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## Section 1. Munkres Chapter 2

## 12. Topological space

## 1.1 Definition: Topology

A *topology* on a set X is a set of  $\mathcal{T}$  of subsets of X having the following properties:

- (a)  $\varnothing, X \in \mathcal{T}$ .
- (b) The union of any subset of  $\mathcal{T}$  is in  $\mathcal{T}$ .
- (c) The intersection of any finite subset of  $\mathcal{T}$  is in  $\mathcal{T}$ .

A set X for which a topology  $\mathcal{T}$  has been specified is called a **topological space**. We say  $U \subset X$  is an **open set** if  $U \subset \mathcal{T}$ .

**Example 1.2** A topology  $\mathcal{T} = \{\varnothing, X\}$  is called the *indiscrete topology* or *trivial topology*. On the other hand, if  $\mathcal{T} = P(X)$ , then it is called the *discrete topology* 

**Example 1.3** Let X ba a set,  $\mathcal{T}_f$  be a set of all subset  $U \subset X$  such that  $X \setminus U$  either is finite or is all of X. Then

- (a)  $X \setminus X$  is finite and  $X \setminus \emptyset$  is X.
- (b) Suppose  $\{U_{\alpha}\}$  is an indexed family of nonempty elements of  $\mathcal{T}_f$ . Then X  $\bigcup U_{\alpha} = \bigcap (X - U_{\alpha})$  is finite.
- (c)  $X \bigcap_{i=1}^n = \bigcup_{j=1}^n (X U_\alpha)$  is finite.

Therefore,  $\mathcal{T}_f$  is a topology, called *finite complement topology*. We can replace the condition 'finite' with 'countable', and the proposition still holds.

#### 1.4 Definition

Suppose  $\mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{T}'$  are two topologies on a given set X. If  $\mathcal{T}' \supset \mathcal{T}$ , then we say that  $\mathcal{T}'$  is **finer(larger)** than  $\mathcal{T}$ , and  $\mathcal{T}$  is **coarser(smaller)** than  $\mathcal{T}'$ . Also, we say that  $\mathcal{T}$  is *comparable* with  $\mathcal{T}'$  if either  $\mathcal{T} \supset \mathcal{T}'$  or  $\mathcal{T}' \supset \mathcal{T}$ .

## 13. Basis for a topology

#### 1.5 Definition

If X is a set, a **basis** for a topology on X is a collection  $\mathcal{B}$  of subsets of X(called a basis elements) such that

- (a) For each  $x \in X$ , there is at least one basis element B containing x.
- (b) If x belongs to the intersection of two basis elements  $B_1$  and  $B_2$ , then there is a basis element  $B_3$  containing x such that  $B_3 \subset B_1 \cap B_2$ . We deine the **topology**  $\mathcal{T}$  **generated by**  $\mathcal{B}$  as follows: A subset U of X is said to be open in X if for each  $x \in U$ , there is a basis element  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in B$  and  $B \subset U$ .

**Example 1.6** Consider the set of all rectangular regions in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  without border, where each rectangular have sides parallel to the coordinate axes.

#### 1.7 Lemma

A topology is equal to the set of all union of its basis elements.

Munkres lemma 13.1

#### 1.8 Lemma

Let X be a topological space. Suppose that  $\mathcal{C}$  is a set of open sets of X such that for each  $U \subset X$  and each  $x \in U$ , there is an element  $C \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $x \in C \subset U$ .

Then C is a basis for the topology of X.

Munkres lemma 13.2

#### 1.9 Lemma

Let  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathcal{B}'$  be bases for the topologies  $\mathcal{T}$  and  $\mathcal{T}'$ , respectively, on X. TFAE:

- (a)  $\mathcal{T}'$  is finer than  $\mathcal{T}$ .
- (b) For each  $x \in X$  and each  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  containing x, there is a basis element  $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$  such that  $x \in B' \subset B$ .

Munkres lemma 13.3

#### 1.10 Definition

In  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

- (a) The set of all open interval is a basis of the **standard topology** on  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- (b) The set of all half-open([a,b)) intervals is a basis of the *lower limit topology* on  $\mathbb{R}$ , denoted by  $\mathbb{R}_l$ .
- (c) Let  $K = \{1/n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . The set of all open interval without the points in K is a basis of the **K-topology** on  $\mathbb{R}$ , denoted by  $\mathbb{R}_K$ .

### 1.11 Lemma

 $\mathbb{R}_l$  and  $\mathbb{R}_K$  are strictly finer than the standard topology on  $\mathbb{R}$ , but are not comparable with one another.

Munkres lemma 13.4

#### 1.12 Definition

A **subbasis** S for a topology on X is a collection of subsets of X whose union equals X. The **topology generated by the subbasis** S is defined to be the set T of all unions of finite intersections of elements of S.

# 14. The order topology

#### 1.13 Definition

If X is a set with the relation <, the topology derived from the basis  $\mathcal B$  of subset of X such that

- (a) All open intervals (a, b) in X;
- (b) all intervals of the form  $[a_0, b)$  in X (if the smallest element  $a_0$  exists);
- (c) all intervals of the form  $[a, b_0]$  in X (if the largest element  $b_0$  exists),

is called the order topology.

**Example 1.14** The standard topology on  $\mathbb{R}$  is a order topology.

**Example 1.15** The order topology on  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  is the discrete topology.

**Example 1.16** The basis elements for order topology of the set  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$  in the dictionary order is of the form  $(a \times b, c \times d)$  for a < c or a = c and b < d.

**Example 1.17** The order topology of the set  $X = \{1,2\} \times \mathbb{Z}^+$  in the dictionary order is not the discrete topology. Consider the basis element containing (2,1).

#### 1.18 Definition

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Suppose X is an ordered set, and  $a \in X$ . There are four subsets of X:

- (a)  $(a, +\infty) = \{x \mid x > a\}.$
- (b)  $(-\infty, a) = \{x \mid x < a\}.$
- (c)  $[a, +\infty] = \{x \mid x \ge a\}.$
- (d)  $(-\infty, a) = \{x \mid x \le a\}.$

They are called the *rays* determined by a. Sets of the first two types are called *open rays*, and sets of the last two types are called *closed rays*. The open rays form a subbasis for the order topology on X.

## 15. The product topology on $X \times Y$

#### 1.19 Definition

Let X,Y be topological spaces. The **product topology** on  $X\times Y$  is the topology having as basis the set  $\mathcal B$  of all sets of the form  $U\times V$ , where  $U\underset{\text{open}}{\subset} X$  and  $V\underset{\text{open}}{\subset} Y$ .

**Remark**  $\mathcal{B}$  is not a topology on  $X \times Y$ .

### 1.20 Theorem

If  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis for the topology of X and  $\mathcal{C}$  is a basis for the topology of Y, then the set  $\mathcal{D} = \{B \times C \mid B \in \mathcal{B}, C \in \mathcal{C}\}$  is a basis for the topology of  $X \times Y$ .

Munkres theorem 15.1

#### 1.21 Definition

Define  $\pi_1: X \times Y \to X$  by the equation  $\pi_1(x,y) = x$ , and define  $\pi_2: X \times Y \to Y$  by  $\pi_2(x,y) = y$ . The maps are called the **projection** of  $X \times Y$  onto its first and second factors, respectively.

#### 1.22 Theorem

 $\mathcal{S} = \{\pi_1^{-1}(U) \mid U \underset{\text{open}}{\subset} X\} \cup \{\pi_2^{-1}(V) \mid V \underset{\text{open}}{\subset} Y\} \text{ is a subbasis for the product topology on } X \times Y.$ 

Munkres theorem 15.2

#### 1.23 Definition

Let X be a topological space with a topology  $\mathcal{T}$ . If  $Y \subset X$ ,  $\mathcal{T}_Y = \{Y \cap U \mid U \in \mathcal{T}\}$  is a topology on Y, called the **subspace topology**. With this topology, Y is called a subspace of X.

#### 1.24 Lemma

If  $\mathcal{B}$  is a basis for the topology on X, then the set  $\mathcal{B}_Y = \{B \cap Y \mid B \in \mathcal{B}\}$  is a basis for the subspace topology on Y.

Munkres lemma 16.1

We say  $U \subset Y$  is open in(or open relative to)Y if  $U \subset \mathcal{T}_Y$ .

#### 1.25 Lemma

Let Y be a subspace of X. If U is open in Y and Y is open in X, then U is open in X.

**Proof)** Munkres lemma 16.2

#### 1.26 Theorem

Suppose A is a subspace of X and B is a subspace of Y. Then the product topology of  $A \times B$  is same as the subspace topology of  $A \times B$ .

Proof) Munkres lemma 16.3

**Example 1.27** Suppose Y = [0,1] is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then the subspace topology of Y and the order topology on [0,1] are same.

**Example 1.28** Let  $Y = [0,1) \cup \{2\}$ . If Y is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}$ , then  $\{2\}$  is open in the subspace topology on  $Y(\text{since }(3/2,5/2) \cap \{2\} = \{2\})$ . But  $\{2\}$  is not open in the order topology on  $Y(\text{since }\{2\} \text{ must be in the set of the form }(a,2])$ .

**Example 1.29** Let I = [0,1] and  $I \times I$  be of the dictionary order on  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ . Then its subspace topology and its order topology are not same. Consider the set  $\{1/2\} \times (1/2,1]$ , which is open in  $I \times I$  in the subspace topology, but not in order topology.

#### 1.30 Theorem

Let X be an ordered set in the order topology, and let Y be a subset of X that is convex in X. Then the order topology on Y is the same as the topology Y inherits as a subspace of X.

#### Munkres theorem 16.4

## 17. Closed sets and limit points

#### 1.31 Definition

Let X be a topological space with topology  $\mathcal{T}$ . By a *closed* set, we mean a subset A of X that is A = X - B for some  $B \in \mathcal{T}$ .

**Example 1.32** In the discrete topology on the set *X*, every set is open and closed.

**Example 1.33** Consider the set  $Y = [0,1] \cup (2,3)$ . Both interval [0,1] and (2,3) are open and closed.

#### 1.34 Theorem

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Let X be a topological space. Then

- (a)  $\varnothing$  and X are closed.
- (b) Arbitrary intersections of closed sets are closed.
- (c) Finite unions of closed sets are closed.

**Proof)** Clear by the definition of open set and DeMorgan's law.

#### 1.35 Theorem

Let Y be a subspace of X. Then a set A is *closed in* Y if and only if it equals the intersection of a closed set of X with Y.

**Proof)** Munkres theorem 17.2

## 1.36 Proposition

Let Y be a subspace of X. If A is closed in Y and Y is closed in X, then A is closed in X.

#### 1.37 Definition

Given a subset A of a topological space X, the *interior*(denoted by IntA) of A is defined as the union of all open sets contained in A, and the *closure*(denoted by ClA or  $\overline{A}$ ) of A is defined as the intersection of all closed sets containing A.

#### 1.38 Theorem

Let Y be a subspace of X, let A be a subset of Y, let  $\overline{A}$  denote the closure of A in X. Then the closure of A in Y equals  $\overline{A} \cap Y$ .

**Proof)** Munkres theorem 17.5

*A* intersects *B* if  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ .

#### 1.39 Theorem

Let A be a subset of the topological space X.

- (a)  $x \in \overline{A} \iff$  every open set U containing x intersects A.
- (b)  $x \in \overline{A} \iff$  every basis element B containing x intersects A.

Proof) Munkres p96

We can shorten the statement "U is an open set containing x" to the phrase "U is a **neighborhood** of x".

#### 1.40 Definition

Let X be a topological space, and suppose  $x \in A \subset X$ . Then x is called a *limit(or cluster or accumulation) point* of A if every neighborhood of x intersects A in some points other than x. A' denote the set of all limit points of A.

#### 1.41 Theorem

Let X be a topological space, and suppose  $A \subset X$ . Then  $\overline{A} = A \cup A'$ .

**Proof)** Munkres theorem 17.6

## 1.42 Corollary

Let X be a topological space, and suppose  $A \subset X$ . Then A is closed  $\iff A' \subset A$ .

**Proof)** Munkres corollary 17.7

#### 1.43 Definition

If X is a topological space, a sequence of points of X is called **converge** to  $x \in X$  if for each neighborhood U of x, there exists a positivie integer N such that  $x_n \in U$  whenever  $n \geq N$ .

Remark In general topological space,

- (a) A one point set in the space need not be closed.
- (b) A sequence of points of the space can converge to more than one point.

#### 1.44 Definition

A topological space X is called a **Hausdorff space** if for each pair  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$  of distinct points of X, there exist neighborhoods  $U_1$ , and  $U_2$  of  $x_2$ , respectively, that are disjoint.

#### 1.45 Theorem

Every finite point set in a Hausdorff space *X* is closed.

**Proof)** Munkres theorem 17.8

#### 1.46 Theorem

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Let X be a space satisfying the  $T_1$  axiom(that is, finite set in X closed); let A be a subset of X. Then the point x is a limit point of A if and only if every neighborhood of x contains infinitely many points of A.

**Proof)** Munkres theorem 17.9

#### 1.47 Theorem

If X is a Hausdorff space, then a sequence of points of X converges to at most one point of X.

**Proof)** Munkres theorem 17.10

### 1.48 Definition

If a sequence  $x_n$  of points of the Hausdorff space X converges to the point x of X, we write  $x_n \to x$ , and we say that x is the *limit* of th sequence  $x_n$ .

#### 1.49 Theorem

- (a) Every simply ordered set is a Hausdorff set space in the order topology.
- (b) The product of two Hausdorff spaces is a Hausdorff space.
- (c) A subspace of a Hausdorff space is a Hausdorff space

**Proof)** Exercise.

## 22. The quotient topology

### 1.50 Definition

Let X and Y be topological spaces; let  $p:X\to Y$  be a surjective map. p is said to be a *quotient map* if

$$U \subset Y \iff p^{-1}(U) \subset X$$
.

#### 1.51 Definition

Let X and Y be topological spaces; let  $p:X\to Y$  be surjective. A subset  $C\subset X$  is *saturated* if

$$f^{-1}f(C) = C$$

## 1.52 Proposition

TFAE:

- (a)  $p: X \to Y$  is a quotient map.
- (b) p is continuous and maps saturated open sets of X to open sets of Y.
- (c) p is continuous and maps saturated closed sets of X to closed sets of Y.

#### 1.53 Definition

A map f from a space to a space is **open(closed) map** if f maps each open(closed) sets in domain to open(closed) sets in codomain.

## 1.54 Proposition

If  $p:X\to Y$  is a surjective continuous map that is either open or closed, then p is a quotient map.

#### 1.55 Definition

Let X be a space, A a set, and  $p:X\to A$  surjective map. There exists exactly one topology  $\mathcal T$  on A relative to which p is a quotient map. It is called the **quotient topology** induced by p.  $\mathcal T=\{U\in P(A):p^{-1}(A)\underset{\mathrm{open}}{\subset}X\}.$ 

#### 1.56 Definition

Let

- (a) X be a topological space;
- (b)  $X^*$  be a partition of X into disjoint subsets whose uinon is X;
- (c)  $p: X \to X^*$  be the surjective map that carries each point of X to the element of  $X^*$  containing it.

In the quotient topology induced by p, the space  $X^*$  is called a **quotient space** of X.

This can be viewed from a different perspective. For  $U \subset X^*$ ,  $p^{-1}(U)$  is a collection of equivalence classes whose union is open in X.

#### 1.57 Theorem

Let  $p: X \to Y$  be a quotient map; let A be a subspace of X that is saturated with respect to p; let  $q: A \to p(A)$  be the map obtained by restricting p.

- (a) If A is either open or closed in X, then q is quotient map.
- (b) If p is either an open map or a closed map, then q is a quotient map.

**Proof)** Munkres p140

## Section 2. Munkres Chapter 3

## 24. Connected subspace of the real line

#### 2.1 Theorem: Intermediate value theorem

Let  $f: X \to Y$  be a continuous map, where X is a connected space and Y is an ordered set in the order topology. If f(a) < r < f(b), there exists a point  $c \in X$  such that f(c) = r.

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Proof) Munkres p154

## 25. Components and local connectedness

#### 2.2 Definition

Given X, define an equivalence relation on X by setting  $x \sim y$  if there is a connected subspace(or path) X containing both x and y. The equivalence classes are called the *components(or path components)* of X.

#### 2.3 Theorem

The (path) components of X are (path) connected disjoint subspaces of X whose union is X such that each nonempty (path) connected subspace of X itersects only one of them.

Proof) Munkres p159,p160

#### 2.4 Definition

A space X is said to be *locally (path) connected at x* if for every neighborhood U of x, there is a (path) connected neighborhood V of x contained in U.

#### 2.5 Theorem

A space x is locally (path) connected if and only if for every open set U of X, each (path) components of U is open in X.

Proof) Munkres 161

#### 2.6 Theorem

If X is a topological space, each path components of X lies in a component of X. If X is locally path connected, then the components and the path components of X are the same.

# Section 3. Munkres Chapter 9

## 51. Homotopy of paths

### 3.1 Definition

By the *unit interval* I, we mean the closed interval [0,1].

#### 3.2 Theorem

The unit interval has the following properties:

- (a) I is a complete metric space. The metric on I is given by d(x,y) = |x-y|.
- (b) I is compact, contractible, path connected, and locally path connected.

### 3.3 Definition: Homotopic

Let X,Y be topological spaces and  $f,f':X\to Y$  continuous. We say that f is **homotopic** to f' if there is a continuous map  $F:X\times I\to Y$  such that

$$F(x,0) = f(x)$$
 and  $F(x,1) = f'(x)$ 

for each x. The map F is called a **homotopy** between f and f', denoted by  $f \simeq f'$ . In this case, if f' is constant, we say that f is **nulhomotopic**.

#### 3.4 Definition: Path

If a map  $f:[0,1]\to X$  is continuous,  $f(0)=x_0$ , and  $f(1)=x_1$ , then we say f is a **path** in X from initial point  $x_0$  to final point  $x_1$ .

## 3.5 Definition: Path homotopic

Two path  $f, f': [0,1] = I \to X$  are said to be **path homotopic** if thay have the same initial point  $x_0$  and the same point  $x_1$ , and if there is a continuous map  $F: I \times I \to x$  such that

$$F(s,0) = f(s)$$
 and  $F(s,1) = f'(s)$ ,

$$F(0,t) = x_0$$
 and  $F(1,t) = x_1$ ,

for each  $s \in I$  and each  $t \in I$ . We call F a **path homotopy** between f and f', denoted by  $f \simeq_{v} f'$ .

## 3.6 Proposition

 $\simeq$  and  $\simeq_p$  are equivalence relations.

- (a) (reflexive) F(x,t) = f(x).
- (b) (symetric) G(x,t) = F(x, 1-t).
- (c) (transitive)  $G(x,t)= \begin{cases} F(x,2t) & \text{for } t\in[0,\frac{1}{2}] \\ F'(x,2t-1) & \text{for } t\in[\frac{1}{2},1] \end{cases}$ . By pasting lemma, G is continuous.

**Example 3.7** Let f,g be any map of a space X into  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . The map F(x,t)=(1-t)f(x)+tg(x) is called a **straight-line homotopy**. More generally, let A be any convex subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then any two path f,g in A from  $x_0$  to  $x_1$  are path homotopic in A.

**Example 3.8** Let X denote the *punctured plane*,  $\mathbb{R}^2\{0\}$ , and let

$$f(s) = (\cos \phi s, \sin \phi s),$$

$$g(s) = (\cos \phi s, 2\sin \phi s),$$

$$h(s) = (\cos \phi s, -\sin \phi s)$$

Then  $f \simeq g$ , but f, h are not path homotopic.

#### 3.9 Definition

If f is a path in X from  $x_0$  to  $x_1$ , and if g is a path in X from  $x_1$  to  $x_2$ , we define the **product** f \* g of f and g to be the path h given by the equations

$$h(s) = \begin{cases} f(2s) & \text{for } s \in [0, \frac{1}{2}] \\ g(2s - 1) & \text{for } s \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1] \end{cases}$$

### 3.10 Lemma

The product operation on path-homotopy classes is well-defined by the equation [f] \* [g] = [f \* g].

**Proof)** Let F and G be the path homotopy between f,f' and g,g' respectively. Define  $H(s,t) = \begin{cases} F(2s,t) & \text{for } s \in [0,\frac{1}{2}] \\ G(2s-1,t) & \text{for } s \in [\frac{1}{2},1] \end{cases}$ . Then H is well-defined; and continuous by the pasting lemma; that is, it is a path homotopy between f\*g and f'\*g'.  $\square$ 

#### **3.11 Lemma**

Suppose

- (a)  $k: X \to Y$  is a continuous map;
- (b) F is a path homotopy in X between the paths f and f'.

Then  $k \circ F$  is a path homotopy in Y between the paths  $k \circ f$  and  $k \circ f'$ .

#### 3.12 Lemma

Suppose

- (a)  $k: X \to Y$  is a continuous map;
- (b) f and g are paths in X with f(1) = g(0).

Then

$$k \circ (f * g) = (k \circ f) * (k \circ g).$$

The proof is trivial.

#### 3.13 Lemma

If [a,b] and [c,d] are two intervals in  $\mathbb R$ , there are unique numbers  $m,k\in\mathbb R$  that define the map  $p:[a,b]\to [c,d]$ , given by p(x)=mx+k. We call it the **positive** *linear map* of [a,b] to [c,d]. This concept is closed under the inverse map and composition of maps.

 $e_x: I \to X$  denote the constant path given by  $e_x = x$ .

 $i: I \to I$  denote the identity map given by i(s) = s for all  $s \in I$ .

### 3.14 Theorem

The operation \* has the following properties:

- (a) (associativity) If [f]\*([g]\*[h]) is defined, then so is ([f]\*[g])\*[h], and they are equal.
- (b) (right and left identities) Let  $e_x:I\to X$  denote the constant path given by  $e_x=x.$  If f is a path from  $x_0$  to  $x_1$ , then

$$[f] * [e_{x_1}] = [f]$$
 and  $[e_{x_0}] * [f] = [f]$ .

(c) (inverse) Given the path f in X from  $x_0$  to  $x_1$ , let  $\overline{f}$  be the path defined by  $\overline{f}(s) = f(1-s)$ . It is called the *reverse* of f. Then

$$[f] * [\overline{f}] = [e_{x_0}]$$
 and  $[\overline{f}] * [f] = [e_{x_1}].$ 

**Proof)** To prove (1), define a map  $k_{a,b}: I \to I \quad 0 < a < b < 1$  as follows:

- (a) A positive linear map of [0, a] to I followed by f;
- (b) a positive linear map of [a, b] to I followed by g;
- (c) a positive linear map of [b, 1] to I followed by h.

For 0 < c < d < 1,  $k_{c,d} \simeq_p k_{a,b}$ . Define  $p: I \to I$  as follows:

- (a) A positive linear map of [0, a] to [0, c];
- (b) a positive linear map of [a, b] to [c, d];
- (c) a positive linear map of [b, 1] to [d, 1].

If  $i:I\to I$  is the identity map, then  $p\simeq_p i$ . Suppose P is a path-homotopy in I between p and i. Then  $k_{c,d}\circ P$  is a path-homotopy in X between  $k_{a,b}$  and  $k_{c,d}$ . Since  $f*(g*h)=k_{a,b}$  where a=1/2 and b=3/4, and  $(f*g)*h=k_{c,d}$  where c=1/4 and d=1/2, the associativity property holds.

To prove (2), since I is convex, we see that  $[e_0 * i] = [i]$ . By the provious lemma,  $f \circ i$  and  $f \circ (e_0 * i)$  are path-homotopic Consequently,

$$[f] = [f \circ i] = [f \circ e_0 * i] = [(f \circ e_0) * (f \circ i)] = [f \circ e_0] * [f \circ i] = [e_{x_0}] * [f].$$

A similar argument show that  $[f] * [e_{x_1}] = [f]$ .

To prove (3), note that  $[i*\overline{i}]=[e_0]$ . Therefore,

$$[e_{x_0}] = [f \circ e_0] = [f \circ (i * \overline{i})] = [f \circ i] * [f \circ \overline{i}] = [f] * [\overline{f}].$$

A similar argument show that  $[\overline{f}] * [f] = [e_{x_1}].$ 

## 3.15 Proposition: Exercise 1

If  $h,h':X\to Y$  are homotopic and k,k' are homotopic, then  $k\circ h$  and  $k'\circ h'$  are homotopic.

## 3.16 Proposition: Exercise 3

A space X is said to be *contractible* if the identity map  $i_X:X\to X$  is nulhomotopic.

- (a) Show that I and  $\mathbb{R}$  are contractible.
- (b) Show that a contractible space is path connected.
- (c) Show that if Y is contractible, then for any X, the set [X,Y] has a single element.
- (d) Show that if X is contractible and Y is path connected, then [X,Y] has a single element.

## 52. The fundamental group

**monomorphism**: homomorphism + injective. **epimorphism**: homomorphism + surjective.

#### 3.17 Definition

Let X be a space,  $x_0 \in X$ . A path in X that begins and ends at  $x_0$  is called a **loop** based at  $x_0$ . The set of path homotopy classes of loops based at  $x_0$ , with the operation \*, is called the **fundamental group** of X relative to the **base point**  $x_0$ . It is denoted by  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ , called the **first homotopy group** of X.

**Example 3.18** The unit ball has trivial fundamental group.

#### 3.19 Definition

Let  $\alpha$  be a path in X from  $x_0$  to  $x_1$ . We define a map  $\hat{\alpha}: \pi_1(X, x_0) \to \pi_1(X, x_1)$  by  $\hat{\alpha}([f]) = [\hat{\alpha}] * [f] * [\alpha]$ .

#### 3.20 Theorem

The map  $\hat{\alpha}$  is a group isomorphism.

**Proof)** The proof for homomorphism is trivial. To prove bijectivity, consider  $\hat{\alpha}$ .

## 3.21 Corollary

If X is path connected and  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  are two points of X, then  $\pi_1(X,x_0)$  is isomorphic to  $\pi_1(X,x_1)$ .

#### 3.22 Definition

A space X is said to be **simply connected** if it is a path-connnected space and if  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  is trivial (one-element) group for some  $x_0 \in X$ , and hense for every  $x_0 \in X$ , write  $\pi_1(X, x_0) = 0$ .

#### **3.23 Lemma**

In a simply connected space X, any two paths having the same initial and final points are path homotopic.

**Proof)** Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be two paths from  $x_0$  to  $x_1$ . Then  $[\alpha * \overline{\beta}] * [\beta] = [e_{x_0}] * [\beta]$ .

Suppose that  $h: X \to Y$  is a continuous map that  $h(x_0) = y_0$ . Then we write  $h: (X, x_0) \to (Y, y_0)$ .

#### 3.24 Definition

Let  $h:(X,x_0)\to (Y,y_0)$  be a continuous map. Define  $h_*:\pi_1(X,x_0)\to \pi_1(Y,y_0)$  by  $h_*([f])=[h\circ f]$ . The map is called the **homomorphism induced by h**, relative to the base point  $x_0$ .

**Remark**  $h_*$  depends not only on the map  $h: X \to Y$  but also on the choice of the base point  $x_0$ .

#### 3.25 Theorem

If  $h:(X,x_0)\to (Y,y_0)$  and  $k:(Y,y_0)\to (Z,z_0)$  are continuous, then  $(k\circ h)_*=k_*\circ h_*$ . If  $i:(X,x_0)\to (X,x_0)$  is the identity map, then  $i_*$  is the identity homomorphism.

**Proof)** The proof is trivial.

### 3.26 Corollary

If h is a homeomorphism, then  $h_*$  is an isomorphism.

**Proof)**  $h_*^{-1}$  is the inverse of  $h_*$ .

## 3.27 Proposition: Exercise 4

Let  $A \subset X$ ; suppose  $r: X \to A$  is a continuous map such that r(a) = a for each  $a \in A$ . (The map r is called a **retraction** of X onto A) If  $a_0 \in A$ , show that

$$r_*: \pi_1(X, a_0) \to \pi_1(A, a_0)$$

is surjective.

#### 3.28 Definition

*G* is called a *topological group* if it is both a topological space and a group such that the group operation map

$$G \times G \to G$$
,  $(x,y) \mapsto x \cdot y$ 

and the inverse map

$$G \times G, \quad x \mapsto x^{-1}$$

are continuous maps with respect to the topology on G and the product topology on  $G\times G$ .

## 3.29 Proposition: Exercise 7

Let G be a topological group with operation  $\cdot$  and identity element  $x_0$ . Let  $\Omega(G,x_0)$  denote the set of all loops in G based at  $x_0$ . If  $f,g\in\Omega(G,x_0)$ , let us define a loop  $f\otimes g$  by the rule

$$(f \otimes g)(s) = f(s) \cdot g(s).$$

- (a) Show that this operation makes the set  $\Omega(G, x_0)$  into a group.
- (b) Show that rhis operation induces a group operation  $\otimes$  on  $\pi_1(G, x_0)$ .
- (c) Show that the two group operation \* and  $\otimes$  on  $\pi_1(G,x_0)$  are the same.[Hint: Compute  $(f*e_{x_0})\otimes (e_{x_0}*g)$ ]
- (d) Show that  $\pi_1(G, x_0)$  is abelian.

## 53. Covering spaces

#### 3.30 Definition

Let  $p:E\to B$  be a continuous surjective map. The open set U of B is said to be **evenly covered** by p if the inverse image  $p^{-1}(U)$  can be written as the union of disjoint open sets  $V_\alpha$  in E such that for each  $\alpha$ , the restriction of p to  $V_\alpha$  is a homeomorphism of  $V_\alpha$  onto U. The collection  $\{V_\alpha\}$  will be called a partition of  $p^{-1}(U)$  into **slices**.

#### 3.31 Definition

Let  $p: E \to B$  be continuous and surjective. If every point b of B has a neighborhood U that is evenly covered by p, then p is called a **covering map**, and E is said to be a **covering space** of B.

## 3.32 Proposition

For each  $b \in B$ , the subspace  $p^{-1}(b)$  has the discrete topology.

Proof) Munkres p336

## 3.33 Proposition

A covering map is open.

**Example 3.34** For any space X, the identity map  $i: X \to X$  is a covering map.

### 3.35 Theorem

The map  $p: \mathbb{R} \to S^1$  given by  $p(x) = (\cos 2\pi x, \sin 2\pi x)$  is a covering map.

**Proof)** Let  $U=\{(x,y)\mid x\in (0,1],y\in (-1,1)\}$ . Then  $p^{-1}(U)$  is the union of intervals of the form  $V_n=(n-\frac{1}{4},n+\frac{1}{4})$ , for all  $n\in \mathbb{Z}$ . We easily see that  $p|\overline{V_n}$  is bijective(by IVT), and is closed(since  $\overline{V_n}$  is compact), that is, is a homeomorphism of  $\overline{V}$  with  $\overline{U}$ . In particular,  $p|V_n$  is a homeomorphism of  $V_n$  with U. Similar argument can be applied to the upper, left, down side of  $S^1$ . They cover  $S^1$  and each of them is evenly covered by p.

**Example 3.36** Let  $p: S^1 \to S^1$  be defined on the complex plane, given by  $p(z) = z^2$ . Then p is a covering map.

#### 3.37 Definition

Let  $p: E \to B$  is a *local homeomorphism* if for each  $x \in E$ , there is a neighborhood V of x such that p|V is a homeomorphism

### 3.38 Proposition

A covering map is a local homeomorphism.

**Example 3.39**  $p: \mathbb{R}_+ \to S^1$  given by  $p(x) = (\cos 2\pi x, \sin 2\pi x)$  is surjective, and local homeomorphism, but is not a covering map. This example implies that the restriction of a covering map may not be a covering map.

#### 3.40 Theorem

Let  $p: E \to B$  be a covering map. If  $B_0$  is a subspace of B, and if  $E_0 = p^{-1}(B_0)$ , then the map  $p_0: E_0 \to B_0$  obtained by restricting p is a covering map.

**Proof)** Munkres theorem 53.2

#### 3.41 Theorem

If  $p:E\to B$  and  $p':E'\to B'$  are covering maps, then  $p\times p':E\times E'\to B\times B'$  is a covering map.

**Exercise 3.1**  $T = S^1 \times S^1$  is called the *torus*. The product map  $p \times p : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to S^1 \times S^1$  is a covering map of torus by the plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

## Section 54. The fundamental group of the circle

# Lecture 0909

# 3.42 Theorem

 $x \mapsto (\cos 2\pi x, \sin 2\pi x)$  is a covering map.

Proof)

## Example 3.43

$$exp: \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$$
$$z \mapsto e^z$$

 $\mathbb{C} \simeq \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\} \simeq \mathbb{R}^+ \times S$  given by  $(x,y) \mapsto (e^x,e^{iy})$ . It is a product map of a homeomorphism  $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^+$  and a covering map  $\mathbb{R} \to S$ .

Lemma 54.1  $B=\bigcup_{j\in J}u_j$  where open sets  $u_j\subset B$  are evenly covered by p.  $I=\alpha^{-1}(u_{j_1})\cup\cdots\cup\alpha^{-1}(u_{j_N})$  since compactness of I.  $\exists 0< s_0< s_1<\cdots< s_M=1$  s.t.  $[s_i,s_{i+1}]\subset\alpha^{-1}(u_{j_k})$  for some k by Lebesque's lemma. Assume that there exists a lifting of  $\alpha$   $\tilde{\alpha}:[0,s_i]\to E$  with  $\tilde{\alpha}(0)=e_0.$   $\alpha([s_i,s_{i+1}])\subset U\subset B$  for some evenly covered open set U.