_p = w$ .*

**Theorem 4.3.2.** *Let  $X, Y$  be linearly independent tangent vector fields on a regular surface  $S$ . Then,  $S$  admits a parametrization  $\alpha$  such that  $\alpha_x|_p$  and  $\alpha_y|_p$  are parallel to  $X|_p, Y|_p$  respectively for each  $p \in S$ .*

**Theorem 4.3.3.** *Let  $X, Y$  be linearly independent tangent vector fields on a regular surface  $S$ . If  $\partial_X Y = \partial_Y X$ , then  $S$  admits a parametrization  $\alpha$  such that  $\alpha_x|_p = X|_p$  and  $\alpha_y|_p = Y|_p$  for each  $p \in S$ .*

Let  $S$  be a regular surface embedded in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . The inner product on  $T_p S$  induced from the standard inner product of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  can be represented not only as a matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

in the basis  $\{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\} \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ , but also as a matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \langle \alpha_x, \alpha_x \rangle & \langle \alpha_x, \alpha_y \rangle \\ \langle \alpha_y, \alpha_x \rangle & \langle \alpha_y, \alpha_y \rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

in the basis  $\{\alpha_x|_p, \alpha_y|_p\} \subset T_p S$ .

**Definition 4.3.4.** *Metric coefficients*

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \alpha_x, \alpha_x \rangle &=: g_{11} & \langle \alpha_x, \alpha_y \rangle &=: g_{12} \\ \langle \alpha_y, \alpha_x \rangle &=: g_{21} & \langle \alpha_y, \alpha_y \rangle &=: g_{22} \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 4.3.5** (Normal coordinates). ...?

## Differentiation of tangent vectors

**Definition 4.3.6.** Let  $\alpha : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  be a regular surface. The *Gauss map* or *normal unit vector*  $\nu : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  is a vector field on  $\alpha$  defined by:

$$\nu(x, y) := \frac{\alpha_x \times \alpha_y}{\|\alpha_x \times \alpha_y\|}(x, y).$$

The set of vector fields  $\{\alpha_x|_p, \alpha_y|_p, \nu|_p\}$  forms a basis of  $T_p\mathbb{R}^3$  at each point  $p$  on  $\alpha$ . The Gauss map is uniquely determined up to sign as  $\alpha$  changes.

**Definition 4.3.7** (Gauss formula,  $\Gamma_{ij}^k, L_{ij}$ ). Let  $\alpha : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  be a regular surface. Define indexed families of smooth functions  $\{\Gamma_{ij}^k\}_{i,j,k=1}^2$  and  $\{L_{ij}\}_{i,j=1}^2$  by the Gauss formula

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_{xx} &= \Gamma_{11}^1 \alpha_x + \Gamma_{11}^2 \alpha_y + L_{11} \nu, & \alpha_{xy} &= \Gamma_{12}^1 \alpha_x + \Gamma_{12}^2 \alpha_y + L_{12} \nu, \\ \alpha_{yx} &= \Gamma_{21}^1 \alpha_x + \Gamma_{21}^2 \alpha_y + L_{21} \nu, & \alpha_{yy} &= \Gamma_{22}^1 \alpha_x + \Gamma_{22}^2 \alpha_y + L_{22} \nu.\end{aligned}$$

The *Christoffel symbols* refer to eight functions  $\{\Gamma_{ij}^k\}_{i,j,k=1}^2$ . The Christoffel symbols and  $L_{ij}$  do depend on  $\alpha$ .

We can easily check the symmetry  $\Gamma_{ij}^k = \Gamma_{ji}^k$  and  $L_{ij} = L_{ji}$ . Also,

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_X Y &= X^i \partial_i (Y^j \alpha_j) \\ &= X^i (\partial_i Y^j) \alpha_j + X^i Y^j \partial_i \alpha_j \\ &= (X^i \partial_i Y^j + X^i Y^j \Gamma_{ij}^k) \alpha_k + X^i Y^j L_{ij} \nu.\end{aligned}$$

## Differentiation of normal vector

The partial derivative  $\partial_X \nu$  is a tangent vector field since

$$\langle \partial_X \nu, \nu \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \partial_X \langle \nu, \nu \rangle = 0.$$

Therefore, we can define the following useful operator.

**Definition 4.3.8.** Let  $S$  be a regular surface embedded in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . The *shape operator* is  $S : \mathfrak{X}(S) \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}(S)$  defined as

$$S(X) := -\partial_X \nu.$$

**Proposition 4.3.9.** The shape operator is self-adjoint, i.e. symmetric.

*Proof.* Recall that  $\partial_X Y - \partial_Y X$  is a tangent vector field. Then,

$$\langle X, S(Y) \rangle = \langle X, -\partial_Y \nu \rangle = \langle \partial_Y X, \nu \rangle = \langle \partial_X Y, \nu \rangle = \langle S(X), Y \rangle. \quad \square$$

**Theorem 4.3.10.** Let  $\alpha : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  be a regular surface and  $S$  be the shape operator. Then  $S$  has the coordinate representation

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} g_{11} & g_{12} \\ g_{21} & g_{22} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} L_{11} & L_{12} \\ L_{21} & L_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

with respect to the frame  $\{\alpha_x, \alpha_y\}$  for tangent spaces. In other words, if we let  $X = X^i \alpha_i$  and  $S(X) = S(X)^j \alpha_j$ , then

$$\begin{pmatrix} S(X)^1 \\ S(X)^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} g_{11} & g_{12} \\ g_{21} & g_{22} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} L_{11} & L_{12} \\ L_{21} & L_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X^1 \\ X^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

*Proof.* Let  $S(X)^j = S_i^j X^i$ . Then,

$$g_{ik} X^i S_j^k Y^j = \langle X, S(Y) \rangle = \langle \partial_X Y, \nu \rangle = X^i Y^j L_{ij}$$

implies  $g_{ik} S_j^k = L_{ij}$ .  $\square$

# Chapter 5

## Fundamental forms

### 5.1 Riemannian metrics

### 5.2 Gaussian curvatures

Theorema egregium surfaces of constant gaussian curvature

**Definition 5.2.1.** Let  $\alpha : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  be a regular surface.

$$\begin{aligned} E &:= \langle \alpha_x, \alpha_x \rangle = g_{11}, & F &:= \langle \alpha_x, \alpha_y \rangle = g_{12}, & G &:= \langle \alpha_y, \alpha_y \rangle = g_{22}, \\ L &:= \langle \alpha_{xx}, \nu \rangle = L_{11}, & M &:= \langle \alpha_{xy}, \nu \rangle = L_{12}, & N &:= \langle \alpha_{yy}, \nu \rangle = L_{22}. \end{aligned}$$

**Corollary 5.2.2.** We have  $GM - FN = EM - FL$ , and the Weingarten equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \nu_x &= \frac{FM - GL}{EG - F^2} \alpha_x + \frac{FL - EM}{EG - F^2} \alpha_y, \\ \nu_y &= \frac{FN - GM}{EG - F^2} \alpha_x + \frac{FM - EN}{EG - F^2} \alpha_y. \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 5.2.3.**

$$\Gamma_{ij}^l = \frac{1}{2} g^{kl} (g_{ik,j} - g_{ij,k} + g_{kj,i}).$$

$$\frac{1}{2} (\log g)_x = \Gamma_{11}^1.$$

$$\nu_x \times \nu_y = K \sqrt{\det g} \, \nu.$$

$$\alpha_x \times \alpha_y = \sqrt{\det g} \, \nu$$

$$\langle \nu_x \times \nu_y, \alpha_x \times \alpha_y \rangle = \det \begin{pmatrix} \langle \nu_x, \alpha_x \rangle & \langle \nu_x, \alpha_y \rangle \\ \langle \nu_y, \alpha_x \rangle & \langle \nu_y, \alpha_y \rangle \end{pmatrix} = \det \begin{pmatrix} -L & -M \\ -M & -N \end{pmatrix} = K \det g$$

**5.1 (Gaussian curvature formula).** (a) In general,

$$K = \frac{LN - M^2}{EG - F^2}.$$

(b) For orthogonal coordinates such that  $F \equiv 0$ ,

$$K = -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{\det g}} \left( \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det g}} E_y \right)_y + \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det g}} G_x \right)_x \right).$$

(c) For  $f(x, y, z) = 0$ ,

$$K = -\frac{1}{|\nabla f|^4} \begin{vmatrix} 0 & \nabla f \\ \nabla f^T & \text{Hess}(f) \end{vmatrix},$$

where  $\nabla f$  denotes the gradient  $\nabla f = (f_x, f_y, f_z)$ .

(d) (Beltrami-Enneper) If  $\tau$  is the torsion of an asymptotic curve, then

$$K = -\tau^2.$$

(e) (Brioschi)  $E, F, G$  describes  $K$ .

*Proof.* (a) Clear.

(b) We have  $GM = EM$  and

$$\begin{aligned} v_x &= -\frac{L}{E}\alpha_x - \frac{M}{G}\alpha_y, & v_y &= -\frac{M}{E}\alpha_x - \frac{N}{G}\alpha_y. \\ v_x \times v_y &= \frac{LN - M^2}{EG}\alpha_x \times \alpha_y \end{aligned}$$

After curvature tensors...

□

**5.2** (Computation of Gaussian curvatures). (a) (Monge's patch) For  $(x, y, f(x, y))$ ,

$$K = \frac{f_{xx}f_{yy} - f_{xy}^2}{(1 + f_x^2 + f_y^2)^2}.$$

(b) (Surface of revolution). Let  $\gamma(t) = (r(t), z(t))$  be a plane curve with  $r(t) > 0$ . If  $t \mapsto (r(t), z(t))$  is a unit-speed curve, then

$$K = -\frac{r''}{r}.$$

(c) (Models of hyperbolic planes)

*Proof.* (b) Let

$$\alpha(\theta, t) = (r(t)\cos\theta, r(t)\sin\theta, z(t))$$

be a parametrization of a surface of revolution. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_\theta &= (-r(t)\sin\theta, r(t)\cos\theta, 0) \\ \alpha_t &= (r'(t)\cos\theta, r'(t)\sin\theta, z'(t)) \\ v &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{r'(t)^2 + z'(t)^2}}(z'(t)\cos\theta, z'(t)\sin\theta, -r'(t)), \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{\theta\theta} &= (-r(t)\cos\theta, -r(t)\sin\theta, 0) \\ \alpha_{\theta t} &= (-r'(t)\sin\theta, r'(t)\cos\theta, 0) \\ \alpha_{tt} &= (r''(t)\cos\theta, r''(t)\sin\theta, z''(t)). \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have

$$E = r(t)^2, \quad F = 0, \quad G = r'(t)^2 + z'(t)^2,$$

and

$$L = -\frac{r(t)z'(t)}{\sqrt{r'(t)^2 + z'(t)^2}}, \quad M = 0, \quad N = \frac{r''(t)z'(t) - r'(t)z''(t)}{\sqrt{r'(t)^2 + z'(t)^2}}.$$

Therefore,

$$K = \frac{LN - M^2}{EG - F^2} = \frac{z'(r'z'' - r''z')}{r(r'^2 + z'^2)^2}.$$

In particular, if  $t \mapsto (r(t), z(t))$  is a unit-speed curve, then

$$K = -\frac{r''}{r}.$$

□

**5.3 (Local isomorphism).** Surfaces of the same constant Gaussian curvature are locally isomorphic.

*Proof.* Let

$$\begin{pmatrix} \|\alpha_r\|^2 & \langle \alpha_r, \alpha_t \rangle \\ \langle \alpha_t, \alpha_r \rangle & \|\alpha_t\|^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & h(r, t)^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

be the first fundamental form for a geodesic coordinate chart along a geodesic curve so that  $\alpha_{tt}$  and  $\alpha_{rr}$  are normal to the surface. Then,

$$K = -\frac{h_{rr}}{h}$$

is constant. Also, since

$$\frac{1}{2}(h^2)_r + \langle \alpha_r, \alpha_{tt} \rangle = \langle \alpha_{rt}, \alpha_t \rangle + \langle \alpha_r, \alpha_{tt} \rangle = \langle \alpha_r, \alpha_t \rangle_t = 0$$

implies  $h_r = 0$  at  $r = 0$ , the function  $f : r \mapsto h(r, t)$  satisfies the following initial value problem

$$f_{rr} = -Kf, \quad f(0) = 1, \quad f'(0) = 0.$$

Therefore,  $h$  is uniquely determined by  $K$ .

□

## Chapter 6

## **Part III**

# **Riemann surfaces**

## Chapter 7

# Riemann-Roch theorem

Let  $X$  be a compact Riemann surface. Consider a vector space  $\mathcal{M}^\times(X) \cup \{0\}$ .

$$L(D) := H^0(X, \mathcal{O}(D)) = \{f \in \mathcal{M}^\times(X) : (f) + D \geq 0\} \cup \{0\}.$$

$$\text{Div}(X) = H^0(X, \mathcal{M}^\times / \mathcal{O}^\times) = \Gamma(\mathcal{M}^\times / \mathcal{O}^\times).$$

$$\text{Pic}(X) = H^1(X, \mathcal{O}^\times).$$

First Chern class  $H^1(X, \mathcal{O}^\times) \rightarrow H^2(X, \mathbb{Z})$ .

**7.1.** Let  $X$  be a compact Riemann surface. A *Weil divisor*  $D$  on  $X$  is an element of the free abelian group  $\text{Div}(X)$  generated by points of  $X$ . By compactness of  $X$ , a meromorphic function  $f \in \mathcal{M}(X)$  gives rise to a divisor  $(f) := \sum_{p \in X} \text{ord}_p(f)p$ . Such a divisor is called a *principal divisor*.

Let  $D = \sum n_i p_i$  on  $X$  be a Weil divisor on  $X$ . Each point  $P \in X$  has a meromorphic function  $f$  on an open neighborhood  $U$  of  $P$  such that  $(f) = D$  on  $U$ . It implies that there is a collection  $\{f_\alpha\}$  of meromorphic functions  $f_\alpha$  defined on  $U_\alpha$ , where  $\{U_\alpha\}$  is an open cover of  $X$ , such that  $f_\alpha/f_\beta$  is a well-defined holomorphic functions on  $U_\alpha \cap U_\beta$ . The collection  $\{f_\alpha\}$  is called a *Cartier divisor*.

A Cartier divisor defines a line bundle.

**7.2.** Given  $\{p_i\}_{i=1}^n$  points and  $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^n$  principal parts, there is a meromorphic function  $f$  with pre-described principal parts if and only if for every holomorphic 1-form  $\omega$  we have  $\sum_{i=1}^n \text{Res}(f_i \omega, p_i) = 0$ .

**7.3.**

$$l(D) - l(K - D) = \deg(D) + 1 - g.$$

The genus can be defined by  $g = h^0(X, \Omega^1)$ . For algebraic curves, it can be proved as follows: Assuming the Serre duality, we have  $\chi(D) = h^0(D) - h^1(D) = l(D) - l(K - D)$  and  $\chi(0) = h^0(0) - h^1(0) = 1 - g$ . Then, the Riemann-Roch is boiled down to  $\chi(D) = \deg(D) + \chi(0)$ , which can be shown inductively.

However, we want to prove a compact Riemann surface is projective as an application of the Riemann-Roch theorem, we need to prove the Riemann-Roch theorem without theory of algebraic curves.

(a) If  $\deg D < 0$ , then  $l(D) = 0$ .

*Proof.* (a) Let  $f \in L(D) \setminus \{0\}$ . Then,  $(f) + D \geq 0$  and  $\deg(f) = 0$  imply  $\deg D \geq 0$ , which is a contradiction.

(b) Let  $D = 0$ . Then, it follows from  $l(K) = g$  and  $l(0) = 1$ .



Let  $D > 0$ . We may assume  $D = \sum_{i=1}^n n_i p_i$  with  $n_i > 0$ . (why?) Let

$$V_i := \left\{ \sum_{k=-n_i}^{-1} c_k (z - p_i)^k : c_k \in \mathbb{C} \right\}$$

and  $V := \bigoplus_{i=1}^n V_i$ . (how can we define the principal part of  $f$  on Riemann surface?) Then,  $\dim V = \deg D$ . Define  $L(D) \rightarrow V$  by principal part at each point  $p_i$ . □

**7.4 (Embedding theorem).** Let  $X$  be a compact Riemann surface. The *complete linear system* of a divisor  $D$  on  $X$  is

$$|D| := \{(f) + D : f \in \mathcal{O}(X)\}.$$

Then,  $|D|$  can be identified with the projective space  $(L(D) \setminus \{0\})/\mathbb{C}^\times = \mathbb{CP}^{l(D)-1}$ . Let  $(f_i)_{i=0}^{l(D)-1}$  be a basis of  $L(D)$ .

For a linear system  $\Delta$  of projective dimension  $n-1$ , we can take (how?) a basis  $(f_i)_{i=0}^{n-1}$  such that the following map is well-defined:

$$X \setminus \text{Bl}(\Delta) \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^{n-1} : p \mapsto (f_0 : \cdots : f_{n-1}).$$

## Chapter 8

# Algebraic curves

### 8.1

multiplicities, Bezout theorem

### 8.2

divisors, line bundles euler characteristic (tangent line bundle degree  $2-2g$ , canonical line bundle  $2g-2$ )

$$L(D) := \Gamma(X, \mathcal{O}(D)) = H^0(X, \mathcal{O}(D))$$

Jacobian variety (moduli spaces....)

**8.1** (Chow theorem). A complex submanifold of a projective space is algebraic.

## Chapter 9

# Uniformization

The uniformization theorem provides one philosophy to classify compact Riemann surfaces. The universal covering is one of the three: the Riemann sphere, the complex plane, and the open unit disk. Each compact Riemann surface is realized as a quotient of these model space with a properly discontinuous action.

- $g = 0$ : Riemann sphere (spherical)  $\rightarrow$  Riemann sphere itself
- $g = 1$ : complex plane (Euclidean)  $\rightarrow$  elliptic curves
- $g \geq 2$ : open unit disk (hyperbolic)  $\rightarrow$  hyperbolic surfaces, classified by Fuchsian groups (with which properties?)

## **Part IV**

# **Topological surfaces**

## Chapter 10

# Fundamental groups

### 10.1 Homotopy

**10.1.** A *homotopy of paths* is a continuous map  $h : I \times I \rightarrow X$  such that  $h(0, \cdot) = x_0$  and

- (a) linear homotopy
- (b) reparametrization

**10.2.** The fundamental group is a group composition

**10.3** (Van Kampen theorem).

### 10.2 Covering spaces

**10.4** (Unique path lifting property). Let  $p : Y \rightarrow X$  be a covering map. For a path  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$  and a point  $y_0 \in Y$  such that  $p(y_0) = \gamma(0)$ , there is a unique lift  $\tilde{\gamma} : I \rightarrow Y$  of  $\gamma$  such that  $\tilde{\gamma}(0) = y_0$ .

As a corollary, if  $\gamma_0$  and  $\gamma_1$  are end-fixing homotopic and have lifts  $\tilde{\gamma}_0$  and  $\tilde{\gamma}_1$  such that  $\tilde{\gamma}_0(0) = \tilde{\gamma}_1(0)$ , then  $\tilde{\gamma}_0$  and  $\tilde{\gamma}_1$  are basepoint-preserving homotopic.

As a corollary, for  $p(y_0) = x_0$ , the induced map  $p_* : \pi_1(Y, y_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$  is injective.

*Proof.* (Uniqueness) The interval  $[0, 1]$  can be replaced to any connected set.

(Existence) By the compactness of  $[0, 1]$ , there is an increasing finite sequence  $(t_i)_{i=0}^n$  such that

$$t_0 = 0, \quad t_n = 1, \quad [t_i, t_{i+1}] \subset \gamma^{-1}(U_i), \quad 0 \leq i < n,$$

where  $U_i$  is trivializing  $p$ .

□

**10.5** (Universal covering). connected, locally path connected, semi-locally simply connected

**10.6** (Classification of covering spaces). connected, locally path connected, semi-locally simply connected

We say  $p$  is *regular* if  $p_*(\pi_1(Y, y_0))$  is normal in  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ .

$\pi_1(X, x_0)/p_*(\pi_1(Y, y_0)) \rightarrow p^{-1}(x_0)$  is always injective, and bijective if  $Y$  is path connected.

Examples:  $S^1$ ,  $\mathbb{RP}^n$ .

## Chapter 11

# Homology groups

### 11.1 Singular homology

11.1 (Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms).

### 11.2 Simplicial homology

Simplicial homology is defined for simplicial complex, which is purely combinatorial. The singular chain complex of a topological space is the most natural simplicial complex on it. The simplicial homology of this is the singular homology as it is just the definition.

One can associate some other simplicial complexes by *triangulations* to a topological space which are more convenient to compute the homology. We now have to investigate which conditions make a simplicial complex generate same homology groups with singular homology.

Let  $X$  be a simplicial complex. A *geometric realization* of  $X$  is a topological space  $|X|$  defined by.... For a topological space, a *triangulation* is a homeomorphism from the geometric realization of a simplicial complex to the topological space.

### 11.3 Cellular homology

### 11.4 Cohomology

## Chapter 12

# Classification of surfaces

### 12.1 Combinatorial surfaces

triangulation orientability euler characteristic genus connected sum